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A closed-form solution for column-supported embankments with geosynthetic reinforcement

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28 **A closed-form solution for column-supported embankments with geosynthetic**
29 **reinforcement**

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31

32 **Abstract**

33 Soil arching effect results from the non-uniform stiffness in a geosynthetic-reinforced and
34 column-supported embankment system. However, most theoretical models ignore the impact
35 of modulus difference on the calculation of load transfer. In this study, a generalized
36 mathematical model is presented to investigate the soil arching effect, with consideration
37 given to the modulus ratio between columns and the surrounding soil. For simplification, a
38 cylindrical unit cell is drawn to study the deformation compatibility among embankment fills,
39 geosynthetics, columns, and subsoils. A deformed shape function is introduced to describe
40 the relationship between the column and the adjacent soil. The measured data gained from a
41 full-scale test are applied to demonstrate the application of this model. In the parametric
42 study, certain influencing factors, such as column spacing, column length, embankment
43 height, modulus ratio, and tensile strength of geosynthetic reinforcement, are analyzed to
44 investigate the performance of the embankment system. This demonstrates that the inclusion
45 of a geosynthetic reinforcement or enlargement of the modulus ratio can increase the load
46 transfer efficiency. When enhancing the embankment height or applying an additional
47 loading, the height of the load transfer platform tends to be reduced. However, a relatively
48 long column has little impact on the load transfer platform.

49

50 **Keywords:** Geosynthetics; column-supported embankment; soil arching; modulus ratio;
51 stress ratio; axisymmetric modelling.

52

53 **1. Introduction**

54 A column supported embankment (Ali et al., 2012; Okyay et al., 2014; Basack et al., 2015;
55 Bian et al., 2016; Liu and Rowe, 2016; Liyanapathirana and Ekanayake, 2016; Briançon and
56 Simon, 2017; Das and Deb, 2017a; Jelušič and Žlender, 2018) is commonly used when
57 freeways or railways pass through soft soil areas, or to support storage tanks and bridge
58 abutments (Naggar et al., 2015). This technique can reduce settlement (Tan et al., 2008;
59 Yapage and Liyanapathirana, 2014; Yapage et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2016a; Das and Deb,
60 2017b; King et al., 2017) and accelerate the construction process (Briançon and Simon, 2012;
61 Fagundes et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2017). However, the most significant drawback of this
62 approach is the possible localized differential settlement at the surface of the embankment,
63 caused by the difference between the modulus of the columns and that of the subsoil (Taha et
64 al., 2014; Tai et al., 2018). The latter tends to experience greater displacement than that of the
65 columns; the part of the embankment fill (*part B*) above the subsoil moves downward to
66 supplement this void. Meanwhile, this downward movement is resisted by the embankment
67 fill (*part A*) overlying the column. Load transfer occurs between *part A* and *part B* because of
68 the shear resistance, resulting in an increase in stress in *part A* above the column and a
69 decrease in stress in *part B* above the subsoil. This load transfer is also referred to as the soil
70 arching effect (Iglesia et al., 2014; Girout et al., 2016; Huckert et al., 2016; Rui et al., 2016;
71 Smith and Tatari, 2016; Villard et al., 2016; Ghazavi et al., 2018; Girout et al., 2018; King et
72 al., 2018; Pham et al., 2018). Usually, a load transfer platform is constructed above the top of
73 the columns to eliminate this differential settlement, and one or several layers of geosynthetic
74 reinforcements (Shukla and Chandra, 1994; Hinchberger and Rowe, 2003; Rowe and Li,
75 2005; Ariyaratne et al., 2013; Abu-Farsakh et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2016; Da Silva et al.,
76 2017; Feng et al., 2017a; Ghosh et al., 2017a, 2017b) are sandwiched therein to strengthen
77 the load transfer platform. Some researchers have applied fiber or tire mixtures to improve

78 the strength of this platform (Bordoloi et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015a, 2015b; Disfani et al.,
79 2017; Bordoloi et al., 2018; Indraratna et al., 2018). Because the shear resistance in the
80 embankment fill is significant in the soil arching effect, the grain size distribution should be
81 well designed to prevent erosion caused by water flow (Premkumar et al., 2016). Some
82 scholar (Bhasi and Rajagopal, 2015) have also considered the difference between the end-
83 bearing and floating columns and studied their influence on the soil arching effect. The end-
84 bearing columns may be of various types, such as concrete piles, semi-deep soil-mixing
85 columns, stone columns, and so on. For the rigid columns, such as concrete piles, only minor
86 compression occurs at the pile top under the load from the embankment fill and vehicles. Han
87 and Gabr (2002) applied the finite element method to investigate a pile-supported
88 embankment with geosynthetic reinforcement and introduced the concept of stress ratio to
89 evaluate the stress concentration. Liu et al. (2007), meanwhile, carried out a full-scale test on
90 the geosynthetic-reinforced and pile-supported embankment, monitoring the stresses and
91 settlements. Chen et al. (2008b) then proposed a theoretical model for the rigid piled
92 embankment. Finally, Van Eekelen et al. (2013) used the concentric arches theory to study
93 the soil arching effect. To obtain a conservative design, the support of subsoil is commonly
94 ignored in rigid piled embankments. However, for a semi-rigid column-supported
95 embankment, the semi-rigid column has a relatively large compressive deformation, which
96 results in a smaller deformation difference between the column and the subsoil. This releases
97 the stress concentration on the columns, and some of the load coming from the embankment
98 fill is supported by the surrounding soil. The direct use of the existing analytical methods for
99 rigid piles, to evaluate the semi-rigid column-supported embankments in real practice,
100 commonly produces a large column diameter with a relatively small column spacing, which
101 is not economically practicable. This issue has attracted the attention of many engineers and
102 researchers, and a handful of studies have been conducted to evaluate the geosynthetic-

103 reinforced and semi-rigid column-supported embankments. These vary from laboratory tests
104 (Chen et al., 2008a; Van Eekelen et al., 2012a, 2012b; Xu et al., 2016; Debnath and Dey,
105 2017; Esmaeili et al., 2017; Mehdizadeh et al., 2018) to full-scale experiments (Chen et al.,
106 2010; Liu et al., 2012; Hong et al., 2014; Weng et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2015; Rowe and Liu,
107 2015; Van Eekelen et al., 2015; Cao et al., 2016; Van Eekelen et al., 2017; Michalowski et
108 al., 2018; Tano et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018a, 2018c) and from analytical models (Balaam
109 and Booker, 1981; Deb, 2010; Karim et al., 2011; Van Eekelen et al., 2011, 2013; Zhou et al.,
110 2012; Yang et al., 2013; Zhuang et al., 2014; Jamsawang et al., 2016; Van Eekelen, 2016;
111 Feng et al., 2017b; Zhao et al., 2017) to numerical simulations (Huang and Han, 2009; Jiang
112 et al., 2014; Kamash and Han, 2014; Lai et al., 2014; Yoo, 2015; Zhuang and Wang, 2015;
113 Liu et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2017; Wijerathna and Liyanapathirana, 2018).

114

115 Some researchers (Li and Rowe, 2008; Ariyaratne and Liyanapathirana, 2015; Feng et al.,
116 2015; Rowe and Liu, 2015; Yu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016) have found that the
117 geosynthetic reinforcement is significant in load transfer platforms. The geosynthetics can
118 enhance load transfer efficiency and diminish differential settlements. Using Hewlett and
119 Randolph's (1988) semi-spherical crown model, Low et al. (1994) introduced geosynthetic
120 reinforcement and drew up charts to evaluate the load transfer when adopting a geosynthetic
121 layer. In BS8006 (2010), the geosynthetic reinforcement is designed in a conservative
122 manner, assuming that no support comes from the underlying soil. Abusharar et al. (2009)
123 carried out a theoretical analysis under two-dimensional plane-strain assumption. The shape
124 of geosynthetics after deformation is presumed to be a circular arc, and the shear resistance
125 between soil and geosynthetics is considered. Some scholars (Halvordson et al., 2010; Jones
126 et al., 2010; Plaut and Filz, 2010) have adopted the three-dimensional thin-plate model,
127 cable-net model, and axisymmetric model to simulate the behavior of geosynthetic

128 reinforcement. Chen et al. (2016b) carried out a full-scale test to measure the tensile force of
129 the geogrid in different scenarios. Van Eekelen et al. (2012a, 2012b), meanwhile, performed
130 a series of three-dimensional laboratory experiments, concluding that the load distribution on
131 the geosynthetic reinforcement is in an inverse triangle shape and making an attempt to
132 improve the existing design method in EBGEO (2010). Deb and Mohapatra (2013), for their
133 part, examined the variation in the geosynthetic reinforcement, considering the support of the
134 underlying subsoil using a multiplying factor. Later, Zhuang and Wang (2016) presented a
135 finite element analysis of the piled embankment with reinforcement, finding that the
136 introduced geogrid reinforcement can significantly relieve the load supported by the
137 foundation soil and reduces the differential settlement. However, the authors of these recent
138 studies tend to ignore the deformed shape of geosynthetic reinforcement or assume it to be an
139 arc or catenary without considering the support from subsoils. However, in real practice,
140 especially for the semi-rigid columns, the deformation of the geosynthetic layer can be
141 affected by the behavior of the overlying embankment as well as the underlying foundation
142 soil. Great difficulties are involved in capturing the actual shape of the geosynthetic
143 reinforcement. Few researchers have paid attention to the deformation shape of the
144 geosynthetics in an embankment system, especially including the stress and deformation
145 compatibility.

146

147 In this study, the non-uniform stiffness of the column-embedded subsoil and the deformation
148 of the geosynthetic reinforcement are considered, and a closed-form solution is proposed for
149 a geosynthetic-reinforced and column-supported embankment. The formulation process of
150 the theoretical model is presented, and the feasibility of the proposed solution is validated
151 using measured data. A parametric study is performed to evaluate certain significant factors,
152 such as the modulus ratio, tensile strength of geosynthetics, column spacing, column length,

153 and embankment height. The load transfer efficiency is discussed and the height of the equal
154 settlement plane evaluated.

155

156 **2. Mathematical modeling**

157 In this study, a cylindrical unit cell (Smith and Filz, 2007) was built to describe the behavior
158 of a geosynthetic-reinforced and column-supported embankment. It was applied to the
159 columns close to the middle section of the embankment, but not to those at the embankment
160 toe. As shown in Fig. 1, the area equivalence technique was adopted to calculate the outer
161 diameter of the cylindrical unit cell, given the column spacing. Keeping this outer diameter
162 and extending the cylinder into the embankment fill, it formed the whole unit cell (Fig. 2(a)),
163 which contained a column, the influenced zone of subsoil, and a circular shape of
164 geosynthetics, as well as the embankment fill. The observer should note that one-dimensional
165 compression was assumed for the aforementioned components in the unit cell. The included
166 embankment fill was divided into two parts by extending the cylinder of the column into the
167 embankment fill virtually. This produced an inner cylinder (*part A*) together with an outer
168 hollow cylinder (*part B*), as presented in Fig. 2(a). The shear at the interface between these
169 two parts of the embankment fill was adopted to model the load transfer because of the
170 differential settlement. Although such an assumption may not reveal the exact interactions
171 within the embankment fill, it can capture the main features of the load transfer. In Chen et
172 al.'s (2008b) theoretical model, they applied this idealization in a piled embankment.

173

174 ***2.1 Embankment fill in the unit cell***

175 In the unit cell, because of the relatively larger displacement in the surrounding soil than that
176 in the column, differential settlement develops between the inner cylinder (*part A*) and the
177 outer hollow cylinder (*part B*). With the raising of the embankment height, this differential

178 settlement diminishes, finally reaching a plane where no such settlement exists. This was
 179 named the equal settlement plane by Terzaghi (1943). The reader should note that the
 180 deformation difference below the equal settlement plane triggers the shear resistance between
 181 *part A* and *part B* and that the shear stress is kept at the ultimate state up to the equal
 182 settlement plane (Fig. 2(a-1)). Given the vertical stress, σ , under K_0 assumption, the shear
 183 stress at the ultimate state is:

$$184 \quad f = \sigma K_0 \tan \varphi \quad (1)$$

185 where $K_0 = 1 - \sin \varphi$. φ means the internal friction angle associated with the embankment.

186

187 As shown in Fig. 2(b), the original point is located at the center of the column top. The
 188 positive direction of the z axis is downward. For an arbitrary small element in the inner
 189 cylinder, as shown in Fig. 2(d-1), this should satisfy the vertical force equilibrium. Assuming
 190 that the thickness and cross section area of the element are dz , and A_i , respectively, the force
 191 increment at the cross section of this element can be written as:

$$192 \quad A_i d\sigma_i(z) = (\gamma A_i + \pi d_c f) dz \quad (2)$$

193 where γ denotes the unit weight of the embankment and $\sigma_i(z)$ describes the vertical stress at
 194 the depth of z .

195

196 According to the definition of the equal settlement plane, no load transfer happens there, and
 197 it should be at a geostatic pressure state. Hence, the vertical stress at the plane is formulated
 198 as per the following equation and is the upper bound of Eq. (2):

$$199 \quad \sigma \Big|_{z=h_e} = \gamma(h - h_e) + q_u \quad (3)$$

200 where h_e is the distance between the column top and the equal settlement plane, h is the total
 201 height of the embankment, and q_u is the additional loading.

202

203 To solve Eq. (2), while integrating it on both sides with the range of $[-h_e, 0]$ (Fig. 2(a-1)), the

204 vertical stress in the inner cylinder can be gained as:

$$205 \quad \sigma_i(z) = \frac{\gamma d_c}{4K_0 \tan \varphi} \left\{ \left[1 + \frac{4K_0 \tan \varphi}{d_c \gamma} (\gamma(h-h_e) + q_u) \right] \exp \left(4K_0 \tan \varphi \frac{z+h_e}{d_c} \right) - 1 \right\} \quad (4)$$

206 In Eq. (4), to calculate the distribution of σ_i , the unknown parameter h_e should be determined,

207 which is relevant to the deformation calculation of the foundation soil embedded within

208 columns.

209

210 Next, the expression for the vertical stress $\sigma_o(z)$, in the outer hollow cylinder, will be

211 calculated. Based on the assumption of the cylindrical unit cell, no friction exists at the outer

212 boundary. At any cross-section of the inner cylinder (and outer hollow cylinder), the stresses

213 are assumed to be in a uniform distribution. According to Fig. 2(a), $\sigma_i(z)$ and $\sigma_o(z)$ should

214 balance with the self-weight of the embankment fill and the additional loading, which can be

215 written as:

$$216 \quad \sigma_i(z) A_i + \sigma_i(z) \left(\frac{\pi d_e^2}{4} - A_i \right) = [\gamma(h+z) + q_u] \frac{\pi d_e^2}{4} \quad (5)$$

217 Using the calculated $\sigma_i(z)$ and $\sigma_o(z)$ in Eq. (5), the differential settlement S_e (Fig. 2(a-1)),

218 at the bottom of the embankment can be calculated as:

$$219 \quad S_e = \int_{-h_e}^0 \frac{\sigma_i(z) - \sigma_o(z)}{E_f} dz \quad (6)$$

220 where E_f refers to the compressive modulus of the embankment material. Associating Eqs.

221 (4)–(5) with Eq. (6), the following formula can be obtained:

$$S_e = \frac{1}{E_f} \left(1 + \frac{A_i}{A_o} \right) \left\{ \frac{\gamma d_c^2}{16K_0^2 \tan^2 \varphi} \exp \left(\frac{\gamma d_c h_e}{4K_0 \tan \varphi} \right) \left[1 + \frac{4K_0 \tan \varphi}{d_c} (h - h_e) \right] - \frac{\gamma d_c^2}{16K_0^2 \tan^2 \varphi} \left[1 + \frac{4K_0 \tan \varphi}{d_c} (h - h_e) \right] - \frac{\gamma d_c h_e}{4K_0 \tan \varphi} - \gamma \left(h h_e - \frac{1}{2} h_e^2 \right) - q_u h_e \right\} \quad (7)$$

At this point, the expression of the differential settlement has been obtained but the parameter, h_e , remains unknown. The differential settlement, S_e , should be accompanied by the deformation of the column-reinforced foundation to establish the volume continuity of the entire unit cell. In the following part, both the vertical deformations of the column and the foundation soil are presented.

2.2 Behavior of column embedded subsoil

Because of the load coming from the embankment fill, vertical displacements develop in the column and the surrounding subsoil. The friction at the column shaft leads to the development of a relatively small vertical displacement around the column and this displacement increases with the distance far away from the column shaft. Note that negative skin friction develops at the column shaft, increasing the stress and compression on the column and reducing the stress and compression in the surrounding soil. The deformation shape of the latter is hard to determine and is influenced by certain factors, such as soil structure interactions (Zhou and Yin, 2008; Yin and Zhou, 2009; Su et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2011; Hokmabadi et al., 2014; Suleiman et al., 2016; Meguid et al., 2017; Yu and Bathurst, 2017; Zhu et al., 2017; Jing et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018b) and constitutive models adopted for subsoil (Yin et al., 2009, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a, 2011b; Sexton et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2017). Alamgir et al. (1996) innovatively proposed a deformed shape function to investigate the performance of a column-reinforced foundation, which is applied here for this purpose.

245 Based on Alamgir et al.'s model (1996), the vertical deformation in the surrounding soft soil,
 246 $w(r, z)$ (Fig. 2(a-1)), at a depth of z and with a radius distance of r ($d_c/2 \leq r \leq d_e/2$), can be
 247 written as:

$$248 \quad w(r, z) = w_c(z) + \alpha_c(z) \left[\frac{2r}{d_c} - \exp\left(\beta_c \frac{2r}{d_c} - \beta_c\right) \right] \quad (8)$$

249 where $w_c(z)$ stands for the vertical displacement in the column. β_c is related to the size of the
 250 unit cell and $\alpha_c(z)$ denotes the deformation factor, which will be calculated in a later section.

251

252 In the following derivation process, the column and foundation soil are assumed to be
 253 homogenous materials with constant modulus and Poisson's ratio (E_c and ν_c for the column,
 254 E_s and ν_s for the foundation soil). Because the shear strain is vital to an analysis of the
 255 deformation behavior of subsoil, it can be calculated by differentiating Eq. (8) regarding the
 256 variable, r :

$$257 \quad \gamma(r, z) = \frac{\partial s(r, z)}{\partial r} = \frac{2\alpha_c(z)}{d_c} \left[1 - \beta_c e^{\beta_c(2r/d_c - 1)} \right] \quad (9)$$

258 Based on $G_s = E_s/2(1+\nu_s)$, by multiplying Eq. (9) by the shear modulus, G_s , the shear stress
 259 can be determined using the following expression:

$$260 \quad \tau(r, z) = \frac{\partial s(r, z)}{\partial r} = \frac{E_s \alpha_c(z)}{d_c(1+\nu_s)} \left[1 - \beta_c e^{\beta_c(2r/d_c - 1)} \right] \quad (10)$$

261

262 Based on the assumptions made in the cylindrical unit cell, the outer boundary should be at
 263 the central line between two adjacent columns. The shear stress at this position is zero:

$$264 \quad \tau\left(\frac{d_o}{2}, z\right) = 0 \quad (11)$$

265 Associating Eq. (11) with Eq. (10), the parameter, β_c , can be calculated as:

$$266 \quad \beta_c e^{\beta_c(d_e/d_c - 1)} - 1 = 0 \quad (12)$$

267

268 To calculate the deformation parameter, α_c , the deformation relationship between the column
269 and the adjacent subsoil should be established. The following equations illustrate the
270 deformations of the column and the subsoil. To facilitate the calculation, the column in the
271 unit cell is separated equally into N elements while the surrounding soil is meshed into $N \times M$
272 elements (Fig. 2(d)).

273

274 For the j^{th} element in the column (Fig. 2(d-2)), the following equation is formulated:

$$275 \quad \frac{d\sigma_c(z)}{dz} = \frac{4}{d_c} \tau\left(\frac{d_c}{2}, z\right) \quad (13)$$

276 Associating Eq. (10) with Eq. (13) gives us the following formula:

$$277 \quad \frac{d\sigma_c(z)}{dz} = \frac{4E_s(1-\beta_c)\alpha_c(z)}{d_c^2(1+\nu_s)} \quad (14)$$

278 According to the finite difference method, the relation between the vertical stress of the j^{th}
279 element and that of the $(j+1)^{\text{th}}$ element can be calculated as:

$$280 \quad \frac{\sigma_{c(j+1)} - \sigma_{cj}}{\Delta h} = \frac{4E_s\alpha_{cj}(1-\beta_c)}{d_c^2(1+\nu_s)} \quad (15)$$

281 where $\Delta h = l/N$.

282 The vertical deformation of the j^{th} element can be formulated as:

$$283 \quad w_{cj} = \frac{\Delta h}{E_c} \sigma_{cj} + \left(\frac{2\Delta h}{d_c}\right)^2 \frac{(1-\beta_c)E_s\alpha_{cj}}{2E_c(1+\nu_s)} \quad (16)$$

284

285 Based on the mesh of foundation soil, the geometry of one soil element is $\Delta h \times \Delta r$, where Δr
286 $= (d_e - d_c)/M$ (Fig. 2(d-3)). Taking one element at the outer boundary, as shown in Fig. 2(d-4),
287 the vertical force equilibrium of this element is:

288
$$\frac{d\sigma_{sM}(z)}{dz} = -\tau_M(z) \frac{2(n-\Delta R)}{d_c \omega} \quad (17)$$

289 where $n = d_e/d_c$, $\Delta R = 2\Delta r/d_c$, and $\omega = \Delta R(n - \Delta R/2)$. The subscript M refers to the
 290 element at the outer boundary.

291 Associating Eq. (10) with Eq. (17) results in:

292
$$\frac{d\sigma_{sM}(z)}{dz} = -\frac{2(n-\Delta R) \left[1 - \beta_c e^{\beta_c(n-\Delta R-1)} \right] E_s \alpha_c}{d_c^2 \omega (1 + \nu_s)} \quad (18)$$

293 For the $(M, j)^{\text{th}}$ element (Fig. 2(d-4)) at the outer boundary of the unit cell, the relationship
 294 between the vertical stress on the upper side, $\sigma_{sM(j+1)}$, and that on the lower side, σ_{sMj} , of this
 295 element can be obtained using the finite difference method:

296
$$\frac{\sigma_{sM(j+1)} - \sigma_{sMj}}{\Delta h} = -\frac{2(n-\Delta R) \left[1 - \beta_c e^{\beta_c(n-\Delta R-1)} \right] E_s \alpha_c(j)}{d_c^2 \omega (1 + \nu_s)} \quad (19)$$

297 Then, based on Eq. (19), the displacement change in the $(M, j)^{\text{th}}$ element is:

298
$$u_{sMj} = \frac{\Delta h}{E_s} \sigma_{sMj} - \frac{(\Delta h/d_c)^2 (n-\Delta R) \left[1 - \beta_c e^{\beta_c(n-\Delta R-1)} \right] \alpha_{cj} G_s}{\omega (1 + \nu_s)} \quad (20)$$

299
 300 Based on the assumptions made in the deformed shape function, no slip is allowed between
 301 the column shaft and the adjacent soil. According to the mesh, the $(M, j)^{\text{th}}$ element at the outer
 302 boundary of the unit cell and the j^{th} element in the column should be at the same depth; their
 303 deformations should be compatible in Eq. (8). The deformation relationship can be expressed
 304 as:

305
$$w_{sMj} = w_{cj} + \left[n - \frac{\Delta R}{2} - e^{\beta_c(n-\Delta R/2-1)} \right] \alpha_{cj} \quad (21)$$

306 Associating the deformation of the column element in Eq. (16) and that of the soil element in
 307 Eq. (20) with Eq. (21), the parameter, α_{cj} , can be calculated as:

$$\alpha_{cj} = \frac{[\sigma_{sNj} / E_s - \sigma_{cj} / E_c] \Delta h}{(B_1 + B_2 + B_3)} \quad (22)$$

$$\text{where } B_1 = \left(\frac{2\Delta h}{d_c} \right)^2 \frac{(1-\beta_c) E_s}{2E_c(1+\nu_s)}, \quad B_2 = \frac{(\Delta h)^2 (n-\Delta R) [1-\beta_c e^{\beta_c(n-\Delta R-1)}]}{d_c^2 \Delta R (n-\Delta R/2)(1+\nu_s)},$$

$$B_3 = n - \frac{\Delta R}{2} - e^{\beta_c(n-\Delta R/2-1)}.$$

311

312 **2.3 Deformation of geosynthetic reinforcement**

313 In this study, a nonwoven geotextile is used, a kind of geosynthetics that is assumed to be
 314 isotropic. The function of geosynthetic reinforcement is to transfer some part of the load
 315 supported by the surrounding soil onto the adjacent columns. Because the geosynthetics
 316 cannot sustain any bending moment, they are assumed to deform compatibly with the
 317 column-reinforced foundation. As demonstrated in Fig. 2(b), the geosynthetics have the same
 318 deformed shape as the underlying foundation soil, which is simplified into a two-dimensional
 319 axisymmetric analysis. The vertical force equilibrium of the geosynthetic reinforcement is
 320 shown in Fig. 2(c-1). Its tensile force, T , can be expressed as:

$$\frac{\pi(d_e^2 - d_c^2)}{4} \sigma_u - \pi d_c T \sin \theta = \frac{\pi(d_e^2 - d_c^2)}{4} \sigma_b \quad (23)$$

322 where σ_u refers to the vertical stress acting on the top of the geosynthetics, while σ_b means the
 323 vertical stress on the foundation soil. θ is the rotation angle of the deformed geosynthetics
 324 (Fig. 2(c-1)) and can be determined as:

$$\theta = \frac{ds(r,0)}{dr} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^N w_{s1j} - \sum_{j=1}^N w_{s2j}}{\Delta r} \quad (24)$$

326 where w_{s1j} and w_{s2j} are the displacement changes of the first and second soil element,
 327 respectively, adjacent to the column.

328 The tensile strain in the geosynthetics is not uniform: The maximum tensile strain in the

329 geosynthetics is generated at the edge of the column (Liu et al., 2007; Van Eekelen et al.,
 330 2012a, 2012b; Chen et al., 2016b). As shown in Fig. 2(c), Δr is the length of one
 331 geosynthetics element at the edge of the column before deformation. Because of the vertical
 332 deformation of Δz , Δr is stretched into Δs . According to the geometry in Fig. 2(c), the tensile
 333 strain is:

$$334 \quad \varepsilon = \frac{\Delta s - \Delta r}{\Delta r} = \frac{\sqrt{\Delta r^2 + \Delta z^2} - \Delta r}{\Delta r} = \sqrt{1 + \tan^2 \theta} - 1 \quad (25)$$

335 By combining Eqs. (23)–(25), the tensile force, $T = \varepsilon_g \cdot K_g$, can be determined, where K_g is the
 336 tensile strength of geosynthetic reinforcement. In Chen et al.'s study (2016b), the tensile
 337 strength of geosynthetics is determined at the strain of $\varepsilon = 2\%$.

338

339 **2.4 Deformation continuity**

340 Using the calculated stress on the foundation soil and that on the column, the deformed
 341 volume of the foundation can be determined based on Eq. (8). This deformed volume is the
 342 precise volume coming from the differential deformation at the base of the embankment fill.
 343 Take note that, based on the assumption made in the embankment fill, the displacements at
 344 the bottom of the inner and outer hollow cylinders are uniform, which is not consistent with
 345 the deformed shape of the foundation settlement. However, a reasonable step is to adopt the
 346 volume equivalence to bridge the relationship between the embankment fill and the column-
 347 reinforced subsoil.

348

349 Based on the deformed shape function, the vertical displacement developed at the surface of
 350 the subsoil is:

$$351 \quad S_t(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{j=N} w_{ij} \quad (26)$$

352 The volume equivalence between $S_t(i)$ and S_e can be formulated as:

353
$$\int_{\frac{d_c}{2}}^{\frac{d_e}{2}} S_i(i) \cdot 2\pi r dr = \int_{\frac{d_c}{2}}^{\frac{d_e}{2}} S_e 2\pi r dr \quad (27)$$

354 where $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, M$ means the i^{th} soil element. By combining Eqs. (7), (8), (22), (23), (26),
 355 and (27) together, the stresses within the embankment system and the tensile force in the
 356 geosynthetics can be obtained.

357

358 Han and Gabr (2002) presented the concept of the stress ratio to evaluate the load transfer
 359 efficiency. This is written in the following form:

360
$$\sigma_c / \sigma_s = \left. \frac{\sigma_i}{\sigma_o} \right|_{z=0} \quad (28)$$

361 where σ_c is the stress acting on the column top and σ_s denotes the stress sustained by the
 362 subsoil. This ratio is adopted in this study to illustrate the load transfer efficiency in different
 363 scenarios.

364

365 **3. Comparison with a full-scale test and analytical models**

366 **3.1 Full-scale test**

367 In this comparison, a full-scale test (Chen et al., 2016b; Zhou et al., 2016) carried out at
 368 Zhejiang University, was adopted to evaluate the proposed axisymmetric model. The pile
 369 caps were arranged in a 3×5 pattern. The surrounding soil was replaced with water bags,
 370 filled with water, to simulate the settlement of subsoil. A granular layer, sandwiched with a
 371 geosynthetic reinforcement, was placed overlying the pile caps. The embankment was then
 372 constructed step-by-step. Thereafter, the concrete base and rail plate, as a surcharge loading
 373 of 12.25 kPa, were paved on top of the constructed embankment. The parameters associated
 374 with the embankment system are illustrated in Table 1. Because it is an axisymmetric model
 375 in the proposed method, the diameters of the column and influencing surrounding soil were
 376 calculated based on the column width and spacing in the full-scale test (area equivalence).

377 The modulus ratio, $E_c/E_s = 10$, and the Poisson's ratio of subsoil, $\nu_s = 0.35$, were determined
378 based on a trial-and-error process because these two parameters were not available in the full-
379 scale test. The column length, $l/d_c = 20$, was selected so that the column length (i.e., the
380 thickness of foundation soil) had no effect on the load transfer (Fig. 12). The observer should
381 note that, in real practice, these parameters in the proposed model, such as the modulus ratio,
382 E_c/E_s , the column length, and so on, can be determined from the field tests (Alamgir et al.,
383 1996; Deb et al., 2013). To demonstrate the feasibility of the proposed model, the calculated
384 results from the proposed model were compared with the measured data from a full-scale test
385 (Chen et al., 2016b; Zhou et al., 2016). Two scenarios were considered, as shown in Table 2;
386 one was at the end of the embankment construction, and the other came after paving the
387 concrete base and rail plate. The reader should note that no gap exists between the
388 embankment fill and the underlying water bags in these two scenarios. The comparison
389 illustrates that the proposed solutions are close to the measured data and points to the
390 feasibility of addressing the case, considering the deformed volume compatibility between
391 the embankment and the underlying subsoil.

392

393 ***3.2 Existing analytical models***

394 Moreover, another three analytical models (Hewlett and Randolph, 1988; Nordic Guideline,
395 2003; EBGEO, 2010) for the three-dimensional situation are presented to calculate the stress
396 on the column top and that on the subsoil. The tensile forces in the geosynthetic
397 reinforcement for these existing methods are determined using the following equation:

$$398 \quad T = \frac{\sigma_u s_n}{2b} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{6\varepsilon}} \quad (29)$$

399 where ε is the tensile strain and b is the width of the column in a square pattern. Eq. (29) is
400 used for the case without the support of subsoil (BS8006, 2010; Van Eekelen et al., 2011;
401 Chen et al., 2016b). In the proposed model, the modulus ratio of $E_c/E_s = 100$ is defined as the

402 ultimate state, in which case no support comes from subsoil. This assumption was also made
403 in Deb et al.'s study (2013). At the ultimate state, first, the vertical stress supported by the
404 geosynthetic reinforcement is calculated. Eq. (29) can then be used to calculate the tensile
405 force in the geosynthetics. Because this equation is used for a two-dimensional situation, for
406 the axisymmetric model in this study, the column width and column spacing are obtained by
407 transferring the axisymmetric model into a square pattern (Smith and Filz, 2007). $\varepsilon = 2\%$ is
408 adopted to design the geosynthetics at the serviceability limit state to avoid localized
409 differential settlement at the embankment surface.

410

411 The calculated results from these existing methods and the proposed model are tabulated in
412 Tables 3 and 4. As mentioned, two scenarios—at the end of embankment construction and
413 after paving the concrete base and rail plate—were considered. Compared with these existing
414 methods, the stresses on the column top from the proposed model were close to that obtained
415 from EBGeo (2010). An increase in the pressure on the geosynthetics is examined using the
416 proposed model when applying a surcharge loading, that is, paving the concrete base and rail
417 plate (Zhuang et al., 2016). However, the other three existing methods cannot present the
418 tensile force change in the geosynthetics.

419

420 **4. Parametric study**

421 Based on the proposed method, a parametric study was performed. Various parameters, such
422 as the embankment height, column spacing, column length, and so on, were examined. The
423 properties related to the embankment system in different cases are presented in Table 5. Fig.
424 3 illustrates the variation of the stress ratio, σ_c/σ_s , with and without a geosynthetic
425 reinforcement. The column spacing is set as $d_e/d_c = 4$. The results, with and without said
426 reinforcement, are shown in this figure simultaneously. In the model with the reinforcement,

427 the stresses above and below it are investigated. Compared to the results without a
428 reinforcement, a relatively larger stress ratio was obtained below the geosynthetic
429 reinforcement, whereas a relatively smaller ratio was calculated above this reinforcement.
430 This is because some of the load supported by the subsoil transfers onto the column top via
431 the reinforcement, resulting in the stress declining on the surrounding soil while increasing on
432 the column under the geosynthetics. On the opposite side of the geosynthetic reinforcement,
433 because the latter diminishes the deformation difference between the column and the subsoil,
434 it supports some part of the load, consequently, yields a smaller stress ratio.

435

436 Fig. 4 further illustrates the impacts of column spacing and the modulus ratio on the change
437 of σ_c/σ_s . When the column spacing grows in a certain range, the stress ratio increases
438 accordingly. Meanwhile, a large modulus ratio can enhance the stress ratio counterpart, but
439 the growth rate slows down after the modulus ratio reaches $E_c/E_s = 50$. Furthermore, the
440 results with a geosynthetic reinforcement are presented in this figure. Compared to the
441 solutions without the geosynthetic reinforcement, the stress ratios are enhanced to a certain
442 degree, which means that said reinforcement can advance the load transfer efficiency. This
443 conclusion is in accordance with the finding in Van Eekelen et al.'s study (2012a, 2012b).

444

445 Fig. 5 shows the variations in the stress at the column top and those in the foundation soil
446 versus the modulus ratio, E_c/E_s . When widening the column spacing, the stress at the column
447 top increases, whereas the stress on the foundation soil decreases within a small range. The
448 increment percentage is defined as the stress increment because of the embedded
449 geosynthetic reinforcement, compared to that without this reinforcement. The reader may
450 observe that a larger increment percentage ((+) for the stress at the column top and (-) for the
451 stress on the surrounding soil) appears with a relatively small modulus ratio. Thereafter, the

452 increment percentage decreases, finally reaching a constant. This means that increasing the
453 stiffness of the column cannot enhance the function of the geosynthetic reinforcement. The
454 cost and load transfer efficiency should be balanced in real practice.

455

456 The effect of the embankment height on the load transfer is illustrated in Fig. 6. With the
457 modulus ratio, E_c/E_s , growing, the stress ratio increases and finally approaches a constant.
458 The embankment height appears to have little influence on the stress ratio without a
459 geosynthetic reinforcement in dash lines. These curves almost overlap each other. However,
460 when the geosynthetic reinforcement is applied, the results, in solid lines, separate from one
461 another for different embankment heights. Moreover, the stress ratio is enlarged slightly with
462 a relatively large embankment height. This means that the increasing rate in the stress at the
463 column top is larger than that on the surrounding soil because of the embedded geosynthetic
464 reinforcement.

465

466 Fig. 7 shows the change in the ratio of h_e/s_n with an increase in the embankment height,
467 where s_n denotes the net column spacing. h_e , the height of the equal settlement plane, can
468 represent the range of the load transfer platform or the height of soil arching. The observer
469 may see that h_e decreases with a rise in the embankment height, meaning that with an
470 increase in the uniform additional loading, the height of the equal settlement plane, h_e , is
471 reduced. This is because the stress distribution below the equal settlement plane extends to a
472 larger range. The load transfer occurs in a smaller range, resulting in a smaller h_e . Meanwhile,
473 with an increase in the column spacing, the ratio of h_e/s_n decreases because the widening rate
474 of the column spacing is larger than that of h_e . However, this ratio remains larger than 0.5,
475 which is compatible with the dome height obtained by Hewlett and Randolph (1988).

476

477 Fig. 8 presents the variation of h_e versus the modulus ratio, E_c/E_s . In accordance with the
478 behavior of the stress ratio, a large value in the modulus ratio can enlarge the value of h_e .
479 However, the increasing rate slows down after the modulus ratio, E_c/E_s , becomes larger than
480 50. This means that the soil arching may be formed completely after the modulus ratio
481 increases to a certain degree. The influence of the geosynthetic stiffness on h_e is also
482 investigated, and the result without a geosynthetic reinforcement is introduced to make a
483 comparison. The reader may note that the geosynthetic reinforcement can reduce the height
484 of the equal settlement plane, h_e , while it can be shortened further by increasing its tensile
485 stiffness. Fig. 9 describes the variation in the tensile force of the geosynthetic reinforcement
486 with an increase in the modulus ratio. A large modulus ratio equates to a relatively larger
487 deformation in the foundation soil than that in the column. The function of geosynthetic
488 reinforcement is to diminish this differential settlement, which results in an increase in the
489 tensile force. Moreover, extending the column spacing can lead to an increase of the tensile
490 force in the geosynthetic reinforcement as well.

491

492 Fig. 10 shows the variation of the stress ratio, σ_c/σ_s , versus different column lengths with or
493 without a geosynthetic reinforcement. With a relatively small column spacing, the stress ratio
494 appears to remain constant with an increase in the depth of the foundation soil. However,
495 with a growth in the column spacing, the stress ratio will first increase to a certain degree,
496 before its acceleration rate slows down. This stress ratio then remain constant, even if
497 increasing the depth of the column. This means that the settlement of the subsoil is in
498 connection with the column spacing and mainly develops at the upper part of the foundation.
499 Moreover, when the geosynthetic reinforcement is applied, the stress ratio increases
500 accordingly, especially with a large column spacing.

501

502 Fig. 11 presents the variations in the stress ratio and in the value of h_e (i.e., equal settlement
503 plane) with the increase of column length without a geosynthetic reinforcement. The
504 influence of the embankment height is considered. The viewer can observe that increasing the
505 embankment height cannot enhance the load transfer efficiency; that is, the stress ratio
506 remains constant when increasing the embankment height. However, the height of the equal
507 settlement plane decreases gradually. These features are consistent with the solutions of Figs.
508 7 and 8, meaning that, when increasing the embankment height, the range of the load transfer
509 zone decreases. Because the increasing height of the embankment fill results in a large
510 vertical stress in the load transfer platform, it increases the shear resistance at the potential
511 slip surface. The load transfer evolves in a small range of the load transfer platform (height of
512 equal settlement plane).

513

514 Fig. 12 illustrates the variation in h_e versus the column length with a geosynthetic
515 reinforcement. The reader may discern that with a small value in the modulus ratio, E_c/E_s (Fig.
516 12a), or in the column spacing ratio, d_e/d_c (Fig. 12b), the column length (i.e., the thickness of
517 subsoil) has little effect on the value of h_e . However, with a relatively large value in E_c/E_s
518 (Fig. 12a), or in d_e/d_c (Fig. 12b), h_e increases when the column length is extended and
519 remains constant after the column reaches a certain depth, meaning that a relatively
520 significant depth of foundation soil has little influence on the height of the load transfer
521 platform (i.e., equal settlement plane). This is in accordance with the result in Fig. 10.

522

523 Fig. 13 shows the change in the stress ratio during the construction process of the
524 embankment fill. The viewer may find that, without the geosynthetic reinforcement, the stress
525 ratio remains constant after the embankment height has reached a certain level (Fig. 13a).
526 This means that the soil arching is completely formed, and increasing the embankment height

527 has no effect on the stress ratio. However, with the embedded geosynthetic reinforcement
528 (Fig. 13b), the stress ratio becomes larger compared to that without such a reinforcement.
529 Furthermore, after reaching the equal settlement plane, the stress ratio keeps growing slightly
530 with the embankment height. This illustrates that the geosynthetic reinforcement has a
531 sustaining impact on the load transfer with an increase in the uniform additional loading.

532

533 Fig. 14 displays the variation of the maximum settlement in the surrounding soil with an
534 increase in the embankment height. When the column spacing is enlarged, the settlement
535 increases. However, an inflection point exists with a large column spacing, which appears
536 around the equal settlement plane. This means that, before the soil arching forms, the
537 settlement expands continuously with the increase in the embankment height. However, when
538 the height reaches a certain level, which is close to that of the corresponding equal settlement
539 plane, the load arches onto the adjacent column and the stress on the surrounding soil
540 decreases, which results in a relatively small settlement. When the height is beyond the equal
541 settlement plane, the stress on the surrounding soil continues to increase, as does the
542 settlement accordingly.

543

544 Fig. 15 describes the tensile force of geosynthetic reinforcement versus the embankment
545 height. The observer may note that, with an increase in said height, the value of the tensile
546 force goes up, but decreases around the equal settlement plane. However, when the height
547 exceeds the equal settlement plane, the tensile force continues to increase because of the
548 increasing uniform additional loading (or self-weight of embankment). This is fairly similar
549 to the trend of maximum settlement in subsoil (Fig. 14). Figs. 16 and 17 show the variations
550 of maximum settlement and tensile force under different modulus ratios, E_c/E_s . Compared to
551 Figs. 14 and 15, similar trends are observed in these figures. The difference is that the

552 modulus ratio in Figs. 16 and 17 has a slight influence on the position of the inflection point,
553 while the column spacing in Figs 14 and 15 has an obvious effect on the same.

554

555 **5. Conclusions**

556 In the present research, an axisymmetric model was performed for a geosynthetic-reinforced
557 and column-supported embankment. A cylindrical unit cell was idealized from this type of
558 embankment system, which combines the embankment fill with a geosynthetic reinforcement
559 and the column-reinforced foundation soil. The load transfer mechanism and the equal
560 settlement plane were investigated, bearing in mind the deformed volume continuity in the
561 unit cell. The finding was that the geosynthetic reinforcement can increase the load transfer
562 efficiency to a certain degree while reducing the height of the equal settlement plane. The
563 application of a uniform additional loading (or increasing the height of the embankment) can
564 condense the soil arching, resulting in a relatively low height of the equal settlement plane,
565 but it is always larger than half of the column net spacing. In contrast, a large modulus
566 disparity between the column and the subsoil results in an equal settlement plane of relatively
567 significant height.

568

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576

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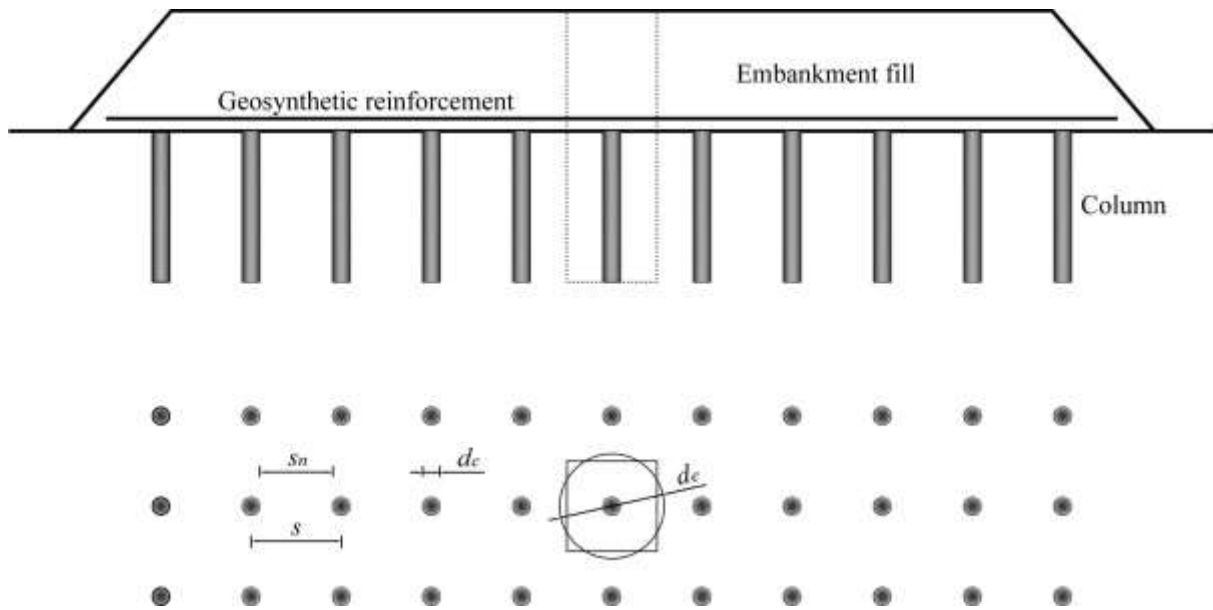
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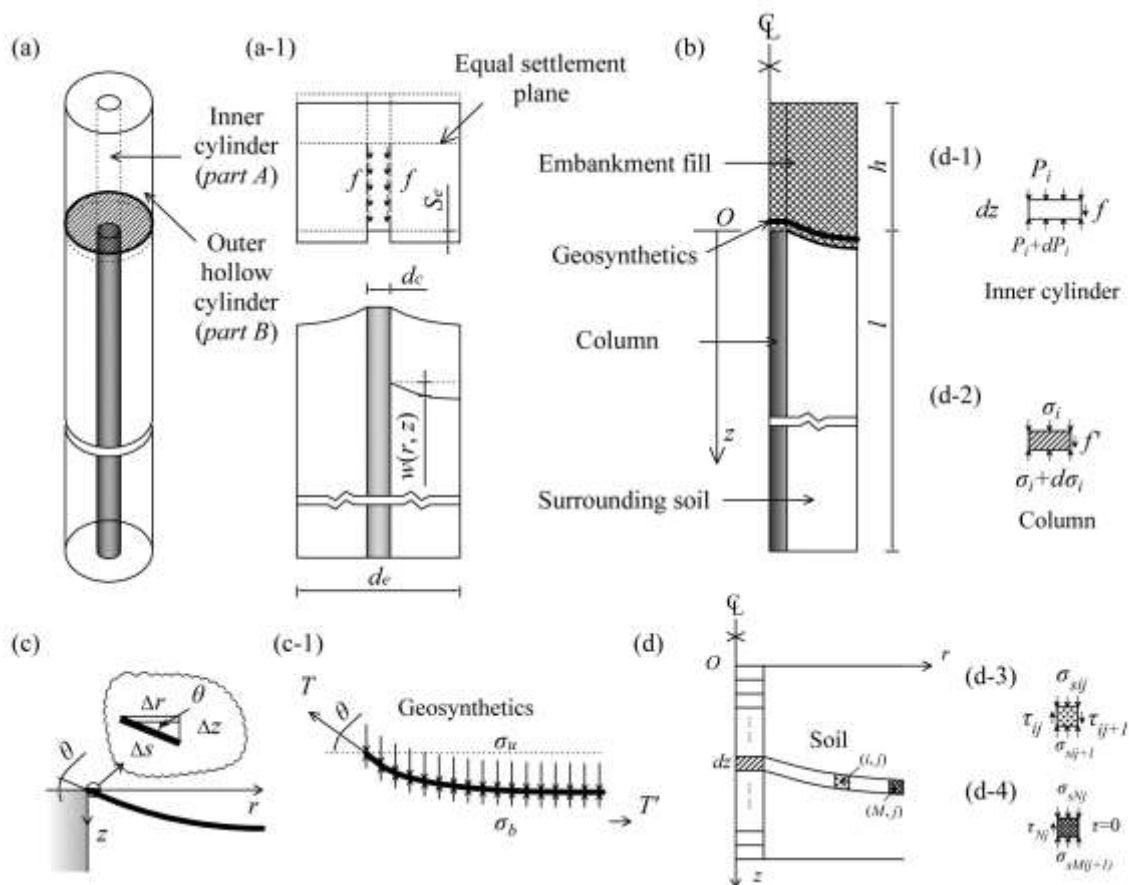
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Fig. 1. Sketch map of a geosynthetic-reinforced and column-supported embankment



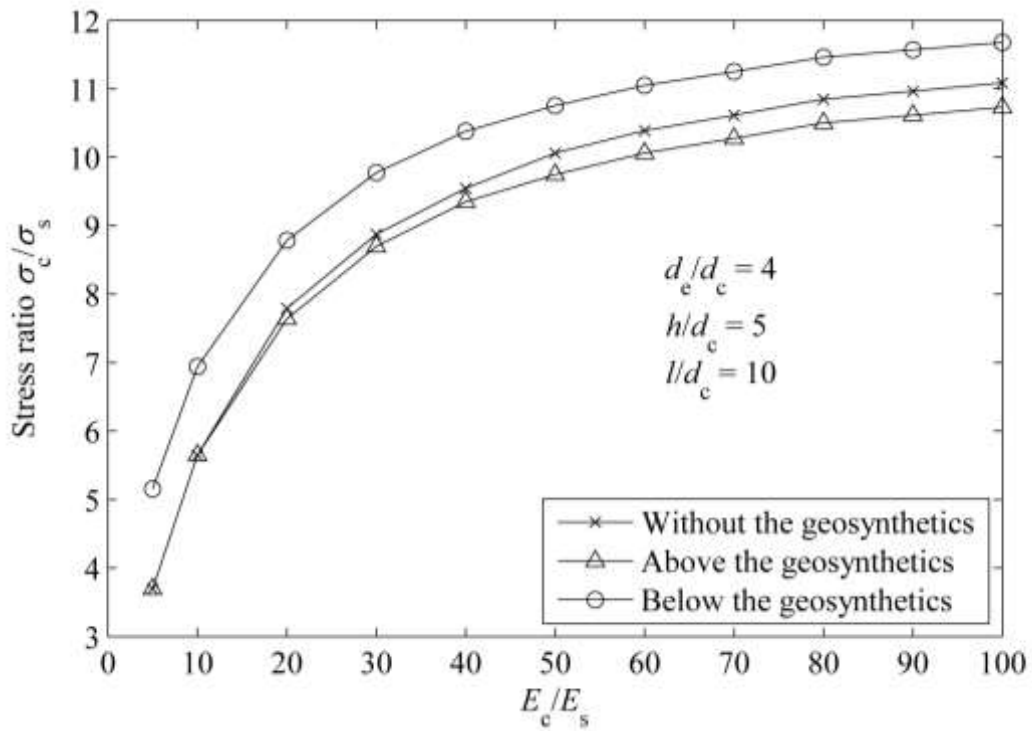
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Fig. 2. (a) Cylindrical unit cell model; (b) Cross section of unit cell; (c) Deformation analysis

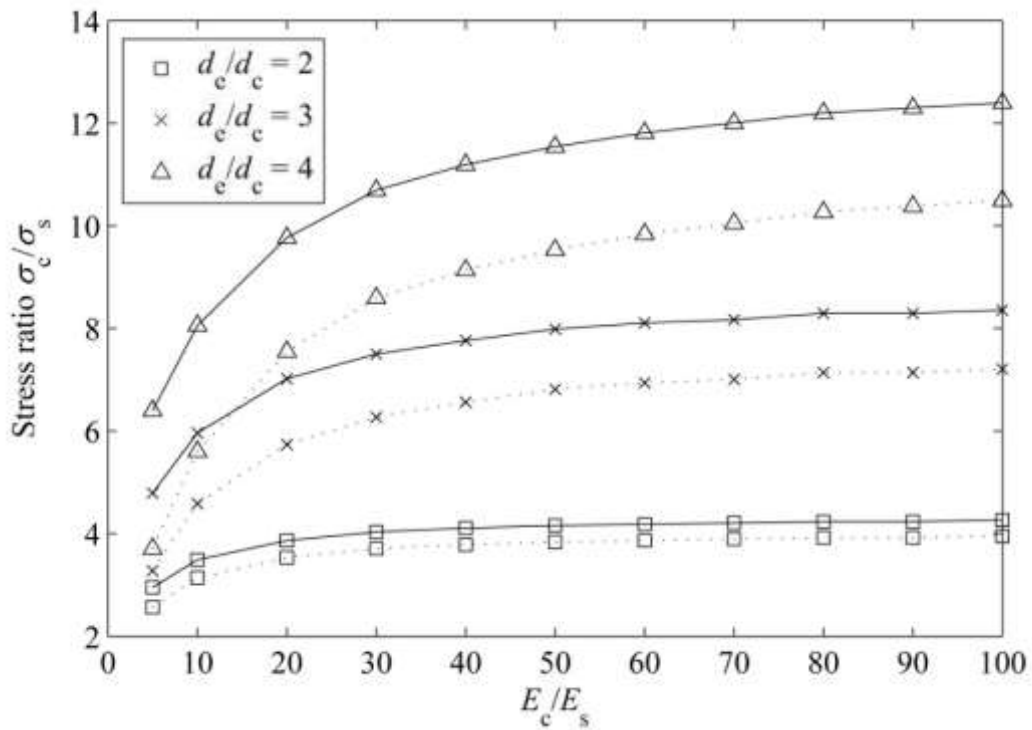
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diagram of geosynthetics; (d) Stresses in the inner cylinder, column and surrounding soil



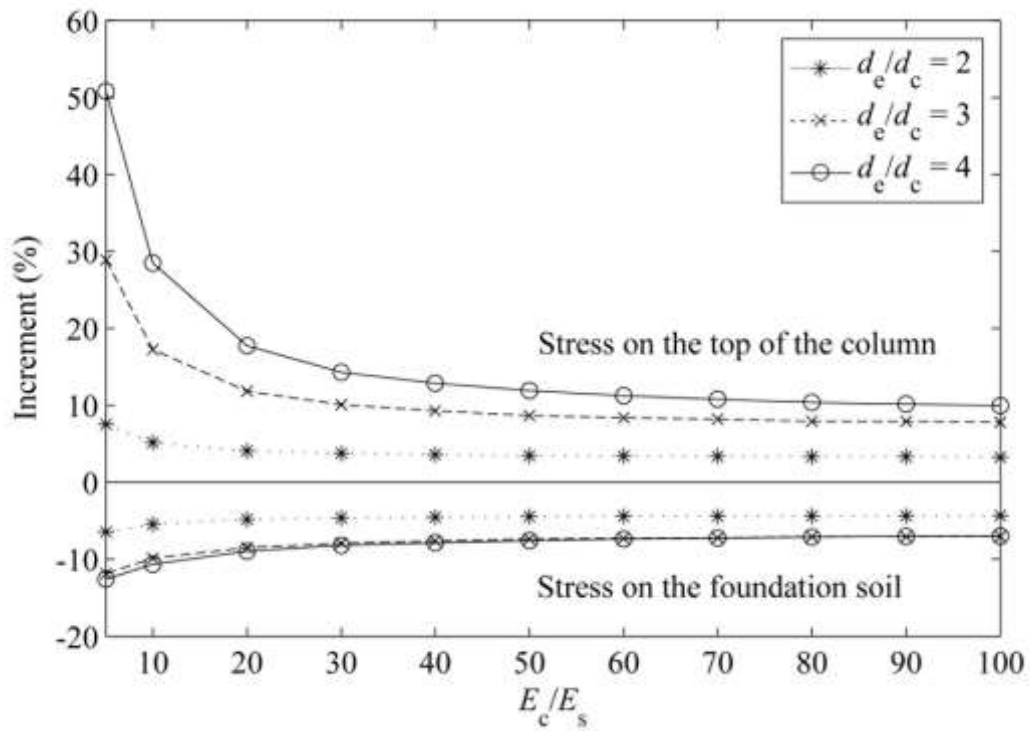
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Fig. 3. Variation in the stress ratio versus modulus ratio, E_c/E_s , with and without a geosynthetic reinforcement



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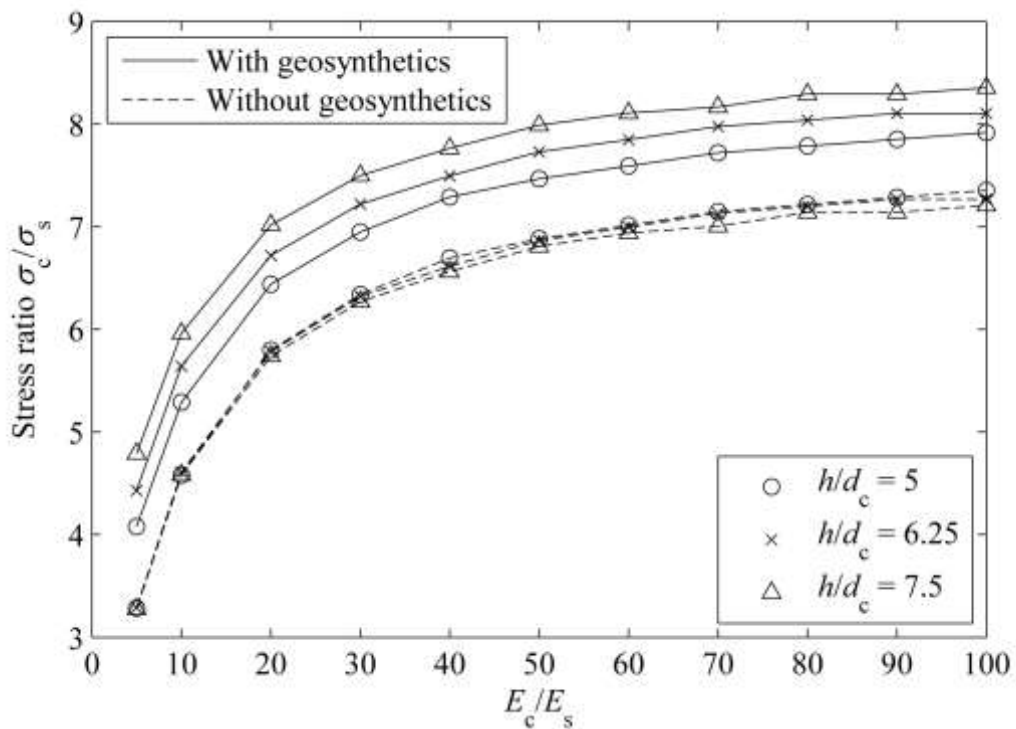
Fig. 4. Influence of geosynthetic reinforcement on the stress ratio versus modulus ratio, E_c/E_s



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Fig. 5. Stress increment arising from the included geosynthetic reinforcement



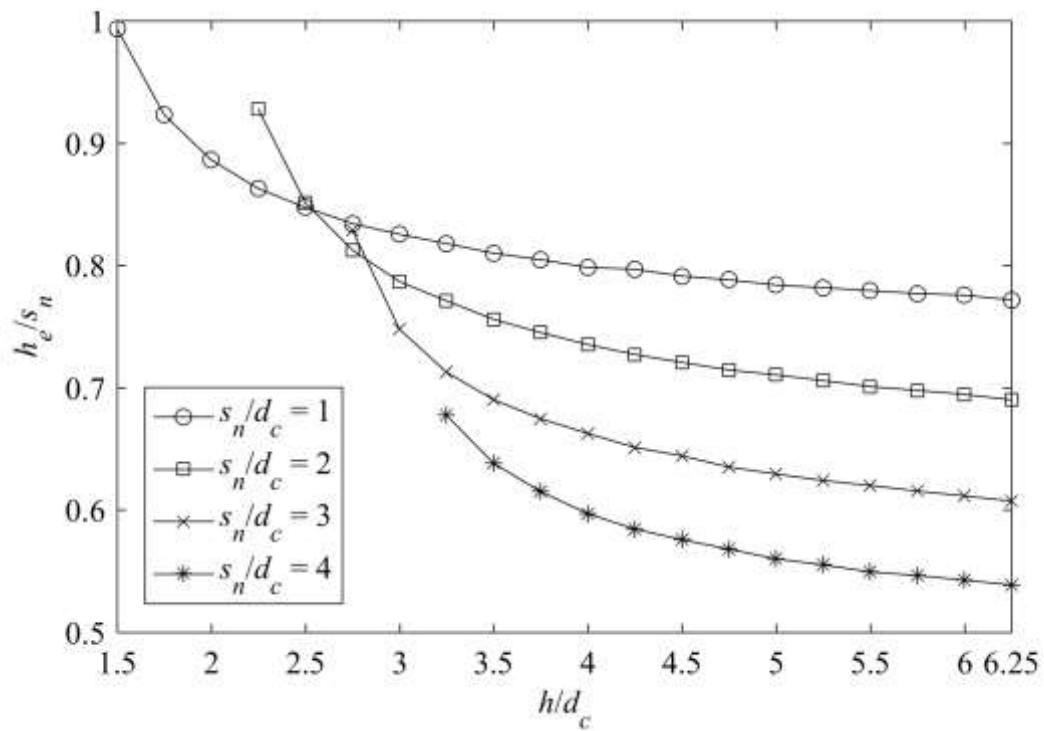
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Fig. 6. Influence of embankment height on the stress ratio with and without the geosynthetic

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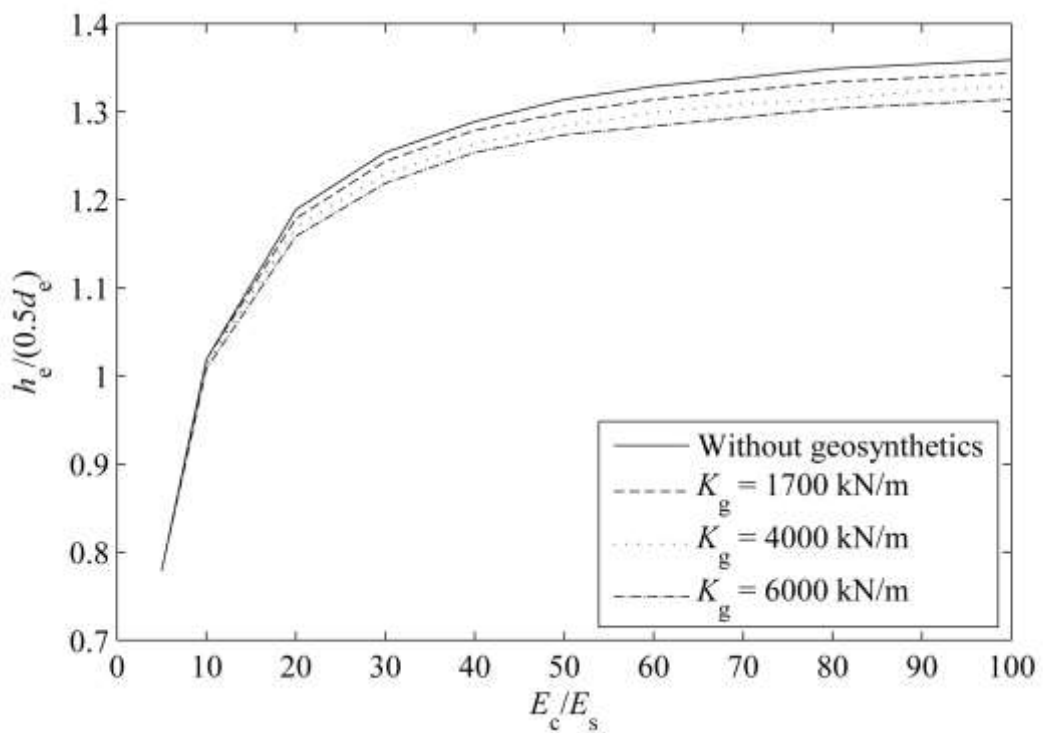
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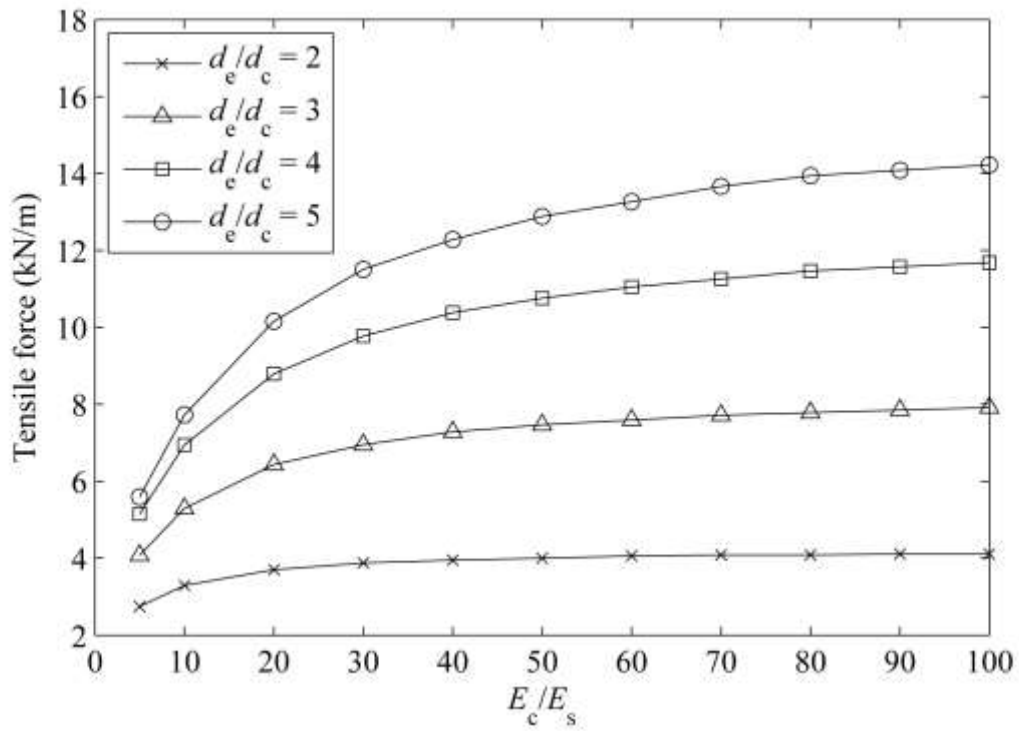
Fig. 7. Influence of embankment height on the ratio between h_e and s_n



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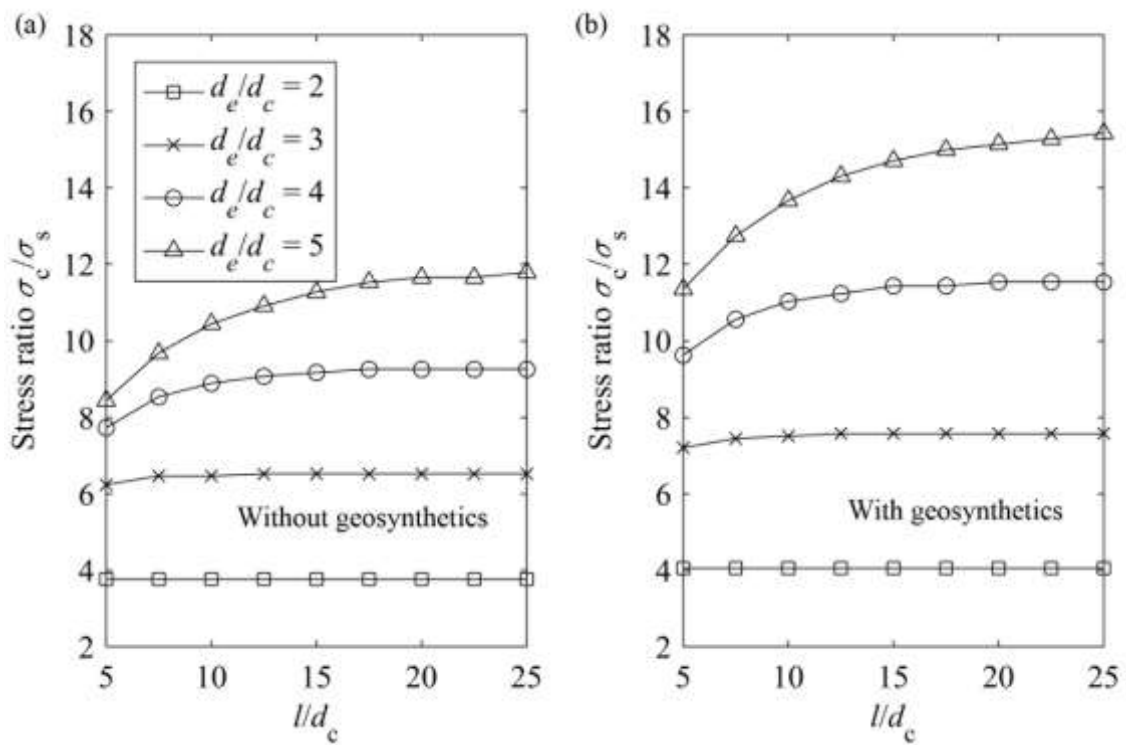
Fig. 8. Influence of geosynthetic stiffness on the height of equal settlement plane



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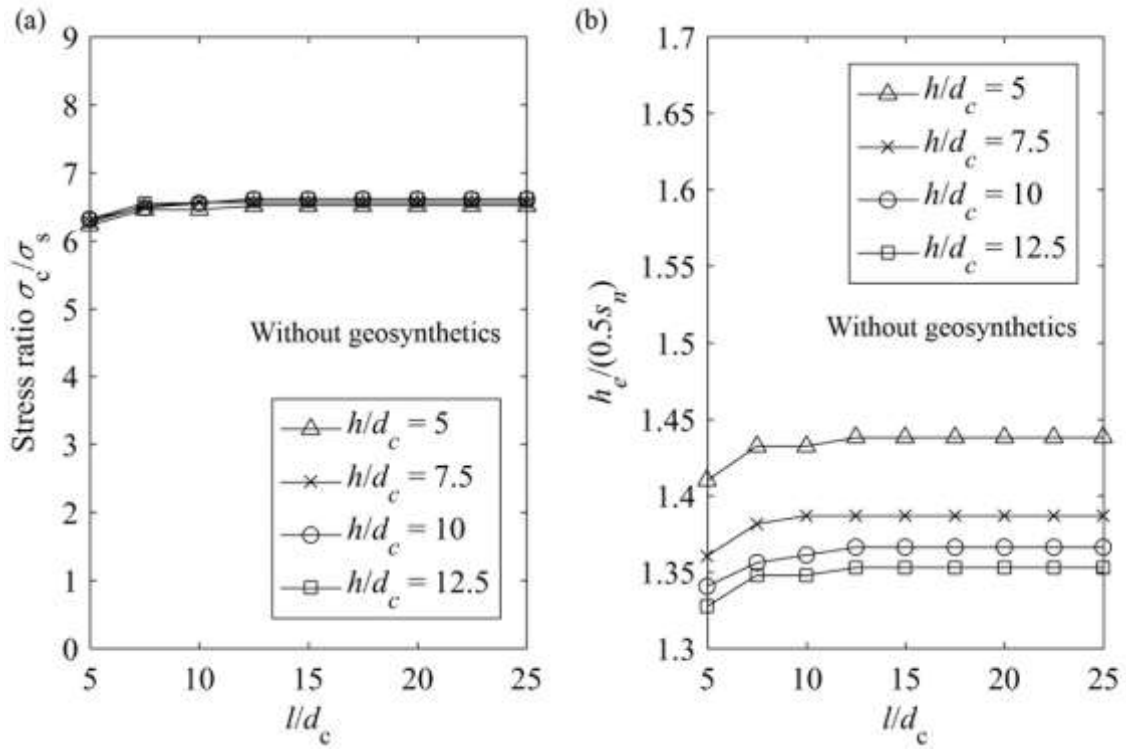
Fig. 9. Influence of column spacing on the tensile force versus modulus ratio



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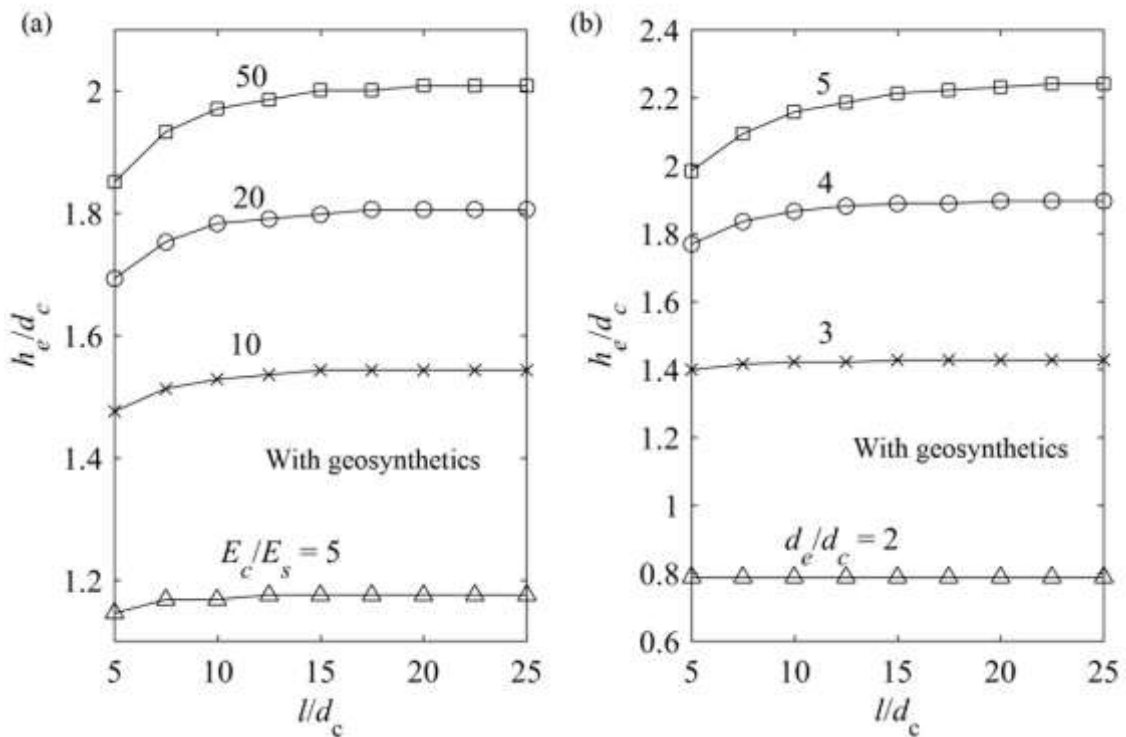
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Fig. 10. Variation in the stress ratio with an increase in the length of column



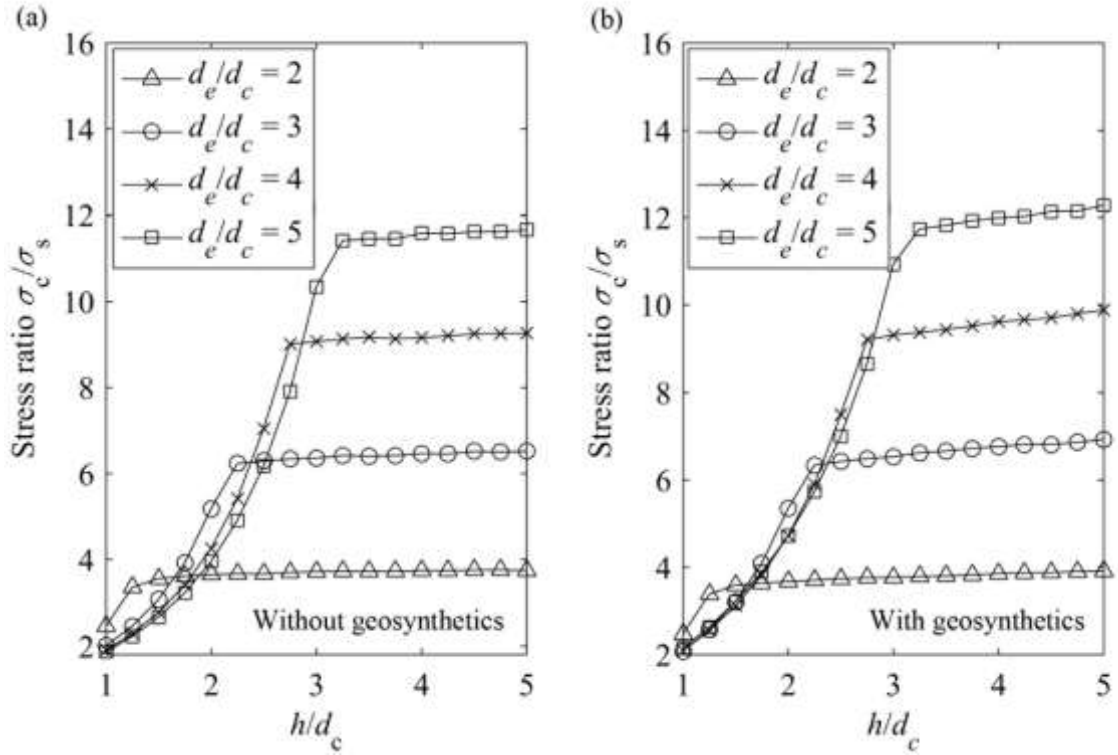
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919 **Fig. 11.** Variation of stress ratio and height of equal settlement plane with different length of column
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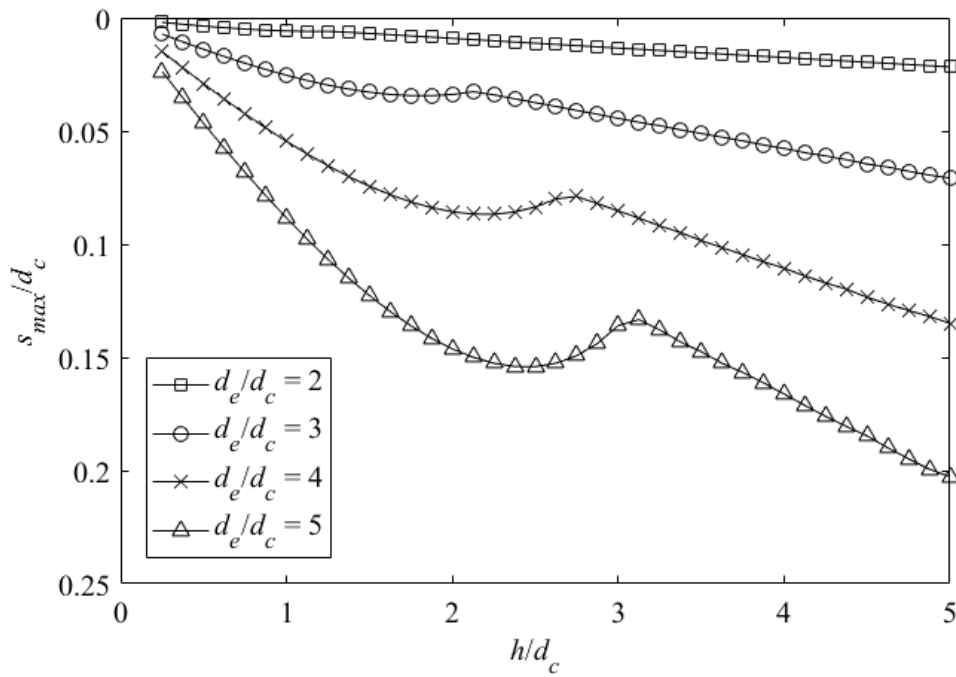
922 **Fig. 12.** Influence of (a) modulus ratio and (b) column spacing on the height of equal
923 settlement plane



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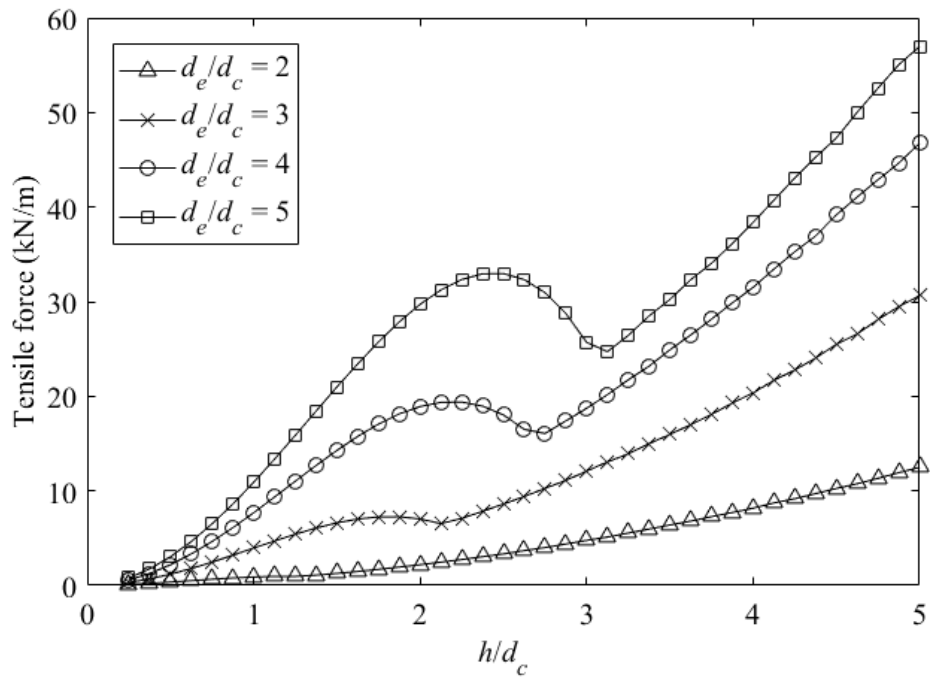
Fig. 13. Variation of stress ratio with an increase in the embankment height



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Fig. 14. Maximum settlement of foundation soil with an increase in the embankment height

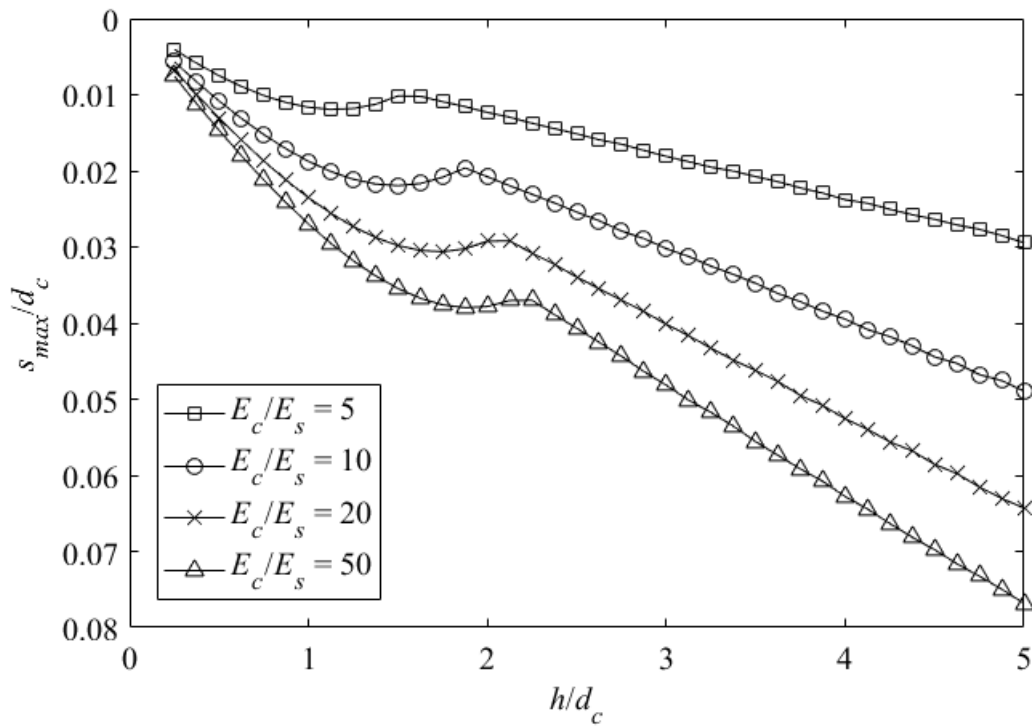


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929 **Fig. 15.** Tensile force of geosynthetic reinforcement with an increase in the embankment

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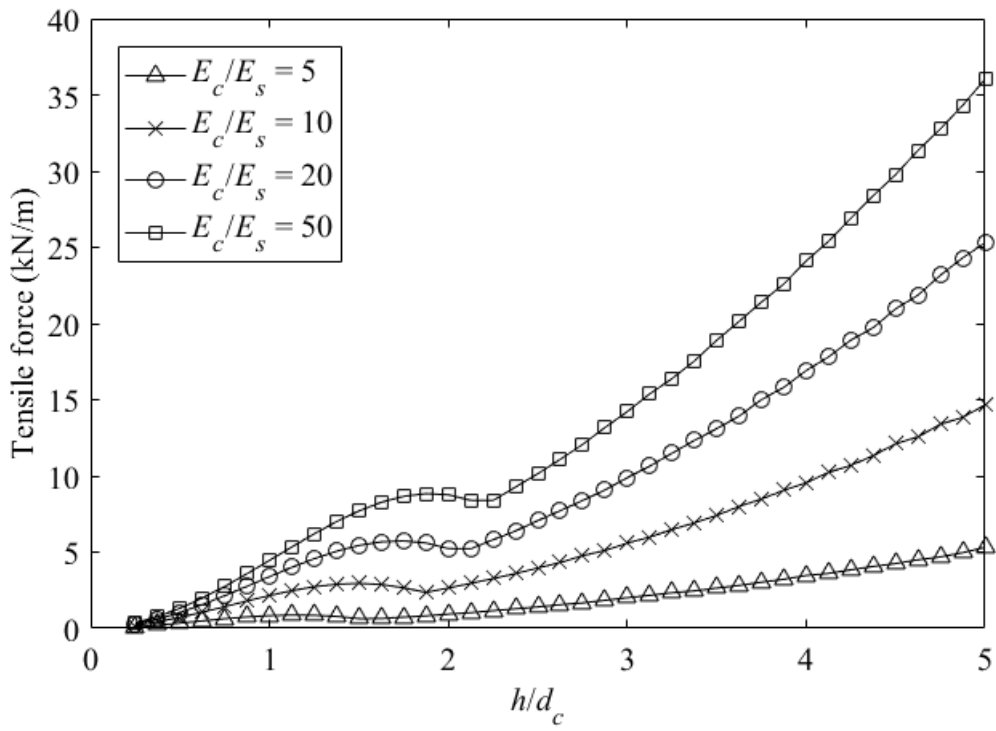
height



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932 **Fig. 16.** Maximum settlement of foundation soil versus height of embankment fill

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Fig. 17. Tensile force of geosynthetic reinforcement with an increase in embankment height

949 **Table 1.** Parameters for the design methods and proposed model

Parameters	Full-scale test	Proposed method
Fill height, h	3.2 m	3.2 m
Unit weight of the fill, γ	21.2 kN/m ³	21.2 kN/m ³
Modulus of the fill, E_f	(31.2–53.5) MPa	30 MPa
Friction angle, φ	43.6°	43.6°
Column spacing (circle), d_e	--	2.03 m
Column spacing (square)	1.8 m	--
Column diameter (circle), d_c	--	1.13 m
Column width (square)	1 m	--
Column length, l/d_c	--	20
Stiffness ratio, E_c/E_s	--	10
Poisson's ratio of soil, ν_s	--	0.35
Concrete base and rail plate, q	12.25 kPa	12.25 kPa
Tensile stiffness of geosynthetics	2459.5 kN/m	2459.5 kN/m

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953 **Table 2.** Comparison with a full-scale test (Chen et al., 2016b; Zhou et al., 2016)

		σ_c (kPa)	σ_s (kPa)	T (kN/m)
End of embankment construction	Measured data	158.4	27.4	3.8
	Proposed method	163.9	22.6	5.6
With concrete base and rail plate	Measured data	169.7	26.5	3.8
	Proposed method	186.6	24.8	6.2

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957 **Table 3.** Comparison with design methods (End of embankment construction)

	σ_c (kPa)	σ_s (kPa)	T (kN/m)
Hewlett and Randolph (1988)	189	13.5	16.5
Nordic Guideline (2003)	180.9	17.3	21.1
EBGEO (2010)	205.1	6.6	8.1
Proposed model (ultimate state)	193	11.9	14.5

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961 **Table 4.** Comparison with design methods (With concrete base and rail plate)

	σ_c (kPa)	σ_s (kPa)	T (kN/m)
Hewlett and Randolph (1988)	216.1	13.5	15.5
Nordic Guideline (2003)	207.6	17.3	21.1
EBGEO (2010)	231.2	6.8	8.3
Proposed model (ultimate state)	228.4	14	17.1

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968 **Table 5.** Parameters used in the parametric study

	d_e/d_c	E_c/E_s	l/d_c	E_f/E_s	h/d_c	K_g (kN/m)
Fig. 3	4	--	25	3	5	1700
Fig. 4	--	--	25	3	5	1700
Fig. 5	--	--	25	3	5	1700
Fig. 6	3	--	25	3	--	1700
Fig. 7	--	30	25	3	5	--
Fig. 8	3	30	25	3	5	--
Fig. 9	--	--	25	3	--	1700
Fig. 10	--	30	--	3	--	1700
Fig. 11	3	30	--	3	--	1700
Fig. 12	--	--	--	3	5	1700
Fig. 13	--	30	25	3	5	1700
Fig. 14	--	30	20	3	--	1700
Fig. 15	--	30	20	3	--	1700
Fig. 16	3	--	20	3	--	1700
Fig. 17	3	--	20	3	--	1700

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