



Department of Civil Engineering
Study Material

Unit-1

Introduction:

The term "soil" can have different meanings, depending upon the field in which it is considered.

To a geologist, it is the material in the relative thin zone of the Earth's surface within which roots occur, and which are formed as the products of past surface processes. The rest of the crust is grouped under the term "rock".

To a pedologist, it is the substance existing on the surface, which supports plant life.

To an engineer, it is a material that can be:

- built on: foundations of buildings, bridges
- built in: basements, culverts, tunnels
- built with: embankments, roads, dams
- supported: retaining walls

Soil Mechanics is a discipline of Civil Engineering involving the study of soil, its behaviour and application as an engineering material.

Soil Mechanics is the application of laws of mechanics and hydraulics to engineering problems dealing with sediments and other unconsolidated accumulations of solid particles, which are produced by the mechanical and chemical disintegration of rocks, regardless of whether or not they contain an admixture of organic constituents.

Soil consists of a multiphase aggregation of solid particles, water, and air. This fundamental composition gives rise to unique engineering properties, and the description of its mechanical behavior requires some of the most classic principles of engineering mechanics.

Engineers are concerned with soil's mechanical properties: permeability, stiffness, and strength. These depend primarily on the nature of the soil grains, the current stress, the water content and unit weight.

Formation of Soils:

Soil is formed from rock due to erosion and weathering action. Igneous rock is the basic rock formed from the crystallization of molten magma. This rock is formed either inside the earth or on the surface. These rocks undergo metamorphism under high temperature and pressure to form Metamorphic rocks. Both Igneous and metamorphic rocks are converted into sedimentary rocks due to transportation to different locations

by the agencies such as wind, water etc. Finally, near the surface millions of years of erosion and weathering converts rocks in to soil.

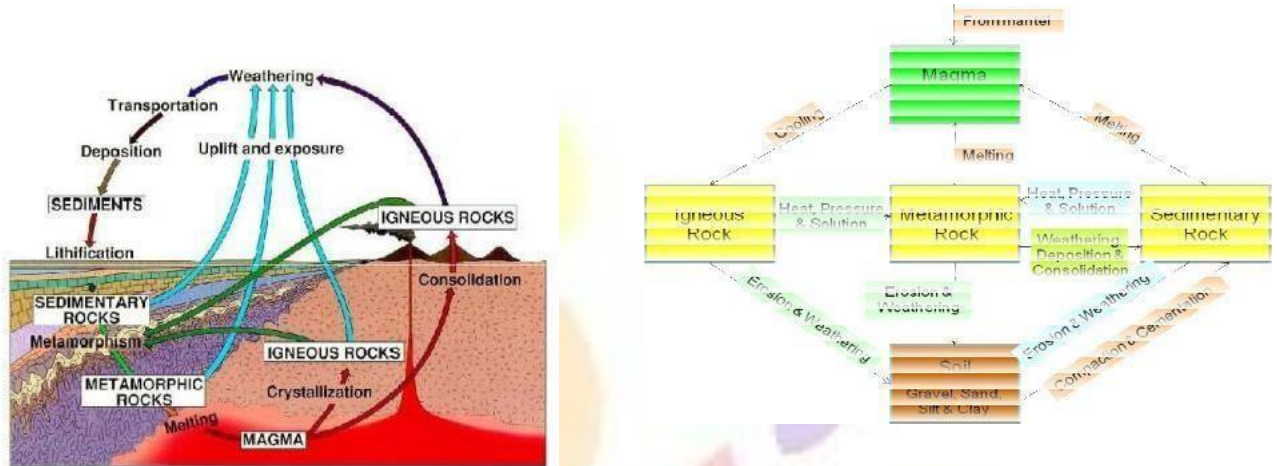


Fig. Geologic Cycle of Soil

Soils are formed from materials that have resulted from the disintegration of rocks by various processes of physical and chemical weathering. The nature and structure of a given soil depends on the processes and conditions that formed it:

- Breakdown of parent rock: weathering, decomposition, erosion.
- Transportation to site of final deposition: gravity, flowing water, ice, wind.
- Environment of final deposition: flood plain, river terrace, glacial moraine, lacustrine or marine.
- Subsequent conditions of loading and drainage: little or no surcharge, heavy surcharge due to ice or overlying deposits, change from saline to freshwater, leaching, contamination.

All soils originate, directly or indirectly, from different rock types.

Weathering:

Physical weathering reduces the size of the parent rock material, without any change in the original composition of the parent rock. Physical or mechanical processes taking place on the earth's surface include the actions of water, frost, temperature changes, wind and ice. They cause disintegration and the products are mainly coarse soils.

The main processes involved are exfoliation, unloading, erosion, freezing, and thawing. The principal cause is climatic change. In exfoliation, the outer shell separates from the main rock. Heavy rain and wind cause erosion of the rock surface. Adverse temperature changes produce fragments due to different thermal coefficients of rock minerals. The effect is more for freeze-thaw cycles.

Chemical weathering not only breaks up the material into smaller particles but alters the nature of the original parent rock itself. The main processes responsible are hydration, oxidation, and carbonation. New compounds are formed due to the chemical alterations.

Rain water that comes in contact with the rock surface reacts to form hydrated oxides, carbonates and sulphates. If there is a volume increase, the disintegration continues. Due to leaching, water-soluble materials are washed away and rocks lose their cementing properties.

Chemical weathering occurs in wet and warm conditions and consists of degradation by decomposition and/or alteration. The results of chemical weathering are generally fine soils with altered mineral grains.



The effects of weathering and transportation mainly determine the basic *nature* of the soil (size, shape, composition and distribution of the particles).

The environment into which deposition takes place, and the subsequent geological events that take place there, determine the *state* of the soil (density, moisture content) and the *structure* or fabric of the soil (bedding, stratification, occurrence of joints or fissures)

Transportation agencies can be combinations of gravity, flowing water or air, and moving ice. In water or air, the grains become sub-rounded or rounded, and the grain sizes get sorted so as to form poorly-graded deposits. In moving ice, grinding and crushing occur, size distribution becomes wider forming well-graded deposits.

In running water, soil can be transported in the form of suspended particles, or by rolling and sliding along the bottom. Coarser particles settle when a decrease in velocity occurs, whereas finer particles are deposited further downstream. In still water, horizontal layers of successive sediments are formed, which may change with time, even seasonally or daily.

Wind can erode, transport and deposit fine-grained soils. Wind-blown soil is generally uniformly-graded.

A glacier moves slowly but scours the bedrock surface over which it passes.

Gravity transports materials along slopes without causing much alteration.

Soil Types:

Soils as they are found in different regions can be classified into two broad categories:

- (1) Residual soils
- (2) Transported soils

Residual Soils:

Residual soils are found at the same location where they have been formed. Generally, the depth of residual soils varies from 5 to 20 m.

Chemical weathering rate is greater in warm, humid regions than in cold, dry regions causing a faster breakdown of rocks. Accumulation of residual soils takes place as the rate of rock decomposition exceeds the rate of erosion or transportation of the weathered material. In humid regions, the presence of surface vegetation reduces the possibility of soil transportation.

As leaching action due to percolating surface water decreases with depth, there is a corresponding decrease in the degree of chemical weathering from the ground surface downwards. This results in a gradual reduction of residual soil formation with depth, until unaltered rock is found.

Residual soils comprise of a wide range of particle sizes, shapes and composition.

Transported Soils:

Weathered rock materials can be moved from their original site to new locations by one or more of the transportation agencies to form transported soils. Transported soils are classified based on the mode of transportation and the final deposition environment.

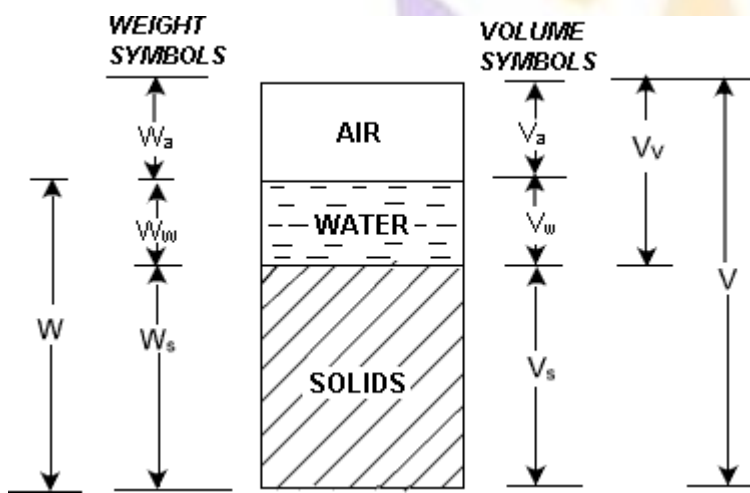


- (a) Soils that are carried and deposited by rivers are called *alluvial deposits*.
- (b) Soils that are deposited by flowing water or surface runoff while entering a lake are called *lacustrine deposits*. alternate layers are formed in different seasons depending on flow rate.
- (c) If the deposits are made by rivers in sea water, they are called *marine deposits*. Marine deposits contain both particulate material brought from the shore as well as organic remnants of marine life forms.
- (d) Melting of a glacier causes the deposition of all the materials scoured by it leading to formation of *glacial deposits*.
- (e) Soil particles carried by wind and subsequently deposited are known as *aeolian deposits*.

Phase Relations of Soils:

Soil is not a coherent solid material like steel and concrete, but is a particulate material. Soils, as they exist in nature, consist of solid particles (mineral grains, rock fragments) with water and air in the voids between the particles. The water and air contents are readily changed by changes in ambient conditions and location.

As the relative proportions of the three phases vary in any soil deposit, it is useful to consider a soil model which will represent these phases distinctly and properly quantify the amount of each phase. A schematic diagram of the three-phase system is shown in terms of weight and volume symbols respectively for soil solids, water, and air. The weight of air can be neglected.



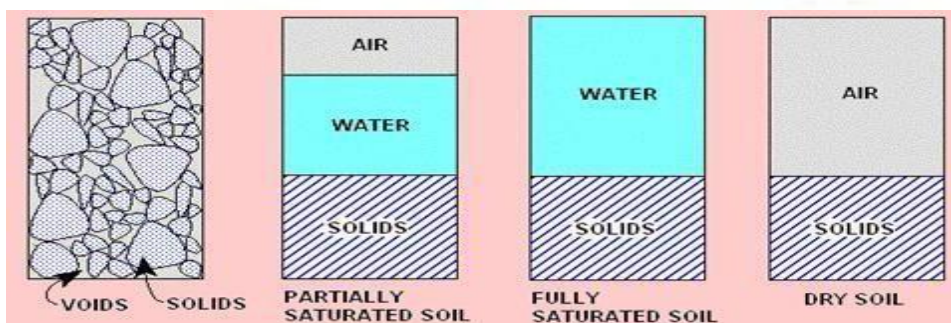
The soil model is given dimensional values for the solid, water and air components.

Total volume, $V = V_s + V_w + V_v$

Three-phase System:

Soils can be partially saturated (with both air and water present), or be fully saturated (no air content) or be perfectly dry (no water content).

In a saturated soil or a dry soil, the three-phase system thus reduces to two phases only, as shown.





The various relations can be grouped into:

- Volume relations
- Weight relations
- Inter-relations

Volume Relations:

As the amounts of both water and air are variable, the volume of solids is taken as the reference quantity. Thus, several relational volumetric quantities may be defined. The following are the basic volume relations:

1. Void ratio (e) is the ratio of the volume of voids (V_v) to the volume of soil solids (V_s), and is expressed as a decimal.

$$e = \frac{V_v}{V_s}$$

2. Porosity (n) is the ratio of the volume of voids to the total volume of soil (V), and is expressed as a percentage.

$$n = \frac{V_v}{V} \times 100$$

Void ratio and porosity are inter-related to each other as follows:

$$e = \frac{n}{1-n} \text{ and } n = \frac{e}{(1+e)}$$

3. The volume of water (V_w) in a soil can vary between zero (i.e. a dry soil) and the volume of voids. This can be expressed as the degree of saturation (S) in percentage.

$$S = \frac{V_w}{V_v} \times 100$$

For a dry soil, $S = 0\%$, and for a fully saturated soil, $S = 100\%$.

4. Air content (a_c) is the ratio of the volume of air (V_a) to the volume of voids.

$$a_c = \frac{V_a}{V_v}$$

5. Percentage air voids (n_a) is the ratio of the volume of air to the total volume.

$$n_a = \frac{V_a}{V} \times 100 = n \times a_c$$

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Weight Relations:

Density is a measure of the quantity of mass in a unit volume of material. Unit weight is a measure of the weight of a unit volume of material. Both can be used interchangeably. The units of density are ton/m^3 , kg/m^3 or g/cm^3 . The following are the basic weight relations:

1. The ratio of the mass of water present to the mass of solid particles is called the water content (w), or sometimes the moisture content.

$$w = \frac{W_w}{W_s}$$

Its value is 0% for dry soil and its magnitude can exceed 100%.

2. The mass of solid particles is usually expressed in terms of their particle unit weight (γ_s) or specific gravity (G_s) of the soil grain solids.

$$\gamma_s = \frac{W_s}{V_s} = G_s \cdot \gamma_w$$

where γ_w = Unit weight of water

For most inorganic soils, the value of G_s lies between 2.60 and 2.80. The presence of organic material reduces the value of G_s .

3. **Dry unit weight** (γ_d) is a measure of the amount of solid particles per unit volume.

$$\gamma_d = \frac{W_s}{V}$$

4. **Bulk unit weight** (γ_t or γ) is a measure of the amount of solid particles plus water per unit volume.

$$\gamma_t = \gamma = \frac{(W_s + W_w)}{(V_s + V_v)}$$

5. **Saturated unit weight** (γ_{sat}) is equal to the bulk density when the total voids is filled up with water.

6. **Buoyant unit weight** (γ') or **submerged unit weight** is the effective mass per unit volume when the soil is submerged below standing water or below the ground water table.

$$\gamma' = \gamma_{sat} - \gamma_w$$

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Inter-Relations:

It is important to quantify the state of a soil immediately after receiving in the laboratory and prior to commencing other tests. The water content and unit weight are particularly important, since they may change during transportation and storage.

Some physical state properties are calculated following the practical measurement of others. For example, dry unit weight can be determined from bulk unit weight and water content. The following are some inter-relations:

$$w = \frac{W_w}{W_s} = \frac{\gamma_w V_w}{G_s \gamma_w V_s} = \frac{V_w}{G_s V_s} = \frac{S V_v}{G_s V_s} = \frac{S e}{G_s}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{(G_s + S e) \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{(1 + w) G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma_d = \frac{G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma_d = \frac{\gamma}{1 + w}$$

$$\gamma' = \frac{[(G_s - 1) + (S - 1)e] \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

$$\gamma' = \frac{(G_s - 1) \gamma_w}{1 + e}$$

Example 1: A soil has void ratio = 0.72, moisture content = 12% and $G_s = 2.72$. Determine its

- Dry unit weight
- Moist unit weight, and the
- Amount of water to be added per m^3 to make it saturated.

Use $\gamma_w = 9.81 \text{ kN/m}^3$

Solution:

$$(a) \quad \gamma_d = \frac{G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e} = \frac{2.72 \times 9.81}{1 + 0.72} = 15.51 \text{ kN/m}^3$$

$$(b) \gamma = \gamma_d(1+w)$$

$$= \frac{1+0.12}{1+0.72} \times 2.12 \times 9.81 = 17.38 \text{ kN/m}^3$$

$$(c) \gamma_{sat} = \frac{G_s + e}{1+e} \cdot \gamma_w$$

$$= \frac{2.72+0.72}{1+0.72} \times 9.81 = 19.62 \text{ kN/m}^3$$

Water to be added per m^3 to make the soil saturated

$$= \gamma_{sat} - \gamma = 19.62 - 17.38 = 2.24 \text{ kN}$$

Example 2: The dry density of a sand with porosity of 0.387 is 1600 kg/m^3 . Find the void ratio of the soil and the specific gravity of the soil solids. [Take $\gamma_w = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$]

$$n = 0.387$$

$$\gamma_d = 1600 \text{ kg/m}^3$$

Solution:

$$(a) e = \frac{n}{1-n} = \frac{0.387}{1-0.387} = 0.631$$

$$(b) \gamma_d = \frac{G_s \cdot \gamma_w}{1+e}$$

$$\therefore G_s = \frac{(1+e)}{\gamma_w} \cdot \gamma_d = \frac{1+0.631}{1000} \times 1600 = 2.61$$

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Soil Classification:

It is necessary to adopt a formal system of soil description and classification in order to describe the various materials found in ground investigation. Such a system must be meaningful and concise in an engineering context, so that engineers will be able to understand and interpret.

It is important to distinguish between description and classification:

Description of soil is a statement that describes the physical nature and state of the soil. It can be a description of a sample, or a soil *in situ*. It is arrived at by using visual examination, simple tests, observation of site conditions, geological history, etc.

Classification of soil is the separation of soil into classes or groups each having similar characteristics and potentially similar behaviour. A classification for engineering purposes should be based mainly on mechanical properties: permeability, stiffness, strength. The class to which a soil belongs can be used in its description.

The aim of a classification system is to establish a set of conditions which will allow useful comparisons to be made between different soils. The system must be simple. The relevant criteria for classifying soils are the **size distribution** of particles and the **plasticity** of the soil.

For measuring the distribution of particle sizes in a soil sample, it is necessary to conduct different particle-size tests.

Wet sieving is carried out for separating fine grains from coarse grains by washing the soil specimen on a 75 micron sieve mesh.

Dry sieve analysis is carried out on particles coarser than 75 micron. Samples (with fines removed) are dried and shaken through a set of sieves of descending size. The weight retained in each sieve is measured. The cumulative percentage quantities finer than the sieve sizes (passing each given sieve size) are then determined.

The resulting data is presented as a distribution curve with grain size along x-axis (log scale) and percentage passing along y-axis (arithmetic scale).

Sedimentation analysis is used only for the soil fraction finer than 75 microns. Soil particles are allowed to settle from a suspension. The decreasing density of the suspension is measured at various time intervals. The procedure is based on the principle that in a suspension, the terminal velocity of a spherical particle is governed by the diameter of the particle and the properties of the suspension.

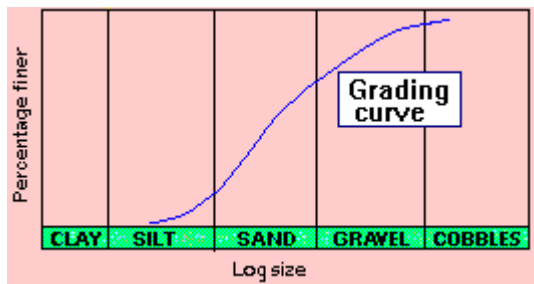
In this method, the soil is placed as a suspension in a jar filled with distilled water to which a deflocculating agent is added. The soil particles are then allowed to settle down. The concentration of particles remaining in the suspension at a particular level can be determined by using a hydrometer. Specific gravity readings of the solution at that same level at different time intervals provide information about the size of particles that have settled down and the mass of

soil remaining in solution.

The results are then plotted between % finer (passing) and log size.

Grain-Size Distribution Curve:

The size distribution curves, as obtained from coarse- and fine-grained portions, can be combined to form one complete grain-size distribution curve (also known as grading curve). A typical grading curve is shown.

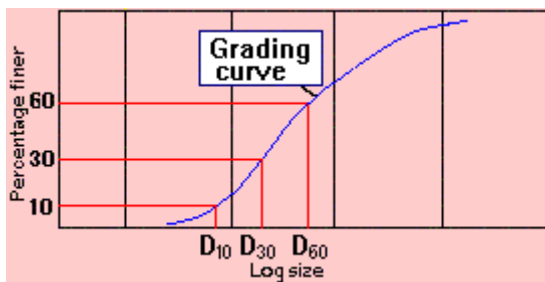


From the complete grain-size distribution curve, useful information can be obtained such as:

1. **Grading characteristics**, which indicate the uniformity and range in grain-size distribution.
2. **Percentages (or fractions)** of gravel, sand, silt and clay-size.

Grading Characteristics

A grading curve is a useful aid to soil description. The geometric properties of a grading curve are called **grading characteristics**



To obtain the grading characteristics, three points are located first on the grading curve.

D_{60} = size at 60% finer by weight

D_{30} = size at 30% finer by weight

D_{10} = size at 10% finer by weight

The grading characteristics are then determined as follows:

1. **Effective size** = D_{10}

2. **Uniformity coefficient**, $C_u = \frac{D_{60}}{D_{10}}$



3. Curvature coefficient,
$$C_c = \frac{(D_{30})^2}{D_{60} \cdot D_{10}}$$

Both C_u and C_c will be 1 for a single-sized soil.

$C_u > 5$ indicates a **well-graded soil**, i.e. a soil which has a distribution of particles over a wide size range.

C_c **between 1 and 3** also indicates a well-graded soil.

$C_u < 3$ indicates a **uniform soil**, i.e. a soil which has a very narrow particle size range.

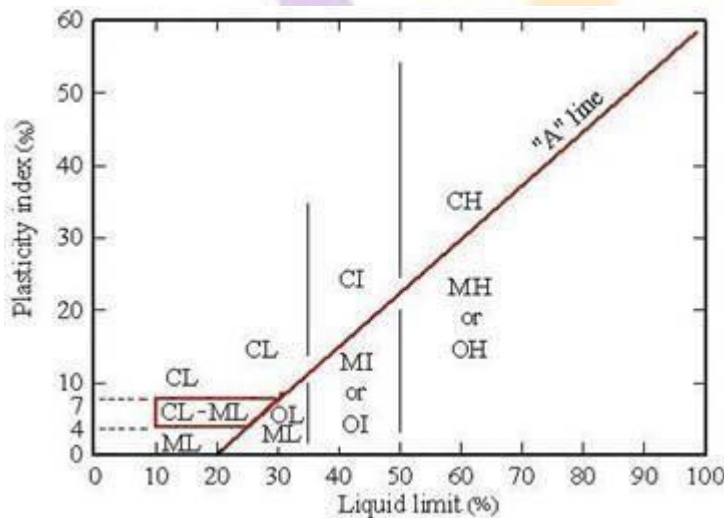


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Indian Standard Soil Classification System:

Fine-grained soils are those for which more than 50% of the material has particle sizes less than 0.075 mm. Clay particles have a **flaky** shape to which water adheres, thus imparting the property of **plasticity**.

A **plasticity chart**, based on the values of liquid limit (W_L) and plasticity index (I_P), is provided in ISSCS to aid classification. The '**A**' line in this chart is expressed as $I_P = 0.73 (W_L - 20)$.



Depending on the point in the chart, fine soils are divided into **clays (C)**, **silts (M)**, or **organic soils (O)**. The organic content is expressed as a percentage of the mass of organic matter in a given mass of soil to the mass of the dry soil solids. Three divisions of plasticity are also defined as follows.

Low plasticity	$W_L < 35\%$
Intermediate plasticity	$35\% < W_L < 50\%$
High plasticity	$W_L > 50\%$

The '**A**' line and vertical lines at W_L equal to 35% and 50% separate the soils into various classes.

For example, the combined symbol **CH** refers to clay of high plasticity.



Soil classification using group symbols is as follows:

Group Symbol	Classification
Coarse soils	
GW	Well-graded GRAVEL
GP	Poorly-graded GRAVEL
GM	Silty GRAVEL
GC	Clayey GRAVEL
SW	Well-graded SAND
SP	Poorly-graded SAND
SM	Silty SAND
SC	Clayey SAND
Fine soils	
ML	SILT of low plasticity
MI	SILT of intermediate plasticity
MH	SILT of high plasticity
CL	CLAY of low plasticity
CI	CLAY of intermediate plasticity
CH	CLAY of high plasticity
OL	Organic soil of low plasticity
OI	Organic soil of intermediate plasticity
OH	Organic soil of high plasticity
Pt	Peat

Activity:

"Clayey soils" necessarily do not consist of 100% clay size particles. The proportion of clay mineral flakes (< 0.002 mm size) in a fine soil increases its tendency to swell and shrink with changes in water content. This is called the **activity** of the clayey soil, and it represents the degree of plasticity related to the clay content.

Activity = (Plasticity index) / (% clay particles by weight)

Classification as per activity is:

Activity	Classification
< 0.75	Inactive
0.75 - 1.25	Normal
> 1.25	Active



Liquidity Index

In fine soils, especially with clay size content, the existing state is dependent on the current water content (**w**) with respect to the consistency limits (or Atterberg limits). The **liquidity index (LI)** provides a quantitative measure of the present state.

$$LI = \frac{w - W_p}{I_p}$$

Classification as per liquidity index is:

Liquidity index	Classification
> 1	Liquid
0.75 - 1.00	Very soft
0.50 - 0.75	Soft
0.25 - 0.50	Medium stiff
0 - 0.25	Stiff
< 0	Semi-solid

Visual Classification

Soils possess a number of physical characteristics which can be used as aids to identification in the field. A handful of soil rubbed through the fingers can yield the following:

SAND (and coarser) particles are visible to the naked eye.

SILT particles become dusty when dry and are easily brushed off hands.

CLAY particles are sticky when wet and hard when dry, and have to be scraped or washed off hands.

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Worked Example:

The following test results were obtained for a fine-grained soil:

$$W_L = 48\% ; W_P = 26\%$$

$$\text{Clay content} = 55\%$$

$$\text{Silt content} = 35\%$$

$$\text{Sand content} = 10\%$$

$$\text{In situ moisture content} = 39\% = w$$

Classify the soil, and determine its activity and liquidity index

Solution:

$$\text{Plasticity index, } I_P = W_L - W_P = 48 - 26 = 22\%$$

Liquid limit lies between 35% and 50%.

According to the Plasticity Chart, the soil is classified as CI, i.e. clay of intermediate plasticity.

$$\Rightarrow \text{Activity} = \frac{I_P}{\text{Clay content}} = \frac{22}{25} = 0.88$$

$$\text{Liquidity index, } LI = \frac{w - W_P}{I_P} = \frac{39 - 26}{22} = 0.59$$

The clay is of normal activity and is of soft consistency.

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Formation of Clay Minerals:

A soil particle may be a mineral or a rock fragment. A mineral is a chemical compound formed in nature during a geological process, whereas a rock fragment has a combination of one or more minerals. Based on the nature of atoms, minerals are classified as silicates, aluminates, oxides, carbonates and phosphates.

Out of these, silicate minerals are the most important as they influence the properties of clay soils. Different arrangements of atoms in the silicate minerals give rise to different silicate structures.

Basic Structural Units

Soil minerals are formed from two basic structural units: tetrahedral and octahedral. Considering the valencies of the atoms forming the units, it is clear that the units are not electrically neutral and as such do not exist as single units.

The basic units combine to form sheets in which the oxygen or hydroxyl ions are shared among adjacent units. Three types of sheets are thus formed, namely **silica sheet**, **gibbsite sheet** and **brucite sheet**.

Isomorphous substitution is the replacement of the central atom of the tetrahedral or octahedral unit by another atom during the formation of the sheets.

The sheets then combine to form various two-layer or three-layer sheet minerals. As the basic units of clay minerals are sheet-like structures, the particle formed from stacking of the basic units is also plate-like. As a result, the surface area per unit mass becomes very large.

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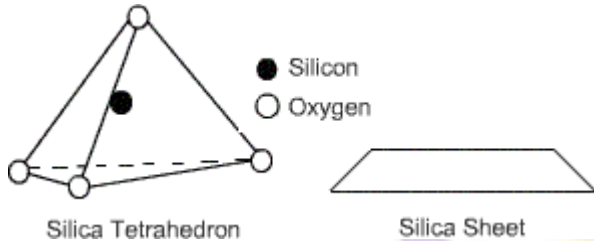
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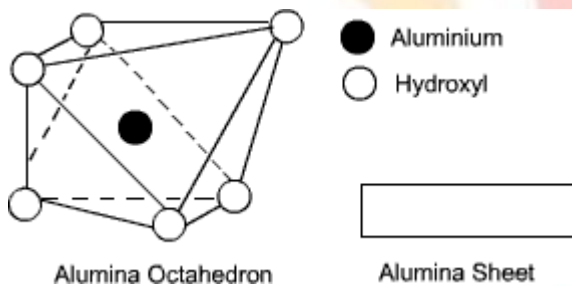
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Structure of Clay Minerals:

A tetrahedral unit consists of a central silicon atom that is surrounded by four oxygen atoms located at the corners of a tetrahedron. A combination of tetrahedrons forms a **silica sheet**.



An octahedral unit consists of a central ion, either aluminium or magnesium, that is surrounded by six hydroxyl ions located at the corners of an octahedron. A combination of aluminium-hydroxyl octahedrons forms a **gibbsite sheet**, whereas a combination of magnesium-hydroxyl octahedrons forms a **brucite sheet**.

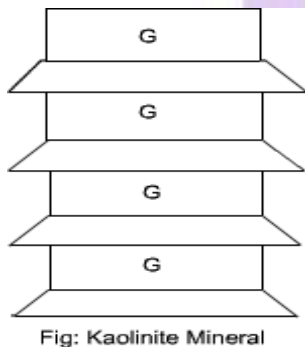


Two-layer Sheet Minerals:

Kaolinite and halloysite clay minerals are the most common.

Kaolinite Mineral

The basic kaolinite unit is a two-layer unit that is formed by stacking a gibbsite sheet on a silica sheet. These basic units are then stacked one on top of the other to form a lattice of the mineral. The units are held together by hydrogen bonds. The strong bonding does not permit water to enter the lattice. Thus, kaolinite minerals are stable and do not expand under saturation. Kaolinite is the most abundant constituent of residual clay deposits.



Halloysite Mineral:

The basic unit is also a two-layer sheet similar to that of kaolinite except for the presence of water between the sheets.

Montmorillonite and illite clay minerals are the most common. A basic three-layer sheet unit is formed by keeping one silica sheet each on the top and at the bottom of a gibbsite sheet. These units are stacked to form a lattice as shown.

Montmorillonite Mineral:

The bonding between the three-layer units is by van der Waals forces. This bonding is very weak and water can enter easily. Thus, this mineral can imbibe a large quantity of water causing swelling. During dry weather, there will be shrinkage.

Illite Mineral:

Illite consists of the basic montmorillonite units but are bonded by **secondary valence forces** and **potassium ions**, as shown. There is about 20% replacement of aluminium with silicon in the gibbsite sheet due to **isomorphous substitution**. This mineral is very stable and does not swell or shrink.

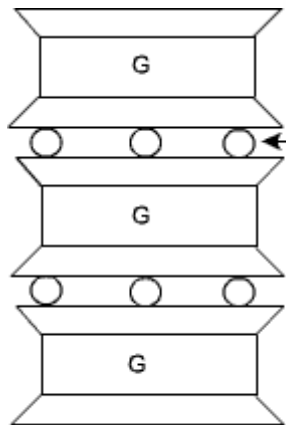


Fig: Illite Mineral

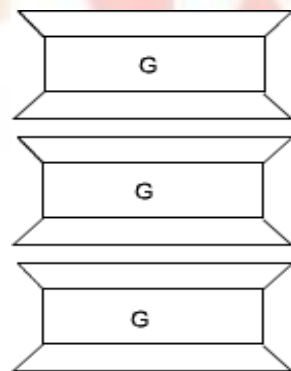
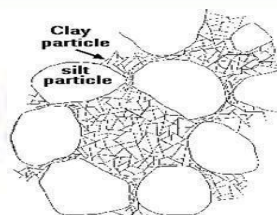


Fig: Montmorillonite Mineral

Fine Soil Fabric:

Natural soils are rarely the same from one point in the ground to another. The content and nature of grains varies, but more importantly, so does the arrangement of these. The arrangement and organisation of particles and other features within a soil mass is termed its **fabric**.

CLAY particles are **flaky**. Their thickness is very small relative to their length & breadth, in some cases as thin as 1/100th of the length. They therefore have high specific surface values. These surfaces carry negative electrical charge, which attracts positive ions present in the pore water. Thus a lot of water may be held as adsorbed water within a clay mass.





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