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for $h = 0$ becomes $\sin \alpha = \sin \rho$; $\alpha = \rho$
 for $h/y = 1$ becomes $\sin \alpha = \sin \rho = 2 \operatorname{ctg} \rho \sin \rho$
 for $\rho = 30^\circ$ becomes $\alpha = 60^\circ$
 for $\alpha = 90^\circ$ becomes $h = \gamma \operatorname{ctg} \rho =$ vertically
 standing wall by vertical pressure of
 current

14) If in equation (8) we put
 $k = 0$; $P_s = 0$; $P_t = \pm p'$; $s = 1$; $d = 1$; $p_w = 0$
 we obtain in equation (8)

$$a = \frac{\pm p'}{\gamma} \quad ; \quad b = 1$$

and

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{\pm \frac{p'}{\gamma} \operatorname{tg} \rho \pm \sqrt{1 + \operatorname{tg}^2 \rho - \frac{P_t^2}{\gamma^2}}}{1 + \operatorname{tg}^2 \rho} \quad (24)$$

The equations (24 and 25) differ from equation (21) and (22) only by the fact that in the denominator, instead of $\sin \rho$ the $\cos \rho$ stands. The values p' , to p'^4 as also the values p and p^4 can be interpreted geometrically. In Fig. 4 p' is evaluated. In Fig. 5 there is in the triangle $\Delta C C'$:

$$\frac{P_t}{\gamma} = \frac{\sin(\rho - \alpha)}{\sin(90^\circ - \rho)} = \frac{\sin(\rho - \alpha)}{\cos \rho} \quad (25)$$

i.e. If there is pressure of current in the direction of the inclination of the slope present which is greater than p'_1 then there is danger of landslide.

15) The equations (24) and (25) can, provided that for $p' = -\gamma_w \sin \alpha$ is put, be so converted that the following relation is obtained.

$$\frac{\gamma \pm \gamma_w}{\gamma} = \frac{\operatorname{tg} \rho}{\operatorname{tg} \alpha} \quad (26)$$

Remark: The equation (26) has been obtained for $P_s = 0$ and $P_t = p'$. whereas the equation (18) was drawn up for $p_s = p$ and $p_1 = 0$ and has given

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STATE OF STRESSES IN A HEAVY SOIL MASS

C. TORRE, VIENNA

1. INTRODUCTION.

In the following, we will discuss the state of stresses in a semi-infinite mass which consists of heavy, cohesionless grains of approximately equal size, and is bounded by a horizontal or inclined plane. In each point of the soil mass prevails limiting equilibrium. The load may be distributed uniformly over the ground surface. Instead of Rankine's 1) boundary condition

$$\tau = \pm u \cdot \sigma \quad (1)$$

$\mu = \operatorname{tg} \rho$, $\rho =$ angle of friction), here, in general, a curved, everywhere constant and differentiable involute curve is assumed as boundary condition. It will be tried, to deal with the theory of breakage of a soil mass as a special case of the technical theory of breakage of solids. Considering the heavy soil mass, it is remarkable that, in all points of a plane parallel to the ground surface, identical states of stresses occur.

In Fig. 1 the involute curve $\tau = \tau(\sigma)$ is dashed. It is assumed as parabola. The pressure stresses are put on the positive σ -axis. The diameter of the stress circle (=circle of curvature) at the vertex of the involute curve

$$\frac{\operatorname{tg} \rho}{\operatorname{tg} \alpha} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma \pm \gamma_w}$$

i.e. equation (18) represents the reciprocal value of the equation (26).

In case of the validity of Darcy's law the frictional force is p'

$$p' = \gamma \cdot nJ$$

and we obtain:

$$\frac{\operatorname{tg} \rho}{\operatorname{tg} \alpha} = \frac{J_{\text{critical}}}{\gamma \cdot n}$$

$\gamma =$ weight of liquid

$n =$ capacity of cavity

$v =$ velocity of the trickling

$J =$ fall

SUMMARY

The above formulae deduced by the author, are applied practically to determine the tendency to sliding of slopes with clayey material from red marl, Jura etc. The formulae are furthermore applied to determine the stability of hill-sides crossed by water-courses, of roads and reservoirs. Finally the equations have been applied to the calculations of the degree of safety of dams from shocks caused by earthquakes, battering with projectiles.

In addition, instead of the pressure of trickling water, the intensity of the wave of concussion has been given.

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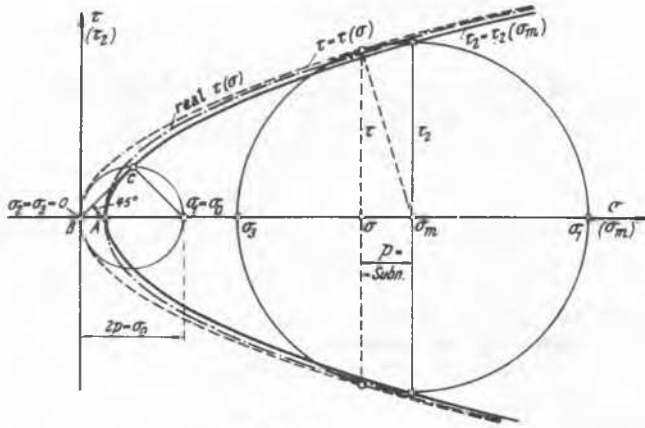


FIG. 1

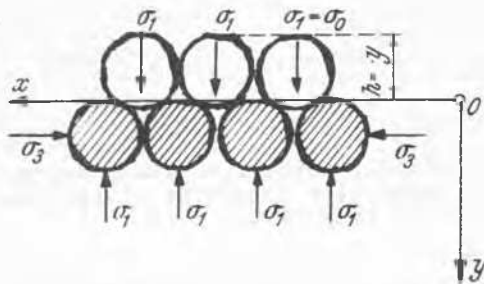


FIG. 2

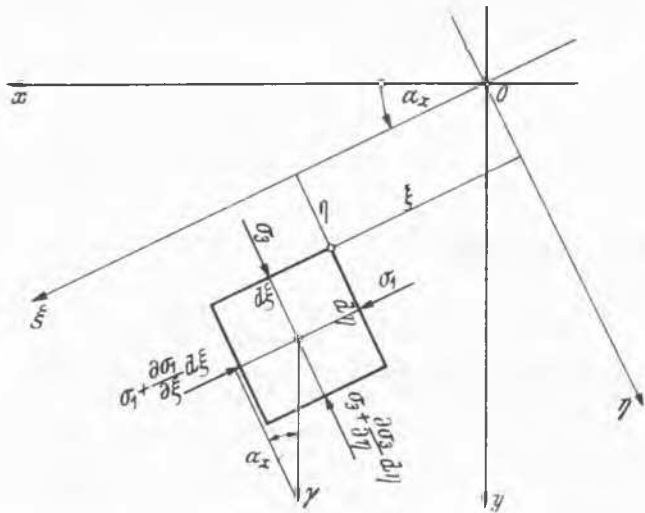


FIG. 3

is loaded, this shearing angle becomes greater than zero; its size will be found out according to the intensity of the load and the choice of the involute curve.

2. LIMITING STRAINS.

In this chapter we shall express the boundary condition $\sigma_1 = \sigma_1(\sigma_3)$ in parameter representation x and y . In Fig. 3 a system of coordinates (x, y) is assumed, where the principal pressure direction (σ_1) and the x -axis form the constant angle α_x . Thus, the ground surface is not horizontal, but inclined to the x -axis at an angle δ (not shown in Fig. 3). By turning

the coordinate axes round the angle α_x , we obtain the new system of coordinates (ξ, η) , the axes of which coincide with the principal normal stresses. The equation of transformation (5a)

$$x = \xi \cos \alpha_x - \eta \sin \alpha_x, \quad y = \xi \sin \alpha_x + \eta \cos \alpha_x$$

$y = 10$ m, the principal shearing stress Eq. (32) is $\tau_2 = 0.0178$ kg/cm², opposite to a principal normal stress Eq. (31): $\sigma_1 = 1.80$ kg/cm². For the pebbles, when $h = 10$ cm, $y = 10$ m, $\gamma = 1.8$ t/m³, is $\tau_2 = 0.163$ kg/cm² opposite to $\sigma_1 = 1.82$ kg/cm².

The involute parabola therefore furnishes very little shearing stresses. The dependence of the shearing stresses from the grain size is caused by the choice of the involute curve.

In Table 1 the numerical values for x and y are calculated according to Eqs. (29) and (30). Besides, in this Table individual terms of Eq. (29) are calculated in order to show their influence at increasing numbers z .

the term $\text{arc cosh}(2z - 1)$ in Eq. (29) can be neglected against the first term, what is visible from Table 1. Besides, 1 may be neglected against z . Then, according to Eq. (30) is: $y = z^2 \cdot h$ and from Eq. (29)

$$x = \pm y + c \tag{33}$$

Thus, we see that in great depths the shearing lines Eq. (29) approach the straight lines, which form an angle of 45 with the x -axis (= ground surface)

From Eq. (29) is $\min z = 1$: for $z < 1$ the abscissa x is imaginary. When $y = -\sigma_0/\gamma = -h$, from Eq. (29) results: $z = 0$; $y = -h$ is the coordinate of the ground surface.

TABLE 1.

Diameter of grain $h = 0.1$ cm.

z	Eq.(30) y (cm)	$\sqrt{z^2-z}$	$2z-1$	2.(c).(d)	$\cosh^{-1}(2z-1)$	Eq.(29) $x-K$ (cm)
(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)
1	0	0	1	0	0	0
2	0,3	1,4142	3	8,4852	1,7628	$\pm 0,1681$
3	0,8	2,4495	5	24,4950	2,2925	$\pm 0,5551$
4	1,5	3,4641	7	48,4974	2,6339	$\pm 1,1466$
5	2,4	4,4721	9	80,4978	2,8871	$\pm 1,9403$
6	3,5	5,4772	11	120,4984	3,0889	$\pm 2,9352$
7	4,8	6,4807	13	168,4982	3,2566	$\pm 4,1310$
8	6,3	7,4833	15	224,4990	3,4023	$\pm 5,5274$
9	8,0	8,4853	17	288,5002	3,5255	$\pm 7,1244$
10	9,9	9,4868	19	360,4948	3,6432	$\pm 8,9214$

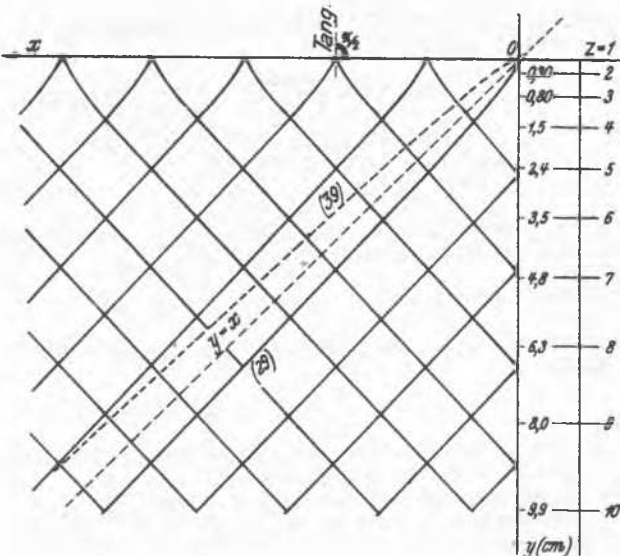


FIG. 5

In Fig. 5, the field of shearing lines is drawn according to the data of Table 1. The shearing lines, calculated according to the involute parabola have as we suppose, the advantage of intersection at an angle which, at increasing depth, approaches the angle of 90°.

When $z = 1$ and $y = 0$, respectively, the shearing line in Fig. 5 has a vertical tangent. By increasing $z \rightarrow \infty$, i.e. z becomes $z \gg 1$, then,

If we have to deal with passive earth pressure ($\alpha_x = 0$), then, from Eq. (26) with $q = 0$: $\psi(x) = 0$ and according to Eq. (25), we obtain

$$\varphi(y) = \gamma \cdot y + 2\sqrt{\sigma_0} \cdot \gamma \cdot y \tag{34}$$

From Eqs. (16) and (34) we obtain

$$\sigma'_1 = \frac{1}{\gamma} \cdot \frac{d\varphi(y)}{dy} = 1 + \frac{\sqrt{h}}{\sqrt{y}} \tag{35}$$

From Eqs. (14) and (35), when $\alpha_x = 0$, we obtain the differential equation

$$\pm \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sqrt{h}}{\sqrt{y}}} \cdot dy = dx \tag{36}$$

After substituting

$$y = z^2 \cdot h \tag{37}$$

the integral Eq. (36) is

$$x = \pm 2h \int \sqrt{z^2 + z} \cdot dz \tag{38}$$

with the solution

$$x = \pm \frac{h}{4} \left[2(2z+1) \cdot \sqrt{z^2+z} - \cosh^{-1}(2z+1) \right] + K_1 \tag{39}$$

In Fig. 5 a shearing line Eq. (39) for $K_1 = 0$ is dashed. The numbers in the last column of Table 1 hold also here, when $z = z + 1$. At the position $y = 0$ of the shearing lines Eq. (39) the tangents are horizontal.

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SUB-SECTION I f

EARTH PRESSURE

I f 3

MINIMUM VALUE OF EARTH PRESSURE

Prof. Dr. JÓZSEF JÁKY

1. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE CLASSICAL EARTH PRESSURE

THEORY.

According to Classical Earth Pressure Theory active earth pressure E acting on the back of the retaining wall is a component of the weight (G) of the wedge sliding along plane AC (Fig. 1).

Coulomb assumed a plane sliding surface starting from lower corner (A) of the retaining wall and inclined at angle to the horizontal. With varying α the earth pressure passes through a maximum decisive for proportioning the wall. Force Q acting on the sliding plane consumes at instant of sliding the entire internal friction, therefore it includes angle φ with the normal line, the other reaction E includes unknown angle δ with the normal to the wall, and ψ with the vertical, respectively. Therefore, the earth pressure is essentially a function of two variables $E = f(\alpha, \psi)$ particularly

$$E = G(\alpha) \frac{\sin(\alpha - \varphi)}{\sin(\alpha - \varphi + \psi)} \quad (1)$$

The classical earth pressure theory assumes after Coulomb the angle ψ as a constant that is as known and determines the value of α where

$$\frac{dE}{d\alpha} = 0 \quad \text{i.e.}$$

$$\frac{dG}{d\alpha} \frac{\sin(\alpha - \varphi)}{\sin(\alpha - \varphi + \psi)} + G \frac{\sin \psi}{\sin^2(\alpha - \varphi + \psi)} = 0 \quad (2)$$

Since $\frac{G \sin \psi}{\sin(\alpha - \varphi + \psi)} = Q$ and $\frac{dG}{d\alpha} = -\frac{h^2 \gamma}{2}$ introducing these values into Eq. (2)

$$Q = \frac{h^2 \gamma}{2} \sin(\alpha - \varphi) \quad (3)$$

Rebhann's wellknown theorem is obtained from which the different theorems of the classical theory originate (equality of areas, Poncelet's graphical solution). These determine

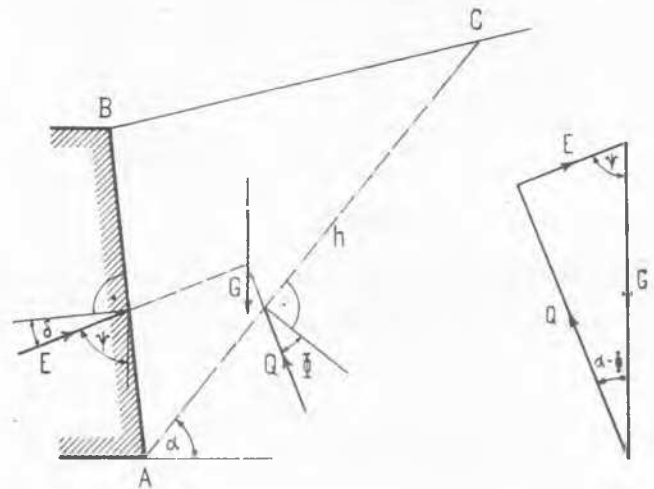


FIG. 1

the maximum value of earth pressure corresponding to a given wall friction angle. Since angle δ may be chosen between $\delta = 0 - \varphi$ the value of E remains indefinite as long as α is not influenced by any given relationship.

Another shortcoming of the classical earth pressure theory is that the points of attack are unknowns, the theory does not give the points of attack either of E or of Q , and will not know instead of forces.

2. NEW THEOREMS OF THE CLASSICAL THEORY.

Plotting values of active earth pressure corresponding to various values of α and δ in a spacial system of coordinates, the saddle shaped surface on Fig. 2. is obtained. Saddle point P gives the absolute minimum of earth pressure.

It is probable and it may be proved theoretically as well as experimentally that this is the decisive earth pressure for calculating