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Title	Understanding the stability of Samanea saman trees through tree pulling, analytical calculations and numerical models
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Citation	Rahardjo, H., Harnas, F.R., Indrawan, I.G.B., Leong, E.C., Tan, P.Y., Fong, Y.K., et al. (2014). Understanding the stability of Samanea saman trees through tree pulling, analytical calculations and numerical models. <i>Urban Forestry & Urban Greening</i> , 13(2), 355-364.
Date	2013
URL	http://hdl.handle.net/10220/19818
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1 *Understanding the stability of Samanea saman trees through tree pulling, analytical*
2 *calculations and numerical models*

3

4 **Abstract**

5 There have been several cases of tree failure in Singapore. Many studies have shown that
6 soil properties and root architecture of trees are important factors that govern tree stability.
7 Twenty *Samanea saman* trees were planted in different soil media, which were original in-
8 situ soil, top soil, mixture of 50% granite chips and 50% top soil, and mixture of 80%
9 granite chips and 20% top soil. The objectives of this study were to investigate tree
10 overturning processes and also to compare the results of tree pulling tests with results from
11 an analytical calculation and numerical modeling for different soil types. The results
12 showed that stability of the trees were not governed by the shear strength of the soil.
13 Factors that affected tree stability included cross-sectional area of the roots and root plate
14 area. Tree pulling test and numerical modeling results showed that there were two modes of
15 failure which occurred when a tree was overturned. The first mode was the shear failure of
16 soil and the second was a combination of shear failure of soil and root breakage. The
17 maximum overturning force obtained from the tree pulling test was in the same order of
18 magnitude as the maximum overturning forces obtained from the analytical calculation and
19 numerical modeling.

20

21 **Keywords:** Tree stability, soil mixtures, *Samanea saman*, tree pulling test, finite element
22 modeling.

23

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Trees are an important component of the urban environment and provide numerous
26 advantages to humans. However, tree failure can cause damage to property and
27 infrastructures and may also cause injury or loss of life. There have been several cases of
28 tree failures associated with low soil strength in Singapore. In order to enhance tree
29 stability, methods to improve the engineering properties of soil for developing a better tree
30 root and soil system need to be investigated.

31

32 Fine-grained soils have been commonly used as tree growing media. A mixture of fine-
33 grained soil and coarse-grained soil has been used to overcome the challenges associated
34 with urban trees in relation to tree stability (Grabosky and Bassuk, 1995). As compared to
35 a fine-grained soil, the soil mixture has higher shear strength due to an increase in contact
36 pressure between the coarse-grained particles. In addition, the resulting macro pores allow
37 for tree roots to penetrate, down to a maximum depth and this will enhance the stability of
38 the tree and soil system. Rahardjo et al. (2008) found that shear strength of a soil
39 increased significantly after mixing the soil with more than 50% of granite chips.

40

41 Previous studies of tree root systems showed that the strength of tree root anchorage is
42 governed by several factors, such as root architecture (Dupuy et al., 2005; Fourcaud et al.,
43 2008), soil physical and analytical properties (Dupuy et al., 2005), depth, shape and

44 weight of soil root plate (Coutts, 1986), and the location of the rotational axis during
45 overturning (Mickovski and Ennos, 2002, Fourcaud et al., 2008). Root architecture is an
46 important component of tree stability. However, natural biological variability makes it
47 difficult to model the effect of branching and mechanical properties of the root accurately
48 (Mickovski et al., 2007).

49

50 Tree pulling tests had been conducted on trees to study the mechanism associated with tree
51 failures (Peltola, 2006). These tests involved pulling the tree sideways until failure or till a
52 pre-determined displacement occurred. The force required to bring about failure was
53 recorded. Tree failure could occur due to either stem failure or the whole tree overturning
54 (Crook and Ennos, 1996). However, tree pulling is costly and destructive. Therefore, the
55 number of tree that can be pulled to study the mechanism of tree failure is often limited.
56 These limitations make modeling through the use of analytical calculations and numerical
57 methods a more feasible option (Dupuy et al., 2007). Several studies such as those
58 conducted by Dupuy et al. (2005), Fourcaud et al. (2008) and Rahardjo et al. (2009)
59 showed that numerical modeling is a very useful tool in studying the behavior of soil-root
60 interaction.

61

62 Rahardjo et al. (2009) proposed two failure modes associated with the overturning of a
63 tree: shear failure of soil and root failure. Shear failure of soil (SFS) occurs along a slip
64 surface without having any additional resistance from the roots. Root failure mode occurs
65 when the resistance of the root system in withstanding the load is exceeded. These root

66 resistances are shear resistance in the transverse plane, slippage resistance and tensile
67 resistance. When the applied force exceeds these resisting forces, there will be three
68 possible modes of root failure: (i) shear failure of root system (SFRS), (ii) slippage of root
69 system (SRS), and (iii) tensile failure of root system (TFRS). Shear failure of root system
70 occurs if the shear stresses imposed to the roots are higher than the shear strength of the
71 roots. Slippage of root system occurs when the slippage force exceeds the adhesion
72 between the root and the soil. Tensile failure occurs when the tensile stress acting on the
73 roots exceeds the tensile strength of the roots. The forces involved in the analytical
74 calculation are illustrated in Figure 1.

75

76 *Samanea saman* or commonly known as rain tree is easily recognized by its characteristic
77 umbrella-shaped canopy. The tree usually reaches 15 to 25 m in height with a canopy
78 diameter often being wider than the height of the tree. This species is commonly found
79 along the streets, car parks and open park lands in Singapore. *Samanea saman* was used in
80 this study because it tends to develop a shallow root plate in the urban landscape and
81 possesses a high growth rate as compared to other tree species. It is well known that a
82 plate root possesses the least effective resistance to withstand wind load as compared to
83 other types of root architecture such as heart and tap root (e.g. Coutts, 1983).

84

85 The objective of this study was to investigate the overturning processes and also to study
86 the results obtained from the tree pulling test which was subsequently compared with the
87 results generated from analytical calculations and numerical models for the different soil

88 types. For this purpose, pulling/overturning experiments involving twenty trees grown in
89 four different soil mixtures were carried out in the field. The data obtained from the tree
90 pulling tests were then numerically modeled and analyzed using analytical calculations
91 and a numerical method.

92

93 **2. Material and Methods**

94 *2.1 Study site and soil engineering properties*

95 The experiment was conducted on an open land in the western end of Singapore. A total
96 of 20 rain trees had been planted for three years in a tree pit of 2.5 m x 2.5 m and 1.0 m
97 depth. The ages of the trees when planted were approximately three years old with heights
98 of around three meters. There were four soil mixtures used in the experiment namely top
99 soil (TIF), original in-situ soil (IIF), 50% Granite chips and 50% Top Soil (50GC-50TS)
100 and 80% Granite chips and 20% Top Soil (80GC-20TS). Details of the soil mixtures are
101 given in Rahardjo et al. (2008). There were five trees planted in each soil mixture. The trees
102 were planted in a random arrangement as illustrated in Figure 2.

103

104 TIF used in this research was brown in color and consisted of loamy soil, organic matter
105 (compost), and sand on a volume basis ratio of 3:2:1, respectively. Percentages of granite
106 chips used in the mixture for improving the soil shear strength in this study were 50% and
107 80% on dry mass basis. To compare the performance of soil improvement, trees were also
108 planted in the original in-situ soil (IIF). Soil testing was conducted in accordance with
109 ASTM standards. Soil moisture content was determined by drying soil samples at a

110 predetermined temperature in accordance with ASTM D-2216 (1998), while the field
111 density test was conducted following the sand replacement method using sand cone
112 apparatus in accordance with ASTM D-1556 (2003). The particle size determination was
113 conducted using a sieve analyses in accordance with ASTM D-422 (1998). Shear strength
114 measurement for the TIF (top soil) and IIF (original in-situ soil) was carried out using
115 consolidated-undrained triaxial tests with pore pressure measurement in accordance with
116 ASTM D-4767 (1995). The shear strength data for the 50GC-50TS and 80GC-20TS were
117 already reported in Rahardjo et al. (2008). The shear strength of a soil can be represented
118 by the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion as follows:

$$119 \quad \tau_{ff} = c' + (\sigma_f - u_w)_f \tan \phi' \quad (1)$$

120 where τ_{ff} is the shear stress on the failure plane at failure (kPa), c' is the effective
121 cohesion, which is the shear strength intercept when the effective normal stress is equal to
122 zero, (kPa). $(\sigma_f - u_w)_f$ is the effective normal stress on the failure plane at failure (kPa),
123 σ_{ff} is the total normal stress on the failure plane at failure (kPa), u_{wf} is the pore-water
124 pressure at failure (kPa) and ϕ' is the effective angle of internal friction ($^\circ$). The grain size
125 distributions of the soil mixtures used in this study are shown in Figure 2. The mixing of
126 granite chips and top soil resulted in a very compact soil structure that had a high shear
127 strength as shown in the summary of soil engineering properties presented in Table 1.

128

129

130

131 2.2 *Tree pulling test*

132 Before conducting the tree pulling test, several tree characteristics such as girth
133 circumference, tree height, stem volume and crown width were recorded. The tree pulling
134 test was conducted using an automated winch (Ingersoll Rand-FA7) which was capable of
135 providing a maximum load of seven (7) metric tonnes. When the tree was pulled sideways,
136 the crown has a higher lateral displacement as compared to the stem of the tree. Therefore,
137 the crown can exert additional overturning moment to the root system. This additional
138 moment is a function of the crown volume. The trees in the tree pulling test had different
139 crown volumes. Therefore, the crowns of the trees were pruned to remove all lateral
140 branches in order reduce the effect of crown weight on the overturning force during the tree
141 pulling test. The winch was positioned on a fix platform that had been customized to the
142 general height of the trees and an attachment was placed on the tree at a height of 1.3 m
143 from the ground . The winch was then connected to a dynamometer (Dillon Edxtreme-Edx-
144 2T) by a sling which was capable of recording forces up to 200 kN and then connected to
145 the tree. The dynamometer was connected to a wireless device that transmitted the data to a
146 personal computer. A distometer was used to measure the deflection of the tree and it was
147 positioned at the opposite side of the winch. A high resolution digital camera and a video
148 camera were used to record the overturning process. The tree was pulled at a constant rate
149 of 6 cm per second. The resistance force and the corresponding displacement were
150 measured in intervals of one second. The test was terminated when the force registered was
151 constant or declined from the peak force. After failure, the root-soil plate depth and
152 diameter of the slip surface were measured and recorded. The set-up of the tree pulling test

153 is presented in Figure 3. After conducting the tree pulling test, the soil and the roots were
154 air-spaded and the tree was removed for further measurements. The total cross-sectional
155 area of the roots (CSA) was measured following a technique proposed by Nicoll and Ray
156 (1996). The diameter of each lateral root larger than 1 cm was recorded at 50 cm distance
157 from the centre of the tree and the CSA was calculated using the following equation:

158

$$159 \quad CSA = \pi \left(\frac{d_h + d_v}{4} \right)^2 \quad (2)$$

160

161 where d_h is the horizontal diameter of the roots and d_v is the vertical diameter of the roots.

162

163 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is a statistical method that is commonly used to
164 compare more than two population means. One-way ANOVA was performed using SPSS
165 software to investigate the effect of different soil conditions on the measured tree
166 characteristics and the effect of different soil conditions on the pulling force. The null
167 hypothesis was that the means of each dependant variables were equal or there was no
168 significant difference in the variables. An α value of 0.05 was used in the one-way ANOVA
169 statistical analyses.

170

171

172

173 2.3 *Analytical calculation*

174 Analytical calculation was performed to determine the forces required to overturn the tree.
175 There were two steps involved in the analytical calculation. The first step was to analyze
176 the resisting shear force generated by the soil using the ordinary method of slices
177 (Fellenius, 1936) that is commonly used for slope stability analysis. Root-soil plate depth
178 and diameter of the slip surface were determined based on the pulling test measurements.
179 The second step was to analyze the resistance of the root system as suggested by Rahardjo
180 et al. (2009) using the following equations. In this study, the shear strength of the wood
181 was assumed to be 0.5 MPa and the tensile strength of the root was assumed as 4.3 MPa
182 (Ziemer, 1978).

183

184 The resisting shear force (F_{shear}) provided by the roots is determined as:

185
$$F_{shear} = \sum_{i=1}^N A \tau_{shear} \quad (3)$$

186 where N is the number of roots, A is the surface area of the root (m^2) and τ_{shear} is the shear
187 strength of root (kPa)

188

189 The resisting slippage force (F_{slip}) provided by the roots is expressed as:

190
$$F_{slip} = \sum_{i=1}^N KL_{slip} \tau_{slip} \quad (4)$$

191 where N is the number of roots, K is the circumference of each root (m), τ_{slip} is the
192 slippage strength between soil and root and L_{slip} is the length of horizontal root providing
193 the slippage resistance.

194

195 The resisting tensile force ($F_{tensile}$) provided by the roots is calculated as follows:

196
$$F_{tensile} = \sum_{i=1}^N A \tau_{tensile} \quad (5)$$

197 where $\tau_{tensile}$ is the tensile strength of root (kPa)

198

199 2.4. Numerical Modeling

200 The numerical modeling of tree stability during the pull out test was performed using
201 SIGMA/W (Geo-Slope International Ltd) software. The problem was modeled as a plane
202 strain, two-dimensional stress-strain finite element model as shown in Figure 4. The model
203 consisted of three main parts. The first part was the surrounding in-situ soil of 20 m width
204 and 8 m depth. The second part was the soil inside the tree pit of 2.5 m width and 2.0 m
205 depth. The third part was the root model using the diameter taken as an equivalent
206 diameter calculated from the sum of individual root cross section area (CSA) measured at
207 50 cm from the stem of the tree. The last part was the stem whose dimensions were also
208 obtained from the field measurement. The finite element mesh of the model consisted of
209 triangular elements. The adhesion between soil and root was ignored in the numerical

210 modeling. The boundary conditions of the surrounding soil were taken as zero horizontal
211 displacement on both vertical sides and zero displacement in both directions at the bottom
212 of the model as shown in Figure 4.

213

214 For the numerical modeling, the soil was modeled as an elastic-perfectly plastic material.
215 The elastic part was governed by the modulus of elasticity (E) and Poisson's ratio (ν) of
216 the soil. The modulus of elasticity of the soil was taken from the initial tangent of stress-
217 strain curve as obtained from the shear strength test on a saturated soil sample. The yield
218 point was defined in accordance with the Mohr-Coulomb failure criterion. If the stress
219 exceeds the yield point, the stress-strain curve will be a horizontal line, representing the
220 plastic condition of soil. Root material was considered as an elastic-perfectly plastic
221 material with a modulus of elasticity of 5×10^6 kPa and a Poisson's ratio of 0.3 and a
222 maximum yield stress of 10^3 kPa (Carmichael, 1984).

223

224 An incremental force of 0.1 kN was applied in 100 time steps on the tree stem at 1.3 m
225 from the ground surface. Displacement, shear stress and strain were computed at every
226 time step. The force-displacement curve was generated to represent the behavior of the
227 tree-root system by plotting the incremental force against the displacement at the point
228 where the force was applied.

229

230

231

232 **3. Results**

233 *3.1. Tree pulling test results*

234 Trees planted at the study site were six years old at the time of the pull-out tests. The
235 average height and girth circumference of the trees were 6.58 ± 0.25 m and 50.6 ± 8.6 cm,
236 respectively. The average crown diameter of the trees was 6.2 ± 1.9 m. Statistical analyses
237 using one-way ANOVA test showed that the average height and diameter, and the crown
238 diameter were not affected by different soil conditions as shown by the summary on tree
239 characteristics detailed in Table 2.

240

241 As the tree overturned, the soil in the windward side of the tree experienced tension,
242 whereas the soil in the leeward side of the tree experienced compression. Two typical
243 force-displacement curves from the tree pulling test are shown in Figure 5. The failure
244 force was defined as the force at which the tree started to experience excessive stem
245 displacements without any increase in the measured force. The failure force was reached
246 when the root strength was exceeded or the soil-root plate overturned. Curve for Tree#19
247 (Figure 5) represents a tree with root failure and curve Tree#3 represents a tree with soil
248 plate overturning or soil failure. The force-displacement curve of root failure showed a
249 high overturning force that could be sustained for some time after root failure had occurred
250 and until the tree was completely overturned. The force-displacement curve of soil usually
251 showed a low overturning force that dropped suddenly when soil failure occurred.

252

253 Results of one-way ANOVA for the maximum pulling force required to uproot the trees
254 planted in different soils are also summarized in Table 2. While a significant difference was
255 not identified ($p=0.493$), it was shown that trees planted in IIF (original in-situ soil) had the
256 highest mean maximum pulling force, while the trees planted in 50GC-50TS had the lowest
257 mean maximum pulling force.

258

259 The maximum overturning force required to overturn each tree in the tree pulling test is
260 summarized in Appendix 1 along with the different soil types, cross-sectional area of the
261 root, root plate depth and root plate radius. The highest maximum overturning force
262 occurred in Tree#19 planted in IIF (original in-situ soil) with a maximum overturning force
263 of 20.8 kN while the lowest maximum overturning force occurred in Tree#17 planted in
264 80GC-20TS soil with a maximum overturning force of 0.6 kN. There were variations in the
265 maximum overturning force for trees planted in the same soil. These variations showed that
266 the maximum overturning force was not dependent on the soil type. Figure 6a and Figure
267 6b shows the relationship between maximum overturning forces for the trees planted in IIF,
268 TIF, 50GC-50TS, and 80GC-20TS against root plate radius and cross-sectional area and
269 root plate depth, respectively. There were relatively strong relationships between the
270 maximum overturning force and root plate radius ($R^2=0.56$) and also between the
271 maximum overturning force and root cross-sectional area ($R^2=0.61$) as compared to the
272 relationship between the maximum overturning force and the root plate depth ($R^2=0.21$).

273

274

275 3.2. *Analytical calculation*

276 The input data for analytical calculations were taken from the tree pulling test. The
277 formulas used were similar to the formulas used by Rahardjo et al. (2009) and are presented
278 in Section 2.4 of this paper. The results of the analytical modeling for different failure
279 modes are shown in Figure 7. The results show that the highest maximum overturning force
280 to overturn a tree is associated with the tensile failure of the root system (TFRS), while the
281 lowest maximum overturning force to overturn a tree is associated with the slippage of root
282 system (SRS). The highest maximum overturning force occurred in Tree#20 planted in
283 80GC-20TS soil for all failure modes, whereas the lowest maximum overturning force
284 occurred in Tree#17 planted in 80GC-20TS for SFRS and TFRS failure modes and Tree#18
285 planted in TIF for SRS and SFS failure modes. Tree#20 has the highest maximum
286 overturning force due to its high CSA and its widest radius of root plate among the other
287 trees. Tree#17 has the lowest CSA among all trees which resulted in a lower shear and
288 tensile capacity of the roots. However, the root plate of Tree#17 was deeper than the root
289 plate of Tree#18 which resulted in a higher soil shear and root slippage resistance for
290 Tree#17.

291

292 3.3. *Numerical modeling*

293 The force-displacement curves obtained from the numerical modeling show two typical
294 patterns as shown in Figure 8a. The first pattern with a lower overturning force at failure
295 represents a typical curve for the mode of shear failure of soil (SFS). The SFS failure mode
296 occurred when the root length was shorter than the radius of the slip surface of soil. The

297 second pattern with a higher failure force represents a typical curve for a combination of
298 SFS and shear failure of root system (SFRS) which usually occurred in trees with roots that
299 intersected the slip surface of soil. An illustration of these failure modes is shown in Figure
300 8b and Figure 8c. The SFS failure mode usually developed at the edges of the root zone,
301 whereas the combination of SFS and SFRS usually developed at the root zone resulting in
302 almost a similar size of the failure root plate. The maximum forces required to overturn the
303 trees and the failure modes obtained from the numerical modeling are presented in Figure
304 9. The failure modes obtained from the numerical modeling (SFS and combination of SFS
305 and SFRS) were generally similar to the failure modes obtained from the tree pulling tests
306 (soil failure and combination of soil failure and root breaking). The highest maximum
307 overturning force observed in the numerical modeling was associated with Tree#20 which
308 was similar to the analytical calculation result whereas the field tree pulling tests showed
309 that Tree#19 has the highest maximum overturning force. The lowest maximum
310 overturning force observed in the numerical modeling was associated with Tree#3 whereas
311 the analytical calculation and the field tree pulling tests showed that Tree#17 has the lowest
312 maximum overturning force.

313

314 For SFS failure mode, the numerical modeling and analytical calculation over-predict the
315 maximum overturning forces obtained from the field overturning experiment as shown in
316 Figure 10a. For the combination of SFS and SFRS failure mode, the maximum overturning
317 forces obtained from the numerical modeling were in the same order as compared to the
318 maximum overturning forces obtained from the tree pulling test whereas the maximum

319 overturning forces from the analytical calculation over-predicted the maximum overturning
320 forces obtained from the field overturning experiment as shown in Figure 10b.

321

322 **4. Discussion**

323 Mixing top soil with granite chips increased the shear strength parameters of the soil
324 (Rahardjo et al., 2008). However, the increased shear strength of the soil did not guarantee
325 a larger resistance to overturning for trees as shown in the field test results. This was
326 shown by the results of the statistical analysis of overturning forces for different soil
327 conditions. The statistical analyses showed that the difference in the mean overturning
328 force was statistically insignificant. The statistical analyses in tree characteristics for
329 different soil conditions also showed that the difference in mean tree characteristics was
330 statistically insignificant. The statistically insignificant difference in the tree characteristics
331 planted in different soil conditions may have led to the statistically insignificant difference
332 in the overturning force for trees planted in different soil conditions.

333

334 Although, it was found that different soil conditions yielded a statistically insignificant
335 difference in the overturning force, the tree pulling test result showed that there were linear
336 relationships between root cross-sectional area (CSA) and root plate radius with the forces
337 needed to overturn the tree. This was similar to reports by Nicoll and Duncan (1996),
338 Crook and Ennos (1998) and Mickovski and Ennos (2002). This shows that the root
339 properties such as the root cross-section area (CSA) and root plate radius were in fact very
340 crucial in tree stability. In addition, the root CSA and root plate radius values were not

341 affected by the soil medium as shown by the statistical analysis. Therefore, further studies
342 on methods to increase root CSA and root plate radius are necessary in order to enhance
343 our understanding of tree stability. It was also found that the root plate depth did not
344 greatly affect the maximum overturning force of *Samanea saman* unlike the results found
345 by Moore (2000) on *Pinus Radiata* or Abd. Ghani et al. (2009) on *Eugenia grandis*. This
346 might be caused by the fact that the depth of the root plate in *Samanea saman* was
347 generally shallow as compared to the depth of root plate in these other species. Thus, the
348 limited range of root plate depth created a statistically insignificant difference in the
349 overturning force.

350

351 Based on soil shear strength tests results, IIF (original in-situ soil) was one of the weakest
352 soils; however, the highest maximum overturning force recorded from the tree pulling test
353 was the force required to overturn Tree #19 that was planted in IIF soil. The force required
354 to overturn Tree#19 was higher than the force required to overturn Tree #20 which was
355 considered to have the highest overturning force based on the analytical calculation and
356 numerical modeling. Several factors might have contributed to this difference such as the
357 root orientation and the variation of the root strength in the field. The effect of root
358 orientation and clustering might affect the maximum overturning force as suggested by
359 Abd. Ghani et al. (2009). The roots that were found in the windward direction of a tree
360 with a plate root tended to have a higher overturning force as reported by Ennos (2000).
361 The shear and tensile strengths of the root vary between tree to tree and also vary for the
362 same tree as it moves further away from the tree's stem as suggested by Bischetti et al.
363 (2005) and Genet et al. (2008).

364

365 Field overturning experiments showed that there were two governing failure modes which
366 were visually determined by the condition of the roots. If the root was not broken, the
367 failure mode would be attributed to the shear failure of the soil (SFS). The second failure
368 mode was associated with root breakage. However, the mechanism of root failure is
369 unknown (i.e shear failure or tensile failure). The numerical modeling performed in this
370 study suggested that two failure modes could have occurred during the field
371 overturning/pulling experiment, These were shear failure of soil (SFS) and a combination
372 of shear failure of soil (SFS) and shear failure of root (SFRS). The maximum overturning
373 forces obtained from the numerical model were comparable to those obtained from the
374 field overturning/pulling experiment. As a result, root breakage observed in the tree
375 pulling test could be attributed to the shear failure of roots (SFRS) as simulated in the
376 numerical model.

377

378 In general, the maximum overturning forces obtained from the numerical model
379 overestimated the maximum overturning forces measured in the tree pulling test up to
380 between 15 to 25%. This may have been the result of the variability of shear strength
381 parameters and root properties that was not accounted for in the finite element modeling.
382 The shear strength parameters in the finite element model were obtained from laboratory
383 shear strength tests. The shear strength near the ground surface might vary significantly
384 due to the development of roots during the period of tree growth (Tengbeh, 1993). The
385 root properties might also not be uniform for the entire tree root system (Stokes and
386 Mattheck, 1996). The model also assumes that the root diameter is constant to be equal to

387 the equivalent CSA of the roots. This assumption may have a weakness because the root
388 diameter can be highly variable compared to the root diameter at 50 cm from the trunk
389 used for the CSA calculations. However, similar trends on the factors affecting the
390 maximum overturning force were observed in the numerical model as in the tree pulling
391 test as shown in Figure 11a and Figure 11b.

392

393 The analytical calculation results overestimated the maximum overturning forces for the
394 combination between SFS and SFRS modes. This could be due to the fact that the
395 assumption that all roots failed at the same time when the maximum overturning force
396 reached the failure force might not be the actual case. In reality, failure might have
397 occurred progressively (O'Sullivan and Ritchie, 1993). The selection of values of
398 parameters used in the analytical calculation especially for tensile and shear strength
399 parameters of root was critical because it could greatly affect the maximum overturning
400 force calculation using the analytical solutions and should be investigated further in order
401 to enhance the accuracy of the results obtained.

402

403 The analytical calculation and numerical modeling used in this study required the cross-
404 sectional area of the roots and the root plate depth. These parameters are not easily
405 obtained without an invasive method. Therefore, further improvements of the analytical
406 calculation and numerical models for the prediction of tree stability are required so that
407 these models can eventually have the ability to effectively predict the stability of tree.

408

409 The study reported in this paper was conducted on twenty trees of one species of the same
410 age. This condition limited the study to one root type which was a plate root. Plate root is
411 the weakest root architecture in withstanding overturning (Coutts, 1983) and therefore, it
412 represented the most critical root architecture for tree stability. Oliver and Mayhead (1974)
413 reported that the wind speed that uprooted trees were actually lower than the measured
414 forces used in the tree pulling test. This might be due to the nature of wind loading that
415 was a continuous and dynamic loading for a long period of time, whereas the field tree
416 pulling test experiment was a static and quick loading test. Therefore, it is appropriate to
417 consider a variety of species, other root architectures and dynamic loading in future studies
418 of similar nature.

419

420 **5. Conclusions**

421 Shear strength of soil increased when it was mixed with granite chips. However, the
422 increase in soil shear strength alone may not increase the stability of the tree because many
423 factors come into play when considering tree stability. Cross-sectional area of the root and
424 the root plate area were found to be parameters that increase the stability of the tree as
425 observed in the field experiment and numerical analyses. Shear failure of soil and a
426 combination of soil shear failure and root breakage were found to be the prevalent failure
427 modes during tree overturning. The maximum overturning force to reach failure as
428 measured in the field experiment was of the same order of magnitude as the maximum
429 overturning forces obtained from the numerical modeling and analytical calculation.

430

431 **Acknowledgement**

432 This research was conducted in collaboration between Nanyang Technological University
433 and National Parks Boards Singapore. The authors wish to thank Mr. Andhika Sahadewa
434 and other colleagues for their assistance during the tree pulling test.

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Soil type/ (USCS classification symbol)	Effective cohesion c' (kPa)	Effective angle of internal friction ϕ' (°)
TIF (SC)	2	25
IIF (CL)	5	24
50GC-50TS (SC)	5	44
80GC-20TS (GP)	25	48

Table 2. Summary of statistical analyses result of tree characteristic for different soil condition

Characteristic/Soil	IIF	TIF	50GC-50TS	80GC-20TS	P values
Height (m)	6.58±0.15 a	6.50±0.10 a	6.60±0.14 a	6.62±0.15 a	0.932
Girth circumference (m)	0.46±0.01 a	0.50±0.01 a	0.51±0.02 a	0.56±0.01 a	0.424
Crown width (m)	5.57±0.24 a	6.10±1.15 a	6.81±1.34 a	6.47±0.56 a	0.811
Overturning force (kN)	12.19±2.66 a	7.96±1.18 a	6.98±2.74 a	9.85±3.53 a	0.493
Root depth (m)	0.93±0.07 a	1.05±0.2 a	0.68±0.13 a	0.75±0.08 a	0.218
Cross sectional area (CSA) (cm ²)	179.17±49.23 a	118.97±40.16 a	111±37.27 a	231.86±120.29 a	0.598

Mean±standard error. Pairs of values in a column followed by the same letter are not significantly different at the $\alpha=0.05$ level.

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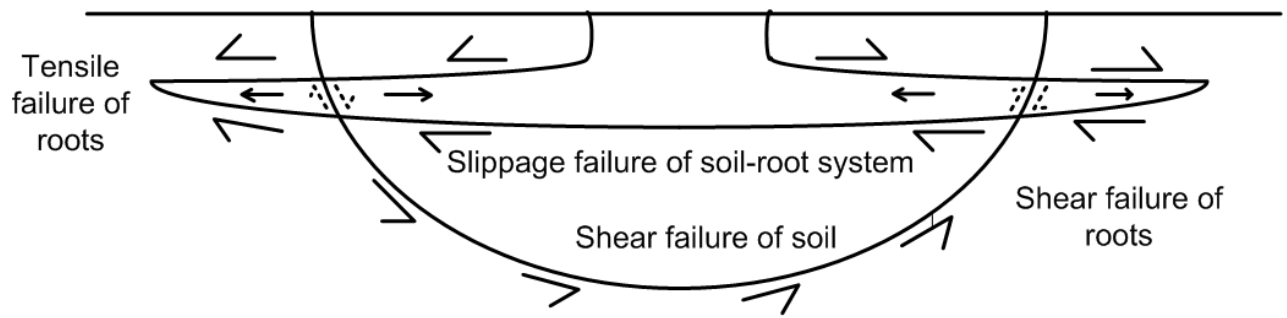
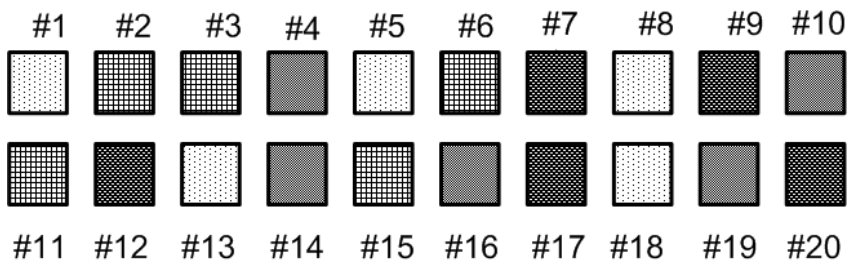


Figure 12 Soil-root interactions (from Rahardjo et al., 2009)



Legend:



: TIF



: 50GC-50TS



: IIF



: 80GC-20TS

N

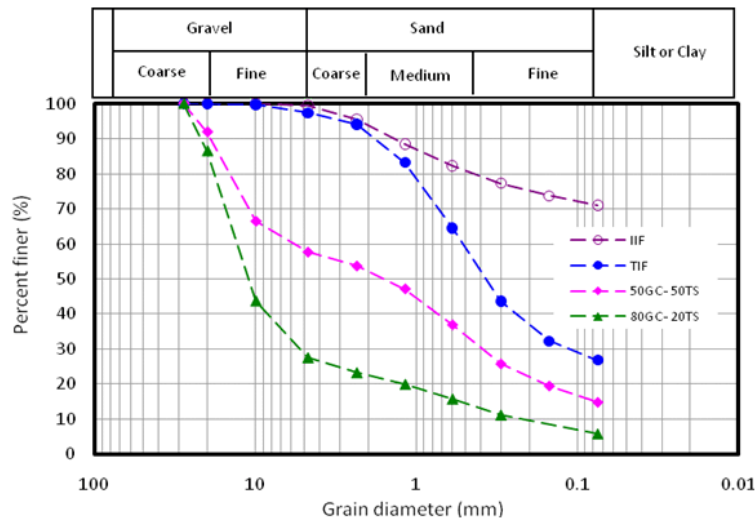


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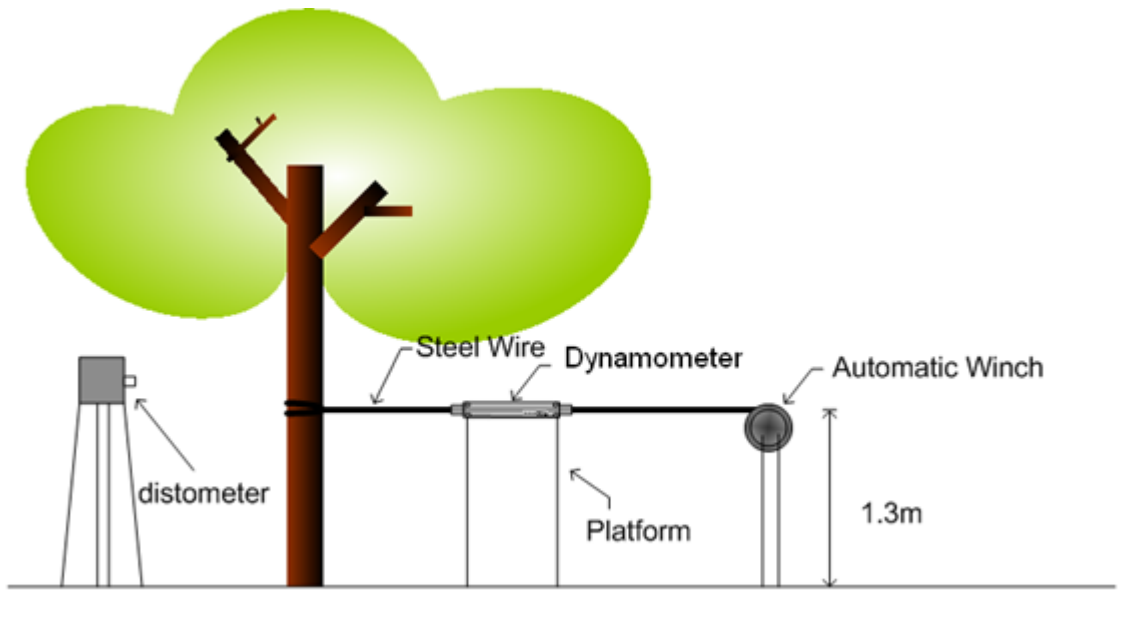


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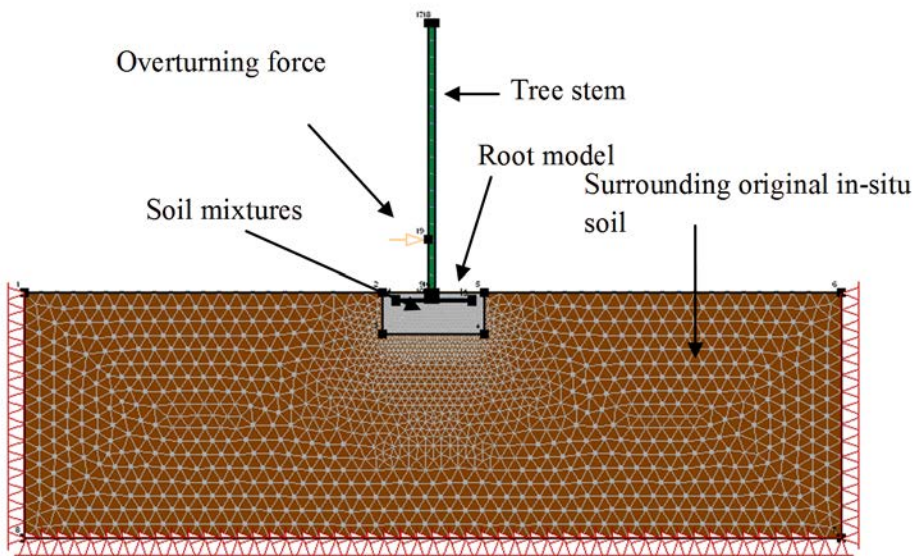


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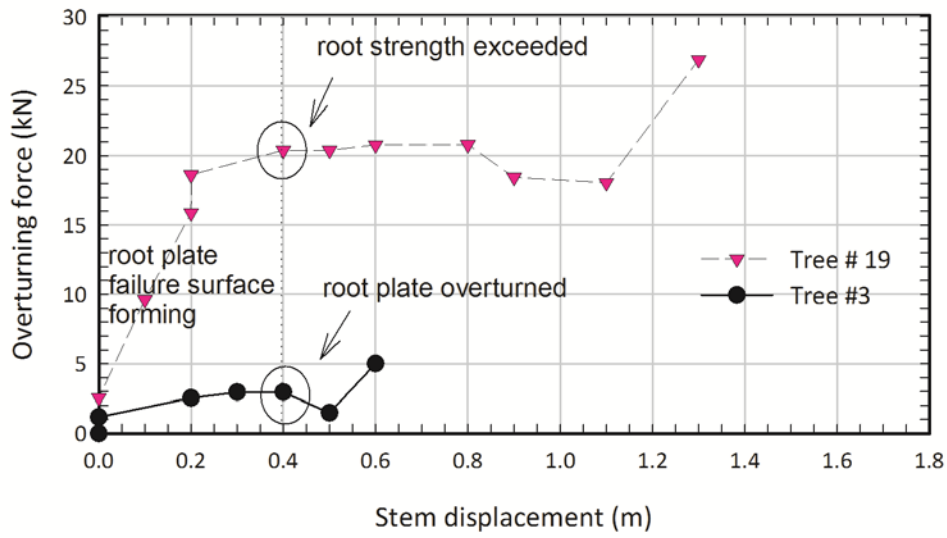


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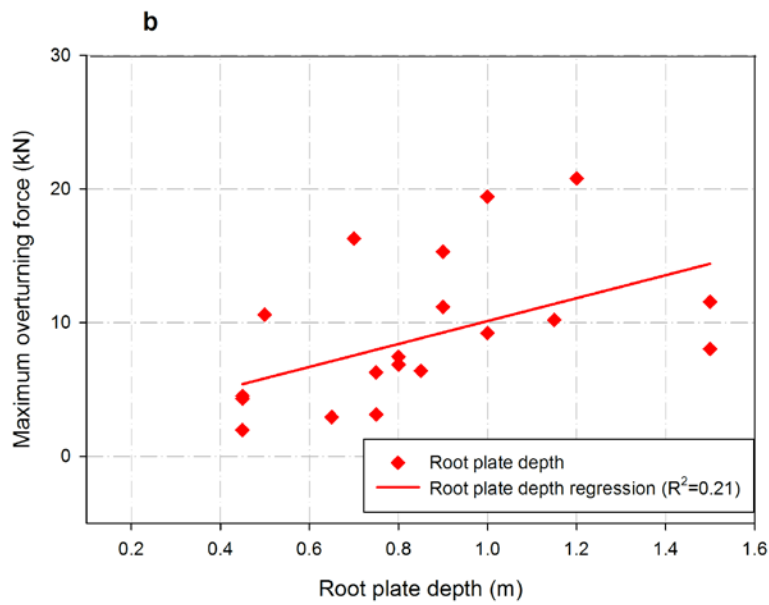
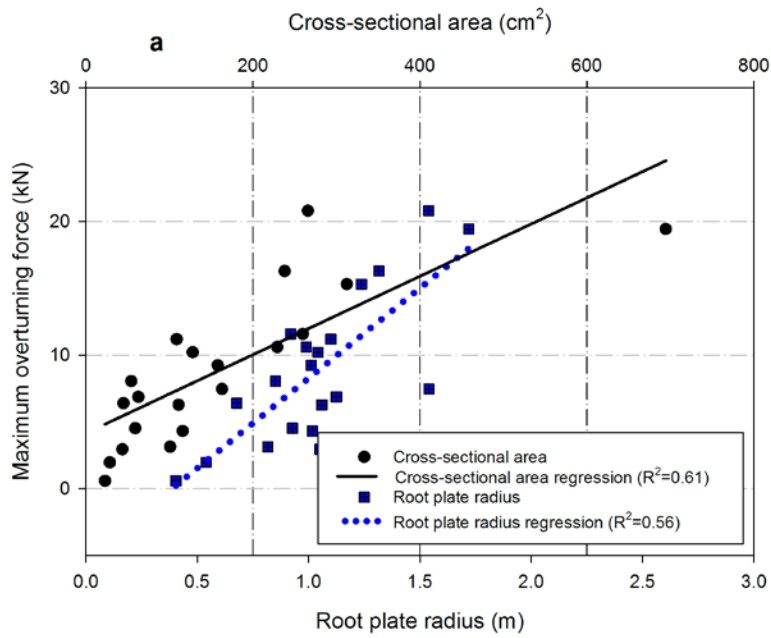


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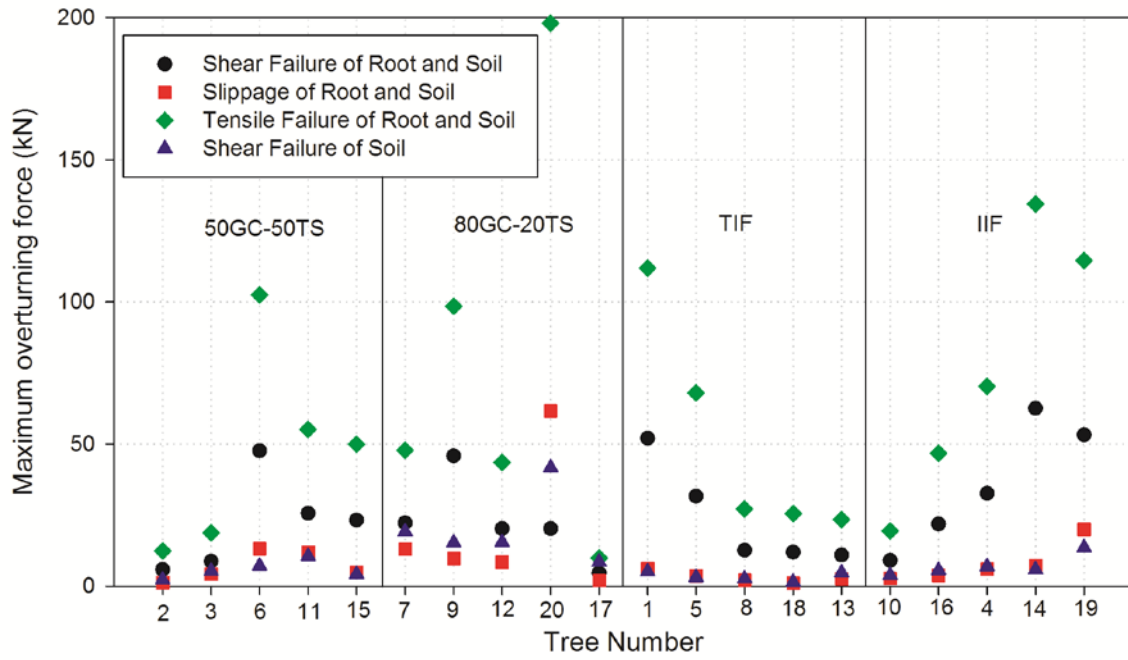


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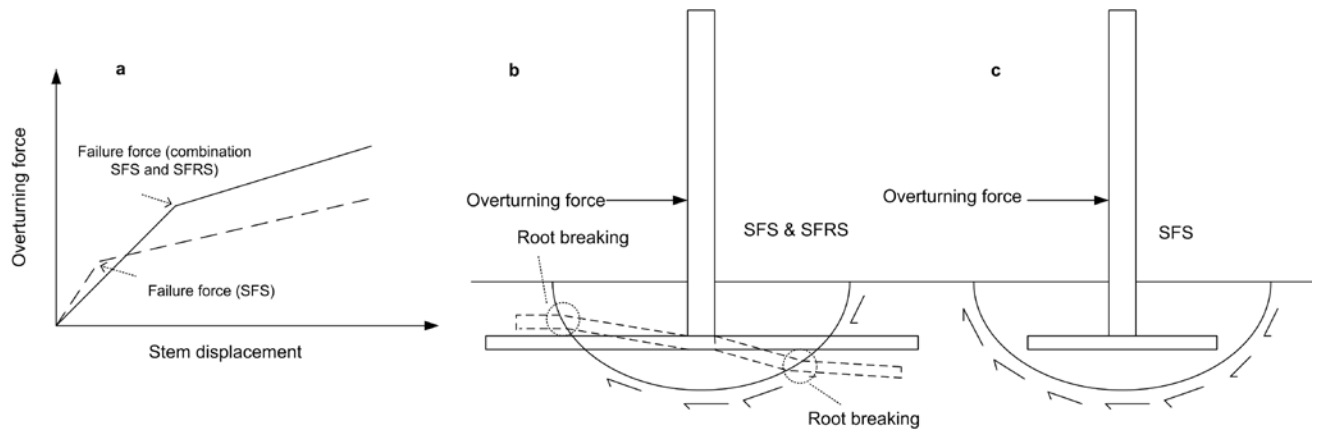


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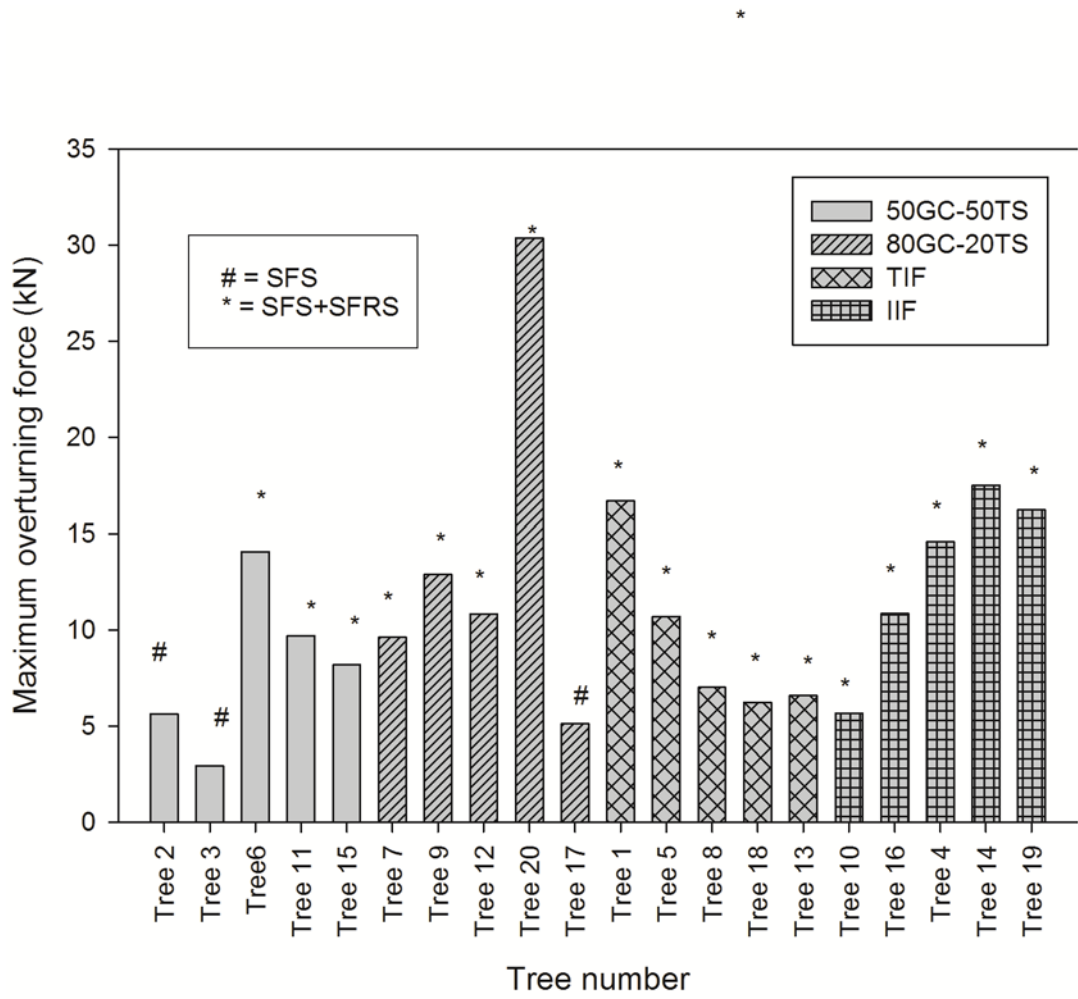


Figure 20 Maximum overturning force and failure mode obtained from numerical modeling

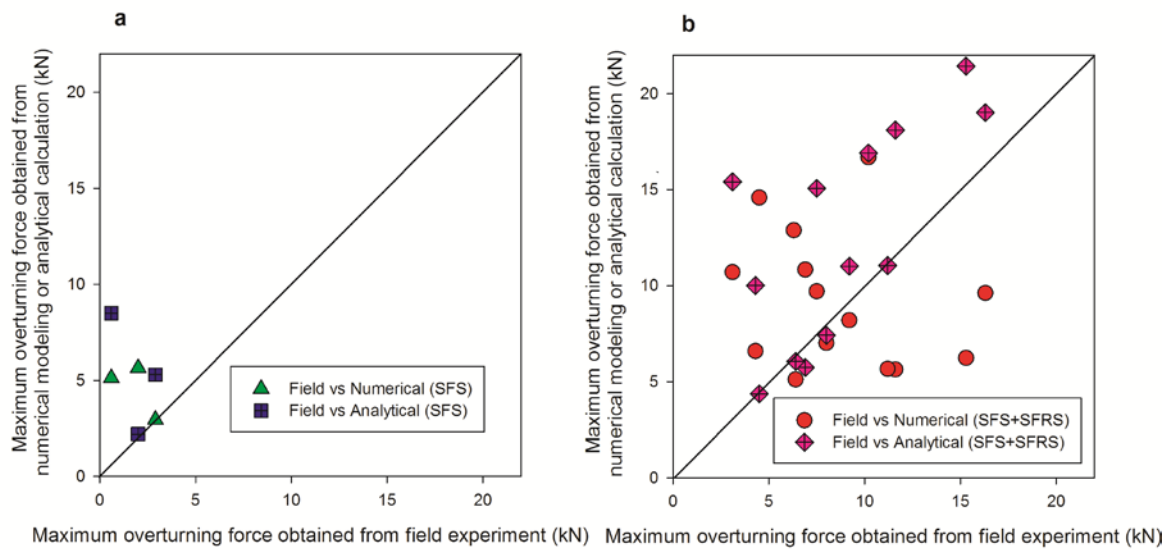


Figure 21 Comparison of overturning force obtained from tree pulling test and numerical modeling for a. SFS failure mode b. SFS+SFRS failure mode

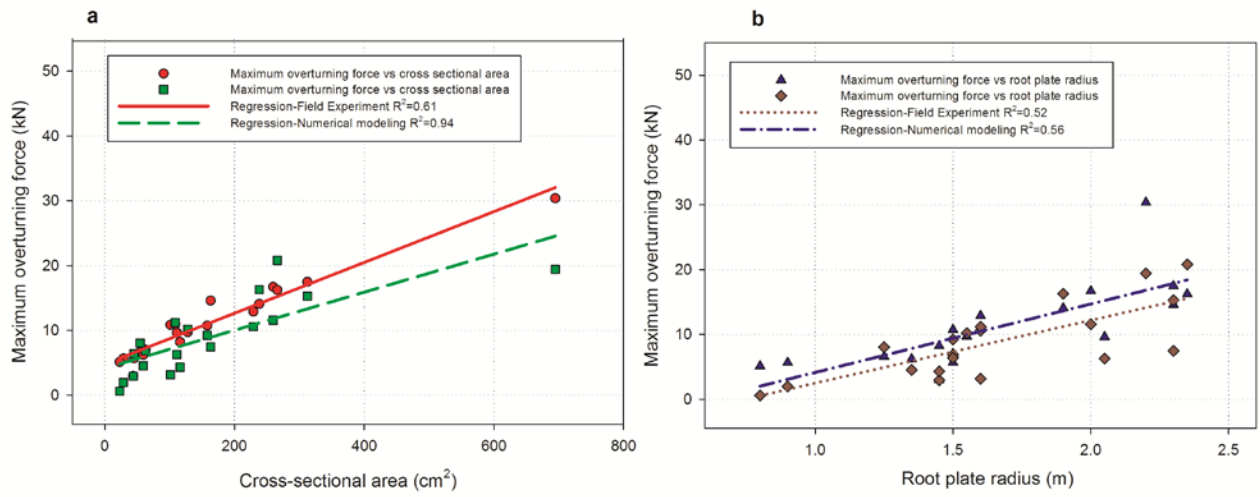


Figure 22 Relationship between the maximum overturning force and a. cross-sectional area, b root plate radius obtained from tree pulling test and numerical modeling

APPENDIX

Appendix 1 Tree characteristics recorded in the tree pulling test

Tree no	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Soil type	TIF	50GC- 50TS	50GC- 50TS	IIF	TIF	50GC- 50TS	80GC- 20TS	TIF	80GC- 20TS	IIF
CSA (cm ²)	259.9	28.8	43.7	163.2	158.2	238.2	111.2	62.9	229.2	45.2
Root depth (m)	1.5	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.5	0.9
radius of root plate (m)	0.9	0.5	1.1	1.5	1.0	1.3	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.7
Maximum Overturning force (kN)	11.6	2.0	2.9	7.5	9.2	16.3	6.3	6.9	10.6	6.4
Height (m)	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	6.6	7	6.8	6.5	6.5	6.5
Girth circumference (m)	0.55	0.4	0.4	0.55	0.58	0.63	0.54	0.45	0.53	0.42
Crown width (m)	9.5	2.8	5.2	5.8	7.8	7.88	7.05	3.2	4.6	5.3
Tree no	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Soil type	50GC- 50TS	80GC- 20TS	TIF	IIF	50GC- 50TS	IIF	80GC- 20TS	TIF	IIF	80GC- 20TS
CSA (cm ²)	128.07	101.23	54.47	312.53	116.16	108.93	23.09	59.32	266.06	694.64
root depth (m)	1.2	0.8	1.5	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.5	1.2	1.0
radius of root plate (m)	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.0	1.1	0.4	0.9	1.5	1.7
Maximum Overturning force (kN)	10.2	3.1	8.0	15.3	4.3	11.2	0.6	4.5	20.8	19.4
Height (m)	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.1	6.1	6.1	6.1	7	7
Girth circumference(m)	0.68	0.63	0.45	0.39	0.42	0.49	0.59	0.48	0.44	0.5
Crown width (m)	10.8	7.3	4.2	5.6	7.35	6.3	5.78	5.8	4.85	7.6