

1 Effect of soil grain size distribution on the mechanical
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43 19 **Abstract:**
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46 20 Installation processes (which induce mechanical damage) may cause undesirable
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48 21 changes on the properties of geosynthetics, affecting their performance. This work
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50 22 evaluates the effect of mechanical damage on the short-term tensile behaviour of two
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52 23 nonwoven geotextiles (with different masses per unit area). The geotextiles were
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54 24 damaged in laboratory using a standardised procedure and an artificial aggregate
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56 25 (*corundum*) and eight other soils. The damage induced was characterized using wide-
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26 width tensile tests. Results showed reductions of the tensile strength of both geotextiles,
27 which depended on the grain size distribution and uniformity of the soils and on the
28 mass per unit area of the geotextiles. The reduction in tensile strength provoked by
29 *corundum* was higher than the decreases caused by most of the other soils. The
30 mechanical damage tests also led to a reduction of elongation at maximum load and an
31 increase of stiffness.

32
33 **Keywords:** geotextiles, nonwoven, mechanical damage, soils, tensile properties

34
35 **Notations:**

36 C_C – coefficient of curvature

37 C_U – coefficient of uniformity

38 D_x – effective x% grain size

39 D_{10} – effective 10% grain size

40 D_{30} – effective 30% grain size

41 D_{50} – effective 50% grain size

42 D_{60} – effective 60% grain size

43 D_{max} – maximum particle size

44 E_{ML} – elongation at maximum load

45 FS – factor of safety

46 GW-GM – well-graded gravel with silt and sand

47 GP – poorly graded gravel

48 ML – sandy silt

49 RF_{CR} – reduction factor associated with creep

50 RF_{CB} – reduction factor associated with chemical and biological degradation

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51 RF_{ID} – reduction factor associated with installation damage

52 RF_{MD} – reduction factor associated with mechanical damage

53 SM – silty sand

54 SP – poorly graded sand

55 SW – well-graded sand

56 TS – tensile strength

57 TS_D – design tensile strength

58 USCS – Unified Soil Classification System

59 UV – ultraviolet

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61 **1. INTRODUCTION**

62 The process of installation on site can damage the geosynthetics [1], causing unwanted
63 changes in their physical, mechanical and hydraulic properties. The damage that occurs
64 during installation is originated essentially from handling the geosynthetics and from
65 the placement and compaction of backfills over them [2]. For some applications the
66 stresses on the geosynthetics from the installation processes are often higher than those
67 in service and need to be adequately considered in their design [3].

68

69 The installation damage typically includes cuts in fibres and other components,
70 formation of holes, abrasion, reduction in mechanical resistance and, in the worst
71 scenario, complete destruction of the materials [4], as well as changes in hydraulic
72 properties. Installation damage may depend on many factors, such as: the characteristics
73 of the geosynthetics, the grain size distribution of the soils, the angularity and thickness
74 of the backfill materials, the compaction energy and the use, or not, of adequate

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75 installation procedures [5-7]. Often mechanical damage is associated with installation
76 procedures, which usually cause unwanted changes on the properties of geosynthetics.

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78 In the design of geosynthetics it is common to represent the effect of installation
79 damage by reduction factors. For reinforcement applications, the tensile strength of
80 geosynthetics (TS) is typically affected by a set of reduction factors (Equation 1)
81 associated with installation damage (RF_{ID}), creep (RF_{CR}) and degradation due to
82 chemical and biological processes (RF_{CB}) and a factor of safety (FS). This enables
83 determining the design strength (TS_D).
84

$$TS_D = \frac{TS}{RF_{ID} \times RF_{CR} \times RF_{CB} \times FS} \quad (1)$$

85
86 Ideally the reduction factor for installation damage should be determined using field
87 installation damage tests with conditions similar to those of the project (installation
88 method, type of backfill and compaction method) and using a common test protocol [8].
89 Nevertheless, when such data is not available it is possible to use extrapolations [9]
90 based on existing measurements with different soils for the same geosynthetics, or
91 considering other products within the same product line.
92

93 To induce mechanical damage of geosynthetics a standardised laboratory procedure has
94 been developed (ENV ISO 10722-1 [10], which was later updated becoming EN ISO
95 10722 [11]). Several authors have used this procedure to study installation damage
96 [12,13], while others have tried to correlate it with field conditions (for example
97 [14,15]). According to Huang and Wang [14], the laboratory test ENV ISO 10722-1
98 [10] can be modified to adequately simulate field installation damage. For that an

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99 aggregate similar to that used in the field should be used and the cyclic load intensity
100 changed. Nevertheless, the laboratory damage tests may not always reproduce field
101 installation conditions or installation damage. Thus, the term mechanical damage is
102 used in this paper.

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104 The present paper focus on changing the soil or aggregate used in the laboratory test EN
105 ISO 10722 [11] and assessing the changes on the short-term tensile properties of two
106 nonwoven geotextiles with different masses per unit area. Besides the synthetic
107 aggregate prescribed in the test standard - *corundum*, other 8 soils with different grain
108 size distributions were used. The main goals of this work included: (1) evaluation of the
109 effect of soil grain size distribution on the mechanical damage suffered by nonwoven
110 geotextiles under repeated loading, (2) comparison of the damage induced by *corundum*
111 (standardised aggregate) with the damage provoked by other soils, (3) evaluation of the
112 effect of some physical properties (mass per unit area or thickness) in the installation
113 survivability of the nonwoven geotextiles.

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115 **2. EXPERIMENTAL DESCRIPTION**

116 **2.1. Geotextiles**

117 This work studies 2 nonwoven needle-punched geotextiles (with different masses per
118 unit area) made from UV-stabilized polypropylene fibres. The designations used for the
119 geotextiles (G250 and G400) are related with their nominal mass per unit area (250
120 g.m⁻² and 400 g.m⁻², respectively). The main characteristics of the geotextiles (obtained
121 from standardised laboratory tests) are summarized in Table 1.

122

123 The sampling and preparation of test specimens were carried out according to EN ISO
124 9862 [19]. The specimens (machine direction of production) were cut from positions

125 evenly distributed over the full width and length of the geotextiles (supplied in rolls),
126 but not closer than 100 mm to the edges. The specimens were kept in a dry and dark
127 place at room temperature until the tests were performed.

128

129 **2.2. Mechanical damage tests**

130 2.2.1. Equipment and test method

131 The mechanical damage tests were performed in a laboratorial prototype equipment
132 following the specifications of EN ISO 10722 [11]. The equipment was formed by a
133 container (Figure 1) divided into a lower and an upper box (rigid metal boxes where the
134 geotextile and the soil were placed), a loading plate and a compression machine (full
135 description of the equipment can be found in Lopes and Lopes [20]).

136

137 The mechanical damage tests were carried out according to EN ISO 10722 [11]: each
138 specimen of geotextile (250 mm wide and 500 mm long) was placed between two layers
139 of a synthetic aggregate of sintered aluminium oxide (*corundum*) and submitted to
140 repeated loading. Additional tests were performed using other soils. The layer placed
141 under the specimen consisted in two sublayers (each 37.5 mm high) compacted by a flat
142 plate loaded to a pressure of 200 ± 2 kPa, during 60 s, over the whole area of the test
143 container. The layer placed over the specimen consisted in loose soil with 75 mm high.
144 Each specimen was subjected to dynamic loading (ranging between 5 ± 0.5 and 500 ± 10
145 kPa) at a frequency of 1 Hz and for 200 cycles. Finished the loading, the test was
146 stopped and the specimen was removed carefully from the test container, avoiding
147 additional damage.

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149 2.2.2. Soils

150 The mechanical damage tests were performed using the synthetic aggregate defined in
151 EN ISO 10722 [11] (*corundum*) and with 8 additional different soils. These additional
152 soils were chosen to represent materials in contact with geotextiles in a variety of
153 geotechnical structures. For example, silty sands, sands and *tout-venant* can be used to
154 the construction of reinforced soil walls and slopes, reinforced embankments and
155 pavements (roads, railways or airports); sands can also be used as granular filters.
156 Gravels can be used in drains and filters; silts are commonly used in reinforced slopes
157 and embankments.

158
159 The grain size distributions of the soils (evaluated according to ISO/TS 17892-4 [21])
160 are presented in Figure 2. The main parameters for the characterisation of the grain size
161 distributions (such as: D_x – effective x% grain size, D_{max} – maximum particle size, C_U –
162 coefficient of uniformity, C_C – coefficient of curvature) can be found in Table 2.

164 **2.3. Evaluation of the damage**

165 The mechanical damage induced on the geotextiles was evaluated by visual examination
166 and using wide-width tensile tests (according to EN ISO 10319 [18]). The tensile tests
167 were performed at a speed of 20 mm.min⁻¹ in a tensile machine from *Lloyd Instruments*
168 (model LR 50K) equipped with a load cell of 10 kN. Each sample was characterised
169 using, at least, 5 specimens with 200x200 mm (length between grips of 100 mm).
170 Elongation was measured with a video-extensometer. The mechanical properties
171 determined were the tensile strength (TS , in kN.m⁻¹) and the elongation at maximum
172 load (E_{ML} , in %).

173

174 The 95% confidence intervals for tensile strength and elongation at maximum load were
175 calculated according to Montgomery and Runger [23]. Some results are expressed in
176 terms of retained tensile strength (in %). This parameter was obtained by dividing the
177 tensile strength of the damaged samples by the tensile strength of the reference ones
178 (undamaged).

179
180 Based on the changes in tensile strength, reduction factors for mechanical damage
181 (RF_{MD}) were determined. The reduction factors were obtained as the ratio between the
182 tensile strengths of the reference samples and the damaged ones.

183

184 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

185 **3.1. Geotextile G250**

186 The mechanical damage tests affected geotextile G250 differently, depending on the
187 type of soil used. The visual inspections indicated that the finer confinement soils
188 (sandy silt and silty sand) induced less severe visible changes (no fibre severing, cuts,
189 bruising or abrasion were found). However, for the specimens damaged with these soils
190 the area immediately below the loading plate exhibited some stretching. This is likely to
191 be related to the low bearing capacity of sandy silt and silty sand, which exhibited
192 considerable settlements during loading, inducing permanent deformations to the
193 specimens.

194

195 The specimens of geotextile G250 submitted to repeated loading when confined in the
196 sands showed fibre severing and bruising. The contact with coarser soils, namely the 3
197 gravels, the *tout-venant* and the *corundum* provoked more damage (such as fibre

198 severing, cuts, bruising and abrasion) than the remaining soils. Some stretching of the
199 specimens was observed, but less significant than for the sandy silt and the silty sand.

200
201 The tensile properties of geotextile G250 after the mechanical damage tests are
202 presented in Table 3. Figure 3 includes mean curves tensile force-elongation for the
203 reference sample and after mechanical damage with some of the soils considered. The
204 curves omitted were very similar to the ones presented and were removed to make the
205 figure easier to understand.

206
207 The tensile strength of geotextile G250 decreased after the mechanical damage tests
208 (from 16.00 kN.m^{-1} for the undamaged sample to $10.68\text{-}15.57 \text{ kN.m}^{-1}$ after damage,
209 depending on the soil used). Similarly, the elongation at maximum load was reduced
210 from 70.4% for the reference sample to 48.4-60.8% after mechanical damage. The
211 steeper slopes of the non-elastic region of the mean curves tensile force-elongation
212 showed an increase in stiffness after the mechanical damage tests. The same
213 consequence was observed for the curves not included in Figure 3.

214
215 The reductions of tensile strength observed depended on the soil used in the mechanical
216 damage tests. The tests performed with the finest soils (sandy silt and silty sand) caused
217 no relevant modifications of the tensile strength (as the corresponding retained tensile
218 strengths were 97%). Oppositely, the elongation at maximum load decreased (from
219 70.4% to 59.3% and to 60.8%, respectively). As the tensile strength remained
220 practically unchanged (suggesting the inexistence of relevant damage in the nonwoven
221 structure), the reductions of the elongation at maximum load may be due to the
222 stretching induced by loading (which caused some pre-elongation in the specimens).

223

224 Both sands (0/2 and 0/4) caused a reduction in tensile strength of geotextile G250
225 (retained tensile strengths of 86% and 85%, respectively) smaller than those due to
226 confinement in the gravels (retained tensile strengths of 77%, 73% and 67% for gravels
227 4/8, 6/14 and 14/20, respectively). The *tout-venant* (retained tensile strength of 82%) led
228 to an intermediate reduction (between that of the sands and the gravels). However, the
229 variability of the tensile strength was higher than for the remaining samples. The
230 contact with *corundum* induced a tensile strength reduction of 26% (retained tensile
231 strength of 74%). This was identical to that with gravel 6/14 and slightly lower than that
232 with gravel 14/20 (still, relatively high dispersions were observed).

233

234 The mechanical damage tests with the sands, the gravels, the *tout-venant* and the
235 *corundum* led to reductions of the elongation at maximum load. These reductions were
236 not much different between the different soils (elongations at maximum load ranging
237 from 48.4% to 58.5%), yet seeming to exist a tendency for higher decreases in tensile
238 strength (suggesting higher damage in the non-woven structure) being followed by
239 higher reductions in elongation at maximum load.

240

241 The reduction in tensile strength can be related with some grain size distribution
242 parameters. The soils with bigger grain size (D_{max}) tended to cause higher decreases in
243 tensile strength. The main exception was observed for *tout-venant*. Even though it had
244 the highest D_{max} , *tout-venant* was not the soil that caused the highest reduction in tensile
245 strength, which may be due to its classification as a well graded soil. Indeed, it had a
246 relatively high percentage of fine particles (9.5% of the particles had a grain size lower
247 than 0.074 mm) and low amounts of large particles when compared to other soils (for

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248 instance, *tout-venant* had a D_{60} lower than the gravels and *corundum*). Thus, the damage that
249 occurs during the mechanical damage test is likely to be influenced not only by the
250 grain size, but also by the uniformity of the soil (poorly graded soils: $C_U < 1$ and $1 > C_C$
251 > 3 ; uniform soils: $C_U = 1$; well graded soils: ($C_U > 4$ and $1 < C_C < 3$)).

252
253 *Tout-venant* was a well graded soil with fewer voids than other uniform or poorly
254 graded soils used. This means that the large particles were surrounded by small ones
255 (less damaging), which created a larger contact area for the transference of stresses
256 between *tout-venant* and geotextile G250 (a higher contact area leads to lower stresses
257 at the surface of the geotextile). The previous discussion is obviously only valid when
258 the soils are compacted.

259
260 The influence of soil uniformity can also be seen when comparing the damage caused
261 by silty sand and sand 0/2 (soils with relatively close grain sizes). Indeed, a higher
262 reduction in tensile strength was found for the uniform soil (sand 0/2) (retained tensile
263 strengths of 97% and 86% for silty sand and sand 0/2, respectively). This difference
264 may be, once again, explained by the higher contact area of the well graded soil (silty
265 sand).

266

267 **3.2. Geotextile G400**

268 The defects observed visually in geotextile G400 after the mechanical damage tests
269 were similar to those observed for geotextile G250. However, the fibre severing, the
270 cuts, the bruising and the abrasion were less pronounced. This readily indicated a higher
271 resistance of geotextile G400 against the induced damage.

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273 Like for geotextile G250, the tensile properties of geotextile G400 also changed after
274 the mechanical damage tests (Table 4). Indeed, the tensile strength (variation from
275 25.56 kN.m⁻¹ to 21.35-25.08 kN.m⁻¹) and the elongation at maximum load (reduction
276 from 70.9% to 50.5-61.1%) tended to decrease. Figure 4 shows some mean curves
277 tensile force-elongation obtained for geotextile G400 (certain curves were omitted for
278 clarification purposes). These curves showed an increase in stiffness after the
279 mechanical damage tests (this increase also occurred for samples damaged with the soils
280 omitted in Figure 4).

281
282 The evolution of the tensile properties (after the mechanical damage tests) had a similar
283 behaviour in geotextiles G250 and G400 (this way, the main conclusions withdrawn for
284 geotextile G250 in section 3.1 are also valid for geotextile G400). However, and with
285 exception for the finest soils (where no relevant changes occurred), the reductions in
286 tensile strength were less pronounced for geotextile G400 (Figure 5). The higher mass
287 per unit area (and thickness) was responsible for the better resistance of geotextile G400
288 against mechanical damage.

289

290 **3.3. Reduction factors for mechanical damage**

291 The reduction factors presented in this paper were determined from mechanical damage
292 laboratory tests and thus should not be used for design. Nevertheless, they can be useful
293 to compare the influence of the type of soil and the mass per unit area on the damage
294 suffered by the geotextiles. Figure 6 illustrates the variation of RF_{MD} with the D_{50} of the
295 soils used in the mechanical damage tests for geotextiles G250 and G400.

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297 Geotextiles of the same product family with different values of mass per unit area have
298 different robustness. Higher robustness resulted in lower values for the reduction factor,
299 RF_{MD} . Generally, the soils with higher values of D_{50} led to larger reduction factors.
300 However, as the soils used were quite different, there are other factors to be considered.
301 The uniformity of the soils also played an important role on the changes observed after
302 the mechanical damage tests. Soils with wider range of particle sizes seemed to be less
303 aggressive.

304

305 **4. CONCLUSIONS**

306 The laboratorial mechanical damage tests (carried out with different types of soils)
307 caused important changes in the tensile properties of two nonwoven geotextiles (G250
308 and G400) with different masses per unit area. The defects provoked included: fibre
309 severing, cuts, bruising, abrasion and stretching. The stretching of the geotextiles
310 occurred mainly for the soils with lower bearing capacities (which suffered considerable
311 settlements during the mechanical damage tests, inducing permanent strains to the
312 geotextiles).

313

314 The laboratory mechanical damage tests led to reductions in tensile strength (main
315 exception for the tests with sandy silt and silty sand). These reductions depended on the
316 grain size and uniformity of the soils and on the mass unit area (and thickness) of the
317 geotextiles. The soils with larger grain sizes tended to cause higher decreases in tensile
318 strength, while the soils with higher amounts of fines led to lower reductions. For soils
319 with comparable grain size (such as silty sand and sand 0/2), the decrease in tensile
320 strength was higher for the uniform one (sand 0/2). The reductions in tensile strength
321 were lower for the geotextile with higher mass per unit area, G400 (exception for the

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322 tests with sandy silt and silty sand, where no relevant changes occurred in the tensile
323 strength of both geotextiles). Additionally, the mechanical damage tests also caused
324 changes in other tensile properties (decrease of elongation at maximum load and
325 increase of stiffness).

326

327 The *corundum* (synthetic aggregate considered in EN ISO 10722 [11]) caused a higher
328 reduction for the tensile strength of the geotextiles than most of the other soils used in
329 the mechanical damage tests. This indicated that the use of *corundum* in EN ISO 10722
330 [11] may be a conservative approach for nonwoven geotextiles applied in fine soils.
331 However, it could be below the safety limits when coarser soils are used. The previous
332 conclusions are only taking into account the geotextiles and soils used in this work and
333 cannot be generalized for other soils/geosynthetics. For that purpose, further research is
334 needed.

335

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420 **CAPTIONS FOR TABLES**

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422 TABLE 1 – Main characteristics of the geotextile (reference specimens).

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424 TABLE 2 – Characterisation of the grain size distribution of the soils.

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426 TABLE 3 – Tensile properties of geotextile G250 after the installation damage tests.

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428 TABLE 4 – Tensile properties of geotextile G400 after the installation damage tests.

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TABLE 1 – Main characteristics of the geotextile (reference specimens).

Geotextile	G250	G400
Mass per unit area ¹ (g.m ⁻²)	262 (± 14)	412 (± 20)
Thickness ² (mm)	2.37 (± 0.10)	3.32 (± 0.15)
Tensile strength ³ (kN.m ⁻¹)	16.00 (± 1.20)	25.56 (± 0.97)
Elongation at maximum load ³ (%)	70.4 (± 2.5)	70.9 (± 4.6)

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¹Determined according to EN ISO 9864 [16]

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²Determined according to EN ISO 9863-1 [17]

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³Determined according to EN ISO 10319 [18] (machine direction of production)
(in brackets are the 95% confidence intervals)

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TABLE 2 – Characterisation of the grain size distribution of the soils.

Soil/aggregate		% < 0.074	D_{10}	D_{30}	D_{50}	D_{60}	D_{max}	C_U	C_C
Name	USCS*	mm	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(mm)		
Sandy silt	ML	66.5	0.0001	0.007	0.023	0.038	4.8	380.0	11.1
Silty sand	SM	20.0	0.025	0.188	0.394	0.549	25.4	22.0	2.6
Sand 0/2	SP	2.2	0.145	0.260	0.410	0.486	8.0	3.4	1.0
Sand 0/4	SW	0.5	0.263	0.558	0.869	1.590	8.0	6.0	0.7
<i>Tout-venant</i>	GW-GM	9.5	0.084	1.045	3.669	6.067	37.5	72.2	2.1
Gravel 4/8	GP	0.3	2.990	4.625	5.656	6.172	16.0	2.1	1.2
Gravel 6/14	GP	0.6	6.417	9.427	11.305	12.244	16.0	1.9	1.1
Gravel 14/20	GP	0.3	9.447	13.014	16.948	19.859	31.5	2.1	0.9
<i>Corundum</i>	GP	0	5.323	6.017	6.661	6.913	10.0	1.3	1.0

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*Unified Soil Classification System (ASTM D2487 [22]); *Tout-venant* – aggregate used in road construction; ML – sandy silt; SM – silty sand; SP – poorly graded sand; SW – well-graded sand; GW-GM – well-graded gravel with silt and sand; GP – poorly graded gravel

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TABLE 3 – Tensile properties of geotextile G250 after the installation damage tests.

Soil	TS (kN.m ⁻¹)	E_{ML} (%)
Sandy silt	15.57 (± 1.08)	59.3 (± 5.2)
Silty sand	15.46 (± 0.72)	60.8 (± 5.8)
Sand 0/2	13.80 (± 1.02)	54.7 (± 3.5)
Sand 0/4	13.61 (± 0.82)	58.5 (± 6.2)
<i>Tout-venant</i>	13.13 (± 2.51)	55.0 (± 7.0)
Gravel 4/8	12.39 (± 0.78)	51.1 (± 5.2)
Gravel 6/14	11.70 (± 0.51)	50.4 (± 3.2)
Gravel 14/20	10.68 (± 1.46)	48.4 (± 9.9)
<i>Corundum</i>	11.88 (± 1.75)	48.7 (± 5.8)

(in brackets are the 95% confidence intervals)

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TABLE 4 – Tensile properties of geotextile G400 after the installation damage tests.

Soil	TS (kN.m ⁻¹)	E_{ML} (%)
Sandy silt	25.08 (± 0.31)	61.1 (± 4.7)
Silty sand	24.71 (± 2.17)	55.4 (± 3.8)
Sand 0/2	24.05 (± 1.71)	56.6 (± 4.0)
Sand 0/4	24.02 (± 1.76)	52.7 (± 5.2)
<i>Tout-venant</i>	23.28 (± 1.29)	55.4 (± 5.7)
Gravel 4/8	22.31 (± 1.38)	51.3 (± 5.5)
Gravel 6/14	22.01 (± 1.63)	53.9 (± 3.6)
Gravel 14/20	21.35 (± 1.12)	50.5 (± 8.1)
<i>Corundum</i>	21.48 (± 1.03)	53.9 (± 6.2)

(in brackets are the 95% confidence intervals)

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480 **CAPTIONS FOR FIGURES**

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14 486 FIGURE 3 – Mean curves “tensile force-elongation” obtained for geotextile G250
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17 487 before and after some installation damage tests.

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21 489 FIGURE 4 – Mean curves “tensile force-elongation” obtained for geotextile G400
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24 490 before and after some installation damage tests.

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28 492 FIGURE 5 – Retained tensile strength of geotextiles G250 and G400 after the
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31 493 installation damage tests.

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36 495 FIGURE 6 – Variation of RF_{MD} with the D_{50} of the soils for geotextiles G250 and G400.

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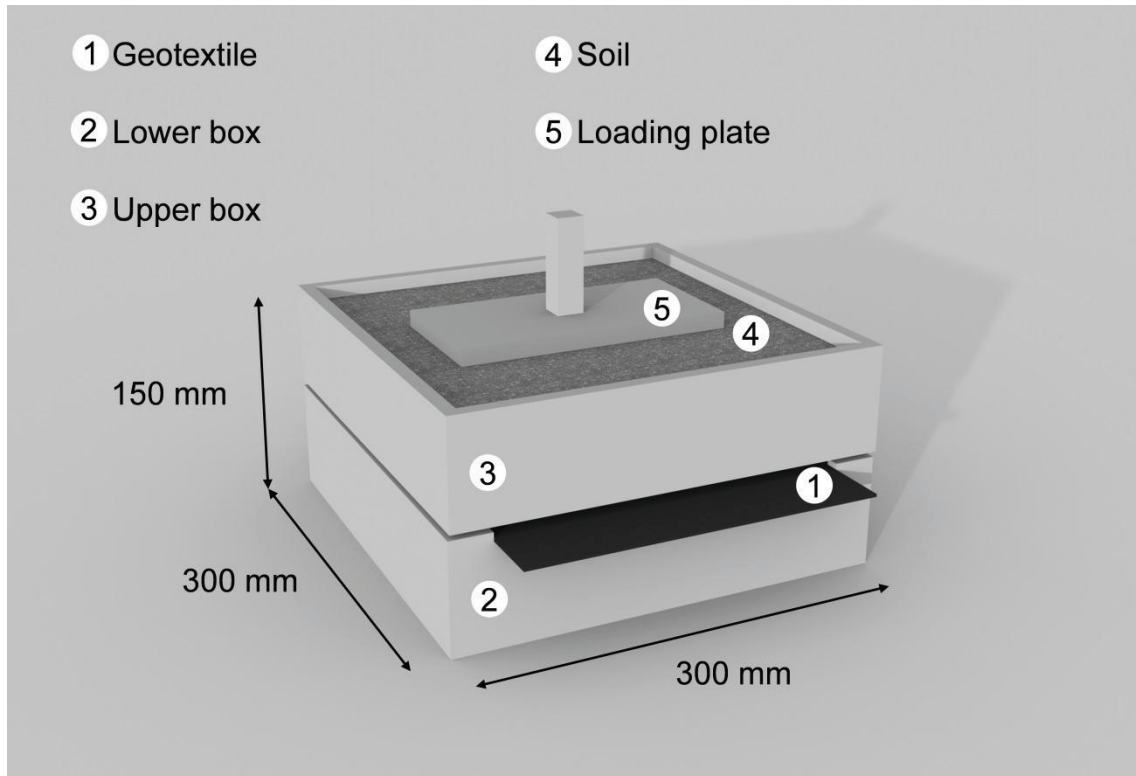
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FIGURE 1 – Schematic representation of the installation damage equipment.



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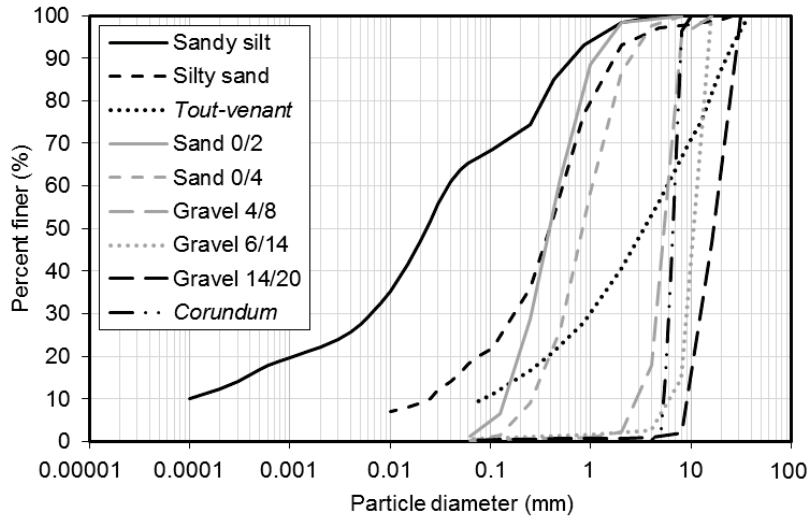
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FIGURE 2 – Grain size distribution of the soils.



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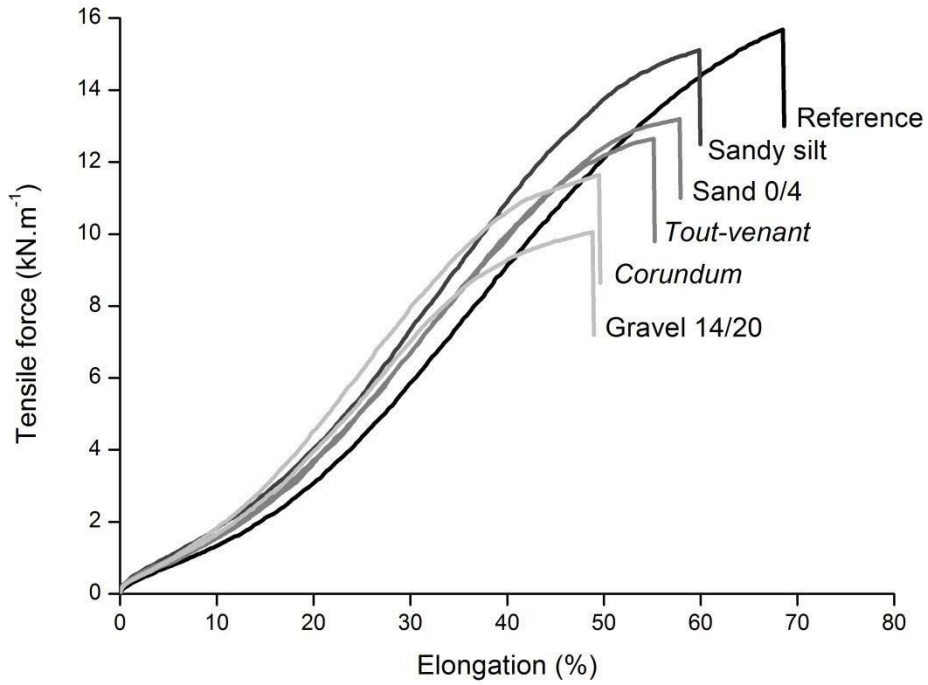
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541 FIGURE 3 – Mean curves “tensile force-elongation” obtained for geotextile G250 before and after some
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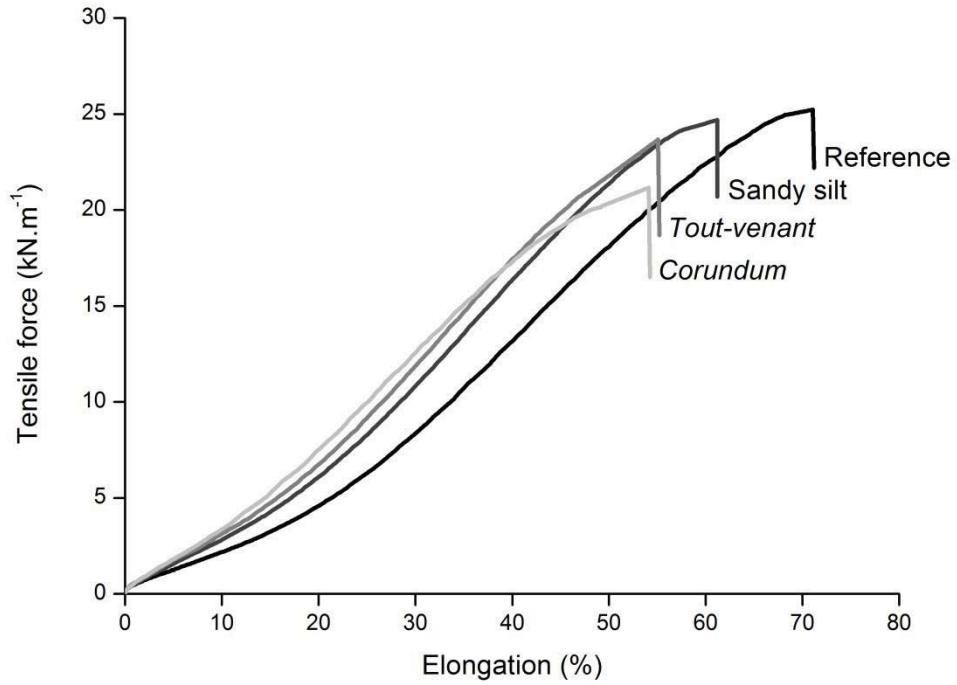
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FIGURE 4 – Mean curves “tensile force-elongation” obtained for geotextile G400 before and after some installation damage tests.



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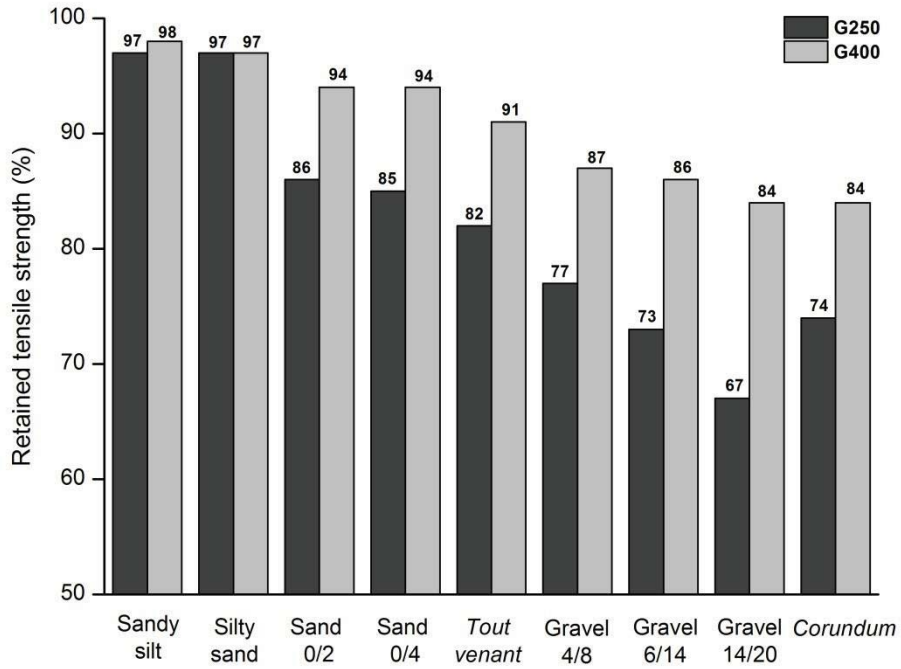
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581 FIGURE 5 – Retained tensile strength of geotextiles G250 and G400 after the installation damage tests.



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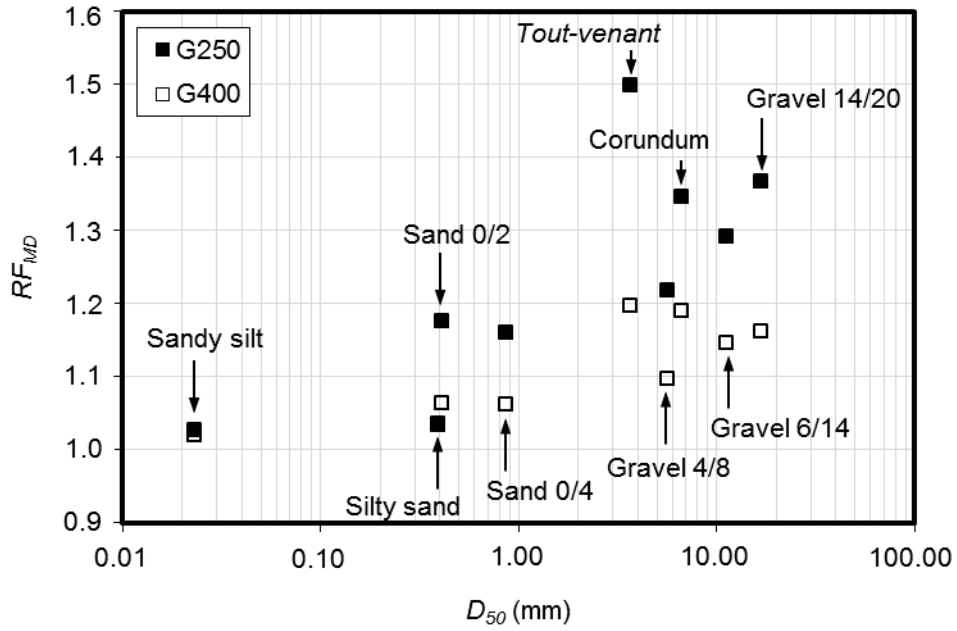
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FIGURE 6 – Variation of RF_{MD} with the D_{50} of the soils for geotextiles G250 and G400.



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