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Authors

Rong, W
McCartney, JS

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DRAINED SEISMIC COMPRESSION OF UNSATURATED SAND

By W. Rong, S.M.ASCE¹, J.S. McCartney, Ph.D., P.E., F.ASCE²

ABSTRACT

Seismic compression of unsaturated soils occurs due to particle rearrangement during large-strain cyclic shearing which may be resisted by interparticle stresses that depend on the matric suction and degree of saturation. Due to the high rate of shearing in earthquakes, seismic compression is expected to be an undrained phenomenon with changes in total volume, matric suction, and degree of saturation along with an evolution in soil hydro-mechanical properties during cyclic shearing. To simplify this problem and better understand the mechanisms of seismic compression, this study seeks to isolate the effect of matric suction through a series of drained cyclic simple shear tests on unsaturated sand subjected to different shear strain amplitudes. These tests were performed in a cyclic simple shear apparatus with suction-saturation control using a hanging column and suction monitoring using an embedded tensiometer. Matric suction values in the funicular regime had the greatest effects on the magnitude and rate of development of seismic compression with cyclic shearing, and values in the capillary regime were similar to those in dry and saturated conditions. The volumetric contractions also caused the soil-water retention curve and suction stress characteristic curve to shift toward higher suctions during cyclic shearing.

INTRODUCTION

Seismic compression is defined as the accrual of contractive volumetric strains in soils during earthquake shaking and has been recognized as a major cause of seismically-induced damage to

¹ Graduate Research Assistant, Department of Structural Engineering, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093-0085; Email: wlrong@eng.ucsd.edu

² Professor and Department Chair, Department of Structural Engineering, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093-0085; Email: mccartney@ucsd.edu

21 civil infrastructure (Stewart et al. 2001, 2004). The state-of-the-practice method used to predict
22 contractive volumetric strains of soils during earthquake shaking involves use of a chart developed
23 by Tokimatsu and Seed (1987) correlating volumetric strain with cyclic stress ratio and corrected
24 standard penetration blow count. This chart was developed based on results from cyclic simple
25 shear tests on saturated and dry quartz sands from Silver and Seed (1971). An issue with using
26 these charts is that many natural soil layers near the ground surface are above the water table and
27 may be unsaturated. Furthermore, compacted backfill soil layers in retaining walls and slopes are
28 designed with the intention of remaining in unsaturated conditions by provision of adequate
29 drainage. In earthquake-prone areas, it is of great significance to predict the maximum seismically-
30 induced settlements of backfills in retaining walls, bridge abutments or embankments for roadways
31 or railways, as small settlements may have a significant effect on the normal operation of overlying
32 structures. Therefore, it is critical to understand the mechanisms of seismic compression of
33 unsaturated soils.

34 Due to the high rate of shearing in earthquakes, seismic compression of unsaturated soils is
35 expected to be an undrained phenomenon, with generation of excess pore water and pore air
36 pressures along with volume change due to compression of air voids that also leads to changes in
37 degree of saturation (Okamura and Soga 2006; Unno et al. 2008; Okamura and Noguchi 2009;
38 Craciun and Lo 2009; Kimoto et al. 2011). These coupled changes in pore air and pore water
39 pressures, degree of saturation, and potentially changes in the soil-water retention curve (SWRC)
40 of soils will lead to changes in the effective stress state (Bishop and Blight 1963; Lu et al. 2010),
41 which are closely linked with the shear modulus and damping relationships with cyclic shear strain
42 (Khosravi et al. 2010, Hoyos et al. 2015; Le and Ghayoomi 2017; Dong et al. 2016, 2017).
43 Ghayoomi et al. (2013) noted that compression of air-filled voids may be restrained by the effective

44 stress, which they found is an important component of seismic compression together with post-
45 shaking reconsolidation due to dissipation of shear-induced excess pore water pressure.

46 Several experimental studies have characterized the seismic compression of unsaturated sand
47 under undrained conditions (Sawada et al. 2006; Unno et al. 2008; Craciun and Lo 2009;
48 Ghayoomi et al. 2011; Kimoto et al. 2011; Milatz and Grabe 2015) or without consideration of
49 drainage conditions (Hsu and Vucetic 2004; Whang et al. 2004; Duku et al. 2008). While some of
50 these studies did not observe a clear trend in the volumetric strain with degree of saturation for a
51 limited number of cyclic shear strain amplitudes (e.g., Hsu and Vucetic 2004; Whang et al. 2004;
52 Duku et al. 2008), the lack of a clear trend may be due to the limited number of tests in some of
53 the studies along with the method used to reach different initial degrees of saturation. Specifically,
54 the specimens tested in these studies were prepared using the wet tamping method to reach
55 different initial degrees of saturation, which may lead to different soil structures. On the other
56 hand, other studies like Ghayoomi et al. (2011) changed the degree of saturation of identically
57 prepared specimens using a steady-state infiltration technique and observed that the seismic
58 compression of sands in unsaturated conditions was smaller than in dry or saturated conditions.
59 Many of the studies involving measurement of seismic compression in undrained conditions were
60 performed in cyclic triaxial setups (Unno et al. 2008; Craciun and Lo 2009; Kimoto et al. 2011),
61 which do not permit a full reversal of shear that may affect the evolution in volumetric strain with
62 cycles of shearing. Most of these studies involved independent measurement of pore air and pore
63 water pressures during shearing, while others did not (e.g., Craciun and Lo 2009). For example,
64 Unno et al. (2008) performed undrained cyclic triaxial tests and observed volumetric contraction
65 of dense and loose sands along with the differential generation of pore water pressure and pore air
66 pressure. They observed a clear effect of the degree of saturation on seismic compression, with

67 liquefaction occurring in some tests on sands at higher degrees of saturation. However, they did
68 not separate the effects of the components of the effective stress state on the seismic compression
69 and did not focus on the evolution in volumetric strain with cycles as they applied a sequence of
70 cyclic shear strains with increasing amplitude. Several studies have focused on the liquefaction of
71 unsaturated soils during undrained cyclic shearing (Okamura and Soga 2006; Unno et al. 2008;
72 Okamura and Noguchi 2009), but seismic compression was not the primary variable under
73 investigation and the soils evaluated had relatively high degrees of saturation.

74 Fewer studies have focused on cyclic simple shearing of unsaturated soils with controlled
75 drainage conditions and measurements of pore air and pore water pressures. Milatz and Grabe
76 (2015) performed both constant suction and constant water content cyclic simple shearing tests on
77 unsaturated sand. Their constant water content tests involved partial drainage as the air pressure
78 was maintained at atmospheric conditions, while the constant suction tests involved small
79 fluctuations in pore water pressure due to the impedance of the high air-entry porous ceramic disk.
80 They observed combined changes in volume and degree of saturation during cyclic shearing, but
81 did not investigate the effect of different initial degrees of saturation. Le and Ghayoomi (2017)
82 was one of the few studies to perform fully drained cyclic simple shearing tests to understand the
83 impacts of matric suction on seismic compression, but they did not track the evolution in degree
84 of saturation during shearing or evaluate trends in volumetric strain with cycles of shear strain.

85 To simplify the effects of different variables that may affect seismic compression during cyclic
86 shearing, this study focuses on the case of drained cyclic shearing to isolate the effect of matric
87 suction on the evolution in seismic compression with cycles of shear strain. In this case, shear-
88 induced excess pore water pressure will not be generated and changes in volume during cyclic
89 shearing will not cause increases in pore air pressure. This study employs a cyclic simple shear

90 apparatus that permits control of the matric suction of sands using the hanging column approach
 91 and a series of strain-controlled cyclic simple shear tests with different constant suction values
 92 were performed to track the changes in volume, degree of saturation, and the hydro-mechanical
 93 properties during cycles of shearing under different cyclic shear strain amplitudes.

94 **BACKGROUND**

95 **Effective Stress in Unsaturated Soils and Impact on Dynamic Properties**

96 Many mechanical properties of soils, including the shear strength, shear modulus, and damping
 97 ratio, are influenced by the effective stress. To extend the mechanistic framework established for
 98 saturated soils to unsaturated soils, Bishop (1959) proposed the following definition of effective
 99 stress for unsaturated soils:

$$\sigma' = (\sigma - u_a) + \chi(u_a - u_w) \quad (1)$$

100 where σ is the total normal stress on a given plane, u_a is the pore air pressure, u_w is the pore water
 101 pressure, the difference between the total normal stress and the pore air pressure represents the net
 102 normal stress, the difference between the pore air pressure and the pore water pressure is the matric
 103 suction, and χ is Bishop's effective stress parameter. Many definitions of the effective stress
 104 parameter χ have been proposed in the literature, some related to the suction and others related to
 105 the degree of saturation. Lu et al. (2010) proposed a term called the suction stress σ_s that
 106 incorporated all interparticle forces and assumed χ is equal to the effective saturation S_e so that the
 107 SWRC can be integrated into the definition of effective stress. Specifically, the effective saturation
 108 can be related to the suction through the van Genuchten (1980) SWRC model, given as follows:

$$S_e = \left\{ \frac{1}{1 + [\alpha_{vg} (u_a - u_w)]^{N_{vg}}} \right\}^{1 - \frac{1}{N_{vg}}} \quad (2)$$

109 where α_{vg} and N_{vg} are the van Genuchten (1980) SWRC fitting parameters. The effective stress
 110 definition of Lu et al. (2010) obtained by combining Equations (1) and (2) is given as follows:

$$\sigma' = (\sigma - u_a) + \left[\frac{u_a - u_w}{(1 + [\alpha_{vg}(u_a - u_w)]^{N_{vg}})^{1 - \frac{1}{N_{vg}}}} \right] \quad (3)$$

111 In this equation, the term in brackets can be referred to as the suction stress σ_s , and the relationship
 112 between suction stress and matric suction (or degree of saturation) is referred to as the suction
 113 stress characteristic curve (SSCC). It is well established that the small-strain shear modulus of
 114 unsaturated soils increases with matric suction (e.g., Khosravi et al. 2010; Khosravi and
 115 McCartney 2011; Ng and Xu 2012; Le and Ghayoomi 2017) with a hardening effect during
 116 hydraulic hysteresis (Khosravi and McCartney 2012). Khosravi and McCartney (2009)
 117 synthesized the results from several studies on unsaturated soils and found that the relationship
 118 between small-strain shear modulus and effective stress follows a power law relationship like that
 119 used for saturated and dry soils. However, Khosravi et al. (2010) found that using a suction stress
 120 equal to the matric suction (i.e., $\chi=1$) led to a good fit in matching the trend in measured small-
 121 strain shear modulus of clean sand with effective stress. Dong et al. (2016) proposed a relationship
 122 between small-strain shear modulus and effective stress defined using Equation (3) that fits well
 123 for several sandy soils. Fewer studies have evaluated the dynamic properties of unsaturated soils
 124 at larger strains. Dong et al. (2017) proposed a scaling equation of unsaturated soils to account for
 125 shear modulus reduction with increasing shear strain amplitude. Hoyos et al. (2015) and Le and
 126 Ghayoomi (2017) observed decreased damping for different soils during an increase in matric
 127 suction, but damping has not been as widely studied as the shear modulus despite its potentially
 128 major effects on the volumetric strain behavior.

129 **Seismic Compression of Unsaturated Soils**

130 Regarding the volume change of soils during cyclic shearing or seismic loading, the seismic
 131 compression of dry sands or the reconsolidation of saturated soils after liquefaction have gathered

132 the most attention in the literature. Youd (1972) performed drained cyclic simple shear tests on
133 saturated sands under cyclic shear strain amplitudes up to 9% and the volume change during cyclic
134 shearing was monitored for up to 150,000 cycles. Sawada et al. (2006) found that significant
135 volume changes could occur during undrained cyclic triaxial shearing due to the compressibility
136 of pore air in unsaturated sands, but volume changes were similar under initial degrees of saturation
137 of 0.5, 0.75 and 1.0 when considering post-liquefaction drainage. Unno et al. (2008) performed
138 cyclic triaxial tests with cycles of increasing cyclic shear strain amplitude until reaching
139 liquefaction in some cases and observed liquefaction for sands with degrees of saturation greater
140 than 0.6. Whang et al. (2004) evaluated the seismic compression behavior of a very low plasticity
141 silty sand at degrees of saturation greater than 0.6 and found that the degree of saturation affected
142 the seismic compression for soils with moderately plastic fines but was relatively unimportant for
143 soils with low-plasticity fines. Duku et al. (2008) investigated the effects of several compositional
144 and environmental factors on the volumetric strain during cyclic shearing, and concluded degree
145 of saturation showed no effect on seismic compression of clean sands. As noted in the introduction,
146 the unsaturated specimens in the two previous studies were formed by tamping and kneading wet
147 soils to reach the same target relative density but different initial unsaturated conditions, which
148 may lead to uncertainty in the soil behavior due to the impacts of compaction-induced soil
149 structures. Ghayoomi et al. (2011) performed centrifuge tests on unsaturated F-75 Ottawa sand
150 layers having a constant degree of saturation with depth imposed by steady-state infiltration and
151 found that the smaller surface settlement occurred at a degree of saturation of approximately 0.3,
152 while wetter and drier specimens experienced more surface settlements. They hypothesized that
153 the minimum surface settlement during cyclic shearing corresponded to the degree of saturation
154 corresponding to the maximum value of suction stress. Le and Ghayoomi (2017) used a modified

155 cyclic simple shear device to investigate the effect of degree of saturation or matric suction on the
156 seismic compression of F-75 Ottawa sand, and found that unsaturated specimens compressed less
157 than dry or saturated specimens. However, the strain amplitude in their study only reached 0.06%,
158 so the effect of matric suction or degree of saturation on seismic compression of unsaturated sands
159 under larger strain amplitudes is not clear. Ghayoomi et al. (2013) extended empirical relationships
160 for dry or saturated sands to predict the seismically-induced settlement of a free-field layer of
161 unsaturated sand but noted uncertainties in parameter selection. Filling in the gaps in the model of
162 Ghayoomi et al. (2013) requires additional cyclic tests on unsaturated sands performed to higher
163 shear strain amplitudes, along with isolation of the effects of suction and degree of saturation.
164 Accordingly, even though seismic compression during earthquakes is an undrained phenomenon,
165 new insights will be gained from the drained cyclic shearing tests in this study that isolate the
166 effects of matric suction. Although the degree of saturation, volumetric strain, SWRC, and SSCC
167 may change during drained shearing, the matric suction will be constant. In order to reach drained
168 conditions, the strain rate during cyclic shearing is much smaller than that in earthquakes.

169 **EXPERIMENTAL SETUP**

170 **Cyclic Simple Shear Apparatus**

171 Cyclic simple shear tests allow the principal stress axes to rotate smoothly during cyclic
172 shearing and permit simulation of the stress-strain response of soils in a free-field soil layer due to
173 upward horizontal seismic shear wave propagation, while permitting evaluation of the associated
174 changes in pore water pressure and/or volume change. A monotonic simple shear apparatus
175 manufactured by the Norwegian Geotechnical Institute (NGI) was modified to perform cyclic
176 simple shear tests over a range of shear strain amplitudes and unsaturated conditions (different
177 matric suctions or degrees of saturation) by incorporating a hanging column setup. A rotary motor

178 with low backlash manufactured by Parker (ETH-BE series) was used to apply displacement-
179 controlled motions to a transmission frame designed to eliminate tilting while permitting free
180 vertical displacements of the specimen top cap.

181 **Suction Control System**

182 The specimen housing designed to test unsaturated soils in the modified cyclic simple shear
183 device is shown in Figure 1. The top platen incorporates a coarse porous stone which facilitates
184 air drainage while providing a rough surface to transmit shear stresses to the top of the specimen.
185 The bottom platen incorporates a high air-entry porous disk that transmits water from a hanging
186 column consistent with ASTM D6836, which has a central port to accommodate a tensiometer
187 (model T5 from UMS) to monitor changes in matric suction during cyclic shearing. The cylindrical
188 specimen has a height of 20 mm and a diameter of 66.7 mm, resulting in a height to diameter ratio
189 of $H/D = 0.3$, which is less than the maximum value of 0.4 set by ASTM D6528 (ASTM 2017).
190 The specimen is confined within a wire-reinforced rubber membrane manufactured by Geonor,
191 which minimizes radial deformations of the specimen during preparation, application of vertical
192 stresses, and cyclic shearing but allows vertical and shear deformations.

193 The high air-entry porous disk used in the specimen housing is a fritted glass disk having an
194 air-entry suction of approximately 50 kPa (0.5 bar). When saturated, the fritted glass disk allows
195 free flow of water while prohibiting the flow of air. A small port was drilled through the center of
196 the fritted glass disk to permit insertion of the tip of the tensiometer through the base platen into
197 the lower portion of the soil specimen, as shown in Figure 2(a). The tensiometer can be used to
198 monitor the matric suction during suction application as well as during drained or undrained
199 shearing. The insertion distance of 3 mm from the base (15% of the specimen thickness) is
200 expected to be sufficient to measure shear-induced pore water pressure without having major effect

201 on the formation of shearing planes in the specimen. To avoid preferential flow of air around the
202 edges of the fritted glass disk, epoxy was used to seal the outer edges and the space around the
203 tensiometer was sealed using silicone before each test. Negative water pressure is applied to the
204 bottom of the saturated fritted glass disk by changing the elevation of the hanging column with
205 respect to the base of the specimen. The suction will vary with height in the specimen due to
206 elevation head, but for 20 mm-thick specimens, the suction difference between the top and bottom
207 of the specimen will be 0.2 kPa and the suction can be assumed to be uniform. The hanging column
208 used in this study can apply suctions up to 11 kPa, which is sufficient to reach the funicular region
209 of the SWRC of most sands (McCartney and Parks 2009). Assuming the pore air pressure within
210 the specimen is atmospheric during drained experiments, the matric suction is equal to the negative
211 of the applied negative water pressure (i.e., a positive value). The hanging column system can
212 track outflow from the specimen while maintaining a constant head using a specialized Mariotte
213 tube built from a graduated burette, similar to that used by Khosravi et al. (2010). If water flows
214 out of the Mariotte tube (i.e., during imbibition of the specimen), a vacuum will naturally occur
215 within the burette which will cause bubbling to occur, making the pressure head at the tip of the
216 bubbling tube equal to zero (the atmospheric pressure). However, if water flows into the Mariotte
217 tube (i.e., during specimen drainage), then an external vacuum must be applied to the top of the
218 burette with a magnitude equal to the pressure exerted by the height of water H . This external
219 vacuum is controlled using a regulator, with a magnitude selected manually to maintain steady
220 bubbling.

221 To increase friction between the specimen and the top cap, as well as to ensure horizontal
222 displacements applied to the top of the specimen during cyclic shearing, the top cap of the
223 specimen housing was specially designed with several pins embedded, shown in Figure 2(b). It is

224 also assumed that during cyclic shearing, where the top platen is moved horizontally with respect
225 to the bottom platen, the shear stress is equally distributed on the horizontal cross section of the
226 specimen. A specimen mounted on the simple shear apparatus is shown in Figure 2(c) and the
227 overall view of the simple shear apparatus used in this study is shown in Figure 2(d).

228 **MATERIAL AND SPECIMEN PREPARATION**

229 **Sand Properties**

230 The sand used in this study is classified as a well-graded sand (SW) according to the Unified
231 Soil Classification System (USCS). The particle size distribution curve of the well-graded sand is
232 shown in Figure 3. The mean grain size D_{50} and the effective grain size D_{10} are 0.8 and 0.2 mm,
233 respectively. The sand has a coefficient of uniformity of $C_u = 6.1$ and a coefficient of curvature of
234 $C_c = 1.0$. The specific gravity is 2.61, and the maximum and minimum void ratios are 0.853 and
235 0.371, respectively. The SWRC of the well-graded sand at a relative density of 0.45 was measured
236 using a different hanging column setup that can apply higher suction magnitudes. To determine
237 the SWRC, a pre-determined mass of dry sand was poured at a constant rate from a funnel into a
238 Buchner funnel having a fritted glass disk with an air-entry suction of 50 kPa at the bottom that
239 was filled with de-aired water. It was found that a target density of 0.45 could be reached reliably
240 without tamping. This specimen preparation approach is similar in principle to that adopted by
241 Tatsuoka et al. (1979). This initially saturated specimen was incrementally desaturated by applying
242 negative water pressures (u_w) through the hanging column while leaving the surface of the
243 specimen open to the atmosphere (which means that the pore air pressure is equal to zero, $u_a = 0$).
244 Once the outflow of water from the bottom boundary remained constant over a time between
245 readings of 30 minutes, the sand specimen was considered to be at hydraulic equilibrium. Test
246 results including the primary drying path and the primary wetting path are shown in Figure 4(a),

247 which also shows the fitted van Genuchten (1980) SWRCs. The best-fit SWRC model parameters
248 are summarized in Table 1. The graphical approach proposed by Pasha et al. (2015) shown in
249 Figure 4(b) was used to find the air-entry suction (ψ_{aes}) of the well-graded sand at the relative
250 density of 0.45. The value of ψ_{aes} equal to 1.43 kPa was used to define the different regimes of the
251 SWRC defined by Lu and Likos (2004) shown in Figure 4(a): the capillary regime where soils
252 remain saturated under negative pore water pressure, the funicular regime where the water phase
253 is continuous, and the residual regime where the water phase is discontinuous. The best-fit values
254 of the parameters a_{vG} and N_{vG} for the drying path were used to define the SSCC, which is plotted
255 in terms of both degree of saturation and matric suction in Figure 5. As N_{vG} is slightly larger than
256 2.0, the SSCC will not increase monotonically with suction (Lu et al. 2010) but will show an
257 increasing-decreasing trend with increasing suction. The SSCC increases with suction (or
258 decreasing degree of saturation) up to approximately 1.15 kPa before decreasing back to zero at
259 higher suctions.

260 **Specimen Preparation**

261 The bottom platen of the specimen housing was first fastened on the simple shear device using
262 the T-clamps, and T5 tensiometer was inserted through the porous glass disk and sealed into place.
263 Several pore volumes of de-aired pore water were passed upward through the fritted glass disk, a
264 procedure that was found to avoid cavitation under the range of suctions evaluated in this study.
265 A wire-reinforced rubber membrane was installed and fastened to the bottom platen using a pair
266 of “O”-rings. The dry pluviation method was used to place pre-weighed sand into the space within
267 the membrane through a funnel with a low drop height to reach the target relative density of 0.45.
268 The water level in the sand was then slowly raised until de-aired water was observed to leave the
269 top of the specimen. At least 10 pore volumes of water were flushed upward through the specimen.

270 The top cap was then placed atop the sand specimen and the membrane was fastened to the top
271 platen with a pair of “O”-rings. A vertical stress of 50 kPa was applied to the top of the specimen
272 using dead weights. This value is representative of a near-surface unsaturated backfill soil layer.

273 To prepare unsaturated specimens with different initial suctions, saturated specimens were then
274 desaturated to different target matric suctions using the hanging column. Water outflow was
275 monitored while monitoring the tensiometer reading to confirm the initial unsaturated states. The
276 different initial conditions of the specimens are shown in Figure 4(a) and marked as points A, B,
277 C, D, E, F. The matric suction values for sand in saturated and dry conditions are equal to zero and
278 infinity, respectively, and cannot be plotted on a logarithmic scale. However, for reference these
279 conditions are represented by points A and F, respectively. Based on the SWRC fit in Figure 4(a),
280 the dry specimen ($\theta_w = 0$) is assumed to have a matric suction of 100 kPa (residual saturation).
281 Once the reading of the tensiometer was constant and the water outflow did not change over an
282 interval of 30 minutes, the unsaturated specimen is assumed to be at hydraulic equilibrium. Before
283 starting the cyclic shearing test, the actual height of the specimen under the applied vertical stress
284 was measured so that the volumetric strain during cyclic shearing can be calculated.

285 **EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES AND TESTING PROGRAM**

286 As the cyclic shearing was performed in drained conditions, the valve on the hanging column
287 burette was kept open and suction was maintained constant while monitoring any outflow of water.
288 Cyclic shear strain amplitudes of 0.3, 1.0, 3.0, and 5.0% were applied in this study, with the goal
289 of applying sufficiently large values to result in measurable seismic compressions. The same
290 number of cycles $N = 200$ was applied for each cyclic shear strain amplitude. Representative cycles
291 of each strain level of the strain-controlled cyclic loading time histories are shown in Figure 6. A
292 shear strain rate of 0.833%/min was chosen to ensure drainage based on the matric suction

293 measurement in preliminary testing. It is expected that excess pore water pressure will be
294 generated, but the rate of dissipation should be similar to the rate of generation to be considered
295 drained. The initial specimen height h_0 , matric suction ψ_0 , degree of saturation S_0 , gravimetric
296 water content w_0 , volumetric water content θ_{w0} , applied cyclic shear strain γ_c and the gravimetric
297 water content w_f for each specimen after shearing are summarized in Table 2.

298 **EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS**

299 **Typical Time Histories during Cyclic Shearing**

300 During cyclic shearing, the shear stress required to apply the constant strain in each loading
301 cycle was directly measured using a load cell. As the wire-reinforced rubber membrane minimizes
302 radial expansion, the volumetric strain ε_v was assumed to be solely due to changes in height. These
303 changes in height were monitored using a Linear Variable Differential Transformer (LVDT).
304 Water outflow from the specimen due to volumetric contraction during cyclic shearing was
305 monitored using the Mariotte tube. Typical time histories for an unsaturated specimen having a
306 suction of 4 kPa during application of 200 cycles at a shear strain amplitude of 5% are shown in
307 Figure 7. As volumetric contraction occurs, the shear stress required to maintain this constant shear
308 strain amplitude gradually increases with cycles of shearing, shown in Figure 7(a). The matric
309 suction remained approximately constant during cyclic shearing, confirmed by the monitored pore
310 water pressure shown in Figure 7(c) and assuming $u_a=0$. Water was expelled from the specimen at
311 a faster rate at the beginning of cyclic shearing but gradually stabilized, as shown in Figure 7(d).

312 **ANALYSIS**

313 **Influence of Cyclic Shear Strain Amplitude on Volumetric Strain Accumulation**

314 Time histories of volumetric strains for specimens with various initial suctions when subjected
315 to different cyclic shear strains are shown in Figure 8, along with those for dry and saturated

316 conditions. In addition, the influence of cyclic shear strain amplitude on the volumetric strain after
317 $N = 200$ is shown in Figure 9. As expected, larger volumetric contractions occurred with larger
318 cyclic shear strain amplitudes. For the two lower cyclic shear strain amplitudes, the dry and
319 saturated specimens clearly showed greater amounts of volumetric contraction after 200 cycles.
320 This supports the observations from Le and Ghayoomi (2017) and the hypothesis that unsaturated
321 conditions provide more restraint to volumetric contraction during cyclic shearing. However, the
322 effect of unsaturated conditions on the evolution in volumetric strain is not clear for the two higher
323 cyclic shear strain amplitudes. Specifically, all the curves in Figure 8 were still decreasing after
324 200 cycles with different rates of decrease in volumetric strain. This is partially because the
325 unsaturated specimens showed an initial softer response but followed a trend that flattened out
326 after continued cycles of shearing, trending toward smaller volumetric strains. Because of the
327 different rates of decrease in volumetric strain, it may not be appropriate to make conclusions on
328 the effects of matric suction based on the volumetric strains after 200 cycles. Youd (1972) found
329 that potentially several hundreds to thousands of cycles may be needed to reach a stabilized
330 volumetric strain for a given cyclic shear strain amplitude. Accordingly, the rate of accumulation
331 of volumetric strain with cycles and an estimate of the volumetric strain after a large number of
332 cycles representing stabilized conditions will be investigated later in this paper to better interpret
333 the effects of matric suction on seismic compression in drained conditions. First, however, a deeper
334 investigation of the changes in hydro-mechanical behavior with cyclic shearing and the rate of
335 accumulation of volumetric strains with cycles of shearing is needed.

336 **Hydro-Mechanical Behavior during Cyclic Shearing**

337 Assuming soil particles are incompressible and that the volume of solids V_s is constant during
338 cyclic shearing, the changes in total volume V_t in Figure 8 should be equal to the changes in volume

339 of voids V_v , which can be expressed as the change in the volume of water V_w and the change in the
 340 volume of air V_a in the pores, as follows:

$$\Delta V_t = \varepsilon_v V_{t0} = \Delta V_v = \Delta V_w + \Delta V_a \quad (4)$$

341 where V_{t0} is the initial total volume of the specimen. Since water outflow from the specimen ΔV_w
 342 was collected and measured in the Mariotte tube, the volume of water in the specimen at any time
 343 during cyclic shearing can be calculated as follows:

$$V_w = V_{w0} - \Delta V_w \quad (5)$$

344 where V_{w0} is the initial volume of water in the specimen. Similarly, the volume of air in the
 345 specimen during cyclic shearing can be calculated as follows:

$$V_a = V_{a0} - \Delta V_a = V_{a0} - (\varepsilon_v V_{t0} - \Delta V_w) \quad (6)$$

346 where V_{a0} is the initial volume of air in the specimen. Using the calculated values of V_w and V_a ,
 347 the volumetric water content θ_w can be tracked during cyclic shearing as follows:

$$\theta_w = \frac{V_w}{V_s + V_w + V_a} \quad (7)$$

348 Similarly, the volumetric air content θ_a can be tracked during cyclic shearing as follows:

$$\theta_a = \frac{V_a}{V_s + V_w + V_a} \quad (8)$$

349 The variations in θ_w with number of cycles are shown in Figures 10(a) to 10(d) for different cyclic
 350 shear strain amplitudes. Although the volume of water in the pores and the total volume of the
 351 specimen decreased at the same time due to cyclic shearing at constant suction, a slight decrease
 352 in θ_w was observed under higher cyclic shear strain amplitudes of 3% and 5%. The variations in θ_a
 353 with number of cycles are shown in Figures 10(e) to 10(h) for different cyclic shear strain
 354 amplitudes. A clear reduction in θ_a occurs during the first hundred cycles of drained seismic
 355 compression with a decreasing rate with continued cycles of shearing. The changes in θ_w and θ_a
 356 may not follow the same trend as the volumetric strains in Figure 8 as the volumes of air and water
 357 are balanced by the reduction in total volume. The degree of saturation can be calculated as follows:

$$S = \frac{\theta_w}{n} = \frac{\theta_w}{V_v} V_t = \frac{V_w/V_t}{V_w + V_a} V_t = \frac{V_w}{V_w + V_a} \quad (9)$$

358 where n is the porosity. The variations in S calculated from Equation (9) with number of cycles
 359 are shown in Figures 10(i) to 10(l) for different cyclic shear strain amplitudes. A clear increase in
 360 S is observed at the beginning of cyclic shearing but it stabilized with continued cycles, especially
 361 for wetter specimens under larger strain amplitudes. Compared with the cyclic triaxial tests on
 362 unsaturated sand specimens at relatively higher degrees of saturation (i.e. Unno et al. 2008; Kimoto
 363 et al. 2011), the value of S never increased to the point that the soil specimens liquefied or became
 364 saturated for all of the initial unsaturated conditions evaluated in this study.

365 An interesting observation is that, because the suction is constant during drained cyclic
 366 shearing but S increases, the SWRC must be evolving as the soil densifies. As the SWRC can have
 367 a major effect on the effective stress calculated using Equation (3), it is relevant to track the
 368 evolution in the SWRC and the associated SSCC predicted from the SWRC. Although evidence
 369 of the variation in degree of saturation of unsaturated sand specimen during cyclic loading like
 370 that shown in Figure 10 is limited in the literature, the evolution of SWRC with volume change of
 371 clay in quasi-static loading condition has been investigated in several studies (e.g., Sun et al. 2007;
 372 Nuth and Laloui 2008). Although an increase in degree of saturation is often observed upon
 373 volumetric contraction at constant suction, some studies found that this may not always be the case
 374 (Geiser et al. 2006; Koliji et al. 2010). Pasha et al. (2019) proposed an effective stress-based model
 375 to describe the change in degree of saturation during volumetric contraction, that predicts an
 376 increase in degree of saturation if the effective stress parameter is taken equal to the degree of
 377 saturation and a constant degree of saturation if the incremental effective stress parameter is taken
 378 equal to the degree of saturation. Nonetheless, the degree of saturation in this study was found to
 379 consistently increase upon volumetric contraction during drained cyclic shearing under each cyclic

380 shear strain amplitude and the SWRCs shifted upward during cyclic shearing while the SSCCs
381 shifted to the right, as shown in Figure 11. As expected, the magnitude of this shift increases with
382 cyclic shear strain amplitude. Although the shifts in the SWRC seem small, the associated effect
383 on the SSCC can be significant. For example, the SSCCs in Figure 11 indicate that the suction
384 stress can increase by 50% after $N = 200$ for sand with a matric suction of 10 kPa under a cyclic
385 shear strain amplitude of 5%.

386 Volumetric strains at the end of shearing after $N = 200$ are shown in Figures 12(a) and 12(b)
387 in terms of the degree of saturation and the matric suction, respectively, for different cyclic shear
388 strain amplitudes. The SSCCs after $N = 200$ are also shown in Figure 12(b). Specimens with matric
389 suction of 10 kPa (corresponding to an initial degree of saturation of 0.12) showed the lowest
390 seismic compression potentially due to the greater interparticle contacts associated with the shape
391 of the SSCC. This agrees well with the results of the cyclic simple shear tests presented by Le and
392 Ghayoomi (2017). In the funicular regime [defined in Fig. 4(a)], volumetric strains after $N = 200$
393 decreased with increasing suction, except for the experiments with the matric suction of 2 kPa.
394 This might be due to the negligible change of the suction stress at this lower suction value.
395 However, it may also be related to the shape of the volumetric strain versus number of cycles for
396 different suction values.

397 **Estimates of Stabilized Volumetric Strain**

398 In all drained cyclic shearing experiments, the volumetric strain did not stabilize after $N = 200$
399 cycles, although the curves in Figure 8 indicate that the rate of decrease in the volumetric strain
400 with cycles may be dependent on the initial conditions. To consider the effects of the initial
401 conditions on the evolution in volumetric strain with cycles of shear strain, the hyperbolic model
402 of Chong and Santamarina (2016) was used to extrapolate the evolution in volumetric strains to a

403 common reference point that can be assumed to represent stabilized conditions. Their model was
 404 selected because the curves of volumetric strain versus number of cycles do not appear to tend
 405 toward asymptotic values with increasing cycles. The hyperbolic model of Chong and Santamarina
 406 (2016) is given as follows:

$$\varepsilon_{v,N} = \varepsilon_{v,1} + b \frac{N^c - 1}{N^c + b} \quad (10)$$

407 where $\varepsilon_{v,N}$ is the accumulated volumetric strain after the N^{th} cycle, $\varepsilon_{v,1}$ is the volumetric strain after
 408 the first cycle, and b and c are fitting parameters that influence the stabilized volumetric strain and
 409 the initial rate of the volumetric strain development, respectively. Based on the properties of a
 410 hyperbola, the theoretical “final” or “stabilized” volumetric strain ε_f can be estimated as follows:

$$\varepsilon_f = b + \varepsilon_{v,1} \quad (11)$$

411 It should be noted that the value of ε_f will not be reached until an infinite number of cycles,
 412 implying that it is not a practical value of volumetric strain that should be used in design. However,
 413 it is a useful reference value of volumetric strain for interpreting the effects of matric suction on
 414 drained seismic compression.

415 A least-squares regression analysis was used to fit Equation (10) to the median of the
 416 volumetric strain data in Figure 8 over the 200 cycles of applied shear strain. The fitting parameters
 417 b and c obtained for each test at cyclic shear strain amplitudes of 1, 3, and 5% are plotted against
 418 matric suction in Figure 13 along with vertical dashed lines delineating the different SWRC
 419 regimes. Since no tests were performed in the pendular regime, trends are only shown for the
 420 saturated capillary regime and the funicular regime having continuous water phase. Different from
 421 the trends between matric suction and the volumetric strain after $N = 200$ shown in Figure 11, a
 422 clear decreasing trend in b with increasing matric suction is observed in the funicular regime.

423 Based on the trends, a relationship between the fitting parameter b and the matric suction is
424 proposed as follows:

$$b = \begin{cases} \text{constant,} & \psi \leq \psi_{\text{aes}} \\ -M \log(\psi) + K, & \psi_{\text{aes}} < \psi \leq \psi_t \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

425 where M is the slope of parameter b in the funicular regime, which is influenced by the strain
426 amplitude that unsaturated sands will experience during cyclic shearing, and K is a material-
427 specific constant. The parameter c controls the initial rate of convergence to the stabilized state
428 during cyclic shearing, in the funicular regime might be due to the combination effect of the
429 effective stress state and the water phase within the unsaturated specimen. The dependence of
430 slope M on the cyclic shear strain level is shown in Figure 14 for the well-graded sand tested in
431 this study, showing a clear linearly increasing trend for the three larger cyclic shear strain
432 amplitudes.

433 To validate the hyperbolic model and the calibrated parameters, a drained simple shear test
434 was performed on an unsaturated sand specimen with an initial suction of 10 kPa under a cyclic
435 shear strain amplitude of 3% up to $N = 1000$ cycles. The results from this test are shown in
436 Figure 15 along with the model prediction using the parameters b and c obtained for this suction
437 value and cyclic shear strain amplitude from the dashed-line relationships in Figure 13. A good
438 match is obtained between the measured and predicted curves confirming that the hyperbolic
439 model is capturing the volumetric strain evolution well. The final volumetric strain of 8.2%
440 estimated from Equation (11) for this specimen is also shown in this figure.

441 Estimated curves of the stabilized or final volumetric strain for the sand in the capillary and
442 funicular regimes are shown in Figure 16 for different cyclic shear strain amplitudes. As a
443 reference, the maximum volumetric strain ε_{max} obtained from the difference between the initial
444 void ratio and the minimum void ratio determined using vibration methods like those used in

445 ASTM D4253 (ASTM 2016) is shown in this figure. For the hyperbolic model curves fitted to the
446 data in Figure 8, the values of ε_f obtained from Equation (11) in Figure 15 were consistently smaller
447 than the value of ε_{max} , although they are approaching this value for the large cyclic shear strain
448 amplitude of 5%. Although the minimum void ratio is assumed to be a constant value for a given
449 soil that does not depend on the degree of saturation (in the absence of particle breakage), Youd
450 (1972) measured lower void ratios when using cyclic simple shear testing than when using
451 vibration methods conventionally used to obtain the minimum void ratio.

452 The trend in stabilized volumetric strains in Figure 16 follows the trend of the fitting parameter
453 b observed in Figure 13(a). In the capillary regime, the stabilized volumetric strain is not expected
454 to change significantly with increasing matric suction. In the funicular regime, a log-linear
455 decrease in stabilized volumetric strain is observed with increasing matric suction. Although the
456 sand specimens in the funicular regime have a greater initial volumetric air content than in the
457 capillary regime, the results indicate that the matric suction provides more resistance to volumetric
458 contraction during cyclic shearing. The trend in stabilized volumetric strain with matric suction in
459 the funicular regime was likely affected by the evolution in the SSCC with cyclic shearing. The
460 upward shift in the SSCC with cyclic shearing was the greatest in the funicular regime, leading to
461 greater resistance to particle rearrangement. In dry conditions, the stabilized volumetric strain is
462 similar to that in the capillary regime. Although data is not available in the pendular regime, the
463 effect of matric suction observed in the funicular regime is expected to decay with increasing
464 matric suction due to the greater air content and discontinuous water phase.

465 **CONCLUSIONS**

466 A new cyclic simple shear apparatus was designed involving the suction-saturation control by
467 the hanging column to investigate the effect of matric suction and degree of saturation on the

468 seismic compression of unsaturated sands in drained conditions (constant suction). To uniformly
469 interpret the effects of matric suction and other hydromechanical parameters on the drained seismic
470 compression, a hyperbolic model was fitted to the median of the volumetric strain curves as a
471 function of number of cycles to estimate the stabilized volumetric strain. The parameters of the
472 hyperbolic model were found to follow two segmental piecewise linear functions with matric
473 suction, and the calibrated model was validated through comparison with an independent cyclic
474 simple shear experiment. The main findings of this study are summarized as follows:

- 475 ▪ In the capillary regime, the stabilized volumetric strain was not sensitive to the matric suction.
476 In the funicular regime, the stabilized volumetric strain was observed to have a log-linear
477 relationship with matric suction. Sands in dry conditions were observed to have similar
478 stabilized volumetric strains to those in the capillary regime. Regardless of the matric suction,
479 larger cyclic shear strain amplitudes led to greater seismic compression.
- 480 ▪ Although the volume of water expelled from the sand specimens increased with cycles of
481 shearing, the rate of changes in volumetric water content and volumetric air content slowed
482 with continued cycles. The degree of saturation was observed to increase under different cyclic
483 shear strain amplitudes, primarily due to the decreased volumetric air content as water was
484 expelled.
- 485 ▪ The volumetric strains were found to lead to a shift in the SWRC to higher degrees of saturation
486 during drained (constant suction) cyclic shearing, primarily in the funicular regime. This led
487 to a corresponding shift in the SSCC, resulting in a greater effective stress for the same matric
488 suction and enhancing the resistance of unsaturated specimens in the funicular regime to
489 seismic compression during cyclic shearing.

490 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

491 All data, models, and code generated or used during the study appear in the submitted article.

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591 **LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES**

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624 **TABLE 1:** Hydraulic properties of unsaturated well-graded sand at a relative density of 0.45

Parameter	Value
van Genuchten parameter, α_{vG} (kPa^{-1})	0.70
van Genuchten parameter, N_{vG}	2.10
Hydraulic conductivity of saturated soil, k_{sat} (m/s)	1.5×10^{-7}
Drying path saturated volumetric water content, $\theta_{s,drying}$	0.38
Wetting path saturated volumetric water content, $\theta_{s,wetting}$	0.20
Residual volumetric water content, θ_r	0.00

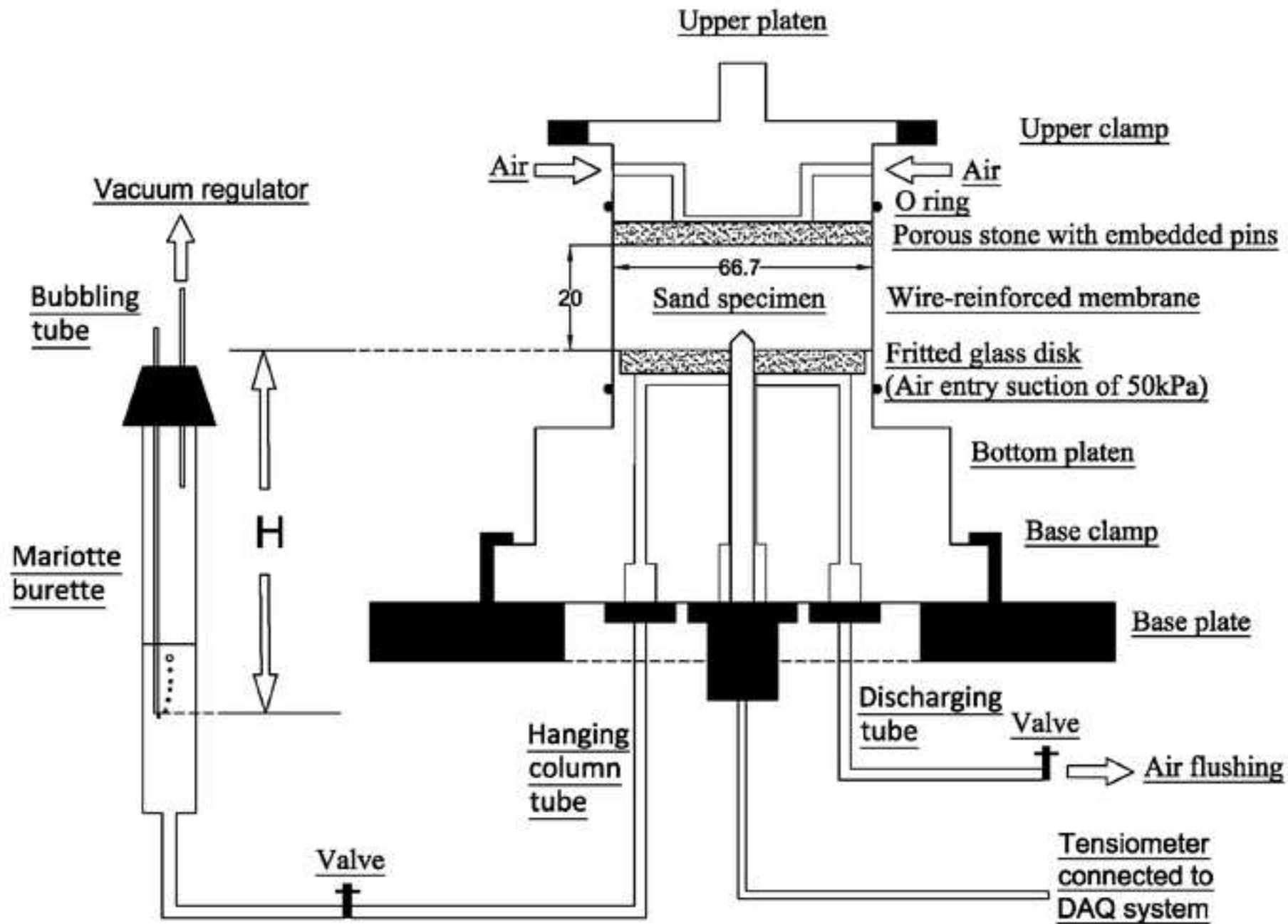
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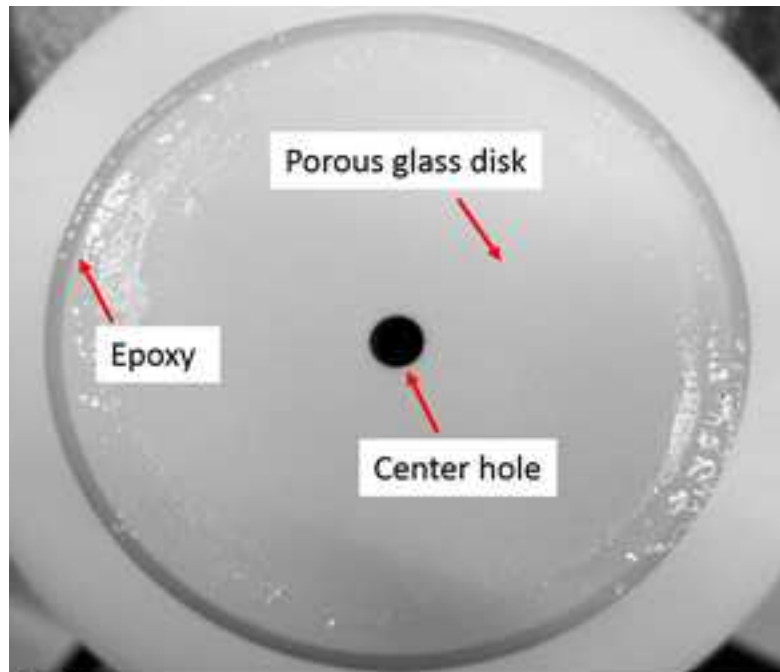
626 **TABLE 2:** Test program on the well-graded sand at an initial relative density of 0.45

Specimen No.	Initial height, h_0 (mm)	Initial matric suction, ψ_0 (kPa)	Initial degree of saturation, S_{r0} (m^3/m^3)	Initial gravimetric water content, w_0 (kg/kg)	Initial volumetric water content, θ_{w0} (m^3/m^3)	Final gravimetric water content, w_f (kg/kg)	Cyclic shear strain amplitude, γ_c (%)
A-1	19.85	0.01	1.00	0.245	0.390	0.243	0.3
A-2	19.72	0.02	1.00	0.245	0.390	0.232	1
A-3	19.98	0.01	1.00	0.245	0.390	0.210	3
A-4	19.56	0.03	1.00	0.245	0.390	0.193	5
B-1	19.46	1.98	0.56	0.138	0.220	0.136	0.3
B-2	19.39	1.96	0.57	0.139	0.222	0.133	1
B-3	19.74	2.04	0.55	0.135	0.215	0.123	3
B-4	19.62	1.99	0.56	0.138	0.219	0.117	5
C-1	19.48	3.92	0.31	0.076	0.121	0.074	0.3
C-2	19.76	3.87	0.31	0.077	0.123	0.070	1
C-3	19.56	3.96	0.31	0.075	0.120	0.064	3
C-4	19.47	4.02	0.30	0.074	0.118	0.059	5
D-1	19.68	6.03	0.20	0.049	0.078	0.048	0.3
D-2	19.78	5.93	0.20	0.050	0.079	0.049	1
D-3	19.52	5.95	0.20	0.050	0.079	0.046	3
D-4	18.86	5.88	0.21	0.050	0.080	0.043	5
E-1	19.76	10.12	0.12	0.028	0.045	0.028	0.3
E-2	19.86	10.15	0.11	0.028	0.045	0.028	1
E-3	19.92	10.03	0.12	0.028	0.045	0.027	3
E-4	19.47	9.94	0.12	0.029	0.046	0.024	5
F-1	19.56	-	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.3
F-2	19.78	-	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.000	1
F-3	20.06	-	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.000	3
F-4	19.76	-	0.00	0.000	0.000	0.000	5

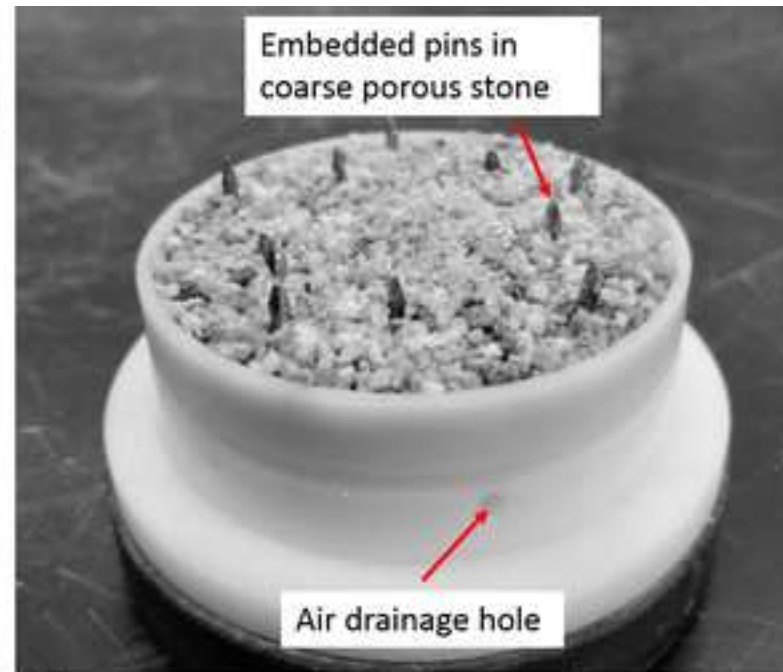
Strain rate for all tests: 0.833 %/min

627

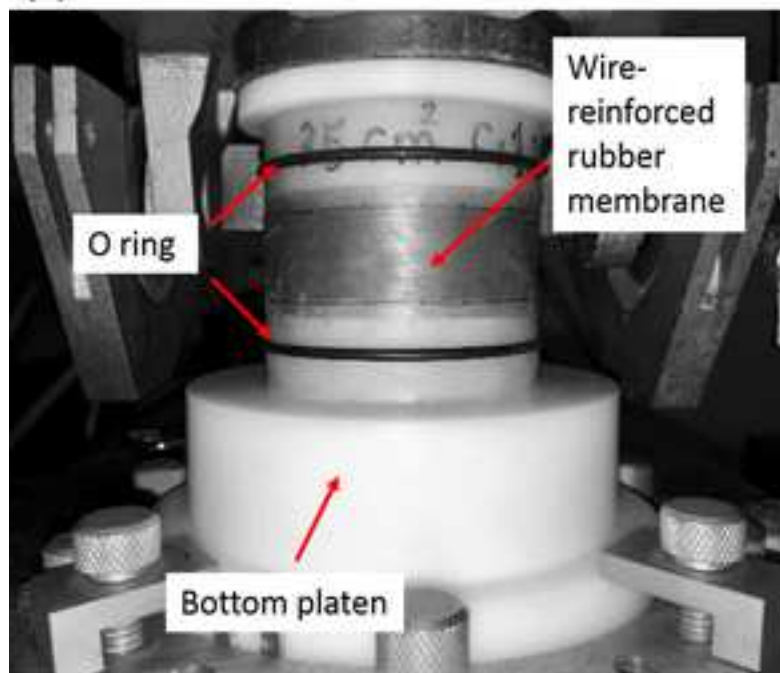




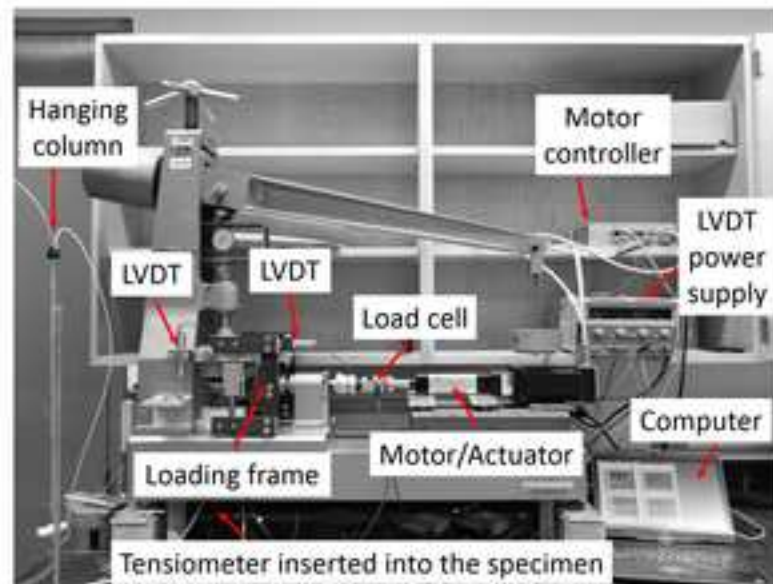
(a)



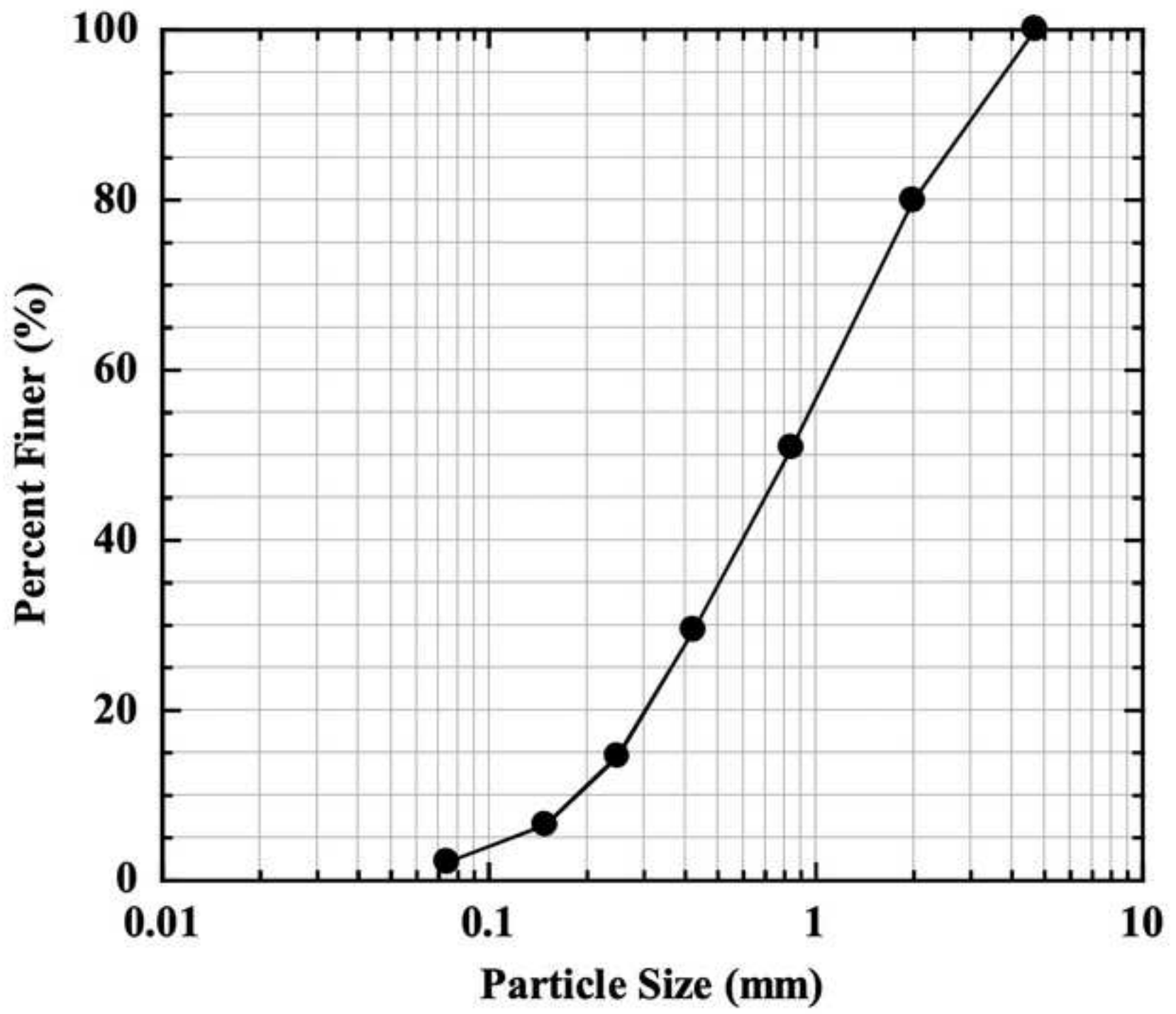
(b)

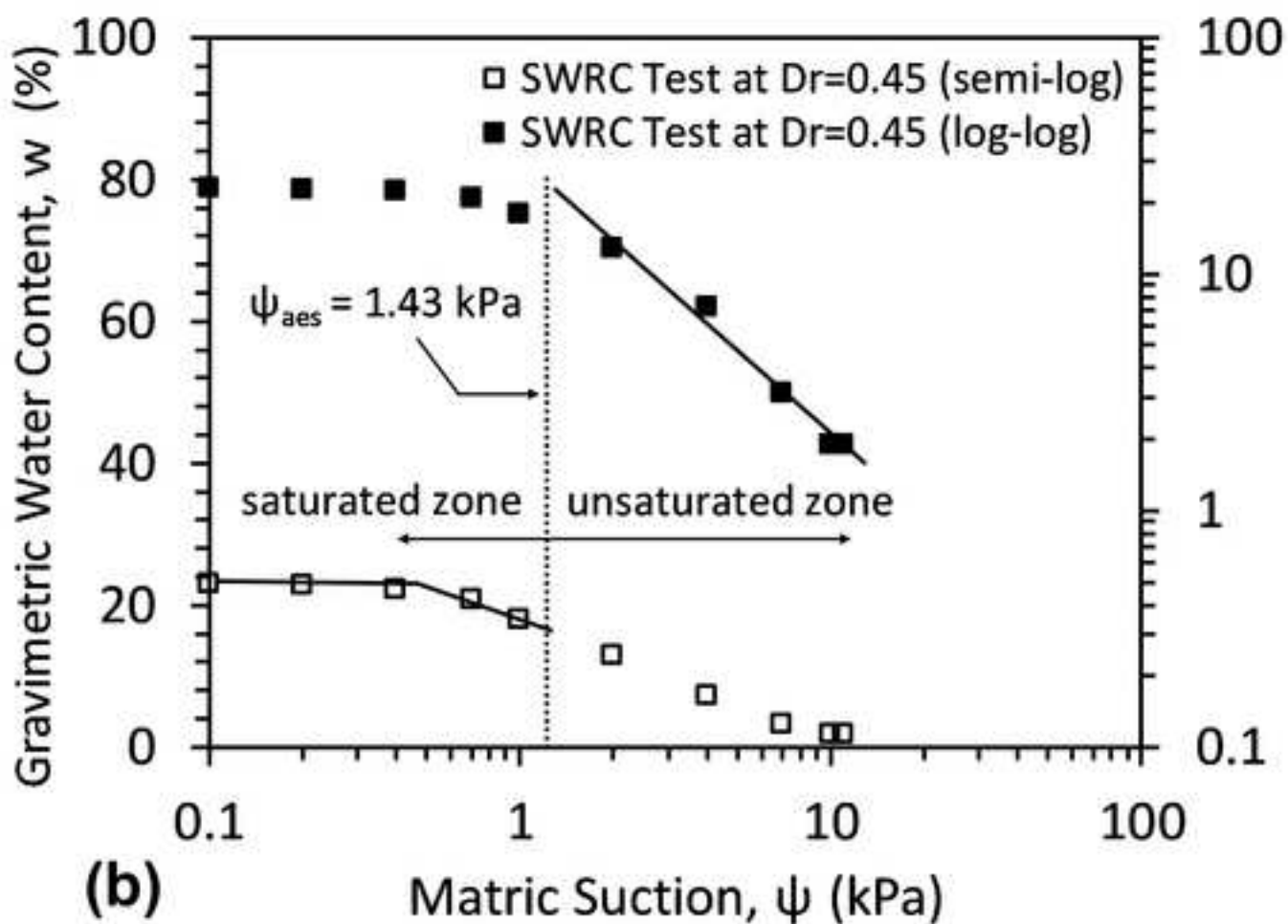
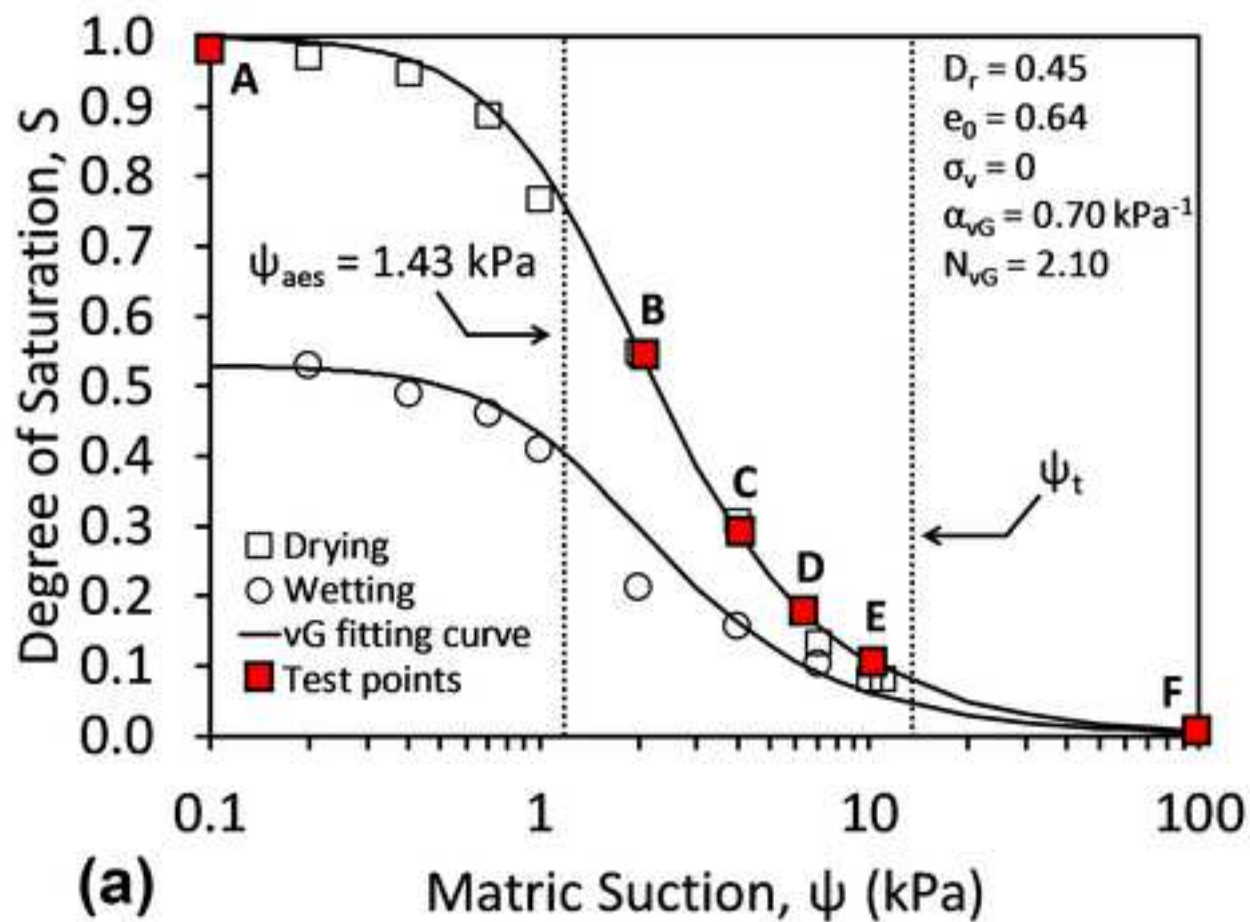


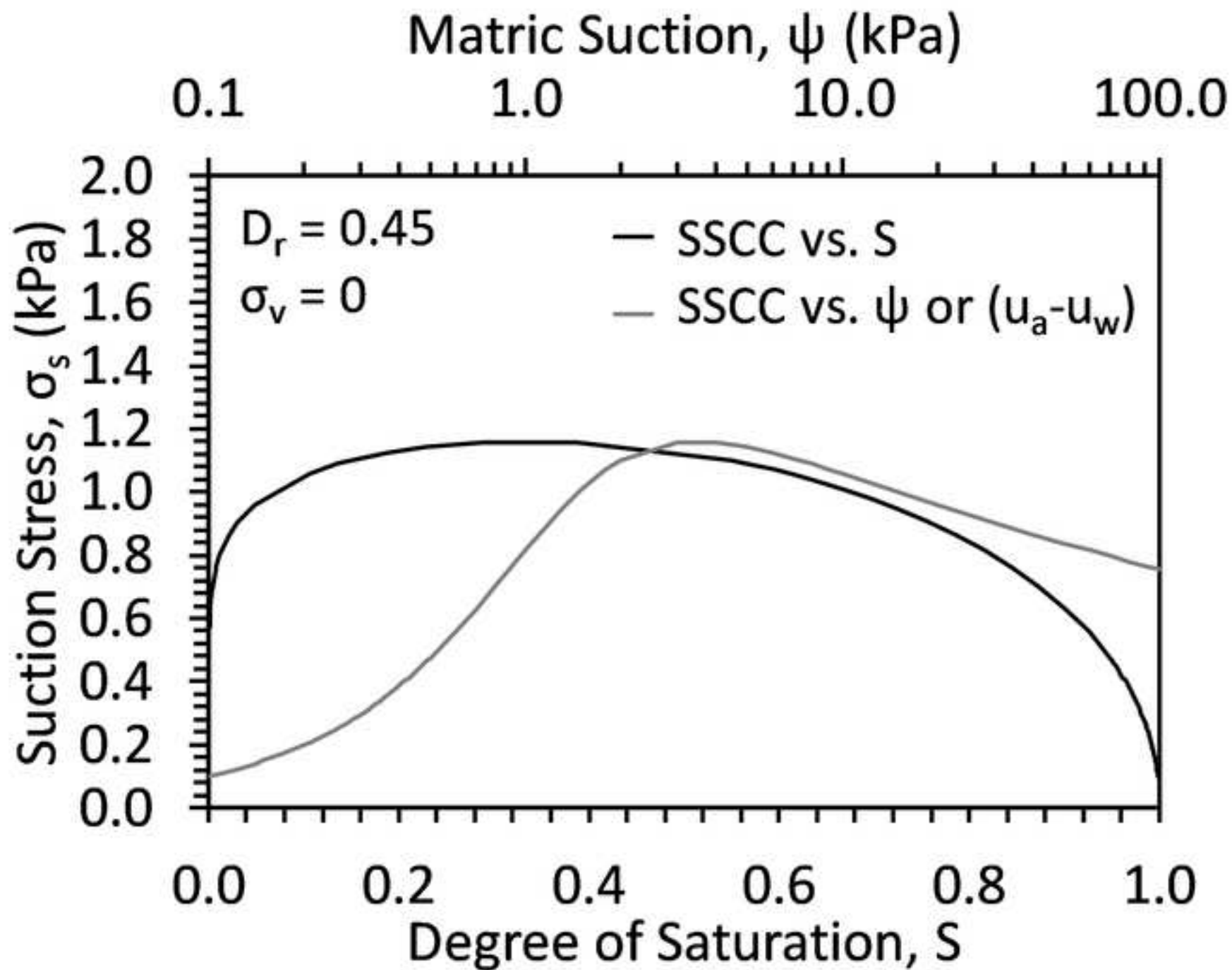
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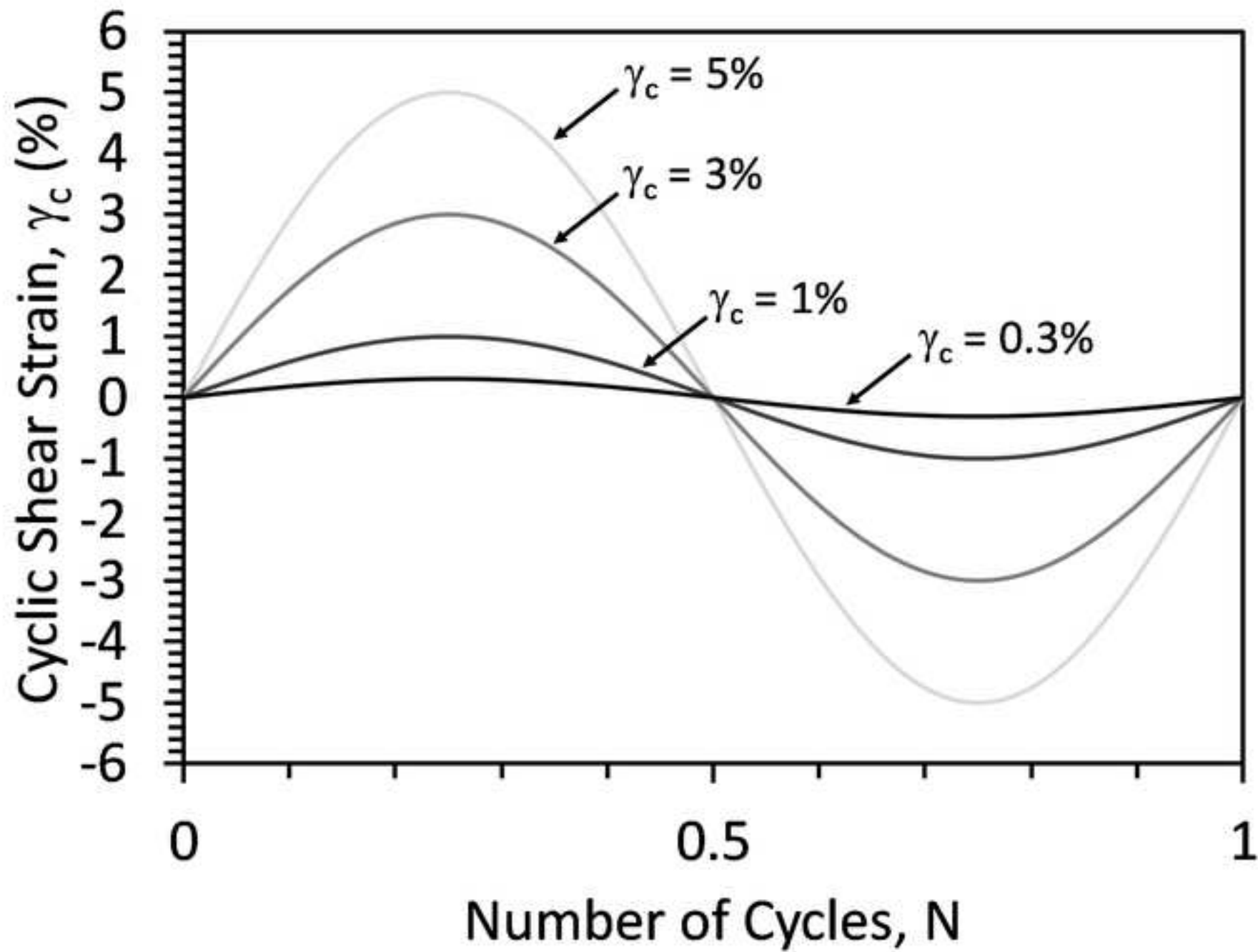


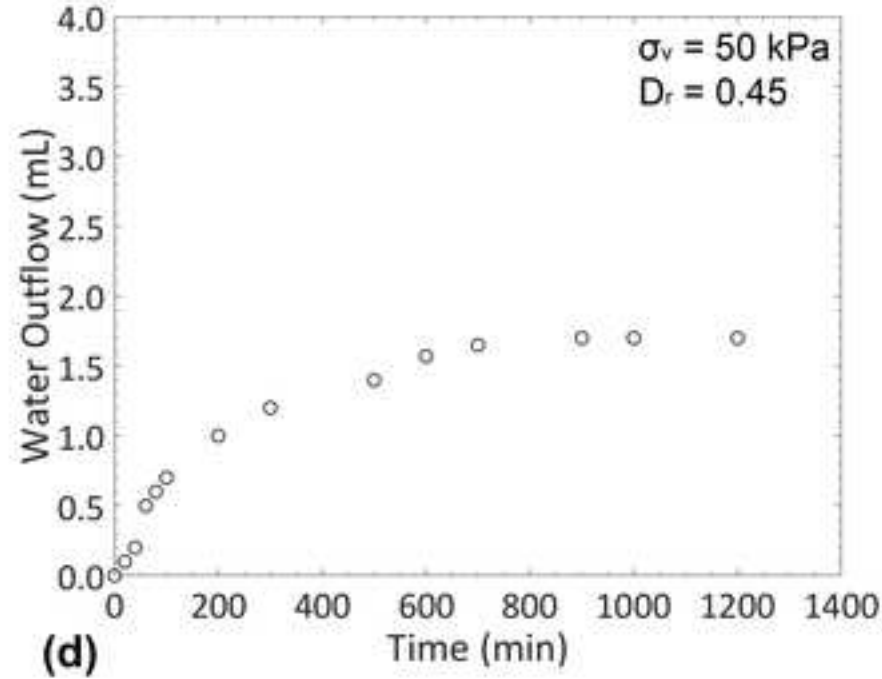
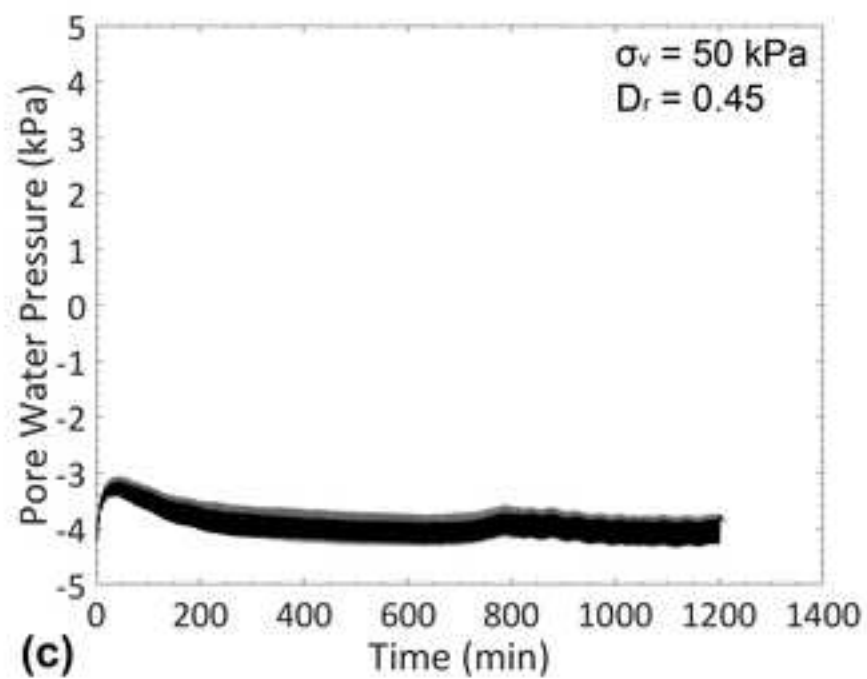
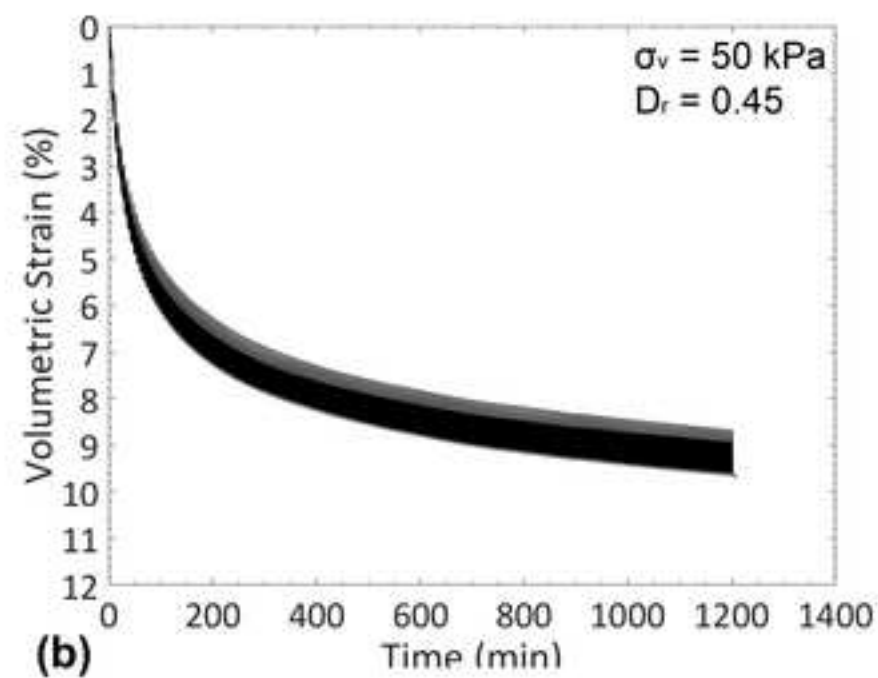
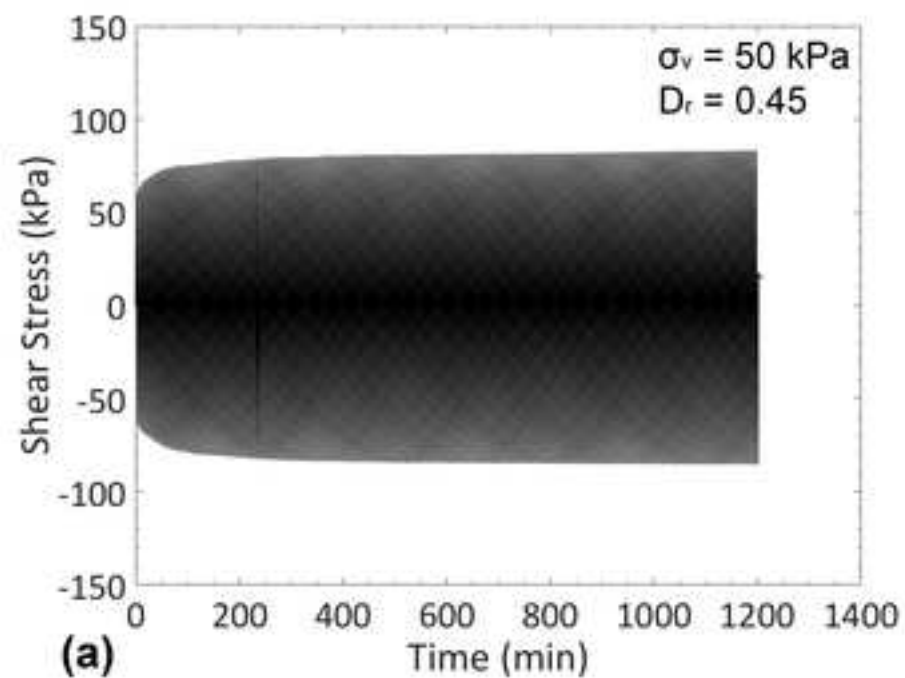
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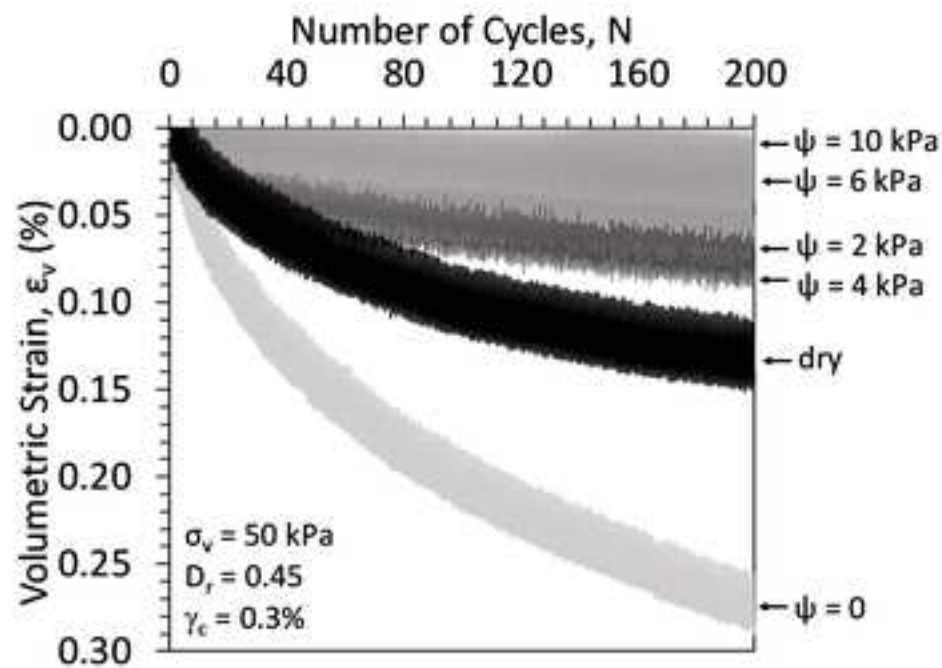




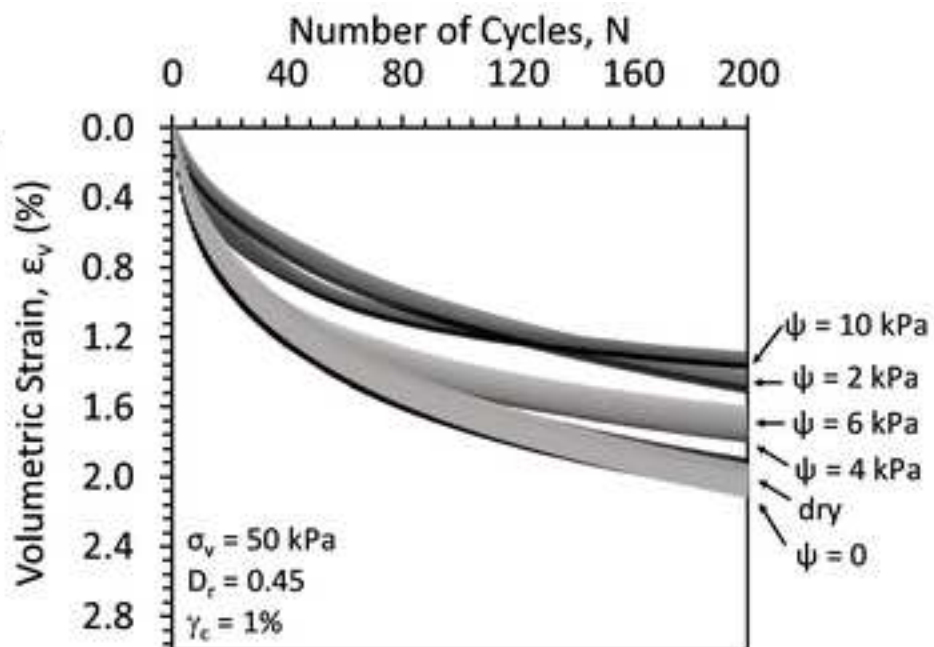




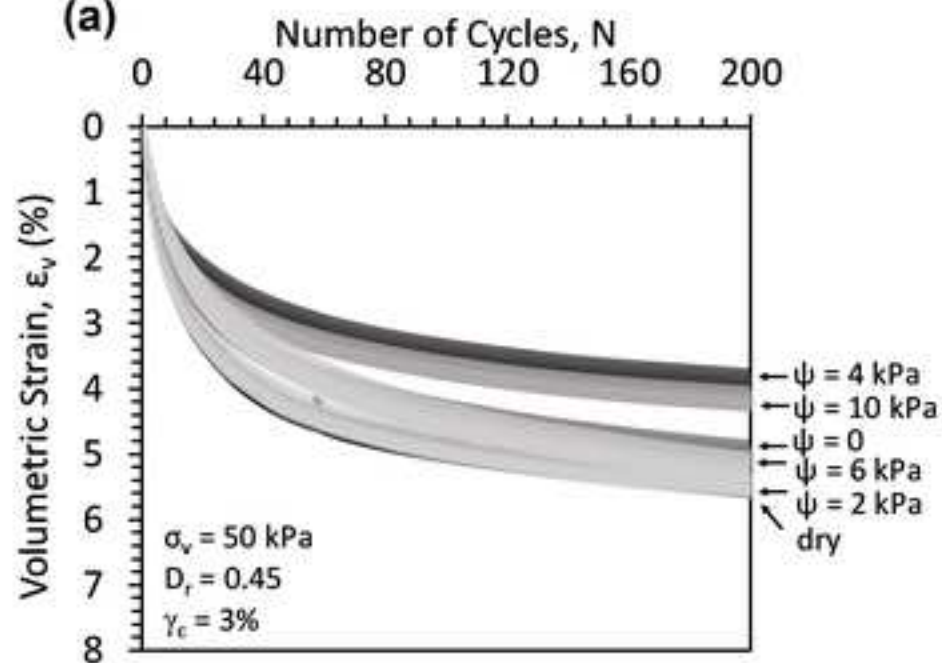




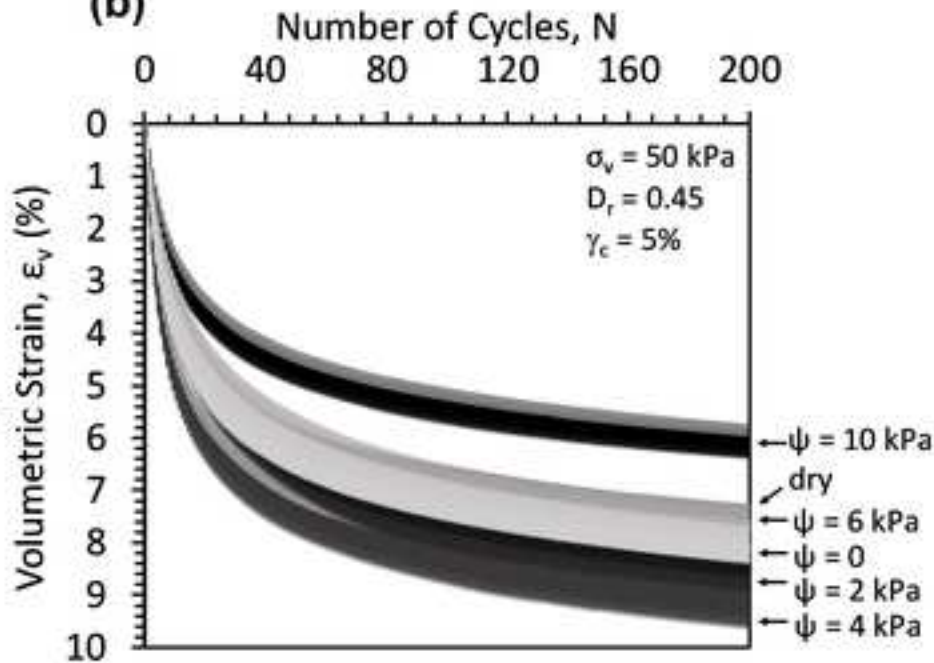
(a)



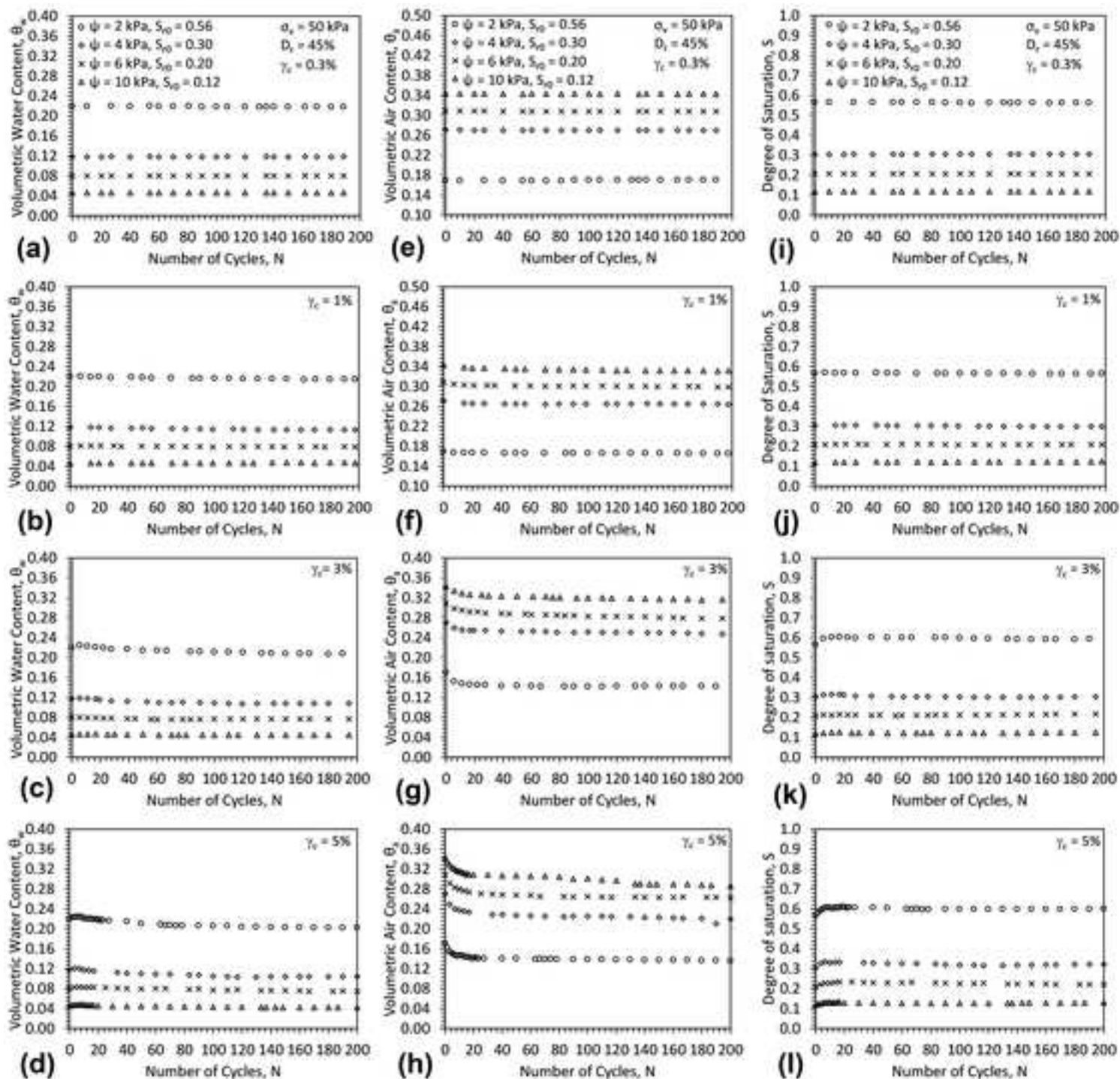
(b)

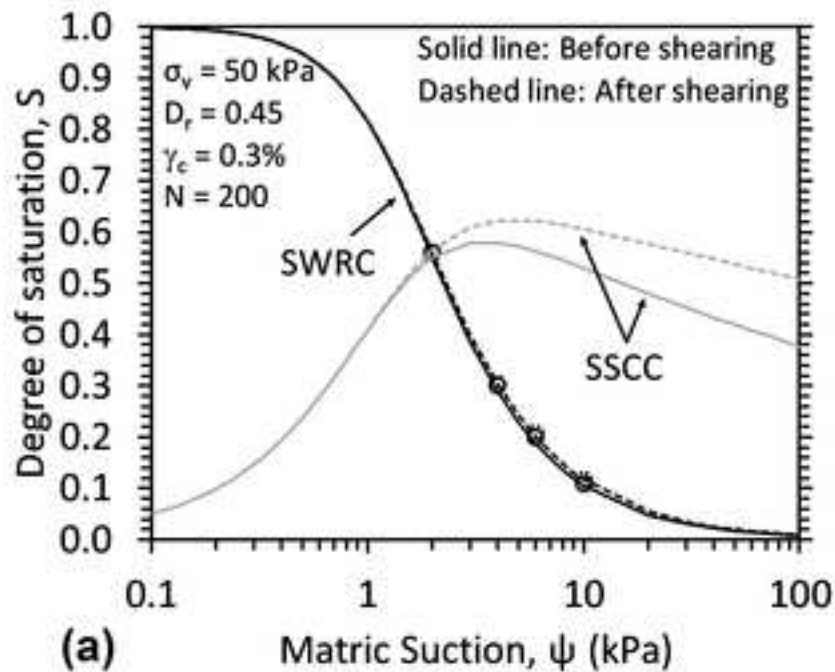


(c)

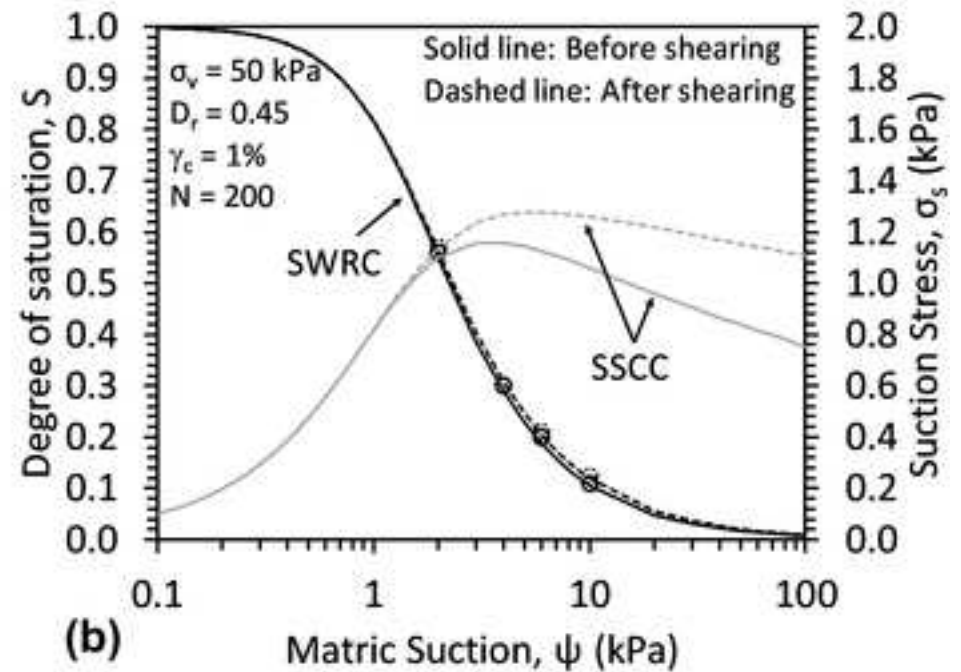


(d)

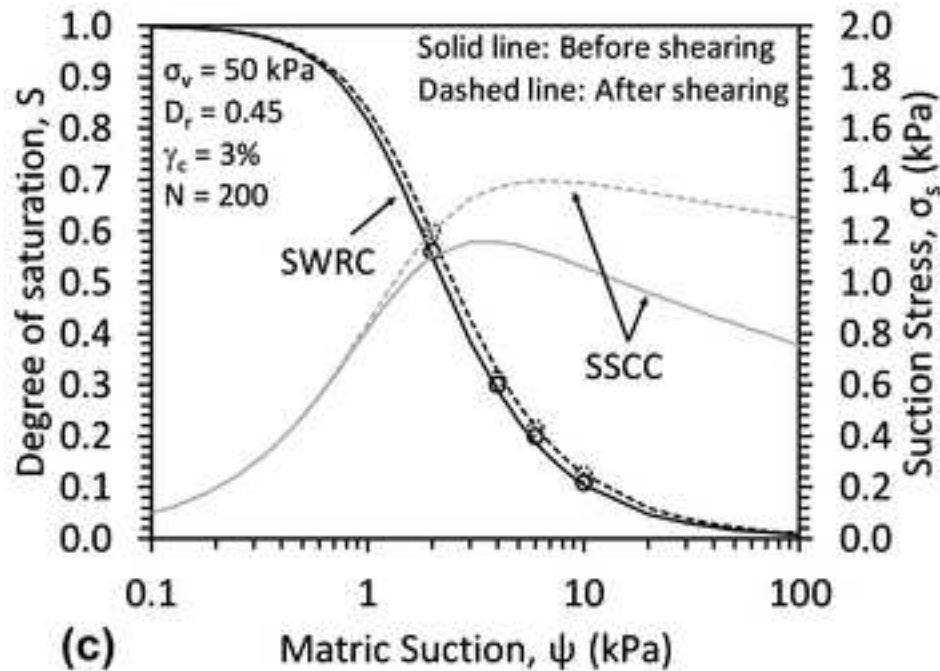




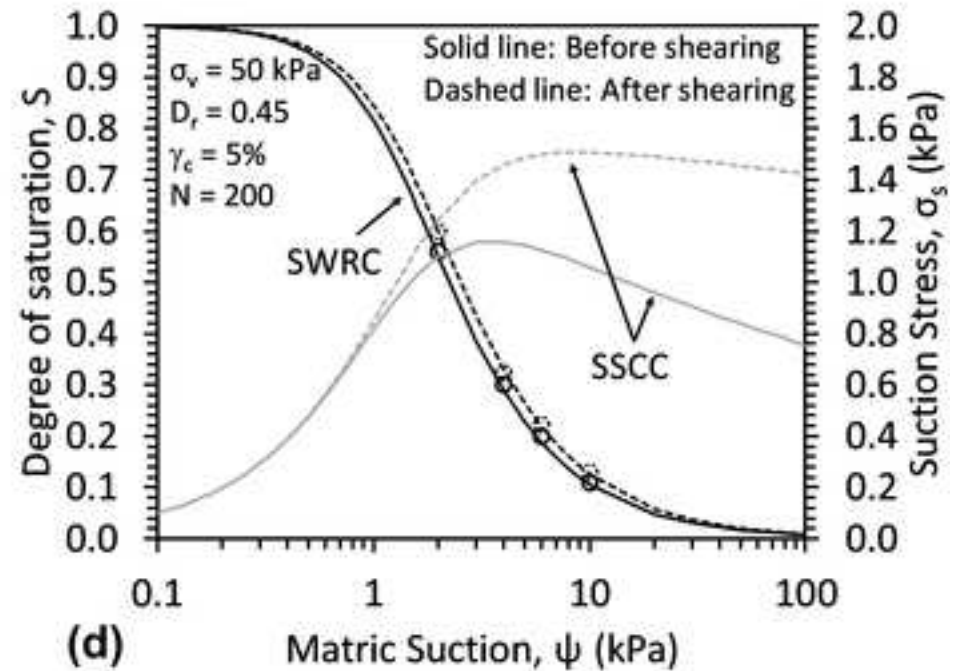
(a)



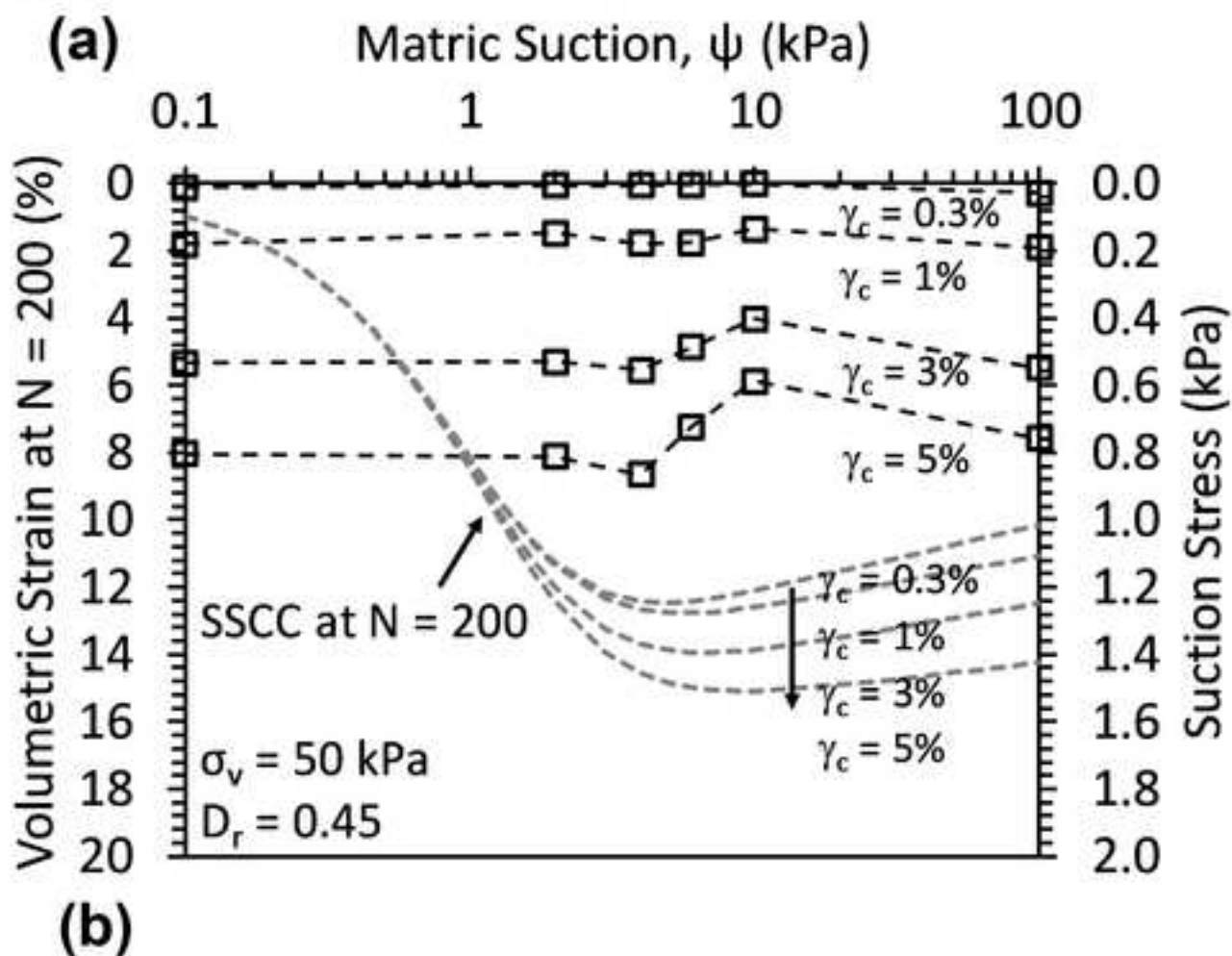
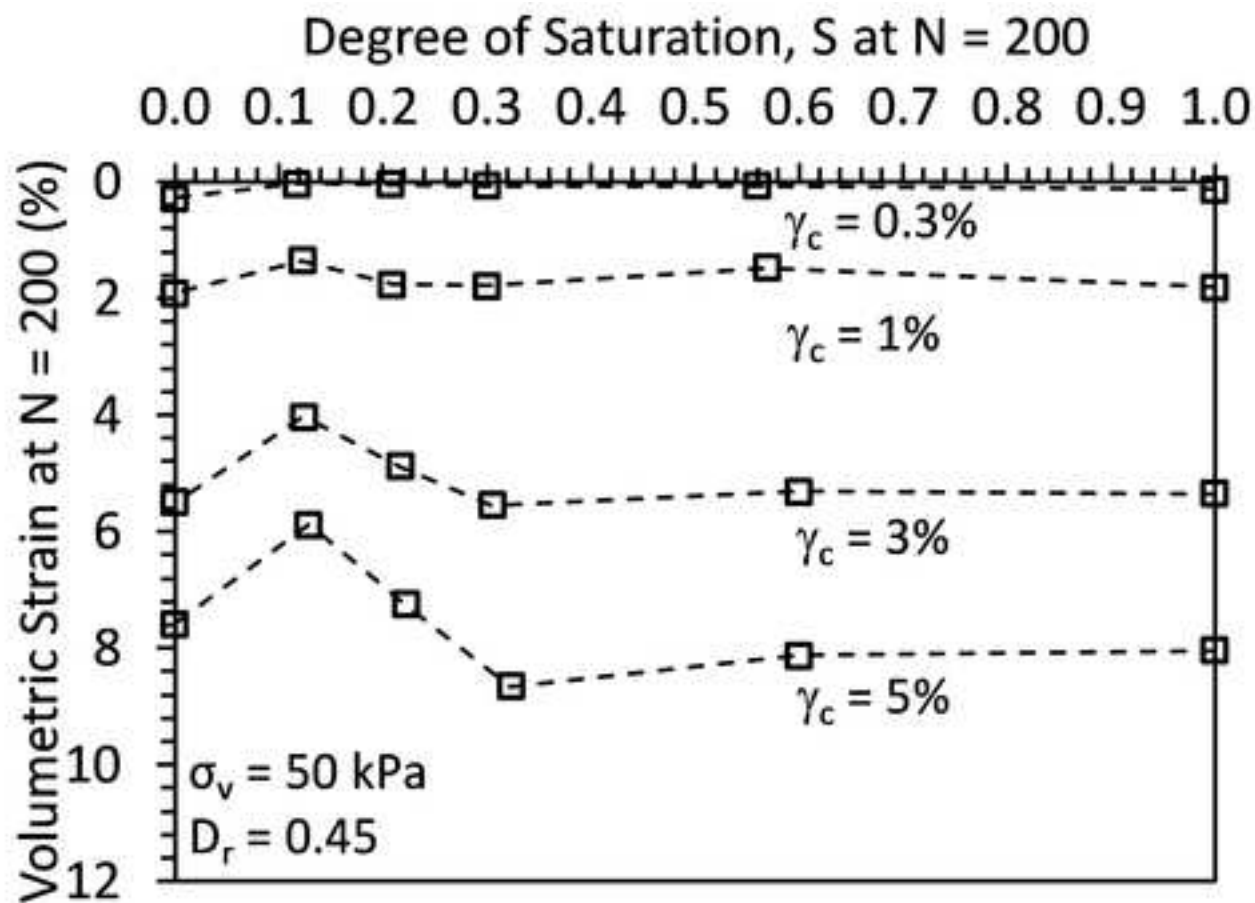
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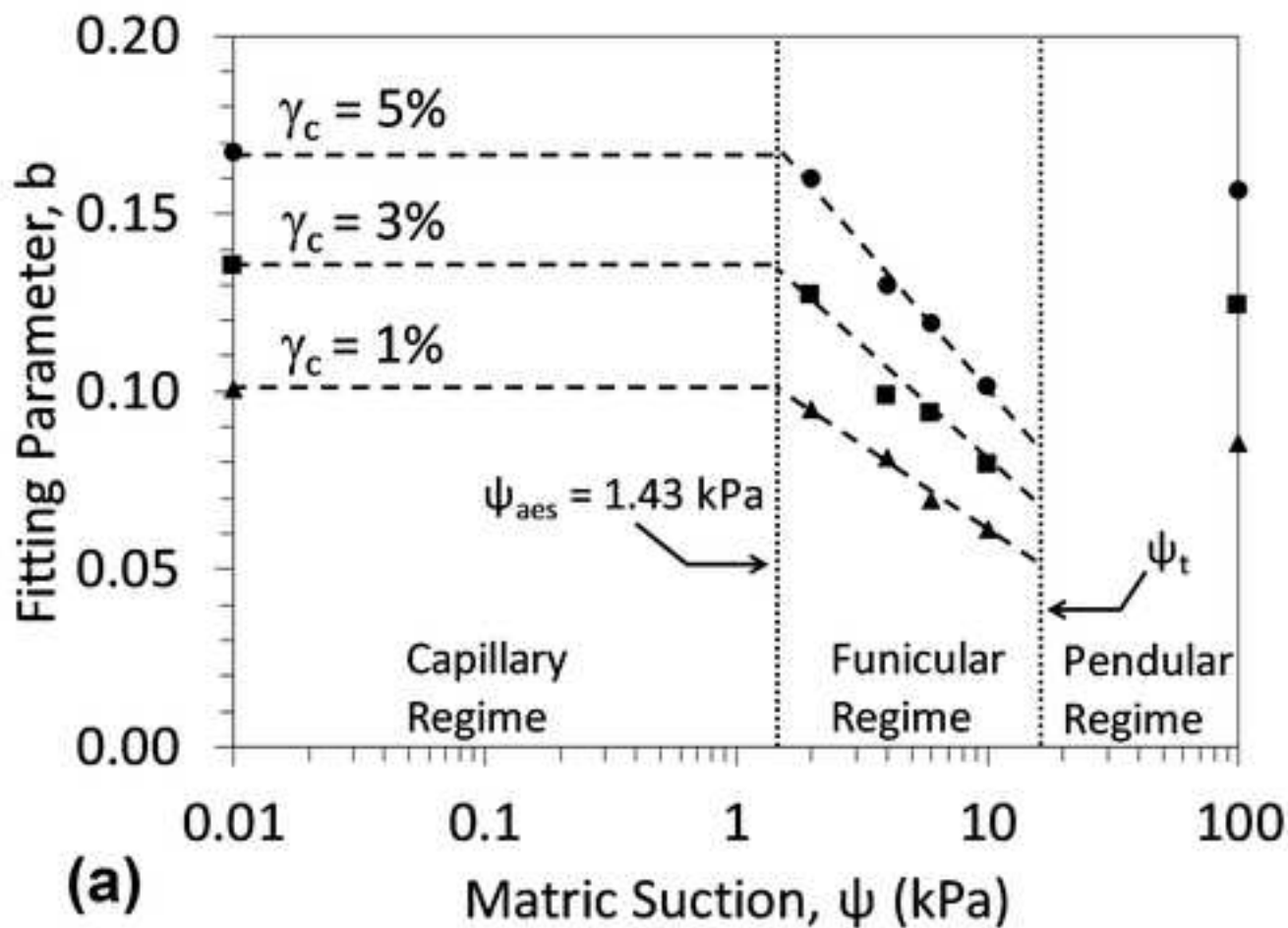


(c)

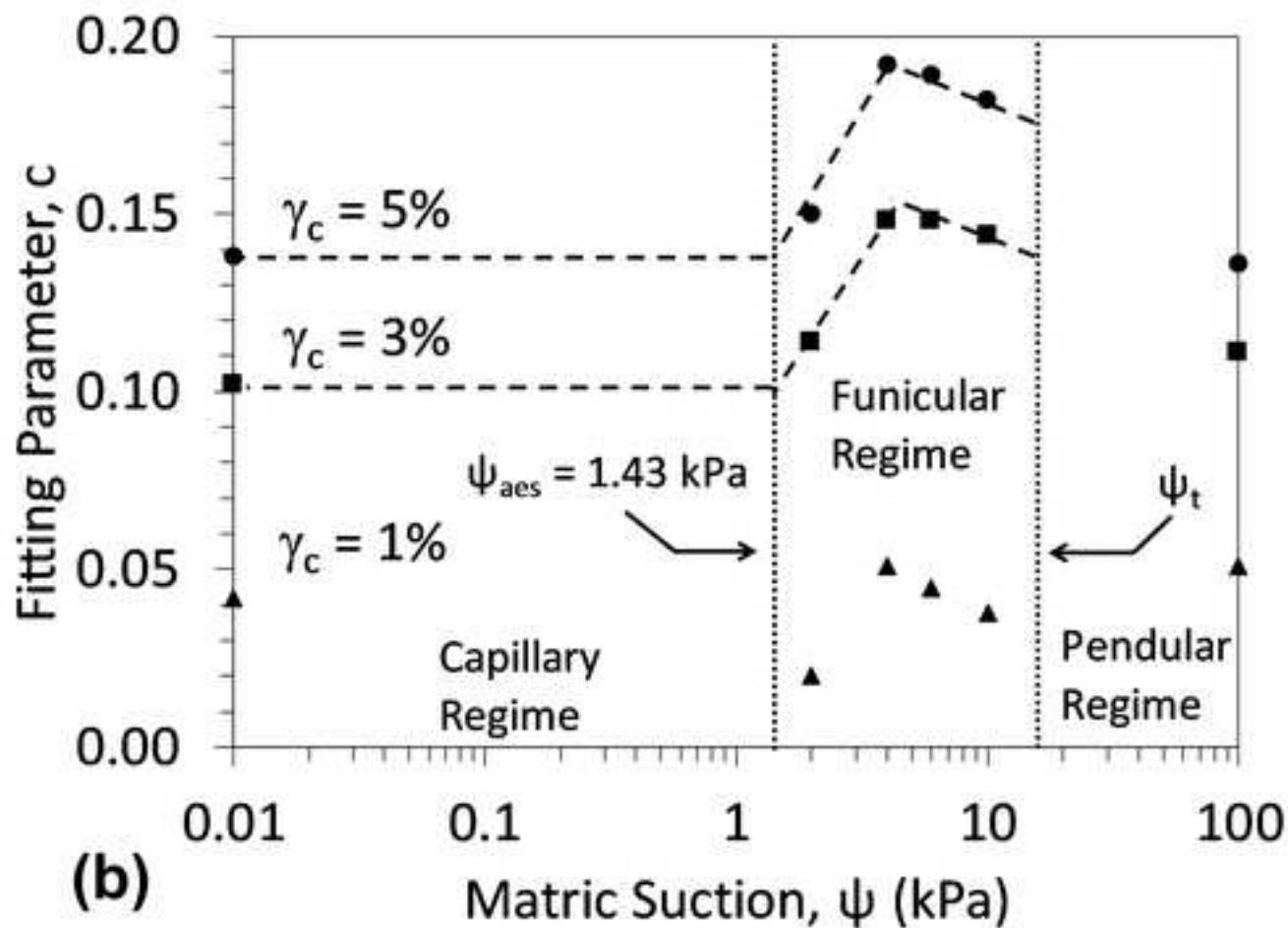


(d)





(a)



(b)

