Mainstreaming Slope Stability Management – Hazard and Risk Assessment – to Laos Practitioners

Theme 6

Engineering Geological Assessments 6.1 – Topographic survey





Topography and landforms

- Compass traverse easy, quick, imprecise. Errors in this is normally of the orders of metres. Useful for rapid geological or geomorphological assessments.
- Theodolite / Levelling or EDM Survey relatively easy to complete. Becomes time consuming in areas without good lines of sight. Precision is in the order of mm in X, Y and Z directions.
- Digital photogrammetry expensive but can cover large areas in relatively short periods and provide good. Added benefit of having aerial photographs for interpretation.
- LiDAR / Laser scanning laser distance measurement. A powerful survey method that can be employed on the ground or be airbourne. Normally will give precision in the order of mm, BUT can have large errors in heavily vegetated terrains.
- Airbourne / Satellite based remote sensing good for large areas but generally scans vegetation surfaces and is of limited use for landslide investigations.





Engineering geological maps







Use of laser scanning: Fathom Fault -Cullercoates

- Work undertaken as a partnership between Durham University and a major geotechnical contractor.
- Data used to map faults and fissures on the rock surface
- Digital camera linked to scanner allows colour to be applied to point cloud
- Scan time of 5-10 minutes
- 8000 observations per second

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Laser scanning and LiDAR are powerful tools for monitoring and mapping the ground. However, the difficulties encountered with these techniques due to vegetation are significant

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Image courtesy University of Durham and Halcrow Group.

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From Glen et al. 2006. Analysis of LiDARderived topographic information for characterizing and differentiating landslide morphology and activity. *Geomorphology*. **73**, 131–148



 Requires the establishment of a temporary bench mark which ideally should allow a view of the entire site.

- Requires a survey to operate the EDM equipment and a colleague to carry a staff with a reflector for the surveyor to sight onto.
- Requires post processing and mapping. Normally within a Geographic Information System or a Computer Aided Design (CAD) package.
- Data are recorded as a series of X, Y and Z points. Local coordinate systems must be linked clearly to National or International Grid systems.



- Does not require a clear line of sight and therefore is valuable where terrain is difficult.
- However, it does require a clear view of the sky and precision is generally related to the number of satellites visible to the receiver.
- Precision is vastly improved by GPS in differential mode. This is where a GPS bases station is 'fixed' on a known location and a 'rover' or 'ranger' station is used to make observations. Baselines between stations should be of the order of 100s of metres.
- GPS precision is improved by post processing of data. Precision of GPS in kinetic mode (walking around making only brief measurement stops) is nominally +/- 1-2cm with a local station but this requires post survey processing.
- GPS is a powerful and practical tool for rapid landslide surveying.

Mainstreaming Slope Stability Management – Hazard and Risk Assessment – to Laos Practitioners

Theme 6

Engineering Geological Assessments 6.2 – Engineering Geological Mapping



- Most rock materials have sufficient strength for civil engineering purposes. HOWEVER this is less true of rock masses.
- The ROCK MASS is the combination of the material (rock) and the fractures and discontinuities in the mass.
- The ground is modified by recent and active GEOMORPHOLOGICAL processes.
- In tropical and sub tropical zones the most important geomorphological process is WEATHERING.
- Weathering results in the formation of RESIDUAL SOILS on slopes.
- Residual soils give rise to ground conditions that are extremely difficult to predict. This is known as geological HETEROGENEITY.
- The likely heterogeneity in the ground should be identified in the GEOLOGICAL MODEL and on ENGINEERING GEOLOGICAL MAPS.















Road 13N - Km 260.3





Road 13N - Km 336.4

Shallow failures below and above road





Road 13N - Km 336.4





Road 13N - Km 336.4



Back Scarp





Examples of Engineering Geological Maps

Examples from Laos (SEACAP) Sites

> Km 260.3

Km 242

> Km 317.9





Road 13N - Km 242



Concrete surface protection



Road 13N - Km 317.9

[\] Tension cracks hidden in trees

Back Scarp??

Integrating topography and engineering geology



- The following slides show how geological features have been used to help to locate the boundaries of a large landslide at Knipe Point, Cayton Bay near Scarborough, England.
- Surface observations show that the landslide shear surface is located in the Oxford Clay formation because this is being thrust upwards through the current beach level.
- Further surface observations show that Oxford Clay is thrust against glacial deposits marking the lateral boundaries of the landslide.
- Simple topographic measurements combined with engineering geological mapping allowed the main shear planes to be identified in the landslide system for further analysis. These are shown on the cross section.

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From: Thompson, B. 2008. SLOPE STABILITY INVESTIGATION INTO A RE-ACTIVATED, COMPOUND LANDSLIDE, CAYTON BAY, NEAR SCARBOROUGH. Unpublished MSc Dissertation, University of Leeds.

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Bulk Density	c'	41 (⁰)	a (IrDa)	+ (°)	c'_{r}	41 (⁰)	Sauraa
(Kg/m)	(KPa)	φ ()	$c_{\rm u}$ (KPa)	φ _u ()	(KPa)	φ _r ()	Source
2235	38	19	38	17.5	0	26.5	Mills (1981)
-	28	30	29	12	1	25	Bell (2002)
							Russell and Eyles
2150 - 2300	0 - 20	30 - 32	150 - 220	-	0	28 - 30	(1985)
							Powell and Butcher
2240	6	27	-	_	0	25	(2003)
							Representative values
2230	21	27	34	15	0	26	to be used

After defining the geometry of the landslide using the surface geology, geomorphology and borehole data, geotechnical parameters were applied to the cross section for analysis.



- Conceptual Ground models seek to show the types of conditions that are expected to be encountered based on desk study data and field observations.
- Such models should show what types of variations should be expected based on the available data. Examples include:
 - In highly weathered terrains a ground model may suggest the presence of corestones in the soil mass
 - In areas with geological faults they may indicate that there may be a higher fracture density in the immediate vicinity of the fault.
- Ground models may at some point have quantitative data applied such as fracture spacing or shear strength data.
- Ground models should therefore evolve as you get more data
- Ground models can include a 4th dimension TIME! A good example would be how slopes over-steepen in response to erosion (see theme 2.3)

From Fookes, P. G. 1997. Geology for Engineers: the Geological Model, Prediction and Performance. Quarterly Journal of Engineering Geology, 30, 293–424.



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Fig. 33. Wet tropical weathering (superimposed on geology shown in Fig. 19).

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Theme 6

Engineering Geological Assessments 6.3 – Field description of soils and rocks

1.

2



Material characteristics

- 1. Strength unconfined compressive (MN/m²)
- 2. Structure inter-relationship of texture & lithology
- 3. Texture & fabric arrangement & relationship of rock components
- 4. Colour
- 5. Grain size averaged dimensions of rock fragments
- 6. Name
- General Information
 - 1. Additional info & minor constituents
 - 2. Geological Formation
- 3. Mass characteristics
 - 1. State of weathering
 - 2. Discontinuities

Description of rock in cores

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- **1. Rock material characteristics**
 - Colour

....

1.

- Grain size averaged dimensions of rock fragments
- Structure inter-relationship of texture & lithology
- Texture & fabric arrangement & relationship of rock components
 - Strength unconfined compressive (MN/m²)
- General Information
 - Minor constituents and additional information
 - Geological Formation
- 2. Rock mass characteristics
 - State of weathering
 - Discontinuities
 - Fracture state

(After BS EN ISO 14689-1:2003; BS5930, 1999)

Field description of strength



Field description of rock strength (from BS EN ISO 14689-1:2003)

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Descriptor	<i>Strength</i> (MPa)	Typical characteristics				
Extremely weak*	< 1	Indented by thumbnail				
Very weak	1-5	Crumbles under firm blows with point of geology hammer, can be peeled by pocket knife				
Weak	5-25	Can be peeled by pocket knife with difficulty, shallow indentations made by firm blow with point of geology hammer				
Medium strong	25-50	Cannot be peeled or scrapped with a pocket knife, specimen can be fractured with a single firm blow of geology hammer				
Strong	50-100	Specimen requires more than one blow of geology hammer to fracture.				
Very strong	100-250	Specimen needs many blows of geology hammer to fracture.				
Extremely strong	>250	Specimen can only be chipped with geology hammer				
* some extremely weak rocks behave as soils and should be described as soils see RS						

* some extremely weak rocks behave as soils and should be described as soils see BS ISO 14688-1

Weathering



Whole mass is decomposed to a residual soil and relict structure is no longer evident. Describe as an engineering soil

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Describe rock as completely weathered (weathering grade V). All of the rock mass is a soil material although some relict structure remains.

Describe rock as severely weathered (weathering grade IV). More than 50% of the rock mass is decomposed to a soil material.

Describe rock as moderately weathered (weathering grade III). The rock is discoloured throughout with significant weakening

Describe rock as discoloured or slightly weathered (weathering grade lla-c depending on degree of discolouration.)

Bedrock geology – describe rock material as FRESH weathering grade I)

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Shum Wan Road Landslide Hong Kong

Sesquioxide Rich Zone

Grade V

Grade Vsq

From Duzgoren-Aydin et al. (2002)

Grade III-IV

Grade

10 m

a

3m

Grade I



Rock type	Density dry t/m ³	Porosity %	Dry UCS range MPa	Dry UCS mean MPa	UCS saturated MPa	Modulus of elasticity GPa	Tensile strength MPa	Shear strength MPa	Friction angle
Granite	2.7	1	50-350	200		75	15	35	55
Basalt	2.9	2	100-350	250		90	15	40	50
Greywacke	2.6	3	100-200	180	160	60	15	30	45
Sandstone-	2.2	12	30-100	70	50	30	5	15	45
Carboniferous	1.9	25	5-40	20	10	4	1	4	40
Sandstone-Triassic									
Limestone-	2.6	3	50-150	100	90	60	10	30	35
Carboniferous	2.3	15	15-70	25	15	15	2	5	35
Limestone–Jurassic	1.8	30	5-30	15	5	6	0.3	3	29
Chalk									
Mudstone-	1.4	10	10-50	40	20	10	1		30
Carboniferous	2.2	15	5-30	20	5	2	0.5		25
Shale-Carboniferous	2.1	30	1-4	2		0.2	0.2	0.7	20
Clay-Cretaceous									
Coal	1.4	10	2-100	30		10	2		
Gypsum	2.2	5	20-30	25		20	1		30
Salt	2.1	5	5-20	12		5			
Hornfels	2.7	1	200-350	250		80			40
Marble	2.6	1	60-200	100		60	10	32	35
Gneiss	2.7	1	50-200	150		45	10	30	30
Schist	2.7	3	20-100	60		20	2		25
Slate	2.7	1	20-250	90		30	10		25

What is a discontinuity ?

Type of discontinuity	Description
Joint	A discontinuity in the body of rock along which there has been no visible displacement.
Fault	A fracture or fracture zone along which there has been recognizable displacement.
Bedding fracture	A fracture along the bedding (bedding is a surface parallel to the plane of deposition).
Cleavage fracture	A fracture along a cleavage (cleavage is a set of parallel planes of weakness often associated with mineral realignment).
Induced fracture	A discontinuity of non-geological origin, e.g. brought about by coring, blasting, ripping etc.
Incipient fracture	A discontinuity which retains some tensile strength, which may not be fully developed or which may be partially cemented. Many incipient fractures are along bedding or cleavage.





Information described in a scanline survey –

- spacing
- orientation (dip/strike or just dip in cores)
- persistence
- termination
- block size
- roughness (wavelength/amplitude, stepped/undulating/planar, rough/smooth)
- wall strength, weathering,
- aperture & infill
- seepage
- no. of joint sets



 Joints, faults, bedding fractures and cleavage fractures

- Incipient fracture retaining some tensile strength, not fully developed, may contain cement
- Induced fractures discontinuity of nongeological origin (e.g. coring/blasting)



Fracture/joint spacing								
From: BS EN ISO 14689-1:2003								
Measurement	Discontinuity spacing							
DUALITY								
>2 m	very wide							
2 m - 0.6 m	wide							
0.6 - 0.2 m	medium							
200 - 60 mm	close							
60 -20 mm	very close							
< 20 mm	extremely close							

Field testing



- SPT : Standard Penetration Test
 - no. of blows/300mm penetration
- Permeability Test
- Vane tests
- Cone Penetration Tests
- In-Situ Density Test
- Index testing
- Point load tests important to evaluate the strength of discontinuities.
- Schmidt Hammer important to evaluate the strength of discontinuities.



Bedding thickness

Measurement	Bedding thickness
>2 m	very thick
2 m - 0.6 m	thick
0.6 - 0.2 m	medium
200 - 60 mm	thin
60 -20 mm	very thin
20 - 6 mm	thickly laminated
6 - 2 mm	thinly laminated



Discontinuity aperture						
Aperture	Term					
< 0.1 mm	very tight					
0.1 – 0.25 mm	tight					
0.25 – 0.5 mm	partly open					
0.5 - 2.5 mm	open					
2.5-10 mm	moderately wide					
1-10 cm	wide					
10-100 cm	very wide					
> 1 m	extremely wide					



LEFT: MSc Hydrogeology students logging rock core during a field course. BELOW: Core from a ground investigation (photographs courtesy of Drs N. Odling and J. Lawrence)

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Describing soils



Material type	Strength	Compressibility	Permeability
Rock	Very high	Very low	Medium to high
Granular soil	High	Low	High
Cohesive soil	Low	High	Very low
Organic soil	Very low	Very high	High
Made ground	Medium to very low	Medium to very high	Low to high

Soil type	Description
CLAY	Cohesive soil
BOULDERS	Granular soils
COBBLES	Granular soils
GRAVEL	Granular soils
SAND	Granular soils
SILT	Granular soils
PEAT	Organic soil
MADE GROUND	Man-made soils and
	other materials

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Consistency	Undrained shear						
	strength						
Very soft	< 20 kPa						
Soft	20-40 kPa						
Firm	40 -75 kPa						
Stiff	75 – 150 kPa						
Very Stiff	150 – 300 kPa						
Hard	> 300 kPa						
Correlation between	Correlation between consistency and C _u						

In addition to shear strength you should also record plastic limit, liquid limits and plasticity index. These are generally termed the Atterberg limits. Mainstreaming Slope Stability Management – Hazard and Risk Assessment – to Laos Practitioners

Theme 6

Engineering Geological Assessments 6.4 – Ground Investigation



- The most likely methods you will employ to investigate landslides are:
 - Trial Pitting MUST be used with caution on landslides and the risk to the engineering geologist logging the face MUST be carefully assessed.
 - Cable percussive drilling sometimes known as shell and augur. A good method of advancing a hole and sampling soft ground
 - Rotary coring. A good method of sampling in firm soils and rocks. Has limitations related to the use of fluid flushes.

Trial pitting





Advantages:

- allows for undisturbed sampling;
- allows easy identification of slip planes
- cheap
- **Disadvantages:**
- Must be supported for safety reasons.

Photographs courtesy of Dr J. A. Lawrence, University of Leeds.

Cable percussive drilling





- Mobile A Frame with power winch 1-2 tonne, towed behind 4x4
- Sand shell/clay cutter driven into ground by weight repeatedly dropped 1-2m
- Used in soils and weak/soft rock and sediments –clays, silts, sands
- Disturbed samples retrieved in U100s (100mm sampler in 150mm casing) for description and classification
- Chisel head used for harder rock
- 15m to 40m depth



Photographs courtesy of Dr J. A. Lawrence, University of Leeds.



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Cable Percussion drill Log

Depth (ft)	Sample / Tests	Saving	Nation of the second se	Field Records	(1886)	D (This	epsih (Alterss)	Description	Legend	Water	inser
0.00-0.50	81					-	(0.50)	TOPSOL. Greyish brown CLAY / SLT			읽홂
0.50-1.00	82				19.72	ليسليل	0.50	Very stiff velowish brown and light velowish brown signity gravely sandy SET. Cravelis angular line to coarse weak sitatone.			
	61					1	(1.42)				X
1.50	Ŭi on			40 biows	18.32	hand	1.90	Very still velowsh brown and light velowish grey	<u> </u>		X
2.00	63					da la		minity raminated and closely resured maple CEAY.	=		X
2.50-2.96 2.50-2.96 2.50-3.00	3PT N=28 04 03	2.50		3,44,6,9,9		alalala	(1.60)				X
						hand					X
3.50 3.50	05			100 blows	16.72	hand	3.50	Very still yellowish brown very sandy SiLT.	23		X
4.00	D6						(1.12)				T
4.50-4.96 4.50-4.96 4.50-5.00	3PT N=28 07 94	4.50		1,44,7,8,9	15.62	عساسا	4.60		<u></u>		
4.60	Ce						(1.42)	obsety resured CLAY with some iron staining.	=		075
5.50 5.50	68			50 blows		հետ					が設備
6.00	D10				14.22	<u>م</u>	6.00	Very stiff yellowsh brown sandy CLAY becoming hard sitt. Very weak sitistone.	-		
6.50-6.96 6.50-6.96 6.50-7.00	SPT N=28 011 85	6.00		2,7/11,9,5,3		ليتعليل					が設定
7.00	W1					1					
7.50 7.50	012 04			100 blows		1.1.1.1	(0.20)				
						history					の話
8.50-8.87 8.50-8.95 8.50-9.00	SPT 50/220 D13 B6	8.00		8,9/12,16,22		hinter and the second second				v 1	の後の
9.20	D14			SLOW(1) at 9.20m, rose to 9.00m in	11.02	dalah.	9.20	Hard brown greyish brown and yellowish brown thinly taminated trable Sit.T.		21	
9.50	US			20 mins. 100 biows		history					
Remarks Hand excava Somm diame	Red pill to 1,20m Ker standpipe install	i I d with ra	ised cov	er protected by fence		_			Scale (approx)	Ŀ	gged
PIC reading	adjacent lo 1214 at 0.3	ióm bgl -	0.3ppm						1:50	A	еем
									Since	6.B	419

(0.50)		
0.50	Very stiff yellowish brown and light yellowish brown slightly gravelly sandy SILT. Gravel is	× × × ×
	angular fine to coarse weak siltstone.	× • * × * × * ×
(1.40)		* * * * * * * * *
		×

Rotary coring





- Good method for advancing a hole in rock.
- Good method for obtaining samples.
- Orientation of discontinuities cannot be measured from core due to rotation of core in barrel
- Can induce fractures in weaker rock materials
- Generally requires some form of fluid flush to lubricate and cool drill bit
- Diagram from Clayton et al 1997.

Layout for small-scale rotary core drilling

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Rotary Log

Degth	TCR	SCR	RQD	R	Field Records	(1 888)	Depth (Thickness)	Description	Legend	Nuller	instr
20.00	100	50	27		028			Vary weak to moderately weak thickly backled orrange hown and gray MUDSTORE. Potentally weather of, Discontinuities unbehotomatic sub-writical fracture, desay towidaly spaced, much to smooth planar, gamealy open, heavy orrange hown stain penelitating up to 22.20m, elt infil.			
21.00	8	70	30				(220) (220)			and the second second	
22.10	100	8	81			-1.99	22.20 22.20 (3.20) (3.20) (3.20) (3.20) (3.20) (3.20)	Weak to moderately weak very thickly badded light grey MUCBTONE resubadded with moderately weak they bodded light grey line gamed Discontinuities are subhotic crist badding fracture 20-00 degree disc, close to widely spaced sight to open light known stais parastrating from 24.36m - 28.00m; koality ait and sand infit. 		Second Constant	
23.70	S.	75	3							Contraction of the second	
25.10	100	50	50							1000 TO 1000	
26.00	95	95	81				ana haran ana a	30 - 70 dags sets an anticit planet in factors of our ray operture tight and locally clay and site roll.			
27.40	R	91	85				500 Statutation			State of the second state	
28.20	80	80	53							AND ADDRESS OF	
Pernarks										bye	ged
										AE/	EM 19



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(After, BS5930, 1999)



 Rock Quality Designation index (RQD) was developed by Deere (Deere et al 1967)

 defined as the percentage of intact core pieces longer than 100 mm

 Core diameter must be at least NX (i.e. 54 mm and upwards)



Rock Quality Designation



Advantages:

implicitly accounts for discontinuities and weak materials by using core loss as an analogue for fractures and weak layers

disadvantages:

it is difficult for the engineering geologists to assess why core has been lost
- is it though a high discontinuity density or a weak layer in the stratigraphy



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- Normally need undisturbed samples
- U100 every 1.5m or change of stratum. Blow count and penetration should be noted.
- If unable to obtain a U100 then bulk samples as above.
- If U100 does not full penetrate SPT test is required.
- Silts:
 - Alternate SPT and U100 samples at 0.75m intervals
- Sands & Gravels:
 - Undisturbed samples are not practical due to the lack of cohesion.
 - SPT every 1m or change of stratum.
 - Bulk samples to be taken between SPT.

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Methods of downhole discontinuity survey (above - compression packer impression both from Clayton et al 1997)

Guidelines for sampling



Rock

- SPT on penetrating rock, every 1m and change of stratum where possible
- In softer rocks (Chalks, Marls) U100 may be possible
- Rock must be penetrated at least 1.5m to ensure it isn't a large cobble
- If SPT refusal (>50 blows) record number of blows and penetration

Look at Chris Clayton's book "Site Investigation" online at:

http://www.geotechnique.info/

Field testing



- SPT : Standard Penetration Test
 - no. of blows/300mm penetration
- Permeability Test
- Vane tests
- Cone Penetration Tests
- In-Situ Density Test
- Index testing
- Point load tests important to evaluate the strength of discontinuities.
- Schmidt Hammer important to evaluate the strength of discontinuities.

Laboratory tests



 Laboratory tests are often considered as an essential part of the ground investigation process.
 Tests should seek to replicate the state of stress in the ground as most failure criteria are actually non-linear in fact.

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- Structured soils such as residual soils – often show strongly non-linear Mohr-Coulomb envelopes.
- Most strength tests require non-disturbed samples.
- Index tests can normally be done on disturbed samples.
- The tests you wish to carry out may dictate what equipment you deploy to site.



Rock Tests

- Direct shear (rock material intact shear cohesion)
- Direct shear discontinuities
- Unconfined Compression Test
- Tensile tests (direct and indirect)
- Hoek Cell (triaxial)
- Density



Soil Tests

- UCS soils (of limited value in slope engineering)
- Triaxial test (UU to CD)
- Direct shear shear box / ring shear
- Plasticity indices / Atterberg limits
- Moisture content
- Density

Void ratio

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Theme 6

Engineering Geological Assessments 6.4 – Geological sections and monitoring movement see practical exercise