

1 Estimating degradation-related settlement in two landfill-reclaimed soils by
2 sand-salt analogues

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24 Estimating degradation-related settlement in two landfill-reclaimed soils by
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37 KEYWORDS

38 Landfill; settlement; degradation; laboratory testing; field comparison; landfill reclamation

39

40 ABSTRACT

41 Landfill reclaimed soil here refers to largely degraded materials excavated from old landfill
42 sites, which after processing can be reinstated as more competent fill, thereby restoring the
43 former landfill space. The success of the process depends on the presence of remaining
44 degradable particles and their influence on settlement. Tests on salt-sand mixtures, from
45 which the salt is removed, have been used to quantify the impact of particle loss on
46 settlement. Where the amount of particle loss is small, say 10% by mass or less, settlements
47 are small and apparently independent of lost particle size. A conceptual model is presented to
48 explain this behaviour in terms of nestling particles and strong force chains. At higher
49 percentages of lost particles, greater rates of settlement together with some sensitivity to
50 particle size were observed. The conceptual model was then applied to two landfill reclaimed
51 soils, the long-term settlements of which were found to be consistent with the conceptual
52 model suggesting that knowledge of particle content and relative size are sufficient to
53 estimate the influence of degradable particles in landfill reclaimed soils.

54 1 INTRODUCTION

55 The disposal of waste to landfill poses both short- and long-term challenges originating in the
56 interaction of hydraulic, biodegradation and mechanical phenomena. In the short-term, the
57 presence of organic matter commonly leads to high compressibility of the waste body. In the
58 long-term, mass loss due to biodegradation is the main challenge, the mechanical
59 consequences of which are not well understood. The factors that control the interaction
60 between biodegradation and mechanical consequences reside in different academic
61 disciplines – biochemistry and geotechnics – which are difficult to combine. Nevertheless, a
62 number of landfill models, e.g. HBM, LDAT, Moduelo, (see McDougall (2011) for a
63 summary) account for the impact of biodegradation on volume change. These models either
64 (i) use a secondary compression coefficient calibrated according to the degradable content of
65 the waste or (ii) account directly for mass loss. In the former, time is the controlling variable,
66 sometimes in the guise of a gas production model; in the latter, some means of coupling mass
67 loss to volume change is required.

68 The impact of mass loss on volume change is complex but it might be expected that the
69 amount, relative size of material to be lost and grading of the host (inert) soil are significant
70 controlling factors. With this in mind, a programme of dissolution testing of sand-salt
71 mixtures in the oedometer (McDougall et al, 2013) has been undertaken to explore the effect
72 of physical factors, such as void ratio and particle size ranges, on volume change. A parallel
73 investigation has been done at the University of Saskatchewan (Fleming et al, 2012), and is
74 combined with the Edinburgh Napier tests to obtain a more comprehensive insight..

75 The Saskatchewan tests were commissioned as part of a project to reclaim fill from old
76 landfills in the US and Canada, as reported by Dewaele et al (2011). The reclamation process
77 begins with excavation of degraded waste from a landfill site. Screening then separates large
78 items from the smaller (<50 mm) residual materials (see Fig.1). If the old waste contains a

79 substantial amount of concrete, especially for construction and demolition debris dumps, a
80 crushing plant may be used in conjunction with the screening plant to reduce the particle size
81 of the concrete and brick material so that it may also be re-used as controlled backfill.

82 Depending on the original waste composition and screening process, an amount of
83 contamination is encountered in the soil reclamation effort. Contamination, in this regard, is
84 defined as the carryover of undesirable waste components, such as wood, paper, plastic,
85 metals, glass, etc., into the reclaimed soil. While the inclusion of some glass, metal, or other
86 non-degradable materials is probably not a problem from a geotechnical point of view (all of
87 these could legitimately be considered a soil material), the residual organic fraction may be of
88 concern because of the potential for degradation and its effect on settlement. Considering
89 that residential and commercial developments have septic leach fields, water lines, sewer
90 lines, storm-water drainage, or other environmental features that may leak or overflow into
91 the underlying soil, it would have to be assumed that any degradable organic fraction in the
92 soil mass would eventually degrade. There is then the question of the long-term performance
93 of the reclaimed soil as a geotechnical foundation soil. What will be the impact of the loss of
94 an amount of (degradable) particles of known size on the settlement of foundations built over
95 this reclaimed soil?

96 Field investigations show that the screened reclaimed soil is very homogeneous (Dewaele
97 et al, 2011), and the distribution of contaminants is likewise so. Laboratory testing, presented
98 in this paper, has shown for one case study (site 2), that degradation-induced settlement is
99 well under 0.5%, suggesting that this material is suitable as structural fill assuming good
100 compaction control. It is a rationale for this behaviour that this paper seeks to elucidate.

101

102 2 PREVIOUS WORK & AIMS

103 There is a history of work related to particle loss, in relation to internal stability, in the field
104 of dam engineering (e.g. Sherard, 1979; Kenney and Lau, 1985; ICOLD, 2013). However, it
105 is important to distinguish this work from that presented in this paper. Internal erosion,
106 commonly characterised by processes of suffusion and suffosion (Moffat et al, 2011),
107 describes the movement of intact fine particles through a coarser (host) soil matrix. This
108 movement is driven by hydraulic gradient and constrained by pore geometry and
109 intergranular stress states. Under dissolution, the ‘unstable’ particle gradually disappears (at
110 least as a solid phase component) so hydraulic gradients are not necessary nor is pore
111 geometry a constraint and particle removal is then not limited to fines.

112 Studies of particle dissolution in coarse-grained soils have been done by Fam et al. (2002),
113 Shin and Santamarina (2009) and Truong et al. (2010). They all report a change in soil
114 structure and fabric manifest as void ratio change but with relatively little settlement.
115 However, these studies focused primarily on the amount of particle loss in mixes with a
116 relatively narrow range of sand to salt particle size ratios. The diameter ratio, given by the
117 ratio of d_{50} values of sand to salt, i.e. $d_{50 \text{ sand}}/d_{50 \text{ salt}}$ is fundamental to the tests reported on here.
118 Fam et al (2002), who conducted tests on salt-sand particle mixtures with a diameter ratio of
119 2.30, noted virtually no settlement. Shin and Santamarina (2009) measured settlement
120 between 1.2% and 8.2% for salt-sand mixtures with diameter ratios of 2.33 at contents of 5%
121 to 15%. Truong et al. (2010), tested mixes with diameter ratios of 1.44, showed settlements
122 of 2% and less for mixes containing up to 10% of salt particles.

123 There is little experimental data and hence understanding of the influence of particle size
124 on fabric changes due to particle loss. Hence, in this paper are presented the findings of
125 experimental investigations undertaken at Edinburgh Napier University and University of
126 Saskatchewan into the volumetric consequences of both the amount and size of particles lost

127 and host particle size distributions under oedometric conditions. A total of 158 salt-sand
128 mixtures were tested: 118 at University of Saskatchewan, the remaining 40 at Edinburgh
129 Napier University. In addition, two reclaimed landfill soil tests were tested at Saskatchewan.
130 The results are brought together firstly, to explore the influences of particle amount, size and
131 grading of the host sand on volume change and secondly, to provide an early benchmark for
132 the long-term performance of reclaimed landfill soils. A comparison is also made with a test
133 on aged refuse in a consolidating anaerobic reactor at University of Southampton (Ivanova et
134 al, 2008)

135

136 3 A CONCEPTUAL MODEL FOR THE VOLUMETRIC CONSEQUENCES OF 137 PARTICLE LOSS.

138 Before the experimental programme and results are presented, it is instructive to consider,
139 from a conceptual standpoint, the likely consequences of particle loss, where the particles in
140 question differ in both amount and size relative to the inert soil fraction. The main physical
141 properties of the mixtures are captured by (i) the amount of soluble particles, expressed as a
142 percentage of the total solid mass and (ii) particle size, expressed as a diameter ratio. For the
143 purposes of this conceptual outline, the inert fraction is taken to be a uniform soil, i.e. $C_U \approx$
144 1.0. A well-graded soil is considered in the experimental programme and will be discussed
145 later.

146

147 Consider the four salt sand mixture amount and size combinations shown in Fig. 2. The
148 values given to the amounts and diameter ratios are approximately those of the sample
149 mixtures of the experimental programme.

150

151 *Mixture A: small amounts of small particles*

152 In this mixture, the small salt particles ‘nestle’ within the assembly of larger inert sand
153 particles. From a mechanical standpoint, the salt particles are effectively shielded by the sand
154 and their loss has no measurable impact on overall soil volume, $dV_T = 0$.

155

156 *Mixture B: small amounts of large particles*

157 Here salt particles are similar size to, and will interact with, the sand particles. The impact of
158 particle loss on the mixture is largely dependent on whether or not the salt particle bridges are
159 part of a strong force chain (grey particles in Fig. 2). With a small amount of salt particles it
160 is likely that salt particle bridges are not part of a strong force chain and can be removed with
161 little impact on overall volume. In other words, the volumetric response of this type of
162 mixture to particle loss will be similar to mixture A.

163

164 *Mixture C: large amounts of small particles*

165 This mixture is one of sand particles contained within a matrix of small salt particles. It is
166 generally recognised that a matrix state will exist when small particles (*diameter ratio* > 7.0 ;
167 McGeary, 1961) reach amounts of about 15% (Lade et al, 1998). Removal will trigger
168 measurable overall volume change and a change in void ratio, neither of which are easy to
169 predict but which can be measured in laboratory tests.

170

171 *Mixture D: large amounts of large particles*

172 More large particles means the likelihood of strong force chains containing a soluble particle
173 is high. A measurable response to dissolution/degradation is much more likely than is
174 postulated for mixture B. However, as with mixture C, overall volume and void ratio
175 changes depend on inert particle rearrangement.

176

177 Indeed, it is the inert particle response that the following experimental programme aims to
178 reveal by measuring the volumetric response to particle loss over a range of particle amounts
179 and sizes. The results will then be used to characterise the potential for long-term settlement
180 in landfill reclaimed soils.

181

182 4 EXPERIMENTS

183 4.1 *Test programmes, materials and mixture proportions*

184 At Edinburgh Napier, 40 oedometric dissolution tests in 2 groups of 20 were performed. In
185 each group of 20 tests, 5 different single size salt particles (retained on sieves: 0.063, 0.125,
186 0.25, 0.50 and 1.00 mm) were added to Leighton Buzzard sand in 4 different proportions
187 (2%, 5%, 10% and 15%, of total dry mass). Leighton Buzzard is a poorly graded quartz sand
188 with C_U values = 1.4. In one group, dissolution was under a vertical stress of 62 kPa; in the
189 other group, vertical stress was 250 kPa. Figure 3 shows the relative sizes of the sand and
190 salt particles for two of the test gradings: Leighton Buzzard with 1mm salt particles in Fig.
191 3(a) and with 0.063 mm particles in Fig 3(b).

192 At Saskatchewan, 3 different single size salt particles (0.36, 2.36 and 11.2 mm) were added
193 to Ottawa sand ($d_{50} = 2.36$ mm), in 5 different mixture proportions (2%, 5%, 10%, 13% and
194 21%, of total dry mass), all under a vertical stress of 60 kPa. Ottawa sand is a poorly graded
195 material with $C_u = 1.18$. Fifty-five tests were performed.

196 A summary of the main physical properties of both test programmes is given in Table 1.
197 Table 2 provides a breakdown of the poorly graded sand fraction (SP) test schedule by salt
198 particle amount and diameter ratio. The largest diameter ratio is 9 – Leighton Buzzard sand
199 ($d_{50} = 0.85$ mm) with 0.063 mm salt particles (median d_{50} for soil retained on the 0.063 sieve

200 = 0.094 mm). The smallest diameter ratio is 0.25 – Ottawa sand ($d_{50} = 2.36$ mm) with and
201 coarse salt particles ($d_{50} = 9.42$ mm).

202 A second suite of 63 tests was performed at the University of Saskatchewan using a well-
203 graded Ottawa sand (SW) fraction, $d_{50} = 2.36$ mm but with $C_U = 6.98$. Table 3 summarises
204 the percentage and diameter ratio characteristics of the well-graded salt-sand mixtures.

205 4.2 *Equipment – Edinburgh Napier University – dissolution tests*

206 Edinburgh Napier dissolution tests were performed in a modified oedometer cell, diameter =
207 100 mm, connected to an external reservoir to allow for circulation of water, see Fig. 4. The
208 oedometer has an extended confining ring to accommodate a sample height of up to 30 mm
209 and to maintain a level of water above the loading cap and sample. The Perspex loading cap
210 has a number of small (1 mm) holes to improve the flow of water into the sample.

211 Circulation is important to avoid the accumulation of ion-saturated solution in the pores and
212 to encourage an even distribution of particle dissolution within the sample. Complete
213 dissolution is usually obtained in 30 – 60 minutes, as confirmed by electrical conductivity
214 measurements and final sample masses. Pore fluid exits the cell through two small ports in
215 the oedometer base passing to an external 4 litre reservoir, which is continuously stirred. A
216 peristaltic pump transfers solution from the external reservoir back to the oedometer. Both
217 reservoir and cell are open to atmosphere so pump flow rate is used to control the level in the
218 oedometer and reservoir against the hydraulic conductivity of soil in the cell.

219 4.3 *Equipment – University of Saskatchewan – dissolution tests*

220 The Saskatchewan tests used a sealed cylindrical load cell, diameter =159 mm and height =
221 82 mm. This cell and the extended oedometer used at Edinburgh Napier have aspect ratios
222 (height to diameter) of 0.51 and 0.30 respectively, raising a question about the influence of

223 side wall friction. However, Shin & Santamarina (2009) showed that lateral stresses reduce
224 during dissolution (and subsequently recover), which will hinder the mobilisation of side wall
225 shear forces, hence we have not attempted to account for sidewall friction in these tests

226 Permeable filter paper on the bottom and a porous stone at the top allow the flow of pore
227 fluid in/out of the sample without the loss of solid material. A pneumatic consolidation
228 system applies a vertical load to the sample via a sealed piston on the top of the sample (Fig.
229 5). Water can be circulated through the cell through ports in the piston and cell bottom.

230 Water is initially pumped upwards and intermittently at a rate of ~ 30 mL/min in
231 alternating intervals of 3 minutes pumping with 3 minutes rest until the cell is saturated.
232 Once saturated, the hoses are switched so that fresh water enters from the top of the cell.
233 Pumping continues in 3-minute intervals. Each pumping cycle produces a mass of solution,
234 which is collected and the mass of solute determined from the volume of effluent collected
235 and the known relationship between total dissolved solids and electrical conductivity (NIST,
236 2007).

237 The monitoring of the dissolution process used in the Edinburgh Napier tests differs from
238 that in the Saskatchewan tests but in both cases, the dissolution process is allowed to run until
239 settlement has ceased and effluent conductivity measurements indicate complete dissolution.
240 In the case of the Saskatchewan tests complete dissolution is indicated by zero solute
241 concentration in the effluent. In the Edinburgh Napier tests it is by stabilisation of solute
242 concentrations at some non-zero value. Final, i.e. post-dissolution, masses are checked by
243 drying and weighing of the remaining sand samples.

244

245 4.4 *Equipment – University of Saskatchewan – degradation of landfill-reclaimed soils*

246 For the testing of the landfill-reclaimed soils, a degradation consolidometer was used as
247 shown in Fig. 6. The consolidometer is 442 mm in internal diameter and the maximum
248 sample height is 564 mm. The material is loaded using a pneumatic ram system that
249 maintains constant load while allowing volume change. Degradation of the organic fraction
250 of the sample is encouraged by inoculation with spent anaerobic digestate (from biochemical
251 methane potential tests for MSW) and subsequent circulation of water to enable degradation
252 processes to occur. The total applied load is measured using a load cell placed on the
253 pneumatic ram that loads the sealed piston assembly on top of the sample. The piston
254 assembly seals to the consolidometer walls, its hollow construction allowing for recirculation
255 through the top of the sample with simultaneous biogas collection. The consolidometer and
256 test method are similar to apparatus and tests on aged and fresh waste residues performed by
257 Ivanova et al (2008) and at a very similar scale – their cell diameter was 480 mm with sample
258 height equal to 420 mm.

259

260 5 RESULTS - SETTLEMENT

261 5.1 *Poorly- graded sand samples*

262 Vertical settlements induced by dissolution for each of the poorly-graded salt-sand mixtures
263 tested here are shown in Fig. 7. For reference, settlement at constant void ratio, i.e. the
264 settlement that would occur if solid volume loss and corresponding void volume change
265 maintain a constant void ratio, is shown together with the Shin and Santamarina (2009)
266 settlement data.

267 Two principal observations can be made from the settlement data: the first relates to the
268 influence of the amount of soluble particles, the second to the size of the soluble particles.
269 Settlement appears to be directly related to the amount of soluble material but not in a simple
270 linear manner. Small percentages of soluble particles, less than about 7%, produce a
271 relatively small amount of settlement, as exemplified by mixtures A and B in Fig. 2. Above
272 this percentage, the settlement by soluble particle mass lost relationship steepens. It is in this
273 higher range of percentage of soluble mass that the second feature becomes apparent, i.e.
274 particles with diameter ratios of 2 or greater tend to occupy the upper part of the settlement
275 bandwidth, i.e. there is little settlement, as typified by mixture B in Fig. 2. For example, less
276 than 2% vertical strain was observed during dissolution from samples containing 10% of
277 0.063 mm salt particles. Larger particles, i.e. diameter ratios of 1 or less, occupy the lower
278 part of the bandwidth. In this case settlement is greater, as postulated for mixture D.

279 One more conclusion that stands out is evident in the Shin and Santamarina (2009) data,
280 obtained from glass bead-salt mixtures with a diameter ratio of 2.33, all of which settle more
281 than the poorly-graded salt-sand mixtures shown here. This may be due to the lower
282 frictional resistance and shape of the glass beads (Proctor & Barton, 1974) facilitating particle
283 rearrangement. It is well recognised from experimental and DEM studies that both lower
284 inter-particle friction and more rounded particle shape facilitate rearrangement of granular
285 materials (e.g. Iwashita & Oda, 1998; Powrie et al, 2005). All settlements are, however,
286 significantly less than the settlement occurring under a constant void ratio condition. Hence
287 particle dissolution, for the amounts and sizes of the soluble particles in these poorly-graded
288 sands, lead to an increase in void ratio.

289 5.2 *Well-graded sand samples*

290 Consider now the settlement data for the well-graded soils shown in Fig. 8. The data points
291 for the poorly-graded mixtures shown in Fig. 7 have been removed although the bandwidth
292 for these data has been retained, shown by the grey broken lines. The bandwidth for the well-
293 graded sand data is shown by the solid lines. The muted settlement response to small amounts
294 of salt particle loss, regardless of salt particle size, is still evident although the switch to a
295 steeper settlement response occurs at a lower percentage of soluble particles. Moreover, the
296 steeper settlement bandwidth is narrower and points to greater settlement although the
297 distribution of particle sizes within the bandwidth lacks the separation of the poorly-graded
298 samples. It appears then that the response of a well-graded host soil to particle loss is likely
299 to result in greater settlement than that observed in a poorly-graded host.

300

301 6 RESULTS - VOID RATIO

302 6.1 *Initial void ratio*

303 The initial (pre-dissolution) salt-sand mixture void ratios are shown in Fig. 9. The void ratio
304 calculation is the conventional one, $e = V_v/V_s$ where V_s is the sum of the sand and salt
305 volumes. Binary mixtures such as these poorly graded sand-salt mixtures can be
306 characterised using an intergranular void ratio, where volume of salt is counted as part of the
307 void phase volume (Georgiannou et al, 1990). However, by not distinguishing between salt
308 and void volumes, the intergranular void ratio is unaffected by the transfer of matter from the
309 solid salt to the void phase volume and is thus unhelpful in the context of the mechanics of
310 dissolution. In the case of poorly-graded sands, the addition of fine salt particles brings about
311 a reduction in void ratio as the fine particles occupy the voids surrounding the coarser sand

312 particles. The addition of coarse salt grains serves only to displace sand particles with little
313 change in the pre-existing sand-only void ratio. In the case of the well-graded sand samples
314 there is no opportunity for ‘nestling’ so the addition of salt particles, either fine or coarse has
315 little impact on the initial void ratios, all of which are significantly lower than the poorly-
316 graded sand with coarse particle mixes.

317 6.2 *Vertical load*

318 Recall that the Saskatchewan tests were performed under a vertical stress of 60 kPa. The
319 Edinburgh Napier tests were performed at two different vertical stresses: 62.5 kPa and 250
320 kPa. The initial void ratios for both Napier test loads are shown in Fig. 10. It would appear
321 that there is no discernible difference between the 62.5 and 250 kPa load test results, hence
322 the two test groups have been treated as one in the remaining sections of this paper. Figure
323 10 does, however, reiterate the effect on initial void ratios of the addition of particles of
324 different sizes and by different amounts, as described in the previous section.

325 6.3 *Poorly-graded sand samples*

326 The settlement data presented earlier indicate that particle loss leads to an increase in void
327 ratio. Figure 11 shows the increase in void ratio with diameter ratio for each percentage salt
328 amount. It is striking that in the poorly-graded sands the increase in void ratio is almost
329 independent of diameter ratio (or particle size), but clearly influenced by the amount of added
330 salt. Dissolution induced void ratio changes may be explained by the kind of behaviours set
331 out in Fig. 2. To recap, small salt particle mixtures, which have a large diameter ratio,
332 correspond to Models A & C (which differ by the amount of salt particles), whereas larger
333 salt particle mixtures correspond to Models B & D (again differing by amount of salt
334 particles). If salt particles are small in both amount and size, Model A is applicable.
335 Alternatively, for a small number of large particles, Model B applies. In both cases, there is

336 little host sand particle rearrangement on dissolution and void ratios are predominantly
337 controlled by the amount of solid mass loss. Void ratio increases that are independent of
338 particle size when salt particles are large may be attributable to the existence of strong force
339 chains and the likelihood that at salt contents of up to 10%, there are relatively few strong
340 force chains containing salt particles. Dissolution has little effect on the host particle
341 network. At salt contents of 15% and greater, there is less consistency in the individual data
342 although the fitted lines hint at an insensitivity of void ratio to particle size.

343 6.4 *Well-graded sand samples*

344 Compare now the increases in void ratio due to dissolution in the well-graded sands (Fig. 12).
345 Where salt contents are in the range 2% to 5%, insensitivity to diameter ratio is again evident
346 and void ratio increases are similar in magnitude to those observed in poorly-graded sand
347 mixes. However at 10% salt content and above, void ratio increases are markedly less than in
348 the poorly-graded sands. With fewer data for tests at higher salt contents, interpretation is
349 more difficult and the models referred to above do not provide as simple an explanation for
350 void ratio changes in well-graded soils. However, it has already been observed that
351 settlement is greater in well-graded samples so for any given amount of particle removal, the
352 increase in void ratio will be less in a well-graded host.

353

354 7 LANDFILL-RECLAIMED SOIL SAMPLES

355 In the remaining part of this paper, the behaviour of two real landfill-reclaimed soils is
356 assessed in the context of the salt-sand analogue test results. The samples were obtained
357 from two quite different municipal waste disposal sites: one in Canada and one in the United
358 States. The samples were characterized in terms of waste composition, physical properties,

359 potential for degradation and subsequently monitored for long-term settlement in the
360 pneumatic consolidation cell at the University of Saskatchewan. From the data in Table 4, it
361 can be seen that the two soils are different materials: the soil from site 1 has a narrower
362 particle size range ($C_U=10$), high degradable content (nearly 20%) and a diameter ratio of
363 degradable to inert material that is in the main less than one. In contrast, site 2 soils have a
364 much wider particle size range ($C_U = 200$) and 5% degradable content. The diameter ratio is
365 more difficult to determine as a single value but given a well-graded soil with a high C_U it has
366 been assumed to be between 1.0 and 12. In summary, site 1 soils have a sizeable degradable
367 fraction of predominantly large particles, whereas at site 2 soils are comprised of a small
368 amount of predominantly small particles.

369 Figure 13-2 shows the observed settlement of site 1 & 2 soils superimposed on the
370 settlement data from the well-graded soil samples. It should, however, be noted that after 628
371 days the compression apparatus housing the sample from Site 1 developed a corrosion-
372 induced leak and it was necessary to terminate the test. At the time that the test was
373 terminated, the cumulative biogas production was 2.5 ml/g dry mass. With a biochemical
374 methane potential of at least 4.7 ml/g, potential for degradation remained and it is likely that
375 settlement would have continued. Biogas production and settlement, shown in Fig.14, appear
376 to be ongoing. So, the trajectory of the site 1 settlement data marker, plotted in Fig.13
377 according to the settlement data at the time of the equipment failure, may be expected to
378 continue as shown, projected to the midpoint of the bandwidth.

379 Site 2 has a quite different combination of physical and degradation characteristics. It plots
380 as shown in Fig. 13, lying in the upper part of the settlement bandwidth for a 5% degradable
381 content. At this magnitude of degradable content, the settlement trajectory lies within the
382 flatter narrow part of the settlement bandwidth, which predicts a small amount of settlement,
383 regardless of diameter ratio. This material exhibited little measurable settlement.

384 It is also interesting to note long-term settlement observations in aged waste made by
385 Ivanova et al (2008) in their consolidating anaerobic reactor cell. The aged waste had 16%
386 degradable material (by dry mass), maximum particle size of 40 mm and a C_U value of 39.
387 Biodegradation-related settlement of 5.1% over 338 days was reported (Ivanova, 2007),
388 which can be seen from Fig. 13 to be consistent with our landfill reclaimed soils.

389 Although the data are few, the two landfill-reclaimed soils appear to follow patterns of
390 settlement behavior that are consistent with the conceptual models based on the amount of
391 degradable material and its relative size, and with behaviour observed in the salt-sand
392 analogues.

393

394 8 CONCLUSIONS

395 Particle loss experiments, where the particle in question is a degradable organic material,
396 require days or months to run. In contrast, salt-sand mixtures, which can be dissolved in less
397 than an hour, have quickly provided insights into the mechanics of particle loss and the
398 importance of a number of factors controlling volume change. This paper has shown that in
399 salt-sand analogues, three factors combine to control settlement and void ratio changes.
400 These factors are: a) the amount of removable matter, b) its size relative to the host material
401 and c) the grading of the host soil. A conceptual model has been presented to elucidate the
402 influence of these factors on the two volumetric measures.

403 From the model and the experimental data for poorly-graded host soils, we see that
404 settlement is small or even unlikely to occur at low percentage soluble particle contents, up to
405 about 10% - 15%. At higher percentages of soluble matter, settlements are greater and
406 demonstrate some sensitivity to soluble particle size. This behaviour can be attributed to the
407 presence of strong force chains and the incidence of soluble particles within these chains,

408 which is likely to be small when the percentage of soluble particles is low. Strong force
409 chains also explain the observed changes in void ratio. Void ratio changes are a direct
410 consequence of particle loss but if strong force chains maintain the overall volume regardless
411 of soluble particle size, the change in void ratio will be insensitive to soluble particle size,
412 which we have observed at soluble contents up to about 10 or 15%.

413 Well-graded host soils appear to follow some of the behavioural patterns observed in
414 poorly-graded hosts. They show settlement to be bilinear with amount of soluble matter
415 although there is a narrower bandwidth than occurring in poorly-graded soils. Changes in
416 void ratio are not as great as in well-graded soils, as would be the case if overall volume
417 change is greater. In this case, particle loss does not leave behind the open void spaces, the
418 well-graded host material appearing to be more likely to rearrange than the poorly graded
419 soils.

420 This paper has also shown that the postulated particle loss behaviour, evidenced by a large
421 number of laboratory tests on salt-sand analogues from two institutions' test programmes, can
422 provide a conceptual framework in which to interpret the behaviour of landfill reclaimed soil.

423

424 9 PRACTICAL APPLICATION

425 The ultimate goal is to provide an evidence-based standard for geotechnical engineers to
426 follow when faced with the option of using this type of reclaimed fill. As green construction
427 practices increasingly become a societal goal and indeed an economic benefit, the authors
428 suggests that geotechnical engineers may wish to reconsider the age-old (safe and cautious)
429 practice of bulldozing away poor-quality soil to be replaced only with high quality imported
430 granular fill. The research programme of which some first steps are described in this paper
431 represents an effort to provide industry with such evidence and guidance.

432 For example, the settlement potential of landfill-reclaimed soil comprising some
433 degradable content can be estimated by a relatively straightforward two-stage process. First
434 establish the amount of degradable material by LOI or biochemical methane assay. For the
435 soils tested here, two scenarios are encountered:

- 436 • If the amount of degradable material is small, say less than 10% then expected
437 settlement is read directly from the initial part of the settlement with percentage
438 degradable matter curve. Neither particle size nor host soil influences the settlement
439 prediction.
- 440 • If the amount of degradable matter is large, say greater than 10% then a combination
441 of host soil grading and size of lost particles combine to influence settlement. In the
442 data shown here, the greatest settlement occurs where lost particles are large (small
443 diameter ratio) in a poorly graded host soil.

444 Of course further practical insight and reliability in the proposed method of predicting
445 settlement in landfill-reclaimed soils will only be gained by the accumulation of laboratory
446 test results such as those obtained from the degrading consolidometer and ultimately field
447 monitoring.

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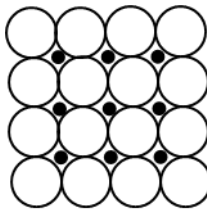
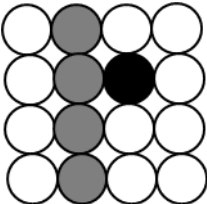
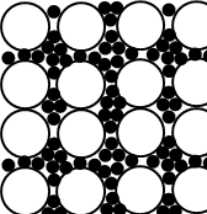
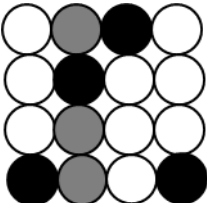
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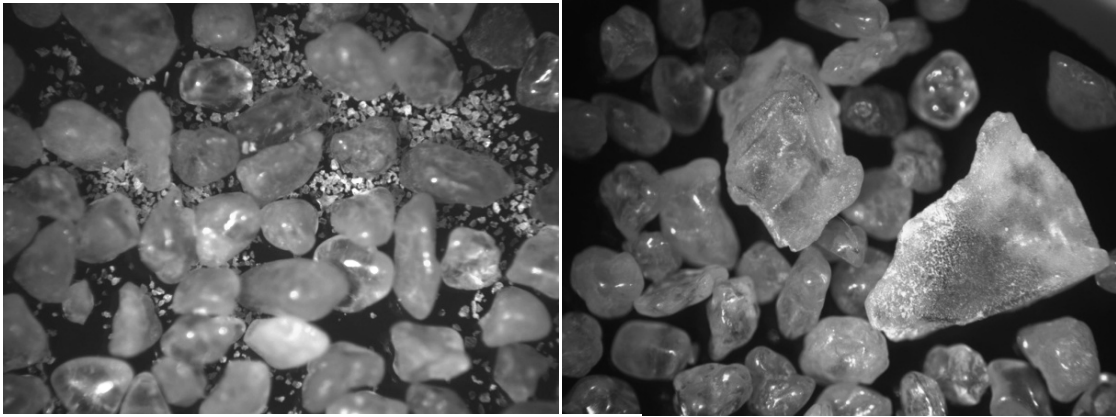
Fig. 1. Photographs showing the landfill soil reclamation process: material post screening (left) and screening plant (right).

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		Soluble Particles	
		Small $D_R = 9.0$	Large $D_R = 1.0$
Amounts	Small ~2% by mass	Nestling 	Occasional force chain 
		A $dV_T = 0.0$	B $dV_T \rightarrow 0$
	Large ~20% by mass	Matrix 	Frequent force chain 
		C $dV_T > 0$	D $dV_T > 0$

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Fig. 2: Conceptual model of soluble particle disposition within uniform inert particle assembly showing key indicators of phase volume changes due to particle loss.

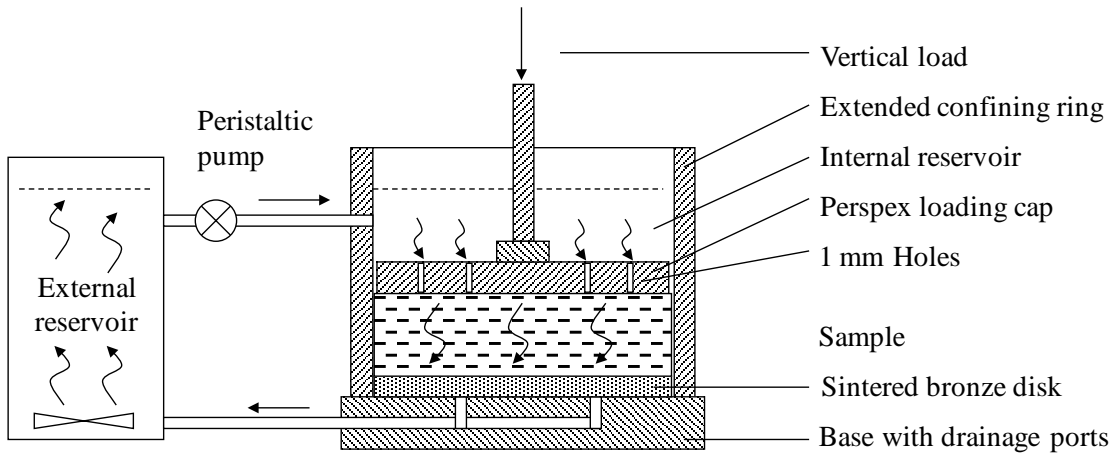


(a)

(b)

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Fig. 3. Photographs of sand-salt (Leighton Buzzard) mixes showing relative sizes and shapes:
(a) 1.0 mm salt particles; (b) 0.063 mm salt particles



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Fig. 4. Schematic diagram of modified oedometer allowing for circulation of pore fluid through sample and large (4 litre) external reservoir (not shown to scale), Edinburgh Napier University

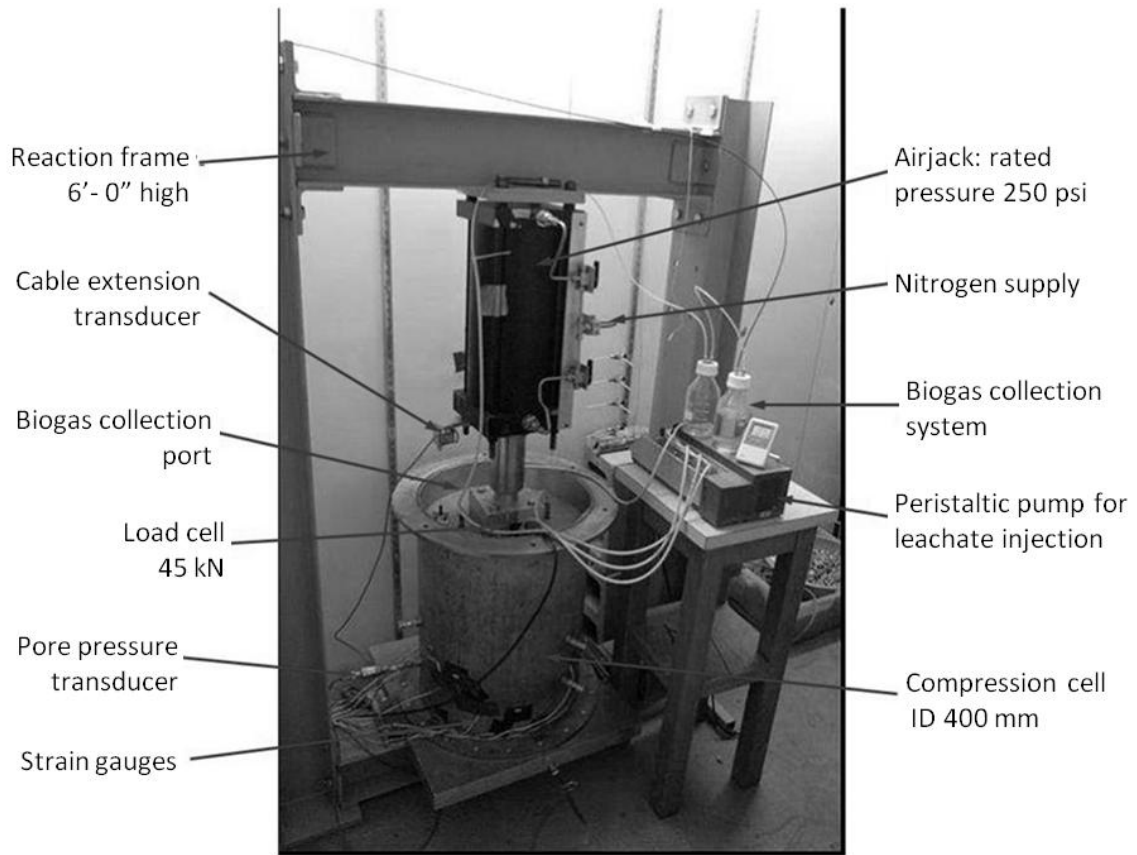
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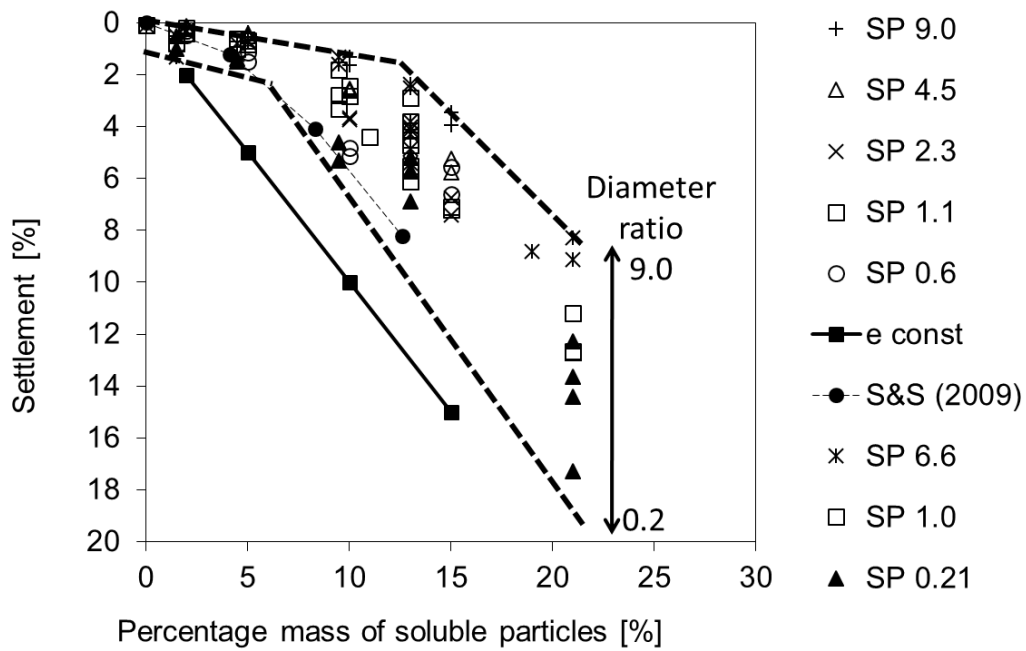
Fig. 5. Sample cell seated in pneumatic consolidation cell at University of Saskatchewan

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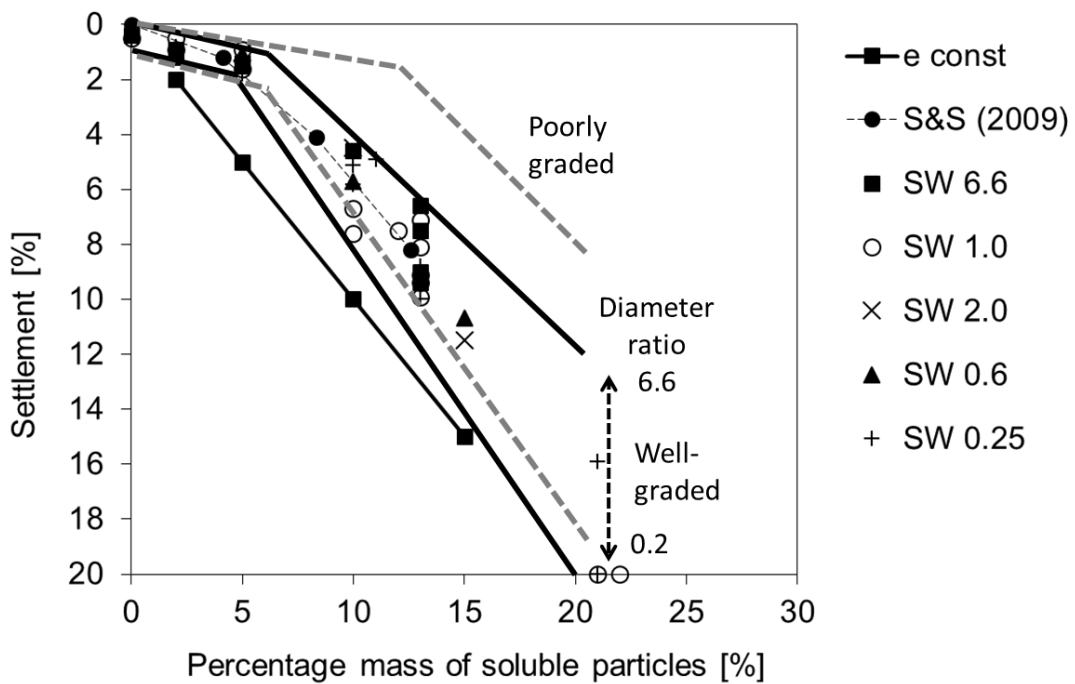
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Fig.6. .Accelerated-degradation-gas-collecting consolidometer, University of Saskatchewan



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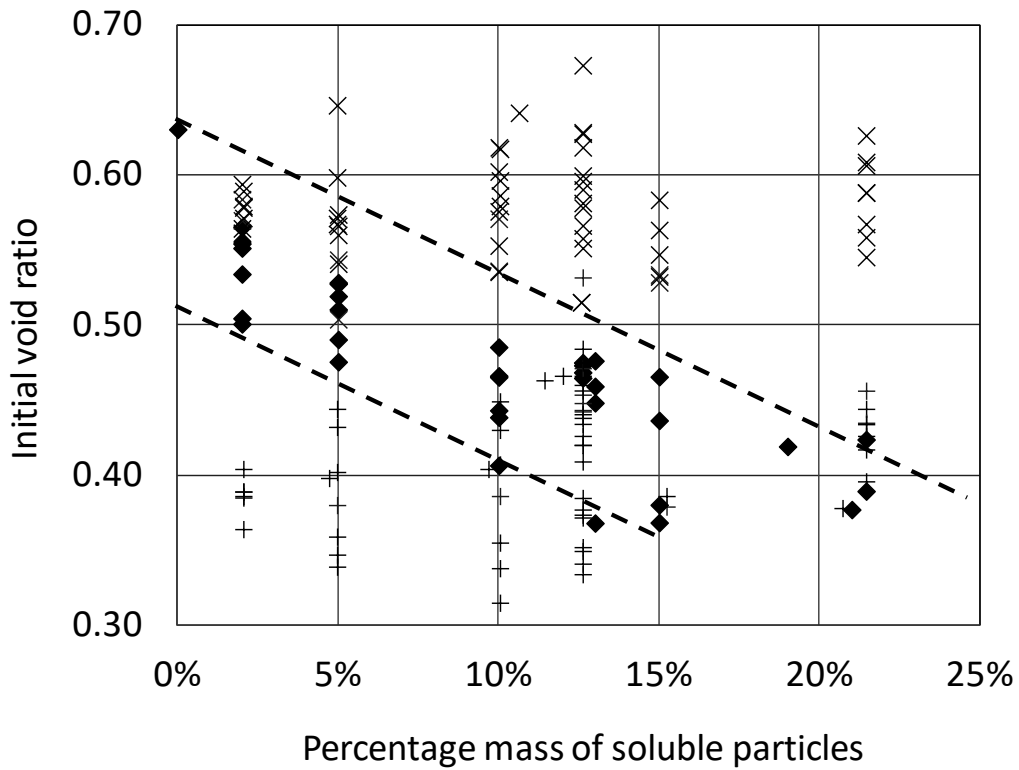
Fig. 7. Settlement of sand-salt (poorly-graded sand) mixtures by particle size (as diameter ratio) and percentage (by mass) of soluble salt.



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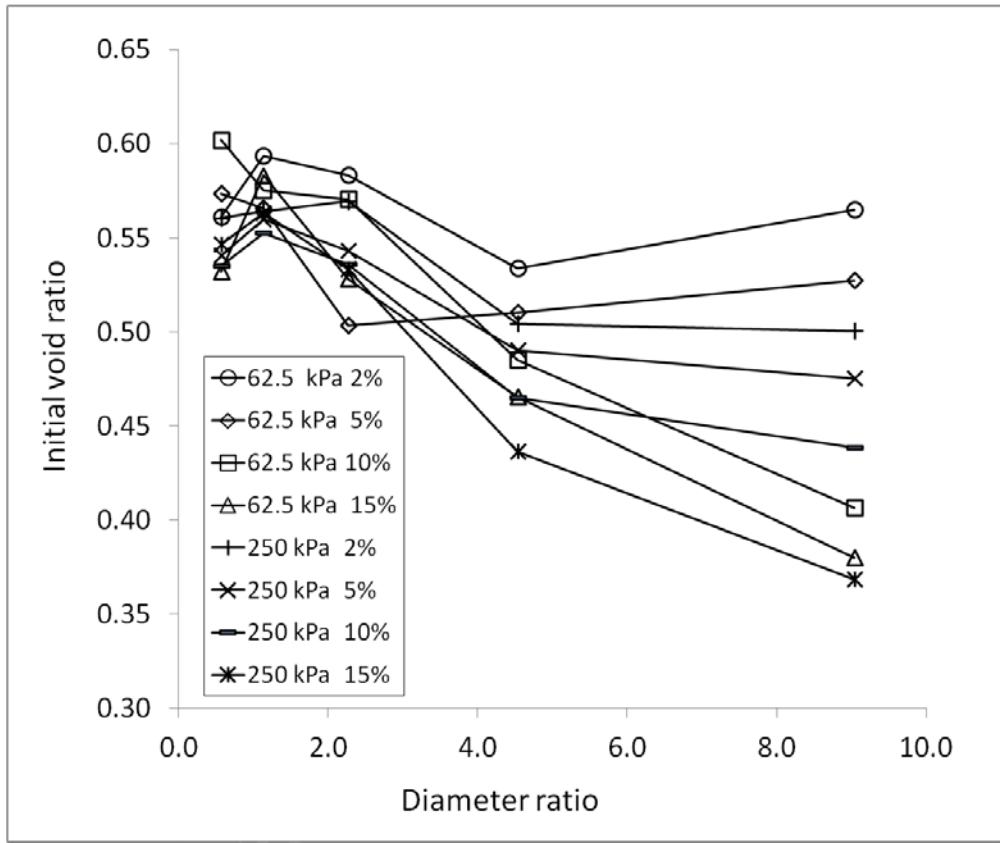
Fig. 8. Settlement of sand-salt (well-graded sand) mixtures by particle size (as diameter ratio) and percentage (by mass) of soluble salt. Bandwidth for poorly-graded mixtures data in Fig 6 is shown by the broken lines

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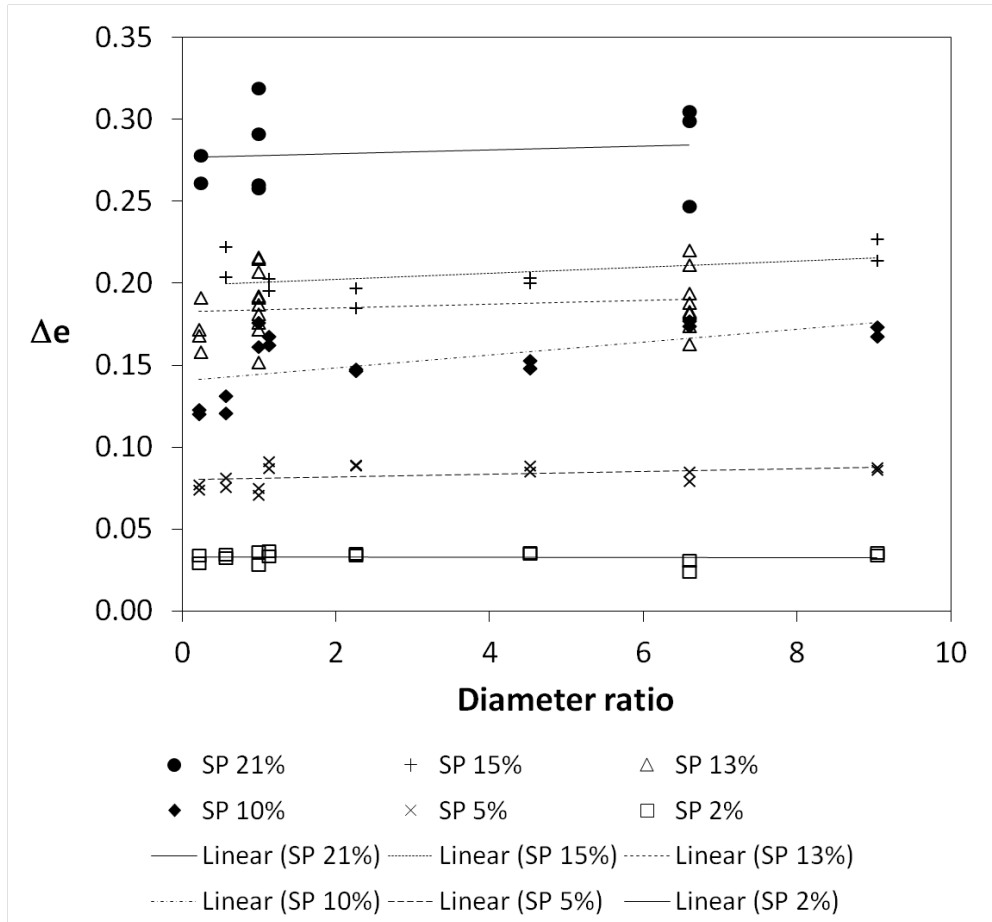
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Fig. 9. Initial void ratios for poorly-graded and well-graded sand-salt mixtures where the symbol \times denotes poorly graded sand samples with diameter ratio < 4.6 , i.e. predominantly large salt particles, symbol $+$ denotes well graded samples, and solid diamond \blacklozenge denotes poorly graded sands with small salt particles, which clearly show the influence of the addition of small particles on void ratio.



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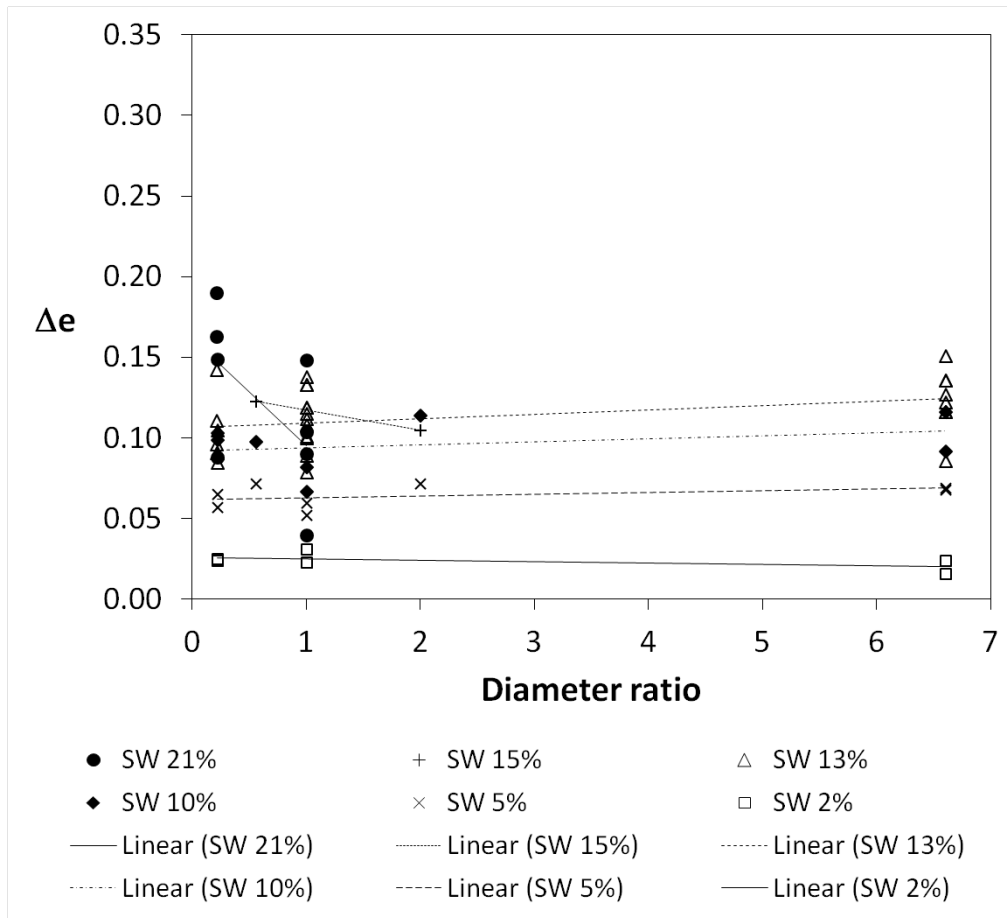
Fig. 10. Comparison of initial void ratios for Edinburgh Napier sand-salt mixtures separated by percentage (by mass) of soluble particles and vertical load.



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Fig. 11. Change in void ratio due to dissolution in (poorly-graded) sand-salt mixtures by particle size (as diameter ratio) and percentage (by mass) of salt.

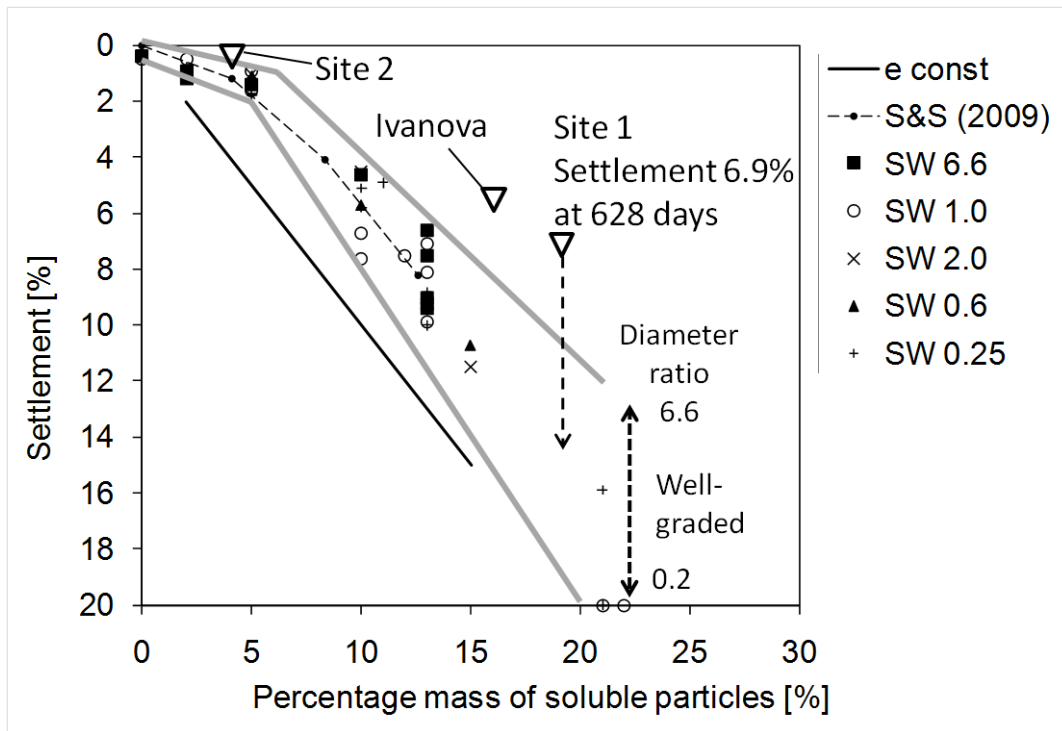
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Fig. 12. Change in void ratio due to dissolution in (well-graded) sand-salt mixtures by particle size (as diameter ratio) and percentage (by mass) of salt.

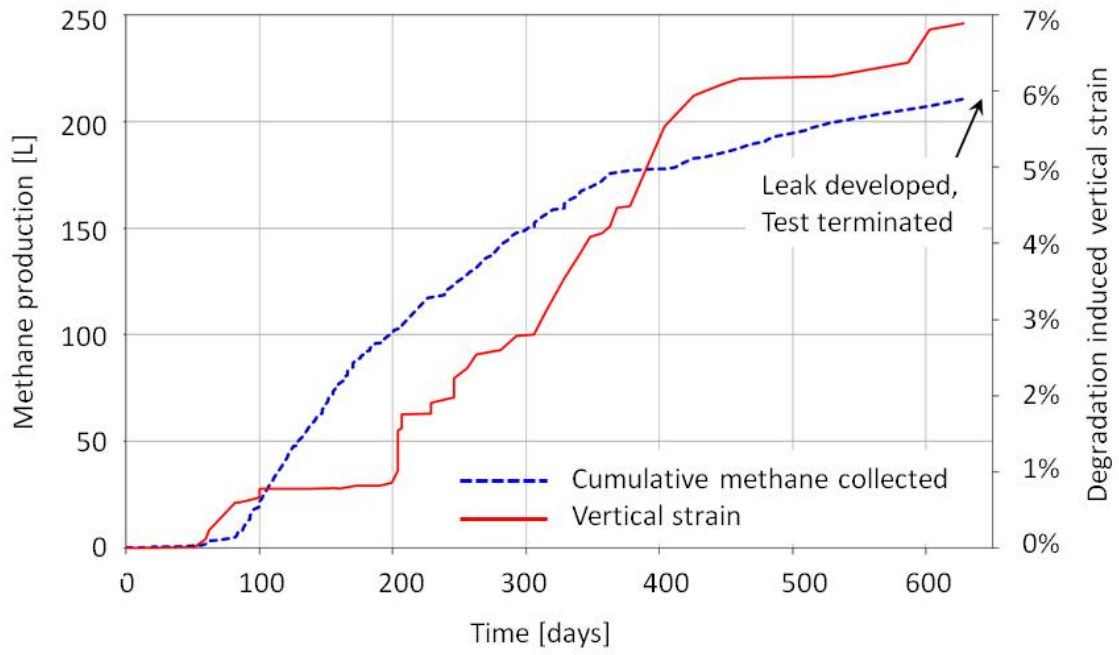
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Fig. 13. Comparison of current and predicted settlement of landfill reclaimed soil samples with (well-graded) sand-salt mixtures. Also showing biodegradation-related settlement from Ivanova (2007) at 338 days.

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Fig. 14. Settlement and gas production monitoring in Site 1 landfill-reclaimed soil.

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Table 1. Main physical properties of the sand-salt mixtures tested in the combined programme.

	<i>Edinburgh Napier</i>	<i>Saskatchewan</i>
Sand	Leighton Buzzard	Ottawa
Form	Sub-rounded quartz	Sub-rounded quartz
D ₅₀	0.85 mm	2.36 mm
C _U	1.4	1.18 (SP) 6.98 (SW)
Added amounts (by mass)	2%, 5%, 10%, 15%	2%, 5%, 10%, 13%, 21%
Salt particle sizes [mm]	0.063, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, 1.0	0.36, 2.36, 11.2
Diameter ratios	9, 4.5, 2.3, 1.1, 0.6	6.6, 1.0, 0.25
G _s (sand)	2.65	2.65
G _s (salt, NaCl)	2.165	2.165
Vertical stress [kPa]	62.5, 250	60
Number of tests	40	55 (SP), 63 (SW)

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Table 2. Summary of number of tests performed at Edinburgh Napier (ENU) and University of Saskatchewan (UoS) by diameter ratio and amount of salt in each of tests – poorly-graded sand fraction.

Percentage salt (by mass)	Diameter ratio = $D_{50 \text{ sand}}/D_{50 \text{ salt}}$								
	Amount	9	6.6	4.5	2.3	1.1	1	0.6	0.25
0			1 UoS						
2	2 ENU	2 UoS	2 ENU	2 ENU	2 ENU	2 UoS	2 ENU	2 UoS	
5	2 ENU	2 UoS	2 ENU	2 ENU	2 ENU	2 UoS	2 ENU	2 UoS	
10	2 ENU	2 UoS	2 ENU	2 ENU	2 ENU	4 UoS	2 ENU	2 UoS	
13		8 UoS				10 UoS		4 UoS	
15	2 ENU		2 ENU	2 ENU	2 ENU		2 ENU		
21		4 UoS				4 UoS		4 UoS	

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647 Table 3. Summary of number of tests performed at University of Saskatchewan (UoS) by
 648 diameter ratio and amount of salt in each of tests – well-graded sand fraction.

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Percentage salt (by mass)	Amount	Diameter ratio = $D_{50 \text{ sand}}/D_{50 \text{ salt}}$							
		9	6.6	4.5	2.0	1.1	1	0.6	0.21
	0		1 UoS				1 UoS		1 UoS
	2		2 UoS				2 UoS		2 UoS
	5		2 UoS		1 UoS		2 UoS	1 UoS	2 UoS
	10		2 UoS		1 UoS		2 UoS	1 UoS	3 UoS
	13		8 UoS				12 UoS		7 UoS
	15				1 UoS				1 UoS
	21						4 UoS		4 UoS

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655 Table 4. Comparison of key characteristics and measured behavior of two landfill reclaimed
 656 soil samples
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PROPERTY	SITE 1	SITE 2
D ₅₀	2.0 mm	1.0 mm
Cu	10	200
Inert fraction (by dry mass)	81.1%	95%
Degradable fraction* (by dry mass)	18.9%	5%
Loss on ignition	8.2% - 12.4%	4.2%
Size range of degradable fraction	90% >0.85 mm	78% <1.2 mm
Diameter ratio*	0.2–0.8	0.8–12
Biochemical methane potential	4.7 – 9.3 ml/g	<1 ml/g
Initial compression	1.0 mm	2.6 mm
Compression (after 65 days)	2.6 mm	3.5 mm
Biogas production (L/kg dry mass)	2.5	0.02
Total monitored compression	19.9 mm at 628 days	
Degradation-induced long term settlement	6.9%	0.18%

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 661 * Degradable fraction was determined by manually removing all organic, degradable material (e.g. fragments
 662 of wood and other such materials). This value exceeds the LOI as the degradable fraction includes a portion
 663 of ash.

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 665 ** Degradable fraction size range spans several sieves complicating determination of diameter ratio.
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