**MICROMECHANICS MODEL FOR CREEP OF ANISOTROPIC CLAY**

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INTRODUCTION

A more fundamental understanding of the macroscopic stress-strain behavior of clay can be achieved by studying the micromechanics of deformation. Although various hypotheses have been advanced over the years to characterize the microstructure of clay, it is only recently that a creep law that considers the physical processes involved has been proposed. Based on the assumption that the sliding of one clay particle over another obeys the activation energy concept, rate process theory has been adopted to study the creep behavior of clays [2,7,10]. However, cases considered to date involve the assumptions that the material is isotropic and the interparticle shear forces that produce sliding are all equal and proportional to the macroscopic shear stress, the latter of which is not true in reality.

The objective of this study is to develop a refined model for the multiaxial creep of clay in which these simplifying assumptions are obviated. In addition to giving an improved formulation for the stress dependence of the creep rate, such a model will allow the anisotropy of the clay fabric to be taken into account. The mathematical model then is applied to the analysis of data from creep tests on isotropic and anisotropic specimens of a kaolin clay. Cylindrical test specimens with their longitudinal axes in mutually orthogonal directions were submitted for review for possible publication on January 7, 1974.

Assumption 1.—The clay fabric is considered to be a two-dimensional array of individual particles, as shown in Fig. 1(b), and the three-dimensional formulation can be synthesized approximately from the two-dimensional one.

Assumption 2.—Most particles have negligible thickness relative to their length and are plate-like rather than sheet-like or rod-like.

Assumption 3.—For a constant macroscopic load, the particles are in a time-constant stress state, so that changes in the elastic deformation of the particles are negligible. In other words, the particles can be treated as perfectly rigid.

Assumption 4.—Creep consists in the sliding of the edge of one particle over the face of an adjacent particle.

Assumption 5.—The macroscopic load is carried solely by statically determinate triangular cells, shown in Figs. 2(a) and 2(b), formed by three particles, each of which has only one edge touching another particle of the cell.

Assumption 6.—The displacements in the macroscopic continuum match the average of the displacements of the particle edges in the cells, the average being taken over a large number of cells.

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Assumption 5 excludes polygons with more than three sides [case 2 in Fig. 2(c)] and many other configurations [Fig. 2(c)] that are not easily amenable to analysis. Those that are kinematically indeterminate [cases 2 and 3, Fig.

As a more general and possibly more realistic model, creep may be assumed to consist essentially of the sliding of a group of particles over an adjacent group. If the arrangement of particles within each group is assumed to be fixed, the present theory is also applicable. In this case the words “particle” or “platelet” in the ensuing development must be everywhere replaced by the phrase “group of particles” or “group of platelets.”

In view of assumption 6, the basic kinematic parameters of the cell are best chosen as the displacement components, \( u_x \) and \( u_y \) (i = 1, 2, 3), of the contact edges, referred to cartesian coordinates \( x \) and \( y \). The column matrices of displacements are

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  u_1 \\
  u_2 \\
  u_3 \\
  u_4 \\
  u_5 \\
  u_6
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
  u_{x1} \\
  u_{x2} \\
  u_{x3} \\
  u_{y1} \\
  u_{y2} \\
  u_{y3}
\end{pmatrix}^T;
\]

in which the superscript, \( T \), designates a transpose. Similar to constant strain triangles in the finite element method (16), the six displacement parameters in Eq. 1 for the triangular cell can be associated uniquely with a homogeneous strain field, defined as

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  \epsilon_x \\
  \epsilon_y \\
  \gamma_{xy}
\end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix}
  \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial x} \\
  \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial y} \\
  \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x}
\end{pmatrix}^T
\]

in which \( \epsilon_x, \epsilon_y, \) and \( \gamma_{xy} \) are the linearized (small) normal strains and the shear strain (shear angle), respectively, and

\[
\begin{align*}
  u_x &= \frac{1}{2\Delta} \left\{ \left[ y_{32}(x-x_3) - x_{32}(y-y_2) \right] u_{x1} + \left[ -y_{31}(x-x_3) \\
  &+ x_{31}(y-y_3) \right] u_{x2} + \left[ y_{21}(x-x_1) - x_{21}(y-y_1) \right] u_{x3} \right\} \\
  u_y &= \frac{1}{2\Delta} \left\{ \left[ y_{32}(x-x_2) - x_{32}(y-y_2) \right] u_{y1} + \left[ -y_{31}(x-x_3) \\
  &+ x_{31}(y-y_3) \right] u_{y2} + \left[ y_{21}(x-x_1) - x_{21}(y-y_1) \right] u_{y3} \right\}
\end{align*}
\]

in which \( x_q = x_1 - x_2; y_q = y_1 - y_2; \) and \( \Delta = \text{area of triangle} \). To assure a positive value for \( \Delta \), the corners of the triangle must be numbered clockwise. Eqs. 3 are derived by assuming general linear expressions in \( x \) and \( y \) for \( u_x \) and \( u_y \) and imposing the conditions that the nodal displacements must be obtained for nodal coordinates. Substitution of Eqs. 3 into Eq. 2 yields

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  \epsilon_x \\
  \epsilon_y \\
  \gamma_{xy}
\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}
  b_1 \\
  b_2 \\
  b_3
\end{pmatrix}
\]

in which \( \begin{pmatrix}
  b_1 \\
  b_2 \\
  b_3
\end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{2\Delta} \begin{pmatrix}
  1 & b_2 & b_3 \\
  b_1 & 1 & b_3 \\
  b_1 & b_2 & 1
\end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix}
  c_1 \\
  c_2 \\
  c_3
\end{pmatrix} \)
and $b_i = y_{ik} - y_{jk}$ and $c_i = x_{ik} - x_{jk}$ where $(i,j,k)$ = (1,2,3), (2,3,1), or (3,1,2). It is expedient to express $b_i$ and $c_i$ in terms of $\Delta$ and the direction angles, $\alpha_1$, $\alpha_2$, and $\alpha_3$, of the particles, as defined in Fig. 2(a). Then, $b_i = -b_i', \ b_2 = -b_2', \ b_3 = b_3$, $c_1 = c_1', \ c_2 = c_2', \ c_3 = -c_3'$ and

$$b_i' = b_i' \sin \alpha_k; \ c_i' = b_i' \cos \alpha_k; \ b_i'' = \left[ \frac{2\Delta \sin (\alpha_k - \alpha_i)}{\sin (\alpha_k - \alpha_i)} \right]^{1/2}$$ (6)

The edge displacement rates, $\ddot{u}$, of the particles in the cell uniquely determine the relative slip velocities, $v_i$, at the particle contacts, and one can readily find

$$v = (v_1, v_2, v_3)^T = e \cdot u$$ in which the dot denotes a time derivative ($\dot{u} = du/ dt$). For the configuration shown in Fig. 2(a):

$$c = \begin{bmatrix} -\cos \alpha_1 & 0 & \cos \alpha_1 & -\sin \alpha_1 & 0 & \sin \alpha_1 \\ -\cos \alpha_2 & \cos \alpha_2 & 0 & -\sin \alpha_2 & \sin \alpha_2 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha_3 & -\cos \alpha_3 & 0 & \sin \alpha_3 & -\sin \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix}$$ (8a)

and, for the configuration shown in Fig. 2(b):

$$c = \begin{bmatrix} -\cos \alpha_2 & \cos \alpha_2 & 0 & -\sin \alpha_2 & \sin \alpha_2 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha_3 & -\cos \alpha_3 & 0 & \sin \alpha_3 & -\sin \alpha_3 \\ -\cos \alpha_1 & 0 & \cos \alpha_1 & -\sin \alpha_1 & 0 & \sin \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix}$$ (8b)

Furthermore, it is necessary to express the slip velocities, $v_i$, in terms of the macroscopic strain rates, $\dot{\varepsilon}$. These cannot be obtained by inverting matrix $B$ in Eq. 4 because $B$ is not a square matrix. This is due to the fact that $u$ may include rigid body rotations, which are immaterial for stress-strain relations because no work is done by the stresses. Thus, without sacrificing generality, one may introduce an arbitrary statically determinate support for the basic cell. It can be verified that the resulting expressions (Eqs. 26 and 27) are the same for any such support. The support will be introduced for particle 1 in Fig. 2(a) or Fig. 2(b). Under this assumption one obtains

$$\ddot{u}_{1(i)} = \theta \dot{u}_{1(i)} + \dot{\varepsilon}_{1(i)}; \ \varepsilon = \gamma \dot{u}_{1(i)}$$ in which

$$\theta = [\beta_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} \cot \alpha_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cot \alpha_3 & -\cot \alpha_3 - \tan \alpha_3 \\ 0 & 0 & \tan \alpha_3 \end{bmatrix} \ \ \ \ (9)$$

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = [\dot{\beta}_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} \tan \alpha_2 & 0 & 0 \\ -\cot \alpha_2 - \tan \alpha_2 & -\cot \alpha_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \tan \alpha_1 \end{bmatrix} \ \ \ \ (10)$$

and

$$\gamma = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ b_1' & b_2' & b_3' \\ \beta_1 & \beta_2 & \beta_3 \end{bmatrix}; \ \beta_i = \sum_{k=1}^{3} c_k \beta_{kl}; \ \beta_i'' = c_i + \sum_{k=1}^{3} b_k \beta_{kl}$$ (11)

From Eqs. 7 and 9, it follows that

$$\ddot{u} = b \dot{e}; \ \dddot{v} = c \dot{b} \dot{e}; \ \text{with} \ b = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma^{-1} \\ \beta_2^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$ (12)

Use of the support condition for particle 1 allows Eq. 7 to be reduced to

$$v = \alpha \dot{u}_{1(i)}, \dot{u}_{2(i)}, \dot{u}_{3(i)}$$ (13)

in which $\alpha$ is expressed in terms of $e$ and $\beta$ in the same manner as $\gamma$ is expressed in terms of $b$ and $\dot{e}$. Then

$$\ddot{u} = D \dot{v}; \ \dddot{v} = D^2 \dddot{v}; \ \text{with} \ D = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha^{-1} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \beta_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$ (14)

**CORRELATION OF MICROSCOPIC AND MACROSCOPIC CREEP LAWS THROUGH ENERGY DISSIPATION**

According to rate process theory (2,3,7,10), the relative slip velocity, $v_i$, and the tangential force, $S_i$, at the $i$th interparticle contact ($i = 1,2,3$; Fig. 2) may be related by

$$v_i = k_i \sinh (k_2 S_i); \ \text{with} \ k_1 = 2X \frac{h}{e} \exp \left( -\frac{\Delta F}{RT} \right) \ \text{and} \ k_2 = \frac{\lambda}{2kT}$$ (15)

in which $k_1$ and $k_2$ are material parameters (of which $k_1$ is a given function of time, provided $S_i$ is time-constant); $T$ = absolute temperature; $\Delta F$ = activation energy of creep; $k$ = Boltzmann’s constant; $h$ = Planck’s constant; $R$ = universal gas constant; $\lambda$ = distance between successive equilibrium positions of the broken and reformed bond; and $X$ = parameter that depends on $\lambda$ and the number of bonds in the contact area.

For a wide range of clay soils and stress levels, Singh and Mitchell (13) showed that the time-dependence is described adequately by the power law,

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = c(t_1/t)^m$$ in which $m$, $c$, and $t_1$ are constants that can be determined readily from logarithmic time plots. If rate process theory is adopted for the stress dependence of creep (at constant load), this result suggests that

$$k_1 = k_0 t_m^{-m}$$ (16)

in which $m$ and $k_0 = \text{constants} \ (k_0 = \text{the value of } k \text{ at unit time}).$ The constant, $m$, characterizes the time dependence of creep in soils; usually, $0.7 \leq m \leq 1$. It will be shown that the experiments reported herein conform reasonably well to this power law.

It will be helpful to carry out an incremental (tangential) linearization of Eq. 15, which is nonlinear. Using the first two terms of a Taylor series expansion about point $(S_i, v_i)$, one gets

$$\ddot{v}_i = k_1 \sinh (k_2 S_i) + k_1 k_2 \cosh (k_2 S_i) (\bar{S}_i - S_i)$$ (17)
in which the bar is used to label the quantities of a linearized relationship. No error is introduced by this procedure because only points \((\hat{S}_i, \hat{v}_i)\) that are infinitesimally close to \((S_i, v_i)\) will be considered. Rewriting Eq. 17, one obtains
\[
\hat{S} = A\hat{S} + S^0 \quad \text{with} \quad \hat{S} = (\hat{S}_1, \hat{S}_2, \hat{S}_3)^T \quad \text{and} \quad S^0 = (S^0_1, S^0_2, S^0_3)^T
\]
in which
\[
A = [A_{ij}]; \quad A_{ij} = \frac{\delta_{ij}}{k_1 k_2 \cosh (k_2 S_i)}; \quad S^0 = S_i - v_i A_{ii}
\]
\[
= S_i - \frac{\tan (k_2 S_i)}{k_2}
\]
and \(\delta_{ij}\) = Kronecker delta. The macroscopic multiaxial stress-strain relations for creep under constant stress also can be written in linearized form as
\[
\hat{\sigma} = \eta (\hat{\varepsilon} - \hat{\sigma}^0) = \gamma \hat{\varepsilon} + \sigma^0
\]
\[
\hat{\sigma} = (\hat{\sigma}_x, \hat{\sigma}_y, \hat{\sigma}_z)^T; \quad \hat{\sigma}^0 = (\hat{\sigma}_x^0, \hat{\sigma}_y^0, \hat{\sigma}_z^0)^T; \quad \hat{\varepsilon} = (\hat{\varepsilon}_x, \hat{\varepsilon}_y, \hat{\varepsilon}_z)^T
\]
\[
\hat{\varepsilon}^0 = (\hat{\varepsilon}_x^0, \hat{\varepsilon}_y^0, \hat{\varepsilon}_z^0)^T \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\sigma}^0 = (\sigma_x^0, \sigma_y^0, \sigma_z^0)^T
\]
in which \(\eta\) = incremental (tangential) viscosity matrix (of size 3 \(\times\) 3); \(\hat{\sigma}^0\) = nonviscous (or inviscid) strain rate; and \(\sigma^0\) = nonviscous (or inviscid) stress. The \(\sigma - \varepsilon\) relations are, of course, nonlinear, and therefore \(\gamma, \hat{\varepsilon},\) and \(\sigma^0\) are all functions of \(\sigma\) (or \(\varepsilon\)). However, it is important to realize that for infinitesimal deviations of state \((\hat{\sigma}, \hat{\varepsilon})\) from the tangent point \((\sigma, \varepsilon)\), no error is incurred.

The preceding linearizations are crucial steps in correlating the macroscopic and microscopic behavior. The situation is analogous to the use of linearized incremental stress-strain relations in elasto-plasticity; \(\gamma, \hat{\varepsilon},\) and \(\sigma^0\) are analogous to the incremental (tangential) elastic moduli, the inelastic strains, and the inelastic stresses, respectively.

The energy dissipation rate, \(\mathcal{D}\) within the triangular cell can be expressed in terms of either macroscopic parameters or microscopic parameters, and both expressions must be equal, yielding
\[
\mathcal{D} = \hat{\sigma}^T \hat{\varepsilon} = k_c \hat{S}^T \hat{v}
\]
in which \(k_c = k'_c k'_c\) and \(k'_c = 1/2\) when there is a statically determinate triangle on each side of the particle (i.e., the particle belongs to two cells) and \(k'_c = 1\) when there is a statically determinate triangle on one side and a kinematically indeterminate figure [e.g., cell 2 from Fig. 2(c)] on the other side (i.e., the particle belongs to only one cell). As an average for many cells, \(1/2 < k_c \leq 1\). Coefficient \(k'_c\) is the fraction of a macroscopic unit area in the material that is occupied by triangular cells; \(k'_c < 1\), perhaps \(k'_c \approx 1/2\). Note that \(\Delta/k_c = 3n/N\); in which \(N\) = the number of bonds per unit macroscopic area; and \(n\) = the number of bonds per edge. Substitution of Eq. 14 for \(\hat{\varepsilon}\) and of Eqs. 20, 18, and 12 for \(\hat{\sigma}, \hat{S},\) and \(\hat{v}\), respectively, into Eq. 22 yields
\[
\hat{\sigma}^T \mathbf{B} \hat{v} \Delta = k_c \hat{S}^T \hat{v}
\]
\[
\hat{\xi}^T \hat{\gamma} \hat{\xi} + \sigma^0 T \hat{\xi} = \frac{k_c}{\Delta} \hat{b}^T c^T A \hat{c} \hat{\xi} + \frac{k_c}{\Delta} S^0 T c^T \hat{c} \hat{\xi}
\]
\[
\hat{\xi}^T \gamma \hat{\xi} + \sigma^0 T \hat{\xi} = \frac{k_c}{\Delta} \hat{b}^T c^T A \hat{c} \hat{\xi} + \frac{k_c}{\Delta} S^0 T c^T \hat{c} \hat{\xi}
\]
\[
\sigma^0 = \frac{k_c}{\Delta} \hat{b}^T c^T A \hat{c} \xi + \frac{k_c}{\Delta} S^0 T c^T \hat{c} \xi
\]

These two equations must be satisfied for any column matrices \(\xi\) and \(v\) that are infinitesimally close to \(\hat{\xi}\) and \(v\). Recalling the basic lemma of variational calculus, Eq. 24 is fulfilled for any \(\hat{\xi}\) if, and only if

\[
\hat{\xi}^T \gamma + \sigma^0 T \hat{\xi} = \frac{k_c}{\Delta} \hat{b}^T c^T A \hat{c} \hat{\xi} + \frac{k_c}{\Delta} S^0 T c^T \hat{c} \hat{\xi}
\]

Applying the same consideration again with regard to \(\hat{\xi}\) and \(v\) in Eqs. 25 and 23, one reaches the following result:

\[
\hat{\xi}^T \gamma + \sigma^0 T \hat{\xi} = \frac{k_c}{\Delta} \hat{b}^T c^T A \hat{c} \hat{\xi} + \frac{k_c}{\Delta} S^0 T c^T \hat{c} \hat{\xi}
\]

Note that both \(\gamma\) and \(\sigma^0\) depend on \(\sigma\), because \(A\) and \(S^0\) in Eq. 27 are both functions of \(\hat{S}\), which is, in turn, a function of \(\sigma\), defined by Eq. 26. Given the macroscopic stress level and the geometry of the triangular cell, one may compute \(\hat{S}\) from Eq. 26 and, subsequently, \(\gamma\) and \(\sigma^0\) from Eq. 27. The results are exact within the limitations of the assumptions specified.

**Statistical Aspects of Clay Microstructure**

Eqs. 26 and 27 would apply only if all triangular cells were identical. In reality, the particle orientations, \(\alpha_1\), \(\alpha_2\), and \(\alpha_3\), and the cell area, \(\Delta\), are random variables with certain statistical distributions. The orientation distributions of the three particles of each cell are certainly not independent, but correlated, so that one should speak of joint probability densities. For example, if particle 1 with a given orientation \(\alpha_1\) is specified, orientation \(\alpha_2\) of particle 2 is unlikely to be close to \(\alpha_1\). One reason probably is that the total surface Gibbs free energy for the solid walls of a rounded void is less than that for an elongated void of equal volume. This type of correlation between the orientation probabilities will be considered herein by dividing the region \((0, \pi)\) of \(N(\alpha)\), the probability density distribution of orientation \(\alpha\) for all particles (Fig. 3), into three subregions with equal areas, i.e., \((0, \alpha_1), (\alpha_1, \alpha_2),\) and \((\alpha_2, \pi)\), and by assuming that each of the orientations, \(\alpha_1, \alpha_2,\) and \(\alpha_3\), of the sides of a cell lies only within one respective subregion. This assumption obviously reduces the frequency of occurrence of cells with very small angles. In fact, such a case can occur only when \(\alpha\) is close to 0, \(\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\) or \(\pi\). There is, obviously, a certain bias for angles 0, \(\alpha_1,\alpha_2,\) but it is insignificant because subregions \((\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \beta, \alpha_2 + \beta, \alpha_3 + \beta)\) and \((\alpha_3 + \beta, \pi + \beta)\) with any value of \(\beta\) yielded the same results in practical computations. Thus, averaging with regard to \(\beta\) appeared to be unnecessary. The introduction of subregions also involves another simplification because it excludes triangles [e.g., case 7 in Fig. 2(c)] in which the orientation of two or three sides falls within one region in Fig. 3. Nevertheless, this assumption is not considered to be excessively restrictive, because the frequency of such cases is probably quite small.

The probability density distribution, \(p(\Delta)\), for the areas, \(\Delta\), of the triangular cells can be obtained from the cumulative experimental distribution functions
for pore sizes, which have been obtained by mercury intrusion tests (4). According to these data a plot of the cumulative volume (or area, in the two-dimensional case) of pores versus the logarithm of the volume (or area) of individual pores is approximately a straight line. Thus

\[ p(\Delta) = \frac{\Delta_1 \Delta_2}{\Delta_2 - \Delta_1} \frac{1}{\Delta_2} \]  

(28)

in which \( \Delta_1 \) and \( \Delta_2 \) is the smallest and the largest values of \( \Delta \) in the material. Values of \( 2 \times 10^{-11} \text{ cm}^2 \) and \( 10^{-8} \text{ cm}^2 \) for \( \Delta_1 \) and \( \Delta_2 \), respectively, were used in all computations reported herein.

Assuming that the interparticle forces, \( S \), for all cells of different shape correspond to the same macroscopic stress state, \( \sigma \), one may obtain the averaged macroscopic incremental viscosities and nonviscous stresses as

\[ \eta = \int \int \int f(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \Delta) N(\alpha_1) N(\alpha_2) N(\alpha_3) p(\Delta) d \alpha_1 d \alpha_2 d \alpha_3 d \Delta \]  

(29a)

\[ \sigma^0 = \int \int \int g(\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \Delta) N(\alpha_1) N(\alpha_2) N(\alpha_3) p(\Delta) d \alpha_1 d \alpha_2 d \alpha_3 d \Delta \]  

(29b)

in which \( f = [(\eta)_a + (\eta)_b] / 2 \); \( g = [(\sigma^0)_a + (\sigma^0)_b] / 2 \)  

(30)

Here, \( \eta \) and \( \sigma^0 \) are evaluated from Eqs. 26 and 27 for the kinds of cell configurations designated by subscripts \( a \) and \( b \), respectively, as shown in Figs. 2(a) and 2(b). To satisfy the conditions of symmetry of the material, both kinds of configurations must occur with equal frequency within a sufficiently large volume. Therefore, Eq. 30 introduces the average of the values obtained for the configurations shown in Figs. 2(a) and 2(b).

The assumptions regarding statistics may be checked easily in the case of an isotropic material, for which \( N(\alpha) \) is a constant (which corresponds to a perfectly random orientation of particles). Components \( \eta_{ij} \) of matrix \( \eta \) must then satisfy the conditions, \( \eta_{13} = \eta_{31} = \eta_{23} = \eta_{32} = 0 \); \( \eta_{22} = \eta_{11} \); \( \eta_{12} / \eta_{11} = \eta_{12} / \eta_{11} = \nu' \); and \( \eta_{33} = \eta_{11} (1 - \nu') / 2 \). Computer calculations indicated that these conditions are indeed satisfied, with an error of not more than 0.1%. Thus, the statistical assumptions regarding particle orientation appear to be acceptable. These calculations always yield a value of 1/3 for Poisson's ratio in creep, \( \nu' \). This is not surprising because it is known that the microstructure of an isotropic elastic material idealized as any isotropic system of elastic bars always leads to a Poisson's ratio of 1/3 (9) if no constraint to constant-volume is imposed. However, when the three-dimensional case and the constant-volume constraint are considered in the next section, the correct value of \( \nu' = 1/2 \) is assured.

For an \( N(\alpha) \) distribution that is symmetric about \( \pi/2 \), the material is transversely isotropic (in three dimensions). By imposing the condition that the \( x \)-axis must coincide with the direction, \( \alpha = \pi/2 \), one must obtain \( \eta_{13} = \eta_{31} = \eta_{23} = \eta_{32} = 0 \), and for \( \nu' = 0 \) one must get \( \sigma^0 = 0 \). These conditions also were found to be satisfied with an error of less than 0.1%. Moreover, computations always yielded nearly exactly equal values of \( \eta_{12} \) and \( \eta_{21} \). This means that \( \eta_{ij} \) values are derivable by double differentiation from a certain scalar potential (dissipation potential). In fact, one could prove that this must be so, because \( \nu' \) does not depend on any force that would do no work, such as the normal force in the contact of particles.

Experimental data characterizing the distribution of particle orientations were obtained from x-ray diffraction tests that were performed on carbowax impregnated thin sections (approx 100 \( \mu \) thick) according to the method developed by Baker, Wenck, and Christie (1) and Tullis (15). Fabric effects were averaged over an area approximately 1 mm in diameter, and the results were plotted in the form of polar orientation density distributions, \( n(\theta, \phi) \), in which \( \theta \) and \( \phi \) are the spherical coordinates of the normal to the clay platelet. Once axial symmetry had been ascertained (all samples were either isotropic or cross-anisotropic), \( n(\theta, \phi) \) reduces to \( n(\theta) \) which may be converted into the planar orientation density distribution, \( N(\alpha) \), in which \( \alpha \) is measured from the axis of symmetry, by projecting the normals of clay platelets onto a plane containing the axis of symmetry and normalizing the result with respect to the total intensity, \( N_\pi \). The geometry associated with this projection is shown in Fig. 4. The number of particles having a projected normal with an angle equal to or greater than \( \alpha \) is

\[ N^* (\alpha) = \int_0^{\pi/2} \left( \int_0^{\pi/2} n(\theta) \sin \theta d\theta \right) d\phi \]  

(31)

in which \( f(\alpha, \phi) = \arctan (\tan \alpha / \cos \phi) \) because \( \tan \alpha = \sin \theta \cos \phi / \cos \theta \). Due to symmetry, integration is necessary only over the first octant. Since \( N^* (\alpha) \) is the cumulative distribution, the projected planar orientation density distribution (Fig. 3) is

\[ N(\alpha) = \frac{1}{N_\pi} \frac{dN^* (\alpha)}{d\alpha} = - \frac{1}{N_\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{df(\alpha, \phi)}{d\alpha} n[f(\alpha, \phi)] \sin [f(\alpha, \phi)] d\phi \]  

(32)

in which constant \( N_\pi \) is determined from the normalizing condition, \( \int_0^{\pi} N(\alpha) d\alpha = 1 = 2N^* (0) = 1 \), which, after substitution for \( N^* \) from Eq. 31, yields \( N_\pi = \pi \int_0^{\pi/2} n(\theta) \sin \theta d\theta \). In the plane case, the particle orientations are defined by angles \( \alpha_i \) of the particle rather than their normals (Fig. 2), and the conversion from \( \alpha \) to \( \alpha_i \) is accomplished by substituting \( \alpha = \alpha_i \pm \pi/2 \).

**Approximate Generalizations to Three Dimensions**

The anisotropic microstructure of clays is produced in large part by the anisotropy of the stress state under which it is consolidated. The axis of the maximum principal stress during consolidation will be identified as the \( x \)-axis. This area is normal to the prevalent orientation of clay platelets. In the laboratory consolidation techniques employed, the stress state during consolidation is axisymmetric about the \( x \)-axis and symmetric about the \( (yz) \)-plane, and the same must therefore be true of the microstructure produced by the consolidation process. Accordingly, it is logical to expect that the stress-strain relations of
these clay samples are transversely isotropic, provided that the stress state, \( \sigma \), causing creep is likewise transversely isotropic, since the incremental material properties depend on \( \sigma \).

In the three-dimensional case, stress-strain relations in the form of Eq. 20 still may be considered, but all matrices must be expanded to either \((6 \times 1)\) or \((6 \times 6)\) in size. A three-dimensional model for the determination of material parameters perhaps could be based on a mixture of tetrahedral cells and prismatic (hexahedral) cells, but such a model would be much more complicated than the two-dimensional model developed herein. In view of the other assumptions involved, such a complexity seems to be unjustified at this time, and three-dimensional situations are better treated approximately by considering projections of the microstructure on various planes, as has been done already in connection with Eq. 32. If one considers separately the (xy)-plane, the projected orientation distribution, \( N(\alpha) \), within this plane (Eq. 32), and the stress state, \( \sigma_r, \sigma_y, \) and \( \tau_{xy} \), within this plane, it is possible to compute components \( \eta_{11}, \eta_{12}, \eta_{22}, \eta_{13}, \eta_{23}, \) and \( \eta_{33} \) of matrix \( \eta \) and components \( a_{0r}, a_{0y}, \) and \( a_{0xy} \) of matrix \( a_0 \) from Eqs. 26 and 27. Then, the same can be repeated for the (yz) and (zx)-planes. This procedure yields the complete matrix, \( a_0 \), and all coefficients of the \((6 \times 6)\) matrix \( \eta \), except \( \eta_{15}, \eta_{26}, \eta_{34}, \) and \( \eta_{56} \), i.e., the coefficients relating \( \sigma_r \) to \( \gamma_{xy}, \sigma_y \) to \( \gamma_{xz}, \sigma_x \) to \( \gamma_{xy}, \tau_{xy} \) to \( \gamma_{xy} \), and \( \tau_{xz} \) to \( \gamma_{xy} \). These coefficients, of course, cannot be determined from planar models and must be assumed to vanish in the present study.

The coefficient, \( \eta_{11} \), is obtained from computations for the (xy)-plane and then again from computations for the (yz)-plane. The results of both computations need not be the same, unless the orientation distributions, \( N(\alpha) \), for each of the two planes are normalized with regard to the same number of particles. Thus, all \( \eta \) components and \( a_0 \) components for one of the planes [e.g., the (xy)-plane] must be proportionately adjusted to obtain the same value of \( \eta_{11} \) as determined from the (xy)-plane. Subsequently, the coefficient, \( \eta_{22} \), is obtained from the (xy) and (yz)-planes, and now all \( \eta \) and \( a_0 \) components from the (yz)-plane must be proportionately adjusted to yield the same value of \( \eta_{22} \) as determined from the (xy)-plane. Finally, the coefficient, \( \eta_{33} \), is obtained from the (xy) and (yz)-planes; however, this time both the (xz)-plane and the (yz)-plane already have been adjusted with regard to (xy), and no further proportional adjustment is justified. However, a difference in \( \eta_{33} \) may still appear because of the numerical error associated with the approximate nature of the three-dimensional generalization. In such a case, it is probably best to take for \( \eta_{33} \) the average value from both planes. Furthermore, the coefficient, \( a_{0z} \), is also obtained twice, once from the (xy)-plane and once from the (xz)-plane; if the two values differ, their average should be taken again. The same argument applies for \( a_{0y} \) and \( a_{0z} \).

The axial direction of the creep specimens tested will be denoted by \( x' \) and \( y' \), and \( z' \) will identify the remaining two cartesian axes of the test specimen. To fit the test data, the stress-strain law given by Eq. 20 must be transformed (Fig. 5) from the material axes, \( x = (x, y, z) \), to the specimen axes, \( x' = (x', y', z') \). The transformation of the stress tensor, \( \sigma \), is expressed in tensor notation as \( \sigma_{ij}' = (\partial x'_i/\partial x_j)(\partial x'_k/\partial x_l)\sigma_{kl} \), which, in matrix notation, can be rewritten as \( \sigma' = \lambda \sigma \), in which \( \lambda^2 \) is a \((6 \times 6)\) transformation matrix. The transformed version of Eq. 20 then becomes

\[
\sigma' = (\lambda \eta \lambda) \varepsilon' + \lambda \tau_0 \varepsilon_0; \quad \text{with} \quad \sigma' = \lambda \varepsilon' + \lambda \varepsilon_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \varepsilon' = \lambda \varepsilon. \quad \text{(33)}
\]

Since the test program included only consolidated undrained creep tests for which the volume change is virtually zero, the following constraint must be introduced in the stress-strain relations:

\[
\varepsilon_z = -\varepsilon_x - \varepsilon_y \quad \text{or} \quad \varepsilon_z' = -\varepsilon_x' - \varepsilon_y'. \quad \text{(34)}
\]

Furthermore, because the hydrostatic component of the stress tensor does no
of Kaolin (Hydrite 10) Samples

| Void ratio | Time exponent, m | Stress level parameter, $k_2$ (N$^{-1}$) | Creep rate parameter, $k_0$, mm/min. |
|------------|-----------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|------|
| 1.22       | 0.77            | $306 \times 10^3$              | $10.33 \times 10^{-14}$         |      |
| 1.08       | 1.00            | $184 \times 10^3$              | $17.60 \times 10^{-14}$         |      |
| 1.52       | 0.72            | $816 \times 10^3$              | $1.28 \times 10^{-14}$          |      |
| 1.16       | 0.86            | $235 \times 10^3$              | $6.27 \times 10^{-14}$          |      |
| 1.40       | 0.82            | $867 \times 10^2$              | $1.51 \times 10^{-11}$          |      |
| 1.16       | 1.00            | $387 \times 10^2$              | $4.75 \times 10^{-11}$          |      |
| 1.45       | 0.80            | $408 \times 10^2$              | $8.29 \times 10^{-11}$          |      |
| 1.26       | 0.90            | $204 \times 10^2$              | $1.20 \times 10^{-11}$          |      |

Consolidation stress; $1$ = isotropic consolidation stress.

work, it is indeterminate and unrelated to creep at constant volume. Thus, only the deviatoric component of the stress tensor may appear in the stress-strain relations. For the tests performed in this investigation, one has $\sigma'_x \neq 0, \sigma'_y = \sigma'_z$, and $\tau'_{xy} = \tau'_{yz} = \tau'_{zx} = 0$. Thus, the creep rate may depend only on $(\sigma'_x - \sigma'_y)$, so that Eq. 20 would simplify to the form, $\dot{e}'_x = a(\sigma'_x - \sigma'_y) + b$; in which $a$ and $b$ are functions of $(\sigma'_x - \sigma'_y)$.

**Computer Program for Predicting Creep and Fitting Data**

There are only two free parameters, $k_1$ and $k_2$, in Eq. 15 to fit the test data. Of these, $k_1$ a function of time $t$, but if a specified time in the creep test is considered, $k_1$ appears to be a constant. In a computer program, which has been written to fit the creep data, the computations are performed in accordance with the following main steps:

1. Assign chosen values to $k_1$, $m$, and $k_2$ (Eq. 15 and Eq. 16).
2. Choose the time, $t$, and the stress level, $\sigma'_x$.
3. The deviatoric components of the actual stresses, $\sigma'_x$, $\sigma'_y$, and $\sigma'_z$, in the test (i.e., the components $s'_x = \sigma'_x - \sigma'_y/3, s'_y = \sigma'_y - \sigma'_x/3, s'_z = -s'_x - s'_y/2$, in which $\sigma'_x = \sigma'_z + \sigma'_y + \sigma'_z$) are transformed to the material axes, $x, y, z$ (Eq. 33).
4. The $(xy)$-plane is considered first. For all possible combinations of chosen discrete values for $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3$, and $\Delta$, the values of $S, \gamma$, and $\sigma^0$ are evaluated (Eqs. 26 and 27) for the configurations shown in Figs. 2(a) and 2(b). Then, the statistical averaging integrals of Eq. 29 are computed by the trapezoidal rule, which yields averaged values of $\gamma$ and $\sigma^0$ for the $(xy)$-plane.

5. Step 3 is repeated for the $(xz)$-plane, in which the same orientation distribution, $N(\alpha)$, applies, and then for the $(yz)$-plane, in which the orientation distribution is perfectly random (isotropy).

6. The elements of the two-dimensional matrices, $\gamma$ and $\sigma^0$, for the $(xy)$, $(yz)$, and $(xz)$-planes are composed as described in this section to yield the three-dimensional matrices, $\gamma$ and $\sigma^0$. Then, these are transformed by Eq. 33 to model or duplicate the soil-making processes of nature, an effort was directed toward producing a range of fabrics that includes that of most naturally occurring sedimentary clays. Since the environmental conditions that prevail during deposition and post-depositional load history play important roles in controlling the resultant fabric of sedimentary clays, the sample preparation procedure gives considerable attention to the pore fluid chemistry of the slurry and the stress path followed during the slurry consolidation. The details of these techniques for preparing relatively large bulk samples from which test specimens were trimmed have been presented by Krizek, Edil, and Ozaydin (8).

One test specimen was trimmed vertically and one was trimmed horizontally from each anisotropically and each isotropically consolidated sample, and one specimen was trimmed with its longitudinal axis inclined at 45° to the direction of the major consolidation stress from one of the anisotropically consolidated samples (Fig. 5). All specimens were tested in undrained creep at 78° F. A constant confining stress and axial stress were maintained, and only the axial strains were measured. The basic characteristics of the samples are given in Table 1, and typical scanning electron micrographs of two samples are shown in Fig. 6. A constant axial load was maintained on each specimen for at least two days and in some cases up to seven days, during which time the axial deformations and the developed pore pressures were measured. At the end of each loading step, the load was increased to that chosen for the next step. To reduce the disturbances that usually arise when an instantaneous load is placed on an already deforming specimen, the loading arm was locked before increasing the load, the load was increased, and then the loading arm was unlocked. This was done rapidly (within a few minutes) to minimize the stress relaxation.
Fig. 7 shows a typical plot of strain versus time data obtained from these tests.

**Observed Time-Dependence of Strain Rate.**—Although the creep response of soils under different stress levels is determined most logically by performing creep tests on a series of specimens subjected to different stresses, satisfactory results may be obtained by subjecting a single specimen to different stresses.
applied incrementally and employing the principle of superposition. In this work, the latter procedure was used due to the difficulty of producing and testing large numbers of specimens and the limitations imposed by the number of specimens that could be trimmed from the consolidated samples. Based on

FIG. 10.—Stress Dependence of Creep Rate for Anisotropically Consolidated Samples 1,000 min after Loading (1 kp/cm² = 0.0981 N/mm²)

FIG. 11.—Stress Dependence of Creep Rate for Isotropically Consolidated Samples 1,000 min after Loading (1 kp/cm² = 0.0981 N/mm²)

the typical test data exemplified in Fig. 7, a representative plot of the time dependence of the axial strain rate is illustrated in Fig. 8. Values for the exponent, m, which characterizes the time-dependence of creep (Eq. 16) and results from the relationship of the shear force between two particles and the rate of relative displacement of the particles in the direction of that force, are given in Table
and 11 show the stress versus strain rate plots (both theoretical curves and experimental data) at 1,000 min after the application of each stress for all specimens tested. To demonstrate the stress dependence of strain rate at very low stress levels, a logarithmic strain rate versus stress plot is preferable. Figs. 12 and 13 show such plots, where strain rates are again selected at 1,000 min after application of each stress increment.

Although the strain rate decreases as the stress decreases, the rate of decrease becomes much more rapid for values of stress less than about one-half of the strength. Creep deformations at very small stress levels are very difficult to measure in the laboratory, but they probably do occur in nature, and the theoretical curves in Figs. 10 and 11 suggest the trend that may be expected at such stress levels. The variation of the parameter, \( k_2 \), which can be termed a stress level parameter, with void ratio for both anisotropically consolidated and isotropically consolidated samples from dispersed and flocculated slurries, is shown in Fig. 14.

To reduce the cost of computation, the curves in the foregoing figures were calculated by a simplified procedure, which assumes that the stress dependent parameter, \( k_2 \), is the same for all planes normal to the prevalent particle orientation. This can be true only when the same state of stress exists on all of these planes. However, based on a comparison with values determined by the correct procedure for specimens manifesting the greatest anisotropy, it was found that maximum differences in \( k_2 \) values are less than 20%. Thus, it seems acceptable to use the aforementioned simplified and less expensive procedure to calculate \( k_2 \), as was done herein.

**Conclusions**

Within the scope and limitations of the study presented herein, the following conclusions can be advanced.

1. The micromechanics model is capable of predicting the directional variations in the creep rate of anisotropic clays.
2. The model predicts the stress dependence of the creep rate without implying, in contrast with previous works (10,11), the simplifying assumption that the microscopic stresses that produce particle sliding are all equal.
3. The anisotropy of the clay fabric may be characterized by the probability density of the particle orientation distribution obtained from x-ray diffraction analyses; this reduces greatly the number of creep tests that must be performed to determine the anisotropy of creep behavior.
4. The material parameters in the mathematical model are dependent on the void ratio of the clay, the chemistry of the pore fluid, and the consolidation stress path.

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APPENDIX I.—REFERENCES


APPENDIX II.—NOTATION

The following symbols are used in this paper:

- \( \rho(\Delta) \) = pore size density distribution (Eqs. 28 and 29);
- \( S_i S_j \) = slip forces in interparticle contacts (Eq. 15, Fig. 2);
- \( S^0 \) = nonviscous slip forces (Eqs. 18 and 19);
- \( t \) = time;
- \( u, u_i, u_i^*, u_i^*, v_i, v_i^*, w_i \) = particle edge displacements (Eq. 1, Fig. 2);
- \( x, y, z \) = cartesian axes, of which \( x \) is normal to prevalent particle orientation (Fig. 5);
- \( x', y', z' \) = axes of the creep specimen (Fig. 5);
- \( \alpha_1, \alpha \) = planar particle orientation angle (Fig. 2) and projected angle of normal to particle in space (Fig. 4);
- \( \beta, \beta_i, \gamma \) = matrices in Eqs. 10, 11, 13;
- \( a \) = area of triangular cell, Fig. 2;
- \( e, e_i, e_j, e_{ij} \) = strain column matrix and its components (Eq. 2);
- \( \eta \) = incremental viscosity matrix (Eq. 20);
- \( \eta^0 \) = nonviscous strain rate (Eq. 20);
- \( \eta^0 \) = column matrix of macroscopic stresses (Eq. 20); and
- \( \eta^0 \) = nonviscous stress (Eq. 20).

**Superscripts**

- ' = quantities for tangential linearization of stress-strain relations;
- ' = time derivatives;
- ' \( ^T \) = transpose of a matrix; and
- ' = components referred to axes \( x', y', z' \) (Fig. 5).
KEY WORDS: Anisotropy; Clay minerals; Clays; Creep; Creep tests; Elasticity; Engineering mechanics; Geotechnical engineering; Mechanics; Microstructure; Particle spectra; Soil mechanics; Stress strain characteristics;

ABSTRACT: Clays frequently possess a fabric with a preferred particle orientation and the creep properties of such clays are therefore anisotropic. A two-dimensional microstructural model to describe this creep response is developed. The model is based on a triangular cell of three particles sliding over each other at a rate predicted by rate-process theory. Equating the rate of energy dissipation within the cell to that of the macroscopic continuum leads to the determination of the tangential viscosity matrix and the matrix of the nonviscous stress components, both of which are stress dependent. The anisotropic creep viscosity parameters are obtained by a statistical averaging procedure based on the probability density of the particle orientation distribution, as determined by x-ray diffraction. The resulting model is able to predict the directional differences in the creep rate and the stress dependence of creep in clays with anisotropic fabric. Undrained creep tests were conducted on specimens cut in various directions from both isotropically and anisotropically consolidated kaolinite samples.