

# CPTU-detection of thin clay layers in sand: Results from calibration chamber tests

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**ABSTRACT:** The detection of thin clay layers (i.e.  $\leq 20$  cm) is challenging for all conventional geotechnical field investigations techniques, including high quality CPTU tests. During the last two years, a research program has been carried out in the geotechnical laboratory at NTNU in Trondheim. The work aims to identify possibilities and limitations in detecting thin clay layers and assess their properties using the CPTU tool. Tests were run in a pressurized chamber where thin horizontal clay layers of both pottery clay and natural, sensitive clay were embedded in a homogenous, medium dense sand. Both a standard piezocone ( $10 \text{ cm}^2$ ) and a mini-piezocone ( $5 \text{ cm}^2$ ) have been utilized. The results show to what degree the CPTU response in thin layers is influenced by the surrounding sand, and how this influence in practice may lead to serious overestimation of shear strength in thin layers. In addition, the effect of depth-offset of measurements in connection with soil type characterization was evaluated.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Analyses of past landslides along the coast of Norway have shown that thin clay layers in sandy shoreline deposits often act as a sliding plane (L'Heureux et al. 2010). An example of a landslide that caused fatalities with these characteristics is the Finneidfjord landslide, which occurred in 1996 (Longva et al. 2003). The clay layers may be so thin (i.e.  $< 20$  cm) that even high quality survey techniques, alike the CPTU, struggle to detect the layers.

This is the background of an ongoing research program at NTNU. A large-scale pressurized model testing facility has been set up and samples are built-in with clay layers of various thicknesses embedded in sand. CPTU-soundings are conducted on chamber samples with the aim of determining if thin layers can be properly identified, and to which degree it is possible to determine the properties of these layers. This article will mainly focus on the executed laboratory experiments and the most important results.

Similar research on the topic has been conducted by e.g. van der Linden et al. (2018) and de Lange

et al. (2018), with main focus on liquefaction potential and pile resistance.

## 2 METHODOLOGY

In the research program at NTNU, six experiments have so far been conducted (E1-E6). Each experiment consists of constructing a chamber sample, pressurizing it, performing soundings on the chamber sample followed up by excavation with supplementary laboratory testing of soil properties. Clay type, layer thicknesses and stress levels have been systematically varied during the experimental program. This chapter describes the methodology in general, for further details it is referred to MSc theses of Skrede (2021) and Hammer (2020).

Chamber samples were built into a testing chamber of about 1.5 meter height, using reinforced concrete cylinders (sewage manhole rings) with an internal diameter of 1.2 meter. In the base of the chamber an outlet was installed to allow for regulation of the water level. A pore pressure sensor was installed on the outlet.



of penetration was set to 15 mm/s for all experiments to increase the spatial resolution, thus providing more continuous curves, still operating in accordance with European standard (EN ISO 22476-1:2012).

Further details about the chamber sample set-ups, and about how the signal processing was done to increase precision are found in the master's thesis (Skrede, 2021).

To simulate stress states at larger depths, the surface of the chamber samples was subjected to an over-burden load. The vertical stresses were imposed by a circular metal disc pushed down by three airbellows fastened to an upper supporting metal framework, see Figure 3.

The chamber was designed with ten possible positions for CPTU testing. Three in-line holes were placed in 3 radial sectors 120 degrees apart, denoted sectors a, b, c. The centre hole is referred to as the S position. The holes were in addition numbered from the centre as 1,2,3 and 4. Thus position 1S is in centre while 4c is closest to the concrete wall in sector c. The reference system is shown in Figure 2. Multiple test positions were used for each chamber sample, these were divided into two rounds consisting of "primary soundings" and "secondary soundings". The primary soundings consisted of tests with significant distance to walls and previously tested positions. These were thus considered to reflect undisturbed soil. Secondary soundings were run after the primary soundings in neighbouring positions as reserve for validation, though the measurements reflect disturbed soil.

For each chamber sample, after CPTU testing, a meticulous excavation phase followed, where lab tests were conducted on both the clay and the sand to analyse the soil profile for density and strength.

### 3 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

#### 3.1 Stress state in chamber – The silo effect

The stress level in the chamber was influenced by the silo effect or the arching effect caused by vertical shear stresses on the wall. The formula by Janssen (1895) was used with effective stress parameters, Equation (1), to quantify the effect. The decay length,  $l'$ , was estimated using the given surcharge,  $q$ ; and the earth pressure cells at the base, to determine the stress  $\sigma'_v(z)$  over the height of the chamber.

$$\overline{\sigma'_v(z)} = \gamma' l' + e^{-z/l'}(q - \gamma' l') \quad (1)$$

#### 3.2 CPTU-parametrizations

The conventional procedure to classify soils from CPTU results is to normalize the corrected tip resistance,  $q_t$ , the sleeve friction,  $f_s$ , and the pore pressure,

$u_2$  with respect to in-situ stress. This provides the normalized tip resistance,  $Q_t$ , the normalized friction ratio,  $F_r$ , and the pore pressure ratio,  $B_q$ ; In Equations (2)-(4)  $q_n$  is the net cone resistance, see Equation (5).

$$Q_t = \frac{q_n}{\sigma'_{v,0}} \quad (2)$$

$$F_r = \frac{f_s}{q_n} \cdot 100\% \quad (3)$$

$$B_q = \frac{\Delta u_2}{q_n} \quad (4)$$

$$q_n = q_t - \sigma_{v,0} \quad (5)$$



Figure 3. The overburden loading framework on the chamber. Above: the actuator and the probe fixed to a framework.

To estimate the undrained shear strength,  $s_u$ , in the clay layers, the empirical relations suggested by Karlsrud et al. (2005) have been used, see Equations (6)-(8). The cone factors,  $N_i$ , in these formulas are based on OCR,  $S_t$  and  $I_p$ . These parameters were estimated for each specimen by using interpolated data from the Flotten site report (L'Heureux et al. 2019).

$$s_{u,kt} = \frac{q_n}{N_{kt}} \quad (6)$$

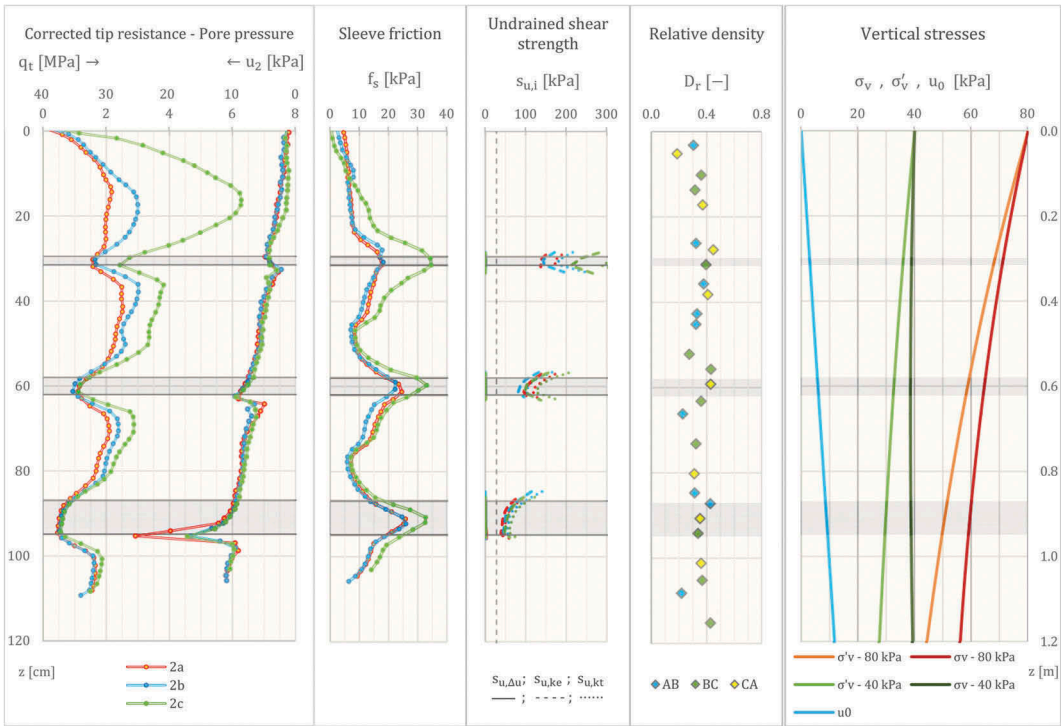


Figure 4. Experiment 5. Left: CPTU-measurements. Mid: Shear strength estimations for the clay layers, note that  $s_{u,\Delta u}$  is approximately zero for all layers. Right: Sand density samples results and estimated stress distributions.

$$s_{u,\Delta u} = \frac{\Delta u_2}{N_{\Delta u}} \quad (7)$$

$$s_{u,ke} = \frac{q_t - u_2}{N_{ke}} \quad (8)$$

## 4 RESULTS

### 4.1 Soundings from experiment 5

The results of experiment 5 (Figure 4) illustrates typical trends that unveiled upon penetrating clay layers interbedded in sand. The clay layer thicknesses were respectively 2, 4 and 8 cm from the top. The surcharge was set to 40 kPa for soundings in holes 2a and 2b, 80 kPa for 2c. These were the primary soundings, while secondary soundings were performed in the number 3 holes. The latter are not presented in this figure.

The  $u_2$ -measurements were depth-shifted to account for the distance between the position of the pore pressure sensor and the cone tip (the depth of  $q_t$ ), while  $f_s$  was corrected to the end of the sleeve closest the tip, see ch. 5.2 for

explanation. The sample preparation was quite successful in experiment 5 with a fairly constant relative density,  $D_r$ , in the sand over the depth of the chamber. Comparing various tests, it is confirmed that  $q_t$  varies considerably with relative density and stress level.

### 4.2 Normalized profiles

To study the variation of  $q_t$  through layers of varying thicknesses, a compilation of  $q_t$ -profiles is shown in Figure 5. The depth has been normalized with respect to the cone diameter,  $d_c$ . The  $q_t$ -profiles in the graphs are indexed X-Y-Z for respectively experiment number; surcharge on top of chamber sample in kPa; and sounding hole. The colour of the profiles is according to the surcharge level, with primary and secondary soundings respectively solid and dashed. The jagged appearance of the mini-cone profiles is due to the different approach used in post data treatment for the mini cone. The profiles include a penetration through a 36 cm high pottery clay unit as a reference for the characteristic tip resistance,  $q_t^{\text{char}}$ , of the pottery clay (E4-40-3b). Here  $q_t^{\text{char}}$  is defined as the expected tip resistance in an infinitely thick layer for the specific stress level.

## 5 DISCUSSIONS

### 5.1 The thin layering effect

To what degree the measured  $q_t$  in the thin layers is higher than  $q_t^{\text{char}}$  depends on the ratio of the layer thickness over the cone diameter,  $H/d_c$ , and on the contrast between  $q_t^{\text{char}}$  in the clay and the tip resistance in the sand. The effect  $H/d_c$  is shown in Figure 5 where the mini-cone profiles from E6:4b and 4c have equal sensing- and developing depths compared to the standard-cone profile 1S, when normalized. The “depth terms”, sensing- and developing depths, denote respectively the distance ahead of an interface where  $q_t$  is influenced by the next layer; and the distance after the interface  $q_t$  retain influence from the previous layer.

The test results show that the  $q_t$ -profiles through interbedded layers are not symmetric, as the developing- and sensing distances are different for the upper and lower interface of each clay layer, as apparent in Figure 4 and Figure 5. The characteristics of  $q_t$ -profiles during transitions thus have some degree of uniqueness, which then might be used in an attempt to back-calculate layer thicknesses and  $q_t^{\text{char}}$ .

The tip resistance approaches the characteristic value asymptotically with increasing interbedded layer thicknesses. This implies that calculated  $s_u$  based on Equation (6) and (8) provide overestimations of the “true  $s_u$ ” (i.e.  $s_u$  based on triaxial CAUC-test) whenever the developing depth is not surpassed. As to illustrate, overestimation magnitudes (with reference to calculated extremal value) are listed for all experiments on pottery clay in Table 2. The table does in addition include the magnitude of underestimation when calculated  $s_u$  is based on Equation (7), which is a consequence of the excess pore pressure build-up never approaching the characteristic value. From the reference test (E4-40-3b), the developing depth of  $q_t$  was about 5-5.3  $d_c$  (18-19 cm) after the interface.

Table 2. The ratios between the extremal value of the CPTU- $s_u$ -parametrizations within a clay layer compared to the “true  $s_u$ ” of the clay, presented for different clay layer thicknesses. For  $s_{u,kt}$  and  $s_{u,ke}$  the ratio of overestimation is presented, while for  $s_{u,\Delta u}$  the ratio of underestimation is presented.

Layer thickness	2 cm	4cm	8cm	12 cm
$s_{u,kt,min}/s_u$	6.3-10.5	2.3-4.6	1.4-2.1	1.1
$s_{u,ke,min}/s_u$	5.0-7.7	2.0-3.5	1.3-1.7	0.9-1.0
$s_u/s_{u,\Delta u,max}$	80-125	35-65	4-25	1.8-3.4

### 5.2 Depth offset

During penetration through thin layers of clay, all CPTU-parameters starts to approach their characteristic value, yet these approaches are “cancelled” upon closing in on the second interface. As measurements are saved as data points versus time, the measurements from the pore pressure sensor are actually made about 1 cone diameter behind the cone tip. This means that the extremal value of  $u_2$  is saved at a different depth than the extremal value of  $q_t$ , consequently lowering the extremal value of the pore pressure ratio,  $B_q$ , see Figure 6. For the soundings on the natural sensitive clay (E6-1S;4b;4c), the effect of correcting the depth-offset altered the  $B_q$  extremal value up to 0.15. Moreover, due to the short distances of excess pore pressure build-up in thin layers,  $B_q$  never approach levels which are close to the reference values, requiring extra care upon interpreting CPTU.

Accounting for the depth-offset is more complicated for the sleeve friction measurements, as each measurement is the product of stresses working on the entire friction sleeve. Therefore, it can be stated that the sleeve’s length entails a smoothing effect, making it a component of less depth accuracy and maybe relevance regarding transitions. However, from the experiments, a consistent pattern is apparent: As the probe transits from the sand to the clay the sleeve friction increases drastically when the front end of the sleeve hits the original level of the interface (prior to deformation), whereupon it is decreasing (ref. E4-40-3b). Due to this phenomenon  $f_s$  may turn out to be quite useful for identifying thin layers of clay embedded in sand. However, this part is associated with great uncertainty as field measurements of  $f_s$  can be rather high in sand, while low in clay, and in addition,  $f_s$  varies a lot with probe types. Consequently, this aspect requires further research.

With regards to the previous paragraph, the choice of depth correction for  $f_s$  is not obvious. Upon correcting the data points upwards on the sleeve, the extremal magnitude of  $F_r$  is smoothed with respect to both lower and upper bounds, making a distinction between materials more difficult (Figure 7). Ironically and conceptually incorrect, the greatest magnitude of  $F_r$  is reached if no corrections are made at all.

In conclusion, depth-offset has a big impact on the classification parametrizations during transitions, greatly impacting the identification of the materials

and the layer thicknesses. It should however be underlined that offset corrections do not influence  $s_u$ -estimations except for  $s_{u,ke}$  with a negligible magnitude.

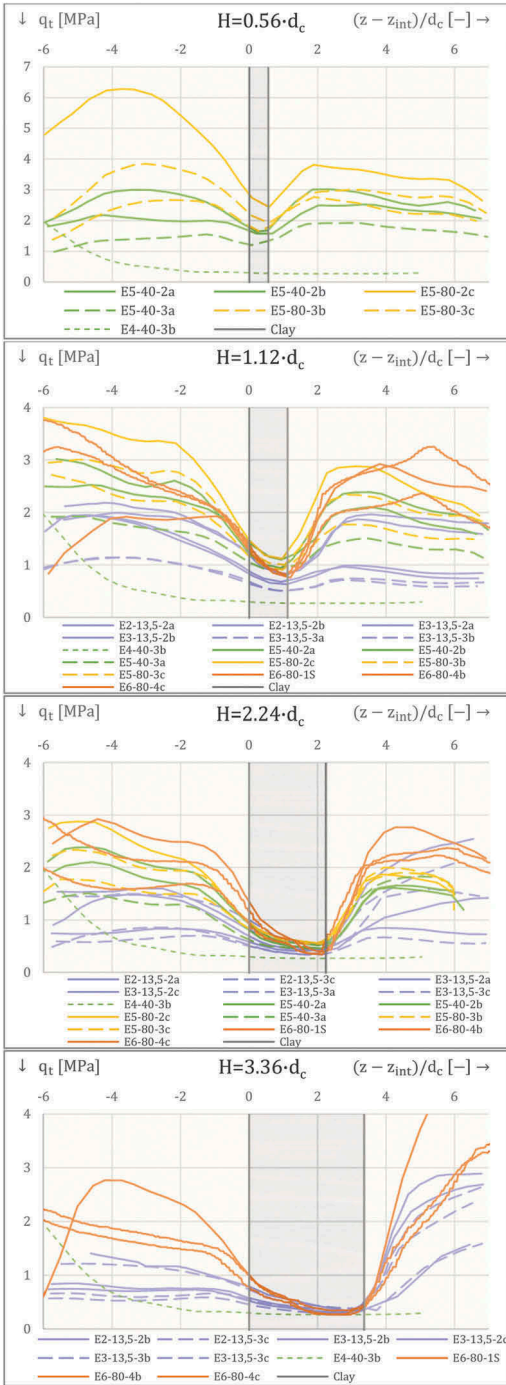


Figure 5. Rotated tip resistance profiles of penetration of clay layers (surface towards left, chamber base towards right), normalized with respect to the cone diameters. The thicknesses of the layers penetrated by respectively the standard cone and the mini-cone were 2, 4, 8 and 12 cm; and 2.8, 5.7 and 8.5 cm. Soundings in natural sensitive clay are marked with orange (E6).

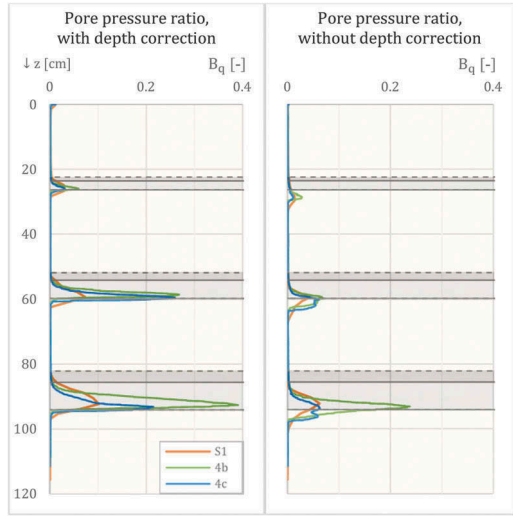


Figure 6. Relative difference of  $B_q$  when depth-offset is corrected (left), and not corrected (right) (E6-1S;4b;4c).

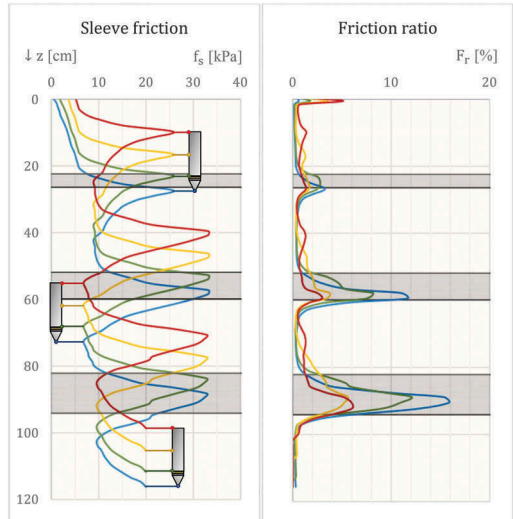


Figure 7. Left: Profile with  $f_s$ -readings (E6-1S) not corrected with respect to depth offset (blue) and profiles adjusted for different positions on the friction sleeve. Right: Resulting  $F_r$ -graphs based on data from the graphs in the left profile.

## 6 CONCLUSIONS

Thin, weak and possibly sensitive interbedded clay layers are not easily detected as characteristic reference values are not reached before the cone leaves the layer. In this respect, depth correction proves to be very important for the magnitude of the normalized ratios  $F_r$ .

and  $B_q$ . Furthermore, calculations of  $s_u$  based on the correlations  $s_{u,k1}$  and  $s_{u,ke}$  will lead to overestimation of  $s_u$  as the recorded tip resistance does not approach the characteristic tip resistance of the thin layer. Likewise, calculation of  $s_u$  based on the correlation  $s_{u,\Delta u}$  will lead to severe underestimation due to the small excess pore pressure build-up in thin layers.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors would like to acknowledge everyone who have contributed to this research program, mainly lab staff at NTNU. We are grateful to NGI for financially aiding the program and to Geomil Equipment for generously lending the mini-cone to the research.

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