2.4 Inspection of Borrow Sources Prior to Excavation

2.4.1 Sampling for Material Tests

In order to determine the properties of the borrow soil, samples are often obtained from the potential borrow area for laboratory analysis prior to actual excavation but as part of the construction contract. Samples may be obtained in several ways. One method of sampling is to drill soil borings and recover samples of soil from the borings. This procedure can be very effective in identifying major strata and substrata within the borrow area. Small samples obtained from the borings are excellent for index property testing but often do not provide a very good indication of subtle stratigraphic changes in the borrow area. Test pits excavated into the borrow soil with a backhoe, frontend loader, or other excavation equipment can expose a large cross-section of the borrow soil. One can obtain a much better idea of the variability of soil in the potential borrow area by examining exposed cuts rather than viewing small soil samples obtained from borings.

Large bulk samples of soil are required for compaction testing in the laboratory. Small samples of soil taken with soil sampling devices do not provide a sufficient volume of soil for laboratory compaction testing. Some engineers combine samples of soil taken at different depths or from different borings to produce a composite sample of adequate volume. This technique is not recommended because a degree of mixing takes place in forming the composite laboratory test sample that would not take place in the field. Other engineers prefer to collect material from auger borings for use in performing laboratory compaction tests. This technique is likewise not recommended without careful borrow pit control because vertical mixing of material takes place during auguring in a way that would not be expected to occur in the field unless controlled vertical cuts are made. The best method for obtaining large bulk samples of material for laboratory compaction testing is to take a large sample of material from one location in the borrow source. A large, bulk sample can be taken from the wall or floor of a test pit that has been excavated into the borrow area. Alternatively, a large piece of drilling equipment such as a bucket auger can be used to obtain a large volume of soil from a discreet point in the ground.

2.4.2. Material Tests

Samples of soil must be taken for laboratory testing to ensure conformance with specifications for parameters such as percentage fines and plasticity index. The samples are sometimes taken in the borrow pit, are sometimes taken from the loose lift just prior to compaction, and are sometimes taken from both. If samples are taken from the borrow area, CQA inspectors track the approximate volumes of soil excavated and sample at the frequency prescribed in the CQA plan. Sometimes borrow-source testing is performed prior to issuing of a contract to purchase the borrow material. A CQA program cannot be implemented for work already completed. The CQA personnel will have ample opportunity to check the properties of soil materials later during excavation and placement of the soils. If the CQA personnel for a project did not observe borrow soil testing, the CQA personnel should review the results of borrow soil testing to ensure that the required tests have been performed. Additional testing of the borrow material may be required during excavation of the material.

The material tests that are normally performed on borrow soil are water content, Atterberg limits, particle size distribution, compaction curve, and hydraulic conductivity (Table 2.2). Each of these tests is discussed below.

Table 2.2 - Materials Tests

Parameter	ASTM Test Method	Title of ASTM Test
Water Content	D-2216	Laboratory Determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil and Rock
	D-4643	Determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil by the Microwave Oven Method
	D-4944	Field determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil by the Calcium Carbide Gas Pressure Tester Method
	D-4959	Determination of Water (Moisture) Content by Direct Heating Method
Liquid Limit, Plastic Limit, & Plasticity Index	D-4318	Liquid Limit, Plastic Limit, and Plasticity Index of Soils
Particle Size Distribution	D-422	Particle Size Analysis of Soil
Compaction Curve	D-698	Moisture-Density Relations for Soils and Soil-Aggregate Mixtures Using 5.5-lb. (2.48-kg) Rammer and 12-in. (305-mm) Drop
	D-1557	Moisture-Density Relations for Soils and Soil-Aggregate Mixtures Using 10-lb. (4.54-kg) Rammer and 18-in. (457-mm) Drop
Hydraulic Conductivity	D-5084	Measurement of Hydraulic Conductivity of Saturated Porous Materials Using A Flexible Wall Permeameter

2.4.2.1 Water Content

It is important to know the water content of the borrow soils so that the need for wetting or drying the soil prior to compaction can be identified. The water content of the borrow soil is normally measured following the procedures outlined in ASTM D-2216 if one can wait overnight for results. If not, other test methods described in Section 2.3.1 and listed in Table 2.2 can be used to produce results faster.

2.4.2.2 Atterberg Limits

Construction specifications for compacted soil liners often require a minimum value for the liquid limit and/or plasticity index of the soil. These parameters are measured in the laboratory with the procedures outlined in ASTM D-4318.

2.4.2.3 Particle Size Distribution

Construction specifications for soil liners often place limits on the minimum percentage of fines, the maximum percentage of gravel, and in some cases the minimum percentage of clay. Particle size analysis is performed following the procedures in ASTM D-422. Normally the requirements for the soil material are explicitly stated in the construction specifications. An experienced inspector can often judge the percentage of fine material and the percentage of sand or gravel in the soil. However, compliance with specifications is best documented by laboratory testing.

2.4.2.4 Compaction Curve

Compaction curves are developed utilizing the method of laboratory compaction testing required in the construction specifications. Standard compaction (ASTM D-698) and modified compaction (ASTM D-1557) are two common methods of laboratory compaction specified for soil liners. However, other compaction methods (particularly those unique to state highway or transportation departments) are sometimes specified.

Great care should be taken to follow the procedures for soil preparation outlined in the relevant test method. In particular, the drying of a cohesive material can change the Atterberg limits as well as the compaction characteristics of the soil. If the test procedure recommends that the soil not be dried, the soil should not be dried. Also, care must be taken when sieving the soil not to remove clods of cohesive material. Rather, clods of soil retained on a sieve should be broken apart by hand if necessary to cause them to pass through the openings of the sieve. Sieves should only be used to remove stones or other large pieces of material following ASTM procedures.

2.4.2.5 Hydraulic Conductivity

The hydraulic conductivity of compacted samples of borrow material may be measured periodically to verify that the soil liner material can be compacted to achieve the required low hydraulic conductivity. Several methods of laboratory permeation are available, and others are under development. ASTM D-5084 is the only ASTM procedure currently available. Care should be taken not to apply excessive effective confining stress to test specimens. If no value is specified in the CQA plan, a maximum effective stress of 35 kPa (5 psi) is recommended for both liner and cover systems.

Care should be taken to prepare specimens for hydraulic conductivity testing properly. In addition to water content and dry unit weight, the method of compaction and the compactive energy can have a significant influence on the hydraulic conductivity of laboratory-compacted soils. It is particularly important not to deliver too much compactive energy to attain a desired dry unit weight. The purpose of the hydraulic conductivity test is to verify that borrow soils can be compacted to the desired hydraulic conductivity using a reasonable compactive energy.

No ASTM compaction method exists for preparation of hydraulic conductivity test specimens. The following procedure is recommended:

1. Obtain a large, bulk sample of representative material with a mass of approximately 20 kg.

2. Develop a laboratory compaction curve using the procedure specified in the construction specifications for compaction control, e.g., ASTM D-698 or D-1557.

3. Determine the target water content (w_{target}) and dry unit weight ($\gamma_{d,target}$) for the hydraulic conductivity test specimen. The value of w_{target} is normally the lowest acceptable water content and $\gamma_{d,target}$ is normally the minimum acceptable dry unit weight (Fig. 2.29).

4. Enough soil to make several test specimens is mixed to w_{target}. The compaction procedure used in Step 2 is used to prepare a compacted specimen, except that the energy of compaction is reduced, e.g., by reducing the number of drops of the ram per lift. The dry unit weight (γ_d) is determined. If $\gamma_d \approx \gamma_{d,\ target}$, the compacted specimen may be used for hydraulic conductivity testing. If $\gamma_d \neq \gamma_{d,target}$, then another test specimen is prepared with a larger or smaller (as appropriate) compactive energy. Trial and error preparation of test specimens is repeated until $\gamma_d \approx \gamma_{d,\ target}$. The procedure is illustrated in Fig. 2.29. The actual compactive effort should be documented along with hydraulic conductivity.

5. Atterberg limits and percentage fines should be determined for each bulk sample. Water content and dry density should be reported for each compacted specimen.

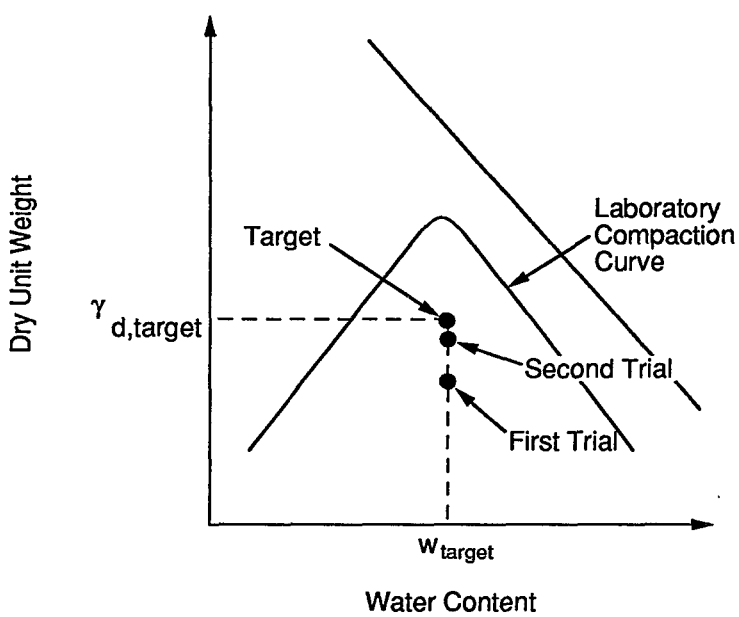

Figure 2.29 - Recommended Procedure for Preparation of a Test Specimen Using Variable (But Documented) Compactive Energy for Each Trial

2.4.2.6 Testing Frequency

The CQA plan should stipulate the frequency of testing. Recommended minimum values are shown in Table 2.3. The tests listed in Table 2.3 are normally performed prior to construction as part of the characterization of the borrow source. However, if time or circumstances do not permit characterization of the borrow source prior to construction, the samples for testing are obtained during excavation or delivery of the soil materials.

Table 2.3 - Recommended Minimum Testing Frequencies for Investigation of Borrow Source

Parameter	Frequency
Water Content	1 Test per 2000 m^3 or Each Change in Material Type
Atterberg Limits	1 Test per 5000 m^3 or Each Change in Material Type
Percentage Fines	1 Test per 5000 m^3 or Each Change in Material Type
Percent Gravel	1 Test per 5000 m^3 or Each Change in Material Type
Compaction Curve	1 Test per 5000 m^3 or Each Change in Material Type
Hydraulic Conductivity	1 Test per 10,000 m^3 or Each Change in Material Type

Note: 1 yd^3 = 0.76 m^3

2.5 Inspection during Excavation of Borrow Soil

It is strongly recommended that a qualified inspector who reports directly to the CQA engineer observe all excavation of borrow soil in the borrow pit. Often the best way to determine whether deleterious material is present in the borrow soil is to observe the excavation of the soil directly.

A key factor for inspectors to observe is the plasticity of the soil. Experienced technicians can often determine whether or not a soil has adequate plasticity by carefully examining the soil in the field. A useful practice for field identification of soils is ASTM D-2488, "Description and Identification of Soils (Visual-Manual Procedure)." The following procedure is used for identifying clayey soils.

- Dry strength: The technician selects enough soil to mold into a ball about 25 mm (1 in.) in diameter. Water is added if necessary to form three balls that each have a diameter of about 12 mm (1/2 in.). The balls are allowed to dry in the sun. The strength of the dry balls is evaluated by crushing them between the fingers. The dry strength is described with the criteria shown in Table 2.4. If the dry strength is none or low, inspectors should be alerted to the possibility that the soil lacks adequate plasticity.

- Plasticity: The soil is moistened or dried so that a test specimen can be shaped into an elongated pat and rolled by hand on a smooth surface or between the palms into a thread about 3 mm (1/8 in.) in diameter. If the sample is too wet to roll easily it should be spread into a thin layer and allowed to lose some water by evaporation. The sample threads are re-rolled repeatedly until the thread crumbles at a diameter of about 3 mm (1/8 in.). The thread will crumble at a diameter of 3 mm when the soil is near the plastic limit. The plasticity is described from the criteria shown in Table 2.5, based upon observations made during the toughness test. Non-plastic soils are usually unsuitable for use as soil liner materials without use of amendments such as bentonite.

Table 2.4 - Criteria for Describing Dry Strength (ASTM D-2488)

Description	Criteria
None	The dry specimen crumbles into powder with mere pressure of handling
Low	The dry specimen crumbles into powder with some finger pressure
Medium	The dry specimen breaks into pieces or crumbles with considerable finger pressure
High	The dry specimen cannot be broken with finger pressure. Specimen will break into pieces between thumb and a hard surface
Very High	The dry specimen cannot be broken between the thumb and a hard surface

Table 2.5 - Criteria for Describing Plasticity (ASTM D-2488)

Description	Criteria
Nonplastic	A 3 mm (1/8-in.) thread cannot be rolled at any water content
Low	The thread can barely be rolled and the lump cannot be formed when drier than the plastic limit
Medium	A thread is easy to roll and not much time is required to reach the plastic limit. The thread cannot be rerolled after reaching the plastic limit. The lump crumbles when drier than the plastic limit
High	It takes considerable time rolling and kneading to reach the plastic limit. The thread can be rerolled several times after reaching the plastic limit. The lump can be formed without crumbling when drier than the plastic limit

2.6 Preprocessing of Materials

Some soil liner materials are ready to be used for final construction immediately after they are excavated from the borrow pit. However, most materials require some degree of processing prior to placement and compaction of the soil.

2.6.1 Water Content Adjustment

Soils that are too wet must first be dried. If the water content needs to be reduced by no more than about three percentage points, the soil can be dried after it has been spread in a loose lift just prior to compaction. If the water content must be reduced by more than about 3 percentage points, it is recommended that drying take place in a separate processing area. The reason for drying in a separate processing area is to allow adequate time for the soil to dry uniformly and to facilitate mixing of the material during drying. The soil to be dried is spread in a lift about 225 to 300 mm (9 to 12 in.) thick and allowed to dry. Water content is periodically measured using one or more of the methods listed in Table 2.2. The contractor's CQC personnel should check the soil periodically to determine when the soil has reached the proper water content.

The CQA inspectors should check to be sure that the soil is periodically mixed with a disc or rototiller to ensure uniform drying. The soil cannot be considered to be ready for placement and compaction unless the water is uniformly distributed; water content measurements alone do not ensure that water is uniformly distributed within the soil.

If the soil must be moistened prior to compaction, the same principles discussed above for drying apply; water content adjustment in a separate preprocessing area is recommended if the water content must be increased by more than about 3 percentage points. Inspectors should be careful to verify that water is distributed uniformly to the soil (a spreader bar on the back of a water truck is the recommended device for moistening soil uniformly), that the soil is periodically mixed with a disc or rototiller, and that adequate time has been allowed for uniform hydration of the soil. If the water content is increased by more than three percentage points, at least 24 to 48 hours would normally be required for uniform absorption of water and hydration of soil particles. The construction specifications may limit the type of water that can be used; in some cases, contaminated water, brackish water, or sea water is not allowed.

2.6.2 Removal of Oversize Particles

Oversized stones and rocks should be removed from the soil liner material. Stones and rocks interfere with compaction of the soil and may create undesirable pathways for fluid to flow through the soil liner. The construction specifications should stipulate the maximum allowable size of particles in the soil liner material.

Oversized particles can be removed with mechanical equipment (e.g., large screens) or by hand. Inspectors should examine the loose lift of soil after the contractor has removed oversized particles to verify that oversized particles are not present. Sieve analyses alone do not provide adequate assurance that oversized materials have been removed -- careful visual inspection for oversized material should be mandatory.

2.6.3 Pulverization of Clods

Some specifications for soil liners place limitations on the maximum size of chunks or clods of clay present in the soil liner material. Discs, rototillers, and road recyclers are examples of mechanical devices that will pulverize clods in a loose lift. Visual inspection of the loose lift of material is normally performed to ensure that clods of soil have been pulverized to the extent required in the construction specifications. Inspectors should be able to visually examine the entire surface of a loose lift to determine whether clods have been adequately processed. No standard method exists for determining clod size. Inspectors normally measure the dimensions of an individual clod with a ruler.

2.6.4 Homogenizing Soils

CQC and CQA are very difficult to perform for heterogeneous materials. It may be necessary to blend and homogenize soils prior to their use in constructing soil liners in order to maintain proper CQC and CQA. Soils can be blended and homogenized in a pugmill. The best way to ensure adequate mixing of materials is through visual inspection of the mixing process itself.

2.6.5 Bentonite

Bentonite is a common additive to soil liner materials that do not contain enough clay to achieve the desired low hydraulic conductivity. Inspectors must ensure that the bentonite being used for a project is in conformance with specifications (i.e., is of the proper quality and gradation) and that the bentonite is uniformly mixed with soil in the required amounts.

The parameters that are specified for the bentonite quality vary considerably from project to project. The construction specifications should stipulate the criteria to be met by the bentonite and

the relevant test methods. The quality of bentonite is usually measured with some type of measurement of water adsorption ability of the clay. Direct measurement of water adsorption can be accomplished using the plate water adsorption test (ASTM E-946). This test is used primarily in the taconite iron ore industry to determine the effectiveness of bentonite, which is used as a binder during the pelletizing process to soak up excess water in the ore. Brown (1992) reports that thousands of plate water adsorption tests have been performed on bentonite, but experience has been that the test is time consuming, cumbersome, and extremely sensitive to variations in the test equipment and test conditions. The plate water adsorption test is not recommended for CQC/CQA of soil liners.

Simple, alternative tests that provide an indirect indication of water adsorption are available. One indirect test for water adsorption is measurement of Atterberg (liquid and plastic) limits via ASTM D-4318. The higher the quality of the bentonite, the higher the liquid limit and plasticity index. Although liquid and plastic limits tests are very common for natural soils, they have not been frequently used as indicators of bentonite quality in the bentonite industry. A commonly-used test in the bentonite industry is the free swell test. The free swell test is used to determine the amount of swelling of bentonite when bentonite is exposed to water in a glass beaker. Unfortunately, there is currently no ASTM test for determining free swell of bentonite, although one is under development. Until such time as an ASTM standard is developed, the bentonite supplier may be consulted for a suggested testing procedure.

The liquid limit test and free swell test are recommended as the principal quality control tests for the quality of bentonite being used on a project. There are no widely accepted cutoff values for the liquid limit and free swell. However, the following is offered for the information of CQC and CQA inspectors. The liquid limit of calcium bentonite is frequently in the range of 100 to 150%. Sodium bentonite of medium quality is expected to have a liquid limit of approximately 300 to 500%. High-quality sodium bentonite typically has a liquid limit in the range of about 500 to 700%. According to Brown (1992), calcium bentonites usually have a free swell of less than 6 cc. Low-grade sodium bentonites typically have a free swell of 8 - 15 cc. High-grade bentonites often have free swell values in the range of 18 to 28 cc. If high-grade sodium bentonite is to be used on a project, inspectors should expect that the liquid limit will be ≥ 500% and the free swell will be ≥ 18 cc.

The bentonite must usually also meet gradational requirements. The gradation of the dry bentonite may be determined by carefully sieving the bentonite following procedures outlined in ASTM D-422. The CQA inspector should be particularly careful to ensure that the bentonite has been pulverized to the extent required in the construction specifications. The degree of pulverization is frequently overlooked. Finely-ground, powdered bentonite will behave differently when blended into soil than more coarsely ground, granular bentonite. CQC/CQA personnel should be particularly careful to make sure that the bentonite is sufficiently finely ground and is not delivered in too coarse a form (per project specifications); sieve tests on the raw bentonite received at a job site are recommended to verify gradation of the bentonite.

The bentonite supplier is expected to certify that the bentonite meets the specification requirements. However, CQA inspectors should perform their own tests to ensure compliance with the specifications. The recommended CQA tests and testing frequencies for bentonite quality and gradation are summarized in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 - Recommended Tests on Bentonite to Determine Bentonite Quality and Gradation

Parameter	Frequency	Test Method
Liquid Limit	1 per Truckload or 2 per Rail Car	ASTM D-4318, "Liquid Limit, Plastic Limit, and Plasticity Index of Soils"
Free Swell	1 per Truckload or 2 per Rail Car	No Standard Procedure Is Available
Grain Size of Dry Bentonite	1 per Truckload or 2 per Rail Car	ASTM D-422, "Particle Size Analysis of Soil"

2.6.5.1 Pugmill Mixing

A pugmill is a device for mixing dry materials. A schematic diagram of a typical pugmill is shown in Fig. 2.30. A conveyor belt feeds soil into a mixing unit, and bentonite drops downward into the mixing unit. The materials are mixed in a large box that contains rotating rods with mixing paddles. Water may be added to the mixture in the pugmill, as well.

The degree of automation of pugmills varies considerably. The most sophisticated pugmills have computer-controlled devices to monitor the amounts of the ingredients being mixed. CQA personnel should monitor the controls on the mixing equipment.

2.6.5.2 In-Place Mixing

An alternative mixing technique is to spread the soil in a loose lift, distribute bentonite on the surface, and mix the bentonite and soil using a rototiller or other mixing equipment. There are several potential problems with in-place mixing. The mixing equipment may not extend to an adequate depth and may not fully mix the loose lift of soil with bentonite. Alternatively, the mixing device may dig too deeply into the ground and actually mix the loose lift in with underlying materials. Bentonite (particularly powdered bentonite) may be blown away by wind when it is placed on the surface of a loose lift, thus reducing the amount of bentonite that is actually incorporated into the soil. The mixing equipment may fail to pass over all areas of the loose lift and may inadequately mix certain portions of the loose lift. Because of these problems many engineers believe that pugmill mixing provides a more reliable means for mixing bentonite with soil. CQA personnel should carefully examine the mixing process to ensure that the problems outlined above, or other problems, do not compromise the quality of the mixing process. Visual examination of the mixture to verify plasticity (see Section 2.5 and Table 2.5) is recommended.

2.6.5.3 Measuring Bentonite Content

The best way to control the amount of bentonite mixed with soil is to measure the relative weights of soil and bentonite blended together at the time of mixing. After bentonite has been

mixed with soil there are several techniques available to estimate the amount of bentonite in the soil. None of the techniques are particularly easy to use in all situations.

The recommended technique for measuring the amount of bentonite in soil is the methylene blue test (Alther, 1983). The methylene blue test is a type of titration test. Methylene blue is slowly titrated into a material and the amount of methylene blue required to saturate the material is determined. The more bentonite in the soil the greater the amount of methylene blue that must be added to achieve saturation. A calibration curve is developed between the amount of methylene blue needed to saturate the material and the bentonite content of the soil. The methylene blue test works very well when bentonite is added into a non-clayey soil. However, the amount of methylene blue that must be added to the soil is a function of the amount of clay present in the soil. If clay minerals other than bentonite are present, the clay minerals interfere with the determination of the bentonite content. There is no standard methylene blue test; the procedure outlined in Alther (1983) is suggested until such time as a standard test method is developed.

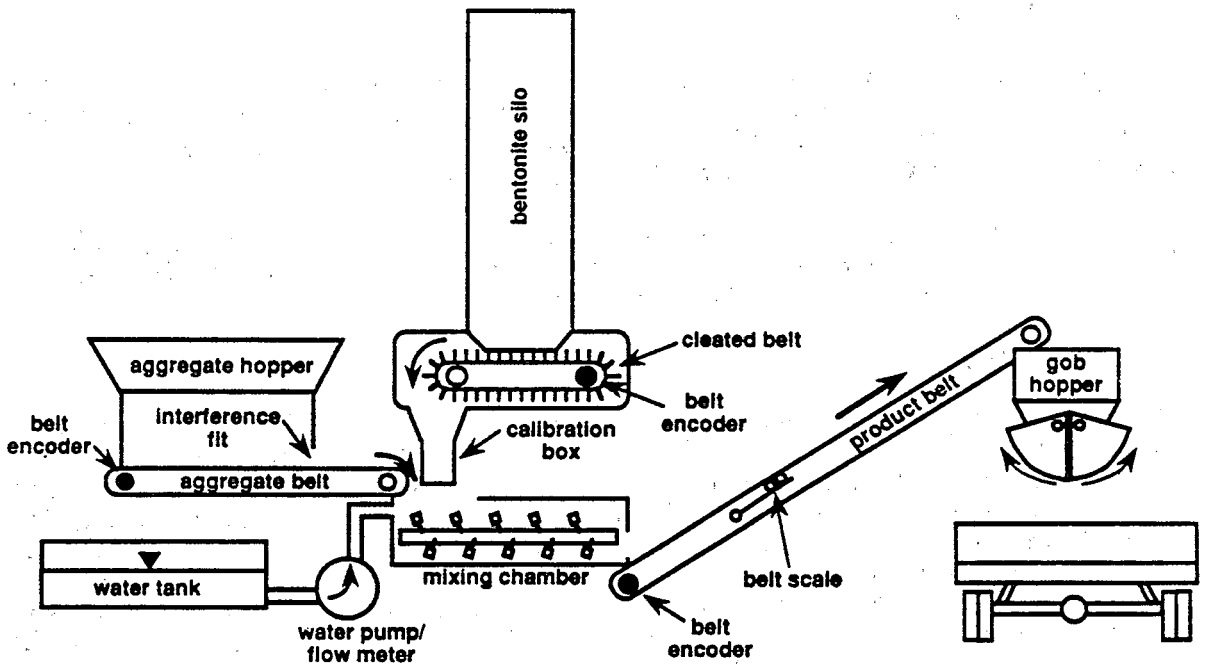

Figure 2.30 - Schematic Diagram of Pugmill

Another type of test that has been used to estimate bentonite content is the filter press test. This test is essentially a water absorbency test: the greater the amount of clay in a soil, the greater the water holding capacity. Like the methylene blue test, the filter press test works well if bentonite is the only source of clay in the soil. No specific test procedure was available at the time of this writing.

Measurement of hydraulic conductivity provides a means for verifying that enough bentonite has been added to the soil to achieve the desired low hydraulic conductivity. If insufficient bentonite has been added, the hydraulic conductivity should be unacceptably large. However, just because the hydraulic conductivity is acceptably low for a given sample does not necessarily mean that the required amount of bentonite has been added to the soil at all locations. Indeed, extra bentonite beyond the minimum amount required is added to soil so that there will be sufficient bentonite present even at those locations that are "lean" in bentonite.

The recommended tests and testing frequencies to verify proper addition of bentonite are summarized in Table 2.7. However, the CQA personnel must realize that the amount of testing depends on the degree of control in the mixing process: the more control during mixing, the less is the need for testing to verify the proper bentonite content.

Table 2.7 - Recommended Tests to Verify Bentonite Content

Parameter	Frequency	Test Method
Methylene Blue Test	1 per 1,000 m^3	Alther (1983)
Compaction Curve for Soil-Bentonite Mixture (Needed To Prepare Hydraulic Conductivity Test Specimen)	1 per 5,000 m^3	Per Project Specifications, e.g., ASTM D-698 or D-1557
Hydraulic Conductivity of Soil-Bentonite Mixture Compacted to Appropriate Water Content and Dry Unit Weight	3/ha/Lift (1/Acre/Lift)	ASTM D-5084, "Hydraulic Conductivity of Saturated Porous Materials Using a Flexible Wall Permeameter"

Note: 1 yd^3 = 0.76 m^3

2.6.6 Stockpiling Soils

After the soil has been preprocessed it is usually necessary to ensure that the water content does not change prior to use. The stockpiles can be of any size or shape. Small stockpiles should be covered so that the soil cannot dry or wet. For large stockpiles, it may not be necessary to cover the stockpile, particularly if the stockpile is sloped to promote drainage, moisture is added occasionally to offset drying at the surface, or other steps are taken to minimize wetting or drying of the stockpiled soil.

2.7 Placement of Loose Lift of Soil

After a soil has been fully processed, the soil is hauled to the final placement area. Soil should not be placed in adverse weather conditions, e.g., heavy rain. Inspectors are usually responsible for documenting weather conditions during all earthwork operations. The surface on

which the soil will be placed must be properly prepared and the material must be inspected after placement to make sure that the material is suitable. Then the CQA inspectors must also verify that the lift is not too thick. For side slopes, construction specifications should clearly state whether lifts are parallel to the slope or horizontal. For slopes inclined at 3(H):1(V) or flatter, lifts are usually parallel to the slope. For slopes inclined at 2(H):1(V) or steeper, lifts are usually horizontal. However, horizontal lifts may present problems because the hydraulic conductivity for flow parallel to lifts is expected to be somewhat greater than for flow perpendicular to lifts. Details of testing are described in the following subsections.

Transport vehicles can pick up contaminants while hauling material from the borrow source or preprocessing area. If this occurs, measures should be taken to prevent contaminants from falling off transport vehicles into the soil liner material. These measures may include restricting vehicles to contaminant free haul roads or removing contaminants before the vehicle enters the placement area.

2.7.1 Surface Scarification

Prior to placement of a new lift of soil, the surface of the previously compacted lift of soil liner should be roughened to promote good contact between the new and old lifts. Inspectors should observe the condition of the surface of the previously compacted lift to make sure that the surface has been scarified as required in the construction specifications. When soil is scarified it is usually roughened to a depth of about 25 mm (1 in.). In some cases the surface may not require scarification if the surface is already rough after the end of compaction of a lift. It is very important that CQA inspectors ensure that the soil has been properly scarified if construction specifications require scarification. If the soil is scarified, the scarified zone becomes part of the loose lift of soil and should be counted in measuring the loose lift thickness.

2.7.2 Material Tests and Visual Inspection

2.7.2.1 Material Tests

After a loose lift of soil has been placed, samples are periodically taken to confirm the properties of the soil liner material. These samples are in addition to samples taken from the borrow area (Table 2.3). The types of tests and frequency of testing are normally specified in the CQA documents. Table 2.8 summarizes recommended minimum tests and testing frequencies. Samples of soils can be taken either on a grid pattern or on a random sampling pattern (see Section 2.8.3.2). Statistical tests and criteria can be applied but are not usually applied to soil liners in part because enough data have to be gathered to apply statistics, and yet decisions have to be made immediately, before very much data are collected.

2.7.2.2 Visual Observations

Inspectors should position themselves near the working face of soil liner material as it is being placed. Inspectors should look for deleterious materials such as stones, debris, and organic matter. Continuous inspection of the placement of soil liner material is recommended to ensure that the soil liner material is of the proper consistency.

2.7.2.3 Allowable Variations

Tests on soil liner materials may occasionally fail to conform with required specifications. It is unrealistic to think that 100% of a soil liner material will be in complete conformance with specifications. For example, if the construction documents require a minimum plasticity index it

may be anticipated that a small fraction of the soil (such as pockets of sandy material) will fail to conform with specifications. It is neither unusual nor unexpected that occasional failing material will be encountered in soil liners. Occasional imperfections in soil liner materials are expected. Indeed, one of the reasons why multiple lifts are used in soil liners is to account for the inevitable variations in the materials of construction employed in building soil liners. Occasional deviations from construction specifications are not harmful. Recommended maximum allowable variations (failing tests) are listed in Table 2.9.

Table 2.8 - Recommended Materials Tests for Soil Liner Materials Sampled after Placement in a Loose Lift (Just Before Compaction)

Parameter	Test Method	Minimum Testing Frequency
Percent Fines (Note 1)	ASTM D-1140	1 per 800 m^3 (Notes 2 & 5)
Percent Gravel (Note 3)	ASTM D-422	1 per 800 m^3 (Notes 2 & 5)
Liquid & Plastic Limits	ASTM D-4318	1 per 800 m^3 (Notes 2 & 5)
Percent Bentonite (Note 4)	Alther (1983)	1 per 800 m^3 (Notes 2 & 5)
Compaction Curve	As Specified	1 per 4,000 m^3 (Note 5)
Construction Oversight	Observation	Continuous

Notes:

1. Percent fines is defined as percent passing the No. 200 sieve.
2. In addition, at least one test should be performed each day that soil is placed, and additional tests should be performed on any suspect material observed by CQA personnel.
3. Percent gravel is defined as percent retained on the No. 4 sieve.
4. This test is only applicable to soil-bentonite liners.
5. 1 yd^3 = 0.76 m^3.

Table 2.9 - Recommended Maximum Percentage of Failing Material Tests

Parameter	Maximum Allowable Percentage of Outliers
Atterberg Limits	5% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area
Percent Fines	5% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area
Percent Gravel	10% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area
Clod Size	10% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area
Percent Bentonite	5% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area
Hydraulic Conductivity of Laboratory Compacted Soil	5% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area

2.7.2.4 Corrective Action

If it is determined that the materials in an area do not conform with specifications, the first step is to define the extent of the area requiring repair. A sound procedure is to require the contractor to repair the lift of soil out to the limits defined by passing CQC/CQA tests. The contractor should not be allowed to guess at the extent of the area that requires repair. To define the limits of the area that requires repair, additional tests are often needed. Alternatively, if the contractor chooses not to request additional tests, the contractor should repair the area that extends from the failing test out to the boundaries defined by passing tests.

The usual corrective action is to wet or dry the loose lift of soil in place if the water content is incorrect. The water must be added uniformly, which requires mixing the soil with a disc or rototiller (see Section 2.6.1). If the soil contains oversized material, oversized particles are removed from the material (see Section 2.6.2). If clods are too large, clods can be pulverized in the loose lift (see Section 2.6.3). If the soil lacks adequate plasticity, contains too few fines, contains too much gravel, or lacks adequate bentonite, the material is normally excavated and replaced.

2.7.3 Placement and Control of Loose Lift Thickness

Construction specifications normally place limits on the maximum thickness of a loose lift of soil, e.g., 225 mm (9 in.). The thickness of a loose lift should not exceed this value with normal equipment. The thickness of a loose lift may be determined in several ways. One technique is for an inspector standing near the working face of soil being placed to observe the thickness of the lift. This is probably the most reliable technique for controlling loose lift thickness for CQA inspectors. If there is a question about loose lift thickness one should dig a pit through the loose lift of soil and into the underlying layer. A cross-beam is used to measure the depth from the surface of a loose lift to the top of the previously compacted lift. If the previously compacted lift was scarified, the zone of scarification should be counted in the loose lift thickness for the new layer of soil. Continuous observation of loose lift thickness is recommended during placement of

soil liners.

Some earthwork contractors control lift thickness by driving grade stakes into the subsoil and marking the grade stake to indicate the proper thickness of the next layer. This practice is very convenient for equipment operators because they can tell at a glance whether the loose lift thickness is correct. However, this practice is strongly discouraged for the second and subsequent lifts of a soil liner because the penetrations into the previously-compacted lift made by the grade stakes must be repaired. Also, any grade stakes or fragments from grade stakes left in a soil liner could puncture overlying geosynthetics. Repair of holes left by grade stakes is very difficult because one must dig through the loose lift of soil to expose the grade stake, remove the grade stake without breaking the stake and leaving some of the stake in the soil, backfill the hole left by the grade stake, and then replace the loose soil in the freshly-placed lift. For the first lift of soil liner, repair of grade stake holes may not be relevant (depending on the subgrade and what its function is), but grade stakes are discouraged even for the first lift of soil because the stakes may be often broken off and incorporated into the soil. Grade stakes resting on a small platform or base do not need to be driven into the underlying material and are, therefore, much more desirable than ordinary grade stakes. If grade stakes are used, it is recommended that they be numbered and accounted for at the end of each shift; this will provide verification that grade stakes are not being abandoned in the fill material.

The recommended survey procedure for control of lift thickness involves laser sources and receivers. A laser beam source is set at a known elevation, and reception devices held by hand on rods or mounted to grading equipment are used to monitor lift thickness. However, lasers cannot be used at all sites. For instance, the liner may need to be a minimum distance above rock, and the grade lines may follow the contours of underlying rock. Further, every site has areas such as corners, sumps, and boundaries of cells, which preclude the use of lasers.

For those areas where lasers cannot be used, it is recommended that either flexible plastic grade stakes or metallic grade stakes (numbered and inventoried as part of the QA/QC process) be used. It is preferable if the stakes are mounded on a base so that the stakes do not have to be driven into the underlying lift. Repair of grade stake holes should be required; the repairs should be periodically inspected and the repairs documented. Alternatively (and preferably for small areas), spot elevations can be obtained on the surface of a loose lift with conventional level and rod equipment, and adjustments made by the equipment operator based on the levels.

When soil is placed, it is usually dumped into a heap at the working face and spread with dozers. QA/QC personnel should stand in front of the working face to observe the soil for oversized materials or other deleterious material, to visually observe loose lift thickness, and to make sure that the dozer does not damage an underlying layer.

2.8 Remolding and Compaction of Soil

2.8.1 Compaction Equipment

The important parameters concerning compaction equipment are the type and weight of the compactor, the characteristics of any feet on the drum, and the weight of the roller per unit length of drummed surface. Sometimes construction specifications will stipulate a required type of compactor or minimum weight of compactor. If this is the case inspectors should confirm that the compaction equipment is in conformance with specifications. Inspectors should be particularly cognizant of the weight of compactor and length of feet on drummed rollers. Heavy compactors with long feet that fully penetrate a loose lift of soil are generally thought to be the best type of compactor to use for soil liners. Footed rollers may not be necessary or appropriate for some

bentonite-soil mixes; smooth-drum rollers or rubber tired rollers may produce best results for soil-bentonite mixtures that do not require kneading or remolding to achieve low hydraulic conductivity but only require densification.

Some compactors are self-propelled while other compactors are towed. Towed, footed rollers are normally ballasted by filling the drum with water to provide weight that will enable significant compactive effort to be delivered to the soil. Inspectors should be very careful to determine whether or not all drums on towed rollers have been filled with liquid.

Compacting soil liners on side slopes can present special challenges, particularly for slopes inclined at 3(H):1(V) or steeper. Inspectors should observe side-slope compaction carefully and watch for any tendency for the compactor to slip down slope or for slippage or cracking to take place in the soil. Inspectors should also be watchful to make sure that adequate compactive effort is delivered to the soil. For soils compacted in lifts parallel to the slope, the first lift of soil should be "knitted" into existing subgrade to minimize a preferential flow path along the interface and to minimize development of a potential slip plane.

Footed rollers can become clogged with soil between the feet. Inspectors should examine the condition of the roller to make sure that the space between feet is not plugged with soil. In addition, compaction equipment is intended to be operated at a reasonable speed. The maximum speed of the compactor should be specified in the construction specifications. CQC and CQA personnel should make sure the speed of the equipment is not too great.

When soils are placed directly on a fragile layer, such as a geosynthetic material, or a drainage material, great care must be taken in placing and compacting the first lift so as not to damage the fragile material or mix clay in with the underlying drainage material. Often, the first lift of soil is considered a sacrificial lift that is placed, spread with dozers, and only nominally compacted with the dozers or a smooth-drum or rubber-tire roller. QA/QC personnel should be particularly careful to observe all placement and compaction operations of the first lift of soil for compacted soil liners placed directly on a geosynthetic material or drainage layer.

It is not uncommon for a contractor to use more than one type of compaction equipment on a project. For example, initial compaction may be with a heavy roller having long feet that fully penetrate a loose lift of soil. Later, the upper part of a lift may be compacted with a heavy rubber-tired roller or other equipment that is particularly effective in compacting near-surface materials.

2.8.2 Number of Passes

The compactive effort delivered by a roller is a function of the number of passes of the roller over a given area of soil. A pass may defined as one pass of the construction equipment or one pass of a drum over a given point in the soil liner. It does not matter whether a pass is defined as a pass of the equipment or a pass of a drum, but the construction specifications and/or CQA plan should define what is meant by a pass. Normally, one pass of the vehicle constitutes a pass for self-propelled rollers and one pass of a drum constitutes a pass for towed rollers.

Some construction documents require a minimum coverage. Coverage (C) is defined as follows:

$$C = [A_f/A_d] \times N \times 100\% \qquad (2.4)$$

where N is the number of passes of the roller, A_f is the sum of the area of the feet on the drums of the roller, and A_d is the area the drum itself. Construction specifications sometimes require 150% -

200% coverage of the roller. For a given roller and minimum percent coverage, the minimum number of passes (N) may be computed.

The number of passes of a compactor over the soil can have an important influence on the overall hydraulic conductivity of the soil liner. It is recommended that periodic observations be made of the number of passes of the roller over a given point. Approximately 3 observations per hectare per lift (one observation per acre per lift) is the recommended frequency of measurement. The minimum number of passes that is reasonable depends upon many factors and cannot be stated in general terms. However, experience has been that at least 5 to 15 passes of a compactor over a given point is usually necessary to remold and compact clay liner materials thoroughly.

2.8.3 Water Content and Dry Unit Weight

2.8.3.1 Water Content and Unit Weight Tests

One of the most important CQA tests is measurement of water content and dry unit weight. Methods of measurement were discussed in Section 2.3. Recommended testing frequencies are listed in Table 2.10. It is stressed that the recommended testing frequencies are the minimum values. Some judgment should be applied to these numbers, and the testing frequencies should be increased or kept at the minimum depending on the specific project and other QA/QC tests and observations. For example, if hydraulic conductivity tests are not performed on undisturbed samples (see Section 2.8.4.2), more water content/density tests may be required than the usual minimum.

2.8.3.2 Sampling Patterns

There are several ways in which sample locations may be selected for water content and unit weight tests. The simplest and least desirable method is for someone in the field to select locations at the time samples must be taken. This is undesirable because the selector may introduce a bias into the sampling pattern. For example, perhaps on the previous project soils of one particular color were troublesome. If the individual were to focus most of the tests on the current project on soils of that same color a bias might be introduced.

A common method of selecting sample locations is to establish a grid pattern. The grid pattern is simple and ensures a high probability of locating defective areas so long as the defective areas are of a size greater than or equal to the spacing between the sampling points. It is important to stagger the grid patterns in successive lifts so that sampling points are not at the same location in each lift. One would not want to sample at the same location in successive lifts because repaired sample penetrations would be stacked on top of one another. The grid pattern sampling procedure is the simplest one to use that avoids the potential for bias described in the previous paragraph.

A third alternative for selecting sampling points is to locate sampling points randomly. Tables and examples are given in Richardson (1992). It is recommended that no sampling point be located within 2 meters of another sampling point. If a major portion of the area to be sampled has been omitted as a result of the random sampling process, CQA inspectors may add additional points to make sure the area receives some testing. Random sampling is sometimes preferred on large projects where statistical procedures will be used to evaluate data. However, it can be demonstrated that for a given number of sampling points, a grid pattern will be more likely to detect a problem area provided that the dimensions of the problem area are greater than or equal to the spacing between sampling points. If the problem area is smaller than the spacing between sampling points, the probability of locating the problem area is approximately the same with both a grid pattern and a random pattern of sampling.

Table 2.10 - Recommended Tests and Observations on Compacted Soil

Parameter	Test Method	Minimum Testing Frequency
Water Content (Rapid) (Note 1)	ASTM D-3017 ASTM D-4643 ASTM D-4944 ASTM D-4959	13/ha/lift (5/acre/lift) (Notes 2 & 7)
Water Content (Note 3)	ASTM D-2216	One in every 10 rapid water content tests (Notes 3 & 7)
Total Density (Rapid) (Note 4)	ASTM D-2922 ASTM D-2937	13/ha/lift (5/acre/lift) (Notes 2, 4 & 7)
Total Density (Note 5)	ASTM D-1556 ASTM D-1587 ASTM D-2167	One in every 20 rapid density tests (Notes 5, 6, & 7)
Number of Passes	Observation	3/ha/lift (1/acre/lift) (Notes 2 & 7)
Construction Oversight	Observation	Continuous

Notes:

1. ASTM D-3017 is a nuclear method, ASTM D-4643 is microwave oven drying, ASTM D-4944 is a calcium carbide gas pressure tester method, and ASTM D-4959 is a direct heating method. Direct water content determination (ASTM D-2216) is the standard against which nuclear, microwave, or other methods of measurements are calibrated for on-site soils.

2. In addition, at least one test should be performed each day soil is compacted and additional tests should be performed in areas for which CQA personnel have reason to suspect inadequate compaction.

3. Every tenth sample tested with ASTM D-3017, D-4643, D-4944, or D-4959 should be also tested by direct oven drying (ASTM D-2216) to aid in identifying any significant, systematic calibration errors.

4. ASTM D-2922 is a nuclear method and ASTM D-2937 is the drive cylinder method. These methods, if used, should be calibrated against the sand cone (ASTM D-1556) or rubber balloon (ASTM D-2167) for on-site soils. Alternatively, the sand cone or rubber balloon method can be used directly.

5. Every twentieth sample tested with D-2922 should also be tested (as close as possible to the same test location) with the sand cone (ASTM D-1556) or rubber balloon (ASTM D-2167) to aid in identifying any systematic calibration errors with D-2922.

6. ASTM D-1587 is the method for obtaining an undisturbed sample. The section of undisturbed sample can be cut or trimmed from the sampling tube to determine bulk density. This method should not be used for soils containing any particles > 1/6-th the diameter of the sample.

7. 1 acre = 0.4 ha.

No matter which method of determining sampling points is selected, it is imperative that CQA inspectors have the responsibility to perform additional tests on any suspect area. The number of additional testing locations that are appropriate varies considerably from project to project.

2.8.3.3 Tests with Different Devices to Minimize Systematic Errors

Some methods of measurement may introduce a systematic error. For example, the nuclear device for measuring water content may consistently produce a water content measurement that is too high if there is an extraneous source of hydrogen atoms besides water in the soil. It is important that devices that may introduce a significant systematic error be periodically correlated with measurements that do not have such error. Water content measurement tests have the greatest potential for systematic error. Both the nuclear method as well as microwave oven drying can produce significant systematic error under certain conditions. Therefore, it is recommended that if the nuclear method or any of the rapid methods of water content measurement (Table 2.2) are used to measure water content, periodic correlation tests should be made with conventional overnight oven drying (ASTM D-2216).

It is suggested that at the beginning of a project, at least 10 measurements of water content be determined on representative samples of the site-specific soil using any rapid measurement method to be employed on the project as well as ASTM D-2216. After this initial correlation, it is suggested (see Tables 2.10) that one in ten rapid water content tests be crossed check with conventional overnight oven drying. At the completion of a project a graph should be presented that correlates the measured water content with a rapid technique against the water content from conventional overnight oven drying.

Some methods of unit weight measurement may also introduce bias. For example, the nuclear device may not be properly calibrated and could lead to measurement of a unit weight that is either too high or too low. It is recommended that unit weight be measured independently on occasion to provide a check against systematic errors. For example, if the nuclear device is the primary method of density measurement being employed on a project, periodic measurements of density with the sand cone or rubber balloon device can be used to check the nuclear device. Again, a good practice is to perform about 10 comparative tests on representative soil prior to construction. During construction, one in every 20 density tests (see Table 2.10) should be checked with the sand cone or rubber balloon. A graph should be made of the unit weight measured with the nuclear device versus the unit weight measured with the sand cone or rubber balloon device to show the correlation. One could either plot dry unit weight or total unit weight for the correlation. Total unit weight in some ways is more sensible because the methods of measurement are actually total unit weight measurements; dry unit weight is calculated from the total unit weight and water content (Eq. 2.1.).

2.8.3.4 Allowable Variations and Outliers

There are several reasons why a field water content or density test may produce a failing result, i.e., value outside of the specified range. Possible causes for a variation include a human error in measurement of water content or dry unit weight, natural variability of the soil or the compaction process leading to an anomaly at an isolated location, limitations in the sensitivity and repeatability of the test methods, or inadequate construction procedures that reflect broader-scale deficiencies.

Measurement errors are made on every project. From time to time it can be expected that CQC and CQA personnel will incorrectly measure either the water content or the dry unit weight.

Periodic human errors are to be expected and should be addressed in the CQA plan.

If it is suspected that a test result is in error, the proper procedure for rectifying the error should be as follows. CQC or CQA personnel should return to the point where the questionable measurement was obtained. Several additional tests should be performed in close proximity to the location of the questionable test. If all of the repeat tests provide satisfactory results the questionable test result may be disregarded as an error. Construction quality assurance documents should specify the number of tests required to negate a blunder. It is recommended that approximately 3 passing tests be required to negate the results of a questionable test.

One of the main reasons why soil liners are built of multiple lifts is a realization that the construction process and the materials themselves vary. With multiple lifts no one particular point in any one lift is especially significant even if that point consists of unsatisfactory material or improperly compacted material. It should be expected that occasional deviations from construction specifications will be encountered for any soil liner. In fact, if one were to take enough soil samples, one can rest assured that a failing point on some scale would be located.

Measurement techniques for compacted soils are imperfect and produce variable results. Turnbull et al. (1966) discuss statistical quality control for compacted soils. Noorany (1990) describes 3 sites in the San Diego area for which 9 testing laboratories measured water content and percent compaction on the same fill materials. The ranges in percent compaction were very large: 81-97% for Site 1, 77-99% for Site 2, and 89-103% for Site 3.

Hilf (1991) summarizes statistical data from 72 earth dams; the data show that the standard deviation in water content is typically 1 to 2%, and the standard deviation in dry density is typically 0.3 to 0.6 kN/m^3 (2 to 4 pcf). Because the standard deviations are themselves on the same order as the allowable range of these parameters in many earthwork specifications, it is statistically inevitable that there will be some failing tests no matter how well built the soil liner is.

It is unrealistic to expect that 100% of all CQA tests will be in compliance with specifications. Occasional deviations should be anticipated. If there are only a few randomly-located failures, the deviations in no way compromise the quality or integrity of a multiple-lift liner.

The CQA documents may provide an allowance for an occasional failing test. The documents may stipulate that failing tests not be permitted to be concentrated in any one lift or in any one area. It is recommended that a small percentage of failing tests be allowed rather than insisting upon the unrealistic requirement that 100% of all tests meet project objectives. Statistically based requirements provide a convenient yet safe and reliable technique for handling occasional failing test results.. However, statistically based methods require that enough data be generated to apply statistics reliably. Sufficient data to apply statistical methods may not be available, particularly in the early stages of a project.

Another approach is to allow a small percentage of outliers but to require repair of any area where the water content is far too low or high or the dry unit weight is far too low. This approach is probably the simplest to implement -- recommendations are summarized in Table 2.11.

Table 2.11 - Recommended Maximum Percentage of Failing Compaction Tests

Parameter	Maximum Allowable Percentage of Outliers
Water Content	3% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area, and No Water Content Less than 2% or More than 3% of the Allowable Value
Dry Density	3% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area, and No Dry Density Less than 0.8 kN/m^3 (5 pcf) Below the Required Value
Number of Passes	5% and Outliers Not Concentrated in One Lift or One Area

2.8.3.5 Corrective Action

If it is determined that an area does not conform with specifications and that the area needs to be repaired, the first step is to define the extent of the area requiring repair. The recommended procedure is to require the contractor to repair the lift of soil out to the limits defined by passing CQC and CQA tests. The contractor should not be allowed to guess at the extent of the area that requires repair. To define the limits of the area that requires repair, additional tests are often needed. Alternatively, if the contractor chooses not to request additional tests, the contractor should repair the area that extends from the failing test out to the boundaries defined by passing tests.

The usual problem requiring corrective action at this stage is inadequate compaction of the soil. The contractor is usually able to rectify the problem with additional passes of the compactor over the problem area.

2.8.4 Hydraulic Conductivity Tests on Undisturbed Samples

Hydraulic conductivity tests are often performed on "undisturbed" samples of soil obtained from a single lift of compacted soil liner. Test specimens are trimmed from the samples and are permeated in the laboratory. Compliance with the stated hydraulic conductivity criterion is checked.

This type of test is given far too much weight in most QA programs. Low hydraulic conductivity of samples taken from the liner is necessary for a well-constructed liner but is not sufficient to demonstrate that the large-scale, field hydraulic conductivity is adequately low. For example, Elsbury et al. (1990) measured hydraulic conductivities on undisturbed samples of a poorly constructed liner that averaged 1×10^{-9} cm/s, and yet the actual in-field value was 1×10^{-5} cm/s. The cause for the discrepancy was the existence of macro-scale flow paths in the field that were not simulated in the small-sized (75 mm or 3 in. diameter) laboratory test specimens.

Not only does the flow pattern through a 75-mm-diameter test specimen not necessarily reflect flow patterns on a larger field scale, but the process of obtaining a sample for testing inevitably disturbs the soil. Layers are distorted, and gross alterations occur if significant gravel is

present in the soil. The process of pushing a sampling tube into the soil densifies the soil, which lowers its hydraulic conductivity. The harder and drier the soil, the greater the disturbance. As a result of these various factors, the large-scale, field hydraulic conductivity is almost always greater than or equal to the small-scale, laboratory-measured hydraulic conductivity. The difference between values from a small laboratory scale and a large field scale depends on the quality of construction -- the better the quality of construction, the less the difference.

Laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests on undisturbed samples of compacted liner can be valuable in some situations. For instance, for soil-bentonite mixes, the laboratory test provides a check on whether enough bentonite has been added to the mix to achieve the desired hydraulic conductivity. For soil liners in which a test pad is not constructed, the laboratory tests provide some verification that appropriate materials have been used and compaction was reasonable (but hydraulic conductivity tests by themselves do not prove this fact).

Laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests constitute a major inconvenience because the tests usually take at least several days, and sometimes a week or two, to complete. Their value as QA tools is greatly diminished by the long testing time -- field construction personnel simply cannot wait for the results of the tests to proceed with construction, nor would the QA personnel necessarily want them to wait because opportunities exist for damage of the liner as a result of desiccation. Thus, one should give very careful consideration as to whether the laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests are truly needed for a given project and will serve a sufficiently useful purpose to make up for the inconvenience of this type of test.

Research is currently underway to determine if larger-sized samples from field-compacted soils can give more reliable results than the usual 75-mm (3 in.) diameter samples. Until further data are developed, the following recommendations are made concerning the approach to utilizing laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests for QA on field-compacted soils:

1. For gravely soils or other soils that cannot be consistently sampled without causing significant disturbance, laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests should not be a part of the QA program because representative samples cannot realistically be obtained. A test pad (Section 2.10) is recommended to verify hydraulic conductivity.

2. If a test pad is constructed and it is demonstrated that the field-scale hydraulic conductivity is satisfactory on the test pad, the QA program for the actual soil liner should focus on establishing that the actual liner is built of similar materials and to equal or better standards compared to the test pad -- laboratory hydraulic conductivity testing is not necessary to establish this.

3. If no test pad is constructed and it is believed that representative samples can be obtained for hydraulic conductivity testing, then laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests on undisturbed samples from the field are recommended.

2.8.4.1 Sampling for Hydraulic Conductivity Testing

A thin-walled tube is pushed into the soil to obtain a sample. Samples of soil should be taken in the manner that minimizes disturbance such as described in ASTM D-1587. Samples should be sealed and carefully stored to prevent drying and transported to the laboratory in a manner that minimizes soil disturbance as described in ASTM D-4220.

It is particularly important that the thin-walled sampling tube be pushed into the soil in the direction perpendicular to the plane of compaction. Many CQA inspectors will push the sampling

tube into the soil using the blade of a dozer or compactor. This practice is not recommended because the sampling tube tends to rotate when it is pushed into the soil. The recommended way of sampling the soil is to push the sampling tube straight into the soil using a jack to effect a smooth, straight push.

Sampling of gravely soils for hydraulic conductivity testing is often a futile exercise. The gravel particles that are encountered by the sampling tube tend to tumble and shear during the push, which caused major disturbance of the soil sample. Experience has been that QA/QC personnel may take several samples of gravely soil before a sample that is sufficiently free of gravel to enable proper sampling is finally obtained; in these cases, the badly disturbed, gravely samples are discarded. Clearly, the process of discarding samples because they contain too much gravel to enable proper sampling introduces a bias into the process. Gravely soils are not amenable to undisturbed sampling.

2.8.4.2 Hydraulic Conductivity Testing

Hydraulic conductivity tests are performed utilizing a flexible wall permeameter and the procedures described in ASTM D-5084. Inspectors should be careful to make sure that the effective confining stress utilized in the hydraulic conductivity test is not excessive. Application of excessive confining stress can produce an artificially low hydraulic conductivity. The CQA plan should prescribe the maximum effective confining stress that will be used; if none is specified a value of 35 kPa (5 psi) is recommended for both liner and cover systems.

2.8.4.3 Frequency of Testing

Hydraulic conductivity tests are typically performed at a frequency of 3 tests/ha/lift (1 test/acre/lift) or, for very thick liners (≥ 1.2 m or 4 ft) per every other lift. This is the recommended frequency of testing, if hydraulic conductivity testing is required. The CQA plan should stipulate the frequency of testing.

2.8.4.4 Outliers

The results of the above-described hydraulic conductivity tests are often given far too much weight. A passing rate of 100% does not necessarily prove that the liner was well built, yet some inexperienced individuals falsely believe this to be the case. Hydraulic conductivity tests are performed on small samples; even though small samples may have low hydraulic conductivity, inadequate construction or CQA can leave remnant macro-scale defects such as fissures and pockets of poorly compacted soil. The fundamental problem is that laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests are usually performed on 75-mm (3 in.) diameter samples, and these samples are too small to contain a representative distribution of macro-scale defects (if any such defects are present). By the same token, an occasional failing test does not necessarily prove that a problem exists. An occasional failing test only shows that either: (1) there are occasional zones that fail to meet performance criteria, or (2) sampling disturbance (e.g., from the sampling tube shearing stones in the soil) makes confirmation of low hydraulic conductivity difficult or impossible. Soil liners built of multiple lifts are expected to have occasional, isolated imperfections -- this is why the liners are constructed from multiple lifts. Thus, occasional failing hydraulic conductivity tests by themselves do not mean very much. Even on the best built liners, occasional failing test results should be anticipated.

It is recommended that a multiple-lift soil liner be considered acceptable even if a small percentage (approximately 5%) of the hydraulic conductivity tests fail. However, one should allow a small percentage of hydraulic conductivity failures only if the overall CQA program is

thorough. Further, it is recommended that failing samples have a hydraulic conductivity that is no greater than one-half to one order of magnitude above the target maximum value. If the hydraulic conductivity at a particular point is more than one-half to one order of magnitude too high, the zone should be retested or repaired regardless of how isolated it is.

2.8.5 Repair of Holes from Sampling and Testing

A number of tests, e.g., from nuclear density tests and sampling for hydraulic conductivity, require that a penetration be made into a lift of compacted soil. It is extremely important that all penetrations be repaired. The recommended procedure for repair is as follows. The backfill material should first be selected. Backfill may consist of the soil liner material itself, granular or pelletized bentonite, or a mixture of bentonite and soil liner material. The backfill material should be placed in the hole requiring repair with a loose lift thickness not exceeding about 50 mm (2 in.). The loose lift of soil should be tamped several times with a steel rod or other suitable device that compacts the backfill and ensures no bridging of material that would leave large air pockets. Next, a new lift of backfill should be placed and compacted. The process is repeated until the hole has been filled.

Because it is critical that holes be properly repaired, it is recommended that periodic inspections and written records made of the repair of holes. It is suggested that approximately 20% of all the repairs be inspected and that the backfill procedures be documented for these inspections. It is recommended that the inspector of repair of holes not be the same person who backfilled the hole.

2.8.6 Final Lift Thickness

Construction documents may place restrictions on the maximum allowable final (after-compaction) lift thickness. Typically, the maximum thickness is 150 mm (6 in.). Final elevation surveys should be used to establish thicknesses of completed earthwork segments. The specified maximum lift thickness is a nominal value. The actual value may be determined by surveys on the surface of each completed lift, but an acceptable practice (provided there is good CQA on loose lift thickness) is to survey the liner after construction and calculate the average thickness of each lift by dividing the total thickness by the number of lifts.

Tolerances should be specified on final lift thickness. Occasional outliers from these tolerances are not detrimental to the performance of a multi-lift liner. It is recommended by analogy to Table 2.9 that no more than 5% of the final lift thickness determinations be out of specification and that no out-of-specification thickness be more than 25 mm (1 in.) more than the maximum allowable lift thickness.

2.8.7 Pass/Fail Decision

After all CQA tests have been performed, a pass/fail decision must be made. Procedures for dealing with materials problems were discussed in Section 2.7.2.4. Procedures for correcting deficiencies in compaction of the soil were addressed in Section 2.8.3.5. A final pass/fail decision is made by the CQA engineer based upon all the data and test results. The hydraulic conductivity test results may not be available for several days after construction of a lift has been completed. Sometimes the contractor proceeds at risk with placement of additional lifts before all test results are available. On occasion, construction of a liner proceeds without final results from a test pad on the assumption that results will be acceptable. If a "fail" decision is made at this late stage, the defective soil plus any overlying materials that have been placed should be removed and replaced.

2.9 Protection of Compacted Soil

2.9.1 Desiccation

2.9.1.1 Preventive Measures

There are several ways to prevent compacted soil liner materials from desiccating. The soil may be smooth rolled with a steel drummed roller to produce a thin, dense skin of soil on the surface. This thin skin of very dense soil helps to minimize transfer of water into or out of the underlying material. However, the smooth-rolled surface should be scarified prior to placement of a new lift of soil.

A far better preventive measure is to water the soil periodically. Care must be taken to deliver water uniformly to the soil and not to create zones of excessively wet soil. Adding water by hand is not recommended because water is not delivered uniformly to the soil.

An alternative preventive measure is to cover the soil temporarily with a geomembrane, moist geotextile, or moist soil. The geomembrane or geotextile should be weighted down with sand bags or other materials to prevent transfer of air between the geosynthetic cover and soil. If a geomembrane is used, care should be taken to ensure that the underlying soil does not become heated and desiccate; a light-colored geomembrane may be needed to prevent overheating. If moist soil is placed over the soil liner, the moist soil is removed using grading equipment.

2.9.1.2 Observations

Visual observation is the best way to ensure that appropriate preventive measures have been taken to minimize desiccation. Inspectors should realize that soil liner materials can dry out very quickly (sometimes in a matter of just a few hours). Inspectors should be aware that drying may occur over weekends and provisions should be made to provide appropriate observations.

2.9.1.3 Tests

If there are questions about degree of desiccation, tests should be performed to determine the water content of the soil. A decrease in water content of one to two percentage points is not considered particularly serious and is within the general accuracy of testing. However, larger reductions in water content provide clear evidence that desiccation has taken place.

2.9.1.4 Corrective Action

If soil has been desiccated to a depth less than or equal to the thickness of a single lift, the desiccated lift may be disked, moistened, and recompacted. However, disking may produce large, hard clods of clay that will require pulverization. Also, it should be recognized that if the soil is wetted, time must be allowed for water to be absorbed into the clods of clay and hydration to take place uniformly. For this reason it may be necessary to remove the desiccated soil from the construction area, to process the lift in a separate processing area, and to replace the soil accordingly.

2.9.2 Freezing Temperatures

2.9.2.1 Compacting Frozen Soil

Frozen soil should never be used to construct soil liners. Frozen soils form hard pieces

that cannot be properly remolded and compacted. Inspectors should be on the lookout for frozen chunks of soil when construction takes place in freezing temperatures.

2.9.2.2 Protection After Freezing

Freezing of soil liner materials can produce significant increases in hydraulic conductivity. Soil liners must be protected from freezing before and after construction. If superficial freezing takes place on the surface of a lift of soil, the surface may be scarified and recompacted. If an entire lift has been frozen, the entire lift should be disked, pulverized, and recompacted. If the soil is frozen to a depth greater than one lift, it may be necessary to strip away and replace the frozen material.

2.9.2.3 Investigating Possible Frost Damage

Inspectors usually cannot determine from an examination of the surface the depth to which freezing took place in a completed or partially completed soil liner that has been exposed to freezing. In such cases it may be necessary to investigate the soil liner material for possible frost damage. The extent of damage is difficult to determine. Freezing temperatures cause the development of tiny microcracks in the soil. Soils that have been damaged due to frost action develop fine cracks that lead to the formation of chunks of soil when the soil is excavated. The pushing of a sampling tube into the soil will probably close these cracks and mask the damaging effects of frost upon hydraulic conductivity. The recommended procedure for evaluating possible frost damage to soil liners involves three steps:

1. Measure the water content of the soil within and beneath the zone of suspected frost damage. Density may also be measured, but freeze/thaw has little effect on density and may actually cause an increase in dry unit weight. Freeze/thaw is often accompanied by desiccation; water content measurements will help to determine whether drying has taken place.

2. Investigate the morphology of the soil by digging into the soil and examining its condition. Soil damaged by freezing usually contains hairline cracks, and the soil breaks apart in chunks along larger cracks caused by freeze/thaw. Soil that has not been frozen should not have tiny cracks nor should it break apart in small chunks. The morphology of the soil should be examined by excavating a small pit into the soil liner and peeling off sections from the wall of the pit. One should not attempt to cut pieces from the sidewall; smeared soil will mask cracks. A distinct depth may be obvious; above this depth the soil breaks into chunks along frost-induced cracks, and below this depth there is no evidence of cracks produced by freezing.

3. One or more samples of soil should be carefully hand trimmed for hydraulic conductivity testing. The soil is usually trimmed with the aid of a sharpened section of tube of the appropriate inside diameter. The tube is set on the soil surface with the sharpened end facing downward, soil is trimmed away near the sharpened edge of the trimming ring, the tube is pushed a few millimeters into the soil, and the trimming is repeated. Samples may be taken at several depths to delineate the depth to which freeze/thaw damage occurred. The minimum diameter of a cylindrical test specimen should be 300 mm (12 in.). Small test specimens, e.g., 75 mm (3 in.) diameter specimens, should not be used because freeze/thaw can create morphological structure in the soil on a scale too large to permit representative testing with small samples. Hydraulic conductivity tests should be performed as described in ASTM D-5084. The effective confining stress should not exceed the

smallest vertical effective stress to which the soil will be subjected in the field, which is usually the stress at the beginning of service for liners. If no compressive stress is specified, a value of 35 kPa (5 psi) is recommended for both liner and cover system.

The test pit and all other penetrations should be carefully backfilled by placing soil in lifts and compacting the lifts. The sides of the test pit should be sloped so that the compactor can penetrate through to newly placed material without interference from the walls of the pit.

2.9.2.4 Repair

If it is determined that soil has been damaged by freezing, the damaged material is usually repaired as follows. If damage is restricted to a single lift, the lift may be disked, processed to adjust water content or to reduce clod size if necessary, and recompacted. If the damage extends deeper, damaged materials should be excavated and replaced.

2.9.3 Excess Surface Water

In some cases exposed lifts of liner material, or the completed liner, are subjected to heavy rains that soften the soil. Surface water creates a problem if the surface is uneven (e.g., if a footed roller has been used and the surface has not been smooth-rolled with a smooth, steel wheeled roller) -- numerous small puddles of water will develop in the depressions low areas. Puddles of water should be removed before further lifts of material, or other components of the liner or cover system, are constructed. The material should be disked repeatedly to allow the soil to dry, and when the soil is at the proper water content, the soil should be compacted. Alternatively, the wet soil may be removed and replaced.

Even if puddles have not formed, the soils may be too soft to permit construction equipment to operate on the soil without creating ruts. To deal with this problem, the soil may be allowed to dry slightly by natural processes (but care must be taken to ensure that it does not dry too much and does not crack excessively during the drying process). Alternatively, the soil may be disked, allowed to dry while it is periodically disked, and then compacted.

If soil is reworked and recompacted, QA/QC tests should be performed at the same frequency as for the rest of the project. However, if the area requiring reworking is very small, e.g., in a sump, tests should be performed in the confined area to confirm proper compaction even if this requires sampling at a greater frequency.

2.10 Test Pads

2.10.1 Purpose of Test Pads

The purpose of a test pad is to verify that the materials and methods of construction proposed for a project will lead to a soil liner with the required large-scale, in-situ, hydraulic conductivity. Unfortunately, it is impractical to perform large-scale hydraulic conductivity tests on the actual soil liner for two reasons: (1) the testing would produce significant physical damage to the liner, and the repair of the damage would be questionable; and (2) the time required to complete the testing would be too long -- the liner could become damaged due to desiccation while one waited for the test results.

A test pad may also be used to demonstrate that unusual materials or construction procedures will work. The process of constructing and testing a test pad is usually a good learning

experience for the contractor and CQC/CQA personnel; overall quality of a project is usually elevated as a result of building and testing the test pad.

A test pad is constructed with the soil liner materials proposed for a project utilizing preprocessing procedures, construction equipment, and construction practices that are proposed for the actual liner. If the required hydraulic conductivity is demonstrated for the test pad, it is assumed that the actual liner will have a similar hydraulic conductivity, provided the actual liner is built of similar materials and to standards that equal or exceed those used in building the test pad. If a test pad is constructed and hydraulic conductivity is verified on the test pad, a key goal of CQA/CQC for the actual liner is to verify that the actual liner is built of similar materials and to standards that equal or exceed those used in building the test pad.

2.10.2 Dimensions

Test pads (Fig. 2.31) normally measure about 10 to 15 m in width by 15 to 30 m in length. The width of the test pad is typically at least four times the width of the compaction equipment, and the length must be adequate for the compactor to reach normal operating speed in the test area. The thickness of a test pad is usually no less than the thickness of the soil liner proposed for a facility but may be as little as 0.6 to 0.9 m (2 to 3 feet) if thicker liners are to be employed at full scale. A freely draining material such as sand is often placed beneath the test pad to provide a known boundary condition in case infiltrating water from a surface hydraulic conductivity test (e.g., sealed double ring infiltrometer) reaches the base of the liner. The drainage layer may be drained with a pipe or other means. However, infiltrating water will not reach the drainage layer if the hydraulic conductivity is very low; the drainage pipe would only convey water if the hydraulic conductivity turns out to be very large. The sand drainage material may not provide adequate foundation support for the first lift of soil liner unless the sand is compacted sufficiently. Also, the first lift of soil liner material on the drainage layer is often viewed as a sacrificial lift and is only compacted nominally to avoid mixing clayey soil in with the drainage material.

2.10.3 Materials

The test pad is constructed of the same materials that are proposed for the actual project. Processing equipment and procedures should be identical, too. The same types of CQC/CQA tests that will be used for the soil liner are performed on the test pad materials. If more than one type of material will be used, one test pad should be constructed for each type of material.

2.10.4 Construction

It is recommended that test strips be built before constructing the test pad. Test strips allow for the detection of obvious problems and provide an opportunity to fine-tune soil specifications, equipment selection, and procedures so that problems are minimized and the probability of the required hydraulic conductivity being achieved in the test pad is maximized. Test strips are typically two lifts thick, one and a half to two equipment widths wide, and about 10 m (30 ft) long.

The test pad is built using the same loose lift thickness, type of compactor, weight of compactor, operating speed, and minimum number of passes that are proposed for the actual soil liner. It is important that the test pad not be built to standards that will exceed those used in building the actual liner. For example, if the test pad is subjected to 15 passes of the compactor, one would want the actual soil liner to be subjected to at least 15 passes as well. It is critical that CQA personnel document the construction practices that are employed in building the test pad. It is best if the same contractor builds the test pad and actual liner so that experience gained from the test pad process is not lost. The same applies to CQC and CQA personnel.

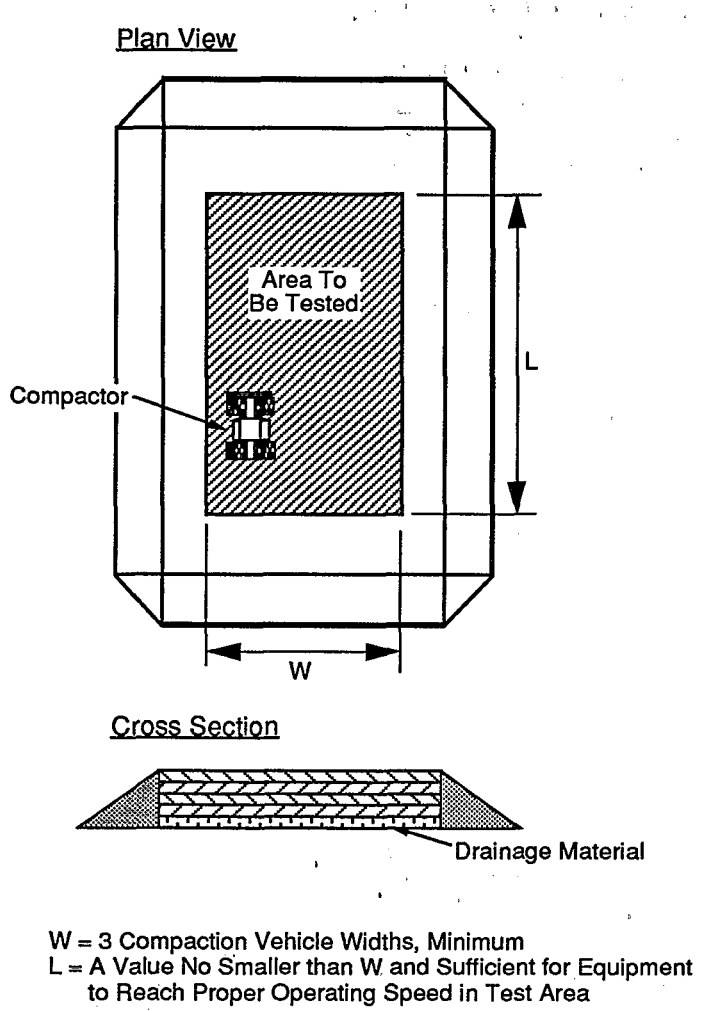

Figure 2.31 - Schematic Diagram of Soil Liner Test Pad

2.10.5 Protection

The test pad must be protected from desiccation, freezing, and erosion in the area where in situ hydraulic conductivity testing is planned. The recommended procedure is to cover the test pad with a sheet of white or clear plastic and then either spread a thin layer of soil on the plastic if no rain is anticipated or, if rain may create an undesirably muddy surface, cover the plastic with hay or straw.

2.10.6 Tests and Observations

The same types of CQA tests that are planned for the actual liner are usually performed on the test pad. However, the frequency of testing is usually somewhat greater for the test pad. Material tests such as liquid limit, plastic limit, and percent fines are often performed at the rate of one per lift. Several water content-density tests are usually performed per lift on the compacted soil. A typical rate of testing would be one water content-density test for each 40 m^2 (400 ft^2). The CQA plan should describe the testing frequency for the test pad.

There is a danger in over testing the test pad -- excessive testing could lead to a greater degree of construction control in the test pad than in the actual liner. The purpose of the test pad is to verify that the materials and methods of construction proposed for a project can result in compliance with performance objectives concerning hydraulic conductivity. Too much control over the construction of the test pad runs counter to this objective.

2.10.7 In Situ Hydraulic Conductivity

2.10.7.1 Sealed Double-Ring Infiltrometer

The most common method of measuring in situ hydraulic conductivity on test pads is the sealed double-ring infiltrometer (SDRI). A schematic diagram of the SDRI is shown Fig. 2.32. The test procedure is described in ASTM D-5093.

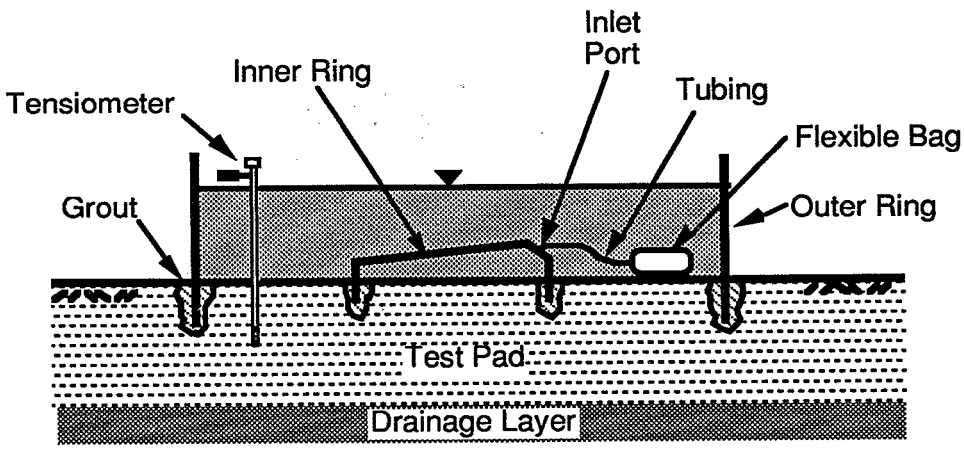

Figure 2.32 - Schematic Diagram of Sealed Double Ring Infiltrometer (SDRI)

With this method, the quantity of water that flows into the test pad over a known period of time is measured. This flow rate, which is called the infiltration rate (I), is computed as follows:

$$I = Q/At \tag{2.5}$$

where Q is the quantity of water entering the surface of the soil through a cross-sectional area A and over a period of time t.

Hydraulic conductivity (K) is computed from the infiltration rate and hydraulic gradient (i) as follows:

$$K = I/i \tag{2.6}$$

Three procedures have been used to compute the hydraulic gradient. The procedures are called (1) apparent gradient method; (2) wetting front method; and (3) suction head method. The equation for computing hydraulic gradient from each method is shown in Fig. 2.33.

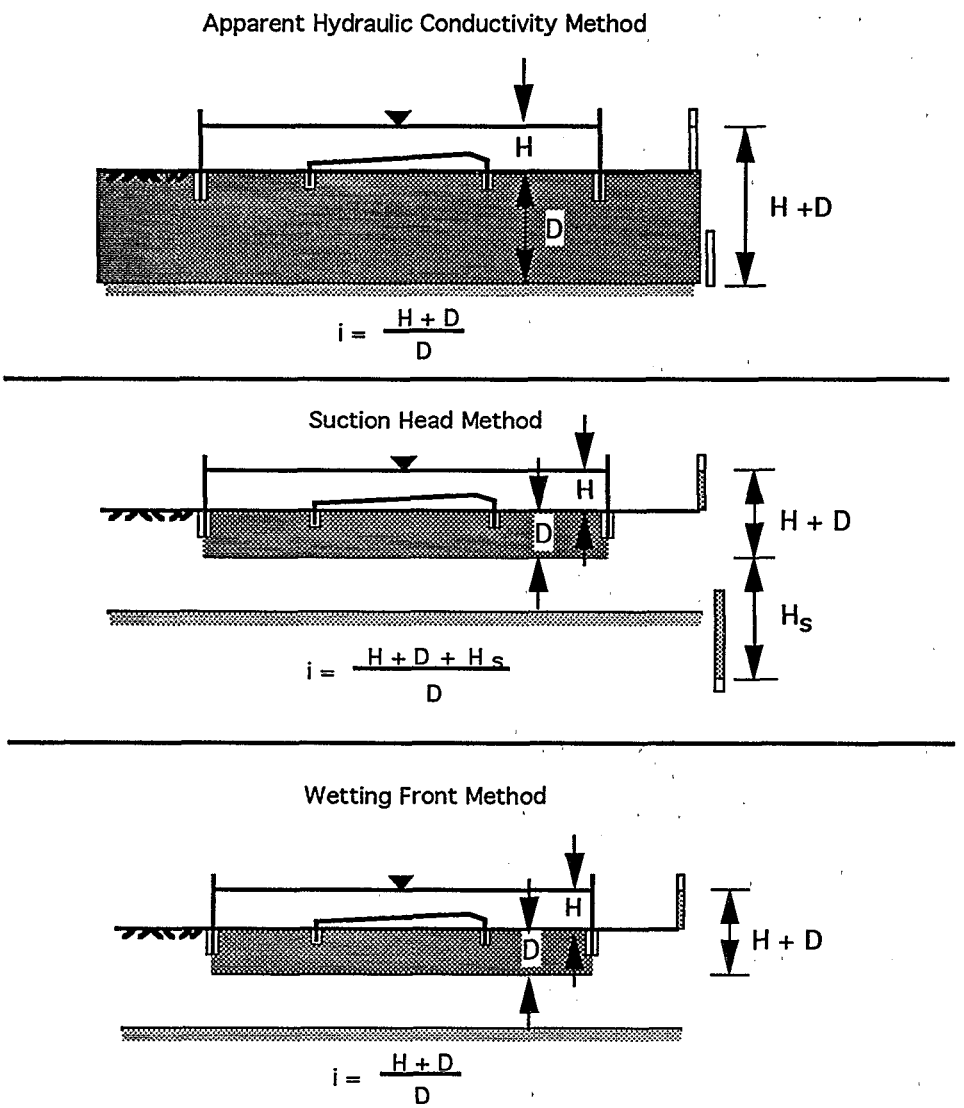

Figure 2.33 - Three Procedures for Computing Hydraulic Gradient from Infiltration Test

The apparent gradient method is the most conservative of the three methods because this method yields the lowest estimate of i and, therefore, the highest estimate of hydraulic conductivity. The apparent gradient method assumes that the test pad is fully soaked with water over the entire depth of the test pad. For relatively permeable test pads, the assumption of full soaking is reasonable, but for soil liners with $K < 1 \times 10^{-7}$ cm/s, the assumption of full soaking is excessively conservative and should not be used unless verified.

The second and most widely used method is the wetting front method. The wetting front is assumed to partly penetrate the test pad (Fig. 2.33) and the water pressure at the wetting front is conservatively assumed to equal atmospheric pressure. Tensiometers are used to monitor the depth of wetting of the soil over time, and the variation of water content with depth is determined at the end of the test. The wetting front method is conservative but in most cases not excessively so. The wetting front method is the method that is usually recommended.

The third method, called the suction head method, is the same as the wetting front method except that the water pressure at the wetting front is not assumed to be atmospheric pressure. The suction head (which is defined as the negative of the pressure head) at the wetting front is H_s and is added to the static head of water in the infiltration ring to calculate hydraulic gradient (Fig. 2.37). The suction head H_s is identical to the wetting front suction head employed in analyzing water infiltration with the Green-Ampt theory. The suction head H_s is not the ambient suction head in the unsaturated soil and is generally very difficult to determine (Brakensiek, 1977). Two techniques available for determining H_s are:

1. Integration of the hydraulic conductivity function (Neuman, 1976):

$$H_s = \int_{h_{sc}}^{o} K_r dh_s \tag{2.7}$$

   where h_{sc} is the suction head at the initial (presoaked) water content of the soil, K_r is the relative hydraulic conductivity (K at particular suction divided by the value of K at full saturation), and h_s is suction.

2. Direct measurement with air entry permeameter (Daniel, 1989, and references therein).

Reimbold (1988) found that H_s was close to zero for two compacted soil liner materials. Because proper determination of H_s is very difficult, the suction head method cannot be recommended, unless the testing personnel take the time and make the effort to determine H_s properly and reliably.

Corrections may be made to account for various factors. For example, if the soil swells, some of the water that infiltrated into the soil was absorbed into the expanded soil. No consensus exists on various corrections and these should be evaluated case by case.

2.10.7.2 Two-Stage Borehole Test

The two-stage borehole hydraulic conductivity was developed by Boutwell (the test is sometimes called the Boutwell Test) and was under development as an ASTM standard at the time of this writing. The device is installed by drilling a hole (which is typically 100 to 150 mm in diameter), placing a casing in the hole, and sealing the annular space between the casing and borehole with grout as shown in Fig. 2.34. A series of falling head tests is performed and the

hydraulic conductivity from this first stage (k_1) is computed. Stage one is complete when k_1 ceases to change significantly. The maximum vertical hydraulic conductivity may be computed by assuming that the vertical hydraulic conductivity is equal to k_1. However, the test may be continued for a second stage by removing the top of the casing and extending the hole below the casing as shown in Fig. 2.34. The casing is reassembled, the device is again filled with water, and falling head tests are performed to determine the hydraulic conductivity from stage two (k_2). Both horizontal and vertical hydraulic conductivity may be computed from the values of k_1 and k_2. Further details on methods of calculation are provided by Boutwell and Tsai (1992), although the reader is advised to refer to the ASTM standard when it becomes available.

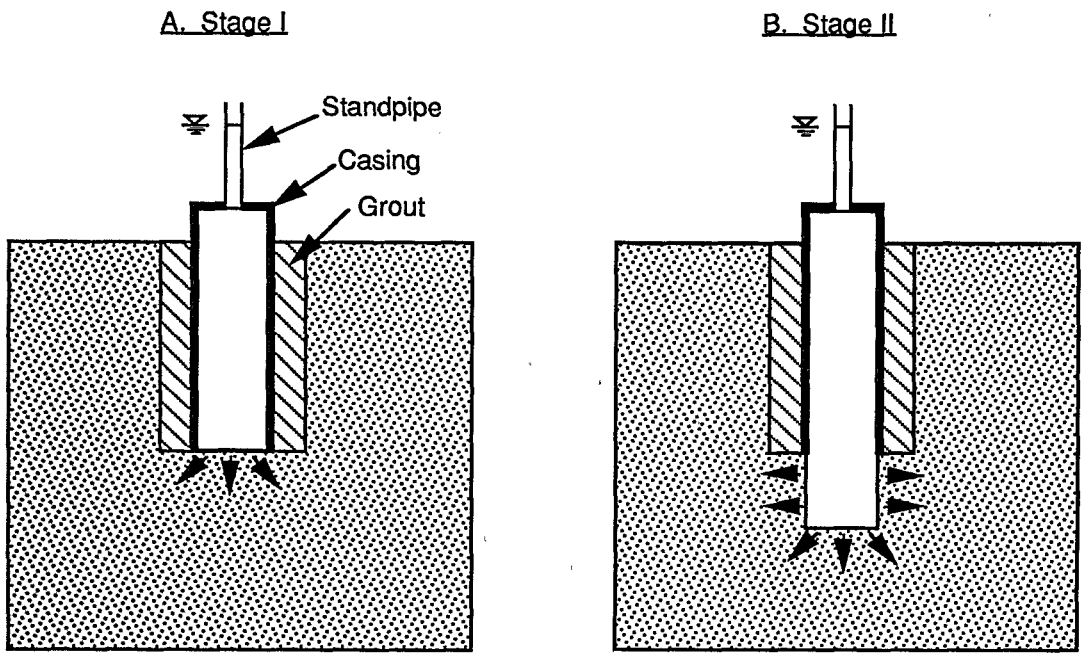

Figure 2.34 - Schematic Diagram of Two-Stage Borehole Test

The two-stage borehole test permeates a smaller volume of soil than the sealed double-ring infiltrometer. The required number of two-stage borehole tests for a test pad is a subject of current research. At the present time, it is recommended that at least 5 two-stage borehole tests be performed on a test pad if the two-stage test is used. If 5 two-stage borehole tests are performed, then one would expect that all five of the measured vertical hydraulic conductivities would be less than or equal to the required maximum hydraulic conductivity for the soil liner.

2.10.7.3 Other Field Tests

Several other methods of in situ hydraulic conductivity testing are available for soil liners. These methods include open infiltrometers, borehole tests with a constant water level in the borehole, porous probes, and air-entry permeameters. The methods are described by Daniel (1989) but are much less commonly used than the SDRI and two-stage borehole test.

2.10.7.4 Laboratory Tests

Laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests may be performed for two reasons:

1. If a very large sample of soil is taken from the field and permeated in the laboratory, the result may be representative of field-scale hydraulic conductivity. The question of how large the laboratory test specimen needs to be is currently a matter of research, but preliminary results indicate that a specimen with a diameter of approximately 300 mm (12 in.) may be sufficiently large (Benson et al., 1993).

2. If laboratory hydraulic conductivity tests are a required component of QA/QC for the actual liner, the same sampling and testing procedures are used for the test pad. Normally, undisturbed soil samples are obtained following the procedures outlined in ASTM D-1587, and soil test specimens with diameters of approximately 75 mm (3 in.) are permeated in flexible-wall permeameters in accordance with ASTM D-5084.

2.10.8 Documentation

A report should be prepared that describes all of the test results from the test pad. The test pad documentation provides a basis for comparison between test pad results and the CQA data developed on an actual construction project.

2.11 Final Approval

Upon completion of the soil liner, the soil liner should be accepted and approved by the CQA engineer prior to deployment or construction of the next overlying layer.

2.12 References

Albrecht, K .A., and K. Cartwright (1989), "Infiltration and Hydraulic Conductivity of a Compacted Earthen Liner," *Ground Water*, Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 14-19.

Alther, G. R. (1983), "The Methylene Blue Test for Bentonite Liner Quality Control," *Geotechnical Testing Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 133-143.

ASTM D-422, "Particle-Size Analysis of Soils"

ASTM D-698, "Laboratory Compaction Characteristics of Soils Using Modified Effort (12,400 ft-lbf/ft^3 (600 kN-m/m^3))"

ASTM D-1140, "Amount of Material in Soils Finer than the No. 200 (75-μm)Sieve"

ASTM D-1556, "Density and Unit Weight of Soil In Place by Sand-Cone Method"

ASTM D-1557, "Laboratory Compaction Characteristics of Soils Using Standard Effort (56,000 ft-lbf/ft^3 (2,700 kN-m/m^3))"

ASTM D-1587, "Thin-Walled Tube Sampling of Soils"

ASTM D-2167, "Density and Unit Weight of Soil In Place by Rubber Balloon Method"

ASTM D-2216, "Laboratory Determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil and Rock"

ASTM D-2487, "Classification of Soils for Engineering Purposes (Unified Soil Classification System)"

ASTM D-2488, "Description and Identification of Soils (Visual-Manual Procedure)"

ASTM D-2922, "Density of Soil and Soil-Aggregate In Place by Nuclear Methods (Shallow Depth)

ASTM D-2937, "Density and Unit Weight of Soil In Place by Drive-Cylinder Method"

ASTM D-3017, "Water Content of Soil and Rock In Place by Nuclear Methods (Shallow Depth)"

ASTM D-4220, "Preserving and Transporting Soil Samples"

ASTM D-4318, "Liquid Limit, Plastic Limit, and Plasticity Index of Soils"

ASTM D-4643, "Determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil by Microwave Oven Method"

ASTM D-4944, "Field Determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil by Calcium Carbide Gas Pressure Tester Method"

ASTM D-4959, "Determination of Water (Moisture) Content of Soil by Direct Heating Method"

ASTM D-5080, "Rapid Determination of Percent Compaction"

ASTM D-5084, "Measurement of Hydraulic Conductivity of Saturated Porous Materials Using a Flexible Wall Permeameter"

ASTM D-5093, "Field Measurement of Infiltration Rate Using a Double-Ring Infiltrometer with a Sealed Inner Ring"

ASTM E-946, "Water Adsorption of Bentonite by the Porous Plate Method"

Benson, C. H., and D.E. Daniel (1990), "Influence of Clods on Hydraulic Conductivity of Compacted Clay," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 116, No. 8, pp. 1231-1248.

Benson, C. H., and G. P. Boutwell (1992), "Compaction Control and Scale-Dependent Hydraulic Conductivity of Clay Liners," *Proceedings*, Fifteenth Annual Madison Waste Conference, Univ. of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin, pp. 62-83..

Benson, C. H., Zhai, H., and Rashad, S. M. (1992), "Assessment of Construction Quality

Control Measurements and Sampling Frequencies for Compacted Soil Liners," Environmental Geotechnics Report No. 92-6, University of Wisconsin, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Madison, Wisconsin, 100p.

Benson, C. H., Hardianto, F. S., and Motan, E. S. (1993), "Representative Sample Size for Hydraulic Conductivity Assessment of Compacted Soil Liners," *Hydraulic Conductivity and Waste Contaminant Transport in Soils, ASTM STP 1142*, D. E. Daniel and S. J. Trautwein (Eds.), American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, (in review).

Boutwell, G., and Hedges, C. (1989), "Evaluation of Waste-Retention Liners by Multivariate Statistics," *Proceedings of the Twelfth International Conference on Soil Mechanics and Foundation Engineering*, A. A. Balkema, Rotterdam, Vol. 2, pp. 815-818.l

Boutwell, G .P., and Tsai, C. N. (1992), "The Two-Stage Field Permeability Test for Clay Liners," *Geotechnical News*, Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 32-34.

Brakensiek, D.L. (1977), "Estimating the Effective Capillary Pressure in the Green and Ampt Infiltration Equation," *Water Resources Research*, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 680-681.

Brown, R. K. (1992), Personal Communication.

Daniel, D.E. (1989), "In Situ Hydraulic Conductivity Tests for Compacted Clay," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 115, No. 9, pp. 1205-1226.

Daniel, D.E. (1990), "Summary Review of Construction Quality Control for Compacted Soil Liners," in *Waste Containment Systems: Construction, Regulation, and Performance*, R. Bonaparte (Ed.), American Society of Civil Engineers, New York, pp. 175-189.

Daniel, D.E., and C. H. Benson (1990), "Water Content - Density Criteria for Compacted Soil Liners," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 116, No. 12, pp. 1811-1830.

Elsbury, B. R., Daniel, D. E., Sraders, G. A., and Anderson, D. C. (1990), "Lessons Learned from Compacted Clay Liner," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 116, No. 11, pp. 1641-1660.

Hilf, J. W. (1991), "Compacted Fill," in *Foundation Engineering Handbook*, H. Y. Fang (Ed.), Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York, pp. 249-316.

Lambe, T. W., and Whitman, R. V. (1969), *Soil Mechanics*, John Wiley & Sons, New York, 533 p.

Mitchell, J. K., Hooper, D. R., and Campanella, R. G. (1965), "Permeability of Compacted Clay," *Journal of the Soil Mechanics and Foundations Division*, ASCE, Vol. 91, No. SM4, pp. 41-65.

Mundell, J. A., and Bailey, B. (1985), "The Design and Testing of a Compacted Clay Barrier Layer to Limit Percolation through Landfill Covers," *Hydraulic Barriers in Soil and Rock, ASTM STP 874*, A. I. Johnson et al. (Eds.), American Society for Testing and Materials, Philadelphia, pp. 246-262.

Neuman, S.P. (1976), "Wetting Front Pressure Head in the Infiltration Model of Green and Ampt," *Water Resources Research*, Vol. 11, No. 3, pp. 564-565.

Noorany, I. (1990), "Variability in Compaction Control," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 116, No. 7, pp. 1132-1136.

Reimbold, M.W. (1988), "An Evaluation of Models for Predicting Infiltration Rates in Unsaturated Compacted Clay Soils," M.S. Thesis, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas, 128 p.

Richardson, G. N. (1992), "Construction Quality Management for Remedial Action and Remedial Design Waste Containment Systems," U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, EPA/540/R-92/073, Washington, DC.

Schmertmann, J.H. (1989), "Density Tests Above Zero Air Voids Line," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 115, No. 7, pp. 1003-1018.

Shelley, T. L., and Daniel, D. E. (1993), "Effect of Gravel on Hydraulic Conductivity of Compacted Soil Liners," *Journal of Geotechnical Engineering*, Vol. 119, No. 1, pp. 54-68.

Turnbull, W. J., Compton, J. P., and R. G. Ahlvin (1966), "Quality Control of Compacted Earthwork," *Journal of the Soil Mechanics and Foundations Division*, ASCE, Vol. 92, No. SM1, pp. 93-103.

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers (1970), "Laboratory Soils Testing," Office of the Chief of Engineers, Washington, DC, EM1110-2-1906.