

Performance, Problems and Remedial Measures for Roads Constructed on Expansive Soil in Trinidad and Tobago

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Abstract:

Expansive soils are among the most problematic soil types, significantly contributing to pavement and foundation settlement issues worldwide. The volume changes caused by the soil's characteristic swelling and shrinking behavior, driven by climate-induced moisture variations, lead to severe structural damage. This study aims to examine the impact of expansive soils on existing pavement structures and to propose evidence-based remediation techniques for Trinidad and Tobago. The methodology involved a thorough review of peer-reviewed studies, a comparative analysis of local geotechnical data for Trinidadian expansive soils, and an examination of international literature on similar soils. The study found that primary pavement defects, such as cracking, rutting, and instability, are not solely caused by expansive soils but are often initiated by pavement structural failure (fatigue), which allows moisture intrusion and triggers the shrink-swell cycle. A comprehensive feasibility assessment of international treatment methods was conducted, resulting in the selection of three suitable measures for Trinidad and Tobago: replacing or compacting non-expansive soils for embankments, using geosynthetics for reinforcement and barriers, and implementing robust drainage construction and maintenance.

Key Word: Expansive Soil; Swelling; Shrinkage; Moisture; Subgrade; Stabilization; Geosynthetics; Soil Properties; Volumetric Change.

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I. Introduction

Poor road conditions have been a persistent challenge for road users in Trinidad and Tobago over the past decades. These compromised infrastructural conditions have been linked to tragic incidents resulting in loss of life and property damage. This study investigates the performance, associated problems, and potential remedial measures for roads constructed on expansive clays within the country, aiming to provide verifiable data for local authorities, such as the Ministry of Works and Transport, to inform future pavement design and refurbishment. The detrimental effects of expansive soil have been reported to cause greater damage to pavement infrastructure and other engineering structures than natural geohazards [1,2]. Globally, annual expenditure on damages caused by expansive soil amounts to billions of dollars [2]. In Trinidad and Tobago, this financial burden is substantial; local figures indicate that approximately TT\$335 million has been spent on the Road Construction/Major Road Rehabilitation Project since fiscal year 2019, with an additional TT\$201.9 million allocated to municipal corporations for local road rehabilitation [3].

The general objective of this research is to rigorously identify the performance characteristics, dominant problems, and feasible remedial measures for roads constructed on expansive soil in Trinidad and Tobago. Specific objectives included: reviewing existing geotechnical knowledge and practices; establishing and using local field data; identifying areas affected by the region; critically assessing current road designs; and quantitatively evaluating feasible mitigation methods. All proposed recommendations are developed with consideration for the American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO) specifications and the American Society for Testing and Materials (ASTM) standards.

II. Comprehensive Literature Review

Expansive Soils and Mineralogical Aspects: Expansive soils are defined as soils or rock materials that exhibit the potential for significant volume change (shrinkage or swelling) in response to changes in moisture content [4]. Such soils are predominantly found in arid and semi-arid regions characterized by alternating wet and dry cycles [5]. Given that Trinidad and Tobago experience distinct wet (June to December) and dry (January to May) seasons, these climatic cycles drive localized shrinking swelling activity. Highly expansive clays can exhibit volume changes of 10% or more [1, 4]. The depth of the active zone, where these changes occur, is typically 3 meters but may be extended by disturbance, such as the presence of deep-rooted vegetation [6, 7].

Identification and Classification of Expansive Soils: Initial identification of expansive soils can be achieved through visual inspection, observing macro-features such as surface cracks and a popcorn-like texture during periods of desiccation, as shown in Figure 1.

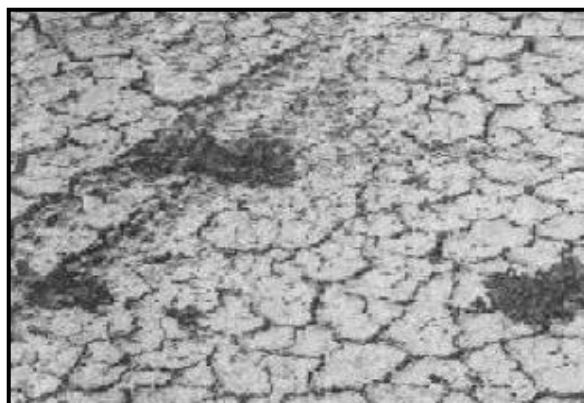


Figure 1: Typical surface cracking and popcorn-like texture observed in expansive soils, adapted from Zumrawi [11].

Laboratory analysis relying on Atterberg Limits (Liquid Limit (LL), Plastic Limit (PL), Shrinkage Limit (SL), and Plasticity Index (PI)) is considered the best indicator for assessing potential swell [12, 13]. The definitive swell test quantifies the degree of expansiveness and categorizes soils from Low (<1%) to Very High (>5%), as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Degree of Expansiveness Based on Potential Swell adapted from Merwe [14]

Potential Swell (%)	Degree of Expansiveness
<1	Low
1 - 2	Medium
2 - 5	High
>5	Very High

Local investigations conducted by Ramana [9] established index soil parameters at 17 locations, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Trinidad Soil Parameters, adapted from Ramana [4]

No.	Location	Short	Clay Content <2 μ m (%)	Clay Content <1 μ m (%)	LL (%)	PI (%)	SL (%)	Natural Moisture Content (%)	Activity (PI/Clay)
1	Barrackpore	BKP	82	65	84	56	24	39	0.69
2	Brasso-Venado	BRS	52	42	79	46	18	34	0.88
3	Caparo	CPR	40	35	55	32	21	25	0.79
4	Caigual	CGL	35	30	56	33	13	23	0.94
5	Chaguanas	CHG	35	35	51	23	14	14	0.67
6	Couva	CVA	36	30	60	33	19	25	0.91
7	Gran Couva	GCV	69	55	93	65	21	33	0.94
8	Guayaguayare	GUY	39	32	47	23	20	16	0.59
9	Mayaro	MYR	70	60	74	48	12	36	0.69
10	Moruga	MGA	35	30	43	26	25	15	0.73
11	Pleasantville	PVL	50	45	94	71	16	31	1.43
12	Poole	POO	57	50	81	48	19	37	0.83
13	Princes Town	PRT	72	60	83	58	14	37	0.79
14	Rio Claro	RIO	22	17	70	44	24	39	1.99
15	Sang Grande	SNG	49	45	76	44	13	38	0.89
16	Tabaquite	TBQ	62	50	106	67	19	43	1.08
17	Talparo	TPR	60	52	73	48	16	32	0.80

Recognizing the inapplicability of international standards due to regional climatic and geological disparities, local modifications were made to the U.S Bureau of Reclamation (USBR) classification system shown in Table 3 to produce Table 4.

Table 3: adapted from USBR Classification [15]

Colloid Content (<0.0001mm) %	Plasticity Index %	Shrinkage Limit %	Probable Expansion (% Total Volume Change)	Degree of Expansion
>28	>35	<11	>30	Very high
20 - 31	25 - 41	7 - 12	20 - 30	High
13 - 23	15 - 28	10 - 16	10 - 20	Medium
<15	<18	>15	<10	Low

Table 4: Modified USBR Classification System for Local Soils adapted from Ramana [4]

Clay Content (<0.0002 mm)%	Plasticity Index, %	Shrinkage Index, %	Liquid Limit	Probable Maximum Swell, %	Degree of Expansion
< 30	< 25	< 30	< 50	< 2	Low
30 - 50	25 - 45	30 - 40	50 - 70	2 - 5	Medium
50 - 65	45 - 65	40 - 50	70 - 90	5 - 10	High
> 65	> 65	> 50	> 90	> 10	Very High

The Modified USBR Classification System and the Vander Merwe Chart shown in Figure 2 were used to create Figure 3, the Modified Vander Merwe Chart for Local Soils. Additionally, a Modified Plasticity Chart was developed for quick qualitative analysis, as shown in Figure 4.

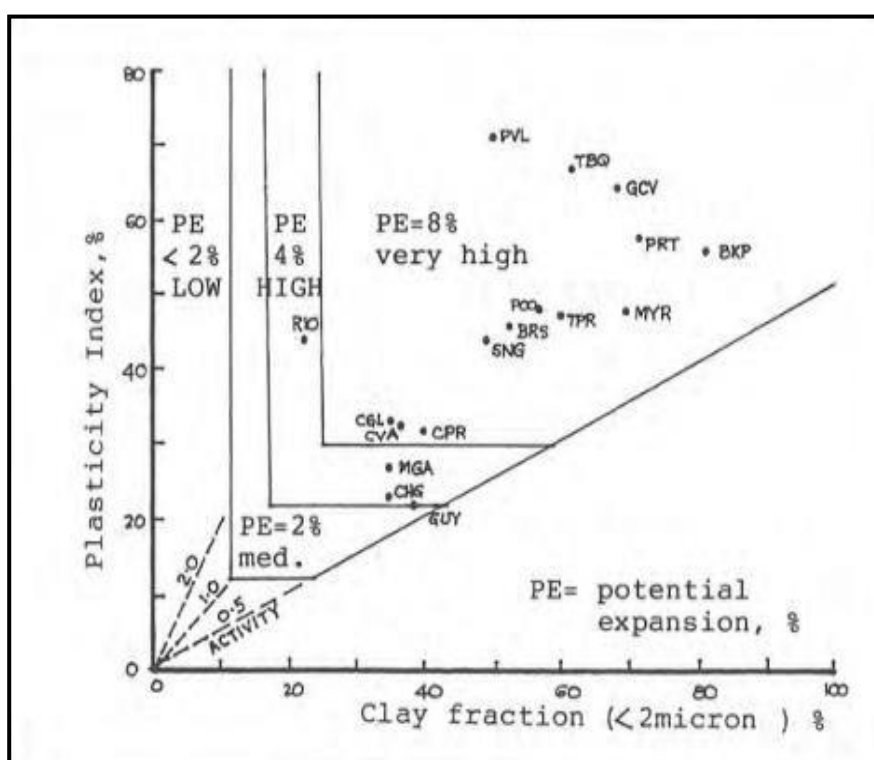


Figure 2: Vander Merwe Chart adapted from Merwe [14].

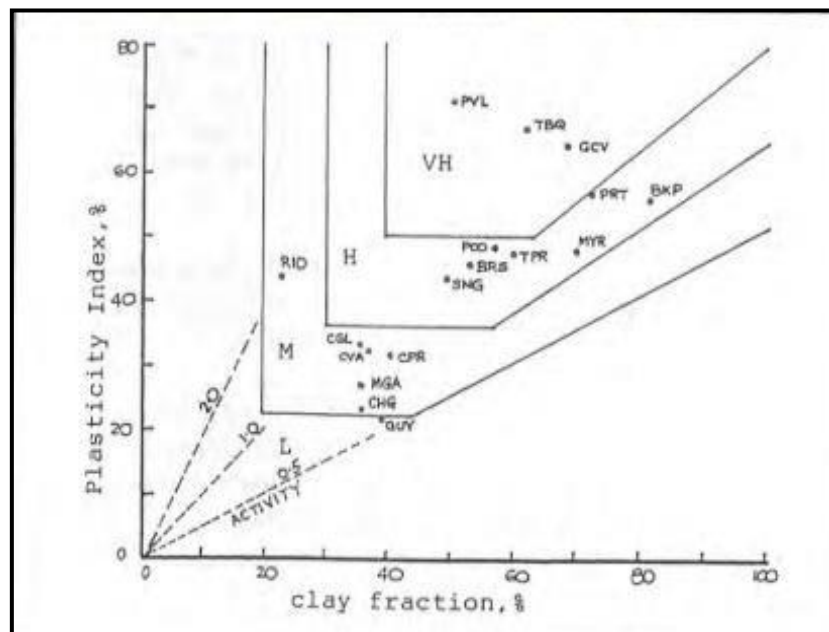


Figure 3: Modified Vander Merwe Chart for Local Soils adapted from Ramana [4].

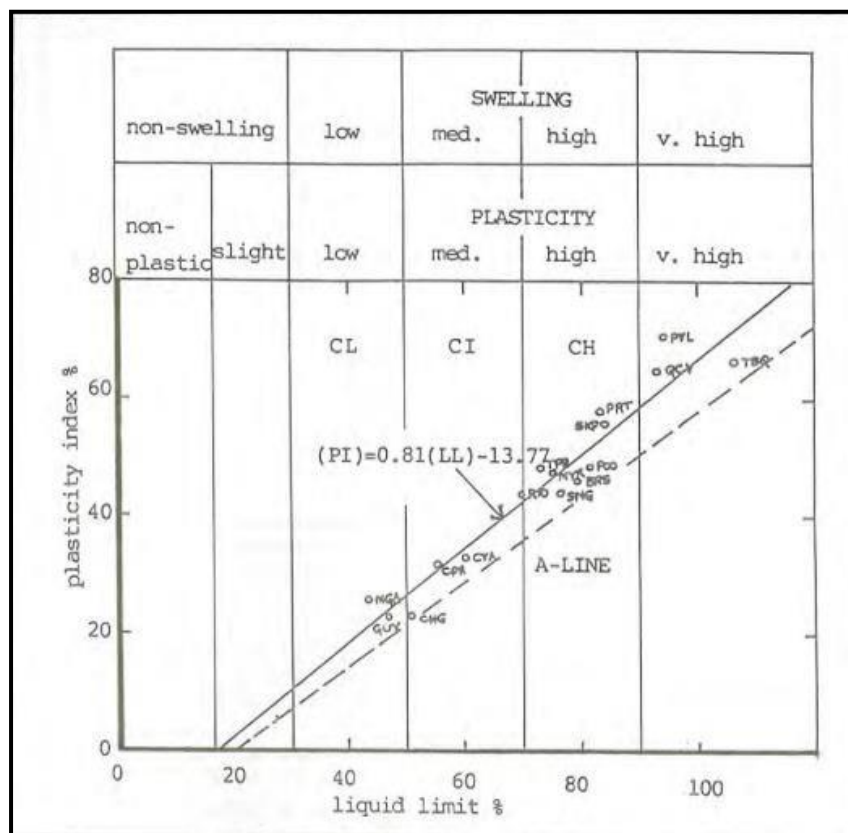


Figure 4: Modified Plasticity Chart for Local Soils adapted from Ramana [4].

Distribution and Problems of Expansive Soils: Expansive soils are distributed primarily across the central and southern regions of Trinidad (Figure 5) and the southern/south-western regions of Tobago [16]. The Talparo Clay and Tarouba Clay series represent the most prevalent expansive types shown in Table 5.

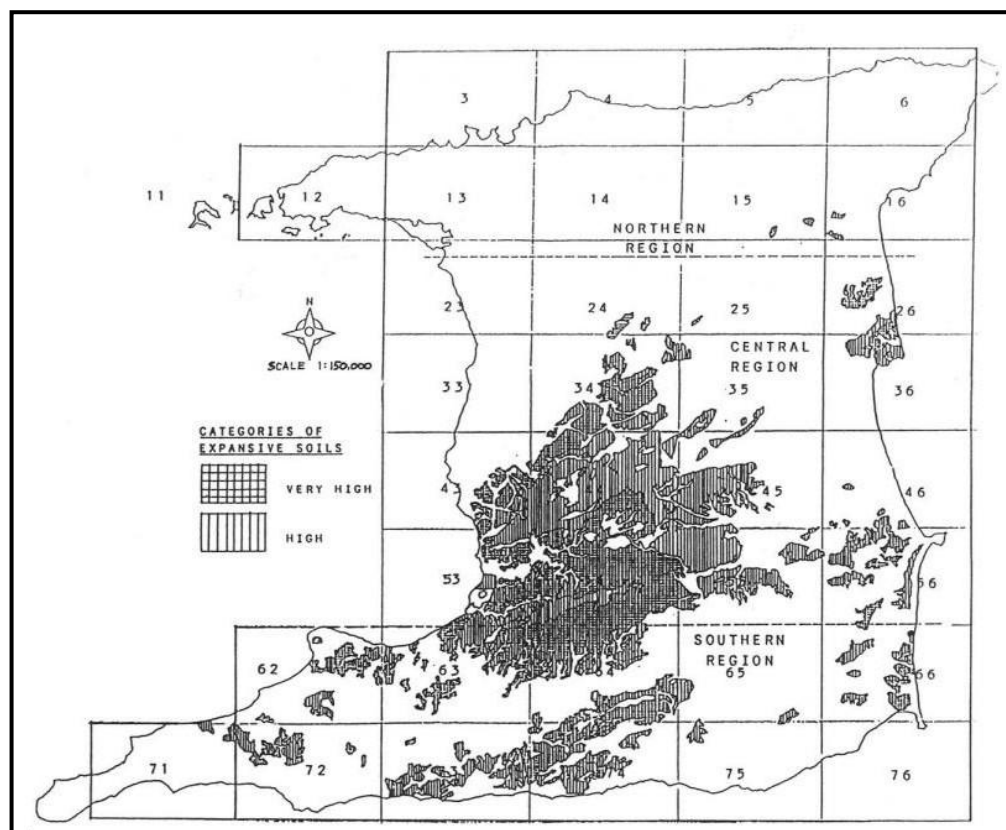


Figure 5: Hazard Map for Expansive Soils of Trinidad adapted from Venkataramana [10].

Table 5: Classification of Expansive Soils in Trinidad adapted from Venkataramana [4 - 10].

Soil Series	Name	Parent Material	Formation
177	Talparo Clay	Clay Shale	Nariva
474/L	Princes Town Clay	Marl	Nariva
239	Debe Clay	Clay Shale	Upper Cipero
278/L	Tarouba Clay	Clay Shale	Nariva
77	Ecclesville Clay	Clay Shale	Upper Lengua

Detailed site-specific parameters and classifications are documented in Table 6. Pavement distress typically manifests as surface roughness and longitudinal cracking [17].

Table 6: Classification of Expansive Soils in Trinidad, adapted from Ramana [18]

No.	Location	Symbol	Soil series	Parent material	Textural Classification	Unified Classification	Clay
1	Barrackpore	BKP	239	Clay alluvium	Clay	CH	82
2	Brasso-Venado	BRS	674/L	Calcareous silt stone	Silty clay	CH	52
3	Caparo	CPR	335	Clay alluvium	Silty clay loam	CI	40
4	Caigual	CGL	39	Clay alluvium	Silty clay loam	CI	35
5	Chaguanas	CHG	33	Clay alluvium	Silty clay loam	MI	35
6	Couva	CVA	231	Clay alluvium	Clay loam	CI	36
7	Gran Couva	GCV	575/68/L	Mixed shale	Clay	CH	69
8	Guayaguayare	GUY	75	Clay shale	Silty clay loam	CL	39
9	Mayaro	MYR	77	Clay shale	Clay	CH	70
10	Moruga	MGA	78/L	Volcanic mud	Silty clay loam	CL	35
11	Pleasantville	PVL	278/L	Clay shale	Clay	CH	50
12	Poole	POO	35/77	Clay alluvium	Clay	CH	57
13	Princess Town	PRT	474/L	Clay shale	Clay	CH	72
14	Rio Claro	RIO	474/L	Marl	Silty loam	CI	22
15	Sangre Grande	SNG	233	Clay alluvium	Clay	CH	49
16	Tabaquite	TBQ	177	Clay shale	Clay	CH	62
17	Talparo	TPR	177	Clay shale	Clay	CH	60

Table 7: Expansive Soils Properties in Trinidad, adapted from Ramana [18]

No.	Location	Liquid Limit LL (%)	Plasticity Index (%)	Shrinkage Limit (%)	Activity	In situ density (kg/m ³)	Natural moisture content (%)	Optimum moisture content (%)
1	Barrackpore	84	56	22	0.69	1741	39	27
2	Brasso-Venado	79	46	18	0.88	1816	34	23
3	Caparo	55	32	21	0.79	1975	25	20
4	Caigual	56	33	13	0.94	1921	23	18
5	Chaguanas	51	23	13	0.67	1997	14	16
6	Couva	60	33	19	0.91	1887	25	18
7	Gran Couva	93	65	21	0.94	1818	33	30
8	Guayaguayare	47	23	19	0.59	1766	16	20
9	Mayaro	74	48	12	0.69	1796	36	23
10	Moruga	43	26	25	0.73	1995	15	15
11	Pleasantville	94	71	16	1.43	1647	31	28
12	Poole	81	48	19	0.83	1749	37	23
13	Princess Town	83	58	14	0.79	1927	37	25
14	Rio Claro	70	44	24	1.99	1726	39	26
15	Sangre Grande	76	44	13	0.89	1766	38	15
16	Tabaquite	106	67	19	1.08	1711	43	31
17	Talparo	73	48	16	0.80	1889	32	25

Longitudinal Cracking: Generated by tensile stresses induced during subgrade shrinkage, as shown in Figure 6. Crucially, this type of failure must be correctly differentiated from longitudinal cracks caused by traffic-induced pavement fatigue, as shown in Figure 7.



Figure 6 Longitudinal cracking due to subgrade shrinkage adapted from Sebesta [19].



Figure 7: Longitudinal cracking due to pavement fatigue adapted from Scullion et al. [20].

Edge Cracking: A localised phenomenon near the pavement edge, resulting from the shrinking of surrounding plastic clays, often accelerated by water extraction from nearby vegetation, as shown in Figure 8.



Figure 8: Edge Cracks due to Shrinking of Soil, adapted from Sebesta [19].

Pavement Rutting: A consequence of cyclic shrinking and swelling, leading to differential settlement and potential water pooling on the surface, increasing the risk of hydroplaning, as shown in Figure 9.



Figure 9: Rutting of pavement due to cyclic moisture changes, adapted from Daniel [21].

Shallow Landslides: Infiltration of rainwater can reduce soil shear strength, causing slope instability and consequential pavement edge failure, as shown in Figure 10.



Figure 10: Pavement Failure due to Slope Instability, adapted from Hearn et al. [22].

III. Review of Remedial Measures

The existing road network in Trinidad and Tobago utilizes Flexible Pavement structures as shown in Figure 11.

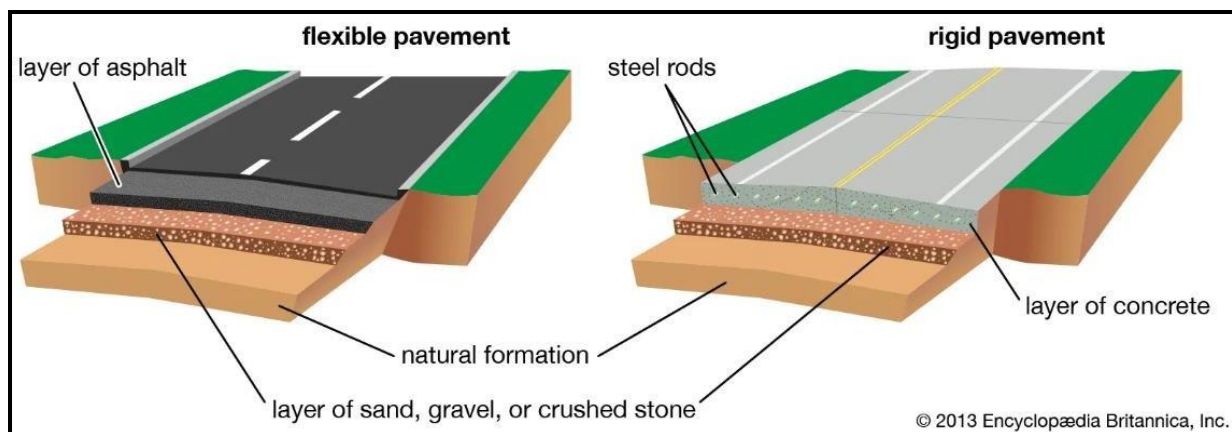


Figure 11: Types of Pavement Cross-Section adapted from Britannica [23].

While flexible pavements are designed to accommodate some deflection, volume instability remains a cause of distress [20]. Rigid pavements, conversely, possess higher flexural strength but are often considered unsuitable for highly expansive soils [24]. The choice between flexible and rigid pavement is fundamentally an economic decision based on the California Bearing Ratio (CBR) and the anticipated traffic load, as shown in Figure 12 and Table 8.

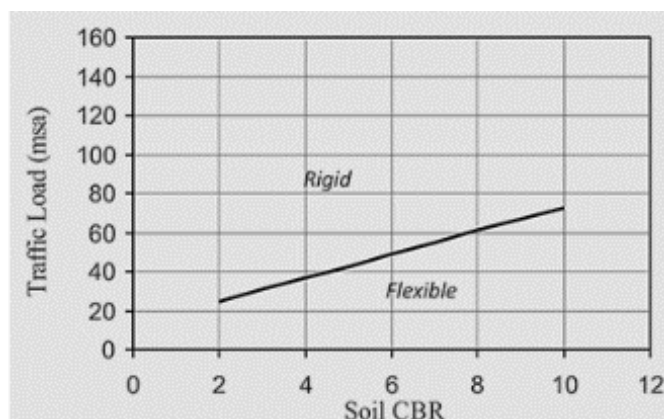


Figure 12: Economical selection based on Loading and Bearing Ratio, adapted from Chandra [25]

Table 8: Comparison of Flexible and Rigid Pavements adapted from the Constructor [26]

No.	Flexible Pavement	Rigid Pavement
1	Consists of a series of layers with the highest quality materials at or near the surface.	Consists of one layer Portland cement concrete slab of relatively high flexural strength.
2	Reflects the deformations of subgrade and subsequent layers on the surface.	Able to bridge over localized failures and areas of inadequate support.
3	Stability depends upon aggregate interlock, particle friction, and cohesion.	Structural strength is provided by the pavement slab itself by its beam action.
4	Design is greatly influenced by the subgrade strength.	Flexural strength of concrete is a major factor for design.
5	Functions by way of load distribution through the component layers.	Distributes load over a wide area of subgrade because of its rigidity and high modulus of elasticity.
6	Atmospheric temperature variations do not produce stresses in flexible pavements.	Temperature changes induce heavy stresses in rigid pavements.
7	Has "self-healing" properties; deformations from heavy wheel loads are recoverable to some extent.	Excessive deformations from heavy wheel loads are not recoverable (permanent settlements).

Treatment methods for expansive subgrades are generally classified into three categories:

Mechanical, Chemical, or Physical Alteration: Replacement and Compaction: Excavating the expansive soil (recommended depths of 1-3.5 m) and replacing it with a properly compacted non-expansive fill, as shown in Figure 13. This method is fast but highly dependent on the cost and availability of suitable fill [27].



Figure 13: Excavation and Replacement of Expansive soils adapted from Obinna [27]

Lime Stabilization (Calcium Oxide): A widely used method that increases compressive strength and stiffness, significantly reducing swelling potential (Figure 14) and decreasing the liquid limit (Figure 15). This is a cost-effective, long-term solution [28].

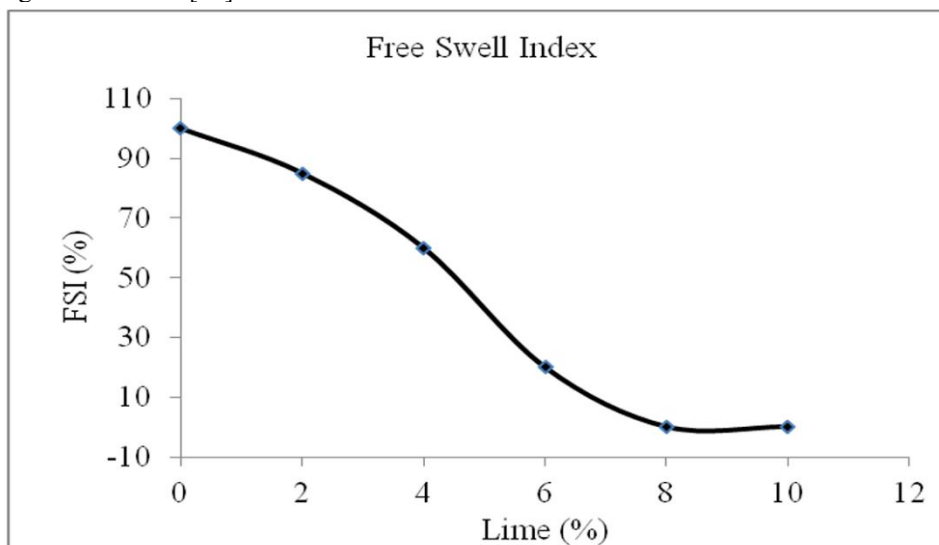


Figure 14: Lime (%) vs Free Swell Index (FSI) adapted from Chamberlin & Rao [29].

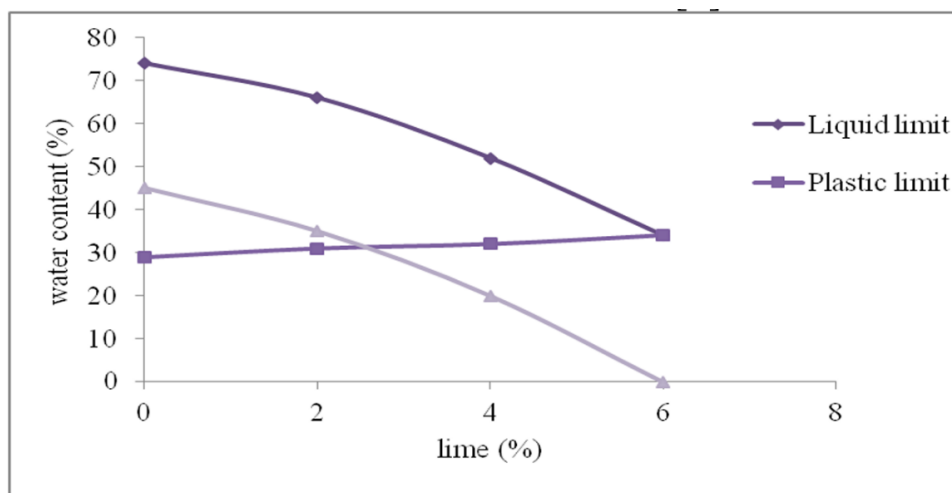


Figure 15: Lime (%) vs Water Content (Liquid Limit and Plastic Limit), adapted from Chamberlin & Rao [29].

Bagasse Fibre and Lime/Ash: Utilising local industrial waste products (Bagasse Fibre/Ash, Lime Sludge) as natural polymers and pozzolanic materials to control both shrinking and swelling and enhance compressive strength, as shown in Figure 16.



Figure 16 Bagasse Fibre adapted from Nai [30].

Cement and Fly-Ash: Enhances shear strength and sub-base stability by acting as a pozzolana material [31].

Pavement Reinforcement: Geosynthetics (Geogrids). Employed to minimise longitudinal cracking by providing reinforcement and limiting subgrade deformation, as shown in Figure 17.

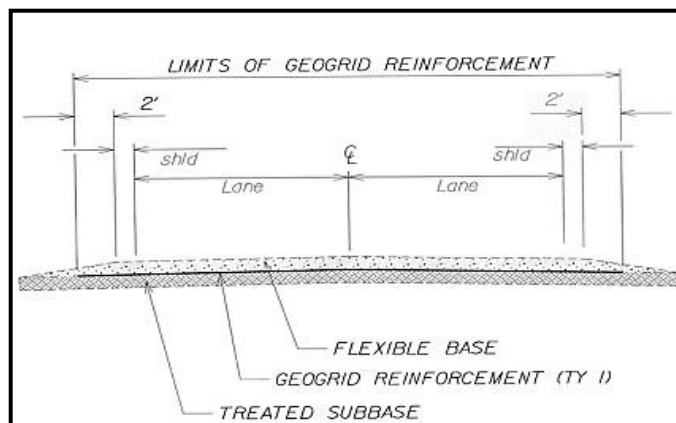


Figure 17: Application of Geogrid Reinforcement adapted from Dessouky et al. [32].

Moisture Control Methods: Moisture Barriers: Can be installed either horizontally or vertically to prevent moisture flow [33, 34], and an example is shown in Figure 18.

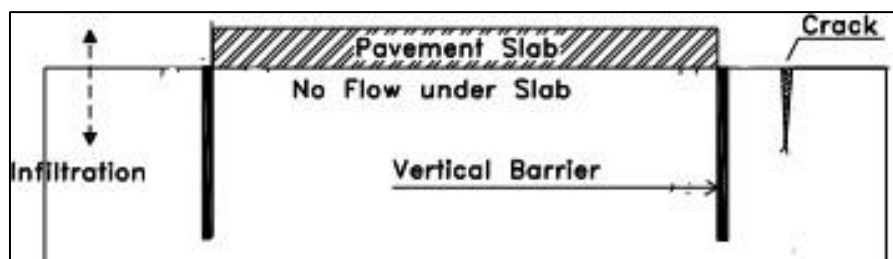


Figure 18 Application of vertical moisture barriers adapted from Chen & Bulut [34]

Drainage: Essential for preventing moisture accumulation; proper construction and maintenance with a required 12% slope effectively controls the swelling potential [4].

Remedial strategy selection requires a stepwise approach based on the failure mode, considering cost, durability, and serviceability as shown in Figure 19.

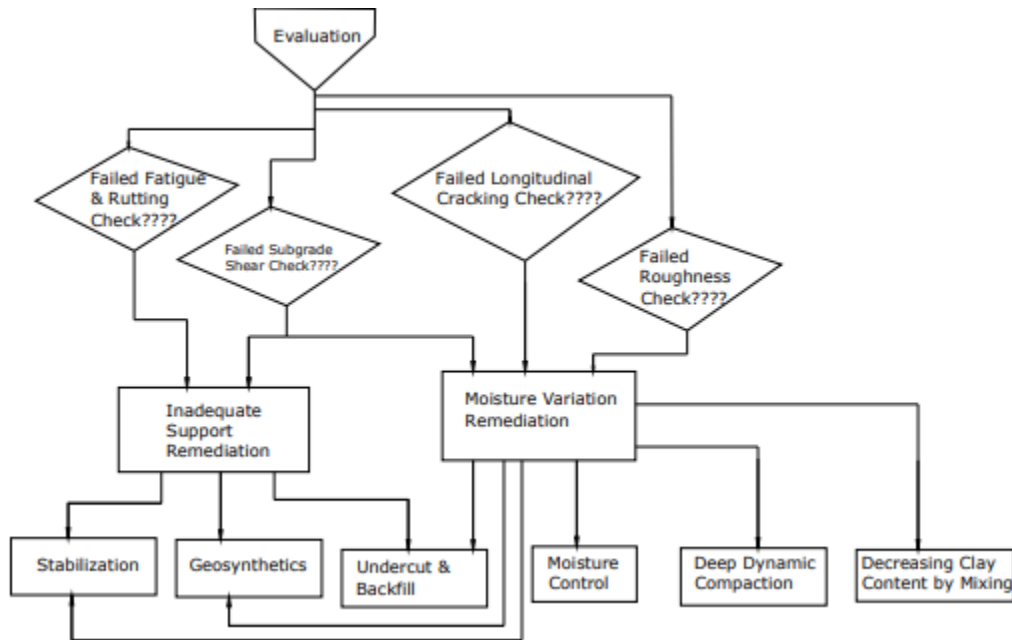


Figure 19: Schematic of Remedial Strategy adapted from Uba [35]

A local decision matrix was created, and it was determined that Mechanical/Physical Alteration, Geosynthetic Barriers, Geosynthetic Reinforcement, and Drainage were the most feasible options (scores 59-65), as shown in Table 9. The criteria and weighting listed in Table 9 were developed based on the literature discussed in the paper, with appropriate weights assigned. Overall, each category ranges from 1 to 5, representing Poor to Excellent.

Table 9: Matrix for Selection of Suitable Methods to be Implemented in Trinidad and Tobago.

Methods	Criteria/ Weight						Score
	Experience/ 7	Cost/ 5	Time/ 4	Difficulty/ 2	Efficiency/ 6	Durability /3	
Mechanical/ Physical Alteration	1	2	4	2	3	2	61
Chemical Stabilization	5	4	4	4	1	2	91
Geosynthetic Reinforcement	2	3	2	1	3	2	63
Geosynthetic Barriers	1	3	3	2	2	3	59
Drainage	1	2	4	1	3	4	65

IV. Methodology, Key Findings and Research Gaps

Methodology and Critical Analysis: The methodology involved a combined desktop review and field validation approach. It utilized existing laboratory test data from past local investigations to establish the expansive nature of the soil (e.g., using Table 7). This data was critically compared against international investigations with similar expansive soil properties (e.g., studies from Texas, India, and Australia). The primary mode of inquiry involved observing and classifying existing pavement defects via site investigations. Crucially, the study determined that the dominant form of damage observed, rutting and cracking along the wheel paths, was attributable to pavement fatigue, which is a structural failure under heavy traffic loading on the existing flexible pavement design. This structural compromise then created the pathway for water infiltration into the subgrade, thereby activating the expansive soil's shrink-swell mechanism. This re-contextualizes the problem from being solely expansive soil-driven to a structural-failure-initiated expansive soil problem. The financial estimates regarding road repairs reinforce the urgency of addressing this fundamental design deficit.

Critique and Research Gaps: Previous local investigations (e.g., Venkataramana) primarily focused on expansive soil problems related to building foundations, resulting in sparse data directly applicable to pavements. The absence of local California Bearing Ratio (CBR) data, a standard international metric for pavement subgrade strength, necessitated a reliance on other index properties, highlighting a critical research gap. The study identified the following crucial areas requiring future investigation:

- The environmental effects and possible positive effects result from stabilizer absorption (e.g., lime) into surrounding untreated soils when chemical stabilization is applied.

- The long-term deterioration rate of natural fibers (like bagasse) and the maintenance protocols required to achieve maximum material lifespan when used in stabilization.
- The deficiency of reported local Standard Penetration Test (SPT) data on expansive soils. Establishing a correlation between known index properties and bearing capacity through SPT testing is necessary for aligning local geotechnical practice with international standards.

V. Conclusions, Recommendations and Future Work

This study successfully determined the performance, problems, and most feasible remedial measures for pavements constructed on expansive soils in Trinidad and Tobago. While pavement defects are consistent with expansive soil damage, the core mechanism of damage initiation is identified as structural failure due to pavement fatigue under heavy loading on the existing flexible pavement design. This structural breakdown facilitates moisture ingress, triggering the harmful shrink-swell cycle. Based on the quantitative feasibility assessment (Table 9), the following methods were deemed the most appropriate and sustainable for local implementation:

- The use of non-expansive soil as an embankment for major roadways requiring elevation change.
- The application of geosynthetic materials to function dualistically as pavement reinforcement (geogrids to increase strength and prevent heave) and moisture barriers (geomembranes for sealing shoulders).
- The fundamental importance of implementing proper drainage to control moisture fluctuations.

To effectively mitigate the effects of expansive soils, the following strategic measures are recommended to prevent initial structural failure and subsequent moisture seepage:

- **Pavement Design Modification:** Integrate a layer of geogrid reinforcement above the subgrade in the flexible pavement design. This intervention is critical for enhancing the structure's resistance to heavy traffic loads (fatigue prevention) and increasing resistance to soil heave.
- **Integrated Geosynthetic Barriers:** Mandate the dual application of geosynthetics for reinforcement and moisture control. Geomembranes should be applied as horizontal moisture barriers along pavement shoulders and embankments to prevent lateral seepage into the subgrade.
- **Mandatory Drainage Protocol:** Enforce the construction and regular maintenance of roadside drainage channels with specified sloping (12% minimum) to maximize water extraction and rapidly reduce the subgrade's swelling potential.
- **Routine Maintenance:** Implement regular maintenance schedules, including the application of epoxy in minor cracks, isolated patching for levelling distortions, and cleaning of drainage structures.

Future research should focus on three strategic areas to provide a complete, locally optimized solution set:

- **Local Material Stabilization:** Investigate the suitability and efficiency of local, readily available materials such as coconut shells and bamboo fiber as cost-effective, eco-friendly soil stabilization alternatives, thereby reducing reliance on expensive imported chemicals.
- **Targeted Treatment Protocol:** Conduct localized investigations to develop a prescriptive treatment protocol, allowing specific remedial methods to be implemented based on the varying levels of expansivity across different soil types and regions within Trinidad and Tobago.

Structural Optimization: Study the feasibility of optimizing existing pavement layer thicknesses and materials to intrinsically reduce or eliminate the need for geosynthetic reinforcement, thereby optimizing the total construction cost and complexity

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