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5             “An experimental study on the compaction and collapsible  
6             behaviour of a flood defence embankment fill.”

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29 **ABSTRACT:**

30

31 With renewed interest in the performance of flood embankments globally, it is important  
32 that the performance of fills in conditions similar to ‘as-constructed’ are scrutinised. The  
33 fill material investigated in this study was sampled from flood embankments located  
34 along the Bengawan Solo River in East Java, Indonesia. The recurrent history of  
35 overtopping and stability issues in these embankments provided the motivation for  
36 developing a better understanding of the behaviour of this compacted fill under different  
37 loading and wetting conditions. The site investigation revealed that the embankment fill  
38 was compacted at low dry densities and that there was local variation in the dry densities  
39 determined. A detailed study highlighted that at low compactive efforts this fill material  
40 exhibits an irregular double-peak compaction curve, which can be explained by the  
41 tendency of this fill to form aggregates on wetting. To cover different plausible  
42 operational conditions of these embankments, saturated and unsaturated compression  
43 oedometer tests and one-dimensional collapse tests were performed under different initial  
44 conditions. Specimens compacted at conditions similar to ‘as-constructed’ exhibited  
45 significant collapse deformation (up to 13.6%) on wetting. Evolution of the  
46 microstructure during loading and wetting paths was investigated using MIP and ESEM.  
47 A physically-based framework proposed by Romero (2013) was used to explain the  
48 changes in the macroscale collapse behaviour observed in the oedometer tests based on  
49 the evolution of microporosity. Using this model the evolution of the microporosity with  
50 dry density and water content was presented. This microstructural approach could be used  
51 as a tool for specifying appropriate compaction conditions for earthworks where fill  
52 material is susceptible to volumetric collapse.

53 **KEYWORDS:**

54 *flood embankments, laboratory tests, irregular compaction curve, collapse under wetting.*

55

56 **1. Introduction**

57 Flood defence embankments are generally considered to be simple, low cost  
58 structures and consequently their construction is often poorly controlled. These  
59 factors may contribute to local variation in soil densities within the embankment  
60 body and a prevalence of low relative compaction (RC) values, where RC is  
61 defined as the ratio between the ‘as-compacted’ field dry density and the  
62 maximum laboratory (Proctor or British Standard) dry density. The performance  
63 of embankments may be significantly affected by the presence of fill compacted  
64 to low dry densities, because many key properties (e.g. permeability, shear  
65 strength and compressibility) are strongly dependent on soil dry density.  
66 Furthermore, compacted soils with an open structure (i.e. low dry density) may  
67 also be susceptible to volumetric collapse compression upon wetting. This paper  
68 focuses on the collapsible behaviour of a fill material used to construct flood  
69 defence embankments (i.e. levees) in Indonesia.

70 Volumetric collapse upon wetting in soils was defined by Lawton et al. (1992) as  
71 the densification of a soil caused by the addition of water at a constant total  
72 vertical stress ( $\sigma_v$ ). This phenomenon requires four main conditions to occur (e.g.  
73 Barden et al. 1973; Mitchell 1993): (i) an open partly unstable, partly saturated  
74 fabric; (ii) high enough total stress that causes the structure to be metastable; (iii)  
75 a cementing agent, including soil suction which stabilises the structure when dry  
76 and (iv) the addition of water. The reduction of matric suction upon wetting has  
77 been identified as the primary cause of volumetric collapse (e.g. Houston and  
78 Houston, 1997). Furthermore, wetting softens aggregates and weakens the binding

79 effect of clay bridges present between aggregates contributing to the phenomenon  
80 of volumetric collapse. Flood embankments clearly have a readily available access  
81 to water and the fill material may also have an open unsaturated fabric if  
82 constructed under dry conditions, particularly at low dry densities.

83 In this paper the volumetric collapse behaviour of the fill material was  
84 investigated using conventional oedometer equipment (e.g. Booth, 1975, 1977;  
85 Lawton et al.; 1989, 1992). Tests were carried out on specimens compacted at  
86 different initial conditions, which were associated with the variability of dry  
87 density and moisture content observed in the field and also on undisturbed  
88 specimens. The undisturbed specimens were sampled from the existing  
89 embankment fill. The fabric of the Bengawan Solo fill was investigated, before  
90 and after volumetric collapse, with the aid of two experimental techniques:  
91 Environmental Scanning Electron Microscopy (ESEM) and Mercury Intrusion  
92 Porosimetry (MIP). ESEM (or SEM, Scanning Electron Microscopy) and MIP  
93 have often been used independently or together in the investigation of  
94 microstructural features of soils (e.g. Collins and McGown, 1974; Delage and  
95 Lefebvre, 1984; Griffiths and Joshi, 1989; Prapaharan et al., 1991; Al-Mukhtar et  
96 al., 1996; Romero et al., 1999; Simms and Yanful, 2001; Cuisinier and Laloui,  
97 2004; Thom et al., 2007; Romero and Simms, 2008) and in the investigation of  
98 collapsible soils (e.g. Barden et al., 1973; Prapaharan et al., 1991; Phien-wej et al.,  
99 1992; Jommi and Sciotti, 2003; Rao and Revanasiddappa 2003 and 2005).

100 Studies have shown that the fabric of compacted soils is characterised by a multi-  
101 modal pore size distribution, which typically consists of two basic dominant pore  
102 levels: inter-aggregate (macropores) pores and the intra-aggregate (micropores)

103 pores (e.g. Delage et al., 1996; Lloret et al., 2003; Romero and Simms, 2008;  
104 Romero et al., 2011). Considering this, the void ratio can thus be similarly  
105 separated into the macrostructural void ratio,  $e_M$  (volume of macropores/volumes  
106 of solids) and the microstructural void ratio,  $e_m$  (volume of micropores/ volume of  
107 solids) and, such that  $e = e_m + e_M$  (e.g. Sánchez et al., 2005). Soil aggregates,  
108 when unconfined (particularly those containing an active clay component) swell  
109 with increasing moisture content and shrink with reducing moisture content,  
110 influencing the ability of the aggregates to store water (Romero et al., 2011).  
111 During wetting, water will fill the micropores (intra-aggregate) before water  
112 begins to fill the macropores (inter-aggregates). Romero et al. (2011) proposed a  
113 physically-based model which relates the evolution of the microvoid ratio,  $e_m$  with  
114 water ratio ( $e_w = w\rho_s/\rho_w$ ). This microstructural model has been previously used to  
115 successfully capture the influence of microstructural effects on water retention  
116 behavior, to explain the evolution of compacted microstructure along wetting and  
117 drying paths and its influence on hydraulic properties (Romero et al., 2011; Della  
118 Vecchia et al., 2013; Romero, 2013).

119 The microstructural model described above has been used here to study in more  
120 detail the effect of compactive effort on fill collapsibility. This approach (i.e.  
121 Romero, 2013) has been used to plot in the compaction plane (i.e. water content  
122 versus dry density) the microstructure of the Bengawan Solo fill created on  
123 compaction at different conditions using MIP data. This is then related to the  
124 macroscale volumetric collapse behavior observed in the oedometer tests. The  
125 paper also explores the impact of the soil aggregations developed during  
126 compaction on the irregular double-peak compaction curve observed in this

127 material.

128 It is likely that many of the conditions observed along the Bengawan Solo  
129 embankments (e.g. variation of dry densities, prevalence of low dry densities, dry  
130 of optimum compaction conditions, embankment protection measures) may be  
131 found in similar levees, thus the main results and approach outlined in this work  
132 could be a useful practical tool for specifying compaction conditions where  
133 locally sourced fill material is susceptible to volumetric collapse.

## 134 **2. Site and fill material**

135 This section presents first a brief description of the Bengawan Solo site, followed  
136 by characterisation of the fill material.

### 137 **2.1 Site**

138 The flood embankment fill investigated here corresponds to a section located  
139 along the Bengawan Solo River, in the village of Kedungharjo, East Java,  
140 Indonesia (Figure 1). The source of the river lies in the Sewu Mountain Range in  
141 Central Java and it enters the sea, north of Surabaya in East Java. The Bengawan  
142 Solo River drains a catchment area of almost 20,000 km<sup>2</sup>; the population within  
143 this basin was estimated at over 16 million in 2005 (Hidayat et al., 2008). The  
144 Bengawan Solo River is the longest river on the island of Java at 540 km long. At  
145 the site in Kedungharjo the Bengawan Solo River is 100m wide and the flood  
146 embankment is a 10m high stepped embankment. The water level can vary as  
147 much as 10m between the dry and wet season, when the embankments are  
148 frequently overtopped. The embankments along the Bengawan Solo River have a

149 history of overtopping and failure, along with extensive erosion of embankment  
150 faces (El Mountassir, 2011). In order to protect against erosion a number of  
151 remedial measures including rock filled gabion reinforcement (Figure 2) and  
152 concrete protection slabs have been introduced.

153 The weather in this region is typified by the dry and wet monsoon seasons. A  
154 consequence of this is that construction of the embankments can only be carried  
155 out during the dry season when river levels are low. Furthermore, and as  
156 mentioned by Brown (1999), poor access routes in remote rural areas can prevent  
157 large construction equipment from reaching sites, resulting in smaller compaction  
158 equipment often being used. Additional limitations associated with construction  
159 costs can also lead to the use of an unskilled local workforce.

## 160 **2.2 Site tests and sampling**

161 Figure 3a presents a typical cross-section of the man-made embankments at the  
162 village of Kedungharjo; showing the embankment protection (concrete slab in this  
163 case), the nearby village and the position of the borehole corresponding to the soil  
164 profile presented in Figure 3b. During May 2006 (i.e. at the end of the wet season)  
165 a site investigation was carried out along a section of embankment where gabion  
166 reinforcement had been constructed to prevent erosion (see Figure 2). Field tests  
167 were carried out and samples collected were used in the laboratory tests presented  
168 in the following sections.

169 In-situ dry densities of the fill material were determined using the sand  
170 replacement method in accordance with BS1377-9 (BSI, 1990). A marked non-  
171 homogeneous distribution of fill densities and water content was observed, with

172 quite a wide range in magnitudes. Dry densities varying from 1.18-1.36Mg/m<sup>3</sup>  
173 were determined alongside water contents ranging from 36-43%. The low dry  
174 densities measured in the embankment can be explained by considering that this  
175 material was compacted in layers of 0.40m using small compaction equipment on  
176 the dry side of optimum to 80-85% of standard Proctor maximum dry density  
177 (Soemitro, 2006). One week prior to the site visit the embankments were  
178 overtopped. The compacted fill has been wetted over time, including during  
179 recent overtopping events, which led to the high water contents of the fill when  
180 the samples were obtained. Shear vane tests were also carried out and the  
181 undrained shear strength obtained ranged from 20-40kPa, indicating a soft soil as  
182 classified in BS: 8004 (BSI, 1986).

183 Disturbed and undisturbed material was sampled from two different depths 0.5m -  
184 1.0m and 1.0 - 1.5m in order to perform the tests presented in the following  
185 sections. As for the undisturbed material, block samples were retrieved as  
186 described in the Report on Tropical Residual Soils by the Geological Society  
187 Engineering Group Working Party (Fookes, 1990).

### 188 **2.3 Basic soil characterisation**

189 The Bengawan Solo fill is an organic silt of high plasticity; the basic soil  
190 properties and classification are given in Table 1 for depths 0.5 - 1.0 m and 1.0 -  
191 1.5m. Figure 4a shows the X-ray diffractograms of random powder samples using  
192 the total soil fraction. Non-clay minerals present include quartz, calcite and  
193 feldspar (plagioclases); some of the smaller peaks (to the left of Figure 4a)  
194 indicate the presence of Montmorillonite and Kaolinite clay minerals. Table 2



195 presents the mineralogical quantification of the total fraction. The type and  
196 quantity of clay minerals present were further investigated by carrying out X-ray  
197 diffraction tests on oriented aggregates (e.g. Poppe et al., 2001). Figure 4b  
198 presents the X-ray diffractograms of oriented samples in the  $< 2\mu\text{m}$  fraction for  
199 D2 (0.5 - 1.0m), after three different treatments: (i) sample obtained at room  
200 temperature (AO), (ii) after saturating with ethylene glycol (EG), and (iii) after  
201 heating to  $550^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $550^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). These oriented diffractograms highlight that  
202 montmorillonite and kaolinite are the main clay minerals present in this soil with a  
203 prevalence of montmorillonite (88 % of the clay fraction) for both depths. This  
204 high percentage of montmorillonite explains the high activity values ( $A \geq 1$ , Table  
205 1).

#### 206 **2.4. Compaction behaviour**

207 The British Standard Heavy (BSH) and Light (BSL) tests were carried out  
208 according to BS 1377-4 (BSI, 1990) with an input energy per unit volume of 2682  
209  $\text{kJ/m}^3$  and  $596 \text{ kJ/m}^3$  respectively. These energy levels are the same as the  
210 modified and standard Proctor tests, respectively. The low dry densities obtained  
211 during the site visit (Section 2.2) are related to the low compaction effort applied  
212 during the construction of the embankments. To study the compaction behaviour  
213 of this soil in the laboratory with compaction efforts more representative of the  
214 energy used to construct these embankments, a third compaction level was  
215 investigated here. This test was carried out at a lower compaction energy of 132  
216  $\text{kJ/m}^3$  by applying 9 blows of the BS Light 2.5 kg rammer over two layers. This  
217 experiment is identified here as the ‘Extreme Light’ (ExL) test. The ratio between

218 the energy applied in ExL test and the BS Light experiments is equal to the ratio  
219 between the BS Light and BS Heavy experiments (i.e. BSH energy/BSL energy =  
220 BSL energy/ExL energy).

221 Figure 5 presents the compaction characteristics of this fill material under these  
222 three different compactive efforts. A maximum dry density of  $1.47 \text{ Mg/m}^3$  at an  
223 optimum water content of 28 % was determined for the BS Light condition. The  
224 embankments were constructed at 80-85% of standard Proctor (equivalent to BS  
225 Light). This range (i.e. 80-85 %) falls within the Extreme Light compaction curve  
226 and explains the low in-situ dry densities determined during the site investigation.

227 Irregular double-peak compaction curves exist for this material at low compactive  
228 efforts (BSL and ExL). This double-peak is removed during compaction at a  
229 higher energy level (BSH) where the compaction curve returns to a typical single-  
230 peak curve. It is also important to note that in the ExL curve, the first peak (at low  
231 moisture content) occurs at a dry density of  $1.34 \text{ Mg/m}^3$  which is higher than that  
232 found at the second peak ( $1.27 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ). In the case of the BSL test the two peaks  
233 occur at a similar density. It can also be seen how small variations in moisture  
234 content may result in very different dry densities achieved for a specific  
235 compactive effort. This is important for explaining the heterogeneous nature of  
236 the fill material found on site.

## 237 **2.5 Soil structure created by compaction**

238 The first step in investigating the soil structure created by compaction was to  
239 identify the size and nature of the aggregates created at different moisture  
240 contents. All compacted specimens were prepared by spraying water onto the

241 air dried material (passing the 2mm sieve) and handmixing. Each sample was  
242 sealed for 48hrs after mixing soil with water. After 48hours no further visible  
243 changes to the aggregates formed were observed. As the moisture content is  
244 increased the size of the aggregates also increases, (see Figure 6). In order to  
245 determine the aggregate size distribution the aggregates created by mixing at 9%,  
246 24% and 36% were then passed through a series of sieves with no addition of  
247 dispersant, water or mechanical force. It is evident in Figure 6 that the aggregate  
248 size distribution changes with increasing moisture content, from a well-graded  
249 distribution for the 9% sample to a fairly uniform distribution for the 36% sample.

250 The aggregates mixed at 9% range up to 4mm in size, the 24% sample contains  
251 aggregates up to 10mm, whereas the 36% sample contains aggregates up to  
252 40mm. It is clear that the size of the aggregates produced is greatly influenced by  
253 the mixing moisture content. The very large aggregates observed here at a high  
254 moisture content (36%) can be explained by considering that the clay fraction  
255 present in this material is montmorillonite and at high moisture contents, smaller  
256 aggregations easily attach themselves to each other to form larger and softer  
257 overall aggregations (or assemblages). The stiffness and dry density of individual  
258 aggregates reduces with increasing moisture content. At a moisture content of 9%  
259 the aggregates created are fine, dry, dense and stiff. These aggregates cannot be  
260 broken between fingers easily, and are essentially granular in nature. In contrast  
261 however are the large, wet, soft aggregates created at 36% moisture content.  
262 These aggregates can easily be squeezed between fingers and are plastic in nature.  
263 At a moisture content of 24%, the aggregates have increased in size, but remain  
264 relatively firm. These changes in the nature of the aggregates are particularly

265 important when considering the structure created by compaction.

266 These changes can explain the irregular compaction curve obtained for the  
267 Bengawan Solo fill at low compactive efforts, observed in Figure 5. The first peak  
268 of the irregular compaction curve (Extreme Light compaction curve) occurs at a  
269 moisture content of 9%, and can be explained by a packing of these very fine, dry  
270 and very dense (granular) aggregates. The second peak of the extreme light curve  
271 occurs at a moisture content of 36% and can be explained by its large soft  
272 aggregates with low dry density, which easily fuse together under this compactive  
273 effort, creating a more homogeneous fabric. The trough (or valley) of the extreme  
274 light compaction curve occurs at a moisture content of 22-24% and is a result of  
275 the medium sized firm aggregates at intermediate dry density created at this  
276 moisture content, which retain their aggregate form under this compactive effort,  
277 resulting in an open fabric being created. At this moisture content the stiffness of  
278 these aggregates has provided sufficient resistance to the compactive effort, such  
279 that the form of the aggregates has been maintained, this was observed  
280 consistently in the laboratory. Based on these compaction curves a number of  
281 different specimens were prepared in order to study their one-dimensional  
282 compression and collapse behaviour on wetting, as explained in the next section.

### 283 **3. Compression and volumetric collapse behaviour**

284 Oedometer tests were performed on specimens of the Bengawan Solo fill material  
285 prepared at different initial conditions of dry density ( $\rho_{do}$ ) and water content ( $w_o$ ).

286 Five series of oedometer tests comprising loading and wetting stages are  
287 presented herein, four of them were carried out on remoulded and compacted

288 specimens in the laboratory; and one series was carried out on undisturbed  
289 specimens. Compacted specimens were prepared by compacting the fill into the  
290 oedometer rings in three layers using a tamping rod, and a small light hammer; the  
291 number of blows varied depending on the target dry density. After the addition of  
292 each layer the soil was scarified to ensure good contact was made with the above  
293 layer. The initial conditions of the different series are plotted in Figure 5 and are  
294 as follows:

- 295 • Series A: specimens were compacted dry of optimum (average  $w_o = 19.8\%$ )  
296 and at a low dry density (average  $\rho_{do} = 1.17 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ); close to the lowest dry  
297 density measured in the field with RC  $\sim 80\%$  of BSL (Point A Figure 5). This  
298 series corresponds to the ‘as-constructed’ conditions of the embankment during  
299 the dry season after loading to field stress levels in the oedometer, for fill  
300 material at 4.5m below the crest of the man-made embankment this  
301 corresponds to 62kPa. Where protection measures have been installed stress  
302 levels are higher.
- 303 • Series B: specimens were compacted at dry of optimum (average  $w_o = 19.4\%$ )  
304 at a higher dry density, (average  $\rho_{do} = 1.37 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ); similar to the highest dry  
305 density measured in the field with RC  $\sim 93\%$  of BSL (Point B Figure 5).
- 306 • Series C: specimens were compacted close to optimum conditions of the BS  
307 Light compaction test (average  $w_o = 29.2\%$ , average  $\rho_{do} = 1.43 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ), RC  $>$   
308 97 % of BSL (Point C Figure 5).
- 309 • Series D: specimens were compacted at the optimum water content of the ExL  
310 test (average  $w_o = 35.9 \%$ ) and at a low dry density (average  $\rho_{do} = 1.18 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ ,

311 equal to the lowest dry density measured in the field), with RC ~ 80% of BSL  
312 (Point D Figure 5).

313 • Series U: undisturbed specimens were prepared from block samples and had an  
314 average  $w_o = 34.8\%$ , average  $\rho_{do} = 1.21 \text{ Mg/m}^3$ , highlighting the low dry  
315 density and high water contents characterising this fill material in the wet  
316 season (Point U Figure 5). Distinct variation in the dry density of the  
317 undisturbed specimens was found with values ranging from 1.12 to 1.27  
318  $\text{Mg/m}^3$ .

319 The different initial conditions associated with each series are summarised in  
320 Table 3. For each series, at least one saturated (prior to loading) compression test,  
321 one unsaturated (i.e. constant water content) compression test and a one-  
322 dimensional collapse test was carried out.

323 Figure 7 presents the results of the oedometer tests in Series A. For the specimen  
324 saturated prior to loading (under a nominal load of 3kPa) swelling was observed.  
325 For the one-dimensional collapse tests (loaded under unsaturated conditions and  
326 then subjected to wetting) collapse strains were exhibited which essentially  
327 brought the specimens from the unsaturated compression curve to the saturated  
328 (prior to loading) compression curve. Other researchers have also found that  
329 collapsible soils do not exhibit significant path dependency when loaded and  
330 wetted over stress levels observed for typical geotechnical applications (Houston  
331 and Houston, 1997; Delage et al., 1995). As the vertical stress applied increased  
332 the collapse deformation (i.e. volume change on wetting) observed increased to a  
333 maximum of 13.6% at a vertical stress of 125kPa (Figure 7b). Beyond 125kPa

334 increasing stress increases the compression under unsaturated loading conditions  
335 and thus acts to reduce collapse deformation (Figure 7b). Figure 7 illustrates that  
336 under ‘as-constructed’ conditions this fill material is susceptible to collapse when  
337 subjected to wetting after loading and to display a maximum peak of collapse. It is  
338 worth mentioning that the stress level associated with the maximum collapse for  
339 the soils of the Series A (i.e.  $\sigma_v = 125\text{kPa}$ ), may be different for the other series.  
340 Nevertheless, for all the collapse tests carried out in this study the samples were  
341 wetted at a  $\sigma_v = 125\text{kPa}$ . This was done to maintain a common reference load for  
342 all the analyses.

343 For Series B, at a higher compacted dry density ( $\rho_d = 1.37\text{Mg/m}^3$ ) volumetric  
344 collapse was still observed (Figure 8a), but significantly less than in Series A  
345 (collapse deformation of 2.3% at a vertical stress of 125kPa). In Series C (Figure  
346 8b), as expected, at close to optimum BSL and nearly saturated conditions  
347 essentially no collapse was observed on wetting at 125kPa. In Series D at high  
348 degree of saturation (Figure 9a) no collapse was observed. Finally, the potential  
349 for collapse in undisturbed specimens was investigated in Series U. It should be  
350 noted however that when the in-situ sampling took place, the embankments had  
351 been recently overtopped, which explains their high initial moisture content  
352 (approx. 35%). No collapse was observed in these nearly saturated specimens.  
353 Volumetric collapse is an irreversible process and it is likely that several past  
354 wetting events contributed to the volumetric collapse of this fill material in-situ.  
355 These tests illustrate how increasing the initial dry density of the soil and/or the  
356 moisture content can reduce collapse deformation significantly. This is discussed  
357 further in Section 6.

358 **4. Microstructural Study**

359 The MIP tests were performed with an Autopore IV 9500 porosimeter; which can  
360 reach a maximum pressure of 220MPa (corresponding to a minimum entrance  
361 pore diameter of approximately 7nm). MIP is based on the principle that a non-  
362 wetting fluid (mercury) will enter the pores of a soil progressively under an  
363 applied pressure. Details about this technique can be found elsewhere (e.g.  
364 Romero et al., 1999; Delage and Lefebvre 1984; Griffiths and Joshi 1989; Romero  
365 and Simms 2008). The ESEM study was done by means of an electroscan 2020  
366 environmental electron microscope.

367 **4.1 Microstructural specimens**

368 The compaction conditions of Series A (dry of optimum and low dry density),  
369 were selected for further investigation in the fabric study. The specimens  
370 investigated corresponded to the path followed when loading to a vertical stress of  
371 125kPa followed by wetting (i.e. the maximum collapse observed for Series A).  
372 As such three different specimens were prepared (Figure 10): (A5-0) compacted;  
373 (A5-1) compacted & loaded and (A5-2) compacted, loaded & collapsed.  
374 Furthermore a compacted specimen from Series D and an undisturbed specimen  
375 from Series U were also investigated for comparison purposes. Details of the  
376 preparation and conditions of all five specimens are provided in Table 4.

377 **4.2 MIP Results**

378 MIP is a useful technique for investigating the effect of the volumetric collapse on



379 soil fabric because it enables the quantification of the volume changes at different  
380 pore levels. It has however some limitations associated with the range of pores  
381 sizes that can be measured. In the upper range, the presence of large inter-  
382 aggregate pores (i.e.  $>450\mu\text{m}$ ) in the specimen cannot be detected. The void ratio  
383 (i.e. volume of void/ volume of solid) associated with these non-detected pores is  
384 identified hereafter as ' $e_{nd}$ '. In the lower range, there are voids which cannot be  
385 intruded due to: (i) the specimen having pores less than 7nm in size (the minimum  
386 pore size which can be intruded according to the maximum pressure capacity of  
387 the porosimeter used, 223MPa), or (ii) the presence of totally isolated pores. The  
388 void ratio related to these non-intruded pores is identified herein as ' $e_{ni}$ ' and the  
389 void ratio of the specimen intruded by mercury is identified as ' $e_{int}$ '. The total  
390 measured void ratio ' $e$ ' of the specimen is thus obtained as:

$$391 \quad e = e_{int} + e_{nd} + e_{ni} \quad (1)$$

392 The non-intruded void ratio was estimated by carrying out a MIP test on a  
393 desiccated slurry specimen (Figure 11). This specimen was prepared by first  
394 creating a slurry at a moisture content of 70%, and then allowing it to shrink  
395 freely until air dried. No cracks appeared during the shrinkage stage and the final  
396 sample conditions were:  $w = 9.2\%$ ;  $\rho_d = 2.00\text{Mg/m}^3$ ; and  $e = 0.361$ . This high  
397 density specimen displayed no visible inter-aggregates higher than  $>450\mu\text{m}$ , thus  
398 nil non-detected void ratio ( $e_{nd} = 0$ ). From Figure 13 the intruded void ratio was  
399 determined ( $e_{int} = 0.283$ ) and using equation (1) the non-detected void ratio was  
400 calculated as  $e_{nd} = 0.078$ . Given that the non-intruded void ratio relates to  
401 micropores  $< 7\text{nm}$ , and isolated pores, this void ratio is unlikely to vary greatly for  
402 different specimens of the same soil. Therefore, it is assumed here that the non-

403 intruded void ratio is the same for all specimens of the Bengawan Solo fill which  
404 were investigated using the same MIP equipment.

405 Figure 12 presents the cumulative void ratio intrusion and pore density function  
406 plots for the three specimens A5-0, A5-1 and A5-2. From Figure 12b it can be  
407 inferred that the compacted sample (A5-0) has a bi-modal pore size distribution,  
408 but one of the pore modes, corresponding to very large inter-aggregate pores,  
409 could not be detected in the MIP, as they have a dominant pore size  $> 450\mu\text{m}$ . The  
410 presence of these very large inter-aggregate pores indicates the very open  
411 structure created during compaction at low dry density and dry of optimum  
412 moisture content.

413 Loading the compacted specimen to 125kPa under constant water content  
414 conditions resulted in a shift in the inter-aggregate pore size to  $170\mu\text{m}$ , into the  
415 range detectable using MIP. Moving from the compacted & loaded (A5-1) to the  
416 compacted, loaded & collapsed specimen (A5-2) resulted in a substantial  
417 reduction in the dominant pore size observed from  $170\mu\text{m}$  to  $2\mu\text{m}$ . Evidence of  
418 these pore sizes found in the corresponding specimens are presented in Figures  
419 12c, d & e.

420 Given that inter-aggregate pores are by their definition always equal to or larger  
421 than intra-aggregate pores, there exists therefore a delimiting pore size which is  
422 both an upper bound for the size of intra-aggregate pores and equally a lower  
423 bound for inter-aggregate pores within a compacted soil (Romero et al., 2011).  
424 Romero et al., (2011) demonstrated that this delimiting pore size can be  
425 determined from the dominant peak of compacted specimens subjected to wetting

426 under constant volume, where both the swelling of aggregates is promoted and  
427 inter-aggregate porosity is reduced simultaneously. In fact, it was also  
428 demonstrated that the same delimiting value is observed for compacted specimens  
429 that are subsequently saturated, regardless of mechanical loading conditions.

430 The dashed line indicated on Figure 12 is thus the delimiting pore size separating  
431 the intra-aggregate pores from the inter-aggregate pores. Therefore the dominant  
432 peak observed at  $2\mu\text{m}$  for A5-2 can be partially assigned to intra-aggregate pores  
433 and partially to the inter-aggregate pores. The shift in pore size between A5-1 and  
434 A5-2 due to wetting at constant stress can therefore be interpreted as a result of  
435 both the reduction of inter-aggregate pores (macropores) due to collapse and the  
436 expansion of intra-aggregates pores (micropores) due to the swelling of  
437 aggregates on wetting.

438 Figure 13 presents the pore size density function plots for A5-2 (compacted  
439 loaded & collapsed:  $w = 27.7\%$ ,  $\rho_d = 1.39\text{Mg/m}^3$ ), D (specimen compacted at  $w =$   
440  $36.5\%$ ,  $\rho_d = 1.17\text{Mg/m}^3$ ) and U (undisturbed specimen:  $w = 34.7\%$ ,  $\rho_d =$   
441  $1.36\text{Mg/m}^3$ ). It is evident that specimen A5-2 which exhibited volumetric collapse  
442 on loading and wetting in the laboratory and specimen U (undisturbed) have very  
443 similar microstructure with both samples exhibiting a dominant peak at a pore size  
444 of  $2\mu\text{m}$  (see Figures 13b and c). Specimen D also exhibits the same peak in the  
445 pore size density function plot at  $2\mu\text{m}$ . However it should be noted that the non-  
446 detected void ratio was significant for D ( $e_{nd} = 0.376$ ) indicating that for these  
447 compaction conditions there exists an additional porosity which has not been  
448 detected as it is greater than  $450\mu\text{m}$  (out with the range of the MIP). Nevertheless  
449 at this high moisture content ( $36.5\%$ ) it appears that the aggregates have already

450 reached full swelling giving rise to the same delimiting value between inter-  
451 aggregate and intra-aggregate pores of  $2\mu\text{m}$  as observed for A5-2 and U  
452 specimens.

### 453 **4.3 ESEM Results**

454 Figure 14a presents an image of the compacted (A5-0) specimen, which shows an  
455 open structure characterised by large inter-aggregate pores (1), surrounded by  
456 defined aggregates (2) which are connected via clay bridges (3). It is difficult to  
457 discern individual sand grains and silt particles as it appears that everything is  
458 clothed with clay particles forming aggregations. Moving to the compacted,  
459 loaded (A5-1) specimen in Figure 14b, inter-aggregate pores (4) and defined soil  
460 aggregations (5) are still present along with bridging connections (6). However,  
461 the loading process may be responsible for breaking some bridging connections,  
462 especially those that are brittle in nature. Figure 14c shows the compacted, loaded  
463 and collapsed specimen (A5-2). Inter-aggregate pores are less readily visible in  
464 the collapsed specimen (Figure 14c), compared to Figure 14a and Figure 14b. It is  
465 still possible to detect where soil aggregations existed prior to wetting (7), though  
466 these are no longer well defined. Similar changes in fabric due to loading and  
467 wetting have been observed using ESEM by Monroy et al. (2010) and Romero et  
468 al. (2011).

469 As a result of wetting, the aggregates become softened (Figure 14c) enabling their  
470 rearrangement but also the aggregates themselves swell on wetting, invading the  
471 inter-aggregate pores. Both of these phenomena contribute to the loss of inter-  
472 aggregate porosity on wetting observed between A5-1 and A5-2 from the MIP

473 results (Figure 12b), which is responsible for the global volume changes observed  
474 in the oedometer tests presented in Section 3.

475 Finally the microstructure of an undisturbed specimen was also investigated using  
476 ESEM. There are distinct similarities between the undisturbed specimen (Figure  
477 14d and the A5-2 specimen in Figure 14c, namely both show fused aggregations  
478 (7, 8) and visibly less inter-aggregate pores than in A5-0 and A5-1 specimens.  
479 The comparison of Figures 14c and 14d suggests that the microstructure of the  
480 undisturbed sample is very similar to that of the A5-2 Compacted Loaded &  
481 collapsed specimen created in the laboratory with initial conditions, dry of  
482 optimum at low dry density, as expected.

483

## 484 **5. Discussion**

485 The mechanical study presented in Section 3 has identified that the Bengawan  
486 Solo fill material is a collapsible material under dry of optimum and low dry  
487 density conditions (Series A). These are quite common conditions in these  
488 embankments, where fill material is compacted in layers of 40 cm using light  
489 compaction plant and on the dry side of optimum (Soemitro, 2006). This is  
490 because (as explained in Section 2), the construction and repair of these  
491 embankments takes place during the dry season and limited resources are  
492 allocated towards controlling the compaction conditions of the fill material. In  
493 fact, quite low dry densities (RC=80%) were measured during the site  
494 investigation (Section 2). Therefore, Series A conditions are similar to the ‘as-  
495 constructed’ conditions. The results of Series A are important because they

496 indicate that close to these (as-constructed) conditions the fill material exhibits  
497 significant volumetric collapse upon wetting.

498 To account for the variability in dry densities observed in the site (and also  
499 observed in the undisturbed samples), Series B tests were performed close to the  
500 highest dry density observed in-situ (around 1.37 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>) and on the dry side (i.e.  
501  $w = 24\%$ ). These samples also exhibited volumetric collapse but to a lesser  
502 degree. These tests illustrate how increasing the initial dry density of the soil can  
503 considerably reduce the potential for collapse. The increase in dry density of  
504 between 15 and 20%, led to a reduction in the collapse deformation on wetting of  
505 around 80%. The specification and control of appropriate compaction conditions  
506 for fill material which is susceptible to volumetric collapse is one method of  
507 minimising unwanted settlements in construction projects, where such settlements  
508 may lead to further damage or reduce the functional performance of an earth  
509 structure.

510 It is evident from the microstructural investigation in Section 4 that the soil  
511 microstructure undergoes significant evolution during loading and wetting for  
512 specimens compacted at low dry density and low water content (Series A), with a  
513 shift in the dominant pore size of 170 $\mu\text{m}$  to 2 $\mu\text{m}$  on wetting (Figure 12).  
514 Specimens prepared also at low dry densities, but higher water contents (e.g.  
515 Series D) exhibited essentially no volumetric collapse upon wetting. Both of these  
516 specimens (i.e. dry of optimum or wet of optimum) present practically the same  
517 total void ratio, but their collapsible behaviour is quite different which is due to  
518 the differences in the specimen structure arising due to compaction at different  
519 water contents.

520 The investigation of compaction behaviour (Sections 2.4) demonstrated that the  
521 Bengawan Solo fill material has an irregular double-peak compaction curve at low  
522 compactive effort (Figure 5). Irregular compaction curves have been presented in  
523 the literature by many authors (e.g. Olson, 1963; Lee, 1976; Ellis, 1980; Nawari  
524 and Schetelig, 1991). Olson (1963) proposed that the double-peak curve would  
525 only occur in soils with a dominant percentage of plate shaped particles. The  
526 Bengawan Solo fill material however has only a small fraction of clay particles  
527 (~15%), albeit this is largely composed of montmorillonite. Lee and Suedkamp  
528 (1972) researched the characteristics of irregularly shaped compaction curves by  
529 investigating 34 different soils. They found that typically soils with a liquid limit  
530 of between 30 and 70% yielded single peak compaction curves, whereas soils  
531 with a liquid limit lower than 30% or greater than 70% usually produced  
532 irregularly shaped curves. There were a few exceptions to this rule caused by the  
533 mineralogy of the soils. The liquid limit of the Bengawan Solo fill material is 53-  
534 54% which suggests again that it is the mineralogy of this material which has an  
535 influence on its compaction behaviour.

536 It is proposed here that it is the nature of the aggregates formed at different  
537 moisture contents which are responsible for the irregular double-peak compaction  
538 curves. At dry moisture contents smaller stiff and very dense aggregates were  
539 formed and as moisture content increased larger aggregates were formed on  
540 mixing with water. However at higher moisture contents these large and low-  
541 density aggregates are softer and fuse together more easily under compactive  
542 effort. Such an irregular compaction curve could lead to large variations in dry  
543 density with small variations in moisture content, which may be important

544 particularly where flood embankment construction is poorly controlled.

545 To better understand the microstructure created on compaction at different initial  
546 conditions we can use the model developed by Romero et al., (2011) for the  
547 evolution of the microvoid ratio with water ratio ( $e_w = w\rho_s/\rho_w$ ) for  $e_w \geq e_m^*$ :

$$548 \quad e_m = e_m^* + \beta \langle e_w - e_m^* \rangle \quad (2)$$

549 where  $e_m^*$  corresponds to a water ratio where the micropores (intra-aggregate) are  
550 fully saturated and the macropores (inter-aggregate) are empty of water.  $B < 1$  is a  
551 parameter that describes the tendency of the aggregates to swell under saturated  
552 conditions. Figure 15 presents the evolution of  $e_m$  with  $e_w$ . Data points were  
553 determined for the Bengawan Solo fill from MIP data using the criteria outlined in  
554 Romero et al., (2011) for delimiting intra-aggregate and inter-aggregate porosity.  
555 For specimens compacted dry of optimum with two distinct pore levels, the  
556 delimiting pore size, i.e. that which is an upper bound for the intra-aggregate  
557 porosity and a lower bound for the inter-aggregate porosity is the depression  
558 between the two peaks. For compacted specimens, which have been saturated, the  
559 delimiting pore size is the dominant peak of the pore size distribution function  
560 determined by MIP. Figure 15 presents the evolution of microstructural void ratio  
561 with water ratio using the MIP data presented in Figures 12 and 13. Values of  $e_m^*$   
562 = 0.37 and  $\beta=0.45$  were determined. Values of  $e_m^*$  and  $\beta$  for a range of different  
563 soils are given in Romero (2013).

564 Figure 16 presents contours of  $e_m/e$  which indicate the contribution of  
565 microporosity to total void ratio for the Bengawan Solo fill, plotted on the  
566 compaction plane (dry density versus water content). The collapse deformation



567 (i.e. change in volume on wetting) is noted in brackets for specimens compacted  
568 at different water contents and initial dry densities, which were wetted at a vertical  
569 stress of 125kPa. For low water contents (i.e.  $w < 25\%$ ) at low dry densities (80-  
570 85% RC),  $e_m/e$  is low. For values of  $e_m/e$  between 0.3 and 0.4 considerable  
571 volumetric collapse occurs if additional loading is applied. As  $e_m/e$  increases (0.4  
572 to 0.5) the volume change observed on saturation at 125kPa decreases. Above  
573  $e_m/e = 0.5$  no volumetric collapse was observed. This can be explained by  
574 considering that as  $e_m/e$  increases the intra-aggregate porosity increases and thus  
575 the component of porosity due to inter-aggregate pores decreases. Above  $e_m/e$   
576  $= 0.5$ , the dominant porosity becomes the intra-aggregate porosity and as such the  
577 potential for collapse which is associated with inter-aggregate porosity has now  
578 been removed.

579 For high water contents (i.e.  $w > 35\%$ ) for the same range of low dry densities,  
580  $e_m/e$  remains above 0.5, which explains why no collapse was observed for Series  
581 D. The additional loading (125kPa) does not contribute to volumetric collapse in  
582 this case. This has important practical implications. For the Bengawan Solo fill, if  
583 the material is going to be emplaced at very low dry densities, (80% RC), then the  
584 moisture content at which it is emplaced must be high to ensure that significant  
585 volumetric collapse does not occur. This is of particular importance for fill  
586 materials used in flood embankments, which are subjected to wetting and also  
587 may be subjected to additional loading in the form of surface protection as was the  
588 case for the Bengawan Solo embankments. This microstructural approach could  
589 be used as a tool for specifying appropriate compaction conditions for earthworks  
590 where fill material is susceptible to volumetric collapse.

591 **6. Conclusions**

592 This study investigated the behaviour of fill material from flood embankments  
593 along the Bengawan Solo River in East Java, Indonesia, under different  
594 compaction conditions. Local variation of dry density was observed both during  
595 the site investigation (ranging from 1.18 to 1.36Mg/m<sup>3</sup>), and in the undisturbed  
596 block samples (dry densities between 1.12 to 1.27 Mg/m<sup>3</sup>). A detailed study of the  
597 compaction behaviour showed that the soil structure formed during compaction  
598 strongly depends on the amount of mixing water. The water content affects the  
599 size of the aggregates, as well as their dry density and stiffness. As a result the soil  
600 aggregations formed at different moisture contents have a significant influence on  
601 the final soil dry density achieved for a given compactive effort.

602 Close to as-constructed conditions (dry of optimum and RC=80%) the Bengawan  
603 Solo fill exhibited significant collapse compression behaviour at a range of  
604 vertical stresses (from 32kPa to 538kPa); with a maximum collapse at an  
605 intermediate stress level (125kPa). The collapse deformation was found to reduce  
606 significantly in samples compacted at a higher dry density (RC=93%), albeit still  
607 under dry of optimum conditions. Specimens prepared at optimum or wet of  
608 optimum moisture content conditions were generally not found to be sensitive to  
609 the addition of water, with no collapse observed. This was also the case for  
610 specimens compacted at low dry densities (i.e. RC=80%) at optimum or wet of  
611 optimum moisture contents.

612 MIP tests were conducted to investigate the evolution in the pore size distribution  
613 during compression and volumetric collapse upon wetting. The volumetric

614 compression after wetting induced a significant reduction of the dominant pore  
615 size, with global rearrangement of aggregates contributing to a reduction in the  
616 size of inter-aggregate pores and the swelling of aggregates resulting in the  
617 expansion of intra-aggregate pores. With the MIP tests it was also possible to  
618 detect that essentially all the large macropores ( $>450\ \mu\text{m}$ ) present in the  
619 aggregated structure developed during compaction on the dry side, disappeared  
620 after wetting. Images obtained using ESEM showed that the wetting of (dry of  
621 optimum) compacted specimens resulted in the softening of aggregations, leading  
622 to a fused uniform fabric.

623 A physically-based framework recently proposed by Romero et al. (2011) was  
624 used in this paper to interpret the behaviour of the embankment fill observed in  
625 the microscopic and macroscopic experiments. By using this model it was  
626 possible to present in the compaction plane (i.e water content versus dry density)  
627 the evolution of the microporosity with dry density and water content. This plot  
628 was then used to explain the collapse behaviour observed across the specimens  
629 compacted at different conditions. This microstructural approach could be a useful  
630 tool for engineers dealing with collapsible materials.

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Table 1 Bengawan Solo fill soil properties

Properties	D1: 0.5 - 1.0m	D2: 1.0 – 1.5m
Particle density (Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	2.73	2.72
Sand content (%)	30	29
Silt content (%)	57	55
Clay content (%)	13	16
Uniformity Coefficient	29	27
Liquid Limit (%)	54	53
Plastic Limit (%)	36	37
Shrinkage Limit (%)	14	15
Plasticity Index (%)	18	16
Activity	1.4	1
Organic Content (%)	8	6
BSCS Classification	MHO	MHO

Table 2 Bengawan Solo soil mineralogy. Total fraction mineralogical semi-quantification by means of X-ray diffraction (% mass).

Minerals*	D1: 0.5 - 1.0m	D2: 1.0 -1.5m
Total Phyllosilicates	60	60
Quartz	18	14
Calcite	12	11
Plagioclases	9	14
Mg-hornblende	1	0.5

\*Sample <63 $\mu$ m prepared

Table 3 Initial conditions of oedometer specimens

Series	Test Reference	Initial water content, $w_o$ (%)	Initial dry density, $\rho_{do}$ (Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Relative Compaction, $RC$ (%)	Loading Path
A	A1	20.8	1.17	80	Saturated at 3kPa → Loading
	A2	19.1	1.19	81	Unsaturated loading
	A3	20.8	1.17	80	Unsaturated loading to 32kPa → Wetting → Loading
	A4	18.2	1.16	79	Unsaturated loading to 63kPa → Wetting → Loading
	A5	18.8	1.15	78	Unsaturated loading to 125kPa → Wetting → Loading
	A6	20.5	1.16	79	Unsaturated loading to 253kPa → Wetting → Loading
	A7	20.5	1.19	81	Unsaturated loading to 538kPa → Wetting → Loading
B	B1	19.4	1.37	93	Saturated at 3kPa → Loading
	B2	19.4	1.37	93	Unsaturated loading
	B3	19.4	1.37	93	Unsaturated loading to 125kPa → Wetting → Loading
C	C1	29.2	1.44	98	Saturated at 3kPa → Loading
	C2	29.2	1.43	97	Unsaturated loading
	C3	29.2	1.43	97	Unsaturated loading to 125kPa → Wetting → Loading
D	D1	36.2	1.16	79	Saturated at 3kPa → Loading
	D2	35.4	1.20	82	Unsaturated loading
	D3	36.2	1.18	80	Unsaturated loading to 125kPa → Wetting → Loading
U	U1	33.6	1.23	84	Saturated at 3kPa → Loading
	U2	34.1	1.27	86	Unsaturated loading
	U3	35.6	1.23	84	Unsaturated loading to 63kPa → Wetting → Loading
	U4	35.7	1.12	76	Unsaturated loading to 125kPa → Wetting → Loading

Table 4 Initial conditions of specimens investigated in microstructural study

Specimen Name	Reference	$w$ (%)	$\rho_d$ (Mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$e$	$S_r$ (%)
Compacted	A5-0	19.5	1.15	1.38	38.6
Compacted, loaded	A5-1	19	1.19	1.29	40.2
Compacted, loaded & collapsed	A5-2	27.7	1.39	0.95	79.2
Series D, Compacted	D	36.5	1.17	1.32	75.3
Undisturbed	U	34.7	1.36	1.00	94.4

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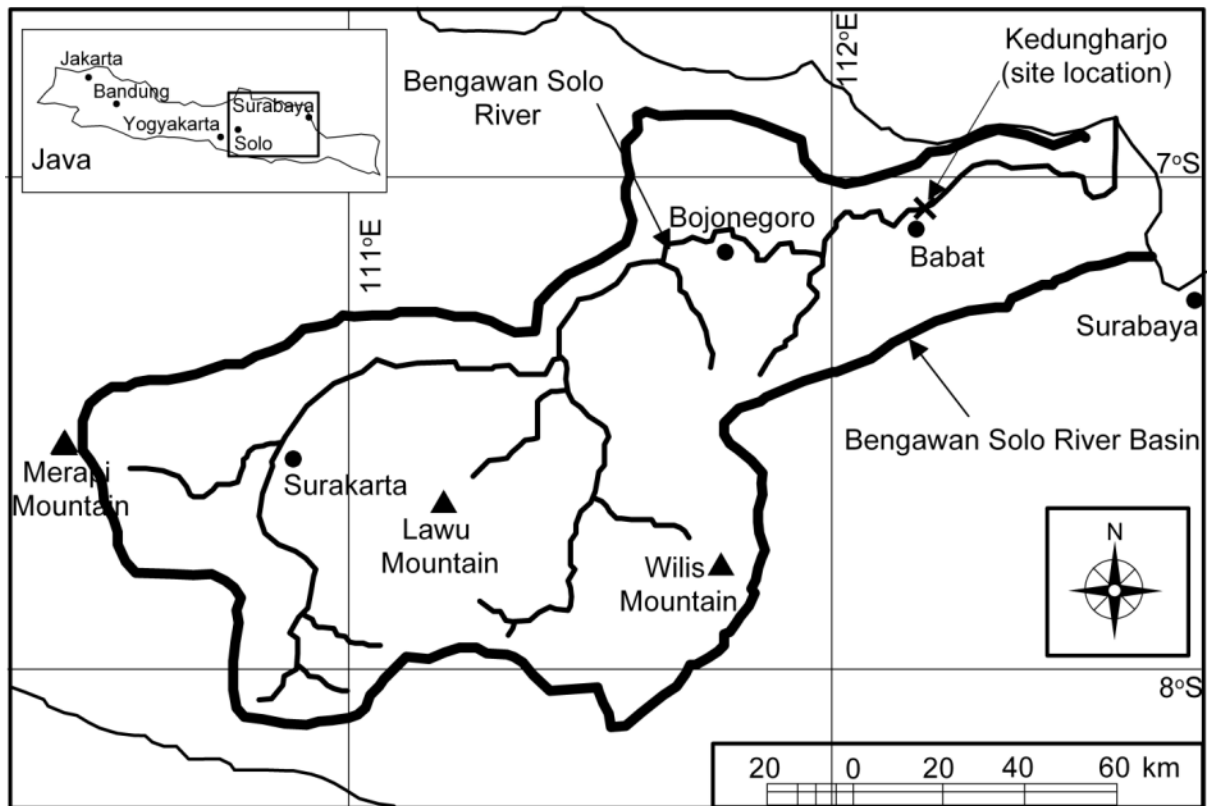


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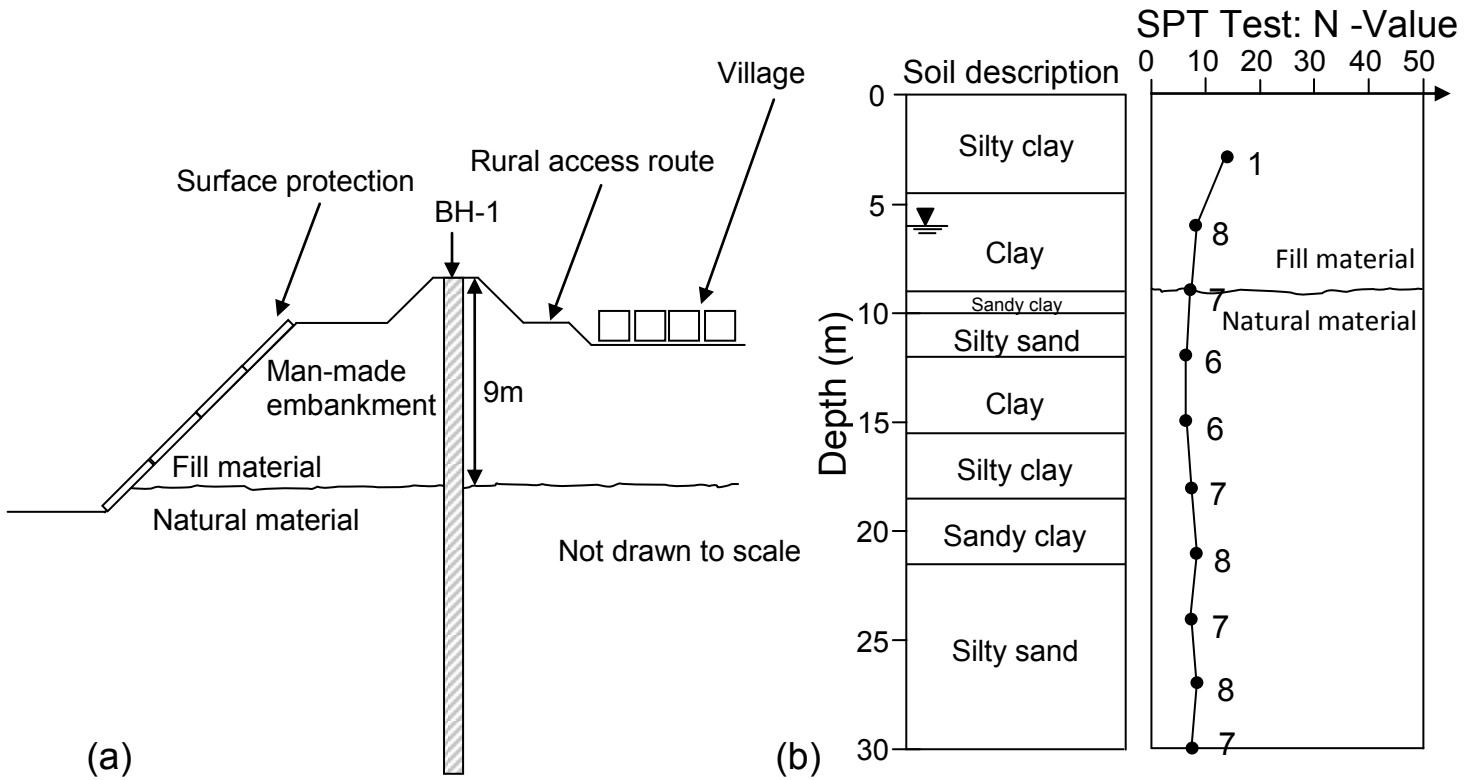


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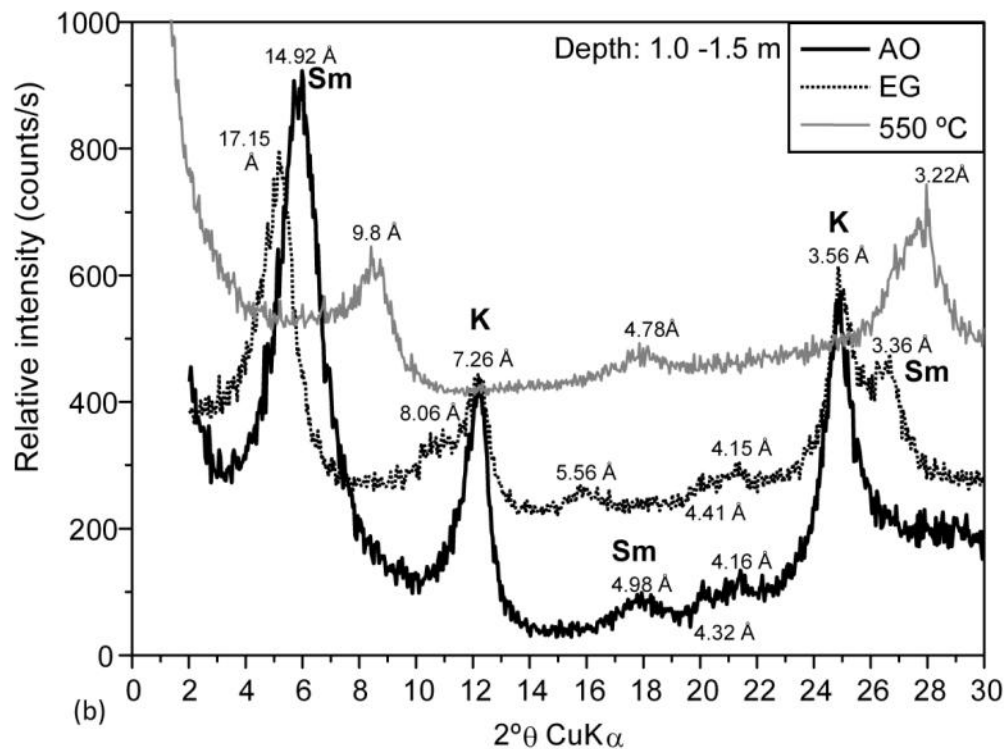
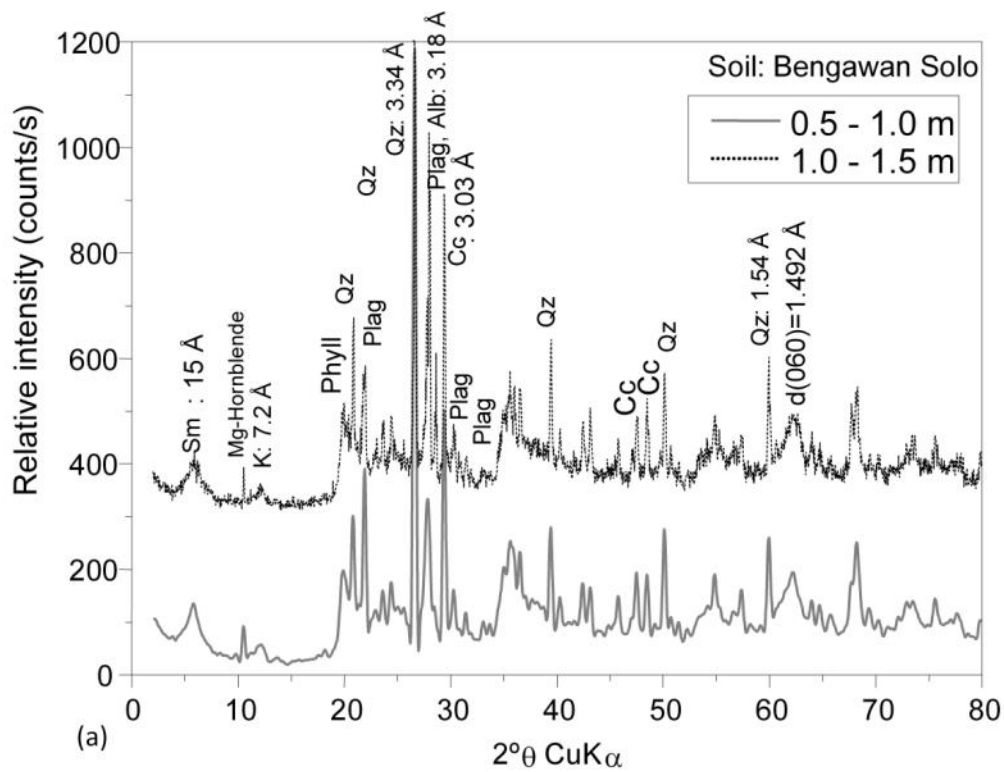


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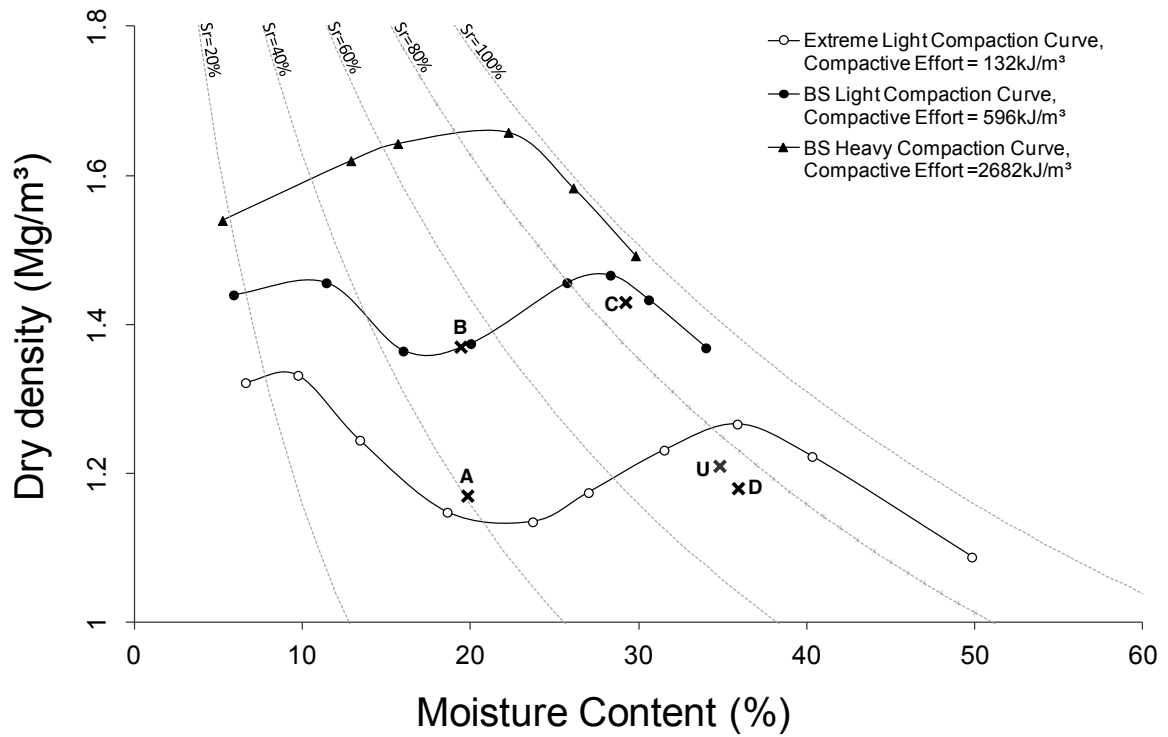


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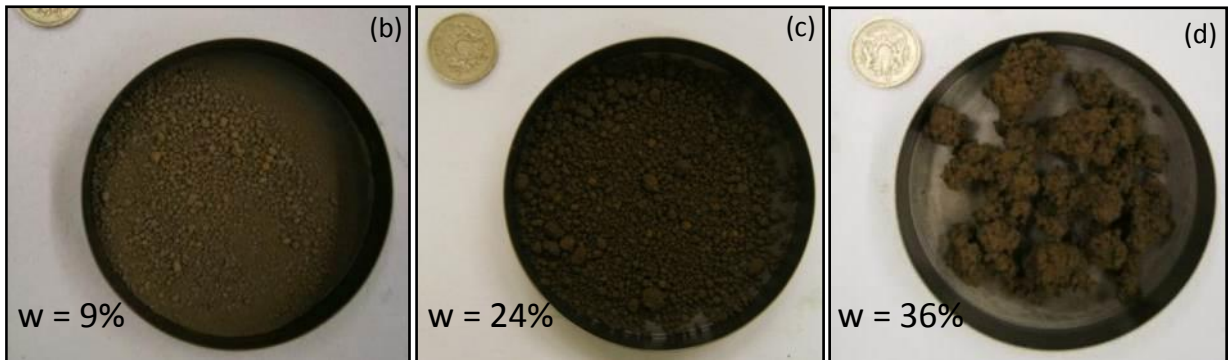
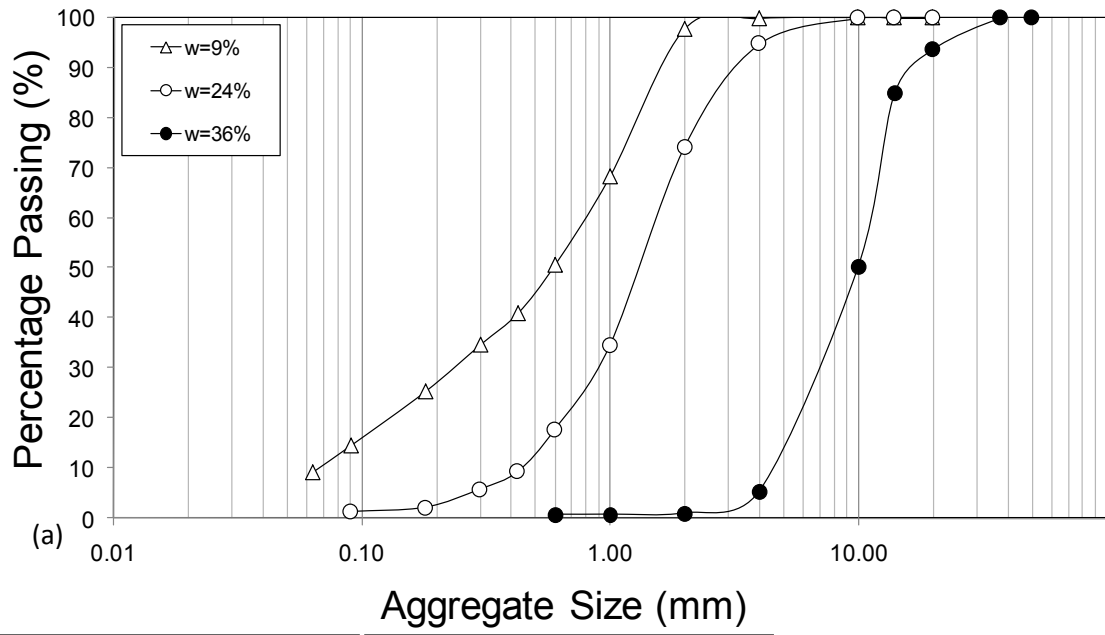


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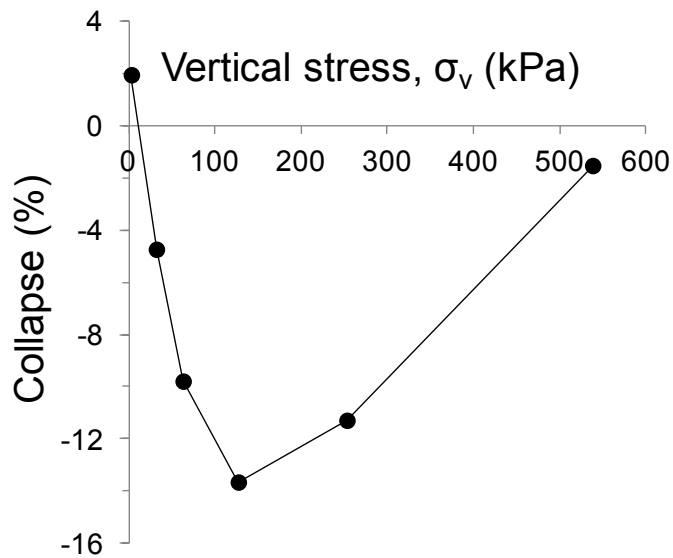
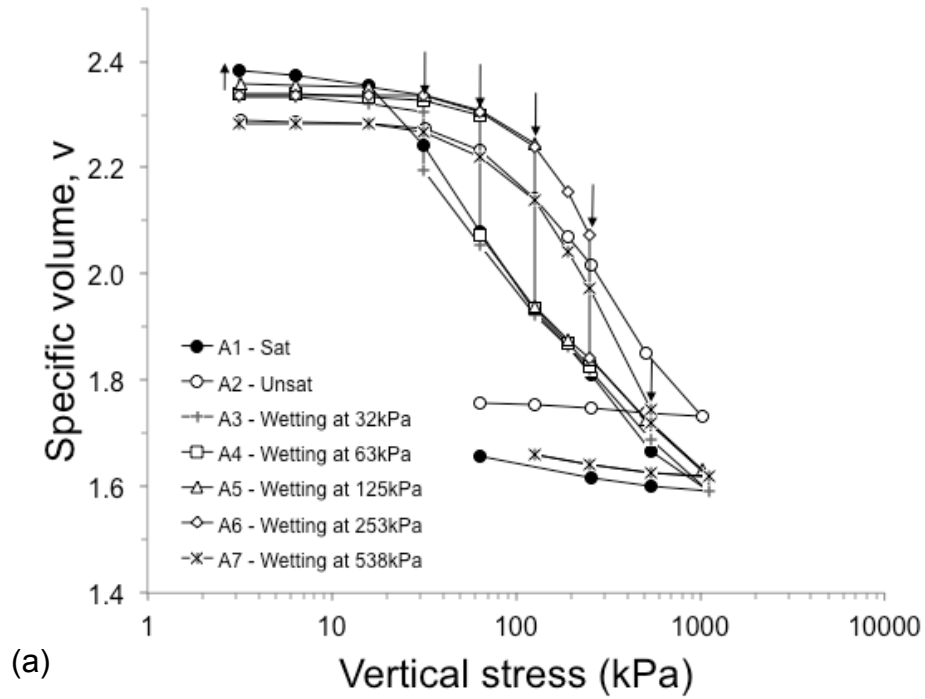


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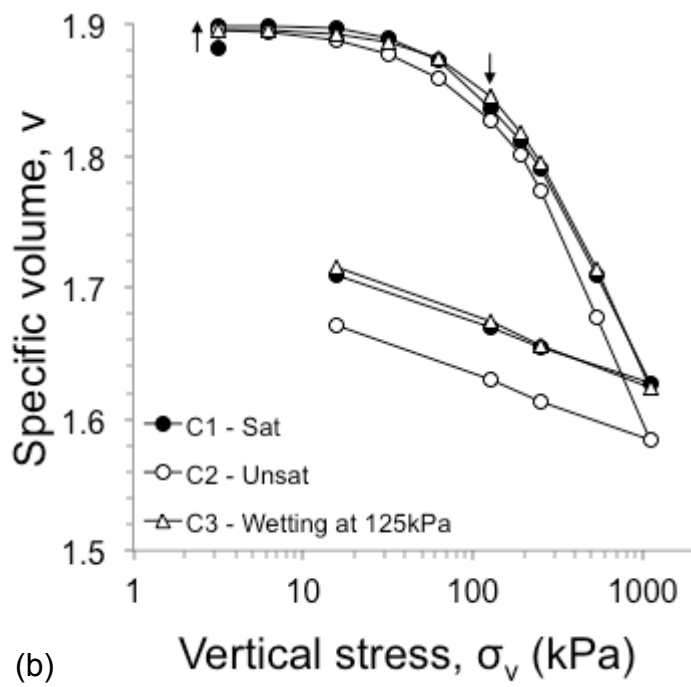
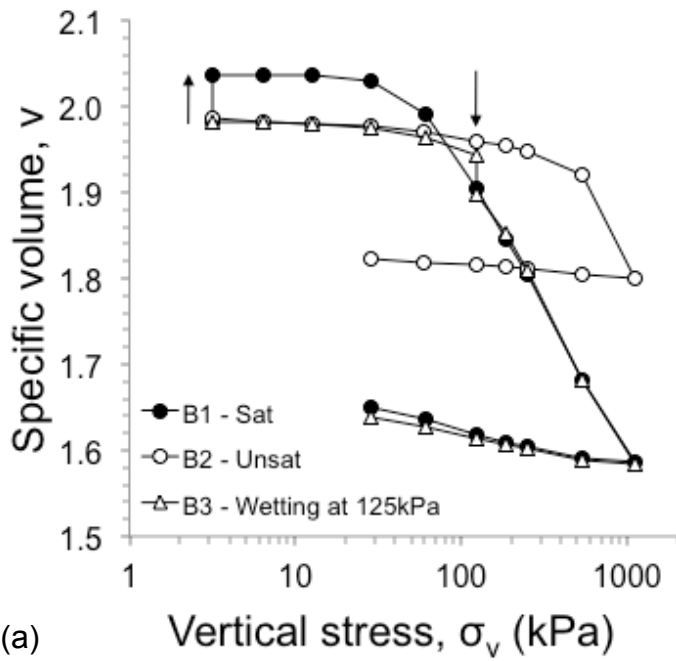


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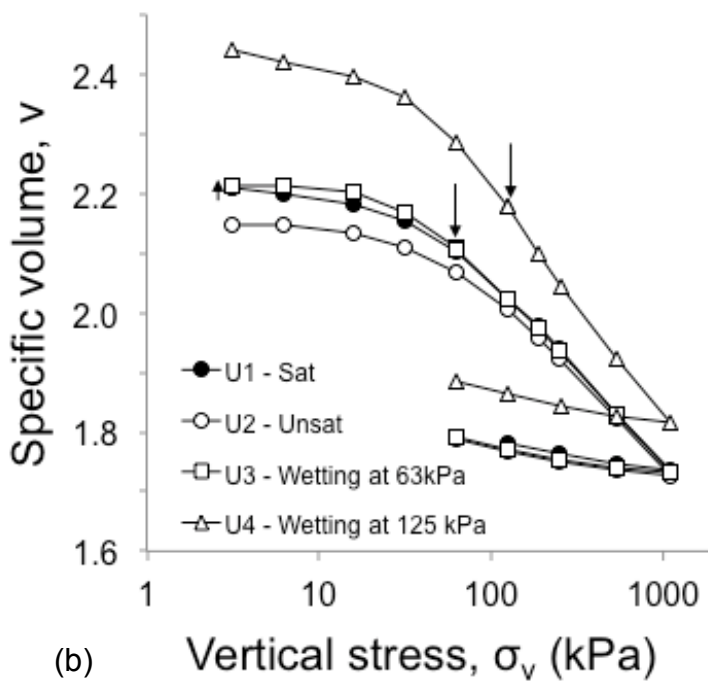
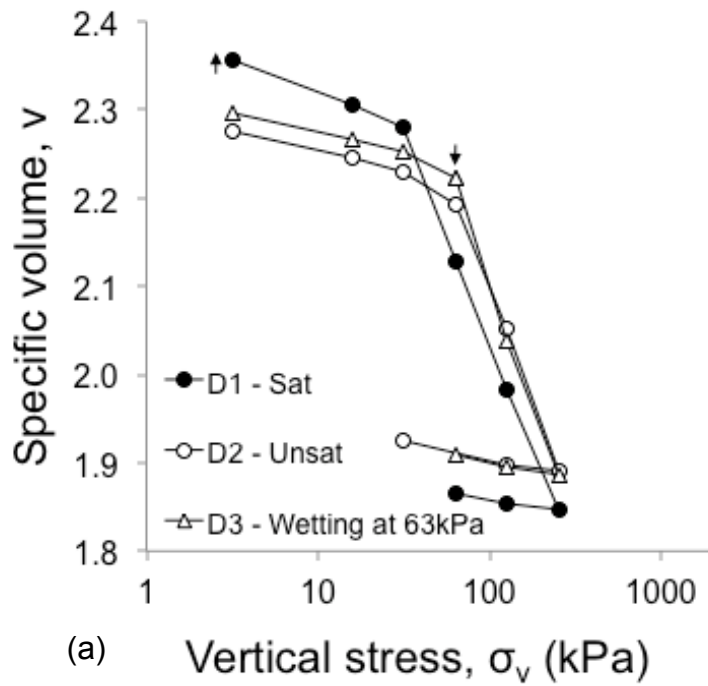


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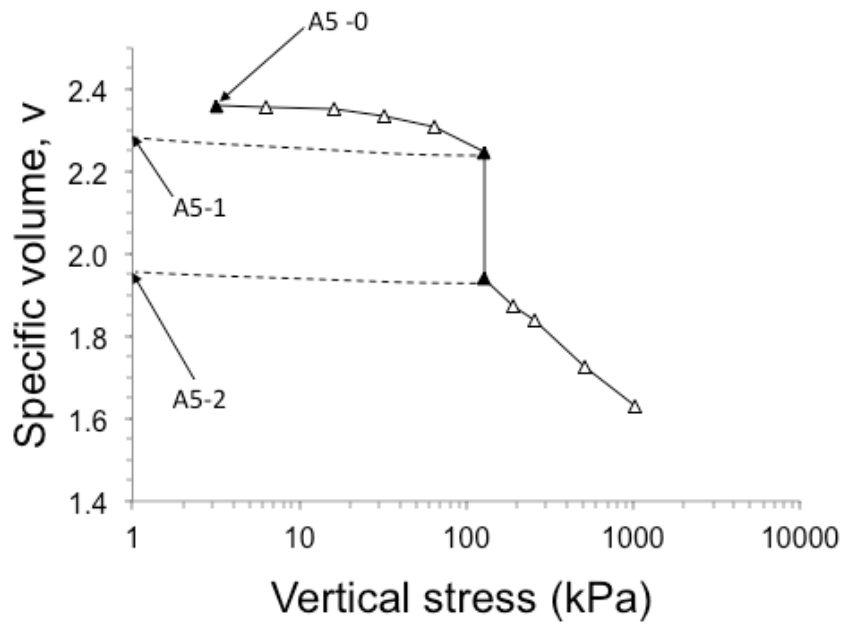


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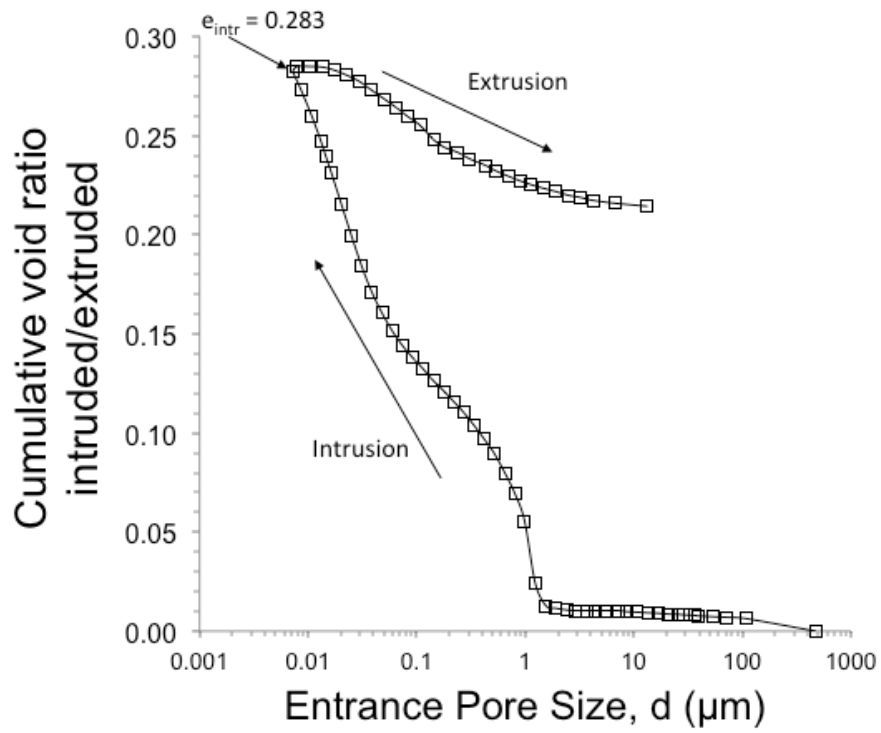


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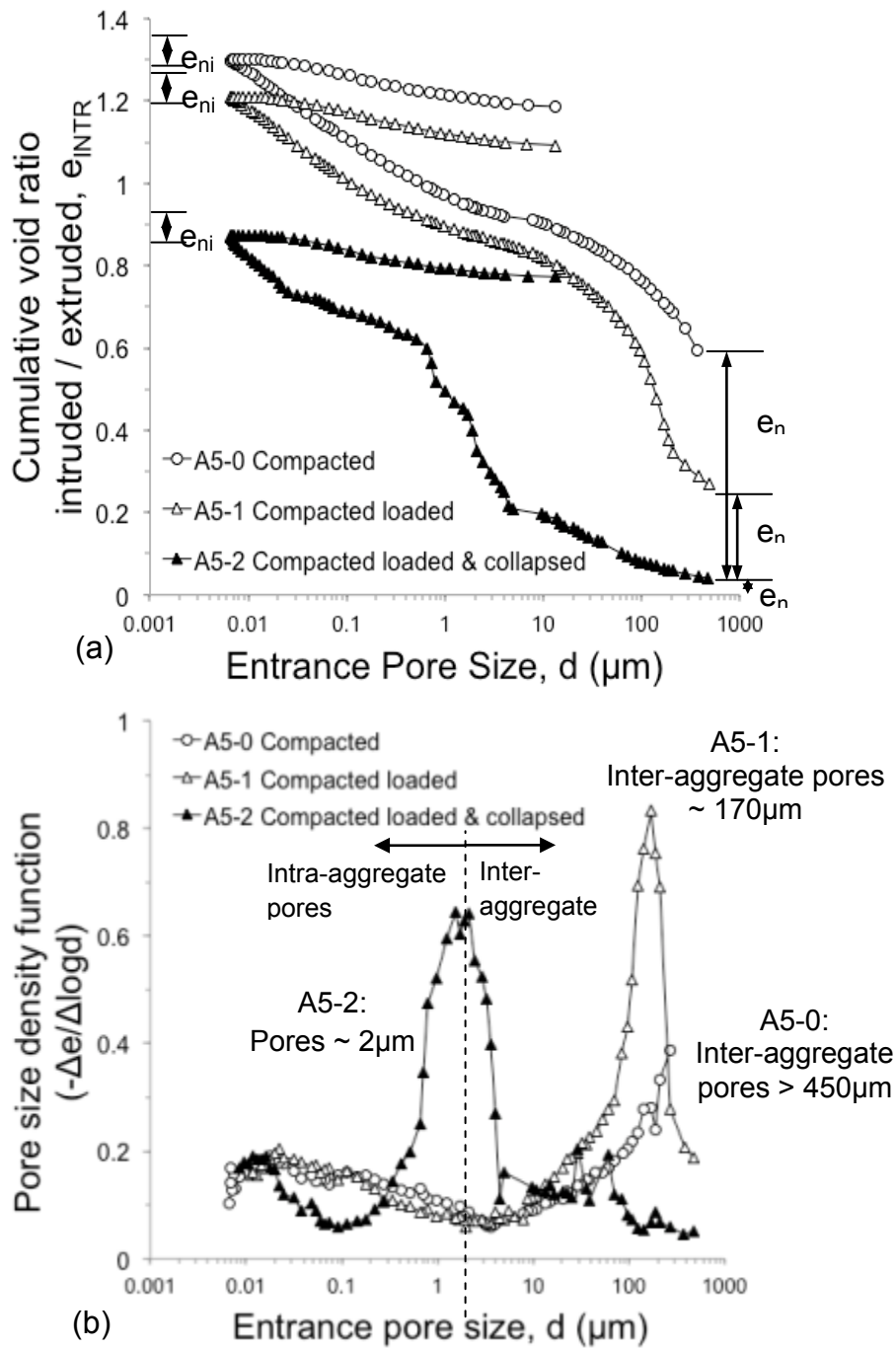


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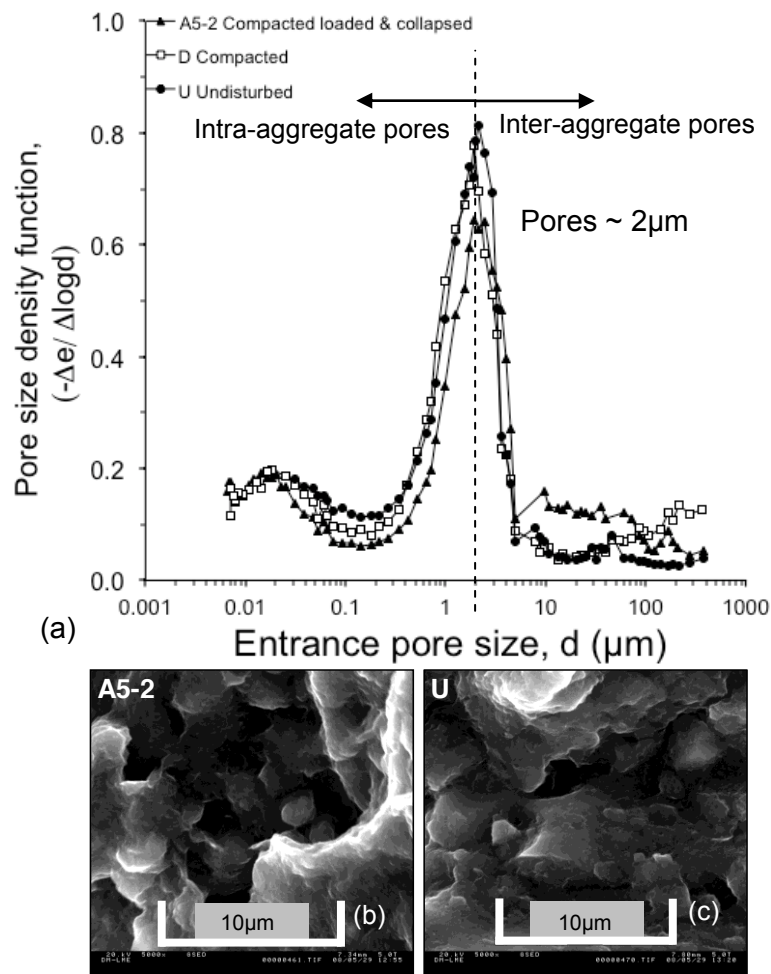


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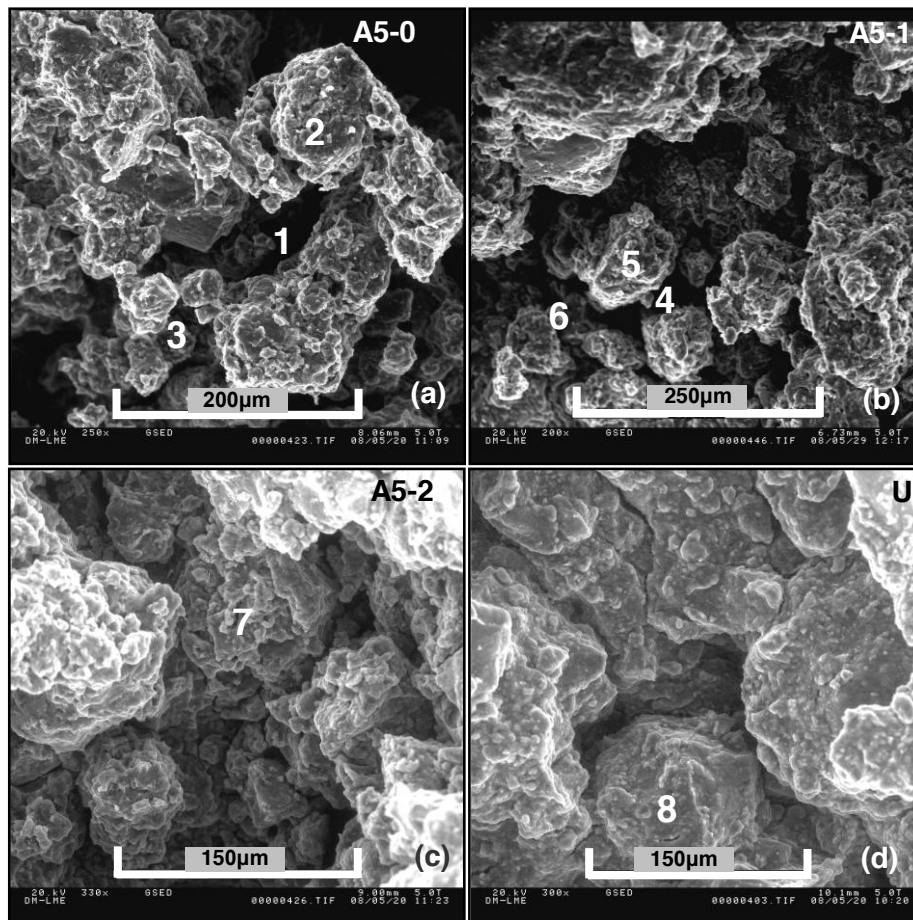


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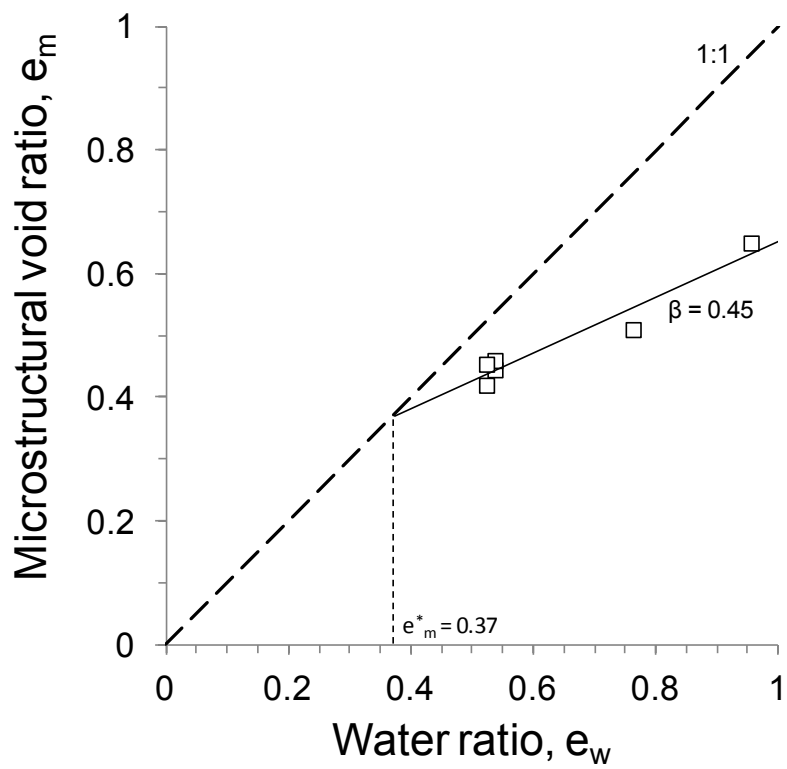


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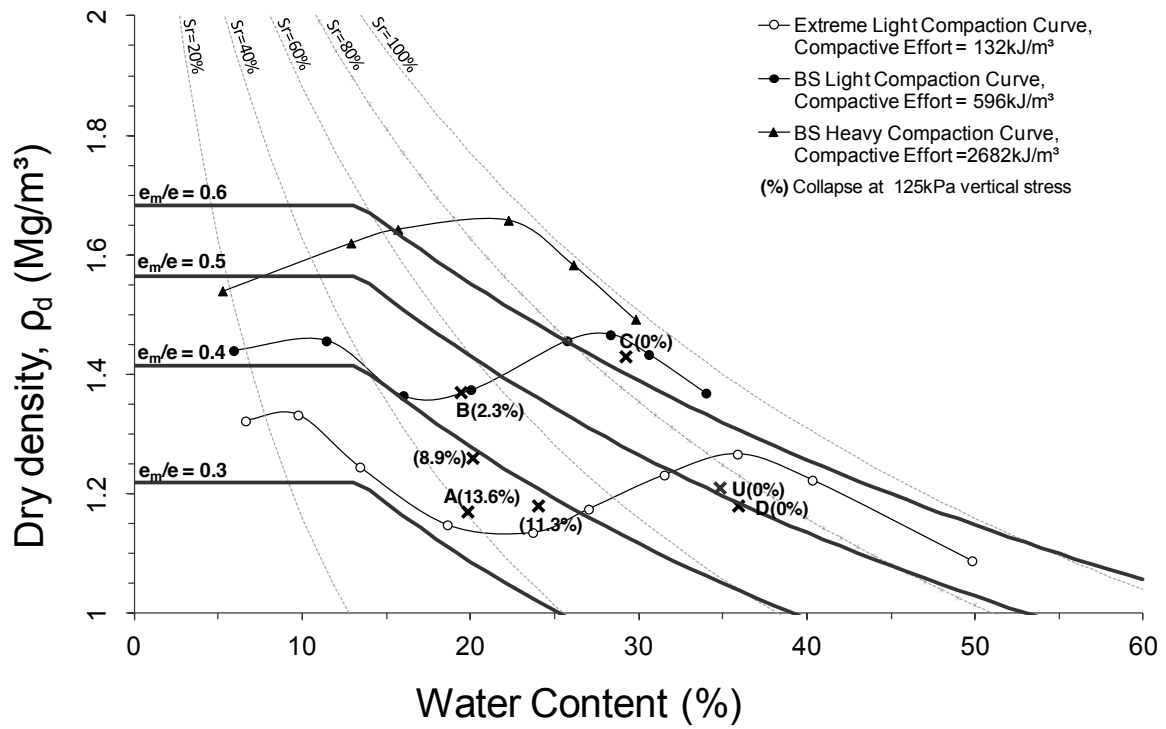


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