Residential Foundation

- **Recognizing Shifts in the Home Foundation**
  Recognizing Shifts in the Home Foundation Subtle Clues That Indicate Structural Changes Early Indicators of Potential Foundation Damage Observing Signs of Settlement in Floors Identifying Hairline Cracks and Surface Gaps Evaluating Tilted Door Frames and Window Alignment Understanding Bowed Wall Patterns in Basements Detecting Weak Spots Beneath Interior Flooring Uncovering Gradual Shifts in Support Beams Pinpointing Areas Prone to Moisture Intrusion Checking for Stair-Step Cracks Along Walls Preventing Growth of Small Foundation Cracks
- **Exploring Slab on Grade Construction Details**
  Exploring Slab on Grade Construction Details Comparing Pier and Beam Home Foundations Recognizing Basement Foundations in Older Houses Understanding the Basics of Piering Strategies Exploring Techniques for Slab Jacking Projects Grasping the Scope of Epoxy Injection Repairs Assessing Helical Piers for Added Support Considering Carbon Fiber Solutions for Wall Reinforcement Discovering Polyurethane Foam Applications Investigating Steel Piers in Home Restoration Reviewing Concrete Piers for Structural Stability Selecting Appropriate Methods for Specific Soil Types
- **About Us**

In the realm of construction and foundation repair, helical piers have emerged as a robust solution for enhancing structural integrity and stability. Assessing helical piers for added support is a critical task that requires a comprehensive understanding of their functionality, installation, and performance. This essay delves into the nuances of evaluating helical piers, emphasizing their role in fortifying structures and ensuring long-term durability.

Helical piers, also known as screw piles or helical anchors, are deep foundation systems used to transfer loads from a structure to stable soil or bedrock. Their unique design, featuring helical plates welded to a central shaft, allows them to be screwed into the ground, much like a large screw. This method of installation minimizes disruption to the site and can be completed with relative speed and efficiency, making helical piers an attractive option for many projects.

When assessing helical piers for added support, the first step is to evaluate the soil conditions at the site. Soil composition and bearing capacity play a pivotal role in determining the effectiveness of helical piers. A thorough geotechnical investigation, including soil borings and testing, provides the data needed to design and install the piers correctly. By understanding the soil's characteristics, engineers can select the appropriate size and number of helical piers to ensure they can adequately support the structure's load.

The next critical aspect of assessment is the installation process. Proper installation is paramount to the performance of helical piers. Skilled technicians use specialized equipment to drive the piers into the ground, monitoring torque and depth to ensure the piers reach the desired bearing stratum. Installation records, including torque readings and installation depths, are essential for verifying that the piers have been installed correctly and will provide the required support.

Once installed, the performance of helical piers must be evaluated over time. Regular inspections and monitoring are necessary to detect any signs of settlement, movement, or structural distress. Advanced techniques, such as load testing and inclinometer readings, can provide valuable insights into the piers' behavior under load. By analyzing this data, engineers can confirm that the helical piers are functioning as intended and providing the necessary support to the structure.

In addition to technical assessments, it is important to consider the economic and environmental benefits of helical piers. Compared to traditional foundation systems, helical piers often require less excavation and disruption to the site, resulting in lower costs and reduced environmental impact. These factors can significantly influence the decision to use helical piers for added support, particularly in sensitive or constrained environments.

In conclusion, assessing helical piers for added support is a multifaceted process that involves evaluating soil conditions, ensuring proper installation, and monitoring performance over time. By taking a comprehensive approach to assessment, engineers can confidently rely on helical piers to enhance the stability and longevity of structures. As the construction industry continues to evolve, helical piers will undoubtedly play an increasingly important role in providing reliable and efficient foundation solutions.

About radon mitigation

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The examples and perspective in this article **deal primarily with North America and do not represent a worldwide view of the subject**. You may improve this article, discuss the issue on the talk page, or create a new article, as appropriate. *(June 2019) (Learn how and when to remove this message)*

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Radon mitigation is any process used to reduce radon gas concentrations in the breathing zones of occupied buildings, or radon from water supplies. Radon is a significant contributor to environmental radioactivity and indoor air pollution. Exposure to radon can cause serious health problems such as lung cancer.[1]

Mitigation of radon in the air by active soil depressurization is most effective. Concrete slabs, sub-floors, and/or crawlspaces are sealed, an air pathway is then created to exhaust radon above the roof-line, and a radon mitigation fan is installed to run permanently. In particularly troublesome dwellings, air exchangers can be used to reduce indoor radon concentrations. Treatment systems using aeration or activated charcoal are available to remove radon from domestic water supplies. There is no proven link between radon in water and gastrointestinal cancers; however, extremely high radon concentrations in water can be aerosolized by faucets and shower heads and contribute to high indoor radon levels in the air.

Testing

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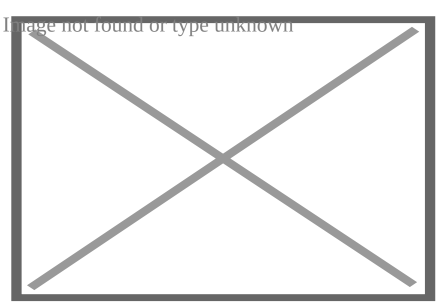
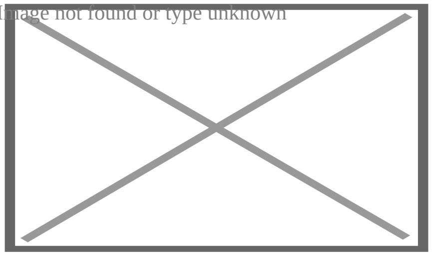


A typical radon test kit



Fluctuation of ambient air radon concentration over one week, measured in a laboratory

The first step in mitigation is testing. No level of radiation is considered completely safe, but as it cannot be eliminated, governments around the world have set various *action levels* to provide guidance on when radon concentrations should be reduced. The World Health Organization's International Radon Project has recommended an action level of 100 Bq/m^3 (2.7 pCi/L) for radon in the air.[2] Radon in the air is considered to be a larger health threat than radon in domestic water. The US Environmental Protection Agency recommendation is to not test for radon in water unless a radon in air test shows concentrations above the action level. However, in some U.S. states such as Maine where radon levels are higher than the national average, it is recommend that all well water should be tested for radon. The U.S. government has not set an action level for radon in water.

Air-radon levels fluctuate naturally on a daily and seasonal basis. A short term test (90 days or less) might not be an accurate assessment of a home's average radon level, but is recommended for initial testing to quickly determine unhealthy conditions. Transient weather such as wind and changes in barometric pressure can affect short-term concentrations as well as ventilation, such as open windows and the operation of exhaust fans.

Testing for radon in the air is accomplished using passive or active devices placed in the building. Some devices are promptly sent to a laboratory for analysis, others calculate the results on-site including digital Radon detectors. Radon-in-water testing requires a water sample being sent to a laboratory.

Retesting is recommended in several situations, for example, before spending money on the installation of a mitigation system. Test results which exceed accuracy tolerances also require re-testing. When a mitigation system installation is warranted, a retest after the system is functional is advised to be sure the system is effectively reducing the radon concentration below the action level, and after any mitigation system repairs such as replacing a fan unit. The US EPA recommends retesting homes with radon problems every two years to ensure proper system function. Due to the vast fluctuation in indoor radon levels, the EPA recommends all homes be tested at least once every five years.[3]

Testing in the United States

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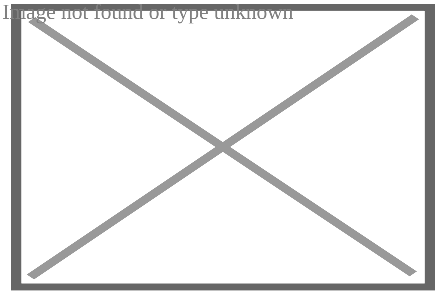

Radon map of the United States

ASTM E-2121 is a US standard for reducing airborne radon in homes as far as practicable below the action level of 4 picocuries per liter (pCi/L) (148 Bq/m^3).[4][5] Some states recommend achieving 2.0 pCi/L or less.

Radon test kits are commercially available[6] and can be used by homeowners and tenants and in limited cases by landlords, except when a property is for sale.

Commercially available test kits include a passive collector that the user places in the lowest livable floor of the house for 2 to 7 days. The user then sends the collector to a laboratory for analysis. Long-term kits, taking collections from 91 days to one year, are also available. Open land test kits can test radon emissions from the land before construction begins, but are not recommended by the EPA because they do not accurately predict the final indoor radon level. The EPA and the National Environmental Health Association have identified 15 types of radon test devices.[7] A Lucas cell is one type of device.

Retesting is specifically recommended in several situations. Measurements between 4 and 10 pCi/L (148 and 370 Bq/m^3) warrant a follow-up short-term or long-term radon test before mitigation. Measurements over 10 pCi/L (370 Bq/m^3) warrant only another short-term test (not a long-term test) so that abatement measures are not unduly delayed.

Progress has been made regarding radon in the home. A total of 37 states have now[*when?*] passed legislation requiring home-sellers to disclose known radon levels before completing the transaction (although only a handful have introduced criminal penalties for misrepresentation).[8] And over half the legislatures have written radon into their state's building code.[9] Purchasers of real estate may delay or decline a purchase if the seller has not successfully abated radon to less than 4 pCi/L.

The accuracy of the residential radon test depends upon whether closed house conditions are maintained. Thus the occupants will be instructed not to open windows, etc., for ventilation during the pendency of test, usually two days or more. However, the occupants, if the present owners, will be motivated to pass the test and insure the sale, so they might be tempted to open a window to get a lower radon score. Moreover, there may be children or immature teens or young adults in the house who will open a window for ventilation notwithstanding instructions not to do so, particularly in uncomfortably hot weather. Accordingly, whether the potential purchaser should trust the result of such a test is problematic.

Management of radon service provider certification has evolved since being introduced by the EPA in 1986. In the 1990s this service was "privatized" and the National Environmental Health Association (NEHA) helped transition the voluntary National Radon Proficiency Program (NRPP) to be administered by private firms. As of 2012, the NRPP is administered by the American Association of Radon Scientists and Technologists (AARST).[10]

Some states, such as Maine, require landlords to test their rental properties and turn the results in to the state. In limited cases the landlord or tenants may do the testing themselves. The rules in each state vary. In many cases there are private contractors that will inspect hired by the city.

Testing in Canada

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Health Canada recommends regular annual testing, either by hiring a qualified tester or by using a home-testing kit that should be checked quarterly.[11]

Canadian Government, in conjunction with the territories and provinces, developed the guideline [12] to indicate when remedial action should be taken was originally set at 800 Bq/m^3 (becquerels per cubic meter) and since reduced to 200 Bq/m^3. This new guideline was approved by the Federal Provincial Territorial Radiation Protection Committee in October 2006.[13]

Testing in the UK

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Radon testing in the UK is managed by UKradon and the UKHSA.[14]

Testing in Norway

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The Norwegian Radiation and Nuclear Safety Authority (DSA) developed the protocol[15] for radon measurements in residential dwellings[16] with respect to rental accommodation, which is governed by The Radiation Protection Regulations.[17]

Methods of radon gas mitigation

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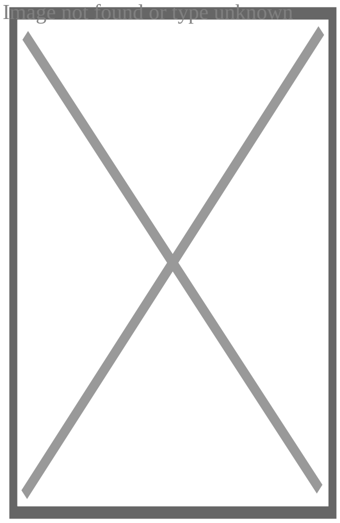
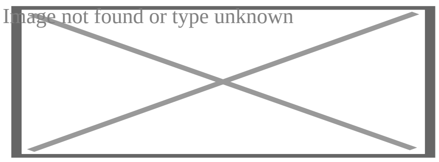


Part of a radon mitigation system including the fan and vent pipe is visible near the gutter downspout.

Because high levels of radon have been found in every state of the United States,[18] testing for radon and installing radon mitigation systems has become a specialized industry since the 1980s. Many states have implemented programs that affect home buying and awareness in the real estate community; however, radon testing and mitigation systems are not generally mandatory unless specified by the local jurisdiction.[19]

Anticipated high radon levels can be mitigated during building design and construction by a combination of ensuring a perfectly sealed foundation, allowing sufficient passive dispersal of under-slab gas around rather than through the building, and proper building ventilation. In many instances, such approaches may achieve a sufficient reduction of radon levels compared to other buildings where such approaches were not taken. However, quality of implementation is crucial and testing after construction is necessary. For instance, even a small gap in the sealing of the slab may be sufficient for excessive quantities of radon to enter, given pressure differentials.

Where such approaches were not taken during construction or have proven insufficiently effective, remediation is needed. According to the EPA's "A Citizen's Guide to Radon",[20] the method to reduce radon "primarily used is a vent pipe system and fan, which pulls radon from beneath the house and vents it to the outside", which is also called sub-slab depressurization, soil suction, or active soil depressurization (ASD). Generally indoor radon can be mitigated by sub-slab depressurization and exhausting such radon-laden air to the outdoors, away from windows and other building openings.[21] "EPA generally recommends methods which prevent the entry of radon. Soil suction, for example, prevents radon from entering your home by drawing the radon from below the home and venting it through a pipe, or pipes, to the air above the home where it is quickly diluted" and "EPA does not recommend the use of sealing alone to reduce radon because, by itself, sealing has not been shown to lower radon levels significantly or consistently" according to the EPA's "Consumer's Guide to Radon Reduction: How to Fix Your Home".[22] Ventilation systems can utilize a heat exchanger or energy recovery ventilator to recover part of the energy otherwise lost in the process of exchanging air with the outside. For crawlspaces, the EPA states,[22] "An effective method to reduce radon levels in crawlspace homes involves covering the earth floor with a high-density plastic sheet. A vent pipe and fan are used to draw the radon from under the sheet and vent it to the outdoors. This form of soil suction is called submembrane suction, and when properly applied is the most effective way to reduce radon levels in crawlspace homes."



High radon levels in a Minnesota (USA) basement with a passive under slab vent pipe system can be seen in the left half of the graph. After installation of a radon fan (ASD), a permanent reduction in radon levels to approximately 0.6 pCi/L can be seen in the right half of the graph.

- The most common approach is active soil depressurization (ASD). Experience has shown that ASD is applicable to most buildings since radon usually enters from the soil and rock underneath and mechanical ventilation is used when the indoor radon is emitted from the building materials. A less common approach works efficiently by reducing air pressures within cavities of exterior and demising walls where radon emitting from building materials, most often concrete blocks, collects.
- Above slab air pressure differential barrier technology (ASAPDB) requires that the interior pressure envelope, most often drywall, as well as all ductwork for air conditioning systems, be made as airtight as possible. A small blower, often no more than 15 cubic feet per minute (0.7 L/s) may then extract the radon-laden air from these cavities and exhaust it to the out of doors. With well-sealed HVAC ducts, very small negative pressures, perhaps as little as 0.5 pascal (0.00007 psi), will prevent the entry of highly radon-laden wall cavity air from entering into the breathing zone. Such ASAPDB technology is often the best radon mitigation choice for high-rise condominiums as it does not increase indoor humidity loads in hot humid climates, and it can also work well to prevent mold growth in exterior walls in heating climates.
- In hot, humid climates, heat recovery ventilators (HRV) as well as energy recovery ventilators (ERV) have a record of increasing indoor relative humidity and dehumidification demands on air conditioning systems. Mold problems can occur in homes that have been radon mitigated with HRV and ERV installations in hot, humid climates.[*citation needed*] HRVs and ERVs have an excellent record in cold dry climates.
- A recent technology is based on building science. It includes a variable rate mechanical ventilation system that prevents indoor relative humidity from rising above a preset level such as 50% which is currently suggested by the US Environmental Protection Agency and others as an upper limit for the prevention of mold. It has proven to be especially effective in hot, humid climates. It controls the air delivery rate so that the air conditioner is never

overloaded with more moisture than it can effectively remove from the indoor air.

  - It is generally assumed that air conditioner operation will remove excess moisture from the air in the breathing zone, but it is important to note that just because the air conditioner cools does not mean that it is also dehumidfying. If ?*t* is 14 degrees or less, it may not dehumidify at all even though it is cooling.
  - Factors that are likely to aggravate indoor humidity problems from mechanical ventilation–based radon installations are as follows and an expert radon mitigator/building scientist will check for and correct any and all of the following when he or she performs radon mitigation procedures:
    - Air conditioner duct leaks located outside the breathing zone, such as in the attic.
    - Excessive exhaust fan operation
    - Oversize or over-capacity air conditioners
    - AC air handler fans that do not stop running when the air conditioner compressor stops running.
    - Delta *t* (?*t*), which is the amount that the air is cooled as it is passed through the air conditioner's cooling coils. A good ?*t* performance figure for home air conditioners is about 20 °F (11 °C). In comparison, automobile air conditioners deliver ?*t* performance of 32 to 38 °F (18 to 21 °C). A ?*t* of 14 °F (8 °C) will dehumidify poorly if at all.

In South Florida, most radon mitigation is performed by use of fixed rate mechanical ventilation. Radon mitigation training in Florida does not include problems associated with mechanical ventilation systems, such as high indoor humidity, mold, moldy odors, property damage or health consequences of human occupation in high humidity of moldy environments[*citation needed*]. As a result, most Florida radon mitigators are unaware of and do not incorporate existing building science moisture management technology into mechanical ventilation radon installations. Home inspectors may not necessarily be aware of the mold risks associated with radon mitigation by mechanical ventilation.

The average cost for an ASD radon mitigation system in Minnesota is $1500.[23] These costs are very dependent on the type of home and age of construction.[24]

Methods of radon-in-water mitigation

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Radon removal from water supplies may be at a treatment plant, point of entry, or point of use. Public water supplies in the United States were required to treat for radionuclides beginning in 2003 but private wells are not regulated by the federal government as of 2014. The radon can be captured by granular activated charcoal (GAR) or released into the air through aeration of the water. Radon will naturally dissipate from water over a period of days, but the quantity of storage needed to treat the water in this manner makes home systems of this type impracticably large.[25]

Activated carbon systems capture radon from the water. The amount of radiation accumulates over time and the filter material may reach the level of requiring disposal as a radioactive waste. However, in the United States there are no regulations concerning radiation levels and disposal of radon treatment waste as of 2014.

Aeration systems move the radon from the water to the air. Radon gas discharged into the air is the release of a pollutant, and may become regulated in the United States.

References

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20. **^** *"A Citizen's Guide to Radon" (PDF). EPA. Retrieved 2024-12-27.*
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22. ^ ***a b*** *"Consumer's Guide to Radon Reduction: How to Fix Your Home" (PDF). EPA.*
23. **^** *"Radon Mitigation System - EH: Minnesota Department of Health". Health.state.mn.us. 2014-12-10. Retrieved 2019-03-26.*
24. **^** *"Featured Radon Mitigation System Archives". Radonreductioninc.com. Retrieved 2015-03-30.*
25. **^** *""Radon in Drinking Water Health Risk Reduction and Cost Analysis: Notice"" (PDF). Federal Register.* ***64****. February 26, 1999. Retrieved 2015-03-30.*

External links

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- Radon at the United States Environmental Protection Agency
- National Radon Program Services hosted by Kansas State University
- Radon and Lung Health from the American Lung Association
- It's Your Health - Health Canada
- Radon's impact on your health – Quebec Lung Association

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Radiation protection

Main articles

- Background radiation
- Dosimetry
- Health physics
- Ionizing radiation
- Internal dosimetry
- Radioactive contamination
- Radioactive sources
- Radiobiology

Measurement quantities and units	○ Absorbed dose ○ Becquerel ○ Committed dose ○ Computed tomography dose index ○ Counts per minute ○ Effective dose ○ Equivalent dose ○ Gray ○ Mean glandular dose ○ Monitor unit ○ Rad ○ Roentgen ○ Rem ○ Sievert
Instruments and measurement techniques	○ Airborne radioactive particulate monitoring ○ Dosimeter ○ Geiger counter ○ Ion chamber ○ Scintillation counter ○ Proportional counter ○ Radiation monitoring ○ Semiconductor detector ○ Survey meter ○ Whole-body counting
Protection techniques	○ Lead shielding ○ Glovebox ○ Potassium iodide ○ Radon mitigation ○ Respirators
Organisations	○ Euratom ○ HPS (USA) ○ IAEA ○ ICRU ○ ICRP ○ IRPA ○ SRP (UK) ○ UNSCEAR

Regulation	◦ IRR (UK) ◦ NRC (USA) ◦ ONR (UK) ◦ Radiation Protection Convention, 1960
Radiation effects	◦ Acute radiation syndrome ◦ Radiation-induced cancer

See also the categories Medical physics, Radiation effects, Radioactivity, Radiobiology, and Radiation protection

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Heating, ventilation, and air conditioning

Fundamental concepts	○ Air changes per hour (ACH) ○ Bake-out ○ Building envelope ○ Convection ○ Dilution ○ Domestic energy consumption ○ Enthalpy ○ Fluid dynamics ○ Gas compressor ○ Heat pump and refrigeration cycle ○ Heat transfer ○ Humidity ○ Infiltration ○ Latent heat ○ Noise control ○ Outgassing ○ Particulates ○ Psychrometrics ○ Sensible heat ○ Stack effect ○ Thermal comfort ○ Thermal destratification ○ Thermal mass ○ Thermodynamics ○ Vapour pressure of water

Technology	◦ Absorption-compression heat pump ◦ Absorption refrigerator ◦ Air barrier ◦ Air conditioning ◦ Antifreeze ◦ Automobile air conditioning ◦ Autonomous building ◦ Building insulation materials ◦ Central heating ◦ Central solar heating ◦ Chilled beam ◦ Chilled water ◦ Constant air volume (CAV) ◦ Coolant ◦ Cross ventilation ◦ Dedicated outdoor air system (DOAS) ◦ Deep water source cooling ◦ Demand controlled ventilation (DCV) ◦ Displacement ventilation ◦ District cooling ◦ District heating ◦ Electric heating ◦ Energy recovery ventilation (ERV) ◦ Firestop ◦ Forced-air ◦ Forced-air gas ◦ Free cooling ◦ Heat recovery ventilation (HRV) ◦ Hybrid heat ◦ Hydronics ◦ Ice storage air conditioning ◦ Kitchen ventilation ◦ Mixed-mode ventilation ◦ Microgeneration ◦ Passive cooling ◦ Passive daytime radiative cooling ◦ Passive house ◦ Passive ventilation ◦ Radiant heating and cooling ◦ Radiant cooling ◦ Radiant heating ◦ Radon mitigation ◦ Refrigeration ◦ Renewable heat ◦ Room air distribution ◦ Solar air heat ◦ Solar combisystem ◦ Solar cooling

- Air conditioner inverter
- Air door
- Air filter
- Air handler
- Air ionizer
- Air-mixing plenum
- Air purifier
- Air source heat pump
- Attic fan
- Automatic balancing valve
- Back boiler
- Barrier pipe
- Blast damper
- Boiler
- Centrifugal fan
- Ceramic heater
- Chiller
- Condensate pump
- Condenser
- Condensing boiler
- Convection heater
- Compressor
- Cooling tower
- Damper
- Dehumidifier
- Duct
- Economizer
- Electrostatic precipitator
- Evaporative cooler
- Evaporator
- Exhaust hood
- Expansion tank
- Fan
- Fan coil unit
- Fan filter unit
- Fan heater
- Fire damper
- Fireplace
- Fireplace insert
- Freeze stat
- Flue
- Freon
- Fume hood
- Furnace
- Gas compressor
- Gas heater
- Gasoline heater
- Grease duct

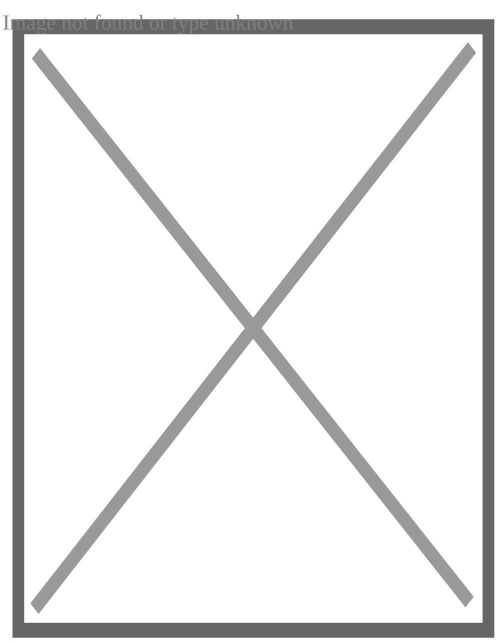
Measurement and control	◦ Air flow meter ◦ Aquastat ◦ BACnet ◦ Blower door ◦ Building automation ◦ Carbon dioxide sensor ◦ Clean air delivery rate (CADR) ◦ Control valve ◦ Gas detector ◦ Home energy monitor ◦ Humidistat ◦ HVAC control system ◦ Infrared thermometer ◦ Intelligent buildings ◦ LonWorks ◦ Minimum efficiency reporting value (MERV) ◦ Normal temperature and pressure (NTP) ◦ OpenTherm ◦ Programmable communicating thermostat ◦ Programmable thermostat ◦ Psychrometrics ◦ Room temperature ◦ Smart thermostat ◦ Standard temperature and pressure (STP) ◦ Thermographic camera ◦ Thermostat ◦ Thermostatic radiator valve

Professions, trades, and services	○ Architectural acoustics ○ Architectural engineering ○ Architectural technologist ○ Building services engineering ○ Building information modeling (BIM) ○ Deep energy retrofit ○ Duct cleaning ○ Duct leakage testing ○ Environmental engineering ○ Hydronic balancing ○ Kitchen exhaust cleaning ○ Mechanical engineering ○ Mechanical, electrical, and plumbing ○ Mold growth, assessment, and remediation ○ Refrigerant reclamation ○ Testing, adjusting, balancing
Industry organizations	○ AHRI ○ AMCA ○ ASHRAE ○ ASTM International ○ BRE ○ BSRIA ○ CIBSE ○ Institute of Refrigeration ○ IIR ○ LEED ○ SMACNA ○ UMC
Health and safety	○ Indoor air quality (IAQ) ○ Passive smoking ○ Sick building syndrome (SBS) ○ Volatile organic compound (VOC)

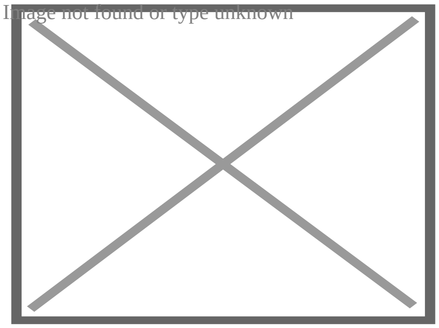
See also

- ASHRAE Handbook
- Building science
- Fireproofing
- Glossary of HVAC terms
- Warm Spaces
- World Refrigeration Day
- Template:Fire protection
- Template:Home automation
- Template:Solar energy

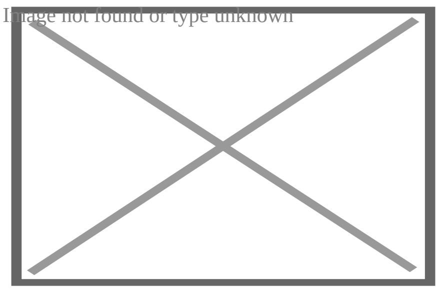
About geotechnical engineering



Boston's Big Dig presented geotechnical challenges in an urban environment.



Precast concrete retaining wall



A typical cross-section of a slope used in two-dimensional analyzes.

Geotechnical engineering, also known as **geotechnics**, is the branch of civil engineering concerned with the engineering behavior of earth materials. It uses the principles of soil mechanics and rock mechanics to solve its engineering problems. It also relies on knowledge of geology, hydrology, geophysics, and other related sciences.

Geotechnical engineering has applications in military engineering, mining engineering, petroleum engineering, coastal engineering, and offshore construction. The fields of geotechnical engineering and engineering geology have overlapping knowledge areas. However, while geotechnical engineering is a specialty of civil engineering, engineering geology is a specialty of geology.

History

[edit]

Humans have historically used soil as a material for flood control, irrigation purposes, burial sites, building foundations, and construction materials for buildings. Dykes, dams, and canals dating back to at least 2000 BCE—found in parts of ancient Egypt, ancient Mesopotamia, the Fertile Crescent, and the early settlements of Mohenjo Daro and Harappa in the Indus valley—provide evidence for early activities linked to irrigation and flood control. As cities expanded, structures were erected and supported by formalized foundations. The ancient Greeks notably constructed pad footings and strip-and-raft foundations. Until the 18th century, however, no theoretical basis for soil design had been developed, and the discipline was more of an art than a science, relying on experience.[1]

Several foundation-related engineering problems, such as the Leaning Tower of Pisa, prompted scientists to begin taking a more scientific-based approach to examining the subsurface. The earliest advances occurred in the development of earth pressure theories for the construction of retaining walls. Henri Gautier, a French royal engineer, recognized the "natural slope" of different soils in 1717, an idea later known as the soil's angle of repose. Around the same time, a rudimentary soil classification system was also developed based on a material's unit weight, which is no longer considered a good indication of soil type.[1][2]

The application of the principles of mechanics to soils was documented as early as 1773 when Charles Coulomb, a physicist and engineer, developed improved methods to determine the earth pressures against military ramparts. Coulomb observed that, at failure, a distinct slip plane would form behind a sliding retaining wall and suggested that the maximum shear stress on the slip plane, for design purposes, was the sum of the soil cohesion, c, and friction $\sigma \tan(\phi)$, where σ is the normal stress on the slip plane and ϕ is the friction angle of the soil. By combining Coulomb's theory with Christian Otto Mohr's 2D stress state, the theory became known as Mohr-Coulomb theory. Although it is now recognized that precise determination of cohesion is impossible because c is not a fundamental soil property, the Mohr-Coulomb theory is still used in practice today.[3]

In the 19th century, Henry Darcy developed what is now known as Darcy's Law, describing the flow of fluids in a porous media. Joseph Boussinesq, a mathematician and physicist, developed theories of stress distribution in elastic solids that proved useful for estimating stresses at depth in the ground. William Rankine, an engineer and physicist, developed an alternative to Coulomb's earth pressure theory. Albert Atterberg developed the clay consistency indices that are still used today for soil classification.[1][2] In 1885, Osborne Reynolds recognized that shearing causes volumetric dilation of dense materials and contraction of loose granular materials.

Modern geotechnical engineering is said to have begun in 1925 with the publication of *Erdbaumechanik* by Karl von Terzaghi, a mechanical engineer and geologist. Considered by many to be the father of modern soil mechanics and geotechnical engineering, Terzaghi developed the principle of effective stress, and demonstrated that the shear strength of soil is controlled by effective stress.[4] Terzaghi also developed the framework for theories of bearing capacity of foundations, and the theory for prediction of the rate of settlement of clay layers due to consolidation.[1][3][5] Afterwards, Maurice Biot fully developed the three-dimensional soil consolidation theory, extending the one-dimensional model previously developed by Terzaghi to more general hypotheses and introducing the set of basic equations of Poroelasticity.

In his 1948 book, Donald Taylor recognized that the interlocking and dilation of densely packed particles contributed to the peak strength of the soil. Roscoe, Schofield, and Wroth, with the publication of *On the Yielding of Soils* in 1958, established the interrelationships between the volume change behavior (dilation, contraction, and consolidation) and shearing behavior with the theory of plasticity using critical state soil mechanics. Critical state soil mechanics is the basis for many contemporary advanced constitutive models describing the behavior of soil.[6]

In 1960, Alec Skempton carried out an extensive review of the available formulations and experimental data in the literature about the effective stress validity in soil, concrete, and rock in order to reject some of these expressions, as well as clarify what expressions were appropriate according to several working hypotheses, such as stress-strain or strength behavior, saturated or non-saturated media, and rock, concrete or soil behavior.

Roles

[edit]

Geotechnical investigation

[edit]
Main article: Geotechnical investigation

Geotechnical engineers investigate and determine the properties of subsurface conditions and materials. They also design corresponding earthworks and retaining structures, tunnels, and structure foundations, and may supervise and evaluate sites, which may further involve site monitoring as well as the risk assessment and mitigation of natural hazards.[7][8]

Geotechnical engineers and engineering geologists perform geotechnical investigations to obtain information on the physical properties of soil and rock underlying and adjacent to a site to design earthworks and foundations for proposed structures and for the repair of distress to earthworks and structures caused by subsurface conditions. Geotechnical investigations involve surface and subsurface exploration of a site, often including subsurface sampling and laboratory testing of retrieved soil samples. Sometimes, geophysical methods are also used to obtain data, which include measurement of seismic waves (pressure, shear, and Rayleigh waves), surface-wave methods and downhole methods, and electromagnetic surveys (magnetometer, resistivity, and ground-penetrating radar). Electrical tomography can be used to survey soil and rock properties and existing underground infrastructure in construction projects.[9]

Surface exploration can include on-foot surveys, geologic mapping, geophysical methods, and photogrammetry. Geologic mapping and interpretation of geomorphology are typically completed in consultation with a geologist or engineering geologist. Subsurface exploration usually involves in-situ testing (for example, the standard penetration test and cone penetration test). The digging of test pits and trenching (particularly for locating faults and slide planes) may also be used to learn about soil conditions at depth. Large-diameter borings are rarely used due to safety concerns and expense. Still, they are sometimes used to allow a geologist or engineer to be lowered into the borehole for direct visual and manual examination of the soil and rock stratigraphy.

Various soil samplers exist to meet the needs of different engineering projects. The standard penetration test, which uses a thick-walled split spoon sampler, is the most common way to collect disturbed samples. Piston samplers, employing a thin-walled tube, are most commonly used to collect less disturbed samples. More advanced methods, such as the Sherbrooke block sampler, are superior but expensive. Coring frozen ground provides high-quality undisturbed samples from ground conditions, such as fill, sand, moraine, and rock fracture zones.[10]

Geotechnical centrifuge modeling is another method of testing physical-scale models of geotechnical problems. The use of a centrifuge enhances the similarity of the scale model tests involving soil because soil's strength and stiffness are susceptible to the confining pressure. The centrifugal acceleration allows a researcher to obtain large (prototype-scale) stresses in small physical models.

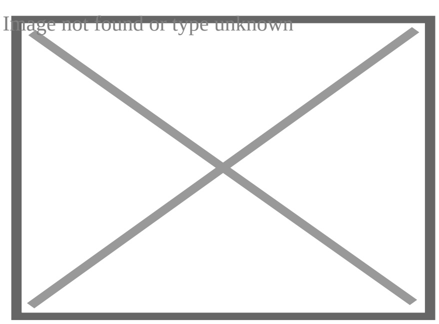
Foundation design

[edit]
Main article: Foundation (engineering)

The foundation of a structure's infrastructure transmits loads from the structure to the earth. Geotechnical engineers design foundations based on the load characteristics of the structure and the properties of the soils and bedrock at the site. Generally, geotechnical engineers first estimate the magnitude and location of loads to be supported before developing an investigation plan to explore the subsurface and determine the necessary soil parameters through field and lab testing. Following this, they may begin the design of an engineering foundation. The primary considerations for a geotechnical engineer in foundation design are bearing capacity, settlement, and ground movement beneath the foundations.[11]

Earthworks

[edit]



A compactor/roller operated by U.S. Navy Seabees

See also: Earthworks (engineering)

Geotechnical engineers are also involved in the planning and execution of earthworks, which include ground improvement,[11] slope stabilization, and slope stability analysis.

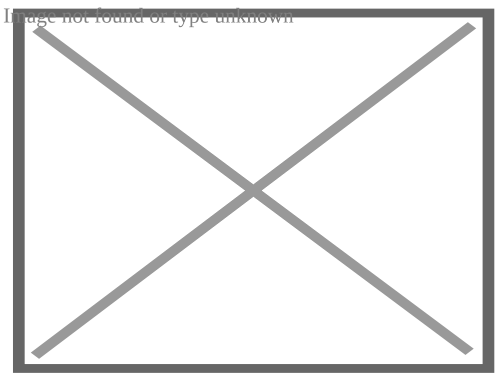
Ground improvement

[edit]

Various geotechnical engineering methods can be used for ground improvement, including reinforcement geosynthetics such as geocells and geogrids, which disperse loads over a larger area, increasing the soil's load-bearing capacity. Through these methods, geotechnical engineers can reduce direct and long-term costs.[12]

Slope stabilization

[edit]



Simple slope slip section.

Main article: Slope stability

Geotechnical engineers can analyze and improve slope stability using engineering methods. Slope stability is determined by the balance of shear stress and shear strength. A previously stable slope may be initially affected by various factors, making it unstable. Nonetheless, geotechnical engineers can design and implement engineered slopes to increase stability.

Slope stability analysis

[edit]
Main article: Slope stability analysis

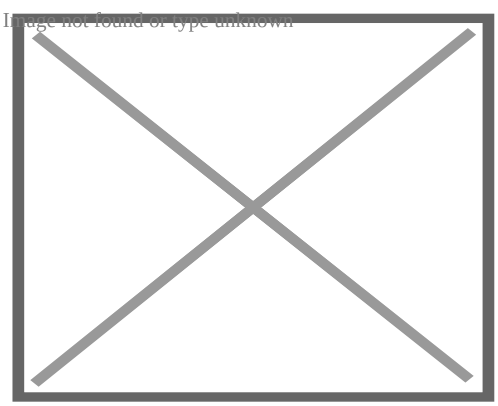
Stability analysis is needed to design engineered slopes and estimate the risk of slope failure in natural or designed slopes by determining the conditions under which the topmost mass of soil will slip relative to the base of soil and lead to slope failure.[13] If the interface between the mass and the base of a slope has a complex geometry, slope stability analysis is difficult and numerical solution methods are required. Typically, the interface's exact geometry is unknown, and a simplified interface geometry is assumed. Finite slopes require three-dimensional models to be analyzed, so most slopes are analyzed assuming that they are infinitely wide and can be represented by two-dimensional models.

Sub-disciplines

[edit]

Geosynthetics

[edit]
Main article: Geosynthetics



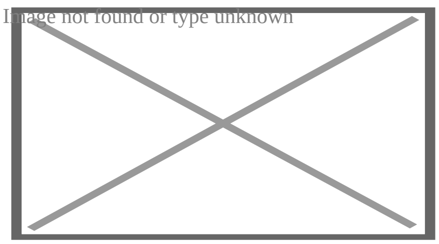
A collage of geosynthetic products.

Geosynthetics are a type of plastic polymer products used in geotechnical engineering that improve engineering performance while reducing costs. This includes geotextiles, geogrids, geomembranes, geocells, and geocomposites. The synthetic nature of the products make them suitable for use in the ground where high levels of durability are required. Their main functions include drainage, filtration, reinforcement, separation, and containment.

Geosynthetics are available in a wide range of forms and materials, each to suit a slightly different end-use, although they are frequently used together. Some reinforcement geosynthetics, such as geogrids and more recently, cellular confinement systems, have shown to improve bearing capacity, modulus factors and soil stiffness and strength.[14] These products have a wide range of applications and are currently used in many civil and geotechnical engineering applications including roads, airfields, railroads, embankments, piled embankments, retaining structures, reservoirs, canals, dams, landfills, bank protection and coastal engineering.[15]

Offshore

[edit]
Main article: Offshore geotechnical engineering



Platforms offshore Mexico.

Offshore (or *marine*) *geotechnical engineering* is concerned with foundation design for human-made structures in the sea, away from the coastline (in opposition to *onshore* or *nearshore* engineering). Oil platforms, artificial islands and submarine pipelines are examples of such structures.[16]

There are a number of significant differences between onshore and offshore geotechnical engineering.[16][17] Notably, site investigation and ground improvement on the seabed are more expensive; the offshore structures are exposed to a wider range of geohazards; and the environmental and financial consequences are higher in case of failure. Offshore structures are exposed to various environmental loads, notably wind, waves and currents. These phenomena may affect the integrity or the serviceability of the structure and its foundation during its operational lifespan and need to be taken into account in offshore design.

In subsea geotechnical engineering, seabed materials are considered a two-phase material composed of rock or mineral particles and water.[18][19] Structures may be fixed in place in the seabed—as is the case for piers, jetties and fixed-bottom wind turbines—or may comprise a floating structure that remains roughly fixed relative to its geotechnical anchor point. Undersea mooring of human-engineered floating structures include a large number of offshore oil and gas platforms and, since 2008, a few floating wind turbines. Two common types of engineered design for anchoring floating structures include tension-leg and catenary loose mooring systems.[20]

Observational method

[edit]

First proposed by Karl Terzaghi and later discussed in a paper by Ralph B. Peck, the observational method is a managed process of construction control, monitoring, and review, which enables modifications to be incorporated during and after construction. The method aims to achieve a greater overall economy without compromising safety by creating designs based on the most probable conditions rather than the most unfavorable.[21] Using the observational method, gaps in available information are filled by measurements and investigation, which aid in assessing the behavior of the structure during construction, which in turn can be modified per the findings. The method was described by Peck as "learn-as-you-go".[22]

The observational method may be described as follows:[22]

1. General exploration sufficient to establish the rough nature, pattern, and properties of deposits.
2. Assessment of the most probable conditions and the most unfavorable conceivable deviations.
3. Creating the design based on a working hypothesis of behavior anticipated under the most probable conditions.
4. Selection of quantities to be observed as construction proceeds and calculating their anticipated values based on the working hypothesis under the most unfavorable conditions.
5. Selection, in advance, of a course of action or design modification for every foreseeable significant deviation of the observational findings from those predicted.
6. Measurement of quantities and evaluation of actual conditions.
7. Design modification per actual conditions

The observational method is suitable for construction that has already begun when an unexpected development occurs or when a failure or accident looms or has already happened. It is unsuitable for projects whose design cannot be altered during construction.[22]

See also

[edit]

- icon Image not found or type unknown Engineering portal

- Civil engineering
- Deep Foundations Institute
- Earthquake engineering
- Earth structure
- Effective stress
- Engineering geology
- Geological Engineering
- Geoprofessions
- Hydrogeology
- International Society for Soil Mechanics and Geotechnical Engineering
- Karl von Terzaghi
- Land reclamation
- Landfill

- Mechanically stabilized earth
- Offshore geotechnical engineering
- Rock mass classifications
- Sediment control
- Seismology
- Soil mechanics
- Soil physics
- Soil science

Notes

[edit]

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External links

[edit]

- Worldwide Geotechnical Literature Database

- v
- t
- e

Engineering

- History
- Outline
- List of engineering branches

Civil

- Architectural
- Coastal
- Construction
- Earthquake
- Ecological
- Environmental
    - Sanitary
- Geological
- Geotechnical
- Hydraulic
- Mining
- Municipal/urban
- Offshore
- River
- Structural
- Transportation
    - Traffic
    - Railway

Mechanical

- Acoustic
- Aerospace
- Automotive
- Biomechanical
- Energy
- Manufacturing
- Marine
- Naval architecture
- Railway
- Sports
- Thermal
- Tribology

Specialties and interdisciplinarity

Electrical

- Broadcast
    - outline
- Control
- Electromechanics
- Electronics
- Microwaves
- Optical
- Power
- Radio-frequency
- Signal processing
- Telecommunications

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- Biochemical/bioprocess

Engineering education	○ Bachelor of Engineering ○ Bachelor of Science ○ Master's degree ○ Doctorate ○ Graduate certificate ○ Engineer's degree ○ Licensed engineer
Related topics	○ Engineer

Glossaries	○ Engineering
	    ○ A–L
	    ○ M–Z
	○ Aerospace engineering
	○ Civil engineering
	○ Electrical and electronics engineering
	○ Mechanical engineering
	○ Structural engineering

Other

- Agricultural
- Audio
- Automation
- Biomedical
  - Bioinformatics
  - Clinical
  - Health technology
  - Pharmaceutical
  - Rehabilitation
- Building services
  - MEP
- Design
- Explosives
- Facilities
- Fire
- Forensic
- Climate
- Geomatics
- Graphics
- Industrial
- Information
- Instrumentation
  - Instrumentation and control
- Logistics
- Management
- Mathematics
- Mechatronics
- Military
- Nuclear
- Ontology
- Packaging
- Physics
- Privacy
- Safety
- Security
- Survey
- Sustainability
- Systems
- Textile

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- Image not found or type unknown **Commons**
- Image not found or type unknown **Wikiproject**
- Image not found or type unknown **Portal**

- v
- t
- e

Soil science

- History
- Index

Main fields

- Pedology
- Edaphology
- Soil biology
- Soil microbiology
- Soil zoology
- Soil ecology
- Soil physics
- Soil mechanics
- Soil chemistry
- Environmental soil science
- Agricultural soil science

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Soil topics

- Soil
- Pedosphere
  - Soil morphology
  - Pedodiversity
  - Soil formation
- Soil erosion
- Soil contamination
- Soil retrogression and degradation
- Soil compaction
  - Soil compaction (agriculture)
- Soil sealing
- Soil salinity
  - Alkali soil
- Soil pH
  - Soil acidification
- Soil health
- Soil life
- Soil biodiversity
- Soil quality
- Soil value
- Soil fertility
- Soil resilience
- Soil color
- Soil texture
- Soil structure
  - Pore space in soil
  - Pore water pressure
- Soil crust
- Soil horizon
- Soil biomantle
- Soil carbon
- Soil gas
  - Soil respiration
- Soil organic matter
- Soil moisture
  - Soil water (retention)

Soil classification

World Reference Base for Soil Resources (1998–)	Acrisols Alisols Andosols Anthrosols Arenosols Calcisols Cambisols Chernozem Cryosols Durisols Ferralsols Fluvisols Gleysols Gypsisols Histosol Kastanozems Leptosols Lixisols Luvisols Nitisols Phaeozems Planosols Plinthosols Podzols Regosols Retisols Solonchaks Solonetz Stagnosol Technosols Umbrisols Vertisols
USDA soil taxonomy	Alfisols Andisols Aridisols Entisols Gelisols Histosols Inceptisols

Applications	○ Soil conservation ○ Soil management ○ Soil guideline value ○ Soil survey ○ Soil test ○ Soil governance ○ Soil value ○ Soil salinity control ○ Erosion control ○ Agroecology ○ Liming (soil)
Related fields	○ Geology ○ Geochemistry ○ Petrology ○ Geomorphology ○ Geotechnical engineering ○ Hydrology ○ Hydrogeology ○ Biogeography ○ Earth materials ○ Archaeology ○ Agricultural science ○ Agrology
Societies, Initiatives	○ Australian Society of Soil Science Incorporated ○ Canadian Society of Soil Science ○ Central Soil Salinity Research Institute (India) ○ German Soil Science Society ○ Indian Institute of Soil Science ○ International Union of Soil Sciences ○ International Year of Soil ○ National Society of Consulting Soil Scientists (US) ○ OPAL Soil Centre (UK) ○ Soil Science Society of Poland ○ Soil and Water Conservation Society (US) ○ Soil Science Society of America ○ World Congress of Soil Science

Scientific journals

- *Acta Agriculturae Scandinavica B*
- *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*
- *Plant and Soil*
- *Pochvovedenie*
- *Soil Research*
- *Soil Science Society of America Journal*

See also

- Land use
- Land conversion
- Land management
- Vegetation
- Infiltration (hydrology)
- Groundwater
- Crust (geology)
- Impervious surface/Surface runoff
- Petrichor

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- Image not found or type unknown Category soil
- Category soil science
- Image not found or type unknown List of soil scientists

- v
- t
- e

Geotechnical engineering

Offshore geotechnical engineering

Investigation and instrumentation

Field (*in situ*)

- Core drill
- Cone penetration test
- Geo-electrical sounding
- Permeability test
- Load test
  - Static
  - Dynamic
  - Statnamic
- Pore pressure measurement
  - Piezometer
  - Well
- Ram sounding
- Rock control drilling
- Rotary-pressure sounding
- Rotary weight sounding
- Sample series
- Screw plate test
- Deformation monitoring
  - Inclinometer
  - Settlement recordings
- Shear vane test
- Simple sounding
- Standard penetration test
- Total sounding
- Trial pit
- Visible bedrock
- Nuclear densometer test
- Exploration geophysics
- Crosshole sonic logging

Soil

- Types
  - Clay
  - Silt
  - Sand
  - Gravel
  - Peat
  - Loam
  - Loess
- Properties
  - Hydraulic conductivity
  - Water content
  - Void ratio
  - Bulk density
  - Thixotropy
  - Reynolds' dilatancy
  - Angle of repose
  - Friction angle
  - Cohesion
  - Porosity
  - Permeability
  - Specific storage
  - Shear strength
  - Sensitivity

Structures (Interaction)

- Natural features
  - Topography
  - Vegetation
  - Terrain
  - Topsoil
  - Water table
  - Bedrock
  - Subgrade
  - Subsoil
- Earthworks
  - Shoring structures
    - Retaining walls
    - Gabion
    - Ground freezing
    - Mechanically stabilized earth
    - Pressure grouting
    - Slurry wall
    - Soil nailing
    - Tieback
  - Land development
  - Landfill
  - Excavation
  - Trench
  - Embankment
  - Cut
  - Causeway
  - Terracing
  - Cut-and-cover
  - Cut and fill
  - Fill dirt
  - Grading
  - Land reclamation
  - Track bed
  - Erosion control
  - Earth structure
  - Expanded clay aggregate
  - Crushed stone
  - Geosynthetics
    - Geotextile
    - Geomembrane
    - Geosynthetic clay liner
    - Cellular confinement
  - Infiltration
- Foundations
  - Shallow
  - Deep

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Mechanics</td><td>Forces</td><td>Effective stress
Pore water pressure
Lateral earth pressure
Overburden pressure
Preconsolidation pressure</td></tr>
<tr><td>Phenomena/
problems</td><td>Permafrost
Frost heaving
Consolidation
Compaction
Earthquake
Response spectrum
Seismic hazard
Shear wave
Landslide analysis
Stability analysis
Mitigation
Classification
Sliding criterion
Slab stabilisation
Bearing capacity * Stress distribution in soil</td></tr>
<tr><td>Numerical analysis
software</td><td colspan="2">SEEP2D
STABL
SVFlux
SVSlope
UTEXAS
Plaxis</td></tr>
</table>

Related fields	○ Geology ○ Geochemistry ○ Petrology ○ Earthquake engineering ○ Geomorphology ○ Soil science ○ Hydrology ○ Hydrogeology ○ Biogeography ○ Earth materials ○ Archaeology ○ Agricultural science ○ Agrology

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Construction

Types	○ Home construction ○ Offshore construction ○ Underground construction ○ Tunnel construction
History	○ Architecture ○ Construction ○ Structural engineering ○ Timeline of architecture ○ Water supply and sanitation

Professions	○ Architect ○ Building engineer ○ Building estimator ○ Building officials ○ Chartered Building Surveyor ○ Civil engineer ○ Civil estimator ○ Clerk of works ○ Project manager ○ Quantity surveyor ○ Site manager ○ Structural engineer ○ Superintendent
Trades workers (List)	○ Banksman ○ Boilermaker ○ Bricklayer ○ Carpenter ○ Concrete finisher ○ Construction foreman ○ Construction worker ○ Electrician ○ Glazier ○ Ironworker ○ Millwright ○ Plasterer ○ Plumber ○ Roofer ○ Steel fixer ○ Welder

Organizations	◦ American Institute of Constructors (AIC) ◦ American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE) ◦ Asbestos Testing and Consultancy Association (ATAC) ◦ Associated General Contractors of America (AGC) ◦ Association of Plumbing and Heating Contractors (APHC) ◦ Build UK ◦ Construction History Society ◦ Chartered Institution of Civil Engineering Surveyors (CICES) ◦ Chartered Institute of Plumbing and Heating Engineering (CIPHE) ◦ Civil Engineering Contractors Association (CECA) ◦ The Concrete Society ◦ Construction Management Association of America (CMAA) ◦ Construction Specifications Institute (CSI) ◦ FIDIC ◦ Home Builders Federation (HBF) ◦ Lighting Association ◦ National Association of Home Builders (NAHB) ◦ National Association of Women in Construction (NAWIC) ◦ National Fire Protection Association (NFPA) ◦ National Kitchen & Bath Association (NKBA) ◦ National Railroad Construction and Maintenance Association (NRC) ◦ National Tile Contractors Association (NTCA) ◦ Railway Tie Association (RTA) ◦ Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors (RICS) ◦ Scottish Building Federation (SBF) ◦ Society of Construction Arbitrators
By country	◦ India ◦ Iran ◦ Japan ◦ Romania ◦ Turkey ◦ United Kingdom ◦ United States
Regulation	◦ Building code ◦ Construction law ◦ Site safety ◦ Zoning

Architecture

- Style
  - List
- Industrial architecture
  - British
- Indigenous architecture
- Interior architecture
- Landscape architecture
- Vernacular architecture

Engineering

- Architectural engineering
- Building services engineering
- Civil engineering
  - Coastal engineering
  - Construction engineering
  - Structural engineering
- Earthquake engineering
- Environmental engineering
- Geotechnical engineering

Methods

- List
- Earthbag construction
- Modern methods of construction
- Monocrete construction
- Slip forming

About Cook County

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Things To Do in Cook County

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Sand Ridge Nature Center

4.8 (96)

Photo

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River Trail Nature Center

4.6 (235)

Photo

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Palmisano (Henry) Park

4.7 (1262)

Driving Directions in Cook County

Driving Directions From Palmisano (Henry) Park to

Driving Directions From Lake Katherine Nature Center and Botanic Gardens to

Driving Directions From Navy Pier to

https://www.google.com/maps/dir/Navy+Pier/United+Structural+Systems+of+Illinois%2C+In
87.6050944,14z/data=!3m1!4b1!4m14!4m13!1m5!1m1!1sunknown!2m2!1d-
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87.6490151!2d41.8429903!1m5!1m1!1sChIJ-wSxDtinD4gRiv4kY3RRh9U!2m2!1d-
88.1396465!2d42.0637725!3e1

Reviews for

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Jeffery James

(5)

Very happy with my experience. They were prompt and followed through, and very helpful in fixing the crack in my foundation.

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Sarah McNeily

(5)

USS was excellent. They are honest, straightforward, trustworthy, and conscientious. They thoughtfully removed the flowers and flower bulbs to dig where they needed in the yard, replanted said flowers and spread the extra dirt to fill in an area of the yard. We've had other services from different companies and our yard was really a mess after. They kept the job site meticulously clean. The crew was on time and friendly. I'd recommend them any day! Thanks to Jessie and crew.

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Jim de Leon

(5)

It was a pleasure to work with Rick and his crew. From the beginning, Rick listened to my concerns and what I wished to accomplish. Out of the 6 contractors that quoted the project, Rick seemed the MOST willing to accommodate my wishes. His pricing was definitely more than fair as well. I had 10 push piers installed to stabilize and lift an addition of my house. The project commenced at the date that Rick had disclosed initially and it was completed within the same time period expected (based on Rick's original assessment). The crew was well informed, courteous, and hard working. They were not loud (even while equipment was being utilized) and were well spoken. My neighbors were very impressed on how polite they were when they entered / exited my property (saying hello or good morning each day when they crossed paths). You can tell they care about the customer concerns. They ensured that the property would be put back as clean as possible by placing MANY sheets of plywood down prior to excavating. They compacted the dirt back in the holes extremely well to avoid large stock piles of soils. All the while, the main office was calling me to discuss updates and expectations of completion. They provided waivers of lien, certificates of insurance, properly acquired permits, and JULIE locates. From a construction background, I can tell you that I did not see any flaws in the way they operated and this an extremely professional company. The pictures attached show the push piers added to the foundation (pictures 1, 2 & 3), the amount of excavation (picture 4), and the restoration after dirt was placed back in the pits and compacted (pictures 5, 6 & 7). Please notice that they also sealed two large cracks and steel plated these cracks from expanding further (which you can see under my sliding glass door). I, as well as my wife, are extremely happy that we chose United Structural Systems for our contractor. I would happily tell any of my friends and family to use this contractor should the opportunity arise!

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Chris Abplanalp

(5)

USS did an amazing job on my underpinning on my house, they were also very courteous to the proximity of my property line next to my neighbor. They kept things in order with all the dirt/mud they had to excavate. They were done exactly in the timeframe they indicated, and the contract was very details oriented with drawings of what would be done. Only thing that would have been nice, is they left my concrete a little muddy with boot prints but again, all-in-all a great job

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Dave Kari

(5)

What a fantastic experience! Owner Rick Thomas is a trustworthy professional. Nick and the crew are hard working, knowledgeable and experienced. I interviewed every company in the area, big and small. A homeowner never wants to hear that they have foundation issues. Out of every company, I trusted USS the most, and it paid off in the end. Highly recommend.

Assessing Helical Piers for Added Support**View GBP**

Check our other pages :

- **Early Indicators of Potential Foundation Damage**
- **Comparing Pier and Beam Home Foundations**
- **Assessing Helical Piers for Added Support**
- **Considering Carbon Fiber Solutions for Wall Reinforcement**
- **Understanding Bowed Wall Patterns in Basements**

Frequently Asked Questions

What are helical piers and how do they help with foundation repair?

Helical piers are deep foundation solutions that consist of a steel shaft with helix-shaped plates. They are screwed into the soil to reach stable, load-bearing strata beneath the foundation. Helical piers help stabilize and lift settling foundations, providing long-term support and preventing further damage.

How can I determine if helical piers are necessary for my homes foundation?

To determine if helical piers are necessary, a professional foundation repair specialist should conduct a thorough assessment of your homes foundation. They will look for signs of settling, such as cracks in walls or floors, doors and windows that stick, and uneven floors. Soil conditions and the severity of the foundation issues will also be considered to determine if helical piers are the appropriate solution.

What is the installation process for helical piers, and how long does it typically take?

The installation process for helical piers involves digging small holes near the foundation, inserting the piers, and rotating them into the ground using hydraulic machinery. Once the desired depth is reached, the piers are connected to the foundation, and the foundation can be lifted if necessary. The installation process typically takes 1-3 days, depending on the number of piers required and the accessibility of the work area.

How much do helical piers typically cost for residential foundation repair?

The cost of helical piers for residential foundation repair can vary depending on factors such as the number of piers needed, the depth of installation, and the geographic location. On average, homeowners can expect to pay between $1,000 to $1,500 per helical pier, including installation. A comprehensive assessment by a foundation repair specialist will provide a more accurate estimate based on your homes specific needs.

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Google Business Profile

Company Website : **https://www.unitedstructuralsystems.com/**

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Residential Foundation Repair Services

home foundation repair service

Foundation Repair Service

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