

Simulation of thermal drains using a new constitutive model for thermal volume change of normally consolidated clays

Radhavi A. Samarakoon, M.S.¹, and John S. McCartney, Ph.D., P.E., F.ASCE²

4 **Abstract** This paper focuses on the thermo-hydro-mechanical behavior of clay surrounding a
5 thermal drain. A new constitutive model for prediction of thermal volume change of clays is
6 presented that incorporates an improvement to existing models by capturing the effect of initial
7 effective stress on the thermal volume change of normally consolidated clay observed in
8 element-scale tests. A numerical framework with the proposed constitutive model was used to
9 simulate the coupled effects of heat transfer, fluid flow and volume change in clay surrounding a
10 thermal drain. The simulated results were validated using experimental data from a large-scale
11 laboratory experiment on a thermal drain under different thermal and surcharge loads. The
12 results indicate that the required surcharge can be reduced when using a thermal drain in lieu of
13 a conventional vertical drain and a significant increase in the rate of consolidation is observed
14 when using a thermal drain. The proposed constitutive model allows better prediction of thermal
15 volume changes of normally consolidated clays as a function of depth which is important to
16 understand the efficient application of in-situ heating for ground improvement.

17 **Keywords:** Thermal drain; Thermo-mechanical behavior; Constitutive model, Ground
18 improvement; Soft clay

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

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

19 **1. Introduction**

20 The use of thermal drains has been proposed as an approach to improve the mechanical
21 properties of normally consolidated soft clays (Abuel-Naga et al. 2006; Pothiraksanon et al. 2010;
22 Samarakoon and McCartney 2020a, 2021). A thermal drain combines a vertical drain used for
23 radial consolidation of soft clay layers with a geothermal heat exchanger. The geothermal heat
24 exchanger consists of a closed-loop, "U"-shaped pipe that transfers heat to the ground by
25 circulating heated fluid through the pipe with a heat pump at the ground surface. The thermal
26 drain itself can either be a prefabricated thermal drain consisting of a plastic strip with internal
27 channels to support vertical water flow encased within a geotextile filter that is pushed into the
28 clay, or a cylindrical borehole installed with a casing and backfilled with sand. The motivation for
29 using thermal drains is twofold. First, the heating of the soft clay will lead to an increase in excess
30 pore water pressure due to differential expansion of the pore water and soil solids (Mitchell and
31 Campanella 1968; Ghabezloo and Sulem 2009; Ghaoowd et al. 2017). The thermal drain provides
32 a drainage path for the pressurized water, and the consolidation process will result in contraction
33 of the clay layer. Second, the increase in temperature will cause a reduction in water viscosity,
34 which will result in an increase in hydraulic conductivity of the clay and an increase in the rate of
35 consolidation (Houston et al. 1985). Thermal drains are best suited for normally consolidated
36 and lightly overconsolidated clays, as heavily overconsolidated clays are expected to expand and
37 contract elastically during heating and cooling, respectively (e.g., Baldi et al. 1988, Laloui and
38 Cekerevac 2003; Abuel-Naga et al. 2007a, 2007b), although an increase in hydraulic conductivity
39 would still be encountered in all clays. A typical deployment of thermal drains with a surface
40 surcharge is shown in the schematic in Fig. 1.

41 An increase in the rate of consolidation as well as the magnitude of the ultimate surface
42 settlement have been confirmed in calibration chamber experiments on thermal drains in soft
43 clay layers that included comparisons with conventional drains (Abuel-Naga et al. 2006;
44 Artidteang et al. 2011; Salager et al. 2012). The performance of thermal drains used in
45 combination with a surficial surcharge load as part of the preconsolidation of a soft clay site was
46 also investigated by Pothiraksanon et al. (2010). They applied a change in temperature of
47 approximately 60 °C over the course of 200 days to a clay layer having a thickness of 8 m with a
48 sand surcharge of 6 m, and observed a total settlement of approximately 400 mm for a thermal
49 drain and 240 mm for a prefabricated vertical drain. An advantage of thermal drains over
50 conventional vertical drains is that a surficial surcharge may not be necessary due to the thermal
51 pressurization of the soft clay associated with heating of the drain. Bergenstahl et al. (1994)
52 applied a change in temperature of approximately 60 °C to a 10 m-thick layer of clay over the
53 course of 8.5 months using geothermal heat exchangers without vertical drains or the use of a
54 surcharge and observed a thermally-induced settlement of 37 mm which was linked to the
55 generation and dissipation of thermally-induced excess pore water pressures.

56 An issue that is critical to consider in the simulation of thermal drains in the field is the
57 variation in expected thermal volume change as a function of depth in the clay layer. There is a
58 growing set of data indicating that the thermal volume change in normally consolidated clays will
59 change with its effective stress state (Samarakoon et al. 2018; Samarakoon and McCartney
60 2020b; Samarakoon et al. 2022). Furthermore, field-scale and laboratory studies (Bergenstahl et
61 al. 1994; Abuel-Naga et al. 2007b; Uchaipichat and Khalili 2009; Ghaoowd et al. 2017) as well as
62 poroelastic theories (Campanella and Mitchell 1968, Ghabezloo and Sulem 2009) show different

63 thermal pressurization effects at different effectives stresses and void ratios during undrained
64 heating of normally consolidated clays. The magnitude of thermal volumetric strains observed in
65 the literature is relatively small, with an average of 1% volumetric strain occurring during a
66 change in temperature of 60 °C. However, even a slight increase in thermo-plastic volumetric
67 strain at a given depth will result in a significant improvement in clay mechanical properties as
68 shown by Ghaaowd and McCartney (2021) and Ghaaowd et al. (2022) for pile pullout capacity
69 and Samarakoon et al. (2022) for undrained shear strength of kaolinite specimens. Therefore, it
70 is evident that the effect of effective stress state plays a critical role when simulating thermal
71 drains in normally consolidated clays. To that end, the goal of this study is to develop a new
72 constitutive model to predict the thermal volume change of normally consolidated clays which
73 can be applied to studying the behavior of thermal drains. The model will be calibrated using data
74 from thermal triaxial tests and used to simulate results from tank tests on thermal drains.

75 **2. Background on Thermo-Mechanical Modeling of Saturated Clays**

76 Several thermo-mechanical models have been developed by researchers to predict the
77 thermal volume change of clay (Hueckel and Borsetto 1990; Cui et al. 2000; Laloui and Cekerevac
78 2003; Abeul-Naga et al. 2007a, Abuel-Naga et al. 2009). In general, the thermal volume change
79 is dependent on the stress history. For overconsolidated clays, elastic expansion is expected upon
80 heating with a tendency for contraction at higher temperatures, whereas for normally
81 consolidated clays, plastic contraction can be observed. In some instances, lightly
82 overconsolidated clays may also show contractive behavior (Baldi et al. 1988, Abuel-Naga et al.
83 2007b). Hueckel and Borsetto (1990) proposed a parabolic yield surface expression in the T-p'
84 plane based on the evolution of preconsolidation stress with temperature which required the

85 determination of multiple material parameters. At stress states below the yield limit, thermal
86 strains will be elastic. If the yield limit is approached either by mechanical or thermal loading,
87 plastic thermal strains will be generated, and the yield surface will move to the right due to
88 thermal hardening resulting in a larger elastic zone.

89 Other studies have proposed different thermal yielding curves to capture trends observed in
90 experimental data. For example, Cui et al. (2000) proposed a simplified relationship for the yield
91 surface where an exponential expression was used as follows:

$$92 \quad p_c'(T) = p_c'(T_0) \exp(-\alpha_0 \Delta T) \quad (1)$$

93 where $p_c'(T_0)$ is the apparent preconsolidation stress at room temperature, $p_c'(T)$ is the
94 preconsolidation stress at temperature T , and α_0 is a material parameter. To better account for
95 the effects of overconsolidation ratio (OCR) on volume change at high temperatures, Cui et al.
96 (2000) introduced a second yield limit within the framework of Hueckel and Borsetto (1990).
97 Specifically, the contractive behavior observed in overconsolidated clays at higher temperature
98 was captured by this model.

99 An isotropic thermo-plastic yield limit was introduced by Laloui and Cekerevac (2003) with a
100 logarithmic yield surface expression as follows:

$$101 \quad p_c'(T) = p_c'(T_0) \left[1 - \gamma \log \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right) \right] \quad (2)$$

102 where γ is a material parameter. Abuel-Naga et al. (2007a) adopted the same relationship as
103 that proposed by Laloui and Cekerevac (2003) in Eq. (2) for the loading yield limit, but used a
104 similar approach to Cui et al. (2000) with two different yield limits referred to as the thermal and
105 loading yield limit respectively.

106 An issue encountered in applying the different thermo-mechanical models listed above is that
107 normally consolidated clays will all have the same thermal volume change regardless of the initial
108 effective stress state, a finding that contradicts experimental studies on the thermal volume
109 change of soft clays (Samarakoon et al. 2018, 2022) as well as the trends in thermally induced
110 excess pore water pressures of normally consolidated soil with different initial effective stresses
111 (Abuel-Naga et al. 2007b; Uchaipichat and Khalili 2009). The isotropic yield mechanism proposed
112 by Laloui and Cekerevac (2003) is shown in Fig. 2 (a) in the T - p' plane along with a thermal loading
113 path for a normally consolidated clay in red. When a normally consolidated clay (initially on the
114 yield curve) is subjected to an increase in temperature from T_0 to T_1 at constant mean effective
115 stress, the LY curve will shift to the right. As a result of this thermal hardening phenomenon, the
116 clay will undergo a contractive thermo-plastic volumetric change. This is represented in the e - \ln
117 p' plane by a shift in the normally consolidated line to the left at temperature T_1 as shown in
118 Fig. 2(b). Regardless of the initial mean effective stress of the normally consolidated clay, the
119 same thermal volume change will be predicted by the model.

120 The reason for this shortcoming of available thermo-mechanical constitutive models in being
121 able to capture the observed thermal volume change data from the literature perhaps lies in the
122 approach by which the effect of temperature on the yield curve is defined, where the yield curve
123 is defined by mechanically loading overconsolidated clays after heating to different temperatures
124 and identifying the apparent preconsolidation stress (Eriksson 1989, Boudali et al. 1994, Sultan
125 et al. 2002). These studies found that the slopes of the recompression curve before yielding as
126 well as the compression curve after reaching normally consolidated conditions were independent
127 of temperature. Only a few studies have characterized the thermal volume change of soft clays

128 under multiple mean effective stresses (Abuel-Naga et al. 2007a; Samarakoon et al. 2018, 2022).
129 Given that the volume change predictions for normally consolidated soils were made based on
130 these observations, the existing models have an inherent issue in predicting the volume change
131 for normally consolidated clays, which remains the same irrespective of the effective stress state
132 (Fig. 2(b)).

133 **3. Proposed framework for thermal volume change of normally consolidated clay**

134 Based on the experimental evidence of thermal volume change of saturated normally
135 consolidated clay in Samarakoon et al. (2022), a new thermo-elasto-plastic mechanism is
136 required to accurately represent the thermal behavior of saturated clay at different initial mean
137 effectives stresses. Volumetric strain can be generated due to mechanical and/or thermal
138 loading. At stress states below the yield stress the strains will be elastic whereas plastic strains
139 will be obtained at stress states at the yield limit. Based on the experimental observations, a new
140 framework is proposed to obtain plastic volume changes under thermal loading at different initial
141 isotropic stress states.

142 **3.1. Thermo-elastic strains**

143 Although the focus of this study was on the plastic volume changes of saturated normally
144 consolidated clay subjected to thermal loading, the thermo-elastic relationships are presented
145 for the completion of the proposed model. The thermo-elastic strain (ε_v^{Te}) generated by thermal
146 loading is obtained by the following relationship:

147 $d\varepsilon_v^{Te} = \alpha dT$ (3)

148 where α is the drained volumetric thermal expansion coefficient of clay and T is the temperature.
149 α can be determined using thermal volume change results of highly overconsolidated clays or

150 from heating cooling cycles applied to normally consolidated clays with a slow cooling rate. Cui
151 et al. (2000) considered α to be a constant parameter whereas other researchers defined the
152 coefficient α as a function of temperature and the effective stress (Laloui 2001; Abuel-Naga et al.
153 2007a). The elastic strains generated due to mechanical loading are obtained as follows:

154
$$d\varepsilon_v^e = \frac{\kappa}{1+e_0} \frac{dp'}{p'} \quad (4)$$

155 where κ is the slope of the recompression line, p' is the mean effective stress, and e_0 is the initial
156 void ratio.

157 **3.2. Thermo-plastic strains**

158 When the stress state reaches a yield limit, thermo-plastic strains are developed. As described
159 in section 1, the yield limit can be reached by mechanical loading or thermal loading at constant
160 effective stress. The yield limit for isotropic conditions can be expressed as follows:

161
$$f = p' - p_c' = 0 \quad (5)$$

162 where p_c' is the apparent preconsolidation stress. Several relationships are found in literature
163 representing the thermal evolution of the preconsolidation stress (Hueckel and Borsetto 1990;
164 Cui et al. 2000; Laloui and Cekerevac 2003). Based on experimental evidence, an extension to Eq.
165 (2) is proposed where the parameter γ is a function of the mean preconsolidation stress $p_c'(T_0)$,
166 as follows:

167
$$\gamma(p_c'(T_0)) = \frac{a}{p_c'(T_0)} + b \quad (6)$$

168 where $p_c'(T_0)$ is the apparent preconsolidation stress at room temperature, which must be
169 greater than zero, and a and b are constants depending on the material with $a < 0$ and $b > 0$, such
170 that γ increases with increasing mean preconsolidation stress for normally consolidated clays.
171 For $\gamma > 0$, the condition $p_c'(T_0) > -a/b$ must be satisfied. The reason for proposing that γ is a

172 function of mean preconsolidation stress is that all overconsolidated soils corresponding to a
173 given preconsolidation stress will have the same value of γ , which is consistent with the way that
174 previous thermo-mechanical models were developed. The variation in apparent thermal
175 preconsolidation stress with temperature at different initial mean effective stresses, having
176 different γ values is shown in Fig. 3. Laloui & Cekerevac (2003) also reported different γ values
177 for experimental data from Moritz (1995) for Swedish clay at different depths. Substituting Eq.
178 (6) into Eq. (2) will yield the following relationship:

$$179 \quad p_c'(T) = p_c'(T_0) \left[1 - b \times \log \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right) \right] - a \times \log \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right) \quad (7)$$

180 For a normally consolidated clay, its current stress state will be equal to the preconsolidation
181 stress and hence will be on the yield limit. When the temperature is increased at constant
182 effective stress, the clay will be subjected to thermal yielding to maintain the current stress state
183 and a plastic thermal volume change will occur. Thermally induced plastic volumetric strain, ε_v^{Tp}
184 is related to the change in preconsolidation stress with temperature, as follows:

$$185 \quad d\varepsilon_v^{Tp} = \frac{\lambda - \kappa}{1 + e_0} \ln \left(\frac{p_c'(T_0)}{p_c'(T)} \right) \quad (8)$$

186 where $p_c'(T)$ is the preconsolidation stress at temperature T obtained from Eq. (7) and λ is the
187 slope of the VCL. As the parameter γ changes with the preconsolidation stress, the thermal
188 volume change at different mean effective stresses obtained from Eq. (8) will change for a
189 normally consolidated clay. This is an improvement to the existing thermo-mechanical
190 constitutive models where the same amount of thermal volume change is predicted for normally
191 consolidated clays irrespective of their mean effective stress.

192 The proposed thermo-mechanical framework is shown in Fig. 4(a) and (b) respectively. Fig.
193 4(a) shows the thermal volume change in the e vs. $\ln p'$ plane. Path ABC shows the compression
194 curve at room temperature T_0 . Path DEF is obtained by increasing the temperature of normally
195 consolidated clay from T_0 to T_1 . $p_{c1}'(T_1)$ is the preconsolidation stress at temperature T_1 . As a
196 result of drained heating at $p_{c1}'(T_0)$, a thermo-plastic volume change of Δe_v^{Tp} will occur, which
197 can be obtained using Eq. (8). If the clay was subjected to heating at a higher mean effective
198 stress (i.e. $p_{c2}'(T_0)$), the yield stress will now move to point J along the NCL, and the corresponding
199 apparent thermal preconsolidation stress will be at point H. At this stress state, a higher thermo-
200 plastic volume change, denoted by the distance JK will be obtained. Paths DEF and HKI are both
201 obtained at temperature T_1 , where path DEF is associated with the apparent thermal
202 preconsolidation stress corresponding to preconsolidation stress at room temperature, $p_{c1}'(T_0)$
203 and path HKI is associated with the apparent thermal preconsolidation stress corresponding to
204 preconsolidation stress at room temperature, $p_{c2}'(T_0)$. In the existing thermo-mechanical models,
205 the NCL shifts to the left as the temperature is increased. Based on the proposed model, the shift
206 in the NCL is not only a function of temperature but also the mean effective stress for normally
207 consolidated clays.

208 The corresponding thermo-mechanical paths in the T - p' plane are shown in Fig. 4(b). The
209 specimen is subjected to mechanical loading from path A to B. From B to E, the specimen is
210 heated under drained conditions where the temperature increases from T_0 to T_1 . Curve BD shows
211 the yield limit and the preconsolidation stress is reduced to $p_{c1}'(T_1)$ at temperature T_1 . For heating
212 at a higher mean effective stress, the path will follow ABJ for mechanical loading and JK for
213 drained heating. The corresponding thermal preconsolidation stress will now be at point H

214 following the curve JH. For normally consolidated clays subjected to drained heating, the yield
215 curve will shift to the right due to thermal hardening. Once the specimen is cooled back to room
216 temperature, the clay specimen will have a new preconsolidation stress which will be greater
217 than the preconsolidation stress prior to heating. The yield limit after cooling is also shown in Fig.
218 4(b). This preconsolidation stress after a heating cooling cycle can be obtained from Eq. (7).

219 **4. Model Calibration**

220 To calibrate the proposed model, the experimental results from Samarakoon et al. (2022) are
221 considered in this study. Samarakoon et al. (2022) conducted thermal triaxial tests on saturated
222 normally consolidated kaolinite specimens at four different mean effective stresses. The
223 specimens were first mechanically consolidated under isotropic conditions to a normally
224 consolidated state and then subjected to drained heating where the temperature was increased
225 to 60 °C. Finally, the specimens were sheared under undrained conditions at the elevated
226 temperature. Normally consolidated specimens at mean effective stresses 230, 260, 290 and
227 320 kPa were considered. Contrary to the existing thermo-mechanical predictions, the thermal
228 volume change obtained at each mean effective stress was different and showed an increasing
229 trend as the mean effective stress increased. The new experimental evidence from tests
230 conducted on normally consolidated clays reveals a limitation in the existing thermo-mechanical
231 constitutive models when predicting thermal volume change in normally consolidated clays
232 subjected to drained heating.

233 In addition to the slopes of the compression curve (κ and λ) for a given clay, the proposed
234 model requires determination of variation in the parameter γ at different mean effective stresses
235 through parameters a and b . At least two drained heating tests conducted on normally

236 consolidated clay specimens at different initial mean effective stresses are required to obtain
237 these parameters. Three tests may provide better accuracy when determining the required
238 model parameters. Using the thermal volume change results at each mean effective stress for a
239 given temperature, the thermal preconsolidation stress, $p_c'(T)$ corresponding to each mean
240 effective stress can be obtained using Eq. (8). Using the $p_c'(T)$ values at each stress state, the γ
241 parameter corresponding to each mean effective stress can be obtained using Eq. (2). Finally,
242 Eq. (6) can be used to determine the parameters a and b . Alternatively, Eq. (7) can also be used
243 to obtain the parameter a and b directly after determining $p_c'(T)$ values. The obtained γ values
244 at each mean preconsolidation stress and the fitting of Eq. (6) to the experimental data of
245 Samarakoon et al. (2022) are shown in Fig. 5 and the model parameters are summarized in Table
246 1. Back-predictions of the experimental data of Samarakoon et al. (2022) are shown in Fig. 6. In
247 general, good agreement can be observed between the predictions and the experimental data
248 and the increasing trend in thermal volumetric strain with increasing mean effective stress of
249 normally consolidated clays is captured by the proposed model. The thermal volume change at
250 the lower mean effective stresses is predicted well by the model whereas the thermal volume
251 change at the higher mean effective stress value of 320 kPa is slightly underpredicted. The
252 thermal volumetric strain value obtained at 290 kPa seems lower in comparison and could be
253 due to experimental variability in the initial conditions of the sedimented clay specimens.

254 The established model can capture the effect of initial mean effective stress on the thermal
255 volume change of normally consolidated clay where the thermal volumetric strain increases with
256 increasing mean effective stress. This is an improvement to the existing thermo-mechanical
257 constitutive models where the same amount of volume change is predicted for normally

258 consolidated clay irrespective of its initial stress state. Further studies on multiple soil types
259 considering a wider range of stress states will assist in strengthening the established relationships
260 for soil parameters. Better predictions of thermal volume change in normally consolidated clays
261 are important specifically in applications such as using in-situ heating for soil improvement. When
262 the thermal volume changes at different mean effective stresses indicative of different depths
263 can be accurately predicted, soil improvement can be strategically applied over different depths.
264 This can also assist with designing efficient in-situ heating arrangements for soil improvement.

265 **5. Application – Thermal Drain Analysis**

266 The proposed constitutive model was applied in a numerical model developed to simulate a
267 thermal vertical drain embedded in a soft clay layer inside a large-scale oedometer. The
268 numerical model simulates the coupled phenomena of heat transfer, fluid flow and volume
269 change in soft clay surrounding a thermal vertical drain. The theoretical framework, formulation
270 of the numerical model, comparison with experimental results along with a parametric analysis
271 on the performance of a thermal drain is described in the following sections.

272 **5.1. Soil Domain Geometry**

273 To simulate the behavior of a clay layer around a thermal drain, a finite soil domain
274 representing a large-scale oedometer experiment by Artidteang et al. (2011) was considered in
275 this study. The thermal drain is inserted at the center of a cylindrical specimen of height h and
276 radius r and a surcharge is applied at the top of the specimen. A schematic diagram of the thermal
277 drain arrangement in a finite soil domain is shown in Fig. 7. This geometry was selected as it was
278 used to validate the numerical model using experimental results of Artidteang et al. (2011).
279 Although this geometry does not represent the boundary conditions expected in a field

280 deployment of thermal drains, it permits the effects of temperature and applied surcharge on
281 the transient thermal consolidation process.

282 **5.2. Theoretical Framework**

283 **5.2.1. Heat transfer**

284 When a thermal drain is being used, the temperature of the surrounding soil will increase.
285 Assuming that heat transfer through the soil medium will occur through conduction only, it can
286 be modeled using Fourier's law and energy conservation principles. The thermal drain was
287 considered as a line heat source where the vertical distribution of temperature was assumed to
288 be uniform. The governing equation for conductive radial heat transfer through soil based on
289 Fourier's law and conservation of energy will be simplified as follows in cylindrical coordinates.

290
$$\frac{\rho_s C}{\lambda_T} \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} \quad (9)$$

291 where ρ_s is the total density of soil, C is the specific heat capacity of the soil, λ_T is the thermal
292 conductivity of the soil, and r is the radial distance. The thermal conductivity of the clay will be
293 impacted by the volume changes occurring in the clay, where more heat conduction can occur
294 through the soil particles as the void space reduces. The change in thermal conductivity with
295 porosity was considered using a parallel model as follows (Dong et al. 2015):

296
$$\lambda_T = n\lambda_f + (1 - n)\lambda_s \quad (10)$$

297 where n is the porosity, λ_f is the thermal conductivity of the pore water and λ_s is the thermal
298 conductivity of the soil particles.

299 **5.2.2. Fluid flow**

300 An increase in temperature will impact the fluid flow through the porous media by thermally
301 induced excess pore water pressures and increased hydraulic conductivity. Thermally induced

302 excess pore water pressure is generated because of the differences in the coefficients of thermal
303 expansion of soil particles and the pore fluid. The soil will undergo volumetric contraction as the
304 excess pore water pressures are dissipated. Furthermore, an increase in temperature will
305 decrease the density and viscosity of the pore fluid which will result in an increase in hydraulic
306 conductivity. The relationship between hydraulic conductivity (k) with fluid and soil properties
307 can be understood using the definition of the intrinsic permeability, K in Eq. (11):

308
$$K = \frac{k\eta_w}{\rho_w g} \quad (11)$$

309 where η_w is the dynamic viscosity of the fluid, ρ_w is the fluid density and g is the coefficient of
310 gravity. Abuel-Naga et al. (2006) observed an increase in hydraulic conductivity with an increase
311 in temperature for Bangkok clay. However, the intrinsic permeability was found to be
312 independent of temperature. The density of water will vary with temperature according to the
313 following relationship:

314
$$\frac{\partial \rho_w}{\partial t} = -\rho_w \alpha_w \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} \quad (12)$$

315 where α_w is the volumetric coefficient of thermal expansion of water. The fluid viscosity can be
316 expressed as a function of temperature following the empirical relationship given by Hillel (1980)
317 in Eq. (13).

318
$$\eta_w(T) = -0.00046575 \ln(T) + 0.00239138 \quad (13)$$

319 Fluid flow through the porous media can be expressed using principles of mass conservation.
320 The governing equation in cylindrical coordinates will be reduced as shown for the geometry
321 considered as follows:

322
$$\frac{\partial(n\rho_w)}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial(r\rho_w v)}{\partial r} \quad (14)$$

323 where v is the fluid velocity. Fluid velocity for a porous medium can be expressed using Darcy's
324 law as follows:

325
$$v = - \frac{K}{\eta_w} \frac{\partial U}{\partial r} \quad (15)$$

326 where U is the pore water pressure. By substituting Eq. (15) into Eq. (14) and using the product
327 rule, the following equation is obtained:

328
$$n \frac{\partial \rho_w}{\partial t} + \rho_w \frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = \frac{K}{\eta_w} \left(\rho_w \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\rho_w}{r} \frac{\partial U}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial U}{\partial r} \frac{\partial \rho_w}{\partial r} \right) \quad (16)$$

329 The effects of temperature on density and viscosity can be incorporated by substituting Eqs.
330 (12) and (13) into Eq. (16). Considering the spatial variation of fluid density to be negligible, a
331 general equation for non-isothermal fluid flow through porous media is obtained as follows:

332
$$-n\alpha_w \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial n}{\partial t} = \frac{K}{\eta_w} \left(\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial U}{\partial r} \right) \quad (17)$$

333 **5.2.3. Volume Change**

334 The volume change in a thermal drain application will consist of mechanical and thermal
335 components. The mechanical volume change due to application of a surficial surcharge can be
336 obtained using compressibility relationships for a normally consolidated clay, given as follows:

337
$$\partial e^p = \lambda \frac{\partial p_v'}{p_v'} \quad (18)$$

338 where p_v' is the vertical effective stress. The thermo-plastic volume changes are obtained using
339 the proposed constitutive relationship using Eqs. (7) and (8). For a simultaneous application of a
340 surcharge and heat, the total stress will remain constant. The change in effective stress resulting
341 from a change in the pore water pressure can be obtained by subtracting the pore water pressure
342 from the total stress, p as follows:

343
$$p' = p - U \quad (19)$$

344 For lightly overconsolidated clays, the thermal volume change will consist of elastic as well as
345 plastic components. For stress states below the yield limit, thermo-elastic strains will be
346 generated as obtained by Eq. (3). As the temperature increases and the preconsolidation stress
347 decreases, the soil will be subjected to thermal yielding and thermo-plastic strains will be
348 generated (Eqs. (7) and (8)). The scope of the current study is limited to the simulation of thermal
349 volume change of normally consolidated clays. However, the simulation can be extended to
350 lightly overconsolidated clays by identifying the stress, temperature combination at the yield
351 limit and obtaining the corresponding elastic and plastic components of the thermal volume
352 change.

353 **5.3. Boundary and Initial Conditions**

354 The boundary conditions evaluated in this study are representative of a large-scale
355 oedometer which was used for the validation of the numerical model. Heat transfer and fluid
356 flow were considered to be axisymmetric about the axis of the drain for the numerical simulation.
357 The variation of temperature in the vertical direction was assumed to be uniform thereby
358 simplifying the geometry to a radial drainage problem. The thermal drain is treated as a line heat
359 source where an elevated temperature will be applied. A constant temperature boundary
360 condition was imposed at the thermal drain whereas a convective temperature boundary
361 condition was maintained at the outer edges of the clay layer to represent the edges of a
362 container in the laboratory. This outer boundary can be represented based on the experimental
363 setup. For example, a constant temperature boundary condition or a function accounting for
364 daily temperature fluctuations can be used when the outer boundary is maintained at ambient
365 temperature. On the other hand, a convective boundary condition can be used to account for

366 heat loss or zero heat flux to model thermal insulation at the boundary. A similar approach can
367 also be used to model the surface temperatures.

368 Although not required, thermal drains are typically combined with an application of a
369 surcharge on top of the saturated clay layer. The clay layer was assumed to be normally
370 consolidated under the surcharge stress. The outer edge of the oedometer permits zero radial
371 strain. However, a variation in void ratio within the clay layer with radius is expected due to
372 heating from the central thermal drain. The surcharge is applied in stress-control conditions so
373 settlements in the clay layer can be nonuniform as a function of the radius from the thermal
374 drain. Drainage was only permitted at the location of the thermal drain (i.e., no vertical drainage
375 from the top and bottom of the cylinder or radial drainage from the outer boundary).
376 Accordingly, a constant hydrostatic pressure boundary was also applied at the drain location and
377 the fluid velocity at the outer edge of the clay layer was taken as zero (i.e., no flow) representative
378 of a large-scale oedometer. In a field application where multiple drains are used, the influence of
379 other drains in the vicinity will have to be considered. For instance, multiple drain locations will
380 be at constant temperature and hydrostatic pressure boundary conditions. Although not within
381 the scope of this study, a more complex analysis with multiple drains will aid in determining the
382 optimum spacing arrangements for thermal drains. The initial temperature in the soil domain
383 was taken as equal to ambient temperature and the initial pore water pressure was determined
384 based on the hydrostatic conditions and the applied surcharge. The initial porosity was
385 determined based on the clay.

386

387

388 **5.4. Numerical Formulation**

389 The coupled phenomena were simulated using the finite difference method. Both steady
390 state as well as transient variations in temperature, pore water pressure and settlement were
391 solved for using the numerical model. The soil layer along a radius was spatially discretized into
392 elements of equal size. A central difference scheme was used in the spatial domain and a forward
393 difference scheme was used in the time domain. The numerical formulation was implemented
394 and solved using Matlab.

395 **5.5. Comparison with Experimental Data**

396 The thermo-hydro-mechanical behavior of a saturated normally consolidated clay layer
397 surrounding a thermal drain was simulated using the numerical model and compared with
398 experimental data from literature. Artidteang et al. (2011) investigated the performance of a
399 single thermal drain in soft Bangkok clay using a large-scale oedometer similar to the
400 arrangement shown in Fig. 7. The clay layer was of diameter of 0.45 m and height of 0.7 m. The
401 tests conducted using a conventional drain and a thermal drain were considered for the
402 comparison in this study. In both tests, the clay specimens were first allowed to reach 90%
403 consolidation under a surcharge of 50 kPa. For the specimen with a conventional drain, an
404 additional surcharge of 50 kPa was applied whereas for the specimen with a thermal drain, a 50
405 kPa surcharge and heat up to 90 °C was applied simultaneously. To simulate this setup, an
406 axisymmetric domain with a length of 0.225 m was considered and divided into elements of size
407 0.0225 m. A constant temperature of 90 °C was applied at the thermal drain and a convective
408 boundary was imposed at the outer edge of the oedometer. The initial temperature was taken

409 as 25 °C and the initial porosity was assumed to be 0.6. The hydrostatic pressures were
410 determined considering a mid-depth of the soil specimen.

411 Based on the trends observed in experimental data of Samarakoon et al. (2022) and data from
412 Abuel-Naga et al. (2007a) a relationship for the change in parameter γ with the mean
413 preconsolidation stress was obtained as shown in Fig. 8. The material parameters for Bangkok
414 clay used in the numerical model were estimated based on data from Artidteang et al. (2011) and
415 Abuel-Naga et al. (2007a) and are summarized in Table 2. The predicted time series of
416 temperature along with the corresponding data from Artidteang et al. (2011) are shown in Fig. 9.

417 Close agreement is observed between the experimental results and the numerical simulation,
418 specifically at locations further away from the thermal drain (Root-mean-square deviation
419 (RMSD) = 2.65 for $r = 200$ mm). The temperature is slightly underestimated at locations closer to
420 the drain (RMSD = 9.99 for $r = 25$ mm). Convective heat transfer not being considered and the
421 assumed values of certain material properties may have resulted in the differences observed. Fig.
422 10 shows the comparison between simulated results for settlement of the clay specimen and the
423 experimental data. The settlements obtained for the tests conducted with the conventional drain
424 at room temperature as well as with a thermal drain with heating up to 90 °C are presented and
425 were obtained at a radial distance of 112.5 mm. The simulated results closely match the
426 experimental data where the increase in both the rate and magnitude of settlement obtained
427 from a thermal drain is captured(RMSD = 16.1 for conventional drain and RMSD = 18.1 for
428 thermal drain). The experimental data and the predicted results for the excess pore water
429 pressure generated when using a thermal drain is shown in Fig. 11. Although a difference in the

430 magnitude of the maximum excess pore water pressure is observed, the numerical model
431 captures the trend in dissipation of excess pore water pressure well (RMSD = 24.4).

432 One reason for the differences in the predicted results and the data for settlement when
433 using a thermal drain is the possible errors in estimating parameter γ . The relationship in Fig. 8
434 is based on limited data and has a low coefficient of determination (R^2). This can be improved by
435 including additional data points for Bangkok clay obtained by conducting drained heating tests
436 on normally consolidated specimens at different mean effective stresses. A change in γ will
437 impact thermo-plastic strains where a higher γ value will result in a higher settlement. For
438 instance, in this oedometer test predictions, a $\pm 10\%$ change in γ will result in a $\pm 1.6\%$ change in
439 the maximum settlement obtained. Abuel-Naga et al. (2007a) reported a value of 0.43 for γ and
440 the proposed relationship in this study allows γ to vary between 0.44-0.45 for the stress range
441 considered. Although the proposed model adequately captures the thermal behavior of normally
442 consolidated clay, better estimates of material properties will help further improve the accuracy
443 of predicted results.

444 **5.6. Parametric Analysis of Thermal Drain Performance in Normally Consolidated Clay**

445 The validated numerical model was used to simulate the clay behavior surrounding a thermal
446 drain, considering different variables of interest. Specifically, the impact on consolidation
447 settlement due to the magnitude of applied temperature and surcharge load was investigated. A
448 set up similar to that of Artidteang et al. (2011) with a Bangkok clay specimen of 0.7 m height
449 and 0.45 m diameter was considered in the numerical simulation. Consolidation settlements
450 obtained with a thermal drain operating at different temperatures under a surcharge of 100 kPa
451 are shown in Fig. 12. An increase in the magnitude as well as the rate of settlement is observed

452 as the temperature of the thermal drain is increased, conforming with the observations made in
453 literature. Fig. 13 shows a comparison of the settlements obtained when using a conventional
454 drain and a thermal drain operated at 90 °C, combined with a surcharge of 10, 25, 50 and 100
455 kPa respectively. An increase in the magnitude of settlement can be observed when using a
456 thermal drain which will allow the required amount of surcharge to achieve a desired level of
457 consolidation to be reduced. For instance, almost the same amount of consolidation settlement
458 obtained using a conventional drain with 25 kPa surcharge can be obtained with a thermal drain
459 operating at 90 °C combined with only 10 kPa surcharge.

460 The maximum settlement obtained at each surcharge value is summarized in Fig. 14(a). As it
461 can be seen from the figure, the contribution of thermal volume change on the total settlement
462 is more significant at lower surcharge values. The increase in the maximum settlement obtained
463 when using a thermal drain is shown in Fig. 14(b). This increase can be attributed to the thermo-
464 mechanical volume changes in the clay as a result of increasing the temperature. As described by
465 the proposed constitutive model, the thermo-mechanical volume change can be observed to
466 increase as the surcharge increases for normally consolidated Bangkok clay. The relationship
467 obtained for Bangkok clay shows a small increase in parameter γ with the mean preconsolidation
468 stress. As a result, the increase observed in thermo-mechanical volume change with surcharge is
469 not significant. On the other hand, this increase may be more pronounced for other clay types
470 such as kaolinite where the rate of increase in parameter γ with mean preconsolidation stress is
471 more considerable.

472 The settlement obtained at different depths was also investigated using the numerical model
473 simulating a large oedometer setup. A comparison of settlements obtained when using a thermal

474 drain operating at 90 °C and a conventional drain under a surcharge of 25 kPa are shown in
475 Fig. 15. Consolidation settlement at depths 0.15, 0.25 and 0.35 m were considered. Similar to the
476 previous observations, an increase in the magnitude as well as the rate of settlement is observed
477 when a thermal drain is used. Furthermore, the increase in the magnitude of settlement can be
478 seen to increase with depth. Based on the above analysis, the surcharge required during
479 preconsolidation can be reduced when using a thermal drain. In addition, there are significant
480 savings with respect to time for consolidation. An optimum combination of temperature and
481 surcharge can be determined based on factors such as soil geometry, soil properties and initial
482 conditions, structural load, financial and time constraints. As the thermal improvement of the
483 clay can also be expected to depend on the depth, the temperature increments can be
484 strategically targeted with depth. Specifically, greater temperatures can be applied closer to the
485 surface to lead to a uniform change in volume with depth using a thermal drain. This may occur
486 naturally due to the dissipation of heat along the length of a geothermal heat exchanger
487 (McCartney and Murphy 2017). The numerical analysis in this study was conducted using a single
488 thermal drain. In a field application, however, the use of multiple thermal drains will have to be
489 considered. Although not within the scope of this study, this analysis can be extended to
490 investigate the performance of multiple thermal drains by considering the intersection of thermal
491 and hydraulic influence zones surrounding each thermal drain. Furthermore, future studies on
492 the cost savings associated with using the thermal drains after ground improvement to provide
493 heat exchange or heat storage may help further justify the use of this technology. The stress-
494 dependent observations in this study apply to normally consolidated clays but may also apply to
495 lightly overconsolidated clays, which are even more widely encountered in nature than normally

496 consolidated clays. Further research on the thermo-mechanical behavior of lightly
497 overconsolidated clays is needed.

498 **6. Conclusion**

499 A new constitutive thermo-mechanical framework for predicting thermal volume change of
500 soft clays is presented in this study. The proposed model can capture the increase in thermal
501 volume change with increasing mean effective stress observed in experimental studies for
502 normally consolidated clays. The model was applied in a numerical simulation of a thermal drain
503 embedded in a soft clay deposit where coupled interactions of heat flow, fluid flow and volume
504 change were considered. The simulated results were validated with experimental data available
505 in literature. A parametric analysis conducted considering the effects of temperature and the
506 surcharge applied shows that the use of a thermal drain has the potential to reduce the required
507 amount of surcharge and significantly increase the rate of consolidation in comparison to a
508 conventional vertical drain. The results demonstrate that the use of thermal drains can be a
509 promising method of ground improvement while also having the potential to be used as heat
510 exchangers subsequently, permitting sustainable and cost-effective energy usage for the
511 building. Further analysis can be carried out considering different clay types and to determine
512 optimal drain arrangements in field applications.

513 **Acknowledgements**

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605 **Table 1** Model parameters for Georgia kaolinite clay

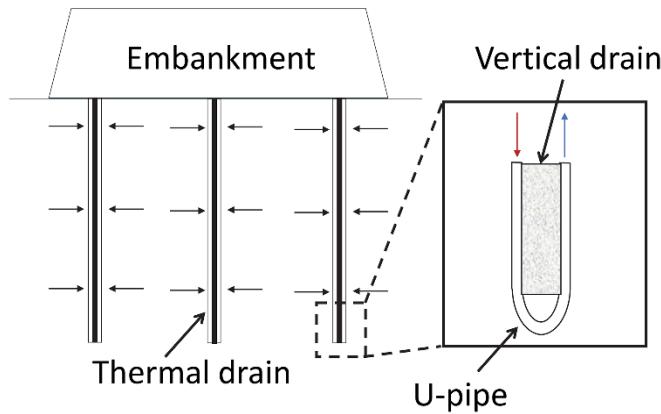
Parameter	Value
Slope of VCL (λ)	0.09
Slope of RCL (κ)	0.02
a	-238.7
b	1.2563

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607 **Table 2** Material parameters for Bangkok clay (Artidteang et al. 2011; Abuel-Naga et al. 2007)

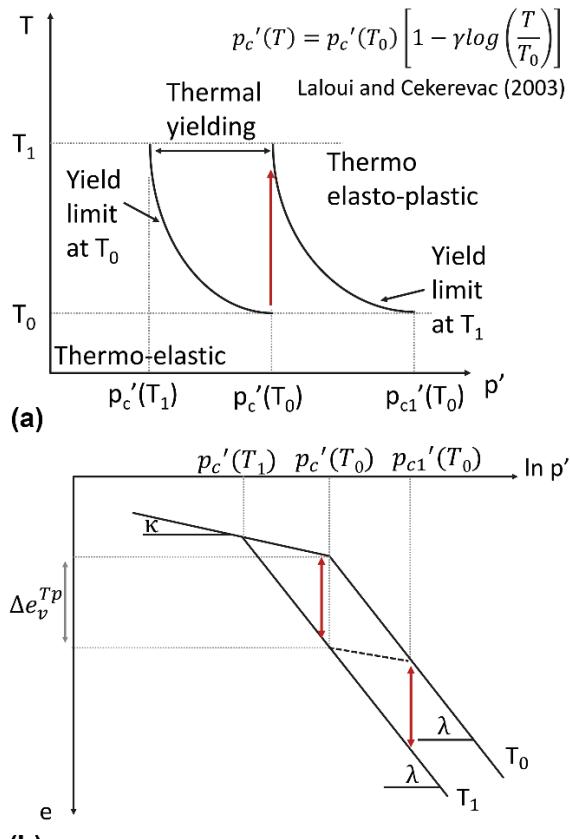
Parameter	Value
Total unit weight (kN/m ³)	14.7
Initial porosity	0.6
λ (slope of VCL)	0.59
κ (slope of RCL)	0.1
γ (soil parameter)	$-0.69p_c'(T_0) + 0.46$
Thermal conductivity of soil particles (W/m/°C)	1.9
Thermal conductivity of pore water (W/m/°C)	0.6
Specific heat capacity (J/kg/°C)	1500
Intrinsic permeability (m ²)	1.0×10^{-16}

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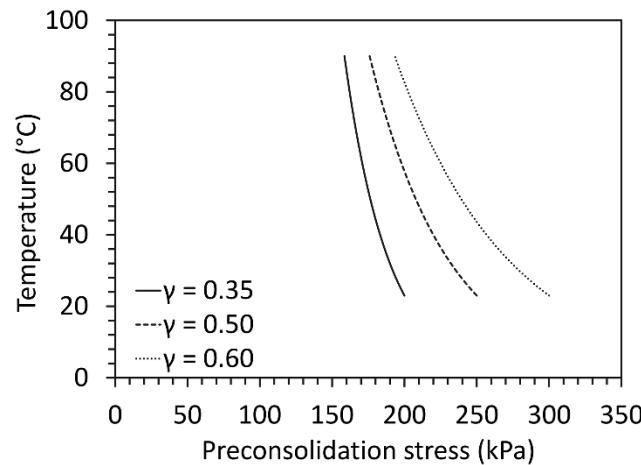
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610 **Fig. 1.** Schematic of thermal drains embedded in a soil layer with a detail showing fluid flow in a
611 closed-loop heat exchanger



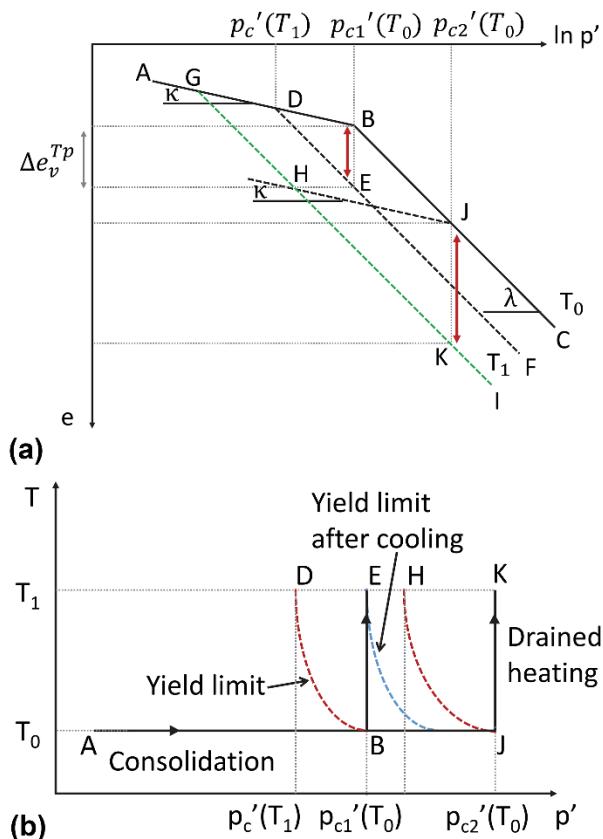
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613 **Fig. 2.** Thermo-mechanical behavior of normally consolidated clays as predicted by the model of
614 Laloui and Cekerevac (2003): (a) Thermal yield limit in $T-p'$ plane; (b) Thermal volume
615 change in e vs. $\ln p'$ plane



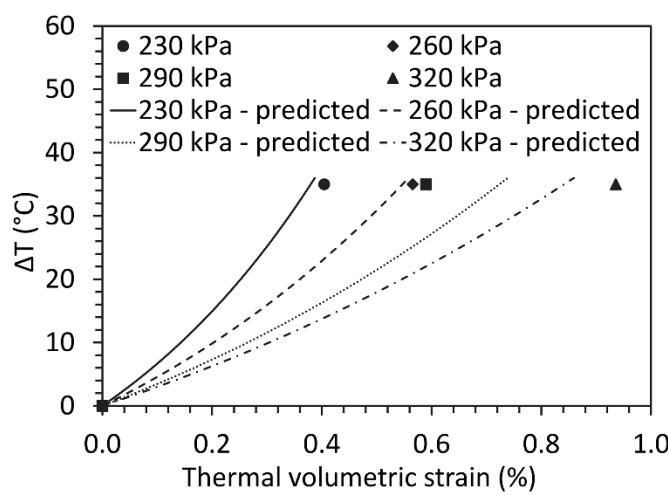
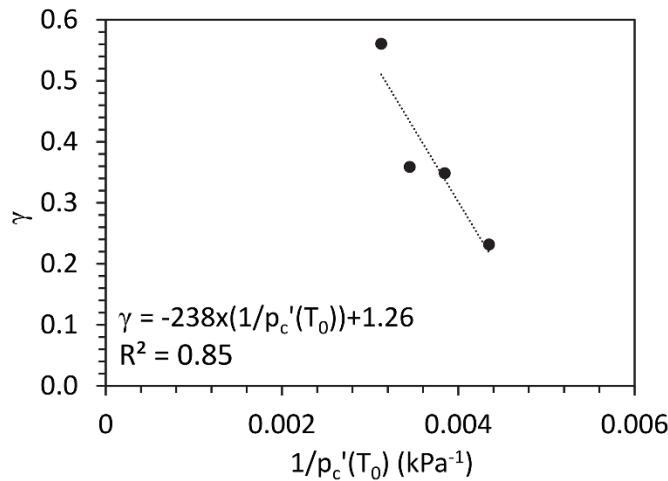
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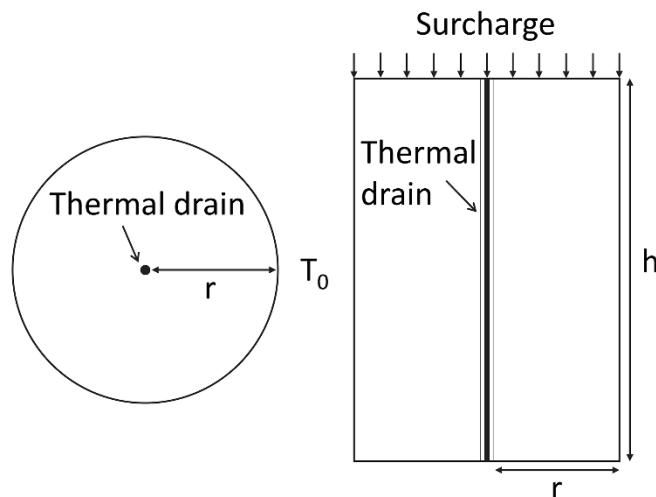
617 **Fig. 3.** Shapes of the yield curves showing variation in thermal preconsolidation stress with
618 temperature at different initial mean effective stresses for normally consolidated clays



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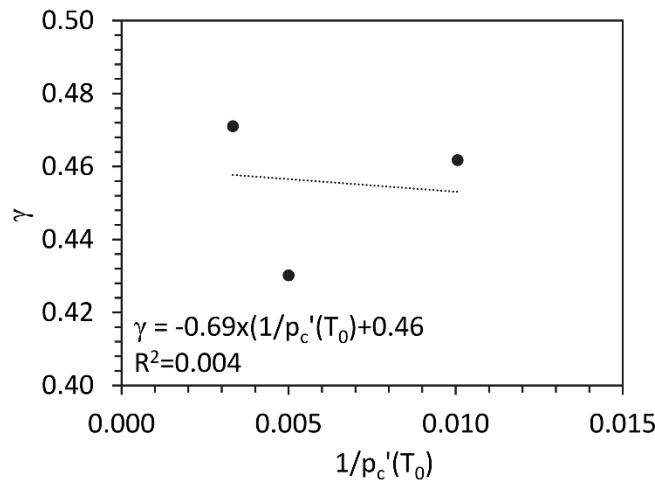
620 **Fig. 4.** New thermo-mechanical framework: (a) thermal volume change in e vs. $\ln p'$ plane;
621 (b) thermo-mechanical paths in $T-p'$ plane





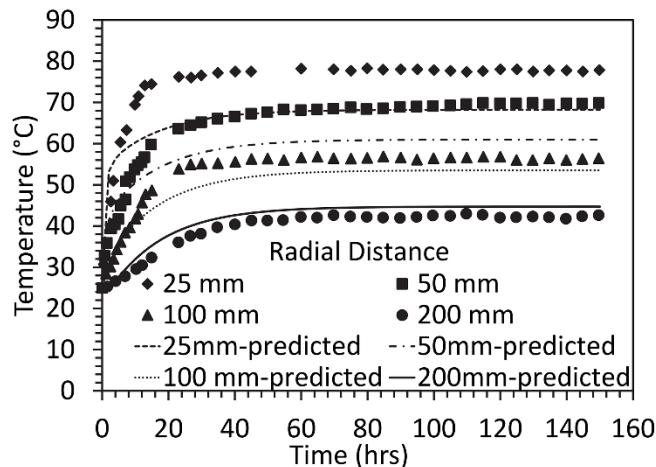
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629 **Fig. 7.** Schematic diagram of the thermal drain arrangement in a finite soil domain



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631 **Fig. 8.** Calibrated parameter γ as a function of mean preconsolidation stress for normally
632 consolidated Bangkok clay (Data: Abuel-Naga et al. 2007)

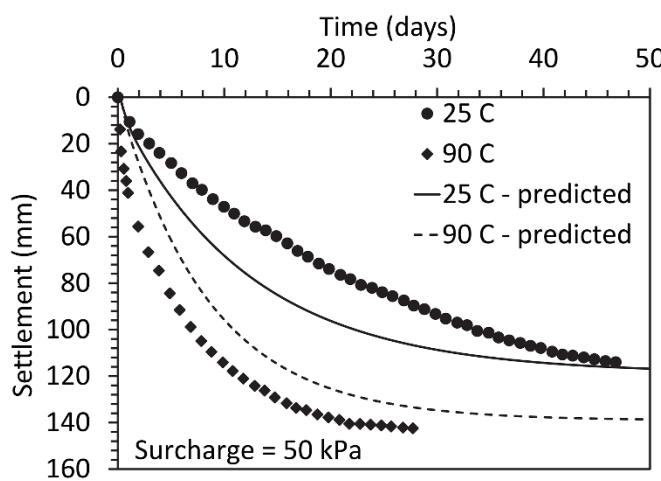


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634 **Fig. 9.** Comparison of results for time series of temperature with data from Artidteang et al.

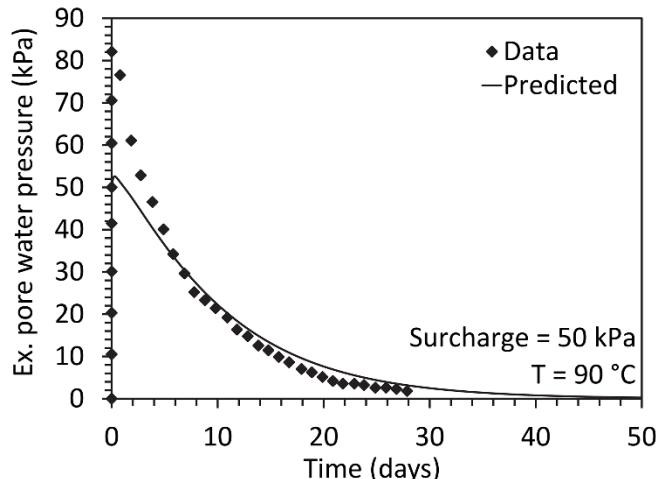
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(2011)



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637 **Fig. 10.** Comparison of predicted results for settlement with data from Artidteang et al. (2011)

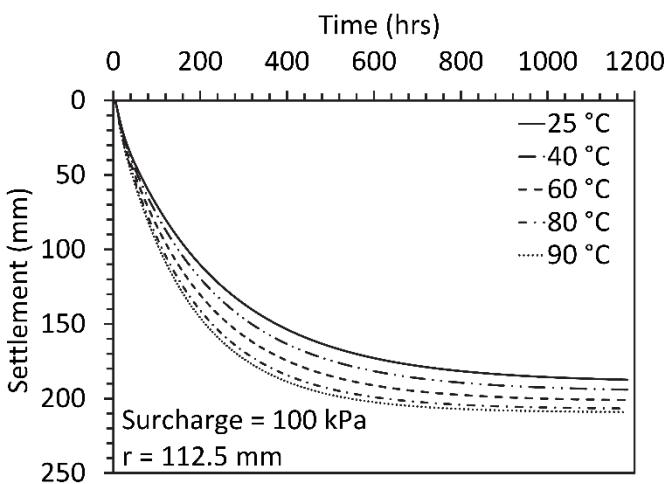


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639 **Fig. 11.** Comparison of predicted results for excess pore water pressure generated with data

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from Artidteang et al. (2011)

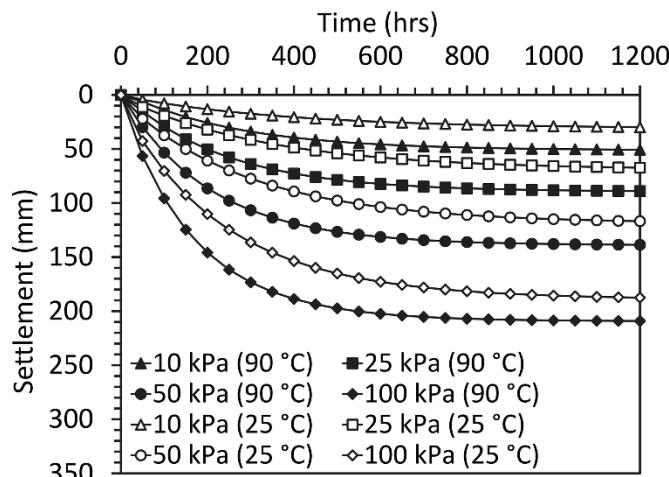


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642 **Fig. 12.** Effect of temperature on consolidation settlement for a thermal drain combined with

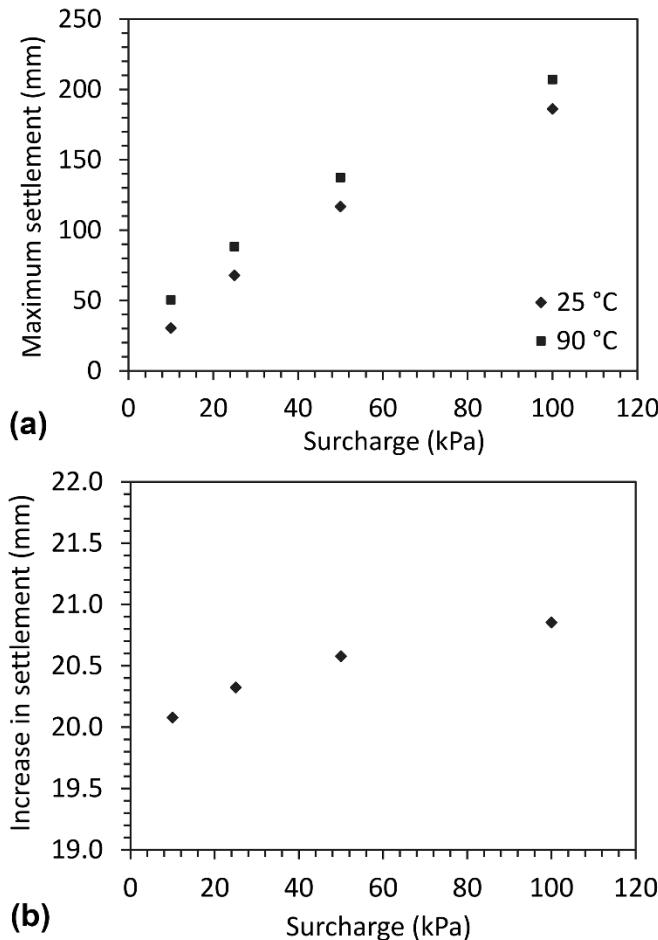
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100 kPa surcharge



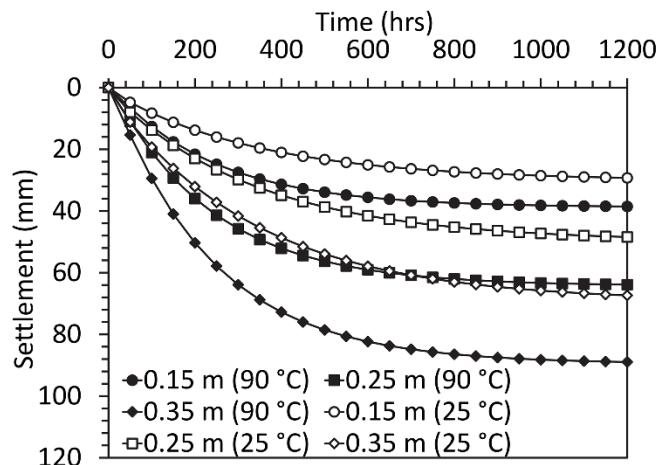
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645 **Fig. 13.** Comparison of consolidation settlements at different applied surcharge stresses



646

647 **Fig. 14.** (a) Effect of temperature and surcharge stress on the maximum settlement; (b) Increase
648 in maximum settlement obtained when using a thermal drain at different surcharge levels



649

650 **Fig. 15.** Comparison of consolidation settlements obtained at different depths