STATIC PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF SOILS



SAMEH MOHAMED ABDEL-GAWAD







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STATIC PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF SOILS

SAMEH ABDEL-GAWAD, B.Sc. (Eng)

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

MASTER OF ENGINEERING

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Newfoundland





In-situ tests play an important role in geotechnical investigations, particularly in situations where the problems of sample recovery and the consequent sample disturbance are severe idmitations.

This thesissis part of an ongoing research on pretrosters at. Henorial biversity of hericouliand. The results reported here are for two cond pretrosters, 35.6 m and 76.2 mm dismeter which were used is a static mode.

Different theoretical and experimental results are available in the literature to define the failure mechanism semoclated with the penetration resistance of comes into soils.

Strength parameters and penetrometer interaction properties of fine sand and sity clay were determined using the conventional trioxial and direct shear tests. The results were then used as the basis for theoretical prediction of the penetration resistance after explicitly accounting for penetrometer base apex mgie, penetrometer size and, roughnesser. Comparison of unit penetration resistance values, measured in controlled laboratory tests and predicted by theory subsequently penatited the suggestion of the most appropriate method for the penetrotion mechanism.

Methods for evaluating in-atto cheer strength of solls from measured cons penatration resistance are suggested. Values of shear strength parameters (C, and 4) are determined and compared with those of other investigators.

ABSTRACT

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Determination of the angle & using the theory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell (large relative depths)

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NOTATIONS

The symbols lifted below and used in this thesis generally confirm to those suggested by the American Society of Civil Engineers(Nomenlature for soil Machanics, Journal of Soil Machanics and Foundations Flyision, June 1962) and the Canadian Geotechnical Journal. They are also defined when they first appear in this thesis. SI units are used throughout.

> I - English Letters - dimensionless parameters

- width or diameter of foundation

- dimensionless parameters

- soil cohesion

- dimensionless parameter

- cone index of a standard cone

- cone index of penetration ${\tt V}_{{\tt X}}$ with cone diameter ${\tt d}_{{\tt X}}$

- base depth of foundation

- dimensionless parameter

- relative depth

CIS

7.

- depth factors for cohesion, friction and surcharge terms respectively

- void ratio

2 elastic modulus

- rigidity index

- lateral earth pressure coefficient

- at rest earth pressure coefficient

- length of foundation
- degree of roughness
- relative depth (D/B)
- exponent of shear rate factor
- Bearing capacity factors for cohesion, friction and suraharge respectively
- bearing capacity friction-surcharge factor
- penetration force
- surcharge .
- ultimate pressure on the foundation
- ultimate cone resistance
- ultimate bearing capacity, or unit penetration . . resistance
- coordinate of slip line field in r-z plane
- roughness factor
- outside radius of the penetrometer.
- water content of soil
- coordinate of the slip line fields in r-z plane
- depth to which base of cone has penetrated .
 - II Greek Letters
- base semi-apex angle
- dimensionless parameters
- angles which determine the shear surface disociated with static penetration.
 - complement to half the cone apex angle
 - soil density

1, agi ar

B, V, 0, 0

- the topmost angle of plane shear zone
- unit weight of soil

- penetrometer to soil friction angle

xxiii

- penetrometer roughness
- shape factor for cohesion, friction and surcharge terms respectively

- shape factor for friction surcharge term

- normal stress
- mean normal stress
- -'effective stress
- ^σr, σ_λ, σ_Z, ^σλZ, τ_{rZ}, τ_{rλ}

8/4

E., E., E.

0,0,0

σ1, σ2

×.

Time:

cm

um.

u?

kg

kN

kPa

- stress component for axialy symmetric case
- major, minor principal stress

- angle of internal friction for the soil

- shear stress
- shear strength
- poisson's ratio
 - III Symbols
- millimeter
- centimeter.
 - 1 meter
 - micrometer
- microinch
- kilogram
- kilonewton
 - kilopascal

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General

The phylectives of any soil investigation are to estimate a gratitizably including the extent, thickness and location of different layers and to determine the engineering properties of the layers and at the strength, permeability and compressibility, no as to choose the best site and the dost appropriate foundation design (or the chosen location. Recovery of "undisturbed" soil samples, either from trial pits or hore holes generally forms part of such site investigations. In offshore foundation studies, the presence of the yster medium and its hydrostatic head, and the underconsolidation of the surficial layers make the task of sample recovery difficult. In-situ tasts have thus become an indispensable component of offshore site investigation.

Among the in-situ methods, the penetrometer is now finding greater application in both terrestrial and underwater investigations. A variaty of cone penetration equipment have been developed for terrestrial soils (Semierst 1972) and a review of the various methods and the state-of-the-frt in different countries is given in ESOPT (1974). The penetrometer is basically a field instrument, the penetration restations of which is correlated to the soil properties. These results hupplement the laboratory resume on an isometer.

Cone penetrometer tests (CPT) in a static mode have been used for more than thirty years, mostly in Europe, in terrestrial geotechnical engineering. Use of this instrument in North Ses investigations has been reported to be successful. Static penetrometers require seabed rigs (De Nutter 1975, Zuidberg 1975) to test surficial sediments and a drill string attachment (Ferguson et al 1977) for tests inside bore holes. For site-specific foundation tudies, static penetration tests appear to be extremely relevant and useful.

One limitation associated with static penetration tests in the oceans is the need for suitable reaction rigs. With a view to developing a quick and economical way of testing surficial soils, the use of the standard "Fugro" penetromater with some modifications was suggested and a laboratory free fall penetromater was developed (Dayal 1974) { at Memorial University. There were some operational and structural problems when this penetrometer was tried at set (Jonges 1976).

The modified version of the penetrometer is 76.2 mm diameter with a 60° cone and a 625 cm² friction sleeve. A description of the penetrometer and preliminary results from its sea trials south of Newfoundland during May 1978 are reported by Chari et al (1978, 1979).

As a part of this ongoing research on penetrometers, laboratory experiments were conducted to facilitate interpretation of the output from the 76.2 mm diameter penetrometer. The study reported here relates to static tests with the stendard "Fugro" penetrometer and the 76.2 mm Memorial penetrometer. A study of the two penetrometers in a free fall mode has been made by Chaudhuri (1979).

Cone penetration tests are preferred in geotechnical studies for a "

2

1. it provides test data that are amenable to analytical

interpretation,

 it is applicable to a variety of soils ranging from sands to soft clay,

 it is similar to the behaviour of pile foundations, especially in the strain or stress path caused in the soil failure, and

 compared to other methods, the penetrometer in general is easy quick and economical to operate.

Results reported by Meyerhof (1951a), Nowatzki and Katafiath (1972, 1978), Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973, 1975) and Baligh and Vivatrat (1979) identify a number of variables which influence the penetration resistance. These are the penetrometer size, cone mgle and roughness, soil friction angle, soil compressibility and the depth of penetration. The sim of this souly is to examine the effects of these parameters and their relative influence on the two types of pheatrometers.

Recent geotechnical literature contains numerous failure mechanisms for soil and different theoretical methods to predict static penetration resistance. Among these, the theories of Meyerhol (1961a), Nowatki and Karafiath (1972) and Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973) have been videly used. The soil failure mechanism associated with static penetration resistance is one of the aspects which will be considered in detail in this investigation in relation to theore three three theoretes.

1.2 Scope of This Work

An investigation of penetrometer-soil interaction was undertaken

in order to express the static penetration resistance of soils in terms of the penetrometer base spax angle, base roughness, depth of penetration, soil cohesion and angle of shear resistance. The specific objects of this study are:

19 to delineate the fullure mechanism associated with static

2. to choose an appropriate analytical solution which satisfies the failure machinism and which will predict the static penetration resistance of soils in terms of the geometry of the penetrometer and properties of the soil.

 to evaluate the analytical method through carefully controlled laboratory penetration tests,

4. to determine the relative importance of the various parameters such as the penetrometer size, base apex angle, base roughness, angle of internal friction, compressibility of soils, saturation of soil, rate of penetration and relative depth of penetration. and

 to illustrate how in-situ atrength may be deduced from the results of cone penetration tests.

The state-of-the-art is reviewed in Chapter II. The failure mechanism associated with static penetration resistance and the theories for determining the ultimate base resistance are described. Chapter III describes the experimental program of this investigation. Analysis of the laboratory results, comparison of the measured and predicted penetration resistance, and the influence of the different variables are analyzed in Chapter IV. Finally, summary and conclusion of this investigation and recommendations for further work are presented in Chapter V.

4

CHAPTER II .

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 General

Cons penetromoters are videly used to investigate the properties of soil deposits in-situ. They are important tools in avaluating the hearing capacity of soils. Depending on the depth of penetration in relation to its site, come penetrometers can be treated as an equivalent shallow of deep foundation.

Early attempts to predict the bearing capacity of soil were based on earth pressure theory proposed by Rankine in the nineteenth century. For a strip footing on a granular material with internal friction, Rankine proposed the formula:

 $q_f = \gamma_{\phi} D \tan^4(\pi/4 + \phi/2)$

where

q. - ultimate pressure on the foundation,

Y = soil unit weight,

D = depth of burial of the foundation, and

angle of internal friction for the soil.

Bell (1915) proposed a modification to this for clay to take into account the cohesion in clay and suggested the formula as:

 $q_f = \gamma_B D \tan^4(\pi/4 + \phi/2) + 2C \tan^3(\pi/4 + \phi/2)$

+ 2C tan($\pi/4 + \phi/2$).

here C is the soil cohesion.

Experiments by Prandtl (1920) showed that the bearing capacity under a strip load on a rigid-plastic, incompressible and weightless material is:

[3

qf = CN

where

 $N_{c} = \cot\phi \left[e + \tan^{2}(\pi/4 + \phi/2) - 1 \right]$

Reisoner (1924) considered the effect of a surcharge, q, and concluded that the bearing capacity was increased by an amount qN_{q} where:

 $N_{\alpha} = e \tan^{2}(\pi/4 + \phi/2)$

A widely used bearing capacity equation which considers soil cohesion, friction and surcharge was first presented by Terzaghi (1943) as:

where

p = Overburden pressure at base level

C = soil cohesion .

B = width of the foundation

Y. = soil unit weight

 N_{c} , N_{q} and N_{γ} are the bearing capacity factors.

The values of Bearing Capacity factors N_c , N_q and N_γ are influenced by the type of failure surface assumed. It is the determination of these

factors which varies in different theories that are available. For an assumed failure mechanism and knowing the machanical properties of the penetroseter, one can determine the bearing capacity factors in terms of C and ϕ . Hence, if q_{g} measured with the penetrometer, C and ϕ can be calculated.

Various bearing capacity theories currently used will be reviewed below and each one of them will be considered in the subsequent analysis to decide the most relevant one to the series of experiments conducted.

2.2 Terzaghi's Theory

In the skulysis of the bearing capacity of shallow foundations. Terraph: (1943) assumed that the alp surface ends at the base level of the foundation (Fig. 1) and the overburden was replaced with an equivalent surcharge. The zones of plastic equilibrium can be abdivided into three scores (1), (11) and (111) as shown in the figure. Zone (1) is a weiged-shaped ione located beseath the loaded strip, in which the major principal stresses are vertical. Zone (11) is the radial shear zone, essanting on the puter edges of the loaded strip, whose boundaries intersect. Morizontal at angles of (15⁹ + 6/2). The slip line of this medial shear zone may be closely sproximated as a logarithmic spiral. Finally, zone (111) is the Ramkine passive zone.

The bearing capacity of a shalles strip foundation of width B and depth D can be represented by expression [6]. Similarly for deep foundations, Fig. 2b, forraght has indicated that the bearing capacity is approximately equal to that of shallow foundation (equation 6) with the shape of failure asyment same, but including the additional effects. of skin friction slong the foundation shaft and the shearing stress along a vertical outer boundary of the mass of soil adjacent to the fundation.

2.3 Meyerhof's Theory

Based on field observations and subsequent theoretical and inhoratory analysis. Mayerhof (1951) modified Terisghi's theory. Terisghi's theory wasgemetally found to be conservative and for deep foundations, the mobilization of the shear strength of the entire surcharge is devetful.

In an attempt to overcome these limitations, Meyerhof extended the analysis of the plastic equilibrium of a surface footing to shallow and deep foundations. According to this theory, zones of plastic equilibrium increase with foundation depth to a maximum for a deep foundation (Fig. 2 s. b). Meyerhof also indicated and illustrated how the zones of failure are influenced by the shape and the roughness of the foundation.

As the ultimate bearing capacity, the region above the composite Sallure surface is, in general, assumed to be divided into two main romen, on each side of the central zone ABC (Fig. 24) namely, a radial shear zone SCD and a mixed shear rome SDEF in which the shear varies between the limits of radial and plane shear; depending on the depth and roughness of the foundation.

Meyerhof presented the ultimate bearing capacity in a form given by Terzaghi (1943) [Eq. 6], but the factors N_e, N_g and N_y were different and depand on the depth, the shape, and the roughness of the base as
well as the angle of internal friction 3. Meyerhof's analytical treatment of the bearing capacity problem was based on extendion of the work of Frandtl (1920) and Reismar (1924), where the weight of the soil was meglicited and the bearing capacity given as:

and that of Ohde (1936) where the weight of the material was taken into account and an approximate bearing capacity given as:

- C N. + P.

q = 1/2 Y B N

Values for N , N and N given by Meyerhof (1951) are shown in Figures 3, 4 and 5 respectively. Meyerhof (1961a) extended his investigation to the influence of base configuration on the slip line geometry in the vicinity of the base. He assumed a failure mechanism shown in Fig. 6 for shallow and deep wedge and cone shaped foundations. As shown in this figure, for a perfectly smooth wedge with a semi-angle a the region above the failure surface on each side of the centre lineof the foundation is assumed to be divided into a plane shear zone ACD; a radial shear zone ADE and a mixed shear zone AFEG (shallow wedge) or a plane shear zone AEF (deep wedge). As the roughness of the wedge increases, the angle at A in zone ACD decreases. For a perfectly rough wedge, a central elastic zone ACD forms a false base in the case of a blunt wedge when the bearing capacity is identical to that of a horizontal base. For a sharp wedge this elastic zone coalesces with the wedge. The bearing capacity can be represented by equation [6] with appropriate modified values for N , N and N .

For shallow foundations (D/B \leq 1) the stress $p_0 = \gamma D$ where D is the base depth of the wedge, while for deep foundations (D/B \geq 4 to 10)

18]

where K_{b} = earth prebsure coefficient on the shaft near base, which is about 0.5 for sands and 1.0 for clays, Meyerhof (1951).

The bearing, espacity factors N_c , S_q and R_{γ} , as suggested by Keyerhof (1961s) are given in Figs. 7, 8 and 9 for the limiting conditions of perfectly rough and perfectly smooth wedges at shallow and great depths.

The besting capacity factors of codes are homsenat larger than those for the wedges. This is because at the ultimate bearing capacity of a come, plastic flow of the soil induces circumferential stresses, which raise the bearing capacity above that for a corresponding wedge. The bearing capacity of comes can be obtained from expirical shape factors in conjunction with equition (6 to give the come resistance. Values of the cone bearing capacity for comes the torus $N_{\rm eff}$, $N_{\rm eff}$ and $N_{\rm pr}$ are also presented in Figs. 7, 8 and 9 respectively.

Po = K YD





FIG. 2 PLASTIC ZONES NEAR ROUGH STRIP FOOTINGS

(Meyerhof 1951



TIG. 3 GENERAL BEARING CAPACITY FACTOR N FOR STRIP FOOTINGS

(Meyerhof 1951)



13

BEARING CAPACITY FACTORS, Ng

yerhof 1951)





. 2. 9.





FIG. 9 BEARING CAPACITY FACTORS N AND N

(Meyerhof 1961a)

2:4 Theory of Berezantzev, Khristoforovand and Golubkov

Based on the limit equilibrium theory and experimental investigation on load bearing capacity of single piles in dense sund, Berezamtzev et al (1961) suggested the failure mechanism shows in Figure 10. The radial slip surface in this mechanism was assumed to end prior to reaching the base of the foundation. They suggested the following formula for the average value of ultimate bearing capacity:

[9]

q = A Y B + B a Y D

where the coefficient " s_{χ} " is a function of the ratio D/B and of the angle 4 and is given in Table 1. The factors A_{k} and B_{k} are equivalent to the bearing capacity factors in formula [6] and these are given in Figure 11.

Berezantzev et al (1961) justified the formula [9] by model tests carried out at Leningrad Institute of Railway Engineers.

2.5 Theory of Biarez, Burel and Wach

Biares et al (1961), reported the results of tests on several scale model foundations using thin metal cylinders in the form of piles. Comparisons were made with calculations using the plastic theory. Observation of the failure mode in the soil at various test stages revealed a rigid wedge beneath the foundation, with a half angle at its apex of about 50° for a shallow foundation. This angle was reported to decrease with increasing depth of foundation. For relatively great depths, the radial shear zone of the failure surface reaches a vartical tangency as spion in Fig. 127-

0.83	0.85
0.76	0.79
0.73	0.77
0.71	0.75
0.70	0.74
	0.70

TABLE I

.

AS A FUNCTION OF (D/B) AND

OEFFICIENT "a



IG. 10 FAILURE MECHANISM ASSUMED BY BEREZANTZEV IT AL



FIG. 11 COEFFICIENTS FOR BEREZAWITEV'S THEORY

Berezantzev et al



FIG. 12 EAILURE MECHANISH OF BIAREZ; BUREL AND WACH

(Biarez .et al 1961)

Values for N_q and N_y were derived based on the above failure mechanism. The experimental values at shallow depths were found to be less than the computed values, while for great depths they were very close to the theoretical values.

2.6 .Vesic's Theory

To provide information on the factors which influence the bearing capacity of deep foundations in sand, Vesic (1963) conducted largescale model experiments at Georgia Institute of Technology. Cylindrical and prismatic foundations of various sizes rearing at different depths in homogeneous and masses of different relative densities were loadedstatically to failure. Additional tests with colored sand, laid in layers were made to study the mechanism of shear failure in the soil mass. The results showed that irrespective of the relative density of sand, for deep foundation punching shear failure cours.

The general bearing capacity for deep foundation in sand was given as

[10]

where

q. = ultimate bearing capacity,

p = overburden pressure,

N = bearing capacity factor for surcharge term, and

shape factor.

To evaluate the bearing capacity factor N_q for a long rectangular foundation, a shear pattern based on observations of tests on colored

. 22

sand was considered (Fig. 13). The failure mode consists of an elastic zone AGD with two adjoining plastic zones GDF and ADB. The extent of development of these zones is determined by the angle 0 at the spex. This angle may be represented empirically by:

23

where \$ is the angle of internal friction of the sand.

 $\theta = 1.9\phi$

On the basis of observations, Vesic suggested the following expression for N_{-} :

$$N_q = e^{3.8\phi} \tan^{\phi} \tan^{2}(45 + \phi/2)$$
 [12]

A comparison of the bearing cagacity factor N_q for local and general shear failure is shown in Fig. 14.

2.7 "Hu's Theory

Hu (1965) assumed the failure sechanism shown in Fig. 15 in which the radial ally surface reaches a vertical tangency. The logarithmic spiral surface CE peets the vertical tangential plane passing through the general surface at F, and a continuity of the alige surface is thus maintained. The configuration OACKENG consists of a lower part, the failure mechanism proper OACKO in which the stress at every goint reaches the state of plastic equilibrium and an upper part, the overburden OEFGHO. in which the stress is in a state of mixed shear. The interface OE is seen as an intermal failure surface across which full sphear mobilization takes place. For $\phi = 0$ of c-solis, however, shear mobilization across the interface is not assumed. This is because the point of vertical tangency E is now moved to the base level as a



result of the logarithmic spiral being replaced by a circular arc. Under this condition, the vertically upward plastic flow of the foundation soil at failure does not permit ahear strength to be developed across the horizontal base plane, resulting in $e_0 = 0$. This in turn requires that E must stop short of the base plane to allow the edge angle a full value of 45° under the passive Ramhine state. The failure mechanism therefore resembles that suggested by Teragghi, shown in Fig. 2 after substituting a circular arc for the logarithmic spiral.

Based on the above failure mechanism. Hu derived the following equation for the total base bearing capacity:

 $q_f = C N_c + \gamma_s B N_{\gamma q}$

[13]

where $N_{\gamma q}$ is the bearing capacity factor for surcharge-friction term. In justified his theoretical values by comparing them with the measured bearing capacity of sunds in various states of compaction and at different depths.

2.8 Cavity Expansion Theory.

Another approach to the problem of base bearing capacity originated in the work by Bishop, Hill and Nott (1945), who considered the problem of expansion of a spherical or cylindrical cavity inside an infinite mass of an ideal solid. In such a case there exist around the cavity a highly stressed zone where the material, by assumption, behaves as a rigid-plastic proble. Outside that zone it behaves as an ideal elastic (or linearly aforemable) solid. . Yenic (1972) used this concept and assumed that advancement of the pendérometer takes place by the expansion

of a spherical cavity.

Fig. 16 illustrates the problem of expansion of a spherical cavity as viewed by Vesic. A spherical cavity of initial radius R_i is expanded by uniformly distributed internal pressure P. When this pressure is increased, since around the cavity will pass into a state of plastic equilibrium. This plastic rone will expand until the pressure reaches a maximum value, P_u , at which point the cavity will have a radius R_u . The plastic beam around the cavity will have a radius R_v . The plastic beam around the cavity will have a radius R_v .

General solutions of the problem of spherical and cylindrical cavities in an ideal soil, possessing both cohesion and friction in the Mohr-Coulomb sense, are presented by Vesic (1972) and numerically evaluated in the form of tables and graphs suitable for sphication to Engineering practice.

The concept of expansion of cavities has recently been extended by Baligh (1976) who suggested that the point resistance in cone penetration tests in cohesionless soils is usually quite high and that a realistic analysis of the bearing capacity of deep foundations in and must therefore be based on the behaviour of the soil at high atresses. The soil response was found to differ from the common "behaviour at normal stress levels in two important aspects: (1) the decrease of the angle of internal friction with the mean normal effects, i.e., the Nohr-Coulomb failure envelope is not straight but is actually convex; and (2) the significant decrease in volume which took place upon shearing even in dense granular sodis. Baligh condicated the effect of a curved Mohr-Coulomb failure envelope on the bearing capacity



27





FIG. 16 EXPANSION OF CAVITY

(Vesic 1972)

of deep foundations in sands by obtaining the solutions to problems of cavity expansion. An analytical expression for a curved envelope is introduced, compared with experimental resulta, and then incorparated in a computer program to evaluate the expansion pressure for cylindrical and spherical cavities, taking into account both the envelope curvature as well as the compressibility of the soli.

2.9 Numerical Technique

The finite difference approximation based on the method of characteristics is videly used in the numerical analysis of differential equations of the type applicable to the bearing capacity problems. Lundgren and Moreaness (1953)/used this method to obtain a solution of the strip footing bearing capacity problem. The same method was used for the axially Symmetric circular footing problem. by Cor et al (1961). Numerical Technique has been also applied to deep foundations. Strip loading conditions were analyzed by Graham (1968) and solutions were provided for axisymmetric circular foundation by Novatki and Karafiach (1972, 1978).

Novatzki and Karafisth (1972, 1978) presented a theoretical 3dimensional analysis of cone penetration using plasticity theory and the Coulomb failure criterion. The differential equations of plastic equilibrium were solved numerically, using finite difference technique, for an ideal uniform dry sand to show the variation of allp-line field geometry with changes in the spex angle of the cone. In this analysis an assumption of the elip lines is required. Novatki and "the pentrometer (Fig. 17) which is equivalent to neglecting the shear



strength of the overburden as was done by Terzaghi (1943). The results indicate that, with increasing apex angle, less soil volume is affected. Both theoretical and laboratory results showed that the value of cone index (penetration resistance/area of cone base) increases with increasing apex angle. A series of laboratory experiments supported the validity of the theory in dense sand and demonstrated that the soil compressibility affects the cone index to the extent that it no longer serves as a measure of frictional strength. For very loose soils, differences in cone angle have little effect on cone index, all other conditions being equal.

 Finally they correlated the theoretical and experimental results to show how the theory may be used for any soil to predict the migle of internal friction.

2.10 Theory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell

1.

Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973, 1975) how diggested the failure mechanism sameciated with the static penetration resistance of cohesionless and low-cohesion soils as shown in Fig. 18a, b. They performed model tests to establish a rational basis for the theoretical development taking into account the effects of penetrometer configuration, penetrometer to soil friction, soil relative dempity and the relative depth of the failure surface obtained in experiments with wedge shaped penetrometers. The failure surface as shown represents closely the actual failure surface obtained in experiments with wedge shaped penetrometers. The rupture pattern is very similar to that assumed by Na*(1965) for the analysis of pile foundation. Examining Figure 18 it can be seen that a plane shear rome exists adjacent to the base of the penetrometer. The slip surface of the radial shear some can be approximated by a logarithmic spiral which ether intermeete

What the Third State



the ground surface at point E (Fig. 18s) or becomes vertically tangent to line EF (Fig. 18b) depending on the relative depth of the foundation.

The geometric configuration of the plane shear zone adjacent to the wedge (Fig. 18b) is determined by the hoovn wedge or cone semi-spex angle a, the topmost angle $\tilde{\gamma}$ and the included angle AOO which is equal to $(90^\circ - \phi)$: As the roughnes δ/ϕ of the cone increases, the angle at point 0 decreases and vanishes for a perfectly rough cone (6 = ϕ). Methods for calculating this angle have been presented in detail by Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1979).

Based upon the above failure mechanism, Durgunoglu and Mitchell arrived at the following equation for penetration resistance:

[14]

[14a]

$$q_f = C N_c \xi_c + \gamma_B B N_{\gamma q} \xi_{\gamma q}.$$

where all the terms were previously defined.

Equilibrium analysis of the failure zone shown in the free body diagram (Fig. 19a) yields the following expression for the value of

$$s = \frac{1 + \sin\phi \sin(2\gamma - \phi)}{\sin\phi \cos\phi}, \qquad e^{2\theta} e^{\tan\phi} = \frac{1}{\tan\phi}$$

$$+ \frac{\cos(2\gamma - \phi) \tan\phi}{\cos\phi}, \qquad e^{2\theta} e^{\tan\phi}.$$

where

N.:

N = bearing capacity factor,

= soil friction angle,

- the topmost angle of the plane shear zone,

 $\psi = 90^{\circ} - \alpha \ (\alpha = \text{semiapex angle})$ $\theta_{\circ} = 180^{\circ} - (\psi + \tilde{\gamma}) + \beta$

Similarly, from this static equilibrium analysis of the body OCEFG (Fig. 19b) the following expression for $N_{\gamma q}$ was derived by Durgunoglu and Mitchell:

$$\begin{cases} -\frac{\cos(\psi - \delta)}{\cos^2} \frac{(1 + \sin\phi \sin(2\overline{\gamma} - \phi))}{\cos^2} \left\{ \frac{\cos^2(\overline{\gamma} - \phi)}{4\cos^2\phi} \cos^2\phi - \frac{1}{\phi} \right\} \\ + \frac{3\cos(\overline{\gamma} - \phi)}{4\cos^2\phi} \cos^2\phi} e^{2\phi} \int \frac{1}{\sin\phi} (m - 2/3 \ \overline{m}) - K_0^{-1} \\ -\frac{\cos\psi}{\cos\phi} \cos\phi^{-1} + \frac{1}{\phi} \left\{ \cos^2\phi \cos^2\phi - \frac{1}{\phi} + \frac{1}{\phi} \cos^2\phi \cos^2\phi - \frac{1}{\phi} \right\} \\ -\frac{1}{1} \frac{1}{\phi} \left\{ \cos^2\phi \cos^2\phi - \frac{1}{\phi} + \frac{1}{\phi} \cos^2\phi - \frac{1}{\phi} + \frac{1}{\phi} \right\} \end{cases}$$

$$\end{cases}$$

where

= 90° - a (a = semiapex angle),

- base to soil friction angle,

the topmost angle of the plane shear zone,

= $180^{\circ} - (\psi + \gamma) + \beta$,

- lateral earth pressure coefficient,

· relative depth,

= D_g/B

 the vertical distance of point E on the failure surface above base level (a function of B)

$$\begin{array}{l} (\overline{u} = 1/2 \frac{ging \cos(\gamma - 4)}{\cos \theta} = 0 \tan \theta \\ \\ \text{and} \quad I_g = 3 \left[1 + 9 \tan^2 \theta \left\{ 3 \tan \theta \left[e^{3\theta} o \tan \theta \cos \theta - \cos(\theta - \theta) \right] \\ + \left[(e^{0} o \tan^2 \theta \sin \theta \sin \theta + \sin(\theta - \theta)) \right] \end{array} \right] \end{array}$$

[14c]

In order to calculate the bearing capacity factors N_c and $N_{\gamma q}$ from Equations [14], the value of the angle 8 must be known. For relative depths equal to or greater than the critical depth (The depth at which the vertical tangency point coincides with the ground surface) the angle 6 is equal to the angle of internal friction 4 of the soll. For relative depths deps than the critical relative depth, the failure surface will intersect the ground surface before reaching vertical tangency. In this case, 5 will be smaller than 4 and must be calculated by interactive procedures. Values of N_c and $N_{\gamma c}$ alculated from Equations [14] are valid only for wedge shaped foundations. For coine shaped foundations, Durgunoglu and Mitchell suggested the following shape factors:

$$r_{q} = (1.0 - 0.4 \text{ B/L}) + \underbrace{1.5}_{(0.6 + 1.06 \text{ A}) \text{ B/L}}$$

$$(15a)$$

 $\xi_{c} = 1.0 + (0.2 + \tan^{6} \phi) B/L$

where $\xi_{\gamma q}$ is the cone factor for friction surcharge term and ξ_c is the cone factor for the cohesion term.

2.11 Other Factors Affecting Bearing Capacity

2.11.1 Depth

For deep foundation, the effect of the overburden pressure on bearing capacity is introduced as a depth factors $d_c^{}$, $d_v^{}$ and $d_d^{}$ by



most investigators. These factors are dimensionless parameters depending on the warts b // and the maple of internal friction. Vesic (1975) considered these parameters as an increase in the individual bearing capacity factors due to the shearing strength of the overhurden. Skempton (1951) propased depth factor for the cohesionterm as:

d_ = '1.0 + 0.2 (D/B)

Brinch Hansen (1961) has proposed the following generalized and semiemprical equation for the depth factors:

$$d_{c} = 1.0 + \frac{0.35}{(B/D) + (0.6/(1 + 7 \tan^{4} \phi))}$$
 [17a]

d_ = 1.0

$$d_{a} = d_{c} - (d_{c} - 1)/N_{d}$$

Meyerhof (1963) proposed the following equations for depth factors:

$$d_1 = 1.0 + 0.2(D/B) \tan(\pi/4 + \phi/2)$$

for $\phi = 0.0^{\circ}$:

d. = d. = 1.0

[18b]

[180

[18a]

[16]

[17b]

for \$ \$ 10° and D/B < 1.0:

 $d_{a} = d_{a} = 1.0 + 0.1 (D/B) \tan(\pi/4 + \phi/2)$

De Beer (1967) suggested the following depth factors:

 $d_{q}^{q} = 1.0 + (\tan^{2}(45^{\circ} - \phi/2) e^{\pi \tan\phi} - 1) e^{-\pi \tan(B/D)}$ [19a]

.36



Nost of the bearing capacity theories have been formulated for infinitely long footings. For foundation shapes which are not long

and rectangular, the difficulties in obtaining mithematical solutions for baring especity are considerable. To account for the effect of foundation shape, dimensionless parameters called the shape factors are introduced. These parameters are a function of (B/L), (D/B) and (4). Early suggestions by Terzaghi (1941) and Skempton (1951) for the shape factors are:

for circular areas:

- ξ_c = 1.3
- Ey = 0.6

for rectangular areas: .

Brinch Hansen (1961) developed the following semi-empirical shape factor equation:

$$\xi = 1.0 + (0.2 \tan^6 \phi) (B/D)$$
 (24

-12281

[22b]

- [23a]

[25a]

[256]

$$\delta_{a} = d_{c} - d_{c} - 1/N_{c} \qquad (24b)$$

Meyerhof (1961b, 1963) also proposed similar empirical expression:

 $\xi_{c} = 1.0 + 0.2 \tan^{2}(45^{\circ} + \phi/2) (B/L)$

 $\xi_{0}^{2} = \xi_{0}^{2} = 1.0$ for $\phi = 0.0^{0}$

 $\xi_{g} = \xi_{f} = 1.0 + 0.1 \tan^{2}(45^{\circ} + \phi/2)$ (B/L) for $\phi = 10^{\circ}$ [25c]

Expressions for shape factors were recommended by De Beer (1967) based primarily on extensive experiments and subsequently modified by Vesic (1975) as:

for rectangular base:

$$\xi_{c} = 1.0 + (B/L) (N_{q}/N_{c})$$
 [26a

126b1

[26c]

[27a]

[27b]

 $\xi_q = 1.0 + (B/L) \tan\phi$

E = 1.0 - 0.4 (B/L)

for circular base: E = 1.0 + (N)/N)

5g = 1.0 tano

έ ε = 0.6 2.11.3 Soil Compressibility

Soil compressibility is generally not an influencing factor in bearing capacity equations as the rupture is assumed to be a general shear failure surface. Consequently no corrections are made for soil compressibility. Vesic (1963) has suggested that, for compressible soils, local or punching shear failure, rather than general shear failure occurs. Based on the shear pattern shown in Fig. 13, an expression for N [Equation 12] was developed: This equation is plotted and compared to the classic Reissner equation for N for general shear in Fig. 14. It may be seen in Fig. 13 and 14 that for compressible soils (local shear donditions), the bearing capacity factor N, is much

lower than for incompressible soils (general shear conditions).

Vesic (1972) has also suggested that the relative compressibility of a sand mass may be expressed in terms of its rigidity index, I_r , defined as:

130

I' = E/(I+v) (C+gtano)

where

E = elastic modulus,

C = soil cohesion,

\$ = soil friction angle,

q - overburden pressure, and

v - Poission's ratio.

Bearing capacity factors calculated by Vesic (1972) using the assumption that the ultimate pressure on the soil under a foundation is equal to the pltimate pressure needed to expand a spherical cavity inside the same soil mass-are given in Fig. 20.

Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973) have also made a reference to soil compressibility and suggested Caution in the use of their method. For compressible soils, their method is clearly recognized to cause overestisation of the penetration resistance as a result of the invalidity of the failure mechanism assumed. They also report that, due to soil compressibility, the shear surface is restricted to a smaller none around the penetrometer tip as suggested by Vesic (1963).

2.12 Summary

It is seen from the literature reviewed that the basic form of



FIG. 20 BEARING CAPACITY FACTOR N. FOR COMPRESSIBLE SOIL

(Vesic 1972)

the equation for the ultimate bearing capacity of foundations is the same in all the theories [Eqn. 6]. However, the values of the bearing capacity factors N_{c} , N_{q} and N_{s} vary in each theory depending on the soli failure mechanism assumed and the different factors that are considered as a factoring theory number of failure mechanisms agained by different involving transmitted by different involving the same of the same

However, for deep foundation, the value of N₀ becomes negligible compared to the other two terms. The values of N₀ and N₀ are these corresponding to a slip surface of a weightless soil and the value of N₀ is that corresponding to a slip surface for the condition $q/\gamma_0^3 =$ O; i.e., footing at the surface. Consequently, at great depths the bearing capacity of the base should be practically independent of its aize and may be expressed as:

Some investigators such as Bu (1965) and Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973) combined the factors N_q and N_q in one term (N_{rq}) and expressed the bearing capacity as:

[14

q. - CN + P. N

q_ = C.N. + Y.B.N.

where $N_{\gamma \mathbf{Q}}$ is the bearing capacity factor for the friction-surcharge term.

The factors which influence the ultimate bearing capacity have been reviewed earlier. Informant among these are the base reogness and base configuration.



2.12.1 Base Roughness

The primary bearing capacity factors presented by Meyerhof (1951) and shown in Figs. 3, 4 and 5 apply only to perfectly rough bases $(d/\phi = 1)$. Investigation by Meyerhof (1955) and others indicated that for cohesive soils, the roughness has very little influence of the bearing capacity. However, in cohesionless soils, the bearing capacity of a surface footing with a smooth base is significantly less than that for a footing with rough base. To account for this influence, Meyerhof has suggested that the N₄ factor be multiplied by a roughness factor T₄ expressed as:

$$r_y = n_r + 1/2(1 - n_r^2)$$

where n_r is the degree of roughness, defined by the ratio of the tangents of the base friction δ and the angle of internal friction ϕ :

 $n_{r} = (tan\delta)/(tan\phi)$

Equation [29]applies only to plane, horizontal bases at the soil surface.

[28]

1291

This work was extended further by Mayerhof (1961a) for limiting conditions of perfectly rough $(\delta/\phi = 1)$ and perfectly smooth $(\delta/\phi = 0)$ bases for aballow and deep foundations.) Bearing capacity factors as shown in Figs. 7, 8 and 9 were suggested.

The effect of roughness has also been considered in the numerical technique given by Nowathi and Karafisth (1972, 1978). Friction angle between the cone and the soil (6) was introduced as a parameter in their analysis. Durgenegiture and Attcheil (1973) congluded they, the

ten a sin all state and the state of the sta
bearing capacity factors for a given roughness should not be expinated by linear interpolation between perfectly smooth and perfectly rough values. They provided values for $N_{\rm c}$ and $N_{\rm vq}$ at different relative roughness. These values showed that bearing capacity factors increase nonlinearly with increasing roughness for cohesionless soils. In cohesive soils, base roughness has little or no influence on the bearing capacity factors.

2.12.2 Base Configuration

The influence of various non-planar base configuration (e.g. wedges and cones) on bearing capacity factory have been obtained, for different conditions, by Meyerhof (1951a), as shown in Figs. 6, 7 and 8. From these figures one can conclude that for a perfectly rough wedge there is little dependence of bearing capacity factors so the total apex angle (2a), for values of (2a) greater than 90°. That ig, for rough wedges and comes with obtune apex angles, the bearing capacity factors are mearly equal to those for plane and horizontal contact areas. However, for perfectly smooth wedges, the values of 8, and M_ increase with increasing total apex angle.

Recently the effect of cone angles on penetration resistance have been presented by Nowatkit and Karafisth (1972, 1978). Both thory mad experiment showed that for soils at high relative dempitles, penetration resistance varies significantly with the size of the penetrometre per angle.

Based on experiments on model tests, Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973, 1975) presented solution for bearing capacity factors N. and N. for

wedge and cone shaped foundations. They concluded that, the bearing capacity factors for rough bases increase with decreasing values of base semi-apex angle (a) below approximately 15°, but for perfectly smooth wedges and comes, the bearing capacity factors increase with increasing base apex angle.

Although there are various theories for computing the ultimate bearing capacity of soils, the choice of a suitable theory for penetrometer tests is rather limited. The come of the penetrometer is not really smooth. Similarly the code angle has to be seconted for since it is unlike a flat foundation. For theories are available that present which fully account for the base configuration, have roughness, penetrometer size, relative depth of penetration and soil compressibility. The theories which account for base to those factors are: Mayerhof's theory (1961a), theory of Nowatki and Karafiath (1972, 1978) and theory of Durgungu and Mitchell (1973, 1975). It was, therefore, decided to choose these three theories for comparison with the results of the experiments reported here.

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CHAPTER III

EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

3.1 General

As explained in the proceeding chapter, the penetration resistance is influenced by number of variables. The experimental program was designed to study the effect of these variables and the applicability of the different theoretical formulations to both 10 cm² Fugro type penetrometer and 45 cm² Memorial University penetrometer. The object/ tives of the experimental investigation are:

1. to study the influence of the following parameters on the penetration resistance: $\bigcup_{i=1}^{j}$

(a) cone apex angle

b) penetrometer base roughness

c) penetrometer size

d) soil friction angle

e) saturation of soil

f) rate of penetration

g) depth of penetration

 to develop a better understanding of the failure mechanism associated with static penetration resistance and the applicability of the theoretical formulas given by Mayeribi (1961a), Nowataki and Karatiah (1972, 1978) and Durgunogia und Mitchell (1973, 1975).

 to illustrate methods of deducing the in-situ strength of soils from the results of come penetration tests.

4. to evaluate the performance of static penetrometer in layered

A detailed physical description of the two types of penetrometers used is given in Table 2. Tips for both penetrometers were detachable from the shaft and had various semi-spec angle and roughness as shown in Fig. 22. A complete listing of the penetrometer tips used in this investigation is given in Table 3.

Two types of soil target material ware selected for this investigation, modelling clay and silica-70 sand. These were chosen as representative of clay (cohesive) and sand (cohesionless) targets. The ease and uniformity of preparing the samples and the commercial procurability of the soil were the other considerations in choosing the two types of soil. In all, about 200 tests were conducted, results of which will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

3.2 Equipment, Facilities and Instrumentation

The general layout of the experimental facility is shown in Fig. 23. The standard rate of penetration for static cone penetration tests suggested by ASTM (D3441-737) is 20 mm/sec. The penetrometer is connected to a hydraulic actuator which has a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic actuator which has a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic distance is a stroke of 55 cm. The hydraulic testing system is designed to provide simple yet flexible dynamic programming capabilities in M.T.S. closed loop electrohydraulic testing system. Selectable outputs include normal and inverted warfable frequency sine, haversine, and haversquare and variable the single had duel slope rames. The haversine and haversquare frequencies are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while the single test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while the single test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while the single test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while the single test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while the single test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while the single test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are while the single from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to 990 Hir while test are step variable from 0.0001 to

TABLE 2

PHYSICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE TWO SIZES OF PENETROMETER

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Comparison	Fugro Type Penetrometer	Mémorial University Penetrometer	
Diameter of Cone	35.6 mm	76.2 mm	
Base Area of Cone	10 cm ²	45 cm ²	
Cone Angle	Adaptable to any investigation 30	end shape, in present , 60° and 90° were used.	
Sleeve Diameter	35.6 mm	76.2 mm	
Area of Sleeve	150 cm ²	625 cm ²	
Length of Sleeve	13.4 cm	26.1 cm	



FIG. 22 DIFFERENT TYPES OF CONES USED

TABLE 3

TIPES OF PENEIROMETER TIPS	TYPES	OF	PENETROMETER	TIPS
----------------------------	-------	----	--------------	------

Penetrometer Diameter (mm)	Base semi-apex angle. a-degree*	Tip Material	Roughness (8/¢)
	15°	Stainless Steel	0.5
	30°	Polished Aluminum	- 0.6
	90°	Sanded Aluminum	0.75
35.6	30 ⁰	Stainless Steel	0.5
	90 ⁰	Polished Aluminum	0.6
	15 ⁰	Sanded Aluminum	0.75
8	90 ⁰	St ain less Steel	0.5
	15 ⁰	Polished Aluminum	0.6
	30 ⁰	Sanded Aluminum	0.75
	15	Stainless Steel	0.5
	30	Polished Aluminum	0.6
	90	Sanded Aluminum	0.75
76.2	30 ⁰	Stainless Steel	0.5
	90 ⁰	Polished Aluminum	0.6
	• 15 ⁰	Sanded Aluminum	0.75
	90°	Stainless Steel	0.5
	15°	Polished Aluminum	0.6
	30°	Sanded Aluminum	0.75



FIG. 23 PHOTOGRAPH SHOWING EXPERIMENTAL FACILITY

system the velocity of penetration can be varied. The stroke of the actuator and consequently the depth of penetration can also be regulated and controlled.

The penetrometer is instrumented to measure the cone resistance and the sleeve side friction. The instrumentation for measuring these two quantities consists of two strain 90090 load cells, come load cell and sleeve load cell, (Fig. 24). A detailed specification of the strain specific and the circuit diagram are shown in Appendix A.

The velocity of penetration was measured by a fixed pointer aliding of a resistance wire. The wire is stretched along the length of the moving shaft so that any movement in the shaft causes the change in the resistance wire with respect to a fixed pointer. This results in a change in voltage and when connected to the chart recorder, with a proper calibration, a direct plot of time vs. displacement is obtained.

The output signals from the come load cell and friction sleeve load cell wree recorded on a chart recorder of Gould 2000 series analog type. It is a self contained mit housed in a 250 m minframe channel to accommodate up to three isolated recording channels. Each recording channel incorporates fricticaless feedback sensors for closed-loop control of the pen at high speed. The Gould Model 13-4614-30 D.C. bridge presplifier is a high gain presmplifier designed to work with resistance transducers including straif gages and strain gage based transducers. It is designed for use with Gould 2000 series records, and recorders its operating power from a companion pendirie suplifier located in the same amalog, channel of the recorder.



FIG. 24 CONE TIP ASSEMBLY SHOWING THE VARIOUS COMPONENTS

Three channels with three preamplifiers were used in this investigation. Two of them for recording come and sleeve resistance and the third to check the linearity of the velocity of pemetration.

The following time dependent parameters were obtained:

(1) displacement,

1000

(2) cone thrust, and ;(3) sleeve friction.

The actuator provides a constant whorry through the penstration, this could be verified from voltage variation we. time relationship which is straight line. The penetration velocity is calculated by knowing the total time of voltage variation (calculated from the chart recorder) and the stroke of the actuatot. With suitable calibration, the displacement of the penetrometer is calculated for each time division on chart, and for different penetration velocity. Thus, the recorded time we come thrust and sleeve friction relationships is directly convertable to depth we, come thrust and sleeve friction profiles.

3.3 Surface Roughness

Penetrometer roughness is an important factor which influences penetration resistance. The determination of the roughness of the 'penetrometer material, therefore, must be made carefully. Roughness is always expressed as a ratio of the angle of friction between the penetrometer material and the soil (3) to the soil friction made (4); i.e., relative roughness = 8/6. Conventionally, the value of 5.is determined by conducting direct share taxes using plates of the same material as that of the penetrometer. This walks of 6 is assumed to be the friction between the penetrometer and the soil.

In this investigation, the material roughness was quantitatively measured to ensure that any difference. In the roughness between the plate used in the direct shear tests and that of the penetrometer come is properly accounted for.

A quantitative evaluation of the surface roughness for the three types of pametrometer tips materials was made by using Taylor-Hobson No. 4 Talysurf and Rectilinear recorder. The equipment is shown in Fig. 25. The roughness is expressed (GSA B95.126) in terms of center line average (CLA) in micronic over a cut-off length of 0.254 mm. The measured roughness values are presented in Table 4 for plates 6 X 6 cm which were used to determine the angle. Similarly the CLA values for the cones of different spex angles are determined. The results show a difference between the CLA values of the plates and the CLA values of the cones. A correction factor for the penetrometer relative roughness was made in the calculations and show in Table 4. The roughness profiles obtained from the Talyauf recorder for minings

3.4 Target Construction

3.4.1 Silca-70 Sand

Penatration tests on Silics-70 Sand were conducted in a wooden box 68.5 cm (2.25 ft.) wide, 91.5 cm (3 ft.) iong and 91.5 cm (3 ft.) deep. The front side of the box is made up of three 30.5 cm (1 ft.) high removable sections. Nater was not allowed to drain through the box for meturated samples) by using plantic heat to cover the sides

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Material	Stainless	Steel	Polished A	Tuminum .	Sanded Alu	mult
Tested Shape	CLA Value	Correction . for 6	CLA Value	Correction for 6	CLA Value	Correction for 6
Plate 6 cm X 6 cm	20		30		50	
ζone α = 15° 🔭	22.5	1.125.	37.5	1.26	. 52.5	1.050 -
3one a = 30°	22.5	1.125	32.5	T.0833	55	1.10
Cone α = 90 ⁰	22.5	1.125	40		. 60	1,20



FIG. 25 PHOTOGRAPH SHOWING TALYSURF ROUGHNESS RECORDER



FIG. 26a RESULTS OF CLA ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENTS FOR PLATES 6 X 6 CM







FIG. 26c RESULTS OF CLA ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENTS FOR CONES OF $\alpha = 30^{\circ}$



FIG. 26d RESULTS OF CLA ROUGHNESS MEASUREMENTS FOR CONES OF α = 90 $^{\circ}$

and the bottom of the box.

Silica-70 Sand compacted to different but uniform densities which were reproducible from test to test were used. At present there are many techniques available for preparing the sample. In this investigation, the raining technique was used for loose samples and the vibration technique was used for dense samples. The dense targets were constructed by placing, sand in 15 cm (6 in.) layers and then compacting to the required density using a vibrator. Required densities were predetermined. Each layer consisting of a calculated weight of sand was placed and then vibrated to the determined volume to obtain the predetermined density. For construction of loose targets, the screen or raining technique was used. The dry material was poured through sieve held at a fixed height above the already formed target surface. As the soil deposit builds up, the screen is elevated to maintain a constant height of drop. This height was determined so that the measured amount of sand fills the volume to obtain the predetermined density.

Three different densities were chosen as follows:

Dense sand → 1688 kg/m³
Medium dense sand → 1550 kg/m³
Loose sand = 1470 kg/m³

For the saturated target, the same procedure was adopted as previously explained. After the target was constructed, water was added at a slow rate through a hase and sprinkler placed at the top bf the sample. There was song difficulty in preparing saturated

targets in loose sand. As been as water was added to the loose dry and, some settlement occurred to the surface of the target which increased its demity above that estimated for dry conditions. They three different dynaities obtained for seturated and were:

(1) dense sand = 1688 kg/m² (2) medium dense sand = 1543 kg/m² (3) 100se sand = 1516 kg/m²

3.4.2 Modelling Clay

Penetration tests in modaling clay were conducted in a steel test box of 1.0 s wide, 1.0 m long and 1.0 m deep. The front side of this box is also made up of three removable sections of 0.33 m height to simplify preparation of the samples in layers.

'The material selected for testing was theroughly dried and pulverized. 'It was then placed in a large concrete mixer (Fig. 27) and mixed with a metered amount of water to bhain a mpecific motivure content. The material way recycled until the mixtire was hemogeneous and was then removed from the mixer. The moletuke content wis presented fined from standford procedor test, results of which are presented in a subsequent neetim. The soil mixture was placed in the steel testing door is a 15 on layers and compacted with modified (MARNO) hand hemme: by the required denistry (predetermined from Standard Proctor test). The density was controlled by the number of blows per layer of wall. Duffing arget construction smalles were collected at random locations for molistry content determinations. After commercial of the target up to approximately mid-fight, is will wane there test



FIG. 27 PHOTOGRAPH SHOWING EQUIPMENT FOR MIXING CLAY SAMPLE

after penetration tests. Three different densities were used as shown in Table 5.

3.5 Target Properties

3.5.1 Index Properties

Tusts were conducted on the sand and the clay targets to determine the physical properties of the soil. These included specific gravity, grain size analysis, Atterberg limits (Cisy) and maximum and minimum void ratios (sand). The tests were performed immediately after preparation of the target.

The gradation curve for same is given in Fig. 28 and some of the selient properties are given in Table 6. The soil is classified as medium to fine same.

The grain size distribution of the modelling clay is shown in Fig. 19. According to M.I.T. system of soil classification it is classified as clayer silt with the properties as given in Table 7. Results of the Standard Proctor compaction test for this clay is shown in Fig. 30.

3.5.2 Sheat Tests

The strength properties of sile-70 and were determined using the triatial compression tests and the direct shear tests. For modelling city, the strength properties used determined uping the triatic compositor tests and the wave hear tests.

Specimens of silcs-70 sand were prepared in a triaxial cell to the desired uniform density, for the specimen size and shape (Lambe .

TABLE 5

DIFFERENT DENSIT MODELLING CLAY OF

Type of Clay	Water Content	Dry Dengity kg/m
Stiff Clay	25	1600
Medium Stiff Clay .	30.4	1449
Soft Clay	40	1240

TABLE 6

CLASSIFICATION DATA FOR SILICA-70 SAND

Classification	Experimental Result ~
Nean Diameter (D ₅₀)	= 0.115 m
Coefficient of Uniformity	- 1:95
Relative Density of Grains	= 2.608
Minimum Void Ratio	- 0.45



PROPERTIES OF THE MODELLING CLAY

Property	Experimental Result
Liquid Limit (L.L.)	377
Plastic Limit (P.L.)	217
Plasticity Index (P.I.) Relative Density	16 2.83





1951). Confining pressures of 34.45, 68.9, 103.35 and 295.6 MM/n² were used. Messurements were taken of the axial load with a calibrated proving ring and of axial deformation with a strain guage dial.

A total of 16 drained triaxial tests were conducted for and at densities corresponding to these used in the pemetration test. The results of these tests are plotted in Pigures 31 and 32 which show the values of principle stress ratio (c_2/σ_3) versus axial strain for the condition investigated. The peak values of soil friction angles were calculated from the results of these tests using the equation:

$$= \sin^{-1} \left[\frac{(\sigma_1/\sigma_3)_f - 1}{(\sigma_1/\sigma_3)_f + 1} \right]$$

[31]

Table 8 shows a summary of triaxial peak friction angle. In Fig. 33 the peak friction angle is plotted spaint void ratio (e) for various confining pressures. From Fig. 32 and Fig. 32 it may be seen that peak pluciple stress ratio (σ_1/σ_3) decreases with increasing confining. pressure for a given void ratio. This explains why the failure envelope. "shown in Fig. 34 for the Whok's circle is slightly curved.

For the modelling clay, 12 tests were performed using 12 undisturbed samples which were collected after preparing the targets for the penetration tests. The confining pressures used are 78.9, 157.8, 2367 and 276.2 kM/a^2 . The results of the triaxial test are shown in Figs. 35, 36 and 37 for the three types of soil tested. Cohesion of the soil and the friction angle were obtained from the shear envelops. Table 9 summarizes the results of the triaxial tests. It is seen that the shear atrength of the clay decreases with increasing consistency.





Y OF TRIAXIAL PEAK FRICTION ANGLE OF SULCA-70

Confining Pressure σ_3 (kN/n ²)	Initial Density . y (Kg/m ³)	Density Index	Peak Friction angle (0°)
34.45	1688 1659	0.8	47.8 46.8
[5 psi]	1530 1470	0.50 0.365	42.5 40.1
68.9 •	1688	0.8	47.0.
	1659 1530	0.766 • 0.5	46.1
[10 psi]	1470	0.365	39.2
103.35	1688 1659	0.8	46.0
[15 pei]	1530 1470	0.50 0.365	40.5 38.2
295.6	1688	0.8	43.5
	1659	0.766	42.0
[40 psi]	1470	0.365	35.5

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A series of direct shear tests was done on.Silies 70 and to determine the values of the soil fittion angle to facilitate a determination of 8/6. The tests were conducted in a constant rate of artain shear how WH25000 of Wysham Farrance direct shear superstanthorizontal constant rate of artain is placed upon the lower half of the how while the upper half is kept stationary. The resulting shear force is measured from the upper half of the how, using a proving ring. A photograph of the apparatup is shown in Fig. 38.) Results of soil to soil direct shear tosts are shown in Fig. 38.) Results of soil of the values of the angle of fiction obtined from direct shear tests is compared with the values obtained from triaxial tests, and shown in Fig. 40.

The strength properties of the modelling clay can be depended from vake shear test as well as from trighted compression test. Samples at different locations were collected during and after properting the clay target and vane shear tests were conducted on these samples. The results of these tests are presented in Table 11.

Values of shearing strength determined from vane shear tests are in good agreement with the values obtained from triaxial compression tests.

3.5.3 Penetrometer to Soil Friction Angle

To decarding the friction mails between the penetrometer material and soil, and to establish a basis for the wardston of 0/0 with void ratio, tests were conducted in the WT 25000 shear box in which the upper half or the box uss filled with Siles-TO sand at a desired



FIG. 38 SHEAR BOX APPARATUS

FOR MODEL ING CLAY (DRAINED)

Dry Density	Water Content	Cohesion	Friction Angle
(Kg/m ³)	(w%)	C - kN/m ²	¢-degree
1600	25	47.8	. 10
1449	1 30.4	.38.6	, *
1240	2 40	5.5	

TABLE 10

RESULTS OF DIRECT SHEAR TES

Normal Stress on Failure Plane (kN/m ²)	Initial Density γ(Kg/m ³)	Density Index I D	Angle of Internal Friction ¢-degree
	1688	0.8	45.8
163.4	1539 1467	0.5 0:365	42.8 41.3
	1688	0.8	-43.8
326.8	1539 1467	0.5/ 0.365	41.0 39:0
653.6	1688 <u>2</u>	0.8	41.2 38.2
	1467	.0.365	36.6



FIG. 39 SOIL TO SOIL FRICTION ANGLES OF SILICA-70 SAND FROM DIRECT SHEAR TEST

TABLE 11

RESULTS OF VANE SHEAR TEST FOR MODELLING CLAY

Dry Density	Water Content	Bulk Density	Cohesion
(Kg/m ³)	(w%)	(Kg/m ³)	C - kN/m ²
1600	25	2010	47.1
1449	30.4	1889	38.00
1240	40	1735	5.35

initial density, and the lower half of the shear box was replaced by a solid plate of penetrometer material. The three different materials tested were:

(1) Stainless Steel

(2) Polished Aluminum, and

(3) Sanded Aluminum

Three densities of soil were used:

(1) dense dry sand, = 1688 kN/m³

(2) medium dense sand. = 1530 kN/m³

(3) loose dry sand, = 1470 kN/m²

A total of 9 tosts were conducted using normal stresses of 163.4, 326.8 and 653.6 kH/m_s^2 . The results of the roughness values (8/4) are summarized in Table 12.

The values of direct shear test must be corrected for the cone shapes. The correction factor can be obtained from the results of the Talysurf on both plates and come shapes so shown in Table 4. To simplify the calculation average correction factors of 1.125, 1.2 and 1.166 are suggested for stainless steel, polished aluminum and sanded aluminum repretively based on the values stress in Table 4.

The corrected values of relative roughness (δ/ϕ) can be summarized

(1) Stainless Steel .6/φ = 0.5
(2) Polished Aluminum 6/φ = 0.6
(3) Sanded Aluminum 6/φ = 0.75

ABLE 12

RSULTS OF TESTS FOR PENETROMETER ROUGHNESS

elative ensity	Friction Angle	Stainle To Soil	Friction	Polished To Soil	Priction	Sanded To Soil	Aluminum Priction
P		8	6/6.	9		8	\$/\$
0.8	43.50	190	0.437	22.2	0.,51	27,80	0.639
0.5	41.00	18.60	0.45	20.8	0.50	26	0.634
0.365	39.00	17.00	0.435	19.2	0.49	25.2	0.64
	6/0 average	0	44	0.		.0	. 19

3.6 Layered Soil

Samples were prepared in <u>optimizical</u> steel moulds of 45.0 cm . dismeter and 90.0 cm height. layers of silica-70 sand and modellingclay of different strength were used to obtain four types of layered soil. Each type is described below:

A) Type I

A 16.8 cm layer of stiff clay underlain by a layer of dense sand (height = 16 cm) and finally a bottom layer of stiff clay of 43.5 cm height.

B). Type II

A top layer of loose and followed by an intermediate layer of sand-clay mixture (SG and and SG clay) and finally a bottom layer of stiff clay. The heights of the layers were-13, 13 and 41.5 cm respectively.

C) Type III

A top layer of soft clay overlying a layer of stiff clay and at the bottom a layer of soft clay $(d_1 = 13 \text{ cm}, d_2 = 18 \text{ cm}, d_3 = 41.5 \text{ cm})$. D) Type IV

A layer of soft clay on top with a layer of medium dense sand below and finally a layer of soft clay $(d_1 = 13, cm, d_2 = 13 cm, d_3 = 41.5 cm)$.

A summary of the type of soil targets is given in Table 13.

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TYPES OF SOIL TARGETS

Target Symbol	Type of Target	Dry Density (Kg/m ³)	Target Properties
s1,	Dense pry Sand.	1688	φ = 44.0°, ζ = 0
s2 .	Medium Dense Dry Sand,	1530	• = 40.0°, G = 0
s3	Loose Dry Sand	1470	• = -38.0°, C = 0
54 · ·	Wet Sand (Dense)	1688	+ - 43.0°, C - 0
s.	Wet Sand (Medium)	1543	♦ ¥ 38.5°, C = 0
s6	Wet Sand (Loose)	1516	· · · • = 36.5°, c = 0
· . ^г о	Stiff Clay	1600	φ = 10°, G = 47.8 kN/m ² , w = 25%
c2	Medium Stiff Clay	1449	φ - 8°, C = 38.6 kN/= ² , w = 30.4 π
c3	Soft Clay	1240	4 = 5°, C = 5.5 kN/m ² , w = 40%
C.A.	Powder Or Dry Clay	1200	$\phi = 20^{\circ}$, $C = 9.7 \text{ kM/m}^2$, $w = 0.93$

TEST - RESULTS, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 General .

A series of static penetration tests were performed on both silica-70 sand (cohesionless soil) and modelling clay (cohesive soil). The properties of these soils were presented in the preceding chapter. Comparison was made between the experimental results of penetration tests with the different theoretical methods available in the literature. Three of the theoretical methods which account explicitly for the factors affecting penetration resistance were shown as afollows

 Meyerhof (1961a) provided solutions for both cohesive and cohesionless soils for limiting conditions of base roughness and for both deep and shallow foundations,

2. Kowataki and Karafiath (1972, 1978) employed numerical technique for analysis of the influence of apex angle on the penetration resistance of cohesionless-soil. They also studied the influence of base roughness, penetrometer size, soil friction angle and relative depth of penetration.

3. Durgungels and Mitchell (1973, 1973) suggested a failure mechanism based on the results of laboratory model tests. They also provided a theoretical relationship for the ultimate base resistance' which account explicitly for base semi-spex angle (a), base roughlyss (6/4) and relative depth of penetration (D/3) for both cohesionless and cohesive solls.

Results are presented in this chapter in the following format:
a) Tests on sand: comparison of the three theoretical methods

with the experimental values, for dry sand to select the most appropriat. theoretical approach.

b) Parameters Influencing Penetration Resistance: evaluation of the effect of various parameters on the penetration resistance using the theory chosen and the experimental results, for sund,

c) Tests on Systurated Sand: experiments with saturated sand to study the effect of various parameters on penetration resistance.

d) Tests on Clay: comparison of the experimental results and the theoretical values for modelling tlay to choose the most appropriate theory.

 e) Parameters Influencing Penetration desistance in Clay: evaluation of the effects of the different physical parameters in modelling clay.

 f) Effect of Velocity of Penetration on Cohesive Soils: studies on strain-rate effects on pénetration resistance of cohesive soils.
a) Levered Soils: tests on different types of lavered soils.

Typical raw data for some of the penetration tests conducted in this investigation are shown in Figs. 41, 42 and 43 for cohesive, cohesionless and layered soils respectively. Similar penetration records were obtained from the chart recorder for each test. Fig. 41a, is the record of the velocity of penetration and was obtained in each test to check the linearity of the velocity with time. Fig. 41b and 41c are the records of sleeve and come resistance respectively. Come resistance at any required depth can be obtained by using the calibration chart for the tone load call in combination with the velocity record and come resistance withut. Unit come resistance at any depth was then

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and the second second second second





(b)

. FIG. 42 TYPICAL OUTPUT FROM THE PEMETRATION TEST FOR COMESIONLESS SOILS



FIG. 43. TYPICAL OUTPUT FROM THE PENETRATION TEST FOR LAYERED SOIL

calculated as the resistance per unit cross sectional grea of the peatrometer. Sleeve resistance was obtained in a vay similar to the cone resistance. Unit sleeve friction was determined by dividing the sleave force by the effective surface area of the sleeve. The term unit penetration resistance used in this investigation is the sum of both unit cone resistance and unit sleeve resistance.

4.2 Tests on Dry Sand

The objective of this part of the analysis is to compare the laboratory results on dry sand with the three theoretical methods mentioned previously. The results are presented in Fig. 39 through Fig. 46 in the form of unit penetration resistance q. (kN/m2) versus penetration depth D (cm). Theoretical values using the peak friction angle from triaxial tasts are also presented on the same figures. Different tests were conducted with different types of cones as well as different soil types. Fig. 44 is for the penetrometer with a cone semi-apex angle $\alpha = 30^\circ$, relative roughness $\delta/\phi = 0.75$, diameter B = 35.6 mm and soil density index In = 0.8, while Figure 45 is for the Memorial University penetrometers of 76.2 mm diameter. Figs. 46, 47 and 48 are for a penetrometer with a value for $\alpha = 30^{\circ}$, $\delta/\phi = 0.5$ and -B = 35.6 mm, for three density indicies of 0.8, 0.5 and 0.365 respectively. Finally Figs. 49, 50 and 51 are for a penetrometer with a semi-apex angle of $\alpha = 15^{\circ}$, $\delta/\phi = 0.75$ and B = 35.6 mm for the same three density indicies. Analyses of the results of the tests' in sand lead to the following

conclusions:

(1) Meyerhof's values are greater than the experimental values

) 95



FIG. 44 COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND PREDICTED STATIC PENETRATION CURVES FOR SILICA-70 SAMD (8 -35.6 mm)





PENETRATION CURVES FOR SILICA-70 SAND ((DENSE SAND))



PENETRATION CURVES FOR SILICA-70 SAND (MEDIUM DENSE)





PENETRATION CURVES FOR SILICA-70 SAND (DENSE SAND)



PENETRATION CURVES FOR SILICA-70 SAND (MEDIUM DENSE)



FIG. 51 COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND FEDICIED STATIC

PENETRATION CURVES FOR SILICA-70 SAND (LOOSE SAND)

for D/8 > 4 and less than the experimental values for relative depth values less than 4. Neverhof has proposed two different theories for shallow and deep foundations and hence two different sets of bearing capacity factors. It is seen that for shallow foundations, using Meyerhof theory will give conservative values of generation resistance of and for deep foundations, the theory overestimates the resistance values. These high values are a result of the failure mechanism assumed by Neyerhof for deep foundation which involves a greater shear surface. The slip lines revert back to the sheft with a larger size of the afford soil mass. A comparison of the three theoretical methods chosen here also shows that in the shellow foundation zone, all the theories predict almost same values, while in the deep foundation rowe, there is significant difference.

(2) Values of Nowatzki and Karafiath are always lower than the experimental values. The difference increases with increasing depth of penetration. It is seen that this theory under estimates the penetration resistance compared to the experimental values, and then error is pronounces, the deep foundation situation. Comparing the three theoretical odds, this theory is the most conservative of all. This is because Nowatzki and Karafiath assumed the failure mechanism shoke in Fig. 17 where the slip lines stop at the base of the penetrometer. They disregarded the strete of shear failure above the latel of the base of the come and expressed the weight of the soil above the base level as a effective surcharge.

(3) Values obtained from the theory of Durgunsglu and Mitchell are in close agreement with the superimental values. This is true for all the figures presented irrespective of the soil type and penetro.

meter variables. These-chebretical values are intermediate values between the other two theoretical methods. This can be explained by examining the failure mechanism shown in Fig. 18 which is an intermediate case between Moyerhof's shape and that of Novatzki and Karafiath. The theory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell was therefore chosen for further comparisons because of its good correlation with the present series of exprementance.

4.3 Parameters Influencing Penetration Resistance

In this section the influence of soll friction angle, penetrometer base appearangle, penetrometer size and roughness, relative depth of penetration and velocity of penetration are examined. At the same time a comparison will be made between the experimental values and the, theoretical values based on the theory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell for the above variables.

4.3.1 Angle of Soil Shear Resistance

Density index is an indirect indicator of the angle of internal friction of cohesionless soils. The higher the density index the higher the angle of internal friction. To study the influence of the angle of internal friction on static penetration resistance, targets of silics-70 and with different density indicies were prepared. Three different density indicies and consequently three soil friction angles were used to represent dense smad, medium dense and and loose sand, these are S₁, S₂ and S₂ soils.

The influence of the angle of internal friction on penetration resistance is presented in Figs. 52 and 53 in the form of unit penetration resistance $q_{\mu} (kN/m^2)$ versus penetration depth (cm) for





. 107

different soil density indicies. Theoretical values based on the theory af Durgunoglu and Mitchell are also presented on the same figures.

It is seen from both theoretical and experimental results in these figures that the penetration resistance increases simificantly with increasing soil friction mule. The variation of the static penetration resistance with the value of density index for silica-70 sand is show in Figs. 54, 55 and 56 for the two sizes of the penetrometer. Three different ratios of relative depths (D/S) 1, 5 and 10 are presented for the 35.6 m penetrometer and two tatics 1 and 5 are presented for the 36.2 m penetrometer.

Analysis of the data in these figures shows that penetration resistance is very sensitive to soll density, i.e., to soll friction angle. It increases rapidly with increasing soll density and the rate of increasing is higher for higher densities. It was also noticed that the variation of penetration resistance with relative depth is a linear vertain, the slope of these lines decrease with decreasing relative depth. The type of variation is the same for the two sizes of the penetrmeter.

4.3.2 Cone Apex Angle

Another factor which affacts the penetration resistance significantly is the come spain-spec angle s. For the 76.2 m penetrometer, with a roughness of 0.5 and soil density index 0.8, Fig. 57s shows the relation between unit penetration resistance and penetration depth. Curves were drawn for come semi-spec angles of 15°, 30° and 90°. For the 35,6 mm penetrometer with the same variables, similar relationship is shown in Fig. 57b. The figures show that unity-spectration resistance



OF SILICA-TO SAND





increases with increasing cone semi-spex angle in all the tests.

The penetration resistance is shown as a function of the cons semi-space angle for the 35.6 mm diameter penetrometer in Fig. 58. The penetration resistance was taken at three relative depths, b/k = 1, 5 and 10 for this discussion. Similar curves for the 7602 m diameter penetrometer are shown in Fig. 59 at two relative depths b/R = 1 and 5. Theoretical curves were dram in all cases: It is seen that the correlation between the experimental values and the theory is good.

From Fig. 58 it can be seen that an increase of semi-apex mult from 15° to 30° causes an increase of 34% in penetration resistance at relative depth of 5 and 151 increase at relative depth of 1, while an increase of sumi-apex angle from 30° to 90° causes a corresponding increases in penetration resistance of 36% at relative depth 5 and 77% increases at relative depth 1. The effect of a change in the semi-apex sugle is more pronounced at greater depths. Further, the rate of infraese in penetration resistance is far rayid than in the region of suller angles. A similar phonomen is also seen for the 76.2 m dimeter sematrometer (71c. 59).

4.3.3 Base Roughness

The effect of base roughness on milt penetration resistance was studied using tips of different materials, stainless steel, polished aluminus and sended aluminum. The meterials have different relativeroughness of 0.5, 0.6 and 0.75 respectively/ Flg. 50s show the relationship between unitpenetration remainsee and penitration (spith for the 7.2 mpenetroseter for the three different materials. For



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(á)



58 VARIATION OF UNIT PERFERATION RESISTANCE WITH (SEMI-APEX ANGLE (g) FOR SILICA-70 SAND





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the 33.6 um penetronster the same relation is shown in Fig. 608. From Fig. 608, b, it can be seen that there is a significant effect of the base roughness on unit penetration resistance. Penetration resistance increases with increasing roughness at any depth and for any density index value.

The variation of unit penatration resistance as a function of roughness is presented in Figs. 61 and 62 for the two penetrometers. At any relative depth and for both the penetrometers, unit penetration resistance increases with increasing hase roughness. Theoretical curves shown in Figs. 61 and 62 are in good agreement with the experimental results.

4.3.4 Penetrometer Size

The influence of penetreseter size on static penetration resistance was studied by conducting penetration tests with two sizes of penetrometer keeping the other parameters constant. Figs. 63 and 64 show the relation between mat penetration resistance and penetration depth for the two types of penetrometer. The theoretical curves are also shown in these figures. It can be seen that the unit penetration resistance decreases with increasing size at any depth and for a given cone semimer angle and base renghmens. This brings out clearly the effect of the foundation width in the soil bearing capacity and is in conformity with theory.

4.3.5 Rate of Penetration

To check the influence of the rate of penetration on the penetration, resistance, tests were conducted using different velocities of penetration of 0.4, 2.0 and 4.0 cm/sec. The results are presented in Fig. 65
















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FIG. 65 INFLUENCE OF THE RATE OF PENETRATION ON STATIC PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF SILICA-70 SAND

for the two penetrometers. Figure 65 also shows the curves of static penetration obtained from theory. It is seen that experimental values at different penetration rates are very nearly the same and in close agreement with theory.

4.4 /Tests on Saturated Sand

The objective of these tests is to study the influence of the variables already discussed on the unit penetration resistance in saturated sand.

4.4.1 Angle of Soil Shear Resistance

Since the density index of the sum is an indication of 48. friction angle, three density indicies were chosen as was done for dry and. These are given in Table 13 (Sofis S_4 , S_5 and S_6). Fig. 66 shows the relation between ponetration resistance and depth at different density indicies for the two penetrybeters. The variation of the penetration remistance with density index is shown in Fig. 67a for the 76.2 m genetroseter and in Fig. 67b for the 35.6 m penetroseter at different relative depths. The was be seen that at any depth, penetration resistance is very sensitive to any change in soil density index and consequently to soil friction angle. To increase is much higher than in the dry case. It is also noticed that the variation between D_c and A_c is linear with a smaller slope for lower relative depths.

4.4.2 Cone Apex Angle

The influence of cone apex angle on penetration resistance in saturated sand is illustrated in Fig. 68 where the relation between



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INDEX OF SATURANED SILICA-70 SAND

unit pehetration resistance and depth is drawn for different come semi-spex angles. The influence of the semi-spex angle on the penetration resistance is shown in Fig. 69 for different relative depths. The benedemon observed in dry sand is confirmed in saturated sand also.

4.4.3 Base Roughness

Fig. 70 shows the unit penetration resistance versus depth drawn for different values of base roughness. The effect of base roughness on the penetration resistance at different relative dapths is skoyed in Fig. 71. The results are similar to the dry case, unit penetration/ resistance-increases with increasing base roughness.

4.4.4 Penetrometer Size

The two penetrometers were used in the saturated soil and experiments were conducted as was dony in dry soil. Comparable results are shown in Fig. 72. This again clearly demonstrates that the penetrometer size effects static penetration resistance whether the sund is dry or saturated. At any depth, penetration resistance is greater for the smaller penetrometer. For different come angle and different soil densities, static penetration resistance with the 35.6 m penetrometer is always higher than that from the 76.2 mm penetrometer.

4:4.5 Rate of Penetration

Similar to the dry sand, the effect of the rate of penetration on the resistance of assurated sand was also studied. The results are similar to those in dry sand. No significant effect for the rate of penetration on static resistance of saturated sand was policed as shown in Fig. 73.











(a)



FIG. 71 VARIATION OF UNIT, PENETRATION RESISTANCE WITH BASE

ROUGHNESS FOR SATURATED SILICA-70 SAND



FIG. 72 INFLUENCE OF PENETROMETER SIZE ON STATIC PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF SATURATED SILICA-70 SAND



FIG. 73 INFLUENCE OF PENETRATION VELOCITY ON STATIC PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF SATURATED SILICA-70 SAND

4.4.6 Influence of Saturation

It was noticed earlier in paragraph 4.4.1 that the penetration resistance in maturated and is higher compared to that in dry sand. Fig. 74 shows this comparison for both penetrometers for different soil properties. Contarion to an dutuitive lealing that maturation would decrease the strength due to pore pressure effects in the caps of and, manuration actually increases the soil resistance. At present there are no theoretical approaches to compute the penetration remistance in saturated sands. Schestmann (1975) has also noticed a similar phenomenon for sands. An earlier work by Dreed (1965) indicates the same type of behaviour for saturated sand in dynamic and free fall penetration testing. This effect of pere presure in sands and clays is discussed further at the and of this chapter.

4.5 Summary For Cohesionless-Soil

From test results on cohesionless-soil, some conclusions may be drawn and summarized as follows:

 Penetration resistance is very sensitive to the soil density and consequently to soil friction angle. It increases rapidly with increasing density.

(2) Penetration resistance increases with increasing cone apex angle.

(3) Penetration resistance increases with increasing base roughness.

(4) Penetration resistance increases with decreasing penetrometer diameter at any depth.

(5) Penetration resistance of cohesionless soil is independent



of the rate of penetration for the rates up to 4 cm/sec tested here.

(6) For saturated and, the penetration resistance values are higher than those of the dry case. Penetration resistance increases due to generation of negative pore pressure in cohesionless soils.

(7) There is a good agreement between the theory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell and the experimental values. This theory may be used with confidence for cohesionless soils.

(8) Both the 45 cm² Memorial University penetrometer and the 10 cm² / Nurro Type penetrometer give similar results except that the values betained from the 10 cm² penetrometer are higher than the values obtained from the 45 cs² penetrometer. This is in configurity with bearing capacity theory.

4.6 Tests On Clay

To choose an appropriate theoretical analysis for cohesive soils, regults of the penetration tests performed on the clay target wre compared with the theoretical values of Mayerhof (1961a) and Dargunogle and Mitchell (1973, 1975). The numerical technique suggested by Nowathi and Earsfach (1972, 1978) and used earlier for cohesionless soils is not applicable for cohesive soils. In their analysis, Nowathi Karafisth assumed that the trees boundary conditions at the free surface and along the wall of the hole caused by the penetrometer are stable and that the soil behind this hole tends to fail and failure surfaces developed cowards the hole. The latter situation occurs almost exclusively in cohesionless soils. Even a very mall asomt of cohesion is sufficient to issue stability of the hole and thus the bove theory is not relevent in cohesion sells.

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The results of penetration tests in this section are presented in Fig. 3 through Fig. 78 in the form of unit penetration resistance $\epsilon_{g}^{\prime}(kt)/e^{2}$ versus penetration depth D (cm). Theoretical values using both Keynchof's theory and hat of Durgunoglu and Mitchell are also shown on these figures. The combination of the different variables are shown each of these figures.

It may be seen from the data presented that Keyerhof's theoretical values are greater than the experimental values for D/B > 4 and less than the experimental values for D/B less than 4. A similar phenomenon observed previously in the case of coholicaless-soils was explained in section 4.2. The values of hurgunglu and Mitchell are in better agreement with the separimental values for stiff clay (Fig. 75 a, b) and medium stiff clay (Fig. 76b) and for soit clay the agreement is not good. The theoretical values are always higher than the experimental values in soft clay indicating the effect of soil compressibility on the static penetration resistance.

The ratios of predicted to measured pehetration resistance are presented in Tablee 14 and 15. It may be seen that these ratios are always greater than unity for Meyerhof's values (Table 14). Comparison with the values of-Durgunoglu and Mitchell (Table 15), gives ratios which are close to unity for dense deposit, indicating the validity of this method for general shear condition. However, for low densities, these ratios are larger than one, indicating the significant influence of soil compressibility on penetration resistance. The use of bearing capacity factors formulated for general shear conditions will cause overestimation of the penetration resistance of compressible deposits.





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FIG. 77. COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND PREDICTED STATIC PENETRATION CURVES FOR MODELLING CLAY

2 March



TABLE 14

RATIOS OF PREDICTED TO MEASURED PENETRATION RESISTANCE FOR MODELLING CLAY USING MEYERHOF FAILURE MECHANISM

Soil Type	Dry Density (Rg/m ³)	Cohesion (kN/m ²)	Water Content	<u>qf</u> predicted qf measured		
·			ำ -	D/B 2.8	D/B 5.6	D/B 9.8
V. Soft Clay	1240	5.5	4 0	1.62	1v76	1.76
RRelatively Medium Stiff Clay	1449	38.6	30.4	1.13	1,67	1.7
Relatively Stiff Clay	1600	47.8.	25	1.22	1.43	1.53

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TABLE 15

RATIOS OF PREDICTED TO MEASURED PENETRATION RESISTANCE FOR MODELLING CLAY USING DURGUNOGLU AND MITCHELL'S FAILURE MECHANISM

Soil Type	Dry Density (Kg/m ³)	Cohesion (kN/m ²)	Water Content (w%)	predicted q		
				D/B 2.8	D/B 5.6	D/B 9.8
V. Soft Clay	1240	5.5	40	1.3	1.7	1.76
Relatively Medium Stiff Clay	1449	38.6	30.4	1.24	1.19	1.18
Relatively Stiff Clay	1600	47.8	25.0	1.12	0.85	0.86

In compressible soils, the shear surface is restricted to a smaller zon around the penetrometer tip as suggested by Vesic (1963) for punching or local shear failure types.

4.7 Parameters Affecting Penetration Resistance in Clay

The objective of this part is to study experimentally the difference of the different penetrometer and soil variables on the penetration resistance of coherive soils. Since base roughness has little or no influence on the penetration resistance of the cohesive soils (Durgunoglu and Mitchell 1973), the variables to be examined are soil shearing strength, penetrometer size, come apex angle and relative depth of genetration.

Fig. 79 shows the relation between unit penetration resistance q_{\pm} (bN/m²) and penetration depth D (cm) for the modelling clay which has different shearing strength depending on its water content and its density. The dry clay sample had residual water content of 0.9%. Tests on this dry sample (c₀) shows that the soil behaves like a cohesionless material, this is shown in Fig. 79. When the water content is increased to 25% and the sample mad residue in the vater content is increased to 25% and the sample made into a stiff clay target, the penetration response is similar to that normally obtained in clay soils. Must have the content is increased from 25% to 30.4% the penetration resistance decreases by approximately 30%. The reduction in the actual them strength of the soil in this process is 20%. When the soil is a soft clay with 40% water content, the reduction in shear strength and the corresponding change in shear strength are dreatically different. It can thus be seen that the degree of saturation has an important effect on the penetration resistance.



FIG. 79 COMPARISON OF PENETRATION RESISTANCE IN MODELLING CLAY

The variation of penetration rehistance with cone semi-apex angle is illustrated in Fig. 80 for stiff clay for the two types of penetrometers. The variation is shown for different relative depths. From this figure one can infer that there is a significant increase in the penetration resistance with increasing cone semi-apex angle at any relative depth. In Fig. 80a at a relative depth of 10, there is an increase of 12% in penetration resistance for an increase from 15° to 30° in come semi-spex angle. When the come semi-apex increases from 30° to 90° at the same relative depth of an increase of 32% in penetration resistance was observed. At lower relative depth (D/B = 5), an inprease of 12% was noticed corresponding to a change of come semi-apex angle from 15° to 30°, while an increase of 50% was noticed for a change of semi-apex angle from 30° to 90°. The influence of come semi-apex angle on penetration resistance is more significant at lower relative depths than at higher values:

The influence of penatrometer miss on unit penetration resistance, is shown in Fig. 81. Both the penetrometers have a cone semi-spex angle = 30° and relative roughness = 0.5. A similar comparison is shown in Fig. 82 for the two penetrometers but with a cone semi-spex angle of 15°. It may be seen from these figures that, irrespective of soil shear strength and cone semi-spex majle, penetration resistance, for the 35.6 mm penetrometer is always higher than the values obtained using the 76.2 mm penetrometer at any doth. The difference between the two values are greater for stiff city and it decreases with decreasing shear strength for clay.









FIG. 81 INFLUENCE OF PENERGHETER SIZE ON STATIC PENERRATION RESISTANCE OF MODELLING CLAY



RESISTANCE OF MODELLING CLAY

4.8 Effect of the Rate of Penetration on Static Resistance of Cohesive Soils

The aim of, these tests is to study the influence of the rate of penetration on the ghear strength of chestve soils, since the rate of penetration represents an important factor which significantly affects this shear strength and consequently the penetration resistance of cohestve soils. As reported by Amar et al. (1975), the penetration resistance for cohestve soils value, with the speed of penetration, when the speed varies from 1 to 10, Amar et al. (1975) observed an increase in resistance of about 40% for soit clays and hearly 100% for lineau aft.

Penetration tests were conducted on clay targets of varying strength, 5.5 kN/m², 38.6 kN/m² and 47.8 kN/m². These tests were performed at five different penetration rates, 0.88 cm/sec, 1.76 cm/sec, 444 cm/sec. 888 cm/sec and 22 cm/sec. Other variables such as cone semi-apex angle ($\alpha = 30^{\circ}$), base roughness ($\delta/\phi = 0.5$) and penetrometer diameter (B. = 3.56 cm) were kept constant. Figures 83, 84 and 85 show the results of these tests for stiff, medium stiff and soft clay respectively. In these figures, the unit cone resistance and unit sleeve friction profiles are plotted to penetration depths of 40 cm for the five different penetration velocities. The results clearly demonstrate that an increase in the penetration velocity causes a corresponding increase in both cone and sleeve resistance for all types of the clay. For stiff clay, an increase of 30% in cone resistance was noticed when the velocity increased 10 times, and an increase of 45% was noticed when the velocity increased 25 timess For medium stiff clay, when the velocity increased 25 times an increase of 66% occurred in the cone






resistance while for soft clay the corresponding increase was 75%.

4.9" Strain Rate Effect

It has been long recognized that the shear strength of many soil types is dependent upon shearing rate, (Casagrande and Shannon 1949). For many of these types the shear rate effect is too complex to permit mathematical definition or prediction. However, successful treatment of the shear rate effect for saturated clays for both small strain and large strain loading has been accomplande recently by Turange and Preitage (1970). They observed that for saturated clays, cone index warded with pemetration rate according to the relation:

$$\frac{cI_x}{cI_x} = \left(\frac{\left(\frac{v}{d}\right)}{\left(\frac{v}{d}\right)}\right)^H$$

wherein:

 $CI_x = come index of penetration <math>V_x$ with come of diameter d_x $CI_y = come index of standard come,$ $V_x = penetration rate.$

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- diameter of 30° right circular cone, and

M .= exponent of shear rate factor.

The above expression was found/to hold good for speeds ranging from 0.031 to 4318 cm/sec, for disasters from 0.37 to 7.7 cm and saturated soils ranging from silt to heavy clay. The exponent ranged from 0.031 to 0.109 for these conditions.

Higger and Luth (1972 a, b) checked the applicability of the above expression using a horizontal high speed penetrometer, suggested a

correlation terr

where the V/L term is the velocity/length term. Expression [33] was used in this investigation to determine theoretical values for unit cone resistance at different penetration velocities. The interpretation of the results in this paragraph is based on the cone resistance values at penetration depth greater than 4D (≈20 cm), this depth . being the depth at which a constant value of cone and sleeve resistance is obtained. A comparison of the measured and the predicted values of cone penetration resistance using expression [33] is presented in Tables 16, 17 and 18 and shown graphically in Figures 86, 87 and 88 for stiff, medium stiff and soft clays respectively. The ratios of the predicted and measured cone resistance are also presented in the tables. It may be seen that these ratios are close to unity for the stiff and medium stiff clay indicating the validity of expression [33] for dense deposits. However, from Fig. 88 and Table 18 the difference between theoretical and experimental values is found to be large. The ratios of predicted to measured values are smaller than one, indicating that the use of expression [33] to predict cone penetration resistance in relatively compressible soils at any velocity underestimates the resistance.

4.10 Effect of the Pore Pressure on the Unit Penetration Resistance. The pore pressure field around a penetrating cone penetrometer" can exert a major influence on the magnitude of the measured penetration

[33]

 $\frac{CI_{g}}{\gamma L} = \left(\frac{V/L}{V_{g}/d_{g}} \right)^{0.1}$

COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND PREDICTED CONE RESISTANCE USING EXPRESSION (33) FOR STIFF MODELLING CLAY

Penetration Velocity cm/sec	Predicted Cone Resistance kN/m ²	Measured Cone Resistance kN/m ²	Predicted q _Q Measured q _Q
0.88	53.6	53.4	1.004
4.4	63.0	62.7	1,004
8.8	67.56	67.1	,1.006
22.0	74.0	72.8	1.045

TABLE 17

Penetration Velocity cm/sec	Predicted Cone Resistance kN/m ²	Measured Cone Resistance kN/m ²	Predicted 9, Measured 9,
0.88 \$	2.14	1.95	1.097
4.4		2.4	1.042 ²¹
8.8	2.7	2.55	1.095
22.0	2.96	3.10	0.954

COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND PREDICTED CONE RESISTANCE USING EXPRESSION (33.) FOR SOFT MODELLING CLAY

Penetration Velocity cm/sec	Measured Cone Resistance kN/m ²	Predicted Cone Resistance kN/m	q_predicted
0.88	0.396	0.4	0.99
. 4.4 /	0.46	0.6	0.766
8.8	0.5	0.7	0.714
22	0.55	0.725 .	0.728







resistance q. The measured penetration resistance sight be different from that which would be obtained under a fully drained condition. It is reasonable to expect, therefore, that the penetration resistance of such soils would be dependent on vator content and that interpretation of data obtained from tests in asturated soils should be does with care.

Schmertmann (1974 s, b) studied the effect of pore pressure on static cone resistance. He used a conspicementer to measure the excess hydrostatic pore pressure in the field for both cohesive and cohesionless solis. The piezometer recorded a positive pore pressure in case of cohesive solis and a segative pore pressure in case of cohesionless solis. Cone penetration tests were performed in the same sites for drained and undrained conditions. For undrained conditions, an increase of about 50% was recorded for cohesionless solis while a decrease of about 50% was recorded for cohesionless solis while a decrease of about 50% was recorded for cohesionless solis while a decrease of about 50% was recorded for cohesive solis compared to the drained tests. Schmertmann concluded that, the positive pore pressure reduces q_c in cohesive solis while the negative pore pressure increases of a footsionless-modils.

One can conceptually visualize this phenomenon in cohesive and cohesionless gass. - In case of cohesive soils, the permeability of the material is small and always results in an excess pore pressure. This causes a reduction in penetration resistance since the pore pressure is not dissipated. In the case of cohesionless while, the rate of penetration applies to virtually cause a pore pressure dissipation at a high rate resulting is a negative pressure as the penetrometer advances.

Fig. 74 shows a comparison of unit penetration resistance for day

and saturated sills 2-70 sand (cohestenless soll). It is clearly demonstrated that, penatration readytance in saturated cohestonless , solls is always higher than the penetration resistance in fry cohestonless solls irrespective of the soll density or penetrometer properties. An increase of about 600 was noticed for $T_D = 0.8$ and at a depth - 40 cm. This is due to the creation of negative port pressure which tends to therease the unit penetratin resistance.

For the modelling clay (cohesive soil), Fig. 79 shows the relation between unit penetration resistance and penetration depth at different wher contents. It may be seen that penetration resistance decreases with increasing water content, which is in part a result of the creation of a positive pore pressure.

The phenomenon of pore water pressure and its effect on penettation resistance was also studied by Preitsg at al (1970) who provided values of sprarent cohesion as a function of relative desity for Yuma and at various water contests. Fig. 89 shows these values. From the figure it is clear that cohesion decreases with increasing water contest at the same relative relative.

Another. explanation for this phenomenon was given by Melzer (1974) based on experimental studies using VES cone penetrometer and lass clay exhibiting different degree of seturation. He stated that with decreating degree of saturation; the fictional component of the soil bearing capacity becomes more dominant. As a consequence, the cone penetration readstance increases with decreasing degree of seturation at a given relative depth, as indicated in Figure 90.



(Helser 1974)

4.11 Experiment on Layered Soils

The problem of foundations on layered soil was treated by batton (1951) who assumed that a circular failure surface will occur in case of a footing on a two layered cohesive soil. This work has been further extended by Reddy and Spinutesan(1957), who considered anhomogeneity and Manisetropy of soil with respect to shear strength. Have presented numerical results in the form of graphs that can be readily used to calculate the bearing capacity of strip footing on a two layered cohesive ball. These graphs take into account the misotropy of the soils and are smiller in shape to that for isstropic case. As intrêmes of shout 15% in hearing capacity will result if K < 1 and a decrease of 50 if f × 1. "K" being defined as the coefficient of smilotropy, the ratio of the cohesive strength of the two layerging ($- G_{1}(c_{1})$.

Another extension of Button's shalpens of the bearing capacity for footing on Layered clays was carried out by Keyethof and Room (1967). They proved experimentally that the assumption of a cylindrical failure surface was incorrect. For a homogenous and isotropic solution, the assumption of a cylindrical surface leads to a value of N_c, which is about 71 higher than that obtained by the rigorous Prandil solution. Where the subsol' is sailer hemogenous nor isotropic, it is known that the failure surface will no longer be cylindrical failure our face will increase with isoressing nonknogeneity.

Bution's analysis gave tesults which were in all caffe higher than those obtained experimentally. The mode of feilure which occurs in almost all cases was a mombination of punching through the top layer

and mobilization of the full bearing capacity of the lower layer.

Note of the presently available solutions in the literature describe efficiently the failure schanics associated with efficiently the failure schanics associated with efficient penetration resistance of layered soils. In this investigation, preliminary tests on layered soil using the 10 cm² Fugro type penetrometer and the 45 cm² Remorial University penetrometer were conducted. Four types of layered system using silica-70 sand and the modelling clay were tested. A profile of the different layering combinations used, is shown in Fig. 91. Results are presented below:

(1) Type I. Figure 92 represents the relation between unit penetration presistance and penetration depth for this layered system. The suddem change of the value of penetration resistance in moving from layer to layer is clearly demonstrated in this figure. Analysis of the data of this test gives the following results:

1. The change in penetration resistance for the top layer is very small with an average value of 300 $\rm kN/m^2$ for the small penetrometer and of 175 $\rm kN/m^2$ for the 45 cm² penetrometer.

 In the second layer, which is a dense sand deposit, the unit penetration resistance reaches its maximum value.

3. For bottom layer, unit resistince decreases up to a value of 1500 ks/m² for small penetrometer and up to 1100 ks/m² for the big denetrometer and it becomes almost constant at these values. 4. The general shape of the unit penetration resistance versus penetration depth is alcost the same for the two sizes of the penetrometers, but the values of the same for ark always before these values is the larger diminet a set.





FIG. 92 STATIC PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF LAYERED SOILS, (TYPE I)

(2) Type II. Figure 92 shows the results of tests in this soil. The following observations are made:

 The penetration resistance in the loose sand is small. An average of 50 kW/m² (small penetrometer) and an average of 35 XB/m² (big/penetrometer) is observed.

2. In the mixed layer, no significant increase in the unit penetration is observed, it is almost constant along the entire depth of the layer with an average of 125 and 75 kd/m² for small and big size penetrometer respectively.

3. At the bottom, the stiff clay layer, there is a under instease in the value of the penetration resistance which reaches ifs maximum. At the maximum depth of penetration in this layer, a resistance of $175 \text{ M}/M^{-2}$ (gmll size one), and 550 MM/m² (big size one) are resorted.

(3) Type HE. 71g. 93 shows the results of tests in type III layered soil. Examining this figure, one can notice the sudden increase in prestration resistance between the top and the mid layers and also the sudden decrease between the mid and the bottom layer.

1. For the top soft cisy layer, the increase in penetration resistance is very small from 0.0 to 100 kN/m² (35.6 mm penetrometer) and from 0.0 gp 55 kN/m² (76.2 mm penetrometer).

 For the stiff clay layer, penetratics resistance increases repidly with depth, till it reaches its maximum, 623 kV/m² (3⁴,6,mm penetrometer) and 239 kV/m² (16.2.mm penetrometer).

 For the bottom layer, penetration residtance decreases till it reaches for constant value of 200 kH/m² (35.6 pm penetro meter) and 150 kH/m² (76.2 mm penetropater).



FIG. 93. STATIC PRETRATION RESISTANCE OF LAWRED SONS (TYPE II)



FIG. 94 STATIC PERETRATION RESISTANCE OF LAYERED SOILS (TYPE III)

(4) Type IV. The test results in this type of soil is presented in Fig. 94 which is similar to Figure 93 with a slight difference in the value of pemetration resistance.

1. For the top layer, the change in penetration resistance is from 0.0 to 225 kt/m^2 for small size penetrometer and from 0.0 to 65 kt/m^2 for the larger penetrometer.

2. The maximum value of penetration resistance occurs in the middle layer, at a value of 950 kN/π^2 (35.6 mm penetrometer) and 280 kN/π^2 (76.2 mm penetrometer).

3. The average value of penetration resistance in the bottom layer is 275 kM/m^2 for the 35.6 mm penetromater and 150 kM/m^2 for the 76.2 mm penetrometer.

At this time there are no well defined theoretical methods for a satisfactory calculation of the penetration resistance in layered systems similar to those used in this investigation for cohesive and cohesionless soils. An attempt was made to use the approaches of Meyerhof (1961a) and Durgenoglu and Mitchell (1973) to correlate the experimental results obtained here. It is fait that a substantial modification of these theories would be required for evolving a meaningful analysis. It will be also necessary to experimentally observe the shape of the failure surface particularly when penetration ocdure in the transition gone. The complexity of the problem could be explained further with reference to Figs. 92 to 94. When the penetrometer enters from one layer to the immediately succeeding layer below, there is always an interaction between the two layers as far as the alth lines are concerned. The strength of the underlying layer





vill be fully mobilised only when the entire failure zone is restricted to that layer victous may interaction with the overlying soil type. This can be very clearly observed is all the experimental data presented, when there is a transition from a weak layer to a stronger layer, the full advantage of the better soil is obtained only after substantial penetration into the layer. Any theory that will be proposed has to take this phenomenon into account and he able to predict the optimum depth of penetration to make the best uses of the properties of the individual layer. This is an interesting phenomenon that was esticad and is to be parqued as a separate research problem.

4.12 Interpretation of Field Test Results

Although a good correlation has been shown in the preceeding paragraphs, an interpretation of field tests is an art based on experience. This is due to the fact that more than one withold is to be evaluated from the available measurements, generally by trial and error. In the evaluation of the come penetrometer, methods have been developed for use in specific soil types. For example, De beer (1945) has developed a method that is applicable particularly to noils in Belgum. An angle of 30° is initially assumed for the soil and values of the apparent angle of internal friction and cohesion are computed from field come resistance values. Similarly modification of this method is used for cohesive and cohesive frictional foils. There are other method in practice suggested by Mayerbed (1961a), Janbu and Semmeset (1974), themethod of Durgunogiu and Mitchell (1973, 1975). The stabled of Durgunogiu and Mitchell (1977). The sectod of Durgunogiu and Mitchell (1974). The sectod of Durgunogiu and Mitchell (1974).

Share a state of the state of the

is a reverse application to their theory, its use in constive fraction soils involves measurements with two penetrometers of different sizes from which the values of C and 4 can be found out.

A decailed discussion of the methods is not made in this metric as they are well documented and are not particularly relevant here. However, computations were made using the various methods in the emperiments reported here and also to the tests on Montrery and No. 0 reported by Durgungel and Mitchell (1973). The results are tabulated, in Table 19 through 30, Fig. 96 shows a comparison of 4 values computed by different theories.

From these calculations it is seen that the methods of De Beer (1945) and Meyerhof (1961a) are simple but they constantly yield low values of \$. Theory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973) requires a knowledge of cone roughness and the coefficient of earth pressure at rest. Values obtained by this method, are close to the messure values. Janbu's method is applicable only to cases where q varies linearly with depth by at least close to a linear variation. Schmertpam's method is emplicable to a linear variation. Schmertpam's method is emplicable in the coefficient of any if the coefficient of earth pressure at rest is known.

and they are had stated

	Dense	Sand			Mediu	n Dense	•		Loose	Sand.		
	Y 1	7.2 kN/m				15.60 kM/	20		H L BAN	/NN 86.9	n	
Depth	^q c kN/m²	Υ _n Di tkN/m ²	, ч,	6 ¢ degree	qc kN/m ²	kN/m ²	q _c /Y ₈ D.	¢ degree	q _c ', kN/m ²	$\gamma_n^D \\ kN/m^2$	9 _c /7 ₈ D	¢ degre
5.0	183	0.86	213	32	. 09	0.78	11	26	51	0.75	67	24.5
0.0	373	1.72	217	32	160	1.56	102	27	120	1.5	80	25.8
5.0	660	2.58	256	33	262	2.34	112	28.1	232	2.247	103	27.8
0.0	1030	3.44	300	33.8	500-	3.12	160	30.5	322	3	107	28
2.04	1400	4.3	326	34.3	650	3.9	167	31.	382	3.75	102	27.5
0.0	1750	5.16	339	34.8	800	4.68	.171.	R	400	4 S	89	27
5.0	2120	6.06	352	34.9	920	. 5.46	168	31	450	5.2	86	27
0.0	2413	6.88	351	34.9	1040	6.24	167	31	550	5.9	10	27.2
Average												

* A p. 14 842

TABLE 19

BEER METHOD FOR SILICA-70 SA

1. S	Y 1	6.81 kg/m	1	1.1.1.1	144	- 8×	5.96 K	()m2	1.2.2.4		8	10.0T	KN/m		
epth B	4 ₆ \ kN/∰ ²	r ^a D [*]	а <mark>с// в</mark> р	¢.		q _c kN/m ²	d "L	7'26	+ -ē	Bree	q c KN/p	2 Ya	m2 4c/7	а _в .	lagrae
	255	0.84	303	33	8	115	0.8	144	1	30.0	10	0	78 13	2	29
	517	9.7	323	34	8	250.	4.6	157		30.2	150		55 9	2	27.9
5	819	2.52	325	34		377	2.4	151	1.1.1	30.2	221	2	33 9	5	27.8
. 02	EOTT.	3.36	328	34		910	3.2	159	1.55	30.3	300	. 3	1. 6	9.9	28
5	1495	4.2	356	34	6	. 657	4.0	165		30.4	360	3.	6 6	12.7	27.5
0	1840	5.04	. 365	39	2	800	4.8	167	1	30.4	42		29	1.0	27

1 2 2 3

EVERIOF METHOD FOR SILICA-70 SAND

	s/m3	Ya = 14.98 h	KN/m
a, - 9 _a /m	\$-degree	Nq = q_c/10	\$-degree
78.4	36.1	69	35.9
04.5	37.0	81.6	36.4
14.2	37.5	105.2	37.0
63	39.0	109.4	37.2
70	39.10	103.9	37.0
	39.20	90.7	36.8
71.8	39.0	87	36.5
_0*0Z	39.0	93.5	37.0
0 Y BE			0
FFFF	1.10 1.0 3.0 3.0 3.0 3.0 3.0 3.0	01.00 05.99 0.99 0.09 0.09 0.09 0.09	

EVERHOP-WETHOD FOR MONTEREY SAND NO.

r fi , e					1			14- 74 (
(/m3	¢ degree	37.5	36.5	36.5	36.5	36.2	36.0	0
Loose Sand Y ₈ = 15.83 k	$N_q = q_c / \gamma_s^D$	132	- 26	95.0	98.6	92.7	2.06	
•/ ^{"3}	(ș degree	38.2	38.5.	38.5	38.5	38.6	38.6	•
Medium Dense Y _s = 16.27 ki	$N_{\mathbf{q}}=\mathbf{q}_{\mathbf{c}}/\gamma_{\mathbf{B}}$	144	136.6	157.0	159.0	164.7	167.0	38
e.	¢ degree	41.8	41.9	6.14	42.0	42,1	42.2	0
Dense Sand Y _a = 17.1 kW	a ^s / ³ b = 5	303.5	322.9	325.0	328	335.95	365	100 C
	Depth	5	10,	15	20	25	8	6 6

CUNCELLI AND MUTCHELL, METHOD FOR SILLICA-70 SAN

	1. 8	.2 kN/m		, set	2.60 kN/m	0			0.
elative epth (D/B)	4c kN/d2	PY'S PY'N	¢- degree	4f kk/m²	bi, bi,	e . e dearee	¶e ka/s²	Nyg 5yg	¢ degree
1.4	. 183	305	45.1	69	OIL	40	5	97.5	37:5
2.8	373	620	45.1	160	. 294	. 14	/120 and	229	39
4.2	660	1098	45.1	. 262	481	41.2	232	443	40
5.6	1030	1669	45.5	2 500	918	42 .	322	615	07
7.0	1400	2329	4535	650	1193	42.5	382.	061	ó†
8.4	1750	2912	45.5	800	1469	42.4	400	764	39.5
9.8	2120	3528	45.5	920	1689	42.5	450	860	39
с. п	2413	4015	45.4	1040	7 T909	42.4	. 550	1051	39
¢		45.00			41.00			30.00	

MEASURED AND PREDICTED VALUES OF & FOR MONTEREY SAND

Type of Sand) ^Y s kN/m ³	♦-Predicted degree	¢-Measured degree	+-Predicted
Dense Sand	A# 17.1	45.6	46.8	0.97
Medium Sand	16.27	42.9	42.9	· 1-4
Loose Sand	15.83	39.7	39.7	11/1

The of a second

ff

TABLE 25.

JANBU METHOD FOR-SILICA-70 SAND

Y _B kN/n ³	Slope N P	Ng Ng.+ I Ng.+ I	tan ¢.	degree
.17.2	305	306	1.04	46.0°
15.60	147	148	0:9	41.7°
14.98	.91 	92	0.8	38.7°

TABLE 26

JANBU METHOD FOR MONTEREY SAND NO. 0 ...

Ys kN/m ³	Slope N _p	N = N + 1	tan ø	¢ degree
17.10	303	304	1.00	45 ⁰
16.27	159	160	0.95	43.6°
15.83	96	97	0.88	41.4°

. x.

1

 $p(\mathbf{i})$ Relative Depth ٩f 6 % Kg/cm² Kg/cm2 Kg/cm (nax) Density degree cm. 0.001688 40.0 24.13 0.068 80 43.5° b.00153 40.0 11.00 0.060 45.0 39° 37° 0.00147 40.0 6.00 0.0588 30.0

SCHMERTHANN METHOD FOR SILICA-70 SANE

TABLE 28

SCHMERTMANN METHOD FOR MONTEREY SAND NO. O

Y ₆ Kg/cm ³	Depth (max) cm	9 _f Kg/cm ²	γð Kg/cm ²	Relative Density ID ^Z	¢ degree
0.001681	30.0	18.40	0.05	70	42.2
0.001596	30.0	8.00	0.048	35	37.8
0.001553	30.0 -	.4.23	0.047	18	35.5

MARY OF ALL RESULTS (VALUES OF 4)

Types of. Sand	Unit Weight kN/m	Test	De Beer (T945)	. Meyerhof (1961a)	Durgumoglu Mirchell (1973)	Jarbu (1974)	Schmertmanr (1975)
Silica- 70 Dense	17.20	440	33.5	41.5	45.76	46	. 43.5
Silica- 30 Medium Dense	15.60	*0.04	30	38.5	41.0	2.14	39
Silica- 70 % Loope	14.98	380	26.5	36.5	39.0	38.7	46
Monterey Sand No. 0 Dense	17.10	46.6	34.5	42	45.6	46	42.2
Monterey Sand A No. 0 Medium Dense	I6.27	42.9	30.2	38.5	42.9	43.6	37.8
Monterey Sand No. 0 Loose	15.83	39.7		36.5	39.7	41.4	35.5

DURGUNOGLU AND MUTCHELL METHOD FOR THE MODELLING CLAY.

Type of Glay	Water Content	Y _n (dry). kN/m ³	C-Predicted kN/m ²	C-Measured kN/m ²	C Predicted C Measured
Stiff Clay	25	16.30	52.9	47.8	1.106
Medium Stiff - Clay	30.4	14.77	33.1	38.6	0.858
Soft Clay	40	12.64	4.6	5.5	0.836



CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The research reported have is part of a comprehensive program to develop a 45 cm² (nominal) free fall impact penetrometer for use in the oceans. Evaluation of quasi static penetration tests was made in conjunction with a standard 10 cm² Jugro type penetrometer.

Three theoretical methods, Meyerhof (1961a), Novatzki and Karafath (1973, 1978) and Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973, 1975) were considered and compared with the results of centrolled laboratory, penetration tests conducted on a fine seand (silica-70) and on silvy clay (modelling clay): Variables such as the penetrometer roughness, base apex angle, relative depth and the angle of shear resistance of soil were considered. Experiments were also conducted in layered soil

The following conclusions are drawn from the present investigation pertinent to the range of variables investigated in this study.

 Among the vertous solutions available for the penetrometer problem, only those-of Mayerhof (1961a), Noverthi and Karefisch (1972, 1978) and Durgungglu and Mitchell (1973, 1973) take into account the penetrometer respinses, biase apex angle and relative depth which influence the penetration resistance.

2. Heyerhol's mathod overcentimates the penetration resistance inithe deep foundation zone and is conservative in the shallow foundation region, while the method of Novataki and Karafisch is always conservative.

3. The agreement between measured and predicted values using

the théory of Durgunoglu and Mitchell for cohesionless and cohesive soils use quite good. This analytical method can be reliably used for predicting the static penetration resistance of relatively incompressible soils.

4. Tests in dry and showed that penetration restatance is influenced by the sugle of shear resistance for the soil, the spex angle of the cone, the base roughness and the size of the penetrometer. The penetration resistance is highly sensitive to changes in the soil atrength as shown in tests on soils of these different density indicies. Increasing apex angle of the cone results in increased penetration resistance. Similarly, increasing relative roughness of the cone increases the penetration resistance. An increase in the diameter of the penetrometer decreases correspondingly the resistance to penetration. This phenomenon an be logically explained with reference to bearing capacity equations. Although the larger diameter benetrometer consistently gave lesser penetration resistance, the effects of the various other parameters were shifter to both penetrometers.

5. Tests in slity clay show that the resistance to penetration is influenced by the soil cohesion, cone spex angle penetrometer dismeter and soil compressibility. In medium stiff and stiff clays, the penetration resistance is sensitive to the shear strength of the soil. The influence of cone spex angle is similar to that observed in sand. An increase in the dismeter of the penetrometer reduces the penetration resistance, similar to the effect observed in sand. Come roughness has, no perceptable effect in clays. Interpretation of tests in clay requires some caution. Results on compressible soft clay show that they are not semable to rollable analysis, due to local and punching shear failure. The effects of various parameters on the larger penetrometer is similar to that observed in the standard one.

5. Baye of penetration is an important variable, since the results are to be finally used for the free fall penetrometer. Penetro tim rates of 0.4 cm/sec to 22 cm/sec vere tested, in this range, tests on used showed no rate effects. However, the clay was found, sensitive to the strain rate affect. It may also be guilified here that the velocity of the free fall penetration tests is in the order of 7.5 m/sec and the result obtained in this investigation need not mecasary hold good for a direct application. At these meeds, some effect even in ands is likely.

7. Tests on saturated sand and clay show that pore vater causes some shortwaltites in come penetration test results. In sands, a negative pore pressure is developed, resulting in a higher penetration resistance while in clays the pore water pressure increases causing a decrease in the resistance.

8. Tests on layered soils show that the relative strength of the stronger layer can be used to advantage in foundation designs, if the depth at which maximum penetration resistance occurs can be determined.

9. Tests with the two types of penetrometer show that the behaviour and response of the 45 cm² penetrometer is similar to the standard Fugro type sensetometer, accept that the absolute values of penetration resistence are smaller when the diameter increases. The Memorial Duiversity) penetrometer can thus be used in practice with as much confidence as the standard penetrometer.

Recommendations for further research:

a) Pore pressure is a factor to be reckoned with when the penetrometer is used at sea. Limited references are available in the literature where this effect is quantitatively evaluated. It is suggested that further research efforts be made in this area.

b) Compressibility of the soil will be a problem in testing surficful underconsolidated ocean sidements. Reliable reduction factors are necessary to interpret the results on such soils. This is an area to be studied further.

1 c) Higher penetration rates in the range mesoured for the free fall cone penetrometer tests is reported (Chaudhuri, 1979) to have an influence even on said targets. Efforts should be made to investigate this influence.

d) Research on layered soils is an area that should be purpued further, in the light of the interesting observations made in this investigation.
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APPENDIX A

SPECIFICATIONS OF THE STRAIN GAGES USED IN THE PENETROMETERS

The strain gages used in the penetrometers are of EA-06-125BT-120 series constant strain gages widely used in experimental stress analysis.

A The gages are of open-faced construction with a 0.03 mm, tough, flexible polyimide film backing. They have the following specifications:

Temperature Range: -100°F (-75°C) to +350°F (+175°C) for continuous

use in static measurements, -320°F (-195°C) to -400°F (+205°C) for special or short term exposure.

Strain Limits: Approximately %%% for gage lengths 1/8" (3.2 mm) and larger; and approximately 3% for gage lengths under 1/6" (3.2 mm).

Resistance: . The resistance in Ohms for the EA series gages by 120.0+ 0.157.

Gage Factor: ' The gage factor at 75°F is 2.075+ 0.5%.

Fatigue Life:

 $10^8 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 1200^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^6 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 1500} \ {\rm m}^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 1500} \ {\rm cycles at \pm 1500} \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm m}/{\rm s}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 2000^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^5 \ {\rm cycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}); 10^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}}); 10^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}({\rm sycles at \pm 200^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u})); 10^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}); 10^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u})); 10^{\rm u}/{\rm (}^{\rm u}/$

The circuit diagrams for cone load cell and sleeve load cell are

showin in Figures A.1 and A.2 respectively.



FIG. A.1 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM FOR CONE LOAD CELL

Q . ..



FIG. A.2 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM FOR SLEEVE LOAD CHT

APPENDIX B

APPLICATION OF PLASTICITY THEORY TO PROBLEMS INVOLVING PENETRATION RESISTANCE

A finite difference approximation based on the method of characteristics was used in the numerical analysis of the differential equations of the axially symmetric case which is applicable to penetration or bearing capacity problems. To derive the differential equation for the axially symmetric case, consider the equilibrium of the element shown in Fig. B.1. The main difference between the axially symmetric case and the plane strain condition is that the circumferential stress is the intermediate principal stress (a,) and is equal to the minor principal stress (o,). Because of the axial symmetry, the formulation of the equilibrium equations is done more efficiently in polar coordinate as shown in Fig. B.1, where the symbols o, o, o, t17, t17, t27 and t21 are the stress components acting on the soil mass. The principal stress directions and orientation definition, are analogus to those of the plane strain case given by Sokolovski (1960) and are shown in Fig. B.2. The angle 0 is a function of the local stress state within the soil mass and therefore Sokolovski proposed the general relationship:

 $\theta = (1 - K) \pi/4 + (K\Delta - \delta) + n\pi$

TB.11

where

$$\begin{split} \delta &= \text{ obliquity angle in the classical soil mechanics sense i.e.} \\ \delta &= \arctan\{\tau_{xz}^{*}/(\sigma_x + \psi)\}; \end{split}$$

Δ = arc sin(sinδ/sinφ)

K = +1 (passive); -1 (active)



FIG. B.1 STRESSES ON ELEMENT - POLAR COORDINATES



FIG. B.2 PERTINENT ORIENTATIONS

n = any integer; usually 0 or ± 1

Axial symmetry requires that the shar stresses $\tau_{\lambda z}$ and $\tau_{\lambda T}$ vanish so that at equilibrium the summation of the forces in the r and z directions yields:

$$\partial \sigma_{\mathbf{r}} / \partial \mathbf{r} + \partial \tau_{\mathbf{z}\mathbf{r}} / \partial \mathbf{z} + (\sigma_{\mathbf{r}} - \sigma_{\lambda}) \mathbf{n} / \mathbf{r}$$
 [B.2a]

$$\partial \tau_{r}/\partial r + \partial \sigma_{r}/\partial z + \gamma + n \tau_{r}/r = 0$$
 [B,2b]

where n is a constant which is zero for plane strain conditions and 1 for the axially symmetric case.

The basic equations of the transformation of stress components between stresses in polar coordinates and principal stresses when $\sigma_1 > (\sigma_2 = \sigma_3)$ is:

$$= (\sigma_{r} + \sigma_{s})/2 + (1/4(\sigma_{r} - \sigma_{s})^{2} + \tau_{rs}^{2})^{1/2}$$
(B.3a)

$$= (\sigma_{np} + \sigma_{z})/2 - (1/4(\sigma_{r} - \sigma_{z})^{2} + \tau_{rz}^{2})^{1/2} \qquad (B.3b)$$

$$\sigma_{\chi} + \sigma_{g} = \sigma_{g}, \qquad (16.36)$$

From which

$$(\sigma_1 + \sigma_2)/2 + (\sigma_1 - \sigma_2)/2 \cos^2 2\theta$$
 [B.4a]

$$=\sigma_1 + \sigma_2/2 - \sigma_1 - \sigma_3/2 \cos 2\theta$$
 [B.4b]

$$\tau_{-} = (\sigma_1 - \sigma_3)/2 \sin 2\theta$$
 [B.4c]

Substituting Equations (B.4) into Equations (B.3) and following the same mathematical procedure described by Sokolowski (1940) and given in detailaby Newembric and Karafiath (1978) the following general

and the second second

differential equations are obtained for the axially symmetric case

(n = 1):

$$dz = dr \tan(\theta + \mu)$$

do + 20 tano d0 - (dz + tano dr)y + no/risino dr + tano

The corresponding recurrence relations are

$$dz = dr \tan (\theta \pm \mu)$$
 [B.6a]

do + 20 tano d0 - (dz + tano dr)y+.

The corresponding recurrence relationships are:

$$\begin{split} & t_{i,j} = \left[2 \sigma_{i,-1,j} - \sigma_{i,j-1} (1 - \tan \phi (\theta_{i-1,j} - \theta_{i,-j-1})) + \\ & \overline{\phi} \sigma_{i,j-1} + \overline{b} \sigma_{i-1,j} - \sigma_{i-1,j} - \sigma_{i,j-1} (\overline{b} / r_{i-1,j} + \\ & \overline{b} / r_{i,1-1}) \right] / [\sigma_{i,j-1} + \sigma_{i-1,j}] \end{split}$$

$$(3)$$

$$t_{i,j} = \left[\sigma_{i,j-1} + 2 \tan \phi (\sigma_{i-1,j} - \theta_{i-1,j}) + \\ & \sigma_{i,j-1} - \sigma_{i,j-1} - \overline{\phi} + \overline{b} + (\sigma_{i-1,j} - \theta_{i-1,j}) + \\ & \sigma_{i,j-1} - \theta_{i,j-1} - \overline{\phi} + \overline{b} + (\sigma_{i-1,j} - \theta_{i-1,j}) + \\ \end{split}$$

 $(\sigma_{i,j-1} \ \bar{\mathbf{B}}/r_{i,j-1}] / [2 \ tand (\sigma_{i-1,j} + \sigma_{i,j-1})]$ [B.6d]

$$\bar{A} = \sin\phi(r_{i,1} - r_{i-1,j}) - \tan\phi(1 - \sin\phi) (r_{i,j} - r_{i-1,j})$$

 $a = sin\phi(r_{i,j} - r_{i,j-1}) + tsn\phi(1 - sin\phi) (z_{i,j} - z_{i,j-1})$

$$\begin{split} \tilde{c} &= \gamma [z_{i,j} - z_{i-1,j} - \tan \phi (r_{i,j} - r_{i-1,j})] \\ \tilde{b} &= \gamma [z_{i,j} - z_{i,j-1} + \tan \phi (r_{i,j} - r_{i,j-1})] \end{split}$$

The expressions for r and z in this case are:

$$\mathbf{x}_{i,j} = \mathbf{x}_{i-1,j} + \mathbf{e}_2(\mathbf{x}_{i,j} - \mathbf{x}_{i-1,j})$$
(B.66)

$$\mathbf{r}_{i,j} = (\mathbf{z}_{i-1,j} - \mathbf{z}_{i,j-1} + \alpha_1 \mathbf{r}_{i,j-1} - \alpha_2 \mathbf{r}_{i-1,j})/(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)$$
 (B.6g

where

$$a_1 = tan(\theta_{1,1-1} + \mu)$$

To sply these recurrence relations to the problem of cone penetretion resistance, the geometric boundary conditions as well as the stress boundary conditions must be formulated appropriately and included in a computer program.

A Computer Program to Determine Cone Penetration Resistance Using the Finite Difference Approximation:

The geometric boundary conditions are simply asthematical desiriptions of the cone genestry and its position or depth in terms of r, z and B_0 as shown in Fig. N.3. As reported by Howstrick and Karafisth (1976), the stress boundary conditions at the free surface and slong, the wall of the hole are stalle, or the soil behind the hole tends to fail and failure surfaces develops towards the hold. The latter situation occurs almost exclusively in cohesionlase soils, size a very small



amount of cohesion is sufficient to insure stability of the hole for small depth of penetration, and therefore, the program is valid only for cohesionless solls.

The boundary conditions at the soil-cone interface are of the GQUEAT type (Harr 1956) that require the specification of a relationship for the geometry and mother one for the direction of the major principal stress. The first relationship is defined by the angle (\emptyset) which the interface makes with the horizontal, while the latter condition is satisfied by assuming that the direction of α_1 is constant and corresponds to a specified angle of interface friction (δ). For these conditions the numerical/computation of the slip line field geometry and the associated stresses is straight forward. The stress boundary condition on the horizontal plane through the base of the cone is given by the surcharge and overfurden pressure γ (Fig. B.3):

 $\sigma = \gamma D/(1 - Sin(\phi))$

....

18.7b1

The slip-line field and associated stresses in the pairive zone are computed by Equations [B,6] starting with these boundary values andson assumed value for the horizontal extent of the passive zone. (Log 5d). In the radial shear zone, the same equations are used, but special consideration is given to the central point (0) where the jlines converge. This point is a degenerated slip line, where 0 chamkes from its value at the passive boundary to that specified at the active zone boundary. The field of a called singular point. In numerical solution procedure, the singular point is obtained by dividing the

total change in θ by the number of i-lines converging at that point.

This result in an equal 20 increment between adjacent i-lines at the singular point.

 $\theta_{active} = (1 - K)\pi/4 + (K\Delta - \delta) + n\pi$

epassive = 0.0

The o values for each increment are computed from the equation:

σ = σexp(2(σ - σ) tanφ) [B.8c]

[B.8a]

With these values of σ and 0 for each slip line at point 0, the coordinates as well as the σ and 0 values for all other points in the radial shear zone can be computed by Equations [D.6]. In the active 'zone the same equations are used, except for the points at the loaded' surface of the constraints. Here $\theta_{1,j}$ is assigned and the following conditions pertain (Noverki and Karánita 1978):

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{z}_{i,j} &= \mathbf{z}_{0} + (\mathbf{R}_{0} - \mathbf{x}_{i,j}) \tan(\theta_{i,j} + \theta_{i-1,j})/2 - \mu) \\ \mathbf{x}_{i,j} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_{i-1,j} \tan((\theta_{i,j} + \theta_{i-1,j})/2 - \mu) \\ - \mathbf{z}_{i-1,j} + \mathbf{R}_{0} \tan(\theta + \mathbf{z}_{0}) \end{bmatrix} / \begin{bmatrix} \tan((\theta_{i,j} + \theta_{i-1,j})/2 - (\mathbf{R}, \theta_{0}) \\ - \nu \mathbf{I} + \tan(\theta_{0}) \end{bmatrix} \\ - \nu \mathbf{I} + \tan(\theta_{0}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{g}_{i,j} &= \mathbf{g}_{i-1,j} + \mathbf{g}_{i-1,j} (\theta_{i,j} - \theta_{i-1,j}) \tan(\theta + \overline{\theta}) \\ - (\mathbf{g}_{i-1,j} + \overline{\theta}_{i-1,j}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{g}_{0})$$

$$(\mathbf{R}, \mathbf{g}_{0})$$

B' = complement to half the cone apex angle.

 $\mu = \pi/4 - \phi/2$

 $z_0 = depth$ to which base of cone has penetrated $R_0 = radius$ of cone base

The numerical computation is performed and adjustments made, using iteration techniques, to the value summed for the horizontal extent of the passive zone until the slip line field closes according to the required accuracy, on the axis of symmetry at the spex of the cone.

At this stage, the calculation for penetration resistance starts. If the face of the cons encloses an angle s/2 with the vertical then the following relationship for penetration resistance, P, holds:

[B.10a]

[B.10b

[B.10c]

 $P = \int_{A} [\sigma_n \sin(\alpha/2) + \tau \cos(\alpha/2)] dA$

 $\tau = (\sigma_n + \psi) \tan \delta$

 $P = \int_{A} [\sigma_n \sin(\alpha/2) + \sigma_n \cos(\alpha/2) \tan \delta]$

+ \$ Cos(a/2) tan6] .dA

The method of computation outlined above is well suited for the analysis of the effect of various input parameters on cone penetration resistance. The output of the given computer program is the slip line field and the unit penetration resistance at the required depth.

Input Data

where

therefore

a) control card (21 10)

Columns 1 - 5 Number of data set to be talculated

11 - 20 Number of depths at which the above data sets are to be used.

b) Slip-lines characteristic card (F5.0, 615)

Columns 1 - 5 assumed length of passive zone

6 - 15 number of j-slip lines

16 - 25 number of 1-slip lines

26 - 35 1-line ends the passive zone

36 - 45 j-line starts the radial shear zone

46 - 55 1-line ends the radial shear zone

56 - 65 i-line starts the active zone

c) penetrometer and soil properties card

: Columns

1 - 10 penetrometer diamater (8 - DIAM)
11 - 20 penetrometer cone angle (2a - ALFA)
21 - 30 penetrometer to soil friction angle

(6 - DELTA)

31 - 40 unit weight of soil (Y - GAMA)

41 - 50 cohesion of soil (C - COHES)

d) depth versus friction angle card

Columns 1. - 10 depth of penetrometer base

11 - 20 angle of internal friction at this depth

Notes

1. Data cards must be in proper sequence.

2. Units must be considered.

3. For N sets of data, N cards for slip-lines characteristic

are required. Also N cards of penetrometer and soil projecties are meded.

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For M sets of points, M cards of depth versus friction

angle are required for each of the above sets.

Output of the Computer Code

For each data set, the plip lines characteristics and eggetrometr and soil properties are printed out. For each set of depth and the corresponding friction angle, R-cord, 2-cord, signs and thets at each (1,.) point in the slip line field are printed out in the following sequence:

1. Prescribed values at the boundary of the passive zone.

2. Values inside the passive zone.

3. Transitional values from passive to active zone:

4. Values of the radial shear zone ...

5. Values of the active zone. .

At the end of each slip lines configuration, the mit penetration resistance at this depth is printed out.

LISTING OF THE COMPUTER FROGRAM TO DETERMINE COME PENETRATION RESISTANCE / USING THE FINITE DIFFERENCE APPROXMATION

a service of the serv

- Sec. 211.2.

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SPACE LOS

//f.4200502.j08.(4200.502C.3.8).644AC.CLASS=C //FAEC watfiv.996100.67=129K //GC.5V51V.DD ********************************* * PROGRAM TO DETERMINE PENETRATION RESISTANCE AND * FAILURE AS AN APPLICATION OF PLASTICITY THEORY THE SHAPE OF =NUMBER OF DATA SETS OF DEPTH AND FRICTION ANGLE M = NUMBER OF GIVEN SETS OF DEFINE AND F ALFA = AFAEX ANGLE OF THE COME DET TA = AFALE OF THE COME DET TA = AFALE OF INTERNA SOF OF FOILTION ANGLE GAMA = UNIT WEIGHT OF SUIL DIAM = DIAMETER OF THE CONE BASE C = COMESSION OF THE SOIL S THE PROGRAM IS CONVERTED INTO DUBLE PRECISON. IMPLICIT PEAL*8(A-H.D-Z) DIMENSION "THE TA(40,20), SIGMA(40,20), R(40,20), Z(40,20), P(20) 1,CHECK(100) READ 2.N.M FORMAT (2110) READ AND PRINT CONE ANGLE. ROUGHNESS . DIAMETER 0 99 KM=1.N

 πΕΔΟ 1.PASL.JL.IL.IF. ISR.IFF.ISA σΟΝΑΤΙΕ.50.6159

 σΕΛΤΙ.Ι.JL.ISF.ISA σΕΛΛΤΙΙ.JL.ISF.ISA ΓΟΛΑΤ(INI.30X, SLIP LINES CHAPACTERSTICS!./.30X,24(1H*)///

 PI=22./7. ALFA=ALFA+PI/180+ DELTA=DELTA+PI/180. BETA=PI/2.-ALFA/2.0 DELTAI=DELTA-BETA 98 KL=1 #M READ 6.DEPTH.FI FORMAT(2F10.0) PRINT7.DEPTH.FI ORMAT (///,10X, PENETRATION DEPTH---= .F10.5/10X FRICTION ANGLE----=' .F10.5%//.11X.'I'.11X.

211 18X. Z-CODD . 12X. THETA . 15X. SIGMA Z(JL.1)=0.0 ITT=1 PASLI=PASL ASSUMED VALUE OF FPS. EPS=0.02 JM=JL-1 00 10 [=1.JM 500 03 10 I= 0JL=JL-1 DJL=JL-1 *(JL-1,1+)=#(JL+1-1,1)+PASL1/DJ THETA(JL-1,1+1)=HETA(JL+1-1,1) \$IGMA[JL-1,1+1]=\$IGMA(JL+1-1,1) Z(JL-1,1+1)=Z(JL+1-1,1) CONTINUE ******** **************************** 0000 ATION OF THE PASSIVE ******* EMU=P1/4 .- F1/2. N1=JL-1 DO 30 K=1,N1 K1=K+1 31 J=K1, JL 20 ALFA1=DTAN(THETA(I.J-1)+EMU) ALFA2=DTAN(THETA(I-1.J)-EMU) 1 (41 I .J-1)) 82=822*83 =81+DTAN(FI)*82 =GAMA*(Z(1,J)-Z(1-1,J)-DTAN(F1)*(R(1,J)-R(1-1,J))) =GAMA*(Z(1,J)-Z(1,J-1)+DTAN(F1)*(R(1,J)-R(1,J-1))) JSGAMAWIZ[1,J]-Z[1,J]-1]+OIAN[5]GAA[1,J]-A[1,J]+A[1,J] T2=SIGMA[1-1,J]+A[1-1,J] T2=SIGMA[1,J]+A[1-1,J] T3=SIGMA[1,J]+A[1 1/14)/14 S1=2.*SIGMA(1-1.J)*SIGMA(1.J-1) S2=T1+CTA(T-1)*J+THETA(1.J-1) S2=11-DTAN(FI)*SIGMA(1.J-1) S3=SIGMA(1-1.J)*SIGMA(1.J-1) S5=SIGMA(1.J-1)*SIGMA(1-1.J) S1GMA(1.J-1)+SIGMA(1-1.J) SIGMA(1.J-1)=SI3*S2*C+SIGMA(1.J-1) 31 CONTINUE

c.

30 CONTINUS

**** ***************** CALCULATION OF RADIAL SHEAP ZONE THE TAP=2.0 THE TAA =PI + (-1 .* DEL-DELTA) DELTH= (THE TAA-THE TAP) /LPAD DG40 I=1, PAD THETA(1+J_1)=THETA(1-1+JL,1)+DELTH S:G4A(1+JL,1)=THETA(1-1+JL,1)+DELTH S:G4A(1+JL,1)=DIAM(2+ P(1+JL+1)=DIAM(2+ Z(1+JL+1)=0.0 Z(1+31, 1)=0, 0 CONTINUE DO 50 J=2,JL DO 51 I=1SR,IF2 ALFA1=DTAN(THETA(I,J-1)+EMU) ALFA2=DTAN(THETA(I-1,J)-EMU) R(1)J=(Z(1-1,J)-Z(1,J-1)+ALFA1AR (1)J=(Z(1-1,J)-Z(1,J-1)+ALFA1AR $A_{1} = J_{1} = J_{1$ $\begin{array}{l} A2=(1,-DSIN(FI))*(2(I,J)-2(I-A))\\ A=A1-DTAN(FI)*A2\\ B1=DSIN(FI)*(R(I,J)-R(I,J-1))\\ B2=2=(1,-DSIN(FI)\\ B3=2(I,J)-2(I,J-1)\\ B=2=62*B37\\ \end{array}$ 82=822*83 8=81+0TAN(FI)*82 1/14 1)/T4 Si=2,*SIGVA(I-1,))*SIGVA(I,J-I) S2=TW(TA(I-1,))*JETA(I,J-I) S3=SIGVA(I-1,J)*JETA(I,J-I) S3=SIGVA(I-1,J)*SIGVA(I,J-1) S3=SIGVA(I,J-I)*SIGVA(I,J-1) SIGVA(I,J-I)*SIGVA(I,J-1) SIGVA(I,J)=(S1*S22+C*SIGVA(I,J-CONTINUE 51 50 CONTINUE CALCULATION DF ACTIVE 20NE ****** ********* ASSIGNING VALUE OF THETA AT THE INTERFACE D0 60 J=2,JL I=ISA+J-2 THETA(I,J)=THETA 60 CONTINUE

CALCULATION OF THE POINTS AT THE INTERFACE 00 61 J1=2 CL I=ISA+J1-2 ALFA3=PI-ALFA R(1.J1)=(R(1-1,J1)+DTAN((THETA(1,J1)+THETA(1-1,J1))/2.-EMU)-12(1-1.J1)+ IDIAM/2. *DTAN(BETA))/(DTAN((THETA(1.J1)+THETA(1 2+DTAN(BETA)+ CHECK THE VALUE OF R-COPD. IF+VF, CONTINUE, IF -VE, DECPEASE THE LENGTH OF THE PASSIVE ZONE. IF(0.0-R(1.J1)) 601.601.602 G0 T0 605 601 502 PASL1=PASL1-EPS GU 10 500 Z(1,1)=(DIAM/2,-R(I,J1)*DTAN(BETA) AI=DSIN(FI)*(R(I,J1)-R(I-1,J1)) A2=(1,-DSIN(FI)*(Z(I,J1)-Z(I-1,J1)) A=4(1-DTAN(FI)*(Z(I,J1)-Z(I-1,J1)) 605 C=GAMA*(2(I,J1)-Z(I-1,J1)-DTAN(F1)*(R(I,J1)-R(I-1,J1) SIGMA(I,J1)=SIGMA(I-1,J1)+SIGMA(I-1,J1)*(THETA(I,J1)+ THE TA(I-1.JI) +DTAN(FI)+C-SIGMA(I-1,JI)+A/P(I-1,JI) JJ= J1+1 JJJ=JL+1 IF(JJ.FQ.JJJ) GO TO 705 CALCULATION OF THE POINTS INSIDE THE ACTIVE ZONE DO 70 J=JJ,JL ALFA1=DTAN(THETA(I,J-1)+EMU) ALFA2=DTAN(THETA(I-1,J)-EMU) R(I,J)=(2(I,I-1,J)-Z(I,J-1)+ALFA1*R(I,J-1)-ALFA2*R(I-1,J) 1(ALFA1-ALFA2) CHECK THE VALUE OF R-CORD INSIDE THE ACTVE ZONE. IF +VE IF -VE DECREASE THE LENGTH OF THE PASSIVE ZONE IF(0.0-P(1.J)) 701.701.702 701 702 PASL 1=PASL1-EPS Z(1,J)=Z(1,J-1)+ALFA1*(R(1,J)-R(1,J-1) A1=DSIN(F1)*(R(1,J)-P(1-1,J)) A2=(1.-DSIN(F1))*(Z(I,J)-Z(I-1,J)) A=A1-DTAN(F1)*A2 B1=DSIN(FI)4(R(I,J)-R(I,J-1)) B22=1.-DSIN(FI) B3=Z(I,J)-Z(I,J-1) B2=B22#B3 8=81+DTAN(FI)+82 BBB100TAN(*1)-02 C=GAMA*(2(1,J)-2(1,J-1)+DTAN(FI)*(R(I,J)-R(I+1,J))) D=GAMA*(2(1,J)-2(I,J-1)+DTAN(FI)*(R(I,J)-R(I,J-1))) T1=SIGMA(I=1,J)*THETA(I-1,J)+SIGMA(I,J-1)*THETA(I,J I2=SIGMA(I=1,J)*(I=1,J) T3=SIGMA(1. J-1)/R(1.J-1)

T4=2.*DTAN(F1)*(SIGMA(I-1.J)+SIGMA(I. THETA(I.J)=(SIGMA(I.J-1)-SIGMA(I-1.J) 11/74 S1=2.*SIGMA([-1,J)*SIGMA([,J-1) S2=THETA([-1,J)-THETA([,J-1) S22=1.-DTAN(F1)*S2 S3=SIGMA(I-1,J)*SIGMA(I,J-1) S4=A/R(I-1,J)+B/P(I,J-1) S5=SIGMA(I,J-1)+SIGMA(I-1,J) 23-3104A(1,J-1)+5104A(1-1,J) SIGMA(1,J)=(51*522+C*SIGMA(1,J-1)+D* 70 CONTINUE 61 CONTINUE ITERATION AND CHECK THE CONVERGENCE. IF(ALFA.EG.PI) GO TO 3009 IF(R(IL.JL).LE.0.0001) GO TO 305 GO TO 3002 705 GO TO 3002 IF/P(I(I.JL).LE.DIAM/2.) GD TO 305 CHECK(IEJ)=R(IL.JL) IF(IET.GF.2) GO TO 306 PASL1=PASL1-EPS 3009 3002 PASLI=PASL_=PES IET=IFT+1 00:70:500 160:PASL=POSLI=PS 800:PASLI=PASLI=PS 160:PASLI=PASLI=PS 802:PASLI=PASLI=PS/2. IET=IET+1 160:T0:500 160:PASLI=PASLI=PS/2. IF(IET.E0.50) GO TO 305 GO TO 500 803 GO TC 305 PRINT R-CORD, Z-CORD, THETA AND THE STRESSES AT ALL POINTS. 0000 305 WRITE(6.21) 21 FORMAT (7X, PRESCRIBED VALUEA AT THE BOUNDARY OF THE PASSIVE ZONE. U./.7X.55(1H=).//) D0 2000 J=1.JL T#JL-J+1 PFINT 22.I.J.P(I.J).Z(I.J).THETA(I.J).SLGMA(I.J). 22 FORMAT(7x, IS.7x,IS.SX,FIG.8.SX,FIG.8.SX,FIG.8.SX,FI 2000 CONTINUE WRITE(6,8) FORMAT(7X; VALUES OF THE PASSIVE ZONE ...,7X.B0(1H=).// DO 3000 K=1 .N1 K1=K+1 KIENTI DO 3001 J=K1,JL I=JL-J+K PRINT 61,1.J,R(I,J),Z(I,J),THETA(I,J),SIGMA61,J) FORMAT17X,I5,7X,I6,5X,F16,8,5X,F16,8,5X,F16,8,5X 6.8.5X.F16.8.5X.F16.8.5X.F16.8) CONTINUE ONTINUE /(CUNINGE_ UE=JL45) WRITE(6.39) FORMAT(X*,TRANSITIONAL VALUES FROM PASSIVE TO ACTIVE ZONE.'./. UTX+50(14=).//)

DO. 4000 I=15P.IFR

J=1 PRINT 390.1.J.R(1.J).Z(1.J).THETA(1.J).SIGMA(1.J) 390 FORMAT(7X,15,7X,15,5X,F16.8,5X,F16.8,5X,F16.8,5X,F16.8) 4000 CONTINUE 37 00 5001 J=2.JL 00 5001 I=199.JFP PPINT 370.I.J.R(I.J).Z(I.J).THETA(I.J).SIGMA(I.J) FORWAT(7X,IS.7X.IS.5X.F16.8.5X.F16.8.5X.F16.8.5X.F16.8. 370 5001 CONTINUE 5000 PRITEIS 471 PORMATITX: VALUES AT THE ACTIVE ZONE' ./.TX:40(IH-1://) D0 6000, J1=2:JL I=ISA:J1=2 PFINT 470:.JI;f(I,JI).Z(I:JI).THETA(I.JI).SIGMA(I.JI) 470 FORMAT(7X:I5:7X:I5:5X;F16:8:5X;F10:5 JJ= J1+1 JJ=JJ+1 IF(JJ=J)+1 IF(JJ=J)+J) 30 TO 350 PEINT 3, I,J,R(I,J),2(I,J),THETA(I,J),SIGMA(I,J) 9 FORMAT(7X,IS,TX,IS,SX,FI6.8,SX,FI6.8,SX,FI6.8,SX,FI6.8) 7000 CONTINUE 6000 CONTINUE 000 CALCULATION OF THE PENFTRATION PESISTANCE 350 EPSI=COHES*DCOTAN(FI) F=0.0 D0 80 J=1.JL 1=1.5A+J-2 I=[34,J=2] GD TO 120 I=[(J=G=J,J) GO TO 125 ALENG-IR(I=1,J=1)=R[[J])/2.+(F(I,J)=R(PER=ALENG/DCGS(B=TA) GO TO 121 125 PER=(IR(I=1,J=1)=R[I,J])/2.)/DCOS(BETA) TO 121 ĠD. GO TO 12: PER=(IR(1,J)-R(1+1,J+1)/2.)/DCOS(0ETA) AREA#2.APIFBLI,J)FREM SIGMA(1,J)FS(GMA(1,J)FOCOS(DELTA) P(J)=(SIGMA(1,J)FOCOS(ALFA/2.)+SIGMA(1,J)FOCOS(ALFA/2.) IDELTA)FFESFDCOS(ALFA/2.)+OSIMUELTA))#AREA 120 F'=F+P(J) BEFFP[J] PERVIPIADIAN*2/4.) PRINTIN: APASLITE II FORMATI///SX.UNIT PENETRATION RESISTANCE-----=".DIS.8. U/.SX.UENTH OF PASSIVE ZONE=.DIS.8.//SX.ITERATION NO=". RP CONTINUE STOP NO

APPENDIX C

A COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR THE DETERMINATION OF BEARING CAPACITY FACTORS OF CONES

This computer program is originally written by Durgunoglu and Mitchell (1973) to calculate the bearing capacity factors N_g and N_{yg} of wedges and comes at friction angle intervales of 5° . In the present study the program was modified to calculate the unit penetration resistance of comes and obtain the output alks function of depth and relative depth.

The program consists of a main program N_c or N_{rq} and one subroutine (ANO.. This subroutine calculates angle (r). Programs (N_c) and (N_{rq}) calculate the unit penetration resistance. Angle β is calculated in the main routine and Equation (15) was used for the shape factors. The detrement earth pressure coefficient was assumed to be (1 - sino).

Data Input

Control Card (2110).

Columns 1 - 10 Number of data sets to be calculated.

11 - 20 Number of depths at which the above data

sets are to be used.

N-cards each (4F10)

Columns 1 - 10 Semi-apex angle of the cone (a - ALFA)

11 - 20 Roughness of the penetrometer (δ/ϕ - FAS)

21 - 30 Unit weight of soil (y -GAMA)

31 - 40 Diameter of the penetrometer (B - DIA) M-cards each (2F10)

columns 1 - 10 Penetration depth (DEPTH)

11 - 20 Friction angle (# - FI)

Program Output

The final output consists of unit penetration resistance, N_c and $K_{r,\alpha}$ factors as functions of depth and relative depth.

Deducing of Angle of Internal Friction (4) from the Above Computer Program

It was previously demonstrated in Chapter IV that the angle of internal friction 4 can be deduced from the results of cone penetration resistance using a procedure such that described by Durymoglu and Mitchell (1973). This computer program can also determine 4 if the pose apex angles penetrometer poughness, and relative depth are more. Figures C.1 and C.2 show the relations between R_{req} and 6 for different relative depth obtained from the computer program. From the results of penetration resistance, q_2 is known from which S_{req} can be calculated $(N_{req} = q_2/r_{p}^2)$. From the known value of the relative depth, the corresponding angle of internal friction ism be determined using Figs. C.1 and C.2.

Sector Conten







FIG. C.1. DETERMINATION OF THE ANCLE & USING THE THEORY OF

LISTING OF THE COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR THE DETERMINATION OF UNIT PENETRATION RESISTANCE OF CONE PENETROMETERS

eg.

// 3014603 JOB (3014,602C,1.2), GAWAD, CLASS=C // FXFC WATFIV, PEGION.GD=129K // GO.SYSIN DF * SCOMPILE .T IM# =60 . PAGE 5=1 00 *************** PROGRAM CONE RESISTANCE NO FACTORS 0000 INUMBER OF DATA SET N = HALF APEX ANGLE FAS = RAUGHESS OPT = DEPTH TO DIAMETER RATIO FI = RANGLE OF INTERNAL FOILTION ATAP = SHAPE FACTOR DELTA FERETRATION TO SOIL FFICTION ANGLE GAMASS UNIT SOIL WFIGHT DIAM STUMMETER OF THE CONE BASE COH SIGN OF SOIL č GEAD IIN Format(110) Read and print wedge angle, roughness, rel. depth READ 10. ALFA FAS. GAMA DIAM. COH.FI 1.0. 2PDUGHNESS 3UNIT SOLL WEIGHT 4 DIAWETEP OF THE CONE-----=:F18.4//SX. 5 AVERAGE FAICTION ANGLE---=:F18.4//SX. 6 AVERAGE FAICTION ANGLE---=:F18.4) PRINT 24 2 FORMAT(///./.S.,'DEPTH', BX, 'RELATIVE DEPTH', 16X, I'CONE FACTORING', SX,'UNIT PENETRATION RESISTANCE 28X,14(1H-), 16X, 18(1H-), 5X, 27(1H-)) 5.4. DEP TH= 5.0 OPT=CEPTH/D IAM 300 FIR =F1/57.28 ATAR=1.0+0.2+(TAN(FIR)**6) CALCULATION OF ANGLE GAMA. CALL ANG(FI FAS.GAMAJ 0 V6=SIN(FIR)/COS(FIR) DELTA=FAS#FI DELTAFDELTA/57.28 IF(FAS-1:0)/33.32,33 IF(ALFA-FI/2)/15,15,15 PSI=FIS+FI GO TO 17 15 CONTINUE 33 PSI=90.-ALFA 17 PSIR=PSI/57.28

```
CALCULATE BETA BY ITEPATION
        RETARE
         BETAR=BETA/ 57 .25
        GAMAR=GAMA/57 .25
       GAMAHEGAMA/S/:28
TETAR182F/ST98
DEDFT=0.5*(C0S(GAMAR-FIP))*(SIN(BETAR)
UCOS(FIR))(COS(FIR)COS(SIR))
IF(CEDPT-DT) 11.11.12
ETAT180--93IGAMA
                                                                             TAR*SIN(FIR))
     12
        SOTA=D.
ETAR=ETA/57.28
        T1=2.*DPT*COS(FIR)*COS(PSIE)/
                                                   (COS(GAMAR-
        80=80R*57.28
1F(80-F1) 310,310,311
   311
        80=F1
        CONTINUS
  310
        D0 101 I=1.20
T2=2.*DPT*COS(FIR)*COS(PSIR)/(COS(GAMAR-FIR)*(EXP(((180.-PSI
       1-GAMA+801/57.2814V61)
        T3=T2/(SORT(1.-T2**2))
BNR=ATAN(T3)
        BN=BNR+57.28
        IF (ABS(BN-BO)-0.1) 501.501.502
   501
       GO TO 102
80=(8N+80)/2.
   502
        CONTINUE
        BETA=BN
  102
        CALCULATE WEDGE AND CONE FACTORS
C ****
         TETA=180.-PSI+BETA-GAMA
         TE TARE
        GO TO 70
     11 CONTINUE
        B1= (2.*COS(FIR)*COS(PSIR)*OPT)/(COS(GAMAR
                                                                                       RISEXPTTET
       1R*V61)
        QSIR=ATAN(81)
QSI=QSIR#57.28
        SOTA=0.
SOTAF=SOTA/ 57.28
    70
        C1=SIN(FIR)
        C2=COS(FIR)
        C3=SIN(2.*GAMAR-FIR)
C4=EXP(2.*TETAR*V6)
        C5=SIN(2.*SOTAR+FIR)
C6=COS(2.*GAMAR-FIR)
       C=CS(2+CARACT_IE)
C=(1.+C)+C3)/(C)+C2))+C4+(((C5-C))+(1.+C)+C
1(C5-C1))+(2+-7)+C4+(((C5-C))+(1.+C)+C
C9=(V6+C7+C6+(C5-C1)+C4)/(C2+(C2-V6+(C5-C1)))
                                                                                          J#1C2-V6#
        ENC=C8+C9
ENCO=ATAR*ENC
        OF=COH+ENCO
                           à
         PRINT 26. CEPTH. OPT . ENCO. OF
        FORMAT (// 5X.F8.4.8X.F10.5.17X.F12.5.13X.F12.5)
DEPTH=DEPTH+5.0
    26
         (CO TO 300
    30 CONTINUE
```

STOP END CC SUBROUTINE ANGEFT, PS. GONEW) FALCULATE OF GAMA ANGLE DETARASEGA(7728 DETARASEGA(7728 DETARASEGA(7728 DETARASEGA(7728) VALOACISINOBETRA/YCOS(DELTAR))*(1 15) NETROSE-0500 DETARESECTORE -0500-TRA DESTROSIONI DESTROSION c +SIN(FIR)* STN(2-+OSTR-FIRM) OSTR FIRI VAL=VALN*VALO IF(VAL) 12,13,11 VALO=VALN CONTINUE A.1 QNE W=QSI DOST= (VALN/ (VALN-VALO))*0.1 ONE W=QS1-DOST 12 GO TO 4 QNE #=45. +F1/2. ÷. GO TO 4 CONTINUE à SEXECUTE 15.0 0.001759 0.001759 0.001759 0.5 3.56 0.055 5.0 5.0 90.0 3.56 0.5 0.001759 7.62 0.055 0.5 0.001759 0..5 7.62 5.0 1:

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a second second

No. States & States

3. . 1

//E3014602 JOB (3014.602C.1.2).GAWAD.CLASB=C // EXEC WATFIV.9EGION.GD=129K //GD.SYSIN CD * SCOMPILF .TIME=60.PAGFS=100 CONE AND WEDGE RESISTANCE 'NGO FACTORS NUMBER OF CATA SETS M. =NUMBER OF GIVEN SETS OFDP* ALFA = HALF AFEX ANGLE FAS =ROUGHNESS OFT =DEPTH TO DIAMETER RATIO FI * =ANGLE OF INTERNAL FRICTION ATAP =STAREF FACTOR 00000 DELTA= PENETRATION TO SDIL FRICTION ANGLE GAMASSUNIT SOLL WEIGHT DIAM =DIAMETER OF THE CONE BASE READ 1.N.M. READ AND PRINT WEDGE ANGLE, POUGHNESS, REL. DEPT DO 30 K=1.N READ 10.ALFA.FAS.GAMAS.DIAM 10 FORMAT(4F10.0) PRINT 21, K. ALFA .FAS. GAMAS. DIAM
 PRINT 21,K.4LFA,FFAS.GAMAS.OIAW

 FORMAT (HI-1,-20X,FOATA SET NU,15./20X,17(1+*).//,5X,

 HALF APEX ANGLE

 YROUMNESS

 UNIT SOIL wEIGHT

 YROUMNESS

 TOUTHETER THE CONC
 21 PETNT 24 27(1H-)) DO 25 J=1 .M READ 100,DEPTH.FI 100 FORMAT(2F10.0) FIR=F1/57.28 DPT=DEPTH/DIAM ALEM=0.6+(1.5/(1./DPT+(1.5/(0.6+(TAN(FIR)##6)) CALCULATION OF ANGLE GAMA CALL ANG(FI, FAS, GAMA) V6=SIN(FIR)/CCS(FIP) DELTA=FAS+F1 DELTA=DELTA/57.28 IF(FAS=1.0) 33,32,33 FIS=45-FI/2. IF(ALFA-FIS) 15,15,16 16 PSI=FIS+FI GD TO 17 PSI=90.-ALFA PSIR=PSI/57.28
CALCULATE BETA BY ITEPATION

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BETAFFI BETAR=BETA/57.26 GAMAR=GAMA/57.28 TETA= 180.-PSI+8ETA-GAMA TETA=TETA/57.38 DEDPT=(0.5+CDS(GAMAR-FIF)+SIN(BETAR)+EXP(TETAR+V6))/(COS(F I(PSIR)) IF (DEDPT-DPTL 11.11.12 IF(DED0T-DPT) 11,11,12 DEDDT=DPT FTA=180,-PSJ-GAMA FTA=E1A*5,28 T1=2,*DPT*COS(PSIR)/(COS(GAMAP-F BOR=ATAW(T1) BOR=BOP*57,28 [F(80-F1),310,310,311] IR) . (EXP(ETAR+V6) 311 BD=FI 310 CONTINUE DO 101 I=1.20 T2=2.*DPT*CDS(FIR)*CDS(PSIR)/(COS(GAMAR-FIR) T2=2.*DDT*CDS(FIR)*CDS(FSIR)/(iCAMA+BO)/57.281*V6)]) T3=T2/(SORT(i.-T2**2)) BNP=ATAN(T3) BN=BNN*57.28 IF(ABS(BN-BO)-0.1) 501.501.502 G0.T0.102 -PS 501 BO= (BN+BD)/2. CONTINUE BETA=BN 502 1 01 . 102 BET AP=BET A/57.28 TE T4=180.-PSI+BETA-GA MA TETAP=TE TA/57.28 CONTINUE RADIS=DEDPT/TAN (BETAP) ** ** * CAL CULATION OF NGO FACTORS WEIGHT =SIN(PSIR)/(4.*COS(PSIR)) IF (ALFA-90.) 13.14.13 WEIGH= 0. .13 VI=EXP(3.*TETAR*V6) VI=EXP(3.*TETAR*V6) VI=EXP(3.*TETAR*V6) V2=VI*COS(BETAR)-COS(TETAR-BETAP) 14 V3=V1+SIN (BETAR)+SIN(TETAR-BETAR) v3=v1#51N(BETAR)+51N(7 V4=3**V6*v2+V3 V5=v4/(1++9**(V6**2)) U1=COS(GAMAR-FIR) U2=CDS(FIR) U3=COS(PSIR) U4=COS(BETAR) U5=(1./4.)*(U1**2)*V5/((U3**2)*(U2**2) U7=EXP(2.*TETAR*V6) UB=U1*(U4**2)/(U3*U2) 4= ((D6+U3+U2) + (DPT++3))/U1 P1= (U5+U9-D2+D4)*(C05(P5IR-DELTAR)/C05(DE P2= ((1++5IN(FIR)*5IN(2*GAMAR-FIR))/(U2*U ENGAG=P2-WEIGH ENGAC=ALEM+ENGAG

SUPCHG =GAVA ST DIAM

SUCING = 0, ** 3 * 01AM OF=SUC (K4=NGAC PRINT 26, CEPTH, DPT, FI, ENGAC, OF FORMAT(//, 5X, F16, 4, 8X, F10, 5, 15X, F10, 5, 17X, F12, 5, 13X, F12, 5) 26 25 CONTINUE 30 CONTINUE FND SUBROUTINE ANDEFI.FAS.OWE *) OFCIA=FASHT DECIA=FASHT DECIA=FASHT DECIA=DECIA=FASH IF(FAS:BL.+) GO TO J OSI: (1.-FAS)*(45.+F1/2.) OSI: (2.-FAS)*(45.+F1/2.) OSI: (2.-FAS)*(45.+F c -00.01 K-1.150 051051-051-02 VALN+C51N(PE-T&R) VALN+C51N(PE-T&R) VALN+C51N(PE-T&R) VF(VAL) 12.15.11 VF(VAL) 12.15.11 VF(VAL) 12.15.11 ONE-VAL CARE-VAL CARE ONEW=45.+FT/2 GO TO 4 GNEW=3. CONTINUE RETURN SEXECUTE 15.0 0.5 .001759 3.5 5.0 5.0 5.0 15.0 5.0 20.0 5.0 25.0 5.0 30.0 5.0 35.0 5.0 40.0 5.0 30.0 0.5 0.001759 5 .0 5.0 0.0 15.0 5.0 20.0 5.0 25.0 5.0 5.0 35.0 5.0 40.0 5.0

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