

1 **A study of wave propagation and stiffness anisotropy in anisotropically**
2 **loaded granular material-synthetic fiber binary systems**

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29 **Abstract**

30 The influence of polypropylene fiber inclusion on the wave propagation parameters and stiffness
31 anisotropy of granular materials was examined through vertically and laterally positioned bender
32 elements, by which, shear wave velocities were measured leading to the quantification of elastic
33 stiffness $G_{\max(vh)}$, $G_{\max(hv)}$ and $G_{\max(hh)}$ (the first subscript corresponds to the direction of wave
34 propagation and the second subscript corresponds to the direction of particle perturbation as
35 v:vertical and h:horizontal). Various stress paths were considered to comprehensively study
36 stiffness anisotropy of the specimens and grain-scale laboratory tests were additionally performed
37 to provide, partly, some multi-scale insights into the mechanisms of wave propagation of the sand-
38 fiber granular composites. For the back-calculation of elastic stiffness from the wave propagation
39 experiments, Biot's theory was adopted, in which case an equivalent density was used to interpret
40 the high-frequency test results taking into account the relative movement of the solid and fluid
41 phases, which approach provided much better convergency of the results from bender elements
42 and resonant column tests. In this case we assumed that the solid skeleton is composed of the sand
43 particles and the fibers. The test results indicated that when subjected to isotropic stress state, the
44 presence of fibers led to a decrease of $G_{\max(vh)}$ and $G_{\max(hv)}$ but an increase of $G_{\max(hh)}$. The extent

45 of $G_{\max(hh)}$ increase was dependent on the characteristics of the host sand and could be attributed
46 to the structural anisotropy with preferred horizontal orientation of the fibers leading to more
47 pronounced development of rigid-soft contacts in the vertical direction. The contribution of the
48 rigid-soft contacts in stiffness reduction could be linked to the microscopic influence of the softer
49 synthetic fibers in reducing the normal contact stiffness and increasing the energy dissipation of
50 the granular system as the grain-scale experiments suggested. When subjected to anisotropic stress
51 state, the stiffness anisotropy was affected by fiber content in a way that with increasing amount
52 of fiber inclusion, the reduction of the stiffness anisotropy became larger. The stiffness anisotropy
53 of the sand or sand-fiber binary system increased with the increase of the stress ratio. Further
54 analysis of the test results revealed that stress induced anisotropy was directly linked to the
55 influence of deviatoric stress on the volumetric strain.

56 **Keywords:** Granular material; polypropylene fibers; wave propagation; stiffness; stiffness
57 anisotropy; stress anisotropy; rigid-soft contacts.

58

59 **1. Introduction**

60 In the literature of ground improvement, there are different types of geosynthetics with potentially
61 promising applications, including planar types, geosynthetics in granular form and also fibrous-
62 type geosynthetics. However, a larger portion of research and practice has focused on planar types
63 of geosynthetics and there are many gaps in our knowledge with respect to the fundamental
64 mechanisms of fibrous inclusions in granular materials. On a practical standpoint, reinforcing soils
65 with fibrous-type inclusions has been found to be a promising solution to improve the engineering
66 performance of geo-systems [1-7]. Experimental studies have indicated noticeable reinforcement

67 effects of fibers when mixed with soils in improving their shear strength and ductility, reducing
68 the liquefaction susceptibility and the post-peak strength loss [8-16].

69 Despite significant progress being made to understand the static mechanisms of fiber-reinforced
70 soils, studies which examine the influence of fibers on the wave propagation parameters and
71 stiffness of these composite granular systems are limited [17-22]. Wave propagation parameters
72 are very important to be measured and modeled, as their assessment is critical to be obtained in
73 the prediction of deformations of geo-systems subjected to static and dynamic loads [23-24]. They
74 also contribute to the fundamental study and characterization of granular materials/sedimentary
75 profiles and the analysis of energy transport and dissipation mechanisms in granular systems [25-
76 31]. Previous studies have highlighted the significant impact of micro-scale parameters, contact
77 stiffness or the brittle to elastoplastic-to-brittle behavior at the contacts of the grains on their wave
78 propagation/elastic parameters [25, 32-36]. Yimsiri and Soga [37] demonstrated that because of
79 the influence of surface (micro-scale) roughness, granular materials have a stiffness – pressure
80 relationship which deviates from what the Hertz theory would suggest. Additionally, micro-scale
81 parameters have been demonstrated to play key role in linking morphology and elastic properties
82 of particles with their macro-scale nonlinear behavior and energy dissipation mechanisms [36-39].

83 Binary granular materials including sand-fiber composites, display significant complexity in their
84 behavior with competitive mechanisms to be encountered with respect to energy transport and
85 dissipation as recent theoretical and experimental studies have shown [40-42]. This adds further
86 difficulties in the constitutive modeling of these systems compared, for example, to the analysis
87 of soil-planar block interactions. In these complex systems, the competition between rigid, rigid-
88 soft and soft contacts governs their constitutive behavior and the transmission of waves/energy
89 dissipation.

90 In binary granular material – fiber systems, the literature would suggest that the inclusion of fibers
91 increases significantly the shear strength of the bulk material which has been attributed to the
92 mobilization of fibers in tension [1-8, 11]. However, published data have suggested that, in general,
93 the inclusion of fibers decreases the shear wave velocity and elastic stiffness. However, this
94 influence will depend upon a combination of granular material type, fiber type and content, the
95 stress path and strain level in consideration as well as the orientation of the fibers. For
96 polypropylene fibers [20, 22], carbon fibers [19] and recycle carpet fibers [43], mixed with
97 different types of sands, data published in the literature have suggested a decrease of stiffness
98 measured at small strains (i.e., elastic stiffness) compared with that of the host soil. These studies
99 have examined the stiffness of soils based on wave propagation analysis along the axis of the
100 specimen (vertical propagation) while particle perturbations take place radially (horizontally). In
101 this case $G_{\max(vh)}$ is the major stiffness component reported in previous works. However, in many
102 practical problems such as the understanding of the sedimentation processes and the influence of
103 bedding plane direction, or the fundamental study of the response of granular materials, the
104 knowledge of the stiffness in different directions is important to be obtained [44-47]. This includes
105 $G_{\max(hv)}$ (waves propagating in the horizontal direction with the particles vibrating in the vertical
106 direction) and $G_{\max(hh)}$ (wave propagation and particle vibration both take place in the horizontal
107 direction). With respect to clayey (i.e., cohesive granular systems) and sandy soils (i.e.,
108 cohesionless granular systems), many research works have described the cross-anisotropic
109 behavior of geo-materials [48-53] and also the strong dependency of the type of the granular
110 material on the influence of stress path and stress history on stiffness and stiffness anisotropy [54].
111 For binary (composite) granular materials, wave transmission in different directions is controlled
112 by the development of rigid, rigid-soft and soft interfaces leading to higher level of anisotropy

113 (both in terms of structural and stiffness anisotropy) [41]. This gives a lot of scope in the study
114 and fundamental understanding of energy transport and dissipation in composite granular systems,
115 which in the present study is approached through the analysis of stiffness from the measured shear
116 wave velocities. This can be particularly useful to provide some inferences between stiffness
117 anisotropy and fabric anisotropy as well, as the orientation of the fibers typically forms an
118 anisotropic structure.

119 The fabric which develops as a result of the applied method to construct laboratory specimens for
120 testing, in attempts to reproduce natural processes of deposition and diagenesis in natural deposits,
121 has a notable impact on the mechanical response of soils. For soil-fiber binary systems, which are
122 engineered composite granular materials, the preparation process influences the whole soil-fiber
123 structure including the distribution and orientation of the fibers. It has been suggested in the
124 literature that fiber orientations resulting from the moist tamping fabrication technique are likely
125 to be anisotropic with a preferred horizontal bedding plane [2, 55-56]. Fiber orientation largely
126 governs their contribution to the strength of binary fiber-reinforced systems [57-59]. However, the
127 influence of fiber orientation on the wave propagation characteristics (and subsequently on the
128 stiffness of granular materials measured at small strains) has been largely overlooked, which was
129 one of the major motivations behind the present study.

130 The purpose of this work is to examine the impact of fiber content on the wave propagation
131 parameters and stiffness anisotropy of sand-fiber composite materials subjected to various stress
132 paths (both isotropic and anisotropic), providing in this way a new contribution into the
133 examination of the influence of fibrous synthetic inclusion on the constitutive response of granular
134 materials. Particular focus of this investigation is the examination of the behavior of these binary
135 systems at small strains (i.e., wave propagation and elastic parameters). Additional multi-scale

136 insights were obtained performing grain-scale experiments on sand particle-fiber-sand particle
137 microscopic samples emphasizing on the influence of fiber inclusion in the normal contact
138 response of sand grain contacts. Particularly the analysis of the grain-scale experiments provided,
139 through the quantification of contact stiffness, some additional insights in understanding the
140 stiffness reduction of fiber-sand composite systems when the waves are propagating along the axis
141 of the specimen, while particle motion takes place radially ($G_{\max(vh)}$ and $G_{\max(hv)}$). We need to notice
142 that the macroscopic experimental data would be influenced by the sample preparation method
143 adopted in the present work, which resulted in predominantly horizontally oriented fibers. This
144 could give scope for future studies to further examine the relationship of stiffness anisotropy –
145 fiber content – structural characteristics of these composites.

146

147 **2. Materials and testing program**

148 *2.1 Materials used for the macroscopic experiments*

149 The macroscopic experiments in the present study, i.e., element-size samples subjected to bender
150 element tests, were performed using two sand-sized fractions of a basaltic crushed rock (a well-
151 graded fraction: BS1, and a uniform fraction: BS2) and also Sydney sand (SS), which is a natural
152 poorly-graded soil. For the microscopic tests (Section 2.5), Sydney sand was replaced with LBS
153 (Leighton Buzzard sand) because of limitations with respect to the particle size to be tested in the
154 grain-scale apparatus. Note that SS and LBS have very similar characteristics in terms of particle
155 morphology and they are both composed of quartz as the major mineral, though Sydney sand
156 consists of grains with slightly rougher surfaces. Both materials (SS, LBS, BS) have a specific
157 gravity of solids of 2.65. The particle shape of the materials was quantified through visual
158 observations from optical and scanning electron microscope (SEM) images in conjunction with an

159 empirical chart which was originally proposed by Krumbein and Sloss [60] and later modified by
160 Cho et al. [61] and the results from this analysis are summarized in Table 1. Sydney sand has an
161 average regularity of 0.65, which implies that it has sub-rounded particles. BS1 and BS2 have
162 irregularly shaped particles with an average regularity of 0.41. Note that the average regularity
163 equals to the mean value of roundness and sphericity (taken as an arithmetic mean value) as
164 assessed on a representative sample of grains from each granular material. Despite the
165 development of more advanced techniques in particle shape characterization (e.g., [62-63]), the
166 application of the empirical approach adopted in the present study provides an effective means in
167 incorporating particle shape influences in the examination of wave propagation and energy
168 dissipation in granular systems [61, 64-65].

169 Sydney sand and BS2 have the same coefficient of uniformity and so the study of sand-fiber
170 mixtures with these two materials as the host sands helped to provide insights into the impact of
171 particle shape of the host granular material on the behavior of the mixtures. BS1 and BS2 have the
172 same particle shape but different coefficients of uniformity, so that the study of sand-fiber mixtures
173 with these two materials as the host sands helped to examine the impact of particle grading. A
174 summary of the properties of the different sands is given in Table 1 and the grading curves of the
175 three soils are schematically shown in Figure 1. Representative scanning electron microscope
176 images of the two sands are given in supplementary Figure 1. Tian et al. [66] examined the surface
177 roughness (in terms of RMS) values of LBS and Blue sand and reported that Blue sand has grains
178 with much rougher surfaces. RMS roughness values for LBS have been reported within a range of
179 0.20 to 0.45 μm [66-68], however Blue sand grains have, approximately, five to ten times higher
180 RMS roughness compared with LBS [66]. Flattened three-dimensional surface profiles of the two
181 sands taken from an interferometer are given in supplementary Figure 2 (corresponding to

182 representative samples). The analysis on representative samples from the two sands in the present
183 study confirmed the range of values as reported by [66-68]. For the Sydney sand, the
184 interferometry tests on a representative sample of grains indicated an average RMS roughness of
185 0.49 μm (Supplementary Table 1 gives a summary of the roughness measurements for Sydney
186 sand specimens). In general, the RMS roughness values of the Sydney sand were found to be on
187 the upper bound of values for LBS.

188 As synthetic material, polypropylene fibers with a length of 12 mm and a diameter of 0.03mm
189 (circular cross section) were used in the study to determine their influence on the wave propagation
190 and stiffness of the sand-fiber composites. The specific gravity of the polypropylene fibers is 0.9.
191 Their average tensile resistance is equal to 120 MPa, and they have negligible bending resistance.
192 The contents of fiber by mixture weight ranged from 0 to 2%.

193

194 *2.2 Specimen preparation for the macroscopic experiments*

195 The macroscopic experiments were carried out on specimens constructed in a stress path triaxial
196 apparatus (h=152 mm, d=76 mm, where h and d correspond to the length and diameter,
197 respectively) and also in a fixed-partly fixed resonant column of the Hardin-type (h=140 mm, d=70
198 mm). Schematic illustrations of these two experimental setups are given in Figures 2 and 3. Each
199 specimen was constructed in several layers of approximately equal thickness using the moist
200 tamping technique for the sand-fiber mixtures, which were subsequently tested in a fully saturated
201 state. This specimen construction method is often used in laboratory studies of sand-fiber binary
202 systems and it has the advantage of good control of specimen density while mitigating segregation
203 of the particles [55-57, 69]. It produces a fabric which resembles that of a compacted reinforced
204 soil in the field [69]. To illustrate the orientation of the fibers based on the sample preparation

205 method used in the present study, one specimen was prepared and compacted in a metal mold (BS1
206 with 0.5% fibers) using a water content of 3%-5%, approximately. Subsequently, the sample was
207 placed in a freezer for about 12 hours at a temperature of -50 °C. The frozen sample was then cut
208 in vertical and horizontal directions (Figure 4(a)). A Leica M80 stereomicroscope and a Leica
209 IC80 HD camera were used to capture images taken from cross-sections of the specimen. Figures
210 4(b) and 4(c) show images taken from the horizontal plane, and based on this, it was observed that
211 the fibers were randomly distributed. From the images in Figures 4(d) and 4(e), which were taken
212 from the vertical plane of the specimen and rotated 90 degrees, it is observed that the fibers are
213 oriented, predominantly, horizontally. The study by Soriano et al. [56] utilized the X-ray
214 tomography technique to examine the fabric of sand-fiber mixtures. That study showed that the
215 moist tamping sample preparation method creates anisotropic fiber orientation with preferential
216 sub-horizontal directions. For polypropylene fibers it is technically difficult to analyze images
217 from micro-CT scanning because their specific gravity is equal to 0.9, which is relatively close to
218 that of water and thus, Soriano et al. [56] used fluorocarbon fibers with specific gravity of 1.7
219 which could make it feasible to detect the fibers in the X-ray tomography. Nonetheless, the basic
220 characterization of fibers' orientation from the images in Figure 4 matches that from the study by
221 Soriano et al. [58] and will be a basis to provide some of the interpretations in the consecutive
222 sections, even though it is acknowledged that the influence of fiber orientation on
223 stiffness/stiffness anisotropy would worth further investigation, for example by changing the
224 sample preparation method in future studies.

225 Detailed description of the experimental procedure including system set up and saturation process
226 after specimen preparation is provided by [18, 20]. Dry tamping was used for most of the pure
227 sand specimens (detailed in Table 2), as there were no segregation problems. Several pure sand

228 specimens were prepared by moist tamping to confirm that dry tamping and moist tamping
229 preparation methods provide similar results in terms of wave propagation parameters.

230

231 *2.3 Test procedure: macroscopic experiments*

232 A stress path triaxial apparatus mounted with lateral bender element (BE) inserts was employed to
233 measure the shear wave velocities $V_{s(hv)}$ and $V_{s(hh)}$, while the resonant column (RC) apparatus
234 (equipped with a pair of BE on the top and bottom platens) was used to measure $V_{s(vh)}$. Li et al.
235 [70] presented the calibration details of the RC system. After the saturation process was completed,
236 each specimen was consolidated at a target pressure and subsequently subjected to a chosen stress
237 path (isotropic or anisotropic) with bender element measurements taken along this path. For each
238 specimen, the axial strain was directly recorded with a vertically positioned displacement
239 transducer (LVDT), and sample volume changes were recorded using a volume/pressure
240 controller. For the dry specimens, the volumetric strain was assumed to be equal to three times the
241 axial strain (after [50, 64]). Note that even if the error in the estimated volumetric strain were
242 100%, which is an extreme case, the resultant error in the measured elastic stiffness (G_{max}) is
243 expected to be no more than 3% to 4% [71]. Additionally, a specially designed mould was used so
244 that the bender element inserts were placed in advance prior to the construction of the specimens.
245 As the bender element inserts were sealed, this provided the necessary mitigation of
246 leakage/contact with air to prepare the cohesionless samples.

247

248 *2.4 Testing program: macroscopic experiments*

249 Two sets of “macroscopic” tests were conducted and details of each set are provided in Tables 2
250 and 3. The specimens summarized in Table 2 were subjected to an isotropic stress path to study

251 the exclusive effect of fiber orientation. The mean effective confining pressure (p'), which is an
252 isotropic pressure for this set of tests, ranged from 50 kPa to 1600 kPa. For specimens in Table 3,
253 anisotropic stress was applied to examine the impact of stress induced anisotropy on elastic wave
254 propagation and stiffness. After the completion of the isotropic consolidation, for specimen no. 28
255 to specimen no. 34 in Table 3, a constant p' loading path was followed, and p' was maintained at
256 100 kPa and the stress ratio (q/p') where stiffness was measured followed a sequence of 0, 0.25,
257 0.5, 0.75, 1 and 1.2 (note that q denotes the deviatoric stress and p' denotes the mean effective
258 confining pressure). Specimens no. 35 to no. 38 were consolidated isotropically and then were
259 subjected to extension stress paths under constant $p'=100$ kPa (q/p' followed a sequence of -0.1, -
260 0.2, -0.3, -0.4 to -0.5). For these specimens, after they reached the desired stress ratio in extension,
261 the stress anisotropy was removed bringing back the stress state to the isotropic condition. These
262 specimens were subsequently loaded under a constant p' compression stress path (q/p' ranging from
263 0 to 1). Finally, these specimens were unloaded to the isotropic stress state. In summary, specimen
264 no.35 to specimen no.38 were subjected to constant p' extension, loading and unloading, followed
265 by constant p' compression, loading and unloading. Therefore, the values of the stress ratio ranged
266 from -0.5 to 1 (Table 3). The different applied stress paths are illustrated in Figure 5.

267

268 *2.5 Microscopic experiments*

269 Understanding of the bulk response of granular (and composite) materials, necessitates an
270 investigation of their microscopic behavior such as grain contact parameters as multi-scale studies
271 would suggest [42, 72-74]. For this purpose, in order to enrich the discussions from the wave
272 propagation experiments, an additional set of microscopic (grain-scale) tests was conducted in the
273 present study, in which case, as mentioned earlier in the paper, Sydney sand was replaced with

274 LBS. Thus, the microscopic tests investigated the contact behavior of LBS – fiber and Blue sand
275 – fiber specimens. The grain-scale experiments were used to provide some additional support of
276 the macroscopic observations, particularly emphasizing the influence of fiber inclusion on the
277 normal contact response of sand grain contacts. For these tests, a grain-scale apparatus was used
278 [38, 75] and a schematic illustration of the apparatus is given in Figure 6. This is a custom-built
279 experimental setup which is composed of two loading arms (one in the horizontal direction and
280 one in the vertical direction) each consisting of high precision load cell and non-contact
281 displacement sensor, as well as a set of mechanical connections and small linear bearing systems.
282 The apparatus is particularly designed to test small in size samples, for example the frictional
283 behavior of sand grain contacts with a size between about 0.5 to 5mm (average diameter of
284 particles). Detailed presentation of the calibration of this apparatus has been described by He et al.
285 [75].

286 A similar approach as the one described by Li et al. [42] was used to prepare the sand-fiber samples
287 for the grain-scale tests. Sizes of around 1-2mm particles from LBS and Blue sand were used for
288 these experiments and the fibers were placed on the lower grain, prior to bringing the upper grain
289 downwards so that to apply the normal load to the contact. All the microscopic tests (i.e., pure
290 sand grain samples and sand grain-polypropylene fiber samples) were performed applying a
291 maximum normal load of 3N and recording the normal load – displacement response of the
292 samples. In this case, the measured displacements corresponded to “global” deformations at the
293 contact of the sand grain – fiber specimens and there was not any distinction between relative
294 deformations of sand particles and fiber.

295 As the macroscopic experiments focused on elastic wave propagation, all the grain-scale tests
296 were performed in the normal direction (i.e., we didn’t focus in the present study on the shearing

297 behavior of sand-fiber contacts). This is because we would expect a stronger influence of the
298 normal contact response from the microscopic tests on the wave propagation parameters compared
299 with the respective influence of the tangential – load (frictional) response [36].

300 In total twelve samples were prepared and tested for the micromechanical tests; six specimens of
301 LBS grains and six specimens of Blue sand grains (three samples from each sand with fibers at
302 their contacts and also three samples from each material without fibers). Note that these
303 experiments provided some qualitative insights to enrich the macroscopic observations, and that it
304 was not intended to provide a direct quantitative correlation between fiber amount in the grain-
305 scale tests with that in the macroscopic experiments. In the subsequent sections, the grain-scale
306 test results are recalled, particularly in the discussion on the influence of fiber inclusion on the
307 wave propagation parameters of the specimens as the analysis of the influence of grain-scale
308 parameters in stiffness anisotropy is not technically feasible to be analyzed based on the present
309 experimental methods. Micro-CT Xray tomography, similar to the studies by [56, 73] on binary
310 granular systems could be a more adequate approach to study the role of microscopic parameters
311 on stiffness anisotropy in future studies and perhaps the potentially important role of fiber
312 orientation.

313

314 **3. Results and discussions**

315 *3.1 Signal analysis and interpretation of measured wave velocities and respective estimation of* 316 *elastic stiffness*

317 To quantify the effect of fibers on elastic wave propagation and stiffness (G_{\max}) of the mixtures,
318 bender element (BE) tests were carried out on binary sand-fiber specimens using a range of fiber
319 contents. Representative plots of the transmitted and received shear waves from the BE tests are

320 shown in Figure 7 (note: these results correspond to real measurements of raw data and the vertical
321 axis in Figure 7 is expressed in voltage units, where the input signal had an amplitude of 14V).
322 The two methods used in the study to interpret the output signal to estimate shear wave velocities
323 were the first time of arrival (denoted as FT) method and the peak-to-peak time of arrival (denoted
324 as PP) method. Both of these methods have been discussed and evaluated in previous works [20,
325 76-77]. Shear wave velocities (V_s) measured from the FT and PP methods in the present work
326 provided very small differences within a range of $\pm 5\%$ and a comparison of the data based on these
327 two methods for the whole set of data is given in Figure 8. In the subsequent discussions, the PP
328 method is used to examine the wave velocity and stiffness parameters of the binary specimens.

329 Youn et al. [78] have suggested that the total mass density should not be used to convert V_s to G_{max}
330 for saturated sands because of the dispersion characteristics, as the BE is a high frequency method
331 and thus, relative movement between solid grains and water occurs during the excitation of the
332 specimen. Therefore, the dispersion and attenuation of the elastic wave propagation through fluid-
333 saturated soils can be considered in terms of the Biot's theory [79-80]. This theory considers the
334 applied input frequency of the excitation, the density of the solid grains and the fluid and also the
335 permeability of the material. Correction of the density of the specimen is therefore performed
336 mostly for highly permeable materials. In this study, G_{max} values were computed from the
337 equivalent density which provides much better matching of the results between RC and BE tests
338 [18, 20]. A basic assumption in the present study was that the solid skeleton of the specimens is
339 composed of both sand particles and fiber inclusion.

340 In specific, based on Youn et al. [78], the following expression was used to estimate the elastic
341 stiffness from the BE tests:

$$G_{max} = \rho_{eq} \times (V_s)^2 = \left[(1 - n) \times \rho_g + \left(1 - \frac{1}{a} \right) \times n \times \rho_f \right] \times (V_s)^2 \quad (1)$$

342 where (ρ_{eq}) is the equivalent density, (n) is the porosity, (ρ_g) and (ρ_f) are the mass density of the
 343 solid grains and the fluid, respectively, and (a) is a constant which ranges between 2 and 3 [78,
 344 81]. In the present study, similar to Li and Senetakis [18], a value of $a=2$ was adopted.

345 A comparison of the G_{max} values from the BE tests and the RC tests using bulk density (i.e.,
 346 traditional approach) and equivalent density (i.e., Biot's theory) is given in Figure 9. These data
 347 suggest a much closer estimation of the elastic stiffness from the BE tests with that of the RC tests
 348 when the equivalent density is used. Thus, for further interpretations and data analysis from the
 349 bender element tests, the method proposed by Youn et al. [78] based on Biot's theory is adopted
 350 in the study. It is noticed, however, that for the resonant column tests, as they are low-to-medium
 351 frequency experiments, bulk density is used to estimate elastic stiffness.

352

353 *3.2 Stiffness and stiffness anisotropy of isotropically consolidated fiber-sand mixtures*

354 3.2.1 Macroscopic observations

355 The impact of fiber content on G_{max} of the isotropically consolidated specimens is illustrated
 356 through representative plots in Figures 10 and 11 in terms of stiffness – pressure and in
 357 Supplementary Figure 3 in terms of shear wave velocity – pressure relationship. For each fiber
 358 content, two samples were prepared to assess the reproducibility of the test results. To exclude the
 359 effect of void ratio, G_{max} values (as well as V_s values in Supplementary Figure 3) obtained from
 360 the BE tests are normalized with respect to a commonly used void ratio function $f(e)=e^{-1.3}$ [82].
 361 Plots of normalized stiffness against the normalized pressure are given in Figure 10(a) and Figure
 362 11(a). Figure 10(a) indicates that the addition of fibers tends to decrease $G_{max(hv)}$, however, it has

363 a positive effect on $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ after eliminating the effect of void ratio as shown in Figure 11(a).
364 $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ also reduced with an increase of the fiber content as presented by [18, 20]. Other void ratio
365 functions (for example the expression proposed by Hardin and Black [83]) were used to analyze
366 the data, and the same conclusions were drawn that the inclusion of fibers results in a decrease of
367 $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ and $G_{\max(\text{hv})}$ and an increase of $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$. The data of Figures 10(a) and 11(a) are reproduced
368 in Supplementary Figures 3(a) and 3(b), respectively, in terms of shear wave velocity against the
369 normalized pressure. The results from these plots provide very similar qualitative conclusions
370 between stiffness and wave velocity analyses, and thus, for further interpretations and description
371 of the model parameters, stiffness (G_{\max}) is chosen in the present study.

372 The granular void ratio (e_{gr}) was also adopted to quantify the impact of fiber content (FC) on the
373 elastic stiffness of the binary samples. In the granular void ratio, the volume of fibers is considered
374 as part of the volume of voids and the solid skeleton consists of the volume of sand grains. $G_{\max(\text{hv})}$
375 and $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ normalized with respect to $F(e_{\text{gr}})$ are plotted in Figure 10(b) and Figure 11(b),
376 respectively. However, the use of the granular void ratio is ineffective to eliminate the effect of
377 fiber content. It is seen in these figures that even after the normalization of G_{\max} with respect to
378 the granular void ratio of the specimens, the drop of $G_{\max(\text{hv})}$ and the increase of $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ with the
379 increase of fiber content is still consistent with the results presented in Figures 10(a) and 11(a).
380 Therefore, the conventional void ratio (e) was used for the subsequent analysis as it is commonly
381 used in the literature.

382 To examine the impact of fiber content on elastic stiffness, power-law type expressions were fitted
383 to the experimental data (Figures 10(a) and 11(a)) using the general expression of Eq. (2), which
384 is a semi-analytical formula used in the analysis of elastic stiffness in granular materials [25, 84]:

$$G_{max} = A_G \times e^{-1.3} \times \left(\frac{p'}{p_a}\right)^{n_G} \quad (2)$$

385 Using the least square error approach, the best fit parameters A_G and n_G for each specimen have
 386 been obtained and depicted in Figures 12(a) and 12(b) against the content of fibers (FC). These
 387 data suggest that both $A_{G(vh)}$ and $A_{G(hv)}$ decrease with increasing FC. In contrast, $A_{G(hh)}$ is slightly
 388 increased when fiber content increases. It is also noted that the resultant model parameters $A_{G(vh)}$,
 389 $A_{G(hv)}$ and $A_{G(hh)}$ are approximately the same for pure sand specimens and given that the n_G values
 390 are very close at FC=0%, it is implied that pure sand specimens have isotropic stiffness.

391 The presence of fibers leads to an increase of $G_{max(hh)}$ and a decrease of $G_{max(vh)}$ and $G_{max(hv)}$, where
 392 $G_{max(vh)}=G_{max(hv)}$. As for the power n_G , no clear trend could be found based on the data presented
 393 in Figure 12(b). It has been demonstrated in the literature [7] that the nonlinear trend of parameters
 394 could be normalized as a linear function. Therefore, the power n_G was further normalized to the
 395 values of initial dry density γ_d and fiber content as:

$$n'_G = \log\left(\frac{n_G}{\gamma_d}\right) \times (1 + FC) = -1.37 \times FC - 1.53 \quad (3)$$

396 The normalized power n'_G correlates well with the content of the fibers as shown in Figure 12(c).
 397 It is noted that the normalized power n'_G obtained from G_{vh} , G_{hv} and G_{hh} follows a relatively similar
 398 linear trend. Therefore, one linear correlation between all normalized n'_G values and fiber contents
 399 could be applied in the interest of simplicity. Subsequently, the value of the power n_G is positively
 400 correlated with initial dry density and fiber content.

401 One possible explanation on the increase in stiffness in the horizontal direction when fibers are
 402 added in the sand is that fibers are, predominantly, horizontally oriented in the mixtures due to the
 403 specimen preparation method adopted. This has also been supported by other researchers who used
 404 similar techniques as discussed in section 2.2 [55-57, 69]. The horizontal layer structure results in

405 more sand-sand (“rigid”) contacts being replaced by the softer sand-fiber-sand (“rigid-soft”)
406 contacts in the vertical direction than in the horizontal direction. The shear wave velocity is
407 reduced at the contacts of the particles [25, 85], therefore the wave transmits faster in the horizontal
408 direction. There are also examples in the literature which show that a horizontal layering structure
409 results in a greater value of $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ under isotropic loading. For example, for reconstituted and
410 intact clays, Kuwano [85] reported that G_{hh} was in general greater than G_{vh} . They suggested that
411 the elongated/flaky particles of the clay tend to be oriented in the horizontal direction, which results
412 in more contacts being formed during deposition in the vertical direction than in the horizontal
413 direction. Assuming that attenuation of wave velocity takes place, predominantly, at the contacts
414 of the particles, the wave transmits faster in the horizontal direction. Ng and Leung [86] have
415 demonstrated that the measured shear wave velocity in the horizontal plane ($V_{\text{s(hh)}}$) of completely
416 decomposed tuff (CDT), which is a type of clastic material caused by the weathering of the parent
417 rock, is consistently higher than the velocities in the other two directions ($V_{\text{s(hv)}}$ and $V_{\text{s(vh)}}$) for
418 samples subjected to an isotropic stress state. They concluded from soaking tests that CDT has a
419 horizontal layering structure. Shear waves transmitted horizontally with a horizontal polarization
420 travel along a relatively stiffer horizontal layer (hh plane), resulting in a higher shear-wave velocity
421 $V_{\text{s(hh)}}$ compared with $V_{\text{s(hv)}}$ and $V_{\text{s(vh)}}$.

422 Similar trends could also be observed for Sydney sand-fiber mixtures and representative results
423 from this group of tests are given in Figure 13. It can be seen that model parameters $A_{\text{G(vh)}}$, $A_{\text{G(hv)}}$
424 and $A_{\text{G(hh)}}$ are approximately the same in magnitude for pure Sydney sand specimens as for the
425 BS1 sand. The presence of fibers leads to a decrease of $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ and $G_{\max(\text{hv})}$, and they are equal in
426 magnitude. However, the effect of fibers on $A_{\text{G(hh)}}$ is relatively small. For instance, $A_{\text{G(hh)}}$ for SS
427 reinforced with 1% fibers is approximately the same as for the unreinforced specimen, and

428 similarly, $A_{G(\text{hh})}$ for BS2 mixed with 1% fibers is at the same level as that of the pure sand specimen
429 (Figure 13), which is a completely different observation compared with BS1-fiber mixtures. This
430 is speculated to be because of the very different gradings and particle shapes between these three
431 types of sands. It is therefore understood that the impact of fiber inclusion on the wave propagation
432 and elastic stiffness in different directions depends on the grain size distribution characteristics
433 and particle shape of the host sand. As it was discussed in section 2.1, Sydney sand (SS) is a
434 uniform natural sand of fairly regular-in-shape grains, BS1 is a well-graded sand of irregular-in-
435 shape grains and BS2 is a uniform material with irregularly shaped particles.

436 3.2.2 Microscopic observations

437 The decrease of elastic stiffness (G_{vh} , G_{hv}) because of the increased contacts of sand-fiber-sand in
438 the vertical direction, can be also explained, partly, by the inference of the polypropylene fibers,
439 as a softer material, in reducing the normal contact stiffness of the interfaces. In this case, we
440 assume that G_{max} is influenced, predominantly, by the normal contact response of the interacting
441 grains as the contact mechanics theories would imply (after [25, 84]). This assumption was also
442 confirmed in the recent numerical study by Reddy et al. [36] in the analysis of the small-to-medium
443 strain stiffness of granular materials. In specific, one of the key plots from the study by [36], is
444 given in Figure 14 which shows, based on discrete element simulations, the relative contribution
445 of shear and normal contact forces of a granular assembly (pure sand) for a minute increment of
446 the deviatoric stress (at this small increment of the deviatoric stress, G_{max} was defined by Reddy
447 et al. [36]). This plot shows that the shear force contribution is, approximately, only 10% to 20%
448 of the normal force counterpart, demonstrating the dominant influence of the normal contact
449 response rather than the tangential contact response in the multi-scale analysis of the macroscopic
450 small-strain stiffness.

451 Recalling the micromechanical experiments on sand-sand contacts in the presence of fibers and
452 implementing Hertz contact model to quantify the normal load – displacements curves, shows that
453 the presence of fibers decreases the normal contact stiffness.

454 Figure 15 provides a representative example in applying Hertz fitting to the experimental data and
455 also gives an illustration of the parameters used in the analytical expression, which is given as:

$$F_N = \frac{4 \times (R^*)^{\frac{1}{2}} \times E^* \times \delta_N^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3} \quad (4a)$$

$$\frac{1}{R^*} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} \quad (4b)$$

456

457 In Equation (4), F_N is the normal load, δ_N is the normal displacement, R^* accounts for the equivalent
458 radius given from Equation 4(b), in which R_1 and R_2 represent the radius of the two particles in
459 contact, and E^* is the equivalent or contact Young's modulus. In the fitting process, similar to the
460 descriptions by Ren et al. [38], MATLAB optimization toolbox was used to assess the best-fitted
461 parameters of the theoretical model (in which case E^* is the fitting parameter).

462 The normal load – displacement curves of the different samples from the grain-scale experiments
463 are given in Figure 16. In this figure, the range of E^* values (equivalent or contact modulus) based
464 on Hertz fitting for each type of contact is displayed. It is noticed that the LBS grain contacts have
465 much higher E^* values compared with the Blue sand ($E^* \sim 11.0-19.2$ GPa for LBS and 2.4-5.5 GPa
466 for BS), signifying greater normal contact stiffness. This is also confirmed by the much steeper
467 part of the curves at larger displacements, where the relationship between normal load (or normal
468 contact force) and displacement becomes almost linear (beyond the initial regime of non-linear
469 increase of the load). This behavior, as also discussed by Tian et al. [66], is related with the much

470 smoother surfaces of the LBS grains leading to higher normal contact stiffness during the virgin
471 loading of the particle contacts. Perhaps, the differences in the normal loading behavior between
472 LBS and Blue sand grain contacts can also explain, partly, the higher sensitivity of the elastic
473 stiffness to the confining pressure for the Blue sand as the macroscopic test results by Payan et al.
474 [64] would suggest. This is because the Blue sand displays a softer contact response, thus leading
475 to greater fabric changes during the elevation of the confining pressure. It is implied from these
476 discussions that the morphologies of the particles at different scales play their own role in assessing
477 the elastic stiffness – pressure relationship, which involves both mesoscopic grain morphology
478 (i.e., particle shape) and microscopic particle morphology (i.e., roughness), as also previous works
479 have suggested [64, 87].

480 Despite these differences between the pure sand grain contacts, the behavior is relatively
481 homogenized when fibers are added as shown in Figures 16(b) and 16(c), in which case the Hertz
482 analysis shows a reduction of contact modulus of approximately one order of magnitude (~5 to 10
483 times) for sand-fiber specimens compared with pure sand grain contacts. This significant drop in
484 contact stiffness is because the system of sand-fibers behaves similar to “rigid-soft” systems as
485 also described in previous studies on sand particle – polymeric material interfaces [66]. A
486 theoretical illustration on the influence of soft synthetic (polymeric) inclusions at the contacts of
487 sand grains is given in Figure 17. Because of the softer and visco-elastic behavior of synthetic
488 inclusions, apart from their contribution in altering the normal contact response of the interfaces
489 within the granular system, also cause increased energy dissipation as the multi-scale test results
490 by Li et al. [42] showed on sand-fiber composites. In specific, the study by [42] focused on
491 measurements of material damping at the macroscopic level through resonant column tests, and
492 the grain-scale response of the interfaces (in the tangential direction) at the small scale through

493 microscopic experiments. This visco-elastic behavior and significant energy dissipation at the
494 interfaces was also supported by the micromechanical tests of Tian et al. [66] on elastomer-sand
495 grain contacts. Additionally, the study by [66] showed that for brittle to elastoplastic materials
496 such as sand grain contacts, the behavior during particle perturbations at small levels of
497 displacements may be elastic (for spherical and relatively smooth quartz grains), or elastoplastic
498 (for irregular-in-shape with rougher textures sand grains). However, plastic-induced strains
499 majorly result from surface damage of micro-asperities.

500 For composite interfaces (rigid-soft contacts) with the inclusion of polymeric-based materials, the
501 behavior is highly hysteretic, resulting in a significant dissipation of energy. An illustration of
502 these different types of normal contact behavior as reported by Tian et al. [66] (re-drawn by the
503 authors), is given in Figure 18. An additional observation from the micromechanical response of
504 the sand-fiber samples in the present study (Figure 16(d)), which was also discussed on sand-
505 granulated elastomer contacts by [66], is that despite the significant decrease of the normal contact
506 stiffness when synthetic inclusions interact with sand grains, the specimens resemble, partly, some
507 influence of the sand type. As shown in Figure 16(d), despite the inter-test variations, the sand-
508 fiber contacts with LBS particles have slightly greater contact modulus values (and also normal
509 stiffness values) compared with that of Blue sand particles ($\sim 0.8\text{-}2.7$ GPa for LBS-fiber against
510 $0.4\text{-}1.2$ GPa for BS-fiber). This can possibly explain the observations and model development by
511 Li et al. [20] on the elastic stiffness of sand-fiber mixtures subjected to isotropic loading. In that
512 study it was shown that the properties of the host sand resemble an influence in the model
513 development, i.e., elastic wave propagation parameters are given as a function of both fiber content
514 and host sand characteristics. This can be explained, partly, by the influence of sand type on the
515 response of the sand-fiber contacts (despite some trend to homogenization).

516

517 3.3 Stress induced anisotropy

518 To investigate the influence of the anisotropic stress state on the elastic wave propagation and
519 stiffness anisotropy of fiber-sand mixtures, several tests were performed applying different stress
520 paths over a wide range of stress ratios (Table 3, Figure 5). The $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ and $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ values under
521 anisotropic loading paths are plotted against the stress ratio in Figure 19. To remove the effect of
522 volume change and variations in void ratio on the stiffness of the specimens subjected to
523 anisotropic stress state, the values of G_{\max} obtained from the test results at each deviatoric stress
524 were normalized with respect to the void ratio function in Figure 19(a). The effect of stress
525 anisotropy was captured through the ratio of the normalized stiffness under isotropic and
526 anisotropic stress states, $G_{\max, \text{normalized}} = [G_{\max(\text{ani})}/F(e_{\text{ani}})]/[G_{\max(\text{iso})}/F(e_{\text{iso}})]$ in Figure 19(b).

527 In triaxial compression where the radial stress is smaller compared with the deviatoric stress but
528 p' is kept constant, $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ increased, while $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ decreased, with the change of stress ratio for
529 both reinforced and unreinforced specimens, as can be seen in Figure 19(a). For the unreinforced
530 specimens, $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ was found to be greater than $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ under the same stress state. Jardine et al.
531 [88] explained that the shear waves are unlikely to pass through the soil mass evenly. It was stated
532 in that work that it is far more probable that the shear waves travel mainly through the network of
533 the most highly stressed (and therefore stiffest) force chains, with the particles' equilibrium being
534 satisfied by complex interactions with their neighbors, rather than the simple system of
535 complimentary shear stresses implicit in elastic body wave theory. From results using the discrete
536 element method (DEM) on spherical particles by Jardine et al. [88], it was demonstrated that the
537 strongest force chains line up with the vertical direction under anisotropic stresses, which leads to
538 relatively higher values of $V_{s(\text{vh})}$. Similarly, Gu et al. [89] demonstrated from DEM analyses that

539 the distribution of contacts among the grains remains almost unchanged in the vertical direction
540 under anisotropic loading, and that contact forces are re-distributed, primarily, to resist the external
541 anisotropic load which leads to an increase of $G_{\max(vh)}$. On the contrary, for the composite granular
542 materials tested in the current study, all the data points of $G_{\max(vh)}$ are located well below the
543 corresponding data of $G_{\max(hh)}$, which is hypothesized to be caused by the orientation of the fibers
544 as discussed in the previous sections.

545 To study the exclusive impact of stress anisotropy on G_{\max} removing possible influence of different
546 void ratios between different specimens, a normalized expression of stiffness, as introduced by
547 Payan et al. [90] and Senetakis and Li [91] for pure sands and fiber-reinforced sands, respectively,
548 was adopted. Based on this concept, the data from Figure 19(a) are reproduced in Figure 19(b),
549 where the values of the vertical axis are normalized with respect to a void ratio function. These
550 plots suggest that the increase of normalized $G_{\max(vh)}$ as the stress ratio increases is more
551 pronouncedly observed for the softer fiber-reinforced specimens with smaller $G_{\max(vh)}$ values than
552 the stiffer unreinforced specimens. For a fiber content equal to 2% at $p' = 100$ kPa, $G_{\max,normalized}$
553 showed an increase of the order of 30%, approximately, while an increase of 10%, approximately,
554 can be observed for the pure sand specimen with the change of stress ratio from 0 to 1. It is shown
555 from Figure 19(b) that the effect of stress anisotropy is markedly more pronounced for the mixtures
556 of the well-graded and of angular grains crushed rock compared with the mixtures of the uniform
557 and of sub-rounded grains natural (Sydney) sand. It is noticed that Sydney sand has a greater
558 $G_{\max(vh)}$ value and the structural stability and non-homogeneous distribution of the contact normal
559 forces among the particles of the tested sands due to shearing might be the reason for the different
560 sensitivities of different specimens under stress anisotropy [90]. This is also very likely to be
561 caused by the higher normal contact stiffness of the natural sand grain contacts compared with that

562 of Blue sand grain contacts, as the grain-scale tests suggested, providing a strong link between the
563 microscopic observations from the grain-scale tests with the macroscopic test results in the present
564 study. In this case, we make the assumption that it is more probable the Sydney sand grains to have
565 a much more similar contact stiffness with LBS, compared to that of Blue sand, based on the local
566 morphology, surface roughness and origin among the different materials [39, 66, 68, 92-93].
567 Measurements of stiffness when applying and removing stress anisotropy suggested that the
568 properties of the host sand have a significant influence on the measured stiffness between the
569 loading and unloading paths. For instance, $G_{\max(vh)}$ for the natural Sydney sand during the removal
570 of the stress anisotropy is almost the same as in the loading process, which agrees with the
571 observations by [54]. However, $G_{\max(vh)}$ for BS1 during the unloading process is slightly higher
572 compared to the loading process, while the $G_{\max(vh)}$ for BS1 mixed with 2% fibers at $q/p'+1=1$
573 during the unloading process is 25% higher than that of the loading process. This is because during
574 the application of the deviatoric stress, plastic shear strains were induced in the specimens of BS1
575 and BS1-fiber mixtures, which, due to the angular and rough grains of the crushed rock, resulted
576 in greater compressibility compared with the specimens composed of Sydney sand. To further
577 investigate the stiffness anisotropy as a result of induced strains, four representative specimens
578 (no. 28, 30, 32 and 34 from Table 3) were analyzed. The ratio of $G_{\max(vh)}$ at the anisotropic
579 consolidation state ($q/p'>0$) over $G_{\max(vh)}$ at the isotropic consolidation state ($q/p'=0$) of these four
580 specimens is plotted against the shear strain in Figure 20(a). In this figure, the black continuous
581 line stands for the fitting curve from the data analysis, representing an “average” increase of the
582 stiffness (from isotropic to anisotropic state) with increasing induced shear strains. A relatively
583 good correlation could be established, which indicates that the differences in the behavior of pure

584 BS1 and BS1 with fibers under triaxial compression is contributed, partly, by the induced shear
585 strains.

586 It is noticed that the current study aims to explore in a qualitative way the different responses of
587 various granular materials (including sand-fiber composites) under stress anisotropy following a
588 constant p' path rather than developing a correlation between shear strain and the ratio of $G_{\max(\text{ani})}/$
589 $G_{\max(\text{iso})}$, therefore, the equation and the coefficient of determination are not displayed. Based on
590 published data by Senetakis and Li [91], a comprehensive database of a series of triaxial
591 compression tests at different effective confining stresses on BS1 with different fiber contents were
592 re-analyzed in a similar way as the analysis presented in Figure 20(a). These data are given in
593 Figure 21, and similar to Figure 20(a), the black continuous line stands for the fitting curve from
594 the data analysis. Though some scatter in the data is acknowledged, there is a clear influence of
595 the induced plastic strains on the ratio of $G_{\max(\text{ani})}/G_{\max(\text{iso})}$. In Figure 20(b) the ratios of $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ at
596 the unloading stage over $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ at the loading stage for sands and sand-fiber mixtures are plotted
597 against the shear strain. The data indicate that for BS1 and BS1 with fibers, a portion of the total
598 strain is plastic and that $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ values are greater at the unloading stage, while for SS the shear
599 strain is almost recovered completely and $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ values are almost identical during the loading
600 and unloading stages. During the unloading process, the effect of stress ratio is almost negligible,
601 as can be observed from the data in Figure 19(a) where the red-colored trend line is nearly flat.
602 Therefore, the different trends observed for various specimens with respect to the sensitivity of
603 stiffness to the stress ratio is related, solely, to the induced shear strains. The results in Figure 19(a)
604 also show that the values of $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ decrease with the increase of stress ratio for both unreinforced
605 and reinforced specimens and that the presence of fibers seems to slow down the change of $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$
606 with the increase of stress ratio. A similar analysis correlating $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ with shear strain was

607 conducted, however the correlation between $G_{\max(\text{hh,ani})}/G_{\max(\text{hh,iso})}$ and shear strain was found to be
608 relatively weak. Based on this, a clear conclusion could not be drawn on the influence of fiber
609 content on $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ under anisotropic stress state. These results, along with what the literature on
610 geosynthetics has suggested [57, 94-95], would necessitate more in-depth analysis of the involved
611 micromechanisms with respect to fiber content and geometric arrangement to be performed in
612 future studies. For example, the role of mobilized friction was not examined explicitly in this study
613 which could play some important role on the behavior of the anisotropically loaded specimens.

614

615 *3.4 Stiffness anisotropy of sand and sand-fiber mixtures under extension and compression stress* 616 *paths*

617 To examine further the stiffness anisotropy of sand-fiber composites subjected to stress anisotropy,
618 six additional samples were constructed with different fiber contents and were subjected to triaxial
619 extension and compression stress paths. The stiffness ratio defined as $[G_{\max(\text{hv})}/F(e)]/[G_{\max(\text{hh})}/F(e)]$
620 is plotted against the stress ratio in Figure 22. At the isotropic stress state, the stiffness ratio is
621 approximately equal to 1 for pure sand, while the ratio decreased to 0.77 when 1% fibers were
622 added. Based on these results, the data points of the sand-fiber mixtures are located parallel and
623 below of that of the pure sands, with a drop of the stiffness ratio of, approximately, 20% when the
624 fiber content increased from 0% to 1%. Another observed pattern is that the stiffness ratio
625 increased with the increase of stress ratio for both sand-fiber mixtures and pure sand specimens.
626 For example, stiffness ratio for sand mixed with 1% fibers is about 0.77 when $q/p'=0$, while this
627 value increased to about 1 when $q/p'=1$. These data suggest that the addition of fibers forms an
628 anisotropic fabric when the specimen is subjected to an isotropic stress state, however the induced

629 shear strains due to stress anisotropy play a homogenizing role. The stiffness ratios between
630 loading and unloading processes were found to be almost identical.

631

632 *3.5 Discussion on practical applications*

633 Although in-situ stress conditions are usually anisotropic, it is reasonable to assume that small
634 strain shear modulus (G_{\max}) obtained under anisotropic stress conditions approximately equals to
635 that under isotropic conditions for geo-materials that are less sensitive to k_0 conditions. The
636 measurement of shear wave velocities and elastic stiffness through isotropically consolidated
637 specimens allows the quantification of the effect of the structural anisotropy, which is very
638 important to be obtained so that to understand fundamental mechanisms of granular materials and
639 reinforced soils with fibers. Elastic stiffness of geo-materials and geosynthetics is a key design
640 parameter in many applications such as earthquake ground response analysis, analysis of vibrations
641 due to machine foundations, and the prediction of deformations of foundations and geo-systems.
642 In addition, the knowledge of the stiffness in different directions is important in design, for
643 example in the analysis of earth retaining structures, vertical cuts or slopes, embankments, deep
644 excavations, deep and shallow foundations, and tunneling. Simpson et al. [96] demonstrated that
645 the values of G_{vh} and G_{hv} of London clay were approximately the same at all depths but the values
646 of G_{hh} were significantly larger. They showed that the degree of anisotropy G_{vh}/G_{hh} was of the
647 order of 0.65 based on measurements on specimens subjected to isotropic consolidation.
648 Additionally, the study by [96] incorporated this degree of structural anisotropy into a non-linear
649 finite element analysis to study settlements induced by tunnel construction, which corresponded
650 well with the field observations of surface settlements (application refers to Heathrow Express trial
651 tunnel). The numerical analyses of ground movements above tunnels overlook the effect of

652 stiffness anisotropy and often give settlement troughs which are much wider than those observed
653 in practice. Similar to (inherently anisotropic) clays, the fiber-sand granular composites examined
654 in the current study display greater values of G_{hh} . Therefore, the effect of this structural anisotropy
655 of fiber-sand mixtures should be taken into account when elasticity-theory-based methods are
656 adopted to predict foundation settlements. Consideration of stiffness anisotropy is also important
657 to be encountered for fiber-reinforced sands, as the results of the study showed that the fiber
658 inclusion had a different contribution to the stiffness in different directions.

659

660 **4. Conclusions**

661 A total of 38 specimens were tested in a Hardin type resonant column equipped with vertical
662 bender elements and a stress path triaxial apparatus equipped with lateral bender elements. Three
663 types of sands with different gradings or particle shapes were selected as host sands. Polypropylene
664 fibers were used to examine the effect of fiber content on the elastic stiffness. The stiffness
665 anisotropy of sand-fiber mixtures under isotropic or anisotropic loading stress paths was
666 comprehensively studied, even though the present data have an inherent influence of the formed
667 fabric based on the adopted sample preparation method, which results in preferable horizontal
668 orientation of the fibers. The main findings of this study can be summarized as follows:

669 1. Sands exhibit stiffness isotropy under isotropic stress state so that $G_{\max(vh)}$, $G_{\max(hv)}$ and $G_{\max(hh)}$
670 are equal in magnitude. Their absolute values depend, predominantly, on the characteristics of the
671 sand in terms of coefficient of uniformity and particle shape/morphology.

672 2. The addition of fibers leads to a decrease of $G_{\max(vh)}$ and $G_{\max(hv)}$, while the two moduli with
673 subscripts “vh” and “hv” are found to be equal (the subscripts describe the direction of wave
674 propagation and particle motion). Micromechanical-based experimental results showed that the

675 normal contact stiffness of the sand grain contacts decreases when fibers are added, which can
676 partly explain the macroscopic observations. However, the grain-scale tests showed that the sand
677 type resembles an influence on the contact response of the sand-fiber specimens. This observation
678 can provide some additional support to previous studies which developed stiffness expressions for
679 sand-fiber binary materials suggesting that the sand type resembles an influence on the wave
680 propagation parameters of these binary materials. This observation may also have implications in
681 DEM modeling of binary systems, as the input contact properties would depend not only on the
682 presence of the softer polymeric inclusion, but also the type of the granular material that is targeted
683 to be modeled.

684 3. The presence of fibers results in an increase of $G_{\max(\text{hh})}$ compared with the value of $G_{\max(\text{vh})} =$
685 $G_{\max(\text{hv})}$ for the well-graded host sand (Blue sand 1), however, this effect is almost negligible for
686 uniform Blue sand 2 and Sydney sand. It is understood that the influence of fiber inclusion on
687 stiffness anisotropy is dependent on the type of the host sand and its grain size characteristics. This
688 outcome would worth further investigation in future studies, for example by performing DEM or
689 micro-CT tomography analysis which can help to provide some further understanding on the
690 micromechanisms which are contributed by the type of the sand, particularly the role of grading
691 characteristics. Despite this, in FEM analyses of soil-foundation interaction problems, where a
692 stiffness matrix is needed as input model, this anisotropic behavior should be taken into account,
693 especially for fiber-reinforced soils which consist of well-graded host geo-material. Future studies
694 could also be directed in the analysis of the problem by constructing specimens with different
695 sample preparation methods. For example, the orientation of the fibers could be a key in modeling
696 small-strain stiffness and understanding the anisotropic nature of sand-fiber systems.

697 4. For the specimens subjected to stress anisotropy, it was found that $G_{\max(vh)} \neq G_{\max(hv)} \neq G_{\max(hh)}$.
698 and also the increase of stress ratio leads to an increase of stiffness anisotropy. Additionally, the
699 inclusion of fibers tends to change the stiffness anisotropy of the mixtures; in particular, the higher
700 the fiber content, the more pronounced the effect of fiber inclusion on stiffness anisotropy. Thus,
701 for the investigation of the behavior of binary composite granular materials subjected to stress
702 anisotropy, quantification of the stiffness in one direction (e.g., G_{vh} as commonly obtained in
703 laboratory tests) is not enough to provide complete constitutive modeling. The micromechanisms
704 of this behavior could be further investigated in future works, for example by implementing DEM
705 analyses so that to obtain insights into the competitive mechanisms which lead to stiffness
706 anisotropy.

707

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711

712 **Compliance with ethical standards**

713 The authors declare no conflict of interest from the present study. This work contains original
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715 of interest.

716

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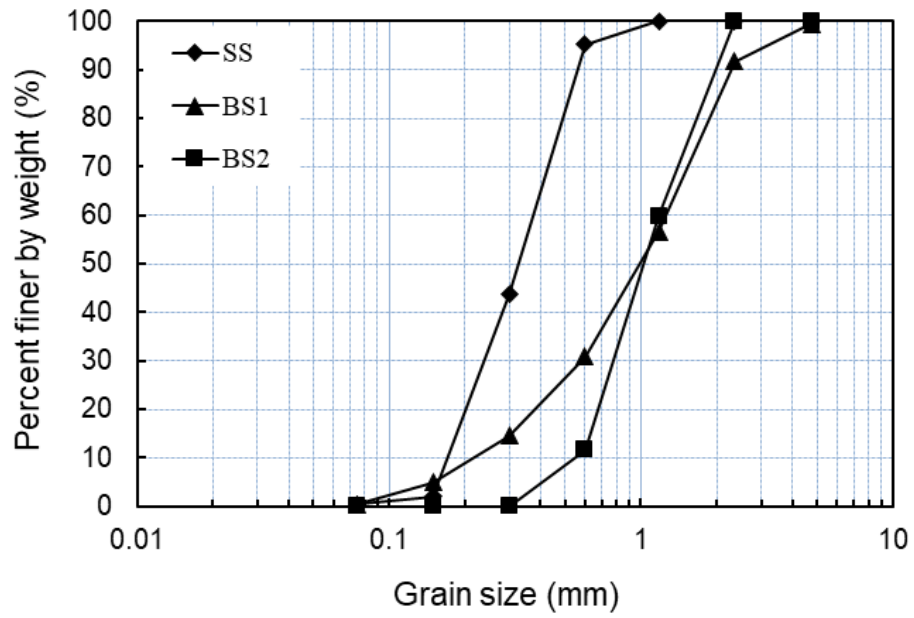
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Figure 1. Particle size distribution curves of the host granular materials

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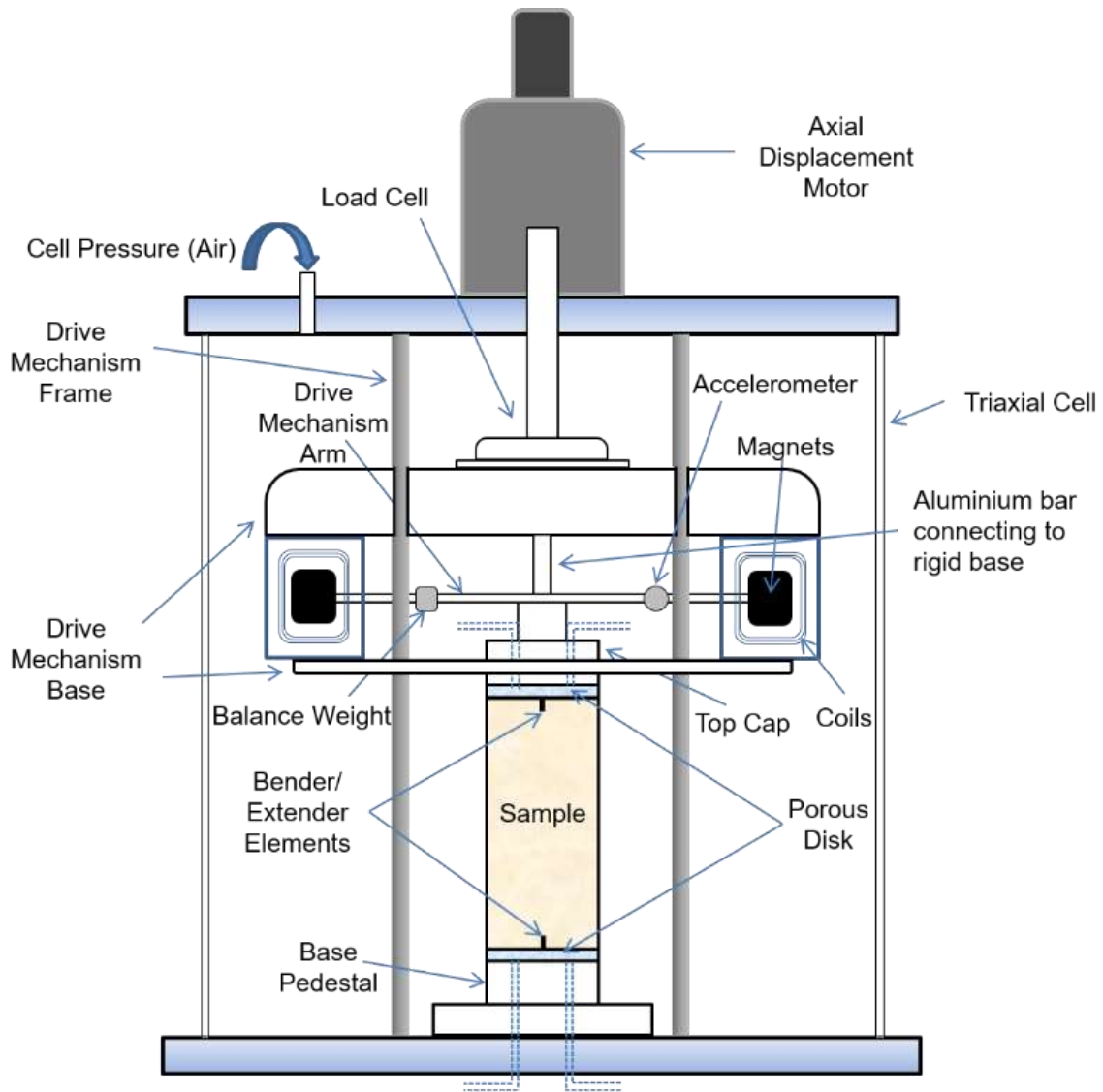
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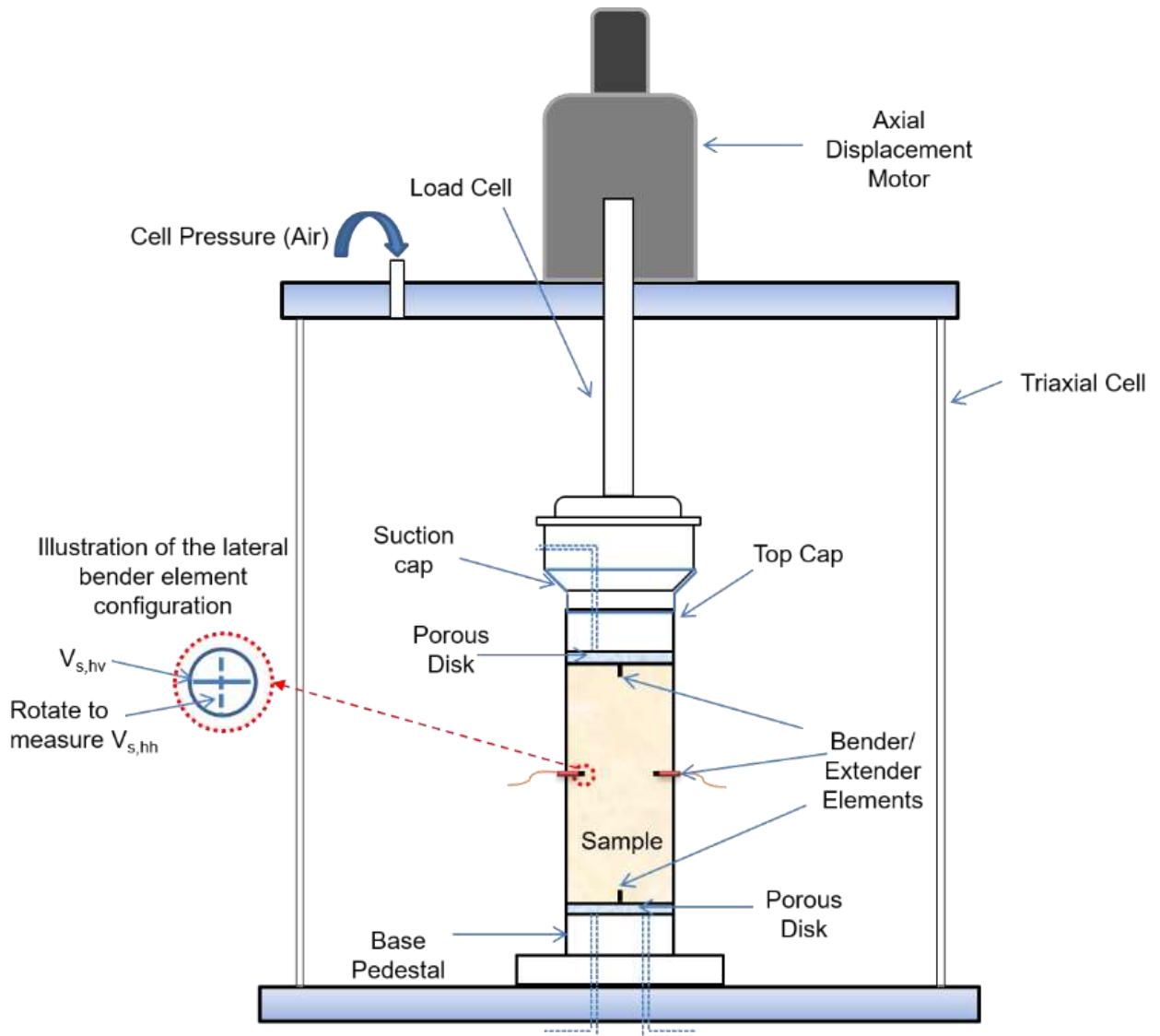
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952 **Figure 2.** Schematic illustration of Hardin-type resonant column with bender elements
 953 instrumentation for the measurements of seismic waves and respective elastic stiffness $G_{\max(vh)}$

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958 **Figure 3.** Schematic illustration of stress path triaxial apparatus with bender elements
 959 instrumentation for the measurements of seismic waves and respective elastic stiffness $G_{\max(hv)}$
 960 and $G_{\max(hh)}$

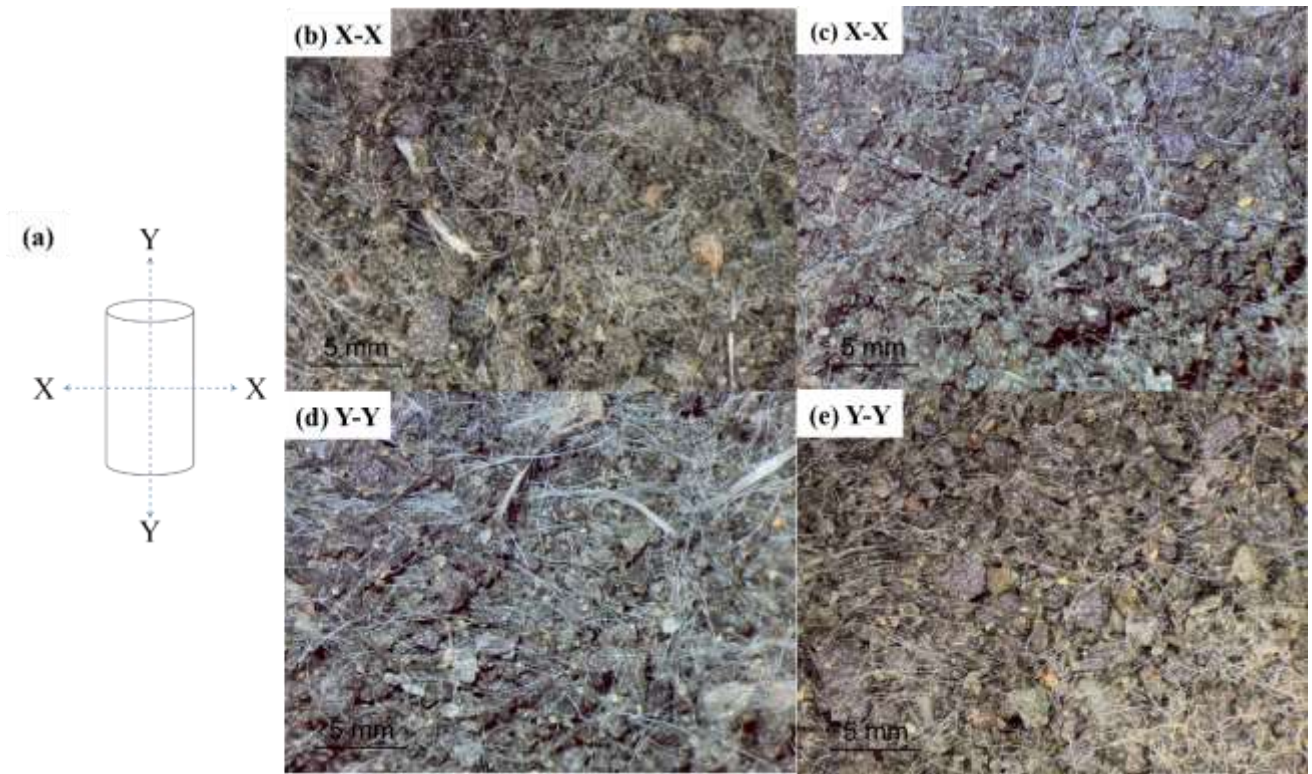
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967 **Figure 4.** Microscope images of BS1 with 0.5% fibers taken at different cross-sections

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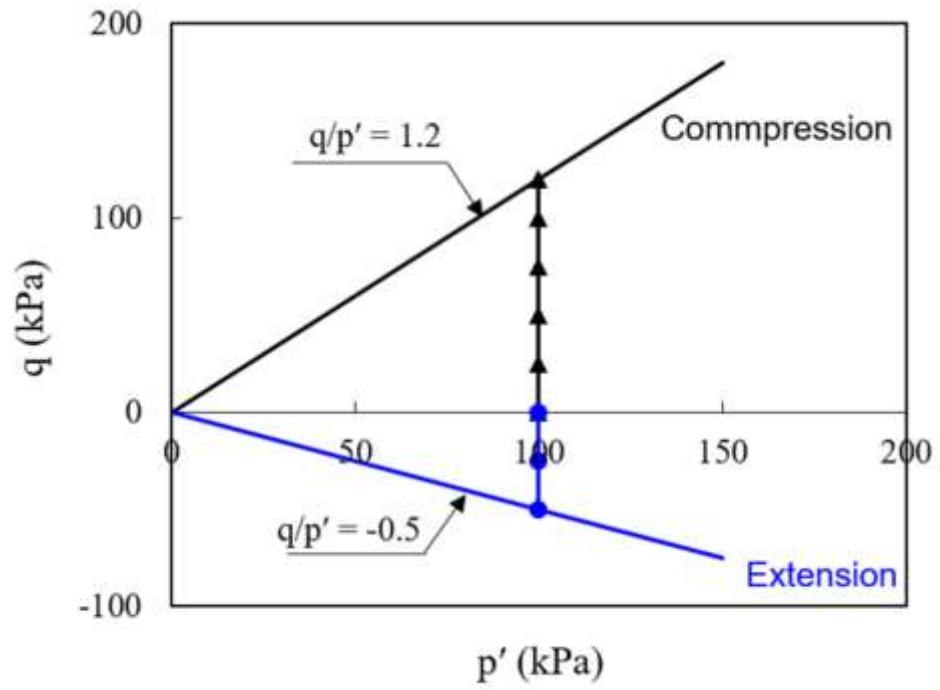
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Figure 5. Illustration of stress paths applied in the present study

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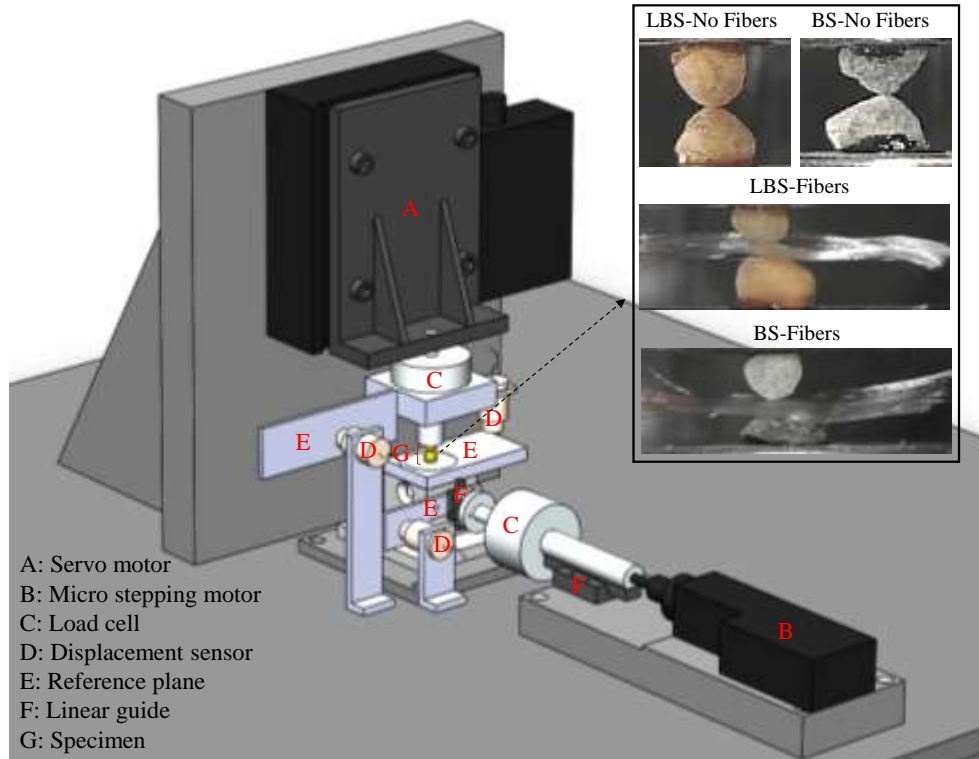
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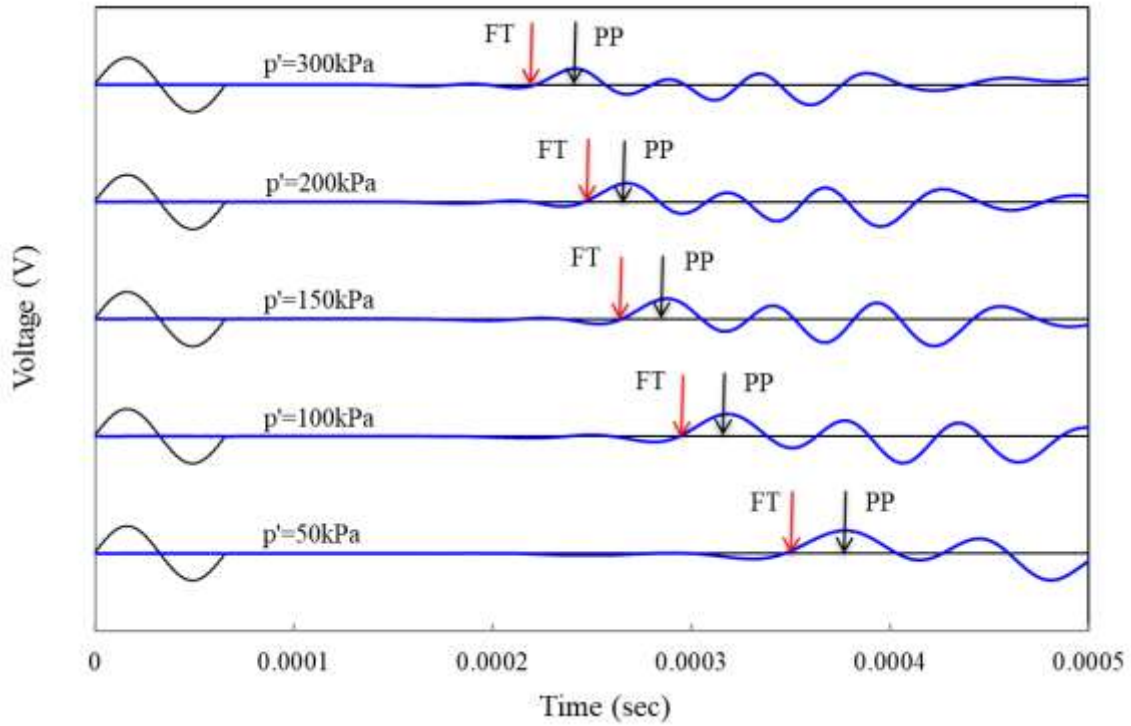
988 **Figure 6.** Grain-scale experimental setup used to investigate the sand-fiber-sand interactions at
 989 the small scale

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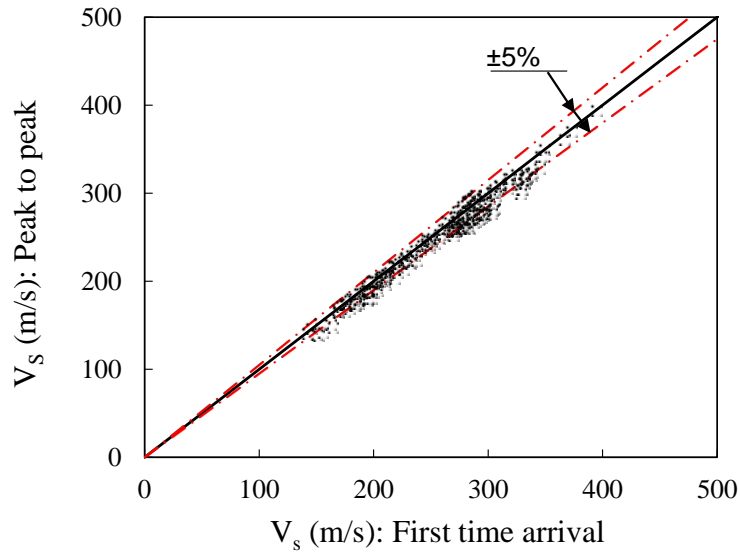
995 **Figure 7.** Example of signal analysis during the propagation of waves in the specimens:

996 Measurement of V_{hh} from lateral bender elements for BS1 with $f=15$ kHz, (input voltage=14V, p'
 997 = 50, 100, 150, 200, 300 kPa) using the first-time of arrival (FT) and peak-to-peak time of arrival

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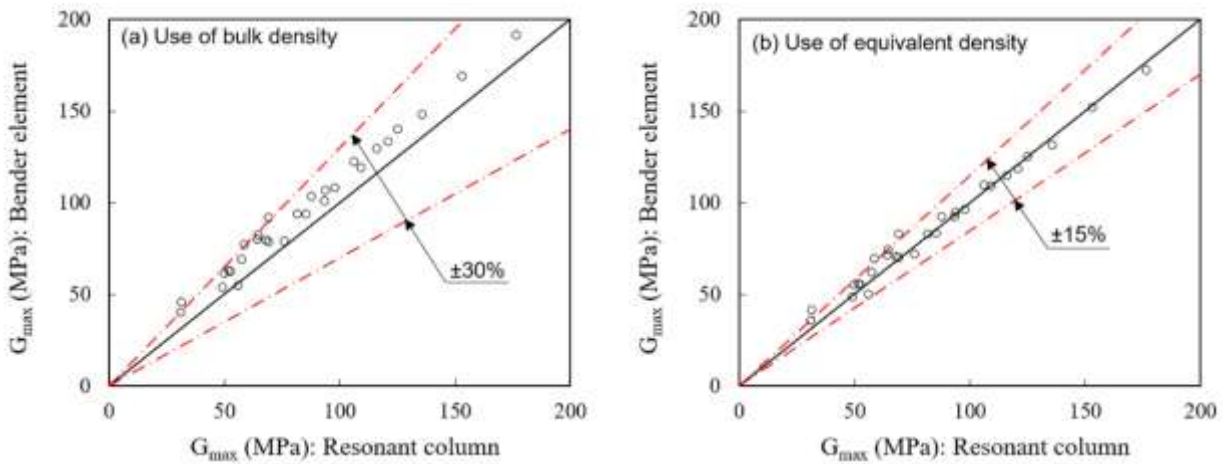
(PP) methods

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1001 **Figure 8.** Comparison of the peak-to-peak and first time of arrival methods in the measured
 1002 shear wave velocities

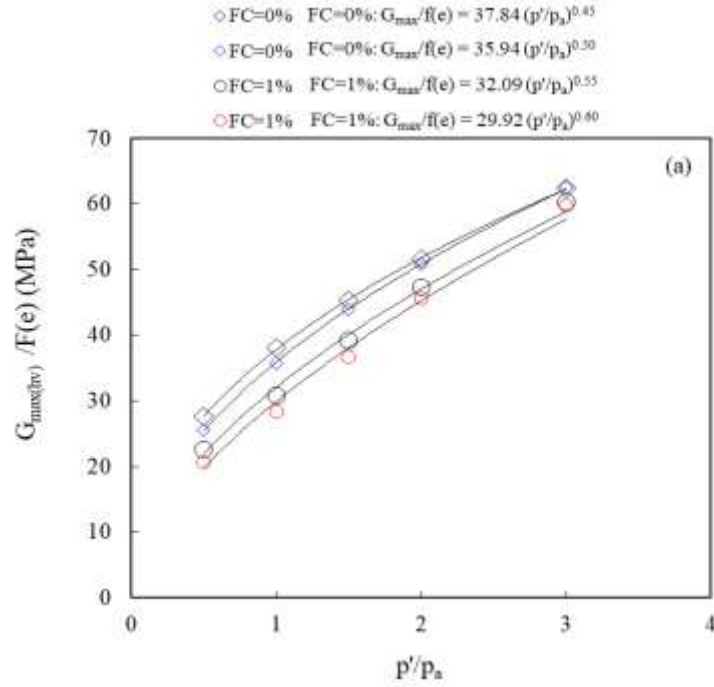


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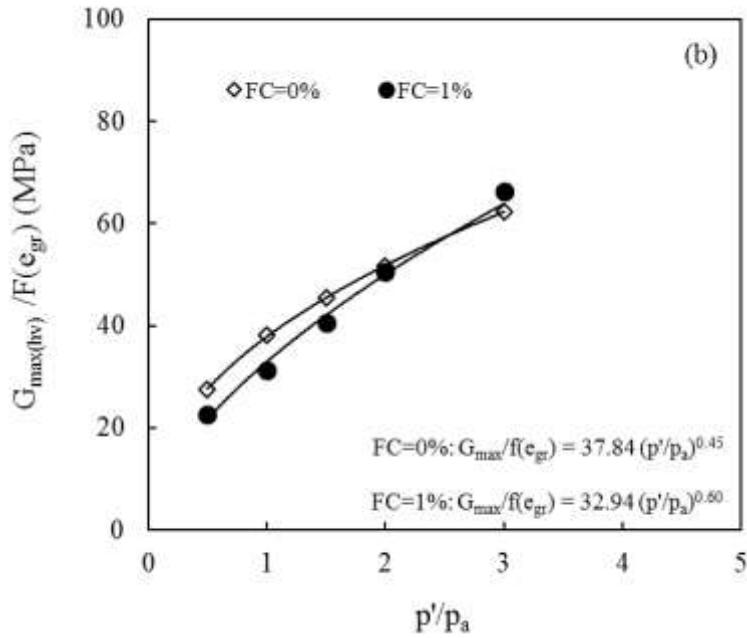
1004 **Figure 9.** Comparison of estimated elastic stiffness based on resonant column and bender
 1005 element tests using bulk and equivalent densities

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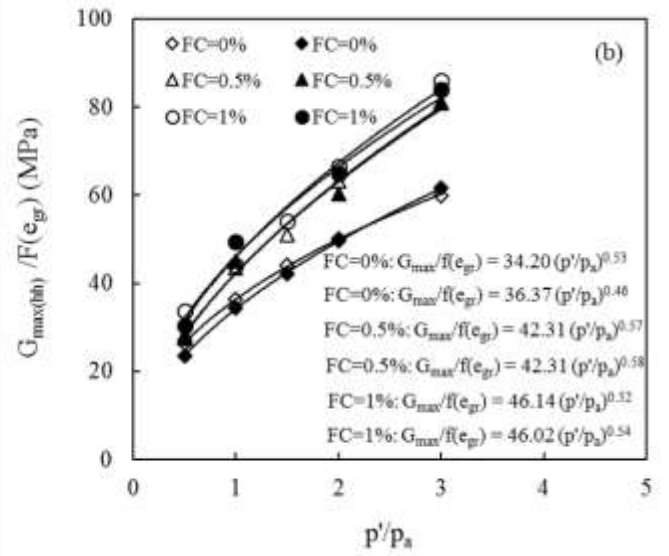
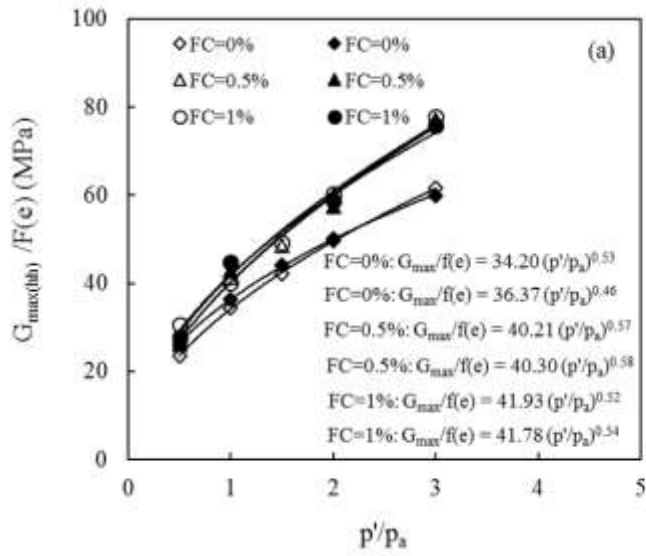


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1010 **Figure 10.** Typical plots of normalized stiffness $G_{\max(hv)}$ with respect to (a) a void ratio function
1011 and (b) a granular void ratio function against the normalized pressure (data correspond to BS1 as
1012 host sand)

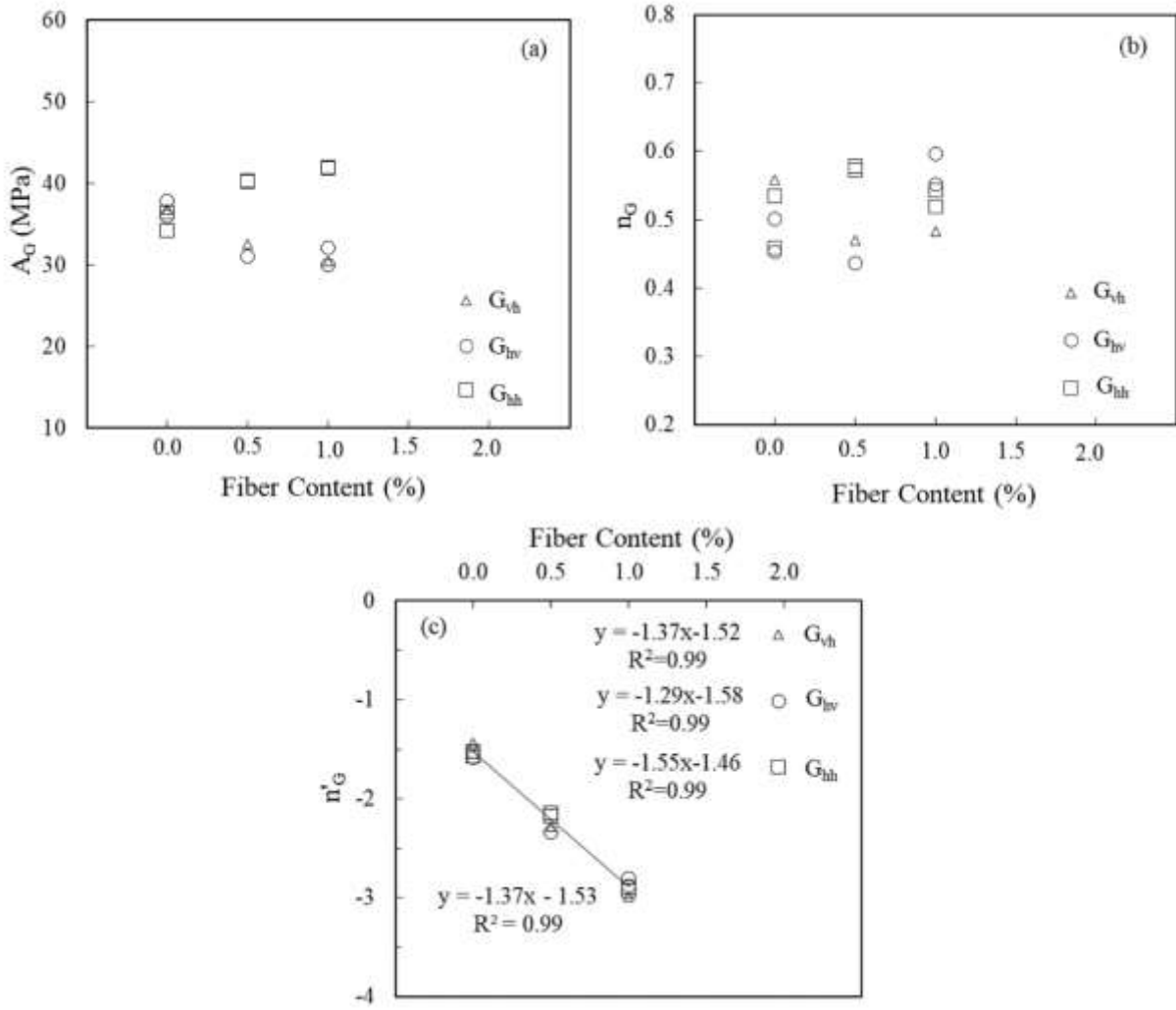


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1014 **Figure 11.** Typical plots of normalized stiffness $G_{\max(hh)}$ with respect to (a) a void ratio function

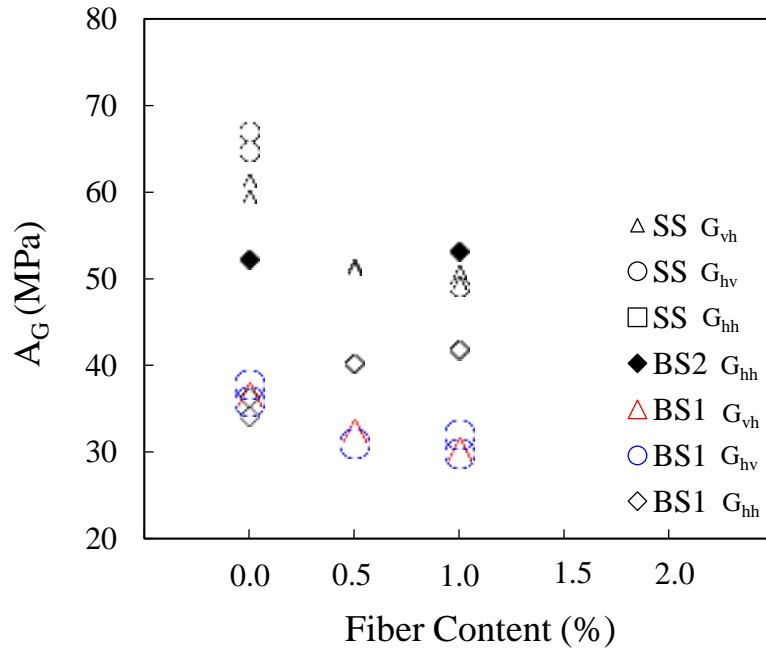
1015 and (b) a granular void ratio function against the normalized pressure (data correspond to BS1 as

1016 host sand)



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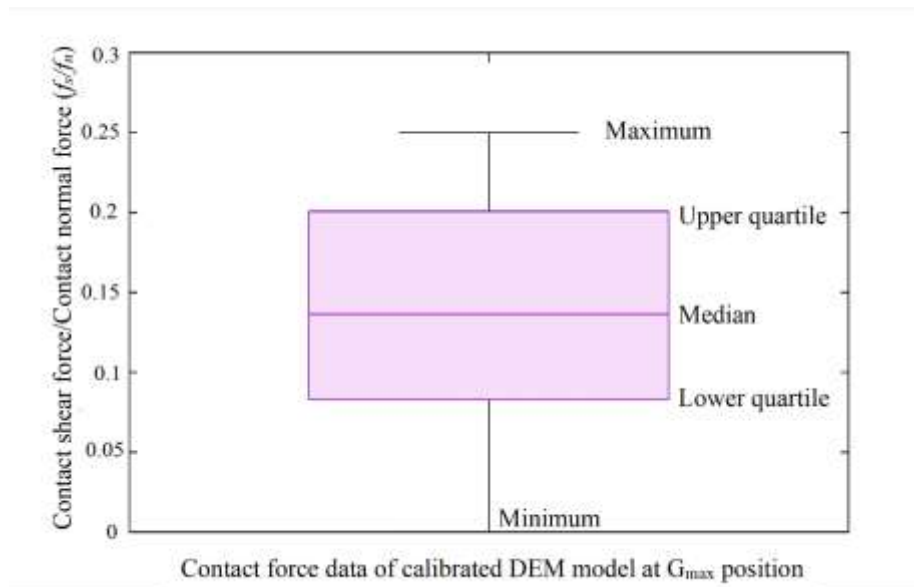
1018 **Figure 12.** The effect of fiber content on the stiffness model parameters: (a) A_G and (b) n_G (data
 1019 correspond to BS1 as host sand) (c) Normalized power n'_G against fiber content



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Figure 13. The effect of fiber content on the stiffness model parameter A_G of different sands



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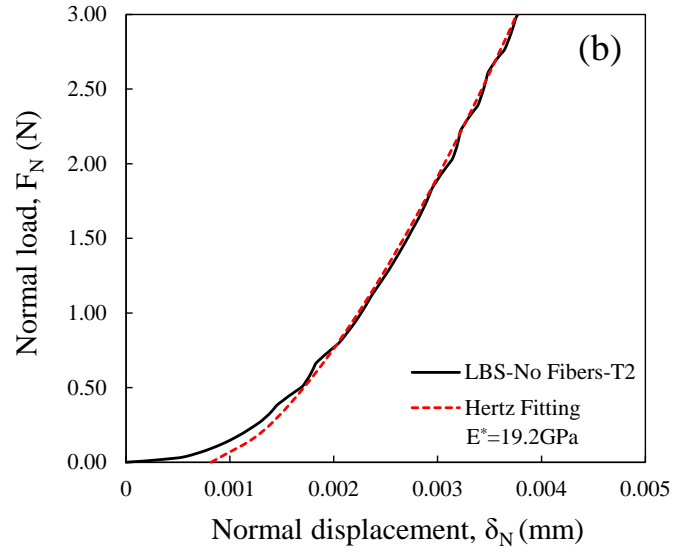
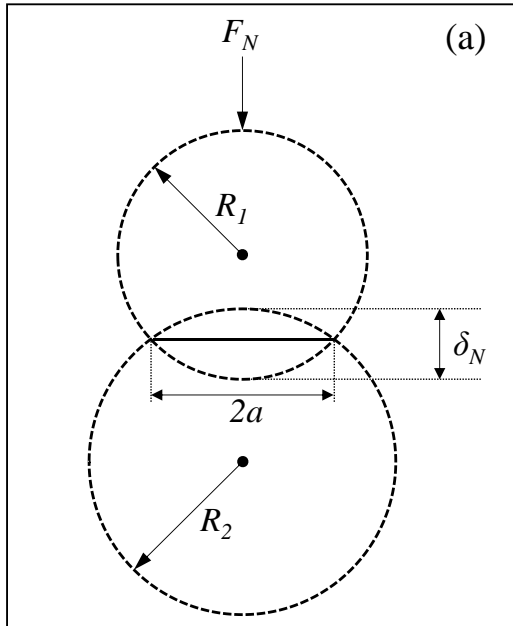
Figure 14. Relative contribution of contact shear and normal forces on a granular assembly (pure

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sand) depicted at G_{max} from DEM analysis (after Reddy et al. [36])

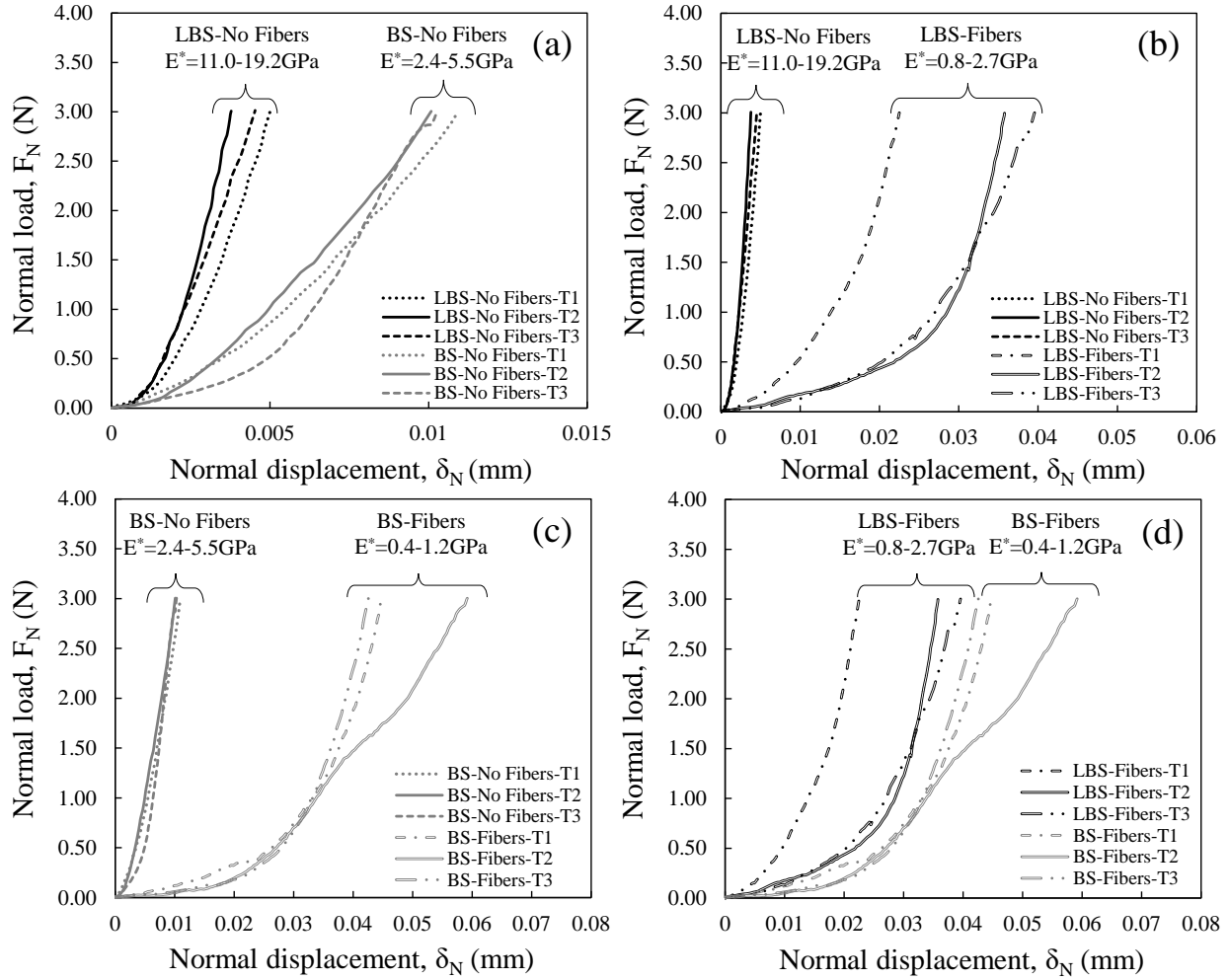
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1028 **Figure 15.** (a) Hertz contact between two spheres (b) representative normal load-displacement
1029 experimental curve and theoretical Hertzian fitting curve



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Figure 16. Normal load-displacement behavior among different types of contacts

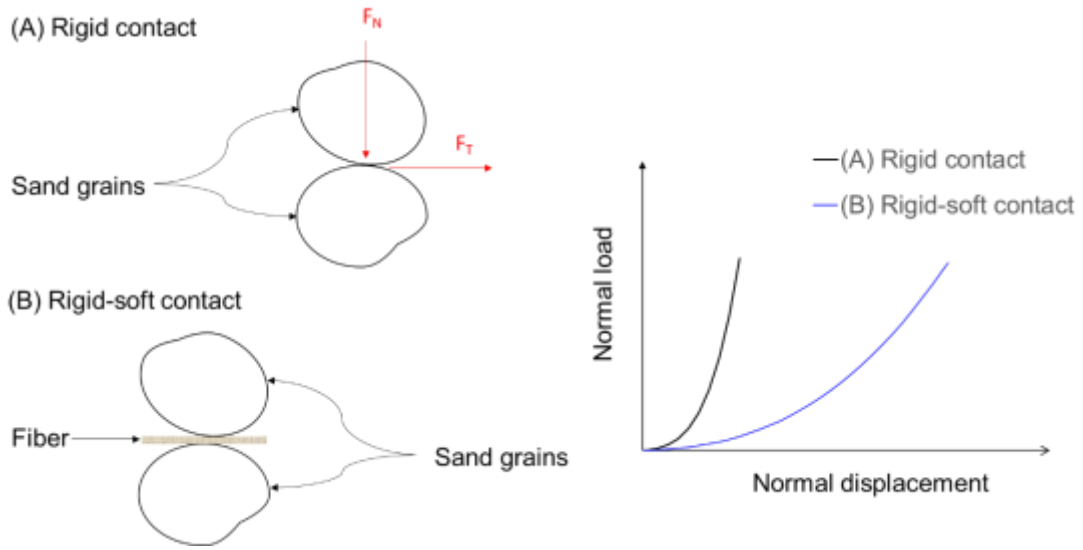
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1038 **Figure 17.** Theoretical illustration on the normal contact response of rigid and rigid-soft

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interfaces

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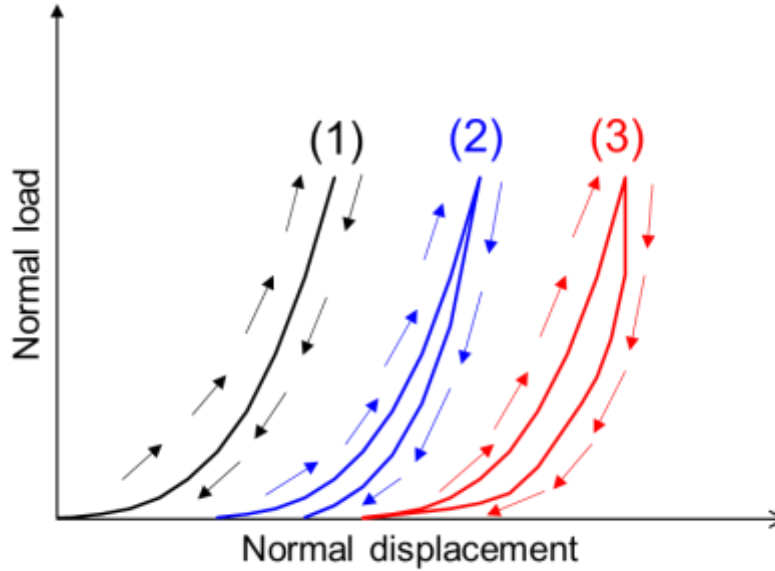
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Figure 18. Illustrative examples of fully elastic response. Curve 1: typical example of LBS

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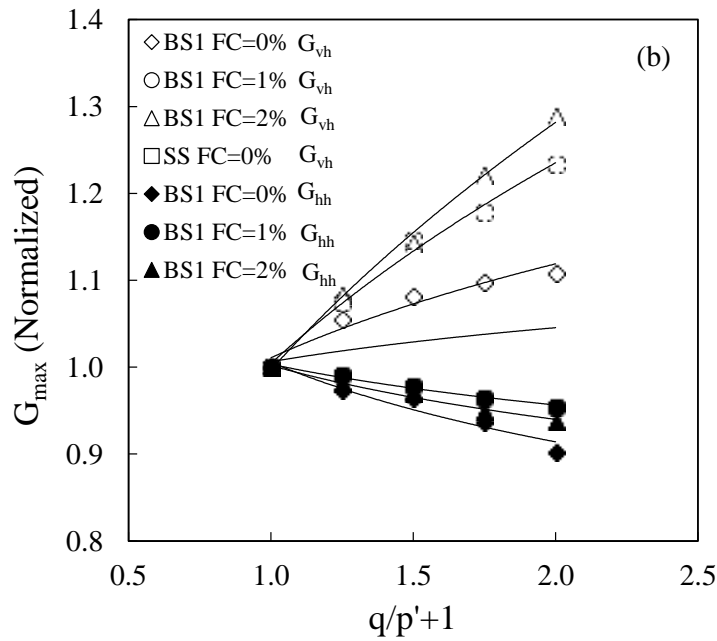
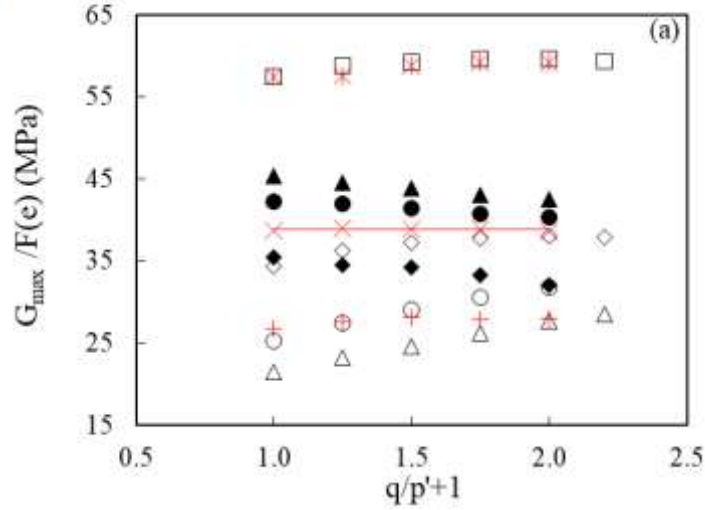
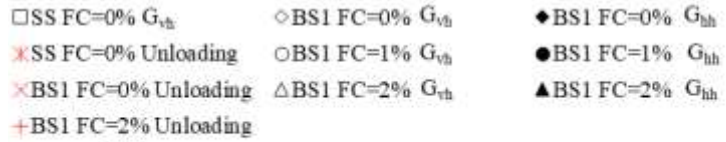
grains), elastoplastic and hysteretic response. Curve 2: typical example of Blue sand grains), and

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elastic highly hysteretic behavior. Curve 3: typical example of sand grain-polymeric contacts

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(after Tian et al. [66] – redrawn by the authors)



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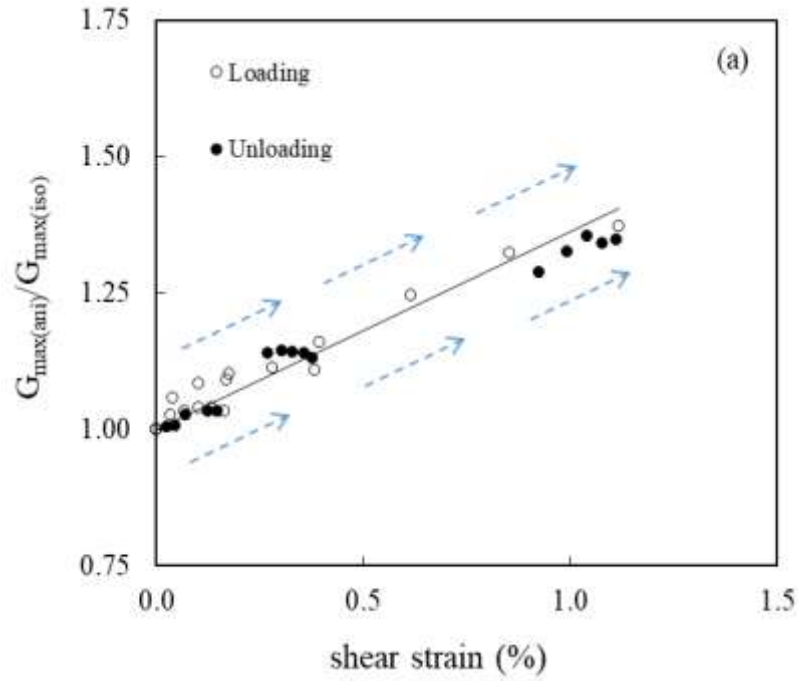
Figure 19. The effect of stress ratio (q/p') and fiber content on (a) normalized stiffness with

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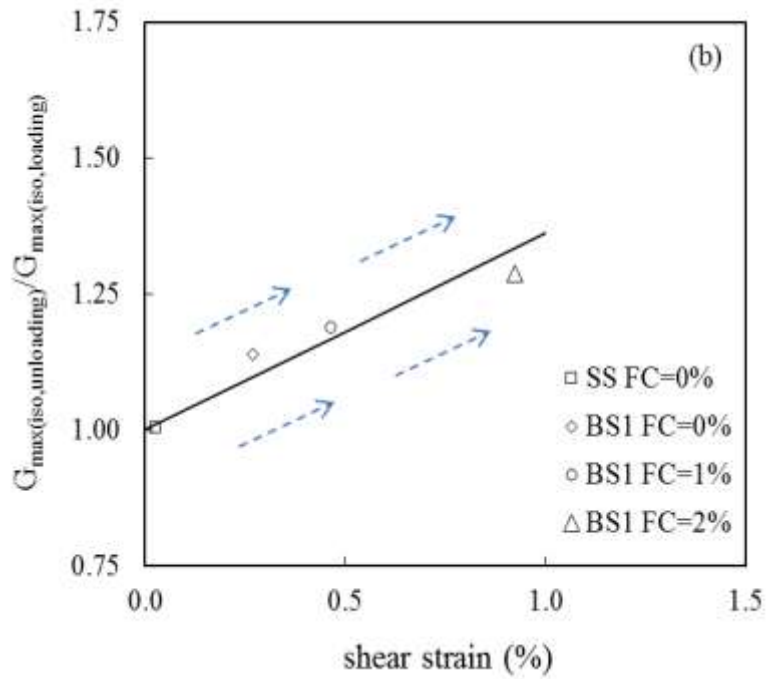
respect to a void ratio function (b) normalized $G_{max} = [G_{max(ani)} / f(e_{ani})] / [G_{max(iso)} / f(e_{iso})]$ at $p' =$

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100 kPa



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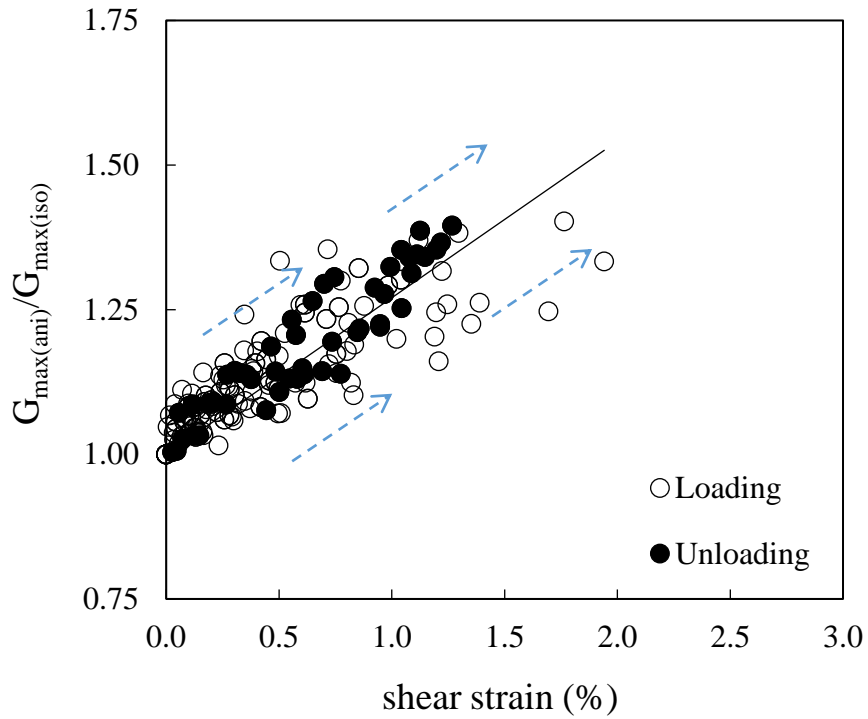


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1057 **Figure 20.** The ratio of (a) $G_{\max(\text{ani})}/G_{\max(\text{iso,loading})}$ during loading and unloading process (b)

1058 $G_{\max(\text{iso,unloading})}/G_{\max(\text{iso,loading})}$ against shear strain for four different specimens at a constant

1059 $p'=100$ kPa (the values represent $G_{\max(\text{vh})}$ in this figure)

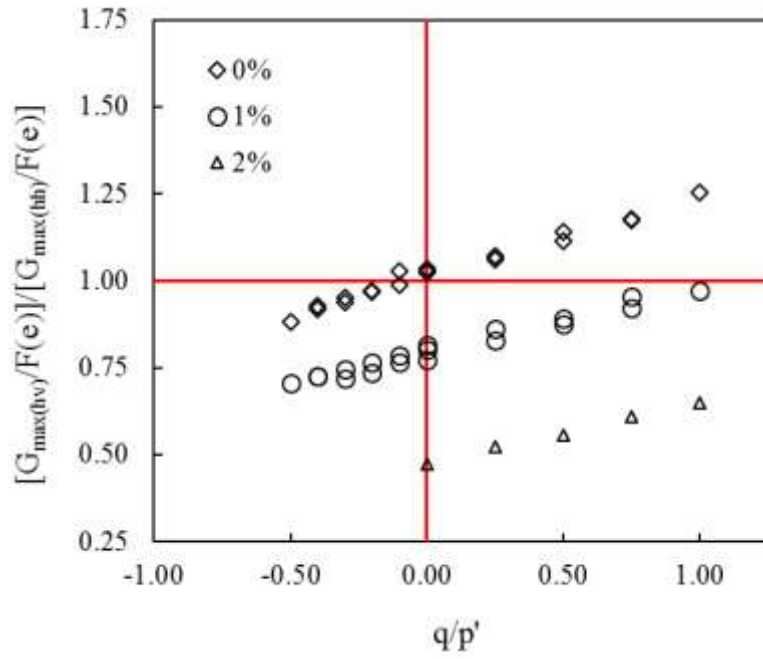


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1061 **Figure 21.** Relationship between the ratio of $G_{\max(\text{ani})}/G_{\max(\text{iso})}$ and shear strain: The specimens
 1062 are prepared with different fiber content ranging from 0.5% to 2%, and tested at various effective
 1063 confining pressures of 50, 100, 400 and 700 kPa (originally the tests were presented by Senetakis
 1064 and Li [91] and re-analyzed in this study)

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Figure 22. Stiffness ratio of BS1 and BS1 with different fiber contents under extension and

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compression stress path

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Table 1. Basic properties of host sands

Sand Type	Sand Name	Grain Size Distribution			Particle Shape Descriptors*		
		d ₅₀ (mm)	C _u	C _c	R	S	ρ
Blue Sand 1	BS1	0.99	5.84	1.22	0.28	0.54	0.41
Sydney Sand	SS	0.33	2.18	0.89	0.63	0.68	0.65
Blue Sand 2	BS2	1.03	2.18	0.88	0.28	0.54	0.41

1081 *R: Roundness, S: Sphericity, ρ: Regularity.

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Table 2. Testing program and details of specimens subjected to isotropic stress paths

Sample No.	Sand Type	G_{max}	Fiber Content (%)	Sample preparation method	Sample size (mm)	Initial dry density γ_d (kN/m ³)	Initial void ratio e	Initial granular void ratio e_{gr}	Pressure range (kPa)
1	BS1	G_{vh}	0	Dry Compaction	70×140	15.16	0.715	0.715	50-400
2	BS1	G_{hv}	0	Dry Compaction	76×152	16.77	0.550	0.550	50-300
3	BS1	G_{hv}	0	Dry Compaction	76×152	17.26	0.506	0.506	50-300
4	BS1	G_{hh}	0	Dry Compaction	76×152	17.06	0.524	0.524	50-300
5	BS1	G_{hh}	0	Dry Compaction	76×152	17.79	0.461	0.461	50-300
6	BS1	G_{vh}	0.5	Moist Compaction	70×140	15.44	0.667	0.692	50-200
7	BS1	G_{hv}	0.5	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.77	0.633	0.657	50-300
8	BS1	G_{hh}	0.5	Moist Compaction	76×152	16.01	0.608	0.632	50-300
9	BS1	G_{hh}	0.5	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.46	0.666	0.690	50-300
10	BS1	G_{vh}	1	Moist Compaction	70×140	14.99	0.701	0.751	50-200
11	BS1	G_{hv}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.25	0.673	0.722	50-300
12	BS1	G_{hv}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.04	0.696	0.746	50-300
13	BS1	G_{hh}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.21	0.677	0.726	50-300
14	BS1	G_{hh}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.30	0.667	0.716	50-300
15	BS2	G_{hh}	0	Moist Compaction	76×152	14.30	0.818	0.818	50-200
16	BS2	G_{hh}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	13.91	0.834	0.888	50-200
17	SS	G_{vh}	0	Dry Compaction	50×100	14.97	0.737	0.737	50-400
18	SS	G_{vh}	0	Dry Compaction	70×140	16.53	0.573	0.573	50-1600
19	SS	G_{vh}	0.5	Moist Compaction	50×100	14.45	0.782	0.805	50-400
20	SS	G_{vh}	0.5	Moist Compaction	50×100	14.97	0.720	0.746	50-300
21	SS	G_{vh}	1	Moist Compaction	50×100	14.35	0.777	0.830	50-400
22	SS	G_{vh}	1	Moist Compaction	50×100	14.48	0.761	0.813	50-300
23	SS	G_{hv}	0	Dry Compaction	76×152	16.77	0.550	0.550	50-500
24	SS	G_{hv}	0	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.28	0.701	0.701	50-500
25	SS	G_{hv}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	14.85	0.751	0.802	50-500
26	SS	G_{hh}	0	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.10	0.721	0.721	50-500
27	SS	G_{hh}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	14.56	0.786	0.838	50-500

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Table 3. Testing program and details of specimens subjected to anisotropic stress paths

Sample No.	Sand Type	G_{max}	Fiber Content (%)	Sample preparation method	Sample size (mm)	Initial dry density γ_d (kN/m ³)	Initial void ratio e	Initial granular void ratio e_{gr}	Stress ratio q/p'
28	BS1	G_{vh}	0	Dry Compaction	70×140	16.76	0.551	0.551	0-1.2
29	BS1	G_{hh}	0	Dry Compaction	76×152	17.02	0.528	0.528	0-1
30	BS1	G_{vh}	1	Moist Compaction	70×140	15.31	0.666	0.715	0-1.2
31	BS1	G_{hh}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.64	0.646	0.671	0-1
32	BS1	G_{vh}	2	Moist Compaction	70×140	14.22	0.761	0.865	0-1.2
33	BS1	G_{hh}	2	Moist Compaction	76×152	14.30	0.751	0.854	0-1
34	SS	G_{vh}	0	Dry Compaction	50×100	16.09	0.616	0.616	0-1.2
35	BS1	G_{hv}	0	Moist Compaction	76×152	16.37	0.588	0.588	-0.5-1
36	BS1	G_{hh}	0	Moist Compaction	76×152	16.3	0.594	0.594	-0.5-1
37	BS1	G_{hv}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	14.93	0.709	0.759	-0.5-1
38	BS1	G_{hh}	1	Moist Compaction	76×152	15.47	0.649	0.697	-0.5-1

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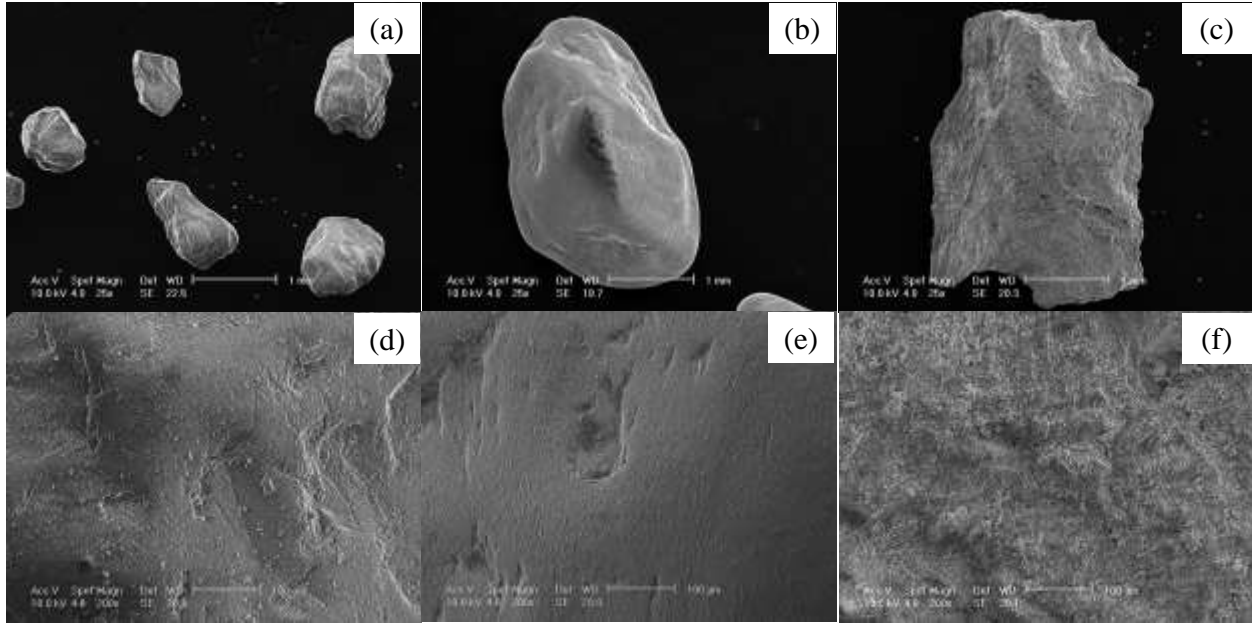
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Supplementary Table 1. RMS roughness (S_q) measurements on Sydney sand particles based on interferometry analysis

Particle No.	Measurement	S_q (μm)
1	1	0.503
	2	0.385
	3	0.328
	4	0.318
	5	0.399
	6	0.314
	7	0.314
	8	0.664
2	1	0.599
	2	0.433
	3	0.576
	4	0.869
	5	0.431
	6	0.452
	7	0.475
	8	0.728
	9	0.510
Average Value		0.488
Standard Deviation		± 0.157

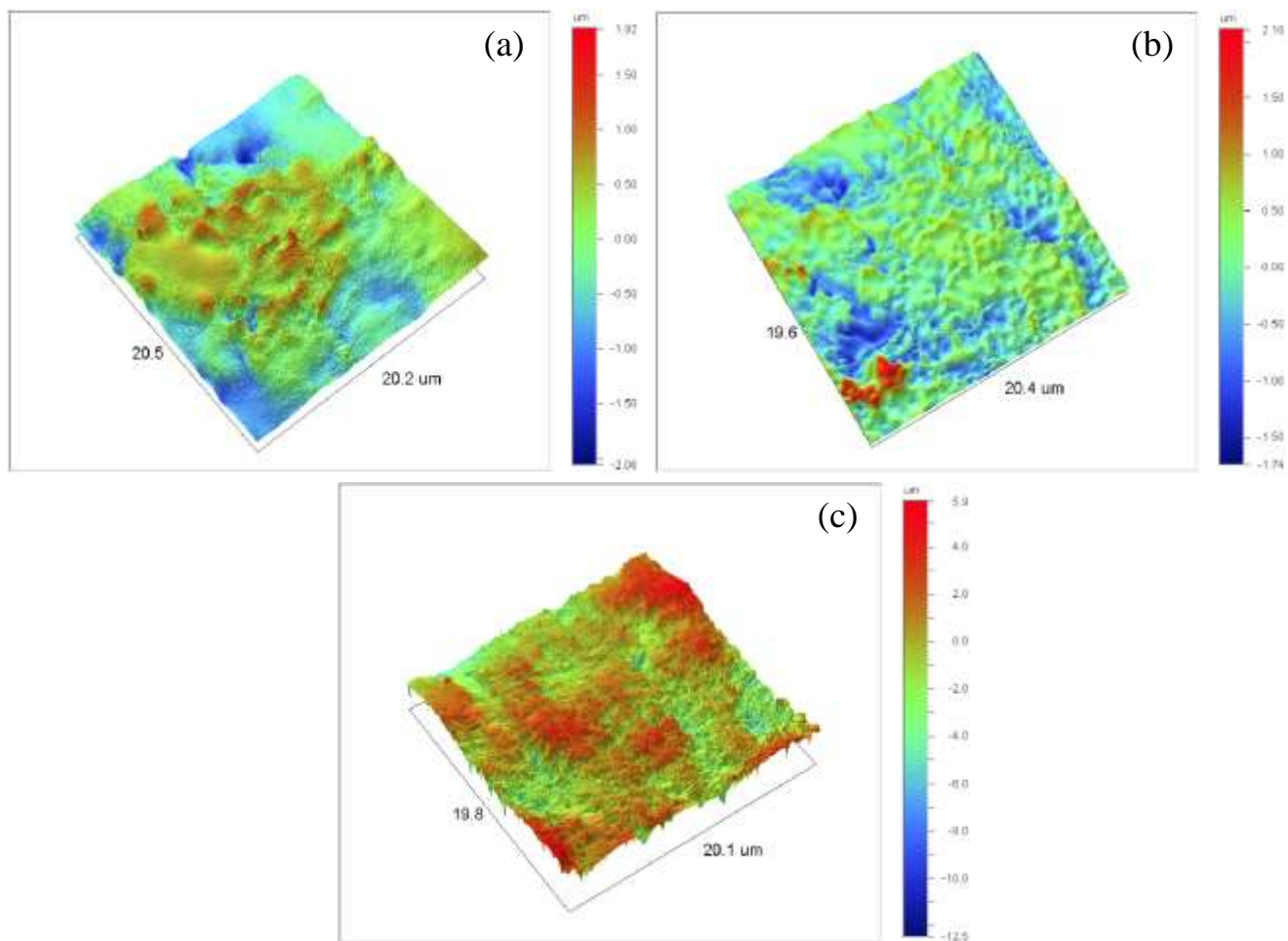
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1111 **Supplementary Figure 1.** SEM photos (a) SS-25x (b) LBS-25x (c) BS-25x (d) SS-200x (e)

1112 LBS-200x (f) BS-200x (SS: Sydney sand, LBS: Leighton Buzzard sand, BS: Blue sand)



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1114 **Supplementary Figure 2.** Optical surface profiles of representative particles from (a) SS (b)

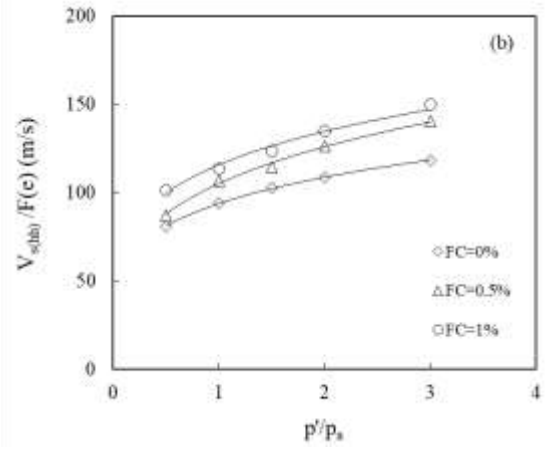
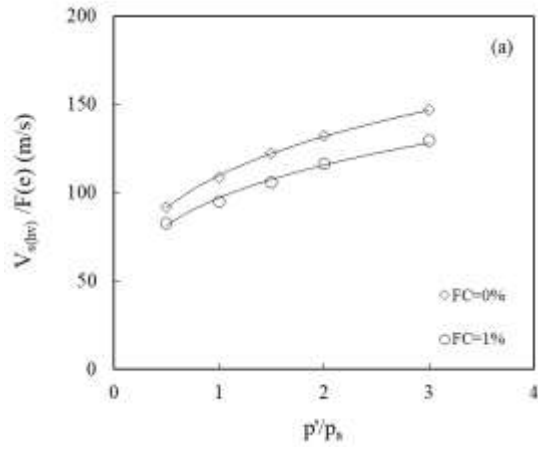
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LBS (c) BS

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1120 **Supplementary Figure 3.** Typical plots of normalized shear wave velocity (a) $v_{(hv)}$ (b) $v_{(hh)}$ with
 1121 respect to a void ratio function against the normalized pressure (data correspond to BS1 as host
 1122 sand)

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