# กำลังอัดและความสามารถในการใหลของดินซีเมนต์เถ้าลอยมวลเบา

นายอภิรัตน์ วิจิตรโชติ

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาวิศวกรรมศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต สาขาวิชาวิศวกรรมโยธา มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรนารี ปีการศึกษา 2555

## STRENGTH AND FLOWABILITY OF LIGHTWEIGHT

## **CEMENTED FLY ASH-CLAY**

**Apirat Wijitchot** 

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

**Degree of Master of Engineering in Civil Engineering** 

Suranaree University of Technology

Academic Year 2012

### STRENGTH AND FLOWABILITY OF LIGHTWEIGHT

### **CEMENTED FLY ASH-CLAY**

Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Master's Degree.

Thesis Examining Committee (Assoc. Prof. Dr. Avirut Chinkulkijniwat) Chairperson (Prof. Dr. Suksun Horpibulsuk) Member (Thesis Advisor)

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Pornpot Tanseng)

Member

(Prof. Dr. Sukit Limpijumnong)

(Assoc. Prof. Flt. Lt. Dr. Kontorn Chamniprasart)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs

Dean of Institute of Engineering

# อภิรัตน์ วิจิตร โชติ : กำลังอัดและความสามารถในการ ใหลของคินซีเมนต์เถ้าลอยมวลเบา (STRENGTH AND FLOWABILITY OF LIGHTWEIGHT CEMENTED FLY ASH-CLAY) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : ศาสตราจารย์ คร.สุขสันติ์ หอพิบูลสุข, 87 หน้า.

้ดินเหนียวซีเมนต์มวลเบาสามารถนำมาประยุกต์ใช้ในงานซ่อมโครงสร้างพื้นฐานและงาน ก่อสร้างต่างๆ อิทธิพลของปริมาณน้ำ ปริมาณปูนซีเมนต์ ปริมาณฟองอากาศ และอัตราส่วนการ แทนที่เถ้าถอย ต่อกำลังอัด หน่วยน้ำหนัก และความสามารถในการไหล ได้นำเสนอใน ้วิทยานิพนธ์เล่มนี้ ขีคจำกัดเหลวของดินเหนียวมีค่าลดลงตามการเพิ่มขึ้นของอัตราส่วนการแทนที่ เถ้าลอย ขีดจำกัดเหลวและคัชนีสภาพพลาสติกมีค่าลคลงเล็กน้อยในช่วงแรกและมีค่าลคลงอย่าง รวดเร็วในช่วงหลัง ค่าอัตราส่วนการแทนที่ที่จุดเปลี่ยนนี้เรียกว่าอัตราส่วนแทนที่เถ้าลอยคงที่ การ แทนที่เถ้าลอยในคินเหนียวช่วยลคหน่วยน้ำหนัก และเพิ่มความสามารถในการไหล ขณะที่การ แทนที่เถ้าลอยปรับปรุงคุณสมบัติด้านกำลังอัดเมื่ออัตราส่วนการแทนที่เถ้าลอยมีก่าเกินกว่า อัตราส่วนแทนที่เถ้าลอยคงที่เนื่องจากอัตราส่วนแทนที่เถ้าลอยคงที่สามารถหาได้ง่ายจากการ ทคสอบคุณสมบัติคัชนี ตัวแปรนี้จึงมีประโยชน์อย่างมากในการประมาณปริมาณแทนที่เถ้าลอยที่ น้อยที่สุดที่ต้องการเพื่อปรับปรุงคุณสมบัติด้านกำลังอัด การเติมฟองอากาศในดินมีประโยชน์ มากกว่าการเติมน้ำในการทำดินซึเมนต์มวลเบา สำหรับหน่วยน้ำหนักที่เท่ากัน ดินซึเมนต์มวลเบา ที่มีปริมาณฟองอากาศสูง มีค่ากำลังอัคสูงกว่าคินซีเมนต์มวลเบาที่มีปริมาณน้ำสูง สมการที่เสนอ โดย Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b) ได้รับการพิสูจน์ว่าสามารถใช้ในการทำนายหน่วยน้ำหนักของดิน ซีเมนต์มวลเบาที่ปริมาณน้ำ ปริมาณฟองอากาศ ปริมาณปูนซีเมนต์ และปริมาณเถ้าลอยต่างๆ ได้ เป็นอย่างดี โดยอาศัยกฎของ Abrams ผู้วิจัยแสดงให้เห็นว่ากำลังอัดของดินเหนียวซีเมนต์มวลเบา ที่ปริมาณฟองอากาศก่าหนึ่งๆ แปรผันตามอัตราส่วนปนซีเมนต์ต่อปริมาณน้ำ ความสัมพันธ์ ระหว่างกำลังอัดและอัตราส่วนปูนซีเมนต์ต่อปริมาณน้ำมีประโยชน์อย่างมากในการประมาณกำลัง ้อัด เมื่อมีการเปลี่ยนแปลงของปริมาณปุ่นซีเมนต์และปริมาณน้ำ เพียงทำการสุ่มทคสอบน้อยครั้ง ้นอกจากนี้ยังมีประโยชน์ในการประมาณปริมาณปูนซีเมนต์ที่ต้องการสำหรับปริมาณฟองอากาศ ้ต่างๆ เพื่อให้ได้กำลังอัดที่ต้องการท้ายสุดผู้วิจัยได้นำเสนอวิธีการออกแบบส่วนผสมเพื่อให้ได้ ้กำลังอัด ความสามารถในการไหล และหน่วยน้ำหนัก ตามข้อกำหนด

สาขาวิชา<u>วิศวกรรมโยธา</u> ปีการศึกษา 2555 ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา\_\_\_\_\_ ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา\_\_\_\_\_

# APIRAT WIJITCHOT : STRENGTH AND FLOWABILITY OF LIGHTWEIGHT CEMENTED FLY ASH-CLAY. THESIS ADVISOR : PROF. SUKSUN HORPIBULSUK, Ph.D., 87 PP.

#### FLOWABILITY/FA REPLACEMENT/LIGHTWEIGHT MATERIALS

Lightweight cemented clay has wide applications in the infrastructure rehabilitation and in the construction of new facilities. Effects of water content, cement content, air content and fly ash replacement ratio on the strength, unit weight and flowability of the lightweight cemented Bangkok clay is illustrated in this thesis. The fly ash, FA, replacement slightly decreases liquid limit and plasticity index up to a certain FA replacement. Beyond this value, both liquid limit and plasticity index reduce significantly. This certain FA replacement is designated as FA fixation point. The FA replacement decreases the unit weight and increases the flowablity while it improves the strength when the FA replacement is greater than the fixation point. Because the FA fixation point is simply obtained from the index test, it is a practical indicator to determine the minimum FA replacement for strength improvement. The addition of air foam to the moist clay is more advantage than that of water for manufacturing the lightweight cemented clay. For the same unit weight, the strength of a sample with a high air content is higher than that with a high water content. The equation proposed by Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b) was proved as suitable for predicting the unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay with different water contents, cement contents and air contents. Based on the Abrams' law, a relationship between strength and cement/clay-water ratio for a particular air content is proposed. The relationship is useful in estimating the laboratory strength wherein water content and cement content vary over a wide range by few trial tests. It also facilitates the determination of proper quantity of cement to be admixed for different air contents to attain the target strength. Finally, a mix design procedure to arrive at the target strength, flowability and unit weight is suggested.



School of <u>Civil Engineering</u>

Academic Year 2012

Student's Signature

Advisor's Signature

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my sincere thanks my thesis advisor, Professor Dr. Suksun Horpibulsuk for him invaluable help and constant encouragement throughout the course of this research. I am most grateful for his teaching and advice, not only in the research methodology but also in the philosophy of life. I would not have achieved this far, and this thesis would not have been completed without all the supports that I have always from him.

In addition, I am grateful for the faculties of the school of Civil Engineering, Assistant Professor Dr. Pornpot Tanseng and Associate Professor Dr. Avirut Chinkulkijniwat and other persons for their suggestions and help.

Finally, I most gratefully acknowledge my parents and my friends for all their supports throughout the period of this research.

Apirat Wijitchot

# **TABLE OF CONTENTS**

## Page

ABSTRACT (THAI)I
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTSIV
TABLE OF CONTENTSV
LIST OF TABLES
LIST OF FIGURES IX
SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONSXII
CHAPTER
I INTRODUCTION
1.1 Background1
I INTRODUCTION 1.1 Background1 1.2 Research objective2
1.3 Scope and limitation of the study2
II RITERATURE REVIEW
2.1 Introduction
2.2 Fundamental concepts of soil cement stabilization4
2.2.1 Interaction between Soil and Cement
2.3 Factors that control hardening characteristics of
cement stabilized clays11

# **TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)**

## Page

	2.3.1	Type of Cement	11	
	2.3.2	Cement Content	11	
	2.3.3	Curing Time	12	
	2.3.4	Soil Type	13	
	2.3.5	Curing Temperature	17	
	2.3.6	Soil Minerals	17	
	2.3.7	Soil pH	17	
2.	4 Engineering and physical properties of cement			
	stabi	lized clays	18	
	2.4.1	Strength Characteristics	18	
		Grain Size Distribution		
	2.4.3	Plasticity	22	
2.	5 Stren	ngth development in lightweight cemented clay	23	
III RESEARCH METHODOLOGY				
3.	1 Soil	samples	26	
3.	2 Cem	ent and air foam agent		
3.	3 Fly a	ısh	27	
3.	4 Meth	nodology	27	

# **TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)**

## IV RESULT AND DISCUSSION

	4.1	Introduction	31
	4.2	Basic soil properties	31
	4.3	Consistency limit	32
	4.4	Influence of fly ash	33
	4.5	Unit weight characteristics	37
	4.6	Flowability characteristic	44
	4.7	Unconfined compressive strength characterists	49
		Mix design	53
V CONCLUSIONS			
Conclusions			
REFERENCES			58
AP	PEN	NDICES	
		APPENDIX A PUBLICATION	63
BI	OGR	RAPHY	87

## LIST OF TABLES

# LIST OF FIGURES

## Figure

## Page

2.1	Distribution of unconfined compressive strength and organic matter content	14
2.2	(a) Influence of NaCl content on the quick lime improvement of	
	Ariake clay	16
2.2	(b) Relationship between unconfined compressive strength and	
	admixture content	16
2.3	Analysis of strength development in lightweight cemented Bangkok clay	
	using V/C	25
3.1	Laser Particle Size Analyzer	27
3.2	Study plan	30
4.1	Grain size distribution of Bangkok clay, fly ash and cement	32
4.2	Relationship between index properties and FA replacement	33
4.3	Relationship between strength and FA replacement of lightweight cemented	
	clay samples (a) $w/w_L = 2$ and C = 10% (b) $w/w_L = 3$ and C = 15%	34
4.4	Relationship between unit weight and FA replacement of lightweight	
	cemented clay samples with the same $w/w_L$ of 2-3 and cement content of	
	10-15%. (a) $w/w_L = 2$ (b) $w/w_L = 3$	35
4.5	Flowability and fly ash relationship of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay for	
	different air contents. (a) $w/w_L = 2$ (b) $w/w_L = 3$	36

# LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

### Figure

### Page

4.6	Unit weight and water content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay
	at different fly ash replacement. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash =
	40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80
4.7	Effects of cement content on unit weight of lightweight cemented clay.
	(a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash =
	20:80
4.8	Effects of air content on unit weight of lightweight cemented clay.
	(a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:8042
4.9	Effects of water content on unit weight of lightweight cemented clay. (a) Soil :
	fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : fly ash = 20:8043
4.10	Predicted and measured unit weight of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay44
4.11	Flowability and cement content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay
	for different air contents and fly ash replacements. (a) Soil : Fly ash = $60:40$
	(b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:8045
4.12	Flowability and air content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay
	for different water contents and fly ash replacements. (a) Soil : Fly ash =
	60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:8047
4.13	Flowability and water content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ash-
	clay for different air contents and fly ash replacements

### LIST OF FIGURES (Continued)

### Figure

#### Page

4.14 4.15 Effects of cement content on strength of lightweight cemented clay. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80....50 4.16 Effects of water content on strength of lightweight cemented clay. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80....51 Effects of air content on strength of lightweight cemented clay. (a) Soil : Fly ash 4.17 4.18 Relationship between strength and unit weight of lightweight cemented clay samples with different water content for the same cement content and 4.19 Strength development with cement/clay-water ratio(a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80......55

## SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

FA	=	Fly ash
V/C	=	Void/Cement ratio
PC	=	Portland Cement
CSH	=	Calcium Silicate Hydrate
$q_u$	=	Unconfined Compressive Strength
FSR	=	Free Swell Ratio
XRD	=	X-ray diffraction
$w/w_L$	=	Generalized Stress State
W	=	Clay Water Content
W <sub>L</sub>	-	Liquid Limit Water Content
$A_c$	=	Air Content
С	= 5	Cement
UC	= ' <sup>5</sup> n	Unconfined Compression
γ	=	Unit Weight
Yw	=	Unit Weight of Water
$G_s$	=	Specific Gravity of Soil
$G_c$	=	Specific Gravity of Cement
C/w	=	Cement/Clay-Water Ratio

### **CHAPTER I**

### **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Background**

Generally, infrastructures such as road embankments and bridge foundations are constructed on soft soil deposits where several geotechnical engineering problems are encountered. These deposits tend to consolidate and undergo large vertical settlement and lateral deformation during and after construction due to incumbent loads. The problems are moreover related to short-term and long-term stability when an unexpected loading (e.g. earthquake) is imposed on the structures and soft ground system.

To solve these problems, the improvement of soft ground by deep mixing technique is commonly applied in Southeast Asia, including Thailand. The mechanical behavior of cement admixed clays were extensively investigated by Terashi et al. (1979 and 1980); Kawasaki et al. (1981); Kamon and Bergado, (1992); Horpibulsuk et al. (2004a and b, 2010) and Suebsuk et al., (2010 and 2011); etc. The improvement cost depends mainly on the thickness of the soft clay. The thicker the soft clay, the higher the improvement cost. Instead of improving the soft ground (foundation), the use of lightweight materials with moderate to high strength as a backfill material to reduce the weight of the structure on the soft clay is an effective alternative means. Lightweight materials have wide applications in the infrastructure rehabilitation and in the construction of new facilities. They can be used as a backfill

for quay walls and bridge abutments to reduce the earth pressure behind the wall, as a fill for construction of embankments on soft soil to reduce overburden pressure, as a method of reducing pressure on the tunnel lining.

Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b) introduced a prime parameter governing the strength and deformation characteristics of lightweight cemented clay. It was designated as void/cement ratio, *V/C*. Even though there are available researches on the lightweight cemented clay, they focused on the strength. This research studies the effects of the water content, cement content and fly ash on the strength unit weight and flowability of the lightweight cemented clay.

### **1.2 Research objective**

The Objective of this research is to

- study the role of water content, cement content and fly ash on the strength and flowability of lightweight cemented clay.
- 2) propose a generalized strength equation for lightweight cemented clay.

### **1.3 Scope and limitation of the study**

Bangkok clay was mixed with water and fly ash to increase the flowability. It was then mixed with air foam and cement to reduce the unit weight and increase the shear strength. The Bangkok clay was from Yan Nawa Distric, Bangkok, Thailand at a 4 meter depth. Type I Portland cement (PC), fly ash from Mae Moh power plant in the north of Thailand, and tap water were used in this study. The clay-water content was adjusted to 1-3 times liquid limit.

The cement content was varied from 5 to 20% by weight of dry soil. Fly ash replacement was between 0 and 80% of dry soil. The air foam content was from 0 to 100% of total volume. Based on the analysis of the test results, a mix design method is suggested.



## **CHAPTER II**

### LITERATURE REVIEW

### **2.1 Introduction**

Extensive urbanization and industrialization in coastal regions and low land areas of many countries have necessitated to strengthen very soft ground to enhance its shear strength and reduce its compressibility so as to handle its stability and settlement problems. The strengthening processes by cement and lime treatments have been more widely employed in the recent years. After mixing, chemical reactions will take place between chemical admixtures and soil particles.

The materials contained in this chapter deal with comprehensive literature review on the engineering behavior of the cement stabilized soil. It starts with fundamental concepts of cement stabilization and factors controlling the hardening characteristics. Then the attention is paid to engineering and physical properties of cement stabilized clays.

### 2.2 Fundamental concepts of soil cement stabilization

A Portland cement particle heterogeneous substance contains minute tricalcium silicate ( $C_3S$ ), dicalcium silicate ( $C_2S$ ), tricalcium aluminate ( $C_3A$ ) and a solid solution described as tetracalcium alumino-ferrite ( $C_4A$ ) [Lea, 1956]. These four

main constituents are major strength producing compounds. When the pore water of the soil encounters with the cement, hydration of the cement occurs rapidly and the major hydration (primary cementitious) products are hydrated calcium silicates (C<sub>2</sub>SH<sub>X</sub>, C<sub>3</sub>S<sub>2</sub>H<sub>X</sub>), hydrated calcium aluminates (C<sub>3</sub>AH<sub>X</sub>, C<sub>4</sub>AH<sub>X</sub>) and hydrated lime Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>. The first two of the hydration products listed above are the main cementitious products formed and the hydrated lime is deposited as a separated crystalline solid phase. These cement particles bind the adjacent cement grains together during hardening and form a hardening skeleton matrix, which encloses unaltered soil particles. According to Taylor (1960), the silicate and aluminate phases are internally mixed, so it is most likely that none is completely crystalline. Part of the Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> may also be mixed with other hydrated phases, therefore being only partially crystalline. In addition, the hydration of cement leads to a rise of pH value of the pore water, which is caused by the dissociation of the hydrated lime. The strong bases dissolve the soil silica and alumina (which are inherently acidic) from both the clay minerals on the clay particle surfaces, in a manner similar to the reaction between a weak acid and strong base. The hydrous silica and alumina will then gradually react with the calcium ions liberated from the hydrolysis of cement from insoluble compounds (secondary cementitious products), which hardens when cured to stabilize the soil. This secondary reaction is known as the pozzolanic reaction. The composition of hydrated cement is still not clearly defined by a chemical formula, so considerable variations are feasible. The compounds in the Portland cement are transformed on the addition of water as follows:

 $2(3\text{CaO.SiO}_2) + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} = 3\text{CaO.2SiO}_2.3\text{H}_2\text{O} + 3\text{Ca(OH)}_2$ (2.1) (tricalcium silicate) (water) (tobermorite gel) (calcium hydroxide)

$$2(2CaO.SiO_2) + 4H_2O = 3CaO.2SiO_2.3H_2O + Ca(OH)_2$$
(2.2)

(bicalcium silicate) (water) (tobermorite gel) (calcium hydroxide)

$$4\text{CaO.Al}_{2}\text{O}_{3}\text{.Fe}_{2}\text{O}_{3} + 10\text{H}_{2}\text{O} + 2\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_{2} = 6\text{CaO.Al}_{2}\text{O}_{3}\text{.Fe}_{2}\text{O}_{3}\text{.12}\text{H}_{2}\text{O}$$
(2.3)  
(tetracalciumaluminoferite) (calcium aluminoferrite hydrate)

$$3CaO.Al_2O_3 + 12H_2O + Ca(OH)_2 = 3CaO.Al_2O_3.Ca(OH)_2.12H_2O$$
(2.4)  
(tricalcium aluminate) (tetracalcium aluminate hydrate)

$$3CaO.Al_2O_3 + 10H_2O + CaSO_4.2H2O = 3CaO.Al_2O_3Ca(OH)_2.12H_2O$$
 (2.5)  
(tricalcium aluminate) (Gypsum) (calcium monosulfoaluminate)

The first two equations whose materials constitute 75% of the Portland cement, show that the hydration of the two calcium silicate types produces new compounds: lime and tobermorite gel, with latter playing the leading role with regard to strength development, since bondage, strength and volume variations are mainly governed by them. The reactions, which take place in soil-cement stabilization, can be represented in the following qualitative equation; the reactions given here are for tricalcium silicate ( $C_3S$ ) only, because they are the most important constituents of Portland cement.

$$C_3S + H_2O \longrightarrow C_3S_2H_x$$
 (Hydrated gel) + Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> (2.6)  
primary cementitious products

$$Ca(OH)_2 \longrightarrow Ca^{++} + 2(OH)^{-}$$
 (2.7)

$$Ca^{++} + 2(OH)^{-} + SiO_2 \text{ (soil silica)} \longrightarrow CSH$$
 (2.8)  
(secondary cementitious product)

 $Ca^{++} + 2(OH)^{-} + Al_2O_3$  (soil  $\longrightarrow$  alumina) CAH (2.9)

(secondary cementitious product)

When pH < 12.6, then the following reaction occurs:

$$C_3S_2H_x \longrightarrow C_3S_2H_x$$
 (Hydrated gel) + Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub> (2.10)

In order to have additional bonding forces produced in the cement-clay mixture, the silicates and aluminates in the material must be soluble. The solubility of the clay minerals is equally affected by the impurities present, the crystalline degree of the materials involved, the grain size, etc. In the above equations, the cementation strength of the primary cementitious products is much stronger than that of the secondary ones. At low pH values (pH < 12.6), the relation shown in Equation 2.10 will occur. However, the pH drops during pozzolanic reaction and a drop in the pH tends to promote the hydrolysis of  $C_3S_2H_x$ , to form CSH. The formation of CSH is beneficial only if it is formed by the pozzolanic reaction of lime and soil particles, but it is detrimental when CSH is formed at the expense of the formation of the  $C_3S_2H_x$ , whose strength generating characteristics are superior to those of CSH. The cement hydration and the pozzolanic reaction can last for months, or even years, after the mixing, and hence the strength of cement stabilized clay is expected to increase with time.

Thus, it means that in the soil-cement mixture containing fine clay particles, primary and secondary cementing substances are formed. The primary products harden into high-strength additives and differ from the normal cement hydrated in concrete. The secondary processes increase the strength and durability of the soilcement mixture by producing of an additional cementing substance to further enhance the bond strength between the particles.

#### 2.2.1 Interaction between Soil and Cement

Stabilized soils with cement means the formation of mixture of pulverized soil, cement, and water to produce a modified soil. In concrete, there is barely any fine soil particle, the aggregate has a coarse-grain character and the cement particles usually form sheathes around the granular aggregate and bridge its particles, giving considerable strength. When aggregate and cement mixed with water, cement undergoes an exothermic hydration - hydrolysis reaction. The reaction rate and consequent rate of heat evolution are the functions of total component and the crystal chemical of the cement minerals, the fineness of the powder and the temperature of the setting. Setting and hardening are the results of a complex sequence of processes. Hardened cement paste has a finely intergrown microstructure dominated by the binding component of a very high surface area and submicrometer-sized noncrystalline fibers or particles of calcium silicate hydrate (CSH), which grows between and link together large crystallites and residual anhydrous cement graincores and their perimeter, leaving a microporous material with minimal interconnected capillaries. The solidification of cement paste is regarded as a constant volume process. In the cement stabilized soil, on the other hand, the individual cement particles are

surrounded by fine soil grains, giving rise to much weaker bond and consequently lower level of strength development.

Kezdi (1979) describes reaction between soil and cement as follows, with particular respect to the fact that the role played by cement is different in cohesive soils.

In fine-grained silts and clays, the hydration of cement creates rather strong bonds depending on various mineral substances, and forms a matrix, which efficiently encloses the nonbonded soil particles. This matrix develops a cellular structure on which strength of the entire construction depends, since the strength of the individual particles within the matrix is rather low. This matrix pins the particles, thereby increasing the shear strength. Together with strength increase, chemical surface effect of cement reduces the water retention capacity of the clays. The overall volume stability and frost resistance is also increased because of the enclosure of the larger unstabilized grain aggregates.

On the other hand, in granular materials, the cementation effect is similar to that in concrete, without any sand-cement and physico-chemical interactions. The cement paste does not fill the voids, but forms a cohesive membrane around these coarse grains. In the case of coarse-grained soils, strength is mainly derived from the hydration and hydrolysis of cement resulting in hydrated gel particles of large surface area, which reduce the porosity of the system due to solidification.

Kezdi (1979) enunciates the hypothesis on clay-cement interaction as follows. He distinguishes the primary and secondary processes of clay cement mixture. The primary process is believed to include hydrolysis and the hydration of the cement, in the course of which the usual hydration products appear with the increase in the pH value of the water. The calcium hydroxide produced in that period is believed to react much more strongly than ordinary lime.

The role played by clay is important in the secondary processes. The calcium ions produced during cement hydration transform the clay first into calcium clay, and increase the intensity of flocculation that had been initiated by the increase in electrolyte content due to cement addition. Calcium hydroxide then attacks, thereafter, the clay particles and formation of amorphous compounds. Then the silicates and aluminates dissolved in the pore water are thought of as mixing with the calcium ions, thus precipitating the additional cementing material. The calcium hydroxide consumed during the course of secondary processes is partly replaced by the lime produced by cement hydration. Thus the primary reaction products supply material for the secondary processes.

During the secondary processes, the cementation substances are formed over the surface of the clay particles or in their immediate vicinity, causing the flocculated clay grains to be bonded at the contact points. Still stronger bonds may be created between the hydrating cement paste and the clay particles coating the cement grains.

### 2.3 Factors that control hardening characteristics of cement

#### stabilized clays

The hardening characteristics of cement stabilized soils are developed by a number of factors. Owing to the large number of alternatives and combinations, it is impossible to tabulate the various mechanical properties as functions of these factors, so the experimental determination is indispensable in most cases. Nevertheless, there are some predominant factors present below. An outline of some superficial factors exerting an influence on the properties of cement stabilized soils.

#### 2.3.1 Type of Cement

The differences in improvement of cement stabilized clays by using different types of Portland cement have been investigated. The stabilization of Type III Portland cement renders better improvement of soil than Type I cement does. Yet, the Type I Portland cement is the most popular cement used in soil stabilization due to its being most readily available at reasonable cost.

#### 2.3.2 Cement Content

Broms (1986) found that the more the cement content, the greater the strength of the cement treated clay. The modulus also increases with the increase in cement content (Huang and Airey, 1993; Yin and Lai, 1998; and Horpibulsuk et al., 2000d, to name a few).

Uddin (1994) has studied on the strength and deformation characteristics of cement stabilized soft Bangkok clay and reported that a sharp increase of strength occurs up to the region of 20% to 25% cement content and then the incremental rate ceases down. He has found that the cement contents between 10% and 20% are the most effective range of stabilization of Bangkok clay.

#### 2.3.3 Curing Time

In a manner similar to that of concrete and lime stabilized soils, the shear strength of cement stabilized clay increases with time. The rate of increase of strength is generally rapid in the early stages of curing period, thereafter, the rate of increase of strength decreases with time. However, the rate of increase in strength for cement stabilized clay is greater than that for lime stabilized clay at early age (Åhnberg et al.,1995).

The formation of the primary and secondary cementitious materials proceeds slowly and continuously for months, even years. It can be expected that the strength of the cement stabilized clays generally increases with time until the completion of the reaction. Broms (1986) has investigated the applications of cement columns in soft clays in the Southeast Asian region, in which the general properties of the clays are relatively similar, and reported the maximum strengths of the investigated case as listed below.

For 16% cement treatment, the 1-month, 2-month and 4-month strengths are 410 kPa, 660 kPa and 700 kPa, respectively and 230 kPa, 320 kPa, and 460 kPa, respectively for 10% cement treatment.

The hardening characteristics of cement stabilized Ariake clays have been investigated under the oedometer and unconfined compression tests (Horpibulsuk et al., 1999). They have revealed that the strength and the yield stress in  $K_0$ -consolidation increase with an increase in curing time.

DJM RESEARCH GROUP (1984 and 2000) also reported that an average value of 2/3 of the 28-day strength can be achieved at the 7-day age for all cement contents ( $q_7/q_{28} = 0.67$ ). Horpibulsuk et al. (2001) have proposed the empirical equation for strength prediction based on the strength data of cement stabilized inland and marine clays. According to the equation, the ratio  $q_7/q_{28}$  is equal to 0.60.

#### 2.3.4 Soil Type

The effectiveness of cement and lime decreases with increasing water content and organic content. The effect of organic matter on unconfined compressive strength of clays improved by quick lime and cement was studied by Miura et al. (1988) and shown in Figure 2.1. Clearly, quicklime performs better than cement when organic matter content is below 6. On the other hand, cement renders better result, especially when the organic matter is higher than 8. To overcome the negative effect of organic matter to the improvement, more quantity of quicklime and cement is necessary, which in turn results in more amounts of non-reacted lime and cement. This non-reacted lime makes the clay friable because it cannot solidify itself in a short time. On the contrary, the un-hydrated cement does not affect strength development.

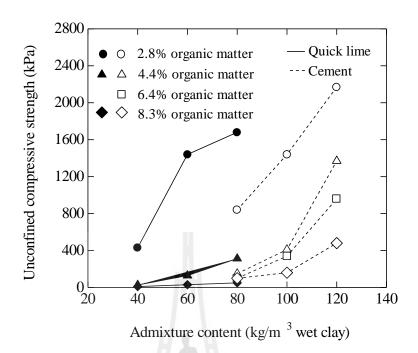


Figure 2.1: Distribution of unconfined compressive strength and organic matter content (after Miura et al., 1988).

The effects of cement gradually decrease with increasing clay content and increasing plasticity index (Woo, 1971). In general, when the activity of a soil is very high, the increase in shear strength of the soil treated with cement is low. The increase in the shear strength due to the flocculation is often relatively small for marine clays deposited in salt water, since these clays already have a flocculated structure (Broms, 1984).

Miura et al. (1988) carried out several tests which small amount of salts was added to the clay specimens together with quick lime and cement. The results are shown in Figure 2.2(a) and 2.2(b). In those tests, salt amounting to 5, 10, and 20 percent together with quicklime and cement powders were added to the clay and then mixed in a soil mixer. Up to certain amount of the salt added, the strength of improved soil increased with the salt content. The addition of salt, NaCl, may act as a catalyzer according to Ariizumi (1977) and the ions  $Cl^{-}$ ,  $Na^{+}$ ,  $Mg^{+2}$  may accelerate the pozzolanic reaction.

The increase of the strength with cement is often low when the water content exceeds 200% (Babasaki et al., 1996). The increase has also been low for organic soils when the ignition loss exceeds 15% even at cement content above 20%.



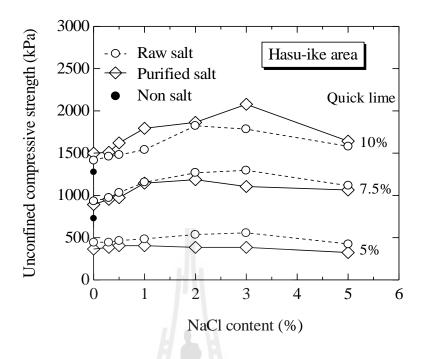


Figure 2.2(a): Influence of NaCl content on the quick lime improvement of Ariake

clay (after Miura et al., 1988).

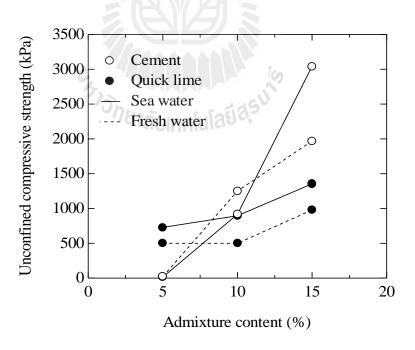


Figure 2.2(b): Relationship between unconfined compressive strength and admixture content (after Miura et al., 1988).

#### **2.3.5 Curing Temperature**

The increase of temperature accelerates the chemical reactions and solubility of the silicates and aluminates, thus increasing the rate of strength gain of the stabilized soils (Bergado et al., 1996).

### 2.3.6 Soil Minerals

In the case of soils with the property of higher pozzolanic reactivity, the strength characteristic of the cement stabilized soils is governed by the strength development of the hardened cement bodies. However, in the case of soils having lower pozzolanic reaction, the strength mobilization of the stabilized soils is governed by the strength characteristics of the hardened soil bodies (Saitoh et al., 1985).

Hilt and Davidson (1960) have observed that montmorillonitic and koalinitic clayey soils are found to be effective pozzolanic agents, as compared to clays, which contain illite, chlorite or vermiculite.

Wissa et al. (1965) have also explained that the amount of secondary cementitious materials, produced during pozzolanic reaction of the clay particles and hydrated lime [Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>], is dependent on the amount of material composition of the clay fraction as well as the amorphous silica and the alumina present in the soil. The montmorillonite clay mineral probably react more readily than the illites and kaolins because of their poorly defined crystallinity.

#### 2.3.7 Soil pH

The long-term pozzolanic reactions are favored by high pH values, since the reactions are accelerated due to the increased solubility of the silicates and the aluminates of the clay particles. When the pH value of the stabilized clay is lower than 12.6, the reaction of the Equation 2.10 occurs, where  $C_3S_2H_x$  is used up to produce the CSH and the hydrated lime [Ca(OH)<sub>2</sub>]. This will reduce the strength of the stabilized clay at the expense of stronger cementitious material,  $C_3S_2H_x$ , to produce the weaker cementitious material, CSH.

### 2.4 Engineering and physical properties of cement stabilized

clays

### 2.4.1 Strength Characteristics

Strength is one of the most important parameters of soils that is altered by cement treatment. Part of the immediate increase in shear strength is caused by flocculation of clay and part results from the reduction of the water content (Broms, 1986).

Lambe (1960) has explained that the small soil particles are cemented to be larger particles caused by the cement admixture. The large particles are highly interlocked, hence producing greater rates of dilation during shearing. It results in enhancement of shear strength, thus the effective cohesion and friction angle are increased.

Herzogs (1967) has explained an increase in strength of cement stabilized clay that it consists of two processes. The first one occurs with the aggregation of hydrated cement cores and surrounding clay particles, forming a cement-clay matrix structure, which contributes towards the major strength gain by significant interlocking. This enhances the improvement of the friction component ( $\phi$ ) of the shear strength. The second process involves the reduction of the thickness of the double-layer water, caused by the ion exchange and the flocculation of the clay particles, reducing the inter-particle space so as to increase the inter-particle bond strength.

Wissa et al. (1965) have indicated that the residual strengths show no effect of cementation and can be described by a single strength envelope independent of amount of cementation. Clough et al. (1981) have studied the artificially and naturally cemented sands under static loading. Their conclusion is drawn that the failure envelope of both the cemented and uncemented sands are essentially straight lines with nearly the same slope. The cohesion intercept increases with increasing amount of cement and the friction angle is not affected by cementation. Kasama et al. (1998) have carried out the consolidated undrained triaxial compression test of cement stabilized Ariake clay at low cement content. They have summarized that the failure state line of clay with cementation is parallel to that of uncemented clay. Consoli et al. (2000) have investigated the influence of curing under stress on the triaxial response of cemented soils. The stress state acting during the cementing process plays a fundamental role in the mechanical behavior of cement stabilized soils. The samples cured under stress exhibit higher strength and less maximum volumetric strain. Balasubramaniam and Buensuceso (1989) investigated the strength and deformation characteristics of lime stabilized Bangkok clay under undrained and drained triaxial compression conditions. Based on the stress~strain characteristics, stress path, pore pressure development and volume change behavior, they have reported that the lime treatment causes a change in strength and deformation characteristics of the soft clay from normally consolidated clay to that of an overconsolidated clay. Horpibulsuk et al. (2000d) have argued that the behavior of the

cement stabilized clay is governed by cementation and friction components, which is different from the behavior of overconsolidated clays, mainly controlled by the interlocking.

The in-situ unconfined compressive strength of soil-cement columns onshore can be as low as one-half to one-fifth of the unconfined compressive strength of the laboratory samples at the same cement content and water content (Kamon, 1997). Ansano et al. (1996) have reported that the shear strength of samples mixed in the laboratory is up to 2 to 5 times higher than the shear strength of samples obtained from columns. The difference of the shear strength is attributed to the difference in the mixing conditions. Horpibulsuk et al. (2000e) have investigated the effect of the mixing conditions on the strength development of the columns. They have found that the ratio of the field strength to laboratory strength at the most effective mixing condition is between 1/3 and 1/2, depending upon the cement content. Nishida et al. (1996); and Miura and Nishida (1998) explained the strength difference between field columns and laboratory samples based on the mixing energy.

#### เลยเทคโนโลยง

The friction angle has a tendency to increase with curing time for soilcement columns (Åhnberg et al, 1995). Values of 40 to 45 degrees have been reported for soil-cement columns by Wada et al., 1991. Uddin (1994) has revealed that the friction angle increases as the increase in cement content.

Huang and Airey (1993) have carried out a series of triaxial test of cement stabilized sand from cement contents of 0% to 20%. They have found that the yield loci increase with the increase in the cement content and cannot be normalized by the equivalent  $p'_{e}$ . Balasubramaniam et al. (1999) have also reported that the yield

loci of the cement stabilized Bangkok clay increase with the increase in the cement content based on the result of triaxial consolidation test at different stress ratio. Moreover, the  $(\eta, \varepsilon_s)$  and  $(q, \varepsilon_v)$  relationship of the cement stabilized Bangkok clay are not unique even at the effective confining pressures being higher than the yield stress (Uddin, 1994). It is due to the effect of cementation (Horpibulsuk et al., 2000d).

The shear strength and the bearing capacity of soil-cement columns increase with time, thereby gain in the modulus of elasticity and the compression modulus. The additional increase after 28 days is in general small. Okamura and Terashi (1975); Bredenberg (1979); Åhnberg and Holm (1986); and Kujala et al. (1993) have reported that the undrained shear strength increases with  $\sqrt{D}$ . According to Mitchell (1974); Brandl (1981 and 1995); Nagaraj et al. (1996); Nagaraj and Miura (1996); Yamadera et al. (1997); and Horpibulsuk et al. (2000a and 2001), the shear strength increases with log *D*.

Mitchell (1974) has proposed the following relationships between curing time and  $q_u$ .

$$q_{D} = q_{D0} + K \log \frac{D}{D_{0}}$$
(2.11)

where,  $q_D$  = unconfined compressive strength at *D* days, kPa

 $q_{D0}$  = unconfined compressive strength at  $D_0$  days, kPa

 $K = 480 A_w$  for granular soils and  $70 A_w$  for fine grain soil

 $A_w$  = cement content, % by mass

Nagaraj and Miura (1996) have conducted unconfined compression tests on 4 inland clays, which have different liquid limits and obtained the generalized relation is of the form:

$$\frac{q_D}{q_{14}} = a + b \ln D$$
 (2.12)

where  $q_D$  is the *D* day strength,  $q_{14}$  is the 14-day strength at initial liquid limit water content. It is reported that a = -0.20 and b = 0.458 for inland clays.

Yamadera et al. (1997) have further investigated the strength development with time of three different marine Ariake clays at their liquid limit. They found that a = 0.190 and b = 0.299.

#### 2.4.2 Grain Size Distribution

The soluble products of cement hydration cause the electrolytic concentration of pore pressure and pH value to increase. The dissolved bivalent calcium ions (Ca<sup>++</sup>) replace the monovalent ions, which are normally attracted to the surface of the negatively charged clay particles (Assarson et al., 1974). The crowding of (Ca<sup>++</sup>) ions onto the surface of the clay particles brings about the flocculation of the clay (Herrin and Mitchell, 1961). The flocculation can also be brought by the hydration of cement, resulting in a charge of coarser grain size distribution of the soil particles.

#### 2.4.3 Plasticity

The plastic limit of the soil generally increases with the cement content, while the plasticity index reduces. The liquid limit on the other hand is not affected or is only slightly affected. As a result, the shear strength is increased, while the compressibility is reduced (Broms, 1986).

Miura et al. (2001) have explained the change of the plasticity based on the microstructural consideration. The liquid limit state is the state that the microfabric would have been formed thus the addition of cement would not alter the liquid limit as long as the liquid limit is determined within the initial setting of cement. On the contrary, when the dry clay is mixed with water to be closer to plastic limit along with cement, it would exhibit the property of modified soil. Due to the formation of clay clusters, which can hold water caused by the cementation, the plastic limit would increase. As a result, the liquidity index, *LI* of the clay-cement mixture immediately after mixing with cement would increase since the plasticity index is used as the denominator while the clay water content insignificantly changes.

The results reported by Uddin et al. (1997) reinforce the above postulation. The change in the liquid limit due to the treatment is insignificant. On the other hand, the plastic limit significant increases with cement content and curing time. Thus, the decrease in plasticity index of the clay-cement mixture is recognized due to the significant increase in the plastic limit. The change in water content is minimal. As a result, the liquidity index is supposed to increase after adding cement admixture.

#### 2.5 Strength development in lightweight cemented clay

For soft clay admixed with cement, the clay-water/cement ratio,  $w_c/C$  was proved as the prime parameter governing engineering properties (Miura et al., 2001; Horpibulsuk and Miura, 2001 and Horpibulsuk et al., 2005). Horpibulsuk et al. (2003; 2011a and b, 2012a) successfully employed this parameter to develop a generalized

strength equation based on Abrams' law (Abrams, 1918). The equation is useful for laboratory mix design. This parameter was also successfully used to predict the strength development in cement stabilized coarse-grained soils compacted on the wet side of optimum water content that the degree of saturation is higher than 80% (Horpibulsuk et al. 2006 and Chinkulkijniwat and Horpibulsuk, 2012). Consoli et al. (2007) extended the clay-water/cement ratio hypothesis to analyze the strength development in compacted (unsaturated) cement-stabilized sand at a particular water content. They proposed a key parameter taking the role of air bubble in pore space (void) on the strength development into account. The parameter is designated as void/cement ratio, V/C and is defined as the ratio of absolute volume of void (water and air) to absolute volume of cement of the compacted sand. It was proved that the compression and shear behaviors of cmented sand at a particular water content are governed by V/C (Rios et al., 2012; Consoli et al., 2012a and b). Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b) successfully employed the parameter V/C to analyze the strength and compressibility characteristics of lightweight cemented clays with various swelling potentials. Based on the Abrams' law, the strength equation for lightweight cemented clays at a particular water content was proposed (Figure 2.3):

$$q_u = \frac{A}{\left(V/C\right)^B} \tag{1}$$

where  $q_u$  is the unconfined compressive strength, and *A* and *B* are constants. This equation if without the air content yields the same equation for cement admixed clays proposed by Horpibulsuk et al. (2011a, b and 2012a). To employ Eq. (1) for assessing

the strength of any lightweight cemented clay at different void/cement ratios (air content and cement content), the parameters A and B must be predetermined. This task can be achieved by a back-calculation of at least two trial strength data. Based on the equation, Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b) suggested a mix design method to attain the target strength and unit weight for a given water content.

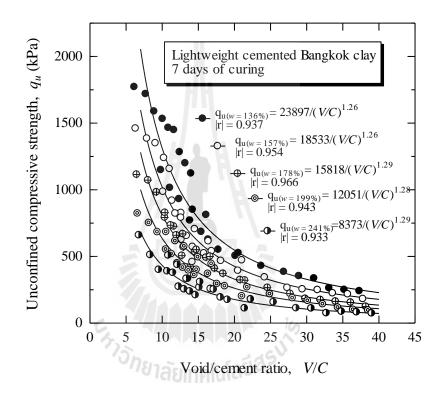


Figure 2.3: Analysis of strength development in lightweight cemented Bangkok clay using V/C (Horpibulsuk et al., 2012b).

## **CHAPTER III**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Soil samples**

Bangkok clay was collected Yan Nawa District, Bangkok, Thailand at a 4 meter depth. Groundwater was had a depth of about 1.0 m from surface. The grain size distribution, natural water content, specific gravity, index property tests were performed according to the American Society of Testing and Materials (ASTM) standards. Also the free swell test on the sample was performed. The free swell ratio (FSR) is defined as the ratio of equilibrium sediment volume of 10 g of oven-dried soil passing a 425 mm sieve in distilled water ( $V_d$ ) to that in kerosene ( $V_k$ ) (Prakash and Sridharan, 2004). This method was employed since it is simple and predicts the dominant clay mineralogy of soil satisfactorily (Horpibulsuk et al., 2007).

# 3.2 Cement and air foam agent

Type I Portland cement (PC) and air foam agent, Darex AE4, provided by the Grace Construction Products Ltd, were used in this study. Grain size distribution curve of PC was obtained from the laser particle size analysis (vide Figure 3.1). The air foam agent is a blend of anionic surfactants and foam stabilizers. It is a liquid air entraining agent for use in all types of mortar, concrete and cementitious material.



Figure : 3.1 Laser Particle Size Analyzer

#### 3.3 Fly ash

The fly ash from Mae Moh power plant in the north of Thailand was used in this study. It was passed through sieve No. 325. The major components  $SiO_2$ ,  $Al_2O_3$ , and  $Fe_2O_3$  were measured by the X-ray diffraction (XRD) and the fly ash was classified by the ASTM C 618. The grain size distribution curve was obtained from the laser particle size analysis.

### **3.4 Methodology**

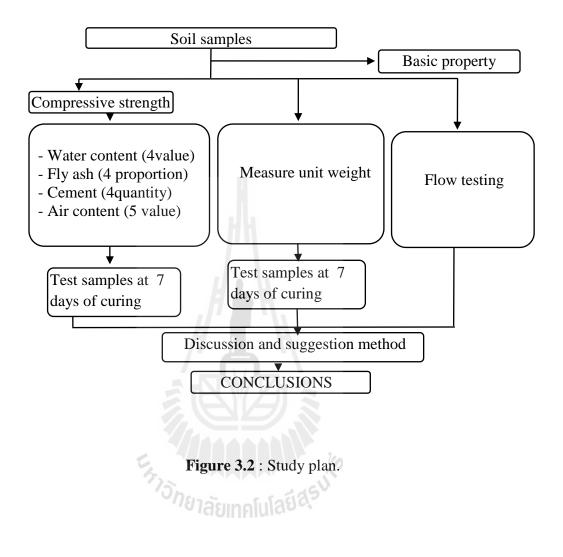
The aim of this research is to understand the role of fly ash on the unit weight, strength and flowability and to develop practical equations for determining the strength and unit weight of different mix proportions of lightweight cemented Bangkok clay. The void/cement ratio is the volume of void to the volume of cement in the mix. The generalized stress state,  $w/w_L$ , was used for the first purpose where w is the clay water content and  $w_L$  is liquid limit water content. The  $w/w_L$  was successfully used to assess the engineering properties of remolded and natural clays (Horpibulsuk et al., 2007 and 2011c). Liquid limits of clays have the same order of pore water suction (5 – 6 kPa) (Russell and Mickle, 1970; Wroth and Wood, 1978; and Whyte, 1982). Under this state, most clays exhibit hydraulic conductivity of the same order of  $10^{-7}$  cm/sec (Nagaraj et al., 1993 and Horpibulsuk et al., 2007) and the undrained shear strength of about 1.7 – 2.5 kPa (Wroth and Wood, 1978; and Whyte, 1982) although few clays exhibit larger undrained shear strength up to 5.6 kPa (Wasti and Bezirci, 1986).

The clay paste was passed through 2 mm sieve for removal of shell pieces and other bigger size particles, if present. The water content was adjusted to (1-3) times liquid limit. This intentional increase in water content is to simulate the clay slurry with high flow ability for pumping into the construction sites. For the first and last aims, the clay was mixed with fly ash with the replacement ratios between 0 and 80%. The mixtures were mixed with air foam to attain air contents,  $A_c$ , from 0 to 100% by volume of the clay-water-air mixture. The mixtures were then thoroughly mixed with cement for 10 min. The cement content, C, was varied from 5 to 20% of dry weight of soil. Such a uniform paste was transferred to cylindrical containers of 50 mm diameter and 100 mm height, taking care to prevent any air entrapment. After 24 hours, the cylindrical samples were dismantled. All the cylindrical samples were wrapped in vinyl bags and were stored in a humidity room of constant temperature (20±2°C) until lapse of different curing times as planned. Unconfined compression (UC) tests were run on samples after 7 days of curing. The rate of vertical displacement in UC tests was 1 mm/min. Both tests were performed according to the American Society of Testing and Materials (ASTM) standards. For all mix proportion, the flow tests were

performed according to the ASTM C 109 and C 185. Table 3.1 summarizes the testing program and Figure 3.2 shows the study plan.

**Table 3.1 :** Summarizes the testing program

Testing	Number of samples
Basic properties	Soil samples From Yan Nawa district, Bangkok
Unconfined compressive strength (four value of water content × four cement quantity × four replacement of fly ash × five value of air content )	320
Flow (four value of water content × four cement quantity × four replacement of fly ash × five value of air content )	320
Unit weight (four value of water content × four cement quantity × four replacement of fly ash × five value of air content )	320



# **CHAPTER IV**

# **RESULT AND DISCUSSION**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The materials contained in this chapter deal with the role of fly ash, cement content, water content and air content on the unconfined compressive strength, flowability and unit weight of the lightweight cemented fly ash-clay.

### 4.2 Basic soil properties

Bangkok clay was collected Yan Nawa District, Bangkok, Thailand at a 4 meter depth. Groundwater was had a depth of about 1.0 m from surface. Bangkok clay was composed of 2% sand, 39% silt and 55% clay. The natural water content was 78% and the specific gravity was 2.64. The liquid and plastic limits were 73% and 31%, respectively. Based on the Unified Soil Classification System (USCS), the clay was classified as inorganic clay of high plasticity (CH). Grain size distribution curve of Bangkok clay is shown in Figure 4.1 compared with that of cement and fly ash.

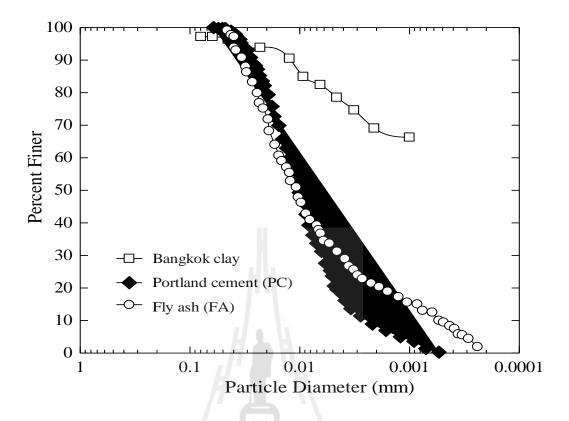


Figure 4.1: Grain size distribution of Bangkok clay, fly ash and cement.

### 4.3 Consistency limit

The replacement of the fly ash affects consistency limits of the clay. Figure 4.2 shows the change of the consistency limits with the replacement ratio. The liquid limit of the mixed clay reduces gradually with FA replacement when the FA replacement is less than 50% and the reduction in liquid limit becomes remarkable when the FA replacement is greater than 50%. The plastic limit changes insignificantly with the range of FA replacement tested. As such, the reduction in the plasticity index is clearly observed at about 50% FA replacement. This FA replacement is regarded as FA fixation point.

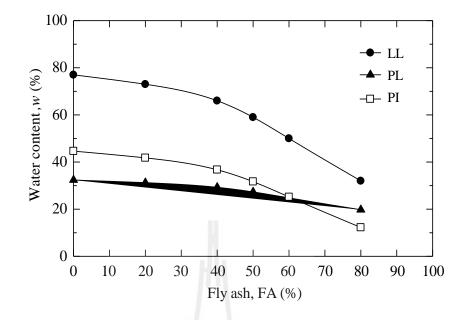
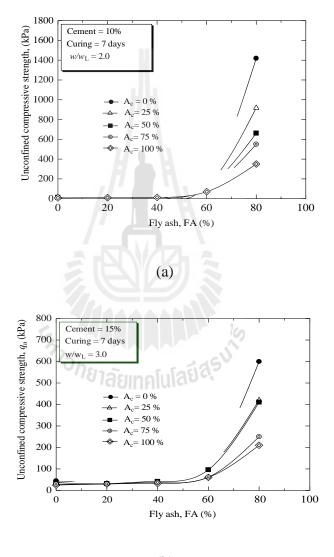


Figure 4.2: Relationship between index properties and FA replacement.

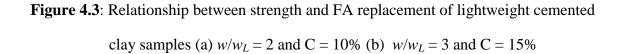
## 4.4 Influence of fly ash on strength, flowability and unit weight

The FA replacement higher than the FA fixation point modifies the clay fabric by increasing the non-interacting material. The liquid limit and plasticity index decrease with increasing the FA replacement. Figure 4.3 shows the role of FA replacement on the strength of the lightweight cemented clay at the same generalized stress state,  $w/w_L$  of 2-3 and cement contents of 10-15%. At this generalized stress state, the mixed clay samples have essentially the same workability (shear resistance), even though their water contents are different. The strength increases gradually with FA replacement for all air contents. In other words, air content does not affect the strength development. Beyond the FA fixation point, the strength increases remarkably. Because the  $w_L$  values slightly decrease for the mixed clay samples with the FA replacement less than the FA fixation point (Figure 4.2),

the water contents at this stress state decrease slightly with FA replacement and hence insignificant strength development. The same is not true for the mixed clay with higher FA replacement, the  $w_L$  values reduce significantly. Thus, the strength development is remarkable with increasing the FA replacement. For the high strength lightweight cemented clay, the air contents controls the strength development.



(b)



Effects of fly ash on the unit weight of the lightweight cemented samples for  $w/w_L$  values of 2-3 and cement contents of 10-15% are illustrated in Figure 4.4. The unit weight decreases with increasing FA replacement for all input air contents. The higher the air content, the lower the unit weight. The reduction in  $\gamma$  is because  $G_s$  of FA is lower than that of the clay.

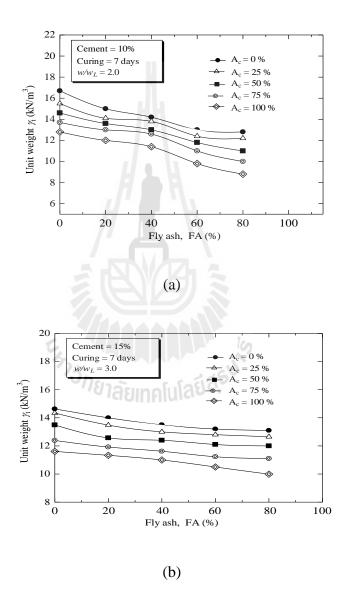


Figure 4.4: Relationship between unit weight and FA replacement of lightweight cemented clay samples with the same  $w/w_L$  of 2-3 and cement content of 10-15%. (a)  $w/w_L = 2$  (b)  $w/w_L = 3$ 

The role of fly ash on the flowability is shown in Figure 4.5 for lightweight cemented clay. For a particular air content, the flowability increases insignificantly with increasing fly ash because fly ash is sphere and they are material dispersion. The air foam and water content also increases the flowability of the lightweight cemented clay.

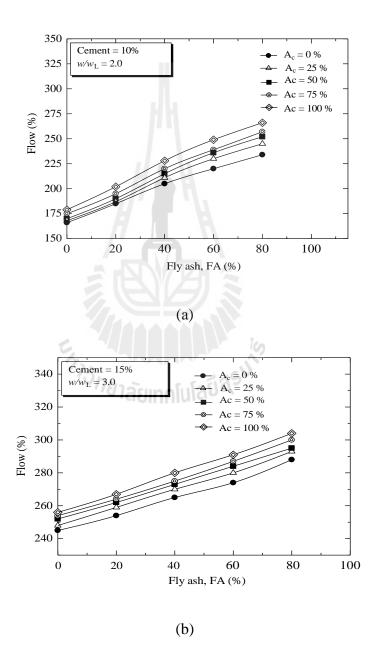
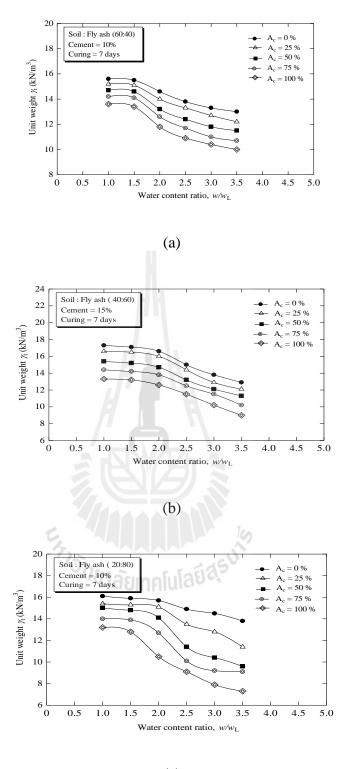


Figure 4.5: Flowability and fly ash relationship of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay for different air contents. (a)  $w/w_L = 2$  (b)  $w/w_L = 3$ 

To conclude, the advantage of FA replacement is to decrease unit weight and increase flowability. The advantage in terms of strength is noticed when FA replacement is greater than 50%. Thus, the unit weight, strength and flowability of lightweight samples with low to high FA replacements (40, 60, 80) are illustrated in the following sections.

#### **4.5 Unit weight characteristics**

Figure 4.6 shows the relationships between unit weight and generalized stress state,  $w/w_L$ , of the lightweight cemented clay at different fly ash replacements. The change in unit weight is of the same pattern for different soil : FA replacement. The unit weights insignificantly change with air content at low water content. The unit weights decrease with air contents when water contents are greater than the transitional water content. This transitional water content is about  $1.9w_L$  for lightweight cemented clay. This improves that the suitable water content to produce the lightweight cemented clay is  $1.9w_L$ . This results is in agreement with that by Horpibulsuk et al., (2012b).



(c)

Figure 4.6: Unit weight and water content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ashclay at different fly ash replacement. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80

Recently, the unit weight, strength and compressibility characteristics of lightweight cemented clay have been studied extensively by Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b). Based on the phase diagram, the unit weight (in kN/m<sup>3</sup>) was determined in terms of water content, cement content and void/cement ratio by the following equation:

$$\gamma = \frac{\left(\frac{G_c G_s \gamma_w^2(1+w)}{C} + G_c \gamma_w\right)}{\left(\frac{G_c \gamma_w}{C} + 1\right)} - \left(V/C\right) \left(\frac{G_s \gamma_w(1+w)}{G_c \gamma_w}}{C}\right)$$
(1)

where *w* is water content (decimal),  $G_c$ ,  $G_s$  are the specific gravity of cement and soil, respectively,  $\gamma_w$  is unit weight of water (kN/m<sup>3</sup>), *C* is cement content (kg/m<sup>3</sup>) and *V/C* is the void/cement ratio, which is the volume of void to the volume of cement in the mix. The theoretical derivation of the equation is referred to Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b). The equation was developed based on the assumption that all air bubbles (air foam) enter into the pore space when mixed with cement and clay.

Effects of water content, cement content and air content on the unit weight are illustrated in Figures 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9 for 40, 60 and 80% FA replacement, respectively. The unit weight increases slightly with increasing cement content for all input air contents at a given water content because the cement possesses higher specific gravity than the clay. The air content decreases significantly the unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay. The decrease rate is almost the same for different water contents. The water content also plays a significant role on the reduction in unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay. For all air contents, the unit weight decreases significantly with increasing the water content. The change in unit weight with cement content, air

content and water content can be predicted by Eq. (1) as shown by the dashed lines. In the prediction,  $G_s$  was taken as the specific gravity of the mixed clay (clay and fly ash).



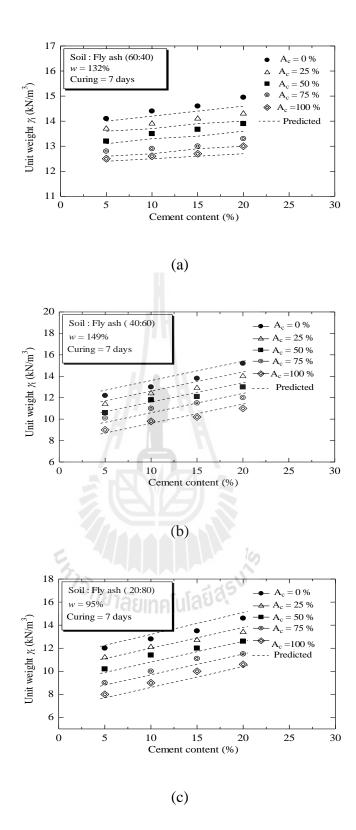


Figure 4.7: Effects of cement content on unit weight of lightweight cementedclay.(a)Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80

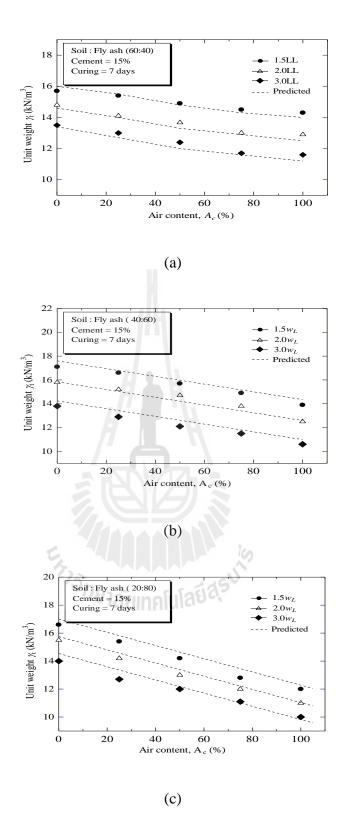


Figure 4.8: Effects of air content on unit weight of lightweight cemented clay.

(a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly-

$$ash = 20:80$$

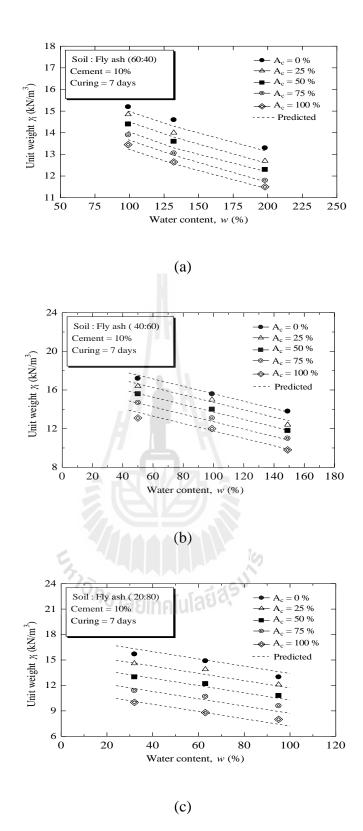


Figure 4.9: Effects of water content on unit weight of lightweight cemented clay. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : fly ash = 20:80

Figure 4.10 shows the comparison between the predicted and measured unit weights of lightweight cemented clay at different water contents and fly ash replacements. The predicted unit weights are generally higher than the measured ones because all the air foams cannot enter into the pore space due to the viscosity of the clay. Because the viscosity decreases as the clay-water content increases, the prediction error decreases with increasing water content.

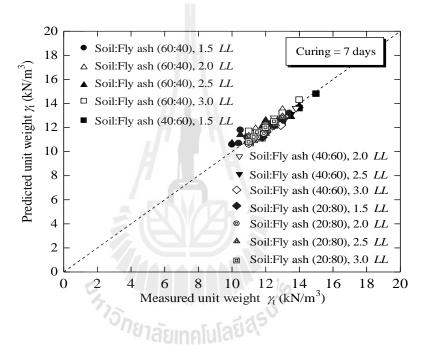
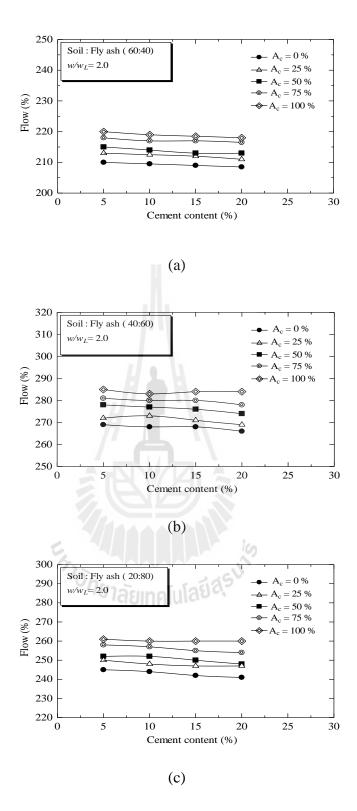


Figure 4.10: Predicted and measured unit weights of lightweight cemented fly ash-clay.

#### 4.6 Flowability characteristics

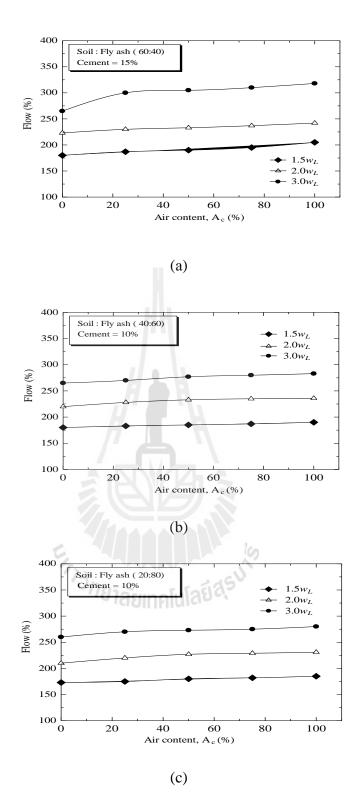
The role of cement on the flowability is shown in Figure 4.11 for lightweight cemented clay at different fly ash ratios of 60:40, 40:60 and 20:80 and  $w/w_L$  of 2. The cement content insignificantly affects the flowability for a particular water content and air content.



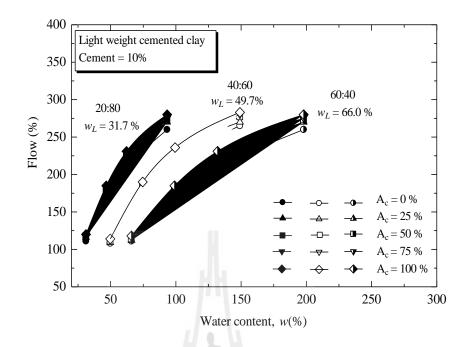
**Figure 4.11**: Flowability and cement content relationship of lightweight cemented flyash-clay for different air contents and fly ash replacements. (a) Soil : Flyash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80

The change in flowability with air content for different water contents is shown in Figure 4.12. From Figures 4.11 and 4.12, it is shown that the flowability is significantly dependent upon water content irrespective of cement content. The change in flowability with air content from 0 to 100% for different water contents tested is within 10%.



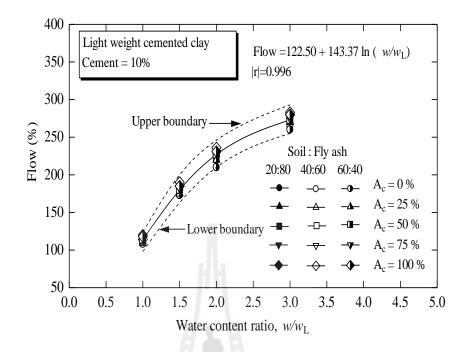


**Figure 4.12**: Flowability and air content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ashclay for different water contents and fly ash replacements. (a) Soil : Flyash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80



**Figure 4.13**: Flowability and water content relationship of lightweight cemented fly ashclay for different air contents and fly ash replacements.

Figure 4.13 summarizes both effects of water content and air content on the flowability for different soil : FA ratios. It is shown that for a particular air content the water content required to obtain the same flowability is less for the samples with higher FA replacement. Since the flowability is directly related to shear strength, both are controlled by the generalized stress state. Figure 4.14 shows the flowability and  $w/w_L$  relationship for different air contents. This figure shows that for the same air content, the flowability is significantly dependent upon  $w/w_L$  and the flowability increases with air content for the same  $w/w_L$ .



**Figure 4.14**: Flowability and  $w/w_L$  relationship of lightweight cemented clay

#### **4.7 Unconfined compressive strength characteristics**

Figures 4.15, 4.16 and 4.17 show the influence of the water content, cement content and air content on the strength of lightweight samples with 40, 60 and 80% FA replacement. As expected, for a given water content and air content, the strength increases significantly with cement content. On the other hand, the strength decreases remarkably with the increase in water content and air content, which increases the pore space among the clay clusters (decreases cement per contact area) (Miura et al., 2001; Horpibulsuk et al., 2003, 2005, 2011a and 2012a). It is of interest to note that the reduction in the strength due to the increase in air content (from 0 to 100%) is remarkably less than that due to the increase in water content (compare Figures 4.16 and 4.17).

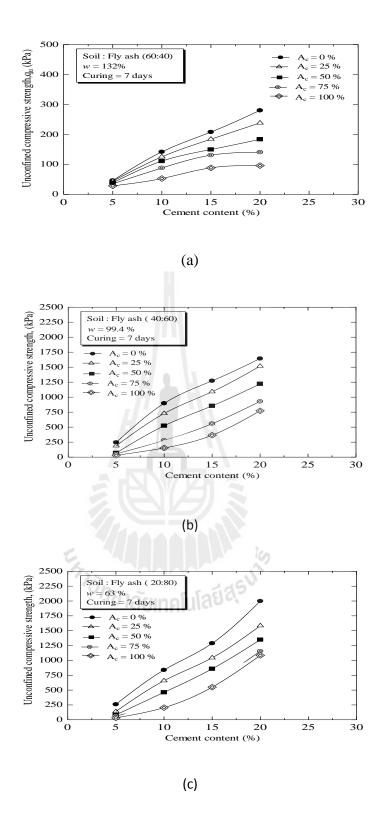
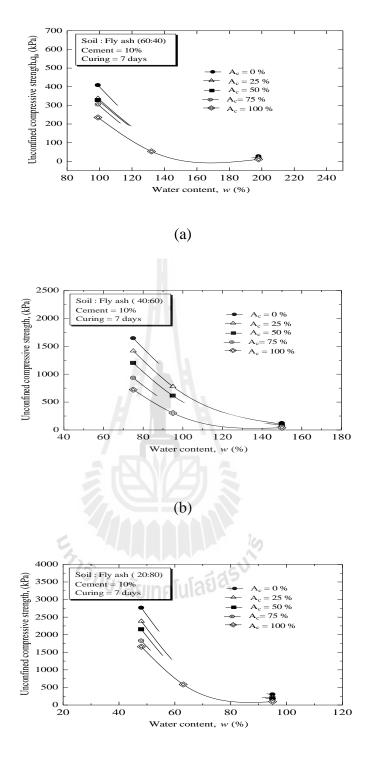


Figure 4.15: Effects of cement content on strength of lightweight cemented clay.

(a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash =

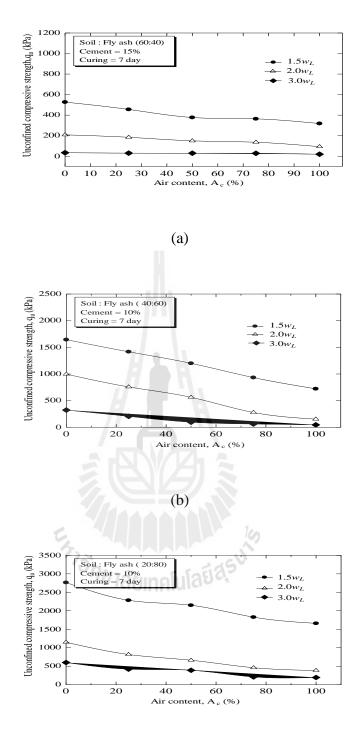
20:80



(c)

Figure 4.16: Effects of water content on strength of lightweight cemented clay.

(a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash =



(c)

Figure 4.17: Effects of air content on strength of lightweight cemented clay. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80

#### 4.8 Mix design

The reduction in unit weight by both increasing water content and air content is generally associated with the reduction in strength. The advantage of adding air foam over adding water to make the lightweight cemented clay in terms of strength development is illustrated in Figure 4.18. It shows the relationships between strength and unit weight of lightweight cemented samples for different water contents and air contents but the same input of cement. For a same range of unit weight, the lightweight cemented samples with lower water content but higher air content have higher strength than those with higher water content but lower air content. For example, at unit weight of 15 kN/m<sup>3</sup>, the strengths are 25 kPa, 50 kPa and 210 kPa for 198%, 132 and 99%, respectively.

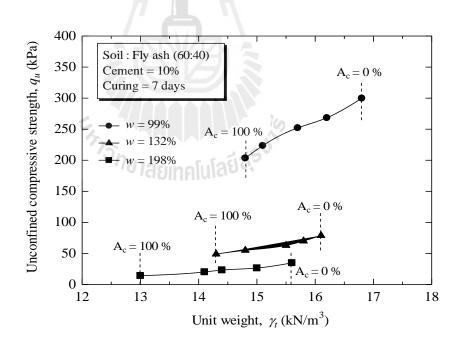
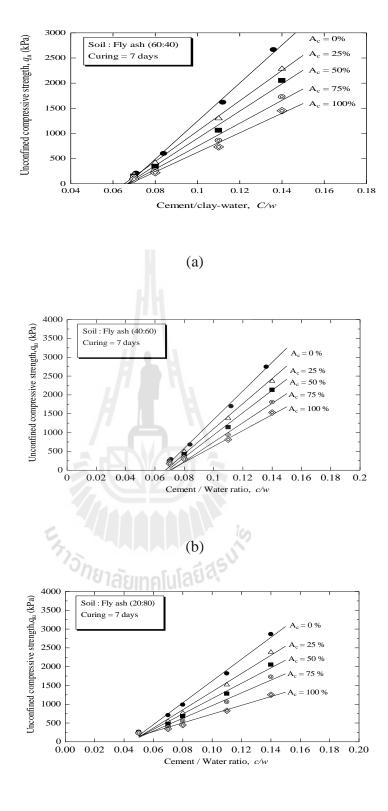


Figure 4.18: Relationship between strength and unit weight of lightweight cemented clay samples with different water content for the same cement content and replacement ratio.

Based on the concrete technology (Abrams' 1918), the strength of cemented material is governed by the ratio of cement to water. As an analogy, the parameter that can be identified for cemented clays is cement/clay-water ratio, C/w (Miura et al., 2001; Horpibulsuk et a., 2003, 2005, 2011a, b and 2012a), which is the ratio of cement content (%) to initial clay water content (%). The cement content, *C* is the ratio of cement to clay by weight both reckoned in their dry state. The relationships between strength and C/w for  $w/w_L = 1.5$ -3.0 can be represented by linear function (Figure 4.19) for different air contents. For the same C/w, the strength decreases as the air content increases due to the increase in cementitious products per contact areas. Using these linear relationships, the strength of the lightweight cemented clay at different water contents and cement contents for a design air content can be approximated based on few trial tests.





(c)

**Figure 4.19**: Strength development with cement/clay-water ratio. (a) Soil : Fly ash = 60:40 (b) Soil : Fly ash = 40:60 (c) Soil : Fly ash = 20:80

The unit weight of the lightweight cement clay can then estimated from Eq. (1) and flowability boundary from Figure 4.14. Based on the laboratory investigation, a mix design procedure to arrive at the target strength unit weight and flowability is suggested and presented by the following steps:

- 1. Determine the FA content to be mixed with a moist clay. FA content should be greater than FA fixation point. The FA fixation point can be simply obtained from the index test.
- 2. Adjust the clay water content to a range of  $w/w_L = 1.5$  to 3.0.
- 3. Conduct trail unconfined compression tests on the lightweight cemented samples with different water contents, cement contents and air contents.
- 4. Develop the relationship between strength and C/w for different air contents.
- 5. From the target strength, determine the required C/w and air content.
- 6. For a selected air content, adjust water content and cement content to attain the target unit weight using Eq.(1).
- 7. Using Figure 4.14, determine the flowability.

# **CHAPTER V**

# CONCLUSIONS

The role of water content, cement content, air content and replacement ratio on the strength unit weight and flowability of the lightweight cemented clay is illustrated in this research. The FA replacement slightly decreases liquid limit when FA replacement is less than FA fixation point. Beyond this value, the liquid limit reduces significantly. Because the FA fixation point is simply obtained from the index test, it is a practical indicator to determine the minimum FA replacement. The addition of air foam to the moist clay is more advantage than that of water in terms of strength. For the same unit weight, the strength of a sample with a high air content is higher than that with a high water content. Eq. (1) was proved as suitable for predicting the unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay with different water contents, cement contents and air contents. Based on the Abrams' law, a relationship between strength and cement/clay-water ratio for a particular air content is proposed. The relationship is useful in estimating the laboratory strength wherein water content and cement content vary over a wide range by few trial tests. It also facilitates the determination of proper quantity of cement to be admixed for different air contents to attain the target strength. Finally, a mix design procedure to arrive at the target strength flowability and unit weight is suggested.

### REFERENCES

- Abrams D.A. 1918. Design of Concrete Mixtures. In: Structural Materials Research Laboratory, Lewis Institute, Chicago, Bulletin 1, 20p.
- Burland J.B., 1990. On the compressibility and shear strength of natural soils. **Géotechnique** 40 (3), 329-378.
- Butterfield, R., 1979. A natural compression law for soils (an advance on *e*-log *p* ). **Geotechnique** 29 (4), 469-480.
- Consoli, N.C., Foppa, D., Festugato, L. and Heineck, K.S., 2007. Key parameters for strength control of artificially cemented soils. Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering ASCE 133 (2), 197-205.
- Freudelund, T.E. and Aaboe, R., 1993. Expanpolystylene-A light way across soft ground. Proceedings of 14<sup>th</sup> International Conference of Soil Mechanics and Geotechnical Engineering. New Delhi, India, pp. 1256-1261.
- Hayashi, Y., Suzuki, A. and Matsuo, A., 2002. Mechanical properties of air-cement-treated soils. **Ground Improvement** 6 (1), 69-78.
- Horpibulsuk, S. and Miura, N., 2001. A new approach for studying behavior of cement stabilized clays. Proc. 15<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Soil Mechanics and Geotechnical Engineering (ISSMGE). Istanbul, Turkey, Vol. 3, pp. 1759-1762.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Bergado, D.T. and Lorenzo, G.A., 2004a. Compressibility of cement admixed clays at high water content. **Geotechnique** 54 (2), 151-154

- Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N. and Bergado, D.T., 2004b. Undrained shear behavior of cement admixed clay at high water content. Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering ASCE 130 (10), 1096-1105.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N. and Nagaraj, T.S., 2003. Assessment of strength development in cement-admixed high water content clays with Abrams' law as a basis. **Geotechnique** 53 (4), 439-444.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N. and Nagaraj, T.S., 2005. Clay-water/cement ratio identity of cement admixed soft clay. Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering ASCE 131 (2), 187-192.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Rachan, R. and Suddeepong, A., 2011a, Assessment of strength development in blended cement admixed Bangkok clay. Construction and Building Materials 25 (4), 1521-1531.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Katkan, W., Sirilerdwattana, W. and Rachan, R., 2006. Strength development in cement stabilized low plasticity and coarse grained soils: Laboratory and field study. Soils and Foundations 46 (3), 351-366.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Liu, M.D., Liyanapathirana, D.S. and Suebsuk, J., 2010. Behavior of cemented clay simulated via the theoretical framework of the Structured Cam Clay model. Computers and Geotechnics 37, 1-9.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Phojan, W., Chinkulkijniwat, A., and Liu, M.D., 2011b. Strength development in blended cement admixed saline clay. **Applied Clay Science**.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Rachan, R., Suddeepong, A. and Chinkulkijniwat, A., 2011c. Strength development in cement admixed Bangkok clay: laboratory and field investigations. Soils and Foundations 51 (2) 239-251.

- Horpibulsuk S, Shibuya S, Fuenkajorn K, and Katkan W., 2007. Assessment of engineering properties of Bangkok clay. Canadian Geotechnical Journal 44 (2), 173-187.
- Horpibulsuk, S., Yangsukaseam, N., Chinkulkijniwat, A., and Du, Y.J., 2011d. Compressibility and permeability of Bangkok clay compared with kaolinite and bentonite. Applied Clay Science 52, 150-159.
- Jamnongpipatkul, P., Dechasakulsom, M, and Sukolrat, J., 2009. Application of airfoam stabilized soil for bridge-embankment transition zone in Thailand. GeoHuman International Conference, Geotechnical Special Publication No.190, pp.181-193.
- Kamon, M. and Bergado, D.T., 1992. Ground improvement techniques. Proceedings of 9th Asian Regional Conference on Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering. Vol.2, pp.526-546.
- Kawasaki, T., Niina, A., Saitoh, S., Suzuki, Y. and Honjo, Y., 1981. Deep mixing method using cement hardening agent. Proceedings of 10<sup>th</sup> International Conference on Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering. Stockholm, pp.721-724.
- Kikuchi, Y., Nagatome, T., Mizutani, T., and Yoshio, H., 2011. The effect of air foam inclusion on the permeability and absorption of light weight soil. Soils and Foundations 51 (1), 151-165.
- Liu M.D. and Carter J.P., 1999. Virgin compression of structured soils. **Géotechnique** 49 (1), 43-57.
- Liu M.D. and Carter J.P., 2000. Modelling the destructuring of soils during virgin compression. **Géotechnique** 50 (4), 479-483.

- Liu M.D. and Carter J.P., 2002. Structured Cam Clay Model. Canadian Geotechnical Journal 39 (6), 1313-1332.
- Miki, H., Mori, M. and Chida, S., 2003. Trail embankment on soft ground using lightweight-foam-mixed in-situ surface soil. Proceedings of 22<sup>nd</sup> PIARC World Road Congress. Durban.
- Mitchell , J.K., 1993. Fundamentals of Soil Behavior. New York: John Wiley&Sons, Inc.
- Miura, N., Horpibulsuk, S. and Nagaraj, T.S., 2001. Engineering behavior of cement stabilized clay at high water content. Soils and Foundations 41 (5), 33-45.
- Nagaraj, T.S., Pandian, N.S. and Narasimha Raju, P.S.R., 1993. Stress statepermeability relationships for fine-grained soils. **Geotechnique** 43 (2), 333-336.
- Otani, J., Mukunoki, T. and Kikuchi, Y., 2002. Visualization for engineering property of in-situ lightweight soils with air foams. **Soils and Foundations** 42 (3), 93-105.
- Prakash, K. and Sridharan, A., 2004. Free swell ratio and clay mineralogy of finegrained soils. **Geotechnical Testing Journal** ASTM 27 (2), 220-225.
- Russell, E.R. and Mickle, J.L., 1970. Liquid limit values of soil moisture tension. Journal of Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering Division ASCE 96, 967-987.
- Satoh, T., Tsuchida, T., Mitsukuri, K. and Hong, Z., 2001. Field placing test of lightweight treated soil under seawater in Kumamoto port. Soils and Foundations 41 (4), 145-154.
- Sridharan, A., Abraham, B.M. and Jose, B.T., 1991. Improved technique for estimation of preconsolidation pressure. **Geotechnique** 41 (2), 263-268.

- Suebsuk, J., Horpibulsuk, S. and Liu, M.D., 2010. Modified Structured Cam Clay: A constitutive model for destructured, naturally structured and artificially structured clays. **Computers and Geotechnics** 37, 956-968.
- Suebsuk, J., Horpibulsuk, S. and Liu, M.D., 2011. A critical state model for overconsolidated structured clays. **Computers and Geotechnics** (in press).
- Tsuchida, T., Porbaha, A. and Yamane, N., 2001. Development of a geomaterial from dredge bay mud. Journal of Material in Civil Engineering ASCE 13 (2), 152-160.
- Terashi, M., Tanaka, H. and Okumura, T., 1979. Engineering properties of lime treated marine soils and DMM. Proceedings of 6<sup>th</sup> Asian Regional Conference on Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering, Vol. 1, pp. 191-194.
- Terashi, M., Tanaka, H., Mitsumoto, T., Niidome, Y., and Honma, S., 1980. Fundamental of lime and cement treated soils. Report of Port and Harbour Research Institute, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 33-62 (in Japanese).
- Whyte, I.L., 1982. Soil plasticity and strength a new approach using extrusion. Ground Engineering 15 (1), 16-24.
- Wroth, C.P. and Wood, D.W., 1978. The correlation of index properties with some basic engineering properties of soils. Canadian Geotechnical Journal 15 (2), 137-145.
- Yasuhara, K., 2002. Recent Japanese experiences with lightweight geomaterials. Proceedings of International Workshop on Lightweight Geomaterial, pp.32-59.

# APPENDIX A

# PUBLICATION

ะ <sub>การักยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุร</sub>บไร

## Publication

Horpibulsuk, S., Wijitchot, A., Nerimitknornburee, A., and Shen, S.L. Factors influencing unit weight and strength of lightweight cemented clay. (submit)



1	Technical note to Quarterly Journal of Engineering Geology & Hydrogeology
2	
3	FACTORS INFLUENCING UNIT WEIGHT AND STRENGTH OF
4	LIGHTWEIGHT CEMENTED CLAY
5	
6	Suksun Horpibulsuk, B.Eng. (Hons), M.Eng., Ph.D., P.E.
7	Professor and Chair of School of Civil Engineering,
8	Suranaree University of Technology,
9	111 University Avenue, Muang District,
0	Nakhon Ratchasima 30000, THAILAND
1	Tel: +66-44-22-4322 and +66-89-767-5759, Fax: +66-44-22-4607
2	Email: suksun@g.sut.ac.th and suksun@sut.ac.th
3	
4	Apirat Wijitchot, B. Eng.
5	M.Eng. Scholar, School of Civil Engineering,
6	Suranaree University of Technology,
7	111 University Avenue, Muang District,
8	Nakhon Ratchasima 30000, THAILAND
9	
0	Anek Neramitkornburi, B.Eng., M.Eng.
1	Ph.D. Scholar, School of Civil Engineering,
2	Suranaree University of Technology,
3	111 University Avenue, Muang District,
4	Nakhon Ratchasima 30000, THAILAND
5	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
6	S.L. Shen, B.Eng. (Hons), M.Sc., Ph.D., P.E.
7	Professor and Head, Department of Civil Engineering,
8	Shanghai Jiao Tong University,
9	800 Dongchuang Rd, Shanghai 200240, CHINA
0	Tel: +86-21-34204301 Email: slshen@sjtu.edu.cn and suiryushen@gmail.com
1	
2	
3	Date written: 8 October 2012
4	Number of words: 4,023
5	
6	
7	NOTE: The first author is the correspondence author. Mail communication may
8	please be addressed to Prof. Suksun Horpibulsuk, School of Civil Engineering,
9	Suranaree University of Technology, 111 University Avenue, Muang District,
0	Nakhon-Ratchasima 30000, THAILAND

2 41 FACTORS INFLUENCING UNIT WEIGHT AND STRENGTH OF LIGHTWEIGHT 42 CEMENTED CLAY 43 Suksun Horpibulsuk<sup>1</sup>, Apirat Wijitchot<sup>2</sup>, Anek Nerimitknornburee<sup>3</sup> and S.L. Shen<sup>4</sup> 44 45 ABSTRACT: Lightweight cemented clay has wide applications in the infrastructure 46 47 rehabilitation and in the construction of new facilities. Effects of water content, cement 48 content, air content and fly ash on the unit weight and strength of lightweight cemented clay are analyzed and presented in this article. Fly ash, FA decreases liquid limit and plasticity 49 index of the clay. Consequently, it improves the unit weight, strength and workability to the 50 51 lightweight cemented clay. For the same generalized stress state,  $w/w_L$ , the lightweight 52 cemented clay with higher replacement ratio has higher strength for the same input of cement 53 due to higher cement/clay-water ratio, C/w. The FA fixation point is a practical indicator to 54 obtain a minimum FA replacement because it is simply obtained from index test. The 55 prediction of unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay for different water contents, air contents, fly ash replacement ratios and cement contents is performed and verified. From the 56 57 critical analysis of test results, a mix design method to attain the target strength and unit 58 weight is suggested. This method is useful for both engineering and economic viewpoints. 59 KEYWORDS: air foam, cement, compressive strength, fly ash, lightweight material, unit 60 weight 61 62

<sup>63</sup> 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Professor and Chair, School of Civil Engineering, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand (Corresponding author)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> M.Eng. Scholar, School of Civil Engineering, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ph.D. Scholar, School of Civil Engineering, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, China

### 64 1. INTRODUCTION

65 When infrastructures such as road embankments and bridge foundations are 66 constructed on soft soil deposits, several geotechnical engineering problems are encountered. 67 These deposits tend to consolidate and undergo large vertical settlement and lateral deformation during and after construction due to incumbent loads. The problems are 68 69 moreover related to short-term and long-term stability when an unexpected loading (e.g. earthquake) is imposed on the structures and soft ground system. To solve these problems, the 70 71 improvement of soft ground by deep mixing technique is commonly applied around the world, including Thailand (Arulrajah et al., 2009; Chai and Pongsivasathit, 2010; and 72 Horpibulsuk et al., 2004c; 2011b; 2012c). The mechanical behavior of cement admixed clays 73 74 were extensively investigated by Terashi et al. (1979 and 1980); Kawasaki et al. (1981); 75 Kamon and Bergado, (1992); Horpibulsuk et al. (2004a and b, 2010); and Suebsuk et al., 76 (2010 and 2011); etc. Instead of improving the soft ground (foundation), the use of lightweight cemented materials with unit weight of 8 to 12 kN/m<sup>3</sup> and moderate to high 77 78 strength as a backfill material to reduce the weight of the structure on the soft clay is an effective alternative means. Lightweight materials have wide applications in the infrastructure 79 rehabilitation and in the construction of new facilities. 80

81 The advantage of the lightweight cemented clay is cost-effective in terms of 82 construction time, material and transportation. This material does not require compaction and 83 saves the transportation cost of the suitable granular backfill material from distant sources. 84 With time, strength, stiffness and Poisson's ratio of lightweight cemented clay increase; hence, the resistance to lateral movement. The lightweight cemented clay has been 85 extensively used for highway and port construction in many countries such as Japan and 86 87 Thailand (Tsuchida et al., 2001; Satoh et al., 2001; Hayashi et al., 2002; Otani et al., 2002; Jamnongpipatkul, et al., 2009; and Kikuchi et al., 2011). Recently, the unit weight, strength 88

67

and compressibility characteristics of lightweight cemented clay have been studied
extensively by Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b). Based on the phase diagram, the unit weight (in
kN/m<sup>3</sup>) was proposed in terms of water content, cement content and void/cement ratio by the
following equation:

93 
$$\gamma = \frac{\left(\frac{G_c G_s \gamma_w^2(1+w)}{C} + G_c \gamma_w\right)}{\left(\frac{G_c \gamma_w}{C} + 1\right)} - \left(V/C\right) \left(\frac{G_s \gamma_w(1+w)}{\frac{G_c \gamma_w}{C} + 1}\right)$$
(1)

where *w* is water content (decimal),  $G_c$ ,  $G_s$  are the specific gravity of cement and soil, respectively,  $\gamma_w$  is unit weight of water (kN/m<sup>3</sup>), *C* is cement content (kg/m<sup>3</sup>) and *V/C* is the void/cement ratio, which is the volume of void to the volume of cement in the mix. The theoretical derivation of the equation is referred to Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b). The equation was developed based on the assumption that all air bubbles (air foam) enter into the pore space when mixed with cement and clay.

100 To reduce the construction cost of the lightweight cemented clay, the replacement of 101 cement by waste materials such as fly ash and biomass ash is one of the best alternative ways. Application of fly ash for geotechnical works has been reported by many researchers 102 103 (Kawasaki et al., 1981; and Kehew, 1995). The role of fly ash on the strength development in 104 the blended cement admixed clay has been investigated both from micro- and micro 105 observations (Horpibulsuk et al., 2009). Fly ash disperses large clay-cement clusters formed 106 due to physicochemical interaction into smaller clusters. The dispersion leads to the increase 107 in the reactive surface, and hence strength enhancement.

Even though there are available studies on the engineering properties of lightweight cemented clay, the study on the effect of blended cement (cement and fly ash) on the unit weight and strength is so far very limited. This article aims to illustrate the role of fly ash, on the improvement of the soil index properties and hence unit weight and strength

improvement. The applicability of Eq.(1) to predict the unit weight of lightweight cement clay for different mix proportions is depicted. Discussion on effects of water content and air content on the unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay for different cement contents is made. Finally, a suggested method for mix design of the lightweight cemented clay is introduced based on a critical analysis of the test results.

117

### 118 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

119 2.1 Soil Sample

120 Bangkok clay was collected from Bangkok Noi district, Bangkok, Thailand at a 3 meter depth. Bangkok clay was composed of 2% sand, 39% silt and 55% clay. The natural 121 122 water content was 78% and the specific gravity was 2.64. The liquid and plastic limits were 123 73% and 31%, respectively. Based on the Unified Soil Classification System (USCS), the clay 124 was classified as inorganic clay of high plasticity (CH). Groundwater was had a depth of 125 about 1.0 m from surface. The clay was classified as low swelling type with free swell ratio 126 (FSR) of 1.1. The FSR is defined as the ratio of equilibrium sediment volume of 10 g of ovendried soil passing a 425 mm sieve in distilled water  $(V_d)$  to that in kerosene  $(V_k)$  (Prakash and 127 128 Sridharan, 2004). This method was employed since it is simple and predicts the dominant clay mineralogy of soil satisfactorily (Horpibulsuk et al., 2007). 129

130

#### 131 2.2 Cement, fly ash and air foam agent

Type I Portland cement (PC), fly ash (FA) from Mae Moh power plant in the north of Thailand and air foam agent, Darex AE4, provided by the Grace Construction Products Ltd, were used in this study. The specific gravity of PC is 3.15 and the median particle size ( $D_{50}$ ) is 0.01 mm (10 micron). The air foam agent is a blend of anionic surfactants and foam stabilizers. It is a liquid air entraining agent for use in all types of mortar, concrete and

5

137 cementitious material. Total amount of the major components SiO<sub>2</sub>, Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, and Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in FA 138 are 79.44%. FA is classified as class F fly ash in accordance with ASTM C 618. The  $D_{50}$  of 139 FA is 0.009 mm (9 micron) and the specific gravity is 2.54.

140

141 2.3 Methodology

142 The clay paste was passed through 2-mm sieve for removal of shell pieces and other 143 bigger size particles, if present. The water content was adjusted to (1.5-3) times liquid limit as 144 recommended by Horpibulsuk et al. (2012b). The lower water content possesses high viscosity and resists the air bubble entry into the pore space. The clay was replaced by the fly 145 ash with the replacement ratios of 0, 40, 50, 60, and 80% and mixed with air foam. The air 146 147 contents, A<sub>c</sub>, were varied between 10 and 100% by volume of the clay-water-air mixture. The 148 clay-water-air-fly ash mixture was then thoroughly mixed with cement for 10 min. The 149 cement content, C, was varied from 10 to 40% by weight of dry mixed soil (clay and FA). 150 Such a uniform paste was transferred to cylindrical containers of 50 mm diameter and 100 151 mm height, taking care to prevent any air entrapment. After 24 hours, the cylindrical samples 152 were dismantled. All the cylindrical samples were wrapped in vinyl bags and were stored in a humidity room of constant temperature (20±2°C) until lapse of different curing times as 153 planned. Unit weights and unconfined compressive strengths of the samples were measured 154 155 after 7 days of curing. The rate of vertical displacement in UC tests was 1 mm/min. The tests 156 were performed according to the American Society of Testing and Materials (ASTM) 157 standards.

158

#### 159 **3. RESULTS**

Fly ash and soil are particulate materials, which are composed of individual units. Theparticulate materials can be regarded as either non-interacting or interacting materials,

dependent upon the absence or presence of physicochemical interactions with the pore fluid. 162 163 Fly ash, silt, and sand are non-interacting materials, primarily due to their low specific surface 164 and non-electrical nature of surfaces. The replacement of the fly ash thus affects consistency 165 limits of the clay. Figure 1 shows the change of the consistency limits with the replacement ratio. The liquid limit of the mixed clay reduces gradually with FA replacement when the FA 166 167 replacement is less than 50% and the reduction in liquid limit becomes remarkable when the 168 FA replacement is greater than 50%. The plastic limit changes insignificantly with the range 169 of FA replacement tested. As such, the reduction in the plasticity index is clearly observed at 170 about 50% FA replacement. This FA replacement is regarded as FA fixation point.

171 Effects of water content, cement content and air content on the unit weight are 172 illustrated in Figure 2 for 40% FA replacement. The unit weight increases slightly with 173 increasing cement content for all input air contents at a given water content because the 174 cement possesses higher specific gravity than the clay. The air content decreases significantly 175 the unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay. The decrease rate is almost the same for different water contents. For instance, the unit weights decrease from 15.8 kN/m<sup>3</sup> to 14.2 176 kN/m3 for water content of 100% and from 13.5 kN/m3 to 11.8 kN/m3 for water content of 177 178 200% when the air content increases from 0 to 100%. The water content also plays a 179 significant role on the reduction in unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay. For all air 180 contents, the unit weight decreases significantly with increasing the water content. The 181 change in unit weight with cement content, air content and water content can be predicted by 182 Eq. (1) as shown by the dashed lines. In the prediction,  $G_s$  was taken as the specific gravity of 183 the mixed clay (clay and fly ash). The predicted unit weights are slightly lower than the 184 measured ones because all the air foams cannot enter into the pore space due to the viscosity 185 of the clay.

186 Figure 3 shows the influence of the water content, cement content and air content on 187 the strength for 40% FA replacement. As expected, for a given water content and air content, 188 the strength increases significantly with cement content. On the other hands, the strength 189 decreases remarkably with the increase in water content and air content, which increases the 190 pore space among the clay clusters (decreases cement per contact area) (Miura et al., 2001; Horpibulsuk et al., 2003, 2005, 2011a and 2012a). It is of interest to note that the reduction in 191 192 the strength due to the increase in air content (from 0 to 100%) is remarkably less than that 193 due to the increase in water content (compare Figure 3a to 3c).

194

#### 195 4. DISCUSSIONS

196 The FA replacement higher than the FA fixation point modifies the clay fabric by increasing the non-interacting material. The liquid limit and plasticity index decrease with 197 198 increasing the FA replacement. The generalized stress state, w/wL, can be used to illustrate the role of fly ash on the strength development where w is the clay water content and  $w_L$  is liquid 199 200 limit water content. The w/wL was successfully used to assess the engineering properties of remolded and natural clays (Horpibulsuk et al., 2007 and 2011c). Liquid limits of clays have 201 202 the same order of pore water suction (5 - 6 kPa) (Russell and Mickle, 1970; Wroth and 203 Wood, 1978; and Whyte, 1982). Under this state, most clays exhibit hydraulic conductivity of the same order of 10<sup>-7</sup> cm/sec (Nagaraj et al., 1993 and Horpibulsuk et al., 2007) and the 204 205 undrained shear strength of about 1.7 - 2.5 kPa (Wroth and Wood, 1978; and Whyte, 1982). 206 Different clays at the same  $w/w_L$  have practically the same effective stress and shear 207 resistance. As the  $w/w_L$  decreases, both the effective stress and shear resistance increase (Horpibulsuk et al., 2011c). 208

209 Figure 4 shows the role of FA replacement on the strength of the lightweight cemented 210 clay at the same generalized stress state,  $w/w_L$  of 3 and cement content of 15%. At this

211 generalized stress state, the mixed clay samples have essentially the same workability (shear 212 resistance), even though their water contents are different. The strength increases gradually 213 with FA replacement. Beyond the FA fixation point, the strength increases remarkably. 214 Because the w<sub>L</sub> values slightly decrease for the mixed clay samples with the FA replacement 215 less than the FA fixation point (Figure 1), the water contents at this stress state decrease 216 slightly with FA replacement and hence insignificant strength development. The same is not 217 true for the mixed clay with higher FA replacement, the  $w_L$  values reduce significantly. Thus, 218 the strength development is remarkable with increasing the FA replacement. The unit weight 219 of the lightweight cemented clay is governed by both the water content and specific gravity 220 for a particular cement content. Figure 5 shows the relationships between unit weight and FA 221 replacement of the lightweight cemented clay at the same  $w/w_L$  of 3 and cement content of 15%. The unit weight decreases with increasing the FA replacement even though the water 222 content decreases. This means that the low specific gravity of FA plays greater role on the 223 224 reduction in unit weight. From Figure 4 and 5, it is of interest to mention that the advantage of 225 FA replacement is the increase in workability and strength; and the decrease in unit weight. However, the FA replacement of less than FA fixation point is useless. 226 227 The reduction in unit weight by both increasing water content and air content is 228 generally associated with the reduction in strength. The advantage of adding air foam over 229 adding water to make the lightweight cemented clay in terms of strength development is 230 illustrated in Figure 6. It shows the relationships between strength and unit weight of 231 lightweight cemented samples for different water contents and air contents but the same input 232 of cement. For a same range of unit weight, the lightweight cemented samples with lower 233 water content but higher air content have higher strength than those with higher water content 234 but lower air content. For example, at unit weight of 15 kN/m<sup>3</sup>, the strengths are 25 kPa, 50 235 kPa and 210 kPa for 198%, 132 and 99%, respectively.

	10
236	Based on the concrete technology (Abrams' 1918), the strength of cemented material
237	is governed by the ratio of cement to water. As an analogy, the parameter that can be
238	identified for cemented clays is cement/clay-water ratio, $C/w$ (Miura et al., 2001;
239	Horpibulsuk et al., 2003, 2005, 2011a, b and 2012a), which is the ratio of cement content (%)
240	to initial clay water content (%). The cement content, $C$ , is the ratio of cement to clay by
241	weight both reckoned in their dry state. The relationships between strength and $C/w$ for $w/w_L$
242	= 1.5-3.0 can be represented by linear function (Figure 7) for different air contents. For the
243	same $C/w$ , the strength decreases as the air content increases due to the increase in
244	cementitious products per contact areas. Using these linear relationships, the strength of the
245	lightweight cemented clay at different water contents and cement contents for a design air
246	content can be approximated based on few trial tests. The unit weight of the lightweight
247	cement clay can then estimated from Eq. (1). Based on the laboratory investigation, a mix
248	design procedure to arrive at the target strength and unit weight is suggested and presented by
249	the following steps:
250	1. Determine the FA content to be mixed with a moist clay. FA content should be
251	greater than FA fixation point. The FA fixation point can be simply obtained from
252	the index test. De la gin a gi
253	2. Adjust the clay water content to a range of $w/w_L = 1.5$ to 3.0.
254	3. Conduct trail unconfined compression tests on the lightweight cemented samples
255	with different water contents, cement contents and air contents.
256	4. Develop the relationship between strength and $C/w$ for different air contents.
257	5. From the target strength, determine the required $C/w$ and air content.
258	6. For a selected air content, adjust water content and cement content to attain the
259	target unit weight using Eq.(1).
260	

#### 261 6. CONCLUSIONS

262 The role of water content, cement content, air content and replacement ratio on the 263 unit weight and strength of the lightweight cemented clay is illustrated in this article. The FA 264 replacement slightly decreases liquid limit when FA replacement is less than FA fixation 265 point. Beyond this value, the liquid limit reduces significantly. Because the FA fixation point 266 is simply obtained from the index test, it is a practical indicator to determine the minimum FA 267 replacement. The addition of air foam to the moist clay is more advantage than that of water 268 in terms of strength. For the same unit weight, the strength of a sample with a high air content 269 is higher than that with a high water content. Eq. (1) was proved as suitable for predicting the unit weight of the lightweight cemented clay with different water contents, cement contents 270 271 and air contents. Based on the Abrams' law, a relationship between strength and cement/clay-272 water ratio for a particular air content is proposed. The relationship is useful in estimating the 273 laboratory strength wherein water content and cement content vary over a wide range by few 274 trial tests. It also facilitates the determination of proper quantity of cement to be admixed for 275 different air contents to attain the target strength. Finally, a mix design procedure to arrive at the target strength and unit weight is suggested 276

277

### ้<sup>ทยา</sup>ลัยเทคโนโลยีสรี 278 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

279 This work was supported by the SUT research and development fund. The financial 280 support that was provided by the Higher Education Research Promotion and National 281 Research University Project of Thailand, Office of Higher Education Commission is also 282 appreciated.

283

#### REFERENCES 284

Abrams D.A. 1918. Design of Concrete Mixtures. In: Structural Materials Research 285 286 Laboratory, Lewis Institute, Chicago, Bulletin 1, 20p.

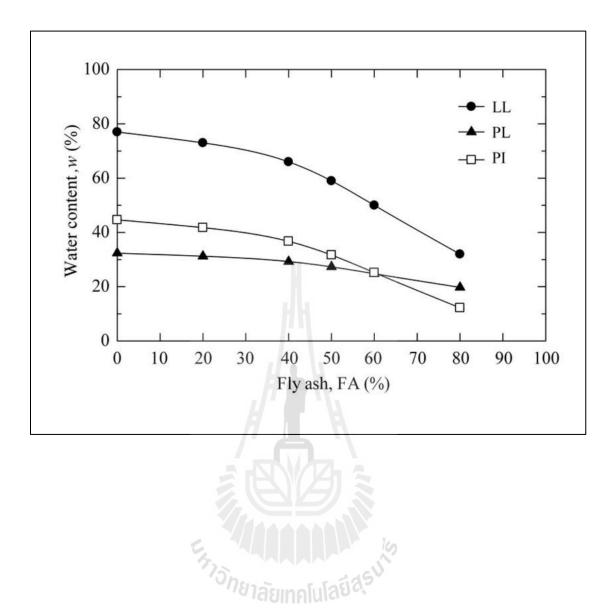
Arulrajah, A., Abdullah, A., Bo, M.W. and Bouazza, A. 2009. Ground improvement 287 288 techniques for railway embankments. Ground Improvement 162 (1), 3-14. Butterfield, R., 1979. A natural compression law for soils (an advance on e-log p'). 289 290 Geotechnique 29 (4), 469-480. 291 Chai, J.C. and Pongsivasathit, S. 2010. A method for predicting consolidation settlements of 292 floating column improved clayey subsoil. Front. Archit. Civ. Eng. 4 (2), 241-251. Chinkulkijniwat, A. and Horpibulsuk, S. 2012. Field strength development of repaired 293 294 pavement using the recycling technique. Quarterly Journal of Engineering Geology and Hydrogeology 45 (2), 221-229. 295 296 Hayashi, Y., Suzuki, A. and Matsuo, A., 2002. Mechanical properties of air-cement-treated 297 soils. Ground Improvement 6 (1), 69-78. 298 Horpibulsuk, S., Bergado, D.T. and Lorenzo, G.A., 2004a. Compressibility of cement 299 admixed clays at high water content. Geotechnique 54 (2), 151-154 300 Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N. and Bergado, D.T., 2004b. Undrained shear behavior of cement 301 admixed clay at high water content. Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental 302 Engineering ASCE 130 (10), 1096-1105. 303 Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N. and Nagaraj, T.S., 2003. Assessment of strength development in 304 cement-admixed high water content clays with Abrams' law as a basis. Geotechnique 53 305 (4), 439-444. Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N. and Nagaraj, T.S., 2005. Clay-water/cement ratio identity of 306 307 cement admixed soft clay. Journal of Geotechnical and Geoenvironmental Engineering 308 ASCE 131 (2), 187-192. 309 Horpibulsuk, S., Rachan R. and Raksachon, Y., 2009. Role of fly ash on strength and 310 microstructure development in blended cement stabilized silty clay. Soils and 311 Foundations 49 (1), 85-98. 312 Horpibulsuk, S., Rachan, R. and Suddeepong, A., 2011a, Assessment of strength development 313 in blended cement admixed Bangkok clay. Construction and Building Materials 25 (4), 314 1521-1531. 315 Horpibulsuk, S., Liu, M.D., Liyanapathirana, D.S. and Suebsuk, J., 2010. Behavior of 316 cemented clay simulated via the theoretical framework of the Structured Cam Clay 317 model. Computers and Geotechnics 37, 1-9. 318 Horpibulsuk, S., Miura, N., Koga, H. and Nagaraj, T.S. 2004c. Analysis of strength 319 development in deep mixing - a field study. Ground Improvement 8 (2), 59-68.

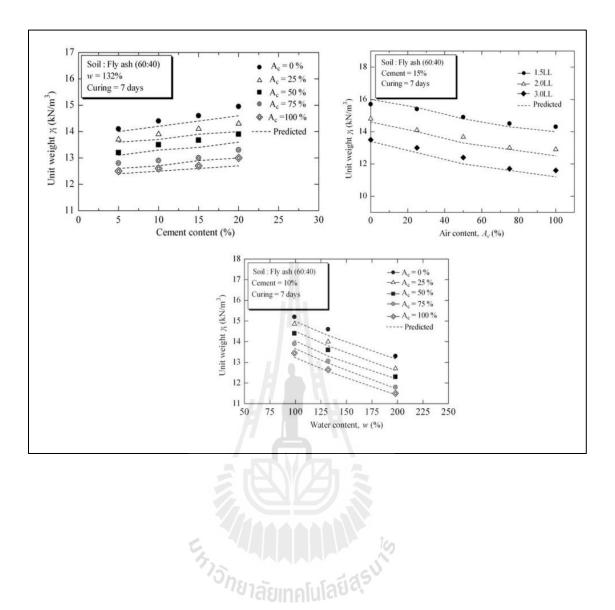
12

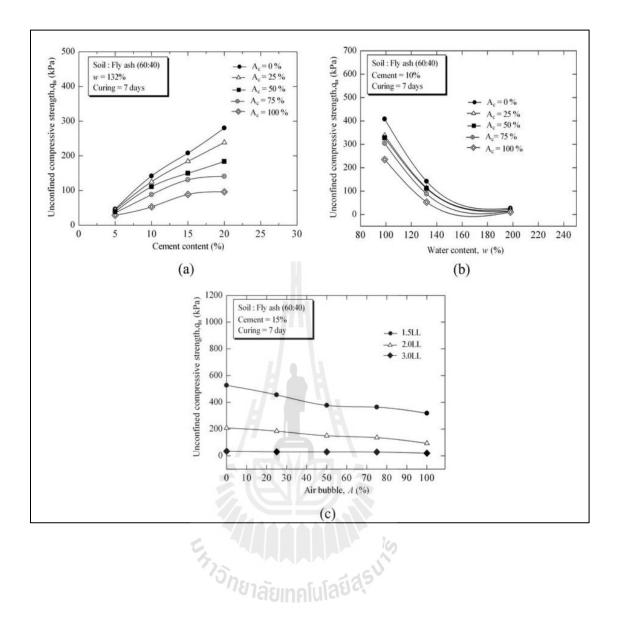
320 Horpibulsuk, S., Phojan, W., Chinkulkijniwat, A., and Liu, M.D., 2012a. Strength 321 development in blended cement admixed saline clay. Applied Clay Science 55, 44-52. 322 Horpibulsuk, S., Rachan, R., Suddeepong, A. and Chinkulkijniwat, A., 2011b. Strength 323 development in cement admixed Bangkok clay: laboratory and field investigations. 324 Soils and Foundations 51 (2), 239-251. 325 Horpibulsuk S, Shibuya S, Fuenkajorn K, and Katkan W., 2007. Assessment of engineering 326 properties of Bangkok clay. Canadian Geotechnical Journal 44 (2), 173-187. Horpibulsuk, S., Suddeepong, A., Chinkulkijniwat, A., and Liu, M.D., 2012b. Strength and 327 328 compressibility of lightweight cemented clays. Applied Clay Science (in press). Horpibulsuk, S., Yangsukaseam, N., Chinkulkijniwat, A., and Du, Y.J., 2011c. 329 Compressibility and permeability of Bangkok clay compared with kaolinite and 330 331 bentonite. Applied Clay Science 52, 150-159. 332 Horpibulsuk, S., Chinkulkijniwat, A., Cholphatsorn, A., Suebsuk, J., and Liu, M.D. 2012c. 333 Consolidation behavior of soil cement column improved ground. Computers and 334 Geotechnics 43, 37-50. 335 Jamnongpipatkul, P., Dechasakulsom, M, and Sukolrat, J., 2009. Application of air-foam stabilized soil for bridge-embankment transition zone in Thailand. GeoHuman 336 337 International Conference, Geotechnical Special Publication No.190, pp.181-193. Kamon, M. and Bergado, D.T., 1992. Ground improvement techniques. Proceedings of 9th 338 339 Asian Regional Conference on Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering. Vol.2, 340 pp.526-546. 341 Kawasaki, T., Niina, A., Saitoh, S., Suzuki, Y. and Honjo, Y., 1981. Deep mixing method 342 using cement hardening agent. Proceedings of 10th International Conference on Soil 343 Mechanics and Foundation Engineering. Stockholm, pp.721-724. Kehew EA. 1995. Geology for Engineers and Environmental Scientists, 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed. Prentice Hall 344 345 Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey; p.295-302. 346 Kikuchi, Y., Nagatome, T., Mizutani, T., and Yoshio, H., 2011. The effect of air foam 347 inclusion on the permeability and absorption of light weight soil. Soils and Foundations 348 51 (1), 151-165. 349 Miura, N., Horpibulsuk, S. and Nagaraj, T.S., 2001. Engineering behavior of cement 350 stabilized clay at high water content. Soils and Foundations 41 (5), 33-45. 351 Nagaraj, T.S., Pandian, N.S. and Narasimha Raju, P.S.R., 1993. Stress state-permeability 352 relationships for fine-grained soils. Geotechnique 43 (2), 333-336.

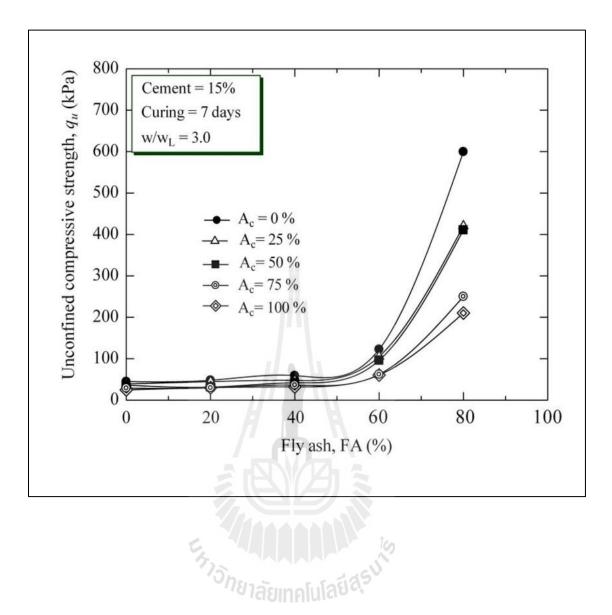
14 353 Otani, J., Mukunoki, T. and Kikuchi, Y., 2002. Visualization for engineering property of in-354 situ lightweight soils with air foams. Soils and Foundations 42 (3), 93-105. 355 Prakash, K. and Sridharan, A., 2004. Free swell ratio and clay mineralogy of fine-grained soils. Geotechnical Testing Journal ASTM 27 (2), 220-225. 356 Russell, E.R. and Mickle, J.L., 1970. Liquid limit values of soil moisture tension. Journal of 357 358 Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering Division ASCE 96, 967-987. 359 Satoh, T., Tsuchida, T., Mitsukuri, K. and Hong, Z., 2001. Field placing test of lightweight 360 treated soil under seawater in Kumamoto port. Soils and Foundations 41 (4), 145-154. 361 Suebsuk, J., Horpibulsuk, S. and Liu, M.D., 2010. Modified Structured Cam Clay: A 362 constitutive model for destructured, naturally structured and artificially structured clays. 363 Computers and Geotechnics 37, 956-968. 364 Suebsuk, J., Horpibulsuk, S. and Liu, M.D., 2011. A critical state model for overconsolidated 365 structured clays. Computers and Geotechnics 38, 648-658. Tsuchida, T., Porbaha, A. and Yamane, N., 2001. Development of a geomaterial from dredge 366 367 bay mud. Journal of Material in Civil Engineering ASCE 13 (2), 152-160. Terashi, M., Tanaka, H. and Okumura, T., 1979. Engineering properties of lime treated 368 marine soils and DMM. Proceedings of 6th Asian Regional Conference on Soil 369 370 Mechanics and Foundation Engineering, Vol. 1, pp. 191-194. 371 Terashi, M., Tanaka, H., Mitsumoto, T., Niidome, Y., and Honma, S., 1980. Fundamental of 372 lime and cement treated soils. Report of Port and Harbour Research Institute, Vol. 19, 373 No. 1, pp. 33-62 (in Japanese). 374 Whyte, I.L., 1982. Soil plasticity and strength - a new approach using extrusion. Ground Engineering 15 (1), 16-24. 375 Wroth, C.P. and Wood, D.W., 1978. The correlation of index properties with some basic 376 377 engineering properties of soils. Canadian Geotechnical Journal 15 (2), 137-145. 378 379 380 381 382 383 384 385 386

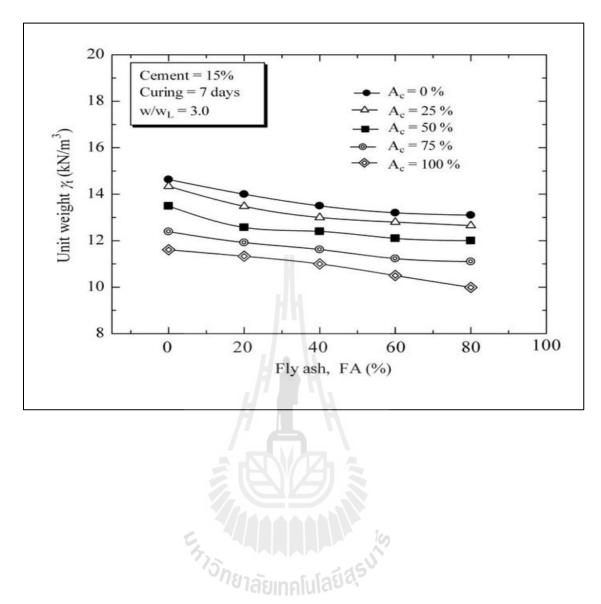
	15	
387	Figure Captions	
388	Figure 1: Relationship between index properties and FA replacement.	
389	Figure 2: Effects of cement content, air content and water content on unit weight of	
390	lightweight cemented clay.	
391	Figure 3: Effects of cement content, air content and water content on strength of lightweight	
392	cemented clay.	
393	Figure 4: Relationship between strength and FA replacement of lightweight cemented clay	
394	samples with the same $w/w_L$ of 3 and cement content of 15%.	
395	Figure 5: Relationship between unit weight and FA replacement of lightweight cemented clay	
396	samples with the same $w/w_L$ of 3 and cement content of 15%.	
397	Figure 6: Relationship between strength and unit weight of lightweight cemented clay	
398	samples with different water contents for the same cement content and replacement ratio.	
399	Figure 7: Strength development with cement/clay-water ratio.	
400		
401		
402		
403		
404		
405		
406		
407	ร <sub>ักวอั</sub> กยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุร <sup>ม</sup> ั้ง	
408	John - criasu	
409	<sup>(12)</sup> ลยเทคโนโลย <sup>เน</sup>	
410		
411		
412		
413		
414 415		
415		
410		
417		
/10		
419 420		
419 420		

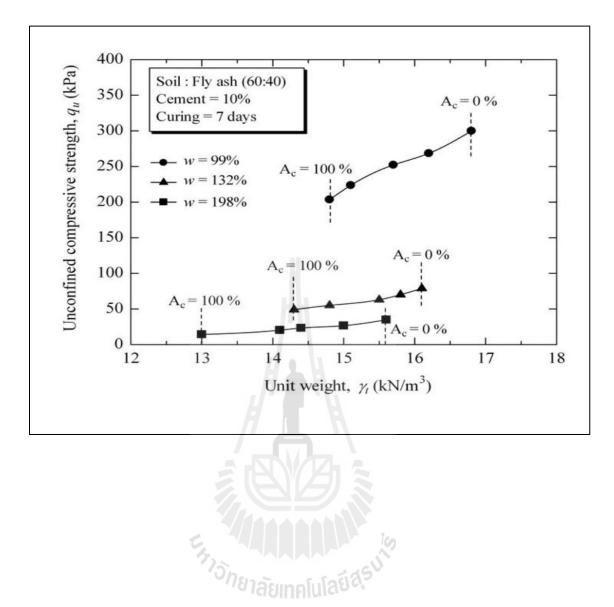


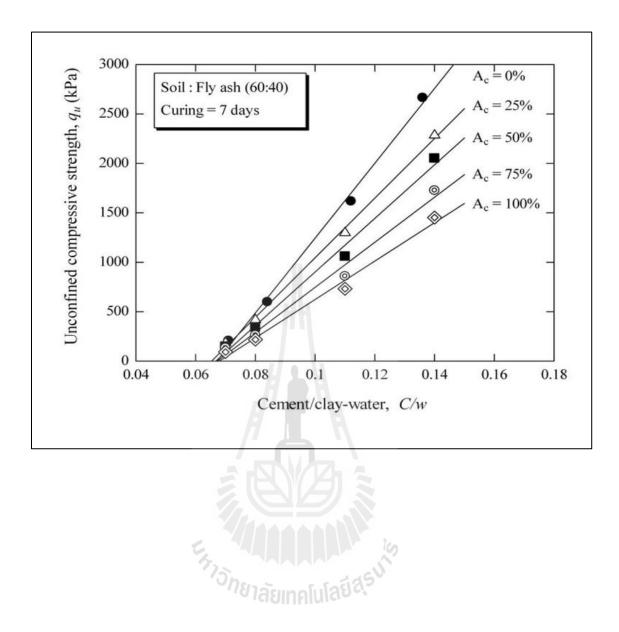












## BIOGRAPHY

Mr. Apirat Wijitchot was born on September 11, 1985 in Ratchaburi Province, Thailand. He received his Bachelor's Degree in Engineering (Civil Engineering) from Suranaree University of Technology in 2007. After graduation, he continued with his graduate studies in Geotechnical Engineering Program, Institute of Engineering, Suranaree University of Technology.

