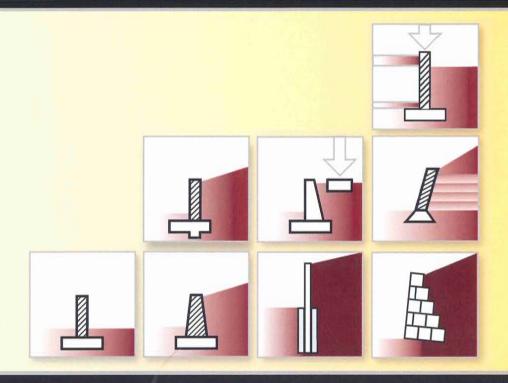
Basics of Retaining Wall Design

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8th Edition



A guide for the practicing engineer

Hugh Brooks

Civil & Structural Engineer

Basics of RETAINING WALL Design

Eighth Edition Revised

Hugh Brooks
Civil and Structural Engineer

A Guide for the Practicing Engineer

January, 2010

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Basics of Retaining Wall Design

Eighth Edition

Hugh Brooks, SE

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Disclaimer

Although it is intended that the material herein is accurate and represents good design practices, it is possible—and even likely—that errors may occur. These are my views, my code interpretations, and my design practices. Other engineers may have differing views. Therefore, each of you, as engineers-of-record, must assess this information and assume responsibility for your designs. Neither Hugh Brooks nor HBA Publications, Inc. can assume any liability for damages resulting from your use of the information in this book.

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

"Of all things, but proverbially so in mechanics, the supreme excellence is simplicity"

James Watt (1736 - 1819) Inventor of the steam engine

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PREFACE TO THE EIGHTH EDITION

Successive editions of this manual become necessary because building codes change – seismic design requirements for example – and I get suggestions for topics to be added or expanded. I also learn from conversations with users of Retain Pro who offer suggestions, point out errors and often enlighten me.

This Eighth Edition is updated and expanded throughout. New topics were added, some corrections made, all design examples updated and new ones added. New topics include soldier pile shoring and multi-wythe large block (and gabion) gravity walls, and there is a design example for each.

This Eighth Edition is a continuation of a series that began with a relatively modest manual, first published in 1996. These manuals are intended as a companion to Retain Pro software to refresh and update the practicing engineer on the basic principles and procedures used to design a variety of retaining walls.

This book is not an in-depth treatment of the design of retaining structures. Retaining structures are far too complex a subject to treat in a single small volume. There are dozens of references and foundation engineering texts and countless technical papers available for review, however, finding what you need is time consuming; hence this compendium. My challenge was to decide what to put in and what to leave out of a manual. My goal was to put in the most helpful things a designer needs to know to design most types of retaining walls. Surely there will be omissions and probably some errors, but my hope is that you will find this book helpful in your practice.

A reference bibliography is included in Appendix H for those wishing more detailed information. And, of course, there is always the Internet.

I express my appreciation to the many of you who have offered valuable suggestions, corrected errors, read portions of the draft, and faxed informative articles and excerpts from technical papers. We've had some interesting discussions, from which hopefully we all benefit.

I hope this new edition will be helpful in your practice, and as always your comments and suggestions will be most welcome.

Hugh Brooks, P.E., S.E.

The User

This book is primarily for the practicing engineer who has become a bit rusty on the complex subject of retaining wall design. It is a review of basic principles and building code requirements. It is also for the student, assuming be or she has already acquired a basic knowledge of statics, soil mechanics, and the design of simple masonry and concrete structures. It will also be helpful to plan checkers (barring arguable code interpretations).

Why It Was Written

During my many years of providing technical support for Retain Pro, it became increasingly apparent that many engineers infrequently design retaining walls and need some brushing-up, particularly code requirements; the design of retaining walls is not an every-day design task. Over half of the technical support questions I receive are about basic concepts and code requirements, rather than about use of the program. I also discovered that there apparently does not exist a single reference book specifically addressing retaining wall design. Although there is very considerable amount of information available, it is widely scattered in numerous textbooks and technical papers on soil mechanics, foundation engineering, concrete design, masonry design, and all sorts of related topics. However a single volume on retaining wall design for the professional practitioner could not be found. Hence, I attempted to condense, simplify, and compile information from many sources, including my own experience, into this book. Hopefully, it will ease your comfort level to design retaining walls and give you a good overview of the process. Those that desire to dig deeper for particular topics there is a comprehensive bibliography in Appendix H of this manual.

Scope of This Book

This book treats most types of retaining walls: conventional cantilevered, restrained (basement), gravity, and segmental retaining walls, both gravity and with geogrids. Other topics include sheet pile walls, tilt-up retaining walls, soldier piles, gabion walls, counterfort walls, pilaster walls and pile/pier foundations.

Feedback

Your comments, corrections, and suggestions will be welcome. You can email me at hbrooks(a)retainpro.com.

Evolution of Retaining Structures

In the year one-million BC, or thereabouts, an anonymous man, or woman, laid a row of stones atop another row to keep soil from sliding into their camp. Thus was constructed an early retaining wall, and we've been keeping soil in place ever since..... with increasingly better methods and understanding.

The early engineers in ancient cultures of Egypt, Greece, Rome, and the Mayans, were masters at invention and experimentation, learning primarily through intuition and trial-and-error what worked and what didn't We marvet at their achievements. Even the most casual observer looks in wonder at the magnificent structures they created and have stood for thousands of years – including countless retaining walls. With great skill they cut, shaped, and set stone with such precision that the joints were paper thin. Reinforced concrete would not be developed for thousands of years, but they used what they had, and learned how to do it better with each succeeding structure. The Great Wall of China, for example, transverse bamboo poles were used to tie the walls together – a forerunner of today's "mechanically stabilized earth". These early engineers also discovered that by battering a wall so that it leaned slightly backward the lateral pressure was relieved and the height could be extended—an intuitive understanding of the soil wedge theory. Any student of ancient construction methods is awed by their ingenuity and accomplishments.

Major advances in understanding how retaining walls work and how soil generates forces appeared in the 18th and 19th centuries with the work of French engineer Charles Coulomb 1776, and who is better remembered for his work on electricity, and later by William Rankine in 1857. Today, their equations are familiar to every civil engineer. A significant body of work was the introduction of soil mechanics as a science through the pioneering work of Karl Terrzaghi in the 1920s.

Indeed, soil mechanics and the design of retaining structures has advanced dramatically in recent decades giving us new design concepts, and a better understanding of soil behavior, and hopefully safer and more economical designs.

A Definition:

A retaining wall is any constructed wall that holds back soil, a liquid or other materials, where there is an abrupt change in elevation.

The Precision Illusion

Let's not fool ourselves. Even though the science of soil mechanics is well developed and reasonably well understood, it is still not an exact science and remains both an art as well as a science. Soil is a mixture of earth materials and although its characteristics can be closely defined its actual in situ behavior will not precisely fit theory. For example: the straight line we assume for the angle of rupture is actually somewhat concave; and, the "equivalent fluid pressure" of soil is not truly triangular. We make simplifying assumptions to make our designs manageable. As the adage goes: *engineering is an exact science based upon assumptions*. Our calculations are the best we can do with assumptions we make and the results are never fully accurate. That's why we use factors of safety. So keep precision in mind when calculating beyond the first decimal point.

Types of Retaining Structures

There are many types of retaining structures for soil and other materials, but listed below are the types of retaining walls used today. Most of these will be discussed in later chapters.

Cantilevered retaining walls

These are the most common type of retaining walls. Cantilevered walls are classified as "yielding" because they are free to rotate without any lateral restraint. Cantilevered retaining walls are generally of masonry or concrete, or both, but can also take other forms as will be described.

Types of cantilevered retaining walls include:

Masonry or concrete walls

Masonry stems are usually either 8" or 12" concrete block masonry units, partially or solid grouted, and reinforced. Higher walls require 12" blocks and are often stepped back to 8" thick as the retained height diminishes.

The stems of a concrete wall must be formed, and can be tapered for economy, usually with the taper on the inside (earth side) to present a vertical exposed face.

Hybrid walls, with both concrete and masonry, can also be constructed using formed concrete at the base, where higher strength is required, then changing to masonry higher up the wall.

A variation for masonry cantilever walls uses spaced vertical pilasters (usually of square masonry units) and with infilled walls of lesser thickness, usually 6" masonry. The pilasters cantilever up from the footing and are usually spaced from four to eight feet on center. These walls are usually used where lower walls are needed—under about six feet high.

Counterfort retaining walls

Counterfort cantilevered retaining walls incorporates wing walls projecting from the heel into the stem. The stem between counterforts is thinner and spans horizontally between the counterfort (wing) walls. The counterforts act as cantilevered elements and are structurally efficient because the counterforts are tapered down to a wider (deeper) base where moments are higher. The high cost of forming the counterforts and infill stem walls make such walls usually not practical for walls less than about 16 feet high. See **Figure 2-1**.

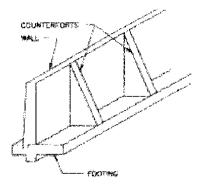


Figure 2-1 Counterfort Retaining Wall

Buttress retaining walls

These are similar to counterfort walls, but the wings project from the outside face of the wall. Such walls are generally used in those cases where property line limitations on the interior face provide limited space for the heel of a traditional cantilvered retaining wall.

Gravity retaining walls

This type of wall depends upon dead load mass of the wall for stability rather than cantilevering from a foundation.

Stacked and mortar-bonded stone, rubble, or rock walls

These are usually relegated to landscaping features and retaining less than about four feet high. Engineering for these walls is limited, or none at all, and rules-of-thumb prevail (such as a retained height not more than two or three times the base width). Higher walls need engineering to evaluate global stability, overturning, sliding, and to verify that little or no flexural tension exists within the wall because these are generally unreinforced.

Gabion or crib walls

A Gabion wall is a type of gravity wall whereby stones or rubble are placed within wire fabric baskets. Crib walls are a variation of the gabion method whereby bins are filled with stone or rubble. Another variation is to stack a grillage of timbers and fill the interior with earth or rubble. Precast concrete crib walls have also been used.

Wood retaining walls

These are commonly used for low height retaining walls. Wood retaining walls usually consist of laterally spaced wood posts embedded into the soil, or set in concrete. Horizontal planks span between the upward cantilevering posts. Pressure treated wood is used, but even with treatment deterioration is a disadvantage, and wood walls are generally limited to low walls because height is limited by size and strength of the posts. Railroad ties are also commonly used for both posts and lagging.

Tilt-up concrete retaining walls

Tilt-up concrete walls have been successfully used for retaining walls, either cantilevered or restrained at the top. These site-cast panels are set on concrete pads at panel ends, with the reinforcing projecting out from the bottom. The footing is then placed under the wall to complete the construction. Tilt-up walls are economical for higher walls, but need panel casting space.

Segmental retaining walls (SRWs)

There are many manufacturers offering various systems of stacked segmental concrete units, steel bins, or other devices that retain soil by stacking components. Most are patented systems that are typically battered (sloped backward) to reduce lateral soil pressure, thus requiring a minimal foundation. Footings, reinforcing, or mortar are not used. Stability of SRW gravity walls depends solely upon the resisting moment exceeding the soil pressure overturning moment. To attain greater heights—up to 40 feet and more – SRW's utilize mechanically stabilized earth (MSE), also called *reinforced earth*, whereby geosynthetic fabric layers are placed in successive layers of the backfill to achieve an integral soil mass that decreases overturning and horizontal sliding. A variety of facing block configurations and surface textures are available from many manufacturers.

Bridge abutments

These support the end of a bridge and retain the earth embankment leading to the bridge. Bridge abutments usually have angled wing walls of descending height to accommodate the side slope of the embankment. Abutments are designed as cantilever walls, with girder bearing support free to slide. If the girder provides lateral support, this must be accounted for in the design. Design requirements for bridge structures are usually governed by AASHTO and state Departments of Transportation (DOTs).

Sheet pile and bulkhead walls

These are generally waterfront structures such as at docks and wharves, but steel sheet piling is also used for temporary shoring on construction sites. Steel sheet units or concrete panels are driven into the soil to provide lateral support below the base of the excavation or the dredge line. Sheet pile walls cantilever upward to retain earth are usually restrained at the top by either a slab or tiebacks.

Restrained (Non-yielding) Retaining Walls

Also called "basement walls" (for residential and light commercial conditions) or "tie-back" walls. These walls are distinguished by having lateral support at the top, thereby with less or no dependence upon fixity at the foundation. Technically, they are classified as "non-yielding" walls because the walls cannot move laterally at the top, as opposed to cantilevered (yielding) walls. Such walls are usually designed as "pin connected" both at the top and bottom. The earth pressure creates a positive moment in the wall, which requires reinforcing on the front of the wall, that is, the side opposite the retained soil. This is the reverse of a cantilevered wall.

Footings for these walls are usually designed for vertical loads only—not for overturning—however, it is often desirable to design a basement wall as a retaining wall too, because backfill can then be safely placed without having to brace the wall, or waiting until the lateral restraint at the top, such as a floor, is in place. Note that conventional wood floors framed into the top of a basement wall do not provide a sufficient stiffness to allow for the restrained case. In some cases it may be cost effective to fix the base of the wall to the footing to reduce both the bending in the wall and restraining force required at the top support.

Anchored (tieback) walls

This method is used for higher walls. Restraint is achieved by drilling anchors into the zone of earth behind the wall beyond the theoretical failure plane in the backfill. The anchors can be placed at several tiers for higher walls, and can be post-tensioned rods grouted into drilled holes, or non-tensioned rods grouted into drilled holes. The latter are also known as *soil nails*.

Cantilevered Retaining Wall Terminology

Cantilevered retaining walls have unique descriptive terminology as illustrated below:

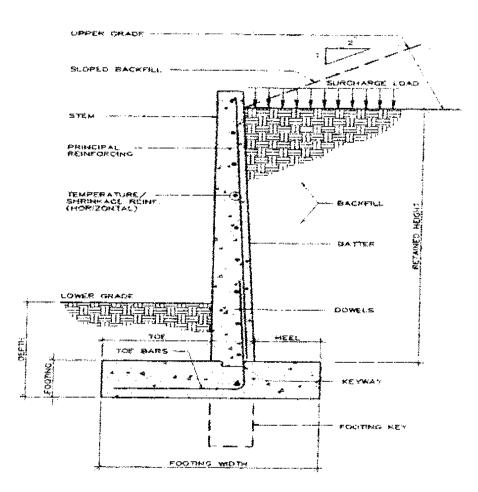


Figure 2-2. Retaining Wall Terminology

What The Terms Mean:

Backfill: The soil placed behind the wall.

Backfill slope: Often the backfill slopes upward from the back face of the wall. The slope is usually expressed as a ratio of horizontal to vertical (e.g. 2:1).

Batter: The slope of the face of the stem from a vertical plane, usually on the inside (earth) face.

Dowels: Reinforcing steel placed in the footing and bent up into the stem a distance at least equal to the required development length.

Footing (or foundation): That part of the structure below the stem that supports and transmits vertical and horizontal forces into the soil below.

Grade: The surface of the soil or paving; can refer to either side of the wall.

Toe: That portion of footing which extends in front of the front face of the stem (away from the retained earth).

Heel: That portion of the footing extending behind the wall (under the soil).

Footing key: A deepened section of the footing for greater sliding resistance.

Keyway: A horizontal slot located at the base of the stem for greater shear resistance.

Principal reinforcing: Reinforcing used to resist bending in the stem.

Horizontal temperature/shrinkage reinforcing: Longitudinal horizontal reinforcing usually placed in both faces of the stems and used primarily to control cracking from shrinkage or temperature changes.

Retained height: The height of the earth to be retained, generally measured upward from the top of the footing.

Stem: The vertical wall cantilevering above the foundation.

Surcharge: Any load placed in or on top of the retained soil, either in front or behind the wall.

Weep holes: Holes provided at the base of the stem for drainage. Weep holes usually have gravel or crushed rock behind the openings to act as a sieve and prevent clogging. Poor drainage of weep holes is the result of weep holes becoming clogged with weeds, thereby increasing the lateral pressure against the wall. Unless properly designed and maintained, weep holes seldom "weep".

3. DESIGN PROCEDURE OVERVIEW

The four primary concerns relating to the design of nearly any retaining wall are:

- 1. That it has an acceptable Factor of Safety with respect to overturning.
- 2. That the allowable soil bearing pressures are not exceeded.
- That it has an acceptable Factor of Safety with respect to sliding.
- 4. That the stresses within the components (stem and footing) are within code allowable limits to adequately resist imposed vertical and lateral loads.

And, it is equally important that it is constructed according to the design.

Step-by-Step Design of a Cantilevered Retaining Wall

The design usually follows this order:

- 1. Establish all design criteria based upon applicable building codes. (See checklist that follows).
- 2. Compute all applied loads, soil pressures, seismic, wind, axial, surcharges, impact, or any others.
- 3. Design the stem. This is usually an iterative procedure. Start at the bottom of the stem where moments and shears are maximum. Then, for economy, check several feet up the stem (such as at the top of the development length of the dowels projecting from the footing) to determine if the bar size can be reduced or alternate bars dropped. Check dowel embedment depth into the footing assuming a 90° bend (hooked bar).
- 4. Compute overturning moments, calculated about the front (toe) edge of the footing.
- 5. Compute resisting moments based upon an assumed footing width, and again calculated about the front edge of the footing.
- 6. Based upon (4) and (5) calculate the eccentricity of the total vertical load. Is it within or outside the middle-third of the footing width?
- 7. Calculate the soil pressure at toe and heel. Since contact between the footing at the heel and the soil below cannot resist tension, the eccentricity of a triangular resultant soil pressure will shift outside the middle-third of the footing width. Preferably keep the resultant within the middle third.
- 8. Design footing for moments and shears. Select reinforcing.
- 9. Check sliding. A key or adjusting the footing depth may be required.
- 10. Check and review. Have all report requirements been met?

Step-By-Step Design of a Restrained Retaining Wall

Similar to the above with some additional steps (*italicized*):

1. Establish all design criteria based upon applicable building codes. (See checklist that follows).

- 2. Compute all applied loads (at-rest earth pressures, seismic, wind, axial, surcharges, impact, or any others. Select "height" to lateral restraint.
- 3. Design the stem. If the stem is assumed pinned at the base, the maximum moment will be a positive moment near mid-height—design stem material, thickness, and reinforcing for this location. Usually the same material (concrete or masonry) and thickness will be used for the full height. If the stem is fixed at the footing, determine shear and moment at base and design this location. If the stem is fixed at the base, check dowel embedment depth into the footing assuming a 90° bend (hooked bar).
- 4. Using statics. Determine reaction at top support and at base. If a floor slab is present at the top of the footing, check its adequacy for this lateral force (sliding).
- 5. Design the footing. If the stem is assumed fixed at base check the soil pressure and design for moments and shears and select reinforcing. If the stem is assumed pinned at the footing interface, try to center the footing under the wall to prevent eccentricity. If there is eccentricity check reinforcing at stem-footing interface to resist the moment because of eccentricity and if adequate the soil pressure will be uniform.
- 6. Check sliding. If a restraining floor slab is not present, a key or adjusting the footing may be required.
- 10. Check and review. Have all report requirements been met?

Establish the Design Criteria

The following information will be needed before starting your design. The values shown in parenthesis are only given to illustrate those frequently used.

Retained height(s)

Depth of soil in front of wall

- * Depth of footing required below grade
- * Allowable soil pressure (1,000 psf to 3,000 psf)
- * Passive pressure (150 to 350 pcf)
- * Active earth pressure (30 pcf to 55 pcf)
- * Coefficient of friction (.25 to .40)

Backfill slope (don't exceed about 1.5:1 unless OK with geotech)

Wind, if applicable

Axial loads on stem

Surcharge loads

- * Seismic criteria if applicable
- * Soil density (110 to 120 pcf)

 $\Gamma_{\rm c}$ (2,000 psi to 4,000 psi)

 f_v (60,000 psi)

£ (24,000 psi)

 f_{m} (1,500 psi)

 f_r (145 psi to 178 psi (strength design)

^{*} These values are usually given in the report.

Design Criteria Checklist

After you have established all your criteria, the following checklist indicates additional items to check before starting your design:

- What building codes are applicable?
- Do I have the correct retained height for all of my wall conditions?
- Is there a property line condition I need to know about?
- Is there a fence on top of the wall, or does the wall extend above the retained height?
 (exposure to wind)
- How deep must the bottom of my footing be?
- How will I assure that the backfill will be drained?
- Will there be any axial loads on top of the wall? If so, the eccentricity?
- What about surcharges behind the wall, such as parking, trucks, etc.
- What is the slope of the backfill? Level?
- Is there a water table I need to consider?
- Is a seismic design required?
- Are there any adjacent footing loads affecting my design?
- If the wall extends above higher grade, and is a parking area, is there an impact bumper load?
- Should the stem be concrete or masonry, or a combination of the two?
- How high is the grade on the toe side, above the top of the footing?
- Is there a slab in front to restrain sliding?
- Is there lateral restraint at the top of the wall (if so, it's not truly a cantilevered wall and requires a different design)?
- Do I have a investigation or other substantiation for soil properties: active pressure, passive pressure, allowable bearing pressure, sliding coefficient, soil density, and other items I need to consider?
- Also consider whether a cantilevered retaining wall is the right solution. If the height of the
 wall is over about 16 feet, perhaps a tieback wall would be more economical (caution: be sure
 your client has the right to install tiebacks. If the wall is on a property line, there is obviously
 a problem). Perhaps a buttressed or counterfort wall would be better for high walls, or using
 precast panels, or tilt-up?
- Lastly, determine how many conditions for which you will need a design. Perhaps the same retained height has several different backfill slopes, say, from level to 2:1. Here you need to use a little judgment in determining the number of cases. Usually you don't design for less than two-foot height increments, unless there are different surcharges or other conditions. To design for one-foot height increments is not only tedious, but doesn't save that much material cost. On the other hand, if the retained height along the length of a wall varies from, say, zero feet to 12 feet, you would not want to specify the 12-foot design throughout. In this case, you would probably design for 12', 10', 8', 6' and 4'. You rarely "design" a wall less than 4 feet high, just use a little judgment—unless there is a steep backfill slope or large surcharges, in which case it should be designed.

When you have gathered all this information, you're ready to start.

Basic Design Principals for Cantilevered Walls

A cantilevered retaining wall must, for stability, resist both overturning and sliding, and material stresses, including allowable soil bearing, must be within acceptable values.

To resist forces tending to overturn the wall (primarily the lateral earth pressure against the back of the wall), the wall must have sufficient weight, including the soil above the footing, such that the resisting moments are greater than the overturning moments. The safety factor for overturning should be at least 1.5.

To resist sliding, the weight of the wall plus the weight of the soil above the footing plus vertical loads on the wall and any permanent surcharges multiplied by the coefficient of friction, plus the passive pressure in front of the wall, must be sufficient to resist the lateral force pushing on the wall. The recommenced safety factor against sliding is 1.5. (Note: For cohesive soil, the coefficient of friction is replaced by a reduced value of the unit cohesive bond between the footing and soil in psf.)

The stem must be designed to resist both the bending caused by earth pressures, including the effect of surcharges placed behind the wall, seismic if applicable, wind if applicable, and any axial (vertical) loads imposed on the wall. The maximum bending and shear stresses in a cantilevered wall will, of course, be at the bottom.

Each of these subjects will be discussed later.

Figure 3-1 is a free-body force diagram illustrating forces on the wall sec.

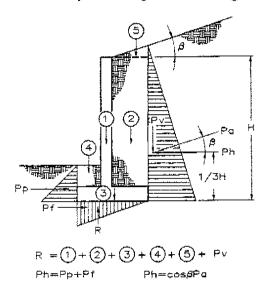


Figure 3-1. Free-Body of Cantilevered Retaining Wall

A Soil Primer

Most of us remember very little from our Soil Mechanics 101 course taken in college. We rely on the expertise of those of our peers who went on to become engineers. It's a complex subject for which most of us have neither the time nor inclination to master, so we employ consultants.

Here are a few basic concepts about soil:

Most soil is the result of the decomposition of rock, and is classified according to the mix of the grain size of the particles making up the mass.

The most generally used classification by particle size is the *Uniform System for Classification of Soil (USCS)*, and is reproduced in **Appendix A**. The distribution of grain size in a soil sample is determined by a grain size analysis. In a sieve test a sample is passed through successively smaller sieves, and the amount by weight retained on each sieve is noted as a percent of the total. With this information the engineer can classify the soil per the USCS chart. Sieve sizes use a numbering system where the number indicates the number of spaces per inch. For example, a #4 sieve has four spaces per inch, or ¼" each, and a #200 sieve has 200 openings per inch, and so forth.

Some common designations of soil are:

Boulders	>	12"
Cobbles	>	3" < 12"
Gravel	>	#4 sieve < 3"
Sand	>	#200 sieve < #4 sieve
Silt	$\phi_{ij}^{(r)}$	#200 sieve (0.074 mm)
Clay	<	0.005 to 0.002 mm

There are other classifications systems, such as the AASHTO system, but the USCS classification system is most often referred to in the foundation investigation reports you will read.

Soil is further classified as being cohesive, non-cohesive, or somewhere in between.

Cohesive soil derives its strength from the cohesive bond between particles, as represented by fine-grained silts and clays.

Non-cohesive, or granular, soil derives its strength from inter-particle friction between grains. Sand and gravel are examples of non-cohesive soil. Non-cohesive soil is the type usually assumed for analysis of lateral pressures against a retaining wall.

Expansive soil consists of clay that changes in volume with changes in water content. Such swelling can cause considerable pressure on retaining structures, for this reason clay backfill should be avoided, and if the site contains expansive soil, the engineer will recommend measures to minimize its effect, mainly by removal and replacement with suitable material. It is important that water not be allowed to penetrate expansive soil – if it is kept dry it won't swell.

The depth of penetration is a term used in colder climates in the northern US, whereby upper portions of the ground may freeze seasonally or permanently, with depths ranging from a few inches to 8 feet or more. To prevent the added pressure of swelling because of freezing and thawing, foundations should be placed below the frost line. The engineer and applicable building codes will address this local concern. In areas where the ground is permanently frozen to a great depth, such as Alaska, local expertise and experience will apply.

The strength of the soil is usually thought of as its bearing capacity, that is, compression capacity. However, the bearing capacity of the soil is actually a function of shearing stresses between the particles. The shearing strength of the soil is the controlling factor for determining its bearing capacity. The shear between particles can be either frictional resistance (sliding friction between particles) or in the case of clayey soil, its cohesion. Sandy soil requires confinements to develop shear strength, as for example a lack of confinement is illustrated when you step on sand at the beach you notice that the sand displaces sideways under your feet.

When soil samples (cores retrieved from drilling) are taken to the laboratory for testing, the engineer will determine the bearing capacity of the particular soil by determining its frictional resistance. He will also test to determine density (weight) of the soil, coefficient of friction, soil modulus, and other properties applicable to the design of the structure.

The coefficient of friction within a soil mass cannot be measured as easily as, say between two solid surfaces. A soil sample is confined in two opposing boxes, separated by a virtual slip plane. While a principal force P is applied perpendicular to the plane, a shear force, F, is applied laterally. The point of slip is noted, and successive tests are recorded for increasing normal stresses. This data is used to determine the coefficient of friction, which is F/P. The corresponding angle, called the *angle of internal friction*, Φ , is therefore the $\tan^{-1}(F/P)$.

This is an oversimplified explanation. Any soil mechanics text will cover this topic thoroughly.

The basic formula for shear resistance developed along a plane of rupture is:

$$s = c + p \tan \Phi$$

s = total shear resistance (stress); p = normal stress; c = resistance due to cohesion usually expressed in psf; and Φ = angle of internal friction.

The Soil Wedge Theory for Retaining Walls

How much pressure does the retained earth impose on a retaining wall?

One of the early investigations of this problem was reported in a 1729 publication by French engineer Bernard Belidor. He started with a simple premise: If a wall retaining soil was suddenly removed, the soil behind it would slide down, slipping along a plane he assumed was 45°. He reasoned, and solved by simple statics, that if the plane was without friction, the horizontal force against the wall would be equal to the weight of the "wedge" of soil. He then assumed a 0.5 friction factor along the slope plane, which then halved the lateral force; the lateral pressure was about one-half the weight of the soil wedge.

French engineer Charles Coulomb further developing this theory in the 1770's, (also famous for his work with electricity—Coulomb's Law—and other scientific achievements). He solved the problem of differing lateral pressures for varying assumed slip planes, by use of differential calculus to identify the range of rupture planes to determine the minimum horizontal thrust. His solution is the well-known Coulomb formula used today (see page 26). This formula also accounted for varying backfill slopes, batter of the wall, and friction between the soil wedge and the face of the retaining wall.

To keep this soil wedge in place, the three forces shown in the free-body diagram in **Figure 4-1** must be in equilibrium. The three forces are the weight of the wedge, which is its area times the soil density, and which acts vertically downward; the reaction against the wall surface, which is assumed to have a direction inclined at the wall friction angle; and the reaction against the soil behind the wedge. The latter force, or reaction, has two components, one normal to its plane, and one parallel to the plane, which is the coefficient of internal friction times the normal force.

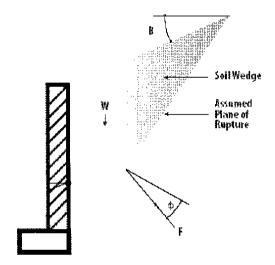


Figure 4-1. Free-Body of Soil Wedge

Later, Scottish engineer William Rankine simplified the Coulomb formula. In the 1850s he presented the equally well known Rankine Formula that neglects wall friction and is more conservative than the Coulomb method (see page 26). His formula takes into account the effect of a backfill slope, but assumes the back face of the stem is vertical, and that there is zero friction at the soil-stem interface, and the resultant acts against the wall parallel to the backfill slope.

Explanation of Design Terms:

Some commonly used terms, particularly as they apply to retaining walls, are defined in the following:

The rupture (or failure) plane

This is the line along which the soil wedge is assumed to slip. It is actually concave, but a straight line is assumed for mathematical simplicity.

The angle this plane makes with the horizontal is theoretically: $\alpha = 45^{\circ} + \frac{1}{9}$. For cohesion less soil this is roughly equivalent to a slope of one horizontal to two vertical (1:2).

Angle of internal friction: This is the most important value for determining lateral pressure and bearing capacity of granular (non-cohesive) soil. It is a measure of the shearing resistance of the soil because of intergranular friction, obtained from one of several laboratory tests, such as the Direct Shear Test. Angles of internal friction range from 32-35° for well graded sand, 27-32° for silty sand, less for sandy silt, and further diminishes for clay because of the lack of coarse particles. The angle of internal friction (usually designated Φ) is used in both the Rankine and Coulomb formulas to determine lateral earth pressure.

Active soil pressure

This is the unit pressure, expressed in pounds per square foot per foot of depth (pcf), imposed upon the wall by the wedge of soil behind the wall. It is mobilized at the moment the wall begins to tilt (or slide) and the wedge begins to slide down along its angle of rupture. It is assumed to obey Pascal's law, that is, to increase linearly with depth, forming a triangular pressure gradient behind the wall. Its value increases with increasing backfill slope, because the volume of the wedge of soil increases (see **Figure 4-2**). This pressure is the coefficient of active pressure (K_a) multiplied by the soil density. K_a for a level backfill is generally close to 0.30. The engineer generally gives this value. Multiplying a soil density of 110 pcf by a K_a value of 0.27 would, for example, result in the oft-used lateral pressure of 30 pcf. Also see ASCE 7-05, Table 5-1, for Design Lateral Soil Loads, which specifies a minimum of 35 pcf for sandy soil and up to 80 pcf for clayey soil.

The active pressure is usually given to you by the engineer as an **equivalent fluid pressure** (EFP), or can be computed from the Rankine or Coulomb formulas if the soil angle of internal friction and, if applicable, the wall friction angle, are given. It is assumed to be a triangular distribution with zero at the ground surface and a maximum pressure at the bottom of the stem (for stem design) or bottom of footing (for overturning design). The pressure diagram will be trapezoidal if a surcharge is applied.

To use the Rankine Formula, you need to know the angle of internal friction, and the slope of the backfill. This will give you the coefficient of active pressure, K_a , which when multiplied by the soil density gives the active pressure in pounds per square foot per foot of depth (pcf).

As discussed later, a surcharge load over the backfill is considered an additional depth of soil, thereby resulting in a trapezoidal lateral pressure.

The line of action of the resultant for the Rankine formula is assumed to act at an inclination of β , the angle of the backfill slope. (Note that for the Coulomb method, which is not generally recommended to be used for cantilevered walls, the resultant acts at an angle, from the horizontal, of the friction angle at the soil-wall interface, δ , usually assumed to be $1/2\Phi$ to $2/3\Phi$, plus an angle equal to the batter angle of the back face of the stem, measured from the vertical.

Figure 4-2 shows backfill volume and surcharge volume and not active pressure.

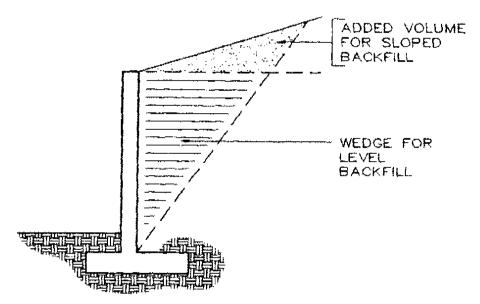


Figure 4-2. Increased Wedge Volume with Sloped Backfill

With a sloped backfill the active pressure on the heel side will increase because of the added height of the soil wedge. The backfill slope angle, β , is in the Rankine formula to reflect this increase. This effect is illustrated in **Figure 4-2**.

Commonly used design values (Rankine) for sloping backfills, assuming a soil wet density of 110 pcf, an angle of internal friction of 34° and "rounding", are:

Level:	31 pcf
5:1 Slope:	33 pcf
4:1 Slope:	34 pcf
3:1 Slope:	36 pcf
2:1 Slope:	45 pcf
1½: 1 Slope:	77 pcf

The slope angle cannot exceed the angle of internal friction.

These values are guides only and determination should be made by a engineer, particularly for slopes steeper than 2:1.

Passive soil pressure: This is the resistance of soil to being pushed against by a rigid surface. It is obtained by multiplying the soil density by the coefficient of passive pressure, K_p . Passive pressures are usually in the range from 250 - 350 pcf. The engineer generally gives this value. The Rankine formula for K_p is the reciprocal of K_a ($K_p = 1/K_a$). Passive pressure provides resistance to sliding by opposing the active earth pressure, or other applied external forces directed into the retained earth by surcharge loads on the backfill.

Passive pressure applied to retaining walls does not cause overturning; it is the resistance to the net driving lateral forces, expressed by:

(Heel active force) – (toe active force) – (soil/earth friction resistance) = (passive resistance required)

Passive pressure is discussed further in Soil Bearing and Stability.

"At rest" soil pressure: This lateral pressure, designated K_0 , applies to non-yielding walls which are laterally supported and restrained from movement at the top and bottom, such as so-called "basement walls". This will be discussed further in the section *Restrained (non-yielding) Walls*. The at-rest condition also occurs when the backfill is highly compacted.

Angle of repose: This is the angle, measured from the horizontal, that a pile of dry, granular, soil will form when loosely poured on a flat surface; for sand, it is about 34°.

Soil density: Weight of soil is usually assumed to be 110 to 120 pcf, depending upon gradation, water content and degree of compaction. Saturated soil has a higher density, because of the added weight of water filling the voids between particles. Soil below the water table is described as being submerged and the weight is the estimated weight minus the unit weight of water.

Backfill slope: The slope of the backfill behind the wall cannot exceed the angle of internal friction for cohesionless soil. A general rule is to limit this slope to 1.5:1 (which corresponds to an angle of internal friction of 34°).

Equivalent fluid pressure (EFP): The equivalent "hydrostatic" soil lateral pressure (i.e., obeying Pascal's Law), EFP values are the product of $K_a * \gamma$ or $K_p * \gamma$.

Coefficient of friction: This is the frictional resistance at the contact surface between the bottom of footing and the soil. It is a function of the roughness of the bottom of the footing, but it cannot excel Φ . Its value is usually between 0.25 and 0.40, with the latter commonly used. It is used to compute resistance to sliding by multiplying the total vertical force by the coefficient of friction. This, together with passive pressure resistance at the toe (toe & key), prevents the wall from sliding. Note that for cohesive soil, such as clay, the resisting force is the adhesion between the footing and soil, rather than the frictional resistance. This **cohesive** force is given in pounds per square foot of contact area, and is generally around 100 psf. Do not use the full value of cohesion for adhesion on other than very soft to soft clay, or else adhesion approximately equals cohesion times a reduction factor.

Soil modulus. Also known as the *coefficient of sub grade reaction*, designated "k", it is an indicator of the compressibility of a soil. It is often used to estimate the tilt of a cantilevered retaining wall. Its units are lbs. per cubic inch (lbs/in³) and its value varies depending upon the size of the footing. Load tests to determine its value are done on a one-foot square loaded plate, and the value thus obtained must be adjusted for the width of the footing in accordance with the following often used formula:

$$k = k_1 \left(\frac{B+1}{2B}\right)^2$$
 k_1 = value obtained by plate test; B = footing width.

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

The value k can vary from a low of less than 100 lbs/in³ for loose sand to over 1000 lbs/in³ for clay. Its value is should be provided by the engineer.

The Pickle Jar Test

I've done this and it's an interesting and informative way to learn about soil. Also, use it to give an approximate classification of your site soil. You need a tall slender pickle jar with clear glass and a capacity of at least two cups (16 oz.), but a similar jar will do. Scoop up a sample of soil to fill the jar about half full, preferably mostly sand with some silt and a little clay, but any soil will do. Pour water into the jar until the water reaches the soil surface. Now you have saturated soil, no change in volume, and you can visualize the voids. You were probably able to add a volume of water equal to about ¼ of the volume of sample soil. You will likely notice a slight slump of the soil because of consolidation.

Now pour in more water, screw the lid on tight, and shake vigorously for 30 seconds to mix the soil and water. Let the jar stand for 30 minutes. Watch how the soil settles and stratifies. You'll notice fairly clear lines of stratification: gravel to sand on the bottom, overlain with silt and probably a thin layer of clay on top, and maybe some floating organic debris. You can now classify your soil sample fairly well by comparing it with the Uniform System for Classification of Soil (see Appendix A).

Now remove the lid and push a table knife to the bottom. Wiggle it side-to-side and watch the pressure bulge. Then slowly withdraw it and notice the friction resistance. Fold a paper towel over the top and turn the jar upside down to drain the water. Watch the soil cling to the sides (adhesion). Let it dry for a few days (don't use the microwave!) then shake it up and pour it out. The slope of the soil is the angle of repose.

Play some more, it's a learning experience!

The Investigation

Most agencies require a soil report prepared by a geotechnical engineer to establish permissible soil design parameters and identify other geotechnical concerns for your project.

Here is a list of information that may be included in a report:

- Soil classification
- Allowable soil bearing value
- Adjustments in soil bearing for width and depth of footings.
- Passive soil pressure
- Active soil pressure for various backfill slopes.
- Coefficient of friction (concrete to soil).
- At-rest active pressure for restrained (non-yielding) walls.
- Presence of ground water
- Liquefaction potential.
- Slope stability analysis
- Seismicity (peak ground acceleration, proximity to faults, etc.)
- Presence of fill and site preparation requirements.
- Any other precautions the designer should be aware of.

Engineering is a specialty authority beyond the civil license and subject to state licensing laws similar to other professional disciplines.

Soil Bearing Values

Generally, allowable soil bearing pressures range from 1,000 psf to 4,000 psf. Additional increases are permitted for increased width and/or depth of a footing beyond the minimum values specified by the engineer. When applicable, these values can be increased by one-third when wind or seismic forces are present.

Although we leave the computation of allowable bearing value to the engineer, for those interested in the process, you can refer to Bowles, *Foundation Analysis and Design*, 5th Edition, Chapter 4, and other texts.

Alternatively, subject to acceptance by the local building official, you could use the presumptive values presented in the IBC '09 Table 1806.2. This table lists allowable bearing values for soil classified by the Uniform System for Classification of Soil in Appendix A.

When is a Soil and Foundation Investigation Required?

The local building official may have the authority to waive an investigation report if the soil is reasonably well known or a report was prepared for a nearby site. However, the requirements for when a report is required are specified in IBC '09, Section 1803.

5. BUILDING CODES AND RETAINING WALLS

What Building Code(s) Apply To My Project?

Always check with the building official having jurisdiction to learn what code(s) they are using and if any local amendments apply to your project.

The following codes are most often adopted or cited.

International Building Code (IBC)

This is now the dominant code adopted by most jurisdictions, some with local modifications (California Building Code, for example). The IBC was a culmination of efforts to merge the "model codes" (Uniform Building Code, Southern Building Code, and Standard Building Code) into one national building code. The IBC is compiled and published by the International Code Council (ICC), County Club Hills, Illinois. The series of International Building Codes (e.g. plumbing, electrical, etc.) are collectively referred to as the "I-Codes". The IBC Website is www.iccsafe.org. The current edition is 2009.

IBC 2009 references or modifies other standard codes, principally ASCE 7-05 *Minimum Design Loads for Buildings and Other Structures*. Seismic design requirements for retaining walls per IBC are discussed in Chapter 7 of this book.

Uniform Building Code (UBC), '97

This now defunct code, the last in a series first published in 1927 by the International Conference of Building Officials, was the dominant code in the Western states until replaced by the International Building Code.

California Building Code (CBC) '07

This California code was first published in 2001 to replace the '97 Uniform Building Code. It is an adaptation of the IBC with minor modifications and is essentially the same as the IBC

There are not any specific seismic design requirements for retaining walls, with the exception of state-owned or leased public schools and essential service facilities, for which retaining walls over 12 feet require seismic design (see 1611A.6 of CBC'07). Also refer to Earthquake (Seismic) Design, Chapter 7.

NFPA 5000: Building Construction and Safety Code (National Fire Prevention Association)

NFPA 5000 has been promoted in some states. It addresses construction protection and occupancy features necessary to minimize danger to life and property. Their current edition is NFPA 5000: Building Construction and Safety Code, 2009 Edition. The NFPA web address is www.nfpa.org.

This code references ACI 318, ASCE 7, and ACI 530 for structural design issues.

Referenced Codes

IBC 2009, CBC '07, and other regional codes often refer to the following standards for structural issues:

- Minimum Design Loads for Buildings and Other Structures, ASCE 7-05

 Published by ASCE. Reston, VA. This often referenced code covers loads and seismic design.
- Building Code Requirements for Reinforced Concrete (ACI 318-08), American Concrete Institute (ACI), Detroit, MI. The standard for concrete design.
- Building Code Requirements for Masonry Structures (ACI 530.1-08)

 Also known as MSJC, this masonry code is published jointly by ACI, SEI, and The Masonry Society.
- National Earthquake Hazard Reduction Program (NEHRP), 2003, developed by the Building Seismic Safety Council for FEMA (Federal Emergency Management Agency). This is not a code, per se, but referenced by IBC and NFPA as guidelines for seismic design. The 2003 Edition NEHRP Recommended Provisions for Seismic Regulations for new Buildings and Other Structures, contains often referenced information on seismic design of retaining walls, particularly information in the Commentary. This is discussed in Chapter 7 of this book.
- Annual Book of ASTM Standards. This is the standard of reference on materials and processes cited in all codes and specifications. It's 70+ volumes covers over 11,000 specifications. Published by ASTM International, West Conshocken, PA. www.astm.org.

Depending upon the jurisdiction, the following may also apply:

- AASHTO LRFD Bridge and Highway Design Specifications, 4th. Edition, 2007, American Association of State Highway and Transportation Officials (AASHTO), Washington, D.C. www.aashto.org.
- Naval Facilities Engineering Command (NAVFAC). Foundations and Earth Structures, NAVFAC Design Manual 7.02. That design manual contains information on many aspects of retaining structures. Refer to www.navfacnavy.mil for more information.
- U.S. Army Corps of Engineers Design Manuals. Comprehensive design procedures, standards, and sample calculations: The web address is: www.usacc.army.mil.

Determination of Loads and Forces

The design of retaining walls may include any or all of the following (each will be discussed later):

- Lateral earth pressure
- Surcharge loads
- Axial loads
- Adjacent footing loads
- Wind on projecting stem
- Impact forces
- *Seismic earth pressure
- *Seismic wall self-weight forces
 - *Discussed in Chapter 7

Lateral Earth Pressures

The purpose of a retaining wall is to retain soil; hence the lateral pressure of the soil against the wall is a primary design concern. Most lateral pressure theories are based upon the sliding soil wedge theory. This, in simple terms, assumes that if the wall was suddenly removed, a triangular wedge of soil would slide down along a rupture plane, and it is this wedge of soil that the wall must retain.

The soil wedge theory

The development of the soil wedge theory for cantilevered retaining walls was discussed in Section 4. There are the two basic equations for computing lateral earth pressures: The Coulomb formula and the Rankine formula.

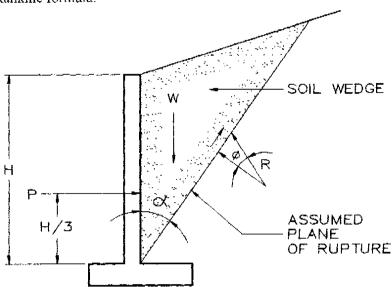


Figure 6-1. Free-Body of Lateral Forces

The Coulomb Formula

The Coulomb Formula, where K_a is the coefficient of active pressure, and which takes into account backfill slope, friction angle at wall face, angle of rupture plane, and angle of internal friction, is:

$$K_{a} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \phi)}{\sin^{2}\alpha \sin(\alpha - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha + \beta)}}\right]^{2}}$$

$$K_{a}(horiz.) - \cos\delta K_{a}$$

 β = Angle of backfill slope

 ϕ = Angle of internal friction of the soil

 α = Wall slope angle from horizontal (90° for vertical face)

 δ = Angle of friction between soil and wall

(usually assumed to be $2/3\phi$ to $1/2/\phi$)

Figure 6-2. The Coulomb Formula

If backfill is level, the soil-side wall face is vertical, and if zero friction is assumed between the soil and wall, then the Coulomb formula reduces to the familiar Rankine formula:

$$K_a = (1 - \sin \Phi) / (1 + \sin \Phi)$$

The Rankine Formula

In the 1850s, Scottish engineer William Rankine further developed the Coulomb approach (along with many other scientific accomplishments) and introduced what is probably the most commonly used formula for lateral soil pressure. The Rankine equation is a simplified version of the Coulomb formula and does not take into account wall batter or friction at the wall-soil interface. As such, it is a conservative approach to the design of retaining walls. An example of its use will be described later for both the Coulomb and Rankine formulas. The lateral pressure factor Ka will be the same for the case of a level backfill and zero wall friction.

The Rankine Formula for active pressure:

$$K_a = \cos\beta \ \frac{\cos\beta - \sqrt{\cos^2 \beta + \cos^2 \phi}}{\cos\beta + \sqrt{\cos^2 \beta - \cos^2 \phi}}$$

$$K_a = (horiz.) = cos \beta K_a$$

 β = Angle of backfill slope

 ϕ = Angle of internal friction

If the backfill is level the Rankine equation can be written as: $K_a = \tan^2\left(45 - \frac{\phi}{2}\right)$ or $= \frac{1 - \sin\phi}{1 + \sin\phi}$

Example: Assume:
$$\phi = 34^{\circ}$$
, $\beta = 26.6^{\circ}$ (2:1 slope)

Then
$$K_a = \frac{\cos 26.6 - \sqrt{\cos^2 26.6 - \cos^2 34}}{\cos 26.6 + \sqrt{\cos^2 26.6 - \cos^2 34}}\cos 26.6$$

$$0.41 \text{ K}_a \text{ horiz.} = .41 \text{ x } \cos 26.6 = 0.37$$

and corresponding horizontal equivalent fluid weight of the soil = $0.37 \times \text{say } 110 \text{ pcf} = 40 \text{ pcf}$ for a horizontal backfill

Figure 6-3. The Rankine Formula

Note that in the Rankine analysis the active pressure force is assumed to be applied at one-third the retained soil height and inclined at the angle of, and parallel to, the backfill slope.

IBC '09 and ASCE 7-05 have identical tables of minimum lateral pressures, condensed below:

Backfill Material	USCS Classification	Lateral Pressures (pound per square foot per foot of depth)	
		Active pressure	At-rest pressure
Well-graded, clean gravels; gravel-sand mixes	GW	30	60
Poorly graded clean gravels; gravel-sand mixes	GP	30	60
Silty gravels, poorly graded gravel-sand mixes	GM	40	60
Clayey gravels, poorly graded gravel-and-clay mixes	GC	45	60
Well-graded, clean sands; gravelly sand mixes	SW	30	60
Poorly graded clean sands; sand-gravel mixes	SP	30	60
Silty sands, poorly graded sand-silt mixes	SM	45	60
Sand-silt clay mix with plastic fines	SM-SC	45	100
Clayey sands, poorly graded sand-clay mixes	sc	60	100
Inorganic silts and clayey silts	ML	45	100
Mixture of inorganic silt and clay	ML-CL	60	100
Inorganic clays of low to medium plasticity	CL	60	100

Figure 6-4 – Lateral Soil Pressures (Condensed from IBC '06 and ASCE 7-05) Surcharge Loads

A surcharge is any additional vertical load applied to the soil above the top of the wall. It can be live load from a parking lot or highway, paving or an adjacent footing. See **Figure 6-5** (Active Pressure from a Uniform Surcharge Load against Wall) to illustrate this effect.

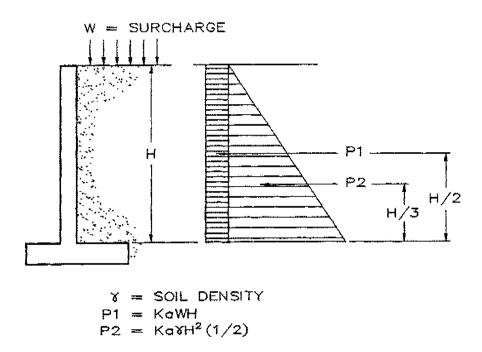


Figure 6-5. Active Pressure from a Uniform Surcharge Load against Wall

Highway surcharges

The usual added surcharge when highway traffic is close to a retaining wall is to add two feet of earth. This is equivalent to a uniform surcharge of 240 psf (assuming a soil density of 120 pcf). A 250 psf surcharge is commonly used for highway loading. The lateral pressure will have minimal effect if the load is located more than the retained height away from the wall.

If H-20 truck loading could occur close to the wall (closest wheel within about one-half the height distant from wall) then a Boussinesq analysis can be done.

Backfill compaction surcharge

Backfill is often placed by a front end loader dumping sand or gravel behind the wall. The backfill should be placed in layers of about one foot, compacted by repeated by back-and-forth runs of the compactor or loader, coming within inches of the wall. Compaction testing may be required. A typical loader will weigh about 30,000 lbs, and have a footprint under each track of about 30 square feet if the loader is track-mounted. This results in short-time construction loads of about 1000 psf, far in excess of most surcharge design loads. Grading contractors are aware of this and often report tilting of the wall during these operations, and sometimes assign a worker to monitor plumb of the wall during these operations. Backfill compaction can produce a K_{ϕ} condition, especially if the wall is restrained. It is the contractor's responsibility to place backfill so as to not damage or overstress a wall.

Adjacent footing surcharges

If there is an adjacent footing that overlays the area of the soil wedge this surcharge will exert lateral pressure against the wall, and must be considered.

A rule-of-thumb is that an adjacent footing will have little effect on lateral pressure against the stem if it is further than the height (base of stem to base of applied adjacent load) away from the wall face—at a slope ratio of 1:1.

Adjacent footing loads are classified as either "line" or "strip" loads" which are uniform loads parallel to the wall, or "point loads", such as square or rectangular footings.

The Boussinesq equation, though computationally very laborious is often used to calculate the influence of adjacent loads on a wall is shown in **Figure 6-6.** Based upon the theory of elasticity, it results in a curved pressure diagram as illustrated in **Figure 6-7**.

The Boussinesq equation follows:

$$\sigma_{r} = \frac{P}{2\pi} \left(\frac{3r^{2}z}{R^{5}} - \frac{1-2\mu}{R(R+z)} \right)$$

Where terms are defined below and in Figure 6-5 for a point load:

 $\sigma_{\rm r}$ = Lateral Pressure, psf

P = Point load, lbs.

r = Horizontal distance from point of application on wall to plumb under P

z – Depth, ft.

R = Diagonal distance from P to point of application

$$=\sqrt{r^2+z^2}$$

 μ = Poisson's ratio

NOTE: If a "line load", multiply the computed lateral pressure from the above equation by $2\pi = 6.28$ (derived from the Boussinesq equation).

The resultant force acts about 0.60h above the bottom. Also, note that the Boussinesq formula is sensitive to the assumed Poisson's ratio (μ) for the soil. This value for sand and sandy-clay

ranges from about 0.2 to 0.5. The Bowles text is an excellent reference on the use of the Boussinesq equations,

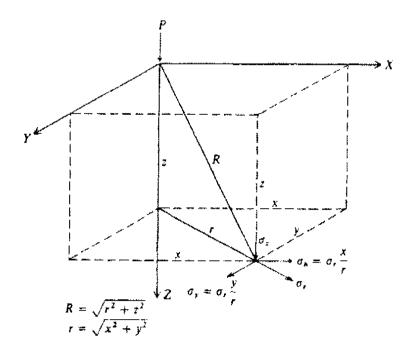


Figure 6-6. Boussinesq Equation

Figure 6-6: (Boussinesq Equation Pressure Diagram) shows a plot of the resulting pressure curve.

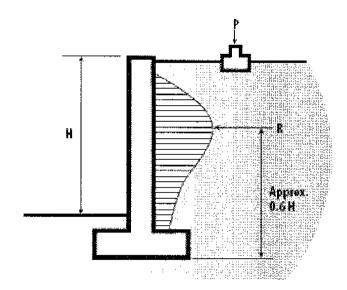


Figure 6-7. Boussinesq Equation Pressure Diagram

This is a very time consuming computation because it requires a calculation for each increment of wall beight. The computations are further compounded if it is other than a point load, because it

then requires a separate computation for each square foot under the footing, or in the case of a line load or strip load (the latter is a line load but several increments wider, such as a wide footing parallel to the wall), numerous computations must be made for the cumulative pressure affects against a vertical unit length of wall.

Terzaghi and Peck propose a simple method for computing the lateral load and point of application from a line load (e.g. continuous footing) behind the wall.

The line load P, acting at a distance x from the wall, exerts a resulting force R acting against the wall at a distance y below load P, where y = x (tan 40°).

 $R = C_1 P$, where C_1 is a lateral pressure coefficient depending upon the type of soil (paraphrased from Terzaghi, page 364): 0.26 for clean sand and gravel; 0.30 for coarse grained soil with some silt; 0.39 for fine silty sand and some clay; 1.00 clay and silty clay. For simplicity, the above **Figure 6-7** uses $C_1 = 0.30$.

However, neither of these computations provides the distribution of lateral wall pressure against the wall. A simplified solution may be to assume a uniform load against the wall equal to the adjacent footing load divided by the height from footing to bottom of adjacent footing. This would yield overly conservative moments and shears near the top of the wall, and unconservative shear and moment at the base.

Some engineers merely assume the bearing pressure under the adjacent footing projects downward at a 1.5:1 slope (Terzaghi proposed an equilateral triangle), and computes the adjusted surcharge at the level where the projection intersects the wall. See **Figure 6-8**. This may be an underestimation because it does not give the pressure bulge near the top as shown by the Boussinesq equation.

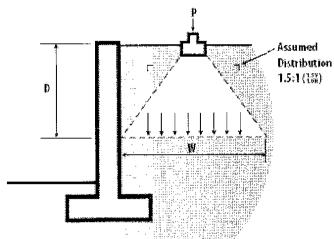


Figure 6-8. Simplified Lateral Pressure from Line Load

This treatment of adjacent footing loads is brief; a more in-depth treatment is not within the scope of this book. For further reading consult the texts in the bibliography, **Appendix F**. NAVFAC and AASHTO also have frequently referenced charts for determining lateral pressures from line and point loads.

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Wind Load on Projecting Stems

When an exposed wall extends above grade, it is subject to wind pressure which creates an additional overturning force. The customary formula for wind pressure is $F = .0026 \text{ v}^2$, where F is in psf and v is wind velocity in mph.

Using IBC 2006, reference is made to ASCE 7-05 for wind design (with some exceptions generally not applicable to "fences" – see IBC Section 1609). Equation 6-25 of ASCE 7-05 gives the following simplified formula:

 $F = q_z G C_f$, where F is design wind pressure in psf, G is gust factor which can be taken as 0.85, C_f can generally be taken as 1.2, and q_z is the velocity pressure at mid-height and can be computed by Equation 6-15:

 $q_z = 0.00256 \ K_z \ K_{zt} \ K_d \ V^2 \ I$, which terms can be determined from Section 6.5.10. V is wind velocity in mph.

For example, considering Exposure "C", 80 mph wind, and ignoring the Importance Factor "I", this results in "F" = about 12 psf.

If wind overturning and stem moments are significant stress components, the IBC code permits a one-third stress increase for short-term loading if ASD combinations of 1605.3.2 are used. Except for freestanding walls the one-third increase is generally not applicable. For Strength Design the IBC load factor for wind is 1.6 when using strength design method.

Other codes and conditions may apply when wind is a consideration.

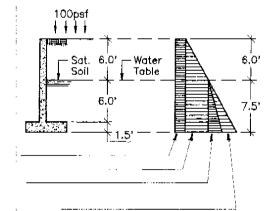
Water Table Conditions

If a portion of the retained height is below a water table, the active pressure of the saturated soil will increase below that level. This additional pressure for the saturated soil is equal to the pressure of water, plus the submerged weight of the soil (its saturated weight - 62.4), plus the surcharge of the soil above the water table. The submerged weight of a soil can be approximated as 5/8 x its dry unit weight. This pressure diagram is shown in **Figure 6-9**. Water Table Force Calculations.

Assume:
$$K_a = 0.27$$

 $\gamma - 110$ pcf
Surcharge - 100 psf
Water = 62.4 pcf

Forces:



Summary for overturning:

<u> </u>			$\frac{\overline{x}}{x}$	<u>M</u>
27 x 13.5		365#	6.75'	$2,\!464$
$178.2 \times 6/2$	=	$535^{''}$	9.5'	5,079'#
178.2×7.5	=	1337"	3.75'	5,012*
96.4 x 7.5/2		362 [#]	2.5'	904"
468 x 7.5/2	=	_1755 [#] _	_ 2.5'	$4,388^{\#}$
		4354 [#]	_	_17,847#

Ht. to point of application = $17,847 / 4,354 = 4.10^{\circ}$

Figure 6-9. Water Table Force Calculations

Detention ponds / flood walls

When retaining liquids the procedure is similar to an earth retaining wall except that the equivalent fluid pressure is 62.4 pct (or that of the liquid). If the liquid can seep under the footing, then the pressure above and below the heel equalize and only the buoyant-adjusted dead weight of the heel can be used to resist overturning.

Hydrostatic pressures

If the water table is above the foundation the soil density below must be adjusted for buoyancy (saturated weight minus water weight). Weight of saturated soil is about 10% - 13% grater than dry weight. The footing weight should be reduced (concrete weight less water weight) to account for its buoyancy.

Cascading walls

Occasionally walls will be stacked one behind another, piggyback style, or cascading, as sketched in **Figure 6-10.**

This requires very careful design for the lower walls, because not only is there a surcharge from the wall above, but a horizontal thrust as well. Two possible solutions are suggested:

Alternate #1 shown on **Figure 6-10**, would be to sketch a fail-safe slope that would model the event if both walls were considered one mass exerting pressure on the lower wall.

Another possible solution, Alternate #2, suggested by a engineer, is to apply the vertical load P_{ν} of the lower wall as a line-load surcharge force P_{ν} located "x" from the wall, use the Boussinesq equation to obtain a cut force on the wall, then apply its horizontal thrust P_n as an assumed uniform load against the stem of the lower wall.

Cascading wall conditions come up frequently and a good reference for design is not known to the author (it would make a good PhD thesis!).

For this condition, be careful, consider the horizontal thrust of the upper walls, and be conservative! advice is recommended and the nature of the underlying soil may require a global stability analysis (most consultants have software to perform this).

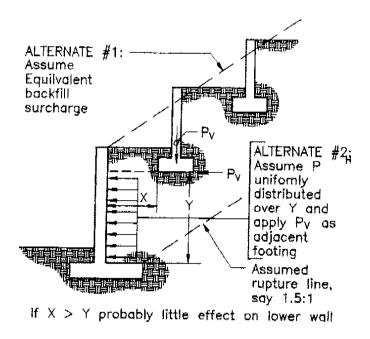


Figure 6-10. Cascading Walls

Vertical Loads

Vertical loads provide stability by resisting overturning.

Vertical loads include:

Axial loads on the stem

These loads are applied directly to the stem, such as from a beam reaction, ledger, or bridge member. Any vertical load imposed upon the stem of a cantilever design retaining wall must not provide lateral support, otherwise the wall does not perform as a cantilevered retaining wall. If one side of a building, for example, rests on top of a wall—it could be reactions from a floor or roof—the abutting diaphragm should not restrain rotation of the wall. If restraint does occur, the wall should be designed as a "basement wall," whereby the restraint at the top results in a positive bending moment in the stem. Sometimes a wall is designed for both conditions, such as when it is designed as a retaining wall so that backfill can be safely placed before the restraint is provided, then designed as a basement wall for the condition after the restraint is in place.

Axial live loads on the stem will increase soil bearing pressure and resisting moments, therefore need to assessed separately from axial dead load for most critical condition.

Vertical point loads on walls, such as from girder reactions, are assumed to spread downward at a slope of two vertical one horizontal. This spreading of the load results in relatively low compressive stresses at the base of the stem. For example, a 24 kip load atop a 12" concrete wall on a two-foot wide bearing, and assuming 14 ft high, would result in an axial stress (in addition to wall weight) of just 125 psi. Bearing stresses directly under a beam or girder reaction must be checked.

Also, consider the eccentricity with respect to the stem centerline because it will affect both stem design and stability. But remember that live load acting at a negative eccentricity (toward the backfill) could produce unconservative results.

Axial loads are usually from a connecting floor or roof, and rarely would exceed about 2,000 lbs/ft, and typically much less. This results in relatively low axial stress in the stem. For example, for a 12" masonry wall this added compressive stress for 2,000 lbs/ft would be [2000 / (11.5 x 12)] = 14.5 psi. Caution should be used if for some reason a very high axial load was applied because it could change the bending characteristic of the footing. For example a very high heel soil pressure because of a high axial load could reverse the bending from negative to positive, simulating a spread footing design.

Weight of soil

This includes the soil over both the heel and toe. This is assumed to be a straight-up-and-down column of earth (although in actuality this is probably an unlikely assumption).

Weight of structure

This includes the weight of the stem and footing.

Stem and footing weight

These loads add to soil bearing pressure and contribute to overturning and sliding stability.

Vertical component of active pressure

The vertical component of active pressure force is another vertical load. If the backfill is sloped as illustrated in Figure 6-1, then the line of action of the resultant earth pressure, P_v, is inclined from the horizontal. When using the Rankine formula, this inclination is assumed to be the same angle (parallel to) the backfill slope. In the Coulomb method, P is inclined at the wall friction angle at the soil-stem interface. These inclined forces resolve into a horizontal and vertical component. The latter is assumed to act at the plane of the back of the wall footing heel for a cantilever wall. This vertical component could be used for added resistance to sliding, reduced soil pressure, and increase the overturning resistance. Most textbooks advise that it be used only for overturning resistance; it is conservative to ignore the stabilitizing influence of this force.

Impact Loading

If the wall extends above grade and a parking area is adjacent, you may want to design for impact from a car bumper. ASCE 7-05 specifies 6,000 lbs. applied at a height of 18" above grade. Guard rails require 50 plf applied to the top, or a single concentrated lateral load of 200 lbs. A short-term stress increase of 1.33, or more for impact, would seem appropriate for these conditions.

When considering the effect of impact, the stem should be checked at incremental descending points as the impact force spreads over a greater stem length. Assume the impact load spreads out at one horizontal to two vertical. This is equivalent to spreading its effect over a length of wall equal to the distance from point of application down to the plane being checked.

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

Seismic Design Overview

Texts that address seismic design of retaining walls (e.g. Bowles, Kramer) acknowledge that seismic design of retaining walls is a highly complex issue, compounded by the assumptions that must be made to allow an indeterminable problem to become solvable using concepts of statistics and differential calculus. The determination of both static and seismic (dynamic) pressure on retaining walls is still an emerging science. The selection of an "effective" site acceration for use is somewhat arbitrary, though becoming codified. reports usually give only the peak ground acceleration applicable to the location and leave the application of this information to the designer.

Some argue the necessity of seismic design of retaining walls, considering compensating safety factors (e.g. 1.5 or higher for overturning) and lack of seismic damage incidents to retaining walls (waterfront structures subject to liquefaction excepted). It is also argued that because retaining walls are often at a distance from structures that would be affected by such failures and thus are not a life-safety issue. However, these arguments appear most considering the mandatory language of IBC and ASCE 7.

The seismic requirements of IBC 2006, and IBC 2009, Section 1613.1, refers to ASCE 7–05 which in Section 9.14.7.2.1 reads as follows:

"... This section applies to all earth retaining walls. The applied seismic forces shall be determined in accordance with Section 9.7.5.1 / This section states that "... the owner shall submit to the authority having jurisdiction a written report that includes an evaluation of the items in Section 9.7.4.1 and the lateral pressures on basement and retaining walls due to earthquake motions". Section 9.7.4. identifies items to be included in the report to be submitted ", when required by the authority having jurisdiction"]

This clearly requires a seismic analysis of "earth retaining structures", based upon the recommendations of the report, but implies some discretionary latitude by the "authority having jurisdiction".

However, IBC '06, 1802.2.7 or IBC'09, 1803.5.12, requires "A determination of lateral pressures on basement and retaining walls due to earthquake motions", but exempts this requirement if a peak ground acceleration of $S_{\rm DS}$ / 2.5 is used for design. This is the $k_{\rm h}$ acceration used in the M-O equation (See following) and presented in NEHRP, Part 2, Commentary, 7.5.1.

The now defunct Uniform Building Code (UBC '97) and its successor California Building Code (CBC '07) do not appear to specifically require seismic design of "earth retaining structures" with the exception of state-owned or leased public schools and essential faculties, which require a seismic design if the retaining wall is more than 12 feet high.

Designer should check applicable local and State codes that may have specific seismic design requirements for retaining walls. They often vary with jurisdiction.

The Mononobe-Okabe equations

Of the many investigations of dynamic forces on retaining walls, one of the most important and influential is an ASCE paper titled *Design of Earth Retaining Structures for Dynamic Loads*, by Seed and Whitman, the results from which were presented at a 1970 Cornell University conference. In this paper they cite the pioneering studies by Mononobe (1929) and Okabe (1926), widely referenced today. Another contribution was a subsequent ASCE paper by Robert Whitman titled, *Seismic Design and Behavior of Gravity Retaining Walls*, 1990. They considered this lateral force to be an inverted triangular wedge of soil behind the wall. Seed-Whitman proposed a simplified formula, based upon the Mononobe-Okabe theory, for the combined static and seismic factor, which they termed K_{AE} , to be applied to this wedge acting against the wall. This was an adaptation of the Coulomb formula to calculate the <u>total</u> (seismic and static) pressure and introduced the variable θ , which is defined as the angle whose tangent is the ground acceleration ($\theta = \tan^{-1} k_b$).

This equation is presented in Figure 7-1.

 K_{AE} = active earth pressure coefficient, static + seismic

$$\frac{\sin^2 (\alpha + \theta - \phi')}{\cos \theta' \sin^2 \alpha \sin (\alpha + \theta' + \delta)} \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin (\phi + \delta) \sin (\phi - \theta' - \beta)}{\sin (\alpha + \delta + \theta') \sin (\alpha - \beta)}} \right]^2$$

Where $\theta = \tan^4 k_h$, $\alpha = \text{wall}$ slope to horiz. (90° for a vertical face), $\phi = \text{angle}$ of internal friction, $\beta = \text{backfill}$ slope, and $\delta - \text{wall}$ friction angle. The horizontal component is $K_{AF} \cos \delta$.

For a vertical wall face and δ assumed to be $\frac{\phi}{2}$, this becomes:

$$K_{AE} = \frac{\sin^2 (90 + \theta - \phi)}{\cos \theta \sin^2 (90 + \theta + \frac{\phi}{2}) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin 1.5 \phi \sin (\phi - \theta - \beta)}{\sin (90 + \frac{\phi}{2} + \theta) \sin (90 + \beta)}} \right]^2}$$

The total force (active and earthquake), $P_{AE} = \frac{1}{2} (\gamma) K_{AE} II^2$ where $\gamma = \text{soil density and } H = \text{retained height.}$

Figure 7-1. Mononohe-Okahe Equation

When the acceleration is zero, $k_h = 0$, K_{AE} becomes the familiar Coulomb K_A formula.

The passive earth pressure coefficient, K_{PE} is:

$$K_{PE} = \frac{\sin^{2} (\alpha - \theta + \phi')}{\cos \theta' \sin^{2} \alpha \sin (\alpha + \theta' + \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin (\phi + \delta) \sin (\phi - \theta' + \beta)}{\sin (\alpha + \delta + \theta') \sin (\alpha - \beta)}} \right]^{2}}$$

Note: The passive pressure coefficient decreases under seismic conditions.

 K_{AH} has two components (seismic and static). The seismic component (K_{AH} - K_A) is assumed to be an inverted, near-triangular, trapezoidal pressure diagram with the resultant force (maximum at the ground surface) acting at a height of 0.6 H. For stem design, H is the height from top of footing to retained height; for overturning and sliding, H is the height to the back face of the footing, along a virtual vertical plane extending from the bottom of the footing to its intersection with the backfill grade.

The K_A component is the familiar triangular distribution acting at H / 3.

The height to the combined resultant can be obtained by the formula:

$$\bar{y} = \frac{P_{\Lambda} (H/3) + (P_{AE} - P_{\Lambda}) 0.6H}{P_{AH}}$$

The direction of force application, per the Coulomb formula, is assumed to be inclined at an angle (from horizontal) equal to the friction angle at the back face of the wall, δ , which is often assumed to be $\frac{\delta}{2}$. Therefore, the horizontal components can be assumed to be

$$P_{AH \text{ horiz.}} = \cos\left(\frac{\phi}{2}\right) P_{AE}$$

A simple approach to the design for seismic is suggested by the overlapping force triangles, which tend to combine into a uniform load over the height of the wall, if the height of the resultant is at 0.5H.

Therefore, $w = \frac{K_{AE} \gamma H^2}{211} = 0.5 K_{AE} \gamma H$, where w is the equivalent uniform lateral static plus seismic force. This simplification, is particularly helpful for checking stem moments and shears at various heights when $\sqrt{y} = H/2$.

Seed and Whitman (1982) suggest an approximation of $K_{AE} = K_A + 0.75 k_h$. If, for example, k_h is 0.30 and $K_A = 0.27$, then K_{AE} approximate would be 0.495. This would suggest an 83% increase over static K_A . However, the stem moments and overturning are greatly increased because 0.75 k_h act at an assumed height of 0.60H. Some engineers use this method to give an added uniform seismic force over the full retained height with resultant acting at 0.6H. Such a requirement, therefore, might read "for seismic design add a uniform lateral force = 20 H² with the resultant applied at 0.6H". Note that the inverted "triangle" is actually trapezoidal because of 0.6H, however, calculation error resulting from assuming a triangular distribution is not significant.

Seed and Whitman's paper suggests that few building codes (at that time) required seismic provisions for retaining walls, and concluded that the factors of safety for static design, which are generally around 1.5, are adequate to protect the wall for short term seismic forces, because such forces would merely reduce the safety factor to an acceptable value greater than 1.0.

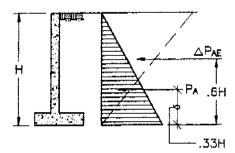


Figure 7-2. Application of Seed Whitman Method

An arguable issue is whether to include the inertial force of the wall combined with seismic earth pressure both NAVFAC and U.S. Army Corp of Engineers appears to require this concurrent force. It seems excessively conservative. If designing for these agencies check their requirements.

Seismic forces are factored forces, generally 1.0, and for ASD these forces can be reduced by 0.7 to convert for design for overturning, sliding and soil bearing. Additionally, the factor of safety may be 1.1 when seismic is included. See IBC 2009, 1807.2.3.

Determining k_h

 k_h is the horizontal ground acceleration used in the Mononobe-Okabe (M-O) equation to compute lateral seismic earth pressures against retaining walls. This is a design value and not necessarily the most severe acceleration that could occur at the site. Unless an arbitrarily reduced value of k_h is used, one-third to one-half the peak ground acceleration is often used (see Kramer and others).

The starting point is to determine the peak acceleration applicable to your design. Assuming your code is IBC 2009, or ASCE 7-05, which have identical charts, select from the contours the Maximum Considered Earthquake (MCE) ground motion for 0.2 second, spectral response acceleration at 5% of critical damping, with a 2% probability of exceedence in 50 years. Note that retaining walls are "short period", hence the 0.2 second selection.

There is an easier way. Go to http://carthquake.usgs.gov/research/hazmaps/design/index.php (Java required). This is a U.S. Geological Survey address. Just enter your zip code. (A latitude-longitude web.) For example, Newport Beach, California (high seismic area!), zip code 92660, gives 185.6 percent "g", or 1.856, and a peak ground acceleration (PGA) of 84.75%g.

Here is an example procedure for obtaining a design k_b using the USGS Hazard Maps:

From charts, $S_s = 1.856$

(All terms defined in referenced codes)

$$S_{MS} = F_a S_s$$

 $F_a = 1.0$ (This is a function of soil characteristics and value of S_a . See Table 1613.5.3 in IBC '06).

$$\therefore$$
 S_{MS} = 1.0 x 1.856 = 1.856

$$S_{OS} = 2/3 S_{MS} = 0.667 x 1.856 = 1.24$$

Per NEHRP, Part 2, Commentary, 7.5.1: See also IBC '09, 11.8.3

$$k_b = \frac{S_{SD}}{2.5} = 0.40 x 1.24 = 0.50$$

Simplified Seismic Force Application

The NEHRP 2003 Part 2 Commentary, 7.5.1, states Seed and Whitman's proposed simpler approximation:

$$\Delta K_{AE} \sim (3/4) k_h$$
 $\therefore \Delta P_{AE} \sim (1/2) \gamma H^2 (3/4) k_h \sim (3/8) k_h \gamma H^2$

 k_h is the peak ground acceleration modified per Provisions Sec. 7.5.1:

where
$$k_b = S_{DS} / 2.5$$

Base moments, using this simplification, are therefore:

$$M_{AHbase} = P_A (H/3) + (\Delta P_{AH}) (0.6 H)$$

= $\gamma H^3 (0.17 K_a + 0.225 k_b)$

An observation from this is that the base moments from static and dynamic (seismic) are equal when $k_b \sim 0.75~K_A$

Vertical Distribution of Seismic Force on Stem

Here is a simplified method for assuming a uniformly applied force to the stem:

By Definition:
$$P_{AE} = P_{\Delta} + \Delta P_{AE}$$

$$\Delta P_{AE} \simeq \frac{\gamma H^2}{2} (.75 k_h) - .375 k_h \gamma H^2$$

$$P_{\Lambda} = \frac{K_a \gamma H^{-2}}{2}$$

Total force on stem: $P_A \pm \Delta P_{AH} \equiv .5 K_a \, \gamma H^2 \pm .375 \, k_h \, \gamma H^2$

If resultant acts at 0.5 H, the approximate uniform lateral pressure on a stem is:

$$\frac{.5K_{a} \gamma H^{2} + .375 K_{h} \gamma H^{2}}{H} = (.5 K_{a} + .375 k_{h}) (\gamma H)$$

For design example, assuming $K_a = 0.35$, $k_b = .34$, $\gamma = 120$

 $F_P = 36H lbs / ft lateral pressure$

Note that this simplified formula is not valid if there is a sloped backfill which would significantly increase seismic forces.

Seismic for Stem Sclf-weight

This is an arguable issue: whether to include the seismic force due to self-weight of the wall acting simultaneously with the lateral seismic to earth pressure force. It does not appear to be defined in the codes. AASHTO, however, in 5.5.4 states: "...seismic design forces should account for wall inertia forces in addition to the equivalent static force, where a wall supports a bridge structure...". But section 5.6.4, referring to flexible cantilever walls, states that "Forces resulting from wall inertia effects may be ignored in estimating the seismic lateral earth pressure".

Judgment indicates that seismic self-weight should be applied simultaneously with seismic due to earth pressure.

Using ASCE 7-05, Section 15.6.2 (Rigid Nonbuilding Structures):

 F_P in equation 15.4-5, for cantilevered wall and assuming $I_P = 1.0$,

Reduces to: $Fp = 0.30 S_{DS} W_p$

Per above design example where $S_{DS} = 0.85$,:

$$F_P = 0.30 \times 0.85 \times 1.0 W_P = 0.26 W_P$$

Alternatively per ASCE 7-05, 13.3.1:

This method for F_p applies if there is a lateral support at top.

$$F_{P} = \frac{0.4a_{P}S_{DS}I_{p}}{R_{p}} \left(1 + 2\frac{h_{x}}{h_{r}}\right)W_{P}$$

$$= 1.0 \quad R_{p} = 2.5 \quad \frac{h_{x}}{h_{r}} = 0 \text{ at bottom and } 1.0 \text{ at}$$

 $a_p = 1.0, R_p = 2.5, \frac{h_x}{h_r} - 0$ at bottom and 1.0 at top.

 F_p minimum is 0.30 $S_{ds} I_p W_p$

F_p for design is average between top and bottom

For example design, $S_{ds} = 0.85$, $I_P = 1.0$

$$\therefore F_{P} - [[(0.4 \times 0.85 \times 1.0 \times 1.0 \times 3) / 2.5] + (0.30 \times 0.8 \times 1.0)]] 0.50W_{p} = 0.33W_{p}$$

Seismic Force on Non-Yielding (Restrained) Walls

Several texts (e.g. Kramer) propose the following formula (slightly revised):

 $\Delta P_{eq} = \gamma k_h H^2$, acting at a resultant height of about 0.6H

Where ΔP_{eq} is the total added lateral force due to seismic, γ is the unit weight of soil, and H is the retained height.

The resultant acting at 0.6H gives a slightly trapezoidal force diagram, however, for ease of calculation a uniform load can be assumed with less than 2% unconservative error.

It should be noted that there are so few incidents of earthquake damage to such walls that many experts agree that seismic design of restrained (e.g. "basement") walls may not be necessary, particularly given an adequate factor of safety for the service level design.

Basics of Stem Design

First, here are two very rough rules of thumb for assuming stem thickness: If a concrete stem, try one inch in thickness for each foot of retained height, but not less than eight inches. If masonry stem, 8" is usually adequate for walls about six feet high, and 12" for walls to 12 feet. Less height for walls with sloped backfills.

The controlling design condition for reinforcement occurs at the bottom of the stem (top of footing), where the maximum stem moment occurs. However, it is not economical to use the same steel design higher up the wall where the moment is less (unless the wall is very low). Usually, after the base of the stem is designed, another design is performed several feet higher, usually at the top of the dowels projecting from the footing. At this point alternate bars can be dropped, or sizes reduced, for economy. If the wall is very high, you may want three or four cut-off levels and perhaps a change in stem thickness or material. The diagram in **Figure 8-1** illustrates this concept.

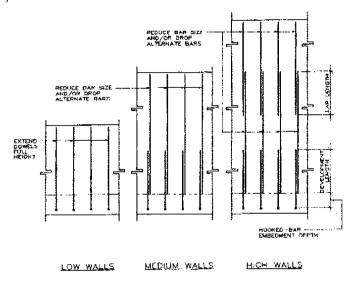


Figure 8-1. Reinforcing Placement in Stem

A handy rule to remember is that for a triangular equivalent fluid pressure behind the stem, the moment diminishes to one-half of that at the base at 0.20H above the base. For example, for a 10 foot retained height, the moment is one half its maximum at two feet above the base. Therefore, for nearly all eases, the moment is one-half or less at the tops of the dowels.

Often the stem projects above the retained height to provide a fence barrier, or a wood fence may be added to the top of the stem. In such cases, the wind load on that portion above the earth should be considered in the design, as it contributes to overturning. If the stem is essentially a yard wall, with very little earth retention, then remember that the wind can blow from either direction, which will require the wall and footing to be checked for both conditions.

If there is a concentrated vertical or lateral load, such as impact, assume that a point load spreads downward, along the length of the wall, at about two vertical to one horizontal. In other words, the overturning force at the base of the stem is spread over a distance equal to the height from the base to point of impact.

Dowels from Footing into the Stem

The reinforcing at the bottom of the stem will consist of footing bars bent up into the stem as dowel bars. Unless the wall is relatively low, say four or five feet, it is not economical to extend the dowel bars to the top of the wall, because the moment in the stem diminishes rapidly with height (as stated earlier is halved at about 1/5th the height). Vertical bars must only extend up to where they are no longer required, at which point either alternate bars can be dropped, or spliced (lapped) with lesser size bars.

Bars must extend up into the stem a distance equal to the development length of the bar, or the required lap distance for the continuing bars, whichever is greater, provided however, that they extend at least 12 bar diameters beyond where they are no longer needed for moment requirements. The lap length required for the continuing bars nearly always governs. The required development length and lap lengths for both masonry and concrete are shown in the Table below. Hooked bar embedments into the footing are also shown. Note the footnote assumptions below the Table.

Bar Size		Masonry ⁽²⁾	f ¹ _m =1500 psi	Concrete (3)					
		Grade 60	Grade 40	2000 psi	3000 psi	4000 psi			
#4	L	24	20	34.9	28.5	24.7			
	H ⁽⁴⁾			9.4	7.7	6.7			
#5	L	30	25	43.6	35.6	30.8			
	H ⁽⁴⁾			11.8	9.6	8.3			
#6	L	36	30	52.3	42.7	37.1			
	H ⁽⁴⁾			14.1	11.5	10.0			
#7	L	42	35	76.3	62.3	54.0			
	H ⁽⁴⁾			16.5	13.4	11.6			
#8	L	48	40	87.2	74.2	61.6			
	H ⁽⁴⁾			18.8	15.4	13.3			

- (1) Min. lap for spliced bars, inches, assumes $f_v = 60$ ksi
- (2) 40 bar diameters for f_v = 40 ksi and 48 diameters for f_v = 60 ksi (48 diameters shown)
- (3) Min. lap is development length x 1.3, assuming Class B splice. Cannot be reduced for stress level
- (4) Assumes standard hook and not reduced by ratio A_s (required) / A_s (provided)

 Note that IBC '06, 2107.5, modifies ACI 530-05, Section 2.1.10.7.1.1 which has the effect of <u>deleting</u> the following onerous development length equation (2-9) in ACI-530-05:
- (5) "L" = lap length; "H" = hook bar embedment.

Development length in masonry is given in MSJC 2008 as:

$$\ell_d = \frac{0.13 \ d_b^2 \ f_y \ \gamma}{K \sqrt{f_b}}$$

γ = 1.0 for #3,4,5 bars, 1.4 for #6, 7, and 1.5 for #8 - Masonry cover but not less than 5 d_b

This requirement results in much longer lap lengths and has met with considerable objection. IBC 2009 modified this requirement (only for ASD) to: $I_d = 0.002 \ d_b \ f_s$ but not less than 12".

For Grade 60 reinforcing this equation requires 48 bar diameters.

Horizontal Temperature / Shrinkage Reinforcing

Horizontal reinforcing is necessary to control cracks from temperature changes and shrinkage. The table below shows minimum requirements for both concrete and masonry (CMU). There may be conditions (climate, aesthetics, better crack control) where you may want additional reinforcing.

Horizontal Temperature/Shrinkage Reinforcement for Concrete and Masonry Walls

Typical Horizontal Rebar Spacing for .0007 $A_{\rm g}$ Masonry and .002 $A_{\rm g}$ for concrete									
Mat'i	Thick	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7			
Concrete	6	9	17	18	18				
Concrete	7	8	14	18	18				
Concrete	8	7	12	18	18				
Concrete	9	. 6	11	17	18				
Concrete	10	5.5	10	15	18	_			
Concrete*	12	9	17	18	18	_			
Concrete*	14	8	14	18	18				
Concrete*	16	7	12	18	18	i —			
CMU	6	24	48	48	48	1 —			
CMU	8	16	32	48	48	1 —			
CMU	10	16	24	32	48	<u> </u>			
CMU	12	12	24	32	48				
CMU	16	8	16	24	40	48			

The ACI requirement for reinforcing in both faces of concrete walls over 10 inches thick is waived for retaining walls in contact with earth.

Key at Stem-Footing Interface

Another use of the term "key" is a longitudinal slot formed into the top of the footing and into which the bottom of the stem fits. This slot can be the full width of the stem, or just the middle

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

half. The purpose is intended to offer more shear resistance at the interface plane. We often compute the shear stresses at the base of the stem as if it was monolithic, rather than a "cold joint." By providing a keyway, all or part of the shear can be resisted by compression against the side of the keyway, if its depth is sufficient to resist the shear force.

However, another way of resisting shear at this interface is to consider "shear friction" across the joint. Shear friction theory considers the reinforcing steel that crosses the joint as clamping the joint together such that sliding of the joint cannot occur unless the coefficient of friction is overcome, or the reinforcing yields to allow slippage. This requires a certain amount of tension in the reinforcing must be used for this clamping force, which is in addition to tension requirements for bending design. Let's investigate this for an assumed condition:

$$v_u = \frac{3800}{12 \times 9.63} = 32.9 \text{ psi}$$

$$v_{allow} = \phi 2 \sqrt{f_c^+}$$

$$\phi = 0.75$$

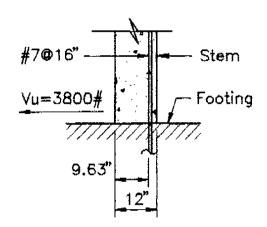
$$= .75 \times 2 \sqrt{2000} = 67.1 > 32.9$$
 OK

But also check shear friction available:

$$v_n = A_s f_y \mu \leftarrow$$
 assume = 0.60 cocf. of friction

$$= \frac{0.60}{1.33} \times 60,000 \times 0.60 = 16,240^{\text{#}} > 3,800^{\text{#}}$$

... OK if only consider shear friction



In this case, concrete shear is adequate, but it can be seen that shear friction offers considerable resistance if necessary.

Alternatively, you could use shear values for embedded bolts – in this case 7/8" "bolts" at 16" o.e. =3350# / 1.33 = 2519 plf – assuming 2000 psi concrete or grout.

Design of Masonry Stems

Masonry is designed using two methods: Allowable Stress Design (ASD) and Strength Design (SD). Both are code-permitted options

Using ASD, loads are factored by 1.0, except earthquake forces are already factored, therefore to convert seismic forces to ASD divide by 1.4. Allowable flexural stress is: $f_m = 0.33 \ F_m$.

Strength Design, also known as LFRD (Load Resistance Factor Design), is the design procedure similar to Strength Design for concrete. Use load factors per ASCE 7-05. Strength-reduction factor, Φ , = 0.90 for flexure and 0.80 for shear and splices. f_m is typically 1500 psi and f_y for Grade 60 reinforcing is 60,000 psi. Refer to MSJC Chapter 3 for SD requirements.

In Appendix B you will find a summary of masonry design formulas and allowable stresses.

An excellent reference for masonry design is James Amrhein's Reinforced Masonry Engineering Handbook, 4th Edition, published by the Masonry Institute of America, Los Angeles. Somewhat outdated code wise, but good information. Another good reference is Masonry Designer's Guide, 4th Edition by the Masonry Society (www.masonrysociety.org).

Masonry stem thickness is nominal block thickness': 6", 8", 10", 12, and rarely, 14" or 16". With six-inch walls the reinforcing must be placed in its center, but on thicker walls the bars can either be centered or next to the inside face (the face adjacent to the earth!). Shear and moment calculations are based upon the "effective depth d" of the moment.

See Table 1 below for "d" dimensions for various masonry stem thicknesses. These are industry standards, and assume about 2" from the face of wall to the centerline of the bar.

When the stem thickness is reduced higher up the wall, the step should be made on the inside (earth side) so that the outside of the wall is a flush vertical surface. When stepping the wall, consideration must be given to providing sufficient lap development length for the reinforcing extending into the section below.

Bar	"d" Distances for Masonry Stems									
Position	6" wall	8" wall	10" wall	12" wall	16" wall					
Bars in center	2.8	3.8	4.8	5.8						
Bars at edge		5.25	7.25	9.0	13.0					

Table 1 — Typical "d" Distances for Masonry Stems

Concrete masonry units (CMU) are designated either lightweight, medium weight (most common) or heavy weight, and are either solid grouted, or grouted only for cells containing reinforcing are grouted. Remember that for masonry stems the vertical bars must be spaced on eight-inch modules to accommodate the block cells. Although only cells containing reinforcing need be grouted, it is usual to solid grout the wall. The wall weights for these combinations are shown in the Table below:

Table 2 — Weights of Masonry Walls

			Concrete Masonry Units										
		Lightweight 103 pcf 6" 8" 10" 12"			Medium Weight 115 pcf			Normal Weight 135 pcf					
Wall Thi	ickness				6"	8"	10"	12"	6''	8"	10"	12"	
Solid Gi	routed	52	75	93	118	58	78	98	124	63 84 104 133		133	
Vertical Corod Grouted at	16" o.c.	41	60	69	88	47	63	80	94	52	66	86	103
	24" o.c.	37	55	61	79	43	58	72	85	46	61	78	94
	32" o.c.	36	52	57	74	42	55	68	80	47	58	74	89
	40" o.c.	35	50	55	71	41	53	66	77	46	56	72	86
	48" o.c.	34	49	53	69	40	45	64	75	45	55	70	83

To relieve water pressure, "weep joints" should be provided at the lowest course at the outside grade. This can be done by omitting the head joint (side joint between blocks) at every other block, or 32" on center. Specify gravel behind so the joints won't clog.

Minimum reinforcing in masonry stems

The ACI Code, MSJC 2008 requires that the sum of the vertical and horizontal reinforcing ratios be at least 0.002 and that the least in either direction be 0.0007. Spacing should not exceed 48 inches. As the principle reinforcing is always vertical, it should be at least 0.0013 times the gross cross-sectional area, and at least 0.0007 horizontally. In the latter case, #5 bars at 48" on center or #4 bars at 32" would suffice for an 8" wall. Accordingly, vertical reinforcing for an 8" wall would be a minimum of #5 at 32" or #4 at 16". See Table on page 44.

Maximum reinforcing in masonry stems

When using Allowable Stress Design also there is not a maximum, however, it is generally not practical to exceed #8 bars at 8" on center.

Dowel bars into masonry stems

Footing bars bent up into a masonary wall must extend at least the development length of the bar. Per MSJC this is $0.0015 \text{ d}_b F_{fs}$, which, for $F_s = 24,000 \text{ psi}$ equals 36 bar diameters. Although arguable, this length cannot be reduced by the ratio of actual stress in the bar to its allowable stress.

Stress increases for Allowable Stress Design (ASD)

Using the Alternate Basic Load Combination per IBC '09, Section 1605.3.2 a one-third stress is permitted when wind or seismic is combined. This combination also allows a reduction for seismic by 0.7 to convert to ASD.

Concrete Stem Design

Concrete stems should be at least eight inches thick to allow space to place the reinforcing within the forms. The maximum spacing of reinforcing in a concrete wall, both vertical and horizontal is 18" per ACI, but not more than three times the wall thickness.

Strength Design is commonly used for concrete stem and footing design, where all applied loads are factored per ACI requirements: 1.2 for dead load, and 1.6 for earth pressure, wind, and live load. Use 1.4 for fluid pressure (or any well-defined density). Earthquake forces are already factored, therefore the seismic load factor is 1.0. Always check with most recent and applicable code!

For a summary of concrete design formulas see **Appendix B**.

Concrete ultimate compressive strength is usually specified as $f_c^{c'} = 2,000$ or 2,500 psi. For $f_c^{c'} = 3,000$ psi or greater. Nearly all reinforcing is now specified as ASTM A 615-90, Grade 60 (f_c 60,000 psi).

Horizontal temperature reinforcing is required to be at least .002 x the gross cross sectional area of the wall (i.e. the total horizontal reinforcing should be at least equal to .002 times the wall width times its total height). If the wall is over ten inches thick temperature reinforcing is required in each face unless in contact with soil (basement walls). But remember that more horizontal reinforcing decreases visibility of cracks.

Minimum reinforcing in concrete stems

The minimum amount of reinforcing required to ensure a ductile failure is:

min =
$$\frac{200}{f_y}$$
 (= .0033 for f_y = 60,000 psi)

For example for an 8" wall with d = 5.5", #5 bars at 17" o.c. would be required.

But, if the provided reinforcing is more than one-third greater than required by design, the above minimum can be waived.

Maximum reinforcing in concrete stems

The maximum amount of reinforcing to ensure a ductile failure is $0.75 \times \rho$ (rho) balanced:

Max =
$$0.75\rho$$
 (= 0.019 for $f_c = 3,000$ psi and $f_y = 60,000$ psi)
Where p is the ratio As/bd

For an 8" wall, d = 5.5, this would be #5 bars at 3" o.c.

Determining areas of reinforcing required

A handy formula for determining area of reinforcing, using strength design method, for a given M_0 is given below (taken from the CRSI Handbook):

$$A_{s} = \frac{1.7f_{c}bd}{2f_{y}} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{2..89(f_{c}bd)^{2}}{(f_{y})^{2}} - \frac{6.8f_{c}bM_{u}}{\Phi(f_{y})^{2}}}$$

(b and d in inches, f_c and f_y is ksi, and M_u in inch-kips)

For $f_c = 3,000$ psi, and $f_v = 60,000$ psi, this formula becomes:

$$A_s = 0.51d - \sqrt{.26d^2 - .0189 M_u}$$

Reinforcing cover

The cover distance from reinforcing to face of concrete, must be at least 2" when exposed to earth or weather for #6 bars and larger, and 1½" for #5 and smaller. When concrete is placed against earth, such as at the bottom of the footing, or if the wall is placed directly against earth without forming, the minimum cover is 3", however, this is rarely the ease.

Development length of reinforcing

The development length formula is given in **Appendix B** (Summary of Design Formulas). Note that development length can be reduced by the stress level in the reinforcing. Development length per se will rarely apply (except for footing heel and toe bar development extensions) but is used to determine lapped bar splice lengths. See Table on page 44.

Laps and splices

Where bars are spliced (lapped) the splices are classified as either Class A, or B. The required lap lengths for each are, respectively, ℓ_d and 1.3 ℓ_d . To qualify as a Class A splice, less than one-half the bars are spliced and A_s provided must be twice A_s required. If more than half the bars are spliced, and A_s required is more than one-half A_s provided, it is a Class B splice, requiring 1.3 ℓ_d . The usual case for retaining wall stems is Class B splices. Note that reduction in lap length for stress level is <u>not</u> permitted per ACI '08, 12.15.1.

See Appendix D for development and lap lengths.

Extension of dowels above footing

For low walls, the dowels from the footing need only extend upward for the development strength of the bars, plus 12 bar diameters. However, in nearly all cases the dowels are stopped a certain distance above the footing, where they are lapped with continuing bars of lesser size and/or increased spacing (because of a reduced moment higher up the wall). In these cases it is the lap length, not the development length, that must be met. Lap lengths (discussed above) cannot be reduced by level of stress.

Special inspection requirements for concrete and masonry

Inspection requirements for concrete are in IBC 2009, Table 1704.4.

Inspection requirements for masonry are in IBC 2009, Table 1704.4.5.1 and 1704.5.3.

Note that UBC '97 required a somewhat more stringent Special Inspection if full stresses were used, and this requirement was waived if half-stresses were used. With the demise of UBC this issue is now moot.

9. SOIL BEARING AND STABILITY - CANTILEVERED WALLS

Tabulate Overturning and Resisting Moments

The easiest way to check stability, sliding, and soil pressure, is to set up a table showing each force and load element, together with the its moment arm measured from the lower front (toe) edge of the footing. With this, you can view an overturning/ resisting summary and check your computations. An example of such a table is shown on Design Example #1 in Chapter 24.

Proportioning Pointers

Here are a few points and guidelines to help you proportion the footing:

- The width of the footing for most conditions will be approximately 2/3 of the retained height.
- It is usually most advantageous to have more of the footing width on the heel side of the stem. This will put more soil weight on the heel to improve sliding and overturning existence.
- If there is a property line on the heel side, try to get at least some heel width for the additional soil weight. Otherwise, you will have a sliding problem requiring a key.
- If you need a key for sliding resistance, try to keep its depth less than about one-fourth the retained height, and not over about two feet.
- If there is a property line on the toc side, the footing may need to be wider because soil pressures are usually greater at the toe.

Overturning Moments

Overturning moments are horizontally applied forces multiplied by the moment arm from the bottom of the footing to their point of application. The primary force causing overturning is the lateral earth pressure against the wall. Because it is a triangular load, its point of applications will be 1/3 the retained height above the bottom of the footing. If the backfill is sloped, the height used to compute over-turning is at the plane of the back of the footing (i.e., where this plane intersects the ground surface). Lateral pressure due to surcharges is a uniform load applied to the back of the wall, therefore its point of application is ½ the height and the moment arm is from that point down to the bottom of the footing.

Wind pressure on the stem projecting above the soil or on a fence sitting atop the wall can also cause overturning. Wind pressures are computed in accordance with the applicable building code, and generally range from 12 to 30 psf as was discussed earlier.

Scismic may also contribute to overturning. This was discussed in Section 7.

Overturning moments are illustrated in Figure 9-1.

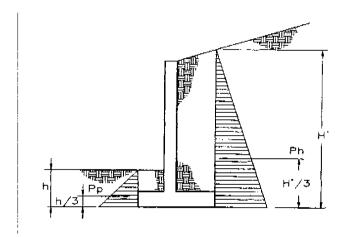


Figure 9-1. Overturning Moments for a Cantilevered Retaining Wall

Resisting Moments

By convention, resisting moments are the sum of all vertical loads about the front edge (toe) of the footing. These forces include the stem weight, footing weight, the weight of the soil behind the wall and over the footing, a surcharge if applicable and any axial applied to the top of the wall.

The total resisting moment is the summation of these loads multiplied by the moment arm of each measured from the front edge of the footing. Overturning moments can be visualized as shown on Design Example #1, and on Figure 9-2.

The generally accepted factor of safety against overturning is 1.5 to 2.0, although some agencies require more. When seismic is included, a factor of 1.1 is permitted by IBC 2009.

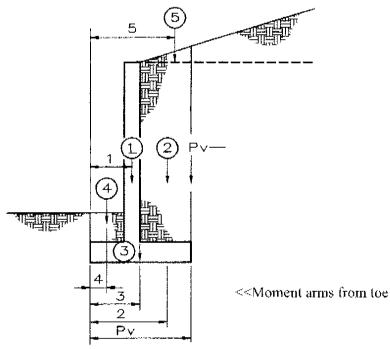


Figure 9-2. Resisting Moments

Vertical Component of Active Pressure From a Sloped Backfill

In the case of a sloped backfill, there is also a vertical component of the lateral pressure resultant, which is assumed to act on a vertical plane at the back of the footing. This vertical component acts to resist overturning. When the wall starts to rotate there will be a frictional resistance along that plane tending to anchor the heel of the wall. This vertical component is also assumed to resist sliding, by adding additional weight to the footing. See **Figure 9-3** (Vertical Component of Active Pressure). See also **Figure 6-1**.

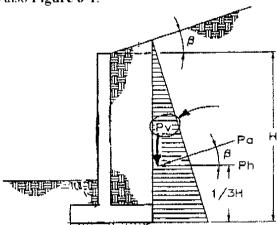


Figure 9-3. Vertical Component of Active Pressure

There is, however, controversy over whether to use this vertical component for soil pressure calculations because its use significantly reduces soil bearing pressures. Most texts recommend using the vertical component only to resist overturning—not sliding or to reduce soil bearing. However, this decision is left to the engineer.

If the backfill is level, the Coulomb formula, which assumes the line of action is the friction angle against the stem face, results in a vertical component equal to

P(sin δ). Typically, this results in a vertical component of about 30% of the horizontal pressure.

Determining Soil Bearing Pressure

To determine overturning and resisting moments, eccentricities and soil pressures, you need to tabulate these values as illustrated on Design Example #1.

After you have assumed a footing width, taking into account property line or other conditions that may restrict the heel or toe distances, you can determine the soil pressure by determining the eccentricity of the total vertical load with respect to the centerline of the footing width. This is done as follows: First determine how far from the edge of the toe the resultant acts. This is simply the total overturning moment, minus the resisting moment, divided by the total vertical load. In other words:

$$\frac{1}{x} = \frac{M \frac{1}{\text{resting}} - M \text{ overturning}}{W}$$

W = Total vertical load

Then the eccentricity is the difference between this distance and half the footing width.

$$e = \frac{\text{fig width}}{2} - \frac{1}{x}$$

The eccentricity must be less than one-sixth of the footing width (that is, within the middle third) for the footing to be in theoretical contact with the soil for its full width. If this is the case, the soil pressures at toe and heel can be computed as shown in the following formula:

Soil pressure =
$$\frac{W}{d} \pm \frac{6We}{d^2}$$

W - Total vertical load
d = Width of footing

e = Eccentricity

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If the resultant is outside the middle third, because soil cannot sustain "tension" between the soil and footing, the triangular pressure diagram shifts to the left and becomes triangular and the resultant moves outside the middle-third. If this condition is allowed, then:

Soil Pressure. =
$$\frac{W}{0.75d - 1.5e}$$

The allowable soil bearing value is usually dictated by the engineer, and usually varies from 1000 psf for poorer soil (or without a substantiating soil investigation) to 4000 psf for dense soil.

Meyerhof Method

An alternate method for determining soil bearing is to assume a rectangular, rather than trapezoidal, pressure distribution under the footing. In this method, often referred to as the Meyerhof Method, assumes a uniform stress block on the toe side. It is similar to Strength Design for concrete. The uniform soil pressure is the total vertical load divided by an assumed width of d – 2e, where d is the footing width, and e is the eccentricity of the total vertical load with respect to the footing centerline. This results in somewhat less toe bending (and easier to compute toe moments and shears!). This method is used, and discussed, in the Segmental Retaining Wall chapter.

Overturning Stability

The generally accepted safety factor against overturning of the wall is 1.5. Some engineers and agencies require 2.0. With seismic, 1.1 is used.

This factor is the ratio of the total resisting moment to the total overturning moment, or:

$$F.S. = \frac{M_{resisting}}{M_{overturning}}$$

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

Sliding Resistance

The sum of all the horizontal forces pushing against the wall must be resisted to prevent a sliding failure. The net driving force causing a wall to slide is the active pressure on the heel side, less active pressure on the toe side. The latter pressure derives from the depth of soil in front of the wall. However, the depth of soil above the toe is usually neglected in the determination of sliding resistance. (Justification: If the depth of soil on the toe side was the same depth as on the heel side, the net driving force would be zero).

The customary minimum safety factor against sliding is 1.5, with some agencies requiring more.

Sliding is resisted by two components:

Friction resistance: This is the resistance of the total vertical weight multiplied by the coefficient of friction between the base of the footing and the supporting soil. The coefficient of friction is usually determined by the engineer, and varies from about 0.25 to up to 0.45. Tests have shown that actual friction coefficients are closer to 0.70.

Passive pressure: Passive pressure is the resistance of the soil at the toc to lateral movement from the active force at the heel section. It is the reverse of active pressure. The wedge of soil in front of the wall must be pushed upward and out of the way for failure to occur. The Rankine or Coulomb formula can be used to compute the passive pressure if the angle of internal friction is know. More commonly, the engineer provides this value. It generally ranges from about 200 pcf to about 350 pcf. It is considered a triangular distribution, zero at the ground surface in front of the wall and maximum at the bottom of the footing or bottom of a key if applicable. However, because the soil above the footing, and in front of the toe, is usually loosely placed, its passive pressure is usually neglected, resulting in a trapezoidal passive pressure distribution.

Another theory, suggested by Amrein, increases the passive resistance when a key is added by assuming an increased depth for computing passive resistance. It assumes an additional depth below the footing equal to the average soil bearing pressure divided by the soil density, resulting in considerably greater resistance.

Both frictional resistance and passive pressure can be combined to provide resistance, however, reports often limit the percentage of each which can be used in combination (e.g., 100% friction; 50% passive).

Cohesion resistance: With cohesive (silt and clay) soil, friction resistance is not applicable, and the cohesion (adhesion) between the bottom of the footing and soil provides lateral resistance. If this is applicable, the report will give its value, usually around 100 psf of contact surface.

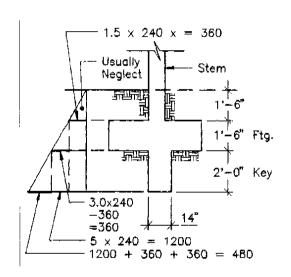
Footing Keys: If the frictional resistance to sliding plus the passive pressure resistance is not sufficient to give a 1.5 safety factor against sliding, a key can be used or the thickness of the footing increased. A key is a deepening of a near-central part of the footing, usually accomplished by trenching, so that an additional depth of footing is available to further resist sliding by increasing the passive resistance. With a key, the triangular passive pressure distribution extends to the bottom of the key, thereby significantly increasing the passive resistance. Keys usually vary from 12 to 18 inches wide and from 12 to 36 inches or more in depth. See also the above discussion of the Amrein method.

Here's a concern regarding using a very deep key, say a depth greater than half the footing width. Is there then a "paddle-wheel" effect whereby the passive pressure against the key adds to the overturning moment? It's been discussed, and may be valid.

Bending stresses in the key because of passive pressure must be investigated. If the ratio of depth of a key to its width is less than about two, reinforcing is usually not required; the flexural strength of the cross section is sufficient. To compute the flexural stresses in the key, see the example below, Figure R.

Assume
$$K_p = 2.0$$

Allow, passive = 2.0 x 120
= 240 pcf
 $M_{koy} = (1200 - 480) x 2^t x 1^t$
 $+ \frac{480 x 2}{2} x \left(\frac{2}{3} x 2\right) - 2080^{\#}$
 $S = \frac{12 x (14-2)^2}{6} = 288$
 $M_u = 1.6 x 2080 x 12 - 39,936^{\#}$
 $f_r = \frac{39,936}{288} - 139 \approx 5\phi \sqrt{f_c}$
 $-5 x .55 - \sqrt{2000} = 122 \text{ psi}$



Note that passive force req'd = total active heel side - passive force toe side - coef, of friction x total vert, load.

In above example, total <u>available</u> passive $=\frac{240 \times 5^2}{2} - \frac{243 \times 1.5^2}{2} = 2730^{\#}$

Figure 9-4. Checking Stress in Key

Deflection (Tilt) of Walls

A cantilevered wall must rotate slightly at the top to mobilize the soil wedge assumed in the design (some texts say .005 times wall height). The horizontal movement at the top is the sum of the deflection of the stem and the rotation of the base of the footing because of soil pressure compression at the toe. By knowing the toe soil pressure and the k value (modulus of subgrade reaction equivalent to modulus of elasticity), the settlement of the toe can be computed, and by geometry, the horizontal movement at the top of the wall. The soil modulus can vary from 200,000 pci to 2,000,000 pci, depending upon soil conditions. This value must be provided by engineer. Tilt (lateral deflection) at top can be given by the formula $\Delta_{top} = \Delta_{soil}$ II/W where Δ_{soil} is the compression of the soil based upon stress and soil modulus, H is the overall height, and W is the width of the footing. The deflection of the stem can also be computed by conventional means (using effective moment of inertia of the stem section). The front face of the wall can be battered

for appearance. A rule of thumb might be a batter of 1/200th the height of the wall (e.g. 5/8" for a 10 foot wall).

Global Stability

Global Stability is a term similar "slope stability", whereby an entire soil mass under and encapsulating one or two tiered retaining walls slips in a rotational pattern because of poor shear resistance of a lower layer of soil. With this type of failure the walls remain in tact but the soil mass slips and rotates as a bowl shaped mass.

Slope stability analysis is similar to global stability but the latter includes super imposed "loads" on the slope plane. Slope stability analysis is a vast subject and numerous methods of analysis are in text books.

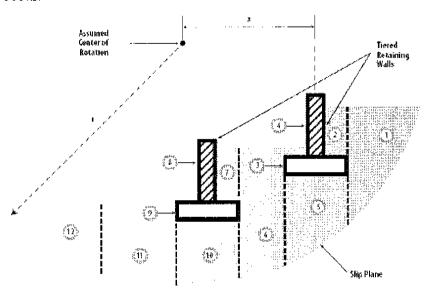


Figure 9-5

One method of analyzing global stability is illustrated in **Figure 9-5.** This is a trial and error method to determine the most critical slip surface (circular) plane which is a function the shear value of the soil. An arbitrary center of rotation is assumed ("0" above) and the rotational force caused by the weight of the components within the soil mass are evaluated by taking their weights x distance from 0, designated + or - in the illustration by summing the moments causing the mass to rotate and comparing this force with the unit resisting shear along the curved lower boundary a factor safety can be determined.

The engineer will determine whether this is an issue based upon analysis of the underlining soils where the proposed retaining walls will be constructed. If there is a potential for global stability failure they will recommend remedial measures such as deepening the footings or otherwise repositioning or reconfiguring the walls.

Basics of Footing Design

Use the Strength Design (SD) Method to design retaining wall footings. Strength design requires the soil pressure to be factored to compute shears and moments. See the Design Examples for procedure. Both the toe and the heel of the footing are subjected to bending and shear forces. The critical section for bending for both toe and heel is at the face of the concrete stem, or in the case of masonry stems the toe moment critical section is at one-quarter of the stem thickness in from the face. These moments are the sum of the upward acting moments from the soil pressure and the downward moment of the weight of soil and footing. Note that by statics the toe or heel moment cannot exceed the stem moment so the latter may control. The critical section for maximum shear, at the toe is at the "d" distance out from the face of the wall, and for the heel it is at the face of the wall.

Footing design based upon strength design requires factoring the upward soil pressure attributable to earth pressure by 1.6, and pressure attributable to the weight of earth or other dead loads be factored by 1.2. Some engineers believe all soil pressure should be factored by 1.6.

Embedment of Stem Reinforcing Into Footing

It is important to extend the stem reinforcing into the footing. That is, the dowels are considered hooked bars and the embedment required is determined by the following formulas (see ACI 318-08, 12.5):

$$1_{\text{hb}} = \frac{0.02 \, \text{d}_{\text{b}} f_{y}}{\sqrt{f_{\text{c}}}} (0.7) \left(\frac{A_{\text{s}} \text{required}}{A_{\text{s}} \text{provided}} \right)$$
or $8d_{\text{b}}$ or 6 "
where $d_{\text{b}} = \text{bar diameter}$

 l_{bb} = required hooked bar embedment

Whether or not the embedment depth can be reduced by the stress level in the reinforcing depends upon the interpretation of ACI 318-08, Section 12.5.3 (d) which states that excess reinforcement can be credited except where "...anchorage or development is not specifically required..."

Required dimensions and radii of hooked bars are shown on **Figure 10-1** (Hooked Bar Bend Requirements).

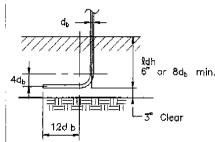


Figure 10-1. Hooked Bar Bend Requirements

If there is a key directly under the stem wall, the vertical stem reinforcing may extend down into the key at least the development length. This will serve the dual purpose of providing key reinforcing, if it is required.

Toe Reinforcing

Reinforcing for the toe generally consists of the dowel bars bending outward toward the toe. If the toe distance is large, over four or five feet, alternate bars may be dropped as the moment decreases toward the toe, but be sure to provide sufficient bending reinforcement at the face of the stem plus development length. Where there is not a toe, such as a property line condition, the stem reinforcing dowels bend back toward the heel.

As stated above, for concrete stems, the critical section for moment is at the face of the stem, and for masonry stems it is one-fourth of the stem thickness

in from the face. In either case, concrete or masonry stems, shear is computed from a distance "d" from the face of the stem.

The allowable shear stress is $0.55 (f'_c)^{1/2}$.

Check the development length beyond the face of the stem for the toe bars, because the "hooked bar" development length may not be adequate. This required development length will be significantly less than that required for stem bars into the footing, because the "d" distance in the footing is greater than in the stem. See **Figure 11-2** below.

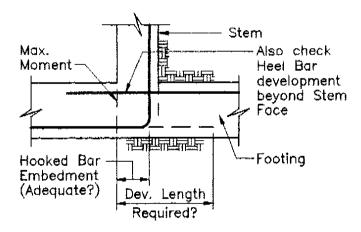


Figure 10-2. Development of Toe Reinforcing

Heel Reinforcing

These bars at the top of the footing resist bending in the heel. The maximum moment occurs, as stated above, at the face of the stem for concrete, and one-fourth the stem thickness in for masonry stems. Shear is computed from the face for both concrete and masonry. These bars must extend a sufficient development length past the face of the stem. These bars are typically positioned 2 inches clear below the top of the footing.

Minimum Footing Thickness

The minimum footing thickness is the sum of the required hooked bar embedment length, plus cover of the reinforcing at the bottom.

Minimum Cover for Footing Reinforcing

The required concrete cover over reinforcing bars at the bottom of the footing is three inches. At the top of the footing it is two inches.

Adequacy of flexural strength

If the toe or heel distance is small, less than the footing thickness, reinforcing may not be required. In this case, the flexural strength of the concrete may be adequate to resist the moments. When computing flexural stresses in unreinforced concrete the footing thickness used to calculate the section modulus must be reduced by two inches (A;1 22.4.8) to allow for possible cracks.

The allowable flexural stress for plain concrete (Strength Design) is:

$$f_r = 5\phi \sqrt{f_c}$$

where $\phi = 0.60$

See ACI '08, 9.3.5 and 22.5.1.

Although reinforcing may not be <u>theoretically</u> required, its omission is at the discretion of the engineer considering the conditions. Usually, it is wise to provide a "minimum" amount of reinforcing.

Horizontal Temperature and Shrinkage Reinforcing

Stem horizontal temperature and shrinkage reinforcing was discussed in the section on Designing the Stem. There is not a similar code requirement for footings, however, a minimum area ratio of 0.0012 is suggested. Given a 15" thick footing and 3" cover, this would require a #5 bar for each 18" of footing length. A minimum of two horizontal bars (longitudinal) should be provided.

$$p = 0.31 / [(15 - 3) 18] = 0.0014 > 0.0012$$

Piles, Piers, and Caissons

Each of these foundations performs essentially the same function: to penetrate soil to a depth sufficient to achieve greater load bearing capacity than would be provided by a spread footing. This is achieved either by end bearing or frictional resistance along the lateral area of the shaft, or both.

PILES accomplish this by either driven (steel, concrete, or timber) to either bear on hard strata or develop sufficient skin-friction through the depth of penetration. Concrete piles are usually the choice for retaining walls and abutments, and are either driven precast concrete, or cast-in-place in drilled bores.

CAISSONS is a term often used interchangeably with Piers. Caissons are usually large diameter piers, but can have narrow shafts with a flared (bell) bottom for greater bearing area. Neither type is often used for retaining walls.

PIERS is a term used to describe a relatively short cast-in-place concrete shaft foundation. Some codes define a pier (as opposed to a pile or caisson) as having a depth-to-diameter ratio less than 12. Their supporting capacity is achieved by a combination of lateral surface friction and end bearing. If a masonry retaining wall has spaced pilasters, the pilasters can be cantilevered up from an embedded pier (Pilaster Masonry Wall, Chapter 18).

When to Use Piles or Piers?

The recommendation to use piles or piers to support a retaining wall will usually come from the engineer. Conditions which would suggest using piles include poor or compressible underlying soil, the need for greater lateral (sliding) resistance, space limitations when a conventional footing may be too large, or other site-specific concerns. Single-row drilled cast-in-place piers, aligned under a retaining wall, are probably more commonly used. Single rows of piers are relatively easy to install, penetrate to better soil, and resist both the vertical and lateral loads imposed by the wall above. With higher walls a double row of staggered piers is common practice. The staggering provides for greater overturning resistance using small diameter piers. Small implies conventional diameters < 24", as opposed to large diameter piers that might be needed for overturning or high retaining walls.

Design Criteria

Design criteria for piers and piles is usually provided by the engineer because IBC '09 Section 1803.5.5 requires a foundation investigation for deep foundations "unless sufficient data upon which to base the design and installation is available". This investigation generally includes: recommended type of piles or piers suitable for the site; allowable capacity curves for the various alternates, including lateral design criteria; minimum pile spacing; driving and installation requirements; testing requirements; and related recommendations; and, site-specific precautions.

To aid the engineer, the designer should provide the total vertical load imposed by the retaining wall (weight of stem, footing, soil, surcharges, and any additional axial loads) and the total base shear (sliding force imposed by the retaining wall). Using the recommendations of the foundation investigation report the designer can then select the proper size and penetration of the pier or pile,

and provide the appropriate specifications, referencing the foundation investigation report. It is important that the owner retain the engineer to observe the aspects of the installation for conformance with the recommendations of the report.

Pile Design

The design requirements for piles are covered in IBC '09 Sections 1808 through 1812.

Sliding stability is an essential consideration for any retaining wall. To resist a lateral force piles may be either battered such that they resist the axial component of the lateral force, or the lateral force can be resisted by bending in vertically aligned piles. In the latter case, the report should provide criteria for designing or checking the piles for bending, such as the depth to contra flexure (maximum moment), passive pressure that can be included, and what lateral deflection under seismic conditions will be tolerable.

Consider possible site clearance problems and consult the installing subcontractor for suitability of your design when using battered piles. Generally, a batter exceeding 4:1 should be avoided. Combining lateral pile bending with battered pile resistance is not recommended – use one or the other.

Where multiple piles are used the code requires interconnected lateral restraint at their tops. However, for retaining walls this is achieved by the footing, which also serves as the pile cap.

Pile Design Example:

For this example assume the same vertical load and horizontal force as Design Example #1:

Use two rows of piles, space 4 ft. apart, centered under footing, and, say, 8 ft. on center longitudinally.

Reduce footing width to 7 ft. and increase thickness to 24", therefore footing weight about the same.

$$V_{base} = 4,253 \#$$
 P_{vert.} = 8,034 # e (eccentricity from C.L. ftg.) = 1.54 ft.

Convert to 8 ft tributary length: $V_{base} - 34,024 \# P = 72,232 \#$

Vert. load per pile =
$$P - \frac{\sum V}{n} \pm \frac{\sum Md}{\sum d^2}$$

n = number of piles (= 2), d = distance from c.g. of piles to specific pile (- 2).

$$M = 34,024 \times 1.54 = 52,397$$
 '#

$$\therefore P = \frac{72,272}{2} \pm \frac{52,397x2}{4} = 62,335\# \text{ max.}$$

V to each pile = 34.024 / 2 = 17.012 #

Determine moment, pile size, and reinforcing for bending per criteria in geotechnical report.

Determine required length (penetration) of pile for 62,335 # per curves in geotechnical report. If impractical to resist by bending, use one battered pile on outer row, V = 33.584 #

Assume batter -1:3

... Axial load into pile from shear = $34,024 \times (3^2 + 1^2)^{1/2} = 35,864 \#$

Total axial load in pile = 35,864 + 62,335 = 98,199 #

Determine total penetration required for this total axial load. If loads or moments are excessive, reduce pile spacing or use an additional longitudinal row.

Pier Foundations

These are most commonly drilled bores, aligned in a single row under the footing (which serves as a pile cap), and cast-in-place concrete after the reinforcing is placed. The consultant may recommend piers where upper soil is weak, or where space is not available for conventional foundations. Piers are usually spaced from six to twelve feet on center and diameters vary from a minimum required 24" to 36" or more. Spacing and diameter depend upon design requirements for sustaining both vertical and lateral loads.

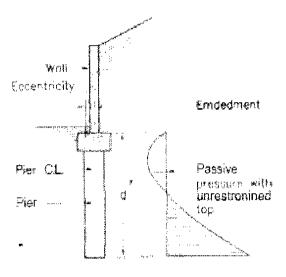


Figure 12-1

The report will give recommendations and design values for end bearing values, skin friction if allowed, and permissible lateral (passive) bearing values. The engineer may allow an increased lateral area for passive resistance, such as 1.5 times the pier diameter. Creep is another factor the investigation may require, which is input as an added lateral force over a given depth of the pier. See discussion under *Soldier Pile Walls*, Chapter 21.

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Specific design requirements are covered in IBC '09, Section 1810.

For a design example see Design Example 12, Chapter 24.

An important design consideration is the depth required such that passive pressures are not exceeded. The embedment depth will vary depending upon whether the pier is laterally restrained at the top or unrestrained. The depth required is a function of the pier diameter, allowable passive pressures, and the applied moment and lateral shear.

For the condition where there is not any lateral restraint at the ground surface (such as a slab), the formula per (BC'09, 1807.3.2.1) is:

$$d = 0.5A \left[1 + \left[1 + (4.36h/\Lambda)\right]^{1/2}\right]$$

 $A = 2.34P/S_1b$

b = Diameter of round footing or diagonal dimension of square footing.

d - Depth of embedment required, but not over 12 feet for use in the computation of S.

h - Distance in feet from ground surface to applied load

P - Applied lateral force

 S_i = Allowable lateral passive pressure per IBC '09, 1807.3.2, based upon a depth of one-third the depth of embedment, in psf. This value is usually given in the report.

Where a moment, M_g , and shear V_g are applied, such as from a retaining wall with a triangular lateral load, it could be assumed that P could be substituted for V_g and h_1 could be equivalent to M_g/V_g in the above formula.

The solution of this equation requires iteration to determine "d", that is, assume a value for "d", compute S, and solve the equation for "d" iterate until $d_{assumed} = d_{calculated}$, usually three cycles. It is important to note that this equation is an equilibrium statement, that is F/S = 1. Usual practice is to increase "d" by 15 to 20%, or to apply a factor of safety to the lateral pressure or to the passive pressure provided by the engineer. Also, note that "b" can be increased by a factor up to 2 to get the "effective diameter" consult the engineer.

If there is lateral restraint at the ground surface, the formula per IBC 1807.3.2.2:

$$d = [4.25(M_g/S_3 b)]^{1/2}$$

 M_g = Applied moment at ground surface

 S_3 = Same as S_1 above, except the allowable lateral passive pressure per IBC '09 Table 1806.2. This solution also requires iteration for "d".

When the diameter and depth have been determined, the next design task is to design the pier for lateral bending. An alternative to a rigorous analysis for point of contra flexure (maximum moment and zero shear), fixity is often assumed to be one-third the depth of the pier below the ground surface. However, finite-element/spring analysis, observation tests, and practice have commonly reduced this to one-sixth the depth. With this determination the maximum design moment is obtained.

Calculating the moment capacity of a round column with bars in a spiral reinforcing configuration is highly complex, because not only are the bars at varying "d" distances, but also the depth of the traditional Whitney stress block changes with the depth of the circular segment. Help for this

difficulty came from an ASCE *Transactions* paper published in 1942 by Charles Whitney. In it he devised an equivalent rectangular section, thus vastly simplifying the calculations and reportedly with close agreement with a rigorous analysis.

In the Whitney approximation method, assume an equivalent rectangular section with total depth equal to 0.80 times the diameter of the circular column. The width is assumed to be equal to the gross circular column area divided by 0.8 times the diameter. The reinforcing is assumed to be one-half on each face, with the separating distance equal to 2/3 the diameter of the circular configuration. If compression-side reinforcing is neglected, (conservative and easier computation), then the "d" distance for design is assumed to be 0.67 times the circular diameter. This is illustrated in **Figure 12-2**.

Design Example using Whitney approximation method to determine M_n

Assume 30" diameter; 8 - #8 bars; $f_v = 60,000$; $f_c^{-1} = 3000$ psi;, clearance = 3"; $\Phi = 0.90$

Gross area of circular column $-\pi 30^2 / 4 = 707$ sq. in.

Whitney equivalent rectangular width = $707 / (0.80 \times 30) = 29.5$ "

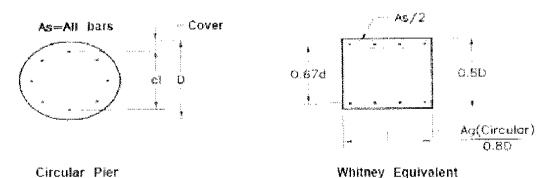


Figure 12-2 - Whitney Approximation Method

Whitney equivalent "d" -2/3 (30") - 20"

Use ACI equations:

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{A_s f_y}{.85 f_c b} = (8 \text{ x } \frac{1}{2} \text{ x } 0.79 \text{ x } 60,000) / (0.85 \text{ x } 3000 \text{ x } 29.5") = 2.52"$$

$$\Phi M_{\text{n}} = 0.90 \text{ A}_{\text{s}} f_{\text{y}} \left(d - \frac{a}{2} \right) = 0.90 \text{ x 8 x } \frac{1}{2} \text{ x } 0.79 \text{ x } 60,000 \text{ [} 20 - (2.52 / 2) \text{]} = 3198 \text{ in-kips}$$

Compare this allowable moment with applied moment, assuming applied moment is increased by point of fixity being 1/6 depth of pier below footing cap (assuming no lateral restraint at surface, if applicable).

Allow shear,
$$\Phi V_n = 0.55 \times 2 \times (f_c^2)^{1/2} \times A_g = 0.55 \times 2 \times (3000)^{1/2} \times 707 \text{ sq in} = 42.6 \text{ kips}$$

Axial stress can generally be ignored because it usually is less than 10% of the allowable axial stress. For example, an 8,000 psf end bearing pressure results in only 56 psi, versus an allowable of $0.25 \times 3000 = 750$ psi. But check if considered significant.

Between piers the footing will be subjected to torsion. Shear is generally not a problem considering the typical footing width (for lateral force) and wall above for vertical shear. Refer to, ACI 318-08, Section 11.5.1 that allows a "threshold torsion" value below which no torsion reinforcing is not required. This equation is:

 $\Phi\left(f^{\prime}_{c}\right)^{1/2}\left(|\Lambda^{2}_{cp}|/|P_{cp}|\right)$ where Λ_{cp} is the footing area and P_{cp} is its perimeter. If this is exceeded, additional torsion reinforcing is required per ACI 11.6.

Description

A "counterfort" wall should not be confused with a "buttressed" wall. The two are different. A counterfort wall has a stiffening element on the inside of the wall, within the retained earth. A buttress wall has its stiffening element on the outside exposed side of the wall. The decision to use either a buttress or counterfort depends up site restraints, such as property line locations, and aesthetics.

Proportioning

The spacing between counterforts for economical design should not exceed the height of the wall, and is often one-half to two-thirds the wall height. The width of the footing will usually be about two-thirds the wall height, or larger for surcharges or sloped backfill.

Design Overview

The design of a counterfort wall can be somewhat complex because the number of components which must be designed differently than for a conventional cantilevered wall. The steps in the design of a reinforced concrete counterfort wall are as follows (each step will be discussed later):

- After establishing the retained height, select a spacing for the counterforts, usually one-half to
 three-quarters of the retained height. Determine the footing width required and soil bearing at
 both the toe and heel because you will need these dimensions to establish the counterfort
 dimensions, and for stability calculations design as if the wall is a continuous cantilevered wall.
 You can add an estimated weight of the counterforts prorated as a uniform longitudinal axial load.
- 2. Design the wall as described below as a two-way slab, fixed at the base.
- 3. Design the toe as a cantilever from the wall.
- 4. Design the heel as a longitudinal beam between counterforts.
- 5. Design the counterfort. It will be a tapered tension member.
- 6. Check the final design for stability, overturning, sliding, and soil pressures.

Designing the wall

The wall is a two-way slab, fixed at the bottom to the footing, and supported (fixed) at each end where it crosses the counterforts. An assumption for vertical moment must be made based on the magnitude of the negative cantilever moment from the footing. One text (*Foundation Engineering Handbook*, Winterkorn/Fang, 1975) suggests (modified): $-M = 0.03 \text{ K}_a \gamma \text{ H}^3$ which is roughly equivalent to the fixed-end moment with a triangular loading with fixed bottom and laterally supported at top. Therefore, an approximation could be made to design the cantilevered base as 1/6 the moment of a pure full-height cantilever. It is suggested that this negative moment reinforcing (placed on the earth side, of course) be extended up to about one-quarter of the height of the wall, then drop or delete alternate bars.

See **Appendix J** for tables showing moments and reactions for two-way slabs with varying end conditions. These were prepared for the Water Resources Division of the Bureau of Reclamation. Included are tables (they may be difficult to read) for various end conditions, span ratios, and other

variables. Using these would give more accurate values; however, the simplified procedures described herein should be adequate for most cases.

There will be some continuity across counterforts, therefore it is suggested the horizontal reinforcing be placed in the center of the wall. Designing such horizontal reinforcing for a lateral pressure at one-half the wall height would seem prudent. Theoretically, the pressure reduces nearer the top, but it is probably practical to use the same horizontal reinforcing full height. Use your judgment to detail the reinforcing because the need for negative vertical reinforcing diminishes near the counterforts, as does horizontal reinforcing near the wall bottom.

Designing the counterfort (or buttress)

The counterforts are generally tapered, flaring from the top – or slightly below the top of the wall for aesthetics – to near or at the edge of the footing heel. The heel dimension will be determined by stability calculations of the counterfort (overturning, soil pressure, and sliding). Counterforts are usually 12 inches thick. The counterfort can be considered to be a vertical tapered beam with tension on the earth side. Its applied lateral load from the retained soil will be a triangular distribution based upon the tributary area between the counterforts. The base moment and shear can be determined, and because the counterfort tapers, the moment and shear lessen higher up the counterfort, hence less reinforcing will be needed. Perhaps check the design at the top of the dowels then use that reinforcing thereon. Dowels from the footing should extend into the counterfort about three feet, therefore at that height the moment should be re-calculated and a lesser amount of reinforcing provided that would continue to the top.

When the moment (M_u) and "d" (effective depth) distance have been determined, the following CRSI equation can be used to determine reinforcing required:

$$A_{s} = \frac{1.7f_{c}bd}{2f_{y}} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{2..89(f_{c}bd)^{2}}{(f_{y})^{2}} - \frac{6.8f_{c}bM_{u}}{\varphi(f_{y})^{2}}}$$

(b and d in inches, f_c and f_y is ksi, and M_u in inch-kips)

For $f_c = 3,000$ psi, and $f_v = 60,000$ psi, this formula becomes:

$$\Lambda_s = 0.51d \cdot \sqrt{.26d^2 - .0189 M_u}$$

Designing the heel

The heel can be designed as a longitudinal beam spanning between counterforts, with the appropriate uniform load being the net difference between the downward weight of the soil and concrete in the heel, and the upward soil pressure. This beam can be designed as a continuous beam (w $L^2/12$) with top reinforcing between counterforts and bottom reinforcing under counterforts. If the moment is not large it may be prudent to place all reinforcing at mid-depth of the heel.

Designing the toe

The toe is designed as a cantilever from the wall, similar to a conventional non-counterfort wall, and the dowels in the stem bend outward toward the edge of the toe.

Stability

Overturning and sliding calculations assume the wall and counterforts act as an integral unit, as if it is a conventional continuous cantilever wall. Include the weight of the counterforts. The overturning and resisting moments are then computed to determine safety factors and soil bearing pressures.

See Figure 12-1 for forces acting.

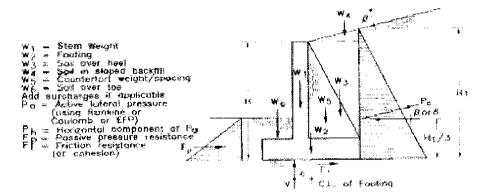


Figure 12-1 - Force Components

Alternatively, a counterfort wall may be constructed of masonry, as shown below:

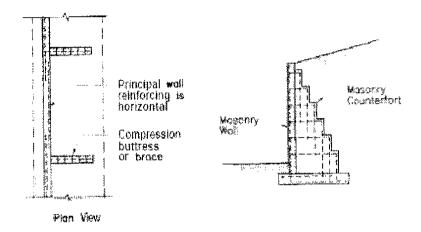


Figure 12-2 - CMU Counterfort Wall

Description

Tilt-up concrete construction is a growing segment of the concrete industry and now accounts for over 50% of all low-rise commercial buildings and about 90% of industrial and warehouse buildings. Tilt-up yard walls, trash area enclosures, dock walls, and retaining walls are now commonplace and the use of this technique can be advantageous for retaining walls in general. This method is particularly advantageous for long walls.

The primary advantage of the use of tilt-up concrete is speed of construction and the elimination of expensive formwork necessary for cast-in-place walls. However, because a crane is necessary for erection, and because a casting bed is required, provision must be made for stacking panels on the site. Connections must also be made for joints between panels.

Construction sequence

After preparing a 3° – 4° thick concrete casting slab (later wasted), edge forms are set, a bondbreaker is sprayed on the bed to prevent bonding of the wet concrete to the bed, reinforcing is placed, and the concrete for the wall is placed. To save easting area, panels can be stacked on top of each other, separated by a bond breaker, up to five or six high as desired.

Unique to using tilt-up panels, a trench for the foundation is first excavated and the panels set on temporary concrete setting blocks and the panel is temporarily braced. Dowels project from the bottom of the panels into the footing excavation to provide a moment connection when concrete is placed.

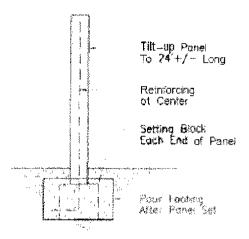


Figure 13-1 - Tilt-Up Freestanding Panel

Design procedure

Design of the wall and foundation are the same as a cast-in-place wall. Just remember when detailing the individual panels to show the dowels projecting the proper distance out of the bottom of the each panel. The temporary setting blocks at each end of a panel, remain in place and integral with the footing as shown in **Figure 13-1**. Check the soil bearing pressure under the setting pads for the panel weight – it's usually reasonable to allow double the allowable bearing pressure for short-term bearing.

A low-slump concrete mix should be specified for the footing to ensure minimum vertical shrinkage which could leave a gap under the wall. Depending on the application, it might be prudent to leave a one inch gap under the panel (cast the concrete short of the wall) for dry-packing a few days after the foundation has been placed.

Free-standing walls

Tilt-up can also be advantageous for free-standing walls provided the length of walls justifies the use of a crane for erection. The vertical reinforcing is best placed in the center of the panel of free-standing walls because these walls are subjected to walls subjected to wind and seismic forces which can occur from either direction.

Foundation design

Design the foundation width, depth, and reinforcing as for a conventional cantilevered wall.

Erecting the panels

This type of wall is relatively low (as opposed to tilt-up panels for a building) so that the panels can be "end picked", meaning inserts are cast into the top edge of the walls, near each end, to which the lifting cables are attached. The crane then lifts (tilts) the panel free from the casting surface and, with the panel hanging plumb, caries it to its final position and lowers it onto the setting pads. Design for lifting stresses and inserts is usually done by a lifting hardware provider. They will check for tensile stress in the panel when it first lifts free (when it is a simple-span beam with bottom resting on casting slab and top supported by lifting hardware). If these concerns are understood, the design for lifting can also be done by the design engineer.

Resources

A Chapter standard reference for tilt-up design and construction is *The Tilt-Up Design & Construction Manual*, published by the Tilt-Up Concrete Association (TCA). Their web site is www.tilt-up.org.

Overview

Gravity walls depend upon bulk weight for stability, as opposed to a cantilevered retaining wall fixed to a foundation. Some of the many types of gravity retaining walls were described in Chapter 2. Most gravity retaining walls are relatively low, such as used in landscaping, and do not require engineering per se – the design is intuitive to the astute builder.

Note that retaining walls not over four feet from bottom of footing to retained height, and if without a surcharge, do not require a building permit per IBC '09, 105.2(4).

Gabion walls, crib walls, and large-block gravity walls are discussed in Chapter 15.

The design of the more common types of gravity walls composed of rubble, stones, and mass concrete is discussed in this chapter.

Design procedure

The design of a gravity retaining wall of concrete or bonded (mortar/grout) stone involves six basic steps:

- 1. Calculate the dead weight of the wall, including all components and any superimposed surcharge or axial load, plus tributary earth weight over the base.
- 2. Based upon (1) compute the resisting moment about the front edge of the base.
- 3. Determine the lateral soil pressure and its line of action. The Coulomb Formula (see Chapter 4) should be used because it includes backfill slope, batter of the wall, and the soil friction angle at the wall interface. If the backfill is sloped, you can use a vertical component of the active pressure, which is assumed to act vertically at the back edge of the wall footing. The line of action for the resultant lateral force is assumed to be the wall friction angle plus the inclination angle of the wall batter. Alternatively use the Rankine formula with the force diagram in Figure 14-1(a).
- 4. Check stability by computing overturning moment, resisting moment (per above), and determine factor of safety (1.5 minimum).
- 5. Check sliding. Coefficient of friction is generally 0.25 to 0.40. If soil is clay, cohesion would control.
- 6. Verify that little or no flexural tension exists in the wall. Check at several locations by calculating the section modulus of the wall and lateral moment at each selected height.

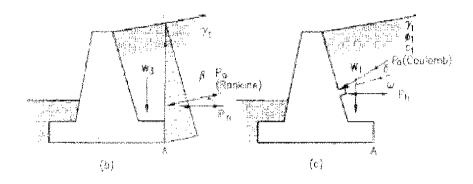


Figure 14-1. Force Diagram for Concrete Gravity Wall

For concrete gravity walls some reinforcing is advisable for crack control. ACI requires $0.002\Lambda_{goss}$ minimum horizontal reinforcing for walls.

For example calculations for a gravity retaining wall see Design Example 9, Chapter 24.

15. GABION AND MULTI-WYTHE LARGE- BLOCK WALLS

Descriptions

Gabion walls consist of steel wire baskets filled with rock and stacked as units to form gravity retaining walls. Similar wire basket walls have been used since ancient times and the word "gabion" does not refer to an inventor but rather to Italian and Latin words meaning "cage". Today, they are manufactured, generally, in three foot by three foot steel wire panel sides which at the job site are unfolded to form the cages. They are filled with rock, tied together, and assembled into the retaining walls. Since mesh openings are generally 3 inches square the rock infill should be 3 inch to 8 inch clean hard stone. If the infill is well graded it increases density (weight). Perpendicular to the plane of the wall the wythes can be 1, 2, 3 or more units deep and can be stacked in successive courses to a height usually not more than about 15 feet.

Similar in concept, precast large concrete blocks, which are commercially available from a number of vendors and concrete plants, can be laid one or more blocks deep (wythes) and stacked to retain soil to 12 feet or more. They can be laid with the front exposed side flush or with successive blocks stepped back.

For aesthetics, if the front face is flush, it is usually tilted into the soil 6°.

Design Methodology

Since the units are wired together and due to their mass they are considered one cohesive mass for design purposes. They are designed or analyzed in the same manner as gravity walls. Resisting moments are taken about the front lower corner of the first row and overturning moments are applied to the back face using the Coulomb method for calculating K_a . For forces acting on a Gabion wall see **Figure 15-1**.

Density of the Gabion units is usually taken as 120 pcf because soil and vegetation can penetrate the rock intercises and weight can be affected by gradation of the infill.

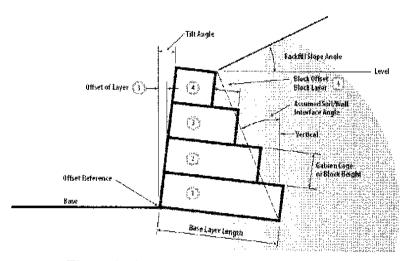


Figure 15-1. Forces Acting on Gabion Wall

Lateral pressures are computed by the Coulomb method shown in **Figure 15-2** below. A safety factor of 1.5 for overturning is considered adequate.

Sliding resistance is the ratio of total weight of the wall divided by the total lateral thrust. This value should be at least 1.5.

$$K_{a} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \phi)}{\sin^{2}\alpha \sin(\alpha - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha + \beta)}}\right]^{2}}$$

 β = Angle of backfill slope

 ϕ – Angle of internal friction

 $\alpha = 90^{\circ} + (\text{tilt angle}) - (\text{soil-wall interface angle as shown in Figure 16-1}).$

 δ = Angle of friction between soil and wall (usually assumed to be $2/3\phi$ to $1/2/\phi$)

Figure 15-2. Coulomb equation

When the Coulumb equation is used to compute lateral pressure, the α angle to insert is 90° + (positive tilt angle) – (assumed soil/wall interface angle per figure 15-1).

The total lateral force, $Pa=K_a*\gamma^**H^2$, where H is the vertical retained height adjusted for inclination if applicable. Hence the horizontal component of P_a is $\cos [(\delta \pm (\text{soil-wall interface angle, depending upon back face inclination)}].$

Overturning moment resistance is simply the weight of each course multiplied by the distance from the front reference point edge to its center of gravity on a per foot of wall basis. Successive stack courses are added and accumulated to obtain a total overturning resisting moment.

Foundation Pressures

Gabion walls generally do not have a concrete footing but rather are set on a firm level base, often gravel.

To compute soil bearing value from knowing the resisting moment and overturning moment the following equation can used for determining eccentricity from the center of the mass. This eccentricity should be within the middle third of the base width.

From this the soil bearing value is (assuming resultant within the middle third):

$$e = W/2 - (M_r - M_o) / V$$

e - Eccentricity; W = Base width; $M_r - Resisting moment$; $M_o = Overturning moment$; V = Vert. load

Resultant is within the middle third of the footing if $e \le W/6$, then the soil bearing pressure is:

Soil Bearing =
$$V / W + 6*V*e / W^2$$

If resultant is outside the middle third, and since there can be not tension at footing soil interface, the soil bearing becomes:

Soil Bearing =
$$V / (0.75*W - 1.5*e)$$

Sliding

Sliding on the base must also be checked. Sliding safety factor (usually 1.5 or 2.0) = V * μ / P_a(horiz), where μ is the coefficient of friction at the base-soil interface, usually the range of 0.25 to 0.45.

Seismic Design

Seismic design – if applicable – is similar to the discussion for segmental walls in the next chapter.

Gabion Walls Using Mechanically Stabilized Earth

Although gabion and large block walls can be stacked to accommodate considerable retained heights, conditions may warrant increasing their capability by using horizontal layers of geogrids, or similar mats, embedded between block layers and extending back into the soil to achieve an integral soil mass. Termed *mechanically stabilized earth* (MSE), this concept and the design procedures are discussed in the next chapter on segmental walls.

References

Few textbooks discuss gabion walls. The best source of information is from vendor literature. For example: http://www.gabions.net/technical.html.

Note that although this section deals with "Gabion" walls the same methodology may be used for precast concrete blocks stacked in nearly any configuration.

Description

Segmental retaining walls (SRWs), composed of dry-stacked masonry blocks are effective and economical and have gained wide acceptance. These are seen everywhere: leaning against hillsides alongside highways, behind shopping centers, providing tiered grade changes for residential developments, and other applications. Reportedly, 200 million square feet are constructed annually.

Advantages include relatively fast construction; a footing is not needed (just a gravel setting pad) and the units are dry-stacked without mortar, reinforcing, or grouting. The designer has a choice of block sizes, textures, and configurations, from a variety of vendors. Retained heights of 40 feet or more can be achieved (using geogrids) far exceeding economical limits of conventional masonry or concrete retaining walls. These do, however, have these limitations. For example, if a segmental retaining wall requires geogrids for stability, this requires an available space behind the wall of approximately 70% of the wall height within which to place the geogrid layers. If space is unavailable, a segmental wall is not an option.

Segmental walls are of two types: pure gravity walls, where stability depends solely upon the resisting moment of the stacked blocks to exceed the overturning moment of the lateral soil pressure. This stability problem limits the height to four or five feet, although some vendors offer larger blocks enabling greater retained heights.

For higher walls, the more common type of segmental walls use layers of geogrids placed in the backfill for soil reinforcement as the wall is constructed. This results in a mass of reinforced soil (also termed Mechanically Stabilized Earth, MSE) which can be used en masse to improve resistance to overturning and sliding. To be effective, each layer must be properly connected to the block facing by engaging the geogrid within block joints, and extending behind the wall and beyond the failure plane a distance sufficient for anchorage. The vertical separation between geogrid layers is usually two- to three blocks, but varies with design requirements. The length of the reinforced zone is usually a minimum of 60% to 70% of the wall height.

For many engineers, designing segmental retaining walls is a niche market. Their design can be quite complex, particularly for higher walls using geogrids. Consultation with a selected block vendor is recommended and many offer design software.

Segmental Blocks

Segmental Blocks are concrete blocks with compressive strength of 3,000 psi or greater, and, in the US, they are manufactured per proprietary designs at licensed local plants. The blocks come in many choices of texture, color, sizes, and configurations. The blocks vary in size, with the most commonly used blocks being 8-inch high with depths varying from 10" to 24". The block width for the most commonly used blocks is 18 inches. Blocks with dimensions smaller than these are available for non-engineered landscape applications for retaining heights of 3" or less. All of these blocks weigh between 30 and 110 lbs each. So called "big blocks" are also available from some vendors, weighing two tons or more and placed by small cranes.

The blocks are designed to allow construction of walls with vertical batter -- angle of the wall face to the vertical -- to as much as over 15 degrees from vertical. To control batter most segmental blocks have offset lips or other means, such as pins between units, to control the offsets as successive blocks are placed. The angle of offset from vertical is termed batter.

Angle of wall batter - tan-1 [(offset per block) / (block height)]

Most blocks have interior voids which can be infilled with backfill material. Weight per square foot of wall surface is often assumed to be based upon 130 pcf for both block weight and infill.

All vendors have web sites for more information and technical data. Best source: a Google search for "segmental retaining walls".



Figure 16-1 - Segmental Block Examples

GRAVITY WALL DESIGN

For stability, segmental gravity walls depend only on their resisting moment exceeding the overturning moment by a factor of safety of at least, 1.5.

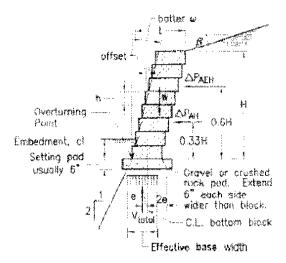


Figure 16-2 - Forces on Gravity SRW Walls

This limits the height of gravity walls to about 4-5-feet, depending upon the batter of the wall and depth of block used.

The design procedure follows these steps:

Select the block vendor for texture, size, and configuration desired. This is often dependent upon proximity to distributors.

Determine the retained height required and embedment depth below grade. Embedment depth is usually one block course or one foot. Wall height is considered the full retaining height, including the embedment. Determine surcharges if applicable, backfill slope if applicable, and if seismic design is required (see below for seismic design).

Check "hinge height", which is the height to which blocks can be stacked, with offsets, before tipping over. The equation for this is:

Hinge height = (block depth) / [(tan (batter angle)]

Don't' stack higher than this or the wall will overturn!

Determine soil properties: density and phi angles for both internal (backfill soil) and external (in-situ, or natural) soil. Backfill should be a well-graded granular soil, for which the phi angle is about 34°. Ideally it would be USCS Group GW (well-graded gravels, gravel-sand mixtures, little or no fines, per Unified Soil Classification System—see Appendix A).

Check Lateral Soil Pressures

Calculate coefficient of active pressure, K_{ab} (horizontal component!). Use the Coulomb equation because it accounts for the friction angle at soil-wall interface and the batter angle. The friction angle is usually assumed to be 2/3 phi (backfill soil). The batter angle is determined by the block-to-block offsets and is equal to tan⁻¹ [(offset per block) / (block height)].

The Coulomb Equation

$$K_{a} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \phi)}{\sin^{2}\alpha \sin(\alpha - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha + \beta)}}\right]^{2}}$$
$$K_{a}(horiz.) - \cos\delta K_{a}$$

 β = Angle of backfill slope

 $\phi =$ Angle of internal friction

 α = Wall slope angle from horizontal (90° + batter angle from vertical)

 δ = Angle of friction between soil and wall

(usually assumed to be $2/3\phi$ to $1/2/\phi$)

Check Inter-Block Shear

The shear at any depth "z" = K_a (horiz) [γ z² 0.50 ± (D ± L) z]

where γ = backfill soil density and D and/or L = Dead load or Live load.

The maximum interface shear will be at the lowest joint. The shear resistance will be the weight of block above which compresses this joint ("N" value) inserted into the vendor's tested shear resistance equation.

Check Sliding

The total sliding force is the shear at the base of the wall. This is the resistance offered by the coefficient of friction between lowest block and the gravel setting pad, or the friction between the setting pad and in-situ soil below. This is generally given by the formula $R = N \tan \Phi_e$, where R is the resistance available, N is the weight above, and Φ_e is the friction angle of the base (in-situ) soil – often assumed to be 40°. The safety factor against sliding should be at least 1.5.

Check overturning

Overturning moment at any depth "z" = $K_a(horiz)$ [$\gamma z^3 0.17 + (D + L) z^2 0.5$].

The resisting moment -0.5 N (t + II * tan ω), where N = weight of block stack,

H – height of wall, t – depth of blocks, ω = wall batter angle.

If more than one wythe, adjust accordingly.

The overturning ratio (resisting moment / overturning moment) should be at least 2.0 per NCMA.

Check soil bearing pressure

For SRW walls the Meyerhof Method is used to determine bearing pressure. This assumes a rectangular pressure distribution under the footing, as opposed to a triangular distribution. The total vertical force is assumed to be distributed uniformly over an effective base width. The effective base width is less than the full width by a distance equal to twice the eccentricity of the imposed load on the full footing width (easily verified with a diagram).

c = [(base width) / 2] - [[(resisting moment) - (overturning moment)] / (total vertical load)].

 B_c = effective bearing width -B - 2e, where B is the total bearing width.

Soil bearing capacity

Ultimate soil baring capacity can be calculated using the classical Terzahi equation:

 $Q_{ultinate} + \gamma d N_q \pm 0.5 \gamma B_e N_\gamma$ (an additional term to include cohesion is omitted because cohesion is usually assumed zero)

 γ = density of underlying (in-situ) soil

d – depth of embedment of bottom block, ft.

 B_e – effective bearing width, ft. (see above for methodology)

 N_q and N_γ are non-dimensional coefficients per table below for usual range of soil friction angles. For their equations refer to Bowles' *Foundation Design & Analysis*, *Fifth Edition*, page 220. This reference also gives similar equations by Meyerhof and Hanson.

$\phi_{\rm i}$	Z_q	N _Y
31	20.63	26.0
32	23.2	30.2
33	26.1	35.2
34	29.4	41.1
35	33.3	48.0
36	37.8	56.3

Seismic design -- Gravity Walls

Seismic design for segmental gravity walls would rarely be required because of the relatively low height and exemption from most codes. Depending upon the location and local building codes, seismic design may not be required, generally for walls up to 6' height, and in some cases up to 12' height.

However, if seismic is required, two components must be considered: seismic force from earth pressure and seismic force from wall inertia. The former is computed using the modified Coulomb formula below, and the latter uses the k_h factor applied to the wall mass.

 K_{AE} = active earth pressure coefficient, static + seismic

$$= \frac{\sin^2 (\alpha + \theta - \phi')}{\cos \theta' \sin^2 \alpha \sin (\alpha + \theta' + \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin (\phi + \delta) \sin (\phi - \theta' - \beta)}{\sin (\alpha + \delta + \theta') \sin (\alpha - \beta)}} \right]^2}$$

Where $\theta = \tan^{-1} K_h$, α – wall slope to horiz. (90° for a vertical face), ϕ = angle of internal friction, β = backfill slope, and δ = wall friction angle.

The horizontal component is $K_{AE} \cos \delta$.

Added seismic force = $(K_{AE} - K_a) \gamma H^2 0.5 \pm (K_{AE} - K_a) D H \pm k_h w II$ The latter term is the inertial weight of the wall.

D = dead load surcharge if applicable; H = height of wall; w - weight of wall psf.

The seismic component is usually designated as ΔK_{AE} (= $K_{AE} - K_A$)

For additional overturning due to seismic the earth component is assumed to act at 0.6 H and the dead load and wall inertial forces at H / 2.

The value of k_h is usually assumed to not exceed 0.15, however, NCMA states k_h should be one-half the peak ground acceleration (PGA). In high seismic areas this results in a seismic force for which most gravity walls could not resist. For example, in my area, Newport Beach, CA, the PGA is about 0.58, which equates to a k_h of 0.29! See Design Example #12 which shows the effect of using just $k_h \sim 0.05$!

If seismic forces are included, the safety factor for sliding and overturning can be reduced to 1.1.

GEOGRID WALL DESIGN

The soil retaining height of a segmental wall can be increased by placing successive layers of woven synthetic sheets (geogrids) in the backfill as it is being placed, and anchoring each layer into the facing block. This results in a composite mass of "reinforced earth" behind the wall (also called Mechanically Stabilized Earth, MSE) which acts in enmasse to resist overturning and sliding. This enables segmental walls to reach retaining heights of forty feet or more.

Forces acting on a segmental wall with geogrids is shown in **Figure 16-3**. BUT NOTE THAT THE 3RD EDITION OF NCMA's DESIGN MANUAL ALLOWS A RECTANGULAR SEISMIC FORCE DIAGRAM RATHER THAN TRAPEZOIDAL AS SHOW ON THE FIGURE.

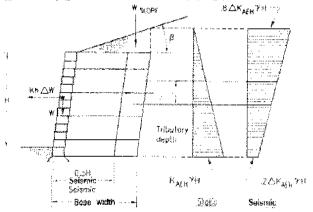


Figure 16-3 – SRW with Geogrids

Construction sequence

Construction begins with an excavation behind the wall extending a distance determined by design, but usually a minimum of 60% of the height of the wall. A gravel or crushed stone leveling pad is used as a base for the masonry units. This base is usually six inches thick and extends a minimum of six inches beyond the inner and outer faces of the blocks. Backfill material should be well graded sand-gravel mix (preferable types GW or SW) compacted to 90% as it is being placed in layers. Care must be taken that the geogrids are not damaged and properly engage the joint between facing blocks, and are of the proper length for embedment beyond the wedge rupture plane.

About Geogrids

Geogrids is the term for the sheet material placed in layers within the backfill. Geogrids are produced by a number of manufactures, each offering a choice of several materials and tensile strengths. The specified geogrid is delivered to the job site in rolls, generally twelve feet wide, and are cut to lengths required by design. Most have bi-axial strength, with the higher strength along the rolled axis (perpendicular to the spool). The geogrid is then cut to the design lengths.

Each manufacturer offers several choices of their geogrids, each with a different strength. Test procedures in accordance with ASTM or Geosynthetic Research Institute (GRI) procedures establish the ultimate tensile strength for each type of geogrid. The long-term design strength (LTDS) is derived from the ultimate tensile strength value and includes safety factors for long-term degradation, allowance for damage during construction, material imperfections, and other strength-affecting factors. A further safety factor is applied for design, generally 1.5. Therefore a Long Term Allowable Design Strength (LTADS) would be LTDS / 1.5.

To be effective in creating the enmasse soil, the geogrid must be anchored at each end: into the in-situ soil beyond the backfill failure plane (described below) and anchorage into the facing block joint to resist the tension in the geogrid. To accomplish this, the geogrids are laid in the joint between blocks. Pullout resistance is both by the coefficient of friction at the joint plus whatever engagement means is used. The latter can be by pins through the geogrid interstices, folding over a lip in the block, or other means proprietary to each block vendor. To establish connection values each block type must be tested for each anticipated geogrid. A typical connection value might be displayed as:

Peak Connection Strength -425 ± 0.27 N, with a maximum of 1900 lbs.

Where 425 is the value (pounds) of the proprietary geogrid engagement to the block; 0.27 is the tangent of the block-geogrid-block friction angle; and N is the weight of the overlying blocks. The generally accepted factor of safety for connections is 1.5.

Another connection value is Serviceability Connection Strength. This is a tested value for failure when the geogrid is pulled to an elongation of 3/4". Because this is a failure condition no further safety factor is needed.

The peak connection strength and ¾" serviceability connection strengths are available from the block vendors web site or literature. It is also available from www.icc-es.org which makes available evaluation reports from the various vendors (ICC Evaluation Service, Inc., Legacy Reports).

The factor of safety for peak connection strength is generally 1.5, and factors included should be possible damage during installation, material degradation, creep of the textile, manufacturer, and ratio of ultimate tension capacity and design tension.

Gather design criteria

After determining the site requirements such as retained heights along the length of the wall, plan view alignment (curves?) and contouring that may require a sloped backfill, you will need characteristics of the natural (in-situ) soil both behind and below the reinforced zone. This will be the density of the soil and its angle of internal friction (phi value). This information will be provided by the consultant, and will include other recommendations, such as the need for a global stability check if underlying soil are questionable. Also needed is the density and phi value for the backfill material. Backfill material should be well drained sand/gravel mix, preferably Group GW on the Unified Soil Classification System (see Appendix A).

Determine retained heights, soil properties (densities and friction angles for both in situ ("external") and backfill ("internal") material, loads (surcharges and/or seismic design), and site space available.

NOTE: If slope conditions exist above or below the wall, consult the project geotechnical engineer to determine whether a global stability analysis is required, and if additional geogrids are needed to satisfy global stability requirements.

Select masonry units

Select the block vendor for texture, size, and configuration desired. This is often dependent upon proximity to distributors.

"Internal" and "External" forces

The term Internal Forces describes the lateral earth pressure within the soil-reinforced zone. This pressure applies force against the wall and creates the tension on the geogrids to maintain the integrity of the soil mass.

External Forces describe the lateral earth pressure acting outside and against the reinforced soil zone.

Determine lateral soil pressures

Both internal and external forces must be considered because the properties of the two soil likely will be different (density and friction angle), therefore the K_a factor needs to be computed for each soil. The Coulomb equation is generally used for both.

The Coulomb Equation is shown below, and note that because the resultant is assumed to act at an angle δ from the horizontal, the horizontal component must be computed. The vertical component is generally ignored.

$$K_{a} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \phi)}{\sin^{2}\alpha \sin(\alpha - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha + \beta)}}\right]^{2}}$$

$$K_{a}(\text{horiz.}) = \cos\delta K_{a}$$

 β = Angle of backfill slope

 ϕ = Angle of internal friction of either backfill or in-situ soil.

 α - Wall slope angle from horizontal (90° + batter angle from vertical)

 $\delta = \text{Angle of friction between soil and wall}$

(usually assumed to be $2/3\phi$ to $1/2/\phi$) but for the external force applied to the reinforced zone δ is assumed equal to Φ .

Select geogrid

The geogrid manufacturer and type is selected based upon the tension resistance required. This is based upon the depth of the geogrid and the vertical tributary area between geogrid layers. The lowest geogrid is usually placed in the first block joint about the base, then every second or third joint, but generally not exceeding two feet apart. Spacing between layers may vary with design requirements, but to simplify instructions to the contractor equal spacing is often used.

When a trial spacing is selected, the internal earth pressure to each geogrid is calculated. This is the force which must be anchored both to the block facing and embedded into the backfill soil a sufficient distance beyond the failure plane.

As described above, the anchorage to the wall is composed of both friction and mechanical devices or other means to further secure the geogrids to the block. This information is available from ICC Evaluation reports or directly from the geogrid vendor.

Check required geogrid length for embedment beyond the failure plane. This is calculated from frictional resistance along the geogrid, based upon the weight of overlying soil, the nature of the geogrid surface, and awareness that it has two surfaces on which to develop pull-out resistance.

Tension in each layer of geogrid, T_a, increases with its depth in the backfill, and can be computed by the equation below:

$$T_a \equiv K_{aib} z \lambda s$$

where K_{abi} = horiz component of K_a based upon K_a of internal (backfill) soil; λ = soil density; z = depth of soil above layer, and s – tributary height to the layer.

s - [(height to layer above) + (height to layer below)] / 2

(Note: an exception is the tributary height above the uppermost layer and below the lowest layer)

This value, T_a, would be the horizontal tension on the geotextile or geogrid per longitudinal foot of wall, and from this value the geogrid type (LTADS) is selected.

Determine geogrid embedment

To anchor the outer ends of the geogrid it must extend beyond the soil wedge failure plane a distance adequate to resist pullout. The resistance to pullout is provided by the friction between the soil and geogrid (both top and bottom surfaces used), the weight of the overlying soil, and the friction angle of the soil. Additionally, a reduction intereaction coefficient, C_i, is used which is dependent upon the particular geogrid and the surrounding soil. The C_i value usually varies from about 0.70 to 0.90.

The equation for the required embedment beyond the rupture line, neglecting DL, LL, and additional soil in a backfill slope, is:

$$L_e = \frac{F_s K_{ahi} S}{2 \tan \phi_i C_i}$$

 F_s = Factor of safety (1.5 minimum)

K_{aih} = Coefficient of active pressure (horizontal component, internal soil).

S = Tributary height between next higher and lower geogrids.

 Φ_i - Friction angle of internal soil

C₁ = Soil/geogrid interaction coefficient

Note that the above equation is independent of the overlay depth z because this factor cancels out in the equilibrium equation:

$$T_a = K_{aib} z \lambda s = 2 L_c \gamma z \tan \Phi_i$$

To include dead load, live load (not recommended) and additional soil over the backfill slope, use the complete equation:

$$L_{e} = \frac{F_{s} T_{a}}{2 \tan \phi_{i} C_{i} \left[D + \gamma z + \tan \beta \left(\frac{H}{\tan \alpha} - H \tan \omega \right) \right]} D = \text{dead load surcharge}$$

The overall length of one geogrid as required is $L_a + L_e$, where L_a is the length within the soil wedge plus the wall thickness, and L_e is the embedment anchorage length beyond the failure plane. NCMA recommends extending an additional one foot; AASIITO an additional three feet.

Note that this base width is only the minimum for geogrid embedment and additional width may be required for overturning and sliding resistance as discussed below.

Determine depth of reinforced soil (total base width)

The base width is defined as the depth of the reinforced soil (to the end of the geogrids) plus the wall thickness. Although this is initially estimated from 60% to 80% of the wall height, it must be checked.

The criterion is the failure plane angle which extends upward from the base of the wall and defines the limit beyond which the geogrid must extend for proper embedment.

This angle, measured from horizontal, can either be the Rankine failure angle ($45^{\circ} + \Phi/2$) or the more commonly used Coulomb failure plane angle, recommended by NCMA. This angle is:

$$\alpha = \phi + \tan^{-1} \left[-\tan (\phi - \beta) + \sqrt{\tan (\phi - \beta) \left[\tan (\phi - \beta) + \cot (\phi - \infty)\right] \left[1 + \tan (\delta - \infty) \cot (\phi + \infty)\right]} \right]$$

$$1 + \tan (\delta - \infty) \left[\tan (\phi - \beta) + \cot (\phi + \infty)\right]$$

 α = Coulomb failure plane angle measured from horizontal.

 Φ = angle if internal friction of the internal (backfill) soil)

 β – backfill slope, if applicable

 δ = friction angle at wall-soil interface (usually 2/3 Φ)

 ω = wall batter measured from horizontal.

The Coulomb line is steeper than the Rankine for most cases; hence it requires a lesser embedment length.

For a given failure angle α , the distance from outside face of wall to failure line intercept, L_a , for any height h_s is:

$$L_a = \frac{h_x}{\tan \alpha} - h_x \tan \omega + t$$
 the wall thickness

The quickest way to check the minimum required base width for geogrid embedment is to check the uppermost layer of $L_{a+}L_e$ then add the front batter of the wall to height h_x which is h_x * tan ω .

To determine the available embedment depth for any height h_x:

$$L_c$$
 (available) – B $t - \frac{h_x}{\tan \alpha}$

When a base width is determined based upon required geogrid embedments, it may not be great enough for the reinforced soil block to resist overturning, which will be checked below.

Check overturning

When considering overturning for an MSE wall the entire reinforced soil zone is considered one mass, therefore the overturning force is the lateral pressure against the end of the reinforced zone—the extremity of the base width. For overturning calculations this is assumed to be a vertical plane (even if the reinforced mass is considered trapezoidal). If there is a sloping backfill, the pressure is against the full height of the vertical plane—from base to intercept with the finished grade.

The Coulomb equation is used, with the density and phi values being those of the in-situ soil, and interface friction angle, δ , is assumed equal to Φ .

If a surcharge is present it is to be included — both dead load and live load (but not live load if seismic is included (see Seismic Design below).

For overturning, the earth pressure is assumed to act at one-third the total height of the vertical plane, and surcharges at one-half the total height.

Therefore, the total overturning moment is:

OTM =
$$K_a(horiz) * \gamma * \Phi * H^3 * 1/6 + K_a(horiz) * (DL + LL) * H^2 * \frac{1}{2}$$

To calculate resisting moment the weights used are the reinforced soil zone, weight of soil in sloping backfill if applicable, weight of the wall facing blocks, and surcharges if applicable.

Resisting moments are taken about the outer edge of the base of the wall. If the wall is battered, this will increase the moment-arm distances.

Therefore, the total resisting moment, RM, is:

$$\begin{split} RM &- w^*H^*(0.5t + 0.5 \tan \omega \ ^*H) + (B-t)\gamma^*H[0.5(B-t) + 0.5H \tan \omega] + (B-t)(D+L) \ [0.5(B-t) + 0.5H \tan \omega] + 0.5\gamma(B-t)^2 \tan \beta \end{split}$$

w = weight of wall, psf; γ = density of backfill soil; Φ = friction angle of backfill soil; B = total base width; t = wall thickness; β = backfill slope;

 ω = wall batter angle from vertical; H - height of wall, ft;

D and L = dcad load and live load.

The stability ratio (factor of safety) is: RM / OTM, which should be 1.5 or greater per NCMA.

Check sliding at lowest geogrid layer

Compute lateral force same as above with $z = (H - h_x) h_x = height to lowest layer$

Resistance is provided by both soil friction at lowest layer plus block-joint-geogrid interface value which is obtained from equation provided by block vendor, taking the form $(1500 \pm 0.28N)$, in pounds, where N – weight of wall above, or:

Resistance =
$$W_{earth}$$
 tan Φ_e + (XXXX + 0.XX N)

Check sliding at base

For overturning/resisting, use the same driving force as above for overturning:

Sliding force =
$$K_a(horiz) [\gamma * \Phi_e * H_1^2 * 0.5 + (DL) * H_1]$$

Note that H_1 is the total height at the back of the reinforced zone from base to intercept with the sloped backfill surface. Therefore, $H_1 = H + (B - t) \tan \beta$. Sliding resistance is provided by friction between weight of reinforced soil mass plus the weight of the wall.

$$W_{total} - W_{wall} + W_{carth} = wH + \gamma \left[(B - t)H + 0.5(B - t)^2 \tan \beta \right]$$

Friction Resistance = $W_{total} \tan \Phi_e C_i$

Sliding Safety Factor = Friction Resistance / Sliding Force

Check soil bearing pressure

For SRW walls the Meyerhof Method is used to determine bearing pressure. This assumes a rectangular pressure distribution under the footing, as opposed to a triangular distribution. The total vertical force is distributed uniformly over an effective base width. The effective base width is less than the full width by a distance equal to twice the eccentricity of the imposed load on the full footing width (easily verified with a diagram).

e = [(resisting moment)] / (total vertical load)

 $B_c =$ effective bearing width = B 2c, where B is the total bearing width.

Bearing pressure = W_{total} / B_e

Soil bearing capacity

Ultimate bearing capacity is calculated using the classical Terzaghi equation:

 $Q_{ultimate} = \gamma d N_q \pm 0.5 \gamma B_c N_{\gamma}$ (an additional term to include cohesion is omitted because cohesion is usually assumed zero)

 γ = density of underlying (in-situ) soil

d = depth of embedment of bottom block, ft.

B_e = effective bearing width, ft. (see above for methodology)

 N_q and N_γ are non-dimensional coefficients per table below. For these equations refer to Bowles' Foundation Design & Analysis, Fifth Edition, page 220.

φi	N_{q}	Nγ
31	20.63	26.0
32	23.2	30.2
33	26.1	35,2
34	29.4	41.1
35	33.3	48.0
36	37.8	56.3

Minimum safety facor for soil bearing per NCMA is 2.0

Seismic design – MSE Walls

If seismic design is required for your locale or applicable code, the first step in the design is to determine the seismic acceleration factor, k_b , which is a function of the Peak Ground Acceleration (PGA) for the side. The PGA can be determined from seismic hazard maps in IBC or from ASCE-7 '05. This can also be obtained by entering the zip code at http://earthquake.usgs.gov/research/hazmaps/design/index.php.

Enter the five digit site zip code and select short term structure (0.2 sec) and 2% probability of exceedance in 50 years.

NCMA recommends $k_h = \Lambda / 2$ for internal stability (Wall and reinforced zone) and $K_h = (\Lambda - 1.45) \Lambda$ for external stability (acting on reinforced zone). A = Peak Ground Acceleration.

In areas of high seismicity, however, the above can yield improbably high design accelerations. For example, for PGA -0.40, $k_h = 0.42$ or external stability, results in unreasonably high seismic forces. Consequently, in these areas it is common practice among engineers to use a maximum value of $k_h = 0.15$ based upon slope stability analogy. Furthermore, NCMA states that "In practice, the final choice of k_h in any calculation may be based upon local experience, and/or prescribed by local building official or other regulations."

For insertion into the Mononobe-Okabe (Modified Coulomb) equation for K_{AB} you must convert k_h to an angle θ : $\theta - \tan^{-1}k_h$

If seismic is required, three components must be considered for overturning and sliding stability:

1. Seismic inertial force from wall, F₁.

The wall internal force is: k_h w H, where w = unit weight of wall in psf, and H = height of wall. This force acts at one-half the wall h

Seismic inertial force from earth pressure within the reinforced zone, F₂.

For this inertial force a depth of reinforced zone need not exceed one-half the height of the wall.

Therefore
$$F2 = k_h \gamma [(0.5H + t) H - 0.5 (0.5H - t)^2 \tan \beta]$$

3. Seismic force acting on the back of the reinforced zone, Γ_3 .

This component is applied to a vertical plane at the back face of the reinforced zone, using a height increased by sloped backfill if applicable. The force may be reduced 50%.

For this force use the Mononobe-Okabe (modified Coulomb) equation below. The value, K_{AE} is for both static and seismic, therefore you will need to deduct K_A (static) to determine the increased force because of seismic, designated ΔK_{AB}

 K_{AE} = active earth pressure coefficient, static + seismic

$$= \frac{\sin^2 (\alpha + \theta - \phi')}{\cos \theta' \sin^2 \alpha \sin (\alpha + \theta' + \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin (\phi + \delta) \sin (\phi - \theta' - \beta)}{\sin (\alpha + \delta + \theta') \sin (\alpha + \beta)}}\right]^2}$$

Where $\theta = \tan^{-1} K_h$, α wall slope clockwise from horizontal, (90° for a vertical face), ϕ angle of internal friction, β backfill slope, and δ = wall friction angle.

The horizontal component is $K_{AE} \cos \delta = K_{AEH}$

For this case $\alpha = 90^{\circ}$ and $\delta = \Phi_{\text{external}}$

Thus:
$$F_3 = (K_{AE} - K_a) \gamma H_1^2 0.5 + (K_{AE} - K_a) D H + k_h w H_1$$

 γ = density of soil, back fill or in-situ depending upon case. D – Dead load surcharge. Note that the value II for this force is the wall height + added height because of sloped backfill, hence:

$$H_1 = H \div (B - t) \tan \beta$$

These three seismic components must be added to static sliding and to increase overturning moment.

```
Increase in sliding force = F_1 + F_2 + F_3
Increased overturning = F_1 (H/2) + F_2 (H + 0.5H \tan \beta) 0.5 + F_3 0.6 H_1
```

If seismic forces are included, the safety factor for sliding and overturning can be reduced to 1.1.

Added seismic tension to a layer is calculated by:

```
K_h [(h_+ - h_-)/2] w + \Delta K_{AHH} [(h_+ - h_-)/2] [0.8 - 0.6 ([(h_- + h_-)/II])
where h_+ and h_- are heights of next higher and next lower layers.
```

Before starting with a seismic design for a SRW always check with the building department or agency having jurisdiction to verify applicability and any specific requirements.

Building codes & standards

Neither IBC '09, or CBC '07 directly address segmental retaining walls.

The current standard design references, both published by the national Concrete Masonry Association (NCMA www.ncma.org), are:

Design Manual for Segmental Retaining Walls, 3rd. Edition (NCMA)

Segmental Retaining Walls – Seismic Design Manual, 1st Edition (NCMA)

Acceptance Criteria for Segmental Retaining Walls published by ICC Evaluation Services can be obtained from www.icc-es.org.

Major SRW vendors also offer design handbooks plus other resources, most downloadable in pdf from their web sites.

Also see: Bowles' Foundation Analysis & Design, 5th. Edition, Chapter 12.

Getting help

In addition to the references above, all major SRW block vendors have web sites and offer technical support for their products. Some offer free software. Two major vendors are Keystone Retaining Wall Systems and Allan Block. Others can be found through a Google search for "segmental retaining walls".

NCMA offers software for SRW design. Their web site is www.ncma.org.

Retain Pro Software (latest version Retain Pro 9) also includes the design of segmental retaining walls, both gravity and with geogrids. For information: www.retainpro.com.

17. SWIMMING POOL WALL DESIGN

Swimming pools are constructed in a wide variety of shapes, sizes, curvatures and designed to fit a specific terrain and soil conditions. One thing nearly all have in common is shotcrete or Gunite walls and bottoms sprayed over a shaped excavation, and encasing the reinforcing. Plaster or tile is used to provide a smooth, aesthetic finish.

The terms "shotcrete" and "Gunite" are used interchangeably, but the former refers to wet-mix spraying whereby the material is mixed in a bopper before exiting the nozzle, whereby the latter is a "dry-mix" where the material reaches the nozzle dry where water is injected. Shot Crete (we'll use the generic term) sticks to the earth and self compacts because of the velocity of application, thereby permitting it to be used against vertical surfaces. Shot Crete is covered in IBC, Section 1910.

Designing the walls of a pool is unique because not only does the wall usually curve as it descends, but the strength of the cantilevered wall must resist the greater of earth pressure acting inward with the pool empty, or the water pressure outward if the exterior grade is lower or of poor soil. The design task is made further tedious because of the number of cross sections which must be checked (shallow end, deep end, and intermediate points).

The typical controlling condition is when the pool is empty and earth pressure from the outside governs the design. However, the condition is often reversed, such as for "infinity pools" or architectural features where the outside grade is substantially lower, or slopes downward lessening its lateral support value. There also may be lateral support from of a surrounding deck at or near the top of the wall. All these conditions must be considered and the wall designed for the most critical combination of conditions that may occur. Lateral loading from a surcharge or increased soil pressures because of expansive soil must also be considered.

Design of swimming pools is a specialty for some engineers and they have developed software (usually spreadsheets) to make the task less tedious.

The walls and bottom are generally at least 4" thick, generally 5" for floors, and may be more depending upon design requirements. Typically, #3 bars are used because of the relative ease in bending and securing to curved surfaces. Number 4 bars can also be used, but #5 bars are difficult to bend and place. Shot Crete strength is typically 2500 psi minimum, and a low slump suitable for pumping and spraying. Minimum reinforcing for flexural members is $200 / f_y$, = 0.0033 for Grade 60 reinforcing. Thus, for a 4" wall the minimum would be #3 at 9", however, the typical pattern is 12" on center each way. Under slab drainage is recommended on sites with expansive soil and special reinforcement and/or thickened slab required for sites with expansive soil from uplift along the bottom of the shallow end.

The classic method of designing swimming pool walls has been to draw to scale (or CAD generated) a cross section at each location to be investigated. Then divide the wall into vertical segment, usually 12" high. You can then determine the bending moment and shear at the bottom of each segment by constructing a table (spreadsheet) showing the active pressure from either earth or water acting at the bottom of each segment, and the additive (or deductive) moment due to the vertical weight of the segments above acting at their eccentricity from a reference point. This is illustrated in **Figure 17-1**. This is a tedious process but yields accurate results for design. Reinforcing is usually placed in the center of the wall, but for thicker walls it may be to either side of center as required.

The equation for moments at the bottom of any wall segment then becomes:

$$M_y = (K_a \gamma h_v^3)/6 + (K_a w h_x^2)/2 - (W_1 e_1 + W_2 e_2) - (62.4 H_y^3) 6$$

Where M_y = moment at depth y; K_a - Rankine or Coulomb active pressure coefficient; h_x = earth height above reference height; γ = soil density, pcf; w - surcharge in psf; W_x - weight of segment (50# for one foot high at 4" thick); e_x - eccentricity of segment x from reference point; and H_y = height of water above reference point. This calculation is performed for each cross section and the critical condition (earth or water pressure controlling) determined. This is best done by a spreadsheet. See Figure 17-1.

Before attempting a pool design you may want to check for an engineer specializing in this type of work (for example www.poolengineering.com) – it may be cost effective.

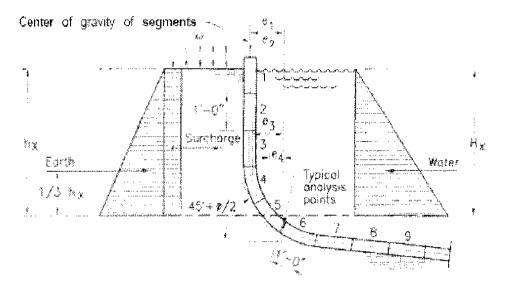


Figure 17-1 Analysis of swimming pool wall

Description

As shown in **Figure 18-1**, retaining walls with spaced pilasters and masonry filler walls can be economical for low retaining or freestanding walls. The filler walls, usually 6" or 8" masonry, span horizontally between pilasters and the pilasters cantilever up from the footing.

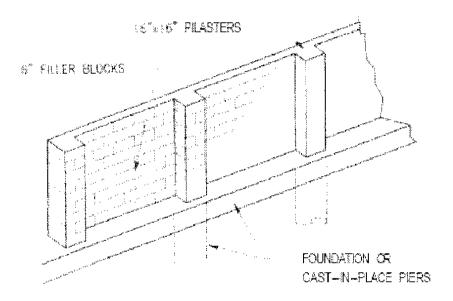


Figure 18-1 Pilaster Masonry Wall

Filler Wall Design

The filler wall spans horizontally between pilasters and those walls usually control the spacing of the pilasters. Freestanding walls are designed for wind and, if applicable, a seismic force. Reinforcing is placed in the center of the wall because lateral loads can be from either direction.

If the filler wall retains earth, the lower courses will of course be subjected to higher earth pressures and this controls the thickness of the filler wall. In that case, the reinforcing should be on the outside face between pilaster supports. However, to take advantage of continuity, it may be more economical to place the reinforcing at the center and design for the controlling positive (mid-span) or negative (at pilasters) moments, generally use w $(L)^2/12$. Reduce reinforcing higher up the wall as moment decreases. The first step would be to determine the lateral pressure at the base of the wall, then select a wall thickness and reinforcing to span between pilasters.

A minimum amount of horizontal and vertical reinforcing should be used. The combined total area should be .0002bd, with not less than .0007 in either direction. Vertical reinforcing is often #4 bars at 32" o.c. or 48" o.c.

Pilaster Design

Pilasters are usually 16" by 16" masonry units, or smaller for lower walls and usually spaced 6' to 8' apart. Use conventional procedures for the design. Lateral load reaction to the pilasters will be triangular or trapezoidal if retaining earth, and uniform for wind-only or seismic loads. Reinforcing usually consists of four bars and lateral ties.

Alternatively, use only the interior block core and specify high-strength concrete (3,000 psi or greater). This results in nearly the same moment capacity as the full CMU pilaster block using the same reinforcing,

Footing Design

Only a nominal footing is needed under a filler wall. Pilaster footings can be either conventional rectangular spread footings, or cast-in-place piers in drilled holes.

If pilasters are cantilevered from an embedded pier, if not constrained at the surface, the point of contra flexure for moment is below the ground surface. This is often assumed to be one-third the embedment depth. Some engineers and tests suggest a more realistic point of contra flexure is 1/5 to 1/6 below ground surface.

For the design of C.I.P. drilled piers see Chapter 11 – *Pier and Pile Foundations*.

19. RESTRAINED (NON-YIELDING) WALLS

Description

Retaining walls are broadly defined as either yielding or non-yielding. The former refers to cantilevered walls, which are free to rotate, thereby allowing a lateral displacement at the top which activates the soil wedge concept, upon which both Rankine and Coulomb theories are based.

Non-yielding walls are restrained at the top to prevent movement and therefore generate a reaction at the top and reduce moments in the wall. A typical restrained, non-yielding, wall is the so called "basement wall". The designer must assess whether the wall really is "restrained" at the top against lateral movement. Wood diaphragms may not be sufficient.

Tie-Back, also called Anchored Walls, are another example of restrained non-yielding walls. These walls use drilled and grouted anchors placed into the backfill slope to provide lateral restraint, the design for what can become complex if there are multiple levels of anchors.

Dual Wall Function

Often it is desirable to prepare two designs for the same wall. For example a basement wall may be backfilled before an effective lateral restraint is in place at the top. It can first be designed as a conventional cantilever wall for an assumed depth of backfill, and perhaps lessening the factors of safety because of a temporary condition. This would require a larger footing for overturning and larger moment at the stem base. Then a second design for the final condition when the top restraint is in place and backfill completed. Hence you've covered both conditions.

Note that if the bottom of a basement wall is fixed at the footing, and assuming a triangular earth pressure against the wall, the base moment will be about one-half the pin-pin positive moment, and the positive moment if fixed at the bottom will reduce to about one-quarter the pin-pin positive moment condition.

"At Rest" Active Soil Pressure

For a wall restrained at the top against lateral movement the soil wedge will then not mobilize and the lateral soil pressure is somewhat higher. This is termed the "at rest" pressure, (designated K_o) and is applicable to a wall rigidly restrained at the top, such as a basement wall (but light framing with a flexible diaphragm may be inadequate "restraint" and the active soil wedge may be activated). The at-rest soil pressure is: $K_o = 1 - \sin \Phi$, where Φ is the angle of internal friction. For example, if $\Phi = 34^\circ$, $K_a = 0.44$, as opposed to $K_a = 0.28$ (assuming level backfill). For sloping backfill a suggested formula is $K_o = (1 - \sin \Phi)/(1 + \sin \Phi)$.

Given a well-drained granular soil, a typical value for $K_o = 0.50$. For a saturated sandy soil the density could be 125 pcf giving a lateral pressure of 0.5 (125 - 62.5) + 62.4 - 93.7 pcf. Clayey soil can be higher. Some agencies require $K_o = 1.0$, giving 110 pcf for a soil density of 110 pcf. ASCE 7-05 specifies a minimum of 60 pcf for "relatively rigid" walls, and states that basement walls not more than 8 feet below grade and with light roof framing (flexible) are not considered "rigid". You are advised to gct design values from the engineer and check applicable code requirements.

An alternate to the triangular lateral pressure distribution, some geotechnical engineers specify a uniform pressure (also applicable for open cut excavations) as shown in **Figure 19-1**. Not that the clipped top and bottom corners can be ignored – a full-height uniform load will give only slightly more conservative wall moments. This uniform pressure, for sandy soil, is often defined as: $0.65 \, \gamma \, \text{H} \, \text{tan}^2 \, (45 - \Phi/2)$. Given a level backfill this corresponds to $0.65 \, \gamma \, \text{H} \, \text{K}_a$. This method results in about 25% higher wall moment than an equivalent triangular pressure using the same K_a .

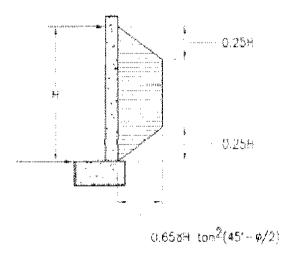


Figure 19-1 - Trapezoidal Soil Pressure

Seismic Force on Non-Yielding (Restrained) Walls

Several texts (e.g. Kramer) propose the following formula (slightly revised):

 $\Delta P_{eq} - \gamma \ k_h \ H^2$, acting at a resultant height of about 0.6II

Where ΔP_{eq} is the added lateral seismic force, γ is the unit weight of soil, and H is the retained height.

The resultant acting at 0.6H gives a slightly trapezoidal force diagram, however, for ease of calculation a uniform load can be assumed with less than 2% unconservative error.

It should be noted that there are so few incidents of earthquake damage to such walls that many experts agree that seismic design of restrained (e.g. "basement") walls may not be necessary, particularly given an adequate factor of safety for the service level design.

Description

Sheet piles are driven into the ground to retain earth while excavation is done on the opposite side. This can also be permanent retaining structures alongside waterways (bulkheads and quay walls). Most sheet piles are steel, configured in an interlocking Z-shape to increase bending capacity and stresses during driving. Prestressed concrete panels are also used for sheet piling.

Sheet piles derive lateral support from embedment into the soil below the base grade, and can either cantilever up from that level, or be laterally restrained near the top by tic-backs in which case a horizontal member must be provided spanning between tiebacks.

Design Procedure

The design considerations for sheet piling involve the following:

- 1. The embedment into the base soil must be adequate to resist the total lateral thrust. If a footing is planned rather than pile penetration below the base-level, the footing must be designed to provide passive resistance.
- 2. The bending capacity of the sheet pile material must be checked at the point of maximum moment. The point of contra flexure (zero shear and maximum moment) is usually about one-third down the embedded depth (although some texts state the actual point of contra flexure is closer to 1/6 the embedment depth), thus increasing the design moment. Manufactured sheet piles are designed to resist the driving impact during pile driving.
- 3. Tie-backs, if used, must extend beyond the line of rupture and a sufficient distance beyond that to mobilize adequate pressure resistance of the anchoring device. Using tiebacks will reduce pile size and depth of embedment.
- 4. The design of sheet piling is based upon the soil design parameters recommended by the engineer. Input from the sheet pile vendor (most have handbooks and some have software to assist) and involving an experienced sub-contractor are essential.

Waterfront structures must consider impact from docking ships. (Incidentally, in marine work, the outboard bottom soil level, below the water line, is referred to as the "dredge line".)

A generalized force diagram of a sheet pile wall is shown in **Figure 20-1.** Note that by statics the horizontal active pressures and passive resistance must balance. The maximum moment will occur at the point of zero shear (usually about one-third down from the dredge-line, but considerable evidence that 1/6 is adequate) which can be determined by statics. Determining "d" and "D" shown in the illustration can be determined by statics and is an iterative (trial and error) process.

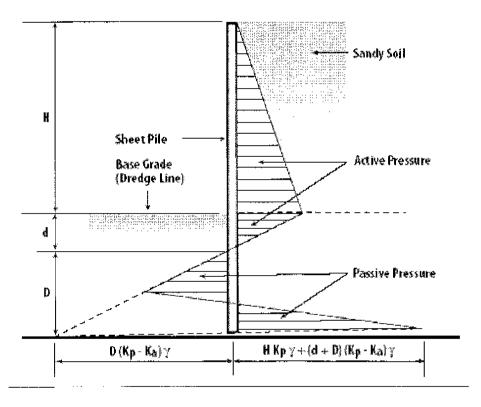


Figure 20-1 Cantilevered Sheet Pile Force Diagram - Sandy Soil

References

The design of sheet pile walls is complex and references should be consulted. One good reference is Das' Principles of Foundation Engineering, 5th Edition, Chapter 9. Another: Rayapakse Pile Design and Construction Guide, 2003. Teng's Foundation Design, Chapter 12, is very good with tables and examples. Contractors specializing in sheet pile installation are the best source for economical design and site-appropriate recommendations and vendors of sheet piling have essential design data.. A Google search for "sheet pile design" will yield valuable sources.

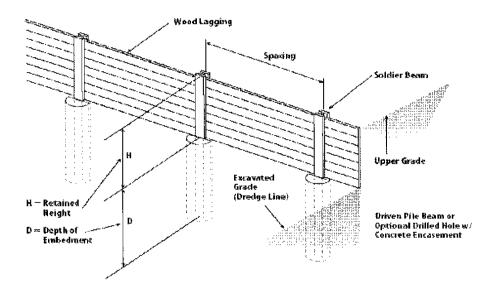


Figure 21-1

Description

Soldier beam retaining walls are used to temporarily retain soil, such as at a construction site. This concept is illustrated in **Figure 21-1**. Steel HP (wide flange) beams are driven into the soil a sufficient embedment depth to resist by passive pressure the moment imposed by the retained soil. The soldier beams (also called soldier piles) are usually spaced from six to eight feet apart and can also be dropped into pre-drilled holes and encased in lean concrete. Soldier beams are usually cantilevered, but if space is available, and for retained heights over about 15 feet, tiebacks can be used to reduce the beam size and depth of embedment.

As excavation then proceeds on the down-grade side wood lagging is placed horizontally to support the retained soil. Lagging is supported at their ends by the beam outer flanges.

Design procedures

Consult with the engineer for design criteria. This information will include nature of the soil, phi angle, soil density, active and passive allowable pressures, arching factors to use, and any other site-specific recommendations. It is advisable to also consult with the contractor to verify moist economical beam selection and any other concerns he or she may have.

There are numerous design methodologies used and most foundation engineering textbooks propose various design approaches. This text selected a relatively simple procedure which is often used.

This procedure assumes non-cohesive (sandy) soil. If the soil is clay a different passive resistance diagram will apply and the engineer should be consulted. It should be noted that although clay is usually assumed to have a zero phi angle, it actually can vary in a range from 6° to 12° or more.

Whether to use tichacks is another decision to be made. The following procedure assumes a cantilevered system in sandy soil.

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

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A basic design requires six steps:

- Determine the driving forces, that is, forces imposed by any construction surcharges and the active soil
 pressure tributary to each pile beam. For this use the Rankine equation to calculate K_a. Several designs
 may be done to optimize the beam spacing based upon lagging selection, embedment depths, and beam
 sizes.
- 2. Referring to Figure 21-1, after P_a and P_w have been calculated, the depth of embedment must be determined. This will be a function of the allowable passive pressures and arching factor allowed to increase the effective flange width, or hole diameter if pre-drilling is used. The arching factor, f, can be taken as 0.08 * phi, but should not exceed about 2.5. This means that the effective pressure width in front of a 30" diameter drilled and concrete filled beam encasement, with a phi of 32° would be 0.08 * 32 2.56, but use 2.5. Thus the effective passive pressure would be a width of 2.0*2.5 = 5.00 feet which will considerably reduce embedment depth and moment applied to the beam.

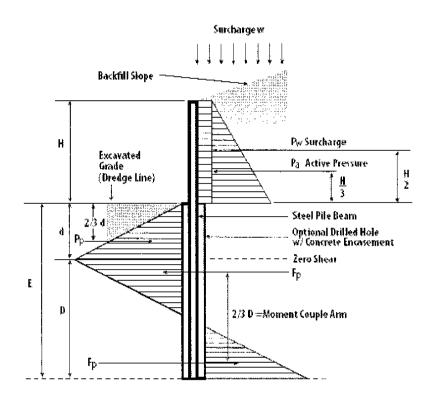


Figure 21-1 Forces on cantilevered soldier beam in Sandy Soil

For determining the embedment depth to zero shear (where beam bending is maximum), designated "d", the following equation can be used:

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{P_P \times SF \times 2}{p \times DIA \times A}}$$

Where P_p is equal to and counteracting to $P_w + P_a$; SF is the safety factor applied to allowable passive pressure; A is the arching factor multiplier; Dia is the hole diameter or flange width, whichever applicable; and p is the allowable passive pressure in pcf.

3. The maximum beam moment is then determined by summing moments above the point of zero shear. However, mathematically the result is equivalent to:

$$M_{\text{max}} = P_{\text{w}} (0.50 \text{H} + 0.67 \text{d}) + P_{\text{a}} (0.33 \text{H} + 0.67 \text{d})$$

4. The maximum moment is resisted by a passive pressure couple consisting of $F_p * 0.67D$. Therefore the required depth D can be determined from the following equation:

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{(\text{max.moment}) \times \text{SF}}{(\text{p} \times \text{DIA} \times \text{A} \times \text{d} \times 0.25)0.67}}$$

The required depth of embedment is then (d + D). As a rule-of-thumb for sandy soils this is usually in the range of 1.3 H to 1.5 H.

- 5. After the maximum moment has been computed, convert it to LRFD (Load Resistance Factor Design) by multiplying by the usually applicable load factor of 1.6. Then select several beam options from AISC 13th edition, LRFD, Steel Design Handbook. When several beam selections are made it is recommended that you talk with the contractor for his opinion on which is most economical or available.
- 6. Select the lagging. Treated lumber should be used, and a conservative fiber stress is 900 psi. Calculate the lateral pressure at various depths, H_y,(to determine changing lagging thicknesses) which is K_a * 7 * H_y. When the simple span moment is calculated it is acceptable to multiply by 0.8 because of arching action of the soil between pile beams. It is also customary to limit the active pressure to 40 psf. Lagging is either 3" or 4" by 12" treated wood. These ends should bear against the beam flange a minimum of 3". Allow about 1" between each lagging for drainage

Using tiebacks

If the retained height is over about 15 feet, and space is available, tiebacks can be considered. This use will also reduce embedment depth and beam size.

Usually tiebacks are steel rods inserted into 3" drilled holes into the backfill a sufficient distance beyond the failure plane to provide anchorage after grouting. They are inclined downward at an angle of 15° to improve withdrawal resistance and to facilitate grouting. Their outside ends are welded to the steel beams. A simplified force diagram is shown in **Figure 21-3**

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

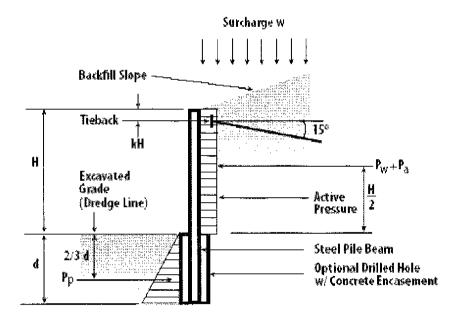


Figure 21-3

The depth of embedment, E, must be sufficient to oppose the applied lateral forces P_a and P_w .

Determining d is an iterative processive to achieve active and passive pressure balance. The maximum bending moment in the beam can then be determined by statics.

An alternate tieback can be anchored beyond the failure plane as shown in Figure 21-4.

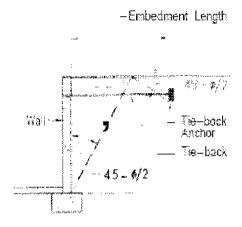
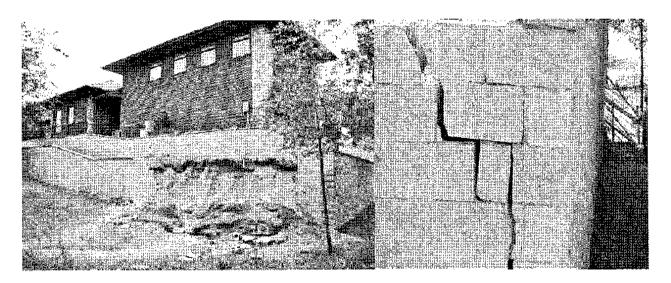


Figure 21-4 - Tie-back Anchorage

22. WHY RETAINING WALLS FAIL & COST EFFECTIVE FIXES



The above photo is a rare occurrence. In this case there was no permit, no engineer, minimal reinforcing ungrouted cells, and other oversights.

"Failure" of a retaining wall does not necessarily mean total collapse, as shown above, but rather signs of impending instability and likelihood of a collapse. Total collapses are relatively rare. In a total collapse the wall overturns, slides, topples, or otherwise causes a massive letting loose of the retained earth with resulting damage above and below the wall. Such walls cannot be saved – the remedy is rebuilding. The engineer who provided this photo was retained to investigate the deficiencies causing the collapse and design a new wall.

Fortunately, retaining walls are quite forgiving, nearly always displaying telltale signs of trouble and alerting an observer to call for professional evaluation before a collapse. After an evaluation, and determination of the causes, most walls can be saved.

The most common sign of distress is excessive deflection of the wall—tilting out of plumb—caused by a structural overstress and/or a foundation problem. Some structural deflection is to be expected and a rule-of-thumb is 1/16th inch for each foot of height, which is equivalent to one-half inch out-of-plumb for an eight foot high wall. More than that is suspect. It's easy to check with a plumb bob.

Here are twelve things that can go wrong and signal distress:

1. Reinforcing not in the right position. If the stem shows sign of trouble (excessive deflection and/or cracking) the size, depth, and spacing of the reinforcing should be verified. Testing laboratories have the devices (usually a magnetic field measuring Pachometer) which can locate reinforcing and depth with reasonable accuracy, up to about 4 inches depth. For exact verification you can first locate the reinforcing then chip out to determine its exact depth and bar size. More elaborate devices are also available if needed—check with your testing laboratory, they'll come to you jobsite. Unbelievably, cases have occurred where the reinforcing was placed on the wrong side of the wall, either through a detailing error, or contractor error. When the actual reinforcing size, location, and spacing are determined, and perhaps a core taken to verify strength of stem material, a design can be worked backwards to determine actual design capacity and thereby guide remedial measures.

- 2. Saturated backfill. Retaining walls are generally designed assuming a well drained granular backfill. If surface drainage is allowed to penetrate and accumulate in the backfill, the pressure against the wall can double. Ponding of water behind the wall not only indicates poor grading, but clayey soil impeding the downward seepage of water. The surface of the backfill should be graded to direct water away from the wall, or by the use of drainage channels adjacent to the wall to intercept surface water and divert it to disposal. Often surface water problems are attributable to a misdirected or poorly timed irrigation system. Poor backfill material, such as containing clay, can swell and increase wall pressure. One contractor always uses crushed rock for backfill; it's less expensive than pea gravel, and the elimination of tamping compaction of granular soil offsets the cost of crushed rock versus the use of materials that require compaction, and assures good drainage. Don't compact backfill by flooding.
- 3. Weep holes that don't weep. The only thing that comes out of most weep holes is weeds not water. This becomes clogged when there is no filtering, such as a line of gravel or crushed rock placed along the base to provide a channel for water to drain to weep holes, or to be conducted by an embedded perforated pipe. Commercial filtering fabric is available. Weep holes in masonry are usually made by omitting mortar at the side joints of every other block (32 inches on center). For concrete walls, 3" diameter pipe sleeves are often used, spaced 4' 6' on center, or as deemed appropriate by the designer. Specifying proper drainage measures (backfill material, surface water control, and base-of-wall drainage) is an important specification task for the EOR (Engineer of Record).
- 4. <u>Design error because of misinformation</u> Design errors as the cause of failures are relatively rare when prepared by an experienced designer. However, sometimes the designer is given insufficient or erroncous information. For example, "Design the wall to retain eight feet", but later examination of the grading plans, or as-built conditions, shows the wall retaining nine feet, an additional foot, thereby increasing the base moment on the stem by nearly fifty-percent.
- 5. <u>Calculation errors</u>. An experienced designer can quickly spot a calculation error because it obviously "doesn't look right". New engineers usually lack this experience and in such cases don't let the design leave the office without a check. A 15-minute review could save costly fixes and damage client relations. And don't assume a plan checker will find errors.
- 6. <u>Unanticipated loads</u>. Again, this is a client-to-designer information problem. Good communication is essential. Is there a surcharge the designer didn't know about? A steeper backfill slope? A beam connection? Wind load? A foundation investigation or memo that wasn't transmitted?
- 7. <u>Mistakes in using software</u> If software is used as a design aid, it is essential that the designer correctly inputs data and understands the capabilities and limitations of the particular program (Retain Pro advises its users to be licensed civil or structural engineers, or at least have the expertise to design a relatively complex retaining wall by hand calculations). If in doubt of a result, do a quick hand calculation.
- 8. <u>Detailing errors</u>. The contractor must have clear instructions. Details not conforming to the design, or doubtful of interpretation, must be avoided. Perhaps the biggest source of problems is with reinforcing placement. I recall one case where the designer actually detailed the rebar on the wrong side of the wall! In another case vagueness of details led to dowels from the footing extending only 6" into the stem, rather than the intended 24", because of confusing dimensions. Easy-to-read drawings and careful checking by the designer can eliminate these problems.
- 9. <u>Foundation problems</u>. When a investigation is provided, there will be guidelines for design (allowable soil bearing, friction factors, seismic if applicable) and any caveats based upon site conditions, such as liquefaction potential or recompaction of the underlying soil. Implementation of such recommendations

should provide a trouble-free foundation. However, often such an investigation is not provided, calling for special care by the designer. Without such a report the soil bearing is limited by code, usually to 1,500 psf, and the coefficient of sliding friction to 0.25, and allowable passive pressure of 150 pcf. Regardless of using more conservative values, the designer should be aware of any adverse conditions, such as fill material, compressible soil, water table, or other factors that could cause excessive settlement—or reduce sliding resistance.

- 10. <u>Inadequate specifications and notes.</u> If you use "boiler plate" notes or specifications, edit these carefully and use a checklist. It's embarrassing to have notes or paragraphs that obviously apply to another project. Here's a note that should keep you out of trouble and avoid problems: "If a discrepancy arises between the drawings and field conditions, or where a detail is doubtful of interpretation or an unanticipated field condition is encountered, the engineer shall be immediately contacted for procedure to be followed. Such instructions shall be confirmed in writing and distributed to all affected parties". And another good one: "Wherever there is a conflict between details and specifications, or between details, or where doubtful of interpretation, the most restrictive shall govern as determined by the Engineer of Record."
- 11. Shoddy construction. This could be anything from a homeowner having built a wall from a "how to" book, to an inexperienced or unscrupulous contractor building without plans or not following these inadequate grouting or mortar or improperly placed reinforcing. Retaining walls are quite forgiving and poor construction may not appear as distress for years, or never. I once built a vacation home with a five foot masonry retaining wall intended to be restrained at the top by the floor slab placed on the backfill. I instructed the contractor not to place any fill until the wall was properly braced since there was only a 14 inch wide footing. I went to the site a week later and to my amazement he had placed the backfill the full five feet no floor slab yet and the wall was perfectly plumb! Another case of practice defying theory but don't count on it! I had not followed my own rule—and advice to others -- to always, when possible, have a preconstruction meeting between the designer and contractor to be sure all conditions and requirements are understood, and jointly review the plans.
- 12. Age. If a retaining wall has been in place twenty years and shows no sign of distress, the chances are it will remain so for another twenty years, or fifty years. The adage "if it ain't broke, don't fix it" may be prudent advice. However, the caveat is that this precludes any change affecting the wall, such as new surcharges or a change in drainage above the wall. If in a seismic area the chances are it has already successfully withstood several earthquakes, but if the seismic risk is high and its failure could impact another structure, a seismic evaluation would be appropriate

And twelve fixes that could save a wall:

Note that each of the fixes listed below have been successfully used, but it is assumed that the wall is not in such distress that none are viable solutions.

- 1. <u>Correct surface drainage problems</u>. You can't economically replace the backfill or get to the base-of-wall drainage system, but you can re-grade at the surface so water does not collect behind the wall. Perhaps a small concrete diversion culvert. Often just shutting off an over active irrigation system will mitigate the problem. Additional weep holes can also be cored through the wall, although perhaps visually objectionable.
- 2. Reduce the retained height. If the soil pressure needs to be reduced, investigate whether re-grading of the surface can reduce the height of earth retained. Sometimes a change in landscaping, or a depressed drainage culvert at the back of the wall may reduce the height to an acceptable level based upon the as-built capabilities.

- 3. Use tie-backs. If the stem is severely overstressed, an option is to use tie-backs extending back beyond the failure plane. Drill holes through the wall and install conventional tiebacks (also called soil nailing). A downside of this is the appearance of the tie-back anchors on the exposed face of the wall. Or perhaps a tie-back at the surface can be used, with a concrete anchor block, or an added slab-on-grade. Using tie-backs requires re-analyzing the wall moments and shears because of the changed restraints.
- 4. Extend the footing. You can extend the toe of the footing and thereby substantially reduce the soil bearing pressure. Determine how much you need to extend the footing, then excavate to the bottom of the footing (add deeper for a key if necessary) and place concrete. To transfer shear and moment at the interface, drill holes in the existing footing and epoxy dowels to resist the calculated pullout. It may be prudent to maintain lateral stability by excavating in front of the toe in longitudinal increments, say twenty feet, or less.
- 5. <u>Remove and replace backfill material</u>. This may be the only solution if saturated backfill is the problem and cannot be controlled at the surface. Use crushed rock backfill, and be sure the base-of-wall drainage is functional.
- 6. Reinforce the front of the wall. This can be done by forming or pneumatically placing concrete to thicken the base, and tapering to a height where the added strength is no longer needed. This is on the compression side so the only design concern (other than how much thickness to add) is shear transfer at the interface, which can be accomplished by drilled dowel pins. This assumes, of course, that the existing footing will still be adequate.
- 7. Add a key. If there is a sliding problem you could add a deepened key in front of the existing footing. This will increase passive resistance and may be all you need. See #4 above for incremental excavating during this process.
- 8. <u>Use cantilevered soldier beams</u>. Drill holes on the heel side of the footing and embed a vertical beam, tied to the wall to transfer load to the beam. Space the beams at a distance the wall will span horizontally. The footing heel will determine how close to the wall the soldier beams (piles?) can be placed.
- 9. Get a building permit. Quite often there is no apparent distress in a wall, but an observant building inspector discovers that a permit had not been issued. This usually happens when a new building or addition is being constructed on the property. If plans for the wall are found it requires only substantiating calculations with an engineers signature. If it can't be justified, then one of the procedures above are needed to remedy an overstress. If no plans are found it's necessary to determine how the wall was built. This means probing and perhaps testing to determine location and spacing of reinforcing, toe and heel dimensions of the footing, and perhaps core tests of the wall material. The task then is one of working backward to find the capacity of the wall and hence its adequacy. Lesson: Always get a permit; it could save a future expense.
- 10. Push it back to plumb. Not recommended, but has been successfully done in some cases if the wall is only out of plumb an inch or two, and not all backfill has been placed, and depending upon its height, and in conjunction with the above fixes, the wall can be pushed back to near-plumb. The wall may have been bumped to cause this, or tractor compacting too close to the wall. This is an arguable procedure but has been done successfully with no after effects. Use this with extreme caution! You may want to remove some backfill first.
- 11. "Tear down that wall". If it's in bad shape, and none of the above make sense, it can be less costly to tear it down and rebuild. Especially valid if new conditions exist, such as need for a higher wall or a preference for a different wall material. See Case D below.

12. An exotic <u>solution?</u> We engineers pride ourselves on innovation. There may be a unique site condition that suggests a cost-effective fix. And you could come up with an ingenious method of saving a wall from reconstruction, and be a hero to a very happy client!

Some actual cases

Here are a few examples (edited) of problems that have occurred:

Case A. A wall was observed to lean excessively and it was found that the reinforcing protruding from the foundation was on the wrong side of the wall. *Solution: Add tie-backs*.

Case B. A wall was observed to lean excessively. Investigation revealed the wall had been designed to retain 12 feet of earth, with an extension of the wall another four feet above grade for screening. The owner and his landscaper arbitrarily added two additional feet of earth, thereby increasing the moment at the base of the stem by 60%! *Solution: Add tie-backs*.

Case C. Again the sign of a problem was leaning of the wall. Investigation discovered the contractor had misinterpreted the plans and halved the number of dowels projecting from the footing. *Solution:* Gunite added wall thickness at the base, bonded to the existing wall.

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23. CONSTRUCTION TOPICS AND CAVEATS

Horizontal Control Joints

Horizontal joints are intended for crack control and are largely a matter of judgment. Shrinkage in a wall cannot be eliminated. As the adage goes, concrete shrinks and ice cream melts. But we can attempt to control where the cracks form by forming crack control joints and by increasing the horizontal reinforcing. With a little more than minimum reinforcing there are few reports of problems when control joints are 100 feet or more for masonry, and somewhat less for concrete. The more horizontal reinforcing, the less likely cracks will be obvious, and the further apart joints may be spaced. In the case of a concrete wall, a ratio of $0.002\Lambda_{gross}$ is suggested; for masonry $0.0013\Lambda_{gross}$ is suggested (#5 bars at 32" o.c. for an 8" CMU wall).

Vertical joints for both concrete and masonry should be "cold joints", allowing for movement, but it is suggested that some horizontal dowels extend into the adjacent wall to assure out-of-plane alignment. Usually one end of horizontal dowels are wrapped, sleeved, or greased to prevent bonding.

Drainage

Lateral earth pressure theories are based upon drained soil. Saturated soil can substantially increase pressures. Therefore it is important to have weep holes at the base of the wall for any percolating water to escape. In concrete walls drain holes are 3" to 4" in diameter to facilitate cleaning and spaced five or six feet on center. Gravel should be placed along the base for any water to freely flow, otherwise the only thing coming out of a weep hole will be inside grass.

"Weep holes" in masonry walls can be provided by leaving the head joints open at alternate blocks (no mortar in end joints at 32" on center).

In licu of weep holes, or for basement type walls, horizontally placed perforated plastic pipe should be laid along the base of the heel adjacent to the stem, slopped to an outlet, and encased in a generous amount of coarse gravel. It is also recommended to lay a filter fabric over the gravel to keep out soil fines.

The most important drainage control is to keep water off the top slope as much as possible. This can be done by slope control, paved swales, paving, or other means. <u>Preventing water from entering the backfill is critical important because it changes the soil characteristics and increases lateral pressures.</u>

Backfill

Backfill material should be sandy non-cohesive material. Clayey soil are to be avoided because clay swells when wet, causing additional lateral pressure. An excellent practice is to fill the soil wedge with gravel.

Compaction

Compact the gravel behind the wall with care. You don't want settlement to occur later. Place the gravel in layers about one foot thick and start compacting at the face of the wall and work away from the wall. Gravel is best compacted with a vibrating plate compactor.

Inspections

If a consultant was employed, he or she will verify that the footings are excavated into the anticipated soil and indicate any corrections deemed necessary. They can also approve the backfill material.

Placement of reinforcing dowels projecting from the footing into the wall are critical to the design, and the Engineer-of-Record (EOR), or a deputy inspector, should verify that the dowels were properly placed. Several retaining wall failures were attributable to the dowels being on the wrong face of the wall!

Other inspections may be required by the building official, or by the EOR.

The Investigation

8The report for a project will nearly always have recommendations for site preparation (e.g. if fill is present or there is a liquefaction problem) in addition to design criteria information. This investigation report is usually a part of the contract documents and should be carefully reviewed and observed.

Forensic Investigations

If a problem is evident, or suspected, an independent engineer may be retained to investigate the problem. This will involve a review of the design, particularly to determine if the site conditions match the design criteria (e.g. a wall designed to retain eight feet, and actually retaining ten feet). The plans will be reviewed for clarity and conformance with the design intent and applicable building codes. The wall will be measured, deflection checked, and testing done to determine positioning of reinforcing and material strengths. Cores are often taken to determine both concrete strength and grout penetration into cells. The report reviewed and perhaps more soil samples recommended.

When the cause of the problem is discovered, the most economical solution acceptable to the owner should be determined. This can be contentious, particularly if opposing parties offer different solutions. Hopefully the issues can be resolved equitably and with civility without resort to litigation. At an impasse, mediation can be a very effective and less costly (i.e. attorney fees) resolution of a dispute.

Description of Design Examples:

These fourteen designs illustrate a variety of design conditions for retaining walls. They are worked by hand - the way you are accustomed to design retaining walls. You may use a different format, and your methodology may be a little different, but the results should be nearly the same. They are intended to show accepted design procedures. They are based on IBC '06 ('09 is similar), ACI 318-08, MSJC '05, and NCMA-SRW.

Following each of the examples is a report printout for the same problem using Retain Pro 9. This allows you to compare results, which should closely agree, given round-offs and shortcuts in hand calculations which most of us do for expediency.

<u>Example #1</u> - Retaining wall with sloped backfill, and stem of both concrete and masonry. The problem is designed so a key is necessary.

Example #2 - A wall with an adjacent footing, and wind on a projecting stem.

<u>Example #3</u> - This problem illustrates a heel-side surcharge, and an axial load consisting of both dead and live load, and an eccentricity.

Example #4 - This wall has a fence (zero weight and with wind load) on top of the retaining wall, and a property line condition.

Example #5 - This is a freestanding wall with seismic force due to self-weight applied, and only minor earth retaining. It is set on a property line. Remember that for free-standing walls designed for seismic or wind, these loads can act in each direction, and if the controlling direction is not obvious, you may need to check the reversed too.

Example #6 - This illustrates a concrete stem with the inside face tapered (battered) and with a seismic force due to earth pressure.

Example #7 - Masonry "basement" wall restrained laterally near the top.

Example #8 - Concrete "basement" wall restrained laterally near the top..

Example #9 - A rubble gravity wall design.

Example #10 – A segmental wall (MSE) with geogrids

Example #11 – A segmental gravity wall -- no geogrids.

Example #12 - A pier foundations option for Example #1.

Example #13 – Solder beam design – cantilevered

Example #14 – Gabion Wall (or multi-wythe large blocks)

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Design Data

Code: IBC '06

Soil slope = 2:1

Soil density 110 pcf

Equiv. fluid press. = 45 pcf

Active pressure toe side = 30 pcf

Passive press. = 389 pcf

$$\mu = 0.40$$

 $F_s = 24,000 \text{ psi}$

* f_m -- 1500 psi

$$f_c^{'} = 2500 \text{ psi}$$

 $f_v = 60,000 \, psi$

Allow, soil pressure: 3000 psf

Angle of internal friction : 34°

Check by Rankine formula

for
$$\phi = 34^{\circ}$$
 $\beta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 26.6^{\circ}$

$$K_a \text{ (slope)} = 0.406$$

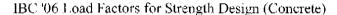
Pressure = $.406 \times 110 = 45 \text{ pef}$

$$K_a$$
 (level) 0.28

Pressure = $.28 \times 110 = 30 \text{ pcf}$

$$K_p$$
 (level = $\tan^2\left(45 + \frac{\varphi}{2}\right) - 3.54$

Pressure = $3.54 \times 110 - 389 \text{ pcf}$



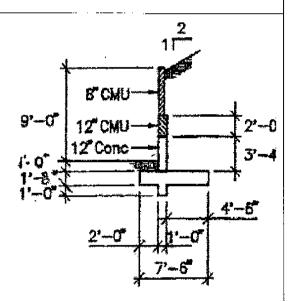
$$DL = 1.2$$

$$LL = 1.6$$

H = 1.6

W - 1.6

E = 1.0



Check Stem at Base

(Design Ht. -0.00)

$$M_{\rm u} = \frac{45 \times 10^2}{2} \times \frac{10}{3} \times 1.6 = 11,999'^{\#}$$

Use
$$t - 12$$
", $d = 9.6$ '

$$A_{s} (\text{req'd}) = \frac{1.7 \int_{c}^{c} bd}{2 f_{y}} - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2.89 (f_{c}^{'} bd)^{2}}{f_{y}^{2}} - \frac{6.8 f_{c}^{'} bM_{y}}{\phi f_{y}^{2}}} = 0..29 \text{ sq. in. (per CRSI eq.)}$$

$$\rho_{\text{bal}} = \frac{.85 \ f_C'}{f_{\mathcal{Y}}} \ x \ .85 \left(\frac{87,000}{87,000 + f_{\mathcal{Y}}} \right) = 0.018$$

$$\rho_{\text{max}}$$
 - .75 ρ_{bal} = 0.0106 ρ_{min} = $\frac{200}{f_y}$ = .0033 (or at least 1.33 A_s required.)

Try #6 at 16
$$A_s = \frac{0.44}{1.33} = 0.33 \ge 0.31$$
 OK for strength

But
$$\rho = \frac{0.44}{16 \times 9.6} = 0.0029 \le .0033$$
 N.G.

Try #7 at 16"
$$\rho = \frac{.60}{16 \times 9.6} = .0039 \ge .0033$$
 As $= \frac{.60}{1.33} = .45 \text{ sq. in. OK}$

$$a = \frac{.45 \times 60,000}{.85 \times 2500 \times 12} = 1.06$$

$$\Phi M_n = .9 x .45 x 60,000 \left(9.6 - \frac{1.06}{2} \right) x \frac{1}{12} = 18,367'^{\#}$$

$$V_u - \left(\frac{45 \times 10^2}{2} - \frac{30 \times 1}{2}\right) 1.6 = 3576 \#$$

$$v_{\rm u} = \frac{3576}{12 \times 9.6} = 31.0 \text{ } v_{\rm allow} = \phi 2\sqrt{f_C'} = 75 \ge 31.0 \text{ } \text{OK}$$

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Check embedment into footing:

* For hooked bar (ACI 12.5)

$$\frac{0.02 f_y d_b}{\sqrt{f_c'}} \times 0.7 - \frac{.02 \times 60,000 \times 0.875 \times 0.7}{\sqrt{2500}} = 14.7'' \quad or \ 8 d_b \quad or \ 6''$$

If ACI 318 '08, 12.5.3.4 is deemed applicable, reduce embedment by $(A_s \text{ req'd}) / (A_s \text{ req'd})$

Min. footing thickness required = 14.7 + 3 = 17.7 in. Use 20"

Development length into stem

$$\ell_{d} = \frac{3 F_{y} \alpha \beta \lambda d_{b}}{40 \sqrt{f_{c}'} \left(\frac{c + K_{tr}}{d_{b}}\right)}$$
 [See ACI 12.2.3, equation 12-1]

$$\left(\frac{c + K_{tr}}{d_b}\right) = \left(\frac{2.0 + .44 + 0}{.875}\right) = 2.79 > 2.5 \text{ max}.$$

$$\therefore \ell_d = \frac{3 \times 60,000 \times 1 \times 1 \times 1 \times .875}{40 \times 50 \times 2.5} = 31.5 \text{ in.}$$

Note: If lapped with continuing reinf, of same size, splice length (assuming Class B $splice = 1.3 \times 31.5 = 41$ "

Check Masonry Stem - Allowable Stress Design

Switch to 12" masonry at 3'-4" high which is approx. top of dowels.

$$f_m' = 1500 \text{ psi}$$
 $F_s - 24,000$

$$F_s = 24,000$$

$$f_b = .33 \times 1500 = 500 \text{ psi}$$

$$E_{\rm m} = 900 \ f_{\rm m}$$

$$E_{\rm m} = 1,350,000 \text{ psi}$$

$$E_{\rm m} = 900 \text{ fm}$$
 $E_{\rm m} = 1,350,000 \text{ psi}$ $E_{\rm s} = 29,000,000 \text{ n} = \frac{E_S}{E_B}$ 21.5

M @ + 3.33' (= H of 6.67') =
$$\frac{45 \times 6.67^2}{2} \times \frac{6.67}{3} = 2225'^{\#}$$

Try #5 at 16" at edge

$$A_8 = \frac{.31}{1.33} = 0.23$$
 $\rho = \frac{.31}{16 \times 9} = .0022$

np = 21.5 x .0022 = .0473
$$\frac{2}{kj}$$
 = 8.33 j = 0.91 « From Amreim, Table E-9

$$\mathbf{M}_{m} = \frac{f_b h d^2}{\frac{2}{k_j}} - \frac{500 \times 12 \times 9^2}{8.33} \times \frac{1}{12} = 4862^m$$

$$M_s = f_s A_s jd = 24,000 x .23 x .91 x 9 x $\frac{1}{12} = 3767^{n}$ « governs$$

:. OK for # 5 @ 32 @ edge (overly conservative and could be reduced for final design)

$$V = \frac{45 \times 6.67^2}{2} = 1001^{\#} \qquad V = \frac{1001}{12 \times 91 \times 9} = 10.2 < 1.0 \sqrt{f'_m} = 38.7 \quad \text{OK}$$

Lap length into concrete below (ACI 12.2.3) =

$$\ell_d = \frac{3 \times 60,000 \times 1 \times 1 \times 0.8 \times 0.625}{40 \times 50 \times 2.5} \times 1.3 = 23.4''$$

Lap length into masonry above – .002 $d_b f_{\rm s}$

$$= .002 \times .625 \times 24,000 = 30.0$$
"

Check Stem at + 5.33'

Reduce to 8" masonry, grout reinf, cells only

$$f_m' = 1500$$
 $F_s = 24,000$ $F_b = 1500 \text{ x}.33 = 500 \text{ psi}$

$$d - 5.25$$
" $n = 21.5$

Depth
$$(\hat{a}) \pm 5.33' = 10.00 - 5.33 = 4.67'$$

$$M = \frac{45 \times 4.67^2}{2} \times \frac{4.67}{3} = 763'^{\#}$$

Use #5 at 32" at edge

$$np = \frac{21.5 \ x \ .31}{32 \ x \ 5.25} = .04$$

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$$2/k_j = 8.87 \text{ j} = 0.92$$

$$M_{\rm m} = \frac{500 \times 12 \times 5.25^2}{8.87} \times \frac{1}{12} = 1553'^{\#}$$

$$M_s = 24,000 x \frac{.31}{2.67} \times .92 \times 5.25 \times \frac{1}{12} = 1121'^{\#} \leftarrow governs$$

OK because 1109 > 763

$$V = \frac{45 \times 6.67^2}{2} = 490^{\#}$$

$$v = \frac{490}{12 \times .91 \times 5.25} = 8.5 \text{ psi}$$

$$v_{allow} = 38.7 \text{ psi} \ \rangle \ 8.5$$
 OK

Lap embedment below

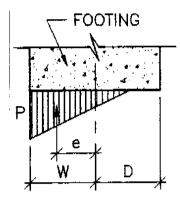
$$= .002 d_b x 24,000$$

$$= .002 \text{ x } .625 \text{ x } 24,000 = 30$$
"

DESIGN EXAMPLE 1			P	age 6 of 11
Stability Check				
<u>Item</u>	<u>Wt. (lbs.)</u>	*arm (ft.)	+M (ftlbs <u>.)</u>	-M (ftlbs.)
8" CMU 78 x 4.67	364	2.33	849	
12" CMU 124 x 2.0	248	2.50	620	
12" conc. 150 x 3.33	500	2.50	1250	
carth 4.5 x 10 x 110	4,950	5.25	25,988	
earth .33 x 4.67 x 110	170	2.83	481	.
earth 4.5 x 2.25 x 110 x ½	557	6.00	3,341	
earth 2.0 x 1.0 x 110	220	1.0	220	
footing 7.5 x 1.67 x 150	1,875	3.75	7,031	
key 1 x 1 x 150	150	2.5	375	
P _a –		13.92		20,229
$\frac{45x(10.0+1.67+2.25)^2}{2}=$	4360	3		
$P_v = \frac{1}{2} \times 4210$	2,105	7.5	15,788	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	11,139		55,943	20,229
w/o P _v -	9,034		40,155	
$X = {W}$	9034	- 2.21′	* About front edg	e of footing
$e = \frac{7.5}{2} - 2.21 - 1.54' =$	18.5"			
Middle $\frac{1}{3} - \frac{7.5}{6} = 1.2$		∴ outsi	de middle third	

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When resultant outside middle third:



Soil pressure =
$$\frac{W}{.75D - 1.5e}$$

* Soil P =
$$\frac{9034}{.75 \times 7.5 - 1.5 \times 1.54}$$
 = 2725 < 3000 lbs./sq. ft. OK

OTM ratio =
$$\frac{40,155}{20,184} = 1.99$$

Check OTM Using Pv

$$RM = 40,155 + 15,788 55,943^{"}$$

$$W = 9034 + 2105 = 11,139$$

OTM ratio =
$$\frac{55,943}{20,158} = 2.78$$

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Check Sliding

Total lateral =

$$\frac{45 \times 13.92^2}{2} - \frac{30 \times 2.67^2}{2} = 4253^{\#}$$

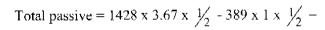
Friction resistance = $9034 \times 0.40 = 3614^{\circ}$

Passive resistance:

Neglect

$$389 \times 2.67 = 1039$$

$$389 \times 3.67 = 1428$$



Factor of safety
$$=$$
 $\frac{3614 + 2426}{4253} = 1.42 \approx 1.50$

Consider OK

Check Key

$$V_u = \frac{1428 + 1039}{2} \times 1 \times 1.6 = 1974^{\#}$$

$$v_{\rm u} = \frac{1974}{12(12-2)} = 16.4 < 2\varphi \sqrt{f_{\rm C}'} = 58.1$$

$$\uparrow \phi = 0.65$$

(deduct 2" from footing thickness for plain concrete) [ACI 22.4.8]

$$\mathbf{M}_{u} = \left[1039 \times 1 \times \frac{12}{2} + \frac{(1428 - 1039)1.0}{2} \times \frac{2 \times 12}{3}\right] \cdot 1.6 = 12,464^{n\#}$$

$$S = \frac{12 (12 - 2)^2}{6} = 200$$

$$f_r = \frac{12,464}{200} = 62.3 \ psi < 5\varphi \sqrt{f_C'} = 5 \ x \ 0.55 \ x \ 50 = 137.5 \ OK$$

No reinf. req'd.

Page 9 of 11

Check Heel

Neglect upward soil pressure

$$W_1 = 4950$$

$$W_2 = 557$$

Use
$$d = 20.0 - 2.5 = 17.5$$
 in.

$$W_3 = 4.5 \times 1.67 \times 150 = 1127^{\#}$$

$$W_4 = (P_y \text{ not used})$$

$$M_u = 4950 \times 2.25 \times 1.2 + 557 \times 3.0 \times 1.2 + 1127 \times 2.25 \times 1.2$$

$$= 18,413$$

$$Mu_{Stom} = 11,992^{'\#}$$

∢ governs

(Note: By statics, heel moment cannot exceed applied stem moment)

*A_s =
$$\frac{1.7 f'_{c} bd}{2 f'_{y}} - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2.89 (f'_{c} bd)^{2}}{f_{y}^{2}} - \frac{6.8 f'_{b} M_{u}}{\varphi f_{y}^{2}}}$$

*[from C.R.S.I. Handbook, Mu in inch-kips]

$$\phi = 0.90$$

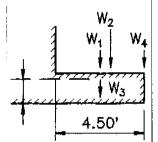
$$A_s = 0.154 \frac{sq. in.}{ft.} \quad or \frac{200}{f_v} \times 12 \times 17.5 = .57 \quad or 1.33 \times 0.154 = 0.20$$

Select #6 at 16 to match stem dowels $(A_s = .33 > .20 - OK)$

Embedment length beyond stem face (using stress ratio reduction)

$$\frac{3 \times 60 \times 1.0 \times 1.0 \times 0.8 \times 0.75}{40 \times 50 \times 2.5} \times .80 \times \frac{.154}{.44/1.33} = 10.1'' \langle 12'' \min.$$

Use 12" embedment beyond stem face.



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$$V_{u} = 4950 \times 1.2 + 557 \times 1.2 + 1127 \times 1.2 + (\text{w/o P}_{v}) - 7961 \#$$

$$V_{u} = \frac{7961}{12 \times 17.5} = 37.9 \, \text{psi} < 2 \varphi \sqrt{f_{c}'} = 2 \times .75 \times \sqrt{2500} = 75 \, \text{psi} \qquad \text{OK}$$

Check Toe

Apply total factored vertical load

(w/o p_v) at same eccentricity as

service loads:

$$= 9034 \times 1.2 = 10.841^{\#}$$

Factored soil pressure

$$= \frac{9034 \times 1.2}{75 \times 7.5 - 1.5 \times 1.54} \times 3270 \, \text{psf} = @ P_1$$

Soil Pressure @ P2 (for shear)

$$- \frac{3 \times 2.21 - .62}{3 \times 2.21} \times 3270 = 2964 \text{ psf}$$

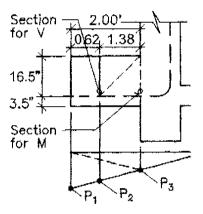
Soil Pressure @ P₃ (Max. M) =

$$\frac{3 \times 2.21 - 2.0}{3 \times 2.21} \times 3270 = 2283 \text{ psf}$$

But because stem moment governs

$$V_v = \frac{11,992}{4.5/2} x \frac{1.2}{1.6} = 3997^{\#}$$

$$v_u = 3997 / (12 \times 17.5) = 19.0 \text{ psi} < 75 \text{ OK}$$



$$M_u \uparrow = \frac{3270 \times 2}{2} \times .67 \times 2 + \frac{2284 \times 2}{2} \times .33 \times 2 = 5905^{\text{W}}$$

$$M_u \downarrow = (1.67 \times 150 + 1 \times 110) \times \frac{2^2}{2} \times 1.2 = 865^{\text{m}}$$

$$M_{design} = 5905 - 865 = 5040^{\circ}$$

$$A_s min = \frac{200}{f_V} \times 12 \times 16.5 = .66 \text{ sq. in.}$$

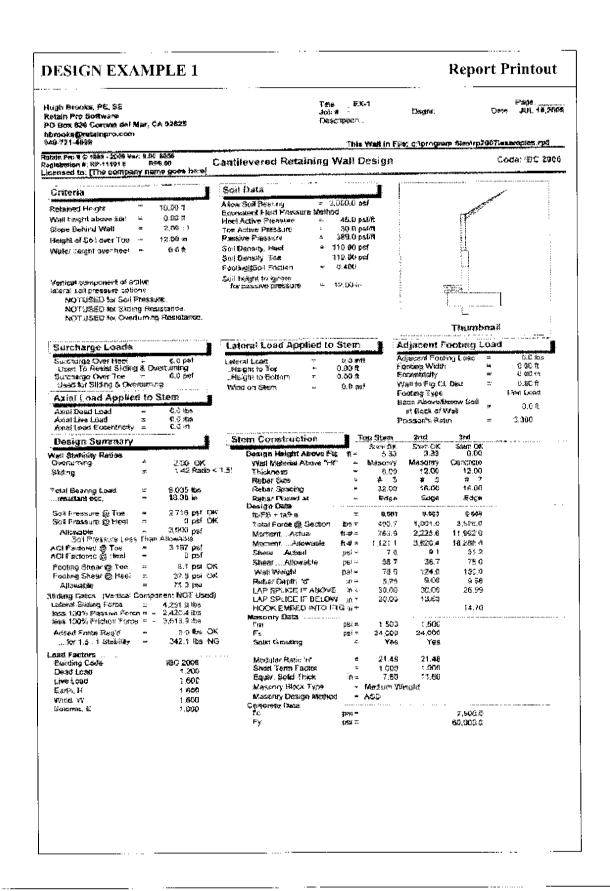
 A_s required (per C.R.S.I formula) = .07 sq. in.

 A_s to override $A_s \min = 1.38 x .07 = 0.09 \text{ sq. in.}$

But also As min = $0.0018 \times 12 \times 16.5 = 0.36 \leftarrow \text{Governs}$

Use #7
$$(\omega)$$
 16" ($A_s = \frac{0.60}{1.33} = 0.45 > 0.36$) OK

Shear negligible by inspection because only acts on 0.62 ft.



Report Printout

Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Status Por Softwath PD Box 826 Coross del Misr, CA 92625 hbrooks@retainpro.com 949-721-8099

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Cantilevered Retaining Wall Design

Code: 18C 2004

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JESIGNER NOTES:

Page 1 of 8

Design Data

Building Code: IBC '06

Soil bearing - 2000 psf

Soil density = 110 pcf

Eq. fluid pressure = 30 pcf

Passive = 300 pcf

$$\mu = 0.40$$

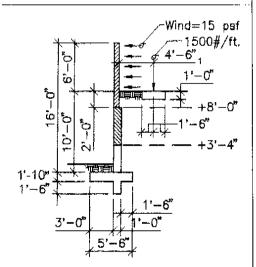
Poisson's Ratio (for Bousinesq) = 0.50

$$f_{\mathsf{m}}' = 1,500 \; \mathrm{psi}$$

$$f_s = 24,000 \text{ psi}$$

$$f_y = 60,000 \text{ psi}$$

$$f_{C} = 2,000 \text{ psi}$$



Check Stem at +8.00'

$$M = 15 \times 6 \left(\frac{6}{2} + 2 \right) + \frac{30 \times 2^2}{2} \times \frac{2}{3}$$

$$=490''$$

$$f_{\rm m}^{'} = 1500 \text{ ps}$$

$$f_{m}^{'} = 1500 \text{ psi}$$
 $f_{b} = .33 \text{ x } 1500 = 500 \text{ psi}$

$$d = 3.75$$
 (for 6" CMU)

$$E_{m} = 900 \text{ x f}_{m} = 1,350,000 \text{ psi}$$

$$E_s = -29,000,000$$

$$n = 21.5$$

$$A_s = \frac{490 \times 12}{24,000 \times 1.33 \times .90 \times 3.75} = .054$$
 Use #4 @ 32

Assume
$$\uparrow$$
 $A_s = \frac{.20}{2.67} = .075$ OK

np
$$-\frac{21.5 \times .20}{32 \times 3.75} = .036$$
 $\frac{2}{kj} = 9.24$ j = .92

Page 2 of 8

$$M_s = -24,000 \text{ x } 1.33 \text{ x } .075 \text{ x } .92 \text{ x } 3.75 \text{ x } \frac{1}{12} = 690^{\# \leftarrow} \text{ governs}$$

$$M_M - 500 \times 12 \times 3.75^2 \times \frac{1}{9.24} \times \frac{1}{12} = 761^{14}$$

$$V = 6' \times 15 + \frac{30 \times 2^2}{2} = 150^{\#}$$

$$v = \frac{150}{12 \times 92 \times 3.75} = 3.62$$
 $v_{\text{allow}} = \sqrt{f_C'} \times 1.33 = 59$

Rebar embedment below = $.002 \times .50 \times 24,000 = 24$ "

Check Stem @ ± 3.33'

Change to 12" CMU, d = 9.0"

$$M_{wind} = 6' \times 15 \text{ psf } \times \left(\frac{6}{2} + 6.67\right) = 870''$$

$$M_{\text{soil}} = \frac{30 \times 6.67^2}{2} \times \frac{6.67}{3} = 1484$$

$$M_{\text{bousmesq}}$$
 (from program) = $\frac{1107}{3461}$

Total lateral = 6' x 15 +
$$\frac{30 \times 6.67^2}{2}$$
 + 505 = 1262**
(from program) \uparrow

$$A_s = \frac{3461 \times 12}{24,000 \times .9 \times 9.0} = 0.21$$

Use #5 @ 16 @ edge

(Disallow $\frac{1}{2}$ wind stress increase at this level)

np =
$$\frac{21.5 \times .31}{16 \times .9} = .046$$
 $\frac{2}{kj} = 8.4$ j = 0.91 $A_s = \frac{.31}{1.33} = .23$

$$A_s = \frac{.31}{1.33} = .23$$

$$M_s = .23 \times 24,000 \times .91 \times 9 \times \frac{1}{12} = 3767^{\#} > 3461 \text{ OK}$$

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$$M_{u_1} = \frac{500 \times 12 \times 9^2}{8.4} \times \frac{1}{12} = 4821'^{\#}$$

$$V = 6 \times 15 + \frac{30 \times 6.67^2}{2} + 504 = 1261 \#$$

$$_{\rm V}$$
 $\frac{1261}{12 \times .91 \times 9} = 12.8 < \sqrt{f_{m}'} = 38.7$ OK

Embedment length = $.002 \times .625 \times 24,000 = 30$ "

Check Stem (a) Base

Use 12" CMU

$$M_{wind} = -6' \times 15 \text{ psf} \left(\frac{6}{2} + 10 \right) = -1170^{-4}$$

$$M_{\text{soil}} = \frac{30 \times 10^2}{2} \times \frac{10}{3} = 5000$$

$$M_{bousiresq.}$$
 (from program) $\frac{3245}{9415}$

$$f_b - 500 \text{ psi}$$
 $n = 21.5$ $d = 9.0$ $A_s = \frac{9415 \times 12}{24,000 \times .90 \times 9} - 0.58$

Try #8 @ 8"

$$A_s = \frac{0.79}{0.67} = 1.18 \text{ sq. in./ft.}$$

$$np = \frac{21.5 \times 0.79}{8 \times 9} - 0.236 \qquad \frac{2}{kj} = 4.88 \qquad j = .83$$

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$$M_s = \frac{1.33 \times 24,000 \times .83 \times 9.0}{12} = 19,870$$
"#

$$\mathbf{M}_{\rm m} = \frac{500 \times 12 \times 9^2}{4.88} \times \frac{1}{12} = 8299 \approx 9415$$

Stress Ratio =
$$\frac{9415}{8299}$$
 = 1.33

(13% overstressed optional redesign)

$$V = 6' \times 15 + \frac{30 \times 10^2}{2} + 737 = 2327''$$

Bousinesq 1

$$v = \frac{2327}{12 \times 9} = 21.6 < \sqrt{f_m'} = 38.7 \text{ OK}$$

Development length of dowels

$$\ell_{db} = .002 \times 24,000 \times 1.0 \times 1.5 = 72.0 \text{ in.}$$

Choose not to reduce by stress ratio. Assume continuing bars will be smaller diameter, therefore, 1.3 multiplier for splice lap not required.

Embedment for hooked bar into footing = $\frac{0.02 \times f_y d_b \times 0.7}{\sqrt{f'}}$

$$= \frac{.02 \times 60,000 \times 1.0 \times 0.7}{44.7} = 18.8$$
"

Min. ftg. Thickness = $18.8 \pm 3.0 = 21.5$ "

Use 22" thick

DESIGN EXAMPLE 2					Page	5 of 8
Stability					·	
Try footing 5'-6" x 1'-10" thick						
<u>Item</u>	Wt.		<u>arm</u>		+ <u>.</u> M	<u>-M</u>
8" stem 8' x 78 psf	624	X	3.33		2078	
12" stem 8' x 124 psf	992	x	3.50	=	3472	
Soil @ heel 1.5 x 110 x 10'	1650	х	4.75		7838	
Soil @ toe 3 x 1 x 110	330	x	1.50	=	495	
Soil behind stem .33 x 110 x 2	74	x	3.83	=	283	
Footing 5.5 x 1.83 x 150	1510	x	2.75	=	4152	
Key	225	x	3.50	=	788	
Adj. Footing	167	x	4.75	-	795	
OTM Wind = $6' \times 15$			14.83			1335
OTM soil = $\frac{30 \times 11.83^2}{2}$			11.83/3			8278
OTM adj. footing 830#			5.7			4731
	5572#	-	$\frac{-2.63}{3}$		19,899'#	14,34

$$\bar{x} = \frac{19,889 \quad 14,344}{5572} = 1.00$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{19,889 - 14,344}{5572} = 1.00$$
 $\epsilon = \frac{5.5}{2} - 1.00 = 1.75 > \frac{5.5}{6} = .92$

 \therefore outside middle third – designer may prefer redesign for within middle third.

Soil p =
$$\frac{5572}{.75 \times 5.5 - 1.5 \times 1.75} = 3715 \ psf \langle 4000 \text{ OK} \rangle$$

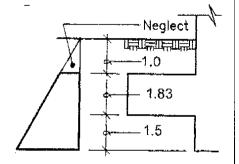
OTM ratio =
$$\frac{19.899}{14,344}$$
 1.39 \approx 1.50 (consider OK?)

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Check Sliding

Lateral force of adj footing

Total lateral = $15 \times 6' + \frac{30 \times 11.83^2}{2} + 830$ = 3019 lbs.



Less friction resistance

$$= 5572 \text{ x} .40 = 2229$$

Less passive

$$= \frac{300 \times 4.33^{2}}{2} - \frac{300 \times 1^{2}}{2} = 2662$$

Sliding ratio =
$$\frac{2229 + 2662}{3020} - 1.62$$

Check Key

Force =
$$\frac{300 \times 4.33^2}{2} - \frac{300 \times 2.83^2}{2} = 1611^{\#}$$

Effective width = 12" - 2" = 10"

$$v = \frac{1.6 \times 1611}{12 \times 9} = 23.9 < 2\varphi \sqrt{f_c'} = 85$$
 OK

$$M_u$$
 (approx.) = $1611 \times \frac{18''}{2} \times 1.6 = 23,198'''$

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$$S = \frac{12 \times (12 - 2)^2}{6} = 200$$

$$f_{\rm t} - \frac{23.198}{200} = 116 < 5\varphi \sqrt{f_{\rm C}'} = 137$$

ΟK

.. No reinforcing required

Check Toe

Total vert, factored load

$$= 5572 \times 1.2 = 6686^{h}$$

Factored soil pressure

$$= \frac{6686}{.75 \times 5.5 - 1.5 \times 1.73} + 4370 \text{ psf } @$$



$$P_2 = \frac{3 \times 1.02 - 3.0 - .25}{3 \times 1.02} \times 4370 \approx 0.0$$

$$P_3 = \frac{3 \times 1.02 - 3.0 + 1.54}{3 \times 1.02} \times 4370 = 2285 \text{ psf}$$

$$M_u \uparrow = 4370 \times 3.25 \times \frac{1}{2} \times .67 \times 3.25 - 15,394$$

$$M_0 \downarrow = [(1.83 \times 150 + 1 \times 110) \times 3 \times (\frac{3}{2} + .25)] \times 1.2 = 2,422^{1/2}$$

$$M_{design} \sim 15,394 - 2,422 = 12,972^{\#}$$

 A_s (Per CRSI formula - See Example #1) = 0.17

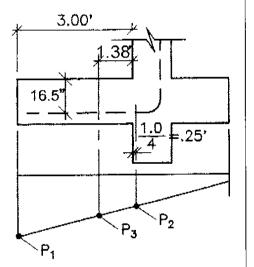
or
$$\left(\frac{200}{f_y}\right)$$
 10 x 10.5 = 0.35 sq. in./ft.

Use
$$1.33 \times 0.17 \div 0.23$$

Use dowel bars • #8 @ 8"
$$A_s = \frac{.79}{.67} = 1.18$$
 OK

$$V_{\rm u} = \frac{4370 + 2285}{2} \times (3 - 1.54) - (1.83 \times 150 + 1 \times 110) (3 - .1.54) 1.2$$

= 4996#



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$$v_u = \frac{4996}{12 \times 18.5} = 22.5$$

$$v_{\text{allow}} - 2 \text{ x .85 } \sqrt{2500} = 85 \text{ OK}$$

Check Heel

Ignore upward soil pressure

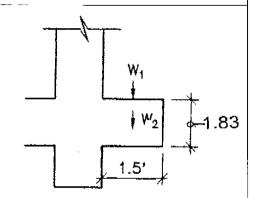
$$W_1 = 992 \times 1.2 = 1190 \text{ }^{#}$$

$$+ 624 \times 1.2 \times 749$$

$$+ 74 \times 1.2 = 89$$

$$+ 167 \times 1.2 = 200$$

$$W^2 = 1.83 \times 1.5 \times 150 \times 1.2 = \frac{494}{2722} \text{ }^{\#}$$



 $M_u = 3163 \times \frac{1.5}{2} = 2372^{\mu}$

Effective thickness of footing = 20 - 2 = 18"

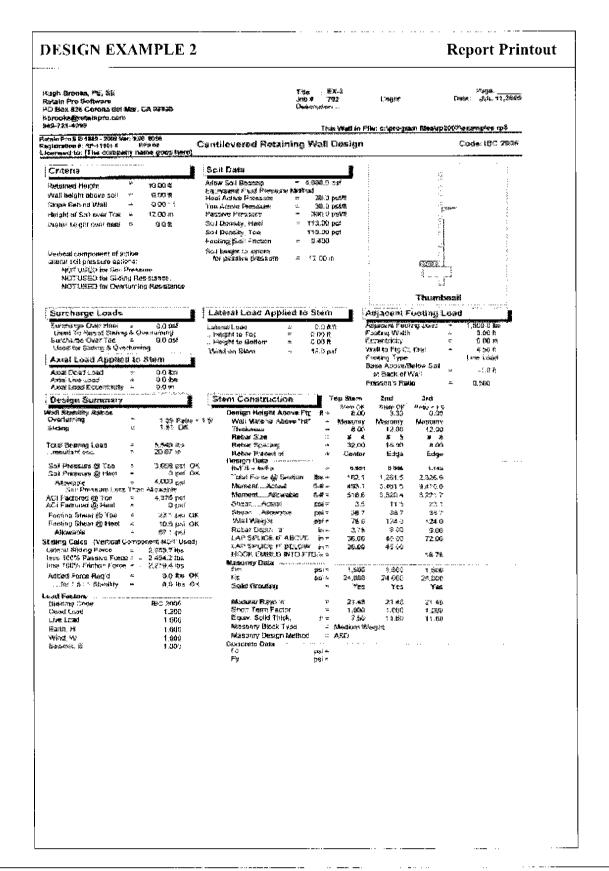
$$S = \frac{12 \times 18^2}{6} = 648$$

$$f_r - \frac{2372 \times 12}{648} = 43.9 < 5\phi \sqrt{f_C'} = 137$$
 OK

.. No reinforcement required

$$V_u~=~2722~\#$$

$$v_u = \frac{2722}{12 \times 20} - 11.3 < 2\phi \sqrt{f_c'} = 67 \text{ OK}$$



Report Printout

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Cantilevered Retaining Wall Design

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DWSHANKA NOTES:

Page 1 of 6

Design Data

Code: IBC '06

Eq. Fluid Press – 30 pcf

Soil Bearing = 3000 psf

Soil Density = 110 pcf

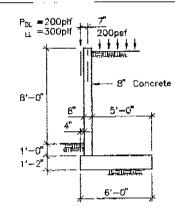
Passive = 300 pcf

Surcharge / Axial as shown

$$f_c' = 2500 \text{ psi}$$

f_v = 60,000 psi

Neglect soil over toe for passive



Stem (a) Base $(=\pm 0.0)$

$$M_u =$$

$$\frac{30 \times 9^{2}}{2} \times \frac{9}{3} \times 1.6 + 200 \times \frac{30}{110} \times \frac{9^{2}}{2} \times 1.6 + (200 \times 1.2 + 300 \times 1.6) \frac{7}{12} = 9,787''$$

$$d = 8 - 2 - \frac{.75}{2} = 5.63''$$

The general solution for A_s (per CRSI)

$$= \frac{1.7 f_{c}^{'} bd}{2 f_{y}} - \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2.89 (f_{c}^{'} bd)^{2}}{f_{y}^{2}} - \frac{6.8 f_{c}^{'} bM_{u}}{\phi f_{y}^{2}}}$$

For b (unit stem width) = 12", $f_y = 60$ ksi: this reduces to:

A_s = 0.17 f'_o d -
$$\sqrt{.029 (f'_C d)^2 - .0063 f'_C M_U}$$
 [M_o in in-kips]
= .17 x 2.5 x 5.63 - $\sqrt{.029 (2.5 \times 5.63)^2 - .0063 \times 2.5 \times 9.787 \times 12}$
= 0.42 sq. in./ft.

 A_s (Per above CRSI) = 0.42 sq. in./ft.

$$\rho_{\min} = \frac{200}{f_y} = .0033$$

or 1.33 x 0.42 0.56 (See ACI 10.5.3)

Use #
$$6 (\hat{a}) 9^n$$
 $\Lambda_s = \frac{.44}{.75} = .59$ $\rho = \frac{.44}{.9 \times 5.63} = .0087 \rangle .0033$

$$\rho = \frac{.44}{9 \times 563} = .0087 \rangle .0033$$

$$a = \frac{.44 \times 60}{.85 \times 2.5 \times 9} = 1.38''$$

$$M_n = .59 \times 60,000 \left(5.63 - \frac{1.38}{2} \right) x .90 x \frac{1}{12} = 13,115^{\text{#}} > 9,787 \text{ OK}$$

Stress ratio =
$$\frac{9787}{13,115} = 0.746$$

Check Stern Shear

$$V_u = \frac{30 \times 9^2}{2} \times 1.6 + 200 \times \frac{30}{110} \times 9' \times 1.6 = 2729''$$

$$v_{\rm u} = \frac{2729}{12 \times 5.63} = 40.4 \text{ psi}$$

$$v_{\text{allow}} = \varphi 2 \sqrt{f_C'} = .75 \times 2 \sqrt{2500} - 75 \text{ psi} \text{ OK}$$

Check embedment into footing

For hooked bar =
$$\frac{.02 \times f_{v} d_{b} \times 0.7}{\sqrt{f_{c}'}}$$

or 8d b or 6"

$$= \frac{0.02 \times 60,000 \times .75 \times 0.7}{50} = 12.6$$
"

Choose to reduce by stress level per ACI 12.5.3.4

$$\therefore$$
 embedment 12.6 x .746 = 9.40"

Footing thickness required

=
$$9.4" + 3"$$
 clear = $12.4"$
use 14" thick $(d - 14 - 3 - .50 + 10.5"$
arbitrary \uparrow

Lap length above footing

$$\ell d_b = \frac{0.024 \times 0.75 \times 60,000}{\sqrt{2500}} \times 0.746 = 16.1^{\circ}$$

Assume Class B splice w/continuing. #6 bars above, then lap = $16.1 \times 1.3 - 20.94$ ".

Check Stem (a) + 1.5 Above Footing

$$M_{u} = \frac{30 \times 7.5^{2}}{2} \times \frac{7.5}{3} \times 1.6 + 200 \frac{30}{110} \times \frac{7.5^{2}}{2} \times 1.6 + (200 \times 1.2 + 300 \times 1.6) \frac{7}{12}$$
$$= 6250^{\#}$$

$$A_s = 0.257$$
 [CRSI formula]

$$A_s = 0.257$$
 [CRSI formula] Use #6 @ 18" $A_S = \frac{.44}{1.5} = 0.293 > 0.257$

$$M_n @ + 1.5$$

$$a = \frac{.44 \times 60}{.85 \times 2.5 \times 18} - 0.69$$

$$M_n = \frac{.44}{1.5} \times 60,000 \times \left(5.63 - \frac{.69}{2}\right) \times .9 \times \frac{1}{12} = 6976'^{\#} > 6250 \text{ OK}$$

Lap length over dowels = $\frac{.024 \times .75 \times 60,000}{\sqrt{2500}} \times 1.3 = 28.1$ " (assuming Class B

Extend ftg. dowels 30" high.

Check Shear

$$V_u = \frac{30 \times 7.5^2}{2} \times 1.6 + 200 \frac{30}{110} \times 7.5 \times 1.6 = 2005^{\#}$$

$$v = -\frac{2005}{12 \times 5.63} = 29.7 < 75 \ psi$$

DESIGN EXAMPLE 3						Page 4 of 6		
Stability Check								
<u>ltem</u>	"Wt.		arm		<u>+M</u>	-M		
Stem $\frac{8}{12} \times 150 \times 9$	900	x	.67		600			
Harth 5 x 110 x 9	4950	х.	3.5	=	17325			
Surcharge 5 x 200	1000	x	3.5	=	3500			
Axial DI.	200	Х	1/12	=	17			
Axial LL	300	X	1/12	=	25			
Footing 6 x 1.17 x 150	1053	x	3.0		3159			
OTM earth = $\frac{30 \times 10.17^2}{2}$			$\frac{10.17}{3}$			5259		
Surcharge = $200 \times \frac{30}{110} \times 10.17$			10.17 2	<u>-</u> .		2821		
	8403	-			24,626	8080		

w/o axial LL = 8103

$$\bar{x}$$
 (from front edge of footing) = $\frac{24,626 - 8080}{8403} = 1.97$

e =
$$\frac{6}{2}$$
 - 1.97 = 1.03' = 12.36" Middle $\frac{1}{3} = \frac{6}{6} = 1.00$ ft. = 12.0 in.

.. Slightly outside middle third

Soil
$$\rho$$
 = $\frac{8403}{.75 \times 6 - 1.5 \times 1.03} = 2829 \text{ psf}$

OTM ratio (w/o axial LL) =
$$\frac{24,626 - 25}{8080}$$
 = 3.04

NOTE: If surcharge is live load it should be excluded from overturning and sliding resistance and lateral pressure reduced accordingly.

Page 5 of 6

Check Sliding

$$\frac{\text{Total lateral}}{2} = \frac{30 \times 10.17^2}{2} + 200 \times \frac{30}{110} \times 10.17 = 2106$$

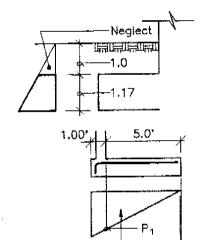
Passive resistance

$$= \frac{300 \times 2.17^2}{2} - \frac{300 \times 1^2}{2} = 556 \text{ lbs}.$$

Friction resistance (w/o axial LL)

$$= 8103 \times 0.40 = 3241^{\#}$$

Sliding factor of safety =
$$\frac{556 + 3241}{2106}$$
 = 1.80
OK > 1.5



Check Heel

Factored total vert. load = 8403 x 1.2 ± 300 x 1.6 \cdots 10,204 $^{\#}$

Soil p (using e = 1.02') =
$$\frac{10,204}{.75 \times 6}$$
 1.5 x 1.02

Soil p @
$$P_1 = \frac{4.94}{5.94} \times 3456 = 2874 \text{ psf}$$

$$M_u \downarrow = (1.17 \times 150 \times 1.2 + 110 \times 9 \times 1.2 + 200 \times 1.2) \times \frac{5^2}{2} = 20,483^{\text{H}}$$

$$M_u \uparrow = \frac{2874 \times 4.94}{2} \times \frac{4.94}{3} = 11,689^{4}$$

$$M_{\text{design}} = 20,483 - 11,689 - 8794^{14}$$

$$A_s (w/d = 11.5^n) = 0.164 \text{ sq. in.}$$
 $\rho_{min} = \frac{200}{f_y} = .0033$

 A_s min required = .0033 x 12 x 11.5 = 0.455 sq. in. or 1.33 x .164 = 0.219

Use #5 e 9" to match stem dowels.

$$A_s = \frac{0.31}{.75} = 0.41 > 0.219$$

Page 6 of 6

Check Shear @ Heel

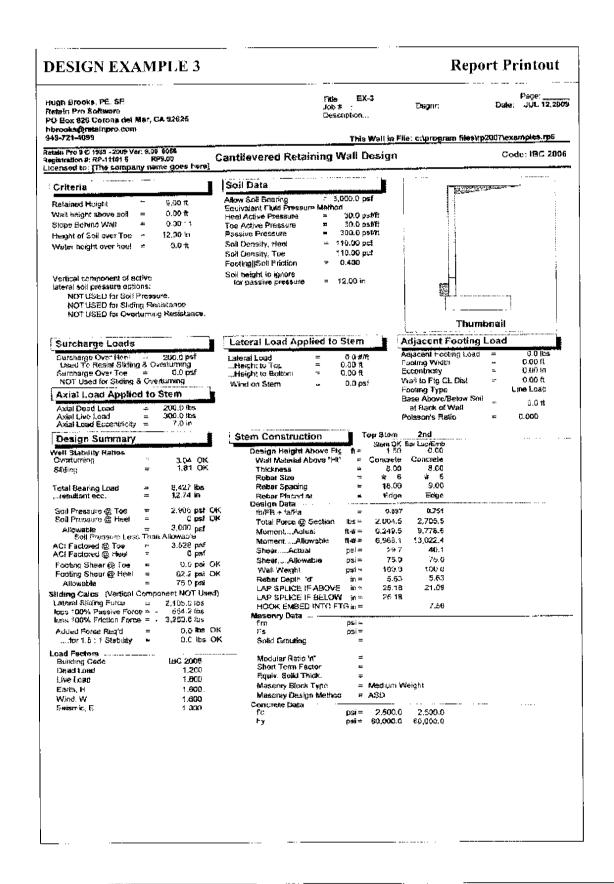
$$V_u$$
 (a) face of stem = (1.17 x 150 x 1.2 + 110 x 9 x 1.2 + 200 x 1) x 5

$$=8593^{#}$$

$$v = \frac{8593}{12 \times 11.5} = 62.2 \text{ psi} \le 2\varphi \sqrt{f_C'} = 75 \text{ OK}$$

Extension of top bar from stem face

$$=\frac{0.02 \times 0.625 \times 60,000 \times 0.7}{\sqrt{2500}} -10.5$$



Report Printout

Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Retain Pro Software PO Box 826 Corona del Mar, CA 92625 hbrousk@retainpro.com 949-721-4099

Page: Date: JUL 12,2009

This Wall in File: c:\program files\rp2007\examples.rp5

Robin Pro 9 to 1989 - 2009 Ver. 9.00 8006 Registration 9: RP-11101 6 RP\$.00 Licensed to: Ethe company name goes level

Cantilevered Retaining Wall Design

Code: IBC 2006

Footing Dimension	ons & Strengths	
Toe Width	= 0.33 ft	_
Heal Width	™ 5.6 5	
Total Footing Width	= 5,36	
Footing Thickness	= 14 00 in	
Key Width	= 0 ,00 m	
Key Depth	■ 0.00 lm	
Key Distance from Fee	# 00.0 = •	
fic = 2,500 psi Footing Concrete Dens	Fy ∞ 60.000 p±i sky ∞ 150.00 pc/	
Main. As %	= 0.0018	
Cover@ Top 2.00) @ Blm.= 3.00 ln	ì

Footing Desig	J : Upward = 188 0 ft-# J : Opwnward = 19 0 ft-# L Design = 170 9.779 ft-# stuel 1-tVay Shear ≈ 0.00 62.16.osi ∞ 1-tVay Shear = 76.00 75.00 psi № Reinforcing = 9.5 @ 18.00 in				
		T'⊘ø_	<u>kael</u>		
Factored Pressure	*	3,528	O cost		
Mu' : Upward		188	0 fi-#		
Mb7 : Cownward	Ŧ	19	0 h#		
Marc Design	=	170	9,779 ਜ.≇		
Actual 1-Way Shear	*	0 00	62.16 psi		
Allow 1-Way Shear	=	75.00	75.80 psi		
Toe Reinforcing	4	# 5 @ 18,00 in			
Heat Reinfording	pp.	# 5 @ 18.00 in			
Key Reinforcing	==	None Special			

Other Acceptable Sizes & Specings Toe: Not rea'd Nu < S *F! Hee:: #4@ 9.50 is, #5@ 14.75 in. #6@ 20.75 in, #7@ 28.25 in, #9@ 37 00 in, #9@ 47 Key: No key defined

		ERTURNING				RESISTING			
Item		Force Bs	Distance 1	Moment ##	_		Force Ris	Distance t	Moment fi∴#
Heel Active Pressure	=	1,550.4	3.39	5,254.2	Soil Over Heel	ш	4.943.4	3.49	17.298.0
Surcharge over Heel	•	554.5	5.08	2.818.9	Stoped Soil Over Flee!	7			,
Toe Active Pressure	=				Surcharge Over Heel	27	998.7	3.49	2,488.
Suichaige Over Toe	m				Adjacent Footing Load	=			-1
Adjacent Footing Load	-				Axial Dead Load on Ston	1 = 1	200 9	0.06	146.
Added Lateral Load	•				* Assal Live Loss on Stem		300.0	0.08	24.
Laud @ Stem Above Sc	₩				Soil Over Toe	=	36.3	0.17	6.
					Surcharge Over Toe	_			
					Stem Weight(s)		ର ପ୍ରତ୍ରନ	9.66	597.
					Earth @ Stem Transition	s=			
Total	=	2,105.0	O,T,ML **	8.073-1	Factors Weight	=	1,048.8	3.00	3,139.
Remisting/Overturnin	g Fort	ie.	× ×	3.D4	Key Weight				_,
Vertical Loads used t	for So	erusser≏ l	= 8.425.6	ins.	Vart. Component	=			
					Tota	d do	8,128.0 1	s F.M.= "	24.518
					 Axial live load NOT include resistance, but is included 	deal in	total disetava	of or useed to	c nverturning

DESIGNER NOTES:

Page 1 of 4

Design Data

Code: IBC '06

Equivalent fluid press. = 30 pcf

Wind on fence -= 15 psf

Soil bearing - 1500 psf

Passive - 350 pcf

Soil density = 110 pcf

 $\mu = 0.45$ – Footing friction coeff.

$$f_{m} = 1500$$

Use LRFD method

$$f_y = 60,000$$

$$f_c' = 2500$$

$$f_y' = 60,000$$

6'-0" 15 psf

3'-6" 8" Block

Neglect soil over toe for passive

Check Fence

M @ base
$$=\frac{15 \times 6^2}{2} = 270'^{\#}$$
 (for design of fence connection to wall)

Lateral @ bott. of fence = $15 \times 6 = 90 \text{ plf}$

Check stem (\bar{a}) base (Ht = 0.0)

Use LRFD Design Method

(Load factor wind and earth pressure = 1.6)

$$\mathbf{M}_{u} = \left[15 \times 6 \stackrel{6}{\cancel{5}} - 4 \stackrel{3}{\cancel{5}} + \frac{30 \times 4^{3}}{\cancel{3}} \times \frac{4}{\cancel{3}} \right] \times 1.6 = 1520 \text{ ft-lbs}.$$

Use 8" block solid grouted

$$f_b = 1500 x .33 = 500 psi$$

Try #5 @ 24 in. (
$$\Lambda_s = 0.31/2.0 = 0.155$$
)

$$d = 5.25$$
"

Page 2 of 4

$$a = \frac{0.155 \times 60,000}{0.80 \times 1500 \times 0.80 \times 12}$$

$$\phi M_{\rm n} = 0.90 \times 0.155 \times 60,\!000 \; [5.25 + (0.81/2)] \times \underline{1/12} = 3379 \; \text{ft-lbs}.$$

Stress ratio
$$-\frac{1520}{3379} - 0.45$$

Stem Shear

Lateral @ base =
$$\left(\frac{15 psf \times 6'}{2} + \frac{30 \times 4^2}{2}\right) \times 1.6 = 528 \text{ lbs.}$$

$$v_{\rm u} = \frac{528}{12 \ x \ 5.25} = 8.38 \ \text{psi} \le \sqrt{750} \ 27.4 \ \text{OK}$$

φυ_n x 0.80 (4.0 – 1.75)
$$\sqrt{1500}$$
 ·· 69.7 psi

Embedment into ftg. w/ std. hook

$$= \frac{.02 \times 60,000 \times 0.625 \times 0.7}{\sqrt{2500}}$$
 10.5" Use 6" min.

Min. ftg. Thickness =
$$10.5 + 3.0 = 13.5$$
" Use 14"

DESIGN EXAMPLE 4 Page 3 of					
Stability					
<u>Item</u>	$\underline{\mathbf{W}}\underline{\mathbf{t}}.$	ann	$\pm M$	<u>-M</u>	
Fence	-()-				
8" stem 4 x 78 psf	312	3.0	936		
Earth over toe $0.5 \times 110 \times 2.67$	147	1.33	195		
Footing 1.17 x 150 x 3.33	584	1.67	975		
Wind OTM 15 x 6'		8.17		735	
Soil OTM $=\frac{30 \times 5.17^2}{2}$		1.72		690	
	1043		2106	1425	
$\frac{1}{x}$ = $\frac{2106 - 1425}{1043} = 0.66$	$e=\frac{3.33}{2}$	66 = 1.0' =	: 12"		
Middle third $e = \frac{3.33}{6} = .55$	∴ outside	middle third			
Soil p= $\frac{1043}{.75 \times 3.33 - 1.5 \times 1.0} =$	1043 psf				
Overturning ratio = $\frac{2106}{1425}$ x 1.48	((consider OK b	ecause of wine	d load)	
Check Sliding					
Total lateral $+ 6' \times 15 \text{ psf} + \frac{30 \times x}{x}$	$\frac{5.17^2}{2} = 4$	90 lbs.			

Friction resistance = $1043 \times .45 = 469 \text{ lbs}$.

Page 4 of 4

Critical for M Critical for V

1346

Passive resistance =
$$\frac{350 \times 1.67^2}{2} - \frac{350 \times .5^2}{2}$$

$$= 444 \text{ lbs}.$$

Sliding ratio =
$$\frac{444 + 469}{490} = 1.86 \ge 1.5$$
 OK

Check Toe

Total factored vertical load = $1067 \times 1.2 = 1280$ lbs.

Factored soil p =
$$\frac{1280}{.75 \times 3.33 - 1.5 \times 1}$$
 = 1280 psf

$$M_u \uparrow = \frac{1280 \times 2}{2} (3.33 - .67 - .50) = 2765 \text{ ft-lbs}.$$

$$M_0 \downarrow = (150 \text{ x } 1 + 110 \text{ x } .5) 2.67 \text{ x } 1.33 \text{ x } 1.2 = 874 \text{ ft-lbs}.$$

$$M_{design} = 2765 - 874 = 1891 \text{ ft-lbs.}$$

$$V_u = 1280 \times 2 \times \frac{1}{2} - (150 \times 1 + 110 \times .5) 2.67 \times 1.2 = 623 \text{ lbs.}$$

$$v_u = \frac{623}{12 \times 10.5} = 4.95 \quad v_{allow} = 76 \text{ OK}$$

Toe Reinforcing

$$A_s \text{ required} = .02 \qquad A_s \min = \frac{200}{f_v} = .0033$$

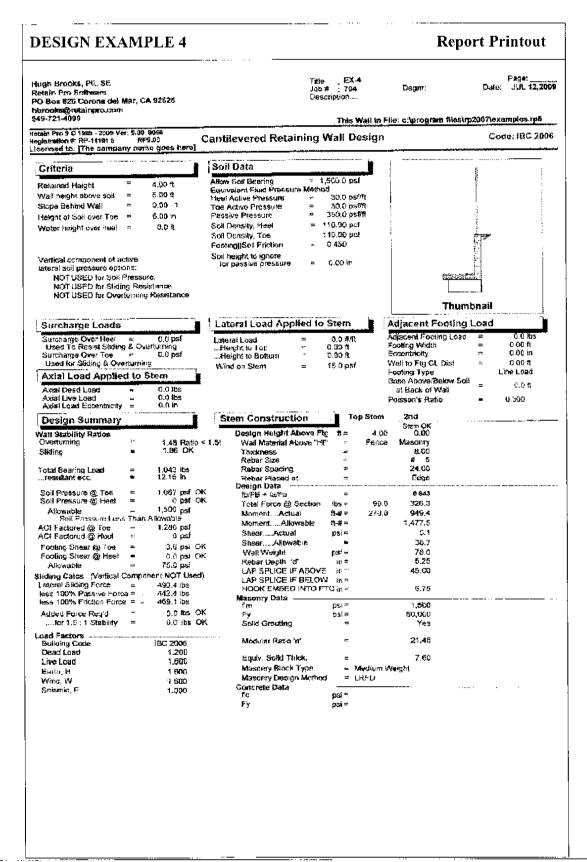
Min. reinf. =
$$.0033 \times 12 \times 10.5 = .0.416$$

or =
$$1.33 \times .042 \cdot .03$$

or =
$$.0018 \times 12 \times 10.5 = 0.227$$

Select #5 @ 16 (to match stem dowel bars bent to toe)

$$A_{\rm s} = \frac{0.31}{1.33} = 0.23 > 0.227 \quad {\rm OK}$$



DESIGN EXAMPLE 4 Report Printout #age:_______ Date: JUL 12,2009 Hugh Brooks, Pk., 9E Title EX-Job # 704 Description... Osgnr: Retzin Pro Software PO Bax 826 Corona del Mar. CA 92625 hbrooks@refainpro.com #49-721-4099 This Wall in File: c/\program files\rp2007\examples.rp5 Retain Pro 9 \$ 1989 - 2009 Ver: 9.00 8046 Registration #: RP-11101 5 RPS.00 Licensed to: [The company name goes bene Cantilevered Retaining Wall Design Code: IBC 2006 Footing Dimensions & Strengths Footing Design Results Toe Width 2.66 1 Pactorec Passou Mar - Upward Mb' : Downward Mu: Design Heel Width Total Footing Width 3.33 Footing Thickness 14.00 m 1,519 Key Width Key Depth 8.00 in 0.00 in Mu: Design Actual 1-Way Steam Allow 1 Way Shear Toe Reinforcing Hee: Reinforcing Key Reinforcing 3,64 75.00 0.02 pai 75.00 pai Key Distance from Tee 0.00 ft = #5 62 15.00 :n = None Spec'd = None Spec'd 50,000 pst 150,00 pct fic = 2.500 pai Footing Concrete Density # \$.0018 @ Btm.= 3.00 in Other Acceptable Sizes & Specings 2.00 Cover@icp Toe: Not reg'd, Mu < \$ * Fr Heel: Not reg'd, Mu < \$ * Fr Key No key defined Summary of Overturning & Resisting Forces & Moments OVERTURNING... Distance 1 Force Distance bs fi Force 03 ft-# Heel Active Pressure 400.4 1.72 1.5 3.33 Seachage: over Heel Siepec Soil Over Heel Surcharge Over Hee: Surcharge Over Toe Adjacent Footing Load Adjacent Footing Load Axial Dead Load on Stam -Added Lateral Load Axial Live Load on Stem ::-Load 49 Store Above Soil = 490. Ď 8.17 735.0 Soil Over Top 146.3 1,**3**3 194,6 Surphaga Over Toe Stein Weight(c) = Earth @ Stein Transitions 933.9 490.4 D.T.M. = Total: Footing Weight Key Weight 582.8 970.3 Retisting/Overturning Ratio Vertical Leads used for Soil Pressure ** = 1.48 1,042.5 bs Vert Component Total = 1,042,5 los P.M.= 2,103 / Axial Eve load NOT included in total displayed or used for overturning resistance, but is included for soil pressure polyulation. 2.103.7 DESIGNER NOTES.

Page 1 of 3

Freestanding Yard Wall

Design Data

Code: CBC 2007 (- TBC '06)

Assume California so seismic governs over

wind.

Soil bearing = 2000 psf

Use 6" CMU solid grout

Equiv. fluid pressure = 30 pcf

Passive = 400 pcf

$$\mu = 0.40$$

$$f_{m}^{'} = 1500$$

$$F_s = 24,000$$

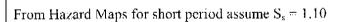
$$f_C' = 2000$$

$$f_v = 60,000$$

Determine seismic force factor F_P/W_P

Per ASCE 7-05, 15.4.2 (Rigid nonbuilding

structures)



Seismic Design Category D

$$F_a = 1.0$$

$$S_{MS} - F_a S_s = 1.0 \times 1.10 = 1.10$$

$$S_{DS} = 0.67 (1.10) = 0.73 (Eq. 16-38)$$

Equation (15.4.5), rewritten

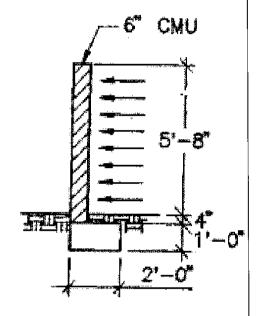
$$F_p/W_p = 0.30 \text{ S}_{DS} I = 0.30 \text{ x } 0.73 \text{ x } 1.0 = 0.22$$
 (Assume $I = 1.0$)

Input $F_p/W_p = 0.22 \times \frac{1}{1.4} - 0.16$ for masonry ASD and overturning

Convert to ASD



One-third stress increase permitted per IBC '09, 1605.3.2



Stem Design, Masonry

M =
$$(0.16 \times 58 \text{ psf}) \frac{6^2}{2} = 167 \text{ ft-lbs}.$$

Use #4 e 48" @ center (d - 2.75")

$$A_s = \frac{.20}{4} = .05$$

np =
$$\frac{21.5 \times .20}{48 \times 2.75} = .033$$
 $\frac{2}{kj} = 9.57$

$$M_s$$
 - 24,000 x 1.33 x .92 x 2.75 x .05 x $\frac{1}{12}$ - 338** > 167 OK

$$\mathbf{M}_{\text{m}} = \frac{1500 \times .33 \times 12 \times 2.75^2}{9.57} \times 1.33 \times \frac{1}{12} = 525^{\prime \text{H}}$$

$$V = 0.16 \times 58 \times 6 = 55.7 \text{ lbs}.$$

$$v = \frac{55.7}{12'' \times 2.75} = 1.68 \text{ psi}$$
 Ok

$$v \text{ (Allow)} = \sqrt{1500} = 38.7 > 1.69 \text{ OK}$$

Check Stability

Overturning = 6.0 x .16 x 58
$$\left(\frac{6}{2} + 1\right) + \frac{30 \times 1.33^2}{2}$$
 x $\frac{1.33}{3}$ = 234 ft-lbs.

Resisting moment = $6' \times 58 \text{ psf } \times .25 + 110 \times .33 \times 1.5 \times 1.25 + 1.0 \times 150 \times 2.0 \times 1.0$

$$\frac{-}{x} = \frac{455 - 234}{6 \times 58 + .33 \times 110 \times 1.5 + 2.0 \times 1 \times 150} = 0.32$$

$$W = 702 lbs.$$

$$e = \frac{2.0}{2} - 0.32 = 0.68$$
 middle third = $\frac{2.0}{6} = .0.33$

.. outside middle third

Page 3 of 3

Soil p=
$$\frac{702}{.75 \times 2.0 - 1.5 \times .68} - 1463 \text{ psf} \le 3500 \text{ psf}$$
 OK

Overturning ratio =
$$\frac{455}{234}$$
 = 1.94 OK w/seismic

Lateral force @ base of ftg. = $.16 \times 58 \times 6 + (30 \times 1.33^2)/2 = 82.2$ lbs.

Sliding ratio =
$$\frac{702 \times .40 + \left(\frac{400 \times 1.33^2}{2} - \frac{400 \times .33^2}{2}\right)}{82.2} = 7.45$$

Check Heel Reinforcing

Neglect upward soil p

$$M_u \downarrow$$
 = $(1.0 \times 150 + .33 \times 110) \frac{1.5^2}{2} \times 1.2 = 252^{\#}$

$$M_u$$
 stem = 167 x 1.6 - 267 ft-lbs. \leftarrow governs

$$d = 12 - 3 - .5 - 8.5$$
"

$$A_s \text{ req'd} = .04 \frac{sq.in.}{ft.} \text{ (per CRSI equation)}$$

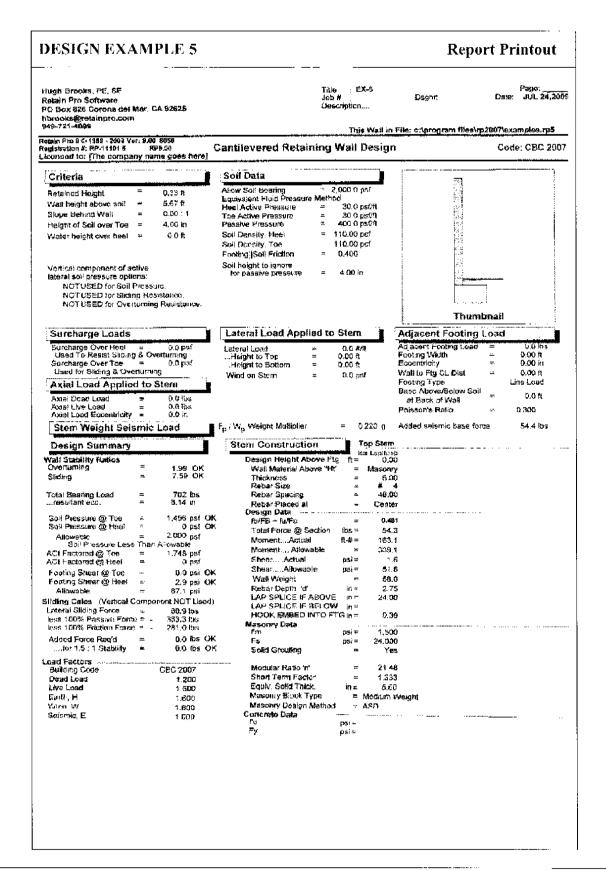
$$\rho_{\min} = \frac{200}{f_{v}} = .0033$$

$$\therefore$$
 A_s min = .0033 x 12 x 8.5 = .34 or 1.33 x .05 - .067

Use #4 e 48 (to match stem dowels)
$$A_s = \frac{.20}{4} = .05 < .067$$
 Consider OK

$$V_u = (1.0 \times 150 \times 1.5 \pm .33 \times 110 \times 1.5) 1.2 = 335^{\mu}$$

$$v_0 = \frac{335}{12 \times 85} = 3.3 \le 76 \text{ OK}$$



Report Printout DESIGN EXAMPLE 5 Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Title Job # Descriptor.... Degar Retain Pro Softward PO Box 826 Corona del Mar. CA 92625 hbrooks@retsinpro.com 948-721-4099 This Wall in Film, otherogram filestrp2097/examples.rp5 Retain Fro 9 to 1986 - 2009 Ver. 9.00-9856 Registration #: XP-11101 3 RP9.00 Licensed to: [The company name goes here] Code: CBC 2007 Cantilevered Retaining Wall Design Footing Design Results Footing Dimensions & Strengths 1,748 0 0 9.00 R Toe Widen 0 ρ»^{*} 0 π-# 0 π-# Factored Pressure Heel Width 2.00 2.00 Mir': Upward Mir': Downward Total Footing Width Feeling Thickness 12.00 m Mu. Design Q 0.00 in 0.00 in Key Width Key Depth Artual 1 Way Shear Allow 1-Way Shear 6.80 6.90 2.94 psi G7.08 psi Kay Distance from Toe 0.00 € Toe Reinfording Heel Reinfording None Spenie None Special None Special fo = 2,000 pai I Footing Concrete Density 60,000 psi 150,00 pcf Key Reinforcing Min As % Cover (g) loop 0.0010 Other Acceptable Sizes & Spacings @ Blun 3.00 in 2.00 Too: Not regid, Mu < \$ * Fr Hees Not regid, Mu < \$ * Fr Key: No key defined Summary of Overturning & Resisting Forces & Moments RESISTING.... Distance ft Moment 66 1 1.25 54.5 26.5 0.44 11.8 Sail Over Heel Heat Active Pressure Surcharge over Heet Stoped Soil Over Heat Surcharge Over Heel Toe Active Pressure Adjacent Footing Load Surcharge Over Toe Adjacent Footing Loss Axial Dead Load on Storn = Axial Live Load on Stam # Added Lateral Load Soll Over Toe Load @ Stem Above Soil = Surcharge Over Toe Stem (Veight(s) Earth (2 Stem Transitions 34B.0 0.25 87.0 217.4 4.00 54,4 Soismic Stem Self Wit-229.2 300.0 Total BD.8 O.T.M. Footing Weight 300 ft 1.00 Resisting/Overturning Ratio Vertical Loads used for Soil Pressors = Key Weight 702.5 8bs Vert Component 702.5 lbs R.M.F 456.1 Total = Axial live load NOT included in total displayed, or used for overturning resistance, but is included for soil pressure calculation. DESIGNER NOTES:

Page 1 of 4

TAPERED CONCRETE STEM -

Include seismic effect

Assume lateral support at top of footing

Angle of internal friction

·
$$\phi$$
 - 34°

Wall friction angle

$$=\delta = \frac{\varphi}{2} = 17^{\circ}$$

Soil density 110 pcf

$$f_C = 3,000 \text{ psi}$$
 $f_y = 60,000 \text{ psi}$

Backfill slope =
$$3:1 = \beta = -18.4^{\circ}$$

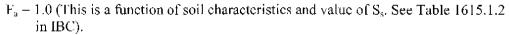
Wall friction angle assumed: $\delta = 17^{\circ}$

Determine seismie factor, K_h

Assume high-seismic California

From charts in IBC for "short period", select $S_s = 1.274$

Then $S_{MS} = F_a S_s$



$$\therefore$$
 S_{MS} = 1.0 x 1.274 - 1.274

$$S_{DS} = \frac{2}{3} S_{MS} = 0.667 \times 1.274 = 0.85$$

Per FEMA/NEHRP (Commentary) '03, Section 5.3.1

$$K_h = \frac{s_{DS}}{2.5} = 0.40 \text{ x } 0.85 = 0.34$$

Use
$$K_h = 0.34$$

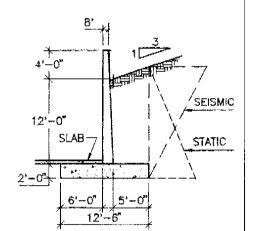
Determine static and seismic lateral pressures

Use Coulomb/Monokobe-Okabe equations

$$K_{\Lambda} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\phi + 90)}{\sin(90 - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(90 - \delta)\sin(\beta + 90)}}\right]^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\sin^{2}(34 + 90)}{\sin(90 - 17) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(34 + 17)\sin(34 - 18.4)}{\sin(90 - 17)\sin(18.4 + 90)}}\right]^{2}} = 0.328$$

$$K_A$$
 (horizontal) = $\cos \delta K_A = 0.96 \text{ x } .328 = 0.313$



$$K_{AE} = \frac{\sin^2(\phi + 90 - \theta)}{\cos\theta \sin(90 - \theta - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \theta - \beta)}{\sin(90 - \delta - \theta)\sin(\beta + 90)}}\right]^2}$$

$$\frac{\sin^2(34+90-18.8)}{\cos 18.8 \sin(90-18.8-17) \left[1+\sqrt{\frac{\sin(34+17)\sin(34-18.8-18.4)}{\sin(90-17-18.8)\sin(18.4+90)}}\right]^2}$$

Because term under radical is zero

$$K_{AE} = 1.21$$

$$K_{AE}$$
 (horizontal) = $\cos \delta K_{AE} = 0.96 \text{ x } 1.21 - 1.16$

Static lateral at base of stem =
$$\frac{0.313 \times 110 \times 12^2}{2} \times 1.6 = 3966^{\#}$$

Seismic portion of lateral =
$$\frac{(1.16 - .313)110 \times 12^2}{2} = 6732^{-8}$$

Static + seismic lateral at base of stem = $3966 \pm 6732 = 10,698$

$$M_{\text{static } (\emptyset) \text{ base}} = \frac{0.313 \times 110 \times 12^2}{2} \times \frac{12}{3} \times 1.6 = 15,865^{-10}$$

 $M_{seismic}$ @ stem base assuming point of application = 0.6H

$$6732 \times 0.60 \times 12 = 48,470^{-9}$$

Mu
$$\bar{a}$$
 stem base = 15,865 + 48,470 = 64,335 $^{"}$

Height to resultant of static and seismic forces

$$= \frac{15865 + 48,470}{10698} - 6.01 \text{ ft.} \cong \text{mid-height}$$

Check Base of Stem

$$M_{\rm static} = 15,865^{-\mu}$$

$$M_{\text{seismic}} = 48,470 \text{ x } 1.0 = 48,470$$

Design factored moment
$$-15,865 \pm 48,470 = 64,335^{1/2}$$

$$d = 18.0 - 2.5 - 15.5$$
"

As required =
$$0.17 f_C'd - \sqrt{.029 (f_C'd)^2 - .0063 f_C' M_U}$$

= $.17 \times 3.0 \times 15.5 - \sqrt{.029 (3 \times 15.5)^2 - .0063 \times 3 \times 64.335 \times 12}$
= $0.965 \frac{sq. in.}{ft.}$

Check for $A_s \min_{s} - .0033 \times 12 \times 15.5 = 0.61$

Use #8 @ 9"
$$A_s \simeq \frac{1.0}{0.75} \simeq 1.33 > 0.965$$

 V_u factored = $10,698^{\mu}$

$$v = \frac{10,698^{\#}}{12 \times 15.5} = 57.5 < .75 \times 2 \times \sqrt{3000} = 82.2 \text{ psi}$$

(Note: This example does not include seismic due to stem self-weight. If desired, this can be added as an "additional lateral load," using the appropriate seismic factor.)

Check stem at 4.0 ft. above ftg. Retained ht. = 8.0 ft.

Use same procedure as base of stem

$$M_u = 19,010$$
#

A_s req'd. @ 4' high = 0.17 x 3.0 x 13.0 -
$$\sqrt{.029 (3 x 13)^2 - .0063 x 3 x 19 x 12}$$

- 0.0.32 $\frac{sq. in.}{ft.}$

Use #7 @ 18"
$$A_s = \frac{0.61}{15} = 0.41 > 0.32$$
 OK

Stability and footing design:

Total ht. (a) back of heel = $12.0 \pm 2.0 \pm (5./3) = 15.67$

(Assume slope starts aligned with stem at bottom).

Static lateral @ bott. of footing =
$$\frac{.313 \times 110 \times 15.67^2}{2} = 4229 \#$$

Seismic lateral @ bott. of footing =
$$\frac{(1.16 - 0.31) \cdot 110 \cdot x \cdot 15.67^2}{2} \times 0.71 = 8150^{\#}$$

Total lateral =
$$4229 + 8150 = 12,379$$
 (Converted to ASD)

Try 6'-0" toe, 6'-6" heel (incl. stem) = 12'-6" total width

Overturning moment =
$$\frac{(1.16 - .313)110 \times 15.67^2}{2}$$
 x .6 x 15.67 x 0.71 = 76,310 ft-lbs.

To convert to ASD. ↑

$$+\frac{.313 \times 110 \times 15.67^3}{2 \times 3} = 76,310 + 22,067 = 98,377 \text{ ft-lbs.}$$

Resisting Moment

(Use vertical comp. to resist overturning but not to reduce soil pressure).

Resisting moment = (soil over heel) (arm) + (sloped soil over heel) (arm) + (stem wt.) (arm) + (earth @ stem) (arm) + (ftg. wt.) (arm) + (vert. comp. @ back of heel) (arm)

=
$$(5 \times 110 \times 12)(10) + 5.63 \times 1.88 \times .5 \times 110)(10.63) + (16 \times 1.08 \times 150) \times (6.57)$$

$$+ (12 \times .63 \times .5 \times 110) (7.29) + (12.5 \times 2.0 \times 150) (6.25)$$

$$+4229 \tan 17^{\circ}$$
) (12.5) 131,543 ft-lbs. (Vert. comp. = .4229 tan 17° 1293[#]

Total vert. load =
$$(5 \times 110 \times 12) + (5.63 \times 1.88 \times .5 \times 110) + (16 \times 1.08 \times 150)$$

$$+ (12 \times .83 \times .5 \times 110) + (12.5 \times 2 \times 150) + 1293^{\#} = 18,365^{\#}$$

Overturning ratio =
$$\frac{131,543}{98,377}$$
 = 1.34

Soil pressure: (Vert. Component not used)

$$\bar{x} = \frac{131,543 - 98,377 - (1293 \times 12.5)}{15,365 - 1293} = 1.21 \text{ ft.}$$

Eccentricity =
$$(12.5/2) - 1.21 = 5.04' = 60.5''$$

e for inside middle third = $\frac{12.5}{6}$ = 2.08 ... Outside middle third

Soil pressure =
$$\frac{15,365 - 1293}{.75 \times 12.5 - 1.5 \times 5.04} = 7753 \text{ psf}$$

Sliding S.F. =
$$\frac{0.4 \times (15,365 - 1293)}{12,379} = 0.45$$

However, not applicable since slab is present and to be designed to resist lateral.

DESIGN EXAMPLE 6 Report Printout Table : EX-6 Jub# : 706 Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Degree, Retain Pro Software Description... PO Box \$25 Corona del Mar, CA 92625 nbrooks@retainpro.com This Watt in File: c:\program files\rp2007\examples.rp5 Retain Pro 9 © 1989 - 2009 Vor. 9.06 9696 Registration #: KP-11101 8 KP9.00 Tape Licensed to: [The company name goes here] Tapered Stem Concrete Retaining Wall Design Code: CBC 200 Soil Data Criteria Allow Soil Bearing 8.000.0 psf Retained Height 12.00 ft 4.00 ft Coulomb Soil Pressure catculation Wall neight above soil Stope Rebird Was 3.00 : 1 Soil Priction Angle: 34.0 deg Active Pressure:Ka*Samma= Height of Goll over Too 0.00 In 34.5 ps#ff Passive Pressum:Ko*Gemma 389.1 psf/ff 110.90 per Soil Density Footmat/Soft Eriction 0.490 Wind on Stem 0.0 p≈f Soit height to ignore for passive pressure Vertical companent of active 0.00 in NOT USED for Soil Pressure. NOTUSED for Sliding Resistance. USED for Overturning Resistance Thumbnail Surcharge Loads Lateral Load Applied to Stem Adjacent Footing Load Surcharge Over Heel = 0.0 psf >>>Used To Resist Silding & Oversuming Adjacent Footing Load Lateral Load ...rleight to Top 0.0 */10 0.00 # O G lbs Feating Westh 0.00 ft Surcharge Over Toe = Lised for Stidling & Overturning 0.00 in ...:leight to Bolton 0.00 ft Eccentricity. Wall to Fing CL. Dist 0.00 1 Axial Load Applied to Stem Feeting Type Base Above/Below Soil Line Load Axial Dead Load 0.0 lbs 0.0 ft at Back of Wall Arial Live Load — Arial Load Eccentrolty — 0.0 lbs 0.0 in Poisson's Raile 0.300 Earth Pressure Seismic Load Kee for seismic earth preasure 1 159 Added sesmic base force 6.100 @ lbs Ka for static cortir pressure 0.314 0°340 g Note: These are horizontal components Difference, Kae - Ka **0.8**45 Using Mononobe-Okabe / Seed-Whitman proc ಕ್ಕ್ / W_p Weight Multiplier 0 000 g Added seismic base force Stem Weight Seismic Load 0.0 fbs Tapered Concrete Stem Design Data Design Summary Total Bearing Load ...resultant ecc. 13 943 lhe Trickness at TOP 60.000 psi 61.05 m Trickness at BOTTOM 18-00 19 3.000 psi Soil Pressure @ Toe Soil Pressure @ Heel 7,998 pat OK 0 psf OK Rebar Cover (robar contento concrete face)2.60 in @ Height #1 @ Height #2 ∰ Base of Wal $\delta,990_{123}$ Adowable Soil Pressure Less Than Stezu OK Stem OK Stens CK ACI Factored @ Too ACI Factored @ Heel Design Hoight Above Ftg 8.00 10 4.00 ft 0.00 ft 9,313 psf Reduct Size # 9 # 9 Rebar Spacing \$2,00 in 12.00 m 6.00 in Footing Spear @ Toe 57.2 psi OK Rebar Depth, 'd' 10.50 in 73,00 in 15.50 in 47.8 psi OK 82.2 psi Footing Shear @ Hee Design Data Allowabia Mu...Actual 2,374.6 ft# 18.995.1 H-# G4.112.0 ft-# Mn * Phi. Allowable 14,222 3 ft-# 54,075.0 ft-# 121600.0 ft-# Sticking Coton Sists Resists All Slicking ! Lateral Slicking Force # 12,491,4 (bg Show Force @ this helgid 1,185.9 lbs 4.743.6 (bs 10,673.0 %s 30.41 psi 57.38 psi Vu....Actual Va * Phi....Allowable 82.16 psi 82.16 psi 32.16 psi Rebar Lap Required 21.36 to 48,05 in Hocked embedment into fooling Load Factors -37 25 m Biziding Code CBC 2007 1,250 Oward Load Live Load 1.600 Berth, H 1.500 Wind, W 1.600 Selsmic, E

DESIGN EXAMPLE 6 Report Printout Title EX-6 Job # 706 Description... JUL 24,2009 Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Retain Pro Software Decima PO Box 826 Corona dol Mar. GA 92625 hiprooks@setatropro.com 949-721-4099 This Wall in File: ettprogram 6km/rp2007examples.rp5 Registration at RP-11101 5 RPs.00 Tapered Stem Concrete Retaining Wall Design Licensed for (The company name goes here) Code: CBC 2007 Footing Strengths & Dimensions Footing Design Results Foe Width Heal Width Yotal Footing Width 6.00 ft Hest O par Factored Pressure 6.50 12.50 Maile Upward D 11-# O ft-# Footing Thickness 24,00 in Mich - Downwood ń 64 11-0 Mu: Design ₹4 9.90 io Key Width Actual 1-Way Shear 57.22 0.00 in Key Depth Allow 1-Way Shear 82.16 82,16 psi 0.00 ft Key Distance from Toe fe = 3,000 psi F Footing Concrete Density isq 000.02 toq 00.061 Toe Reinforcing # 4 @ 12.00 in Heat Reinforcing Key Reinforcing ⇔ #ნ@,∜2.040 km Min. As % Cover @ Tup = 2.00 in = 0.0018 @ Blm.∘ 3.00 ₩ → None Special Other Acceptable Sizes & Spacings Toe: Not regid, Mu < 5 ° Fr Heref: Not regid, Mu < 5 ° Fr Key: No key defined Summary of Overturning & Resisting Forces & Moments GVERTURNING Force Distance tos **RESISTING.... Pletance Mostent Morrient %# Force **17,-#** bs Ben 23,336.0 16,00 66,000,0 Heel Active Pressure 5.37 Soil Over Heel 6.600.0 4,390.7 Toe Active Plessure Sloped Soil Ovar Heat 10.63 6,163.3 Surfhame Over Tox Surcharge Over Heel Adjacent Footing Load Adjacent Footing Load Axial Dead Load on Stem • 0.00 Added Lateral Load Soll Over Too Lose of Stem Above Goil 8,100.6 75,145.8 Sumharge Over Toe Seismic Load Stem Weight 2,800 0 17.077.8 Earth above Stoping Sterr 12,491.4 O.T.M. 99,481.8 432.5 3,007.8 Total Footing Weigns 3.750.2 6.25 23.437.5 Resisting/Overturning Ratio 1.33 Key Weight Voit. Component Vertjorit Loads used for Soli Pressure 😑 13,942.6 ibs 1,295,0 12,50 16,200.3 15,238.8 Nbs R.M.≖ 131,886.7 Vertical component of active pressure NOT used for soil pressure DESIGNER NOTES:

Page 1 of 2

RESTRAINED CMU WALL

Design Data

Code: 1BC '06

Soil bearing = 2000 psf

Soil density - 110 pcf

EFP = 30 psf/ft.

Passive - (not appl. because of floor slab)

$$f_{m}^{'}$$
 – 1500 psi

 $f_s = 24,000 \text{ psi}$

 $f_v = 60,000 \text{ psi}$

$$f_C' = 2500 \text{ psi}$$

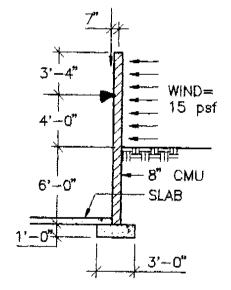
wind = 15 psf

P = 144 plf DL

e = 7.0 in.

Assume 100% fixity at base

Assume lateral restraint at top of footing to resist sliding



*Moments, Shear, and Reaction

R - reaction a top restraint = 160 lbs.

V at base = 685 lbs.

M @ top restraint $\pm 144 (7/12) \pm 15 \times (3.33)^2 / 2 = 167^{-4}$

M (a) base - 7488 in. lbs, = 624^{11}

+M Max. = 2592 in. lbs. = $216^{''}$

(a) h = 5.84 ft.

Check stem (a) base

M = 7488 in. lbs. - 624 ft. lbs.

* (Obtained from Single Span Beam Analysis program in Enercale's Structural Engineering Library, Version 5.8.)

Try 8" CMU, #5 (a) 32", d = 5.3", solid grouted, n = 21.5

$$f_{mi} = 1500 \text{ ps}$$

$$f_s = 24,000$$

$$f_m' = 1500 \text{ psi}$$
 $f_s = 24,000$ $f_b = .33 \times 1500 = 500 \text{ psi}$

Use #5 @ 32" o.c. @ edge
$$np = \frac{21.5 \times .31}{32 \times 5.25} = 0.040$$

$$\frac{2}{k_j} - 8.9$$
 j = 0.92

$$M_m = \frac{500 \times 12 \times 5.25^2}{8.9} \times \frac{1}{12} = 1548 \text{ ft. lbs.} > 624$$
 OK

Page 2 of 2

$$M_s = 24,000 \times \frac{.31}{2.67} \times .92 \times 5.25 \times \frac{1}{12} = 1122^{1/2} \ge 624$$

$$V = 490 \text{ lbs.}$$
 $v = \frac{490}{12 \times 5.25} = 7.78$ $< v_{allow} - 38.7$

Check @ Max. Positive Moment

$$+M = 2592$$
 in. lbs. -216 ft. lbs.

Use #5 @ 32" o.c. @ center

np =
$$\frac{21.5 \times 0.31}{32 \times 3.75} = 0.056$$
 $\frac{2}{k_i} - 7.80$ j = 0.91

$$M_m - \frac{500 \times 12 \times 3.75^2}{7.80} \times \frac{1}{12} = 901 \text{ ft. 1bs.} \ge 216 \text{ OK}$$

$$M_s = 24,000 \times \frac{0.31}{2.67} \times 0.91 \times 3.75 \times \frac{1}{12} - 792 \text{ ft. lbs.} \ge 216$$

Cheek Moment @ Lateral Support

$$M = 167 \, ' \#$$

Use #5 (a) 32" o.c. (a) center

OK per above analysis for positive mid-height moment.

Soil Bearing

Embedment of hooked bar in footing =
$$\frac{0.02 \times 60,000 \times .625 \times 0.7}{\sqrt{2000}} \times \frac{624}{1122} = 6.5$$
"

Min. ftg. thickness = 6.6 + 3.0 = 9.6 in.

Try 3'-0" wide ftg. Centered under stem Use 12" thick \geq 9.6"

Total vertical load = $13.33' \times 78 \text{ psf} + 6' \times 1.17 \times 110 + 3.0 \times 1.0 \times 150 + 144 \text{ (DL only)}$

$$= 2406^{\#}$$

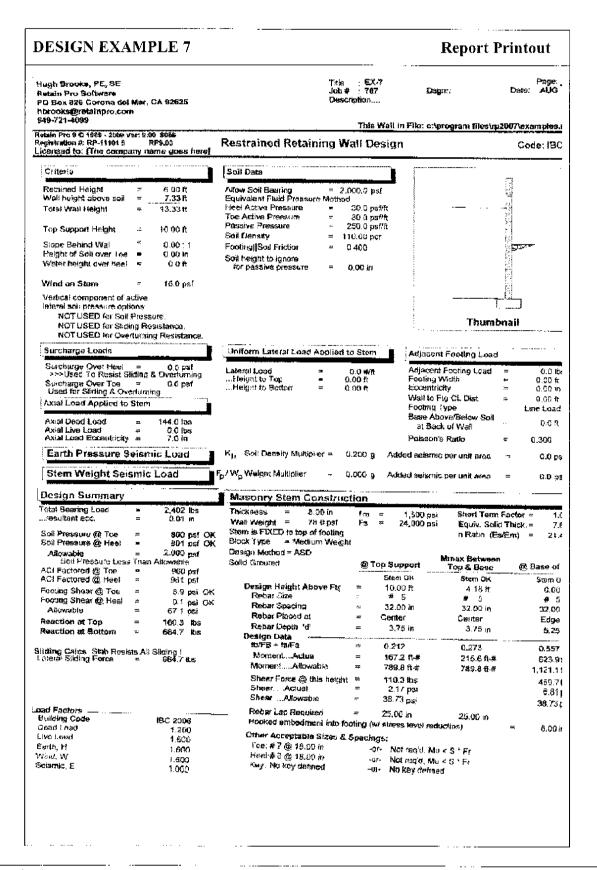
M (
$$\bar{a}$$
) base = $624^{''}$

Distance from toe to centroid of soil pressure

$$= \frac{13.33' \times 78 \times 1.5 + 1.17 \times 6 \times 110 \times 2.42 + 3' \times 1' \times 150 \times 1.5 + 144 \times .92 - 624}{2406}$$

= 1.50 ft.
$$e = \frac{3.0}{2} - 1.50 = 0.0$$
 ft. (in middle third)

Soil pressure
$$=\frac{2406}{3.0} \pm \frac{2406 \times .00 \times 6}{3^2} = 802 \pm 0 = 802 \text{ psf max. (uniform)}$$



Report Printout **DESIGN EXAMPLE 7** Title , EX-7 Job # ; 707 Description... AUG 8,2009 Hugh Stocks, PE, SE Retain Pro Software Dagar: PO Box 826 Corona del Mar, CA 92625 hbrooks@retainpro.com 949-721-4099 This Wall in File: c:\program files\rp2007lesample6.rp6 Ratein Pro 3 % 1969 - 2009 Vor. 8.00 6056 Registration #: RP-11101 5 RP9.09 Gode: :BC 2006 Restrained Retaining Wall Design Registration #: RP-11161 5 RP-9.00 Limoused for (The company name goes here) Footing Design Results Footing Strengths & Dimensions Toe Watti 961 psf 966 Heal Width Total Footing Width1.83 3.35 850 ft.# Mu': Upward 0 Mu': Downward Footing Thickness 12.00 In 0 00 in 0 00 in 0 00 R Mu: Design Key Width Key Depth Actual | Wey Shear = 0 11 psi Allow 1-Way Shaper " **67** 08 67.08 px Key Distance from Toe fo = 2,000 ps: Fy = 60,000 ps: Footing Concrete Density = 150,00 pcf Min. An % = 0,0018 Cover @ Top ≈ 2,00 in @ @fm.≈ 3,00 in Summary of Forces on Footing: Slab RESISTS sliding, stem is FIXED at footing Horses acting on facting for soil pressure >>> Sliding Forces are restrained by the adjacent stab Load & Moment Summary For Footing : For Soil Pressure Calcs Mament @ Top of Footing Applied from Stern lbs 4.4 Sundance Over Hect Adjacent Feeting Load ¶# D.92 ft 192,5 11-# Axia: Doep Load on Stern = 144.0 lbs 71-# 51-# Soil Over Toe Surcharge Over Toe þş 1,563.1 :0-# 1,039.7 lbs 1,56 ft Stem Weight Soit Over Heel 2 42 R 1,856.E ## Footing Weight 450.0 lbs 1.50 ft 675.0 ft-# 3,603 4 11-4 Total Vertical Force = 2,431.5 lbs Ease Moment = Soil Pressure Resulting Moment = -1. Ti-4 DESIGNER NOTES:

Page 1 of 2

RESTRAINED CONCRETE WALL

Code: IBC '06

Tie-back @ 16 ft. high

Use EFP = 40 pcf

Backfill slope = 3:1

Soil bearing = 3,000 psf

$$f_C' = 3,000 \text{ psi}$$
 $f_y = 60,000 \text{ psi}$

Slab lateral restraint (a) base

Assume stem "pinned" at footing

Reactions:

$$W = \frac{40 \times 20^2}{2} + 8,000 \text{ lbs.}$$

R (a) tie-back =
$$\frac{8000 \times (20/3)}{16}$$
$$= 3333 \text{ lbs./jt.}$$

R e base :
$$[40 \times (20 + 1)^2 / 2] - 3333$$

= 5487 lbs.



Dist. to max mom where V = 0: = 7.09' by statics

Max. pos. moment = $15,250^{11}$ x $1.6 = M_u = 24,400^{11}$

Design @ max. positive moment

$$M_u = 24,400^{\circ \mu}$$

Try 12"
$$(d = 10")$$

A_s required = .17 x 3 x 10 -
$$\sqrt{.029 (3 \times 10)^2}$$
 .0063 x 3 x 24.4 x 12

= 0.57 sq. in./ft.

Use #7 @ 9" o.c.
$$A_k = \frac{.60}{.75} = 0.80 > 0.57$$

Design moment at support = $426^{\text{\#}} \times 1.6 = 681^{\text{\#}}$

Use min, vert. reinf. @ center throughout O.K.B.I.

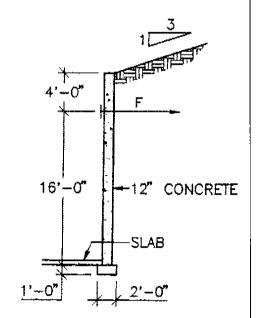
Min. vert. reinf. =
$$\frac{200}{f_y}$$
 = .0033 sq. in.

$$A_s = \frac{.44}{(6 \times 18)} = .0041 > .0033$$

Total vert, load to ftg.

$$= 20 \times 150 + .50 \times 20 \times 110 = 4100 \text{ lbs}.$$

Try 2'-0" wide ftg. Assume "pin" connection wall to footing.



Moments about front edge of ftg.

$$-(20 \times 150) 1.0 + (.50 \times 20 \times 110) 1.75 + (2 \times 150 \times 1.0)$$

= 5225°

Ecc. =
$$[(5225/4400) - (2/2)] \times 12 = 2.25$$
"

Mom. @ stem-ftg. interface due to ecc. = $4400 \times \frac{2.25}{12} = 825 \text{ ft. lbs.}$

Allow. Mom. @ stems - ftg. interface:

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{.31 \times 60,000}{1.5 \times 0.85 \times 3000 \times 12} = 0.41$$

$$M_n = \frac{.31}{1.5} \times 60,000 \left(6 - \frac{0.40}{2}\right) \times \frac{1}{12} = 5993 \text{ ft. lbs.}$$

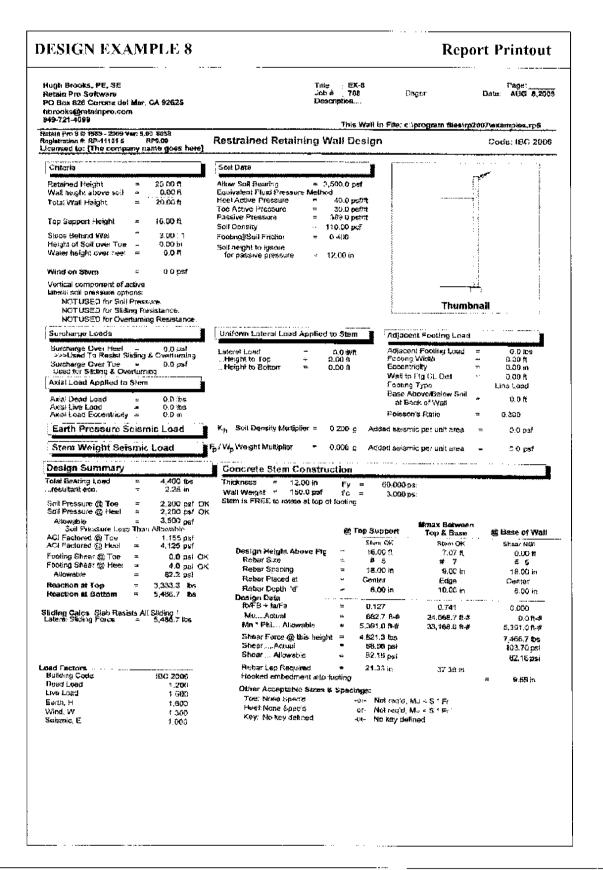
Since base of stem allow, moment exceeds mom, due to ftg. eccentricity, soil pressure is uniform = $\frac{4400}{2}$ + 1 x 150 = 2350 psf.

Note: If stem ftg. mom. ≤ 825 ft. lbs., then:

Soil pressure =
$$\frac{4400}{2} + \frac{4400 \times (2.25/12) \times 6}{2^2}$$

= 2200 + 1238
= 962 psf @ toe
= 3438 psf @ heel

Note: Check slab for this lateral force of 5487 lbs. - usually resisted by sliding friction.



DESIGN EXAMPLE 8 Report Printout Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Title ; EX-8 Jub # : 708 Description.... Retain Pro Software PO Box 826 Corona dei Mar, CA 92626 Dagar. hbrooks@retalnpro.com 949-721-4099 This Watt in Fite: c:\program files\rp2007\examples.rp5 Retain Pro A 2 1969 - 2009 Vov. 9.09 9048 Registration # RP-1132 5 RP8.60 Licensed to: [The company name goes there] Restrained Retaining Wall Design Footing Strengths & Olmensions Footing Design Results Tos Width Heel Width Total Footing Width 0,50 ft 1,50 2,00 Factored Pressure 1,155 4,125 psf Mu': Upward Mu': Opwaward Mu. Design Actual 1-Way Shear 175 485 🕏 🛪 Footing Thickness 23 153 12 00 in 354 ft# Key Width Key Depth Key Distance from Toe 0.00 ln 0.00 ln 139 19-# 00.0 B,00 ft Key Distance was Fy = Footing Concrete Danielly * Allow :-Way Shear 82.46 82.16 ps: M:n, As % = 0.0018 Cover (2) Top = 2.00 in @ Stm.+ 3.00 in Summary of Forces on Footing: Stab RESISTS sliding, stem is PINNED at footing Forces acting on tooling soil prossure (taking moments about front of footing to floot ecce Axial Deed Load on Stein Axial Deed Load on Stein Soil Over The Axilacent Footing Load Surcharge Over Yoe Action Microsoft 注# 使# 休# 作# 255. (DS Stem Weight 1.20 ft 3.000.002 3.000.Dft-4 Soil Over Heel 1,200,0058 1,025.011-# Footing Weight 300.0tbs ft 60.4 300.0n-# Total Vestica: Force 4,409.01bs Moment = 5.225.0%-# Net Mom. at Stem/Ftg Interface = -825.0 T-# Allow, Morn. & Stem/Ftg Interface « 3,369.4 ft-# Allow, Mam. Exceeds Applied Mom.? Yes Therefore Uniform Sod Pressure = 2,200.0 pef DESIGNER NOTES:

Page 1 of 3

Gravity Wall:

Retained height = 6.0 ft.

Wt. of rubble masonry - 145 pef

Allow. comp. = 100 psi no tension > 10 psi

Allow, passive = 300 pcf

Soil bearing = 2000 psf

Cohesion - 200 psf

Width of stem base = 30 in.

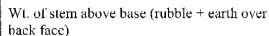
S @ base =
$$\frac{12 \times 30^2}{6}$$
 = 1800 in.³

Backfill slope = 2:1

Soil density = 110 pcf

EFP = 43 pcf

$$M_{\text{base}} = \frac{43 \times 6^3}{2 \times 3} = 1548 \text{ ft} - lbs.$$



$$-145 (1 \times 6 + 1 \times 6 \times 0.5 + 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 + 0.5 \times 0.5 \times 0.5 + 0.5 \times 0.5$$

$$0.5) + 0.5 \times 6.0 \times 0.5 \times 110$$

= 1688 lbs.

Stress
$$\textcircled{a}$$
 base: $-\frac{1688}{12 \times 30} \pm \frac{1548 \times 12}{1800}$

$$=4.69\pm10.32$$

Max. comp = 15.01 psi

Max. tension = 5.63 psi OK

v @ base =
$$\frac{43 \times 6^2 \times 0.5}{12 \times 30} = 2.15 \ psi$$
 OK

Check @ 2'-0" height above base

Thickness =
$$24$$
" S = 1152 in^2

M
$$(\bar{a})$$
 2' high = $\frac{43 \times 4^3}{2 \times 3}$ = 459 $ft - lbs$.

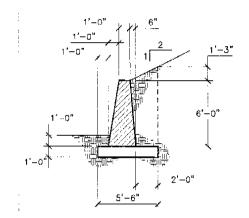
Wt. above
$$2' = 145 (1 \times 4 + .67 \times 4 \times 0.5 + .67 \times 4 \times 0.5)$$

$$.33 \times 4 \times 0.5$$
) = 870 lbs.

Stress @ 2' =
$$\frac{870}{12 \times 24} \pm \frac{459 \times 12}{1152}$$

$$= 3.02 \pm 4.78$$

Max. comp. -7.8 max. tension = 1.76 OK



DESIGN EXAMPLE 9						Page	2 of 3
Resisting Moments:							
		$\underline{\mathbf{W}}$		X		<u>M</u>	
Stem:							
1 x 6 x 145	=	870	x	2.50	=	2,175	ft. lbs
+ 1 x 6 x 0.5 x 145	=	435	X	1.67	=	726	
+ 0.5 x 6 x 0.5 x 145	=	218	X	3.17		691	
Soil:							
1 x 1 x 110		110	x	0.50	=	55	
+ 0. 5 x6 x 0.5 x 110	=	165	x	3.33	=	549	
+ 2 x 6 x 110	=	1,320	x	4.50	=	5,940	
+ 1.25 x 2.5 x 0.5 x 1	10 =17	2	x	4.67		803	
Footing:							
1 x 5.5 x 150		<u>825</u>	x	2.75	=	2,269	
		4,115	lbs.			3,208	ftlbs
Overturning M = $\frac{43(1.25 + 6)}{2x}$	5.0 ± 1.0 3	$\frac{y^3}{2x} - \frac{30x}{2x}$	$\frac{2^3}{3} = 39$	984 <i>ft - lb</i>	.S'-		
Overturning S. F. = $\frac{13,208}{3984}$ 3	5.32 > 1	.5 OK					
Dist, toe to soil pressure c.g.							
$\frac{13,208 3984}{4115} = 2.24 \text{ ft.}$							

Page 3 of 3

$$e = \frac{5.50}{2} - 2.24 = 0.50$$

within middle third

Soil pressure
$$=\frac{4115}{5.5} \pm \frac{6 \times 4115 \times 0.50}{5.5^2}$$

$$x748 + 408 = 1156 \text{ psf} < 3500 \text{ OK}$$

Check sliding:

Net lateral force =
$$\frac{43(1.25 + 6.0 + 1.0)^2}{2} = \frac{30 \times 2^2}{2} = 1403 \text{ lbs.}$$

Cohesion resistance - $5.5 \times 200 = 1100 \text{ lbs}$.

Passive resistance =
$$\frac{300 \times 2^2}{2}$$
 = 600

Sliding S.F. =
$$\frac{600 + 1100}{1403}$$
 = 1.21 < 1.5 Consider key

DESIGN EXAMPLE 9 Report Printout Yide : EX-Job # . 709 Description... EX-9 Hugh Brooks, PC, SE Degno Retain Pro Software PO Box 925 Corona del Mar, CA 92625 hbrooks@retainpro.com 949-721-4099 This Wall in File: c-tprogram Nestro2007/examples.rp5 Rotein Pro 9 to 1985 - Zoos Ver. 9.00 80.96 Registration #: RP-11101 5 RP1.00 Licensed to: (The company name goes Gravity Stem Retaining Wall Design Corte: 18C 2005 Soll Data Allow Soil Nearing = 3,500.0 psf Retained Deight 6.00 n Equivalent Fluid Fressure Method 0.00 ft Wall neight above soll 2.00 : 1 Stope Behind Wat Heel Active Pressure 43.0 ps//t Height of Soil over Toe 12.00 in Tue Ardive Prossare 30.0 psf/ft Passive Pressure 300.0 pst/fr 310.00 pcf Soil Density Water height over heef 0.0 ft 0.0 psd Cohesion value 200.0 psf Wind on Stem Soil height to ignore for passive pressure Vertical component of active lateral active research options: 0.00 in NOTUSED for Soil Pressure. NOTUSED for Sliding Resistance NOTUSED for Overturning Resistance. Thumbnail Lateral Load Applied to Stem Adjacent Footing Load Surcharge Loads 0 0 lbs 0.00 ll 0.00 in Surcharge Over Heek - 0.0 psf >>> Used To Resist Stiding & Overturning Adjacent Footing Load Footing Width Lateral t.o.ad ...I leight to Top ...Height to Buttom 0.0 psf Surcharge Over Toe W Used for Sliding & Overturning 0.00 ft. Econtricity Wall to Fig CL Dist Q.QD II: Axial Load Applied to Stem Footing Type Base Above/Below Soit time Load Axial Dend Lend Axial Live Load Axial Load Eccentricity 0.0 ft at Back of Wall 0.0 lbs 0.0 in Poisson's Ratio 0.300 Design Summary Gravity Stem Analysis Data (Unrainforced material) Foto: Searing Load nearlisest end 4,124 lbs 6,14 in Wall Materia: Weight Fig.: Max. Allow. Compression 100.0 psi For Max Allow Tension :00 psi Soil Pressure @ Toe Soil Pressure @ Heal 1.158 pst OX Front Salter Distance 12.00 in 331 psf OK Thickness @ Top of Stom **12.00** m Lateral Load Factor 1.0 = 3,500 par Than Allowater Allowable Soil Pressure Less Back Barrer Distance 6 00 in ACI Factored @ The ACI Factored @ Heat ∰ Height #1 ♠ Height #2 @ Height #3 382 par Footing Shear & Toe Footing Shear & Head 8.5 per OK Height above Footing 5.4 per QK Wall Thick, & Height 18.00 in 24 00 lb 30 00 la Allowable Sinding Stability Ratio 07.1 peli 1.21 Retio s.1.1 Section Modulus 648 00 Inh3 1,152 00 m^3 1,800 00 inha សែលមេខារ @ Height 57.3 ft-# 458,7 ft# 1.543.0 ft.# ment NOT Used) Vertical Load @ Height 362.5 lbs 870.0 lbs 1,522.5 lbs 1,403.3 lbs 600.0 lbs less Passive Fo/ce Actual Brit Tension Actual Brit Compression 1.8 psi 7.8 psi 6.1 psi 14,5 psi C.6 pgt 1,400.0 lbs 0.0 lbs OK 444.4 lbs OK less Cohesion Force 2.7 psi Added Force Reg'd ... for 1.5 : 1 Stability Shear @ Section 86.6 lbs. 344.0 lbs **75**9.0 lbs Actual Brit Shear C.4 ps) 1.2 psi 2.1 psi Load Factors Building Code **9**80, 2006 Dead Load 1.200 ≅anti, H 1.600 Wind W 1.300 Seismic, & 1,000

DESIGN EXAMPLE 9 Report Printout Page. AUG 8,2009 #X-9 Title: Hugh Stooks, PE, SE Disgn: Retain Pro Software PD Box 826 Corone del Mar, CA 92825 Description. hbrooks@retalisuro.com 949-721-4099 This Wall in File: c:\program files\rp2007\examples.rp5 Retain Pm 9 로 1360 - 2609 Ver: 9.00 9096 Registration # 유우리 1901 도 유구9.00 Liteoresod to: [The company retails goes **Gravity Stem Retaining Wall Design** Code: 18C 2006 **Pooting Design Results** Footing Strengths & Dimensions oe Worth .14<u>ee1</u> 362 **c**⇔1 1.346 Heal Width Total Footing Width 4.50 5.50 Factored Pressure Ma': Upward Footing Thickness 52.00 in Φ FE—# Mu': Downverd Key Width Key Depth 0.00 in Mc. Design *G*4 54 **f**t-# 8.44 psi Actual 1-Way Shear Q CO ft Key Distance from Toe 67.05 psi Allow 1-Way Shear 87.08 fo = 2,000 psi Fy = 80,000 psi Footing Concrete Density = 150 00 psi Mon. As % - 0,0018 Cover @ Top = 2,00 in % 8tm.= 3 00 in ~ #7 @ 16.05 m Toe Reinfotono Hee! Rolatording ≖ # el @ 16.0€ in = None Spec'd Key Reinforcing Other Acceptable Sizes & Spacings To e. No treq16, Mu. ≤ S‴Fr Heel Not ren'd Mo < 5 * Fr Key. No key defined Summary of Overturning & Resisting Forces & Moments OVERTURNING. Momant (...a :ba Ħ lt.em Here: Active Prospure 2.75 4,024.2 Sail Över Heel 1,320.0 4.50 5,940.0 1,463.3 Тое Афіуе Ртевацте 0.67 -43.0 Stoped Soi: Over Herr Surcharge Over Heet 171.9 4.67 862.1 Surcharge Over Fee Adjacent Footing Load Adjacent Footing Load Added Laters Load Axial Dead Load on Stem = D DO Soil Over Toe Load @ Stem Above Soil 54.7 179.2 0.54 Surcharge Over Toe Sciemic Lond 8,106.6 0.00 0.3 Stem Weight Seismic Stem Seif Wi 1,522.5 2.36 3,588.8 Earth above Singing Stee 3,984.2 165.0 3.33 550.0 Total Footing Weight Key Weight 825.0 2.75 2.268.8 Resisting/Overturning Ratio 3.37 Vert. Component Vertical Loads used for Sod Pressure -4,123.5 lbs 4,123.5 lbs RLM.= 13,714,3 Total = Vertical component of active pressure MOT used for sell pressure DESIGNER NOTES:

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Segmental Retaining Wall - Geogrids

Wall height = 12.0 ft.

Embedment - 1.0 ft.

Backfill slope = $4:1-14^{\circ}$

Backfill soil: $\phi_b = 33^{\circ}$ $\gamma = 120$ pcf

$$\delta = \frac{2}{3} \phi = 22^{\circ}$$

In situ soil: $\phi_i = 32^{\circ} \gamma = 110 \text{ pcf}$

$$\delta = \phi_i = 32^{\circ}$$

Use Coulomb method

DL ~ 50 psf

LL = 100 psf

Base width (trial) -- 75% of 12 ft. say

= 10.00 ft.

Block selection: Keystone Compac

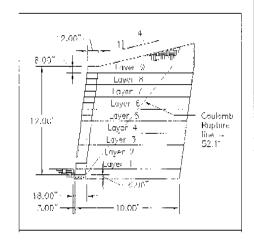
1" offsets, Height = 8.0 in.,

Depth -12.0 in.

$$Wt. - 120 psf.$$

Batter = 7.1° $\alpha = 90 + 7.1 = 97.1^{\circ}$

Active earth pressure - backfill zone



$$K_{\alpha} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \phi_{j})}{\sin^{2}\alpha \sin(\alpha - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha - \beta)}}\right]^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{\sin^{-2}(97.1 + 33)}{\sin^{-2}97.1 \sin(97.1 - 22) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(33 + 22)\sin(33 - 14.0)}{\sin(97.1 + 22)\sin(97.1 - 14.0)}}\right]^{2}}$$

$$= 0.26$$

$$K_a$$
 (horiz) = 0.26 cos (22 - 7.1) = 0.25

Geogrid Placement:

Lowest layer at 1^{st} block joint = ± 0.67 ft.

Space subsequent layers every 2^{nd} block = 1.33 ft. o.c.

Tension to Bottom Layer:

$$T_u = 0.25 \times 120 \left(\frac{2.0 - 0}{2}\right) \times (12.0 - 0.67) = 340$$

+ surcharge: 0.25 (50 + 100) x
$$\left(\frac{2.0 - 0}{2}\right)$$
 = 38

(Sloped backfill neglected)

$$T_n = 378$$
 lbs.

Select Geogrid

Try Strata Systems Stratagrid SG200

Long-term design strength (LTDS) = 1613

S.F. - 1.5

Allowable (LTADS)
$$-\frac{1643}{1.5}$$
 = 1085 > 378 @ bott. layer OK

Check Connection Strength

Equations: Peak connect = 889 + 0.31 N but < 1624

 $\frac{3}{4}$ " Serviceability $-519 \pm 0.14 \text{ N but} < 767$

N = (12.0 - 0.67) 120 = 1360 lbs.

Peak connect value =
$$\frac{(889 + .31 \times 1360)}{1.5}$$
 = 874 > 378 OK

$$\sqrt[3]{4}$$
 Serviceability = $\frac{(519 + 0.14 \times 1360)}{1.0} = 709 > 378$ OK

Safety Factor

$$\frac{Lesser\ of\ Peak, Service, or\ LTADS}{T_{tt}} = \frac{709}{378} - 1.88 \ge 1.50 \quad \text{OK}$$

Check Embedment Depth, Le

Bottom Layer:

$$L_e = \frac{T_u}{2H_{OV} \tan \phi_i \times C_i}$$
 (H_{ov} = overlay soil + surcharge)

Assume
$$C_i = 0.90 - H_{ov} = (12.0 - 0.67) 120 + (50 + 100) = 1510 lbs.$$

Page 3 of 8

$$L_e = \frac{378}{2 \times 1510 \times \tan 33^{\circ} \times 0.90} = 0.22 \text{ ft}$$

Add 1.0 ft. per NCMA = 1.22 ft. < 7.00 (AASHTO requires 3.0 ft. added + 3.22 ft.)

Tension to Layer #2:

$$T_u = 0.25 \times 120 \left(\frac{3.33 - 0.67}{2} \right) \times (12.0 - 2.0) = 399$$

+ surcharge: 0.25 (50 + 100) x
$$\left(\frac{3.33 - 0.67}{2}\right)$$
 = $\frac{50}{100}$ (Sloped backfill neglected) $T_a = 449$ lbs.

Check Connection Strength

Equations: Peak connect
$$-889 \pm 0.31 \text{ N but} < 1624$$

$$\frac{3}{4}$$
" Serviceability = 519 + 0.14 N but < 767

$$N = (12.0 - 2.0) 120 - 1200 lbs.$$

Peak connect value =
$$\frac{(889 + .31 \times 1200)}{1.5}$$
 = 841 > 449

$$\frac{3}{4}$$
" Serviceability = $\frac{(519 + 0.14 \times 1200)}{1.0}$ - $687 > 449$ OK

Tension to Top Layer:

$$T_u = 0.25 \times 120 \left(\frac{12.0 - 10.0}{2}\right) \times (12.0 - 11.33) = 20$$

+ surcharge:
$$0.25 (50 + 100) \times \left(\frac{12.0 - 10.0}{2}\right) = \underline{38}$$

Check Geogrid

Strata Systems Stratagrid SG200

Long-term design strength (LTDS) 1643

$$S.F. = 1.5$$

Allowable (LTADS) =
$$\frac{1643}{1.5}$$
 = 1095 > 58 OK

58 lbs.

Page 4 of 8

Check Connection Strength

$$= 889 + 0.31 \text{ N but} < 1624$$

$$\frac{3}{4}$$
" Serviceability = 519 + 0.14 N but < 767

$$N = (12.0 - 11.33) 120 = 80 lbs.$$

Peak connect value =
$$\frac{(889 + .31 \times 80)}{1.5}$$
 - 609 > 58

$$\frac{\left(519 + 0.14 \times 80\right)}{1.0} = 530 > 58$$

Check Embedment Depth, Le

$$L_{c} = \frac{T_{u}}{2II_{OV}\tan\phi_{i} \times C_{i}}$$

$$(H_{ov} = overlay soil + surcharge)$$

Assume
$$C_i = 0.90$$

Assume
$$C_i = 0.90$$
 $II_{ov} = (12.0 - 11.33) 120 \pm (50 \pm 100) + 230.4 lbs.$

$$L_e = \frac{58}{2 \times 230 \times \tan 33^{\circ} \times 0.90} = 0.22$$

Add 1.0 ft. per NCMA = 1.22 ft (\triangle ASHTO requires 3.0 ft. added = 3.22 ft.)

Check available embedment depth based on base = 10.0 ft.

Coulomb rupture angle = 52.1°

L_e avail.:
$$(10.0 - 1.0) + 11.33 \tan 7.1^{\circ} - \frac{11.33}{\tan 52.1} = 1.59 > 1.22$$
 OK

Overturning Moments

NOTE: Earth pressure applied to back of reinforced zone, assuming Vertical Plane (90°) effective ht. = $12.00 + 9.00 \tan 14 = 14.25$ ft.

K_a [external (in-situ)]

$$\phi_{\rm o} = 32^{\rm o}$$

$$\delta = \phi = 32^{\circ}$$

$$\beta = 14^{\circ}$$

$$y = 110$$

Page 5 of 8

$$K_a = 0.34$$

$$K_{c}(horiz) = 0.29$$

K_c (noriz) =	0.29				
	<u>Force</u>		<u>Distance</u>	Mome	<u>nt</u>
Earth pressure	$0.29 \times 110 \times \frac{14.25^2}{2} = 33$	239	$\frac{14.25}{3} = 4.75$	15,385	ftlbs.
Surcharge	0.29 (50 + 100) x 14.25 =	620	$\frac{14.25}{2} = 7.1$	4,418	
Sliding Force	Total = <u>3</u>	<u>859</u>	lbs.	<u>19,803</u>	ft. Ibs.

Resisting Moments

		<u>Force</u>	<u>Distance</u>	2	<u>Moment</u>
W_4 Wall	12 x 120 =	1440	1.25		1,800
W_L Earth	$9 \times 12 \times 120 =$	12,960	5.5		71,280
W ₂ Sloped	9 x 2.25 x 120 x ½ =	1215	$\frac{2}{3}$ x 9 + 2.49 =	= 8.5	10,328
W ₃ Surcharge	$9 \times (50 + 100) =$	1350	$\frac{9}{2} + 2.49 =$	7.0	9,436
Total vert. for	rce =	16,965	lbs.		92,844 ft. lbs.

Overturning safety factor ratio =
$$\frac{92,844}{19,803}$$
 = 4.68 > 2.0 OK

Check Sliding at Base

Lateral force on reinforced soil = 3859 lbs.

Sliding resistance = $16,965 \tan \phi_e = 10,600 \text{ lbs}$.

Total vertical force = 16,965 lbs.

Sliding safety factor =
$$\frac{10,600}{3859}$$
 = 2.75 OK

Check Soil Pressure

Use Meyerhoff Method

Eccentricity, c =
$$\frac{(B)}{2} - \frac{M_R - M_{OT}}{V_T} = \frac{(10)}{2} - \frac{92,84 - 19,803}{16,965} = 5.0 - 4.31 = 0.69 \text{ ft.}$$

Effective bearing length = $(B) - 2e = (10) - 2 \times 0.69 = 8.62$ ft.

Page 6 of 8

Bearing pressure =
$$\frac{V_T}{8.62} = \frac{16.965}{8.62} = 1968 \text{ psf}$$

Allowable Bearing Pressure

Assume no cohesion (c = 0)

=
$$\gamma DN_q + 0.5\gamma$$
 [Eff. Bearing length] N_γ γ = in situ soil density = 110 pcf.

$$= 110 \times 1.0 \times 23.2 + .5 \times 110 (8.62) 30.22$$
 D = Depth of embedment

= 1.0 ft.

$$= 16,879 \text{ psf}$$

$$N_{\rm q}$$
 for $32^{\circ} = 23.2$

$$N_{\nu}$$
 for $32^{\circ} = 30.22$

Soil bearing ratio
$$-\frac{16,879}{1968} = 8.58$$
 OK

Values for N_q and N_{γ}

ψi	N_{ϵ_i}	N_{γ}
31	20.63	26.0
32	23.2	30.2
33	26.1	35.2
34	29.4	41.1
35	33.3	48.0
36	37.8	56.3

Cheek for Added Seismic

Added seismic has three components:

Seismic force of self-weight of wall

Seismic force from reinforced zone

Seismic force acting on reinforced zone

$$k_h = 0.15$$
 $\theta = tan^{-1} 0.15 - 8.53^{\circ}$
 $K_{ARH} = 0.55 [\alpha - 97.1^{\circ}, \phi_i - 33^{\circ}, \delta = 22^{\circ}, \beta = 14^{\circ}]$

$$K_{AEH} = 0.55 [\alpha - 97.1^{\circ}, \phi_i - 33^{\circ}, \delta = 22^{\circ}, \beta = 14^{\circ}]$$

$$K_{AII} = 0.25$$
 $\Delta K_{AEH} - K_{AEH} - K_{AII} = .55 - .25 - 0.30$

DESIGN EXAMPLE 10		Page 7 of 8
Total seismic lateral force:		
Wall: $K_h \times W \times H = 0.15 \times 120 \times 12$		216 lbs.
Reinf. Zone: $K_h \times H (.5 \text{ H} - \text{t}) \gamma_i = 0.15 \times 12 (.5 \times 12 - 1.0) 120$	=	1080 lbs.
+ sloped soil = k_b [(.5 x 12 - 1.0) ² x γ_i x tan β x 0.5]		
= .15 [$(.5 \times 12 - 1.0)^2 \times 120 \times \tan 14^\circ \times .5$]	=	56
* Exterior of zone: $-0.5 \times \Delta K_{ABH} [H + (B-t) \tan \beta \times 0.5]^2 \times 0.5 \gamma_e$		
= .5 x 0.30 $[12 \pm (10 - 1) \tan 14^{\circ}]^2$ x 0.5 x 110	=	<u>1675</u> lbs.
* Use 50% of seismic per NCMA		
Total seismic	121.	3027 lbs.
** Total sliding force = 0.5 $K_{Alt} H + (B - t) \tan \beta ^2 \gamma_c + seismic$		
= 0.5 x 0.29 x $[12 + (10-1) \tan 14^{\circ}]^{2}$ x 110 + 302	7 =	6266 lbs.
** K_{AH} for back of reinf, zone based on α = 90° and δ = ϕ_c \therefore K_{AH}		0.29
+ (DL + LL) = 0.29 (50 ± 100) x [12 + (10 – 1) tan 14°]	=	620
Total sliding $= 6266 + 620 - 6886$ lbs.		
Sliding resistance = 10,660 lbs.		
Sliding ratio $= \frac{10,660}{6886} = 1.55 \text{OK}$		
Added Seismic Overturning		
Wall: OTM = 216 x $\frac{12}{2}$	=	1296
Reinf. Zone $-1080 \times \frac{12}{2}$	<u></u>	6480
Exterior: = $1675 \times [12 + (10 - 1) \tan \beta] \times 0.6$	=	14,321
$56 \times [12 + (.5 \text{H tan } 14^{\circ} \times 0.33)]$	_	700

Total added seismic overturning

= 22,797 ft. lbs.

Page 8 of 8

Total overturning = $22,799 \pm 19,803$

42,782 ft. 1bs.

Overturning ratio w/scismic = $\frac{92,852}{42,782}$ = 2.17

Seismic Tension to Layer #1

$$k_{\rm h} \left(\frac{h_2 - h_O}{2} \right) w + \Delta K_{\rm AEH} \gamma_{\rm i} \Pi \left(\frac{h_2 - h_O}{2} \right) \left[0.8 - 0.6 \left(\frac{II - h_O}{II} \right) \right]$$

$$= 0.15 \left(\frac{2.0 - 0}{2} \right) 120 + 0.30 \times 120 \times 12 \left(\frac{2.0 - 0}{2} \right) \left[0.8 - 0.6 \left(\frac{12 - 0.67}{12} \right) \right]$$

= 119 lbs.

Pullout safety factor = $\frac{1064}{378 + 119}$ - 2.14

Seismic tension to top layer #9

$$= 0.15 \left(\frac{12-10}{2} \right) 120 + 0.30 \times 120 \times 12 \left(\frac{12-10}{2} \right) \left[0.8 - 0.6 \left(\frac{11.33}{12} \right) \right]$$

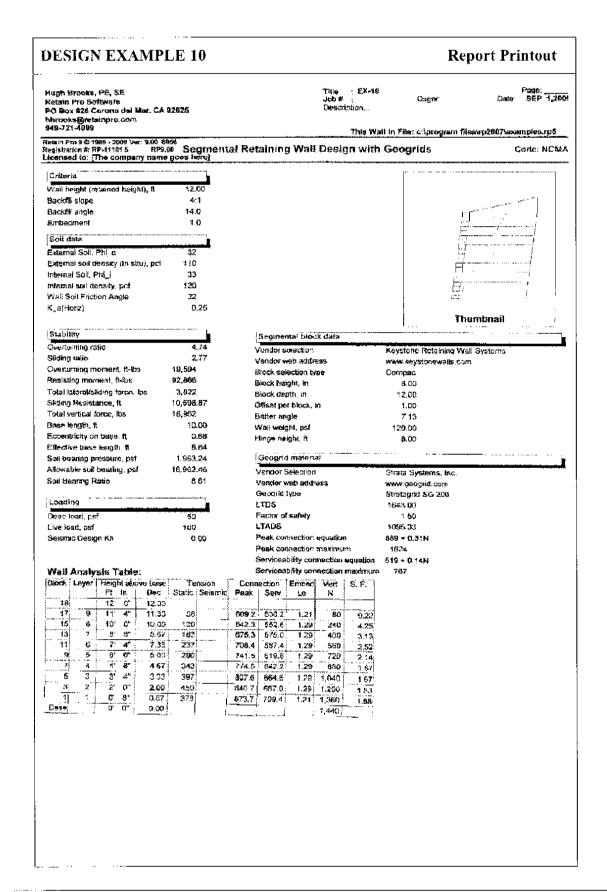
- 349 lbs.

Pullout S.F. =
$$\frac{540}{58 + 349}$$
 = 1.28 > 1.1 (for seismic) OK

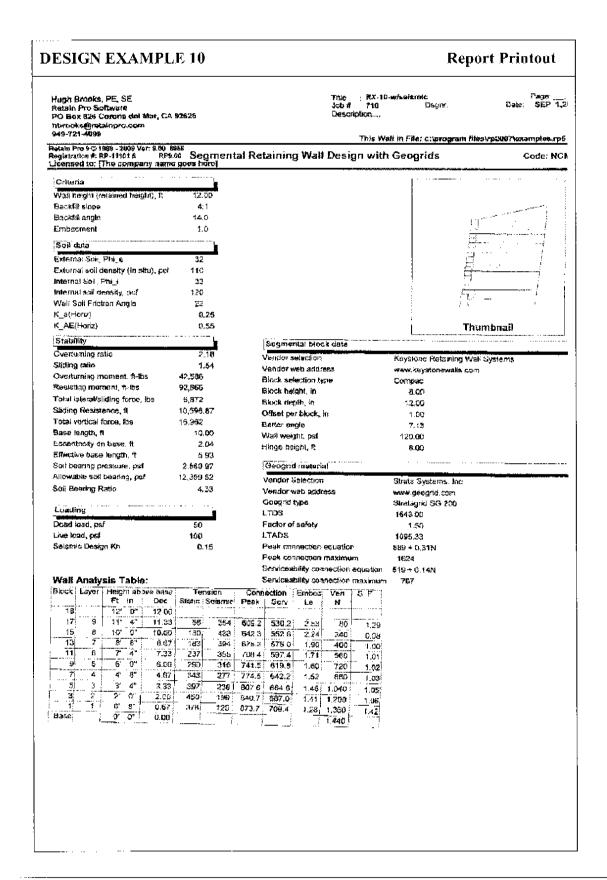
$$L_e = \frac{58 + 349}{2 x \left[(0.67 + say \ 2.0) \ x \ 120 + (50 + 100) \right] \tan 33^{\circ} \ x \ 0.90} + 1.0 = 1.66 \text{ ft.}$$

Available embedment =
$$(10-1) + 11.33 \tan 7.1^{\circ} - \frac{11.33}{\tan 52.1^{\circ}} = 1.59$$

Consider OK w/seismic



Report Printout DESIGN EXAMPLE 10 Hugh Brooks, Pt., SE Fage. SEP 1,2009 Degar. Retain Pro Software PO Box 826 Corona del Mar, CA 92625 Description... hbrooks@retainpro.com 949-721-4099 This Well in File: c:\program filestrp2007\esamplee.rp5 Result Pm 8 © 1955 - 2009 Ver. 8.00 5066 Registration 8: 86-41101 5 Reg.06 Segmental Retaining Wall Design with Geogrids Licensed to: The company name goes here! Code: NGMA Suntmary: Resisting / Overturning Resisting Moments Hem. Distance, 8 Force, ibe Morrient, ft-tos Wall 1,440 1.25 1,800 Reinf, earth 12.9605.50 71,250 Stoned 1,212 8.53 10,938 Deed foad 450 7.00 3.150 Live inact 900 7.00 6,300 Totel 16,962 92,866 Overturning Moments term Distance, fi Moment, ft-fos Earte 3,211 4.75 16 246 Surcharge, OL .114 7.12 1,450 Surcharge, LL **4**Q7 7.1% 2.900 Seigrräg, Watt Ü 0.00 0 Seisonic Relati 0 0.00 o Saismic, Sloped soli 0 DUC ø Seismic, Exterior ٥ 0.00 0 Total 3,822 Overturning Ratio ASSUMPTIONS AND CRITERIA USED References used include Cosign Manual for Beginning Plates by Science, and Sugmental Retaining Wales. Science Cosign Manual, #1 Edition, bolle or NCMA. Needer and as used a required costen and out or degeneral instance years, and degenerate recovering whate. Scientific George Magual, the Eddon, both or MAA. Blocks are of sume size and uniform offers (these for tall well height.) Blocks are of sume size and uniform offers (these for tall well height.) Blocks are of sume size and uniform offers (these for tall well height and tall are plane angle. Rafer to geotechnist report for beacht installer, comparation, and other design rates and recommendation). Case placks a used are above the retained height and or negotected in this design. Geograf LTDS and connection values for back vendors obtained from ICC Evaluation Service (RS Legacy Reports) or as provided by vendors. Since these little designs are consistent in the retained of values in recommendation. Block sizes orbates from vendors' illustrates and may very with locally. Second sizes orbates from vendors' illustrates and may very with locally. Average weight of black and call in till assumed to be 120 pcf. Beet vendor whe biles do in till assumed to be 120 pcf. Beet vendor whee biles do in till assumed to be table of the sizes. Contact vendors for installations or project specifications, whichever is test. Contact vendors to begin in Legal's Alexani. Vendor aperalizations or project specifications, whichever is most restriction, to be followed by round begin in accordance. Vendor aperalizations or project specifications, whichever is most restriction, to be followed by round begin in accordance. Scientific states of the project specifications, whichever is most restrictions.



Report Printout

Hugh Grooks, PE, SE Retain Pro Software PO Box 826 Corona del Mar, CA 92825 Title : EX-10-w/setsmic Job # 710 Dagnet Description....

Page. 1,2009

hbrooks@m&al0pro.com 849-721-4089

This Wall in File; c:\program files\rp2007\examples.rp5

favorable Pro N to 1988 - 2009 Var R 60 8955 Registration #: RP-11101 5 RP-08 Segmental Retaining Wall Design with Geogrids Licensed to: [The company name goes here]

 :Summary:	FOR IS	tim <u>s</u> a /	CARLINALINE
		_	

Irer:	Force, Ros	Distance, ft	Moment, ft-los
Wall	1,440	1.25	1,800
Reinf. earth	12,960	\$.541	71,280
Sloped	1,212	8.53	10,336
Dead load	450	7,00	9,150
Live road	900	7.00	5.300
Total	16, 9 62		92,855

Overburning Moments

item	Force, los	Distance, ft	Mornent, fi-tus
Earth	3,211	4.75	16,245
Surcharge, DL	204	7.72	1,450
Surcharge, Lt.	497	7,12	2,900
Seismic, Well	215	6.00	1,298
Seismic, Repf.	1,080	6.00	6,480
Selamic, Sloped soit	3-6	12.41	698
Sexemac, Exterior	1,699	8.5.5	54,510
Total	6,872		42,586

2.18

Overturning Ratio

ASSUMPTIONS AND CRITERIA USED

- SUMPTIONS AND CRITERIA USED

 References used broken Design Menual for Segmental Retaining Webs. 2rd Euliain, and Segmental Retaining Webs Setomic Design Menual, 1rd Ediain, som by NEMA.

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 Coulomb don't pictorum theory used for earth pressured on the design data and recommendations.

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 Recognit systems are equally specied verticated, and laid herozonally.

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 See User's Menual Design Emerged of the second with the properties in control or ponetration.

 Final design responsibility is with the properties for methodology and sample vertication containston.

Page 1 of 3

Segmental Gravity Wall Design

Criteria:

Retained height (trial) = 4.0 ft.

Slope: Level

Soil density, in situ - 110 pcf

Soil density, backfill - 120 pcf

Soil o, backfill 33°

Soil \(\phi \), in-situ 34°

Soil/wall friction angle = $\frac{2}{3}\phi$ backfill

$$=22^{\circ}$$

Embedment = 1.0 ft.



Try Keystone, Standard

Height -8.00 in. Depth =18.0"

 $Wt = 120 \times 1.5 \cdot 180 \text{ psf}$

Offset: 1/2 in. per block

Batter =
$$\tan^{-1}(0.5/8.0) = 3.6^{\circ} \equiv \omega$$

Hinge height =
$$\frac{(blockdepth)}{\tan \omega} - \frac{1.50}{\tan 3.6^{\circ}} = \frac{1.50}{.063} = 24 \text{ ft.} > 4.0 \text{ ft.}$$

<u>Lateral Soil Pressure</u>:

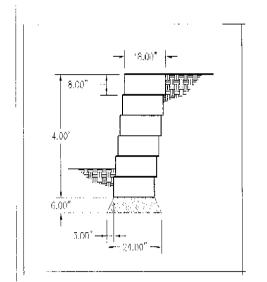
$$K_{a} = \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \varphi)}{\sin^{2}\alpha\sin(\alpha - \delta)\left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\varphi + \delta)\sin(\varphi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha - \beta)}}\right]^{2}}$$

$$K_a$$
 (horiz.) – K_a cos (90 ± δ - α)

$$\frac{\sin^2(93.60 + 33.0)}{\sin^2(93.60 - 22.0) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(33.0 + 22.0)\sin(33.0 - 0)}{\sin(93.60 - 22.0)\sin(93.60 - 0)}}\right]^2} = 0.24$$

$$K_a$$
(horiz.) = 0.24 cos (90 ± 22.0 – 93.60) = 0.23

Total lateral force =
$$\frac{0.23 \times 120 \times 4^2}{2} = 221 \ lbs$$
.



Stability:

Overturning moment = 221 x $\frac{4.0}{3}$ = 294 ft. lbs.

Total vertical force = $4.0 \times 180 \text{ pcf} = 720 \text{ lbs}$.

Resisting moment = 720 $\left[\left(\frac{1.5}{2} \right) + \left(\frac{4.0}{2} \tan 3.6^{\circ} \right) \right] = 630 \text{ ft. lbs.}$

Overturning ratio = $\frac{630}{294}$ = 2.14 > 1.50 OK

Check Sliding

Sliding force = 221 lbs.

Resistanse – 720 (tan ϕ in situ) – 720 x tan 34° = 486 lbs.

Sliding safety factor = $\frac{486}{221}$ = 2.20 > 2.0 OK

Soil Bearing Pressure

Base width $-1.0 \pm 0.5 - 1.5$ ft. $\pm B$

$$e = \frac{B}{2} - \left(\frac{Resisting - Overturning}{Total \ Vert.}\right) = \frac{1.5}{2} - \frac{630 - 294}{720} = 0.28$$

Effective bearing area - (B - 2c) - $[(1.5 - 2 \times 0.28) + 0.50]$ = 1.44 ft.

Bearing pressure = $\frac{720}{1.44}$ = 500 psf.

Allowable Bearing Capacity:

Effective bearing area = 1.44 ft.

Depth to bottom of 6 in. pad = $1.0 \pm 0.5 = 1.5$ ft.

 $N_q = 29.4 \quad N_\gamma = 41.1$

Bearing capacity = $\gamma DN_q + 0.5\gamma$ (B - $2_c)$ N_γ (N_q and N_y from Table in NCMA Handbook)

= 110 x 1.5 x 29.4 + 0.5 x 110 x
$$[(1.5 - 2 \times 0.28) + 0.5]$$
 41.1

Bearing safety factor = $\frac{8106}{500}$ = 16.2

If Design for Seismic:

Assume $k_b = 0.05$ (If greater, overturning would exceed resisting moment!)

 $K_a(horiz.) = 0.23$

$$K_{AE} = \frac{\sin^2 (\alpha + \theta - \phi)}{\cos \theta \sin^2 \alpha \sin (\alpha + \theta + \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin (\phi + \delta) \sin (\phi - \beta - \theta)}{\sin (\alpha + \theta + \delta) \sin (\alpha - \beta)}} \right]^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(0.05) = 2.9^{\circ}$$

$$\sin^2 (93.60 + 2.9 - 33.0)$$

$$\cos 2.9 \sin^2 93.60 \sin \left(93.60 + 2.9 + 22.0\right) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin (33.0 + 22.0) \sin (33.0 - 0.0 - 2.9)}{\sin (93.60 + 2.9 + 22.0) \sin (93.60 - 0.0)}}\right]^2$$

$$K_{AE}$$
 (horiz.) = 0.32 cos (90 + 22.0 93.60) = 0.30

 $K_{AH} = 0.23$

$$\Delta K_{AEH} = 0.30 - 0.23 = 0.07$$

Added seismic $-0.07 (4)^2 \times 120 \times 1/2 = 67 \text{ lbs.} + 0.05 \times 4.0 \times 180 = 36 \text{ lbs.}$

Total sliding = 221 + 67 + 36 = 324 lbs.

Overturning moment = $294 + 67 \times 0.60 \times 4 + 36 \times 2 = 527$ ft. lbs.

Overturning ratio =
$$\frac{630}{547}$$
 = 1.2 < 1.1

(Note: Safety factor when seismic included = 0.75 x 1.5 = 1.1 per IBC '09)

This design example used a very low seismic factor for illustration. A higher seismic factor would require a revised design.

DESIGN EXAMPLE 11 Report Printout Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Title EX-11 Job# 710 Description.... Page. Cote: MAR 10.2008 Rotein Pro Software PO Bax \$26 Corona del Mar. CA 92625 Nbrooks@retainpro.com 949-721-4099 This Wall in File: c:(program files/rp2007/esamples.rp5 Hotain Fro 9 2' 1982 - 2009 Ver; 8.00' 8646 Royletmion #: RP-11101 6 RP-00 SC Licensed to: [The company name goes here] Sogmental Gravity Retaining Wall Design Was baight (retained height). It Backfili slope Level Backfill angle 0.0 £mbedment 1.0 Soil data External Soll, Phille 34 Externel soil ownsity (in site), pef :10 Internal Soil, Phi_mi 33 Internal soil density, por 120 Wall Sell Ediction Angle 22 K_a(Hor⊵) 0.23 Thumbnail Stability Scymental block data Ометилине гаже Vendor selection Keyatono Fretaining Wall Systems Stiding estin 2.22 Vendor web address www.keystonewalis.com Overming moment, fi-ibs 291 Block selector, type Standard Resisting moreons, fields 630 Block height, in 8 00 Total latera@skding force, the Block depth, in 18.00 Skding Resistance, ft 485.65 Offset per block, in 0.50Total vertical force, les 720 Batter angle 3 56 Base length. 11 1.50 Wall weight psf 180.00 Eccentricity on base, ft 0.28 Hingo height, ft Effective base length, it 1.44 Sell bearing pressure, par 499.80 Altowable and bearing, psf 8,107,43 Soft Bearing Ratio 15,22 Loading Dead load par Live load, osf Seismic Besign Kh 6.00 Wali Analysis Table: Block Height above base Shear 1 10 4 0° 3' 4' Dec Statio | Seismic Interface 4.00 1.548.00 3.33 120 1.585.20 281.13 4 Z 8 2.67 240 24 1 527 40 55.81 3 2 0" 2 3 4" 1 0 8" 360 55 1.659.60 30.38 480 97 1.696.80 17.47 0.67 600 152 1,734 00 11.43 Brose D' C' 0.00 720 219 1,771.20 8.10

Report Printout

Hugh Brooks, PE, SE

Retain Pro Software

PO Box 825 Corona del Mar, CA 92625

hbrooks@retainpro.com 949-721-4099 Title EX-11
Job # 710
Description...

Dagan

Page: ___

Date: MAR 10,2008

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Relain Pro 9 5 1989 - 2009 Ver: 9.00 8056

Registration #: RP-111015 RP9.00 Se Licensed to: [The company name goes here]

Segmental Gravity Retaining Wall Design

Code: NCMA

ASSUMPTIONS AND CRITERIA USED

- References used include Design Manual for Segmental Retailing Walls, 2rd Edition, and Segmental Retaining Walls Setanto Design Manual, 1rd Edition, both by MCMA.
- Blocks are all same size and uniform offsets (batter) for full wall height.
- Coulomb earth pressure theory used for continues and failure plane angle.
- 4. Refer to gentechnical report for trackful material, correction, and other design data and recommencations.
- Cap brocks if used are above the retained height and neglected in this design.
- Block sizes obtained from yenders' literature and may vary with locality.
- Average weight of block and cell infill assumed to be 120 pct.
- 8. See vendor wet sites (on input screen) for more information and specifications.
- 9 Design Regult is limited to 12 feet or 18 blocks, waschever in less. Contact vendor for higher designs or special conditions.
- 10. Selemic design is per Sersmic Design Menual cited above. Also see Methodology/Selsmic Design in User's Mesual.
- 11. Vensor specifications or project specifications, whichever is more restrictive, to be followed for construction procedures.
- 12. Add notes and details for proper dramage.
- 13. See User's Manual Design Example #11 for methodology and sample verification calculations.
- 14. Final design responsibility is with the project Engineer-of-Record.

DESIGN EXAMPLE 11 Report Printout Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Page: 1.2909 Retain Pro Software PO Box 826 Corona dei War, CA 92625 Description... hbrooks@retzinpro.com 949-721-4099 This Yvall in File; c:\program files\rp2097\examples.rp5 Retain Pro 9 © 1999 - 2009 Ver. 2.00 3656 Registration #: RP-11101 5 RP9.80 Licensed to: [The company name go Segmental Gravity Retaining Walt Design Code: NGRIA Criteria Walt height (retained treight), ft 4.00 Backfill slope Lavel Blackfill angle 0.0 Empedment 1.0 Soil data i sternet Soit Phi_e External soft density (in situ), paf 110 Internal Soil, Phi_si 33 internal soil density, pu? 120 Wall Soil Edution Angle 22 K_a(Honz) 0.23 K_AB(Hant) 0.31 Thumbnail Statellity Segmental block data Overturning (also 1,15 Vesidor selection Keystone Retaining Wall Systems Stirting ratio 1 47 Vendor web address Www.Xaystonewalls.com Overterning mamont, #455 540 Block selection type Standard Resisting moment, R-lbs. 630 Block height, in 6.00 Total lateral/sliding force, its 331 Block depth, in 18.00 Silding Resistance, 6 485.65 Offset per black, in 0.50 Total vertical force, lbs 720 Satter orgio Bane length, ft 1.50 Wall weight, ost 180 00 Eccentricity on base, ft 0.83 Hinge height, ft 24.00 Effective base length, ft Soil bearing pressure, psf 981.49 Allowable soil bearing, pst 6,509,25 Soil Searing Ratio 6.63 Loading Geed load, psi D Live load, psf Ö Spismic Destan Kit 0.05 Wall Analysis Table: easd evode IngieH: Nacia Lateral Shear Static Scientis, leterace ∣Ft stra Desg 4' O' 4.00 1,548.00 3.33 1,585.20 Bit.ab 2" 8" 2.67 248 47 1,522.40 22.60 2 0" 2.00 350 67 1,659,60 13.60 4 1.33 486 577 85 1.696.80 9.32 0.67 15.2 600 100 1,734.00 O CC 219 112 | 1,771.20

DESIGN EXAMPLE 11 Report Printout Tate : EX-11-w/seismite Job # : De Description.... Retain Pro Software PO Box 825 Corona del Mar, CA 92625 hbrooks@retningro.com 949-721-4099 This Wall in File: c:\program tites\rp2007\examples.rp5 Retain Pm 9 is 1989 - 2009 Ver 9.00 8056 Regissration #: RP 11101 5 RP9.00 Se Licensed to: [The company name goes here] Segmental Gravity Retaining Wall Design Code: NCMA ASSUMPTIONS AND CRITERIA LISED SSUMPTIONS AND CRITERIA LISED References used include Design Manual for Segmental Retaining Walls, 2st Europh, and Segmental Retaining Walls — Seismic Dusign Manual 1st Edition, both by NCMA. Blocks are as tame size and unknown others (beams) for full well height. Coulanne serin pleasant intercry series for earth pressures and tailing please urgic. Rent to gentle double the port for function and explicitly in an other design data and reconsistentiations. Cap blocks if once are short the interior and relies of in the centre. Block proper is for your and an explicitly and explicitly in the centre. Block proper is for in port screen; further and may very entire confidence. See annotes web sized on input screen; for more information and specifications. Carried height is furthed to 12 feet on (8 thicks, wherever is see. Contact ventoring for the full interior and the service of the confidence of

Page 1 of 3

Cantilevered wall with pier foundation Code: IBC

*06

Use wall design Example #1

for forces imposed to pier

Revise footing/pier cap to 30" deep x 5.0 ft. wide

Try pier spacing = 6.0 ft.

Vertical load from wall $= 5688 \times 6.0 = 34,128 \text{ lbs.}$

Total lateral load at top of pier from wall

$$= \frac{45 (10.0 + 2.5 + 1.0)^2}{2} \times 6.0 - \frac{30 \times (2.5 + 1.0)^2}{2} \times 6.0 = 23,502 \text{ lbs}.$$

Assume no lateral support at top of pier

Pier
$$f_C' = 3000 \text{ psi}$$

$$f_v = 60,000 \text{ psi}$$

Soil bearing at pier tip = 6,000 psf

Use skin friction = 100 psf, neglect top 2.0 ft.

Assume pier fixity at $\frac{1}{6}$ pier depth

Allow passive for pier: 300 pcf.

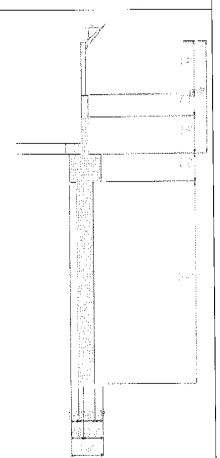
Load factor for pier concrete design = 1.6

Assume added lateral load at pier top (creep effect) = 500 lbs.

Assume diameter effectiveness multiplier for passive + 1.0

Center the pier under footing/cap

Moment applied at top of pier (unfactored) = $18,238 \times 6.0 = 109,428 \text{ ft-lbs}$.



Try 30" diameter pier spaced 6.0 ft. on center

Trial embedment depth (IBC '06 equation 18.1)

P = 23,502 Equiv "h" =
$$\frac{109,428}{23,502}$$
 = 4.66°

Embedment = 16.88 ft.

Use 18.0 ft. embedment

Total bearing capacity (neglect pier weight)

$$= \frac{2.5^2 \times 3.14}{4} \times 6000 + 2.5 \times 3.14 \times 100 (18-2) = 41,998^{\#} > 34,128.$$

Determine eccentricity of vert, load on pier

Dist front edge ftg to vertical resultant

$$=\frac{17,388}{5688}-3.06 \text{ ft.}$$

$$e = \frac{5.0}{2} - 3.04 = -0.56 \text{ ft.}$$

Pier $M_u = [23,502 (4.66 \pm 18/6) \pm 500 (18/6) - 34,128 \times 0.56] 1.6 = 259,862 \text{ ft-lbs.}$

Check pier φM_n per *Whitney Approximation Method

*ASCE transactions paper 1942 by Charles Whitney

Use 30" diameter with 8 - #8 bars, circular pattern

$$f_C' = 3000 \text{ psi}, \quad f_y = 60,000 \text{ psi}, \quad \phi + 0.90, \quad \text{clearance} = 3$$
"

Gross area of circular column = $\frac{3.14 \times 30^3}{4}$ = 707 sq. in.

Whitney equivalent rectangular width = $707 / (0.80 \times 30) = 29.5$ in.

Whitney equivalent "d" = $\frac{2}{3}$ (30) = 20 in.

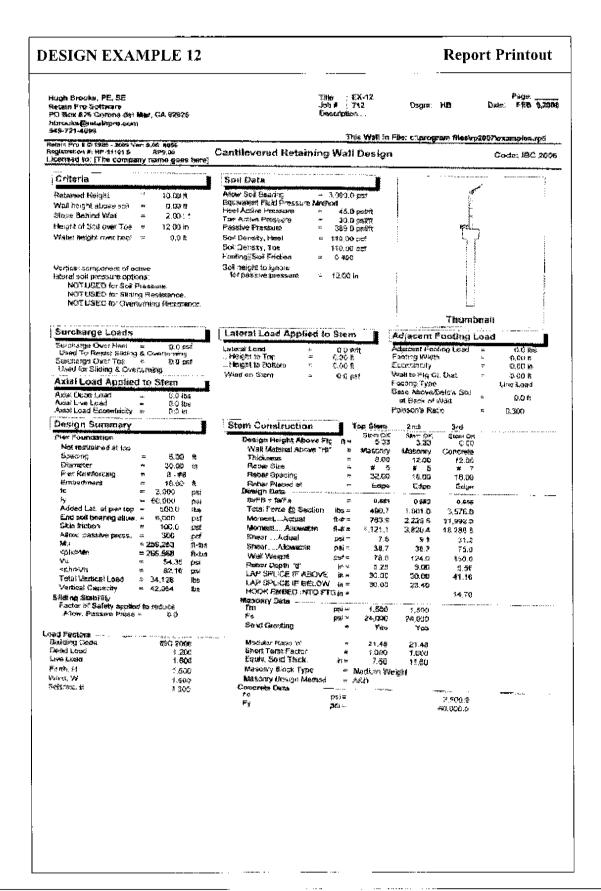
Per ACl equations:

$$a = \frac{A_S f_y}{.85 f_C' b} = (8 \times 0.5 \times 0.79 \times 60,000) / (0.85 \times 3000 \times 29.5) = 2.52$$

$$\phi M_{\rm a} = 0.90 \text{ A}_{\rm s} \, f_{\rm y} \left(d - \frac{a}{2} \right) = (0.90 \text{ x } 8 \text{ x } 0.5 \text{ x } .79 \text{ x } 60,000)$$

$$\left[20 - \left(\frac{2.52}{2}\right)\right] = 3198 \text{ in.-kips} = 266,500 \text{ ft-lbs.}$$

... Pier design OK



Report Printout

Hugh Brooks, PE, SE Ration Pro Software PO Box 520 Constructed Max, CA 92523 Intercetal Systematics com 545-721-4093

Dete: #68 1,2001

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Code: 190.2015

Footing Design Results

Footing Design Results

Footing Design Results

Footing Afore Torson, pp. 70 = 87,844,90 ft-line
Footing Afore Torson, pp. 70 = 61,618,79 ft-line

if services enceeds afformable, possible supplemental degign for footing torsion.

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DESIGNER NOTES

Basics of Retaining Wall Design

Page 1 of 2

Design Data

Soldier pile, cantilevered

Retained ht. = 10.0 ft.

Backfill slope = 18.4° (3:1)

Soil density = 110 pcf

Soil friction, $\phi = 34^{\circ}$

G194Surcharge = 100 psf

Pile spacing = 8.0 ft.

$$K_a \text{ (horiz)} = \cos^2 18.4$$

$$\frac{\cos 18.4 - \sqrt{\cos^2 - \cos^2 34}}{\cos 18.4 + \sqrt{\cos^2 - \cos^2 34}} = 0.31$$

$$K_{\rm P} = \tan^2\left(45 + \frac{34}{7}\right) - 3.54$$

Passive = $3.54 \times 110 = 389 \text{ psf}$

$$P_A = \frac{0.32 \times 110 \times 10^2}{2} \times 80 \times 13640 \text{ bs}$$

$$P_w = 0.31 \times 100 \times 10 \times 8.0 = 2,480 \text{ lbs}.$$

Safety factor to apply to passive - 1.5

Drill hole diameter = 24"

Multiplier for passive wedge = 2.5

$$P_p = P_A = P_w - 13,6404 + 2,480 = 16,120 \text{ lbs.} = \frac{389 \times 0.67 \times 2.0 \times 2.5 \times d^2}{2}$$

$$d = \sqrt{\frac{16.120x2}{389x0.67 \times 2.0 \times 2.5}} - 4.89 \text{ ft.}$$

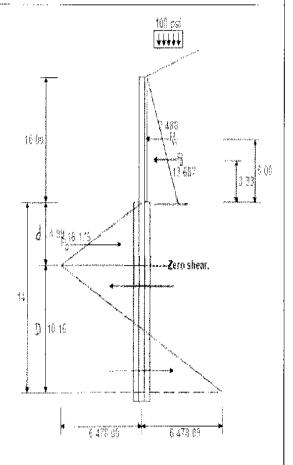
$$\mathbf{M}_{\text{max}} = \mathbf{P}_{\text{A}} \left(\frac{H}{3} + \frac{2d}{3} \right) + \mathbf{P}_{\text{w}} \left(\frac{H}{2} + \frac{2d}{3} \right)$$

$$= 13,640 (3.33 + 3.33) + 2480 (5 + 3.33) = 111,637 \text{ ft-lbs}.$$

Factored moment for LRFD = $111,174 \times 1.6 - 177,878 \text{ ft-lbs}$.

Per AISC 13th Edition, 2007, LRFD

Assume lateral support (designer to assess)



Page 2 of 2

Select W10 x 49

$$C_{mn} = 227,000 \text{ ft-lbs.} \ge 177,878 \text{ ft-lbs.}$$

$$M_{\text{max}}$$
 = resisted by moment couple = $F_P = \frac{\pi}{3} \times D$ D $= \frac{M_{\text{max}}}{0.67 F_D}$

Mom. Resisting couple = (0.67D) $\left(\frac{9}{2} \times 389 \times 0.67 \times 2.0 \times 2.5 \times 4.98 \times 0.5\right) = D^2 (1089)$

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{111.637}{1089}} = 10.12$$

Total embedment required = $4.99 \pm 10.12 = 15.1$ ft.

Check Lagging at, say, 8 ft. depth

Assume M =
$$\frac{WL^2}{10} = \frac{[(8 \times 0.31 \times 110) + (0.31 \times 100)]8^2}{10} = 1944 \text{ ft-lbs}.$$

$$S_{\text{req'd}} = \frac{1944 \times 12}{900} = 25.9$$

$$\underline{\text{Use 4 x 12}} \left(S = \frac{115 \times 3.5^{2}}{8} = 23.5 \right) \qquad \text{Consider OK}$$

Report Printout

Hugh Brooks PE, SE tetain Pro Soltware PO Box 826 Cortena det Mar. CA 92925 hbreaskepfrakingro.com 949:721-4099

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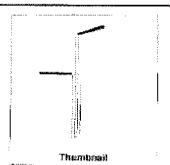
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Solected option to drill hate, insert solder beam, and encase beam in tean concrete,

Page 1 of 3

Gabion Wall

Criteria

Height of each course : 36"

Retained height = 12.0 ft.

Wall tilt from vert. $= 6^{\circ}$

Surcharge = 0.0 psf

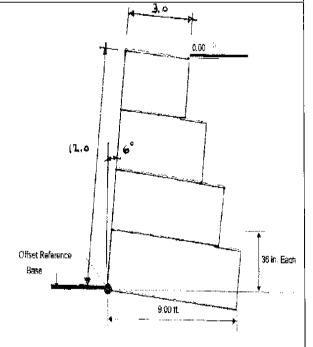
Density of cages (or blocks) = 120

pcf

Density of backfill = 110 pcf

Backfill slope: Level

Soil friction angle = 33°



Soil/block friction angle assumed zero (Conservative)

Allow, soil bearing = 2500 psf

Coef. of inter-block course friction = 0.70

Coef. of friction at base/soil interface = 0.45

Use Coulomb equation for K_a (horiz)

$$\alpha$$
 angle for Coulomb = 90° - $\left[tan^{-1} \left(\frac{4.5}{12.0} \right) \right] + 6.0 - 75.4^{\circ}$

$$K_a = 0.41$$

$$K_a \text{ (horiz.)} = 0.41 \left[\cos (20.6 \pm 6.0)\right] = 0.37$$

Check Course #4 (top)

Resisting moment = $3.0 \times 4.5 \times 120 \times \frac{4.5}{2} \times \cos 6^{\circ} = 3625 \text{ ft.-lbs.}$

Lateral on course $4 \pm 0.37 \times 110 (12.0-9.0)^2 \times 0.5 \times \cos 6^\circ = 182 \text{ lbs.}$

OTM for #4 = $182 \times 3.0 \times .33 = 182 \text{ ft. lbs.}$

Page 2 of 3

Stability S.F. =
$$\frac{3625}{182}$$
 = 19.9 OK

Sliding resistance = $0.70 \times 3.0 \times 4.5 \times 120 = 1134 \text{ lbs}$.

S.F. for sliding
$$=\frac{1134}{182} - 6.2$$
 0k

(Repeat this for courses 2 and 3)

Check Stability at Base Course

Distance from reference point to c.g. of courses:

#4 =
$$\left(9 \tan 6^{\circ} + \frac{4.5}{2}\right) \cos 6^{\circ} = 3.17 \text{ ft.}$$

#3 =
$$\left(6 \tan 6^{\circ} + \frac{6}{2}\right) \cos 6^{\circ} = 3.59 \text{ ft.}$$

#2 =
$$\left(3 \tan 6^{\circ} + \frac{7.5}{2}\right) \cos 6^{\circ} = 4.02 \text{ ft.}$$

Overall Resisting Moment

=
$$3.17 (3 \times 4.5 \times 120) + 3.59 (3 \times 6 \times 120)$$

+ $4.02 (3 \times 7.5 \times 120) \times 3.0 \times 9.0 \times 120 - 38,324 \text{ ft-lbs.}$

Overturning Moment

$$= \left(0.38 \,x\,110 \,x\,12^2 \,x\,0.5 \,x\,\frac{12}{3}\right)\cos^2 6^\circ = 11,918 \text{ ft-fbs.}$$

Stability S.F. =
$$\frac{38,324}{11918}$$
 - 3.22

Sliding Resistance

Total vertical load = $4.5 \times 3 \times 120 + 6.0 \times 3 \times 120 + 7.5 \times 3 \times 120$

$$+9.0 \times 3 \times 120 = 9,720$$
 lbs.

Resistance = $9,720 \times 0.45 = 4374 \text{ lbs}$.

Lateral force =
$$(0.38 \times 110 \times 12^2 \times 0.5) \cos 6^\circ = 2980 \text{ lbs.Sliding S.F.} = \frac{4374}{2980} 1.47$$

DESIGN	EXA	MPI	E 14
--------	-----	-----	------

Page 3 of 3

Soil Bearing

Total vertical load = 9,720 lbs.

Dist. To c. g. vertical load

$$\frac{38,324 - 11,918}{9720} = 2.72 \text{ ft.}$$

$$e = \frac{9}{2} - 2.72 = 1.78$$

Soil bearing =
$$\frac{9720}{9} + \frac{9720 \times 1.78 \times 6}{9^2} = 2362 \text{ psf.}$$

Report Printout

Hogh Brooks, FE, SE Retain Pro Sollware PO Box 826 Conors del Mar. CA 97675 hbrooks@retainpro.com: 349-721-4099

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Gabton Retaining Wall Design

Sade IBC 2006





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Crosmurming Reduct.	3.2
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-	Course Height	Offset Length	Vertical List	F69.8	Coleral	OTM	State, B.F.	Sidong S.F.,
ĺ	· 4 (9.00	0.00 4.53	25 25.0 3.18	3625	167 1	156	*9.49	6.04
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Gabion Retaining Wall Design

Code: (BC 2008

Notes:

- 1. All courses are the same height and lithil density.
- If was depth is uniform consider using asymmetric was module, gravity, before fourtown.
- 3 Concrete blocks may be used in lieu of Gabion cages.
- 4 Offisel of successive tayers traded to one-half course height. Earth with face flush.
- Governth equation used for active pressure. West inction eagle assumed zoto.
- 8 If wall is tilled (builtered), model effect by numbersive effects that note times course height).
- 7. This design and valid for ministrated soils (MRE), was SRW module.
- 8. Vendar apecifications may apply.

APPENDIX

Appendix A

UNIFIED SOIL CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM (USCS)

CHOISIVIOBUS ROLAM				OP OP	TYPICAL DESCRIPTIONS			
	GRAVEL AND GRAVELLY SOILS	CLEAN GRAVELS (LITTLE OR NO FINES)		GW GP	WELL GRADED GRAVELS, GRAVEL-SAND MIXTURES, LITTLE OR NO FINES POOFLY GRADED GRAVELS, OR GRAVEL-SAND MIXTURES,			
COARSE GRANED SOILS	MORE THAN 50%. OF COARSE FRACTION BETAINED ON A NO. 4 SIEVE SAND AND	GRAVELS WITH FINES (APPRECIABLE AMOUNT OF FINES)		GM	LITTLE OR NO FINES SILTY GRAVELS, GRAVEL-SAND-SILT MIXTURES.			
				GC	CLAYEY GRAVELS, GRAVEL-SAND-CLAY MIXTURES.			
		CLEAN SANDS		sw	WELL GRADED SANDS, GRAVELLY SANDS, LITTLE OR NO FINES.			
	SANDY SOILS	(LITTLE OR NOT#XES)		SP	POORLY GRADED SANDS OR GRAVELLY SANDS, LITTLE OR NO FINES.			
IS LARGER FRACTION THAN NO. 200 PASSING	OF COARSE	SANDS WITH FINES (APPRECIABLE AMOUNT OF FINES)		SM	SILTY SANDS, SAND-SILT MIXTURES.			
	FRACTION PASSING A NO. 4 SIEVE			sc	CLAYEY SANDS, SAND-CLAY MIXTURES.			
FNE GRANED SOLS				ML	INORGANIC SILTS, SANDY SILTS, AND CLAYEY SILTS OF LOW PLASTICITY.			
		NO LIMIT THAN 50,		CL	INORGANIC CLAYS OF LOW TO MEDIUM PLASTICITY: GRAVELLY, SANDY OR SILTY CLAYS, LEAN CLAYS.			
				OŁ.	ORGANIC SILTS AND ORGANIC SILTY CLAYS OF LOW PLASTICITY,			
MORE THAN 50% OF MATERIAL IS SMALLER THAN NO. 200 SIEVE SIZE			MH	INOAGANIC SILTS, MICACEOUS OR DIATOMACEOUS FINE SANDY OR SILTY SOILS, ELASTIC SILTS				
	SILTS LIQUID CIMIT AND GREATER THAN 50.			СН	INORGANIC CLAYS OF HIGH PLASTICITY FAT CLAYS.			
	CLAYS STE		OH-	ORGANIC CLAYS AND SILTY CLAYS OF MEDIUM TO HIGH PLASTICITY.				
MIGHLY ORGANIC SO/LS				PT	PEAT AND OTHER HIGHLY CROANIC SOILS			

NOTE: QUAL SYMBOLS ARE USED TO INDICATE BORDERLINE CLASSIFICATIONS

SOIL CLASSIFICATION CHART

Appendix B - Summary of Design Formulas

CONCRETE (SD)

= .90 for flexure

= 75 for shear

= .55 for plain concr flexure/shear

$$\rho_{cos} = .85 \frac{f_x^2}{f_x} \beta \left(\frac{87,000}{87,000 + f_x} \right) [\beta = 0.85]$$

 $\rho_{max} = 75_{bes}$

$$\rho_{min} = \frac{260}{f_s}$$

 $E_{\infty} = 29.000,000 \, \text{psi}$

 $E_{\circ} = 57,000 \sqrt{f_{c}}$

$$n = \frac{E_z}{f_{E_z}}$$

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{A_z f_y}{85 f_z b}$$

The general solution for A, (per CRSI) =

$$\frac{17 \ f_{c} \ bd}{2 f_{y}} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2.89 \ (f_{c} \ bd)^{2}}{f_{y}^{2}}} = \frac{68 \ f_{c} \ b \ M_{u}}{\phi \ f_{y}^{2}}$$

For b = 12", f_s = 60 ksi, this reduces to:

 $\Delta_{k_0} =$

0.17
$$f_c d = \sqrt{.029 \left(f_c + \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 - .0063 f_c M_b}$$

 $M_m = A_s f_v (a - 3/3)$

 $M_n \leq \phi M_n$

$$\ell_{\text{hb}} = \frac{0.02 f_{\text{N}} d_{\text{S}} \times 0.7}{\sqrt{f_{\text{C}}}} \left(\frac{A_{\text{C}} \text{ req'd}}{A_{\text{S}} \text{ provided}} \right)$$

or.8d% or 6°

*{db (#6 and smaller)

$$= \frac{0.024 \, d_{x} f_{x}}{\sqrt{f_{x}}} \left(\frac{A_{x} \, red \, d}{A_{x} \, provided} \right)$$

* Pdb (#7 and larger)

$$=\frac{.03 d_3 f_3}{\sqrt{f_c}} \left(\frac{A_c \operatorname{req'} d}{A_c \operatorname{provided}} \right)$$

* From ACI 12 2.3

Lap length Class B splice = 1.3 Lab

$$v_a = 2\sqrt{f_a \delta d}$$

Plain concr tension = $5\phi \sqrt{f_z}$

Plain concr shear = $2\phi \sqrt{f_c}$

MASONRY (WSD)

 $F_{*} = 0.5 f_{*} (24,000 \text{ psi max.})$

E₄ = 29,000,000 psi

 $E_m = 750 f_m$

$$n = \frac{E_z}{E_m}$$

$$F_b = .33 f_m$$

 $F_b = .33 f_m$ $V_0 = 1.0 \sqrt{f_m} (50 \text{ psi max})$

$$k = \sqrt{(pp)^2 + 2pp - pp}$$

$$M_s = F_s A_s j d$$

$$M_m = F_0 b d^2 \left(\frac{k_{1/2}}{2} \right) = K d b^2$$

$$v_{a} = V/bd$$

 $I_c = .002d_bF_a$ (but not less than

MASONRY (LRFD)

$$A = \frac{A_z f_y}{0.80 f_{\pi b}} = 0.80$$

$$M_n = A_n f_n \left(d - g_n \right)$$

$$\phi = 0.90$$

Appendix C - Masonry Design Data

Rebar Position Depth for Masonry, Default Values.

Thickness	Rebar Depth (in)						
	Center	Edge					
6''	2.75"	2.75"					
8"	3.75"	5.25"					
10"	4.75"	7.25"					
12"	5.75"	9.0"					
14"	6.75"	11.0"					
16"	7.75"	13.0"					

Masonry Equivalent Solid Thickness (inches)

	Grout Spacing									
Thickness (inches)	8"	16"	24"	<u>32"</u>	<u>40''</u>	48"				
6	5.6	4.5	4.1	3.9	3.8	3.7				
8	7.6	5.8	5.2	4.9	4.7	4.6				
10	9.6	7.2	6.3	5.9	5.7	5.5				
12	11.6	8.5	7.5	7.0	6.7	6.5				
14	13.6	9.9	8.7	8.1	7.6	7.4				
16	15.6	11.6	10.1	9.5	8.6	8.3				

Wall Thickness		Concrete Masonry Units											
Solid Grouted Wall		Lightweight 103 pcf			Medium Weight 115 pcf				Normal Weight 135 pcf				
		6"	8"	10"	12"	6"	8"	10"	12"	6"	8"	10"	12"
		52	75	93	118	58	78	98	124	63	84	104	133
Vertical Cored Grouted at:	16" o.c.	41	60	69	88	4 7	63	80	94	52	66	86	103
	24" o.c.	37	55	61	79	43	58	72	85	46	61	78	94
	32"o.c.	36	52	57	74	42	55	68	80	47	58	74	89
	40" o.c.	35	50	55	71	41	53	66	77	46	56	72	86
	48" o.c.	34	49	53	69	40	45	64	75	45	55	70	83

Appendix D - Development and Lap Lengths

Lap Splice Lengths⁽¹⁾ and Hooked Bar Embedments (inches)

Bar	Size	Masonry ⁽²⁾	^[1] =1500 psi	Concrete (3)			
		Grade 40	Grade 60	2000 psi	3000 psi	4000 psi	
#4	L	20	24	20.9	17.1	14.8	
	H ⁽⁴⁾			9.4	7.7	6.7	
#5	L	25	30	26.2	21.4	18.5	
	H ⁽⁴⁾			11.8	9.6	8.3	
#6	L	30	36	31.4	25.6	22.2	
	H ⁽⁴⁾			14.1	11.5	10.0	
#7	L	35	42	45.8	37.4	32.4	
	H ⁽⁴⁾			16.5	13.4	11.6	
#8	L	40	48	52.3	42.7	37.0	
	H ⁽⁴⁾			18.8	15.4	13.3	

- (1) Min. lap for spliced bars, in., assumes f_y = 60 ksi, per ACI 316-05, Equation (12-1).
- (2) 40 bar diameters for $f_y = 40$ ksi and 48 diameters for $f_y = 60$ ksi IBC '06-2107.5
- (3) Min. lap is development length x 1.3, assuming Class B splice. Cannot be reduced for stress level
- (4) Assumes standard hook and not reduced by ratio A_s (required) / A_s (provided)

Note that IBC '06, 2107.5, modifies ACI 530-05, Section 2.1.10.7.1.1 which has the effect of <u>deleting</u> the following onerous development length equation (2-9) in ACI-530-05:

$$\ell_d = \frac{0.13 d_b^2 f_y \gamma}{K \sqrt{f_m^1}}$$

 γ = -1.0 for #3,4,5 bars, 1.4 for #6, 7, and 1.5 for #8

K = Masonry cover but not less than 5 d_b

This requirement resulted in much longer lap lengths and has met with considerable objection.

Appendix E - Sample Construction Notes

Brief specifications, or notes, should accompany any retaining wall design. A checklist for items to include:

Reference to foundation investigation report recommendations (if applicable)

Excavating / grading requirements

Concrete strength

Masonry

Mortar

Grout

Reinforcing, including placement requirements

Soil bearing value and special requirements

Inspections

Drainage

And here are a few additional notes that will help solve problems and keep you out of trouble:

- 1. Should a discrepancy arise between the drawings and field conditions, or where a detail is doubtful of interpretation or an unanticipated field condition be encountered, the structural engineer shall be called right away for procedure to be followed which shall be confirmed in writing by the structural engineer with copies to all parties.
- 2. Wherever there is a conflict between details and specifications, or between details, or where doubtful of interpretation, the most restrictive shall govern, as determined by the structural engineer.
- 3. The contactor and each subcontractor shall visit the site and consider field conditions affecting the work depicted on the plans, and his submission of a bid indicates his acceptance of such conditions.
- 4. The contractor shall assure that each subcontractor has copies of latest plan revisions and is kept current with any change orders or directives affecting the subcontractors work.

And your experience will add more!

Appendix F. - Conversion Factors

English – S.I. – Metric Conversions						
Multiply	by	to get				
inches	2.54	em (centimeters)				
feet	0.305	m (meters)				
centimeters	0,394	inches				
centimeters	10	mm (millimeters)				
meters	3.28	feet				
psf	47.9	kPa (pascals)				
psi	6.89	kPa (kilopascals)				
pcf	16.0	kg/m² (kilograms per cubic meter)				
psf/ft	0.157	kPa/m (kilopascals per meter)				
in-lbs	0.113	Nm (newton meters)				
ft-lbs	1.36	Nm (newton meters)				
pounds	4.45	N (newtons)				
kip	4,45	kN (Kilo Newtons)				
lbs per lin ft	1.49	kg/m (kilograms per meter)				
inches	25.4	mm (millimeters)				
milimeters	.039	inches				
Pascals	1.0	Nm² (newtons per square meter)				
Newtons/m ²	1.0	Pa (pascals)				

Common Equivalents						
English	S.I.					
1,500 psi	= 10.34 mPa					
2,000 psi	= 13.8 mPa					
2,500,psi	17.24 mPa					
3,000 psi	20.7 mPa					
24,000 psi	= 165 mPa					
60,000 psi	= 414 mPa					
100 psf	= 4.788 mPa					
1,000 psf	= 47.9 mPa					

Appendix G - Reinforcing Bar US/SI Conversions

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Reinforcing Bar Conversions ("soft" metric)						
U.S. Bar No.	Metric Bar No.	Diameter in/mm	Area in²/mm²				
3	10	0.379/9.5	0.11/71				
4	13	0.50/12.7	0.20/129				
5	16	0.625/15.9	0.31/199				
6	19	0.44/19.1	0.44/284				
7	22	0.875/22.2	0.60/387				
8	25	1.00/25.4	0.79/510				
9	29	1.125/28.7	1.00/645				
10	32	1.25/32.3	1.27/819				
11	36	1.375/38.8	1.56/1006				

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Appendix I: Notations & Symbols

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A	=	depth of equivalent rectangular stress block for strength design.	f_o	=	actual axial compressive stress due to axial load psi.
AASHTO	=	American Association of State Highway & Transportation Officials	f_b	=	actual flexural stress in the extreme fiber due to bending moment, psi.
A		ground acceleration. (symbol varies)	f_c	=	compressive stress in concrete in flexure, psi.
A_s	=	effective cross-sectional area of reinforcement in a column or	f'c	=	specified compressive strength of concrete, psi.
ACI	=	flexural member, square inches. American Concrete Institute.	f'_m		allowable compressive strength of masonry, psi.
AISC	=	American Concrete Masonary	f_r	=	modulus of rupture, psi.
ASCE	=	Association. American Society of Civil Engineers.	f_s	=	computed stress in reinforcement due to design loads, psi.
ASD	=	Allowable Stress Design	f_s	<u></u>	stress in compressive
ASTM	=	American Society for Testing and Materials.			reinforcement in flexural members, psi.
b	<u>:=</u>	width of rectangular member.	f_{y}	=	yield strength of reinforcement, psi.
С	_	coefficient that determines the distance to the neutral axis in a beam in strength design.	f_{ℓ}	=	flexural tensile stress in masonry, psi.
СВС	=	California Building Code	\int_{V}		actual shear stress, psi.
cm	=	centimeter	F_a	=	allowable axial compressive stress, psi.
CMU d	=	Concrete Masonry Unit. depth of reinforcing from	${F}_b$		allowable flexural compressive stress, psi.
		compression edge.	IBC	=	International Building Code.
ÐL	=	dead load.	ICC	=	International Code Council
С	=	eccentricity measured from the vertical axis of a section to the resultant force.	I_g ,		gross section moment of inertia, in ⁴ .
E_m	=		I_{cr}	=	moment of inertia of cracked section, in ⁴ .
E_s	=		K _a	<u></u>	active earth pressure cueficient, static
		27,000,000 por	K_{ac}		active earth pressure, static and seismic.

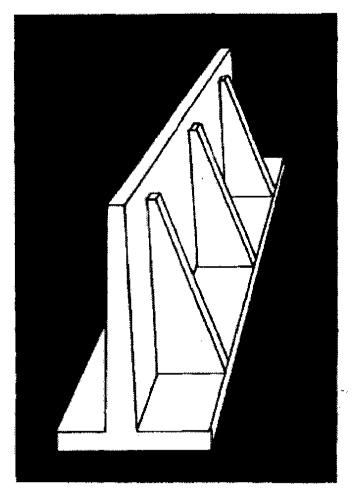
K_{ah}	=	coefficients for seismic lateral earth pressure of backfill against cantilever retaining wall.	NCMA	-	National Concrete Masonery Association.
Kip	=	1000 pounds.	OTM		Overturning Moment.
kN	=	kilonewtons.	Pa	=	Pascals.
K _o	=	At-rest earth pressure cufficient.	pcf	-	pounds per square foot per foot or pounds per cubic foot.
kPa	=	kilopascals	plf	=	pounds per linear foot.
ksi	=	Kips per square inch	psi	=	pounds per square inch.
ksf	=	Kips per square foot	•		
Kg	=	kilogram.	psf	=	pounds per square foot.
l _a	=	required development length of	RM	=	Resisting Moment
6.74		the reinforcement.	r	=	radius of gyration.
L_{db}	=	basic development length,	SF	=	Safety Factor
(41)		inches.	SI	=	International Systems of
L_{hd}	. •	hooked bar development length, inches			Measurements as adopted by the General Conference of Weights and Measures.
LL	=	live load.	SRW	_	Segmental Retaining Wall
LRFD	=	Load Resistance Factor Desgin.	v	-	shear stress, psi
MlA	=	Masonery Institute of America	Vu	=	factored shear stress, psi.
		•	Vm	=	allowable shear stress for
MSJC	=	Masonary Standards Joint Committee	V		masonry, psi. total design shear force, lbs.
3.7		the moment of the	V _u		factored shear force at section.
M_m	<u></u>	compressive force in the	W	=	uniformly distributed load.
		masonry about the centroid of	W_p	=	weight of wall or component.
		the tensile force in the	α	=	In Coulomb equation, clockwise
		reinforcement.			angle from horiztonal to back
M_n	==	nominal moment strength of a			face of wall (90° if wall is vertical).
		masonry section.	β		angle of the backfill slope from
MPa	=	megapascals.	,		a horizontal level plane.
$M_{\scriptscriptstyle R}$	=	resisting moment.	γ		unit weight of soil, pcf.
M_s	=	the moment of the tensile force in the reinforcement about the	δ	=	angle of the wall friction to a horizontal level plane.
		centroid of the compressive	\triangle	_	deflection of element.
		force in masonry.	μ	=	coefficient of sliding friction.
			ф	=	angle of internal friction of soil degrees.

NOTE: SOME SYMBOLS MAY HAVE DIFFERENT MEANINGS IN DIFFERENT CONTEXT'S.

Appendix J: Moments and Reactions for Rectangular Plates

These four pages are adopted from a U.S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Reclamation, Water Resources publication: Engineering Monograpoh No 27, prepared by W.T. Moody. Find it in a library near you at http://www.worldcat.org/oclc/56307609&referer=brief results.

A WATER RESOURCES TECHNICAL PUBLICATION ENGINEERING MONOGRAPH NO. 27



Moments and Reactions for Rectangular Plates

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR BUREAU OF RECLAMATION

Moments and Reactions for Rectangular Plates

By W.T. MOODY

Division of Design

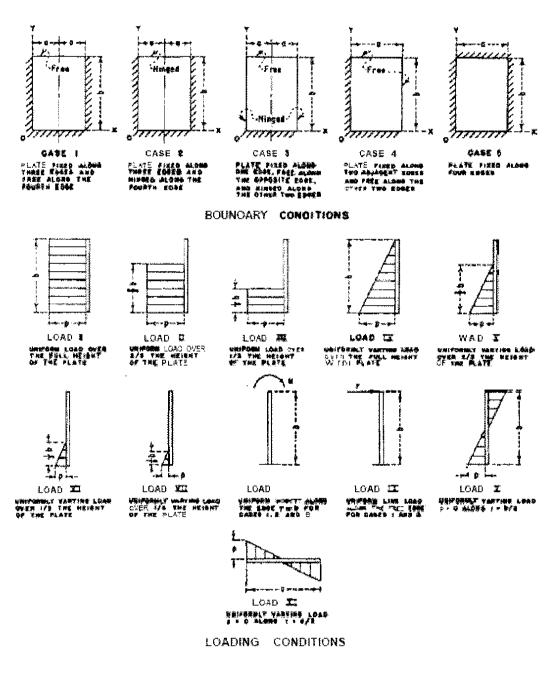
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United States Department of the Interior



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