

BEHAVIOURAL STUDY OF EXPANSIVE SOILS AND ITS EFFECT ON STRUCTURES

Dr. Mohammed Ahmed Hussain¹, Mohammed Huzaifa Yaman

Professor¹, Assistant professor²

Department Of Civil Engineering

NAWAB SHAH ALAM KHAN COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY

NEW MALAKPET, HYDERABAD-500 024

ABSTRACT:

There has been a lot of interest in expanding soil and its influence on buildings in the past, but little research has been done to understand its behaviour and how it affects structures. No thorough analysis of expansive soil has been published in the recent decade despite many publications on its features, behaviour, stability, and consequences on buildings. This work aims to provide an overview of the properties, behaviour, stability, and impacts on structures of expansive soil. It is a review. The physics and mechanics of it have been studied and various approaches have been attempted to stabilise it up to a point. Under addition to lime and fly ash, this soil is mostly stabilised with chemicals and performs well even in the most severe situations. Although its consequences and corrective procedures on buildings have been studied, little has been done. Research in this subject will benefit from the study's technical overview and important information for future engineers and researchers.

Expansive soil, stability, fly ash, influence, structures, and features are some of the key terms in this paper.

INTRODUCTION

In the arid and semi-arid parts of the globe, expansive soils may be found. India's Deccan plateau, Western Madhya Pradesh, sections of Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, Uttar Pradesh, Karnataka, and Maharashtra make up around 20% of the country's total land area. Black Cotton Soils are a frequent term for the expanding soils. These soils must be initially unsaturated at some water content for swelling to occur. Swelling occurs in the unsaturated soil as it absorbs water. If the water content drops, though, soil will contract. These soils have strong swell–shrink potentials due to the presence of montmorillonite clay. [38] [39] [7]

Located on a plateau in western Madhya Pradesh and south-eastern Rajasthan, the Malwa area is bordered on the west by Gujarat. A mountain range called the Vindhya Range runs south and east of it, while the Bundelkhand upland runs north. Deccan Traps, which were produced between 60 and 68 million years ago towards the end of the Cretaceous era, are a major source of the plateau's geological formation. Black, brown, and batori (stony) soil are the most common types of soil in this area. Due to the basalt's

high iron concentration, the black colour of the volcanic, clay-like soil in this area is no accident. Both of the other soil types are lighter and include more sand than the other two.

When moisture levels fluctuate in the Malwa area, expansive soils such as Black Cotton Soil are more likely to shrink and expand, which makes buildings and pavement that are not heavily laden more vulnerable to damage from differential movement. It is common for structures with traditional open foundations, floating raft bases, or the most recent under reamed pile foundations, to experience various forms of structural problems. Similar huge fissures appear in pavements when the expanding behaviour of subgrade is not taken into account.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Expansive soil causes problems for structures and national highways in the Malwa area of Madhya Pradesh in India because of the mineral Montmorillonite. An in-depth case study on the performance, issues, and solutions for structures built on expanding soil was provided by the authors. Structures are becoming exposed to the consequences of expansive soil's swelling.

Gypsum, crude oil, and a CNS (Cohesive Non-swelling) layer are all tested for their influence on expansive soil. Vibrational ground improvement may lessen the risk of liquefaction and ground deformation caused by lateral spreading in regions with low seismic activity. Swelling Pressure, Triaxial Compression Test, Optimum Moisture Content, Conducting Field Density, Liquid Limit, Plastic Limit, Shrinkage Limit, Specific Gravity, etc. are some of the tests conducted on the expansive soil. [46] [47]

Swelling and the resulting damage are investigated and explained experimentally in a local setting; based on this study, various multiple remedial measures are proposed to combat the swelling of expansive soils by various means, and it is discovered that swelling pressure decreases with an increase in soil bearing capacity by adding Gypsum, crude oil, laying CNS layer and using Under-reamed piles (si).

They presented an overview of these qualities and included methodologies for investigating expansive behaviour in the field and laboratory, as well as accompanying empirical and analytical tools for evaluating expansive behaviour. Following these corrective actions for pre and post constructions, foundations and pavements, as well as strategies to mitigate potentially hazardous expanding behaviour, are underlined.

Expansive soil has unique mineral and chemical compositions that influence its engineering capabilities. SEM analysis was used to investigate the mechanism of the interaction between expanding clay particles, lime, and pulverised fuel ash. Agglutinate of the expansive soil has a noticeable rise in Ca²⁺, which improves the granule-to-granule connections and diminishes the soil's expansibility and contractility. [8] Under stress, clay soils are often exposed to strain that varies with time. The pace at which pore water pressure dissipates is largely determined by the soil's permeability. Consequently, the word "consolidation" is used to indicate a volume change in the soil mass when pore water pressure dissipates. To test Terzaghi's one-dimensional consolidation hypothesis on the swelling and consolidation of Addis Ababa's expansive soils and their interconnectedness. Researchers conducted a variety of consolidation-swell tests using soil samples collected from around the city of Addis Ababa. The laboratory tests are used to assess the soil's swelling and consolidation characteristics. Consolidation parameter ranges are also gathered. The swelling behaviour of expansive soils has been discovered to have an impact on the consolidation features.

An upgraded direct shear apparatus was used to conduct several sets of direct shear experiments on expanding soil samples. The findings of the ultimate and residual shear stress parameters at the expanding soil-structure contact are reported here. As vertical loads rise, both ultimate and residual shear stresses increase; however, the increase in vertical loads contributes more to the development in residual shear stress than to the increase in ultimate shear stress. Unlike residual shear stress, which decreases as water content rises, the ultimate shear stress is significantly more sensitive to changes in water content, indicating that the former is greatly influenced by the latter. As dry density increases, both ultimate and residual shear stresses rise.

Both ultimate and residual shear stresses begin and progress differently because of the effects of vertical load, water content, and dry density on these stresses.

Expansive soil may cause issues with bearing capacity, cracking, pavement failure, and other issues with building foundations. In Australia, India, and South Africa, these soils are prevalent. When dune sand and gypsum are used together, the swelling pressure is shown to be lower when the sand and gypsum are mixed together. Gypsum can lessen the swelling pressure by a factor of two. As a result of a greater distance between the foundation and the swollen soil, less cracking is likely to occur in the structure if the depth of the foundation is reduced. Ensure that the soil around the foundation is kept at a constant moisture level. Mix with some sand from the dune dunes. The swelling pressure rises as the dry density rises, and it falls as the water content of the mould rises. Gypsum and dunesand both help to lower swelling pressure. The study provides a variety of solutions to the issue of swollen pressure.

As metric suction rises, clay soils begin to break from the surface. Soil cracking begins at low metric suctions because of low confining pressures near the surface. Generally speaking, there are cracks.

When the squeezing pressure builds, the space becomes further sealed off. Cracked clay's hydraulic conductivity and water storage capacity are difficult to predict. Cracks in a soil indicate a soil with a bi-modal physical activity. It is

the soil-water characteristic curve that shows the bi-modal soil behaviour, which in turn impacts water storage and hydraulic conductivity function calculations. As the volume of the cracks expands, the degree of soil metric suction changes also rises. In soils with a large number of cracks, the metric suctions are almost uniform throughout the whole surface. Both evaporation and infiltration occur in the same manner, regardless of whether the initial suction is greater or lower than the air-entry value of the cracked soil. The SWCC and hydraulic conductivity functions may be expressed as a bi-modal function in the case of cracked soil. This study's continuum model does not take into account the volume change, anisotropy, and hysteresis characteristics of cracked clay behaviour; further research is needed to determine the impact of these cracked soil behaviour characteristics on unsaturated flow, suction variation, and soil deformation.

To stabilise soil, one must alter its gradation, thereby enhancing its qualities. It is possible to create a composite material that outperforms the sum of its parts by combining several kinds of natural soils. Depending on the desired grading, coarser or finer particles may be added or removed from the soil. Internal friction and cohesiveness are present in the mixed soil. Blended materials are more stable and can handle more weight when they are arranged and compacted correctly. Three soils were subjected to liquid and plastic limit testing, with the following findings. From these data for all soils, it can be deduced that the liquid limit decreases marginally and the plastic limit essentially stays the same as the amount of fly ash rises. There was a considerable decrease in liquid limit and a decent increase in the plasticity index of the soils when lime was added to three expansive soils. In road building, this is a highly sought-after attribute of expansive soils. A 4 percent lime addition to three expansive soils improved the unconfined clay compression strength significantly after the first 4 percent lime addition resulted in lower strength values. We may infer a number of conclusions from the foregoing conversations.

- Lime and fly ash have showed a significant reduction in soil plasticity index.
- As an example, the strength of the concrete increased from 40% to 60% with the addition of lime at 4%.
- Lime-treated expansive soils have a four-fold reduction in swell pressure with a 10% addition of a squeeze of lime

The stabilisation of this expansive soil using additions such as sand, silt, lime, fly ash, and others has been the subject of several laboratory and field investigations. To stabilise expansive soils in the area of thermal power plants, fly ash may be utilised in the form of fly ash. The document explains how to use a "Disc Harrow" to place these materials in layers of the appropriate thickness. A 30-meter-long, 6-meter-wide, and 0.6-meter-high embankment was successfully built and in-situ testing demonstrated its appropriateness for embankment construction, ash dykes, and other low-laying locations.

The CBR properties of black cotton soil were examined by Pandian et al. (2002) using two fly ash types: Raichur fly ash (Class F) and Neyveli fly ash (Class C). There was a rise in fly ash content from 0% to 100% Its cohesiveness and friction contribute to its CBR/strength. Cohesion is a major factor in the CBR of BC soil, which is composed mostly of smaller particles. The frictional component of fly ash contributes to its CBR, which is mostly composed of coarser particles. The predominant clay percentage in BC soil is thought to be the cause of the low CBR. The frictional resistance of fly ash and the cohesiveness of BC soil boost the CBR of the mix to the first optimal level when fly ash is added to it. There is a 60 percent fall in the ideal level of fly ash, and subsequently a rise up to the second optimum level. CBR varies depending on how much frictional resistance (from the fly ash) and how much cohesive resistance (from the BC soil) each component contributes to the final mix.

Phanikumar and Sharma (2004) conducted a similar investigation on the effects of fly ash on the engineering qualities of expansive soil. It was shown that factors such as FSI, swell potential, swelling pressure, and plasticity, compaction, strength and hydraulic conductivity of expansive soil were affected. The FSI was decreased by nearly half when fly ash concentration was increased from 0% to 20% by dry weight, and the researchers concluded that higher levels of fly ash content diminish plasticity properties.

Studying the impact of lime-stabilized soil cushions on the strength of expanding soil was the goal of an experiment. This study examined the effects of lime-stabilized non-extensive cohesive and unconfined compression tests and CBR testing on expansive soil in two different configurations: on its own and in combination with the expansive soil. Cohesive, non-swelling soil with a lime concentration of 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 percent by dry weight has been employed in the stabilised soil cushion. Using a 2:1 thickness ratio, we compacted the expansive soil and lime

stabilised soil cushion to Standard Proctor's ideal state. Experiments on cushioned expansive soils were carried out at 7, 14, 28, and 56-day curing and soaking intervals. After 14 days of curing or soaking with an 8 percent lime content, the test results showed that the maximum increase in strength was obtained.

With an 8 percent lime content and an extended soak or cure time, the greatest strength gains in expansive soil are shown when employing lime-stabilized soil cushions. The strength of expansive soil is somewhat reduced when the lime concentration is increased more.

After 14 days of soaking or curing, the strength of a cushioned expansive soil is at its maximum, regardless of the lime amount in the stabilised soil cushion. There is no noticeable difference in strength when the soaking or curing time is extended beyond 14 days.

The expanding soil cushioned with LSRS and containing 6% or 8% lime had about the same durability after 14 days of curing. Because the stabilised soil cushion's strength is maximised at an 8 percent lime level, this may be interpreted as the optimal lime content.

6.56 and 4.24 times greater unconfined compressive strength for BC cushioned with LSRS in soaking and unsoaking settings, respectively, compared with BC alone in soaking or curing conditions.

When RS is used as an underlayment, the CBR of the BC soil is increased by seven and two-and-a-half times at the optimal lime concentration.

Stabilization of subterranean pipeline design positions with products carried at positive temperatures in permafrost propagation zones is compared to technological solutions. The JSC Fundamentproekt has developed a novel pipeline stabilisation technique that allows for consistent in-service settlement. [20] When fly ash is mixed together with clay, the maximum unconfined compressive strength is reached at 20%, whereas further fly ash decreases the strength. Under unsoaked circumstances, the CBR values of clay-fly ash blends exhibit maxima at 20% and 80% ash concentration. Pandian's findings were also comparable (2004). When it comes to geotechnical applications, fly ash offers a lot of potential for usage. Because fly ash has a relatively low unit weight, it is well-suited for use on soft or low-bearing soils. When it comes to building embankments and roads or reclaiming low-lying areas or fill behind retaining structures, the low specific gravity, freely draining nature, ease of compaction, insensitivity to moisture content changes, and good frictional properties of this material make it an excellent choice.

Adding fly ash and lime alters the soil index qualities, making expansive soil less plastic and increasing its workability through colloidal reaction and modifying the grain size. Adding fly ash lime to expansive soil lowers the soil's flexibility. Addition of fly ash-lime significantly lowered the plasticity index, linear shrinkage, liquid limit, and shrinkage limit. Cured samples of clay fly ash lime had lower liquid limits, plasticity indices, and linear shrinkage than fresh mixtures. Free swell index and swelling pressure decrease when lime and fly ash concentration increases. Curing time and temperature both lowered these values significantly. The addition of admixtures changed the grain size distribution of soils (fly ash and lime). The proportion of sand and silt increased as the lime concentration rose. The mixtures' grain size is substantially altered by varying the curing temperature and curing duration. As time went on, the grain size composition changed from 69% clay to 39% sand to 2% silt particle. Clay was lowered to 1%, silt was reduced to 2%, and fine sand was increased to 97% after stabilising the expansive soil using an 80/8 lime mix at 75°C for 30 days of curing. The agglomeration of smaller particles causes the rise in particle size. More heat and time during the curing process enhance flocculation and aggregation, which causes the grain size to shift more towards coarser fractions. Increased curing temperature and time. Cementation chemicals are thought to be the cause of this particular sort of particle development.

The SWCC behaviour of four naturally expanding soils and four stabilised soils is examined in this research in respect to two physicochemical properties: pH and surface conductivity. Chemical stability and cure time effects on SWCCs are being examined. SWCCs It was determined that the SWCCs and their associated parameters may be determined using pressure plate tests and a fitting model. Two alternative curing durations were used to analyse the physicochemical and mechanical features of four extremely clayey expansive soil samples and two stabilised soil samples. To produce SWCCs with a measuring range of up to 1,000 kPa, pressure plate tests were carried out. [9]

As part of their study on clayey soils, the author and colleagues (S. N. Emel'yanov and M. Dobrov) created the "Status" stabilizer/water repellent with an anion-active function. They also examined an application strategy. The "Roadbond" and "Status" stabilisers reduced the deformations induced by the frost heaving of clayey soil by 15% and 35%, respectively, compared to the untreated soil. Using a stabiliser during compaction may reduce frost heaving's total deformation, according to this research. Over the course of three to five years, there have been no structural failures or deformations on the stabilised parts of these roadways. As a result, the soil's bearing capacity has improved by a ratio of three to five.

Different concentrations of sodium silicate and lime will be used to treat the soil. An experiment was devised to examine how soil behaves when the amount of an additional substance is varied. The geotechnical qualities of the soil have been enhanced when lime and sodium silicate are mixed together. Lime consumption is at 4% for sodium silicate and 2% for sodium sulphate. The power of a person's response depends on the amount of time they have to respond.

LSS-mixed soil should be utilised to enhance soil based on the results of this research

1. The higher the LSS concentration, the greater the shear strength.
2. The response time is important since the strength at 28 days is larger than at 7 days.

It's possible to track the progression of pozzolanic reactions over time by observing changes in the pH of the LSS mix and soil mixes.

The shear strength of soil is less sensitive to changes in saturation when treated with LSS.

Due to pozzolanic processes, the total strength improves even at increasing saturation levels.

As sodium silicate concentration rises, the plasticity index reduces significantly.

Soil quality has improved, swelling potential has reduced, and free swell percentage has fallen significantly as a result of treatment. The mixture of 6% lime and 2% sodium silicate has been proven to reduce the most.

Using a mixture of 6 percent lime and 2.5 sodium silicate, the soil's CBR has improved. [25] [5] For road pavement and foundation construction, soil stabilisation is one of the most significant factors since it enhances the soil's engineering attributes such as strength, volume stability and durability. Stabilized black cotton soil with fine and coarse fly ash mixes will be tested for compaction and unconfined compressive strength in the current experiment. In black cotton soil, anything from 5 to 30 percent of a fine or coarse fly ash combination was utilised. With a little amount of fine, coarse fly ash added to stabilised black cotton soil, the soil is stronger and exhibits a better link between moisture and density, according to research. Compared to coarse fly ash, fine fly ash combination had a 25 percent higher peak strength. The dry density drops up to 20%-30% moisture content, and with additional rise in water content, the dry density declines gradually. This was found. There is a wide variety of dry densities, from 1.35g/cc for 95% soil to 0.06g/cc for 70% soil and 30% flyash mixtures, depending on how much flyash is used. Gradation changes in soil mixes are the primary cause of this change in density. This is owing to the lower specific gravity of fly ash compared to expansive soil and the quick development of cemented products by water hydration, which decreases soil density, thus an increase in the proportion of fly ash lowers the maximum dry unit weight. Increasing fine fly ash concentration causes soil mixture gradation to change, which lowers the dry density. Cat ion exchange between additives and expansive soil, which reduces the thickness of the electric double layer and increases flocculation, was linked to the reduction in dry density with the rise in coarse fly ash mixture.

During wetting and drying cycles on unsaturated extremely expansive clays containing active clay minerals such as montmorillonite, researchers have found significant irreversible components of either swelling or shrinking. Due to the fact that unsaturated very expansive clays' irreversible behaviour differed significantly from that of unsaturated non-expansive clays, current elasto-plastic models cannot adequately reflect it. Unified modelling for both unsaturated extremely expansive and unsaturated non-expansive soils is recommended by the experimental findings. An entirely new modelling framework is offered as a result of this research Stress variables with conjugate strain

increment parameters are employed for the first time in the modelling framework. As a result, the constitutive model for unsaturated non-expansive clays proved inapplicable to unsaturated expansive clays because of the fundamental differences in their behaviour. Since unsaturated very expansive clays may cause significant damage to buildings, structures, and roadways, as well as the growing usage of compacted expansive clays as engineered barriers for environmental protection and other purposes, it is imperative that these materials are properly regulated. The behaviour of these soils needed to be studied in more depth, according to the researchers. Three tiers of fabric structure are clearly distinguished in a conceptual model for compacted very expanding clays. It is investigated whether or not unsaturated conditions may arise at any of the three layers of the fabric.

It is common for the regions where residual soils are present to have periods of rainy and dry weather. The swell-shrink potentials, water content, void ratio, and particle cementation in expansive soils are all affected by the alternate wetting and drying process. The collapse behaviour of residual soils hasn't been studied because of the periodic soaking and drying. As part of this study, we looked at how alternating wetness and drying affected the collapse behaviour of compacted residual soil samples from the Bangalore District in India. The findings of such a research may be used to predict how compacted residual soil fills would behave in terms of collapse. Cyclic soaking and drying was shown to boost residual soils' expansiveness while decreasing their collapse propensity. Reductions in water content, void ratio, and probable expansion of cementation bonds have been linked to changes in swell/collapse behaviour of compacted residual soil specimens during soaking drying. Constant soaking and drying improves the expansiveness of soil samples while reducing the likelihood of their collapsing. While compacted residual soil swell potentials rose little, repeated wetting and drying greatly enhanced the swell pressure of the samples. The periodic soaking and drying lowered the compacted residual soil specimens' collapse potentials by three times. The void ratio and water content of the compacted residual soil specimens were lowered by the cyclic soaking and drying procedure, increasing their expansivity. Compression-resistant soil specimens that have been wetted and dried over and over again have reduced their ability to collapse, perhaps due to an increase in cementation links. In laboratory tests, it is advised that residual soil fills be compacted at a particular dry density on the wet side of OMC, since this condition resulted in laboratory specimens with marginal swell and collapse potentials (2% after cycles of wetting and drying).

Because of the swell and contraction that occurs with soaking and drying, expansive soils are a major headache in civil engineering. As an industrial waste, fly ash attracts a lot of attention in China when it comes to disposal. Expandable soil stabilisation using fly ash and fly ash-lime as admixtures is being tested in this project to see whether it may be useful and successful. Increasing the fly ash or fly ash-lime concentration reduced the plasticity index, activity, free swell, swell potential, swelling pressure, and axial shrinkage percentage. The swell potential and swelling pressure reduced as the cure period for the treated soil was prolonged. Unconfined compressive strength does not vary much in soils that have been treated with fly ash right away. However, after 7 days of curing, the unconfined compressive strength of the fly ash treated soils dramatically increased. For pre-treated and post-treated soils, the plasticity index and swell-shrinkage parameters are addressed. This is what we learned from our experiments on the stabilisation of Hefei expansive soil with fly ash and lime/fly ash:

1. Fly ash and lime-fly ash treatments lower the soil's swell and shrinkage potential, respectively. Reduced free swell as well as swelling pressure and linear shrinkage were observed when the concentrations of lime- and fly-ash increased. Fly ash and lime-fly ash treated soils' swelling potential and pressure reduced with longer curing times.
2. The optimal water content and the maximum dry unit weight decreased with an increase in fly ash and lime-fly ash composition.

The increase in fly ash content without curing has a minor effect on the unconfined compressive strength. Lime, on the other hand, considerably improved the shear strength. For treated soils with a 7-day cure period, the optimal fly ash percentage was determined to be 9–12 percent.

The swell-shrinkage characteristics of expansive soils treated with fly ash and lime-fly ash may be predicted using a simple plasticity index ratio approach.

The swelling and shrinking behaviour of three soils has been studied in relation to their compaction conditions. There were three soil samples tested: red soil, black cotton soil, and a commercial bentonite/well-graded-sand combination. Compaction curve for Standard Proctor conditions were plotted and four compaction conditions were selected. The swelling and shrinking behaviour of the investigated soils was shown to be influenced more by clay mineralogy than by compaction conditions. Soil specimens shrank in three separate linear phases based on void ratio (e)-water content (w) relations monitored throughout shrinkage. Initial shrinkage is a minor drop in void ratio caused by a decrease in water content during the first shrinkage stage. As water content in the second stage declined, the void ratio fell fast and was referred to as primary shrinkage. Residual shrinkage is the term used to describe the little change in void ratio that occurs during the last stage of shrinking. For all specimens, a small range of water content (10–15 percent) marked the shift from primary to residual shrinkage, irrespective of initial compaction conditions.

Clay mineralogy is more important than compaction in determining the swell behaviour of investigated clay soils, according to the test findings. A soil sample dominated by montmorillonite (BC) swelled much more than a kaolinite-dominated red soil sample, despite both having lower dry density and greater water content.

While shrinkage was monitored, it was found that soil specimens shrank in three separate linear stages — initial, primary and residual.

Residual shrinkage occurred regardless of initial compaction conditions for all three soils investigated within a limited water content (10–15 percent).

In the case of red soil and BC soil specimens, the transition water content was near the shrinkage limit water content.

In the main and residual shrinkage areas, the void ratio changes more quickly with changes in water content for this expansive soil specimen during the shrinkage process because of the greater liquid limit and plasticity index of this BC soil.

The experiment was conducted on four soils combined with three kinds of nano-materials of varying percentages, according to the authors. Three types of nano-materials, nano-clay, nano-alumina, and nano-copper, were added to compacted residual soil combined with varied bentonite ratios (S1 = 0% bentonite, S2 = 5% bentonite, S3 = 10%, and S4 = 20% bentonite) to study the impact of the additives on suppressing strains.

Percent bentonite The standard compaction test was used to compress the soil specimens under the conditions of maximum dry unit weight and optimum water content (w_{opt}). There were physical and mechanical outcomes from the treatment. Control points were established for comparisons with untreated soil values. The swell strain and shrinkage strain were minimised when the optimal proportion of nano-material was used. Researchers found that nanomaterials reduced the growth of desiccation fractures on compacted samples' surfaces without affecting the fluid's hydraulic conductivity. Soil-nanomaterial mixes improve soil's engineering features (i.e., compaction characteristics, volumetric shrinkage strain, volumetric expansive strain, and the CIF). The mere mixing of water with an insoluble nanomaterial does not cause a chemical interaction with the soil. Nanoclay, for example, does not have a major effect on soil quality when it is added. However, the presence of too much nano-clay might be harmful. Nano-copper had a greater impact on expanding and contracting strain than nano-alumina. Due to the larger particle density of nano-copper compared to nano-alumina, the soil–nanomaterial combination has a higher specific gravity, resulting in a higher maximum dry density. Soil shrinkage and expansive stresses diminish as a result of an increase in the soil's dry density. In addition, when the amount of agglomerated particles increases, the dry density decreases and the volume of voids expands, raising the water content even more. As a result, the stress from shrinking and swell rises. Due to the larger size of nano-copper particles, they are less likely to agglomerate than nano-alumina particles, which improves soil quality more than nano-alumina. When nanomaterials are used in excess of the appropriate amount, particle agglomeration occurs, affecting the soil's mechanical qualities. The hydraulic conductivity of soils is not reduced by the addition of nano-materials. This stabiliser material is distinct from others because it reduces fracture growth while simultaneously increasing hydraulic conductivity (i.e., fiber).

As a barrier in geoenvironmental engineering, compacted clay soils may be subjected to salt and freshwater cycles during the course of the facility's lifespan. Soil-water and reservoir-solution osmotic suction gradients are created when salinization and desalinization cycles alter the composition of the pore fluid. If the osmotic suction gradients dissipate, this might lead to swelling and strain consolidation. Compacted clays subjected to salinization and desalinization cycles at a consolidation pressure of 200 kPa were studied for their osmotic swelling and consolidation behaviour. Sodium ions from the reservoir fluid replaced the divalent exchangeable cat ions throughout the salinization cycle. For example, during the first desalinization cycle, the osmotic swelling strain was 29-fold more than that of the compressed specimen. Swelling strain controlled by diffusion was 100 times slower than that controlled by matric suction. When exposed to desalinization cycles after achieving ion-exchange equilibrium, saturated saline specimens acquire reversible osmotic swelling stresses. Osmotic consolidation strains may be reversed by exposing the desalinated specimen to repeated rounds of salinization. The osmotic swelling and consolidation strains are influenced by changes in compaction dry density, whereas the osmotic volumetric strains are unaffected by changes in compaction water content. When the osmotic suction gradients dissipate, they have a significant impact on the osmotic swelling and consolidation stresses of saturated clay specimens. Compacted specimens wetted at 200 kPa were exposed to salinization by contacting the specimens with 4 M sodium chloride solution. Desalinization was achieved by contacting the saline specimens with distilled water. Salinization is a continuous process.

Sodium ions are used to replace divalent exchangeable cat ions. At 200 kPa consolidation pressure, the osmotic swelling strain created during the first desalinization cycle was 29 times greater than that developed by the compacted specimen after wetting with distilled water. This is due to the fact that the osmotic swelling process is diffusion regulated, which takes far longer than the matric-suction swelling process. During desalinization cycles, reversible osmotic swelling strains were found to emerge after the ion-exchange equilibrium was reached. When salinization cycles were repeated, reversible osmotic consolidation strains were also formed. After being subjected to desalination and resalination cycles, the saturated specimens produced swelling and consolidation stresses as a result of variations in dry density in the compacted clay specimens. Saturated and desalinated specimens were shown to have similar osmotic swelling and consolidation stresses, regardless of differences in compaction water. [26] A clay is an expanding soil if it undergoes substantial contraction and expansion movements as a consequence of changes in groundwater levels. In the past, foundation systems for buildings built on expansive soil were designed using idealised mathematical models to prevent deformation and breaking. Expansive soil action is complicated, and these models make it much more complicated. Alternative probabilistic design approaches are offered and have a number of major benefits over standard methods based on data obtained from numerous constructed and tested foundations. Six municipal councils in the Adilede municipality provided the necessary information for this project. While deterministic design approaches don't offer an indication of the risk associated with any specific design, probabilistic ones do. Design engineers and clients may make more informed judgments about the intended degree of risk and the economic cost when using a probabilistic approach, which is likely to lower the likelihood of future litigation.

In 1993, a field site in Newcastle, Australia, was built as part of a long-term investigation of the behaviour of expansive soil. Site development had as its major goal the collection of excellent data for the verification of currently used techniques for designing light-weight building foundations, as well as a better knowledge base of the physical processes that govern unsaturated expanding soil behaviour. Soil water content, soil moisture suction, and ground movement to depths of 3 metres were measured at the location. Two ground coverings were used to replicate moisture boundary circumstances owing to the presence of typical buildings on the site. This report summarises some of the most significant discoveries from the seven years of data that have been collected so far. Quantitative measurements of changes in total suction and water content with depth, depths at which moisture changes occur, and contributions to surface movement from ground movement at different depths are included in this qualitative evaluation of overall site behaviour. On a previously dry site, a mound formed under a flexible cover, and the impacts of a huge tree on moisture changes are investigated and reported.

An elasto-plastic damage constitutive model based on unsaturated soil mechanics and damage mechanics was presented in light of the vulnerability to climate change and the particular mechanical features of undisturbed expanding soil. Non-damaged and damaged parts of the expanding soil were seen as a single unit. A non-linear

constitutive model of unsaturated soil was used to explain the non-damaged part's behaviour. Two yield surfaces were used to represent the property of the damaged portion, i.e., loading and shear yield (LY and SL) (SY). The UESEPCD FEM software was developed in conjunction with a consolidation model for unsaturated undisturbed expansive soils. For four stages and fields of stress, displacement, pore water pressure, pore air pressure, water content, suction, and the damage zone as well as the plastic region in an expanding soil slope, the numerical analysis was undertaken.

When subjected to earthquakes, a Bilinear-SDOF model is used to explore the influence of Soil-Structure Interaction (SSI) on Park and Ang Damage Index. An comprehensive parametric research is used to accomplish this. The severity of SSI is controlled by two non-dimensional parameters: (1) a non-dimensional frequency as the structure-to-soil stiffness ratio index, and (2) the structure's aspect ratio. To represent the soil underneath the building, engineers use the Cone Model idea, which treats the soil as a homogenous elastic half space. Once these ground movements have been recorded, the system is next exposed to three separate earthquakes. It is done in the time domain directly using the direct step-by-step approach of integration. An extensive set of parameter adjustments yields damage spectra as a visual representation of the findings There seems to be a threshold phase in which the SSI damage index rises before the dominating ground motion period begins. Because of this, the standard fixed-base model underestimates the harm caused by structures with shorter lifespans. p> The damage index of short-period structures situated on soft soils is significantly raised by the SSI. In addition, it has been shown that raising the structure's aspect ratio has the same impact. After the threshold time, the pattern changes.

It has been 40 years since the field of expanding clay soils has been actively studied, yet its handling in geotechnical practise remains uneven. In Australian geotechnical practise, the shrink swell test is the primary technique for evaluating the experimental expansion capacity of clay soils. The process and assumptions that underlie the test are outlined and examined in light of the test's history of development and regular implementation in the industry. Soil expansiveness may be easily and cheaply assessed using the shrink-swell test, which relies on the use of many simplifying assumptions to avoid measuring soil suction. When considering the implications of these assumptions for foundation construction in expansive soils, it has been determined that the shrink swell test is an effective tool that may be used routinely. An inexpensive laboratory procedure called the shrink-swell test is used to determine the reactivity index of undisturbed clay soil samples in order to anticipate free-surface ground movements. During the last 20 years, it has been widely used in Australia's geotechnical sector, and is widely believed to have been successful. There are a number of variables that have contributed to the broad adoption of this technology in Australia. Because of its reasonable and intuitive base, it appeals to geotechnical and structural engineers who are now working. It is important to note that this approach is not reliant on the soil's starting moisture content since it measures the soil's volume change across the whole range of expansion and contraction. A simple and inexpensive laboratory test may be conducted on a regular basis, and it does not contribute much to the cost of light-residential building. For the shrink swell test to be so simple, there are numerous crucial simplifying assumptions that effectively exclude the need to evaluate soil suction. These assumptions are deemed to add just a minimal amount of inaccuracy based on the research available and a qualitative evaluation of their effective use in normal practise.

Limestone drains, their design qualities and particular engineering features, as well as the equipment needed to fabricate them, are discussed, as is a technique for installing them and the spectrum of applications for which they may be used. Calculated soil properties of soft saturated clayey soils must be determined using specific tests. Preconstruction consolidation under load and deep stabilisation by reinforcing limestone drains may be used to analyse total-settlement characteristics and forecast secondary settlement.

To construct on weak or soft soils is very dangerous because of the likelihood of differential settlements, inadequate shear strength, and a high compressibility. The engineering characteristics of soil have been improved by the use of several soil enhancement methods. Because of its low cost, versatility, and repeatability, soil reinforcement using fibre material is regarded as an excellent means of improving the ground. Consequently, in this study, the reinforcing material was papyrus fibre, which was randomly added to the soil at four different percentages of fibre content, namely 5, 10, 15, 25 percent by volume of raw soil. This study's primary goal is to investigate the strength behaviour of soil reinforced with randomly added papyrus fibre. Papyrus-reinforced specimens with varying fibre concentrations were subjected to shear, consolidation, and displacement tests in their natural state. These experiments' results clearly reveal that a 10% increase in the examined soil's failure deviator stress and shear

strength parameters (c and ϕ) has a substantial impact (the preferred percent). The soil's movement under loading was also decreased by this addition ratio. In conclusion, papyrus fibre might be regarded as a suitable soil reinforcing material for construction purposes.

The total settlement of a strip foundation may be calculated by solving the second fundamental boundary issue of the plane theory of elasticity for a half-plane, which can be done by determining the displacement of the loaded portion of the boundary. Structural settlement due to a uniformly distributed load may be calculated using formulae for the strain components of the second fundamental boundary issue. The bed, which is comprised of sandy and clayey soils, is surveyed to determine settlements.

Liquid household waste dump closure and replanting are being investigated as a potential solution to a common issue in big cities. Landfills are usually located in slide-prone portions of the city. The Adlersk dump in Sochi's Adlersk district is mentioned as an example of a landfill's reclamation using modern geotechnologies and diverse materials for the final coatings.

An elasto-plastic bed with independent strain hardening model and numerical investigation of the performance of pile foundations with low and high rafts are described. The European and local regulatory literature on piling foundation design safety elements is examined. [14]

CONCLUSIONS

The majority of research have focused on the behaviour, stability, and features and engineering qualities of expansive soils, according to the literature review.

Fly ash and lime have been used extensively for stabilisation. In addition to lime and fly ash, other studies have employed gypsum, bentonite, crude oil, CNS layer, and other such compounds.

Researchers have identified a number of features of expansive soil, and their efforts were focused on reducing the soil's swelling and shrinking qualities by chemical admixtures or compaction.

Expansive soil may cause pavements and other building foundations to crack and crumble, as well as a host of other issues.

Expanding soil presents severe engineering challenges since it expands and contracts when wet and dry.

Expansive soils have received little attention in terms of their behaviour and the structures they affect. The specific reason of foundations and other concrete work fractures and displacements has occurred in this region, but no repair measures have been executed correctly.

Further investigation is needed to pinpoint the actual source of this phenomenon and develop preventative strategies to prevent buildings from collapsing due to their unexpected behaviour and characteristics.

REFERENCES

1. Kartikey Tiwari, Sahil Khandelwal, Aman Jatale, 2012, *Performance, Problems and Remedial Measures for the Structures Constructed on Expansive Soil in Malwa Region, India, International Journal of Emerging Technology and Advanced Engineering, Volume 2, Issue 12, December 2012*
2. Gyanen. Takhelmayum, Savitha.A.L, Krishna Gudi, 2013, *Laboratory Study on Soil Stabilization Using Fly ash Mixtures, International Journal of Engineering Science and Innovative Technology (IJESIT) Volume 2, Issue 1, January 2013*
3. Murat Mollamahmutoglu, Yuksel Yilmaz and Ahmet Gürkan Güngör, *Effect of a Class C Fly Ash on the Geotechnical Properties of an Expansive Soil*
4. T.L.Ramadas, N.Darga Kumar, G.Yesuratnam, 2011, *Geotechnical characteristics of three expansive soils treated with lime and fly ash, International Journal of Earth Sciences and Engineering, ISSN 0974-5904, Volume 04, No 06 SPL, October 2011, pp.46-49*
- 5.

6. Bidula Bose, 2012, *Geo-Engineering Properties of Expansive Soil Stabilized with Fly Ash*, *EJGE* Vol.17(2012)
7. Bidula Bose, 2012, *Effect of Curing Period and Temperature on Characteristic of Expansive Soil*, *IJETED*, Issue-2, Vol-4, (May 2012)
8. Pamela Jo Thomas, 1998, *Quantifying Properties and Variability of Expansive Soils in Selected Map Units*, *APh.D. thesis*
9. DAI Shaobin, SONG Minghai, HUANG, Jun 2005, *Engineering Properties of Expansive Soil*, *Journal of Wuhan University of Technology- Mater. Sci. Ed. Vol.20 No.2 Jun.2005*
11. Botao Lin, Amy B. Cerato, 2012, *Investigation on Soil–Water Characteristic Curves of Untreated and Stabilized Highly Clayey Expansive Soils*, *Geotech Geol Eng* (2012)30:803–812
12. Mohd Raihan Taha, Omer Muhie Eldeen Taha, 2012, *Influence of nano-material on the expansive and shrinkage soil behavior*, *J Nanopart Res*(2012)14:1190
13. LU Zai-hua, CHEN Zheng-han, FANG Xiang-wei, GUO Jian-feng, ZHOU Hai-qing, 2006, *Structural Damage Model Of Unsaturated Expansive Soil And Its Application In Multi-Field Couple Analysis On Expansive Soil Slope*, *Applied Mathematics and Mechanics* (English Edition), 2006, 27(7):891–900
14. Fusheng Zha Æ Songyu Liu Æ Yanjun Du Æ Kerui Cui, 2008, *Behavior of expansive soils stabilized with fly ash*, *Nat Hazards* (2008)47:509–523
15. Jagadish Prasad Sahoo, Pradip Kumar Pradhan, 2010, *Effect of Lime Stabilized Soil Cushion on Strength Behaviour of Expansive Soil*, *Geotech Geol Eng* (2010)28:889–897
17. V. V. Babanov and V. A. Shashkin, 2012, *Design Analysis of the Functioning of Pile Foundations with Low and High Rafts and Consideration of Nonlinear Bed Performance*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol. 49, No. 2, May, 2012 (Russian Original No.2, March-Apr., 2012)
18. M.B. Marinicheva and A. Yu. Marshalka, 2012, *Geotechnical Problems with Reclamation of Domestic-Waste Landfills*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol.49, No.5, November, 2012 (Russian Original No. 5, September-October, 2012)
19. R.G. Kocheikova, 2012, *Influence of Modern Stabilizers on Improved Properties of Clayey Soils*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol. 49, No.1, March, 2012 (Russian Original No.1, Jan.-Feb., 2012)
20. V.P. Konovalov, S.G. Bezyolev, and P.A. Konovalov, 2012, *Preconstruction Consolidation of Weak Saturated Clayey Soils by Reinforcing Limestone Drains*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol. 48, No. 6, January, 2012 (Russian Original No. 6, November-December, 2011)
21. Aqeel Al Adili, Rafiq Azzam, Giovanni Spagnoli, and Joerg Schrader, 2012, *Strength of Soil Reinforced with Fiber Materials (Papyrus)*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol.48, No.6, January, 2012 (Russian Original No.6, November-December, 2011)
23. N. Bogomolov and A.N. Ushakov, 2012, *Calculation of Settlements for a Strip Foundation*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol. 48, No.6, January, 2012 (Russian Original No.6, November-December, 2011)
24. N. B. Kutvitskaya, O. V. Gorbunova, V. D. Kaurkin and A. V. Ryazanov, 2011, *Stabilization of the Position of an Underground Pipeline in Permafrost*, *Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, Vol. 48, No. 5, November, 2011 (Russian Original No. 5, September-October, 2011)
25. Mofid Nakhaei, Mohammad Ali Ghannad, 2008, *The Effect of Soil–Structure Interaction on Damage Index of Buildings*, *Engineering Structures* Volume 30, Issue 6, June 2008, Pages 1491–1499
26. Delwyn G. Fredlund, Sandra L. Houston, Quan Nguyen, Murray D. Fredlund, 2010, *Moisture Movement Through Cracked Clay Soil Profiles*, *Geotech Geol Eng* (2010)28:865–888
27. Anil Kumar Mishra, Sarita Dhawan, Sudhakar M. Rao, 2008, *Analysis of Swelling and Shrinkage Behavior of Compacted Clays*, *Geotech Geol Eng* (2008)26:289–298
28. SUDHAKAR M. RAO and K. REVANASIDDAPPA, 2006, *Influence of Cyclic Wetting Drying on Collapse Behaviour of Compacted Residual Soil*, *Geotechnical and Geological Engineering* (2006)24:725–734
29. Omer Nawaf Maaitah, 2012, *Soil Stabilization by Chemical Agent*, *Geotech Geol Eng* (2012) 30:1345–1356
30. T. Thyagaraj, Sudhakar M. Rao, 2013, *Osmotic Swelling and Osmotic Consolidation Behaviour of Compacted Expansive Clay*, *Geotech Geol Eng* (2013)31:435–445
31. XIAO Hong-bin, ZHANG Chun-shun, HE Jie, FAN Zhen-hui, 2007, *Expansive Soil-Structure Interaction and its Sensitive Analysis*, *J. Cent. South Univ. Technol.* (2007)03–0425–06
32. S. Bhuvaneshwari, R.G. Robinson, S.R. Gandhi, 2005, *Stabilization of Expansive Soils Using Flyash*, *Fly Ash India 2005*, New Delhi
33. R. Barthur, Postgraduate Student, University of Adelaide, M.B. Jaks, P.W. Mitchell, *Design of Residential Footings Built on Expansive Soil Using Probabilistic Methods*
34. Mesfin Kassa, 2005, *Relationship between Consolidation and Swelling Characteristics of Expansive Soils of Addis Ababa*, *MST Thesis*
35. Stephen G. Fityus, Donald A. Cameron, and Paul F. Walsh, 2009, *The Shrink-Swell Test*, *Geotechnical Testing Journal*, Vol.28, No.1, Paper I DGTJ12327
36. S.G. Fityus, D.W. Smith and M.A. Allman, 2004, *Expansive Soil Test Site Near Newcastle*, 10.1061/(ASCE)-1090-0241(2004)130:7(686)
37. N.K. Ameta, D.G.M. Purohit, A.S. Wayal, 2007, *Characteristics, Problems and Remedies of Expansive Soils of Rajasthan, India*, *EJGE* 2007
38. John D. Nelson and Debra J. Miller, *Expansive Soils – Problems and Practice in Foundations and Pavement Engineering*, Department of Civil Engineering, Colorado State University.
39. Chen, F.H. (1988). “*Foundations on Expansive Soils*”, Elsevier publications Co., Amsterdam.
40. Dr. B. C. Punmia, Ashok Kumar Jain, Arun Kr. Jain, *Soil Mechanics and Foundations Engineering*
41. Radhey Shyam Sharma, 1998, *Mechanical Behaviour of Unsaturated Highly Expansive Clays*, *Ph.D. Thesis*
42. Jacoby and Devis, *Foundations of Bridges and Building*
43. G. Venkatramaya, *Geotechnical Engineering*
44. Alam Singh and G.R. Choudhary, *Soil Engineering - Theory and Practice*
45. R. Kaniraj, *Design Aids in Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*
46. Bowles, *Engineering Properties of Soil and Their Measurement*
47. Tyler, *Fundamentals of Soil Mechanics*

48. *Terzagi, Theoretical Soil Mechanics*
49. *Nainan Kurian, Design of Foundation Systems, Principle and Practice*
50. *Narayan V. Nayak, Foundation Design Manual*
51. [47] Various IS codes like IS 9198:1979, SP 36: Part 1:1987, SP 36: Part 2:1988, IS 1498:1970, IS 1988:1982, IS 2720: Part 1 to 41, IS 4332: Part 1 to 10, IS 10074:1982, IS 11550:1985 etc.