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13

14 Abstract

Considering the extensive use of plasticity-based correlations in geotechnical practice to estimate 15 soil parameters, this paper evaluates the influence of pore fluid salinity and soil drying on the 16 plasticity of Ballina clay, a estuarine soft clay from northern New South Wales (Australia). A 17 18 comprehensive experimental study which includes controlled leaching/salinisation paths applied to natural (remoulded) as well as oven-dried clay prior to the estimation of the Atterberg limits is 19 20 presented. Plasticity tests are complemented with chemical analysis of the pore fluid carried out 21 to evaluate the processes involved in the leaching/salinisation mechanisms for remoulded and oven-dried clay. Strong dependency of liquid limit on pore fluid salinity and oven-drying are 22 23 observed in Ballina clay. Leaching modifies the soil fabric from an initially saline-sodic flocculated 24 towards a normal flocculated arrangement. The experimental results show that changes in soil 25 plasticity upon leaching are largely reversible upon salinisation paths. Oven-drying promotes the stacking of clay minerals (aggregation) which in turn reduces the water absorption capacity of the 26 clay. The consequences of neglecting both salinity and drying effects in practice when adopting 27 well-established relationships between mechanical parameters and soil plasticity are also briefly 28 discussed. 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36

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39	Notation
40	LL: liquid Imit
41	PL: plastic limit
42	PI: plasticity index
43	PSD: particle size distribution
44	w: gravimetric water content
45	W _{fluid} : fluid content
46	r: salinity
47	EC _{fluid} : electrical conductivity of the pore fluid
48	EC _{bulk} : electrical conductivity of bulk's soil
49	SEM: Scanning Electron Microscopy
50	SAR: solution adsorption ratio
51	I: solution ionic strength
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76 **1. Introduction**

77 Several engineering problems such as NAPL soil contamination, rainfall driven erosion, salt water 78 intrusion due to sea level rise and salt leaching are associated with changes in pore fluid 79 chemistry. A classical example related to marine soft soils is the formation of sensitive and 'quick' 80 clays in Scandinavia due to salt leaching by fresh water (e.g. Rosenguivst, 1953; Bjerrum, 1954, 1967; Torrance, 1974). The large increase in sensitivity in those soils is mainly caused by the 81 reduction in the remoulded shear strength, a phenomenon associated with the development of a 82 meta-stable microstructure (e.g. Rosentqvist, 1953). A direct consequence of salt leaching is the 83 change in soil plasticity. Apart from those early studies on sensitive clays from Scandinavia, most 84 85 of the available literature has been devoted to the behaviour of pure clays or artificial mixtures (e.g. Ohtsubo et al., 1985; Sridharan et al., 1989; Di Maio, 1996; Di Maio et al, 2004; Palomino 86 and Santamarina, 2005; Calvello et al., 2005; Jang and Santamarina, 2016; Musso et al., 2023). 87 88 Those studies have shown that liquid limit reduces with the increase in salt concentration, and 89 this effect is small for illite, moderate for kaolinite and significant in bentonites. The opposite trend 90 is reported for natural non-expansive soft clays, i.e. the liquid limit increases with pore fluid salinity 91 (e.g. Musso et al., 2023). The magnitude of this change seems to be controlled by the mineralogical composition of the natural soil. Nevertheless, a strong decrease in liquid limit has 92 93 been reported in soils exposed to drying prior to testing, leading to misleading soil's clasification. 94 This phenomenon, which appears to be strongly soil-dependent, is attributed to several factors 95 like the presence of organic matter (e.g., Hight et al., 1992), halloysite minerals (e.g. Herrera et 96 al., 2007; Wesley, 2010; Jang and Santamarina, 2016) as well as to irreversible changes in soil 97 microstructure due to soil aggregation (e.g., Rao et al., 1989; Pandian et al., 1991).

98

Natural soft soils deposits of Quaternary age are commonly found along Australian coastlines 99 100 (e.g., Low et al., 2011; Pineda et al., 2016). These deposits, sedimented under marine conditions, serve as foundation soil for most of the onshore country's transport and energy infrastructure. 101 Their mineralogical composition is complex, including non-active minerals (kaolinite and illite), 102 103 interstratified minerals (illite/smective or illite-bearing smectite) (Pineda et al., 2016) and, in some cases, active minerals (smectite) (Low et al., 2011). An important feature of these soils is the 104 influence of oven-drying on soil plasticity. Results obtained by Kelly et al. (2013) and Pineda et 105 106 al. (2013, 2016) on Ballina clay, a soft clay from northern New South Wales, demonstrate a reduction in liquid limit of 30% – 40% when the soil is dried prior to testing. Although this behaviour 107 was assumed to be the result of the organics present in the natural soil (1-3%), such a mechanism 108 109 has not yet been verified.

110

111 Considering the extensive use of plasticity-based correlations in geotechnical practice to obtain 112 soil parameters (e.g. Wroth and Muir Wood, 1978; Carrier and Beckham, 1984; Carrier, 1985; 113 Chandler, 1988; Muir Wood, 1990; Terzaghi et al., 1996; ASTM, 2005), this paper evaluates the 114 influence of pore fluid salinity and oven-drying on soil plasticity for an Australian estuarine soft 115 clay. A comprehensive experimental study is presented, which includes controlled 116 leaching/salinisation paths applied to natural (remoulded) and oven-dried clay prior assessing 117 soil plasticity. Chemical analysis of the pore water is used to study the pore fluid chemical 118 changes due to leaching/salinisation for remoulded and oven-dried clay. The consequences of

- 119 neglecting the effects of pore fluid composition and oven-drying in practice are also discussed.
- 120

121 **2. Materials**

122 The soil tested is Ballina clay, an estuarine soft clay encountered at the National Soft Soil Testing Facility NFTF (Kelly et al., 2017; Pineda et al., 2019) located in the town of Ballina, northern New 123 South Wales, Australia. Detailed in situ and laboratory characterisation studies were carried out 124 125 after the establishment of the NFTF in 2013 (Pineda et al., 2016; Kelly et al., 2017). As observed 126 in Fig. 1, the natural water content increases with depth from 20% ($z \approx 1$ m) up to 120% (z > 7127 m). The liquid limit LL is typically 10-15% higher than the natural water content whereas the plastic limit PL ranges between 20-53%. Natural dry density reduces from 1.50 Mg/m³ at ground surface 128 129 to 0.70 Mg/m³ at 4.5 m depth. However, minor changes are noticed between 3 m and 11 m. 130 Despite the differences in sand content (column PSD, Particle Size Distribution) observed above 131 2 m, the clay fraction is predominant up to 11 m depth, with maximum values around 82%. Soils at Ballina site are composed of amorphous minerals, kaolinite, illite, quartz, interstratified 132 illite/smectite, plagioclase, pyrite, K-feldspar, mica and calcite. Sodium (0.93-8.23 g/L) and 133 chloride (2.5–15.4 g/L) are the most abundant cations and anions in the pore fluid whereas the 134 alkalinity of the pore water lies between 0.6-2.2 g/L of CaCO₃. The bulk electrical conductivity 135 EC_{bulk} increases with depth from 4 to 15 mS/cm whereas the pore fluid conductivity EC_{fluid} 136 137 increases from 7 up to 36 mS/cm (average value below 5 m). This corresponds to salt concentrations between 4-23.5 g/L. The presence of salts during soil deposition promoted a 138 porous fabric composed by aggregates separated by large voids. Four soil layers can be identified 139 140 in the upper 13 m (see Fig. 1) (Pineda et al., 2019). Layer 1 is a silty-sand alluvial crust. Layers 2 and 3 comprises the upper and lower estuarine silty clay (hereafter Ballina clay). Layer 4 is the 141 silty-sand transition layer which overlies a sand layer and a deeper stiff clay layer. 142

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The soil used in the experiments described below was obtained from high-quality block samples retrieved with the Sherbrooke sampler between 6.0-7.8 m depth. At this level, natural water content ranges between 110–122% whereas clay, silt and sand contents vary between 79-81%, 18-20% and 0-2%, respectively. The soil classifies as clay of extremely high plasticity with soil activity around 1. The organic content at this depth ranges around 1.8%. Tables 1 and 2 summarise the mineralogical composition and the geochemical results reported by Pineda et al.

150 (2016).





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 Table 1. XRD analysis for natural specimens (Pineda et al., 2016)

from Pineda et al., 2016)

Depth (m)	Amorphous (%)	Quartz (%)	Plagioclase (%)	K-feldspar (%)	Calcite (%)	Pyrite	Kaolinite (%)	Mica	Illite (%)	Illite/smectite (%)
5.4	15.2	8.8	7.7	3.1	0	5.2	19.3	2.1	23.16	15.44
7.5	18.9	17.3	5	2.8	1	2.7	19.8	2.1	16.2	13.8

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Table 2. lons in pore fluid for natural specimens (Pineda et al., 2016)

Depth	Ca⁺⁺	Mg ⁺⁺	K⁺	Na⁺	Cl	Br⁻	S ₂ -
(m)	(g/l)	(g/l)	(g/l)	(g/l)	(g/l)	(g/l)	(g/l)
7.2	0.09	1.06	0.22	6.97	12.46	0.05	0.17
7.8	0.09	1.09	0.26	7.63	13.68	0.05	0.15

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160 **3. Experimental procedures**

161 3.1 Fluid content

In soils that contains salts dissolved in the pore fluid, a correction to the gravimetric water content
 must be applied (e.g. Noorany, 1984; Frydman et al., 2008). The corrected water content (or fluid
 content) is then expressed as (Noorany, 1984):

165
$$W_{fluid} = \frac{w}{(1-r) - r * w}$$
 (1)

where w_{fluid} is the fluid content, w is the water gravimetric water content and *r* is the salinity defined as the ratio between the mass of dissolved salts and the total mass of fluid $r = M_{salt} / M_{fluid}$. In this study, synthetic NaCl solutions were used to achieve predetermined salinities. Fig. 2a shows the relationship between NaCl solubility and the electrical conductivity of the pore fluid EC_{fluid} (supernatant) measured in the laboratory. The salinity *r* required in the estimation of the fluid content (Eq. 1) was obtained from Fig. 2b.



172 173

Fig. 2 Salinity and pore fluid conductivity

174 **3.2 Leaching / salinisation tests**

Leaching and salinisation paths were applied to remoulded clay (at natural water content) and oven-dried material (initially mixed with deionized water or saline solutions up to 1.5 times its natural water content) before the estimation of Atterberg limits. Saline solutions were percolated through soil samples by applying a vacuum pressure of 30 kPa, using the experimental setup shown in Fig. 3a. Salt solutions, prepared using the relationships of Fig. 2b, were periodically renewed to avoid changes in the target EC_{fluid}. Percolation continued until equilibrium between 181 the electrical conductivity of the reference solution and the percolated fluid was achieved $(EC_{solution} \approx EC_{fluid})$: up to 15 weeks were required to achieve fully leached conditions. The mass 182 of the percolated fluid was measured during this process and used in the geochemical analyses 183 presented below. Each sample was prepared as follows. After placing remoulded clay or clay 184 powder inside PVC containers, gently vibration in a shaking table for 5 minutes allowed to remove 185 the trapped air from the soil mass. Two layers of geotextile were used as porous filters at top and 186 bottom ends. The salt solution was then poured on top of the specimen, whereas the bottom 187 188 drainage was connected to the vacuum line. Periodic measurements of EC_{fluid} and pH of the percolated fluid were made using an Orion EC (013005MB DuraProbe) electrode and an Orion 189 pH (9165BN) electrode, respectively. 190

191

192 3.3 Atterberg limits tests

193 The liquid limit LL was evaluated using the fall cone apparatus (AS 1289.3.9.1-2002). A standard 194 80 g cone with an apex angle of 30° with a smooth surface was employed. The penetration of the 195 cone measured after 5 seconds was used in the estimation of the LL. The plastic limit PL was 196 estimated using the thread rolling method (AS 1289.3.2.1-2002). In conjunction with LL and PL tests, EC_{bulk}, EC_{fluid} and pH were measured as follows. EC_{bulk} was estimated by inserting a probe 197 with automatic temperature compensation (Field Scout Direct Soil EC Meter; Spectrum 198 199 Technologies, Inc) into the soil mass. The soil was then compressed, under a very slow straincontrolled mode, to squeeze out the 15 cm³ of pore fluid required to measure EC_{fluid}. Finally, the 200 201 pH of the pore fluid was measured.

202

3.4 lon chromatography analysis

Pore water chemistry was evaluated by ion chromatography (IC) analysis using an ICS-5000 ion 204 chromatograph (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Anion analysis was performed via an AS18/AG18 205 206 analytical and guard columns using 30 mM KOH eluent. Cation analysis was done using the 207 CS12/CG12 analytical and guard columns and 23 mM MSA eluent. All ion analysis used 208 suppressed electrochemical detection (conductivity). Ion chromatography calibration standards 209 were prepared from certified anion and cation standard solutions (Thermo Fisher) by dilution with 210 18.2 M Ω /cm DI water. To optimise the ion chromatograph peak separation and resolution, all samples were filtered using 0.45 µm nylon membrane filter (Pall-Life Sciences) and diluted with 211 212 18.2 M Ω /cm DI water.

213

214 4. Experimental program

The influence of pore fluid salinity and oven-drying on soil plasticity was evaluated through six test series summarized in Table 3 and Fig. 3b. Clay specimens were either mixed or percolated with different solutions before evaluating soil's plasticity. In Series 1, which represents the

'natural' conditions, a synthetic solution prepared at *in situ* electrical conductivity (EC_{fluid}=35 218 219 mS/cm) was added to the remoulded clay at its natural water content. The mixture was then 220 mixed, without preliminarily drying the soil. In Series 2, natural clay was mixed with five solutions with conductivities ranging between 0 (deionised water) to 50 mS/cm (sea water). Although 221 changes in pore fluid salinity occurred in Series 2, controlled leaching/salinisation paths were not 222 imposed. An equilibration period of 48 h was allowed to the clay-fluid mixture before estimating 223 LL and PL. Series 3 involved controlled leaching and desalinisation paths to achieve target 224 conductivities. Remoulded specimens were leached from 35 mS/cm to 25 mS/cm, 15 mS/cm, 5 225 mS and 0 mS/cm. Salinisation from 35 mS/cm to 50 mS/cm was also applied in Series 3. To 226 check the reversibility of the leaching-salinisation process on soil plasticity, in Series 4 a large 227 volume of remoulded clay was initially fully leached and then sub-samples were subjected to 228 controlled (re)salinisation to 5, 15, 25 and 50 mS/cm. Series 5 and Series 6 tested oven-dried 229 230 clay. To do so, remoulded clay was first oven-dried at 60°C for 7 days. A large amount of clay 231 powder was then percolated with deionised water in Series 5 until full leaching was achieved. 232 Afterwards, the leached clay was separated in small containers and exposed to controlled resalinisation to 5, 15, 25, 35 and 50 mS/cm. In Series 6, oven-dried clay was mixed (i.e. controlled 233 234 leaching-salinisation not intended) with different synthetic solutions (EC_{fluid}: $0 \rightarrow 50$ mS/cm). In all 235 cases, an equalisation of 48h was allowed to the clay-fluid mixture before estimating the Atterberg 236 limits. Chemical tests performed on leachate fluid provided the basis for understanding the 237 chemical changes occurring during the leaching and salinisation processes described below.

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Table 3 Test series carried out to evaluate salinity and drying effects on soil plasticity

Series	Soil	Comments				
1	Remoulded	Clay mixed with EC _{fluid} = 35* mS/cm				
2	(natural	Clay mixed with EC _{fluid} : 0, 5, 15, 25 and 50 mS/cm				
3	water	Clay leached to 0, 5, 15 and 25 mS/cm. Salinisation to 50 mS/cm				
4	content)	Clay fully leached followed by re-salinisation to 5, 15, 25, 35 and 50 mS/cm				
5	Oven-dried	Clay powder mixed with deionised water until achieving full leaching followed by re-salinisation to 5, 15, 25, 35 and 50 mS/cm				
6	(00 0)	Clay powder mixed with EC _{fluid} : 0, 5, 15, 25, 35 and 50 mS/cm				
* <i>EC_{in situ}</i> = 35 <i>mS/cm</i> .						





Fig. 3 Experimental set up (a) and testing program (b)

244 **5. Results**

245 **5.1 Liquid limit and plastic limit**

Fig. 4 shows the corrected water content (fluid content)-cone penetration plots obtained from the fall cone tests. Results from Series 2, where remoulded clay was mixed with solutions between

248 $0 \rightarrow 50$ mS/cm, plot closer to the results obtained for the natural soil (Series 1). Results for

249 remoulded clay exposed to leaching (Series 3 and 4) are located below the line for natural soil 250 (Series 1). There, the fully leached clay defines the lower boundary. Contrasting results are 251 observed in oven-dried specimens (Series 5 and 6). Interestingly, oven-dried clay exposed to controlled leaching and re-salinisation (Series 5) shows the same behaviour as the remoulded 252 253 clay tested in Series 3 and Series 4. However, the opposite response is observed for oven-dried clay mixed with NaCl solutions (Series 6). The specimen mixed with synthetic sea water (50 254 mS/cm) defines the lower bound for oven-dried clay. The flatter slope of the plots for oven-dried 255 clay in Series 6 indicates a decrease in its water retention capacity. 256

257

258 Fig. 5a shows the fluid content at LL estimated according to Eq. 1, as a function of the measured EC_{fluid}. The LL for natural soil (Series 1) is 132 ± 0.6 % (average from 3 tests). The correction for 259 salt content causes an increase in LL up to values around 139%. Apart from one specimen, the 260 261 LL for remoulded clay mixed with solutions lower than 35 mS/cm (Series 2) shows negligible changes with respect to the natural clay $(133 \pm 1 \%)$. Nevertheless, LL reduces to 125% when 262 the clay is mixed with EC_{fluid}=50 mS/cm. Leaching applied to remoulded clay in Series 3 causes 263 the reduction of LL. However, this reduction occurs at two different rates. For remoulded clay 264 265 leached to EC_{fluid} \geq 10 mS/cm, LL decreases only by 15%. When the salinity reduces below 10 266 mS/cm, LL reduces rapidly towards values around 98% (34% less than the natural soil). 267 Salinisation of the clay to 51.7 mS/cm (sea water) also reduces LL to 120%. To evaluate the reversibility of leaching on LL, results from Series 3 are compared with those from Series 4 where 268 remoulded clay was initially leached and then re-salinised to predetermined values (see Table 3). 269 The strong similarities between results from Series 3 and Series 4 indicate that leaching effects 270 on LL are largely reversible. However, it is important to note that the LL for natural soil (Series 1) 271 is not recovered. The 12% deficit observed in Fig. 5a demonstrates that full reversibility is not 272 273 achieved, likely due to permanent changes in soil fabric.

274

The effects of oven-drying on LL is evaluated by comparing results from Series 5, where oven-275 dried clay was fully leached prior to re-salinisation, with those from Series 4. Interestingly, LL 276 measured in Series 5 is only 6% lower than that measured in Series 4. Minor modifications in soil 277 fabric seem caused by oven-drying at 60°C in cases where both remoulded clay and oven-dried 278 279 soil are equilibrated at the same salinity (conductivity) prior to fall cone testing. However, this is not the case when salt solutions are mixed with oven-dried clay that has not been previously 280 leached (Series 6). There, the increase in salinity promotes the reduction in LL. LL drops to 90% 281 282 when the oven-dried clay is mixed with deionised water and it reduces further to 74% when the 283 clay is mixed with solution at 50 mS/cm. The comparison between Series 2 (natural soil) and 284 Series 6 (oven-dried soil) indicates that oven-drying strongly reduces the water retention capacity 285 of the soil (LL reduces by around 60%). Such a behaviour is explained by the densification of clay 286 aggregates, a mechanism that becomes more evident with the increase in soil salinity. Because 287 in practice soils are commonly oven-dried prior to testing and the chemistry of the pore fluid is 288 rarely evaluated, results from Series 6 are valuable to elucidate the consequences of neglecting these two phenomena. The comparison of the LL obtained in Series 6 using deionised water 289 against the value for the natural soil (Series 1) represents the maximum error expected in 290 practice. An error of 42% in LL is observed. If the chemistry of the pore fluid is controlled but the 291 292 soil is previously oven-dried, larger reduction in LL may occur. Note that the value of LL for natural soil is not recovered when the soil is previously subjected to leaching, re-salinisation or oven-293 drying. Fig. 5a also presents the variation of fluid content at plastic limit (hereafter PL) with EC_{fluid} 294 for the six series tested in this study. Interestingly, PL is almost unaffected by changes in pore 295 fluid concentration, leaching/salinisation paths and oven-drying. An average value of 41% 296 represents all the scenarios covered in this study. The negligible sensitivity of PL to changes in 297 salinity and oven-drying is consistent with previous studies on active and non-active clavs (e.g., 298 Muir Wood, 1990). 299

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Fig. 5b shows the path followed by all specimens within the Casagrande's chart. Remoulded clay not exposed to oven-drying (Series 1 - 4) as well as oven-dried soil exposed to leaching and resalinisation (Series 5) classifies as clay of extremely high plasticity (CE). Oven-drying clay no leached prior to testing (Series 6) promotes severe reduction in PI which changes the soil's classification to silt of very-high plasticity (MV).

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Fig. 5 Variation of liquid limit and plastic limit with EC_{fluid} (a). Soil classification (b)

312 To compare the influence of pore fluid salinity on LL for soils with different compositions it is more 313 convenient to express LL in terms of void ratio rather than gravimetric water content (e.g., Nagaraj 314 & Srinivasa Murthy, 1983, 1986; Nagaraj et al., 1993, 1994), provided that salinity is considered in the calculations. Fig. 6 shows the variation of void ratio at liquid limit e with the molarity of the 315 NaCl solution obtained on Ballina clay specimens. These results are compared against data 316 collected by Musso et al. (2023) for Drammen clay (Norway), Ponza bentonite (Italy), illite and 317 illite/smectite mixtures, and kaolinite. eL is normalised in Fig. 6 using the value for soil saturated 318 with distilled water (EC_{fluid} \approx 0 mS/cm). Table 4 summarises the main properties for those soils 319 which covers active and non-active clay minerals. eL increases with pore fluid salinity in soils 320 where illite and kaolinite fractions are dominant. e_{L} increases more than 60% in Drammen clay 321 when mixed with sea water. In pure illite and kaolinite, the increase in eL is negligible for molarities 322 323 lower than 1 mol/l. Larger molarities cause an increase in e_L up to 15%. For Ballina clay at natural 324 state, eL 1.33 (i.e. 33% higher than the fully leached soil). When the clay is subjected to leaching-325 salinisation or oven-drying/leaching/re-salinisation, the increase in e_L with salinity is lower than 20%. The oven-dried clay tested in Series 6 behaves in a similar way as soils with high proportion 326 of active minerals (montmorillonite), i.e. e_L reduces with salinity. This contrasting behaviour is 327 associated here to changes in soil fabric as discussed below. 328



 Fig. 6 Evolution of normalized void ratio at liquid limit eL with NaCl concentration (modified from Musso et al., 2023)

Table 4. Index properties and void ratio at liquid limit saturated with distilled water for active and non-active soils (from Musso et al., 2023)

)		
Soil	Main minerals	LL	PL (%)	Activity	e _{L0}	Reference
		(%)				
Kaolin	Kaolinite 75-80%	50	38	0.20	1.37	Di Maio and Fenelli
	Illite 8-10%					(1994)
Illite	Illite > 95%	83	33	0.75	2.26	Musso et al. (2023)
Drammen	Illite	32	23	0.18	0.88	Torrance (1974)
clay	Chlorite					
Ponza	Montmorillonite 80%	390	76	3.90	10.80	Di Maio (1996)
bentonite	Kaolinite 20%					

335 5.2 Changes in soil fabric

336 The effects of pore fluid salinity and oven-drying on soil fabric are evaluated via Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and particle size distribution (PSD) analyses. SEM tests were performed in a 337 field emission microscope (Zeiss Sigma VPFESEM) on specimens previously subjected to the 338 339 freeze-drying process (Delage et al., 2006). Fig. 7 shows SEM microphotographs (20000x) for 340 specimens from Series 3 (i.e. remoulded clay initially leached and then re-salinized to target values). Three stages are shown in this figure: (i) remoulded (natural) state, (ii) leached to 15 341 mS/cm, and (iii) fully leached conditions. An open fabric without clear patterns of fabric anisotropy 342 is observed at remoulded (natural) state. Particle aggregation is also evident at this magnification. 343 344 Macro pores (inter-aggregates) around 1.3 - 2.5 µm can be distinguished. Leaching to 15 mS/cm, 345 promotes some tendency for the particles to arrange in a preferential direction although the footprint of the natural open fabric is visible. Dominant macro-pore sizes range around 2.2 µm 346 whereas pores intra-aggregates vary between 0.7-1.3 µm. Full-leaching promotes stacking of 347 soil particles with reduction of inter-aggregate and intra-aggregate pores. The reduction in pore 348 size as well as the aggregation observed in Fig. 7 is consistent with the reduction in e_{L} with 349 350 leaching shown in Fig. 6. Although SEM pictures for remoulded clay subjected to re-salinisation are not available, the behaviour of LL shown in Fig. 5a indicates that modifications in soil fabric 351 352 observed in Fig. 7 may be largely reversible.

353

To evaluate the influence of oven-drying on soil fabric, Fig. 8 compares the PSD curves estimated post fall cone testing. PSDs were estimated on oven-dried soil (60°C) using a particle size analyser (Sedigraph III, Micromeritics®). Whereas the procedure for sample preparation, including the mixing of the dry soil with the dispersant, may cause modifications in the natural soil fabric, its effect is assumed the same for all tested specimens. Hence, differences between PSDs should reflect the influence of previous salinity and drying paths. Fig. 8a shows changes in clay content (%<2 μ m) between 71.2 – 78.7 % without clear link with the previous salinity and drying 361 paths. However, the inspection of the fractions below 2 µm shows an interesting trend, particularly for specimens from Series 6 where oven-dried clay was mixed with salt solutions. A progressive 362 increase in particle size within the clay fraction is observed. This behaviour, which is indicative of 363 clay aggregation, is clearer in Fig. 8b where fractions passing 0.1 μm are plotted against EC_{fluid}. 364 Samples tested in Series 6 show a strong decrease in the proportion of particles lower than 0.1 365 366 μ m from 30% to 7% with the increase in EC_{fluid}. In other words, the proportion of very small particle sizes decreases when the soil is oven-dried due to the tendency of those particles to aggregate. 367 This behaviour is more evident with the increase in soil salinity. 368



Remoulded clay

ded clayLeached to 15 mS/cmFully leachedFig. 7 SEM analysis on remoulded and leached Ballina clay



373

Fig. 8 Particle size distribution of tested specimens (a). Variation in fraction < 0.1 μ m with EC_{fluid}

6. Changes in pore fluid composition upon leaching / salinisation paths

Results from chemical analyses performed to evaluate the changes in pore fluid dissolved cations 375 and anions are shown in Fig. 9. The dashed vertical line represents the pore fluid salinity for 376 For natural soil, used here reference. the natural soil 377 as (Series 1) sodium (Na⁺ \approx 7.55 g/L) is the major cation in the pore fluid. Other major cations present 378 are potassium (K⁺ \approx 0.51 g/L), magnesium (Mg²⁺ \approx 1.63 g/L) and calcium (Ca²⁺ \approx 0.42 g/L). 379 Chloride is the predominant anion (Cl⁻ ~9.20 g/L) followed by sulphate (SO₄²⁻ ~ 5.22 g/L). The 380

381 large proportion of soluble SO₄-in the pore fluid at natural state (5.22 g/L, i.e. around 70% the 382 total of Na⁺) agrees well with the predominance of Na⁺ and the presence of K⁺(Tabatabai, 1987). 383 In Fig. 9 grey crosses represent the variation in cation and ions upon leaching for the clay used in Series 4. Na⁺ reduces linearly with EC_{fluid} to 0.137 g/L at the end of leaching. This represents 384 a reduction of 98.2% with respect to initial value. Monovalent and divalent cations reach values 385 of K⁺=0.014 g/L, Mg²⁺=0.002 g/L, Ca²⁺=0.011 g/L. Similarly, leaching causes almost complete 386 removal of Cl⁻ =0.080 g/L (~99.1%) and SO₄²⁻ = 0.014 g/L (~99.7%). It is important to note that 387 the remoulded clay subjected to partial leaching in Series 3 (empty diamonds) follows the same 388 trend. Percolation of remoulded clay in Series 3 with pore fluid prepared at 50 mS/cm 389 (salinisation) increases the proportion of Na⁺=13.87 g/L (~84 %) but also decreases Mg²⁺=0.615 390 g/L, K⁺=0.38 g/L and Ca²⁺=0.122 g/L. A remarkable reduction in SO₄²⁻ (~0.287 g/L) is observed. 391 Remoulded clay subjected to re-salinisation after full leaching in Series 4 (triangles) follows the 392 same trend of the remoulded clay exposed to leaching in Series 3, thus indicating large degree 393 of reversibility during leaching/salinisation paths. Sulphates SO₄²⁻ are the exception to this trend, 394 with 96% reduction upon re-salinisation. 395

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397 Interestingly, the change in cations and anions for the clay tested in Series 5 (oven-drying 398 followed by full leaching and re-salinisation) follows a similar trend as the remoulded clay from 399 Series 4 not exposed to oven-drying. Large variation in EC_{fluid}, cations and ions is observed in Series 6 where oven-dried clay was mixed (no percolated) with solutions of variable salinities. In 400 401 this case, Na⁺ : 6.0–21.6 g/L, K⁺ : 0.157–0.607 g/L, Mg²⁺ : 0.49–2.5 g/L, Ca²⁺ : 0.145–0.74 g/L, Cl^{-} : 4.45–29 g/L, and SO_4^{2-} : 1.03–3.78 g/L. Although oven-drying has the same effect on the 402 clay tested in Series 5 and Series 6, i.e. precipitation of salts initially dissolved in the pore water 403 as well as clay aggregation, those effects vanish when the oven-dried clay is percolated for 404 several weeks with deionized water (Series 5) to full leaching prior to re-salinization. Long 405 leaching times promoted particles disaggregation. The trend between salinity and liquid limit 406 found for Series 5 is thus the same of the non oven-dried specimens, consistent with what is 407 expected for non-expansive clays, where the increase in salinity promotes a face to edge to edge 408 arrangements. On the other hand, disaggregation was not obtained by simply mixing the soil 409 410 powder with distilled water and letting the slurry equilibrate for 48 hours (Series 6). In such case, 411 the effect of the increase in salinity appears to be only a decrease in the repulsive forces between particles, which likely only promoted a decrease of the repulsive forces between particles (e.g. 412 Mitchell and Soga, 2005) and thus further aggregation. 413



415 416

Fig. 9. Changes in ion concentrations for each test Series

To evaluate changes in soil fabric upon leaching and salinisation paths, the classification proposed by the U.S. Salinity Laboratory Staff (Richards et al., 1954) was adopted here. This compares the sodium adsorption ratio SAR against the solution ionic strength *I*. The SAR refers to the ratio of the amount of cations contributed to a soil by Na⁺ to that of contributed by Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ (e.g. Mitchel and Soga, 2005):

423

424
$$SAR (meq/l)^{0.5} = \frac{Na^+}{[(Ca^{2+}+Mg^{2+})/2]^{0.5}}$$
 (2)

The solution ionic strength *I* is calculated as the sum of the molarities of each dissolved species
multiplied by the square of its charge (Atkins et al., 2018):

428 where c_i is the molar concentration of ion *i* (mol/l) and z_i represents its charge.

429

Fig. 10 shows the variation of the SAR and LL against the solution ionic strength for Series 1, 430 431 Series 3, Series 4 and Series 5. Four categories of soil fabric are defined in this 2 according to 432 Richards et al. (1954): (1) normal flocculated, (2) sodic dispersed, (3) saline flocculated, and (4) saline-sodic flocculated. Non-saline fabrics (Zones 1 and 2) are separated from saline 433 arrangements (Zones 3 and 4) by I = 0.04 mol/l (EC_{fluid} = 4 mS/cm). A SAR of 13 meq/l 434 435 distinguishes between normal flocculated and saline flocculated fabrics (Zones 1 and 3) from sodic dispersed and saline-sodic flocculated arrangements (Zones 2 and 4). The natural soil 436 (Series 1), which has I = 0.55 mol/l and SAR = 38 meq/l, is characterised by a saline-sodic 437 flocculated fabric (Zone 4). This implies large predominance of both soluble salts and 438 exchangeable Na⁺. As shown in Fig. 9, leaching with deionized water or saline solutions causes 439 a rapid reduction in Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺ in comparison to Na⁺. This explains the increase in SAR shown 440 in Fig. 10 for *I* > 0.1 mol/l (EC_{fluid}=10 mS/cm) with respect to the natural soil. The *saline-sodic* 441 flocculated fabric is preserved upon leaching or salinisation paths. Nevertheless, for I < 0.04 mol/l, 442 the fabric becomes normal flocculated (Zone 1). The transition from saline-sodic flocculated to 443 normal flocculated fabrics indicates that repulsion forces promoted by the large proportion of Na⁺ 444 in the natural soil are not predominant at fully leached conditions which, in turn, facilitate 445 aggregation of soil particles. This description is consistent with the SEM results shown in Fig. 7. 446 447 With less pore space for water absorption, the reduction in liquid limit observed in Fig. 5a is 448 justified. Results for Series 5 presented in Fig. 10 shows that changes in soil fabric caused by 449 leaching are largely reversible upon re-salinisation which is consistent with the small differences in LL shown in Fig. 5a for Series 3, Series 4 and Series 5. Despite of this, greater values of SAR 450 451 are observed for Series 3, 4 and 5 at ionic strengths similar to that for the natural soil (0.55 mol/l). 452 This is explained by the lower proportions of Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ measured during re-salinisation at EC_{fluid} > 35 mS/cm (see Fig. 9). Whereas the reduction in divalent cations during re-salinisation 453 (particularly Mg²⁺) may contribute to the reduction in LL after leaching and re-salinisation to EC_{in} 454 situ in Series 4 and Series 5, another factor to be considered is the severe decrease in SO₄- shown 455 in Fig. 9. 456





Fig. 10. Solution ionic strength vs. associated other parameters

460

461 8. Conclusions

462 From the experimental study described above, the following aspects deserve to be remarked:

463

leaching of salts from the natural clay, represented by a salinity around 0.7 times the
 salinity of sea water, causes a reduction in liquid limit up to 35%. This behaviour is in
 agreement with the response reported for the very sensitive low-plasticity silts from
 Scandinavia as well as some natural soft clays of high-plasticity from Japan.

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 2. leaching effects are largely reversible upon (controlled) salinisation paths. However, the
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- 472 3. Leaching changes the structural arrangement of the clay from an initially saline-sodic
 473 flocculated to a normal flocculated fabric. SEM analysis shows that full-leaching promotes
 474 the stacking of soil particles with reduction of inter-aggregate and intra-aggregate pores.
- 4. Two contrasting behaviours are observed when the natural soil is oven-dried prior to 475 476 testing. If the salts in the oven-dried soil are fully leached then the liquid limit follows the 477 same trend observed for the remoulded clay upon salinisation. No influence of ovendrying on the estimated liquid limit is observed in this case. In contrast, when the oven-478 dried soil is mixed (no percolated) with salt solutions the measured liquid limit reduces 479 480 dramatically. In fact, the liquid limit decreases further with increasing the salinity of the 481 solution. The comparison of the PSD curves estimated after fall cone suggest that the reduction in LL observed in oven-dried soil is due to the strong decrease in the proportion 482 of particles smaller than 0.1 μ m, which is explained by the tendency of the clay particles 483 to promote 'stacks'. Results for oven-drying soil mixed with deionized/tap water have 484 practical relevance because they provide the maximum expected variation (error) when 485 486 standard methods for the estimation Atterberg limits are adopted.
- 487 488

5. The plastic limit shows to be insensitive to leaching, which also agrees with available literature for pure clays and natural soft soils.

489

The results obtained in this study show that salinity and oven-drying history might have relevant 490 effects on the index properties, on which several empirical correlations used in the engineering 491 practice rely to estimate soil parameters. Most of the correlations available in the Soil Mechanics 492 literature have been obtained by determining the plastic limit on oven-dried soils mixed with 493 494 distilled water. This should ensure their applicability if changes in pore water salinity are not of 495 concern. Their use should be made with some care if changes in pore water salinity are of 496 concern, as the impact on the fabric (and then on the liquid limit) imparted by oven-drying and 497 mixing might be opposite to the one expected to occur on the natural clay.

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