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1 **Impact of drying-wetting cycles on the small strain behaviour of**
2 **compacted clay**

3

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28

29 **Abstract (150 – 200 words)**

30 Small strain shear modulus (G_{max}) is an important parameter for assessing the performance
31 of compacted soils that underlie typical transport infrastructure assets such as railway tracks.
32 This is particularly important when considering changes in climate patterns, which are
33 expected to yield larger seasonal soil-atmosphere moisture fluctuations. This in turn results in
34 the progressive variation of the small strain properties of compacted soils during their service
35 life (i.e. drying and wetting). In this study, the small strain shear behaviour was evaluated for
36 an intermediate plasticity clay (i.e. kaolin) in a series of drying and wetting cycles . Four
37 different drying and wetting boundaries were considered to explore a wide range of moisture
38 amplitudes during 10 drying-wetting cycles. Drying and wetting was controlled using
39 gravimetric water content in order to mimic realistic field conditions typically observed at
40 substructure level. An ultrasonic pulse transmission method was used to capture the change
41 in small strain stiffness and volume at discrete points during the drying-wetting cycles. The
42 results reveal clear distinctions in behaviour for all four boundaries considered, with wetting
43 boundaries having the greatest influence on behaviour. In this instance, specimens brought to
44 full saturation during wetting exhibited an increase in the small strain shear modulus during
45 progressive drying-wetting cycles. However, a reduction was observed when the wetting
46 boundary was restricted to the compacted state. Measured volume changes were also in
47 agreement with these findings, however there was some evidence of volume increase when
48 drying to residual conditions. The results suggest that this is associated with the formation of
49 the partial pendular state where a loss of capillary contacts between particles occurs.
50 Furthermore, when all data for 10 drying-wetting cycles is plotted in the $e-G_{max}$ space, a linear
51 relationship is observed for different constant water content levels. Remarkably, this trend is
52 shown to be independent of the boundary conditions considered in this study or number of
53 drying-wetting cycles.

54

55 **Keywords**

56 Drying-wetting cycles; small strain stiffness; compacted clay; ultrasonic pulse transmission
57 testing; geostructures; amplitude of drying and wetting

58

59 **1 Introduction**

60 Compacted soils included in earth structures, such as transport infrastructure
61 embankments, are exposed to a range of persistent cyclical oscillations in hydraulic loads
62 resulting from soil-atmosphere interactions. The extent of these interactions results from the
63 incidence of precipitation, relative humidity and surface temperature associated with prevailing
64 weather conditions. In addition, they are also influenced by soil properties/features such as
65 permeability, plasticity, particle size, desiccation cracking and presence of vegetation. These
66 geomaterials are placed and compacted using plant (e.g. vibrating or sheep foot rollers) to a
67 specified compaction criteria (e.g. dry unit weight and water content) and typically remain in
68 an unsaturated condition during most of their service life, which governs their stress strain
69 behaviour.

70 During the operation of transport infrastructure, the small strain (0.001% or less) properties
71 of these geomaterials governs the response of an earth structure subjected to dynamic loading
72 resulting from passing traffic. Historically, both field and laboratory shear wave testing
73 techniques such as seismic cone penetration testing (SCPT) and bender element techniques
74 have been used to measure small strain properties. These methods measure the propagation
75 of shear waves, which travel transverse to the direction of transmission at a given frequency
76 and amplitude, over a known distance to determine the velocity of the transmitted wave in
77 either saturated or unsaturated conditions (Krautkrämer et al., 1990).

78 In unsaturated conditions the differential between soil water pressure and air pressure
79 applies a tensile force at the air-water interface producing an additional normal stress (capillary
80 stress as matric suction) between soil particles. Upon exceeding the Air Entry Value (AEV),
81 the air phase becomes continuous in the pores and soil enters the transition zone. Generally,
82 the associated increase in the magnitude of suction results in an increase in soil stiffness and
83 thus small strain shear modulus (G_{max}) (Ngoc, 2020). Consequently, the propagation of shear
84 waves depends on void ratio, matric suction and net stress i.e. inter-particle forces (Cho and
85 Santamarina, 2001; Whalley et al., 2012; Santamarina, 2003). Numerous past studies have

86 demonstrated that the velocity of shear waves in soil, and thus small strain shear modulus is
87 sensitive to soil water retention characteristics, for example, Azizi et al. (2019); Ngoc et al.
88 (2019); Heitor et al. (2015b); Khosravi and McCartney (2012); Ng et al. (2009), among others.
89 They report that small strain stiffness also exhibits hysteretic behaviour observed during drying
90 and wetting resulting from the 'ink bottle effect' (distribution of pore size diameter) and
91 differences in contact angles (Heitor, 2013). Past research by Ngoc et al. (2019) has also
92 shown that van der Waals attraction (intermolecular force) and double-layer repulsion (formed
93 at the soil-water interface) influences observed shear modulus during drying and wetting
94 cycles.

95 Furthermore, the application of several drying-wetting cycles has also been shown to
96 impact the small strain shear modulus of compacted soils (Ma, C. et al., 2023; Ying et al.,
97 2021; Ngoc, 2020; Tang et al., 2011; Heitor et al., 2015b). For instance, Ying et al. (2021) and
98 Tang et al. (2011) showed a slight decrease in small strain shear modulus for compacted
99 sandy silts subject seven drying-wetting cycles. However both Ngoc (2020) and Heitor et al.
100 (2015b) report increases in small strain shear modulus after drying-wetting cycles for
101 compacted mixture of kaolin and sand, and silty sand respectively. As a result the behaviour
102 of compacted soils has been shown to be complex however, there is no quantitative evidence
103 explaining the causes of the difference in observed behaviour.

104 The consideration of these complexities is important with regard to future changes in
105 climate which will likely alter the amplitude of hydraulic cycles experienced by compacted soils
106 (Walker et al., 2022). Past studies have shown that the resultant predicted increase in climatic
107 extremes generate higher suction stresses during hotter summer periods, leading to increased
108 amplitude of water content during drying and wetting, and thus a greater volume change
109 observed in the seasonal shrink-swell cycles (Clarke, D. and Smethurst, 2010; Glendinning et
110 al., 2015). Recent research has also shown that continual drying and wetting processes also
111 produce weather driven deterioration of the soil microstructure. This has been shown to result
112 from the formation of micro-cracks which propagate during hydraulic cycling in the surface of

113 an embankment (Stirling et al., 2020). Triaxial testing demonstrated that this mechanism
114 produced an asymptotic reduction in shear strength of a glacial till at large strains. The
115 observed change in strength reached an equilibrium after several cycles and is presumably
116 as a result of changes in the soil microstructure (Stirling et al., 2020). However, the impact of
117 hydraulic pathways, such as differing drying-wetting amplitudes and boundaries relevant to
118 climate change have not been investigated for compacted clay soils.

119 This paper therefore examines the effect of drying and wetting cycles on the shear
120 modulus of compacted kaolin clay measured using ultrasonic testing techniques. Four
121 hydraulic amplitudes were investigated incorporating the complete range of the soil water
122 retention curve (SWRC). This is contextualised with reference to climate change and includes
123 salient variables regarding drying and wetting boundaries. Specimens were subjected to ten
124 drying and wetting cycles within these defined parameters. Furthermore, unlike previous
125 studies on small strain stiffness, the hydraulic cycles (drying and wetting) were controlled using
126 gravimetric water content rather than adopting constant suction levels via the axis translation
127 technique. This approach allowed for saturation and suction to remain dependent variables
128 during application of hydraulic cycles, thus simulating field conditions more closely.

129

130 **2 METHODOLOGY**

131 **2.1 Materials and specimen preparation**

132 Laboratory testing was conducted on commercial kaolin clay procured from Imerys Ltd.
133 The material is characterised by a plasticity index of 23%, a liquid limit of 56% and specific
134 gravity 2.61 (Table 1). The particle size distribution of the sample includes 62% fine and
135 medium silt and 38% clay size fraction (Figure 1). In this study, kaolin clay was selected
136 because its behaviour and properties (i.e. compacted pore size distribution) have been well
137 characterised by several past studies (Tarantino and Col, 2008; Tarantino and Tombolato,
138 2005; Vesga, 2008; Thom et al., 2007; González and Colmenares, 2006). Furthermore, kaolin

139 clay is an intermediate plasticity clay which is representative of several soils in the UK, for
140 example Weald clay and matrix-dominated tills (Reeves et al., 2006; Clarke, B.G., 2018).

141 The specimens were statically compacted using a split mould to a desired dry unit weight
142 by applying a constant force. Similar procedures have been adopted in several past studies;
143 for example Azizi et al. (2018); Reddy and Jagadish (1993); Tarantino (2009); Tarantino and
144 Col (2008), among others. This method minimises disturbance resulting from sub sampling
145 and thus maintains higher repeatability and precision between specimen compaction
146 conditions.

147 The dry powdered kaolin was mixed with demineralised water to achieve the required
148 water content prior to compaction. The material was then passed through a 2 mm aperture
149 sieve to reduce the size of aggregated particles. The wet kaolin sample was sealed and kept
150 at approximate constant temperature and humidity conditions for a minimum of 24 hours to
151 ensure moisture equilibration. Specimens were statically compacted using a static stress level
152 of 1400 kPa to a diameter of 38 mm and height of 76 mm. To minimise friction, dry
153 Polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) was used to coat the split mould walls and soil was compacted
154 in two layers. Each layer was statically compacted at a constant force for 1 hour to reach
155 maximum volume change. After placement of the first layer, the surface was scarified to
156 ensure good adhesion between both layers.

157 A comparison between the compaction behaviour statically achieved in the split moulds
158 and the standard Proctor test is shown in Figure 2 (BS 1377-2:2022). Results show that static
159 compaction achieved 93% of standard Proctor maximum dry unit weight when a static stress
160 of 1400 kPa was applied at the Proctor optimum moisture content (OMC). This represents a
161 compaction level which is greater than the lower end of compaction criteria applied in the field
162 (90%-95%) according to National Highways specifications (National Highways, 2016). Table
163 1 shows a summary of the selected specimen conditions.

164 The water retention characteristics were also determined for the statically compacted
165 kaolin using the filter paper method. In this study, several specimens were wetted or dried to

166 reach selected water contents following compaction so that a good breath of suction values
167 were obtained. The filter paper method was then conducted using Whatman grade 42 filter
168 paper in accordance with ASTM D5298-10 (2010). A minimum period of 7 days was adopted
169 for equilibration of the test specimens. Matric suction was determined using contact method
170 and calculated using the calibration curves reported by Leong, E.C. and Rahardjo (2002). The
171 soil water retention curve (SWRC) was then interpolated using the close form relationship
172 proposed by Genuchten (1980). The SWRC for compacted kaolin used in this study is shown
173 in Figure 3.

174

175 **2.2 Ultrasonic testing and small strain shear modulus**

176 Ultrasonic testing is a non-destructive method which uses ultrasonic waves with a
177 frequency above audible sound between 20 kHz and 1 GHz (Leong, E. et al., 2011). Similar
178 to bender element tests, piezoelectric crystals are excited to produce motion and propagate
179 an ultrasonic wave through a specimen. However, unlike bender elements the ceramic
180 piezoelectric crystals are bonded to a platen rather than placed in direct contact with a
181 material. An acoustic couplant was therefore used to displace the air and reduce the difference
182 in acoustic impedance between the transducers and the soil to ensure good contact between
183 the platen and the specimen. This method therefore does not require specimen protrusion and
184 disturbance is kept to a minimum (Cheng and Leong, 2014).

185 In this study, the Pundit Lab testing system generated the electrical input signal consisting
186 of 2 V. An Olympus contact transducer (V150-RB) converted the electrical input pulse into
187 mechanical energy (transmitter) and a second corresponding transducer with a matching
188 orientation acted as a receiver for the wave. Both compressional and shear waves can be
189 monitored with this system. A digital oscilloscope connected to a PC then displayed both the
190 input and received waves for analysis. The device displays a 12 bit resolution and 500 kHz
191 sampling rate to ensure an adequate resolution in the time domain. The diagram of the
192 experimental setup during capture of shear wave data is shown in Figure 4.

193 A square impulse was used as the input signal. A range of input wave frequencies were
194 tested, i.e. 24 kHz, 37kHz, 82 kHz, 150 kHz, 200 kHz 220 kHz and 250 kHz. Figure 5 shows
195 a typical time domain plot of a received wave for kaolin statically compacted at 28% water
196 content.

197 Selecting adequate testing variables including the testing frequency is important for
198 determining the correct wave velocities. Pulse transmission results for a compacted silty sand
199 reported by Heitor et al. (2015b) show that at low frequencies the impact of the near field effect
200 increases the travel times, and thus generate the risk of underestimating the shear wave
201 velocity. In this study, observation of received waveforms collected from frequencies ranging
202 from 24 kHz to 250 kHz showed approximately equal travel times (Figure 5). Arulnathan et al.
203 (1998) proposed $L_{pp}/\lambda > 2$ (L_{pp} platen-to-platen length), a ratio of wavelength and wave path,
204 to minimise the impact of the near field effect. However, use of the 24 kHz frequency yields a
205 L_{pp}/λ ratio of 7.0 at the compacted water content whereas 250 kHz frequency produces a
206 L_{pp}/λ ratio of 72.7. Furthermore, consideration is required for L_{pp}/λ during drying and wetting
207 as both the wave path and length are altered due to variation in shear wave velocity and
208 specimen height. Results of an assessment of its effect on a compacted kaolin specimen
209 presented in Table 2 show that following drying to 1.5% water content an approximate 35%
210 reduction of the L_{pp}/λ ratio occurs for both 24 kHz and 250 kHz. However, at 1.5% water
211 content a 24kHz frequency generates a value of $L_{pp}/\lambda > 2$. Thus, the impact of the near field
212 effect is minimal during drying-wetting using ultrasonic equipment. As a result, the selected
213 frequency during testing does not significantly impact the arrival time. Testing was therefore
214 conducted at various frequencies, selected depending on the amplitude of the received wave
215 and suitable identification of the wave arrival (i.e. higher frequencies reduce wave intensity
216 and thus decrease definition of the wave arrival).

217 Waveforms were interpreted using time domain method whereby the shear wave velocity
218 was determined from the interval between the input wave and its first arrival by visual
219 selection. The initial platen-to-platen distance was determined based on the total height of the

220 specimen. The travel time of the shear wave was taken at the first deflection where the signal
221 crossed the abscissa for repeatability. One of the difficulties when employing the time domain
222 method is the presence of reflected or refracted compressional waves, which mask the first
223 arrival of the shear wave (Da Fonseca et al., 2009). These challenges have been reported by
224 Cheng and Leong (2014) for kaolin samples where a stronger compression wave component,
225 delivered with eight times the intensity, masked the shear wave arrival. Figure 5 shows an
226 example of the earlier arrival of a compressional wave during testing on the statically
227 compacted kaolin specimens used in this study. Lee and Santamarina (2005) also reported
228 similar observations for both partially saturated and unsaturated specimens. However, Figure
229 5 shows a clear distinction between the compression and shear wave arrival time in the time
230 domain due to their contrasting amplitudes. The ability to successfully detect the shear wave
231 arrival for kaolin specimens using ultrasonic transducers is also reported by Leong, E. et al.
232 (2011) and Nakagawa et al. (1996). The difference in reported findings for its detection results
233 from variation in specimen conditions (compaction/consolidation stress, saturation, confining
234 stress, sample length) and configuration of transducers.

235 To calibrate the transducers, face-to-face tests were used to determine the delay
236 calibration time (D). This accounts for the delay of the propagating incident wave as it travels
237 through the platen and the shear wave couplant. In this method the delay is measured from
238 the offset of the received wave from the transmitted wave when both transducers are in
239 contact. The chosen method returned a delay calibration time (D) of approximately 2.4 μs ,
240 which was applied to all subsequent measurements. Other methods proposed for calibration
241 include, measurement of the pulse travel time in a material of various lengths (obtaining the
242 y-axis intercept when length is plotted against arrival time) and use of materials of known
243 shear wave velocities (Leong, E. et al., 2011).

244 When using pulse transmission tests the consideration of the differences in the impedance
245 of measured materials is important due to the attenuation of the input signal. For instance,
246 when two materials such as the transducer platen and soil surface adhere to one another, the

247 incident wave will propagate to the latter as a transmission wave. However, the difference in
248 acoustic impedance of the two materials results in reflection of a portion of the incident wave
249 sound pressure when the boundary is assumed perpendicular and smooth (Krautkrämer et
250 al., 1990). When making these assumption determination of the percentage of energy
251 transmitted to the soil can be achieved by calculation of the acoustic impedance (Z) as follows:

$$Z = \rho V \quad (1)$$

252 Where Z is the acoustic impedance ($\text{kg/m}^2\text{s}$), ρ is the density (kg/m^3) and V is the sound
253 velocity (m/s). The reflection at the boundary can then be calculated using:

$$R = \left[\frac{(Z_t - Z_s)}{(Z_t + Z_s)} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

254 Where Z is again the impedance and subscripts represent the transducer (Z_t) and
255 specimen (Z_s). For the purpose of the calculation in this study a platen impedance equal to
256 aluminium was assumed (Cheng and Leong, 2014). The results in Table 3 show that 81% of
257 the shear wave is reflected at the soil-platen boundary. However, compressional wave
258 reflectance was much greater clarifying the observed difference in compressional and shear
259 wave amplitudes in the time domain. Cheng and Leong (2014) also reported similar wave
260 transmission data for consolidated kaolin slurried at 100 kPa. They observed reflection of 88%
261 of the incident sound pressure for both the shear and compression waves. Concluding it to be
262 the partial cause of the masking of the shear wave arrival. After interpretation of the
263 waveforms, the shear wave velocity (V_s) is determined, as follows:

$$V_s = \frac{L_{pp}}{\Delta t_s - D} \quad (3)$$

264 Where L_{pp} is the wave path length, which is determined from the distance between
265 platens, Δt_s the travel time of the shear wave and D the delay calibration. The small strain
266 shear modulus can be evaluated using:

$$G_{max} = \frac{\gamma_b}{g} V_s^2 \quad (4)$$

267 Where, γ_b is the bulk unit weight (kN/m^3), g is acceleration due to gravity and V_s is the
268 measured shear wave velocity.

269

270 **2.3 Testing Programme**

271 Climate change is expected to alter the amplitude of hydraulic cycles experienced by
272 compacted soils used in transport infrastructure in the UK (Walker et al., 2022). UKCP18
273 predicts increases in future surface temperatures and the frequency and intensity of rainfall
274 and flooding (Lowe et al., 2019). Modelling by Clarke, D. and Smethurst (2010) (using
275 UKCP09 medium high emission scenario data) showed that predicted increases in the UK
276 summer temperatures will result in a corresponding increase in soil moisture deficits by 2080
277 in compacted London clay fills. However, the impact of this predicted change on compacted
278 soils has not been reported. Therefore in this study, the extent of the hydraulic cycle (i.e. range
279 of drying and wetting) forms the independent variable from which the change in small strain
280 behaviour was observed.

281 The initial dimensions, compaction stress and water content were maintained as constant
282 variables for each specimen. During drying-wetting cycles the resultant shear modulus, water
283 content and volume was measured at five discrete points. These measurements took place
284 during the 1st (D/W1), 3rd (D/W3), 6th (D/W6) and 10th (D/W10) cycle. Four drying-wetting
285 testing conditions were investigated, illustrated in Figure 6, including: FT full saturation to
286 transition zone, CT compacted OMC to transition zone, FR full saturation to residual conditions
287 and CR compacted OMC to residual conditions. Following compaction specimens were dried
288 from the compacted water content at constant water contents levels to two drying boundaries
289 including $w_T=15\%$ water content, selected within the linear section of transition zone, and
290 $w_R=1.5\%$ water content chosen within proximity to residual conditions. This was followed
291 wetting to two wetting boundaries including fully saturated conditions $S_r=1.0$ and Proctor
292 compaction water content $w_{OMC}=28\%$.

293 Drying boundaries allow for a direct comparison between the effect of transition zone and
294 residual conditions. Drying within the transition zone is consistent with negative pore water
295 pressure reported by Glendinning et al. (2014) for the Achilles test embankment which showed
296 a range of between -300 and -600 kPa pore pressure at 1m depth during summer 2009 for
297 the glacial till fill material compacted to National Highways specifications (National Highways,
298 2016). Wetting boundaries limited by the compacted moisture content ($w_{OMC}=28\%$) permits
299 the evaluation of contrasting fully saturated pathways on soil behaviour.

300 To achieve full saturation, specimens were submerged in demineralized water under
301 vacuum pressure facilitating the removal of entrapped air. Results showed the adopted
302 method consistently achieved the required maximum saturation. Specimens were encased in
303 a latex membrane and ridged mould to preserve their initial diameter during swelling (latex
304 membranes have a modulus in extension of 1050 kPa when 0.2mm thick) (Raghunandan et
305 al., 2015). Specimen desaturation was conducted by air-drying at a constant 40°C temperature
306 to simulate loss of moisture through evaporation. The drying temperature was chosen to
307 expedite drying, as it was expected to have little impact on the mechanical response of the
308 soil. Furthermore, this temperature is commonly experienced by compacted soils in several
309 countries. During testing water content controlled the degree of drying, determined by
310 specimen weight, as the mass of solids remained constant. Partially saturated paths were
311 wetted to the compacted water content by the addition of the required amount of water by
312 weight. Specimens were encased in similar conditions to fully saturated specimens.

313 To ensure the even distribution of moisture throughout each wetting or drying stage
314 specimens were left at constant temperature to equilibrate. To inform the time required, the
315 distribution of water content was determined for fully saturated conditions (46.5% water
316 content), 15% water content and 1.5% water content. These conditions were tested for
317 equilibration times of 1hr, 12hrs and 24hrs. The results shown in Figure 7 demonstrate that
318 initially after 1hour equilibration wetting and drying produced substantial variations in water
319 content throughout the specimens both laterally and vertically. However, a further 24 hour

320 equilibration period minimized moisture variation to <0.5%. Thus, 24 hours was adopted as a
321 minimum equilibration period after alterations were made to a specimens water content, to
322 ensure uniform hydraulic pathways were imposed.

323

324 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

325 **3.1 Shear Modulus Variation with Water Content**

326 During drying and wetting to chosen constant water content levels, shear wave data was
327 collected at discrete points. Figure 8 shows an example of the typical shear wave evolution
328 for kaolin during the first drying-wetting cycle between the compacted water content and the
329 transition zone (CT). It can be observed during initial drying from a water content of $w_{OMC} =$
330 28% to the driest point $w_T = 15\%$, the shear wave arrival time decreases by 72 μs . However,
331 upon wetting back to the compacted water content ($w_{OMC} = 28\%$) the shear wave arrival time
332 was delayed by 113 μs . This represents a 41 μs decrease in arrival time at the compacted
333 water content on the wetting path as a result of hysteresis of capillary water (Dong and Lu,
334 2016). Notably this is contrary to suction controlled testing where arrival times on the drying
335 path are slower when compared to wetting paths.

336 Figure 9 presents the shear wave velocity data for the first drying-wetting cycle (CT).
337 Figure 9(a) confirms that when the data is plotted using gravimetric water content, the drying
338 path exhibits greater shear wave velocity at the water content levels considered. However,
339 when the data is again plotted using suction values (Figure 9(b)) the trend is inverted (i.e.
340 higher shear wave velocity on the wetting path) as reported in previous studies (Khosravi and
341 McCartney, 2012; Ngoc et al., 2019; Ng et al., 2009; Heitor et al., 2015a).

342 As expected, Figure 9 also shows that drying-wetting cycles controlled by gravimetric
343 water content induce differences in suction values. This is associated with the soil pore
344 structure, i.e. water re-enters the macropores first and is affected by contact angle and
345 entrapped air (Hillel, 2003). The decreased suction on the wetting path in combination with
346 the reduction of shear wave velocity, inverts the hysteresis cycle in the small strain stiffness -

347 suction space. This is further exemplified when the data is plotted in the gravimetric water
348 content - suction space (Figure 9(c)). In this case the hysteresis loop again shows the
349 equivalent behavior to Figure 9(a). The discrepancy in hysteresis loop configuration between
350 water content and suction approaches is thus a consequence of the representation of data in
351 the suction - small strain stiffness space, as the control of suction is generally requisite of the
352 axis translation technique. The axis translation approach generally requires saturation to be
353 reduced (coupled with water content) on the wetting path to reach a selected suction level.
354 However, when this is presented in a water content – small strain stiffness space, the behavior
355 is consistent with Figure 9(a). The distinction between the configurations of hysteresis loops
356 is important when considering behaviour of material in practice. In this case, matric suction
357 changes are commonly a consequence of changes in water content resulting from soil-
358 atmosphere interactions including evaporation, evapotranspiration and infiltration.
359 Furthermore, the consideration of water content has additional advantages in light of recent
360 advancement in satellite imagery using L-band Synthetic Aperture Radar (Ahlmer et al., 2018)
361 that enable the determination of water content non-destructively.

362 The evolution of the shear modulus during the selected hydraulic pathways at selected
363 water content levels, illustrated in Figure 6, are presented in Figure 10. In total, 16 compacted
364 kaolin specimens were monitored, and shear wave velocity and volumetric strain data for the
365 four selected drying and wetting domains was evaluated. Measurements were made at the
366 selected constant water content levels to allow for the evaluation of the evolution of soil
367 behavior in the drying-wetting cycles. No measurements were made at full saturation because
368 specimens were very soft. Thus, to minimise specimen disturbance measurements were
369 conducted at the compacted water content ($w_{OMC}=28\%$) which correlated to an increase in
370 stiffness suitable for testing. Furthermore, its important to note that there were no visible
371 macroscopic cracks during drying-wetting which impacted the integrity of the specimens.
372 Results are presented against water content for drying-wetting cycles 1, 3, 6 and 10.

373 Figure 10 shows that shear modulus values measured for the different drying-wetting
374 cycles are inversely correlated to water content, i.e. at low water contents a higher shear
375 modulus is measured, whereas shear modulus decreases as the water content increases.
376 This is not surprising as the matric suction levels in the specimens are quite different, with
377 approximately 2,500 kPa increase in matric suction between $w_{OMC}=28\%$ and $w_T=15\%$ water
378 contents on the first drying path (Figure 9(c)). Equally, the range of water content values during
379 drying influences the small strain shear modulus for an increment of water content. For
380 instance, during drying within the transition zone (FT and CT), an approximately linear
381 increase in small strain shear modulus is reported for an increment of water content (Figure
382 10(a,c)). However, drying to the residual range (FR and CR) yields a comparative reduction
383 in the rate of small strain shear modulus increase (Figure 10(b,d)).

384 Within the transition zone (FT and CT) a pendular state develops and the meniscus effect
385 dominates the increase in normal force between particles (Dong et al., 2017). Figure 3 shows
386 that in this range the increase in suction is approximately linear when compared to water
387 content. Thus, the increase in stiffness and small strain shear modulus of the kaolin essentially
388 reflects the SWRC. However, at the lower water content range within residual conditions (FR
389 and CR) the formation of the partial pendular state is likely to reduce the meniscus radius and
390 Equivalent Effective Stress (EES) (Cho and Santamarina, 2001). Furthermore, Van der Waals
391 attractions and electric double layer repulsions dominate in this state rather than the meniscus
392 effect; although both exist simultaneously and develop gradually as water content changes
393 (Lu, 2016). These forces are proportional to particle size and pore size and influence clays
394 sized particles to greater extent compared to silts (Ngoc et al., 2019). The compacted kaolin
395 shows a reduced rate of small strain shear modulus change within this range (i.e between $w_T=$
396 15% and $w_R= 1.5\%$) on its first drying-wetting cycle (exemplified in Figure 10(b,d)). This model
397 of small strain shear modulus evolution holds true during subsequent drying and wetting cycles
398 when changes in void ratio are also considered (FR and PR at $w_R= 1.5\%$ water content).

399 The evolution of small strain shear modulus data for FT/FR/CT/CR pathways against the
400 number of drying-wetting cycles is shown in Figure 11. The data shows that within the first 6
401 drying-wetting cycles a decrease in hysteresis loop amplitude between drying and wetting
402 paths for the CT and CR conditions is present (Figure 11(c,d)). This is corroborated by
403 measurement of void ratio for these pathways which show smaller volumetric changes. Similar
404 observations have also been reported by Farulla et al. (2010) and Liu et al. (2020) for drying-
405 wetting paths, e.g. reduction in the difference of matric suction between hysteresis loops after
406 application of hydraulic cycles. This was also exemplified by Stirling et al. (2020) for results of
407 continuous suction and water content on statically compacted glacial till during three drying
408 and wetting cycles. It was shown that repeated drying between saturated conditions and 500
409 kPa suction resulted in a 50 kPa decrease on the drying path at constant 22% water content.

410 Curiously, both hydraulic pathways FT and FR generally exhibit increases in small strain
411 shear modulus during the drying path for the first 6 cycles at their compacted water content
412 ($w_{OMC} = 28\%$), but approximately constant shear modulus during wetting (Figure 11(a,b)).
413 These changes are not surprising and can be related to the associated changes in
414 microstructure. Hydraulic path FR also shows a significant increase in the small strain shear
415 modulus within the residual state at $w_R = 1.5\%$ water content (Figure 11(b)). These increases
416 also suggest a change within the micro pore structure as both suction and other inter particle
417 forces within this state are dependent on pore diameters.

418

419 **3.2 Void Ratio Variation with Drying-Wetting**

420 Changes in void ratio directly affect the properties of the soil such as porosity, density and
421 degree of saturation, which are critical to compacted soils performance. In this study volume
422 changes were measured using Vernier calipers for eight discrete points to allow for calculation
423 of volume using average dimensions to ensure accuracy (Head, 1996). Volume change of the
424 specimens is presented using the water ratio, defined as the ratio of the volume of water to
425 the volume of solids, against void ratio. Both variables are normalized against the volume of

426 solids thus indicative of the volume change of the specimen with respect to the volume of
427 water (i.e. equal void and water ratios indicate full saturation). The variation in computed void
428 ratio (e) and water ratio (e_w) for all specimens and their associated hydraulic pathways are
429 shown in Figure 12.

430 Data reveals that all kaolin specimens exhibit hysteric behavior between drying and
431 wetting paths, where at selected water content levels during a wetting pathway, swelling is
432 greater than on the drying path. This coincides with the reduction in suction during wetting due
433 to SWRC hysteresis. When comparing these changes in void ratio with the corresponding
434 results for shear modulus, common trends are visible. Most noticeably, small strain shear
435 modulus is inversely proportional to void ratio data, where increases in void ratio yields a
436 decrease in shear modulus during drying-wetting.

437 Its also evident that the amplitude of drying and wetting paths had a significant impact on
438 changes in volume during the 10 drying-wetting cycles. For instance, specimens dried to the
439 residual conditions (CR) showed a larger increase in void ratio from 0.930 to 0.971 at the
440 compacted water content ($w_{OMC} = 28\%$) after the first drying and wetting cycle (Figure 12(d)).
441 However, specimens dried to the transition zone (CT) showed a smaller void ratio increase
442 after the first cycle from 0.926 to 0.953 ($w_{OMC} = 28\%$) (Figure 12(c)).

443 These increases can be attributed to a decrease in the Equivalent Effective Stress (EES)
444 during drying (Vesga, 2008). The EES accounts for capillary forces; as well as Van der Waal
445 attraction, double layer repulsion and Coulomb electrostatic forces (Cho and Santamarina,
446 2001). Reduction in water content produces a complete pendular state where the water phase
447 in no longer continuous and all capillary bridges between particles are formed. For the
448 compacted kaolin specimens shown in Figure 12 this state is likely present for drying to a
449 degree less than $w_T = 15\%$ (i.e. Figure 12(b,d)) as prior to this point reduction in water content
450 produces expected changes in volume (i.e. Figure 12(a,c)).

451 With further reduction in water content the partial pendular state develops (Suits et al.,
452 2009). In this state the capillary contacts between particles break producing a reduction in the

453 EES due to loss of surface tension. In this study the breaking of capillary contacts is observed
454 by the increase in volume of the compacted kaolin. For example, the first drying-wetting cycle
455 of the FR pathway between $w_T = 15\%$ water content and $w_R = 1.5\%$ water content showed an
456 increases in void ratio of 0.925 to 0.962 (Figure 12 (b)).

457 Interestingly, as wetting and drying continues these changes in structure are maintained,
458 particularly when full saturation is not reached, and continue to allow for an increase in void
459 ratio. This is shown in Figure 12(d) (CR) where void ratio increases from 0.961(D/W1) to 1.01
460 (D/W10) at $w_R = 1.5\%$ water content after 10 drying-wetting cycles. Furthermore, when
461 compared with the equivalent saturated pathway (FR) in Figure 12(b) its clear that saturation
462 has an effect on the kaolin producing a decrease in void ratio after 10 drying-wetting cycles at
463 the same water content level despite the initial large void ratio increase.

464 These changes in volume during drying-wetting indicate changes in the pore structure of
465 the specimens (Thom et al., 2007; Nowamooz et al., 2016) For instance, this can observed
466 when comparing specimens both dried to residual conditions (FR) and dried to the transition
467 zone (FT). During the first wetting cycle of FT, the void ratio increases from 0.913 to 0.949
468 when wetting between $w_T = 15\%$ and $w_{OMC} = 28\%$ (Figure 12(a)). Whereas, the first wetting
469 cycle of FR, the void ratio only increases from 0.961 to 0.971 between $w_R = 1.5\%$ and
470 $w_{OMC} = 28\%$ despite the larger change in water content (Figure 12(b)). This is likely due to
471 difference in packing of the aggregates resulting from the prior volume changes during drying.

472

473 **3.3 The Effects of Hydraulic Pathway on Small Strain Shear Modulus**

474 Figure 13 shows the normalized change in shear modulus from compacted conditions at
475 selected water content levels for both drying and wetting paths. A clear distinction is observed
476 between the fully saturated boundary (FT/FR) and compacted water content wetting boundary
477 ($w_{OMC} = 28\%$) (CT/CR). In general, specimens brought to full saturation during drying-wetting
478 (FT/FR) exhibit increases in shear modulus for increasing drying wetting cycles (Figure 13(a-
479 g)). In contrast, specimens wetted to the compacted water content (CT/CR) during drying-

480 wetting experienced a decrease in shear modulus (Figure 13(a-g)). It should be noted that this
481 trend is reflected on both drying and wetting pathways irrespectively of the water content level
482 represented. Notably, the data also shows that drying to residual conditions produces a
483 decrease (Figure 13(a,b,e,f and g) FR conditions) or increase (Figure 13 (a,b,e,f and g) CR
484 conditions) in the rate of shear modulus change at all water contents, of which $w_{OMC} = 28\%$
485 (Figure 13(a)) shows the largest variation. For instance, the drying CR pathway at $w_{OMC} = 28\%$
486 (Figure 13(b)) resulted in a 35% reduction in shear modulus compared to compacted
487 conditions after 10 drying-wetting cycles ($G_{max}/G_{max-initial} = 0.65$), whereas, comparable CT
488 conditions yielded a smaller 21% reduction ($G_{max}/G_{max-initial} = 0.79$). Conversely, the FT pathway
489 at $w_{OMC} = 28\%$ (Figure 13(a)) showed a 29% increase in shear modulus after 10 drying-wetting
490 cycles ($G_{max}/G_{max-initial} = 1.29$), while the drying FR pathway produced a smaller 8% increase
491 ($G_{max}/G_{max-initial} = 1.08$).

492 These results indicate that the wetting boundary has the greatest influence on the behavior
493 of the specimens rather than the degree of drying. In this study, only fully saturated and
494 compaction water content boundaries were considered and a reversal in the shear modulus
495 behavior was observed. In addition, this reversal behavior seems to be far more significant at
496 the wetter end ($w_{OMC} = 28\%$) (Figure 13(a,b)). The recorded trends further suggest that drying
497 boundaries influence the magnitude of the change observed, e.g. similar variations were
498 observed between the increase in shear modulus for FT and FR and the decrease in shear
499 modulus for CT and CR. This is not surprising and can be attributed to the changes in
500 microstructure specimens exhibit at the drying boundaries.

501 Figure 14 further explores this by presenting recorded volumetric strain data at the
502 boundaries of drying-wetting cycles for all pathways. The volumetric strain is determined
503 considering the ratio between the variation volume and the initial compacted volume, shown
504 as a percentage. It shows that both fully saturated pathways exhibit large swelling strains
505 when brought to full saturation (Figure 14(a) FT pathway produced ϵ_{vs} of 13% after first full
506 saturation). While specimens brought to compacted water content experienced smaller

507 degrees of volumetric strain variation (Figure 14(c) CT pathway produced ϵ_{vs} of 1% after first
508 wetting to 28% water content). Furthermore, fully saturated pathways (Figure 14(a,b)) are
509 dominated by an irreversible shrinkage strain component with asymptotic behaviour. In
510 contrast, specimens brought to compacted water content (Figure 14(c,d)) exhibit a similar
511 asymptotic irreversible swelling strain. The reversal observed for shear modulus
512 measurements strongly correlates with this behaviour.

513 Interestingly, Figure 14(b) pathway FR, also shows evidence of irreversible swelling at the
514 drying boundary ($w_R = 1.5\%$ water content) within the first three cycles, while also presenting
515 subsequent irreversible shrinkage. This contrasts with the equivalent CR pathway (Figure
516 14(d)) which shows continuous irreversible swelling at this drying boundary. This therefore
517 confirms the presence of interactions between both wetting and drying boundaries. Wang and
518 Wei (2015) suggests that the deformation of compacted soils results from both the
519 rearrangement of the skeleton of the aggregates and the deformation of the aggregates.
520 Irreversible swelling/shrinkage represents rearrangement of the pore structure in this respect.
521 While attainment of equilibrium represents the reversible deformation of aggregates during
522 changes in water content. These accumulated irreversible changes in volumetric strain have
523 been characterized, for a small number of cycles only, by several researchers including Koliji
524 et al. (2010); Nowamooz et al. (2016); Farulla et al. (2010); Ma, R. et al. (2015); Sun and Cui
525 (2018) corresponding with significant changes in the pore structure of the soil. These findings
526 corroborate the empirically supported presupposition of irreversible structural changes and
527 demonstrate for the first time that the associated observed changes in small strain stiffness
528 are highly dependent on hydraulic loading conditions.

529

530 **4 Engineering Applications**

531 Figure 15 shows the relationship between void ratio and shear modulus during 10 drying
532 wetting cycles grouped by constant water content. The most striking observation is that the
533 small strain shear modulus grouped by different water content levels can be fitted with a linear

534 relationship. Figure 15 also presents the pathways for initial drying and wetting data for FT/CT
535 and FR/CR. It shows that data for all chosen boundaries lie on the same linear trends in spite
536 of difference in outcome. The trends are thus independent of the number of cycles and drying
537 and wetting boundaries.

538 Furthermore, the observed trend is approximately the same at all recorded water contents,
539 which is notable due to the large difference in water content . However, as measurements
540 were made at constant water content, changes in void ratio result in equal changes in
541 saturation i.e. an increase in void ratio produces an equivalent decrease in saturation. These
542 changes result in nonlinear changes in suction according to the SWRC in the S_r - s - e space.
543 However, it can be ascertained in Figure 15 that differences in void ratio and saturation at
544 constant water content levels are relatively small over the 10 drying-wetting cycles. For
545 instance, at constant $w_{OMC} = 28\%$ water content the minimum void ratio equals 0.926 resulting
546 in a small strain shear modulus 114 MPa and saturation of 78.7%. While the corresponding
547 maximum value of void ratio equals 1.025 for a small strain shear modulus of 71 MPa and
548 saturation of 74.9%. Thus, changes in suction due to the difference in saturation are likely to
549 be relatively small, which may explain why the trend appears linear across the range or
550 recorded void ratios.

551 The constant water content conditions employed in this study therefore show that
552 unconfined compacted kaolin clay presents an approximate linear change in small strain shear
553 modulus for an increment of void ratio change due to drying and wetting. The existence of
554 such relationship is very encouraging as there is a great uncertainty at the moment in relation
555 to the role of different wetting and drying boundaries and their impact on performance of
556 existing transport infrastructure assets. In practice, this understanding is also beneficial when
557 estimating the range of variation of performance and volume changes likely to be expected for
558 intermediate plasticity soil with similar properties to that of kaolin. This is particularly important
559 for the consideration of the performance of high-speed rail which is sensitive to rail deflections
560 dependent on the critical speed of the subgrade (Shih et al., 2017). Dynamic loading and

561 resultant ground borne vibration emitted at the critical speed (determined by the speed of
562 Rayleigh waves) results in increased strains according to the non-linearity small strain
563 conditions (Costa et al., 2020). The results demonstrate significant variations in stiffness of
564 compacted materials due to difference in the oscillations of water content over relatively small
565 changes in volume. These results highlight for the first time how the properties of compacted
566 subgrade change during drying and wetting, and hence, a possible impact of climate change
567 on earth structures for transport infrastructure.

568

569 **5 CONCLUSIONS**

570 From a series for non-destructive tests carried out on compacted kaolin subjected to 10
571 drying and wetting cycles, a number of conclusions can be drawn:

572 When small strain data is presented using water content the shear wave velocity on drying
573 path is greater than the wetting path. However, when the same data is presented against
574 suction this trend is inverted, which corresponds with data collected at selected suction levels
575 using axis translation technique.

576 A nonlinear increase in small strain shear modulus due to changes in water content was
577 observed. Where, at lower water contents (1.5% water content) the rate of increase in shear
578 modulus reduces. Furthermore, drying-wetting cycles produced a decrease in hysteresis loop
579 amplitude between drying and wetting paths for all drying-wetting conditions.

580 Similarly, drying to lower water contents (1.5% water content) results in increase in void
581 ratio. Evidence suggests that this occurs due to the development of the partial pendular state
582 where capillary contacts break and the Equivalent Effective Stress (EES) decreases. The
583 measured changes in small strain shear modulus are consistent with these changes in void
584 ratio.

585 The wetting boundary was found to have the greatest impact on the compacted soil
586 behavior after the application of several drying-wetting cycles. A reversal of both small strain
587 shear modulus and volume change was observed and this was associated with the drying-

588 wetting boundaries considered. For instance, fully saturated boundary conditions (FT/FR)
589 resulted in the increase in small strain shear modulus and comparative reduction in void ratio.
590 While the compacted water content wetting (CT/CR) boundary conditions resulted in an
591 asymptotic decrease in small strain shear modulus and increase in void ratio. Although drying
592 boundaries did not have as large impact on behavior, the residual conditions boundary
593 (FR/CR) decreased the performance of the compacted kaolin when subjected to drying-
594 wetting cycles.

595 A clear linear trend is observed between void ratio and small strain shear modulus at
596 different water content levels. This trend is approximately comparable for all measured water
597 contents and is relatively independent of the number of drying-wetting cycles and the selected
598 boundaries. This indicates that predictions of small strain stiffness is well correlated to volume
599 changes and water content.

600

601 **Data Access statement:** All data underlying the results are available as part of the article and
602 no additional source data are required

603 **Authors contribution:** The contribution from the different authors can be summarised as
604 follows. Conceptualization, all authors; writing—original draft preparation and laboratory
605 testing, C.W.; writing—review and editing, all authors, project supervision - AH. All authors
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- 755 Ying, Z., Cui, Y.-J., Benahmed, N. and Duc, M. 2021. Changes of small strain shear
756 modulus and microstructure for a lime-treated silt subjected to wetting-drying cycles.
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- 758

759

760

761 Table 1. Summary of the index properties of the kaolin and target compaction conditions.

Geotechnical Properties	Value
Liquid Limit, LL (%)	56
Plastic Limit, PL (%)	33
Plastic Index, PI (%)	23
Specific gravity, G_s	2.61
Clay fraction ($d < 2 \mu\text{m}$) (%)	38
Maximum Proctor unit weight (kN/m^3)	14.1
Optimum Water Content (OMC) (%)	28
Target Compaction Conditions	
Unit weight (kN/m^3)*	13.2
Compaction water content (%)	28

**Unit weight achieved at static 1400 kPa stress*

762

763

764

765 Table 2. Ultrasonic variation in L_{pp}/λ during drying-wetting of compacted kaolin specimens.

Drying path		
Water Content (%)	L_{pp}/λ - 24 kHz	L_{pp}/λ - 250 kHz
28	7.0	72.7
21.5	5.7	59.5
15	5.0	51.7
1.5	4.5	47.1

Wetting path		
Water Content (%)	L_{pp}/λ - 24 kHz	L_{pp}/λ - 250 kHz
15	5.4	56.3
21.5	6.0	62.2
28	7.5	78.6

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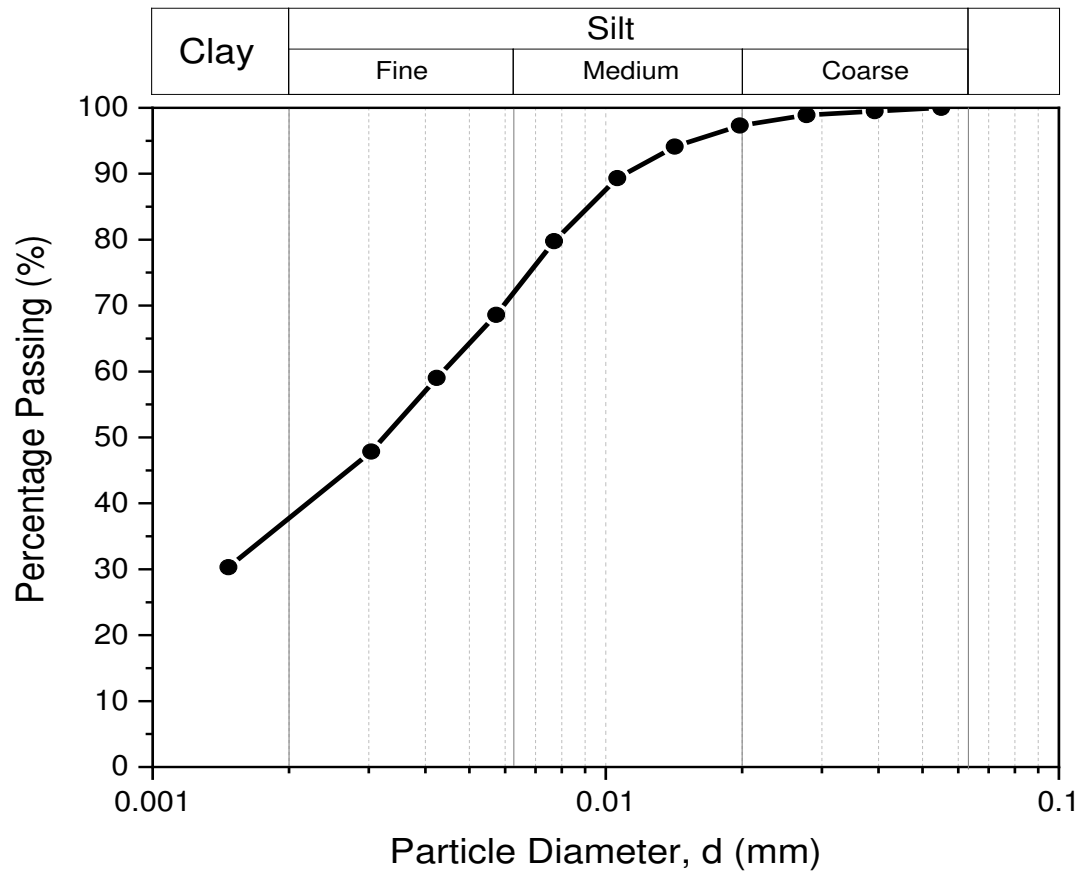
769 Table 3. Calculation of ultrasonic energy transmitted and reflected between transducer and
770 statically compacted kaolin

Transmission/Reflection	
S Wave Reflection (%)	81.3
P Wave Reflection (%)	86.1
S Wave Energy Transmitted (%)	18.7
P Wave Energy Transmitted (%)	13.9

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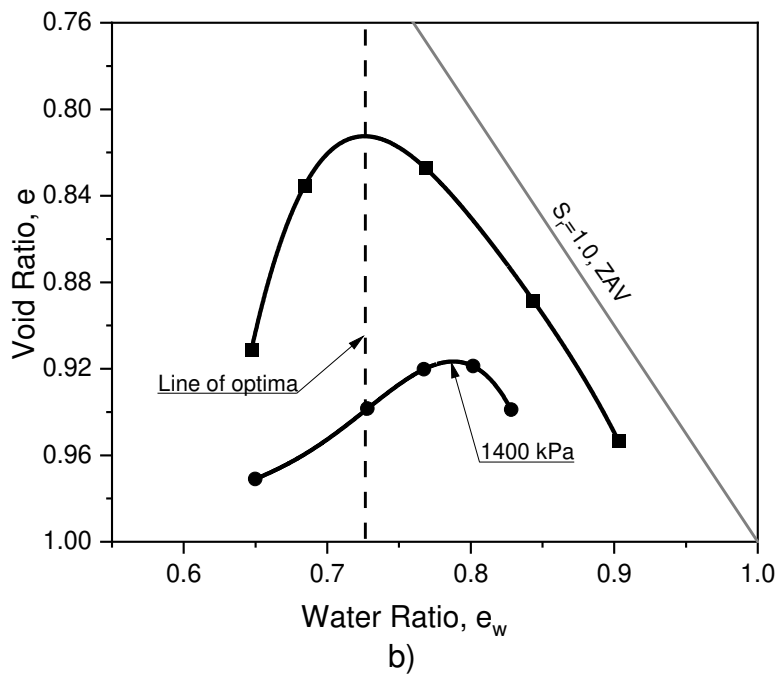
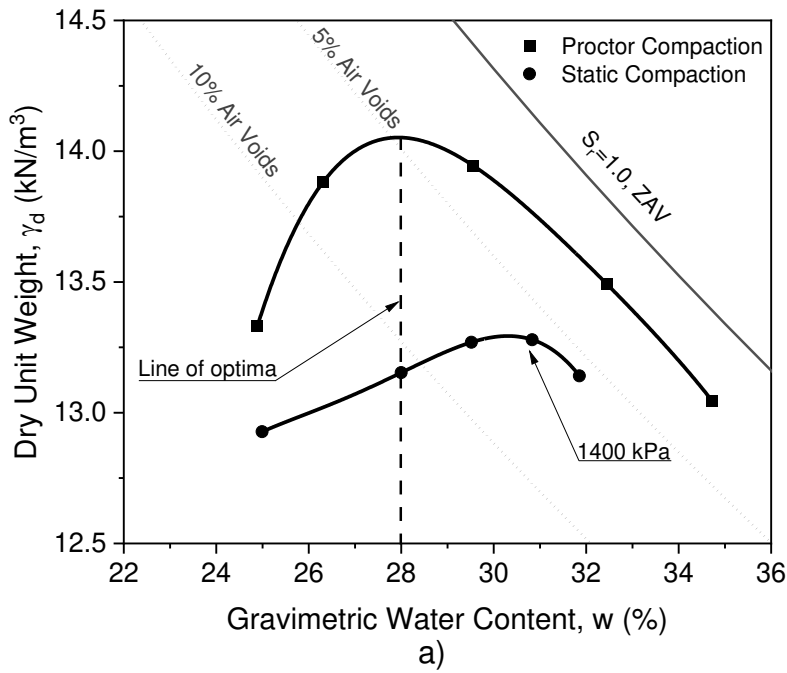
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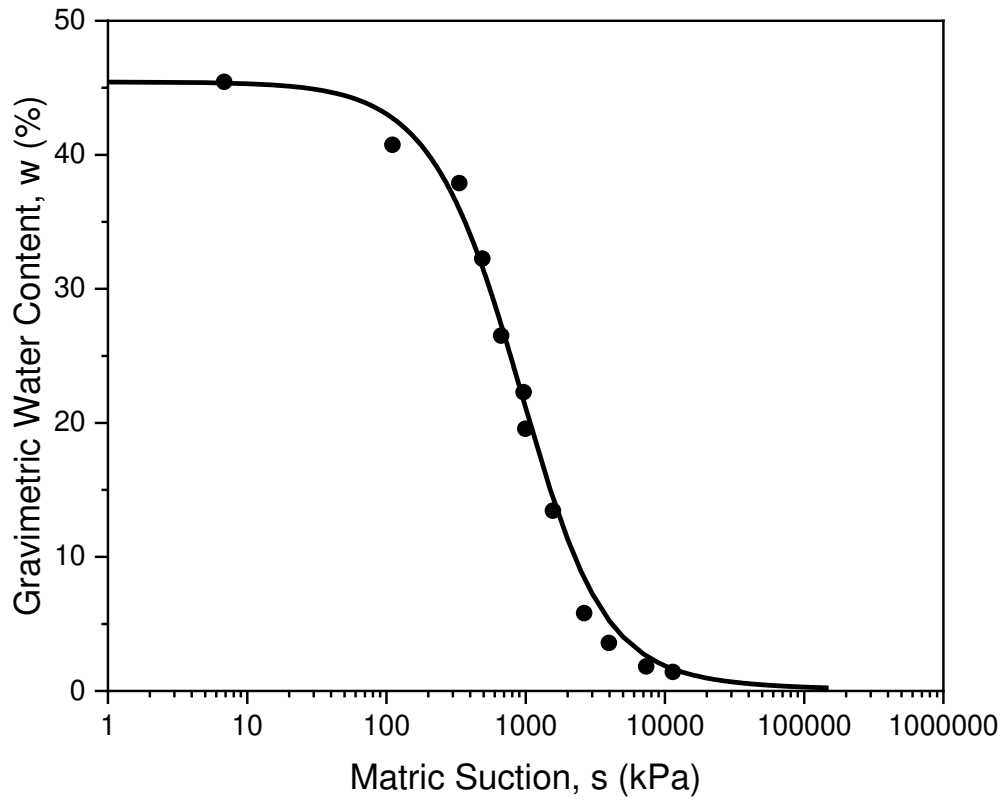
775 Figure 1. Particle size distribution of kaolin used in this study.

776



779 Figure 2. Compaction behaviour of kaolin: comparison between standard Proctor method
 780 (dynamic) and static compaction for both a) dry unit weight and water content and b) void ratio
 781 and water ratio (ZAV – zero air void line).

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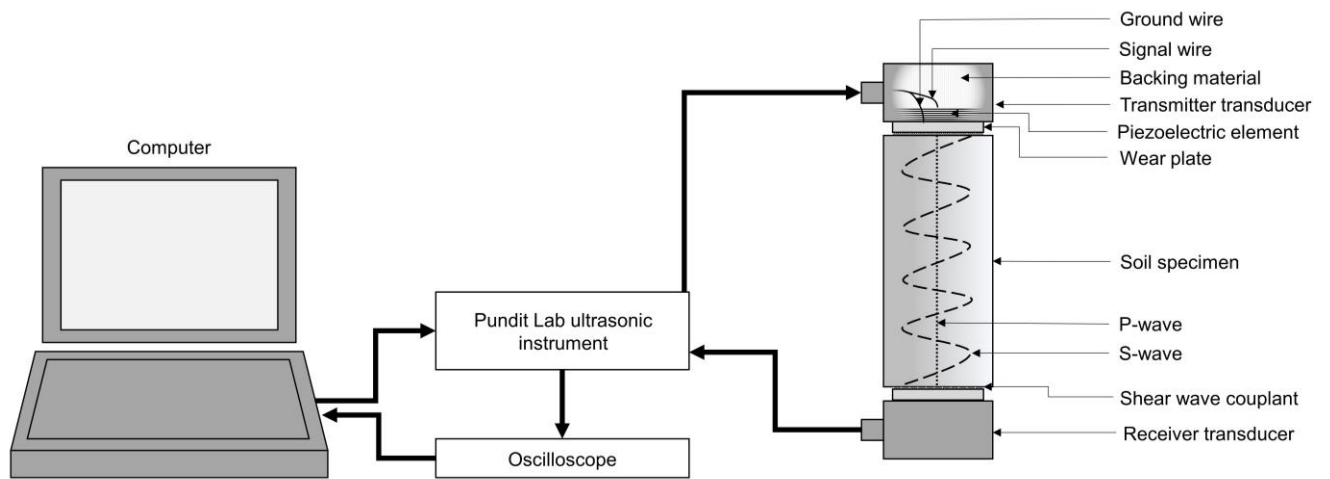


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784 Figure 3. The Soil Water Retention Curve for kaolin statically compacted at 1400 kPa.

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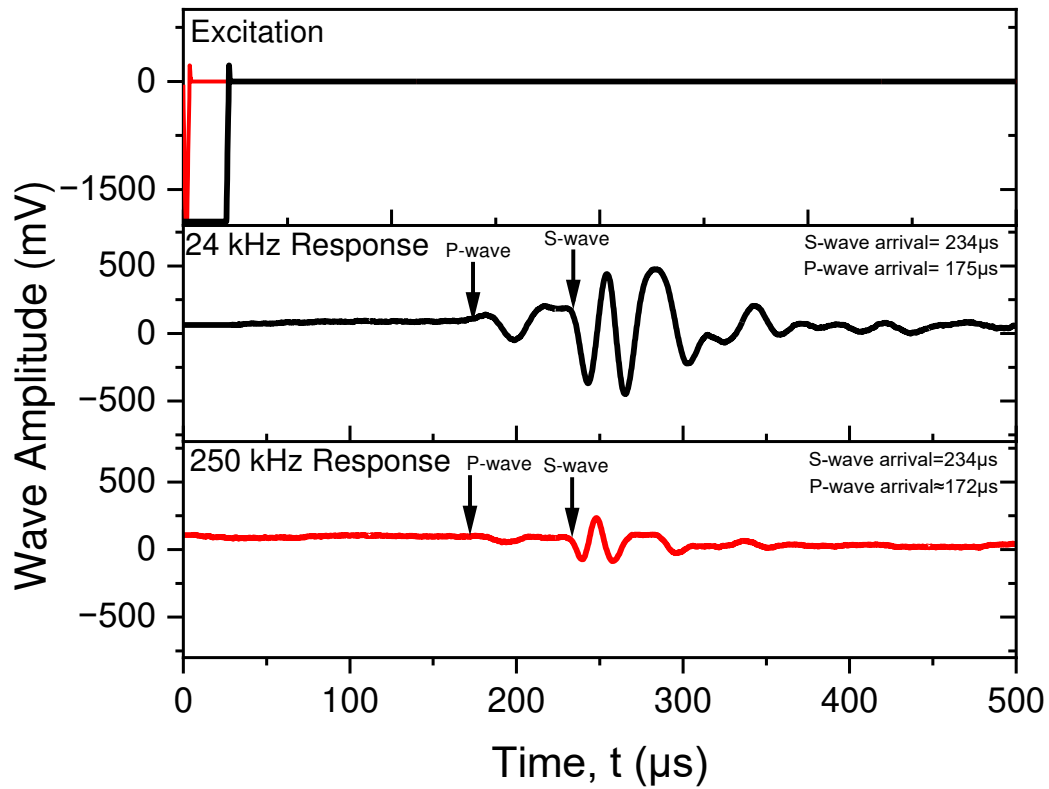
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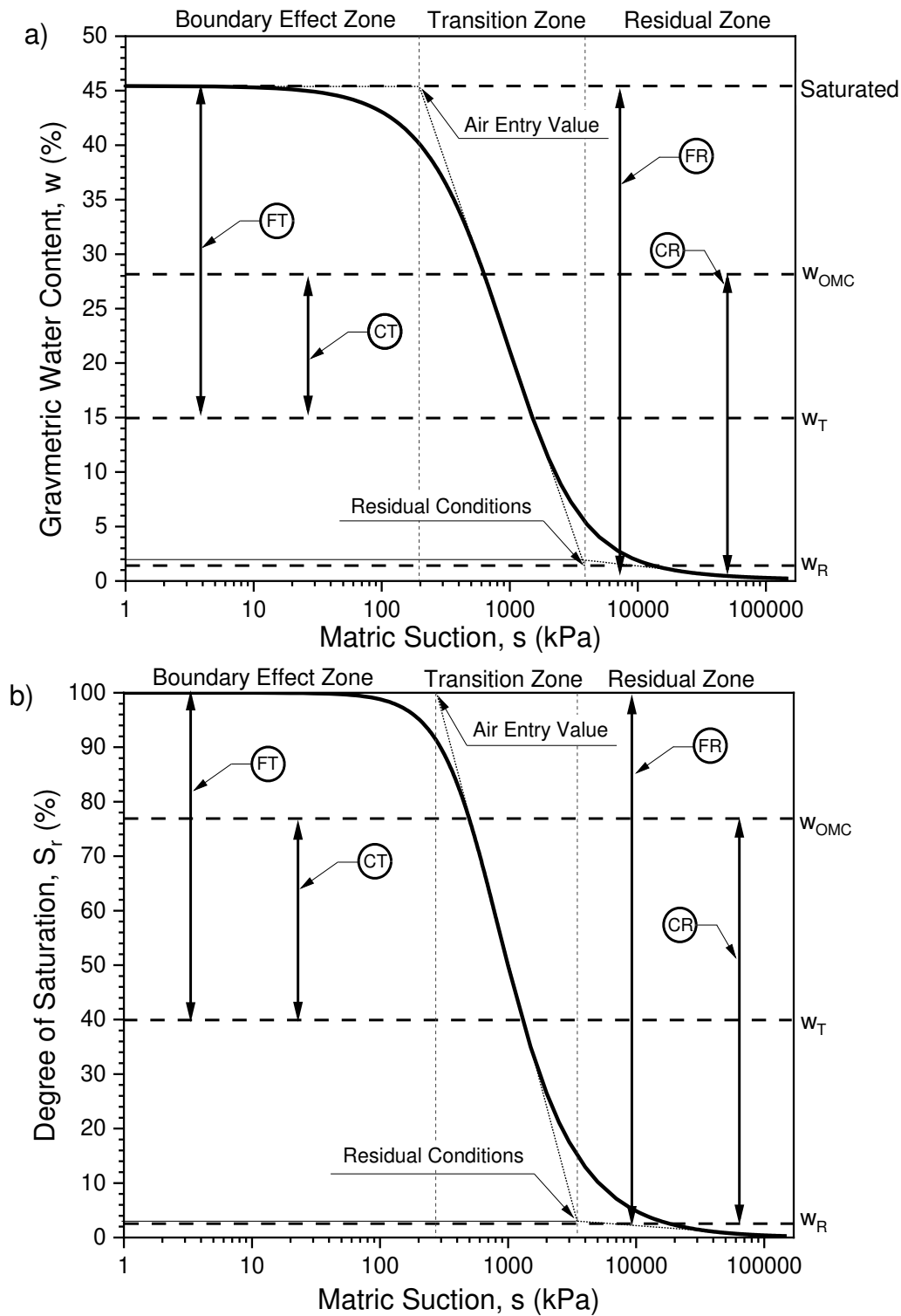
788 Figure 4. The experimental setup of ultrasonic test system.

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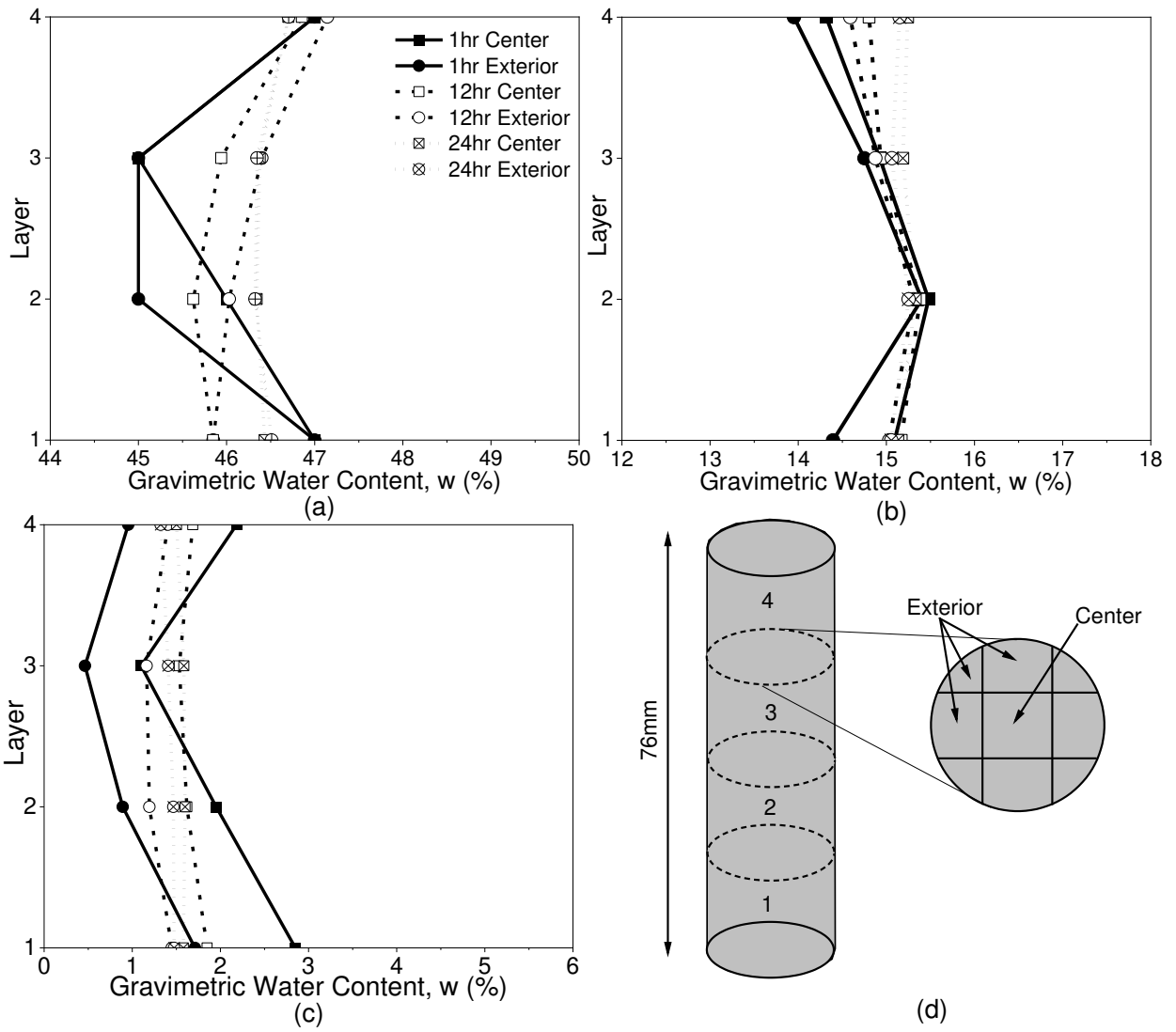
792 Figure 5. Typical shear wave time domain waveforms for compacted kaolin (prepared at
 793 optimum water content and statically compacted at 1400 kPa) at frequencies 24 kHz and
 794 250 kHz, arrows identify the arrival of the faster compressional wave component and slower
 795 shear wave component.



796

797 Figure 6. Extents of hydraulic paths expressed on the SWRC for: FT full saturation to transition
 798 zone, CT compacted OMC to transition zone, FR full saturation to residual conditions, CR
 799 compacted OMC to residual conditions, with reference to both a) water content and b)
 800 saturation.

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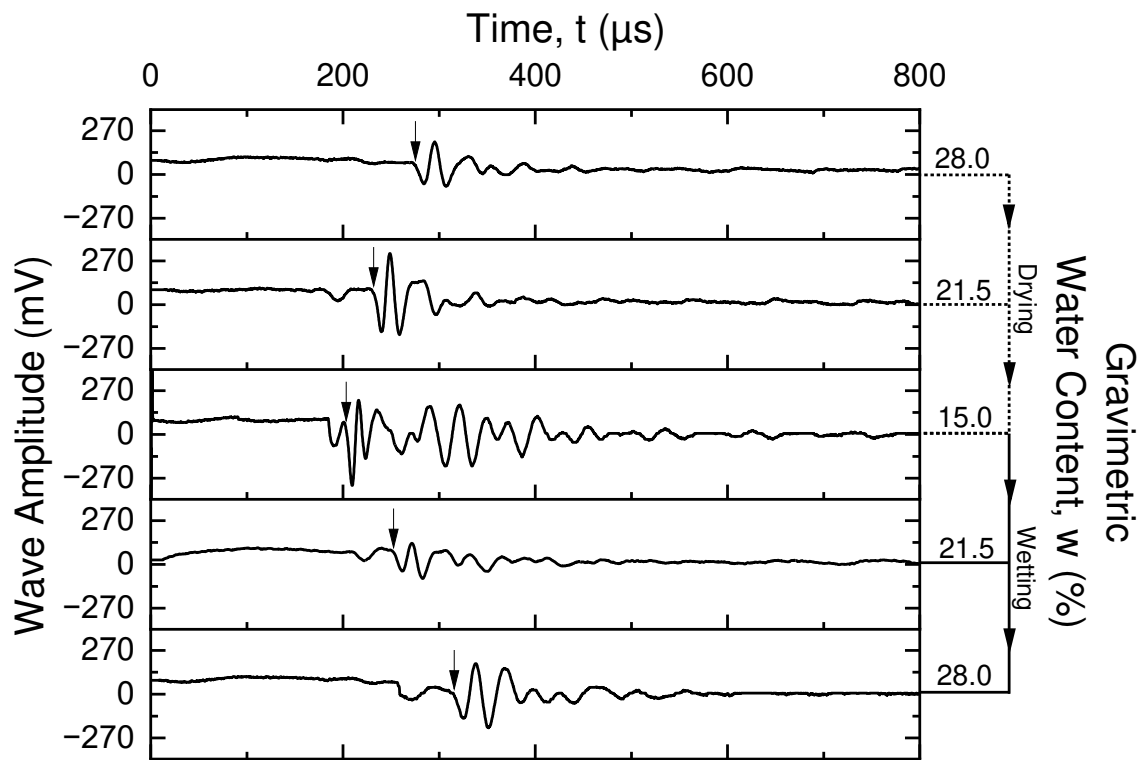


802

803 Figure 7. Water content distribution for kaolin after 1hr, 12hr and 24hr equilibration time for (a)
804 full saturation, (b) drying to 15% water content, (c) drying to 1% water content and (d) layer
805 positions and layer divisions.

806

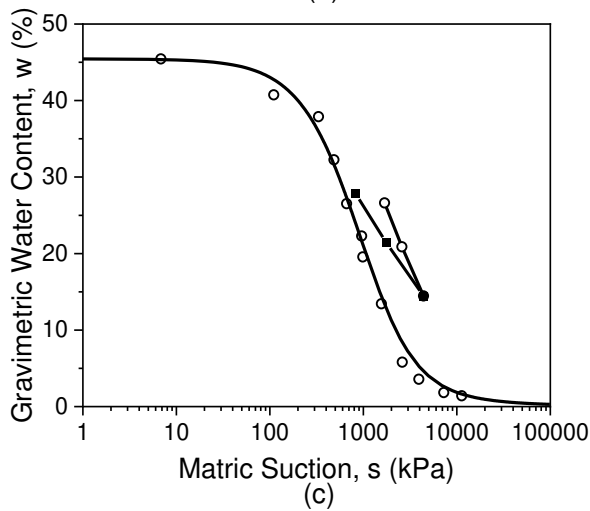
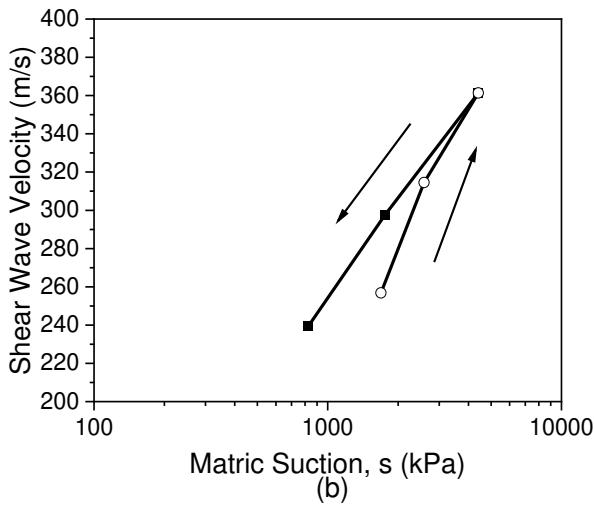
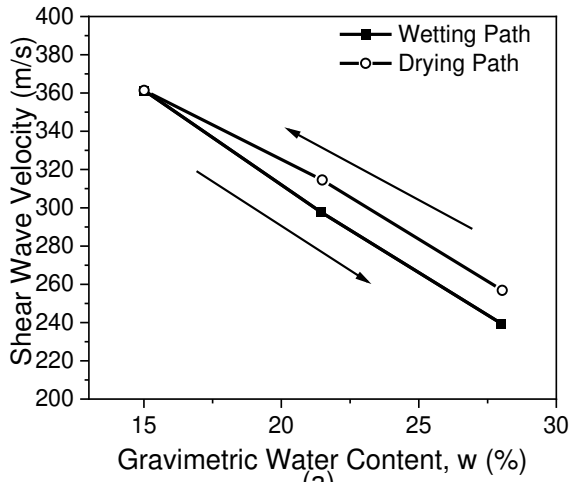
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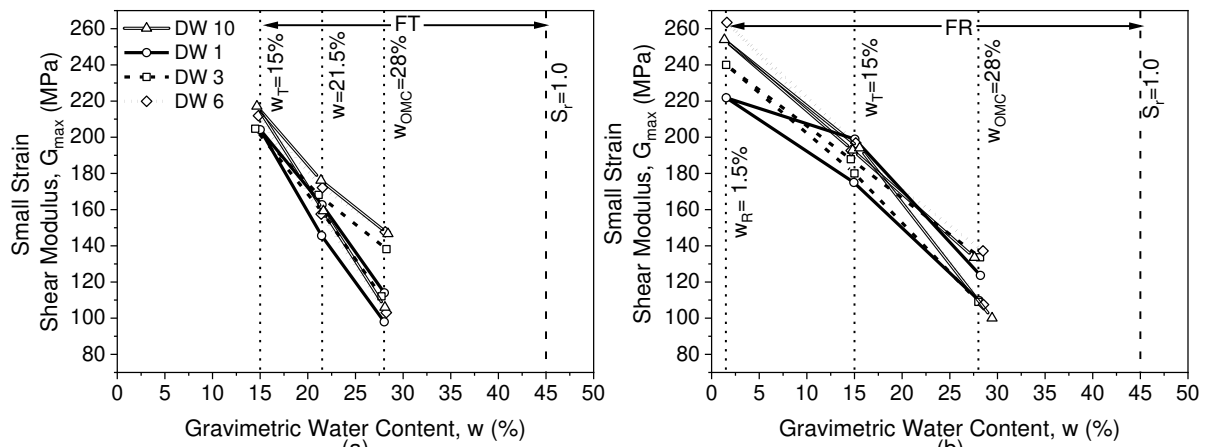
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809 Figure 8. Typical shear wave trace evolution in time domain during drying and wetting cycle,
810 arrows indicate interpretation of shear wave arrival time.

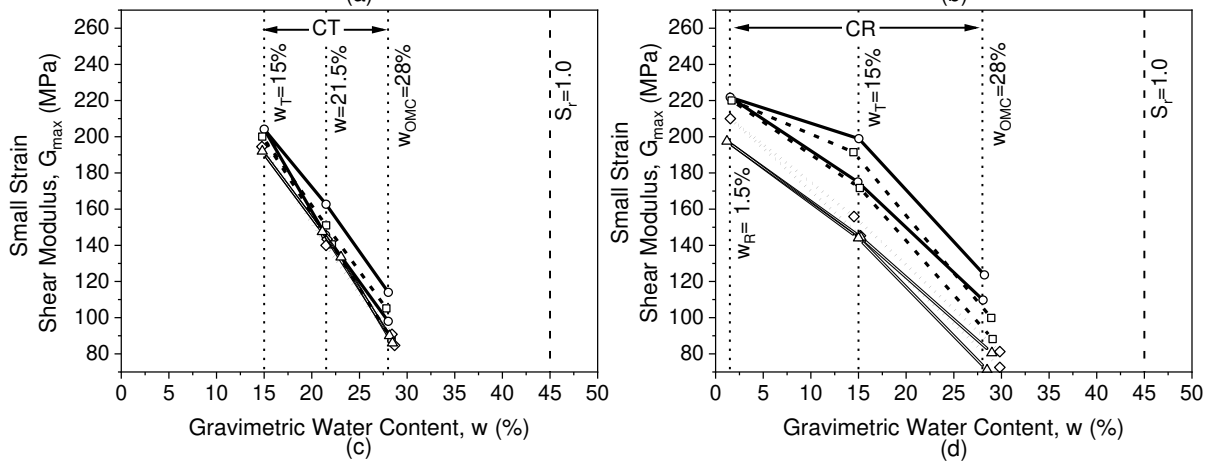
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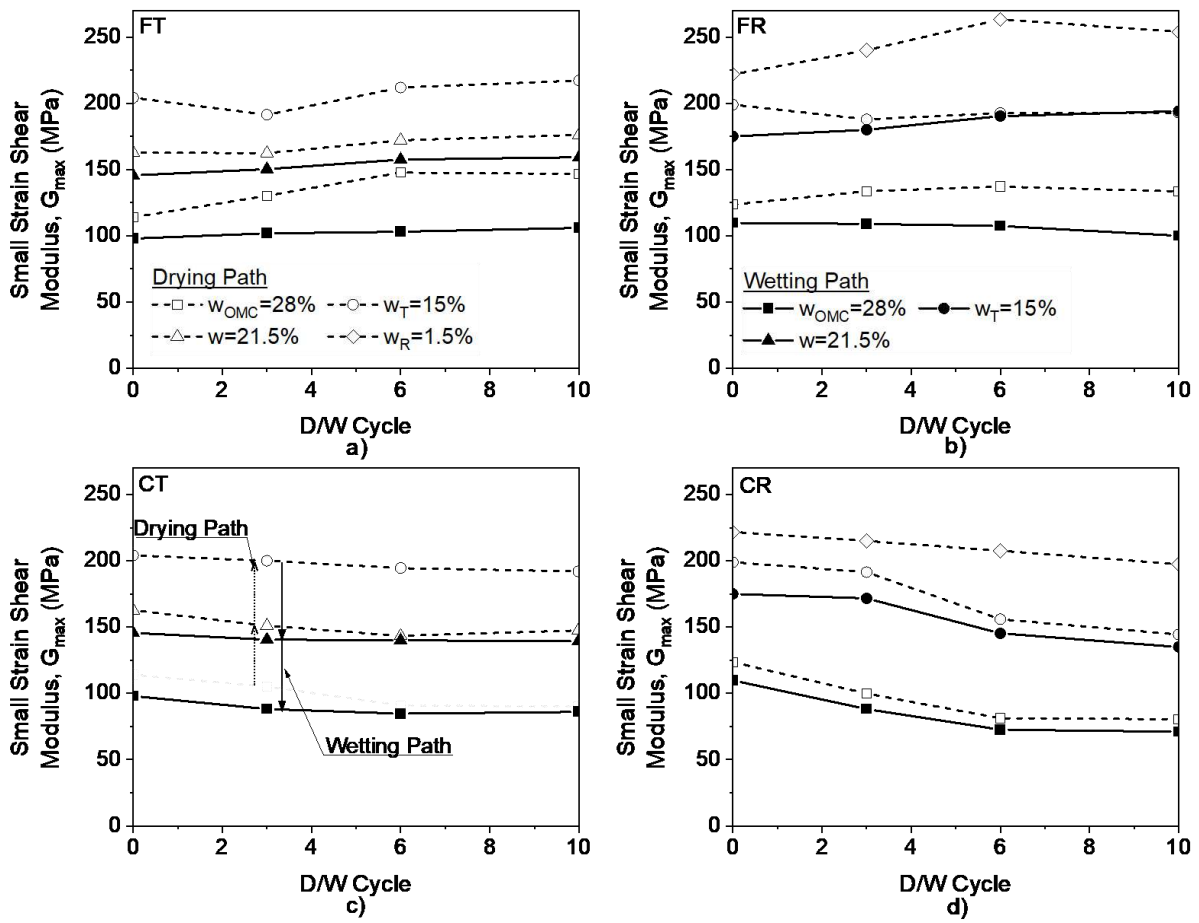
814 Figure 9. Shear wave velocity data for single drying-wetting path (CT) measured at constant
815 water content, presented using variables a) gravimetric water content, b) matric suction and
816 c) suction data and main drying SWRC.



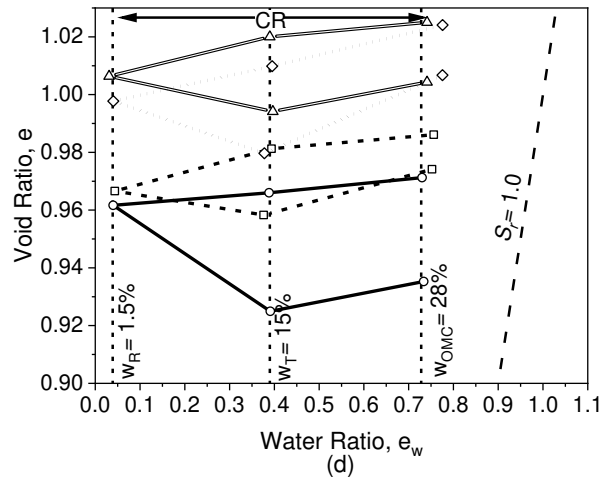
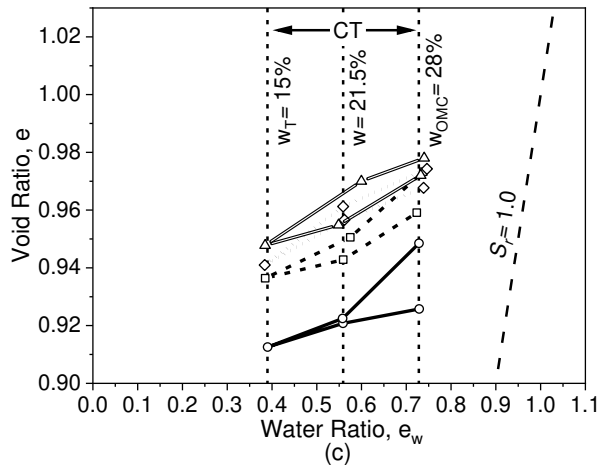
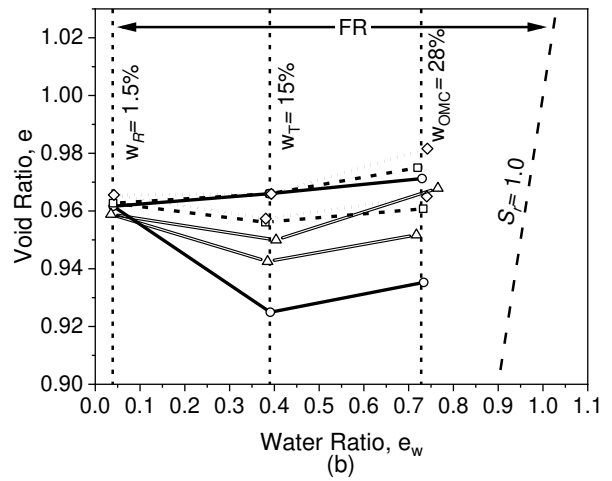
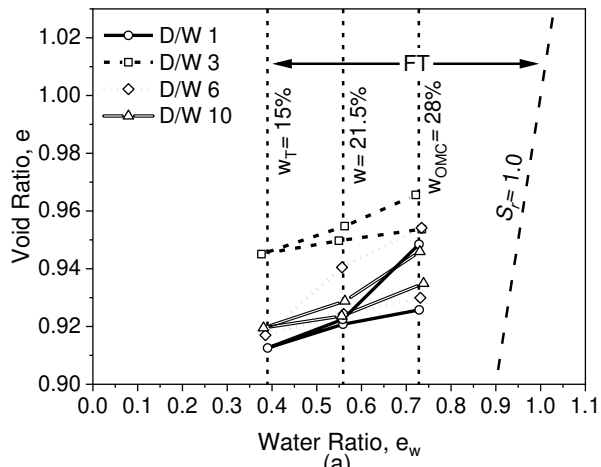
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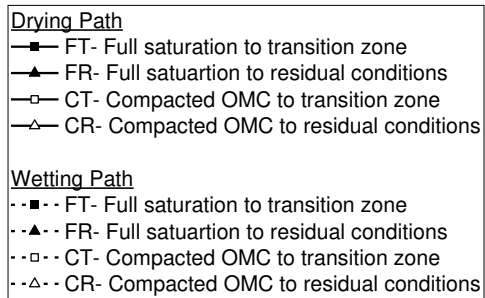
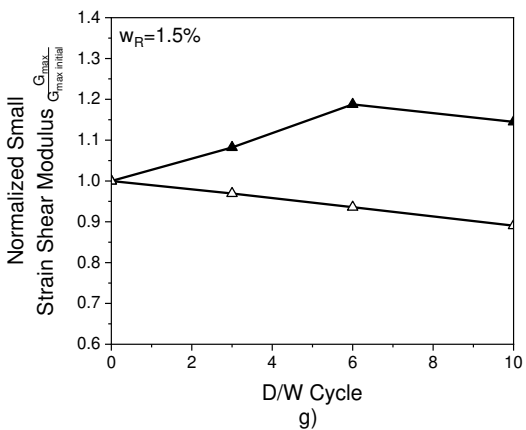
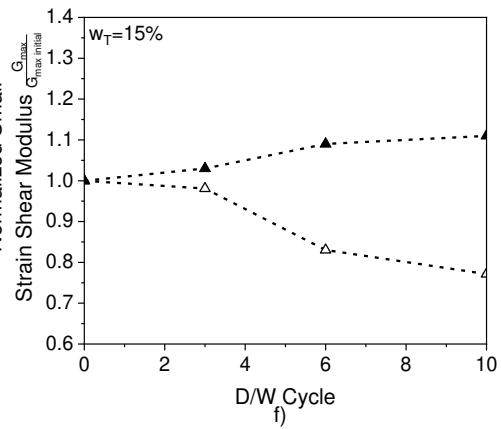
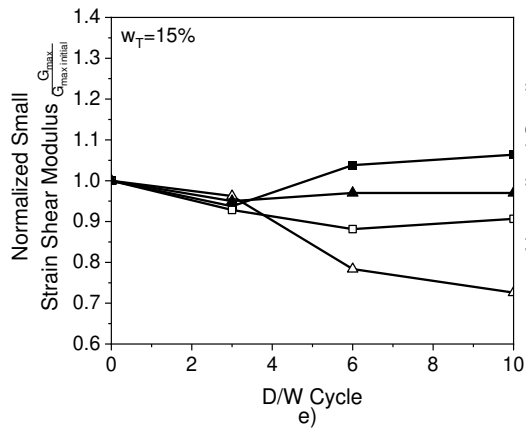
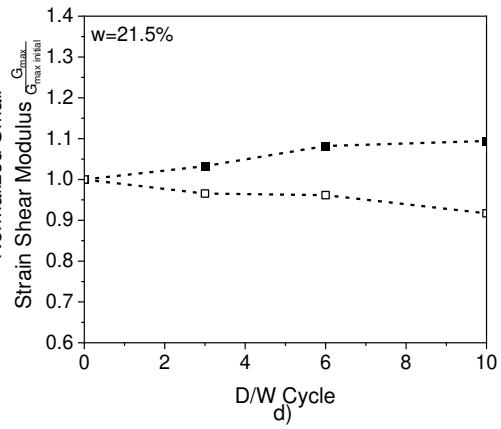
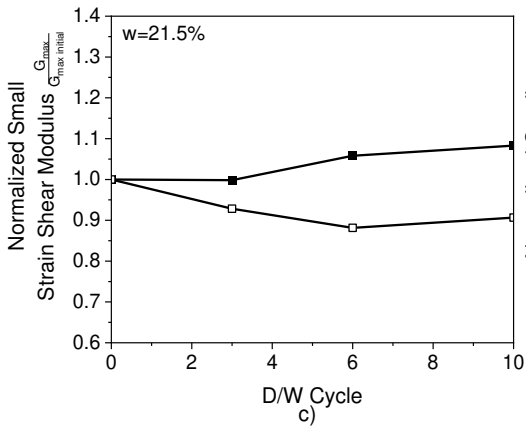
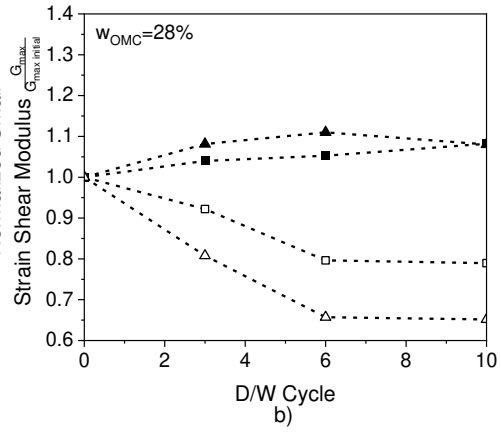
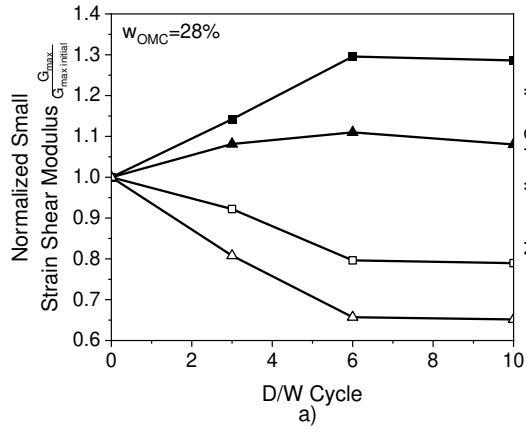
819 Figure 10. Small strain shear modulus of compacted kaolin specimens subjected to D/W 1, 3,
 820 6, and 10 for a) FT - full saturation to transition zone, b) FR - full saturation to residual
 821 conditions, c) CT - compacted OMC to transition zone and d) CR – compacted OMC to residual
 822 conditions (note the arrows indicate the extent of drying-wetting cycles).



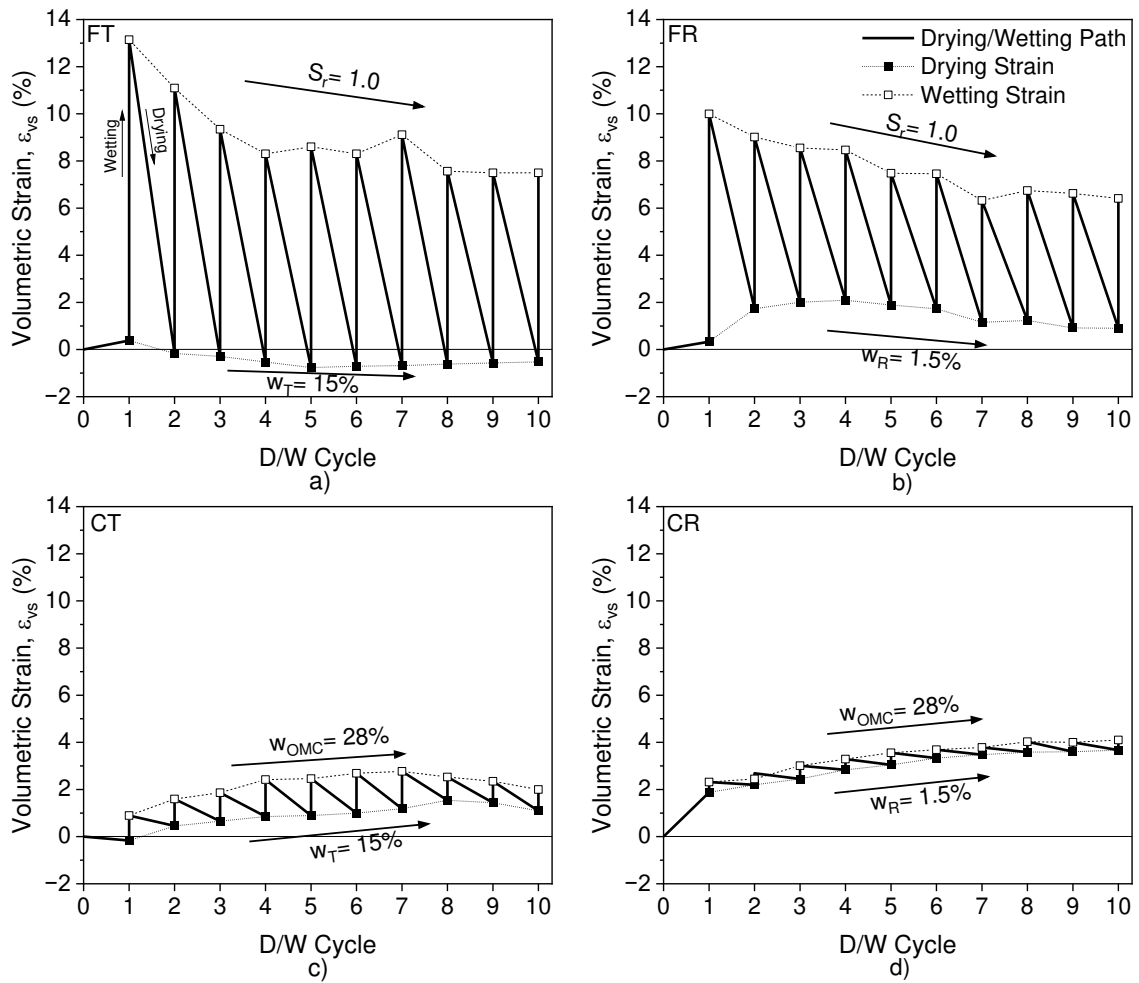
825 Figure 11. Small strain shear modulus of compacted kaolin specimens subjected to D/W 1, 3,
 826 6, and 10 for a) FT - full saturation to transition zone, b) FR - full saturation to residual
 827 conditions, c) CT - compacted OMC to transition zone and d) CR – compacted OMC to residual
 828 conditions.



832 Figure 12. Volume change of compacted kaolin specimens subjected to D/W 1, 3, 6, and 10
 833 for a) FT - full saturation to transition zone, b) FR - full saturation to residual conditions, c)
 834 CT - compacted OMC to transition zone, d) CR – compacted OMC to residual conditions
 835 (note the arrows indicate the extent of drying-wetting cycles).



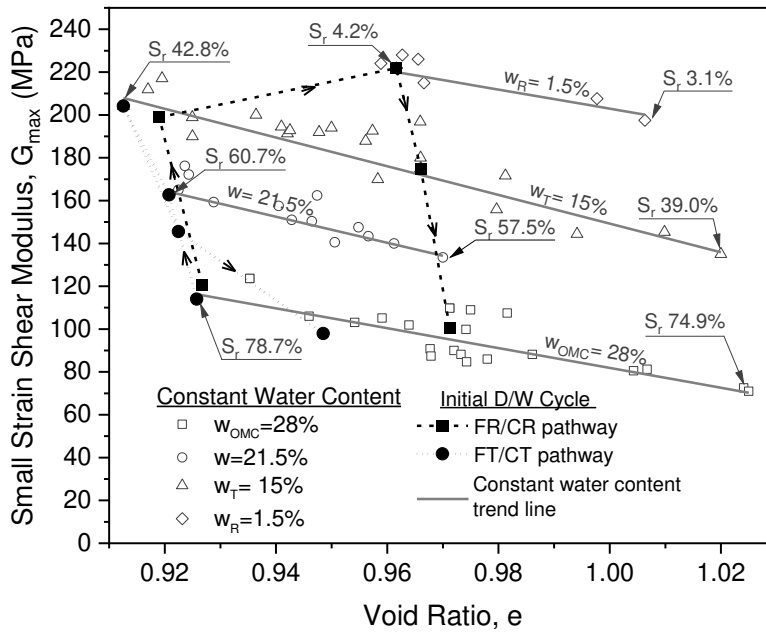
837 Figure 13. Normalized small strain shear modulus of compacted kaolin specimens at
838 constant water content levels during drying-wetting cycles, for amplitudes: a) FT - full
839 saturation to transition zone, b) FR - full saturation to residual conditions, CT - compacted
840 OMC to transition zone and d) CR - compacted OMC to residual conditions.



843 Figure 14. Volumetric strain at drying and wetting boundaries during the application of 10
 844 cycles for a) FT - full saturation to transition zone, b) FR - full saturation to residual conditions,
 845 c) CT - compacted OMC to transition zone and d) CR - compacted OMC to residual conditions
 846 (compressive strains considered negative).

848

849



850 Figure 15. Relationship between void ratio and small strain shear modulus at constant water
851 content for compacted kaolin subject to 10 drying and wetting cycles for all boundary
852 conditions (FT/FR/CT/CR).

853