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## How to analyse walls for deep excavations

A. Hettler

*University of Sciences and Technology of Dortmund, Germany*

T. Schanz

*Ruhr-Universität Bochum, Germany*

**ABSTRACT:** The paper gives a survey how to analyse walls for deep excavations according to the rules of the German committees for excavations (EAB) and for numerical calculations in geotechnics (AK 1.6). In most cases relevant in engineering practice it is sufficient to use a classical linear elastic beam model. This can be improved introducing a subgrade reaction at the foot of the wall. For complex systems—this means for example complex in geometry and/or initial and boundary conditions—the finite element method is recommended to be used. The paper closes with open questions and gives some ideas for future research, for example how to perform a full design with FE-method and how to take into account different stages of construction processes.

### 1 INTRODUCTION

During the last years the investigation of serviceability limit states has gained more and more importance. Especially in the case of inner city excavations adjacent to buildings the admissible deformations are often very small. Therefore the engineers have to select carefully the design tools. High demands in design do not implicate automatically finite-element-calculations. Depending on the boundary conditions also classical models may be sufficient or even equivalent.

Additional difficulties may rise in combination with so called deep excavations. Deep may not be defined only by the geometrical depth. Deep can be understood by the degree of technical difficulties in design. This may include for example the geometrical depth, soil conditions, magnitude of water pressure, groundwater conditions and the condition of adjacent buildings. It is supposed that a precise definition of a deep excavation is difficult to be found but in a qualitative sense an approach for practical purposes is possible. For example in Berlin sand and groundwater conditions an excavation of more than 20 meters depth may be called a deep excavation. For the soft clay at the lake of Konstanz a depth of more than 5 to 6 meters can already cause extreme difficulties in the construction process. For details, see Hettler (2010).

The aim of the paper is to give a survey about the calculation methods which are used in German

practice and which are compatible with Eurocode 7. Mainly three models are used:

- the classical beam model
- the beam model combined with subgrade reaction at the foot of the wall
- finite-element-analysis

It is also intended to initiate a discussion and to compare the different methods in different countries within Europe.

### 2 SAFETY CONCEPT

Eurocode 7 admits three ways to investigate safety. In Germany procedure 2\* was introduced. This means the following steps:

- design of the structural system
- determination of characteristic loads and calculation of characteristic effects
- determination of design values for effects by multiplying the characteristic values with the partial safety factors
- investigation that the design values of effects are smaller or equal to the design values of resistences.

It is believed that the calculation with characteristic values is advantageous, especially for nonlinear systems. In such cases it may happen that the calculations for example with design values for  $\phi$  and  $c$  lead to unrealistic results and the interpretation of the results may be difficult. Only for linear elastic systems calculations with design values for loads and resistences are mathematically equivalent. Then the

user can decide whether to calculate with characteristic or design values. Sometimes it is easier to find the minimum dimensions by applying design loads. For details, see Hettler (2009) or Weißenbach and Hettler (2010). See also the discussion in section 5.

### 3 CLASSICAL BEAM MODEL

According to the German recommendations for excavations (EAB, 2006, 2008) the following simplifications are assumed when investigating the limit state:

- The static system is an elastic beam with unyielding supports.
- Each step in the construction process is analysed separately, neglecting previous steps.

The earth support may be classified into the following systems:

- A free earth support, which is fixed at the toe with a force  $C_{h,k} = 0$  and where the resultant of the soil reactions  $\sigma_{h,k}$  is the supporting force  $B_{h,k}$  (Fig. 1a). The embedded length is  $t_0$ .
- A partly fixed earth support with length  $t_1$  (Fig. 1b).
- A fixed earth support with length  $t_1$  and the boundary condition  $M_c = 0$  and a vertical tangent at the support (Fig. 1c).

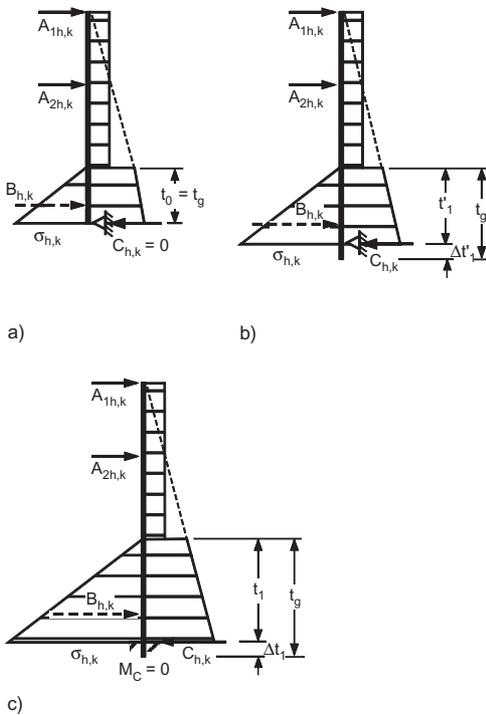


Figure 1. a) Elastic beam with free earth support b) partly fixed earth support c) fixed earth support.

- A fixed earth support with length  $t_1$  and the boundary condition  $M_c = 0$  and a vertical tangent at the support (Fig. 1c).

The extra length  $\Delta t_1$  in Figure 1b and c is necessary to transfer the support forces  $C_{h,k}$  to the soil as proposed by Blum. For details, see Weißenbach, Hettler, Simpson (2003) or Hettler and Weißenbach (2010).

A particular feature in German design of excavations is how to calculate the earth pressure.

In a first step a triangular distribution according to the Rankine's theory is assumed. Then following Weißenbach's proposals it is redistributed, as shown by the example in Figure. 2.

The German recommendations for excavations (EAB) propose different earth pressure figures, depending for example on the stiffness of the wall, the stiffness of the props and the number of props. For details, see EAB (2008).

For investigating serviceability limit states the beam model has to be improved:

- The supports may be assumed as elastic springs.
- The predeformations before installing the next prop are taken into account and added up during the installation process.

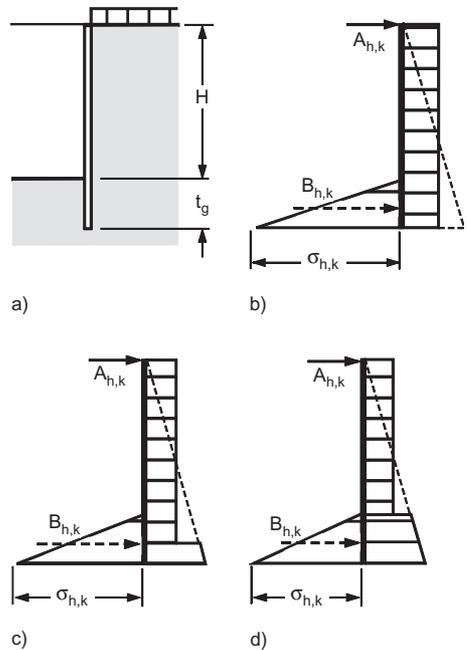


Figure 2. Excavation wall with free earth and propped at the top a) static system, b) redistribution of the classical earth pressure up to the toe of the wall c) up to the gravity center of the supporting force  $B_{h,k}$  d) up to the bottom of the excavation.



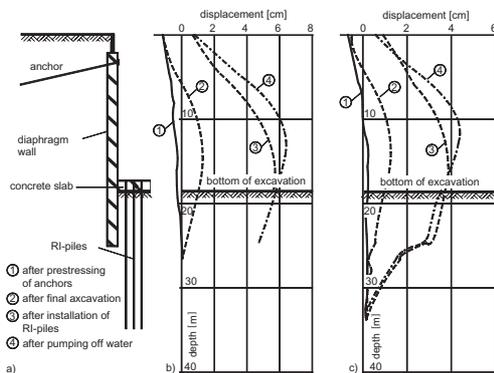


Figure 4. Debris-excavation at Potsdamer Platz: a) cross section of excavation b) displacements in cross section MV 1 c) displacements in cross section MV 2.

in phase 3 when the RI-piles were constructed. Pumping off the water in phase 4 caused only a relatively small additional displacement of 10 mm to 12 mm. The maximum difference of about 20 mm in cross sections MV 1 and MV 2, where the geological conditions are quite similar, can be explained by the time sequence and the geometrical arrangement of the piling works. Obviously the embedment at the foot of the wall reduced and at the same time pore water pressure increased. For details see Triantafyllidis (2000).

The installation of grouted anchors may also cause damages in adjacent buildings particularly for multilevel anchored walls showing high density of anchor placement. Boring against groundwater with a hydraulic head is judged as specially unfavorable effect. Constructing the excavation walls for the long distance train station Potsdamer Platz in Berlin two rows of anchors had to be built very close under the tunnel and the station for the city railway, see Figure 5.

Although the material transport was carefully controlled during drilling settlements of the city railway tunnel were observed up to 7 cm, see Figure 6. For details see Borchert (2008).

## 7 FURTHER REMARKS ON FEM-ANALYSIS

Closely related to the definition of global safety as discussed above is the identification of the relevant reason for failure including the failure kinematics. Using the extended features of FE-analysis it must be asked which reason for failure is relevant and which different failure mechanisms must be analyzed. This important topic is studied in detail by Grabe et al. (2008) for sheet pile walls

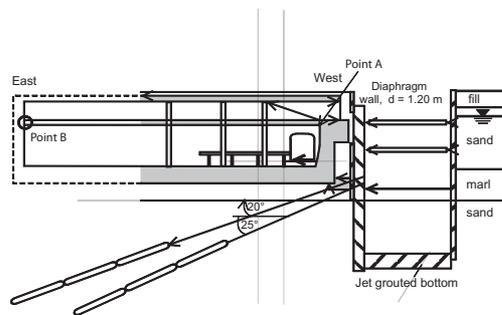


Figure 5. Cross section of city railway station and excavation wall at Potsdamer Platz in Berlin.

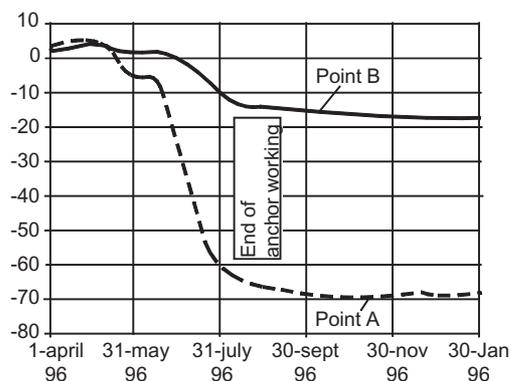


Figure 6. Settlements at points A and B of city railway station at Potsdamer Platz in Berlin caused by installation of grouted anchors.

applying a so called “plastic-plastic-approach”. In order to trigger the occurrence of plastic hinges they analyzed six different causes, among others the reduction of the strength of the wall, lowering the groundwater table and an increase of the specific gravity. Theoretically all possible causes must be considered, as for example some more are shown in Figure 7, in order to determine the minimum of safety. For example in Figure 7f, using FE-analysis, an increase of the vertical force  $P$  might result in rather large deformations. These deformations might change the direction of the action from  $+2/3\phi$  to  $-2/3\phi$ . Therefore the earth pressure increases, the anchor might fail and/or the wall might fail before the wall sinks vertically. For further details, see Hettler and Schanz (2008).

The described task is not unique in the frame of application of FE-analysis, but also included when applying classical methods. In the frame of classical methods only a limited number of different causes for failure are analyzed. Based on long

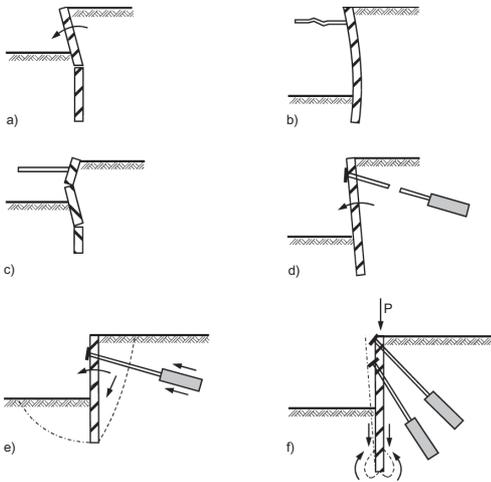


Figure 7. Examples showing effects producing failure and failure mechanisms.

term experience this decision seems to be sufficient. Brinch Hansen and Lundgren (1960) concluded, based on their work on anchored sheet pile walls: One might think, that comparable to the procedure to determine cause for failure in the soil the task must be extended to the global system including structural elements. Different from considering all possible cause it seems sufficient to study a limited number of causes to derive a safe construction.

Different from the calculation of wall deformations by using FE analysis the decision on the appropriate constitutive model is of less importance when performing stability analysis. For practical cases it can be shown that simple ideal-elastic-ideal-plastic models using the same failure criterion result in the same global safety as more complex models considering for example isotropic strain hardening. It can be concluded that the detailed stress path influenced by the individual soil models is of minor importance compared to the definition of the ultimate condition.

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