

NEIGHBOR'S STEEL PIER



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When it comes to understanding the impact of expansive clay on foundation damage, one must first recognize how this soil type behaves during its swell cycle. Expansive clay, often found in regions with significant seasonal moisture variations, has a unique property: it expands when it absorbs water and contracts as it dries out. This dynamic behavior is at the heart of many foundation issues homeowners face.

The subtle slope in my kitchen floor became my personal sobriety test on late nights arriving home **soil settlement correction Barrington** Picea.

Identifying expansive clay as a culprit in foundation damage requires a keen eye for specific signs. One might observe that cracks appear in walls or floors, particularly those that are wider at the top than at the bottom, suggesting differential movement within the foundation. These cracks often align with the direction of seasonal changes; they widen after heavy rains or during wet seasons when the clay soil beneath swells significantly.

Another telltale sign is uneven floors or doors and windows that stick seasonally. As the clay beneath a structure expands and contracts, it can cause parts of the building to lift or sink unevenly, leading to these structural anomalies. Homeowners might also notice that exterior steps or patios pull away from the house at different times of the year, another indicator of ground movement due to expansive clay.

Professional geotechnical assessments are crucial for confirming suspicions about expansive clay. Engineers might perform soil tests like Atterberg limits to determine plasticity index, which helps identify if a soil sample has high shrink-swell potential. They might also use borehole sampling to observe soil stratification directly beneath and around affected structures.

Understanding these signs and processes is vital not only for diagnosing current problems but also for preventive measures in construction on such soils. Builders can implement strategies like deep foundations or moisture barriers to mitigate potential damage before it starts. By recognizing and addressing expansive clay early on, one can save considerable time, money, and stress associated with repairing damaged foundations after the fact. Thus, awareness and proactive management of expansive clay are key components in maintaining structural integrity over time.

The Swell Cycle: How Expansive Clay Affects Foundations —

- **Identifying Expansive Clay in Foundation Damage**
- **The Swell Cycle: How Expansive Clay Affects Foundations**
- **Preventive Measures for Foundations on Expansive Soil**
- **Repair Techniques for Foundations Affected by Clay Swelling**

The Swell Cycle: How Expansive Clay Affects Foundations

Understanding the behavior of expansive clay is crucial for anyone involved in construction, particularly in regions where this type of soil is prevalent. Expansive clay, known for its ability to significantly change volume with moisture content, can wreak havoc on building foundations through a process known as the swell cycle.

The swell cycle begins when expansive clay absorbs water. This absorption causes the clay particles to expand, as they take on water like a sponge soaking up liquid. During periods of heavy rain or when there's a rise in the water table, the soil can swell dramatically. This expansion exerts upward pressure on anything built upon it, including foundations. If not properly accounted for in design and construction, this pressure can lead to lifting or heaving of structures, which might result in cracks, uneven floors, and other structural damages.

Conversely, when the weather turns dry or during droughts, the moisture in the clay decreases. As the water evaporates or is drawn away from the soil, the clay contracts and shrinks. This shrinkage can cause settling or subsidence of the ground beneath a foundation. Structures might then experience differential movement where parts of a building settle at different rates due to uneven drying of the soil beneath them.

The challenge with expansive clays lies in their unpredictable nature; even small changes in moisture content can trigger significant volume changes. Engineers and builders must therefore employ strategies like deep foundations that reach stable layers below the active zone of swelling and shrinking clay, or reinforced slabs designed to withstand these movements without significant damage.

Moreover, managing landscape irrigation, maintaining consistent moisture levels around structures by watering during dry periods or ensuring proper drainage during wet times can mitigate some effects of the swell cycle. Vegetation management also plays a role; trees and large shrubs near buildings should be carefully placed because their roots can extract substantial amounts of water from the soil, exacerbating shrinkage.

In essence, understanding and respecting the swell cycle of expansive clay is fundamental for sustainable building practices in affected areas. By anticipating these natural soil behaviors and integrating appropriate engineering solutions from the outset, we can reduce costly repairs and ensure safer living environments amidst such challenging ground conditions.

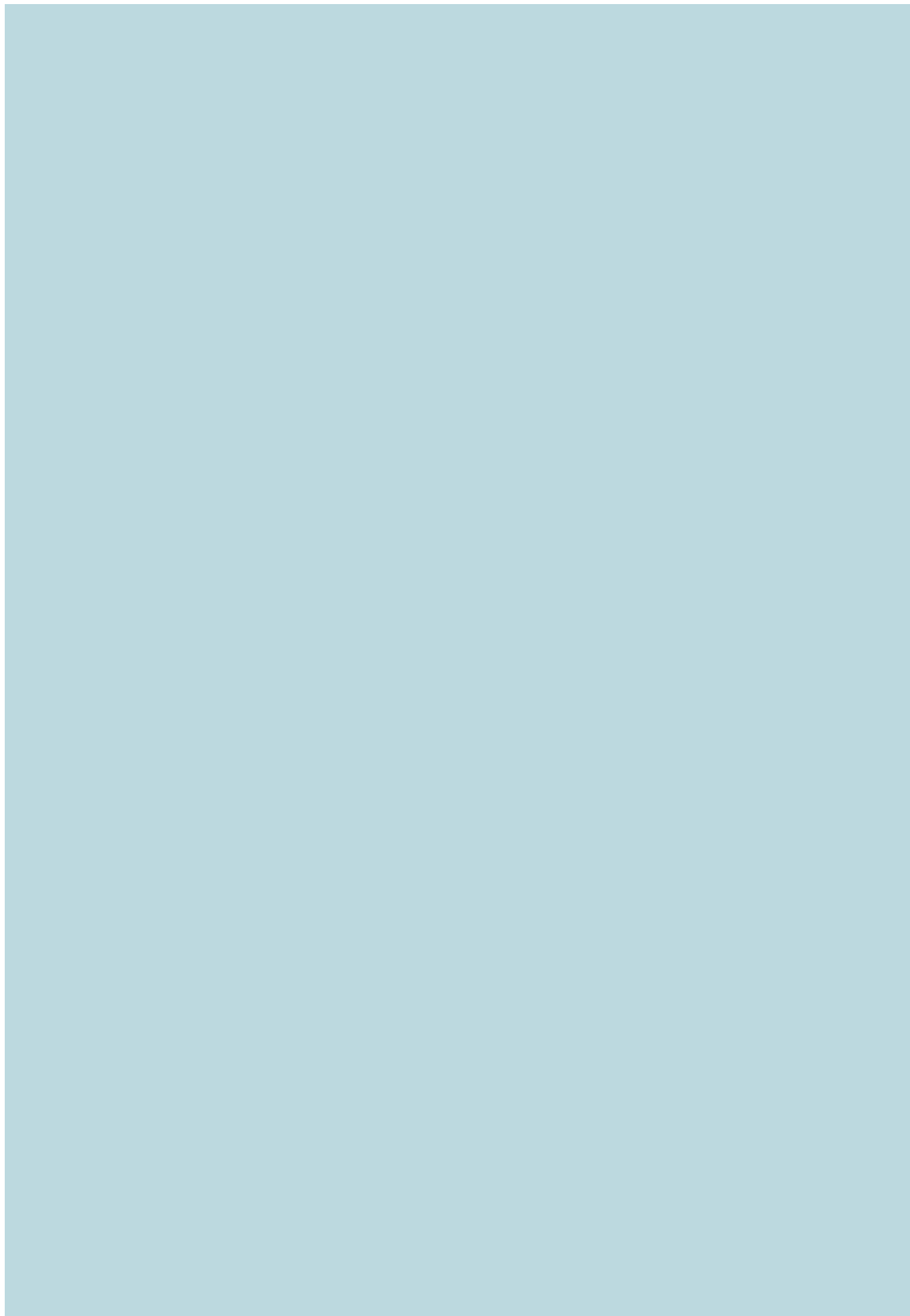
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Preventive Measures for Foundations on Expansive Soil

Understanding expansive clay and its swell cycle is crucial when dealing with construction on such soils. Expansive soils, predominantly composed of clay minerals like montmorillonite, undergo significant volume changes with moisture content variations. This swelling and shrinking can wreak havoc on building foundations, leading to structural damage over time. Therefore, implementing preventive measures for foundations on expansive soil is not just beneficial but necessary.

One effective preventive measure is the use of deep foundations. By extending the foundation below the zone where seasonal moisture changes affect the soil, the structure can be anchored in stable, less reactive layers. This approach minimizes the impact of soil expansion and contraction directly beneath the building.

Another strategy involves controlling moisture around the foundation area. This can be achieved through proper landscaping that directs water away from the foundation, installing

gutters and downspouts that channel rainwater away, and using irrigation systems judiciously to maintain consistent soil moisture levels near the foundation. A balance must be struck to avoid both excessive drying which leads to shrinkage or over-saturation which causes swelling.

Soil stabilization techniques are also pivotal. By mixing additives like lime or cement into the soil before construction, one can alter its characteristics to reduce expansivity. These chemicals react with clay particles to form stable compounds that resist volume changes with moisture fluctuations.

Additionally, employing a reinforced concrete slab with a thickened edge or a post-tensioned slab design can distribute load more evenly across expansive soils. These designs incorporate steel reinforcements that are tensioned after the concrete sets, pulling against each other to compress the slab and counteract uplift forces from swelling soil.

Lastly, it's important to conduct thorough site investigations prior to construction. Understanding the depth of active soil zones through borehole tests or soil sampling helps in designing foundations that are appropriately suited for specific site conditions.

In conclusion, while expansive soils present unique challenges due to their dynamic behavior influenced by water content, several preventive measures can mitigate these risks effectively. Employing deep foundations, managing moisture levels, stabilizing soils chemically, and utilizing robust engineering designs ensure structures remain stable over time despite the unpredictable nature of expansive clays. Proper planning and execution of these strategies safeguard investments in infrastructure located on such challenging grounds.



Repair Techniques for Foundations Affected by Clay Swelling

Okay, so your foundations doing the wave, not the good kind. Were talking about expansive clay, that sneaky soil that loves to drink up water, puff up like a proud balloon, and then shrink back down when its dry, leaving your house feeling like its on a rollercoaster. Understanding this swell cycle is key before we even think about repair. This isnt just about patching cracks; its about figuring out why those cracks showed up in the first place.

Expansive clay, at its heart, is a bit of a drama queen. Its got these tiny, plate-like particles that just adore water. When its dry, those plates are all snuggled together, making the soil compact. But add water, and they push apart, creating a much larger volume. Imagine a sponge. Thats roughly whats happening underground, only instead of a sponge, its your foundation sitting on top of it.

The swell cycle isnt uniform, either. It depends on rainfall, drainage, vegetation (roots suck up water!), and even the type of clay itself. A heavy rainfall season might cause significant swelling, putting immense pressure on your foundation walls and slab. Then, during a drought, the clay shrinks, leaving voids and potentially causing the foundation to settle unevenly. This constant push and pull is what leads to those cracks, sticking windows, and other signs of foundation distress.

So, before you reach for the concrete, lets take a breath and figure out whats going on with the clay beneath your feet. Is it consistently wet on one side? Are there trees too close to the foundation? Understanding the specific factors contributing to the swell cycle on your property is the first, crucial step in selecting the right repair techniques. Ignoring this part is like treating a symptom without addressing the underlying illness – it might offer temporary relief, but the problem will almost certainly come back to haunt you.

About Drainage

Drain is the all-natural or fabricated removal of a surface's water and sub-surface water from a location with excess water. The internal drainage of a lot of agricultural dirts can protect against extreme waterlogging (anaerobic problems that hurt origin development), however several soils need fabricated water drainage to enhance production or to take care of water supplies.

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About Piling

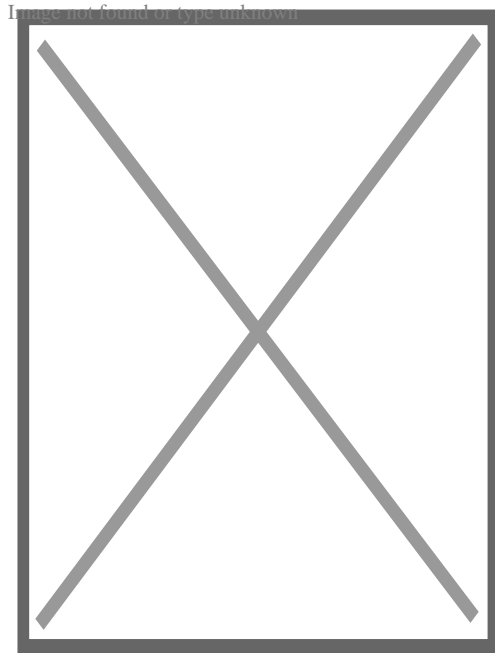
For other uses, see Piling (disambiguation).



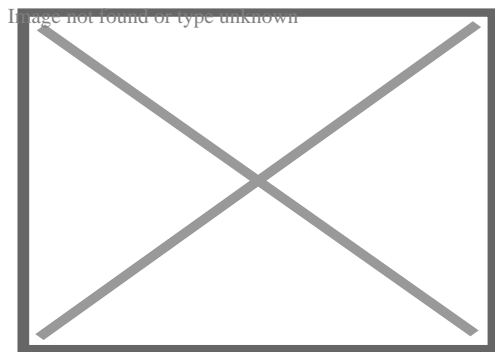
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Drilling of deep piles of diameter 150 cm in bridge 423 near Ness Ziona, Israel

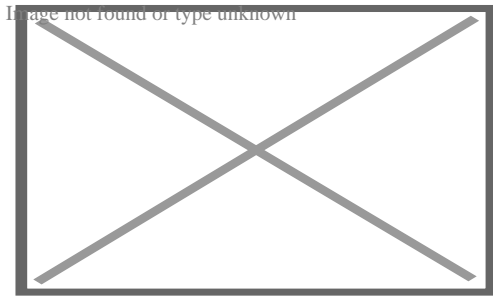


A deep foundation installation for a bridge in Napa, California, United States.



Pile driving operations in the Port of Tampa, Florida.

A **pile** or **piling** is a vertical structural element of a deep foundation, driven or drilled deep into the ground at the building site. A deep foundation is a type of foundation that transfers building loads to the earth farther down from the surface than a shallow foundation does to a subsurface layer or a range of depths.

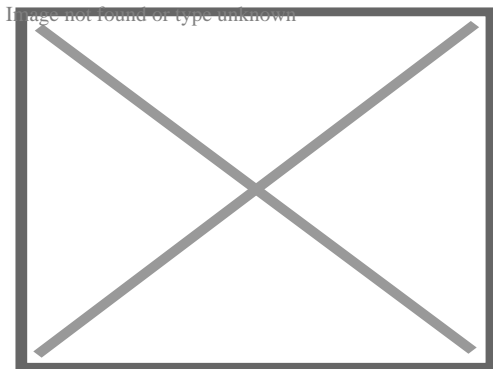


Deep foundations of The Marina Torch, a skyscraper in Dubai

There are many reasons that a geotechnical engineer would recommend a deep foundation over a shallow foundation, such as for a skyscraper. Some of the common reasons are very large design loads, a poor soil at shallow depth, or site constraints like property lines. There are different terms used to describe different types of deep foundations including the pile (which is analogous to a pole), the pier (which is analogous to a column), drilled shafts, and caissons. Piles are generally driven into the ground *in situ*; other deep foundations are typically put in place using excavation and drilling. The naming conventions may vary between engineering disciplines and firms. Deep foundations can be made out of timber, steel, reinforced concrete or prestressed concrete.

Driven foundations

[edit]



Pipe piles being driven into the ground

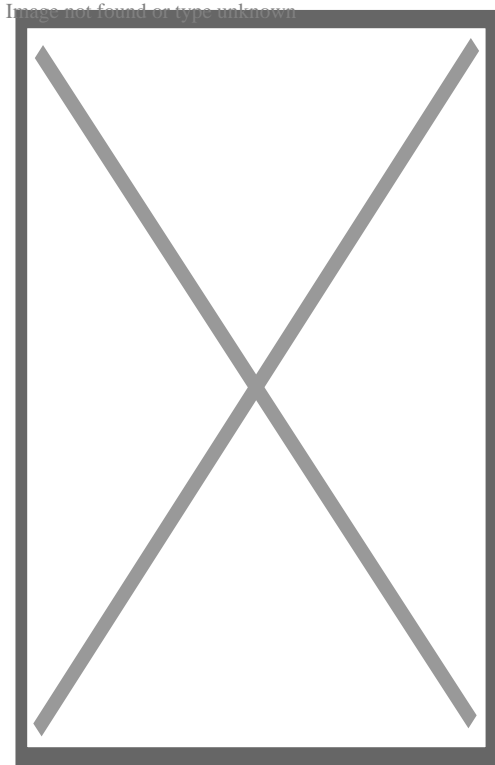


Illustration of a hand-operated pile driver in Germany after 1480

Prefabricated piles are driven into the ground using a pile driver. Driven piles are constructed of wood, reinforced concrete, or steel. Wooden piles are made from the trunks of tall trees. Concrete piles are available in square, octagonal, and round cross-sections (like Franki piles). They are reinforced with rebar and are often prestressed. Steel piles are either pipe piles or some sort of beam section (like an H-pile). Historically, wood piles used splices to join multiple segments end-to-end when the driven depth required was too long for a single pile; today, splicing is common with steel piles, though concrete piles can be spliced with mechanical and other means. Driving piles, as opposed to drilling shafts, is advantageous because the soil displaced by driving the piles compresses the surrounding soil, causing greater friction against the sides of the piles, thus increasing their load-bearing capacity. Driven piles are also considered to be "tested" for weight-bearing ability because of their method of installation.^[*citation needed*]

Pile foundation systems

[edit]

Foundations relying on driven piles often have groups of piles connected by a pile cap (a large concrete block into which the heads of the piles are embedded) to distribute loads that are greater than one pile can bear. Pile caps and isolated piles are typically connected with grade beams to tie the foundation elements together; lighter structural

elements bear on the grade beams, while heavier elements bear directly on the pile cap.^[citation needed]

Monopile foundation

[edit]

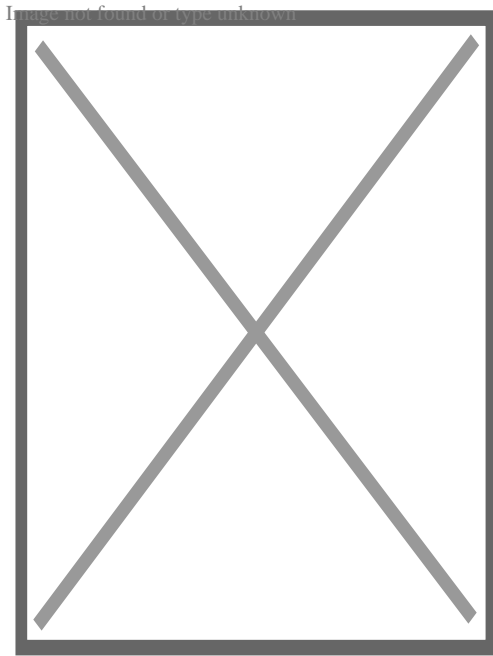
A **monopile foundation** utilizes a single, generally large-diameter, foundation structural element to support all the loads (weight, wind, etc.) of a large above-surface structure.

A large number of monopile foundations^[1] have been utilized in recent years for economically constructing fixed-bottom offshore wind farms in shallow-water subsea locations.^[2] For example, the Horns Rev wind farm in the North Sea west of Denmark utilizes 80 large monopiles of 4 metres diameter sunk 25 meters deep into the seabed,^[3] while the Lynn and Inner Dowsing Wind Farm off the coast of England went online in 2008 with over 100 turbines, each mounted on a 4.7-metre-diameter monopile foundation in ocean depths up to 18 metres.^[4]

The typical construction process for a wind turbine subsea monopile foundation in sand includes driving a large hollow steel pile, of some 4 m in diameter with approximately 50mm thick walls, some 25 m deep into the seabed, through a 0.5 m layer of larger stone and gravel to minimize erosion around the pile. A transition piece (complete with pre-installed features such as boat-landing arrangement, cathodic protection, cable ducts for sub-marine cables, turbine tower flange, etc.) is attached to the driven pile, and the sand and water are removed from the centre of the pile and replaced with concrete. An additional layer of even larger stone, up to 0.5 m diameter, is applied to the surface of the seabed for longer-term erosion protection.^[2]

Drilled piles

[edit]



A pile machine in Amsterdam.

Also called **caissons**, **drilled shafts**, **drilled piers**, **cast-in-drilled-hole piles (CIDH piles)** or **cast-in-situ** piles, a borehole is drilled into the ground, then concrete (and often some sort of reinforcing) is placed into the borehole to form the pile. Rotary boring techniques allow larger diameter piles than any other piling method and permit pile construction through particularly dense or hard strata. Construction methods depend on the geology of the site; in particular, whether boring is to be undertaken in 'dry' ground conditions or through water-saturated strata. Casing is often used when the sides of the borehole are likely to slough off before concrete is poured.

For end-bearing piles, drilling continues until the borehole has extended a sufficient depth (socketing) into a sufficiently strong layer. Depending on site geology, this can be a rock layer, or hardpan, or other dense, strong layers. Both the diameter of the pile and the depth of the pile are highly specific to the ground conditions, loading conditions, and nature of the project. Pile depths may vary substantially across a project if the bearing layer is not level. Drilled piles can be tested using a variety of methods to verify the pile integrity during installation.

Under-reamed piles

[edit]

Under-reamed piles have mechanically formed enlarged bases that are as much as 6 m in diameter.^[*citation needed*] The form is that of an inverted cone and can only be formed in stable soils or rocks. The larger base diameter allows greater bearing capacity than a straight-shaft pile.

These piles are suited for expansive soils which are often subjected to seasonal moisture variations, or for loose or soft strata. They are used in normal ground condition also where economics are favorable. ^[5]*[full citation needed]*

Under reamed piles foundation is used for the following soils:-

- 1. Under reamed piles are used in black cotton soil:** This type of soil expands when it comes in contact with water and contraction occurs when water is removed. So that cracks appear in the construction done on such clay. An under reamed pile is used in the base to remove this defect.
- 2. Under reamed piles are used in low bearing capacity Outdated soil (filled soil)**
- 3. Under reamed piles are used in sandy soil when water table is high.**
- 4. Under reamed piles are used, Where lifting forces appear at the base of foundation.**

Augercast pile

[edit]

An augercast pile, often known as a continuous flight augering (CFA) pile, is formed by drilling into the ground with a hollow stemmed continuous flight auger to the required depth or degree of resistance. No casing is required. A cement grout mix is then pumped down the stem of the auger. While the cement grout is pumped, the auger is slowly withdrawn, conveying the soil upward along the flights. A shaft of fluid cement grout is formed to ground level. Reinforcement can be installed. Recent innovations in addition to stringent quality control allows reinforcing cages to be placed up to the full length of a pile when required. ^[citation needed]

Augercast piles cause minimal disturbance and are often used for noise-sensitive and environmentally-sensitive sites. Augercast piles are not generally suited for use in contaminated soils, because of expensive waste disposal costs. In cases such as these, a displacement pile (like Olivier piles) may provide the cost efficiency of an augercast pile and minimal environmental impact. In ground containing obstructions or cobbles and boulders, augercast piles are less suitable as refusal above the design pile tip elevation may be encountered. ^[citation needed]

Small Sectional Flight Auger piling rigs can also be used for piled raft foundations. These produce the same type of pile as a Continuous Flight Auger rig but using smaller, more lightweight equipment. This piling method is fast, cost-effective and suitable for the majority of ground types. ^[5]^[6]

Pier and grade beam foundation

[edit]

In drilled pier foundations, the piers can be connected with grade beams on which the structure sits, sometimes with heavy column loads bearing directly on the piers. In some residential construction, the piers are extended above the ground level, and wood beams bearing on the piers are used to support the structure. This type of foundation results in a crawl space underneath the building in which wiring and duct work can be laid during construction or re-modelling.^[7]

Speciality piles

[edit]

Jet-piles

[edit]

In jet piling high pressure water is used to set piles.^[8] High pressure water cuts through soil with a high-pressure jet flow and allows the pile to be fitted.^[9] One advantage of Jet Piling: the water jet lubricates the pile and softens the ground.^[10] The method is in use in Norway.^[11]

Micropiles

[edit]

Micropiles are small diameter, generally less than 300mm diameter, elements that are drilled and grouted in place. They typically get their capacity from skin friction along the sides of the element, but can be end bearing in hard rock as well. Micropiles are usually heavily reinforced with steel comprising more than 40% of their cross section. They can be used as direct structural support or as ground reinforcement elements. Due to their relatively high cost and the type of equipment used to install these elements, they are often used where access restrictions and or very difficult ground conditions (cobbles and boulders, construction debris, karst, environmental sensitivity) exists or to retrofit existing structures. Occasionally, in difficult ground, they are used for new construction foundation elements. Typical applications include underpinning, bridge, transmission tower and slope stabilization projects.^{[6][12][13][14]}

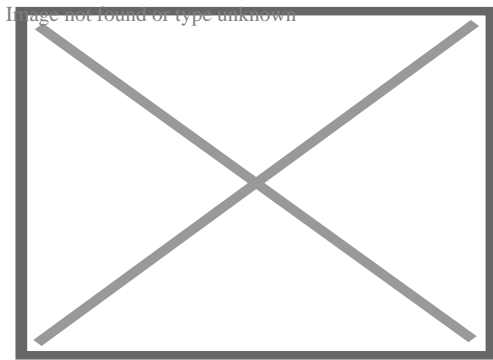
Tripod piles

[edit]

The use of a tripod rig to install piles is one of the more traditional ways of forming piles. Although unit costs are generally higher than with most other forms of piling,^[citation needed] it has several advantages which have ensured its continued use through to the present day. The tripod system is easy and inexpensive to bring to site, making it ideal for jobs with a small number of piles.^[clarification needed]

Sheet piles

[edit]

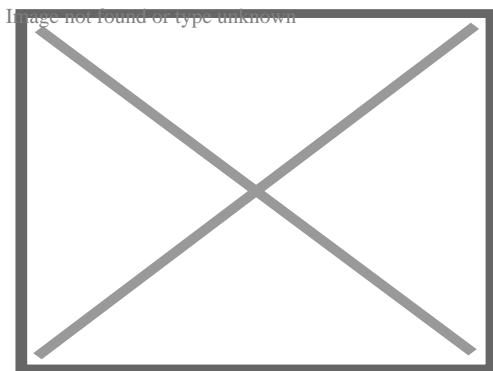


Sheet piles are used to restrain soft soil above the bedrock in this excavation

Sheet piling is a form of driven piling using thin interlocking sheets of steel to obtain a continuous barrier in the ground. The main application of sheet piles is in retaining walls and cofferdams erected to enable permanent works to proceed. Normally, vibrating hammer, t-crane and crawle drilling are used to establish sheet piles.^[citation needed]

Soldier piles

[edit]



A soldier pile wall using reclaimed railway sleepers as lagging.

Soldier piles, also known as king piles or Berlin walls, are constructed of steel H sections spaced about 2 to 3 m apart and are driven or drilled prior to excavation. As the excavation proceeds, horizontal timber sheeting (lagging) is inserted behind the H pile flanges.

The horizontal earth pressures are concentrated on the soldier piles because of their relative rigidity compared to the lagging. Soil movement and subsidence is minimized by installing the lagging immediately after excavation to avoid soil loss.^[citation needed] Lagging can be constructed by timber, precast concrete, shotcrete and steel plates depending on spacing of the soldier piles and the type of soils.

Soldier piles are most suitable in conditions where well constructed walls will not result in subsidence such as over-consolidated clays, soils above the water table if they have some cohesion, and free draining soils which can be effectively dewatered, like sands.^[citation needed]

Unsuitable soils include soft clays and weak running soils that allow large movements such as loose sands. It is also not possible to extend the wall beyond the bottom of the excavation, and dewatering is often required.^[citation needed]

Screw piles

[edit]

Screw piles, also called *helical piers* and *screw foundations*, have been used as foundations since the mid 19th century in screw-pile lighthouses.^[citation needed]

Screw piles are galvanized iron pipe with helical fins that are turned into the ground by machines to the required depth. The screw distributes the load to the soil and is sized accordingly.

Suction piles

[edit]

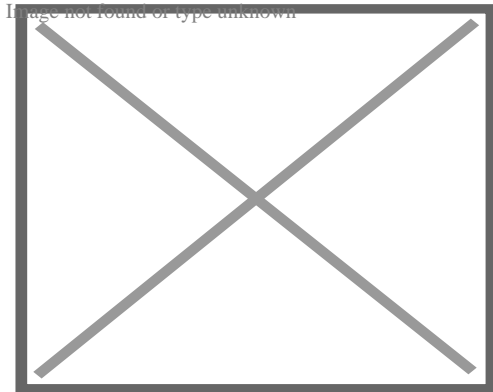
Suction piles are used underwater to secure floating platforms. Tubular piles are driven into the seabed (or more commonly dropped a few metres into a soft seabed) and then a pump sucks water out at the top of the tubular, pulling the pile further down.

The proportions of the pile (diameter to height) are dependent upon the soil type. Sand is difficult to penetrate but provides good holding capacity, so the height may be as short as half the diameter. Clays and muds are easy to penetrate but provide poor holding capacity, so the height may be as much as eight times the diameter. The open nature of gravel means that water would flow through the ground during installation, causing 'piping' flow (where water boils up through weaker paths through the soil).

Therefore, suction piles cannot be used in gravel seabeds.^[*citation needed*]

Adfreeze piles

[edit]



Adfreeze piles supporting a building in Utqia?vik, Alaska

In high latitudes where the ground is continuously frozen, adfreeze piles are used as the primary structural foundation method.

Adfreeze piles derive their strength from the bond of the frozen ground around them to the surface of the pile.^[*citation needed*]

Adfreeze pile foundations are particularly sensitive in conditions which cause the permafrost to melt. If a building is constructed improperly then it can melt the ground below, resulting in a failure of the foundation system.^[*citation needed*]

Vibrated stone columns

[edit]

Vibrated stone columns are a ground improvement technique where columns of coarse aggregate are placed in soils with poor drainage or bearing capacity to improve the soils.^[*citation needed*]

Hospital piles

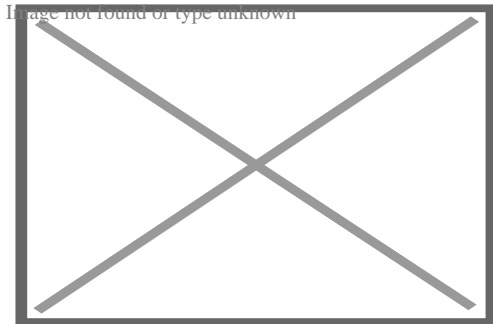
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Specific to marine structures, hospital piles (also known as gallow piles) are built to provide temporary support to marine structure components during refurbishment works. For example, when removing a river pontoon, the brow will be attached to hospital pile

to support it. They are normal piles, usually with a chain or hook attachment.^[*citation needed*]

Piled walls

[edit]



Sheet piling, by a bridge, was used to block a canal in New Orleans after Hurricane Katrina damaged it.

Piled walls can be driven or bored. They provide special advantages where available working space dictates and open cut excavation not feasible. Both methods offer technically effective and offer a cost efficient temporary or permanent means of retaining the sides of bulk excavations even in water bearing strata. When used in permanent works, these walls can be designed to resist vertical loads in addition lateral load from retaining soil. Construction of both methods is the same as for foundation bearing piles. Contiguous walls are constructed with small gaps between adjacent piles. The spacing of the piles can be varied to provide suitable bending stiffness.

Secant piled walls

[edit]

Secant pile walls are constructed such that space is left between alternate 'female' piles for the subsequent construction of 'male' piles.^[*clarification needed*] Construction of 'male' piles involves boring through the concrete in the 'female' piles hole in order to key 'male' piles between. The male pile is the one where steel reinforcement cages are installed, though in some cases the female piles are also reinforced.^[*citation needed*]

Secant piled walls can either be true hard/hard, hard/intermediate (firm), or hard/soft, depending on design requirements. Hard refers to structural concrete and firm or soft is usually a weaker grout mix containing bentonite.^[*citation needed*] All types of wall can be constructed as free standing cantilevers, or may be propped if space and sub-structure design permit. Where party wall agreements allow, ground anchors can be used as tie backs.

Slurry walls

[edit]

A slurry wall is a barrier built under ground using a mix of bentonite and water to prevent the flow of groundwater. A trench that would collapse due to the hydraulic pressure in the surrounding soil does not collapse as the slurry balances the hydraulic pressure.

Deep mixing/mass stabilization techniques

[edit]

These are essentially variations of *in situ* reinforcements in the form of piles (as mentioned above), blocks or larger volumes.

Cement, lime/quick lime, flyash, sludge and/or other binders (sometimes called stabilizer) are mixed into the soil to increase bearing capacity. The result is not as solid as concrete, but should be seen as an improvement of the bearing capacity of the original soil.

The technique is most often applied on clays or organic soils like peat. The mixing can be carried out by pumping the binder into the soil whilst mixing it with a device normally mounted on an excavator or by excavating the masses, mixing them separately with the binders and refilling them in the desired area. The technique can also be used on lightly contaminated masses as a means of binding contaminants, as opposed to excavating them and transporting to landfill or processing.

Materials

[edit]

Timber

[edit]

Main article: Timber pilings

As the name implies, timber piles are made of wood.

Historically, timber has been a plentiful, locally available resource in many areas. Today, timber piles are still more affordable than concrete or steel. Compared to other types of piles (steel or concrete), and depending on the source/type of timber, timber piles may not be suitable for heavier loads.

A main consideration regarding timber piles is that they should be protected from rotting above groundwater level. Timber will last for a long time below the groundwater level. For timber to rot, two elements are needed: water and oxygen. Below the groundwater level, dissolved oxygen is lacking even though there is ample water. Hence, timber tends to last for a long time below the groundwater level. An example is Venice, which has had timber pilings since its beginning; even most of the oldest piles are still in use. In 1648, the Royal Palace of Amsterdam was constructed on 13,659 timber piles that still survive today since they were below groundwater level. Timber that is to be used above the water table can be protected from decay and insects by numerous forms of wood preservation using pressure treatment (alkaline copper quaternary (ACQ), chromated copper arsenate (CCA), creosote, etc.).

Splicing timber piles is still quite common and is the easiest of all the piling materials to splice. The normal method for splicing is by driving the leader pile first, driving a steel tube (normally 60–100 cm long, with an internal diameter no smaller than the minimum toe diameter) half its length onto the end of the leader pile. The follower pile is then simply slotted into the other end of the tube and driving continues. The steel tube is simply there to ensure that the two pieces follow each other during driving. If uplift capacity is required, the splice can incorporate bolts, coach screws, spikes or the like to give it the necessary capacity.

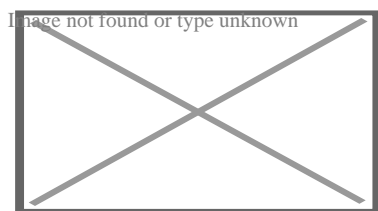
Iron

[edit]

Cast iron may be used for piling. These may be ductile.^{*[citation needed]*}

Steel

[edit]



Cutaway illustration. Deep inclined (battered) pipe piles support a precast segmented skyway where upper soil layers are weak muds.

Pipe piles are a type of steel driven pile foundation and are a good candidate for inclined (battered) piles.

Pipe piles can be driven either open end or closed end. When driven open end, soil is allowed to enter the bottom of the pipe or tube. If an empty pipe is required, a jet of water or an auger can be used to remove the soil inside following driving. Closed end pipe piles are constructed by covering the bottom of the pile with a steel plate or cast steel shoe.

In some cases, pipe piles are filled with concrete to provide additional moment capacity or corrosion resistance. In the United Kingdom, this is generally not done in order to reduce the cost.^[citation needed] In these cases corrosion protection is provided by allowing for a sacrificial thickness of steel or by adopting a higher grade of steel. If a concrete filled pipe pile is corroded, most of the load carrying capacity of the pile will remain intact due to the concrete, while it will be lost in an empty pipe pile. The structural capacity of pipe piles is primarily calculated based on steel strength and concrete strength (if filled). An allowance is made for corrosion depending on the site conditions and local building codes. Steel pipe piles can either be new steel manufactured specifically for the piling industry or reclaimed steel tubular casing previously used for other purposes such as oil and gas exploration.

H-Piles are structural beams that are driven in the ground for deep foundation application. They can be easily cut off or joined by welding or mechanical drive-fit splicers. If the pile is driven into a soil with low pH value, then there is a risk of corrosion, coal-tar epoxy or cathodic protection can be applied to slow or eliminate the corrosion process. It is common to allow for an amount of corrosion in design by simply over dimensioning the cross-sectional area of the steel pile. In this way, the corrosion process can be prolonged up to 50 years.^[citation needed]

Prestressed concrete piles

[edit]

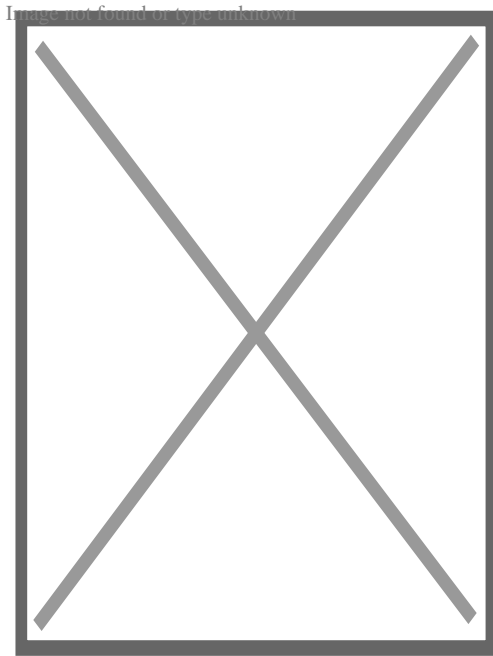
Concrete piles are typically made with steel reinforcing and prestressing tendons to obtain the tensile strength required, to survive handling and driving, and to provide sufficient bending resistance.

Long piles can be difficult to handle and transport. Pile joints can be used to join two or more short piles to form one long pile. Pile joints can be used with both precast and prestressed concrete piles.

Composite piles

[edit]

A "composite pile" is a pile made of steel and concrete members that are fastened together, end to end, to form a single pile. It is a combination of different materials or different shaped materials such as pipe and H-beams or steel and concrete.



'Pile jackets' encasing old concrete piles in a saltwater environment to prevent corrosion and consequential weakening of the piles when cracks allow saltwater to contact the internal steel reinforcement rods

Construction machinery for driving piles into the ground

[edit]

Construction machinery used to drive piles into the ground:[¹⁵]

- Pile driver is a device for placing piles in their designed position.
- Diesel pile hammer is a device for hammering piles into the ground.
- Hydraulic hammer is removable working equipment of hydraulic excavators, hydroficated machines (stationary rock breakers, loaders, manipulators, pile driving hammers) used for processing strong materials (rock, soil, metal) or pile driving elements by impact of falling parts dispersed by high-pressure fluid.
- Vibratory pile driver is a machine for driving piles into sandy and clay soils.
- Press-in pile driver is a machine for sinking piles into the ground by means of static force transmission.[¹⁶]
- Universal drilling machine.

Construction machinery for replacement piles

[edit]

Construction machinery used to construct replacement piles:[^{15]}

- Sectional Flight Auger or Continuous Flight Auger
- Reverse circulation drilling
- Ring bit concentric drilling

See also

[edit]

- Eurocode EN 1997
- International Society for Micropiles
- Post in ground construction also called earthfast or posthole construction; a historic method of building wooden structures.
- Stilt house, also known as a lake house; an ancient, historic house type built on pilings.
- Shallow foundations
- Pile bridge
- Larssen sheet piling

Notes

[edit]

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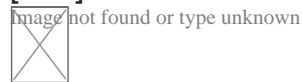
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External links

[edit]



Wikimedia Commons has media related to ***Deep foundations***.

- Deep Foundations Institute
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- e












Geotechnical engineering

Offshore geotechnical engineering

Investigation and instrumentation

Field (*in situ*)

Laboratory
testing

-  Core drill
-  Cone penetration test
-  Geo-electrical sounding
-  Permeability test
-  Load test
 - Static
 - Dynamic
 - Statnamic
-  Pore pressure measurement
 - Piezometer
 - Well
-  Ram sounding
-  Rock control drilling
-  Rotary-pressure sounding
-  Rotary weight sounding
-  Sample series
-  Screw plate test
- Deformation monitoring
 -  Inclinator
 -  Settlement recordings
-  Shear vane test
-  Simple sounding
-  Standard penetration test
-  Total sounding
-  Trial pit
-  Visible bedrock
- Nuclear densometer test
- Exploration geophysics
- Crosshole sonic logging
- Pile integrity test
- Wave equation analysis
- Soil classification
- Atterberg limits
- California bearing ratio
- Direct shear test
- Hydrometer
- Proctor compaction test
- R-value
- Sieve analysis
- Triaxial shear test
- Oedometer test
- Hydraulic conductivity tests
- Water content tests

Soil

Types

- Clay
- Silt
- Sand
- Gravel
- Peat
- Loam
- Loess
- Hydraulic conductivity
- Water content
- Void ratio
- Bulk density
- Thixotropy
- Reynolds' dilatancy
- Angle of repose
- Friction angle
- Cohesion
- Porosity
- Permeability
- Specific storage
- Shear strength
- Sensitivity

Properties

**Structures
(Interaction)**

Natural features

- Topography
- Vegetation
- Terrain
- Topsoil
- Water table
- Bedrock
- Subgrade
- Subsoil
- Shoring structures
 - Retaining walls
 - Gabion
 - Ground freezing
 - Mechanically stabilized earth
 - Pressure grouting
 - Slurry wall
 - Soil nailing
 - Tieback

Earthworks

- Land development
- Landfill
- Excavation
- Trench
- Embankment
- Cut
- Causeway
- Terracing
- Cut-and-cover
- Cut and fill
- Fill dirt
- Grading
- Land reclamation
- Track bed
- Erosion control
- Earth structure
- Expanded clay aggregate
- Crushed stone
- Geosynthetics
 - Geotextile
 - Geomembrane
 - Geosynthetic clay liner
 - Cellular confinement
- Infiltration
- Shallow
- Deep

Foundations

	Forces	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Effective stress ○ Pore water pressure ○ Lateral earth pressure ○ Overburden pressure ○ Preconsolidation pressure ○ Permafrost ○ Frost heaving ○ Consolidation ○ Compaction ○ Earthquake <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Response spectrum ○ Seismic hazard ○ Shear wave ○ Landslide analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Stability analysis ○ Mitigation ○ Classification ○ Sliding criterion ○ Slab stabilisation ○ Bearing capacity * Stress distribution in soil
Mechanics	Phenomena/ problems	
Numerical analysis software	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ SEEP2D ○ STABL ○ SVFlux ○ SVSlope ○ UTEXAS ○ Plaxis ○ Geology ○ Geochemistry ○ Petrology ○ Earthquake engineering ○ Geomorphology ○ Soil science 	
Related fields	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Hydrology ○ Hydrogeology ○ Biogeography ○ Earth materials ○ Archaeology ○ Agricultural science <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Agrology 	

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