SITE CLASSIFICATION REPORT SUMMARY

BLOCK:	6	SECTION:	92	SUBURB:	Whitlam	
JOB No:	88556.17			DATE:	May 2023	
CLIENT:	Calibre Pro	ofessional Servio	ces Pty Ltd	REV:	0	
Classificati	ion Procedu	res:				
Existing Subs	surface Conditi	ions: Refer attached t	test pit log(s) – P	it(s) 34,36 and Drawing ²	1.	
Bulk Earthwo	rks: Controlled	fill within the block was	s placed under Le	evel 1 control as defined	in AS 3798:2007.	
				uid limit ranging from 50- ndex ranging from 0.01-3	77%, plasticity index ranging 3.50%.	
magnitude of n profile / state, c would be equiv subsurface pro	Site Classification: Site classification in accordance with AS2870:2011 provides guidance on the patterns and magnitude of moisture related seasonal ground movements that must be considered in design. Based on the current soil profile / state, on limited subsurface information, soil reactivity and allowing for variation in the subsoil profile, the soil profile would be equivalent to Class H1* (highly reactive/filled) conditions. The site classification must be reassessed should the subsurface profile change by either cutting or filling and/or if the presence of service trenches, retaining walls or submerged structures are within the zone of influence of the proposed footings. Reference must be made to the comments provided below.					
each site class zone of influen be articulated in conditions are	ification. All foo ce of any service n accordance wit	tings must found with e trenches, backfill zor h current best practice e vicinity of footings. Fo	in a uniform bea nes, retaining wal . Dwelling design	ring stratum of suitable Is or underground struct must ensure suitable dra	tems that are appropriate for strength/material, below the ures. Masonry walls should ainage and uniform moisture tructural engineer taking into	
Maintenance & soils and in pa	Footing Perform	ance' to comments ab ct to maintaining good	out gardens, lan I surface drainag	dscaping and trees on th e. It notes that minor cr	Sheet BTF 18 'Foundation e performance of foundation acking in most structures is ints that can lead to cracking	
Comments Limitations	. informatio	The successful purchaser must make their own interpretations, deductions and conclusions from the information made available and will need to accept full responsibility for such interpretations, deductions and conclusions.				
	Development specific geotechnical investigations must be undertaken.					
	Additiona	l topsoils / fill may hav	e been spread su	ubsequent to the investig	ation.	
	Site prep uncontrol		onstruction should	d include removal of all	vegetation, topsoil and any	
		Il must be placed unde warranted in those fill		litions (AS 3798:2007), c	otherwise Class P conditions	
	Some var	riability in subsurface o	conditions must b	e anticipated.		
	Moisture condition of site soils and/or the presence of groundwater may vary considerably from time of investigation compared to at the time of construction. Groundwater seepages are highly likely after heavy or prolonged rain.					
	Dependin	ig on the depth of site	cut and trenches	, hard rock excavation m	ay be required.	
		e site classification is ved from site and have			aterials/waste and stockpiles	
	It is recon	nmended that footing	excavations be in	spected by a geotechnic	al engineer.	
	This repo	rt must be read in conj	junction with the	attached "Limitations" an	nd notes "About this Report".	
References	AS 2870:	2011, Residential Slab	s and Footings,	Standards Australia.		
			arthworks for Co	mmercial and Residentia	al Developments, Standards	
Attachmen	Explanate	.og(s) Pit(s) 34,36				
An	Anthony Space Content I Groundwater					



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Limitations

Douglas Partners (DP) has prepared this report for the project at Whitlam Stage 3A in accordance with DP's proposal dated 26 November 2021 and acceptance received from Evan Langham dated 15 March 2023. The work was carried out under DP's Conditions of Engagement. This report is provided for the exclusive use of Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd for this project only and for the purposes as described in the report. It should not be used by or relied upon for other projects or purposes on the same or other site or by a third party. Any party so relying upon this report beyond its exclusive use and purpose as stated above, and without the express written consent of DP, does so entirely at its own risk and without recourse to DP for any loss or damage. In preparing this report DP has necessarily relied upon information provided by the client and/or their agents.

The results provided in the report are indicative of the sub-surface conditions on the site only at the specific sampling and/or testing locations, and then only to the depths investigated and at the time the work was carried out. Sub-surface conditions can change abruptly due to variable geological processes and also as a result of human influences. Such changes may occur after DP's field testing has been completed.

DP's advice is based upon the conditions encountered during this investigation. The accuracy of the advice provided by DP in this report may be affected by undetected variations in ground conditions across the site between and beyond the sampling and/or testing locations. The advice may also be limited by budget constraints imposed by others or by site accessibility.

The assessment of atypical safety hazards arising from this advice is restricted to the geotechnical components set out in this report and based on known project conditions and stated design advice and assumptions. While some recommendations for safe controls may be provided, detailed 'safety in design' assessment is outside the current scope of this report and requires additional project data and assessment.

This report must be read in conjunction with all of the attached and should be kept in its entirety without separation of individual pages or sections. DP cannot be held responsible for interpretations or conclusions made by others unless they are supported by an expressed statement, interpretation, outcome or conclusion stated in this report.

This report, or sections from this report, should not be used as part of a specification for a project, without review and agreement by DP. This is because this report has been written as advice and opinion rather than instructions for construction.



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Introduction

These notes have been provided to amplify DP's report in regard to classification methods, field procedures and the comments section. Not all are necessarily relevant to all reports.

DP's reports are based on information gained from limited subsurface excavations and sampling, supplemented by knowledge of local geology and experience. For this reason, they must be regarded as interpretive rather than factual documents, limited to some extent by the scope of information on which they rely.

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Borehole and Test Pit Logs

The borehole and test pit logs presented in this report are an engineering and/or geological interpretation of the subsurface conditions, and their reliability will depend to some extent on frequency of sampling and the method of drilling or excavation. Ideally, continuous undisturbed sampling or core drilling will provide the most reliable assessment, but this is not always practicable or possible to justify on economic grounds. In any case the boreholes and test pits represent only a very small sample of the total subsurface profile.

Interpretation of the information and its application to design and construction should therefore take into account the spacing of boreholes or pits, the frequency of sampling, and the possibility of other than 'straight line' variations between the test locations.

Groundwater

Where groundwater levels are measured in boreholes there are several potential problems, namely:

 In low permeability soils groundwater may enter the hole very slowly or perhaps not at all during the time the hole is left open;

- A localised, perched water table may lead to an erroneous indication of the true water table;
- Water table levels will vary from time to time with seasons or recent weather changes. They may not be the same at the time of construction as are indicated in the report; and
- The use of water or mud as a drilling fluid will mask any groundwater inflow. Water has to be blown out of the hole and drilling mud must first be washed out of the hole if water measurements are to be made.

More reliable measurements can be made by installing standpipes which are read at intervals over several days, or perhaps weeks for low permeability soils. Piezometers, sealed in a particular stratum, may be advisable in low permeability soils or where there may be interference from a perched water table.

Reports

The report has been prepared by qualified personnel, is based on the information obtained from field and laboratory testing, and has been undertaken to current engineering standards of interpretation and analysis. Where the report has been prepared for a specific design proposal, the information and interpretation may not be relevant if the design proposal is changed. If this happens, DP will be pleased to review the report and the sufficiency of the investigation work.

Every care is taken with the report as it relates to interpretation of subsurface conditions, discussion of geotechnical and environmental aspects, and recommendations or suggestions for design and construction. However, DP cannot always anticipate or assume responsibility for:

- Unexpected variations in ground conditions. The potential for this will depend partly on borehole or pit spacing and sampling frequency;
- Changes in policy or interpretations of policy by statutory authorities; or
- The actions of contractors responding to commercial pressures.

If these occur, DP will be pleased to assist with investigations or advice to resolve the matter.

About this Report

Site Anomalies

In the event that conditions encountered on site during construction appear to vary from those which were expected from the information contained in the report, DP requests that it be immediately notified. Most problems are much more readily resolved when conditions are exposed rather than at some later stage, well after the event.

Information for Contractual Purposes

Where information obtained from this report is provided for tendering purposes, it is recommended that all information, including the written report and discussion, be made available. In circumstances where the discussion or comments section is not relevant to the contractual situation, it may be appropriate to prepare a specially edited document. DP would be pleased to assist in this regard and/or to make additional report copies available for contract purposes at a nominal charge.

Site Inspection

The company will always be pleased to provide engineering inspection services for geotechnical and environmental aspects of work to which this report is related. This could range from a site visit to confirm that conditions exposed are as expected, to full time engineering presence on site.

Sampling

Sampling is carried out during drilling or test pitting to allow engineering examination (and laboratory testing where required) of the soil or rock.

Disturbed samples taken during drilling provide information on colour, type, inclusions and, depending upon the degree of disturbance, some information on strength and structure.

Undisturbed samples are taken by pushing a thinwalled sample tube into the soil and withdrawing it to obtain a sample of the soil in a relatively undisturbed state. Such samples yield information on structure and strength, and are necessary for laboratory determination of shear strength and compressibility. Undisturbed sampling is generally effective only in cohesive soils.

Test Pits

Test pits are usually excavated with a backhoe or an excavator, allowing close examination of the insitu soil if it is safe to enter into the pit. The depth of excavation is limited to about 3 m for a backhoe and up to 6 m for a large excavator. A potential disadvantage of this investigation method is the larger area of disturbance to the site.

Large Diameter Augers

Boreholes can be drilled using a rotating plate or short spiral auger, generally 300 mm or larger in diameter commonly mounted on a standard piling rig. The cuttings are returned to the surface at intervals (generally not more than 0.5 m) and are disturbed but usually unchanged in moisture content. Identification of soil strata is generally much more reliable than with continuous spiral flight augers, and is usually supplemented by occasional undisturbed tube samples.

Continuous Spiral Flight Augers

The borehole is advanced using 90-115 mm diameter continuous spiral flight augers which are withdrawn at intervals to allow sampling or in-situ testing. This is a relatively economical means of drilling in clays and sands above the water table. Samples are returned to the surface, or may be collected after withdrawal of the auger flights, but they are disturbed and may be mixed with soils from the sides of the hole. Information from the drilling (as distinct from specific sampling by SPTs or undisturbed samples) is of relatively low reliability, due to the remoulding, possible mixing or softening of samples by groundwater.

Non-core Rotary Drilling

The borehole is advanced using a rotary bit, with water or drilling mud being pumped down the drill rods and returned up the annulus, carrying the drill cuttings. Only major changes in stratification can be determined from the cuttings, together with some information from the rate of penetration. Where drilling mud is used this can mask the cuttings and reliable identification is only possible from separate sampling such as SPTs.

Continuous Core Drilling

A continuous core sample can be obtained using a diamond tipped core barrel, usually with a 50 mm internal diameter. Provided full core recovery is achieved (which is not always possible in weak rocks and granular soils), this technique provides a very reliable method of investigation.

Standard Penetration Tests

Standard penetration tests (SPT) are used as a means of estimating the density or strength of soils and also of obtaining a relatively undisturbed sample. The test procedure is described in Australian Standard 1289, Methods of Testing Soils for Engineering Purposes - Test 6.3.1.

The test is carried out in a borehole by driving a 50 mm diameter split sample tube under the impact of a 63 kg hammer with a free fall of 760 mm. It is normal for the tube to be driven in three successive 150 mm increments and the 'N' value is taken as the number of blows for the last 300 mm. In dense sands, very hard clays or weak rock, the full 450 mm penetration may not be practicable and the test is discontinued.

The test results are reported in the following form.

 In the case where full penetration is obtained with successive blow counts for each 150 mm of, say, 4, 6 and 7 as:

4,6,7 N=13

In the case where the test is discontinued before the full penetration depth, say after 15 blows for the first 150 mm and 30 blows for the next 40 mm as:

15, 30/40 mm

Sampling Methods

The results of the SPT tests can be related empirically to the engineering properties of the soils.

Dynamic Cone Penetrometer Tests / Perth Sand Penetrometer Tests

Dynamic penetrometer tests (DCP or PSP) are carried out by driving a steel rod into the ground using a standard weight of hammer falling a specified distance. As the rod penetrates the soil the number of blows required to penetrate each successive 150 mm depth are recorded. Normally there is a depth limitation of 1.2 m, but this may be extended in certain conditions by the use of extension rods. Two types of penetrometer are commonly used.

- Perth sand penetrometer a 16 mm diameter flat ended rod is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 600 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.3). This test was developed for testing the density of sands and is mainly used in granular soils and filling.
- Cone penetrometer a 16 mm diameter rod with a 20 mm diameter cone end is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 510 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.2). This test was developed initially for pavement subgrade investigations, and correlations of the test results with California Bearing Ratio have been published by various road authorities.

Soil Descriptions

Description and Classification Methods

The methods of description and classification of soils and rocks used in this report are generally based on Australian Standard AS1726:2017, Geotechnical Site Investigations. In general, the descriptions include strength or density, colour, structure, soil or rock type and inclusions.

Soil Types

Soil types are described according to the predominant particle size, qualified by the grading of other particles present:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Boulder	>200
Cobble	63 - 200
Gravel	2.36 - 63
Sand	0.075 - 2.36
Silt	0.002 - 0.075
Clay	<0.002

The sand and gravel sizes can be further subdivided as follows:

Туре	Particle size (mm)	
Coarse gravel	19 - 63	
Medium gravel	6.7 - 19	
Fine gravel	2.36 - 6.7	
Coarse sand	0.6 - 2.36	
Medium sand	0.21 - 0.6	
Fine sand	0.075 - 0.21	

Definitions of grading terms used are:

- Well graded a good representation of all particle sizes
- Poorly graded an excess or deficiency of particular sizes within the specified range
- Uniformly graded an excess of a particular particle size
- Gap graded a deficiency of a particular particle size with the range

The proportions of secondary constituents of soils are described as follows:

In fine grained soils	(>35% fines)
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Term	Proportion	Example
	of sand or	
	gravel	
And	Specify	Clay (60%) and
		Sand (40%)
Adjective	>30%	Sandy Clay
With	15 – 30%	Clay with sand
Trace	0 - 15%	Clay with trace
		sand

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)

with	clays	or	silts	

man olaye er ena		
Term	Proportion of fines	Example
And	Specify	Sand (70%) and Clay (30%)
Adjective	>12%	Clayey Sand
With	5 - 12%	Sand with clay
Trace	0 - 5%	Sand with trace
		clay

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)
 with coarser fraction

Term	Proportion	Example		
	of coarser			
	fraction			
And	Specify	Sand (60%) and		
		Gravel (40%)		
Adjective	>30%	Gravelly Sand		
With	15 - 30%	Sand with gravel		
Trace	0 - 15%	Sand with trace		
		gravel		

The presence of cobbles and boulders shall be specifically noted by beginning the description with 'Mix of Soil and Cobbles/Boulders' with the word order indicating the dominant first and the proportion of cobbles and boulders described together.

Soil Descriptions

Cohesive Soils

Cohesive soils, such as clays, are classified on the basis of undrained shear strength. The strength may be measured by laboratory testing, or estimated by field tests or engineering examination. The strength terms are defined as follows:

Description	Abbreviation	Undrained shear strength (kPa)
Very soft	VS	<12
Soft	S	12 - 25
Firm	F	25 - 50
Stiff	St	50 - 100
Very stiff	VSt	100 - 200
Hard	Н	>200
Friable	Fr	-

Cohesionless Soils

Cohesionless soils, such as clean sands, are classified on the basis of relative density, generally from the results of standard penetration tests (SPT), cone penetration tests (CPT) or dynamic penetrometers (PSP). The relative density terms are given below:

Relative Density	Abbreviation	Density Index (%)
Very loose	VL	<15
Loose	L	15-35
Medium dense	MD	35-65
Dense	D	65-85
Very dense	VD	>85

Soil Origin

It is often difficult to accurately determine the origin of a soil. Soils can generally be classified as:

- Residual soil derived from in-situ weathering of the underlying rock;
- Extremely weathered material formed from in-situ weathering of geological formations. Has soil strength but retains the structure or fabric of the parent rock;
- Alluvial soil deposited by streams and rivers;

- Estuarine soil deposited in coastal estuaries;
- Marine soil deposited in a marine environment;
- Lacustrine soil deposited in freshwater lakes;
- Aeolian soil carried and deposited by wind;
- Colluvial soil soil and rock debris transported down slopes by gravity;
- Topsoil mantle of surface soil, often with high levels of organic material.
- Fill any material which has been moved by man.

Moisture Condition – Coarse Grained Soils For coarse grained soils the moisture condition

should be described by appearance and feel using the following terms:

- Dry (D) Non-cohesive and free-running.
- Moist (M) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together. Sand forms weak ball but breaks easily.

Wet (W) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together, free water forms when handling.

Moisture Condition – Fine Grained Soils

For fine grained soils the assessment of moisture content is relative to their plastic limit or liquid limit, as follows:

- 'Moist, dry of plastic limit' or 'w <PL' (i.e. hard and friable or powdery).
- 'Moist, near plastic limit' or 'w ≈ PL (i.e. soil can be moulded at moisture content approximately equal to the plastic limit).
- 'Moist, wet of plastic limit' or 'w >PL' (i.e. soils usually weakened and free water forms on the hands when handling).
- 'Wet' or 'w ≈LL' (i.e. near the liquid limit).
- 'Wet' or 'w >LL' (i.e. wet of the liquid limit).

Rock Descriptions

Rock Strength

Rock strength is defined by the Unconfined Compressive Strength and it refers to the strength of the rock substance and not the strength of the overall rock mass, which may be considerably weaker due to defects.

The Point Load Strength Index $I_{S(50)}$ is commonly used to provide an estimate of the rock strength and site specific correlations should be developed to allow UCS values to be determined. The point load strength test procedure is described by Australian Standard AS4133.4.1-2007. The terms used to describe rock strength are as follows:

Strength Term	Abbreviation	Unconfined Compressive Strength MPa	Point Load Index * Is ₍₅₀₎ MPa
Very low	VL	0.6 - 2	0.03 - 0.1
Low	L	2 - 6	0.1 - 0.3
Medium	М	6 - 20	0.3 - 1.0
High	Н	20 - 60	1 - 3
Very high	VH	60 - 200	3 - 10
Extremely high	EH	>200	>10

* Assumes a ratio of 20:1 for UCS to $I_{S(50)}$. It should be noted that the UCS to $I_{S(50)}$ ratio varies significantly for different rock types and specific ratios should be determined for each site.

Degree of Weathering

The degree of weathering of rock is classified as follows:

Term	Abbreviation	Description
Residual Soil	RS	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are no longer visible, but the soil has not been significantly transported.
Extremely weathered	XW	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are still visible
Highly weathered	HW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable. Rock strength is significantly changed by weathering. Some primary minerals have weathered to clay minerals. Porosity may be increased by leaching, or may be decreased due to deposition of weathering products in pores.
Moderately weathered	MW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable, but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Slightly weathered	SW	Rock is partially discoloured with staining or bleaching along joints but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Fresh	FR	No signs of decomposition or staining.
Note: If HW and MW cannot be differentiated use DW (see below)		
Distinctly weathered	DW	Rock strength usually changed by weathering. The rock may be highly discoloured, usually by iron staining. Porosity may be increased by leaching or may be decreased due to deposition of weathered products in pores.

Rock Descriptions

Degree of Fracturing

The following classification applies to the spacing of natural fractures in diamond drill cores. It includes bedding plane partings, joints and other defects, but excludes drilling breaks.

Term	Description
Fragmented	Fragments of <20 mm
Highly Fractured	Core lengths of 20-40 mm with occasional fragments
Fractured	Core lengths of 30-100 mm with occasional shorter and longer sections
Slightly Fractured	Core lengths of 300 mm or longer with occasional sections of 100-300 mm
Unbroken	Core contains very few fractures

Rock Quality Designation

The quality of the cored rock can be measured using the Rock Quality Designation (RQD) index, defined as:

RQD % = <u>cumulative length of 'sound' core sections > 100 mm long</u> total drilled length of section being assessed

where 'sound' rock is assessed to be rock of low strength or stronger. The RQD applies only to natural fractures. If the core is broken by drilling or handling (i.e. drilling breaks) then the broken pieces are fitted back together and are not included in the calculation of RQD.

Stratification Spacing

For sedimentary rocks the following terms may be used to describe the spacing of bedding partings:

Term	Separation of Stratification Planes
Thinly laminated	< 6 mm
Laminated	6 mm to 20 mm
Very thinly bedded	20 mm to 60 mm
Thinly bedded	60 mm to 0.2 m
Medium bedded	0.2 m to 0.6 m
Thickly bedded	0.6 m to 2 m
Very thickly bedded	> 2 m

Symbols & Abbreviations

Introduction

These notes summarise abbreviations commonly used on borehole logs and test pit reports.

Drilling or Excavation Methods

С	Core drilling
R	Rotary drilling
SFA	Spiral flight augers
NMLC	Diamond core - 52 mm dia
NQ	Diamond core - 47 mm dia
HQ	Diamond core - 63 mm dia
PQ	Diamond core - 81 mm dia

Water

\triangleright	Water seep
\bigtriangledown	Water level

Sampling and Testing

- A Auger sample
- B Bulk sample
- D Disturbed sample
- E Environmental sample
- U₅₀ Undisturbed tube sample (50mm)
- W Water sample
- pp Pocket penetrometer (kPa)
- PID Photo ionisation detector
- PL Point load strength Is(50) MPa
- S Standard Penetration Test
- V Shear vane (kPa)

Description of Defects in Rock

The abbreviated descriptions of the defects should be in the following order: Depth, Type, Orientation, Coating, Shape, Roughness and Other. Drilling and handling breaks are not usually included on the logs.

Defect Type

Bedding plane
Clay seam
Cleavage
Crushed zone
Decomposed seam
Fault
Joint
Lamination
Parting
Sheared Zone
Vein

Orientation

The inclination of defects is always measured from the perpendicular to the core axis.

- h horizontal
- v vertical
- sh sub-horizontal

ari

sv sub-vertical

Coating or Infilling Term

clean
coating
healed
infilled
stained
tight
veneer

Coating Descriptor

ca	calcite
cbs	carbonaceous
cly	clay
fe	iron oxide
mn	manganese
slt	silty

Shape

cu	curved
ir	irregular
pl	planar
st	stepped
un	undulating

Roughness

ро	polished
ro	rough
sl	slickensided
sm	smooth
vr	very rough

Other

fg	fragmented
bnd	band
qtz	quartz

Symbols & Abbreviations

Graphic Symbols for Soil and Rock

General

A. A. A. Z	

Asphalt Road base

Concrete

Filling

Soils



Topsoil Peat

Clay

Silty clay

Sandy clay

Gravelly clay

Shaly clay

Silt

Clayey silt

Sandy silt

Sand

Clayey sand

Silty sand

Gravel

Sandy gravel

Cobbles, boulders

Talus

Sedimentary Rocks



Metamorphic Rocks

Slate, phyllite, schist

Quartzite

Gneiss

Igneous Rocks

Granite

Dolerite, basalt, andesite

Dacite, epidote

Tuff, breccia

Porphyry





FOUNDATION MAINTENANCE AND FOOTING PERFORMANCE



Understanding and preventing soil-related building movement

This Building Technology Resource is designed to identify causes of soil-related building movement, and to suggest methods of prevention of resultant cracking.

Buildings can and often do move. This movement can be up, down, lateral or rotational. The fundamental cause of movement in buildings can usually be related to one or more problems in the foundation soil. It is important for the home owner to identify the soil type in order to ascertain the measures that should be put in place in order to ensure that problems in the foundation soil can be prevented, thus protecting against building movement.

SOIL TYPES

The types of soils usually present under the topsoil in land zoned for residential buildings can be split into two approximate groups – granular and clay. Quite often, foundation soil is a mixture of both types. The general problems associated with soils having granular content are usually caused by erosion. Clay soils are subject to saturation and swell/shrink problems.

Classifications for a given area can generally be obtained by application to the local authority, but these are sometimes unreliable and if there is doubt, a geotechnical report should be commissioned. As most buildings suffering movement problems are founded on clay soils, there is an emphasis on classification of soils according to the amount of swell and shrinkage they experience with variations of water content. Table 1 below is a reproduction of Table 2.1 from Australian Standard AS 2870-2011, Residential slabs and footings.

CAUSES OF MOVEMENT

SETTLEMENT DUE TO CONSTRUCTION

There are two types of settlement that occur as a result of construction:

- Immediate settlement occurs when a building is first placed on its foundation soil, as a result of compaction of the soil under the weight of the structure. The cohesive quality of clay soil mitigates against this, but granular (particularly sandy) soil is susceptible.
- Consolidation settlement is a feature of clay soil and may take place because of the expulsion of moisture from the soil or because of the soil's lack of resistance to local compressive or shear stresses. This will usually take place during the first few months after construction but has been known to take many years in exceptional cases.

These problems may be the province of the builder and should be taken into consideration as part of the preparation of the site for construction.

EROSION

All soils are prone to erosion, but sandy soil is particularly susceptible to being washed away. Even clay with a sand component of say 10% or more can suffer from erosion.

SATURATION

This is particularly a problem in clay soils. Saturation creates a boglike suspension of the soil that causes it to lose virtually all of its bearing capacity. To a lesser degree, sand is affected by saturation because saturated sand may undergo a reduction in volume, particularly imported sand fill for bedding and blinding layers. However, this usually occurs as immediate settlement and should normally be the province of the builder.

SEASONAL SWELLING AND SHRINKAGE OF SOIL

All clays react to the presence of water by slowly absorbing it, making the soil increase in volume (see table below, from AS 2870). The degree of increase varies considerably between different clays, as does the degree of decrease during the subsequent drying out caused by fair weather periods. Because of the low absorption and expulsion rate, this phenomenon will not usually be noticeable unless there are prolonged rainy or dry periods, usually of weeks or months, depending on the land and soil characteristics.

The swelling of soil creates an upward force on the footings of the building, and shrinkage creates subsidence that takes away the support needed by the footing to retain equilibrium.

SHEAR FAILURE

This phenomenon occurs when the foundation soil does not have sufficient strength to support the weight of the footing. There are two major post-construction causes:

- Significant load increase.
- Reduction of lateral support of the soil under the footing due to erosion or excavation.

In clay soil, shear failure can be caused by saturation of the soil adjacent to or under the footing.

TREE ROOT GROWTH

Trees and shrubs that are allowed to grow in the vicinity of footings can cause foundation soil movement in two ways:

 Roots that grow under footings may increase in cross-sectional size, exerting upward pressure on footings.

TABLE 1. GENERAL DEFINITIONS OF SITE CLASSES.

Class	Foundation
A	Most sand and rock sites with little or no ground movement from moisture changes
S	Slightly reactive clay sites, which may experience only slight ground movement from moisture changes
М	Moderately reactive clay or silt sites, which may experience moderate ground movement from moisture changes
H1	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience high ground movement from moisture changes
H2	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience very high ground movement from moisture changes
F	Extremely reactive sites, which may experience extreme ground movement from moisture changes

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FIGURE 1 Trees can cause shrinkage and damage.

 Roots in the vicinity of footings will absorb much of the moisture in the foundation soil, causing shrinkage or subsidence.

UNEVENNESS OF MOVEMENT

The types of ground movement described above usually occur unevenly throughout the building's foundation soil. Settlement due to construction tends to be uneven because of:

- Differing compaction of foundation soil prior to construction.
- Differing moisture content of foundation soil prior to construction.

Movement due to non-construction causes is usually more uneven still. Erosion can undermine a footing that traverses the flow or can create the conditions for shear failure by eroding soil adjacent to a footing that runs in the same direction as the flow.

Saturation of clay foundation soil may occur where subfloor walls create a dam that makes water pond. It can also occur wherever there is a source of water near footings in clay soil. This leads to a severe reduction in the strength of the soil which may create local shear failure.

Seasonal swelling and shrinkage of clay soil affects the perimeter of the building first, then gradually spreads to the interior through absorption. The swelling process will usually begin at the uphill extreme of the building, or on the weather side where the land is flat. Shrinkage usually begins on the side of the building where the sun's heat is greatest.

EFFECTS OF UNEVEN SOIL MOVEMENT ON STRUCTURES

EROSION AND SATURATION

Erosion removes the support from under footings, tending to create subsidence of the part of the structure under which it occurs. Brickwork walls will resist the stress created by this removal of support by bridging the gap or cantilevering until the bricks or the mortar bedding fail. Older masonry has little resistance. Evidence of failure varies according to circumstances and symptoms may include:

- Step cracking in the mortar beds in the body of the wall or above/below openings such as doors or windows.
- Vertical cracking in the bricks (usually but not necessarily in line with the vertical beds or perpends).

Isolated piers affected by erosion or saturation of foundations will eventually lose contact with the bearers they support and may tilt or fall over. The floors that have lost this support will become bouncy, sometimes rattling ornaments etc.

SEASONAL SWELLING/SHRINKAGE IN CLAY

Swelling foundation soil due to rainy periods first lifts the most exposed extremities of the footing system, then the remainder of the perimeter footings while gradually permeating inside the building footprint to lift internal footings. This swelling first tends to create a dish effect, because the external footings are pushed higher than the internal ones.

The first noticeable symptom may be that the floor appears slightly dished. This is often accompanied by some doors binding on the floor or the door head, together with some cracking of cornice mitres. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the floor can be bouncy. Externally there may be visible dishing of the hip or ridge lines.

As the moisture absorption process completes its journey to the innermost areas of the building, the internal footings will rise. If the spread of moisture is roughly even, it may be that the symptoms will temporarily disappear, but it is more likely that swelling will be uneven, creating a difference rather than a disappearance in symptoms. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the isolated piers will rise more easily than the strip footings or piers under walls, creating noticeable doming of flooring.

As the weather pattern changes and the soil begins to dry out, the external footings will be first affected, beginning with the locations where the sun's effect is strongest. This has the effect of lowering the external footings. The doming is accentuated, and cracking reduces or disappears where it occurred because of dishing, but other cracks open up. The roof lines may become convex.

Doming and dishing are also affected by weather in other ways. In areas where warm, wet summers and cooler dry winters prevail, water migration tends to be toward the interior and doming will be accentuated, whereas where summers are dry, and winters are cold and wet, migration tends to be toward the exterior and the underlying propensity is toward dishing.

MOVEMENT CAUSED BY TREE ROOTS

In general, growing roots will exert an upward pressure on footings, whereas soil subject to drying because of tree or shrub roots will tend to remove support from under footings by inducing shrinkage.

COMPLICATIONS CAUSED BY THE STRUCTURE ITSELF

Most forces that the soil causes to be exerted on structures are vertical – i.e. either up or down. However, because these forces are seldom spread evenly around the footings, and because the building resists uneven movement because of its rigidity, forces are exerted from one part of the building to another. The net result of all these forces is usually rotational. This resultant force often complicates the diagnosis because the visible symptoms do not simply reflect the original cause. A common symptom is binding of doors on the vertical member of the frame.

EFFECTS ON FULL MASONRY STRUCTURES

Brickwork will resist cracking where it can. It will attempt to span areas that lose support because of subsided foundations or raised points. It is therefore usual to see cracking at weak points, such as openings for windows or doors.

In the event of construction settlement, cracking will usually remain unchanged after the process of settlement has ceased.

With local shear or erosion, cracking will usually continue to develop until the original cause has been remedied, or until the subsidence has completely neutralised the affected portion of footing and the structure has stabilised on other footings that remain effective.

In the case of swell/shrink effects, the brickwork will in some cases return to its original position after completion of a cycle, however it is more likely that the rotational effect will not be exactly reversed, and it is also usual that brickwork will settle in its new position and will resist the forces trying to return it to its original position. This means that in a case where swelling takes place after construction and cracking occurs, the cracking is likely to at least partly remain after the shrink segment of the cycle is complete. Thus, each time the cycle is repeated, the likelihood is that the cracking will become wider until the sections of brickwork become virtually independent.

With repeated cycles, once the cracking is established, if there is no other complication, it is normal for the incidence of cracking to stabilise, as the building has the articulation it needs to cope with the problem. This is by no means always the case, however, and monitoring of cracks in walls and floors should always be treated seriously.

Upheaval caused by growth of tree roots under footings is not a simple vertical shear stress. There is a tendency for the root to also

exert lateral forces that attempt to separate sections of brickwork after initial cracking has occurred.

The normal structural arrangement is that the inner leaf of brickwork in the external walls and at least some of the internal walls (depending on the roof type) comprise the load-bearing structure on which any upper floors, ceilings and the roof are supported. In these cases, it is internally visible cracking that should be the main focus of attention, however there are a few examples of dwellings whose external leaf of masonry plays some supporting role, so this should be checked if there is any doubt. In any case, externally visible cracking is important as a guide to stresses on the structure generally, and it should also be remembered that the external walls must be capable of supporting themselves.

EFFECTS ON FRAMED STRUCTURES

Timber or steel framed buildings are less likely to exhibit cracking due to swell/shrink than masonry buildings because of their flexibility. Also, the doming/dishing effects tend to be lower because of the lighter weight of walls. The main risks to framed buildings are encountered because of the isolated pier footings used under walls. Where erosion or saturation causes a footing to fall away, this can double the span which a wall must bridge. This additional stress can create cracking in wall linings, particularly where there is a weak point in the structure caused by a door or window opening. It is, however, unlikely that framed structures will be so stressed as to suffer serious damage without first exhibiting some or all of the above symptoms for a considerable period. The same warning period should apply in the case of upheaval. It should be noted, however, that where framed buildings are supported by strip footings there is only one leaf of brickwork and therefore the externally visible walls are the supporting structure for the building. In this case, the subfloor masonry walls can be expected to behave as full brickwork walls.

EFFECTS ON BRICK VENEER STRUCTURES

Because the load-bearing structure of a brick veneer building is the frame that makes up the interior leaf of the external walls plus perhaps the internal walls, depending on the type of roof, the building can be expected to behave as a framed structure, except that the external masonry will behave in a similar way to the external leaf of a full masonry structure.

WATER SERVICE AND DRAINAGE

Where a water service pipe, a sewer or stormwater drainage pipe is in the vicinity of a building, a water leak can cause erosion, swelling or saturation of susceptible soil. Even a minuscule leak can be enough to saturate a clay foundation. A leaking tap near a building can have the same effect. In addition, trenches containing pipes can become watercourses even though backfilled, particularly where broken rubble is used as fill. Water that runs along these trenches can be responsible for serious erosion, interstrata seepage into subfloor areas and saturation.

Pipe leakage and trench water flows also encourage tree and shrub roots to the source of water, complicating and exacerbating the problem. Poor roof plumbing can result in large volumes of rainwater being concentrated in a small area of soil:

- Incorrect falls in roof guttering may result in overflows, as may gutters blocked with leaves etc.
- Corroded guttering or downpipes can spill water to ground.
- Downpipes not positively connected to a proper stormwater collection system will direct a concentration of water to soil that is directly adjacent to footings, sometimes causing largescale problems such as erosion, saturation and migration of water under the building.

SERIOUSNESS OF CRACKING

In general, most cracking found in masonry walls is a cosmetic nuisance only and can be kept in repair or even ignored. Table 2 below is a reproduction of Table C1 of AS 2870-2011. AS 2870-2011 also publishes figures relating to cracking in concrete floors, however because wall cracking will usually reach the critical point significantly earlier than cracking in slabs, this table is not reproduced here.

PREVENTION AND CURE

PLUMBING

Where building movement is caused by water service, roof plumbing, sewer or stormwater failure, the remedy is to repair the problem. It is prudent, however, to consider also rerouting pipes away from the building where possible and relocating taps to positions where any leakage will not direct water to the building vicinity. Even where gully traps are present, there is sometimes sufficient spill to create erosion or saturation, particularly in modern installations using smaller diameter PVC fixtures. Indeed, some gully traps are not situated directly under the taps that are installed to charge them, with the result that water from the tap may enter the backfilled trench that houses the sewer piping. If the trench has been poorly backfilled, the water will either pond or flow along the bottom of the trench. As these trenches usually run alongside the footings and can be at a similar depth, it is not hard to see how any water that is thus directed into a trench can easily affect the foundation's ability to support footings or even gain entry to the subfloor area.

GROUND DRAINAGE

In all soils there is the capacity for water to travel on the surface and below it. Surface water flows can be established by inspection during and after heavy or prolonged rain. If necessary, a grated drain system connected to the stormwater collection system is usually an easy solution.

It is, however, sometimes necessary when attempting to prevent water migration that testing be carried out to establish watertable height and subsoil water flows. This subject may be regarded as an area for an expert consultant.

PROTECTION OF THE BUILDING PERIMETER

It is essential to remember that the soil that affects footings extends well beyond the actual building line. Watering of garden plants, shrubs and trees causes some of the most serious water problems.

For this reason, particularly where problems exist or are likely to occur, it is recommended that an apron of paving be installed around as much of the building perimeter as necessary. This paving should extend outwards a minimum of 900 mm (more in highly reactive soil) and should have a minimum fall away from the building of 1:60. The finished paving should be no less than 100 mm below brick vent bases.

It is prudent to relocate drainage pipes away from this paving, if possible, to avoid complications from future leakage. If this is not practical, earthenware pipes should be replaced by PVC and backfilling should be of the same soil type as the surrounding soil and compacted to the same density.

Except in areas where freezing of water is an issue, it is wise to remove taps in the building area and relocate them well away from the building – preferably not uphill.

It may be desirable to install a grated drain at the outside edge of the paving on the uphill side of the building. If subsoil drainage is needed this can be installed under the surface drain.

CONDENSATION

In buildings with a subfloor void, such as where bearers and joists support flooring, insufficient ventilation creates ideal conditions for condensation, particularly where there is little clearance between the floor and the ground. Condensation adds to the moisture already present in the subfloor and significantly slows the process of drying out. Installation of an adequate subfloor ventilation system, either natural or mechanical, is desirable.

TABLE 2. CLASSIFICATION OF DAMAGE WITH REFERENCE TO WALLS.

Description of typical damage and required repair	Approximate crack width limit	Damage category
Hairline cracks	<0.1 mm	0 – Negligible
Fine cracks which do not need repair	<1 mm	1 – Very Slight
Cracks noticeable but easily filled. Doors and windows stick slightly.	<5 mm	2 – Slight
Cracks can be repaired and possibly a small amount of wall will need to be replaced. Doors and windows stick. Service pipes can fracture. Weathertightness often impaired.	5–15 mm (or a number of cracks 3 mm or more in one group)	3 – Moderate
Extensive repair work involving breaking-out and replacing sections of walls, especially over doors and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of	15–25 mm but also depends on number of cracks	4 – Severe

and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of bearing in beams. Service pipes disrupted.

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Warning: Although this Building Technology Resource deals with cracking in buildings, it should be said that subfloor moisture can result in the development of other problems, notably:

- Water that is transmitted into masonry, metal or timber building elements causes damage and/or decay to those elements.
- High subfloor humidity and moisture content create an ideal environment for various pests, including termites and spiders, and mould.
- Where high moisture levels are transmitted to the flooring and walls, an increase in the dust mite count can ensue within the living areas. Dust mites, as well as dampness in general, can be a health hazard to inhabitants, particularly those who are abnormally susceptible to respiratory ailments.

THE GARDEN

The ideal vegetation layout is to have lawn or plants that require only light watering immediately adjacent to the drainage or paving edge, then more demanding plants, shrubs and trees spread out in that order.

Overwatering due to misuse of automatic watering systems is a common cause of saturation and water migration under footings. If it is necessary to use these systems, it is important to remove garden beds to a completely safe distance from buildings.

EXISTING TREES

Where a tree is causing a problem of soil drying or there is the existence or threat of upheaval of footings, if the offending roots are subsidiary and their removal will not significantly damage the tree, they should be severed and a concrete or metal barrier placed vertically in the soil to prevent future root growth in the direction of the building. If it is not possible to remove the relevant roots without damage to the tree, an application to remove the tree should be made to the local authority. A prudent plan is to transplant likely offenders before they become a problem.

INFORMATION ON TREES, PLANTS AND SHRUBS

State departments overseeing agriculture can give information regarding root patterns, volume of water needed and safe distance from buildings of most species. Botanic gardens are also sources of information.



FIGURE 2 Gardens for a reactive site.

EXCAVATION

Excavation around footings must be properly engineered. Soil supporting footings can only be safely excavated at an angle that allows the soil under the footing to remain stable. This angle is called the angle of repose (or friction) and varies significantly between soil types and conditions. Removal of soil within the angle of repose will cause subsidence.

REMEDIATION

Where erosion has occurred that has washed away soil adjacent to footings, soil of the same classification should be introduced and compacted to the same density. Where footings have been undermined, augmentation or other specialist work may be required. Remediation of footings and foundations is generally the realm of a specialist consultant.

Where isolated footings rise and fall because of swell/shrink effect, the home owner may be tempted to alleviate floor bounce by filling the gap that has appeared between the bearer and the pier with blocking. The danger here is that when the next swell segment of the cycle occurs, the extra blocking will push the floor up into an accentuated dome and may also cause local shear failure in the soil. If it is necessary to use blocking, it should be by a pair of fine wedges and monitoring should be carried out fortnightly.



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TERMS AND CONDITIONS: BUILDING TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

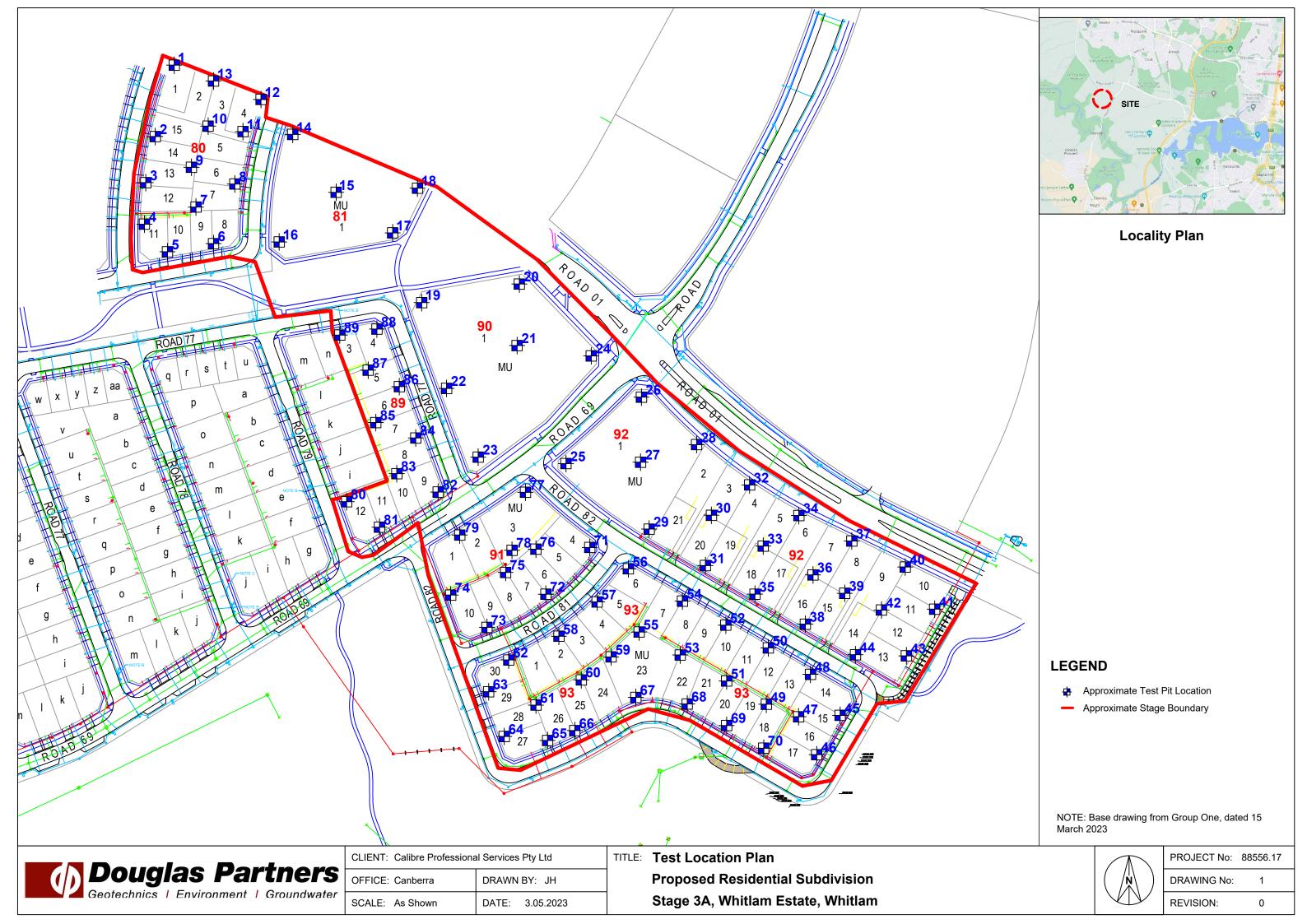
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TEST PIT LOG

SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd EASTING: 202758 NORTHING: 603851

PIT No: 34 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

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RIG: CAT 306 CR fitted with a 450mm wide toothed bucket

CLIENT:

PROJECT:

LOCATION:

Proposed Residential Subdivision

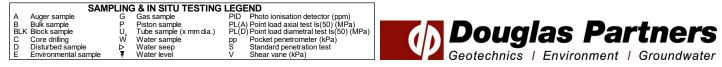
Stage 3A, Whitlam

LOGGED: JH

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3 □ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



TEST PIT LOG

Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd

Proposed Residential Subdivision

Stage 3A, Whitlam

CLIENT:

PROJECT:

LOCATION:

SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202767 NORTHING: 603814

PIT No: 36 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

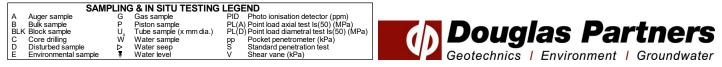
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LOGGED: JH

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3 □ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



SITE CLASSIFICATION REPORT SUMMARY

BLOCK:	7	SECTION:	92	SUBURB:	Whitlam				
JOB No:	88556.17			DATE:	May 2023				
CLIENT:	Calibre Pro	fessional Servio	es Pty Ltd	REV:	0				
Classificati	ion Procedu	res:							
Existing Subsurface Conditions: Refer attached test pit log(s) – Pit(s) 36,37 and Drawing 1.									
Bulk Earthwo	Bulk Earthworks: Controlled fill within the block was placed under Level 1 control as defined in AS 3798:2007.								
Laboratory Results: Previous laboratory testing results indicated liquid limit ranging from 50-77%, plasticity index ranging from 35-61%, linear shrinkage ranging from 10-19% and shrink/swell index ranging from 0.01-3.50%.									
magnitude of n profile / state, c would be equiv subsurface pro	Site Classification: Site classification in accordance with AS2870:2011 provides guidance on the patterns and magnitude of moisture related seasonal ground movements that must be considered in design. Based on the current soil profile / state, on limited subsurface information, soil reactivity and allowing for variation in the subsoil profile, the soil profile would be equivalent to Class H1* (highly reactive/filled) conditions. The site classification must be reassessed should the subsurface profile change by either cutting or filling and/or if the presence of service trenches, retaining walls or submerged structures are within the zone of influence of the proposed footings. Reference must be made to the comments provided below.								
each site class zone of influen be articulated in conditions are	ification. All foot ce of any service n accordance with	ings must found within trenches, backfill zon o current best practice vicinity of footings. Fo	in a uniform bea les, retaining wal . Dwelling design	ring stratum of suitable Is or underground struct must ensure suitable dr	tems that are appropriate for strength/material, below the cures. Masonry walls should ainage and uniform moisture tructural engineer taking into				
Maintenance & soils and in pa	Footing Performaticular in respection	ance' to comments ab t to maintaining good	out gardens, land surface drainag	lscaping and trees on th e. It notes that minor cr	Sheet BTF 18 'Foundation re performance of foundation racking in most structures is ents that can lead to cracking				
Comments Limitations	<i>informatio</i>				ns and conclusions from the ity for such interpretations,				
	Developm	ent specific geotechni	ical investigation	s must be undertaken.					
	Additional	topsoils / fill may have	e been spread su	bsequent to the investig	pation.				
	Site prepa uncontroll		nstruction should	d include removal of all	vegetation, topsoil and any				
		must be placed unde warranted in those fill		itions (AS 3798:2007), o	otherwise Class P conditions				
	Some vari	iability in subsurface c	onditions must b	e anticipated.					
	of investig				vary considerably from time epages are highly likely after				
	Depending	g on the depth of site	cut and trenches	hard rock excavation m	nay be required.				
		e site classification is red from site and have			aterials/waste and stockpiles				
	It is recom	nmended that footing e	excavations be in	spected by a geotechnic	cal engineer.				
	This repor	t must be read in conj	unction with the	attached "Limitations" ar	nd notes "About this Report".				
References	AS 2870:2	2011, Residential Slab	s and Footings,	Standards Australia.					
	AS 3798:2 Australia.	2007, Guidelines on E	arthworks for Co	mmercial and Residentia	al Developments, Standards				
Attachmen	Explanato	og(s) Pit(s) 36,37							
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Douglas Partners Pty Ltd ABN 75 053 980 117 www.douglaspartners.com.au Unit 2, 73 Sheppard Street Hume ACT 2620 PO Box 1487 Fyshwick ACT 2609 Phone (02) 6260 2788

Limitations

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The assessment of atypical safety hazards arising from this advice is restricted to the geotechnical components set out in this report and based on known project conditions and stated design advice and assumptions. While some recommendations for safe controls may be provided, detailed 'safety in design' assessment is outside the current scope of this report and requires additional project data and assessment.

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Introduction

These notes have been provided to amplify DP's report in regard to classification methods, field procedures and the comments section. Not all are necessarily relevant to all reports.

DP's reports are based on information gained from limited subsurface excavations and sampling, supplemented by knowledge of local geology and experience. For this reason, they must be regarded as interpretive rather than factual documents, limited to some extent by the scope of information on which they rely.

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Borehole and Test Pit Logs

The borehole and test pit logs presented in this report are an engineering and/or geological interpretation of the subsurface conditions, and their reliability will depend to some extent on frequency of sampling and the method of drilling or excavation. Ideally, continuous undisturbed sampling or core drilling will provide the most reliable assessment, but this is not always practicable or possible to justify on economic grounds. In any case the boreholes and test pits represent only a very small sample of the total subsurface profile.

Interpretation of the information and its application to design and construction should therefore take into account the spacing of boreholes or pits, the frequency of sampling, and the possibility of other than 'straight line' variations between the test locations.

Groundwater

Where groundwater levels are measured in boreholes there are several potential problems, namely:

 In low permeability soils groundwater may enter the hole very slowly or perhaps not at all during the time the hole is left open;

- A localised, perched water table may lead to an erroneous indication of the true water table;
- Water table levels will vary from time to time with seasons or recent weather changes. They may not be the same at the time of construction as are indicated in the report; and
- The use of water or mud as a drilling fluid will mask any groundwater inflow. Water has to be blown out of the hole and drilling mud must first be washed out of the hole if water measurements are to be made.

More reliable measurements can be made by installing standpipes which are read at intervals over several days, or perhaps weeks for low permeability soils. Piezometers, sealed in a particular stratum, may be advisable in low permeability soils or where there may be interference from a perched water table.

Reports

The report has been prepared by qualified personnel, is based on the information obtained from field and laboratory testing, and has been undertaken to current engineering standards of interpretation and analysis. Where the report has been prepared for a specific design proposal, the information and interpretation may not be relevant if the design proposal is changed. If this happens, DP will be pleased to review the report and the sufficiency of the investigation work.

Every care is taken with the report as it relates to interpretation of subsurface conditions, discussion of geotechnical and environmental aspects, and recommendations or suggestions for design and construction. However, DP cannot always anticipate or assume responsibility for:

- Unexpected variations in ground conditions. The potential for this will depend partly on borehole or pit spacing and sampling frequency;
- Changes in policy or interpretations of policy by statutory authorities; or
- The actions of contractors responding to commercial pressures.

If these occur, DP will be pleased to assist with investigations or advice to resolve the matter.

About this Report

Site Anomalies

In the event that conditions encountered on site during construction appear to vary from those which were expected from the information contained in the report, DP requests that it be immediately notified. Most problems are much more readily resolved when conditions are exposed rather than at some later stage, well after the event.

Information for Contractual Purposes

Where information obtained from this report is provided for tendering purposes, it is recommended that all information, including the written report and discussion, be made available. In circumstances where the discussion or comments section is not relevant to the contractual situation, it may be appropriate to prepare a specially edited document. DP would be pleased to assist in this regard and/or to make additional report copies available for contract purposes at a nominal charge.

Site Inspection

The company will always be pleased to provide engineering inspection services for geotechnical and environmental aspects of work to which this report is related. This could range from a site visit to confirm that conditions exposed are as expected, to full time engineering presence on site.

Sampling

Sampling is carried out during drilling or test pitting to allow engineering examination (and laboratory testing where required) of the soil or rock.

Disturbed samples taken during drilling provide information on colour, type, inclusions and, depending upon the degree of disturbance, some information on strength and structure.

Undisturbed samples are taken by pushing a thinwalled sample tube into the soil and withdrawing it to obtain a sample of the soil in a relatively undisturbed state. Such samples yield information on structure and strength, and are necessary for laboratory determination of shear strength and compressibility. Undisturbed sampling is generally effective only in cohesive soils.

Test Pits

Test pits are usually excavated with a backhoe or an excavator, allowing close examination of the insitu soil if it is safe to enter into the pit. The depth of excavation is limited to about 3 m for a backhoe and up to 6 m for a large excavator. A potential disadvantage of this investigation method is the larger area of disturbance to the site.

Large Diameter Augers

Boreholes can be drilled using a rotating plate or short spiral auger, generally 300 mm or larger in diameter commonly mounted on a standard piling rig. The cuttings are returned to the surface at intervals (generally not more than 0.5 m) and are disturbed but usually unchanged in moisture content. Identification of soil strata is generally much more reliable than with continuous spiral flight augers, and is usually supplemented by occasional undisturbed tube samples.

Continuous Spiral Flight Augers

The borehole is advanced using 90-115 mm diameter continuous spiral flight augers which are withdrawn at intervals to allow sampling or in-situ testing. This is a relatively economical means of drilling in clays and sands above the water table. Samples are returned to the surface, or may be collected after withdrawal of the auger flights, but they are disturbed and may be mixed with soils from the sides of the hole. Information from the drilling (as distinct from specific sampling by SPTs or undisturbed samples) is of relatively low reliability, due to the remoulding, possible mixing or softening of samples by groundwater.

Non-core Rotary Drilling

The borehole is advanced using a rotary bit, with water or drilling mud being pumped down the drill rods and returned up the annulus, carrying the drill cuttings. Only major changes in stratification can be determined from the cuttings, together with some information from the rate of penetration. Where drilling mud is used this can mask the cuttings and reliable identification is only possible from separate sampling such as SPTs.

Continuous Core Drilling

A continuous core sample can be obtained using a diamond tipped core barrel, usually with a 50 mm internal diameter. Provided full core recovery is achieved (which is not always possible in weak rocks and granular soils), this technique provides a very reliable method of investigation.

Standard Penetration Tests

Standard penetration tests (SPT) are used as a means of estimating the density or strength of soils and also of obtaining a relatively undisturbed sample. The test procedure is described in Australian Standard 1289, Methods of Testing Soils for Engineering Purposes - Test 6.3.1.

The test is carried out in a borehole by driving a 50 mm diameter split sample tube under the impact of a 63 kg hammer with a free fall of 760 mm. It is normal for the tube to be driven in three successive 150 mm increments and the 'N' value is taken as the number of blows for the last 300 mm. In dense sands, very hard clays or weak rock, the full 450 mm penetration may not be practicable and the test is discontinued.

The test results are reported in the following form.

 In the case where full penetration is obtained with successive blow counts for each 150 mm of, say, 4, 6 and 7 as:

4,6,7 N=13

In the case where the test is discontinued before the full penetration depth, say after 15 blows for the first 150 mm and 30 blows for the next 40 mm as:

15, 30/40 mm

Sampling Methods

The results of the SPT tests can be related empirically to the engineering properties of the soils.

Dynamic Cone Penetrometer Tests / Perth Sand Penetrometer Tests

Dynamic penetrometer tests (DCP or PSP) are carried out by driving a steel rod into the ground using a standard weight of hammer falling a specified distance. As the rod penetrates the soil the number of blows required to penetrate each successive 150 mm depth are recorded. Normally there is a depth limitation of 1.2 m, but this may be extended in certain conditions by the use of extension rods. Two types of penetrometer are commonly used.

- Perth sand penetrometer a 16 mm diameter flat ended rod is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 600 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.3). This test was developed for testing the density of sands and is mainly used in granular soils and filling.
- Cone penetrometer a 16 mm diameter rod with a 20 mm diameter cone end is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 510 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.2). This test was developed initially for pavement subgrade investigations, and correlations of the test results with California Bearing Ratio have been published by various road authorities.

Soil Descriptions

Description and Classification Methods

The methods of description and classification of soils and rocks used in this report are generally based on Australian Standard AS1726:2017, Geotechnical Site Investigations. In general, the descriptions include strength or density, colour, structure, soil or rock type and inclusions.

Soil Types

Soil types are described according to the predominant particle size, qualified by the grading of other particles present:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Boulder	>200
Cobble	63 - 200
Gravel	2.36 - 63
Sand	0.075 - 2.36
Silt	0.002 - 0.075
Clay	<0.002

The sand and gravel sizes can be further subdivided as follows:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Coarse gravel	19 - 63
Medium gravel	6.7 - 19
Fine gravel	2.36 - 6.7
Coarse sand	0.6 - 2.36
Medium sand	0.21 - 0.6
Fine sand	0.075 - 0.21

Definitions of grading terms used are:

- Well graded a good representation of all particle sizes
- Poorly graded an excess or deficiency of particular sizes within the specified range
- Uniformly graded an excess of a particular particle size
- Gap graded a deficiency of a particular particle size with the range

The proportions of secondary constituents of soils are described as follows:

In fine grained soils	(>35% fines)
-----------------------	--------------

Term	Proportion	Example
	of sand or	
	gravel	
And	Specify	Clay (60%) and
		Sand (40%)
Adjective	>30%	Sandy Clay
With	15 – 30%	Clay with sand
Trace	0 - 15%	Clay with trace
		sand

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)

with	clays	or	silts	

man olaye er ena		
Term	Proportion of fines	Example
And	Specify	Sand (70%) and Clay (30%)
Adjective	>12%	Clayey Sand
With	5 - 12%	Sand with clay
Trace	0 - 5%	Sand with trace
		clay

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)
 with coarser fraction

Term	Proportion	Example
	of coarser	
	fraction	
And	Specify	Sand (60%) and
		Gravel (40%)
Adjective	>30%	Gravelly Sand
With	15 - 30%	Sand with gravel
Trace	0 - 15%	Sand with trace
		gravel

The presence of cobbles and boulders shall be specifically noted by beginning the description with 'Mix of Soil and Cobbles/Boulders' with the word order indicating the dominant first and the proportion of cobbles and boulders described together.

Soil Descriptions

Cohesive Soils

Cohesive soils, such as clays, are classified on the basis of undrained shear strength. The strength may be measured by laboratory testing, or estimated by field tests or engineering examination. The strength terms are defined as follows:

Description	Abbreviation	Undrained shear strength (kPa)
Very soft	VS	<12
Soft	S	12 - 25
Firm	F	25 - 50
Stiff	St	50 - 100
Very stiff	VSt	100 - 200
Hard	Н	>200
Friable	Fr	-

Cohesionless Soils

Cohesionless soils, such as clean sands, are classified on the basis of relative density, generally from the results of standard penetration tests (SPT), cone penetration tests (CPT) or dynamic penetrometers (PSP). The relative density terms are given below:

Relative Density	Abbreviation	Density Index (%)
Very loose	VL	<15
Loose	L	15-35
Medium dense	MD	35-65
Dense	D	65-85
Very dense	VD	>85

Soil Origin

It is often difficult to accurately determine the origin of a soil. Soils can generally be classified as:

- Residual soil derived from in-situ weathering of the underlying rock;
- Extremely weathered material formed from in-situ weathering of geological formations. Has soil strength but retains the structure or fabric of the parent rock;
- Alluvial soil deposited by streams and rivers;

- Estuarine soil deposited in coastal estuaries;
- Marine soil deposited in a marine environment;
- Lacustrine soil deposited in freshwater lakes;
- Aeolian soil carried and deposited by wind;
- Colluvial soil soil and rock debris transported down slopes by gravity;
- Topsoil mantle of surface soil, often with high levels of organic material.
- Fill any material which has been moved by man.

Moisture Condition – Coarse Grained Soils For coarse grained soils the moisture condition

should be described by appearance and feel using the following terms:

- Dry (D) Non-cohesive and free-running.
- Moist (M) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together. Sand forms weak ball but breaks easily.

Wet (W) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together, free water forms when handling.

Moisture Condition – Fine Grained Soils

For fine grained soils the assessment of moisture content is relative to their plastic limit or liquid limit, as follows:

- 'Moist, dry of plastic limit' or 'w <PL' (i.e. hard and friable or powdery).
- 'Moist, near plastic limit' or 'w ≈ PL (i.e. soil can be moulded at moisture content approximately equal to the plastic limit).
- 'Moist, wet of plastic limit' or 'w >PL' (i.e. soils usually weakened and free water forms on the hands when handling).
- 'Wet' or 'w ≈LL' (i.e. near the liquid limit).
- 'Wet' or 'w >LL' (i.e. wet of the liquid limit).

Rock Descriptions

Rock Strength

Rock strength is defined by the Unconfined Compressive Strength and it refers to the strength of the rock substance and not the strength of the overall rock mass, which may be considerably weaker due to defects.

The Point Load Strength Index $I_{S(50)}$ is commonly used to provide an estimate of the rock strength and site specific correlations should be developed to allow UCS values to be determined. The point load strength test procedure is described by Australian Standard AS4133.4.1-2007. The terms used to describe rock strength are as follows:

Strength Term	Abbreviation	Unconfined Compressive Strength MPa	Point Load Index * Is ₍₅₀₎ MPa
Very low	VL	0.6 - 2	0.03 - 0.1
Low	L	2 - 6	0.1 - 0.3
Medium	М	6 - 20	0.3 - 1.0
High	Н	20 - 60	1 - 3
Very high	VH	60 - 200	3 - 10
Extremely high	EH	>200	>10

* Assumes a ratio of 20:1 for UCS to $I_{S(50)}$. It should be noted that the UCS to $I_{S(50)}$ ratio varies significantly for different rock types and specific ratios should be determined for each site.

Degree of Weathering

The degree of weathering of rock is classified as follows:

Term	Abbreviation	Description
Residual Soil	RS	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are no longer visible, but the soil has not been significantly transported.
Extremely weathered	XW	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are still visible
Highly weathered	HW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable. Rock strength is significantly changed by weathering. Some primary minerals have weathered to clay minerals. Porosity may be increased by leaching, or may be decreased due to deposition of weathering products in pores.
Moderately weathered	MW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable, but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Slightly weathered	SW	Rock is partially discoloured with staining or bleaching along joints but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Fresh	FR	No signs of decomposition or staining.
Note: If HW and MW cannot be differentiated use DW (see below)		
Distinctly weathered	DW	Rock strength usually changed by weathering. The rock may be highly discoloured, usually by iron staining. Porosity may be increased by leaching or may be decreased due to deposition of weathered products in pores.

Rock Descriptions

Degree of Fracturing

The following classification applies to the spacing of natural fractures in diamond drill cores. It includes bedding plane partings, joints and other defects, but excludes drilling breaks.

Term	Description
Fragmented	Fragments of <20 mm
Highly Fractured	Core lengths of 20-40 mm with occasional fragments
Fractured	Core lengths of 30-100 mm with occasional shorter and longer sections
Slightly Fractured	Core lengths of 300 mm or longer with occasional sections of 100-300 mm
Unbroken	Core contains very few fractures

Rock Quality Designation

The quality of the cored rock can be measured using the Rock Quality Designation (RQD) index, defined as:

RQD % = <u>cumulative length of 'sound' core sections > 100 mm long</u> total drilled length of section being assessed

where 'sound' rock is assessed to be rock of low strength or stronger. The RQD applies only to natural fractures. If the core is broken by drilling or handling (i.e. drilling breaks) then the broken pieces are fitted back together and are not included in the calculation of RQD.

Stratification Spacing

For sedimentary rocks the following terms may be used to describe the spacing of bedding partings:

Term	Separation of Stratification Planes	
Thinly laminated	< 6 mm	
Laminated	6 mm to 20 mm	
Very thinly bedded	20 mm to 60 mm	
Thinly bedded	60 mm to 0.2 m	
Medium bedded	0.2 m to 0.6 m	
Thickly bedded	0.6 m to 2 m	
Very thickly bedded	> 2 m	

Symbols & Abbreviations

Introduction

These notes summarise abbreviations commonly used on borehole logs and test pit reports.

Drilling or Excavation Methods

С	Core drilling
R	Rotary drilling
SFA	Spiral flight augers
NMLC	Diamond core - 52 mm dia
NQ	Diamond core - 47 mm dia
HQ	Diamond core - 63 mm dia
PQ	Diamond core - 81 mm dia

Water

\triangleright	Water seep
\bigtriangledown	Water level

Sampling and Testing

- A Auger sample
- B Bulk sample
- D Disturbed sample
- E Environmental sample
- U₅₀ Undisturbed tube sample (50mm)
- W Water sample
- pp Pocket penetrometer (kPa)
- PID Photo ionisation detector
- PL Point load strength Is(50) MPa
- S Standard Penetration Test
- V Shear vane (kPa)

Description of Defects in Rock

The abbreviated descriptions of the defects should be in the following order: Depth, Type, Orientation, Coating, Shape, Roughness and Other. Drilling and handling breaks are not usually included on the logs.

Defect Type

Bedding plane
Clay seam
Cleavage
Crushed zone
Decomposed seam
Fault
Joint
Lamination
Parting
Sheared Zone
Vein

Orientation

The inclination of defects is always measured from the perpendicular to the core axis.

- h horizontal
- v vertical
- sh sub-horizontal

ari

sv sub-vertical

Coating or Infilling Term

clean
coating
healed
infilled
stained
tight
veneer

Coating Descriptor

ca	calcite
cbs	carbonaceous
cly	clay
fe	iron oxide
mn	manganese
slt	silty

Shape

cu	curved	
ir	irregular	
pl	planar	
st	stepped	
un	undulating	

Roughness

ро	polished	
ro	rough	
sl	slickensided	
sm	smooth	
vr	very rough	

Other

fg	fragmented	
bnd	band	
qtz	quartz	

Symbols & Abbreviations

Graphic Symbols for Soil and Rock

General

A. A. A. Z	

Asphalt Road base

Concrete

Filling

Soils



Topsoil Peat

Clay

Silty clay

Sandy clay

Gravelly clay

Shaly clay

Silt

Clayey silt

Sandy silt

Sand

Clayey sand

Silty sand

Gravel

Sandy gravel

Cobbles, boulders

Talus

Sedimentary Rocks



Metamorphic Rocks

Slate, phyllite, schist

Quartzite

Gneiss

Igneous Rocks

Granite

Dolerite, basalt, andesite

Dacite, epidote

Tuff, breccia

Porphyry





FOUNDATION MAINTENANCE AND FOOTING PERFORMANCE



Understanding and preventing soil-related building movement

This Building Technology Resource is designed to identify causes of soil-related building movement, and to suggest methods of prevention of resultant cracking.

Buildings can and often do move. This movement can be up, down, lateral or rotational. The fundamental cause of movement in buildings can usually be related to one or more problems in the foundation soil. It is important for the home owner to identify the soil type in order to ascertain the measures that should be put in place in order to ensure that problems in the foundation soil can be prevented, thus protecting against building movement.

SOIL TYPES

The types of soils usually present under the topsoil in land zoned for residential buildings can be split into two approximate groups – granular and clay. Quite often, foundation soil is a mixture of both types. The general problems associated with soils having granular content are usually caused by erosion. Clay soils are subject to saturation and swell/shrink problems.

Classifications for a given area can generally be obtained by application to the local authority, but these are sometimes unreliable and if there is doubt, a geotechnical report should be commissioned. As most buildings suffering movement problems are founded on clay soils, there is an emphasis on classification of soils according to the amount of swell and shrinkage they experience with variations of water content. Table 1 below is a reproduction of Table 2.1 from Australian Standard AS 2870-2011, Residential slabs and footings.

CAUSES OF MOVEMENT

SETTLEMENT DUE TO CONSTRUCTION

There are two types of settlement that occur as a result of construction:

- Immediate settlement occurs when a building is first placed on its foundation soil, as a result of compaction of the soil under the weight of the structure. The cohesive quality of clay soil mitigates against this, but granular (particularly sandy) soil is susceptible.
- Consolidation settlement is a feature of clay soil and may take place because of the expulsion of moisture from the soil or because of the soil's lack of resistance to local compressive or shear stresses. This will usually take place during the first few months after construction but has been known to take many years in exceptional cases.

These problems may be the province of the builder and should be taken into consideration as part of the preparation of the site for construction.

EROSION

All soils are prone to erosion, but sandy soil is particularly susceptible to being washed away. Even clay with a sand component of say 10% or more can suffer from erosion.

SATURATION

This is particularly a problem in clay soils. Saturation creates a boglike suspension of the soil that causes it to lose virtually all of its bearing capacity. To a lesser degree, sand is affected by saturation because saturated sand may undergo a reduction in volume, particularly imported sand fill for bedding and blinding layers. However, this usually occurs as immediate settlement and should normally be the province of the builder.

SEASONAL SWELLING AND SHRINKAGE OF SOIL

All clays react to the presence of water by slowly absorbing it, making the soil increase in volume (see table below, from AS 2870). The degree of increase varies considerably between different clays, as does the degree of decrease during the subsequent drying out caused by fair weather periods. Because of the low absorption and expulsion rate, this phenomenon will not usually be noticeable unless there are prolonged rainy or dry periods, usually of weeks or months, depending on the land and soil characteristics.

The swelling of soil creates an upward force on the footings of the building, and shrinkage creates subsidence that takes away the support needed by the footing to retain equilibrium.

SHEAR FAILURE

This phenomenon occurs when the foundation soil does not have sufficient strength to support the weight of the footing. There are two major post-construction causes:

- Significant load increase.
- Reduction of lateral support of the soil under the footing due to erosion or excavation.

In clay soil, shear failure can be caused by saturation of the soil adjacent to or under the footing.

TREE ROOT GROWTH

Trees and shrubs that are allowed to grow in the vicinity of footings can cause foundation soil movement in two ways:

 Roots that grow under footings may increase in cross-sectional size, exerting upward pressure on footings.

TABLE 1. GENERAL DEFINITIONS OF SITE CLASSES.

Class	Foundation
A	Most sand and rock sites with little or no ground movement from moisture changes
S	Slightly reactive clay sites, which may experience only slight ground movement from moisture changes
М	Moderately reactive clay or silt sites, which may experience moderate ground movement from moisture changes
H1	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience high ground movement from moisture changes
H2	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience very high ground movement from moisture changes
F	Extremely reactive sites, which may experience extreme ground movement from moisture changes

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FIGURE 1 Trees can cause shrinkage and damage.

 Roots in the vicinity of footings will absorb much of the moisture in the foundation soil, causing shrinkage or subsidence.

UNEVENNESS OF MOVEMENT

The types of ground movement described above usually occur unevenly throughout the building's foundation soil. Settlement due to construction tends to be uneven because of:

- Differing compaction of foundation soil prior to construction.
- Differing moisture content of foundation soil prior to construction.

Movement due to non-construction causes is usually more uneven still. Erosion can undermine a footing that traverses the flow or can create the conditions for shear failure by eroding soil adjacent to a footing that runs in the same direction as the flow.

Saturation of clay foundation soil may occur where subfloor walls create a dam that makes water pond. It can also occur wherever there is a source of water near footings in clay soil. This leads to a severe reduction in the strength of the soil which may create local shear failure.

Seasonal swelling and shrinkage of clay soil affects the perimeter of the building first, then gradually spreads to the interior through absorption. The swelling process will usually begin at the uphill extreme of the building, or on the weather side where the land is flat. Shrinkage usually begins on the side of the building where the sun's heat is greatest.

EFFECTS OF UNEVEN SOIL MOVEMENT ON STRUCTURES

EROSION AND SATURATION

Erosion removes the support from under footings, tending to create subsidence of the part of the structure under which it occurs. Brickwork walls will resist the stress created by this removal of support by bridging the gap or cantilevering until the bricks or the mortar bedding fail. Older masonry has little resistance. Evidence of failure varies according to circumstances and symptoms may include:

- Step cracking in the mortar beds in the body of the wall or above/below openings such as doors or windows.
- Vertical cracking in the bricks (usually but not necessarily in line with the vertical beds or perpends).

Isolated piers affected by erosion or saturation of foundations will eventually lose contact with the bearers they support and may tilt or fall over. The floors that have lost this support will become bouncy, sometimes rattling ornaments etc.

SEASONAL SWELLING/SHRINKAGE IN CLAY

Swelling foundation soil due to rainy periods first lifts the most exposed extremities of the footing system, then the remainder of the perimeter footings while gradually permeating inside the building footprint to lift internal footings. This swelling first tends to create a dish effect, because the external footings are pushed higher than the internal ones.

The first noticeable symptom may be that the floor appears slightly dished. This is often accompanied by some doors binding on the floor or the door head, together with some cracking of cornice mitres. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the floor can be bouncy. Externally there may be visible dishing of the hip or ridge lines.

As the moisture absorption process completes its journey to the innermost areas of the building, the internal footings will rise. If the spread of moisture is roughly even, it may be that the symptoms will temporarily disappear, but it is more likely that swelling will be uneven, creating a difference rather than a disappearance in symptoms. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the isolated piers will rise more easily than the strip footings or piers under walls, creating noticeable doming of flooring.

As the weather pattern changes and the soil begins to dry out, the external footings will be first affected, beginning with the locations where the sun's effect is strongest. This has the effect of lowering the external footings. The doming is accentuated, and cracking reduces or disappears where it occurred because of dishing, but other cracks open up. The roof lines may become convex.

Doming and dishing are also affected by weather in other ways. In areas where warm, wet summers and cooler dry winters prevail, water migration tends to be toward the interior and doming will be accentuated, whereas where summers are dry, and winters are cold and wet, migration tends to be toward the exterior and the underlying propensity is toward dishing.

MOVEMENT CAUSED BY TREE ROOTS

In general, growing roots will exert an upward pressure on footings, whereas soil subject to drying because of tree or shrub roots will tend to remove support from under footings by inducing shrinkage.

COMPLICATIONS CAUSED BY THE STRUCTURE ITSELF

Most forces that the soil causes to be exerted on structures are vertical – i.e. either up or down. However, because these forces are seldom spread evenly around the footings, and because the building resists uneven movement because of its rigidity, forces are exerted from one part of the building to another. The net result of all these forces is usually rotational. This resultant force often complicates the diagnosis because the visible symptoms do not simply reflect the original cause. A common symptom is binding of doors on the vertical member of the frame.

EFFECTS ON FULL MASONRY STRUCTURES

Brickwork will resist cracking where it can. It will attempt to span areas that lose support because of subsided foundations or raised points. It is therefore usual to see cracking at weak points, such as openings for windows or doors.

In the event of construction settlement, cracking will usually remain unchanged after the process of settlement has ceased.

With local shear or erosion, cracking will usually continue to develop until the original cause has been remedied, or until the subsidence has completely neutralised the affected portion of footing and the structure has stabilised on other footings that remain effective.

In the case of swell/shrink effects, the brickwork will in some cases return to its original position after completion of a cycle, however it is more likely that the rotational effect will not be exactly reversed, and it is also usual that brickwork will settle in its new position and will resist the forces trying to return it to its original position. This means that in a case where swelling takes place after construction and cracking occurs, the cracking is likely to at least partly remain after the shrink segment of the cycle is complete. Thus, each time the cycle is repeated, the likelihood is that the cracking will become wider until the sections of brickwork become virtually independent.

With repeated cycles, once the cracking is established, if there is no other complication, it is normal for the incidence of cracking to stabilise, as the building has the articulation it needs to cope with the problem. This is by no means always the case, however, and monitoring of cracks in walls and floors should always be treated seriously.

Upheaval caused by growth of tree roots under footings is not a simple vertical shear stress. There is a tendency for the root to also

exert lateral forces that attempt to separate sections of brickwork after initial cracking has occurred.

The normal structural arrangement is that the inner leaf of brickwork in the external walls and at least some of the internal walls (depending on the roof type) comprise the load-bearing structure on which any upper floors, ceilings and the roof are supported. In these cases, it is internally visible cracking that should be the main focus of attention, however there are a few examples of dwellings whose external leaf of masonry plays some supporting role, so this should be checked if there is any doubt. In any case, externally visible cracking is important as a guide to stresses on the structure generally, and it should also be remembered that the external walls must be capable of supporting themselves.

EFFECTS ON FRAMED STRUCTURES

Timber or steel framed buildings are less likely to exhibit cracking due to swell/shrink than masonry buildings because of their flexibility. Also, the doming/dishing effects tend to be lower because of the lighter weight of walls. The main risks to framed buildings are encountered because of the isolated pier footings used under walls. Where erosion or saturation causes a footing to fall away, this can double the span which a wall must bridge. This additional stress can create cracking in wall linings, particularly where there is a weak point in the structure caused by a door or window opening. It is, however, unlikely that framed structures will be so stressed as to suffer serious damage without first exhibiting some or all of the above symptoms for a considerable period. The same warning period should apply in the case of upheaval. It should be noted, however, that where framed buildings are supported by strip footings there is only one leaf of brickwork and therefore the externally visible walls are the supporting structure for the building. In this case, the subfloor masonry walls can be expected to behave as full brickwork walls.

EFFECTS ON BRICK VENEER STRUCTURES

Because the load-bearing structure of a brick veneer building is the frame that makes up the interior leaf of the external walls plus perhaps the internal walls, depending on the type of roof, the building can be expected to behave as a framed structure, except that the external masonry will behave in a similar way to the external leaf of a full masonry structure.

WATER SERVICE AND DRAINAGE

Where a water service pipe, a sewer or stormwater drainage pipe is in the vicinity of a building, a water leak can cause erosion, swelling or saturation of susceptible soil. Even a minuscule leak can be enough to saturate a clay foundation. A leaking tap near a building can have the same effect. In addition, trenches containing pipes can become watercourses even though backfilled, particularly where broken rubble is used as fill. Water that runs along these trenches can be responsible for serious erosion, interstrata seepage into subfloor areas and saturation.

Pipe leakage and trench water flows also encourage tree and shrub roots to the source of water, complicating and exacerbating the problem. Poor roof plumbing can result in large volumes of rainwater being concentrated in a small area of soil:

- Incorrect falls in roof guttering may result in overflows, as may gutters blocked with leaves etc.
- Corroded guttering or downpipes can spill water to ground.
- Downpipes not positively connected to a proper stormwater collection system will direct a concentration of water to soil that is directly adjacent to footings, sometimes causing largescale problems such as erosion, saturation and migration of water under the building.

SERIOUSNESS OF CRACKING

In general, most cracking found in masonry walls is a cosmetic nuisance only and can be kept in repair or even ignored. Table 2 below is a reproduction of Table C1 of AS 2870-2011. AS 2870-2011 also publishes figures relating to cracking in concrete floors, however because wall cracking will usually reach the critical point significantly earlier than cracking in slabs, this table is not reproduced here.

PREVENTION AND CURE

PLUMBING

Where building movement is caused by water service, roof plumbing, sewer or stormwater failure, the remedy is to repair the problem. It is prudent, however, to consider also rerouting pipes away from the building where possible and relocating taps to positions where any leakage will not direct water to the building vicinity. Even where gully traps are present, there is sometimes sufficient spill to create erosion or saturation, particularly in modern installations using smaller diameter PVC fixtures. Indeed, some gully traps are not situated directly under the taps that are installed to charge them, with the result that water from the tap may enter the backfilled trench that houses the sewer piping. If the trench has been poorly backfilled, the water will either pond or flow along the bottom of the trench. As these trenches usually run alongside the footings and can be at a similar depth, it is not hard to see how any water that is thus directed into a trench can easily affect the foundation's ability to support footings or even gain entry to the subfloor area.

GROUND DRAINAGE

In all soils there is the capacity for water to travel on the surface and below it. Surface water flows can be established by inspection during and after heavy or prolonged rain. If necessary, a grated drain system connected to the stormwater collection system is usually an easy solution.

It is, however, sometimes necessary when attempting to prevent water migration that testing be carried out to establish watertable height and subsoil water flows. This subject may be regarded as an area for an expert consultant.

PROTECTION OF THE BUILDING PERIMETER

It is essential to remember that the soil that affects footings extends well beyond the actual building line. Watering of garden plants, shrubs and trees causes some of the most serious water problems.

For this reason, particularly where problems exist or are likely to occur, it is recommended that an apron of paving be installed around as much of the building perimeter as necessary. This paving should extend outwards a minimum of 900 mm (more in highly reactive soil) and should have a minimum fall away from the building of 1:60. The finished paving should be no less than 100 mm below brick vent bases.

It is prudent to relocate drainage pipes away from this paving, if possible, to avoid complications from future leakage. If this is not practical, earthenware pipes should be replaced by PVC and backfilling should be of the same soil type as the surrounding soil and compacted to the same density.

Except in areas where freezing of water is an issue, it is wise to remove taps in the building area and relocate them well away from the building – preferably not uphill.

It may be desirable to install a grated drain at the outside edge of the paving on the uphill side of the building. If subsoil drainage is needed this can be installed under the surface drain.

CONDENSATION

In buildings with a subfloor void, such as where bearers and joists support flooring, insufficient ventilation creates ideal conditions for condensation, particularly where there is little clearance between the floor and the ground. Condensation adds to the moisture already present in the subfloor and significantly slows the process of drying out. Installation of an adequate subfloor ventilation system, either natural or mechanical, is desirable.

TABLE 2. CLASSIFICATION OF DAMAGE WITH REFERENCE TO WALLS.

Description of typical damage and required repair	Approximate crack width limit	Damage category
Hairline cracks	<0.1 mm	0 – Negligible
Fine cracks which do not need repair	<1 mm	1 – Very Slight
Cracks noticeable but easily filled. Doors and windows stick slightly.	<5 mm	2 – Slight
Cracks can be repaired and possibly a small amount of wall will need to be replaced. Doors and windows stick. Service pipes can fracture. Weathertightness often impaired.	5—15 mm (or a number of cracks 3 mm or more in one group)	3 – Moderate
Extensive repair work involving breaking-out and replacing sections of walls, especially over doors and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of	15–25 mm but also depends on number of cracks	4 – Severe

and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of bearing in beams. Service pipes disrupted.

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Warning: Although this Building Technology Resource deals with cracking in buildings, it should be said that subfloor moisture can result in the development of other problems, notably:

- Water that is transmitted into masonry, metal or timber building elements causes damage and/or decay to those elements.
- High subfloor humidity and moisture content create an ideal environment for various pests, including termites and spiders, and mould.
- Where high moisture levels are transmitted to the flooring and walls, an increase in the dust mite count can ensue within the living areas. Dust mites, as well as dampness in general, can be a health hazard to inhabitants, particularly those who are abnormally susceptible to respiratory ailments.

THE GARDEN

The ideal vegetation layout is to have lawn or plants that require only light watering immediately adjacent to the drainage or paving edge, then more demanding plants, shrubs and trees spread out in that order.

Overwatering due to misuse of automatic watering systems is a common cause of saturation and water migration under footings. If it is necessary to use these systems, it is important to remove garden beds to a completely safe distance from buildings.

EXISTING TREES

Where a tree is causing a problem of soil drying or there is the existence or threat of upheaval of footings, if the offending roots are subsidiary and their removal will not significantly damage the tree, they should be severed and a concrete or metal barrier placed vertically in the soil to prevent future root growth in the direction of the building. If it is not possible to remove the relevant roots without damage to the tree, an application to remove the tree should be made to the local authority. A prudent plan is to transplant likely offenders before they become a problem.

INFORMATION ON TREES, PLANTS AND SHRUBS

State departments overseeing agriculture can give information regarding root patterns, volume of water needed and safe distance from buildings of most species. Botanic gardens are also sources of information.



FIGURE 2 Gardens for a reactive site.

EXCAVATION

Excavation around footings must be properly engineered. Soil supporting footings can only be safely excavated at an angle that allows the soil under the footing to remain stable. This angle is called the angle of repose (or friction) and varies significantly between soil types and conditions. Removal of soil within the angle of repose will cause subsidence.

REMEDIATION

Where erosion has occurred that has washed away soil adjacent to footings, soil of the same classification should be introduced and compacted to the same density. Where footings have been undermined, augmentation or other specialist work may be required. Remediation of footings and foundations is generally the realm of a specialist consultant.

Where isolated footings rise and fall because of swell/shrink effect, the home owner may be tempted to alleviate floor bounce by filling the gap that has appeared between the bearer and the pier with blocking. The danger here is that when the next swell segment of the cycle occurs, the extra blocking will push the floor up into an accentuated dome and may also cause local shear failure in the soil. If it is necessary to use blocking, it should be by a pair of fine wedges and monitoring should be carried out fortnightly.



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TERMS AND CONDITIONS: BUILDING TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

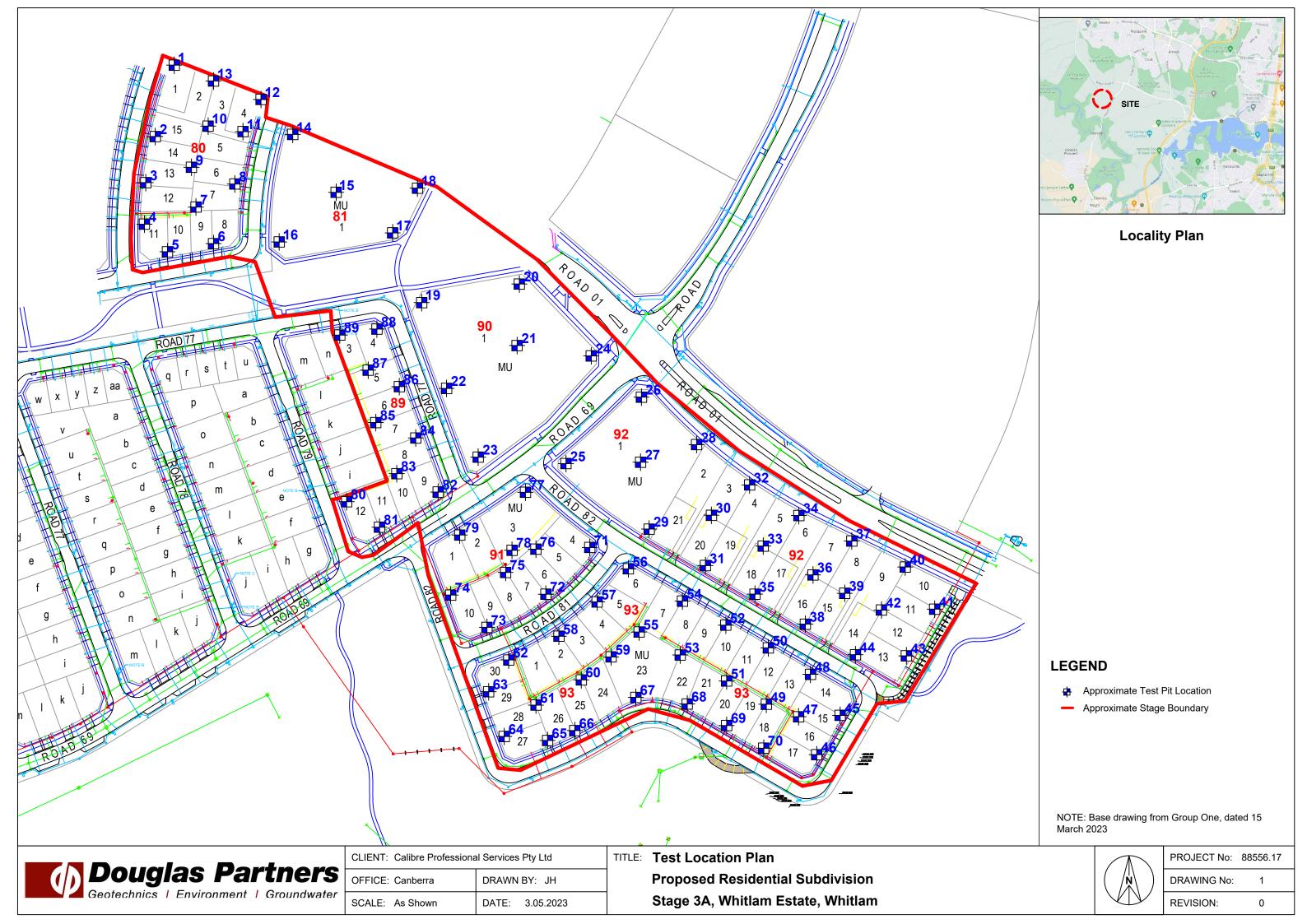
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TEST PIT LOG

Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd

Proposed Residential Subdivision

Stage 3A, Whitlam

CLIENT:

PROJECT:

LOCATION:

SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202767 NORTHING: 603814

PIT No: 36 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

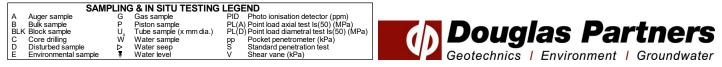
	Depth	Description	hic				& In Situ Testing	er	Dynamic	Penetromet	er Test
RL	(m)	of Strata	Graphic Log	Type	Depth	Sample	Results & Comments	Water	(blo	ws per mm)
	1	Strata FILL/Silty Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace gravel, trace cobbles, w <pl, FIL</pl, 		D	0.5	Sa				10 15	20
-	1.4 - 1.8 -	Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, red brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace ironstone nodules, w <pl, estimated stiff to very stiff, residual Pit discontinued at 1.8m -Limit of investigation</pl, 		D	1.5				- -		
		306 CR fitted with a 450mm wide toothed bucket			GGE) : JH			EY DATUM:	MGA94 7	2000 55

LOGGED: JH

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3 □ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



TEST PIT LOG

Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd

Proposed Residential Subdivision

Stage 3A, Whitlam

CLIENT:

PROJECT:

LOCATION:

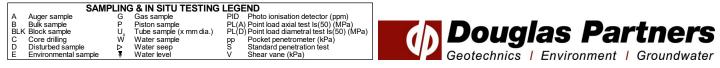
SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202791 NORTHING: 603835 PIT No: 37 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

\square		Description	<u>ic</u>		San		& In Situ Testing	_			
Ч	Depth (m)	of	Graphic Log	Type	Depth	Sample	Results & Comments	Water	Dynamic I (blo	venetrom ws per m	eter Test m)
\square		Strata		É.	ă	Sa	Comments		5	15	20
-	-	FILL/Silty Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace gravel, trace cobbles, w <pl, FILL</pl, 		D	0.1			-			
-	- 0.2 -	Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, yellow brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace ironstone nodules, w <pl, estimated stiff to very stiff, extremely weathered material</pl, 						-			
-	- 0.7 -	DACITE: fine to coarse grained, yellow brown, dry to moist, very low to low strength, highly weathered, fractured						-			
-	-	fractured		D	0.9			-			
-	- 1 1.0 - - -	Pit discontinued at 1.0m -Slow progress						-	1		
-								-			
		306 CR fitted with a 450mm wide toothed bucket				D: JH			EY DATUM:	MCAC	

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3□ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



SITE CLASSIFICATION REPORT SUMMARY

BLOCK:	16	SECTION:	92	SUBURB:	Whitlam				
JOB No:	88556.17			DATE:	May 2023				
CLIENT:	Calibre P	rofessional Servio	ces Pty Ltd	REV:	0				
Classificati	on Proced	lures:							
Existing Subs	surface Cond	ditions: Refer attached	test pit log(s) – Pit	(s) 38,36 and Drawing 1	1.				
Bulk Earthwo	rks: Controlle	ed fill within the block was	s placed under Le	vel 1 control as defined	in AS 3798:2007.				
	Laboratory Results: Previous laboratory testing results indicated liquid limit ranging from 50-77%, plasticity index ranging from 35-61%, linear shrinkage ranging from 10-19% and shrink/swell index ranging from 0.01-3.50%.								
magnitude of m profile / state, o would be equiv subsurface prof	Site Classification: Site classification in accordance with AS2870:2011 provides guidance on the patterns and magnitude of moisture related seasonal ground movements that must be considered in design. Based on the current soil profile / state, on limited subsurface information, soil reactivity and allowing for variation in the subsoil profile, the soil profile would be equivalent to Class H1* (highly reactive/filled) conditions. The site classification must be reassessed should the subsurface profile change by either cutting or filling and/or if the presence of service trenches, retaining walls or submerged structures are within the zone of influence of the proposed footings. Reference must be made to the comments provided below.								
each site class zone of influend be articulated in conditions are r	Footing Systems: Reference must be made to AS2870:2011 which indicates footing systems that are appropriate for each site classification. All footings must found within a uniform bearing stratum of suitable strength/material, below the zone of influence of any service trenches, backfill zones, retaining walls or underground structures. Masonry walls should be articulated in accordance with current best practice. Dwelling design must ensure suitable drainage and uniform moisture conditions are maintained in the vicinity of footings. Footing systems must be confirmed by a structural engineer taking into consideration any onsite or offsite constraints.								
Maintenance & soils and in particular	Footing Perfo	rmance' to comments at pect to maintaining good	oout gardens, land I surface drainage	scaping and trees on the . It notes that minor cr	Sheet BTF 18 'Foundation e performance of foundation acking in most structures is ints that can lead to cracking				
Comments, Limitations	, informa	ccessful purchaser must ation made available a ions and conclusions.	t make their own in nd will need to	nterpretations, deduction accept full responsibili	ns and conclusions from the ty for such interpretations,				
	Develo	pment specific geotechn	ical investigations	must be undertaken.					
		nal topsoils / fill may hav	-						
	Site pr uncont	eparation prior to the co rolled fill.	onstruction should	include removal of all	vegetation, topsoil and any				
		v fill must be placed unde be warranted in those fill		tions (AS 3798:2007), c	otherwise Class P conditions				
	Some	variability in subsurface of	conditions must be	anticipated.					
	of inve				vary considerably from time epages are highly likely after				
		ding on the depth of site							
		oove site classification is noved from site and have			aterials/waste and stockpiles				
		commended that footing	•		al engineer.				
	This re	port must be read in con	junction with the a	ttached "Limitations" an	nd notes "About this Report".				
References	AS 287	70:2011, Residential Slat	os and Footings, S	tandards Australia.					
			arthworks for Con	nmercial and Residentia	al Developments, Standards				
Attachmen	Explan	ions & About this Report atory Notes it Log(s) Pit(s) 38,36 g 1							
An	tany Suys		Dou	IGIAS F	Partners				



Douglas Partners Pty Ltd ABN 75 053 980 117 www.douglaspartners.com.au Unit 2, 73 Sheppard Street Hume ACT 2620 PO Box 1487 Fyshwick ACT 2609 Phone (02) 6260 2788

Limitations

Douglas Partners (DP) has prepared this report for the project at Whitlam Stage 3A in accordance with DP's proposal dated 26 November 2021 and acceptance received from Evan Langham dated 15 March 2023. The work was carried out under DP's Conditions of Engagement. This report is provided for the exclusive use of Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd for this project only and for the purposes as described in the report. It should not be used by or relied upon for other projects or purposes on the same or other site or by a third party. Any party so relying upon this report beyond its exclusive use and purpose as stated above, and without the express written consent of DP, does so entirely at its own risk and without recourse to DP for any loss or damage. In preparing this report DP has necessarily relied upon information provided by the client and/or their agents.

The results provided in the report are indicative of the sub-surface conditions on the site only at the specific sampling and/or testing locations, and then only to the depths investigated and at the time the work was carried out. Sub-surface conditions can change abruptly due to variable geological processes and also as a result of human influences. Such changes may occur after DP's field testing has been completed.

DP's advice is based upon the conditions encountered during this investigation. The accuracy of the advice provided by DP in this report may be affected by undetected variations in ground conditions across the site between and beyond the sampling and/or testing locations. The advice may also be limited by budget constraints imposed by others or by site accessibility.

The assessment of atypical safety hazards arising from this advice is restricted to the geotechnical components set out in this report and based on known project conditions and stated design advice and assumptions. While some recommendations for safe controls may be provided, detailed 'safety in design' assessment is outside the current scope of this report and requires additional project data and assessment.

This report must be read in conjunction with all of the attached and should be kept in its entirety without separation of individual pages or sections. DP cannot be held responsible for interpretations or conclusions made by others unless they are supported by an expressed statement, interpretation, outcome or conclusion stated in this report.

This report, or sections from this report, should not be used as part of a specification for a project, without review and agreement by DP. This is because this report has been written as advice and opinion rather than instructions for construction.



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Introduction

These notes have been provided to amplify DP's report in regard to classification methods, field procedures and the comments section. Not all are necessarily relevant to all reports.

DP's reports are based on information gained from limited subsurface excavations and sampling, supplemented by knowledge of local geology and experience. For this reason, they must be regarded as interpretive rather than factual documents, limited to some extent by the scope of information on which they rely.

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Borehole and Test Pit Logs

The borehole and test pit logs presented in this report are an engineering and/or geological interpretation of the subsurface conditions, and their reliability will depend to some extent on frequency of sampling and the method of drilling or excavation. Ideally, continuous undisturbed sampling or core drilling will provide the most reliable assessment, but this is not always practicable or possible to justify on economic grounds. In any case the boreholes and test pits represent only a very small sample of the total subsurface profile.

Interpretation of the information and its application to design and construction should therefore take into account the spacing of boreholes or pits, the frequency of sampling, and the possibility of other than 'straight line' variations between the test locations.

Groundwater

Where groundwater levels are measured in boreholes there are several potential problems, namely:

 In low permeability soils groundwater may enter the hole very slowly or perhaps not at all during the time the hole is left open;

- A localised, perched water table may lead to an erroneous indication of the true water table;
- Water table levels will vary from time to time with seasons or recent weather changes. They may not be the same at the time of construction as are indicated in the report; and
- The use of water or mud as a drilling fluid will mask any groundwater inflow. Water has to be blown out of the hole and drilling mud must first be washed out of the hole if water measurements are to be made.

More reliable measurements can be made by installing standpipes which are read at intervals over several days, or perhaps weeks for low permeability soils. Piezometers, sealed in a particular stratum, may be advisable in low permeability soils or where there may be interference from a perched water table.

Reports

The report has been prepared by qualified personnel, is based on the information obtained from field and laboratory testing, and has been undertaken to current engineering standards of interpretation and analysis. Where the report has been prepared for a specific design proposal, the information and interpretation may not be relevant if the design proposal is changed. If this happens, DP will be pleased to review the report and the sufficiency of the investigation work.

Every care is taken with the report as it relates to interpretation of subsurface conditions, discussion of geotechnical and environmental aspects, and recommendations or suggestions for design and construction. However, DP cannot always anticipate or assume responsibility for:

- Unexpected variations in ground conditions. The potential for this will depend partly on borehole or pit spacing and sampling frequency;
- Changes in policy or interpretations of policy by statutory authorities; or
- The actions of contractors responding to commercial pressures.

If these occur, DP will be pleased to assist with investigations or advice to resolve the matter.

About this Report

Site Anomalies

In the event that conditions encountered on site during construction appear to vary from those which were expected from the information contained in the report, DP requests that it be immediately notified. Most problems are much more readily resolved when conditions are exposed rather than at some later stage, well after the event.

Information for Contractual Purposes

Where information obtained from this report is provided for tendering purposes, it is recommended that all information, including the written report and discussion, be made available. In circumstances where the discussion or comments section is not relevant to the contractual situation, it may be appropriate to prepare a specially edited document. DP would be pleased to assist in this regard and/or to make additional report copies available for contract purposes at a nominal charge.

Site Inspection

The company will always be pleased to provide engineering inspection services for geotechnical and environmental aspects of work to which this report is related. This could range from a site visit to confirm that conditions exposed are as expected, to full time engineering presence on site.

Sampling

Sampling is carried out during drilling or test pitting to allow engineering examination (and laboratory testing where required) of the soil or rock.

Disturbed samples taken during drilling provide information on colour, type, inclusions and, depending upon the degree of disturbance, some information on strength and structure.

Undisturbed samples are taken by pushing a thinwalled sample tube into the soil and withdrawing it to obtain a sample of the soil in a relatively undisturbed state. Such samples yield information on structure and strength, and are necessary for laboratory determination of shear strength and compressibility. Undisturbed sampling is generally effective only in cohesive soils.

Test Pits

Test pits are usually excavated with a backhoe or an excavator, allowing close examination of the insitu soil if it is safe to enter into the pit. The depth of excavation is limited to about 3 m for a backhoe and up to 6 m for a large excavator. A potential disadvantage of this investigation method is the larger area of disturbance to the site.

Large Diameter Augers

Boreholes can be drilled using a rotating plate or short spiral auger, generally 300 mm or larger in diameter commonly mounted on a standard piling rig. The cuttings are returned to the surface at intervals (generally not more than 0.5 m) and are disturbed but usually unchanged in moisture content. Identification of soil strata is generally much more reliable than with continuous spiral flight augers, and is usually supplemented by occasional undisturbed tube samples.

Continuous Spiral Flight Augers

The borehole is advanced using 90-115 mm diameter continuous spiral flight augers which are withdrawn at intervals to allow sampling or in-situ testing. This is a relatively economical means of drilling in clays and sands above the water table. Samples are returned to the surface, or may be collected after withdrawal of the auger flights, but they are disturbed and may be mixed with soils from the sides of the hole. Information from the drilling (as distinct from specific sampling by SPTs or undisturbed samples) is of relatively low reliability, due to the remoulding, possible mixing or softening of samples by groundwater.

Non-core Rotary Drilling

The borehole is advanced using a rotary bit, with water or drilling mud being pumped down the drill rods and returned up the annulus, carrying the drill cuttings. Only major changes in stratification can be determined from the cuttings, together with some information from the rate of penetration. Where drilling mud is used this can mask the cuttings and reliable identification is only possible from separate sampling such as SPTs.

Continuous Core Drilling

A continuous core sample can be obtained using a diamond tipped core barrel, usually with a 50 mm internal diameter. Provided full core recovery is achieved (which is not always possible in weak rocks and granular soils), this technique provides a very reliable method of investigation.

Standard Penetration Tests

Standard penetration tests (SPT) are used as a means of estimating the density or strength of soils and also of obtaining a relatively undisturbed sample. The test procedure is described in Australian Standard 1289, Methods of Testing Soils for Engineering Purposes - Test 6.3.1.

The test is carried out in a borehole by driving a 50 mm diameter split sample tube under the impact of a 63 kg hammer with a free fall of 760 mm. It is normal for the tube to be driven in three successive 150 mm increments and the 'N' value is taken as the number of blows for the last 300 mm. In dense sands, very hard clays or weak rock, the full 450 mm penetration may not be practicable and the test is discontinued.

The test results are reported in the following form.

 In the case where full penetration is obtained with successive blow counts for each 150 mm of, say, 4, 6 and 7 as:

4,6,7 N=13

In the case where the test is discontinued before the full penetration depth, say after 15 blows for the first 150 mm and 30 blows for the next 40 mm as:

15, 30/40 mm

Sampling Methods

The results of the SPT tests can be related empirically to the engineering properties of the soils.

Dynamic Cone Penetrometer Tests / Perth Sand Penetrometer Tests

Dynamic penetrometer tests (DCP or PSP) are carried out by driving a steel rod into the ground using a standard weight of hammer falling a specified distance. As the rod penetrates the soil the number of blows required to penetrate each successive 150 mm depth are recorded. Normally there is a depth limitation of 1.2 m, but this may be extended in certain conditions by the use of extension rods. Two types of penetrometer are commonly used.

- Perth sand penetrometer a 16 mm diameter flat ended rod is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 600 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.3). This test was developed for testing the density of sands and is mainly used in granular soils and filling.
- Cone penetrometer a 16 mm diameter rod with a 20 mm diameter cone end is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 510 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.2). This test was developed initially for pavement subgrade investigations, and correlations of the test results with California Bearing Ratio have been published by various road authorities.

Soil Descriptions

Description and Classification Methods

The methods of description and classification of soils and rocks used in this report are generally based on Australian Standard AS1726:2017, Geotechnical Site Investigations. In general, the descriptions include strength or density, colour, structure, soil or rock type and inclusions.

Soil Types

Soil types are described according to the predominant particle size, qualified by the grading of other particles present:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Boulder	>200
Cobble	63 - 200
Gravel	2.36 - 63
Sand	0.075 - 2.36
Silt	0.002 - 0.075
Clay	<0.002

The sand and gravel sizes can be further subdivided as follows:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Coarse gravel	19 - 63
Medium gravel	6.7 - 19
Fine gravel	2.36 - 6.7
Coarse sand	0.6 - 2.36
Medium sand	0.21 - 0.6
Fine sand	0.075 - 0.21

Definitions of grading terms used are:

- Well graded a good representation of all particle sizes
- Poorly graded an excess or deficiency of particular sizes within the specified range
- Uniformly graded an excess of a particular particle size
- Gap graded a deficiency of a particular particle size with the range

The proportions of secondary constituents of soils are described as follows:

In fine grained soils	(>35% fines)
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Term	Proportion	Example
	of sand or	
	gravel	
And	Specify	Clay (60%) and
		Sand (40%)
Adjective	>30%	Sandy Clay
With	15 – 30%	Clay with sand
Trace	0 - 15%	Clay with trace
		sand

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)

with	clays	or	silts	

Term	Proportion of fines	Example			
And	Specify	Sand (70%) and Clay (30%)			
Adjective	>12%	Clayey Sand			
With	5 - 12%	Sand with clay			
Trace	0 - 5%	Sand with trace			
		clay			

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)
 with coarser fraction

Term	Proportion	Example			
	of coarser				
	fraction				
And	Specify	Sand (60%) and			
		Gravel (40%)			
Adjective	>30%	Gravelly Sand			
With	15 - 30%	Sand with gravel			
Trace	0 - 15%	Sand with trace			
		gravel			

The presence of cobbles and boulders shall be specifically noted by beginning the description with 'Mix of Soil and Cobbles/Boulders' with the word order indicating the dominant first and the proportion of cobbles and boulders described together.

Soil Descriptions

Cohesive Soils

Cohesive soils, such as clays, are classified on the basis of undrained shear strength. The strength may be measured by laboratory testing, or estimated by field tests or engineering examination. The strength terms are defined as follows:

Description	Abbreviation	Undrained shear strength (kPa)
Very soft	VS	<12
Soft	S	12 - 25
Firm	F	25 - 50
Stiff	St	50 - 100
Very stiff	VSt	100 - 200
Hard	Н	>200
Friable	Fr	-

Cohesionless Soils

Cohesionless soils, such as clean sands, are classified on the basis of relative density, generally from the results of standard penetration tests (SPT), cone penetration tests (CPT) or dynamic penetrometers (PSP). The relative density terms are given below:

Relative Density	Abbreviation	Density Index (%)
Very loose	VL	<15
Loose	L	15-35
Medium dense	MD	35-65
Dense	D	65-85
Very dense	VD	>85

Soil Origin

It is often difficult to accurately determine the origin of a soil. Soils can generally be classified as:

- Residual soil derived from in-situ weathering of the underlying rock;
- Extremely weathered material formed from in-situ weathering of geological formations. Has soil strength but retains the structure or fabric of the parent rock;
- Alluvial soil deposited by streams and rivers;

- Estuarine soil deposited in coastal estuaries;
- Marine soil deposited in a marine environment;
- Lacustrine soil deposited in freshwater lakes;
- Aeolian soil carried and deposited by wind;
- Colluvial soil soil and rock debris transported down slopes by gravity;
- Topsoil mantle of surface soil, often with high levels of organic material.
- Fill any material which has been moved by man.

Moisture Condition – Coarse Grained Soils For coarse grained soils the moisture condition

should be described by appearance and feel using the following terms:

- Dry (D) Non-cohesive and free-running.
- Moist (M) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together. Sand forms weak ball but breaks easily.

Wet (W) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together, free water forms when handling.

Moisture Condition – Fine Grained Soils

For fine grained soils the assessment of moisture content is relative to their plastic limit or liquid limit, as follows:

- 'Moist, dry of plastic limit' or 'w <PL' (i.e. hard and friable or powdery).
- 'Moist, near plastic limit' or 'w ≈ PL (i.e. soil can be moulded at moisture content approximately equal to the plastic limit).
- 'Moist, wet of plastic limit' or 'w >PL' (i.e. soils usually weakened and free water forms on the hands when handling).
- 'Wet' or 'w ≈LL' (i.e. near the liquid limit).
- 'Wet' or 'w >LL' (i.e. wet of the liquid limit).

Rock Descriptions

Rock Strength

Rock strength is defined by the Unconfined Compressive Strength and it refers to the strength of the rock substance and not the strength of the overall rock mass, which may be considerably weaker due to defects.

The Point Load Strength Index $I_{S(50)}$ is commonly used to provide an estimate of the rock strength and site specific correlations should be developed to allow UCS values to be determined. The point load strength test procedure is described by Australian Standard AS4133.4.1-2007. The terms used to describe rock strength are as follows:

Strength Term	Abbreviation	Unconfined Compressive Strength MPa	Point Load Index * Is ₍₅₀₎ MPa
Very low	VL	0.6 - 2	0.03 - 0.1
Low	L	2 - 6	0.1 - 0.3
Medium	М	6 - 20	0.3 - 1.0
High	Н	20 - 60	1 - 3
Very high	VH	60 - 200	3 - 10
Extremely high	EH	>200	>10

* Assumes a ratio of 20:1 for UCS to $I_{S(50)}$. It should be noted that the UCS to $I_{S(50)}$ ratio varies significantly for different rock types and specific ratios should be determined for each site.

Degree of Weathering

The degree of weathering of rock is classified as follows:

Term	Abbreviation	Description
Residual Soil	RS	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are no longer visible, but the soil has not been significantly transported.
Extremely weathered	XW	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are still visible
Highly weathered	HW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable. Rock strength is significantly changed by weathering. Some primary minerals have weathered to clay minerals. Porosity may be increased by leaching, or may be decreased due to deposition of weathering products in pores.
Moderately weathered	MW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable, but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Slightly weathered	SW	Rock is partially discoloured with staining or bleaching along joints but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Fresh	FR	No signs of decomposition or staining.
Note: If HW and MW	cannot be differentia	ated use DW (see below)
Distinctly weathered	DW	Rock strength usually changed by weathering. The rock may be highly discoloured, usually by iron staining. Porosity may be increased by leaching or may be decreased due to deposition of weathered products in pores.

Rock Descriptions

Degree of Fracturing

The following classification applies to the spacing of natural fractures in diamond drill cores. It includes bedding plane partings, joints and other defects, but excludes drilling breaks.

Term	Description
Fragmented	Fragments of <20 mm
Highly Fractured	Core lengths of 20-40 mm with occasional fragments
Fractured	Core lengths of 30-100 mm with occasional shorter and longer sections
Slightly Fractured	Core lengths of 300 mm or longer with occasional sections of 100-300 mm
Unbroken	Core contains very few fractures

Rock Quality Designation

The quality of the cored rock can be measured using the Rock Quality Designation (RQD) index, defined as:

RQD % = <u>cumulative length of 'sound' core sections > 100 mm long</u> total drilled length of section being assessed

where 'sound' rock is assessed to be rock of low strength or stronger. The RQD applies only to natural fractures. If the core is broken by drilling or handling (i.e. drilling breaks) then the broken pieces are fitted back together and are not included in the calculation of RQD.

Stratification Spacing

For sedimentary rocks the following terms may be used to describe the spacing of bedding partings:

Term	Separation of Stratification Planes
Thinly laminated	< 6 mm
Laminated	6 mm to 20 mm
Very thinly bedded	20 mm to 60 mm
Thinly bedded	60 mm to 0.2 m
Medium bedded	0.2 m to 0.6 m
Thickly bedded	0.6 m to 2 m
Very thickly bedded	> 2 m

Symbols & Abbreviations

Introduction

These notes summarise abbreviations commonly used on borehole logs and test pit reports.

Drilling or Excavation Methods

С	Core drilling
R	Rotary drilling
SFA	Spiral flight augers
NMLC	Diamond core - 52 mm dia
NQ	Diamond core - 47 mm dia
HQ	Diamond core - 63 mm dia
PQ	Diamond core - 81 mm dia

Water

\triangleright	Water seep
\bigtriangledown	Water level

Sampling and Testing

- A Auger sample
- B Bulk sample
- D Disturbed sample
- E Environmental sample
- U₅₀ Undisturbed tube sample (50mm)
- W Water sample
- pp Pocket penetrometer (kPa)
- PID Photo ionisation detector
- PL Point load strength Is(50) MPa
- S Standard Penetration Test
- V Shear vane (kPa)

Description of Defects in Rock

The abbreviated descriptions of the defects should be in the following order: Depth, Type, Orientation, Coating, Shape, Roughness and Other. Drilling and handling breaks are not usually included on the logs.

Defect Type

Bedding plane
Clay seam
Cleavage
Crushed zone
Decomposed seam
Fault
Joint
Lamination
Parting
Sheared Zone
Vein

Orientation

The inclination of defects is always measured from the perpendicular to the core axis.

- h horizontal
- v vertical
- sh sub-horizontal

ari

sv sub-vertical

Coating or Infilling Term

clean
coating
healed
infilled
stained
tight
veneer

Coating Descriptor

ca	calcite
cbs	carbonaceous
cly	clay
fe	iron oxide
mn	manganese
slt	silty

Shape

cu	curved
ir	irregular
pl	planar
st	stepped
un	undulating

Roughness

ро	polished
ro	rough
sl	slickensided
sm	smooth
vr	very rough

Other

fg	fragmented
bnd	band
qtz	quartz

Symbols & Abbreviations

Graphic Symbols for Soil and Rock

General

A. A. A. Z	

Asphalt Road base

Concrete

Filling

Soils



Topsoil Peat

Clay

Silty clay

Sandy clay

Gravelly clay

Shaly clay

Silt

Clayey silt

Sandy silt

Sand

Clayey sand

Silty sand

Gravel

Sandy gravel

Cobbles, boulders

Talus

Sedimentary Rocks



Metamorphic Rocks

Slate, phyllite, schist

Quartzite

Gneiss

Igneous Rocks

Granite

Dolerite, basalt, andesite

Dacite, epidote

Tuff, breccia

Porphyry





FOUNDATION MAINTENANCE AND FOOTING PERFORMANCE



Understanding and preventing soil-related building movement

This Building Technology Resource is designed to identify causes of soil-related building movement, and to suggest methods of prevention of resultant cracking.

Buildings can and often do move. This movement can be up, down, lateral or rotational. The fundamental cause of movement in buildings can usually be related to one or more problems in the foundation soil. It is important for the home owner to identify the soil type in order to ascertain the measures that should be put in place in order to ensure that problems in the foundation soil can be prevented, thus protecting against building movement.

SOIL TYPES

The types of soils usually present under the topsoil in land zoned for residential buildings can be split into two approximate groups – granular and clay. Quite often, foundation soil is a mixture of both types. The general problems associated with soils having granular content are usually caused by erosion. Clay soils are subject to saturation and swell/shrink problems.

Classifications for a given area can generally be obtained by application to the local authority, but these are sometimes unreliable and if there is doubt, a geotechnical report should be commissioned. As most buildings suffering movement problems are founded on clay soils, there is an emphasis on classification of soils according to the amount of swell and shrinkage they experience with variations of water content. Table 1 below is a reproduction of Table 2.1 from Australian Standard AS 2870-2011, Residential slabs and footings.

CAUSES OF MOVEMENT

SETTLEMENT DUE TO CONSTRUCTION

There are two types of settlement that occur as a result of construction:

- Immediate settlement occurs when a building is first placed on its foundation soil, as a result of compaction of the soil under the weight of the structure. The cohesive quality of clay soil mitigates against this, but granular (particularly sandy) soil is susceptible.
- Consolidation settlement is a feature of clay soil and may take place because of the expulsion of moisture from the soil or because of the soil's lack of resistance to local compressive or shear stresses. This will usually take place during the first few months after construction but has been known to take many years in exceptional cases.

These problems may be the province of the builder and should be taken into consideration as part of the preparation of the site for construction.

EROSION

All soils are prone to erosion, but sandy soil is particularly susceptible to being washed away. Even clay with a sand component of say 10% or more can suffer from erosion.

SATURATION

This is particularly a problem in clay soils. Saturation creates a boglike suspension of the soil that causes it to lose virtually all of its bearing capacity. To a lesser degree, sand is affected by saturation because saturated sand may undergo a reduction in volume, particularly imported sand fill for bedding and blinding layers. However, this usually occurs as immediate settlement and should normally be the province of the builder.

SEASONAL SWELLING AND SHRINKAGE OF SOIL

All clays react to the presence of water by slowly absorbing it, making the soil increase in volume (see table below, from AS 2870). The degree of increase varies considerably between different clays, as does the degree of decrease during the subsequent drying out caused by fair weather periods. Because of the low absorption and expulsion rate, this phenomenon will not usually be noticeable unless there are prolonged rainy or dry periods, usually of weeks or months, depending on the land and soil characteristics.

The swelling of soil creates an upward force on the footings of the building, and shrinkage creates subsidence that takes away the support needed by the footing to retain equilibrium.

SHEAR FAILURE

This phenomenon occurs when the foundation soil does not have sufficient strength to support the weight of the footing. There are two major post-construction causes:

- Significant load increase.
- Reduction of lateral support of the soil under the footing due to erosion or excavation.

In clay soil, shear failure can be caused by saturation of the soil adjacent to or under the footing.

TREE ROOT GROWTH

Trees and shrubs that are allowed to grow in the vicinity of footings can cause foundation soil movement in two ways:

 Roots that grow under footings may increase in cross-sectional size, exerting upward pressure on footings.

TABLE 1. GENERAL DEFINITIONS OF SITE CLASSES.

Class	Foundation
A	Most sand and rock sites with little or no ground movement from moisture changes
S	Slightly reactive clay sites, which may experience only slight ground movement from moisture changes
М	Moderately reactive clay or silt sites, which may experience moderate ground movement from moisture changes
H1	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience high ground movement from moisture changes
H2	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience very high ground movement from moisture changes
F	Extremely reactive sites, which may experience extreme ground movement from moisture changes

Source: Reproduced with the permission of Standards Australia Limited © 2011. Copyright in AS 2870-2011 Residential slabs and footings vests in Standards Australia Limited.



FIGURE 1 Trees can cause shrinkage and damage.

 Roots in the vicinity of footings will absorb much of the moisture in the foundation soil, causing shrinkage or subsidence.

UNEVENNESS OF MOVEMENT

The types of ground movement described above usually occur unevenly throughout the building's foundation soil. Settlement due to construction tends to be uneven because of:

- Differing compaction of foundation soil prior to construction.
- Differing moisture content of foundation soil prior to construction.

Movement due to non-construction causes is usually more uneven still. Erosion can undermine a footing that traverses the flow or can create the conditions for shear failure by eroding soil adjacent to a footing that runs in the same direction as the flow.

Saturation of clay foundation soil may occur where subfloor walls create a dam that makes water pond. It can also occur wherever there is a source of water near footings in clay soil. This leads to a severe reduction in the strength of the soil which may create local shear failure.

Seasonal swelling and shrinkage of clay soil affects the perimeter of the building first, then gradually spreads to the interior through absorption. The swelling process will usually begin at the uphill extreme of the building, or on the weather side where the land is flat. Shrinkage usually begins on the side of the building where the sun's heat is greatest.

EFFECTS OF UNEVEN SOIL MOVEMENT ON STRUCTURES

EROSION AND SATURATION

Erosion removes the support from under footings, tending to create subsidence of the part of the structure under which it occurs. Brickwork walls will resist the stress created by this removal of support by bridging the gap or cantilevering until the bricks or the mortar bedding fail. Older masonry has little resistance. Evidence of failure varies according to circumstances and symptoms may include:

- Step cracking in the mortar beds in the body of the wall or above/below openings such as doors or windows.
- Vertical cracking in the bricks (usually but not necessarily in line with the vertical beds or perpends).

Isolated piers affected by erosion or saturation of foundations will eventually lose contact with the bearers they support and may tilt or fall over. The floors that have lost this support will become bouncy, sometimes rattling ornaments etc.

SEASONAL SWELLING/SHRINKAGE IN CLAY

Swelling foundation soil due to rainy periods first lifts the most exposed extremities of the footing system, then the remainder of the perimeter footings while gradually permeating inside the building footprint to lift internal footings. This swelling first tends to create a dish effect, because the external footings are pushed higher than the internal ones.

The first noticeable symptom may be that the floor appears slightly dished. This is often accompanied by some doors binding on the floor or the door head, together with some cracking of cornice mitres. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the floor can be bouncy. Externally there may be visible dishing of the hip or ridge lines.

As the moisture absorption process completes its journey to the innermost areas of the building, the internal footings will rise. If the spread of moisture is roughly even, it may be that the symptoms will temporarily disappear, but it is more likely that swelling will be uneven, creating a difference rather than a disappearance in symptoms. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the isolated piers will rise more easily than the strip footings or piers under walls, creating noticeable doming of flooring.

As the weather pattern changes and the soil begins to dry out, the external footings will be first affected, beginning with the locations where the sun's effect is strongest. This has the effect of lowering the external footings. The doming is accentuated, and cracking reduces or disappears where it occurred because of dishing, but other cracks open up. The roof lines may become convex.

Doming and dishing are also affected by weather in other ways. In areas where warm, wet summers and cooler dry winters prevail, water migration tends to be toward the interior and doming will be accentuated, whereas where summers are dry, and winters are cold and wet, migration tends to be toward the exterior and the underlying propensity is toward dishing.

MOVEMENT CAUSED BY TREE ROOTS

In general, growing roots will exert an upward pressure on footings, whereas soil subject to drying because of tree or shrub roots will tend to remove support from under footings by inducing shrinkage.

COMPLICATIONS CAUSED BY THE STRUCTURE ITSELF

Most forces that the soil causes to be exerted on structures are vertical – i.e. either up or down. However, because these forces are seldom spread evenly around the footings, and because the building resists uneven movement because of its rigidity, forces are exerted from one part of the building to another. The net result of all these forces is usually rotational. This resultant force often complicates the diagnosis because the visible symptoms do not simply reflect the original cause. A common symptom is binding of doors on the vertical member of the frame.

EFFECTS ON FULL MASONRY STRUCTURES

Brickwork will resist cracking where it can. It will attempt to span areas that lose support because of subsided foundations or raised points. It is therefore usual to see cracking at weak points, such as openings for windows or doors.

In the event of construction settlement, cracking will usually remain unchanged after the process of settlement has ceased.

With local shear or erosion, cracking will usually continue to develop until the original cause has been remedied, or until the subsidence has completely neutralised the affected portion of footing and the structure has stabilised on other footings that remain effective.

In the case of swell/shrink effects, the brickwork will in some cases return to its original position after completion of a cycle, however it is more likely that the rotational effect will not be exactly reversed, and it is also usual that brickwork will settle in its new position and will resist the forces trying to return it to its original position. This means that in a case where swelling takes place after construction and cracking occurs, the cracking is likely to at least partly remain after the shrink segment of the cycle is complete. Thus, each time the cycle is repeated, the likelihood is that the cracking will become wider until the sections of brickwork become virtually independent.

With repeated cycles, once the cracking is established, if there is no other complication, it is normal for the incidence of cracking to stabilise, as the building has the articulation it needs to cope with the problem. This is by no means always the case, however, and monitoring of cracks in walls and floors should always be treated seriously.

Upheaval caused by growth of tree roots under footings is not a simple vertical shear stress. There is a tendency for the root to also

exert lateral forces that attempt to separate sections of brickwork after initial cracking has occurred.

The normal structural arrangement is that the inner leaf of brickwork in the external walls and at least some of the internal walls (depending on the roof type) comprise the load-bearing structure on which any upper floors, ceilings and the roof are supported. In these cases, it is internally visible cracking that should be the main focus of attention, however there are a few examples of dwellings whose external leaf of masonry plays some supporting role, so this should be checked if there is any doubt. In any case, externally visible cracking is important as a guide to stresses on the structure generally, and it should also be remembered that the external walls must be capable of supporting themselves.

EFFECTS ON FRAMED STRUCTURES

Timber or steel framed buildings are less likely to exhibit cracking due to swell/shrink than masonry buildings because of their flexibility. Also, the doming/dishing effects tend to be lower because of the lighter weight of walls. The main risks to framed buildings are encountered because of the isolated pier footings used under walls. Where erosion or saturation causes a footing to fall away, this can double the span which a wall must bridge. This additional stress can create cracking in wall linings, particularly where there is a weak point in the structure caused by a door or window opening. It is, however, unlikely that framed structures will be so stressed as to suffer serious damage without first exhibiting some or all of the above symptoms for a considerable period. The same warning period should apply in the case of upheaval. It should be noted, however, that where framed buildings are supported by strip footings there is only one leaf of brickwork and therefore the externally visible walls are the supporting structure for the building. In this case, the subfloor masonry walls can be expected to behave as full brickwork walls.

EFFECTS ON BRICK VENEER STRUCTURES

Because the load-bearing structure of a brick veneer building is the frame that makes up the interior leaf of the external walls plus perhaps the internal walls, depending on the type of roof, the building can be expected to behave as a framed structure, except that the external masonry will behave in a similar way to the external leaf of a full masonry structure.

WATER SERVICE AND DRAINAGE

Where a water service pipe, a sewer or stormwater drainage pipe is in the vicinity of a building, a water leak can cause erosion, swelling or saturation of susceptible soil. Even a minuscule leak can be enough to saturate a clay foundation. A leaking tap near a building can have the same effect. In addition, trenches containing pipes can become watercourses even though backfilled, particularly where broken rubble is used as fill. Water that runs along these trenches can be responsible for serious erosion, interstrata seepage into subfloor areas and saturation.

Pipe leakage and trench water flows also encourage tree and shrub roots to the source of water, complicating and exacerbating the problem. Poor roof plumbing can result in large volumes of rainwater being concentrated in a small area of soil:

- Incorrect falls in roof guttering may result in overflows, as may gutters blocked with leaves etc.
- Corroded guttering or downpipes can spill water to ground.
- Downpipes not positively connected to a proper stormwater collection system will direct a concentration of water to soil that is directly adjacent to footings, sometimes causing largescale problems such as erosion, saturation and migration of water under the building.

SERIOUSNESS OF CRACKING

In general, most cracking found in masonry walls is a cosmetic nuisance only and can be kept in repair or even ignored. Table 2 below is a reproduction of Table C1 of AS 2870-2011. AS 2870-2011 also publishes figures relating to cracking in concrete floors, however because wall cracking will usually reach the critical point significantly earlier than cracking in slabs, this table is not reproduced here.

PREVENTION AND CURE

PLUMBING

Where building movement is caused by water service, roof plumbing, sewer or stormwater failure, the remedy is to repair the problem. It is prudent, however, to consider also rerouting pipes away from the building where possible and relocating taps to positions where any leakage will not direct water to the building vicinity. Even where gully traps are present, there is sometimes sufficient spill to create erosion or saturation, particularly in modern installations using smaller diameter PVC fixtures. Indeed, some gully traps are not situated directly under the taps that are installed to charge them, with the result that water from the tap may enter the backfilled trench that houses the sewer piping. If the trench has been poorly backfilled, the water will either pond or flow along the bottom of the trench. As these trenches usually run alongside the footings and can be at a similar depth, it is not hard to see how any water that is thus directed into a trench can easily affect the foundation's ability to support footings or even gain entry to the subfloor area.

GROUND DRAINAGE

In all soils there is the capacity for water to travel on the surface and below it. Surface water flows can be established by inspection during and after heavy or prolonged rain. If necessary, a grated drain system connected to the stormwater collection system is usually an easy solution.

It is, however, sometimes necessary when attempting to prevent water migration that testing be carried out to establish watertable height and subsoil water flows. This subject may be regarded as an area for an expert consultant.

PROTECTION OF THE BUILDING PERIMETER

It is essential to remember that the soil that affects footings extends well beyond the actual building line. Watering of garden plants, shrubs and trees causes some of the most serious water problems.

For this reason, particularly where problems exist or are likely to occur, it is recommended that an apron of paving be installed around as much of the building perimeter as necessary. This paving should extend outwards a minimum of 900 mm (more in highly reactive soil) and should have a minimum fall away from the building of 1:60. The finished paving should be no less than 100 mm below brick vent bases.

It is prudent to relocate drainage pipes away from this paving, if possible, to avoid complications from future leakage. If this is not practical, earthenware pipes should be replaced by PVC and backfilling should be of the same soil type as the surrounding soil and compacted to the same density.

Except in areas where freezing of water is an issue, it is wise to remove taps in the building area and relocate them well away from the building – preferably not uphill.

It may be desirable to install a grated drain at the outside edge of the paving on the uphill side of the building. If subsoil drainage is needed this can be installed under the surface drain.

CONDENSATION

In buildings with a subfloor void, such as where bearers and joists support flooring, insufficient ventilation creates ideal conditions for condensation, particularly where there is little clearance between the floor and the ground. Condensation adds to the moisture already present in the subfloor and significantly slows the process of drying out. Installation of an adequate subfloor ventilation system, either natural or mechanical, is desirable.

TABLE 2. CLASSIFICATION OF DAMAGE WITH REFERENCE TO WALLS.

Description of typical damage and required repair	Approximate crack width limit	Damage category
Hairline cracks	<0.1 mm	0 – Negligible
Fine cracks which do not need repair	<1 mm	1 – Very Slight
Cracks noticeable but easily filled. Doors and windows stick slightly.	<5 mm	2 – Slight
Cracks can be repaired and possibly a small amount of wall will need to be replaced. Doors and windows stick. Service pipes can fracture. Weathertightness often impaired.	5—15 mm (or a number of cracks 3 mm or more in one group)	3 – Moderate
Extensive repair work involving breaking-out and replacing sections of walls, especially over doors and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of	15–25 mm but also depends on number of cracks	4 – Severe

and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of bearing in beams. Service pipes disrupted.

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Warning: Although this Building Technology Resource deals with cracking in buildings, it should be said that subfloor moisture can result in the development of other problems, notably:

- Water that is transmitted into masonry, metal or timber building elements causes damage and/or decay to those elements.
- High subfloor humidity and moisture content create an ideal environment for various pests, including termites and spiders, and mould.
- Where high moisture levels are transmitted to the flooring and walls, an increase in the dust mite count can ensue within the living areas. Dust mites, as well as dampness in general, can be a health hazard to inhabitants, particularly those who are abnormally susceptible to respiratory ailments.

THE GARDEN

The ideal vegetation layout is to have lawn or plants that require only light watering immediately adjacent to the drainage or paving edge, then more demanding plants, shrubs and trees spread out in that order.

Overwatering due to misuse of automatic watering systems is a common cause of saturation and water migration under footings. If it is necessary to use these systems, it is important to remove garden beds to a completely safe distance from buildings.

EXISTING TREES

Where a tree is causing a problem of soil drying or there is the existence or threat of upheaval of footings, if the offending roots are subsidiary and their removal will not significantly damage the tree, they should be severed and a concrete or metal barrier placed vertically in the soil to prevent future root growth in the direction of the building. If it is not possible to remove the relevant roots without damage to the tree, an application to remove the tree should be made to the local authority. A prudent plan is to transplant likely offenders before they become a problem.

INFORMATION ON TREES, PLANTS AND SHRUBS

State departments overseeing agriculture can give information regarding root patterns, volume of water needed and safe distance from buildings of most species. Botanic gardens are also sources of information.



FIGURE 2 Gardens for a reactive site.

EXCAVATION

Excavation around footings must be properly engineered. Soil supporting footings can only be safely excavated at an angle that allows the soil under the footing to remain stable. This angle is called the angle of repose (or friction) and varies significantly between soil types and conditions. Removal of soil within the angle of repose will cause subsidence.

REMEDIATION

Where erosion has occurred that has washed away soil adjacent to footings, soil of the same classification should be introduced and compacted to the same density. Where footings have been undermined, augmentation or other specialist work may be required. Remediation of footings and foundations is generally the realm of a specialist consultant.

Where isolated footings rise and fall because of swell/shrink effect, the home owner may be tempted to alleviate floor bounce by filling the gap that has appeared between the bearer and the pier with blocking. The danger here is that when the next swell segment of the cycle occurs, the extra blocking will push the floor up into an accentuated dome and may also cause local shear failure in the soil. If it is necessary to use blocking, it should be by a pair of fine wedges and monitoring should be carried out fortnightly.



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TERMS AND CONDITIONS: BUILDING TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

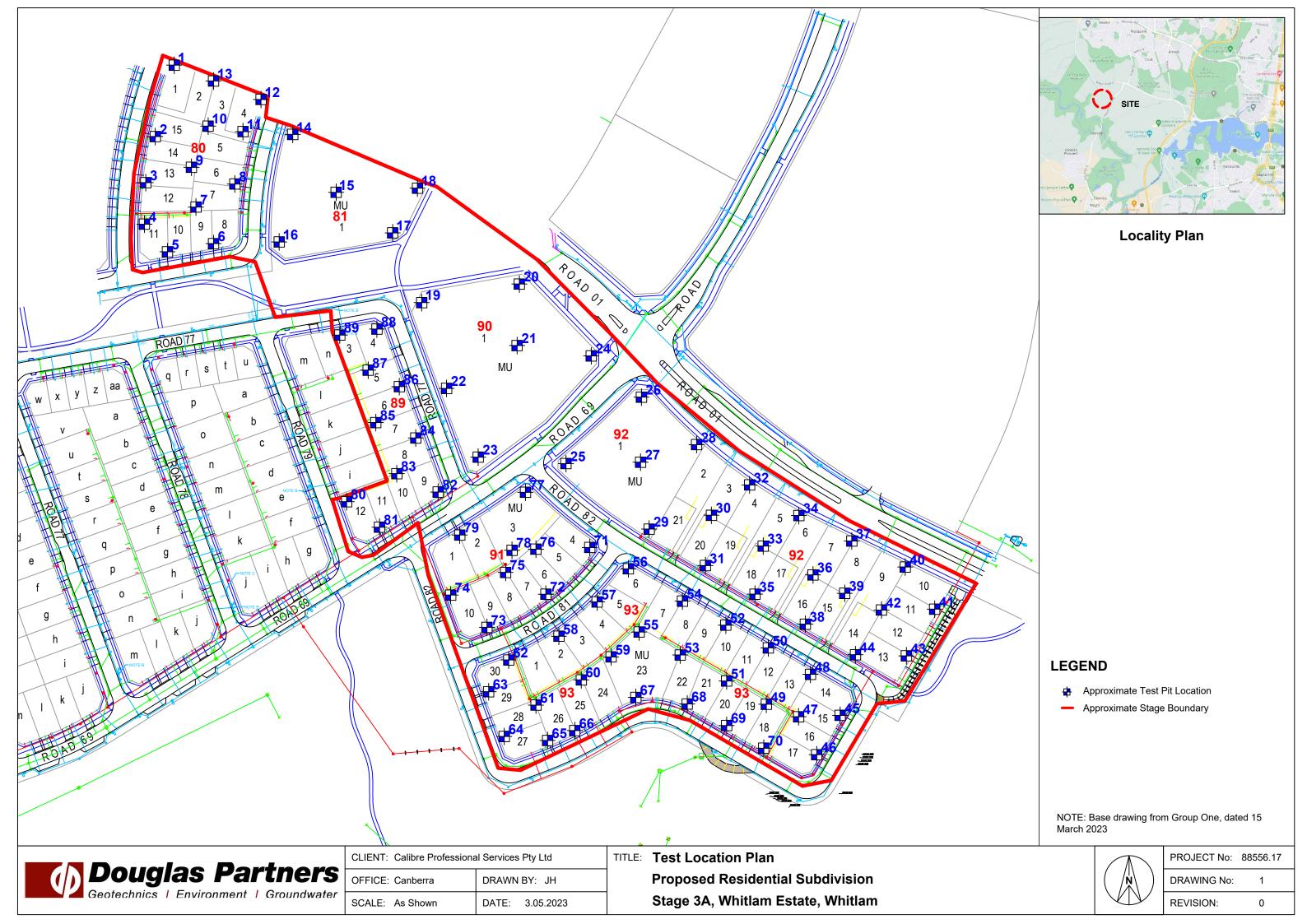
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TEST PIT LOG

Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd

Proposed Residential Subdivision

Stage 3A, Whitlam

CLIENT:

PROJECT:

LOCATION:

SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202767 NORTHING: 603814

PIT No: 36 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

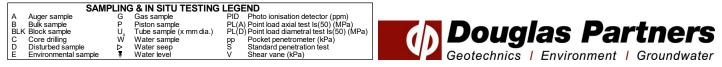
	Depth	Description	hic				& In Situ Testing	er	Dynamic	Penetromet	er Test
RL	(m)	of Strata	Graphic Log	Type	Depth	Sample	Results & Comments	Water	(blo	ws per mm)
	1	Strata FILL/Silty Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace gravel, trace cobbles, w <pl, FIL</pl, 		D	0.5	Sa				10 15	20
-	1.4 - 1.8 -	Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, red brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace ironstone nodules, w <pl, estimated stiff to very stiff, residual Pit discontinued at 1.8m -Limit of investigation</pl, 		D	1.5				- -		
		306 CR fitted with a 450mm wide toothed bucket			GGE) : JH			EY DATUM:	MGA94 7	2000 55

LOGGED: JH

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3 □ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



TEST PIT LOG

CLIENT: PROJECT: LOCATION: Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd Proposed Residential Subdivision Stage 3A, Whitlam SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202762 NORTHING: 603784

PIT No: 38 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

		Description	. <u>0</u>		Sam	pling &	& In Situ Testing				
R	Depth (m)	of	Graphic Log	Type	oth	Sample	Results &	Water	Dynamic F (blo	Penetromet ws per mm	er Test I)
	(,	Strata	Ū	Ty	Depth	Sam	Results & Comments	>		0 15	20
	1	FILL/Silty Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace gravel, trace cobbles, w <pl, FILL</pl, 		D	0.5				1	U 15	
	-	-Limit of investigation							-		

RIG: CAT 306 CR fitted with a 450mm wide toothed bucket

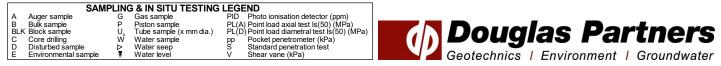
LOGGED: JH

SURVEY DATUM: MGA94 Zone 55

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3□ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



SITE CLASSIFICATION REPORT SUMMARY

BLOCK:	17	SECTION:	92	SUBURB:	Whitlam
JOB No:	88556	5.17		DATE:	May 2023
CLIENT:	Calib	re Professional Servi	ces Pty Ltd	REV:	0
Classificati	ion Pro	ocedures:			
Existing Subs	surface	Conditions: Refer attached	test pit log(s) – Pi	t(s) 36,35 and Drawing 1	I.
Bulk Earthwo	rks: Cor	trolled fill within the block was	s placed under Le	vel 1 control as defined	in AS 3798:2007.
		Previous laboratory testing res nkage ranging from 10-19% a			
magnitude of m profile / state, c would be equiv subsurface pro	noisture r on limited alent to (file chang	n: Site classification in acce elated seasonal ground move subsurface information, soil r Class H1* (highly reactive/fille ge by either cutting or filling ar a zone of influence of the prop	ements that must eactivity and allow ed) conditions. Th nd/or if the presen	be considered in design ving for variation in the s e site classification mus ce of service trenches, r	a. Based on the current soil ubsoil profile, the soil profile st be reassessed should the etaining walls or submerged
each site class zone of influent be articulated in conditions are i	ification. ce of any n accorda maintaine	Reference must be made to All footings must found with service trenches, backfill zor ince with current best practice ed in the vicinity of footings. For or offsite constraints.	in a uniform bear nes, retaining wal . Dwelling design	ing stratum of suitable s s or underground struct must ensure suitable dra	strength/material, below the ures. Masonry walls should ainage and uniform moisture
Maintenance & soils and in pa	Footing I	delines: Reference shou Performance' to comments ab a respect to maintaining good es site maintenance practices	oout gardens, land I surface drainag	lscaping and trees on the e. It notes that minor cra	e performance of foundation acking in most structures is
Comments Limitations	- in	ne successful purchaser must formation made available a eductions and conclusions.			
	De	evelopment specific geotechn	ical investigations	must be undertaken.	
	Ad	dditional topsoils / fill may hav	e been spread su	bsequent to the investig	ation.
		te preparation prior to the concontrolled fill.	onstruction should	l include removal of all	vegetation, topsoil and any
		I new fill must be placed unde ould be warranted in those fill		itions (AS 3798:2007), c	otherwise Class P conditions
	So	ome variability in subsurface of	conditions must be	e anticipated.	
	of	oisture condition of site soils investigation compared to at eavy or prolonged rain.			
		epending on the depth of site			
		ne above site classification is e removed from site and have			aterials/waste and stockpiles
		is recommended that footing	-		al engineer.
	Tł	nis report must be read in con	junction with the a	attached "Limitations" an	d notes "About this Report".
References	S: AS	S 2870:2011, Residential Slat	os and Footings, S	Standards Australia.	
	A	S 3798:2007, Guidelines on E ustralia.	-		I Developments, Standards
Attachmen	E: Te	mitations & About this Report kplanatory Notes est Pit Log(s) Pit(s) 36,35 rawing 1			
An	etany o	Juye	DOL Geotechr	IGIAS P	Partners



Douglas Partners Pty Ltd ABN 75 053 980 117 www.douglaspartners.com.au Unit 2, 73 Sheppard Street Hume ACT 2620 PO Box 1487 Fyshwick ACT 2609 Phone (02) 6260 2788

Limitations

Douglas Partners (DP) has prepared this report for the project at Whitlam Stage 3A in accordance with DP's proposal dated 26 November 2021 and acceptance received from Evan Langham dated 15 March 2023. The work was carried out under DP's Conditions of Engagement. This report is provided for the exclusive use of Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd for this project only and for the purposes as described in the report. It should not be used by or relied upon for other projects or purposes on the same or other site or by a third party. Any party so relying upon this report beyond its exclusive use and purpose as stated above, and without the express written consent of DP, does so entirely at its own risk and without recourse to DP for any loss or damage. In preparing this report DP has necessarily relied upon information provided by the client and/or their agents.

The results provided in the report are indicative of the sub-surface conditions on the site only at the specific sampling and/or testing locations, and then only to the depths investigated and at the time the work was carried out. Sub-surface conditions can change abruptly due to variable geological processes and also as a result of human influences. Such changes may occur after DP's field testing has been completed.

DP's advice is based upon the conditions encountered during this investigation. The accuracy of the advice provided by DP in this report may be affected by undetected variations in ground conditions across the site between and beyond the sampling and/or testing locations. The advice may also be limited by budget constraints imposed by others or by site accessibility.

The assessment of atypical safety hazards arising from this advice is restricted to the geotechnical components set out in this report and based on known project conditions and stated design advice and assumptions. While some recommendations for safe controls may be provided, detailed 'safety in design' assessment is outside the current scope of this report and requires additional project data and assessment.

This report must be read in conjunction with all of the attached and should be kept in its entirety without separation of individual pages or sections. DP cannot be held responsible for interpretations or conclusions made by others unless they are supported by an expressed statement, interpretation, outcome or conclusion stated in this report.

This report, or sections from this report, should not be used as part of a specification for a project, without review and agreement by DP. This is because this report has been written as advice and opinion rather than instructions for construction.



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Introduction

These notes have been provided to amplify DP's report in regard to classification methods, field procedures and the comments section. Not all are necessarily relevant to all reports.

DP's reports are based on information gained from limited subsurface excavations and sampling, supplemented by knowledge of local geology and experience. For this reason, they must be regarded as interpretive rather than factual documents, limited to some extent by the scope of information on which they rely.

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Borehole and Test Pit Logs

The borehole and test pit logs presented in this report are an engineering and/or geological interpretation of the subsurface conditions, and their reliability will depend to some extent on frequency of sampling and the method of drilling or excavation. Ideally, continuous undisturbed sampling or core drilling will provide the most reliable assessment, but this is not always practicable or possible to justify on economic grounds. In any case the boreholes and test pits represent only a very small sample of the total subsurface profile.

Interpretation of the information and its application to design and construction should therefore take into account the spacing of boreholes or pits, the frequency of sampling, and the possibility of other than 'straight line' variations between the test locations.

Groundwater

Where groundwater levels are measured in boreholes there are several potential problems, namely:

 In low permeability soils groundwater may enter the hole very slowly or perhaps not at all during the time the hole is left open;

- A localised, perched water table may lead to an erroneous indication of the true water table;
- Water table levels will vary from time to time with seasons or recent weather changes. They may not be the same at the time of construction as are indicated in the report; and
- The use of water or mud as a drilling fluid will mask any groundwater inflow. Water has to be blown out of the hole and drilling mud must first be washed out of the hole if water measurements are to be made.

More reliable measurements can be made by installing standpipes which are read at intervals over several days, or perhaps weeks for low permeability soils. Piezometers, sealed in a particular stratum, may be advisable in low permeability soils or where there may be interference from a perched water table.

Reports

The report has been prepared by qualified personnel, is based on the information obtained from field and laboratory testing, and has been undertaken to current engineering standards of interpretation and analysis. Where the report has been prepared for a specific design proposal, the information and interpretation may not be relevant if the design proposal is changed. If this happens, DP will be pleased to review the report and the sufficiency of the investigation work.

Every care is taken with the report as it relates to interpretation of subsurface conditions, discussion of geotechnical and environmental aspects, and recommendations or suggestions for design and construction. However, DP cannot always anticipate or assume responsibility for:

- Unexpected variations in ground conditions. The potential for this will depend partly on borehole or pit spacing and sampling frequency;
- Changes in policy or interpretations of policy by statutory authorities; or
- The actions of contractors responding to commercial pressures.

If these occur, DP will be pleased to assist with investigations or advice to resolve the matter.

About this Report

Site Anomalies

In the event that conditions encountered on site during construction appear to vary from those which were expected from the information contained in the report, DP requests that it be immediately notified. Most problems are much more readily resolved when conditions are exposed rather than at some later stage, well after the event.

Information for Contractual Purposes

Where information obtained from this report is provided for tendering purposes, it is recommended that all information, including the written report and discussion, be made available. In circumstances where the discussion or comments section is not relevant to the contractual situation, it may be appropriate to prepare a specially edited document. DP would be pleased to assist in this regard and/or to make additional report copies available for contract purposes at a nominal charge.

Site Inspection

The company will always be pleased to provide engineering inspection services for geotechnical and environmental aspects of work to which this report is related. This could range from a site visit to confirm that conditions exposed are as expected, to full time engineering presence on site.

Sampling

Sampling is carried out during drilling or test pitting to allow engineering examination (and laboratory testing where required) of the soil or rock.

Disturbed samples taken during drilling provide information on colour, type, inclusions and, depending upon the degree of disturbance, some information on strength and structure.

Undisturbed samples are taken by pushing a thinwalled sample tube into the soil and withdrawing it to obtain a sample of the soil in a relatively undisturbed state. Such samples yield information on structure and strength, and are necessary for laboratory determination of shear strength and compressibility. Undisturbed sampling is generally effective only in cohesive soils.

Test Pits

Test pits are usually excavated with a backhoe or an excavator, allowing close examination of the insitu soil if it is safe to enter into the pit. The depth of excavation is limited to about 3 m for a backhoe and up to 6 m for a large excavator. A potential disadvantage of this investigation method is the larger area of disturbance to the site.

Large Diameter Augers

Boreholes can be drilled using a rotating plate or short spiral auger, generally 300 mm or larger in diameter commonly mounted on a standard piling rig. The cuttings are returned to the surface at intervals (generally not more than 0.5 m) and are disturbed but usually unchanged in moisture content. Identification of soil strata is generally much more reliable than with continuous spiral flight augers, and is usually supplemented by occasional undisturbed tube samples.

Continuous Spiral Flight Augers

The borehole is advanced using 90-115 mm diameter continuous spiral flight augers which are withdrawn at intervals to allow sampling or in-situ testing. This is a relatively economical means of drilling in clays and sands above the water table. Samples are returned to the surface, or may be collected after withdrawal of the auger flights, but they are disturbed and may be mixed with soils from the sides of the hole. Information from the drilling (as distinct from specific sampling by SPTs or undisturbed samples) is of relatively low reliability, due to the remoulding, possible mixing or softening of samples by groundwater.

Non-core Rotary Drilling

The borehole is advanced using a rotary bit, with water or drilling mud being pumped down the drill rods and returned up the annulus, carrying the drill cuttings. Only major changes in stratification can be determined from the cuttings, together with some information from the rate of penetration. Where drilling mud is used this can mask the cuttings and reliable identification is only possible from separate sampling such as SPTs.

Continuous Core Drilling

A continuous core sample can be obtained using a diamond tipped core barrel, usually with a 50 mm internal diameter. Provided full core recovery is achieved (which is not always possible in weak rocks and granular soils), this technique provides a very reliable method of investigation.

Standard Penetration Tests

Standard penetration tests (SPT) are used as a means of estimating the density or strength of soils and also of obtaining a relatively undisturbed sample. The test procedure is described in Australian Standard 1289, Methods of Testing Soils for Engineering Purposes - Test 6.3.1.

The test is carried out in a borehole by driving a 50 mm diameter split sample tube under the impact of a 63 kg hammer with a free fall of 760 mm. It is normal for the tube to be driven in three successive 150 mm increments and the 'N' value is taken as the number of blows for the last 300 mm. In dense sands, very hard clays or weak rock, the full 450 mm penetration may not be practicable and the test is discontinued.

The test results are reported in the following form.

 In the case where full penetration is obtained with successive blow counts for each 150 mm of, say, 4, 6 and 7 as:

4,6,7 N=13

In the case where the test is discontinued before the full penetration depth, say after 15 blows for the first 150 mm and 30 blows for the next 40 mm as:

15, 30/40 mm

Sampling Methods

The results of the SPT tests can be related empirically to the engineering properties of the soils.

Dynamic Cone Penetrometer Tests / Perth Sand Penetrometer Tests

Dynamic penetrometer tests (DCP or PSP) are carried out by driving a steel rod into the ground using a standard weight of hammer falling a specified distance. As the rod penetrates the soil the number of blows required to penetrate each successive 150 mm depth are recorded. Normally there is a depth limitation of 1.2 m, but this may be extended in certain conditions by the use of extension rods. Two types of penetrometer are commonly used.

- Perth sand penetrometer a 16 mm diameter flat ended rod is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 600 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.3). This test was developed for testing the density of sands and is mainly used in granular soils and filling.
- Cone penetrometer a 16 mm diameter rod with a 20 mm diameter cone end is driven using a 9 kg hammer dropping 510 mm (AS 1289, Test 6.3.2). This test was developed initially for pavement subgrade investigations, and correlations of the test results with California Bearing Ratio have been published by various road authorities.

Soil Descriptions

Description and Classification Methods

The methods of description and classification of soils and rocks used in this report are generally based on Australian Standard AS1726:2017, Geotechnical Site Investigations. In general, the descriptions include strength or density, colour, structure, soil or rock type and inclusions.

Soil Types

Soil types are described according to the predominant particle size, qualified by the grading of other particles present:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Boulder	>200
Cobble	63 - 200
Gravel	2.36 - 63
Sand	0.075 - 2.36
Silt	0.002 - 0.075
Clay	<0.002

The sand and gravel sizes can be further subdivided as follows:

Туре	Particle size (mm)
Coarse gravel	19 - 63
Medium gravel	6.7 - 19
Fine gravel	2.36 - 6.7
Coarse sand	0.6 - 2.36
Medium sand	0.21 - 0.6
Fine sand	0.075 - 0.21

Definitions of grading terms used are:

- Well graded a good representation of all particle sizes
- Poorly graded an excess or deficiency of particular sizes within the specified range
- Uniformly graded an excess of a particular particle size
- Gap graded a deficiency of a particular particle size with the range

The proportions of secondary constituents of soils are described as follows:

In fine grained soils	(>35% fines)
-----------------------	--------------

Term	Proportion	Example
	of sand or	
	gravel	
And	Specify	Clay (60%) and
		Sand (40%)
Adjective	>30%	Sandy Clay
With	15 – 30%	Clay with sand
Trace	0 - 15%	Clay with trace
		sand

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)

with	clays	or	silts	

man olaye er ena		
Term	Proportion of fines	Example
And	Specify	Sand (70%) and Clay (30%)
Adjective	>12%	Clayey Sand
With	5 - 12%	Sand with clay
Trace	0 - 5%	Sand with trace
		clay

In coarse grained soils (>65% coarse)
 with coarser fraction

Term	Proportion	Example
	of coarser	
	fraction	
And	Specify	Sand (60%) and
		Gravel (40%)
Adjective	>30%	Gravelly Sand
With	15 - 30%	Sand with gravel
Trace	0 - 15%	Sand with trace
		gravel

The presence of cobbles and boulders shall be specifically noted by beginning the description with 'Mix of Soil and Cobbles/Boulders' with the word order indicating the dominant first and the proportion of cobbles and boulders described together.

Soil Descriptions

Cohesive Soils

Cohesive soils, such as clays, are classified on the basis of undrained shear strength. The strength may be measured by laboratory testing, or estimated by field tests or engineering examination. The strength terms are defined as follows:

Description	Abbreviation	Undrained shear strength (kPa)
Very soft	VS	<12
Soft	S	12 - 25
Firm	F	25 - 50
Stiff	St	50 - 100
Very stiff	VSt	100 - 200
Hard	Н	>200
Friable	Fr	-

Cohesionless Soils

Cohesionless soils, such as clean sands, are classified on the basis of relative density, generally from the results of standard penetration tests (SPT), cone penetration tests (CPT) or dynamic penetrometers (PSP). The relative density terms are given below:

Relative Density	Abbreviation	Density Index (%)
Very loose	VL	<15
Loose	L	15-35
Medium dense	MD	35-65
Dense	D	65-85
Very dense	VD	>85

Soil Origin

It is often difficult to accurately determine the origin of a soil. Soils can generally be classified as:

- Residual soil derived from in-situ weathering of the underlying rock;
- Extremely weathered material formed from in-situ weathering of geological formations. Has soil strength but retains the structure or fabric of the parent rock;
- Alluvial soil deposited by streams and rivers;

- Estuarine soil deposited in coastal estuaries;
- Marine soil deposited in a marine environment;
- Lacustrine soil deposited in freshwater lakes;
- Aeolian soil carried and deposited by wind;
- Colluvial soil soil and rock debris transported down slopes by gravity;
- Topsoil mantle of surface soil, often with high levels of organic material.
- Fill any material which has been moved by man.

Moisture Condition – Coarse Grained Soils For coarse grained soils the moisture condition

should be described by appearance and feel using the following terms:

- Dry (D) Non-cohesive and free-running.
- Moist (M) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together. Sand forms weak ball but breaks easily.

Wet (W) Soil feels cool, darkened in colour.

Soil tends to stick together, free water forms when handling.

Moisture Condition – Fine Grained Soils

For fine grained soils the assessment of moisture content is relative to their plastic limit or liquid limit, as follows:

- 'Moist, dry of plastic limit' or 'w <PL' (i.e. hard and friable or powdery).
- 'Moist, near plastic limit' or 'w ≈ PL (i.e. soil can be moulded at moisture content approximately equal to the plastic limit).
- 'Moist, wet of plastic limit' or 'w >PL' (i.e. soils usually weakened and free water forms on the hands when handling).
- 'Wet' or 'w ≈LL' (i.e. near the liquid limit).
- 'Wet' or 'w >LL' (i.e. wet of the liquid limit).

Rock Descriptions

Rock Strength

Rock strength is defined by the Unconfined Compressive Strength and it refers to the strength of the rock substance and not the strength of the overall rock mass, which may be considerably weaker due to defects.

The Point Load Strength Index $I_{S(50)}$ is commonly used to provide an estimate of the rock strength and site specific correlations should be developed to allow UCS values to be determined. The point load strength test procedure is described by Australian Standard AS4133.4.1-2007. The terms used to describe rock strength are as follows:

Strength Term	Abbreviation	Unconfined Compressive Strength MPa	Point Load Index * Is ₍₅₀₎ MPa
Very low	VL	0.6 - 2	0.03 - 0.1
Low	L	2 - 6	0.1 - 0.3
Medium	М	6 - 20	0.3 - 1.0
High	Н	20 - 60	1 - 3
Very high	VH	60 - 200	3 - 10
Extremely high	EH	>200	>10

* Assumes a ratio of 20:1 for UCS to $I_{S(50)}$. It should be noted that the UCS to $I_{S(50)}$ ratio varies significantly for different rock types and specific ratios should be determined for each site.

Degree of Weathering

The degree of weathering of rock is classified as follows:

Term	Abbreviation	Description
Residual Soil	RS	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are no longer visible, but the soil has not been significantly transported.
Extremely weathered	XW	Material is weathered to such an extent that it has soil properties. Mass structure and material texture and fabric of original rock are still visible
Highly weathered	HW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable. Rock strength is significantly changed by weathering. Some primary minerals have weathered to clay minerals. Porosity may be increased by leaching, or may be decreased due to deposition of weathering products in pores.
Moderately weathered	MW	The whole of the rock material is discoloured, usually by iron staining or bleaching to the extent that the colour of the original rock is not recognisable, but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Slightly weathered	SW	Rock is partially discoloured with staining or bleaching along joints but shows little or no change of strength from fresh rock.
Fresh	FR	No signs of decomposition or staining.
Note: If HW and MW	cannot be differentia	nted use DW (see below)
Distinctly weathered	DW	Rock strength usually changed by weathering. The rock may be highly discoloured, usually by iron staining. Porosity may be increased by leaching or may be decreased due to deposition of weathered products in pores.

Rock Descriptions

Degree of Fracturing

The following classification applies to the spacing of natural fractures in diamond drill cores. It includes bedding plane partings, joints and other defects, but excludes drilling breaks.

Term	Description
Fragmented	Fragments of <20 mm
Highly Fractured	Core lengths of 20-40 mm with occasional fragments
Fractured	Core lengths of 30-100 mm with occasional shorter and longer sections
Slightly Fractured	Core lengths of 300 mm or longer with occasional sections of 100-300 mm
Unbroken	Core contains very few fractures

Rock Quality Designation

The quality of the cored rock can be measured using the Rock Quality Designation (RQD) index, defined as:

RQD % = <u>cumulative length of 'sound' core sections > 100 mm long</u> total drilled length of section being assessed

where 'sound' rock is assessed to be rock of low strength or stronger. The RQD applies only to natural fractures. If the core is broken by drilling or handling (i.e. drilling breaks) then the broken pieces are fitted back together and are not included in the calculation of RQD.

Stratification Spacing

For sedimentary rocks the following terms may be used to describe the spacing of bedding partings:

Term	Separation of Stratification Planes
Thinly laminated	< 6 mm
Laminated	6 mm to 20 mm
Very thinly bedded	20 mm to 60 mm
Thinly bedded	60 mm to 0.2 m
Medium bedded	0.2 m to 0.6 m
Thickly bedded	0.6 m to 2 m
Very thickly bedded	> 2 m

Symbols & Abbreviations

Introduction

These notes summarise abbreviations commonly used on borehole logs and test pit reports.

Drilling or Excavation Methods

С	Core drilling
R	Rotary drilling
SFA	Spiral flight augers
NMLC	Diamond core - 52 mm dia
NQ	Diamond core - 47 mm dia
HQ	Diamond core - 63 mm dia
PQ	Diamond core - 81 mm dia

Water

\triangleright	Water seep
\bigtriangledown	Water level

Sampling and Testing

- A Auger sample
- B Bulk sample
- D Disturbed sample
- E Environmental sample
- U₅₀ Undisturbed tube sample (50mm)
- W Water sample
- pp Pocket penetrometer (kPa)
- PID Photo ionisation detector
- PL Point load strength Is(50) MPa
- S Standard Penetration Test
- V Shear vane (kPa)

Description of Defects in Rock

The abbreviated descriptions of the defects should be in the following order: Depth, Type, Orientation, Coating, Shape, Roughness and Other. Drilling and handling breaks are not usually included on the logs.

Defect Type

В	Bedding plane
Cs	Clay seam
Cv	Cleavage
Cz	Crushed zone
Ds	Decomposed seam
F	Fault
J	Joint
Lam	Lamination
Pt	Parting
Sz	Sheared Zone
V	Vein

Orientation

The inclination of defects is always measured from the perpendicular to the core axis.

- v vertical
- sh sub-horizontal

art

sv sub-vertical

Coating or Infilling Term

clean
coating
healed
infilled
stained
tight
veneer

Coating Descriptor

ca	calcite
cbs	carbonaceous
cly	clay
fe	iron oxide
mn	manganese
slt	silty

Shape

cu	curved
ir	irregular
pl	planar
st	stepped
un	undulating

Roughness

ро	polished
ro	rough
sl	slickensided
sm	smooth
vr	very rough

Other

fg	fragmented
bnd	band
qtz	quartz

Symbols & Abbreviations

Graphic Symbols for Soil and Rock

General

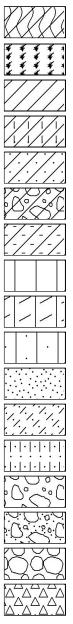
A. A. A. Z	

Asphalt Road base

Concrete

Filling

Soils



0
Topsoil
Peat
Clay
Silty clay
Sandy clay
Gravelly clay
Shaly clay
Silt

Clayey silt

Sandy silt

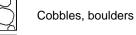
Sand

Clayey sand

Silty sand

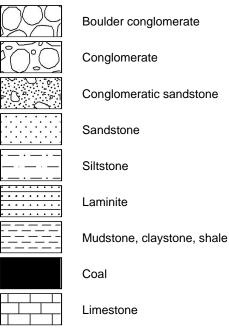
Gravel

Sandy gravel



Talus

Sedimentary Rocks



Metamorphic Rocks

 $\begin{array}{c} & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & &$

Slate, phyllite, schist

Quartzite

Gneiss

Igneous Rocks

Granite

Dolerite, basalt, andesite

Dacite, epidote

Tuff, breccia

Porphyry

FOUNDATION MAINTENANCE AND FOOTING PERFORMANCE



Understanding and preventing soil-related building movement

This Building Technology Resource is designed to identify causes of soil-related building movement, and to suggest methods of prevention of resultant cracking.

Buildings can and often do move. This movement can be up, down, lateral or rotational. The fundamental cause of movement in buildings can usually be related to one or more problems in the foundation soil. It is important for the home owner to identify the soil type in order to ascertain the measures that should be put in place in order to ensure that problems in the foundation soil can be prevented, thus protecting against building movement.

SOIL TYPES

The types of soils usually present under the topsoil in land zoned for residential buildings can be split into two approximate groups – granular and clay. Quite often, foundation soil is a mixture of both types. The general problems associated with soils having granular content are usually caused by erosion. Clay soils are subject to saturation and swell/shrink problems.

Classifications for a given area can generally be obtained by application to the local authority, but these are sometimes unreliable and if there is doubt, a geotechnical report should be commissioned. As most buildings suffering movement problems are founded on clay soils, there is an emphasis on classification of soils according to the amount of swell and shrinkage they experience with variations of water content. Table 1 below is a reproduction of Table 2.1 from Australian Standard AS 2870-2011, Residential slabs and footings.

CAUSES OF MOVEMENT

SETTLEMENT DUE TO CONSTRUCTION

There are two types of settlement that occur as a result of construction:

- Immediate settlement occurs when a building is first placed on its foundation soil, as a result of compaction of the soil under the weight of the structure. The cohesive quality of clay soil mitigates against this, but granular (particularly sandy) soil is susceptible.
- Consolidation settlement is a feature of clay soil and may take place because of the expulsion of moisture from the soil or because of the soil's lack of resistance to local compressive or shear stresses. This will usually take place during the first few months after construction but has been known to take many years in exceptional cases.

These problems may be the province of the builder and should be taken into consideration as part of the preparation of the site for construction.

EROSION

All soils are prone to erosion, but sandy soil is particularly susceptible to being washed away. Even clay with a sand component of say 10% or more can suffer from erosion.

SATURATION

This is particularly a problem in clay soils. Saturation creates a boglike suspension of the soil that causes it to lose virtually all of its bearing capacity. To a lesser degree, sand is affected by saturation because saturated sand may undergo a reduction in volume, particularly imported sand fill for bedding and blinding layers. However, this usually occurs as immediate settlement and should normally be the province of the builder.

SEASONAL SWELLING AND SHRINKAGE OF SOIL

All clays react to the presence of water by slowly absorbing it, making the soil increase in volume (see table below, from AS 2870). The degree of increase varies considerably between different clays, as does the degree of decrease during the subsequent drying out caused by fair weather periods. Because of the low absorption and expulsion rate, this phenomenon will not usually be noticeable unless there are prolonged rainy or dry periods, usually of weeks or months, depending on the land and soil characteristics.

The swelling of soil creates an upward force on the footings of the building, and shrinkage creates subsidence that takes away the support needed by the footing to retain equilibrium.

SHEAR FAILURE

This phenomenon occurs when the foundation soil does not have sufficient strength to support the weight of the footing. There are two major post-construction causes:

- Significant load increase.
- Reduction of lateral support of the soil under the footing due to erosion or excavation.

In clay soil, shear failure can be caused by saturation of the soil adjacent to or under the footing.

TREE ROOT GROWTH

Trees and shrubs that are allowed to grow in the vicinity of footings can cause foundation soil movement in two ways:

 Roots that grow under footings may increase in cross-sectional size, exerting upward pressure on footings.

TABLE 1. GENERAL DEFINITIONS OF SITE CLASSES.

Class	Foundation
A	Most sand and rock sites with little or no ground movement from moisture changes
S	Slightly reactive clay sites, which may experience only slight ground movement from moisture changes
М	Moderately reactive clay or silt sites, which may experience moderate ground movement from moisture changes
H1	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience high ground movement from moisture changes
H2	Highly reactive clay sites, which may experience very high ground movement from moisture changes
F	Extremely reactive sites, which may experience extreme ground movement from moisture changes

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FIGURE 1 Trees can cause shrinkage and damage.

 Roots in the vicinity of footings will absorb much of the moisture in the foundation soil, causing shrinkage or subsidence.

UNEVENNESS OF MOVEMENT

The types of ground movement described above usually occur unevenly throughout the building's foundation soil. Settlement due to construction tends to be uneven because of:

- Differing compaction of foundation soil prior to construction.
- Differing moisture content of foundation soil prior to construction.

Movement due to non-construction causes is usually more uneven still. Erosion can undermine a footing that traverses the flow or can create the conditions for shear failure by eroding soil adjacent to a footing that runs in the same direction as the flow.

Saturation of clay foundation soil may occur where subfloor walls create a dam that makes water pond. It can also occur wherever there is a source of water near footings in clay soil. This leads to a severe reduction in the strength of the soil which may create local shear failure.

Seasonal swelling and shrinkage of clay soil affects the perimeter of the building first, then gradually spreads to the interior through absorption. The swelling process will usually begin at the uphill extreme of the building, or on the weather side where the land is flat. Shrinkage usually begins on the side of the building where the sun's heat is greatest.

EFFECTS OF UNEVEN SOIL MOVEMENT ON STRUCTURES

EROSION AND SATURATION

Erosion removes the support from under footings, tending to create subsidence of the part of the structure under which it occurs. Brickwork walls will resist the stress created by this removal of support by bridging the gap or cantilevering until the bricks or the mortar bedding fail. Older masonry has little resistance. Evidence of failure varies according to circumstances and symptoms may include:

- Step cracking in the mortar beds in the body of the wall or above/below openings such as doors or windows.
- Vertical cracking in the bricks (usually but not necessarily in line with the vertical beds or perpends).

Isolated piers affected by erosion or saturation of foundations will eventually lose contact with the bearers they support and may tilt or fall over. The floors that have lost this support will become bouncy, sometimes rattling ornaments etc.

SEASONAL SWELLING/SHRINKAGE IN CLAY

Swelling foundation soil due to rainy periods first lifts the most exposed extremities of the footing system, then the remainder of the perimeter footings while gradually permeating inside the building footprint to lift internal footings. This swelling first tends to create a dish effect, because the external footings are pushed higher than the internal ones.

The first noticeable symptom may be that the floor appears slightly dished. This is often accompanied by some doors binding on the floor or the door head, together with some cracking of cornice mitres. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the floor can be bouncy. Externally there may be visible dishing of the hip or ridge lines.

As the moisture absorption process completes its journey to the innermost areas of the building, the internal footings will rise. If the spread of moisture is roughly even, it may be that the symptoms will temporarily disappear, but it is more likely that swelling will be uneven, creating a difference rather than a disappearance in symptoms. In buildings with timber flooring supported by bearers and joists, the isolated piers will rise more easily than the strip footings or piers under walls, creating noticeable doming of flooring.

As the weather pattern changes and the soil begins to dry out, the external footings will be first affected, beginning with the locations where the sun's effect is strongest. This has the effect of lowering the external footings. The doming is accentuated, and cracking reduces or disappears where it occurred because of dishing, but other cracks open up. The roof lines may become convex.

Doming and dishing are also affected by weather in other ways. In areas where warm, wet summers and cooler dry winters prevail, water migration tends to be toward the interior and doming will be accentuated, whereas where summers are dry, and winters are cold and wet, migration tends to be toward the exterior and the underlying propensity is toward dishing.

MOVEMENT CAUSED BY TREE ROOTS

In general, growing roots will exert an upward pressure on footings, whereas soil subject to drying because of tree or shrub roots will tend to remove support from under footings by inducing shrinkage.

COMPLICATIONS CAUSED BY THE STRUCTURE ITSELF

Most forces that the soil causes to be exerted on structures are vertical – i.e. either up or down. However, because these forces are seldom spread evenly around the footings, and because the building resists uneven movement because of its rigidity, forces are exerted from one part of the building to another. The net result of all these forces is usually rotational. This resultant force often complicates the diagnosis because the visible symptoms do not simply reflect the original cause. A common symptom is binding of doors on the vertical member of the frame.

EFFECTS ON FULL MASONRY STRUCTURES

Brickwork will resist cracking where it can. It will attempt to span areas that lose support because of subsided foundations or raised points. It is therefore usual to see cracking at weak points, such as openings for windows or doors.

In the event of construction settlement, cracking will usually remain unchanged after the process of settlement has ceased.

With local shear or erosion, cracking will usually continue to develop until the original cause has been remedied, or until the subsidence has completely neutralised the affected portion of footing and the structure has stabilised on other footings that remain effective.

In the case of swell/shrink effects, the brickwork will in some cases return to its original position after completion of a cycle, however it is more likely that the rotational effect will not be exactly reversed, and it is also usual that brickwork will settle in its new position and will resist the forces trying to return it to its original position. This means that in a case where swelling takes place after construction and cracking occurs, the cracking is likely to at least partly remain after the shrink segment of the cycle is complete. Thus, each time the cycle is repeated, the likelihood is that the cracking will become wider until the sections of brickwork become virtually independent.

With repeated cycles, once the cracking is established, if there is no other complication, it is normal for the incidence of cracking to stabilise, as the building has the articulation it needs to cope with the problem. This is by no means always the case, however, and monitoring of cracks in walls and floors should always be treated seriously.

Upheaval caused by growth of tree roots under footings is not a simple vertical shear stress. There is a tendency for the root to also

exert lateral forces that attempt to separate sections of brickwork after initial cracking has occurred.

The normal structural arrangement is that the inner leaf of brickwork in the external walls and at least some of the internal walls (depending on the roof type) comprise the load-bearing structure on which any upper floors, ceilings and the roof are supported. In these cases, it is internally visible cracking that should be the main focus of attention, however there are a few examples of dwellings whose external leaf of masonry plays some supporting role, so this should be checked if there is any doubt. In any case, externally visible cracking is important as a guide to stresses on the structure generally, and it should also be remembered that the external walls must be capable of supporting themselves.

EFFECTS ON FRAMED STRUCTURES

Timber or steel framed buildings are less likely to exhibit cracking due to swell/shrink than masonry buildings because of their flexibility. Also, the doming/dishing effects tend to be lower because of the lighter weight of walls. The main risks to framed buildings are encountered because of the isolated pier footings used under walls. Where erosion or saturation causes a footing to fall away, this can double the span which a wall must bridge. This additional stress can create cracking in wall linings, particularly where there is a weak point in the structure caused by a door or window opening. It is, however, unlikely that framed structures will be so stressed as to suffer serious damage without first exhibiting some or all of the above symptoms for a considerable period. The same warning period should apply in the case of upheaval. It should be noted, however, that where framed buildings are supported by strip footings there is only one leaf of brickwork and therefore the externally visible walls are the supporting structure for the building. In this case, the subfloor masonry walls can be expected to behave as full brickwork walls.

EFFECTS ON BRICK VENEER STRUCTURES

Because the load-bearing structure of a brick veneer building is the frame that makes up the interior leaf of the external walls plus perhaps the internal walls, depending on the type of roof, the building can be expected to behave as a framed structure, except that the external masonry will behave in a similar way to the external leaf of a full masonry structure.

WATER SERVICE AND DRAINAGE

Where a water service pipe, a sewer or stormwater drainage pipe is in the vicinity of a building, a water leak can cause erosion, swelling or saturation of susceptible soil. Even a minuscule leak can be enough to saturate a clay foundation. A leaking tap near a building can have the same effect. In addition, trenches containing pipes can become watercourses even though backfilled, particularly where broken rubble is used as fill. Water that runs along these trenches can be responsible for serious erosion, interstrata seepage into subfloor areas and saturation.

Pipe leakage and trench water flows also encourage tree and shrub roots to the source of water, complicating and exacerbating the problem. Poor roof plumbing can result in large volumes of rainwater being concentrated in a small area of soil:

- Incorrect falls in roof guttering may result in overflows, as may gutters blocked with leaves etc.
- Corroded guttering or downpipes can spill water to ground.
- Downpipes not positively connected to a proper stormwater collection system will direct a concentration of water to soil that is directly adjacent to footings, sometimes causing largescale problems such as erosion, saturation and migration of water under the building.

SERIOUSNESS OF CRACKING

In general, most cracking found in masonry walls is a cosmetic nuisance only and can be kept in repair or even ignored. Table 2 below is a reproduction of Table C1 of AS 2870-2011. AS 2870-2011 also publishes figures relating to cracking in concrete floors, however because wall cracking will usually reach the critical point significantly earlier than cracking in slabs, this table is not reproduced here.

PREVENTION AND CURE

PLUMBING

Where building movement is caused by water service, roof plumbing, sewer or stormwater failure, the remedy is to repair the problem. It is prudent, however, to consider also rerouting pipes away from the building where possible and relocating taps to positions where any leakage will not direct water to the building vicinity. Even where gully traps are present, there is sometimes sufficient spill to create erosion or saturation, particularly in modern installations using smaller diameter PVC fixtures. Indeed, some gully traps are not situated directly under the taps that are installed to charge them, with the result that water from the tap may enter the backfilled trench that houses the sewer piping. If the trench has been poorly backfilled, the water will either pond or flow along the bottom of the trench. As these trenches usually run alongside the footings and can be at a similar depth, it is not hard to see how any water that is thus directed into a trench can easily affect the foundation's ability to support footings or even gain entry to the subfloor area.

GROUND DRAINAGE

In all soils there is the capacity for water to travel on the surface and below it. Surface water flows can be established by inspection during and after heavy or prolonged rain. If necessary, a grated drain system connected to the stormwater collection system is usually an easy solution.

It is, however, sometimes necessary when attempting to prevent water migration that testing be carried out to establish watertable height and subsoil water flows. This subject may be regarded as an area for an expert consultant.

PROTECTION OF THE BUILDING PERIMETER

It is essential to remember that the soil that affects footings extends well beyond the actual building line. Watering of garden plants, shrubs and trees causes some of the most serious water problems.

For this reason, particularly where problems exist or are likely to occur, it is recommended that an apron of paving be installed around as much of the building perimeter as necessary. This paving should extend outwards a minimum of 900 mm (more in highly reactive soil) and should have a minimum fall away from the building of 1:60. The finished paving should be no less than 100 mm below brick vent bases.

It is prudent to relocate drainage pipes away from this paving, if possible, to avoid complications from future leakage. If this is not practical, earthenware pipes should be replaced by PVC and backfilling should be of the same soil type as the surrounding soil and compacted to the same density.

Except in areas where freezing of water is an issue, it is wise to remove taps in the building area and relocate them well away from the building – preferably not uphill.

It may be desirable to install a grated drain at the outside edge of the paving on the uphill side of the building. If subsoil drainage is needed this can be installed under the surface drain.

CONDENSATION

In buildings with a subfloor void, such as where bearers and joists support flooring, insufficient ventilation creates ideal conditions for condensation, particularly where there is little clearance between the floor and the ground. Condensation adds to the moisture already present in the subfloor and significantly slows the process of drying out. Installation of an adequate subfloor ventilation system, either natural or mechanical, is desirable.

TABLE 2. CLASSIFICATION OF DAMAGE WITH REFERENCE TO WALLS.

windows stick. Service pipes can fracture. Weathertightness often impaired.	Approximate crack width limit	Damage category		
Hairline cracks	<0.1 mm	0 – Negligible		
Fine cracks which do not need repair	<1 mm	1 – Very Slight		
Cracks noticeable but easily filled. Doors and windows stick slightly.	<5 mm	2 – Slight		
Cracks can be repaired and possibly a small amount of wall will need to be replaced. Doors and windows stick. Service pipes can fracture. Weathertightness often impaired.	5—15 mm (or a number of cracks 3 mm or more in one group)	3 – Moderate		
Extensive repair work involving breaking-out and replacing sections of walls, especially over doors and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of	15–25 mm but also depends on number of cracks	4 – Severe		

and windows. Window and door frames distort. Walls lean or bulge noticeably, some loss of bearing in beams. Service pipes disrupted.

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Warning: Although this Building Technology Resource deals with cracking in buildings, it should be said that subfloor moisture can result in the development of other problems, notably:

- Water that is transmitted into masonry, metal or timber building elements causes damage and/or decay to those elements.
- High subfloor humidity and moisture content create an ideal environment for various pests, including termites and spiders, and mould.
- Where high moisture levels are transmitted to the flooring and walls, an increase in the dust mite count can ensue within the living areas. Dust mites, as well as dampness in general, can be a health hazard to inhabitants, particularly those who are abnormally susceptible to respiratory ailments.

THE GARDEN

The ideal vegetation layout is to have lawn or plants that require only light watering immediately adjacent to the drainage or paving edge, then more demanding plants, shrubs and trees spread out in that order.

Overwatering due to misuse of automatic watering systems is a common cause of saturation and water migration under footings. If it is necessary to use these systems, it is important to remove garden beds to a completely safe distance from buildings.

EXISTING TREES

Where a tree is causing a problem of soil drying or there is the existence or threat of upheaval of footings, if the offending roots are subsidiary and their removal will not significantly damage the tree, they should be severed and a concrete or metal barrier placed vertically in the soil to prevent future root growth in the direction of the building. If it is not possible to remove the relevant roots without damage to the tree, an application to remove the tree should be made to the local authority. A prudent plan is to transplant likely offenders before they become a problem.

INFORMATION ON TREES, PLANTS AND SHRUBS

State departments overseeing agriculture can give information regarding root patterns, volume of water needed and safe distance from buildings of most species. Botanic gardens are also sources of information.



FIGURE 2 Gardens for a reactive site.

EXCAVATION

Excavation around footings must be properly engineered. Soil supporting footings can only be safely excavated at an angle that allows the soil under the footing to remain stable. This angle is called the angle of repose (or friction) and varies significantly between soil types and conditions. Removal of soil within the angle of repose will cause subsidence.

REMEDIATION

Where erosion has occurred that has washed away soil adjacent to footings, soil of the same classification should be introduced and compacted to the same density. Where footings have been undermined, augmentation or other specialist work may be required. Remediation of footings and foundations is generally the realm of a specialist consultant.

Where isolated footings rise and fall because of swell/shrink effect, the home owner may be tempted to alleviate floor bounce by filling the gap that has appeared between the bearer and the pier with blocking. The danger here is that when the next swell segment of the cycle occurs, the extra blocking will push the floor up into an accentuated dome and may also cause local shear failure in the soil. If it is necessary to use blocking, it should be by a pair of fine wedges and monitoring should be carried out fortnightly.



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TERMS AND CONDITIONS: BUILDING TECHNOLOGY RESOURCES

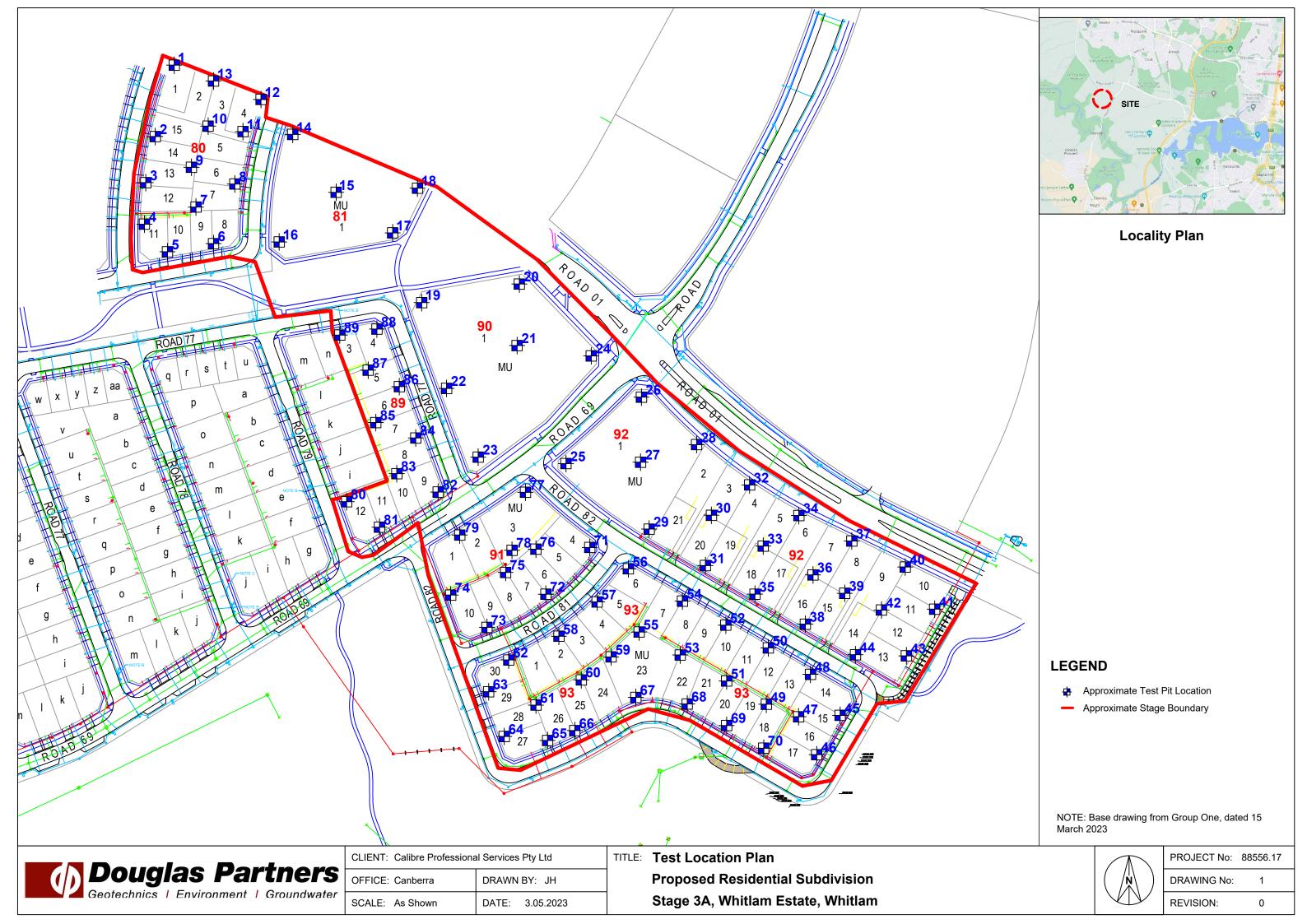
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TEST PIT LOG

CLIENT: PROJECT: LOCATION: Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd Proposed Residential Subdivision Stage 3A, Whitlam SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202731 NORTHING: 603803 PIT No: 35 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

Γ		Description	.u Sampling & In Situ Testing									
R	Depth (m)	of	Graphic Log	Type	Depth	Sample	Results &	Water	Dynamic Penetrometer Test (blows per mm)			
	()	Strata	Ū	Ty	Del	Sam	Results & Comments		5	10	15	20
	1	FILL/Silty Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace gravel, trace cobbles, w <pl, FILL</pl, 		D	0.6	0			-1			
	-	Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, red brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace ironstone nodules, w <pl, estimated stiff to very stiff, residual</pl, 		D	1.3				-			
	- 1.4- - -	Pit discontinued at 1.4m -Limit of investigation							-			

RIG: CAT 306 CR fitted with a 450mm wide toothed bucket

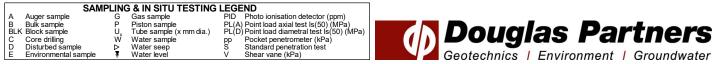
LOGGED: JH

SURVEY DATUM: MGA94 Zone 55

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2



TEST PIT LOG

Calibre Professional Services Pty Ltd

Proposed Residential Subdivision

Stage 3A, Whitlam

CLIENT:

PROJECT:

LOCATION:

SURFACE LEVEL: D.S.L EASTING: 202767 **NORTHING:** 603814

PIT No: 36 PROJECT No: 88556.17 DATE: 27/4/2023 SHEET 1 OF 1

Depth	Description of	Graphic Log				& In Situ Testing	Water	Dynamic (blo	Peneti	omete	er Test
(m)	or Strata	Gra	Type	Depth	Sample	Results & Comments	Wa		ows pe	r mm) 15	20
.1	FILL/Silty Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace gravel, trace cobbles, w <pl, FILL</pl, 		D	0.5	<u>ă</u>			-1		15	20
1.4 1.8	Sandy CLAY (CI): medium plasticity, red brown, fine to coarse grained sand, trace ironstone nodules, w <pl, estimated stiff to very stiff, residual Pit discontinued at 1.8m -Limit of investigation</pl, 		D	1.5							

WATER OBSERVATIONS: No free groundwater observed

REMARKS: Design surface levels not provided. Coordinates are approximate only and must not be relied upon.

□ Sand Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.3 □ Cone Penetrometer AS1289.6.3.2

