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On the isotache viscous modelling of clay behaviour using the hyperplasticity approach

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The thermodynamically based hyperplasticity framework is employed to develop a hyper-
3 viscoplastic constitutive model describing clay's creep and rate-dependent behaviour. The
4 proposed model complies with the concept of the isotache viscosity and the paradigm of the
5 critical state soil mechanics that is the uniqueness of the critical state friction envelope. A
6 versatile force potential or dissipation rate function is presented that provides adjustability of
7 the location of the critical state while securing a unique critical state friction envelope. A non-
8 associated flow rule as an essential property of frictional material is adopted by further
9 development of the force potential. Adequacy of the proposed constitutive model is evaluated
10 through the simulation of the triaxial tests conducted on Hong Kong marine deposits (HKMD).

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12 **KEYWORDS**

13 Clays; Constitutive relations; Creep; Critical state; Rate dependence; Thermodynamics; Time
14 dependence

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1 LIST OF NOTATIONS

| | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| f | Helmholtz free energy potential |
| G | Shear modulus |
| g | Dimensionless shear modulus coefficient |
| K | Bulk modulus |
| k | dimensionless bulk modulus coefficient |
| M | slope of critical state line in p, q plot |
| m | exponent in power-law relationship for stiffness |
| n | rate sensitivity parameter |
| OCR | Over consolidation ratio |
| p | Mean effective pressure |
| p_0 | isotropic pre-consolidation pressure associated with the reference isotache |
| p_0^{ref} | Reference isotropic pressure at zero plastic volumetric strain |
| p_a | Reference pressure (atmospheric pressure) in Helmholtz free energy potential |
| p_{eq} | Equivalent pressure on isotropic unloading reloading line (IURL) |
| q | Deviatoric stress invariant |
| R | Spacing ratio |
| r | norm of an arbitrary reference volumetric strain rate |
| S | State variable |
| T | Transition function |
| w | Flow potential |
| W^p | Plastic work |
| z | Force potential |
| v | Specific volume |
| ε_s^p | Deviatoric plastic strain measure |
| $\varepsilon_v, \varepsilon_v^p$ | Total and plastic volumetric strain |
| γ | parameter for non-associated flow rule |
| η | Stress ratio invariant |
| κ | slope of isotropic unloading reloading line (IURL) |
| λ | slope of normal compression line (NCL) |
| μ | Creep index |
| τ | Intrinsic reference time, normally 24 hrs. |
| ν | Poisson ratio |
| χ_p, χ_q | Mean and deviatoric invariant of dissipative stress |

1 INTRODUCTION

2 The hyperplasticity framework (Houlsby and Puzrin, 2000, Houlsby and Puzrin, 2007)
3 provides a rigorous and systematic procedure to establish a hierarchy of thermodynamically
4 consistent constitutive models without the unnecessary and restrictive postulate of Drucker
5 (1957). By invoking the orthogonality postulate of Ziegler (1977), all elements of a constitutive
6 model can be defined with the specification of two potentials: the free energy potential and
7 dissipation rate function (or the force potential).

8 The hyperplastic description of the Modified Cam-Clay (MCC) model (Houlsby, 1981) has an
9 integrable term in the increment of plastic volumetric work. This term has been considered in
10 the free energy function by Houlsby (1981), Collins and Hilder (2002) and Collins (2005).
11 However, Collins and Houlsby (1997) and Houlsby (2000) demonstrated that the MCC model
12 could also be derived by putting this energy in the dissipation function. Houlsby (2018) argues
13 that both cases can alternatively be employed to formulate families of the MCC model.
14 Furthermore, Houlsby (2018) concluded that since there is no unique expression for the MCC
15 model, the free energy and dissipation generally are not ‘observable’.

16 The potential of the hyperplasticity theory has been explored rather extensively in developing
17 rate-independent constitutive models for clay (Einav and Puzrin, 2003, Yan and Li, 2011,
18 Coombs, 2017, Zhang et al., 2018, Rollo and Amorosi, 2020). On the contrary, its application
19 in modelling clay's creep and rate-dependent behaviour is rare. The work by Puzrin and
20 Houlsby (2003) is one of the pioneering attempts. They formulated a model based on ‘rate
21 process theory’ (Mitchell et al., 1968, Fedá, 1989) for undrained behaviour of natural clay
22 under the triaxial condition. However, the model does not comply with the critical state soil
23 mechanics (CSSM) in which shear and consolidation behaviour are intertwined. Later,
24 Likitlersuang and Houlsby (2006), Likitlersuang and Houlsby (2007) and Apriadi et al. (2013),

25 by employing the specific form of the hyperplastic MCC model with the plastic-free energy
26 (Houlsby, 1981), proposed a rate-dependent constitutive model to capture the gradual
27 degradation of stiffness during monotonic loading and the effect of stress history. However,
28 the rate dependency in these models is essentially considered for simplifying the incremental
29 formulation and the numerical integration. More recently, Jacquey and Regenauer-Lieb (2021)
30 extended the rate-independent family of critical state models to include the rate dependency
31 with the non-associated flow rule. However, in addition to the questionable dimension they
32 used for viscosity, it has not been realised that the choice of using the specific form the rate-
33 independent hyperplastic critical state model of Collins and Hilder (2002) with the plastic-free
34 energy comes with the expensive cost of non-uniqueness of the friction mobilisation at the
35 critical state under different loading rates.

36 Similarly, Aung et al. (2019) employed the hyperplasticity framework to formulate a
37 constitutive model for soils' creep and rate-dependent behaviour. However, some serious
38 theoretical flaws are inherent in their application of the framework, such as violation of the
39 first law of thermodynamics and the principle of maximal rate of dissipation (Ziegler, 1977),
40 which is the cornerstone of the hyperplasticity framework. By addressing some of these issues,
41 Grimstad et al. (2020) proposed a hyper-viscoplastic formulation of the classical creep model
42 (Vermeer and Neher, 1999) that was derived based on Janbu's resistance concept (Janbu, 1985).

43 This work is an attempt to give more clarification for the construction of hyper-viscoplastic
44 formulation for creep and rate-dependent constitutive models that comply with the CSSM and
45 the isotache concept. The terminology used herein follows Collins and Houlsby (1997) and
46 Houlsby and Puzrin (2002). The force potential proposed by Grimstad et al. (2020) is derived
47 and further developed. Particular attention is given to the model's generalisation to attain a
48 family of isotropic isotache viscoplastic models with the non-associated flow rule while
49 securing a unique friction envelope at the critical state. Moreover, the model is employed to

50 simulate the behaviour of Hong Kong Marine Deposit (HKMD) (Yin and Zhu, 1999, Yin et al.,
51 2002).

52 **ELEMENTS AND ASSUMPTIONS**

53 Following conventional practice, the irreversible (plastic) strain known as the internal variable
54 and the total strain are assumed to be the kinematic variables of the system (the soil element).

55 The formulations are strain-based. The infinitesimal strain hypothesis is adopted. The
56 developments in the current paper are further confined to the isothermal processes for the
57 decoupled frictional materials whose elastic moduli are independent of the internal variable.

58 All stresses are taken to be effective stresses. Compressive stresses and strains are assumed to
59 be positive. Two fundamental and phenomenological concepts, namely the critical state
60 concept (Schofield and Wroth, 1968) and the isotache concept (Suklje, 1957), are invoked.

61 **CLASSICAL FORCE AND FLOW POTENTIALS**

62 Similar to the rate-independent case (Collins and Kelly, 2002, Collins and Hilder, 2002), the
63 construction of the dissipation function can begin with the observation of the kinematic
64 variables on the isotropic compression plane (Fig. 1). After Butterfield (1979), Hashiguchi
65 (1995), and Collins and Kelly (2002), $\ln v$ (v is specific volume) is chosen for the observation
66 since despite other theoretical benefits it can readily resemble the volumetric strain. Therefore,
67 according to the isotache concept (Leroueil, 2006), the rate-dependent isotropic responses of
68 clay can be ideally depicted as Fig. 1. In order to observe the kinematic variables and evaluate
69 the state of the soil element, a reference state (p_{ref}, v_{ref}) is defined. This is because for a
70 system like the soil element there is no natural state to which it can return by removal of stress
71 (Collins and Kelly, 2002).

72 The series of parallel lines represent the isotaches associated with normal compression lines
73 (NCL) at different plastic strain rates. Since it is assumed that the material is decoupled and

74 frictional, the isotropic unloading-reloading response is linear (IURL) with the slope of κ . As
75 can be seen, in addition to the rate-independent reference state, a reference strain rate (r)
76 (reference isotache) is also required to observe the internal variable and ‘soil memory’ (reserve
77 resistance). It should be noted that the components of the reference state are independent and
78 not work-conjugated (Collins and Kelly, 2002). The volumetric strain (ε_v), the internal
79 variable (ε_v^p), and the soil memory (p_0) for an arbitrary state A in the compression plane are
80 shown in Fig. 1. Following the isotache concept, rate response can be described by two
81 equations:

$$\frac{p}{p_{ref}} = f(\varepsilon_v, \varepsilon_v^p) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{p}{p_0} = g(\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p) \quad (2)$$

82 Several rheological scaling functions ($g(\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p)$) for soft clays have been proposed (Adachi and
83 Oka, 1982, Fodil et al., 1997, Stolle et al., 1999, Rocchi et al., 2003, Hinchberger and Rowe,
84 2005, Yang et al., 2016), and their applications in engineering practice have been demonstrated
85 (Rowe and Taechakumthorn, 2008, Karstunen and Yin, 2010, Degago et al., 2011, Mirjalili et
86 al., 2012, Karim et al., 2013, Grimstad et al., 2016, Tornborg et al., 2021). Of particular interest
87 is the work of Stolle et al. (1999) which is consistent with Janbu’s time resistance concept. This
88 distinction provides an objective interpretation and evaluation of the time-dependent
89 parameters (Vermeer and Neher, 1999, Grimstad et al., 2015). These parameters, as shown in
90 Fig. 2, are the slope of the line ($n - 1$) on the bi-logarithmic plane (which is commonly used
91 for the rheology of flows) and a reference point (p_0, r).

92 As can be seen, the scaling relation is logarithmically linear, whose practicality in the
93 examination of the viscous response of several worldwide clays has been confirmed (Leroueil,
94 2006, Qu et al., 2010). The detailed procedure of obtaining this scaling function based on the

95 time resistance concept is presented by Grimstad et al. (2010). The scaling relation can be
 96 expressed as:

$$\ln \frac{p}{p_{ref}} = \ln \frac{p_0}{p_{ref}} + (n - 1) [\ln \dot{\varepsilon}_v^p - \ln r] \xrightarrow{yields} p = p_0 \left(\frac{\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p}{r} \right)^{(n-1)} \quad (3)$$

97 The rate sensitivity parameter n in equation (3), which regulates the spacing between isotaches
 98 must be larger than one. Several fundamental studies (Buisman, 1936, Suklje, 1957, Bjerrum,
 99 1967, Garlanger, 1972) have shown that n is slightly larger than one. Indeed, according to
 100 Vermeer and Neher (1999) and Grimstad et al. (2010) n can be expressed as:

$$n = 1 + \frac{\mu}{\lambda - \kappa} \quad (4)$$

101 where λ and κ respectively are the slope of the NCL and IURL as shown in Fig. 1. The one-
 102 dimensional creep or secondary compression index (μ) is the creep rate (volumetric strain) in
 103 oedometer or isotropic creep tests. In the following, for simplicity, we continue to use n instead
 104 of its detailed value. r in equation (3) is the norm of an arbitrary reference volumetric strain
 105 rate which is typically taken as the average strain rate obtained in 24-h incremental loading
 106 consolidation tests.

107 It should be noted that p_0 and r must be evaluated consistently. They define a reference state
 108 from which the other pairs of plastic volumetric strain rate and pre-consolidation pressure are
 109 extrapolated with the scaling function. This importance has been demonstrated by Grimstad et
 110 al. (2016). According to the CSSM, p_0 can be defined as:

$$p_0 = p_{ref} \exp \left(\frac{\varepsilon_v^p}{\lambda - \kappa} \right) \quad (5)$$

111 in which p_{ref} is the value of p_0 at zero plastic volumetric strain. Evolution of p_0 based on
 112 equation (5), known as the isotropic hardening, renders the memory of the soil, i.e., reserve
 113 resistance against further compression.

114 It is of prime importance to recognize that $\dot{\epsilon}_v^p$ as the domain of the logarithmic function (or
115 exponentiation) in equation (3) must be strictly positive. It can become infinitesimal but never
116 zero or negative. According to the isotache scaling function, as $(\dot{\epsilon}_v^p/r) \rightarrow 0$, then $(p/p_0) \rightarrow 0$.
117 This refers to two extreme conditions: creep and stress relaxation (a decrease of effective stress
118 under constant volume) after an infinite time.

119 Based on the isotache concept, creep as a rheological phenomenon is a compressive and
120 completely dissipative process with a progressive and one-way motion like the universal or
121 Newtonian time, i.e., it only increases with the march of the universal time. The strict positivity
122 of $\dot{\epsilon}_v^p$ in equation (3) is consistent with this unidirectional attribute of creep. In other words, the
123 bi-logarithmic compression plane (Fig. 1) comprises infinite isotaches spread to the states with
124 unlimited logarithmic volumetric strain associated with $\dot{\epsilon}_v^p \rightarrow 0$ at infinite time. This
125 importance can be appreciated through the time resistance concept of Janbu (1969), which is
126 based on the causality relation between the universal time (cause) and the creep (effect). Time
127 here is referred to as a universal property to be differentiated from the intrinsic time defined as
128 an inherent property of the material in the endochronic theory (Valanis, 1971). Considering the
129 design life of infrastructures, the unlimited creep with decreasing rate has limited practical
130 implications. For instance, in this regard, by using the isotache concept, den Haan and van den
131 Berg (2001) reasoned that the corresponding age of clay with an over consolidation ratio (OCR
132 $= p/p_0$) of 4 is greater than the postulated age of the universe.

133 Similarly, effective mean stress can theoretically relax to an infinitesimal value after an infinite
134 time ($\dot{\epsilon}_v^p \rightarrow 0$). This is due to the feature of the logarithmic scaling function (equation (3)),
135 which fits with the feature of the bi-logarithmic compression plane. The process depends on
136 the particular choice of free energy function as it defines the state of the material. If the free
137 energy function requires infinite volumetric elastic expansion to reach zero effective stress

138 level (as implied by IURLs with the slope of κ), the time will clearly be limitless. Therefore,
139 this has little practical implication again, considering the same argument as above. A detailed
140 discussion about the performance of equation (3) in the description of the creep behaviour of
141 clay is provided by Leoni et al. (2008) and den Haan and van den Berg (2001).

142 The unidirectionality attribute of isotache framework led Yin and Tong (2011), Feng et al.
143 (2017) and Yao and Fang (2020) to consider swelling and creep as two mutually exclusive
144 phenomena. In this regard, Alonso and Navarro (2005) provided a microstructural
145 interpretation for the existence of distinct creep and swelling zones. On the other hand, through
146 analyses of several experimental observations, Vergote et al. (2021) concluded that swelling is
147 a non-isotache and essentially a transient process that strongly depends on the amount of
148 unloading. In the light of the above, the pure plastic swelling (unlike dilation) is excluded from
149 the current basic version of the model.

150 Suppose the initial state of the soil element is located at point $A(v_A, p_{eq,A})$ in Fig. 3. Now
151 imagine the soil element undergoes an isotropic loading Δp and experience the process
152 illustrated with the dashed grey curve in the figure. During the process, the state of the soil
153 element shown by black dots changes and passes through different isotaches. The isotache
154 scaling at each state is applied over the IURL associated with the related internal variable. As
155 can be seen, the IURLs are parallel due to the assumption of the uncoupled relation between
156 the elastic bulk modulus and the plastic strain. As a result of the history from state A to state B
157 and the evolution of the plastic strain, the soil attains a new memory, and subsequently, the
158 reference pre-consolidation pressure (p_0) took the relative position to the arbitrary state B
159 ($p_{0,B}$) on the related IURL as depicted in Fig. 3. By applying the isotache scaling (equation
160 (3)), the plastic work at the arbitrary state $B(v_B, p_B)$ along the isotropic process becomes:

$$\dot{W}^p = \dot{\varepsilon}_v^p p_B = \dot{\varepsilon}_v^p p_{0,B} g(\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p) = r p_0 \left(\frac{\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p}{r} \right)^n \quad (6)$$

161 To exclude the plastic swelling and make the base of the exponentiation positive based on the
 162 previous discussion, equation (6) is hence modified to:

$$\dot{W}^p = r p_0 \left(\frac{|\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p| + \dot{\varepsilon}_v^p}{2r} \right)^n \quad (7)$$

163 Following Roscoe and Burland (1968), the shear and consolidation behaviour can be coupled
 164 via the Euclidean norm of the plastic volumetric strain and the plastic shear strain weighted by
 165 the frictional material parameter (M). The plastic work can then be expressed as:

$$\dot{W}^p = r p_0 \left(\frac{\sqrt{(\dot{\varepsilon}_v^p)^2 + (M \dot{\varepsilon}_s^p)^2} + \dot{\varepsilon}_v^p}{2r} \right)^n \quad (8)$$

166 Interestingly, if $n = 1$ then the dissipation function for the MCC model with the integrable
 167 term (Houlsby, 2000) can be retrieved. However, in contrast to the rate-independent case
 168 (Collins and Hilder, 2002), the plastic work rate here is completely path-dependent without any
 169 recoverable part. Therefore, herein equation (8) is considered as the dissipation rate. This is
 170 also consistent with the meaning taken for the creep in the isotache framework i.e., creep is a
 171 progressively compressive (in absence of dilatancy) and dissipative process.

172 Following Houlsby and Puzrin (2002), since the dissipation function in equation (8) is a
 173 homogenous function of order n , the force potential (z) can be defined as the dissipation
 174 function (equation (8)) divided by the homogeneity order n :

$$z = \frac{rp_0}{n} \left(\frac{\sqrt{(\dot{\epsilon}_v^p)^2 + (M\dot{\epsilon}_s^p)^2} + \dot{\epsilon}_v^p}{2r} \right)^n \quad (9)$$

175 Trivially, as is the case here, the dimension of the rate of the dissipation function or force
 176 potential must be energy per volume per time equal to *stress/time*. However, this simple but
 177 essential point has been overlooked in some works, e.g. Aung et al. (2019) and Osman et al.
 178 (2020). Similarly, for securing a correct dimension for the dissipation function, Jacquey and
 179 Regenauer-Lieb (2021) ended up in a questionable dimension for viscosity.

180 The Legendre-Fenchel transformation of the force potential provides the flow potential
 181 (Houlsby and Puzrin, 2002), which defines the evolution of the internal variable (plastic strain).
 182 Following Grimstad et al. (2020), the flow potential (w) can be found:

$$w = rp_0 \left(\frac{n-1}{n} \right) \left(\frac{p_{eq}}{p_0} \right)^{n/(n-1)} \quad (10)$$

183 where p_{eq} is known as the size of the dynamic yield surface (Perzyna, 1963), whose division
 184 by p_0 here represents the relative rate of the ongoing process. It is defined as:

$$p_{eq} = \chi_p + \frac{1}{\chi_p} \left(\frac{\chi_q}{M} \right)^2 \quad (11)$$

185 Equation (11) is similar to the MCC yield surface employed in the classical creep model
 186 (Vermeer and Neher, 1999), but here it is in terms of the dissipative stresses (χ_p, χ_q) . This is
 187 of prime importance since it opens a possibility to introduce a non-associated flow rule, while
 188 still obeying the principle of maximal dissipation guaranteed by Ziegler's orthogonality
 189 postulate (Ziegler, 1977, Houlsby and Puzrin, 2007). For instance, Grimstad et al. (2021) has
 190 practised this possibility to propose a relation for the evolution of the earth pressure coefficient
 191 at rest (K_0) with time.

192 The force potential was one of the two required potentials for constitutive modelling using the
 193 hyperplasticity approach. The free energy potential is also necessary to describe the path-
 194 independent behaviour of soil. This potential will be expressed in terms of the Helmholtz free
 195 energy in the following.

196 **HELMHOLTZ FREE ENERGY POTENTIAL**

197 Experimental studies on clay (Janbu, 1963, Hardin and Black, 1968, Viggiani and Atkinson,
 198 1995, Rampello et al., 1997) indicate that the elastic behaviour is non-linearly state-dependent
 199 (stress or strain). In this regard, Houlsby et al. (2005) proposed a versatile free energy potential.
 200 The Helmholtz form (f) of this potential for the strain-based description of the current model
 201 is expressed as:

$$f = \frac{p_a}{k(2-m)} \left[(k(1-m)\varepsilon^*)^{(2-m)/(1-m)} \right] \quad (12a)$$

$$\varepsilon^* = \sqrt{\left(\varepsilon_v - \varepsilon_v^p + \frac{1}{k(1-m)} \right)^2 + \frac{3g}{k(1-m)} (\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_s^p)^2} \quad (12b)$$

202 where p_a is an arbitrary reference pressure (preferably $p_a = 100$ kPa), and m , k , and g are
 203 dimensionless material parameters.

204 Interestingly, like the MCC dissipation function, the volumetric and shear strains in equation
 205 (12b) are coupled by the square root function. In addition to being strictly convex, the free
 206 energy potential is positive definite for any strain values, i.e., work must be done on the soil
 207 (positive work) to deform.

208 For an isotropic process, the bulk and shear moduli can be obtained from the free energy
 209 function as:

$$K = kp_a \left(\frac{p}{p_a} \right)^m \quad (13a)$$

$$G = gp_a \left(\frac{p}{p_a} \right)^m \quad (13b)$$

210 m as an exponent ($0 \leq m \leq 1$) defines the non-linearity of the pressure dependency. For $m =$
 211 1 the bulk modulus is a linear function of pressure, and subsequently, a linear relation for
 212 IURLs on the logarithmic compression plane (Fig. 3) can be retrieved. In this case, the slope
 213 of IURLs (κ) equals $1/k$. This is also conforming to the CSSM definition of the soil memory
 214 (equation (5)), which in the isotache concept controls the time resistance of soil (Grimstad et
 215 al., 2010). This distinction provides an objective measurement for the viscous properties (the
 216 slope of the line in Fig. 2) from the time resistance concept, as the measures will be independent
 217 of the choice of the reference state.

218 For $m = 1$ the free energy function in equation (12) becomes singular. Houlsby et al. (2005)
 219 presented the Helmholtz free energy for this case as:

$$f = \left(\frac{p_a}{k} \right) \exp \left(k(\varepsilon_v - \varepsilon_v^p) + \frac{3}{2} kg(\varepsilon_s - \varepsilon_s^p)^2 \right) \quad (14)$$

220 The volumetric and shear strains in equation (14) are still coupled to give a pressure-dependent
 221 elastic shear modulus. The byproduct of having this experimentally supported feature for the
 222 elastic stiffness is another feature called ‘stress-induced anisotropy’. This kind of anisotropy is
 223 an imposed condition on the system by the first law of thermodynamic and is not related to the
 224 fundamental structure of the material. In this case, according to Muir Wood and Graham (1990),
 225 for a non-isotropic process, the unloading-reloading behaviour on the compression plane is not
 226 a single line but rather an unloading- reloading region whose size and shape depend on the
 227 stress field. This is shown schematically in Fig. 4.

228 Perhaps the most striking feature of the free energy potential is lack of the plastic-free energy
 229 or stored plastic work. For the rate-independent case, Collins and Hilder (2002) have proposed
 230 a family of the CSSM model by modifying the flow rule and the location of the critical state

231 via adjustment of shares of the stored and the dissipated plastic work. Based on Ziegler's
232 orthogonality postulate, the plastic-free energy gives a rate-independent 'shift' or 'back' stress
233 that relates the true stress to the dissipative stress (Collins and Houlsby, 1997). Grimstad et al.
234 (2020) demonstrated that plastic-free energy could not be included for a rate-dependent system
235 with a single internal variable. Otherwise, there would be no unique mobilised friction at the
236 critical state, which contradicts the paradigm of CSSM (Schofield and Wroth, 1968). This is
237 because the plastic-free energy must be a unique function of the internal variable, not its rate.
238 Whereas the creep or the rate-dependency of the material behaviour is essentially a history or
239 path-dependent (loading history), i.e., they must be considered in the dissipation function of
240 the rate of the internal variable.

241 On the other hand, based on the interpretation of Collins (2005), ignoring the stored plastic
242 work imposes a homogenous volumetric mechanism at the micro/mesoscale. Therefore, by
243 acknowledging this limitation that dissipative and true stress are equal (no shift stress), the
244 following focuses on devising a sophisticated force potential to attain a versatile flow rule and
245 an adjustable critical state location on the unique critical state friction envelope.

246 **GENERALISATION OF THE FORCE AND FLOW POTENTIALS**

247 The force potential defined in equation (9) provides the classical viscoplastic model (Vermeer
248 and Neher, 1999). The model's performance in the true stress space is schematically shown in
249 Fig. 5. As can be seen, there are three MCC elliptical surfaces with homothetic relations. Each
250 p_{eq} is a function of an elliptical convex set of the deviatoric and the mean stresses. The
251 homothetic relation between the convex sets or the ratio of p_{eq}/p_0 determines the relative rate
252 of the loading of a certain process. As a result, the critical state is always located in the middle
253 of the ellipses. In other words, the ratio of the equivalent stress measure to the isotropic
254 component of the corresponding critical state stress, known as 'Spacing Ratio', is always equal

255 to two. However, experimental studies show that this is not the general case, and higher values
 256 for spacing ratio have been reported for clay (Chakraborty et al., 2013, Chen and Yang, 2017).

257 To redress this limitation, the force potential in equation (9) is modified to:

$$z = \frac{rp_0}{n} \left(\frac{\sqrt{(T\dot{\epsilon}_v^p)^2 + (M\dot{\epsilon}_s^p)^2} + \dot{\epsilon}_v^p}{Rr} \right)^n \quad (15)$$

258 where $R > 1$ is the spacing ratio. Every other parameter in equation (15) is the same as equation
 259 (9) except the first term inside the square root, which is called the transition function:

$$T = \frac{R}{2} + \left(\frac{R-2}{2} \right) \tanh(S) \quad (16)$$

260 where S is a state variable defined as:

$$S = \left(\frac{M}{\eta} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{\eta}{M} \right)^2 \quad (17a)$$

$$\eta = q/p \quad (17b)$$

261 Considering the homothetic functioning of isotache framework, the critical state stress ratio is
 262 taken as a reference in the definition of the state variable. The stress ratio η can represent the
 263 mobilised friction at the current stress state. For $R = 2$, the transition function will be
 264 independent of η , and the force potential in equation (9) can be retrieved. Again following
 265 Houlsby and Puzrin (2002) and Grimstad et al. (2020), the same structure for the flow potential
 266 as equation (10) can be obtained in which p_{eq} is expressed in terms of dissipative stress as:

$$p_{eq} = \frac{R\chi_p \sqrt{(\chi_p^2 M^2 - \chi_q^2)^2 + \chi_q^2 (MT\chi_p + \sqrt{\chi_p^2 M^2 + (T^2 - 1)\chi_q^2})^2}}{T(\chi_p^2 M^2 - \chi_q^2) + \sqrt{(\chi_p^2 M^2 - \chi_q^2)^2 + \chi_q^2 (MT\chi_p + \sqrt{\chi_p^2 M^2 + (T^2 - 1)\chi_q^2})^2}} \quad (18)$$

267 Since there is no shift stress, $\chi_p = p$ and $\chi_q = q$. In Fig. 6, the convex sets (solid curves) for
 268 $R = 1.5, 3$ in the normalised true stress space are illustrated. The other two elliptical surfaces

269 shown by the circle and square marks are just drawn to explain the performance of the transition
270 function T . As it is seen, the centre of the ellipses is located at the desired spacing ratio R . This
271 is ensured by fixing the share of the plastic volumetric strain outside of the square root in the
272 force potential to be $1/R$. Considering the property of the hyperbolic tangent function in T ,
273 when $\eta = 0$ and subsequently $S = +\infty$, then $T = R - 1$. In this case, the force potential
274 resembles equation (6) for any values of R describing the dissipative isotropic compression
275 process. However, by increasing η^2 on the compressive side of the critical state stress ratio, the
276 stress state moves along the ellipse with square marks whose size depends on the share of the
277 plastic volumetric strain inside the square root through T . As η approaches M , the stress state
278 slightly diverges from the ellipse with square marks towards the one with circle marks which
279 has a different size due to change of T with η^2 .

280 On the other hand, on the dilative side of the critical state stress ratio, with the decrease of η^2
281 from $+\infty$ at the extreme state $p = 0$ towards M^2 at the critical state, the stress state moves along
282 the ellipse shown by circle marks. One should bear in mind that $p = 0$ is an unapproachable
283 state because of the chosen free energy (equation (14)) and the isotache scaling functions. Like
284 the compressive side, as η approaches M , the stress state slightly diverges from the ellipse
285 shown by circle marks to the one with square marks through changes in T . The fact that dilation
286 is controlled by the ratio of the current stress ratio (η) to the critical state stress ratio and the
287 spacing ratio (R) is a fundamental premise of the CSSM for isotropic soils, which has been
288 employed in the current model via the versatile force potential (equation (15)). Fig. 7 shows
289 the convex sets and related inelastic flow directions in the normalised true stress space for
290 different values of the spacing ratio. As shown, the inelastic flow directions are practically
291 associated, although the force potential in equation (15) involves the true stress terms in the
292 transition function.

293 With an adjustable spacing ratio, the model can now compete with the analogue viscoplastic models
 294 (Kutter and Sathialingam, 1992, Yin and Zhu, 1999, Yin et al., 2002, Islam and Gnanendran, 2017).
 295 These models pursue associated flow rule as they are based on the viscoplastic theory of Perzyna
 296 (1963) proposed by invoking the postulate of Drucker (1957). Moreover, these models use a
 297 composite dynamic surface presented by Dafalias and Herrmann (1986), which can cause their
 298 numerical integration problematic. In contrast, the proposed model up to this stage can
 299 continuously describe a process with the single and convex sets of dissipative stresses defined in
 300 equation (18). This distinction allows the employment of particular numerical schemes (de Borst
 301 and Heeres, 2002, Simo and Hughes, 2006) to integrate the proposed constitutive model. Despite
 302 this distinction, the proposed model still practically suffers from the associated flow rule.
 303 According to Collins and Kelly (2002), this deficiency stems from a lack of the essential property
 304 of frictional material that is the pressure-dependent frictional dissipative mechanism. This
 305 deficiency can be overcome by introducing a linear frictional dissipation mechanism to the force
 306 potential (equation (15)) via rewriting M as a linear function of the true mean stress p . Therefore,
 307 by preserving the dimension of the force potential and considering the boundaries, namely the
 308 critical state shearing and isotropic compression, as two mutually exclusive processes, M in
 309 equations (15) and (18) can be replaced by \bar{M} defined as:

$$\bar{M} = M \left[1 - \gamma + \gamma \left(\frac{Rp}{\bar{p}_0} \right) \right] \quad (19a)$$

$$\bar{p}_0 = \frac{Rp \sqrt{(p^2 M^2 - q^2)^2 + q^2 (MTp + \sqrt{p^2 M^2 + (T^2 - 1)q^2})^2}}{T(p^2 M^2 - q^2) + \sqrt{(p^2 M^2 - q^2)^2 + q^2 (MTp + \sqrt{p^2 M^2 + (T^2 - 1)q^2})^2}} \quad (19b)$$

310 where γ is a positive value parameter interpolating M between mutually exclusive states of
 311 $\eta = 0$, $\eta = M$ and $\eta = \pm\infty$. To increase the flexibility in fine-tuning the value of γ , it is
 312 suggested to employ the following equation instead of equation (19a):

$$\bar{M} = M \sqrt{1 - \gamma + \gamma \left(\frac{Rp}{\bar{p}_0} \right)} \quad (20)$$

313 Fig. 8 depicts the new convex loci together with the inelastic flow directions in the normalised
 314 true stress plane for different values γ . As can be seen, the frictional dissipative mechanism,
 315 which is intensified by the increase of γ value, pushes the loci towards more “tear-drop” shapes.
 316 However, the loci remain convex as it must, even for relatively high values of γ . Unlike the
 317 rate-independent case (Collins and Kelly, 2002), convexity in the true stress space, as well as
 318 the dissipative stress space, is necessary for isotache viscoplastic models. Otherwise, the
 319 concave parts of loci would shrink as the loading rate increases causing lower shear strength
 320 for high loading rates, which contradicts the experimental observations.

321 As another substantial distinction shown in Fig. 8, it can be observed that whilst the critical
 322 state location remains unchanged, the intensification of the frictional mechanism mitigates the
 323 dilatancy on the dilative side of the critical state envelope, whereas it relatively increases the
 324 dilatancy on the compressive side of the critical state envelope.

325 **MODEL PARAMETERS**

326 Equations (13), (10), (9) and (18) define all components of the proposed model. These
 327 equations can be compacted into two potentials since the combination of the last three
 328 equations is the flow potential (equation (10)). Based on these equations, the current model
 329 requires seven dimensionless parameters. These parameters can straightforwardly be evaluated
 330 from conventional triaxial and oedometer tests. Table 1 shows the model parameters and their
 331 value for HKMD.

332 Three parameters κ , λ and M are the traditional parameters of the CSSM. k and g specify the
 333 elastic moduli. As it has been assumed $m = 1$ in equation (13), the slope of IURL (κ) is equal
 334 to $1/k$. Based on the free energy function (equation (14)), there is no stress-induced anisotropy

335 for isotropic loading processes (Houlsby et al., 2005). Subsequently, a constant Poisson's ratio
336 (ν) for isotropic stress condition can be retrieved:

$$\frac{G}{K} = \frac{g}{k} = \frac{3(1 - 2\nu)}{2(1 + \nu)} \approx 0.75 \quad (21)$$

337 In the absence of the proper experimental data for small strain conditions, equation (21) can be
338 employed for the estimation of g .

339 Parameters R and γ adjust the shape of the convex locus. The locus equivalently represents the
340 yield surface for the rate-independent condition. Specifically, spacing ratio R determines the
341 relative location of the critical state on the convex set or the location of the critical state line
342 from the NCL on the compression plane. By reviewing the experimental observation, Chen and
343 Yang (2017) demonstrated that R varies typically between two and three for clay. A positive
344 value for parameter γ specifies the degree of non-associativity in the flow rule. As it increases,
345 the convex surface becomes more twisted and shows significant stress softening on the
346 compressional side of the critical state line. For $\gamma = 0$ the flow rule is practically associated,
347 as shown in Fig. 7 and 8.

348 The creep index (μ) is the rate of creep in the oedometer or isotropic creep tests. Based on this
349 definition, it is tempting to estimate the value of μ by plotting the creep data in terms of strain
350 against the logarithm of time. However, this would result in an unobjective value for μ
351 depending on subjective appreciation of the curvature of the plotted response. This is of great
352 importance since a slight change in the value of μ significantly affect the creep or rate-
353 dependent response of the model. For an objective value of μ , according to the time resistance
354 concept (Janbu, 1969, Janbu, 1985), the creep data should be plotted in the form of the inverse
355 of strain rate (time resistance) against time which results in a linear pattern whose slope is equal
356 to $1/\mu$ (Vermeer and Neher, 1999, Grimstad et al., 2015). Alternatively, according to Nash and

357 Ryde (2001), μ can also be objectively determined by plotting the creep data in terms of strain
 358 against the logarithm of strain rate and computing the slope of the trendline.

359 The arbitrary reference strain rate (r) is usually taken to be the norm of the average volumetric
 360 strain rate obtained in 24-h incremental loading consolidation tests such as oedometer (K_0
 361 loading) or isotropic consolidation. For instance, for the oedometer test, the plastic strain rate
 362 under K_0 loading can be written as:

$$\dot{\epsilon}_v^p|_{oed} = \frac{\partial w}{\partial \chi_p} = r \left(\frac{p_{eq}}{p_0} \right)^{\lambda - \kappa} \frac{\partial p_{eq}}{\partial \chi_p} \Big|_{\eta_{K_0}} \quad (22)$$

363 in which, equation (4) is employed for n . Since the isotache associated with the K_0 -loading
 364 ($\eta = \eta_{K_0}$) is chosen as the reference, $p_{eq} = p_0$ and therefore r can be computed as:

$$r = \frac{\dot{\epsilon}_v^p|_{oed}}{\frac{\partial p_{eq}}{\partial \chi_p} \Big|_{\eta_{K_0}}} = \frac{\mu}{\tau \left(\frac{\partial p_{eq}}{\partial \chi_p} \Big|_{\eta_{K_0}} \right)} \quad (23)$$

365 in which, $\dot{\epsilon}_v^p|_{oed}$ is replaced by its value μ/τ according to the time resistance concept
 366 (Grimstad et al., 2010). Note that since there is no shift stress, $\chi_p = p$ should be employed in
 367 equation (22) and (23). τ is the intrinsic reference time which is normally taken to be 24-h for
 368 an odometer test.

369 EVALUATION OF MODEL

370 To evaluate the adequacy of the proposed model, triaxial tests conducted by Zhu (2000) on the
 371 reconstituted samples of the HKMD are simulated. The model parameters presented in Table
 372 1 are obtained based on the data reported by Yin and Zhu (1999), Zhu (2000), and Yin et al.
 373 (2002).

374 Fig. 9 shows the simulated and measured data of undrained triaxial compression tests at
375 constant strain loading rates of 0.15, 1.5, and 15%/h. Before shearing, each specimen was
376 normally consolidated to isotropic mean effective stress of 400 kPa ($p_0 = 400 \text{ kPa}$). Except
377 for the case of $R = 2$ (the MCC dynamic surface) at the strain rate of 15%/h, there is a
378 reasonable agreement between the simulations and the experiments. The simulation with $R =$
379 2 demonstrates the significant effect of the spacing ratio parameter on the predicted undrained
380 shear strength. In fact, the ratio of the shear strength when $R = 2$ to the one when $R = 2.5$ is
381 equal to the inverse of the ratio of their correspondent spacing ratios.

382 Fig. 10 shows the comparison between the measurements and the simulations of undrained
383 triaxial tests at the strain rate of 1.5%/h conducted on the specimens with different over-
384 consolidation ratios (OCR). The model captures the response of the lightly overconsolidated
385 samples ($OCR = 1, 2$) well. However, the responses of the specimens with OCR of 4 and 8 are
386 overestimated. This is even worse for the case of $OCR = 8$ using the MCC dynamic surface.
387 The measurements depict a hardening behaviour all over the test. However, the model exhibits
388 softening response after attaining the peak stress at axial strains between 1% and 2%. This is
389 the identical drawback seen in the MCC model that can be overcome by considering the
390 stiffness degradation through the introduction of kinematic hardening (Houlsby, 2000, Einav
391 and Puzrin, 2003).

392 The undrained triaxial test with complicated loading stages shown in Table 2 is also simulated.
393 An initial effective cell pressure of 300 kPa is considered for the normally consolidated sample.
394 The comparison between the simulation and the measurements can be seen in Fig. 11. The
395 Simulations have also been done with the constant shear modulus (G) of 9200 kPa to assess
396 the effect of the stress-induced anisotropy imposed by the first law of thermodynamic.
397 According to Fig. 11(a), the stress-strain response of both simulations is quite similar with an
398 acceptable agreement with the measurements. However, Fig. 11(b) shows some differences

399 between the simulations of developed excess pore water pressure. The result of both
400 simulations are generally in agreement with the measurements, but the simulation with constant
401 G shows more sensitivity in the excess pore water pressure to the change of loading rate,
402 particularly for relaxations and the subsequent reloading parts. The difference between the two
403 simulations can be observed clearly in the stress path shown in Fig. 11(c). Due to the stress-
404 induced anisotropy, the stress path for the case with pressure-dependent shear modulus is
405 inclined and indicates better agreement with the measurements in the early stages of the test.
406 However, in both cases, the model could not satisfactorily capture the reloading after the
407 unloading stage and consequently the relaxations and the subsequent reloading stages.

408 **CONCLUSIONS**

409 This paper demonstrates the application of the hyperplasticity approach in the development of
410 a constitutive model to characterise the creep and rate-dependent behaviour of clays. The
411 compliance with the concepts of critical state and the isotache viscosity is considered. The
412 proposed model is specified by defining the free energy and force potentials. The force
413 potential for the classical creep model is derived and further developed for a wide range of
414 clays by considering the spacing ratio. The developed model enjoys the non-associated flow
415 rule as a natural consequence of the frictional dissipative mechanism. It requires seven
416 dimensionless material parameters. Some of the model's distinctive features, namely
417 adjustability of the critical state location and stress-induced anisotropy, are validated by
418 simulation of the triaxial tests conducted on the reconstituted HKMD clay.

419 Compliance with the uniqueness of the critical state friction envelope rejects the plastic part of
420 the free energy for a system with a single internal variable. A promising remedy for this
421 deficiency could be the introduction of additional internal variables, which might help model
422 the pure plastic swelling behaviour. Moreover, further development of the model can include

423 the Lode angle dependency, the plastic anisotropy, and the destructuration, which are all
424 notable features of the mechanical behaviour of clays.

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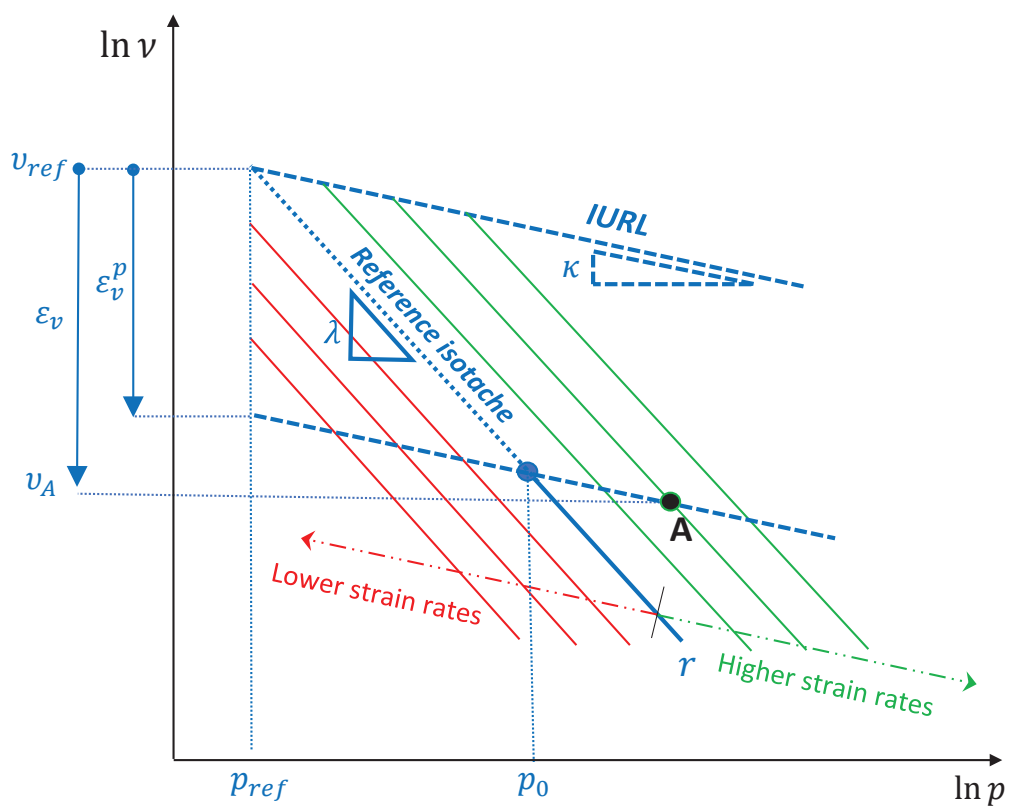


Fig. 1: Isotache idealization of rate-dependent isotropic compression behaviour of soil and illustration of the reference state

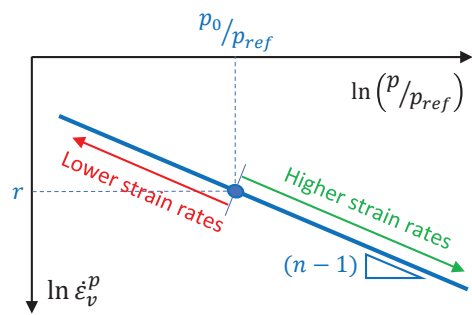


Fig. 2: Isotache scaling relation

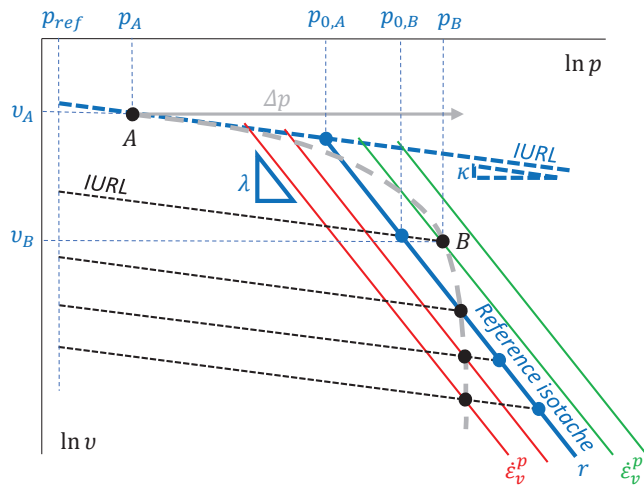


Fig. 3: Illustration of an arbitrary isotropic consolidation process and application of isotache scaling relation along the process

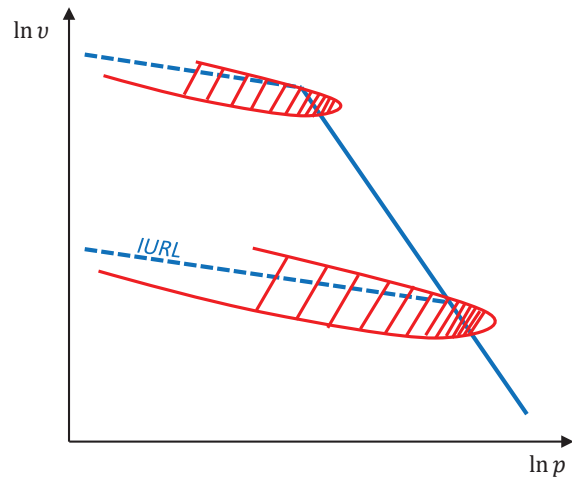


Fig. 4: Unloading- reloading zone caused by the stress-induced anisotropy

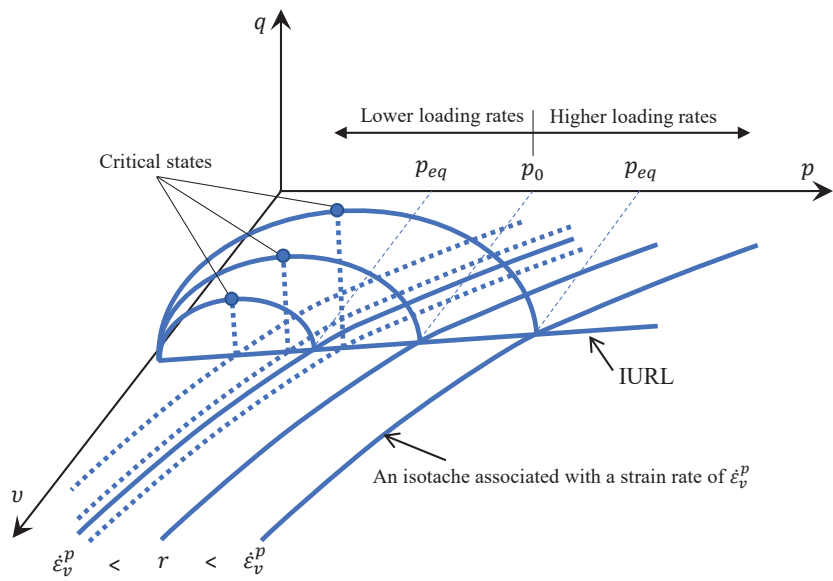
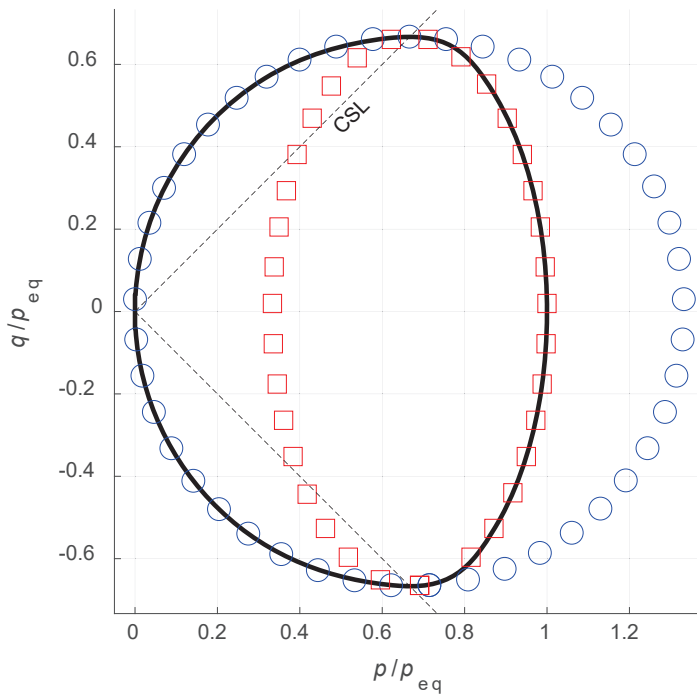
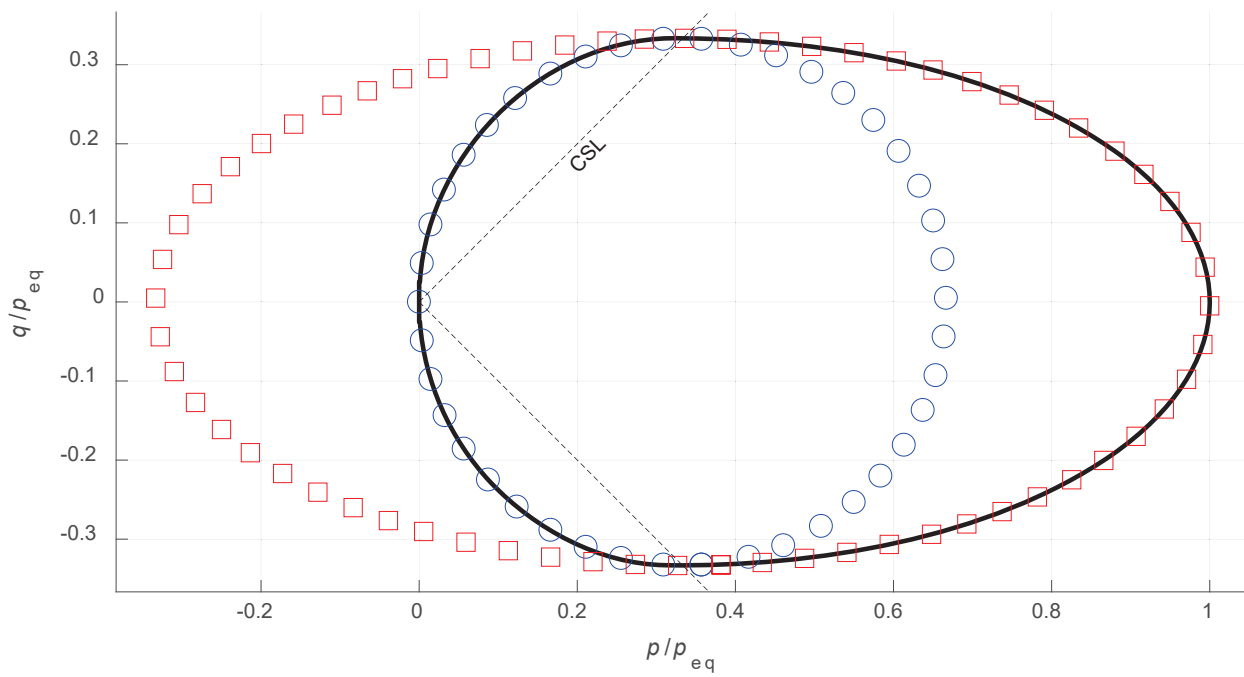


Fig. 5: Schematic illustration of the basic viscoplastic model with the homothetic MCC surfaces



(a)



(b)

Fig. 6: The convex set in the true stress space when $M = 1$ and: (a) $R = 1.5$ (b) $R = 3.0$

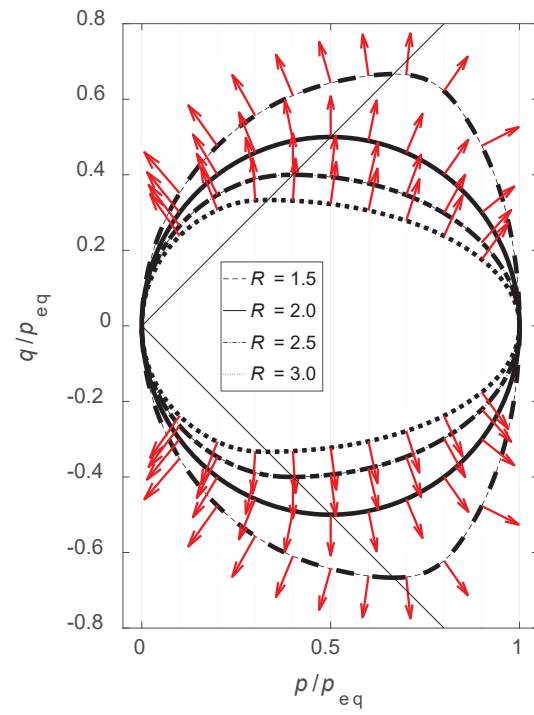


Fig. 7: The convex loci together with the corresponding inelastic flow directions (arrows) in the normalized true stress space for different values of R while $M = 1$

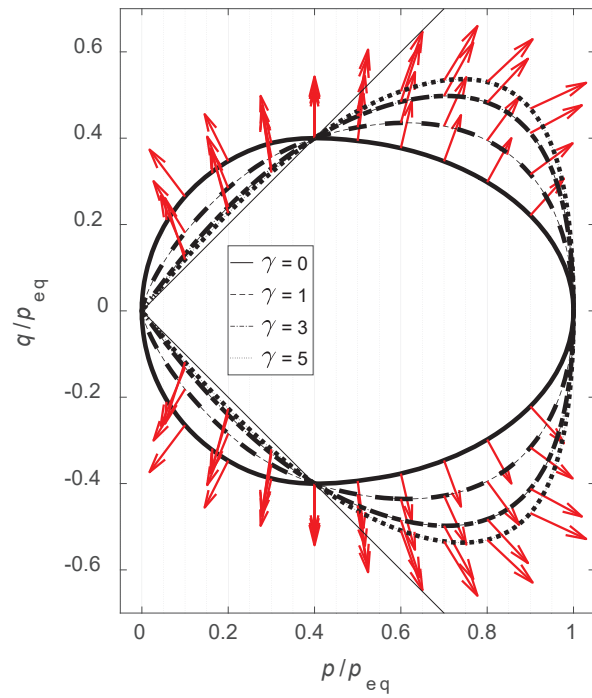
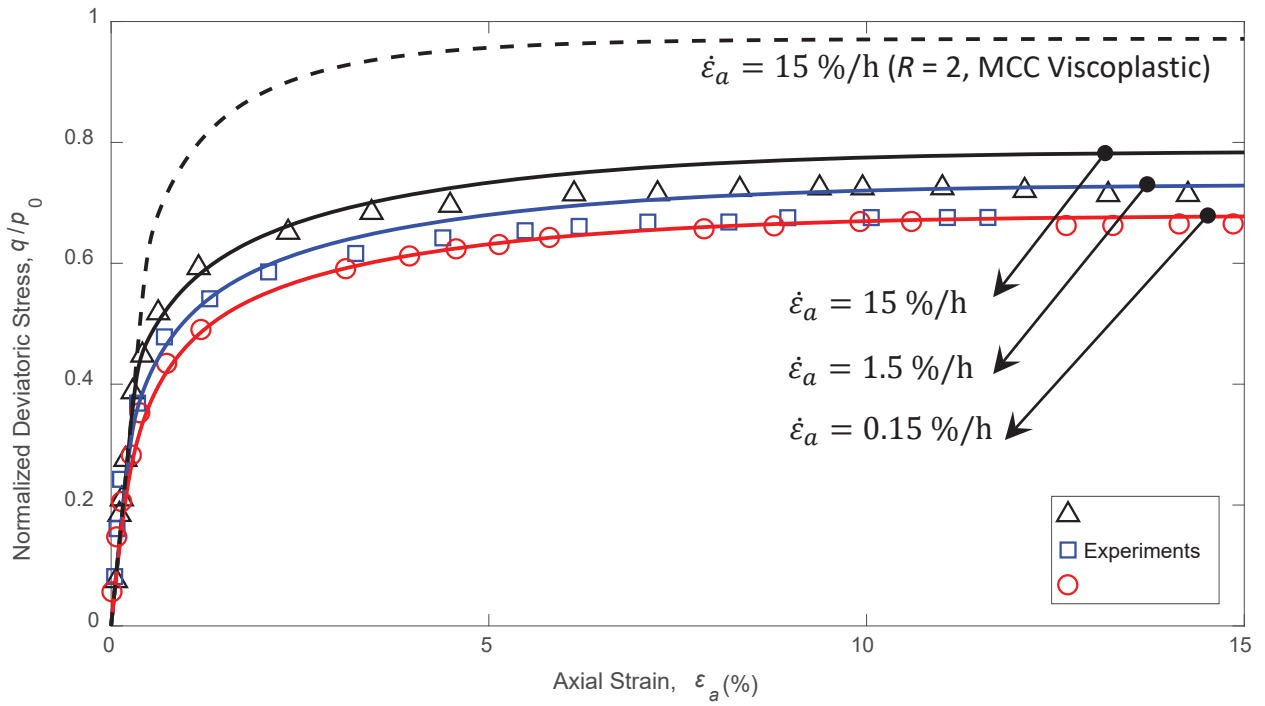
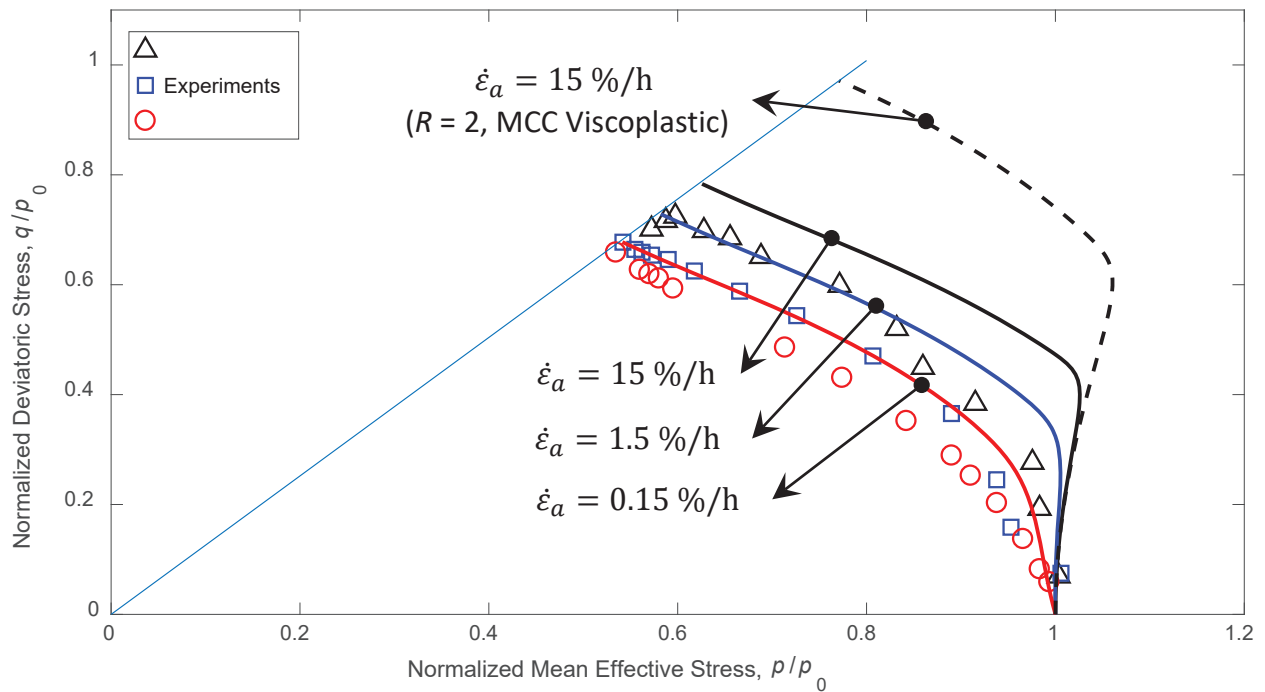


Fig. 8: The convex loci together with the corresponding inelastic flow directions (arrows) in the normalized true stress space for different values of γ while $M = 1$ and $R = 2.5$

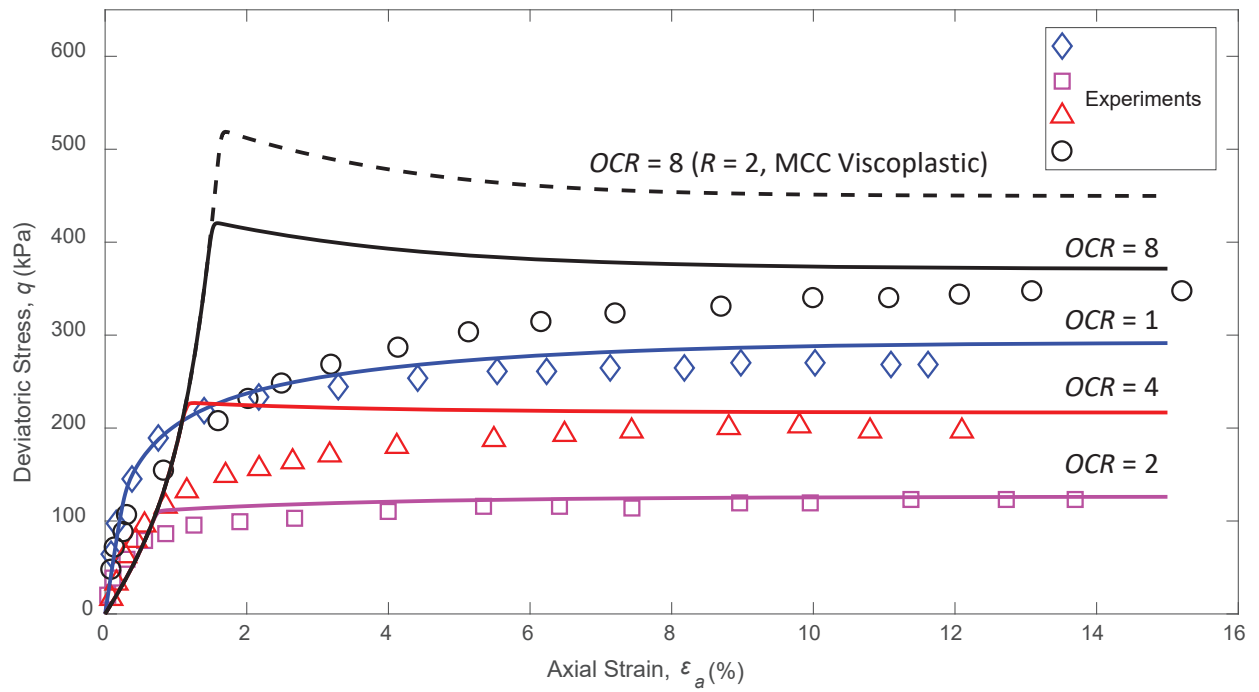


(a)

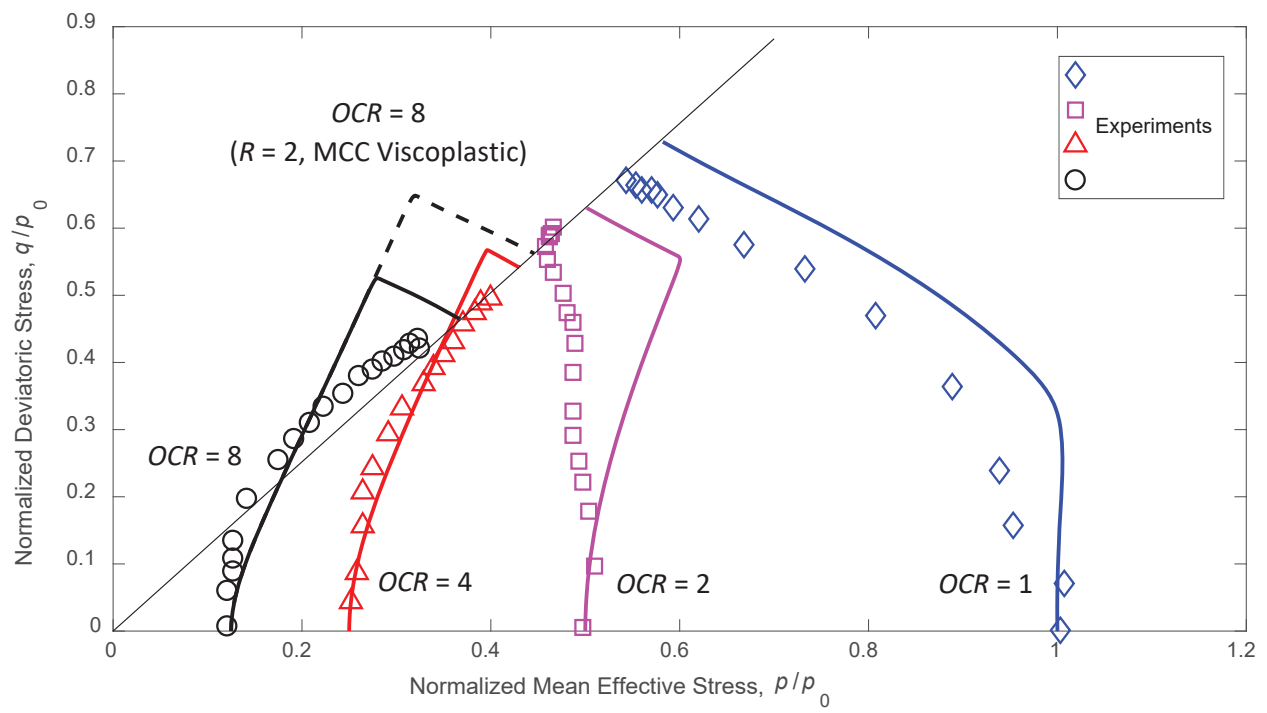


(b)

Fig. 9: Experimental and simulated undrained triaxial compression tests on normally consolidated reconstituted HKMD under different strain rates

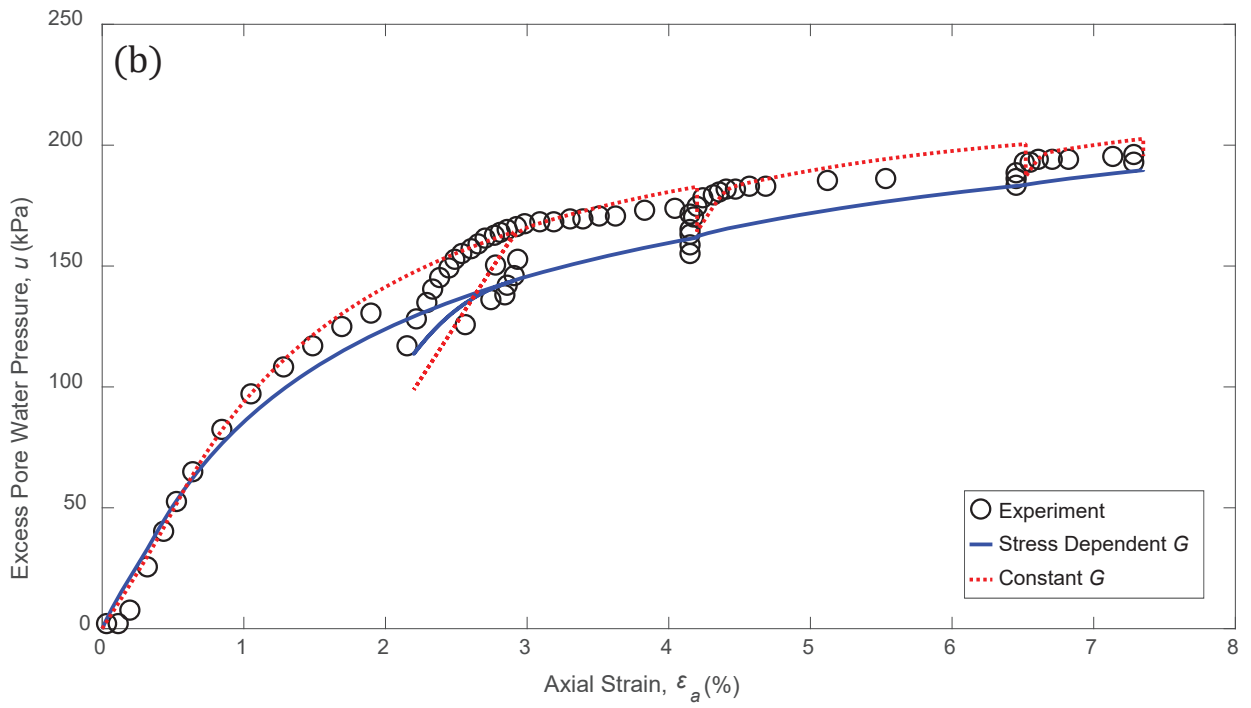
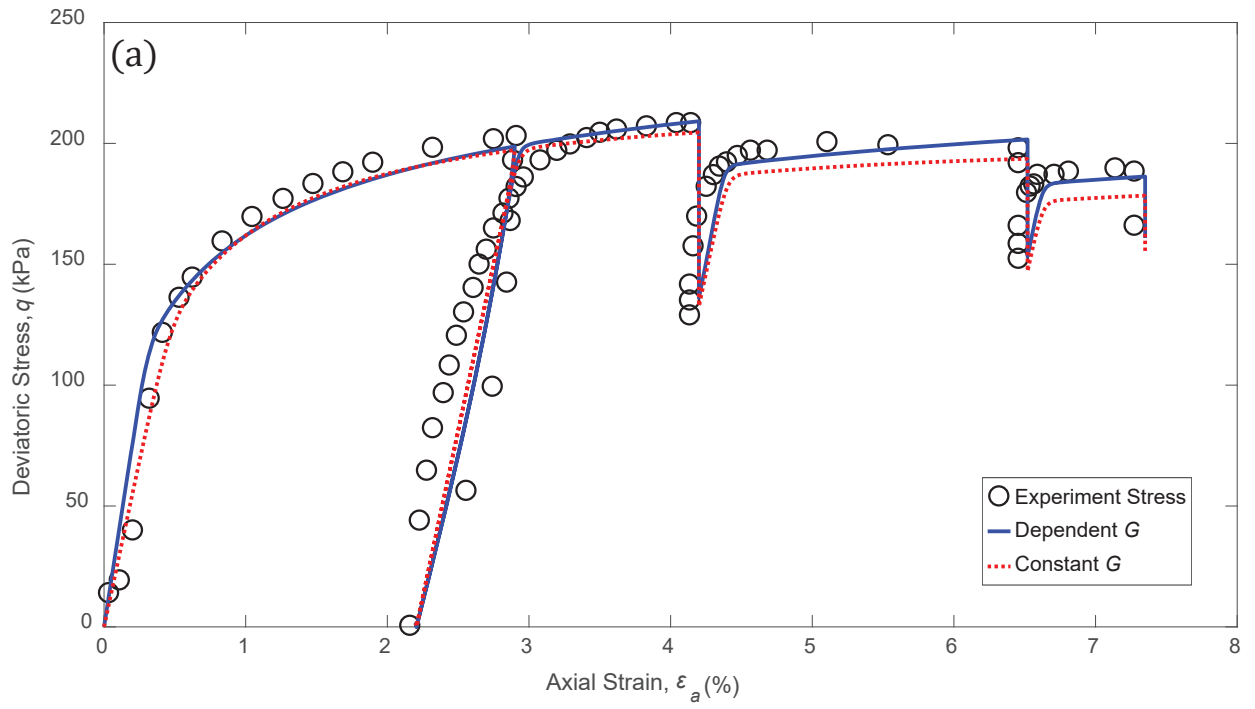


(a)



(b)

Fig. 10: Experimental and simulated undrained triaxial compression tests on reconstituted HKMD with different OCRs under constant axial strain rate of 1.5%/h



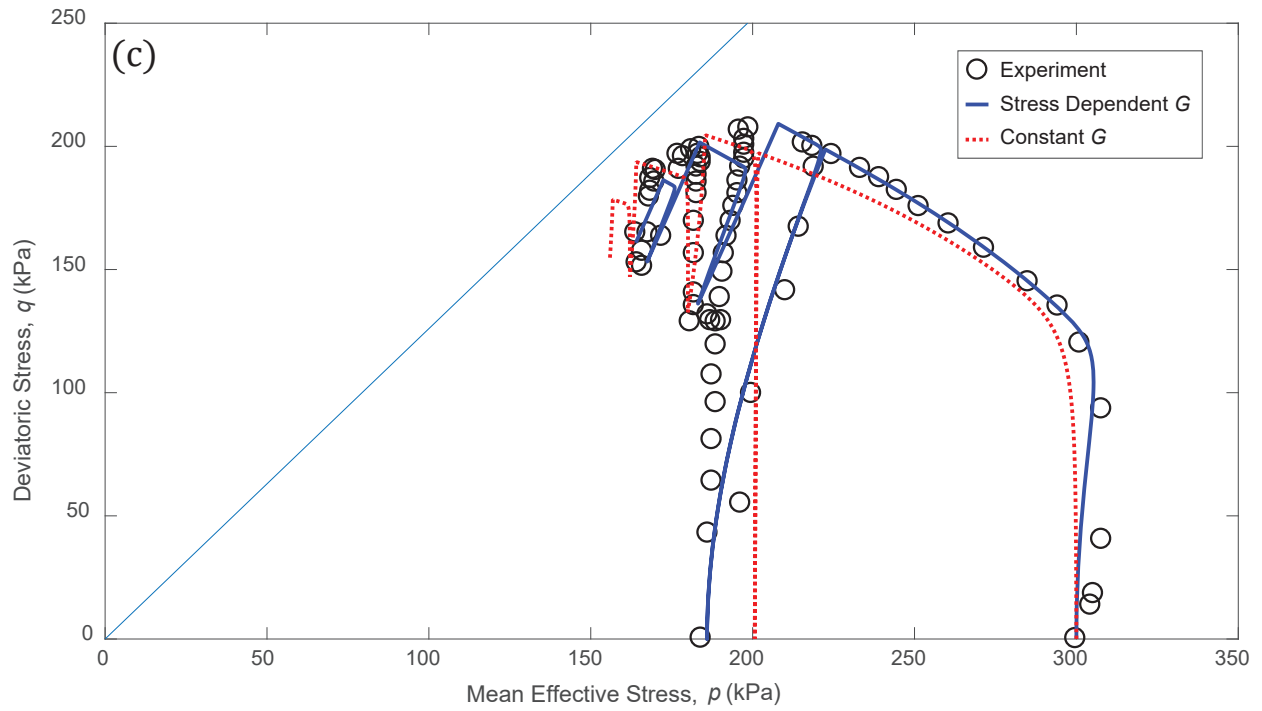


Fig. 11: Experimental and simulated results of multi-stage undrained triaxial compression test on reconstituted and normally consolidated HKMD in terms of (a) deviatoric stress vs axial strain; (b) excess pore water pressure vs axial strain; (c) deviatoric stress vs mean effective stress

Table 1: Parameters of the model and their values for HKMD

| Model parameters | Description | Value |
|------------------|---|--------|
| κ | the slope of the isotropic unloading-reloading line (IURL) in the logarithmic compression plane | 0.018 |
| λ | the slope of normal compression line (NCL) in the bi-logarithmic compression plane | 0.0793 |
| g | Dimensionless shear modulus coefficient | 42 |
| M | The slope of the critical state line in the p - q stress plane | 1.26 |
| R | Spacing ratio | 2.5 |
| γ | parameter for non-associated flow rule due to the frictional dissipation | 0 |
| μ | Creep index | 0.0025 |

Table 2: Loading history of the multi-stage triaxial compression test on HKMD

| Schedule | Loading | Unloading | Reloading | Relaxation | Loading | Relaxation | Loading | Relaxation |
|----------------------------------|---------|-----------|-----------|------------|---------|------------|---------|------------|
| Axial strain rate (1/min) | 0.1% | -0.1% | 0.1% | 0 | 0.01% | 0 | 0.001% | 0 |
| Duration (min) | 29 | 7 | 20 | 2540 | 232 | 1320 | 830 | 705 |