

UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF RECLAMATION

MEMORANDUM TO CHIEF DESIGNING ENGINEER

SUBJECT: SECURITY OF MASONRY DAMS ON EARTH FOUNDATIONS
AGAINST FAILURE FROM UNDER-SEEPAGE OR PIPING

by

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Under direction of

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McBainey

Security of Insoluble Lanes on Porous Foundations

Causes of Failure from Under-Scour or Piping

By E. W. Lane, Research Engineer

Denver, Colorado, April 26, 1930

Insoluble lanes on porous foundations may fail from (1) toe erosion, (2) under-scour or piping, (3) blow-by from upward pressure, (4) spray abrasion, (5) overrunning, and (6) sliding. The frequency with which failures result from the various causes is probably far from the order listed. An investigation reported on herein was undertaken primarily to study the means used to prevent failure of massy dams or earth foundations from the cause of under-scour or piping, and to determine how to compare with existing data the length of path of scour or infiltration. It is necessary to insure safety for dams founded on various kinds of material. A summary of the results of this study is given on pages 1 to 10 inclusive. The procedure, results and conclusions are given in detail on the following pages:

The following pages are numbered consecutively, starting with page 1, and are as follows:
1. Introduction
2. Objectives of investigation
3. Procedure
4. Results
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ELIOT'S THEORY

The first rational system of design of dams on porous foundations was proposed by W. G. Eliot* and was developed from an anal-

*The Practical Design of Irrigation Works. Eliot, 2nd Edition, p. 162.

yses of the failures and successes in India, where many dams on porous foundations had been constructed. Although Eliot's analysis leaves much to be desired, it has been generally accepted and is extensively used. From a practical standpoint it is believed to be the best method so far devised and has long been used as standard practice in the design of the structures of the Bureau of Reclamation. Briefly stated, Eliot's theory is that for a given character of foundation material there is a definite minimum safe ratio of the length of the path along which water seeps under the dam from headwater to the tailwater, to the head of water sustained by the dam, and when the ratio is less than this there is a tendency of the water seeping beneath to form channels through the foundation material which may ultimately enlarge and cause the failure of the structure. This form of failure is called piping. The path which the water takes is along the line of contact between the earth and the masonry or piling; in the case of sheet piles it is down one side of the pile and up the other. This path is called the line of creep and the length of the line is called the creep distance.

In the result of his study of dam and dam failures, Flanagan arrived at values of the creep-resistance ratio which he believed would give safety from piping failure. The description of the various classes of material and the values of the ratios varies according to different publications by Flanagan. The following table gives the various descriptions and ratios:

Safe Creep-Resist Ratios Given by Flanagan

Year of publication	Publication			
	I	II	III	IV
1910	18	18	18	?
1910	18	18	18	?
1910	18	18	18	?
River beds of light silt and mud, as the Nile	18	18	18	?
Fine silt and sand as in the Nile River	18	18	18	?
River beds of light silt and sand of which 60% passes the 100-mesh sieve, as those of the Nile or Mississippi	18	18	18	?
In mud and silt, such as in the Nile	18	18	18	18
Fine miscellaneous sand as in the Colorado and Indus rivers	15	15	15	?
Fine miscellaneous sand of which 50% passes a 75-mesh sieve, as in Indus rivers and in such as the Colorado	15	15	15	?
In fine; e.g., Punjab sand	15	15	15	?

(Cont.)

	Publication	I	II	III	IV
Year of publication		1910	1910	1916	?
Coarse-grained sands, as in Central and South India.		12	12	12	
Ordinary coarse sand			12	12	
In coarse sand (this is the usual type)				12	
Boulders or shingle and gravel and sand mixed	5 to	5 to			
	6	9			
Gravel and sand		9			
Boulders, gravel and sand	4 to				
	6				
In clay, shale or shingle				5 to 9	

- Publications
- I The Practical Design of Irrigation Works, 1910, 2nd Ed., p. 165.
 - II Dams, Barrages and Weirs on Porous Foundations, Engineering News, Vol. 84, December 29, 1910, p. 706.
 - III Dams and Weirs, 1916, p. 155.
 - IV Control of Water, Parker, 1916, p. 679.
(The original source by Elich is not given).

The first three classifications are fairly consistent. A classification of silt by rivers, however, is not safe procedure as what is in the upper reaches is usually much coarser than in the lower. It is not known exactly why Hough's Silt ratio put the Colorado River in the class with a ratio of 15, but the silt from the lower Colorado is much finer than the sizes given, in fact even finer than those given for a ratio 14. The classifications for boulders, shingle, gravel and sand differ somewhat, in one case using a minimum ratio of 4 and in another case 5. The classification, gravel and sand, 9, and boulders, gravel and sand, 4 to 6, is the most useful, since it gives a definite value for gravel and sand without boulders, a common foundation material. It is interesting to note, however, that in his latest publication Eligh does not give a ratio lower than 5. The classifications given by Parker are entirely different for the lower ratios and could not be located in available publications by Eligh.

Short Path Theory

Another theory which has been used to some extent in the design of dams on porous foundations is that may be called the short path theory. This assumes that the water travels in the shortest possible path from the headwater to the tailwater, and when the ratio of the length of this path to the head sustained by the dam is less than a certain value, depending on the class of foundation material, the dam is in danger of failure from piping. The path of the water under this assumption may be called the "short path." Both creep and short path methods of analysis have been used in this study. From a practical standpoint they differ but little, as will be shown later.

In this study, six failure cases were found in which the available literature and other sources of information did not give enough information to make calculations. In all cases, the soil was relatively uniform. In most cases there was no available literature. In one case, some degradation was found of the soil structure where there was either a crystalline lack of cement between the soil, where is frequently considerable room for the exercise of judgment. In just three the gravel piles should be considered as being. In checking over the data given by Bligh¹, it was found that available from other sources, some discrepancies were found. In all cases the author's test judgement was used in determining the most probable solution. He would appreciate it if readers of this report would call his attention to any cases in which his judgment may have been in error.

In several results in the analysis of some of the cases it was necessary to make assumptions. One of these was in the case of rows of sheet piling close together. Bligh states that "the line of crimp five to sheet piling is twice the length of one sheet piling." That is, they are now spaced nearer to each other than twice their depth.

¹The Practical Design of Irrigation Works, Bligh, 2nd Ed., p. 180.

It is a bivalent to state that the resistance to the flow along the line of crimp is half that directly thru the cohesion material; however, if the lines of sheet piling are closer than twice their

down the resistance that the material will be less than along the creep line and the water follows the former, invalidating an analysis based on the line of creep theory. Which gives no evidence to support his rule on this point and none was found elsewhere. It is obvious, however, that there must be some limit to the closeness of the spacing of lines of sheet pilings and since data is lacking, but since Hilt's rule does not seem unreasonable, it was adopted. Where lines of pilings were found closer to each other than twice their depth, the length of the line of creep between them was assumed to be twice the distance between them, which is equivalent to assuming that the resistance to flow on the short line per unit of length was twice that along the line of creep.

In several cases dams have been built with a filling of dry or broken stone beneath them. This would offer much less resistance to seepage than the contact between solid masonry and foundation material. Where the floor above this stone filling has not been vented, to allow the water to escape, the resistance of the creeps line along this section has been assumed to be half as great as for solid masonry.

Considerable uncertainty has been introduced in the determination of the creep distance by the presence of weep holes or vents. In determining the distances used in this report weep holes have not been considered as reducing the creep distance, but a separate analysis of weep holes has been made.

There was sometimes uncertainty as to the load to use in calculating the ratios. If ordinary overflow dams it was measured from the crest of the dam to tailwater elevation, or if the latter was not given, to the streambed below the dam. If crest gates or checkboards were used, it was measured from their top. The ordinary load was used, also, in some cases, especially movable irrigation cans and irrigation headgates, the structures were, no doubt, occasionally subjected to greater loads. For many structures, especially irrigation headgates, it was not possible to determine the ordinary load with sufficient accuracy, and, therefore, they could not be analyzed.

This report considers not only dams on porous foundations but also those on clay and hard pan. No previous analysis of dams on clay and hardpan from the standpoint of piping failure has been made, and, therefore, there is no precedent to follow. The analyses of the one dams have been made on the line of creep theory, in the same manner as those on porous foundations, but analyses on the short path basis have not been made. From the standpoint of piping failure, Philip's theory seems even more applicable to clay than to porous foundations. If an appreciable amount of seepage under a dam on a clay foundation occurs, it would almost surely follow the contact between the masonry and the foundation, since both the masonry and the foundation material are practically impervious. The longer the path which the water follows taking the downstream face of the dam, the greater

It is recommended that it will be retarded to such an extent that the water head will be reduced to a value which will not carry enough water through the foundation material. Also, the greater the creep distance is, the less probable is the existence of a complete channel from the collector to the tailwater through which water may flow.

It is doubtful if the principles should be applied to upstream older sand dams, since it is probable that if seepage channels existed under the dam, they would cover a small portion of the total area and, therefore, exert only a small lifting force, much less than on porous foundations where pressure is exerted on practically the entire surface. This seems to be confirmed by the light aprons which are found below several dams on clay or hardpan, which would probably have been blown up if founded on porous material. Such dams would also differ from those on porous foundations in the closeness with which collectors could be spaced and still count on the full creep distance being effective. As long as the rows of piles were not so close together that they caused cracks to form in the clay between them, it is improbable that enough water would seep through the clay to cause trouble. No dams with close rows of piles were analyzed, however, and therefore no decision was made on the minimum distance at which they could be spaced and still safely count on the full creep length.

Several cases have been found where dams were built on a layer of porous material, such as gravel or sand, which was underlain by an impervious layer of clay or hardpan upon which the cutoff walls

in the soil, and therefore, it is not subject to analysis in the ordinary way; and therefore, the data on it are of little value.

Classification of Foundation Materials

It would be difficult to find more accurate and scientific classification of foundation materials than the common terms, gravel, coarse sand, etc. Several classifications on the basis of particle size have been made, but none are entirely satisfactory. The terminology of the United States Bureau of Soils² has been extensively used in

arranging soils on the basis of mechanical analysis. R. C. M. L. S. A. P. No. 10, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Circular 10, 1914.

The classification of materials of earth form. For foundation materials, however, it is not entirely satisfactory as the coarser grains, clay, fine sand, coarse sand, etc., are much finer material than the engineer has in mind when using these terms. Mechanical analyses of foundation materials could be obtained for only a few cases available are plotted on Figure 1, giving the grain sizes in fine and millimeters, the Bureau of Soils classification, and the size of standard sieves.

Results of Analysis of Various Structures

The results of the analyses of the creos and sand foundations for all structures previously reported data collected from

In Figure 2 part A inclusive and in Figure 3 parts A and B
Tables 3 to 6, in Appendix I is given a brief statement of the
conditions of each dam analyzed and in Appendix II are given the
cross sections of dams of which data is not readily available
elsewhere.

On Tables 1 to 4 inclusive are listed the important data
of dams on (a) clay and sand-granular, (b) gravel, cobbles and boulders,
(c) coarse sand, and (d) sand, fine sand and silt, respectively.
The first column gives each dam number which is useful in identifying it on the figures. The headings of columns 3 to 5 inclusive
need no explanation. The next four columns give the lengths of the
travel paths and their ratios for analysis by the Bilitz method and
the short path method respectively. The last column gives an indica-
tion of the probable reliability of the computed values of travel
path and ratios. In some cases the date was somewhat in doubt. The
eighth column, "Results", indicates the period that the structure
is known to have given results satisfactory from the standpoint of
failure from piping. Failure from other causes was not considered.
In most cases the period extends up to the present (approximately
January 1, 1960). In the case of structures for which no date is given
in this column, for the larger ones when located in the United States,
it is very probable they are still giving reasonably satisfactory re-
sults or record of the failure would probably be published. Smaller

structures in the United States and those in foreign countries are probably still in use, although there is a slight chance that they have failed. The next column gives a brief description of the material on which the structure was founded. The terms are not always as explicit as might be desired, due to incomplete descriptions in the articles describing them. The last column furnishes pertinent data not included in the other columns.

These results are shown graphically on Figures 3 to 6 where the length of creep is plotted against head on logarithmic paper and lines are drawn showing the various creep-head and short-pct ratios. The failures are indicated by solid dots and the dams which, so far as known, did not fail by piping, are indicated by open circles. Different sections of the same dam or conditions of the same dam before failure and after repair are shown by dots joined in a line. The majority of the failures are dams of very poor design which serve to show approximately the limits of good design. Well-designed dams rarely fail. But more lessons can be learned from failures than successes. Some well-known failures are not included because the data is insufficient or too conflicting to permit reliable conclusions. These include the Hauser Lake Dam, Missouri River; the Grand Barrage of the Nile and the Southern Alberta Land and Irrigation Company Dam.

Considerations Influencing the Selection of

Creep or Short Path Ratios

Several factors besides the nature of the foundation material should be considered by the design engineer in selecting the creep or short path ratio to use in the design of the type of structure under consideration if the most economical result is to be secured, and should, therefore, be kept in mind in determining safe ratio values from the experience on existing structures. Perhaps the most important of these is the damage to life and property which would result from a failure. For a dam so situated that a failure would result in loss of life an unquestionably safe design is required. If extensive property downstream would be endangered, conservatism of design is indicated. For most dams on porous foundations the conditions are such that little damage would result from their failure except to those directly served by them, and the degree of conservatism should be dictated by a comparison of the damage which would result from failure with the cost of the additional factors of safety. One place necessary to consider in estimating the damage which is likely to result from failure is the time necessary to make repairs or temporarily patch up the structure. A failure which would put a hydro-electric plant out of service for a considerable time, or shut off the supply of irrigation water for a long enough period to cause the loss of a crop, or more especially of orchards or citrus fruit groves, would be very serious and justify larger ratios, while for a structure which could be temporarily patched up in a short time

more risk of failure would be justified. For this reason small structures of low head can usually be designed with lower creep or crest uplift ratios.

Other factors to be considered are the competence of the maintenance of the structure after construction and the material on which it is founded. If a dam is to be built for an organization which has competent men to watch it and make repairs in case excessive seepage occurred, a lower factor is justified than for one built for an organization where no observation or repairs can be counted upon.

The probability of being able to make repairs after trouble develops depends upon the nature of the foundation material and the degree of conservatism in the design of the structure. On gravel and sand foundations considerable seepage may take place for a long time without causing failure; in fact, if gravel it would be possible for considerable leakage to occur continuously without sudden eroding the structure and to doubt a certain amount can take place where the foundation material is sand.

The failure of all the dams on clay or hardpan discussed in this study have come without warning. Two of the dams had very low creep-head ratios, and the third had a ratio near what might be considered fairly safe, but failure may have been due to drying out of the clay foundation. If a water passage was once formed under a dam on clay it might enlarge very rapidly, since the creep distance would probably be short. Failures of dams on all classes of material

are more likely to occur suddenly if the ratios are very low. It would, therefore, not be advisable to count on being able to make repairs to such a dam even if it were closely observed. Although, I doubt, cases have occurred where it has been done.

Four of the five failures of dams on gravel had such low creep-to-resist ratios that the sudden failures which occurred are not surprising. The Flightsbar Dam failed with a creep-resist ratio of .0, which is not extremely radical. It seems to have had no competent supervision after construction and no information is available on how much time would have been available for repairs if proper supervision had been exercised. However, trouble had been experienced with the dam previously and under competent control it could have been closely watched. Considerable seepage over a long period of time was taken place at the Rotterdam movable dam on the Maas River, apparently without endangering the structure, and was finally stopped by driving additional sheet piling and grouting.

Neither of the two failures of dams on fine sand took place suddenly and in neither case was the dam of very radical design. In one case extensive seepage below the dam was observed for ample time to allow repairs to be made, and in the other case the information available indicates that there was serious doubt of its stability before failure took place and time was available to repair it. It, therefore, seems safe to conclude that dams on sand or gravel foundation

will not fail suddenly unless the creep-head ratio is very low. Under certain circumstances, therefore, it might be good economy to use a somewhat lower creep-head ratio in design with the expectation of doing some additional work such as grouting or driving additional piling in case excessive seepage took place.

For dams on coarse gravel, a factor which deserves consideration in selecting a creep-head ratio is the money loss which would occur if some seepage took place beneath the dam without endangering the structure. For example, in dams for power plants, a loss would usually result in a decreased plant output, but for a intake dam for an irrigation system where only part of the water in the stream was diverted and water would, therefore, be continually wasted over the dam, the flow under the dam would be of no consequence.

Dams on Clay and Hardpan Foundations.

Figure 2 gives the results of the studies of dams on clay and hardpan foundations. This shows that no failures have taken place with creep-head ratios of over 4, but that dams have been constructed with ratios as low as 1.1 with apparent success. The Woodward Dam stood with this ratio for 4 or 5 years, and its failure may have been due to the presence of sand layers in the clay. The Fergus Falls power house stood 11 months with a ratio of 2.0. The Delaire

and no (ratio 3.5) may have been due to piping out of the clay. In addition, since the dam failed suddenly after 14 years of satisfactory service. It is probable that there are many other dams on clay foundations with ratios less than 4 which are safe but are so small that they are not described in the technical press. Not one of the dams on clay that failed was so described until failure had attracted notice to it.

One of the most interesting dams on clay foundations is on the Guadalupe River in Texas, described in Appendix I. Its design is so unusual that it cannot be successfully analyzed in the same manner as the other dams studied and it is, therefore, not included in the discussion.

From the information available, it seems reasonable to conclude that the following creep-head ratios for dams on clay could be used in design for structures of various degrees of importance, from the standpoints previously outlined:

	Important Structures	Average Structures	Very Important Structures
Very tough hardpan	3	4	5
Ordinary hardpan or hard clay	3½	4½	5½
Medium clay	4	5	6
Soft clay	4½	5½	6½

There is some uncertainty in the values given for medium

clay and even more for soft clay, since there is little precedent for this class of structures. It should be remembered, however, that these values apply only to safety from piping failure and that other considerations, such as the bearing pressures and the length of apron necessary to prevent scour may determine the shape eventually adopted. They also assume good construction with cut-offs of solid concrete or interlocking steel sheet piling. They should not be used with wooden sheet piling; in fact, except under exceptional conditions, it is doubtful if wooden sheet piling should ever be used for cut-offs where watertightness is required. If there was any possibility of the clay foundation material drying out, higher values would be necessary.

The meanings of these terms in this and following similar tables are those in ordinary use among engineers; not the Bureau of Soils classification.

Dams on Gravel, Cobble, and Boulders

Figures 3 and 4 give the results of analyses of dams founded on gravel, cobbles and boulders. Dams on foundations composed largely of sand but with a considerable proportion of gravel are included in the figure. They represent an intermediate condition between coarse sand and gravel, and to include them in this classification is on the safe side of conservatism. The results of the creep-load analyses indicate

or the ratio 5. Given by Eligh is reasonably conservative although
a few lower ratios have proved satisfactory.

Most of the failures occurred with ratios much lower than 5.
The 17-ft. dam was constructed in 1925-31 and it is not surprising
that, given the knowledge of that day, so radical a design should be
attempted. The dam had stood thru previous years with ratios as low
as 4.1, the low ratio at failure being due to a blowout in the down-
stream slope. The New Angeles Dam (ratio 2.1) would seem almost sure
to fail, & it is difficult to say how a dam would be built under
the conditions as recent a date. The Pittsfield Dam was also

of radical design, but was built at a time when there was little
precedent in this country to be guided by. The Coon Rapids failure
was due primarily to a defect of construction.

The only case of failure in a dam approaching the ratios
given by Eligh is that at Flettsburg with a ratio of 4.0. The cause
of this failure is not evident. An analysis of the foundation ma-
terial, as nearly as could be determined from the data given, is
shown on figure 1. This indicates a much more impervious material
than at Prairie du Sac, which stood with a ratio of 4.5. Part
of the Flettsburg Dam stood with a ratio of 3.2. It seems not im-
possible that there was some defect in construction or an unusual
concentration of coarse material at the point of failure.

The only satisfactory dams found with ratios less than 3.0 are the Pinhook, Poise Diversion, Granite Reef and Oswegatchie River dams. The Pinhook Dam (ratio 4.5) has an apron of concrete blocks below the fixed floor, which may increase its resistance to piping. The Poise Diversion Dam (ratio 4.4) is on very compact gravel and cobbles. The Granite Reef Dam (ratio 3.2) leaked 2 to 3 seconds per foot in the 300-foot length not on rock, and it is possible that this dam would have failed had the riverbed upstream rapidly silted up. It is probable that the weep holes in the base of the Oswegatchie Dam were of considerable assistance in keeping it secure with the ratio 3.

In this connection the following quotation regarding the Ohio River dams is of interest:*

Amer. Soc., C. E., Vol. 66, 1925, p. 148.

"Ohio River dams constricted on sand and gravel, with a cut-off wall of 40-foot interlocking steel piles, have a length of "creep" equal to about ten times the maximum head. Experience has shown that in practice the wooden sheet-piles, even though carefully driven, are not sufficiently tight to form an effective cut-off. Their use has been limited to the upper

part of the river where foundations consist of rather coarse gravel and sand, and they are not regarded as adequate for the more sandy foundations of the lower river. No evidence of "boils" under any dams that are in service has appeared, and it is believed that these dams have adequate protection from this danger, unless they are undermined by scouring action below the weirs, which action must be carefully guarded against by proper construction and periodical inspection."

The values given in this quotation are somewhat less than those determined by this investigation, due, no doubt, to the use of the uniform head in the former and the normal head in the latter.

Assuming cut-offs of solid concrete or interlocking steel sheet piling, and construction properly carried out, from the foregoing, it is believed that the following creep-head ratios can be used in design:

	Unimportant Structures	Average Structures	Very Important Structures
Boulders with some cobbles and gravel	3 ¹ / ₂	4 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂
Gravel with a few cobbles or boulders	4	5	6
Gravel without cobbles or boulders	4 ¹ / ₂	5 ¹ / ₂	6 ¹ / ₂
Gravel with a large proportion of sand	5	6	7
Coarse sand with cobbles or boulders	6	6 ¹ / ₂	7 ¹ / ₂
Coarse sand with some fine gravel	5 ¹ / ₂	6 ¹ / ₂	8

Dams on Coarse Sand

Figures 5 and 6 show graphically the results obtained in the analyses of dams on a coarse sand foundation on the basis of the Bligh and Sorensen theories respectively. No failures were found in this class except the Upper Colercon weir, which was due to a defective apron, and is therefore not included. In this classification are included those on the border between coarse and fine sand as placing them in this class rather than the fine classification is more conservative. The results indicate that Bligh's factor of 12 is unnecessarily conservative. The Riverdale Dam held at least 5 years with a ratio of 3.4, and the foundation was said to be full of springs during construction. The riprap revetment below may have acted somewhat as a filter and assisted in the stability of the dam by filtering the flow beneath the dam, thus preventing the removal of the fine material. The Prairie du Sac Dam has been in service 15 years, part of the time with a ratio 4.3 and the remainder of the time with a ratio of 3.2. It is possible that the riprap filling in this dam assists somewhat in acting as a filter. Under the power house, where there could be no such filter action, it has stood for 15 years with a ratio of 3.3. In fact, it has sustained even higher ratios, but these may have occurred only after the river bottom above had silted up. In fact, two thirds of the dams have values less than that given by Bligh and there is no record of failure, even when the ratio was only 22% of Bligh's.

Considering the results obtained by minimizing seepage, it is believed that the following creep-head ratios can be used in design of dams on coarse sand with proper construction and solid concrete blocking steel sheet-piling cutoffs.

Unimportant Layers - Very Important Structures

coarse sand with some fine gravel	50	60	80
fine sand	6	7.5	9.5

Dams on Sand, Fine Sand and Silt

Figure 7 shows graphically the results of the studies of dams on fine sand and silt, together with the creep-head ratio 15 recommended by Ellich for "fine micaceous sand of which 60% of the grains pass a 76 mesh screen, as in Himalayan rivers and in such as the Colorado" and "for river beds of light silt and sand, of which 60% passes a 100 mesh screen, as those of the Nile or Mississippi." Figure 8 gives the results

of 44 and Weirs, Ellich, p. 155.

Calculated on the short-path basis.

The descriptions of the material on which the dams are founded is not sufficiently exact to permit a separation into the two classes given by Ellich. The material is frequently described as fine sand, but sometimes as light as sand, and none were found which unquestionably fitted in the class of silt. Ellich recommends a ratio of 15. As has been previously stated,

In some works the classification was doubtful as between fine sand and coarse sand. It may have been "roughed" with coarse sand. For this reason all structures on material finer than coarse sand were grouped together. It is possible that a few of the dams listed as being material described simply as "sand" were really coarse sand.

Only two failures were found which might be classed as due to piping, for which the data was sufficiently exact to permit analysis. These are the two on which Eligh based his ratio values; namely, the Aurora and Franklin weirs. Eligh ascribed their failure to piping, but in a statement in great detail Mr. W. W. Woods' stories convinced him

"The Practical Design of Irrigation Works. Plin., 3rd Edition, p. 365

that these failures were due to other causes and the original cause was not coarse sand piping. The low ratios safety limit of coarse sand adds weight to Woods' contention. The Grand Narrows on the hill was founded on this class of material but its failure was evidently due to poor construction. With these possible exceptions no failures from piping were discovered.

In view of the analyses shown on Figure 7 and those on coarse sand (Figure 5) it is believed that the following creep-head ratios recommended by Eligh can be reduced. The Hinckley Dam, which classified to the reverse filter only, had a coefficient of 10. It is probably "over-satisfactory" service for 13 years. The Zillita Dam is

on the Nile, built partly on medium sand and mud, uses a ratio 10.2; the Verset Dam in Germany has a ratio 12.2; and the Iron Mountain Dam, on fine sand, has given satisfactory service for four years on an overall ratio of 8.6.

In consideration of these results and the low ratios found satisfactory on coarse sand, it is believed that the following creep-head ratios can be used for sand, assuming good construction and solid concrete or interlocking steel sheet piling cutoffs:

	Unimportant Structures	Average Structures	Very Important Structures
Coarse sand	6	7	8
Medium sand	7	9	11
Fine sand	8 ¹	10	13
Very fine sand or silt	10	12	15

Dams on Pervious Material Underlaid by Clay or Marls

A number of cases were found of dams resting on pervious material underlaid by clay or marl with the cutoffs extending into the impervious material. These cannot be analyzed according to either Elmer's or the short-path method. In fact, no satisfactory method of treating them has been found and therefore the data only is given in Table 6.

Consider such a dam founded on a thick layer of pervious material with a soft pile cutoff extending a few feet into the clay material. If well constructed, such a cutoff would entirely stop the flow of the water below the dam and result in a head equal to bedwater elevation on the upstream side of the piling and to the filtrator level on the downstream side. The entire head of the dam would, therefore, be concentrated on the few feet of creep along the piling in the clay. This would be a severe test on this contact and if even a minute passage existed water would rapidly flow through it and would probably enlarge it to a certain extent. However, unless the pervious material was very coarse, the clay washed out in enlarging this hole would be filtered out in passing through the pervious material and form an impervious coating on the "filter" which would greatly retard flow through it. Also, the loss of head of the water in passing through velocity due to the pervious material in the immediate vicinity of the "filter" upstream and downstream ends of the "pipe" through the clay would decrease the velocity and reduce the scour in the "pipe." This action is somewhat analogous to the flow through a nearly closed valve. Under ordinary conditions, therefore, no great enlargement of the opening could be expected.

Another reason why this would be the case is that the flow coming through the small opening upon entering the pervious material would spread out into the greater flow area of the pervious material and lose velocity. By the time it had reached the surface where some of the particles of pervious material were possible it might

and has a velocity too great to move... It is significant to note that particles near the bottom of the sand pile would be impossible to move as they would be surrounded by material which was not moved. Therefore, unless there were enough of these openings to permit sufficient flow to cause piping velocities at the downstream edge of the dam, danger to the structure would result from them.

It is evident, therefore, that cutoffs into impervious materials beneath dams greatly increase the safety of the dam. However if the contact between the cutoff and the impervious material is not leak-tight, no satisfactory method has been worked out for determining how much reduction of travel path can be allowed under these conditions, and since the data at hand is slight, it must remain for the present largely a matter of judgment.

Reverse Filters, Sweep Holes and Drains.

The reverse filter was probably first developed on the Nile River where it was used on Edifa and Asuit barrages. It was also used in the Hindia Parrage in Mesopotamia. It has been used in this country on dams Nos. 7 and 13 on the Mohawk River, and in a modified form in the Coon Rapids Dam on the Mississippi. It consists of a filter placed at the lower edge of the downstream apron, built up of a bottom layer of fine material surmounted by other layers of progressively coarser material. Its function is to filter the water seeping beneath the dam and prevent the removal of any of the fine foundation material. It is called a reverse filter because it is "pulled down" from the upstream side.

1000 feet long, has the following dimensions: width 100 feet, height 100 feet, thickness 10 feet.

Weep holes have been used successfully in many dams. They were first used in Oregon in 1891. Most of the tile drainage in India and Egypt, however, has probably not been laid in as porous tile they have come into use there since 1910. It is believed that they may be employed to advantage in many cases. A record of failures due to them was found.

Deep holes are particularly suited to dam-type dams. They are used to relieve the upward pressure of the floor and to increase the stability of the dam against overturning, sliding and piping. Drains and weep holes are also used on downstream slopes where long extensions are desirable to prevent the erosion of the soil. Weep holes are not necessary for security against piping. Their function is to relieve the upward pressure and thus permit the use of a thinner dam.

Table 7 gives a list of dams to which weep holes or drains have been applied, together with the cross-section and part of the foundation material and other pertinent data. Weep holes have been successfully applied on clay, gravel and sand foundations. It is doubtful if they should be used on clay unless a reverse filter is constructed before them to prevent the infiltration of clay from being carried through. On the Windalia Dam a 12-inch layer of gravel beneath the dam performs this function and at the Fawcett Dam the drain consists of a line of tile surrounded by coarse gravel. A mention is made of special treatment for the weep holes of the Upper

Form

There are two classes of drainage holes in dams, the "dry holes" and the "wet holes." Dry holes are usually installed in the upstream face of dams, if they are to be used for drainage. If dry holes are used, they should be constructed with filters and the material should be washed out before they are installed. The use of a combination of filter and coarse aggregate is recommended. The use of a coarse material such as gravel or sand has been used extensively by the Bureau of Reclamation. It is believed to be a very good practice.

Wet holes are usually installed in the downstream side of dams, and are installed with filters and drains. They are usually installed with an upstream outlet, which has a relatively low creep-head ratio. A striking example of the use of wet holes came to light at the Cochran Dam. This is a concrete dam with a thin downstream apron, with steel sheet piles installed under the heel of the dam and the downstream edge of the dam. Immediately behind the upstream cutoff a drain was installed consisting of a reverse filter discharging into a small culvert in the dam. Due to an accident, one of the steel sheet piles in the upstream cutoff was twisted down far beyond its proper position, leaving an opening in the cutoff, and reducing the creep distance in the upstream cutoff to zero. In spite of this the dam survived, and the drains did not fail. It appears to have been sufficient to enclose them in the dam, and the damage was not discovered until a large hole was drilled below the upstream outlet during repair work to the apron, and a blowout occurred. Had there not existed the reverse filter, it is certain that the dam would have been blown up.

Another example would be the upstream drains of a solid rock dam.

drains at the Iron Mountain Dam, where a drain tile surrounded with gravel was inserted to relieve the upward pressure on a long thin apron and to prevent undercutting. Drains or weep holes can be easily used in lighter coarse or fine sand foundations if gravel or a coarse filter is used to prevent the removal of the fine particles. Caution must be used in relying on weep holes which may freeze up. In warm climates this is not a consideration but in cold climates where they are exposed it would not be wise to rely on them.

A word of caution also may not be amiss regarding drains beneath the eapron of dams where a hydraulic jump is formed. If the drain discharges downstream from the jump while its position under the apron is upstream from the jump, the pressure beneath the apron will be equal to or greater than that where the drain discharges, which, being below the jump, will be greater than the pressure acting downward on the apron due to the thin sheet of water upstream from the jump, and this unbalanced pressure may be enough to lift the apron. In the Iron Mountain Dam the drain discharges at the toe of the nose section, upstream from any jump which may form. In this case the drain may be downstream from the jump and discharge upstream, which would cause an unbalanced pressure acting downward on the apron, increasing its stability. Weep holes which discharge directly through the apron would equalize the pressure on the two sides, but they would have to be constructed in such a manner that the high velocities would not remove foundation material through them.

It is believed that by the use of reverse filters, weep holes or drains constructed so that the foundation material does not allow water to pass through them, and safe from freezing, creep ratios lower by perhaps 15% than those previously suggested could be used for the travel creeps distances under the structure. It is assumed that the vents have sufficient discharge capacity and are not located too near the downstream end of the travel path. No fixed rules can be given on these requirements but the exercise of reasonable judgment would prevent serious mistakes.

Effect of Siltation of Riverbed above the Dam

The possibility of siltation of the riverbed above the dam should be given serious consideration in determining the permissible creep-distance as it may greatly reduce the upward pressure beneath the dam and the probability of failure by piping. The upward pressure on the Island Park Dam was almost entirely removed in two years or less, only the upward pressure from standing water remaining. The upward pressure on the Island Park Dam was practically eliminated by silt deposit, in spite of the fact that a gravel plant continuously excavated gravel 100 to 200 feet upstream. Both of these dams are on the Miami River, which has a gravel bed (see Figure 1) and does not carry an unusual amount of silt. On the other hand, the upward pressure on the Eel River Dam on the Eel River does not seem to have changed materially over a period of

possible. It is possible, however, to consider the will of the water, and the effect of silt.

When a sand pore was first filled, which apparently was about 8 feet above upward pressure measurements began. The effect of silt around dam, the flow under the Granite Reef Dam has already been noted, in the fact that it probably made this dam safe, when otherwise its safety was doubtful. For an intake dam, where the entire width is composed of gates, extending nearly down to the riverbed, as seems likely to be the case at the intake of the All-American Canal, silting could not be relied upon to increase the security, as the sluices would periodically remove the impervious silt bed. This effect has been noted at the Grand Valley Dam on the Colorado River.^{**}

Trans. Am. Soc. C. E., Vol. 63, 1929, p. 1320.

It would not be advisable to count on the silting up above dam to reduce the necessary travel ratios and at the same time count on vents for further reduction, since if the silting up was effective, the vents would be inoperative. It must be remembered, however, that immediately after closure, before the bed has had a chance to silt up, a dam would be subjected to more severe piping conditions, and, therefore, it would be safe to assume in the design only the limited reduction, which the dam might stand until it silted up.

BLIGH vs. Short-Dam Method.

Although Bligh's method of analysis of dams on porous foundations has been widely used, it has been subject to some criticism.

It is believed to be due to an improper presentation of Blight's rule. Blight states that the seepage follows the line of least resistance or the path of least resistance. This statement is believed to be in error, for the fact that water would take the path of least resistance seems to be almost axiomatic. If the water flows along the line of creep instead of the shorter path directly from the foundation material it is because the resistance to travel along the line of creep is less than the shorter path. That the resistance along the creep line is frequently less than through the foundation material seems very reasonable, on account of the difficulty of securing an intimate contact between the more or less plain surface of the dam and the foundation material as between the particles of foundation material themselves.

It should be remembered that Blight's rule is intended to give dams safe at all points which means that it applies especially to the worst condition that will happen with any reasonable care in construction. The seepage may not follow the creep line at many cross sections of the dam, but the points where there is most danger of failure are likely to be those where the contact between the dam and the foundation material is not so close, and therefore where the Blight theories most nearly apply.

In a uniform material with an intimate contact with the bottom of the dam the flow beneath the dam would pass almost entirely through the foundation material and the shortest path would be roughly a measure of the velocity and therefore the danger of piping. The shortest path, however, is only an approximate measure. It is understood that the

problem of flow beneath dams has been studied by Prof. Pavlovski in Russia in great detail by means of models and a method of analyzing the problem developed using a flow net.*

Hydraulic Laboratory Practice, Freeman, p. 303.

Any theoretical analysis, however, must be based on the assumption of a uniform foundation material, or one varying according to some rule. A few cases of practically uniform material may perhaps be found but the usual case is a material varying widely and with great irregularity within short distances.** Under such conditions

The Crookell Dam of the Necksack Water Company, Trans. Am. Soc.,

C. E., Vol. 63, 1920, p. 1189.

Test refinement is not justified, and involved methods like Prof. Pavlovski's are not likely to find wide application in the near future because of the difficulty of learning the method and of the uncertainty of its application to the usual foundation conditions. Such studies, however, are valuable as they indicate the true laws governing the flow under dams.

A comparison of the analyses of existing structures by the flight and short-path methods does not indicate a superiority of one over the other. The other uncertainties in the problem are so much greater than the difference between the results obtained by the two methods that these differences are not important. In Figure 9 a comparison is made of the creep ratios and short-path ratios of existing dams. It shows that the short-path ratios average 75% of the creep

ratio, in most cases being between 60% and 90%. Those outside of this range usually have several rows of sheet piling. This indicates that safe values of short-path ratio may be taken as 75% of those previously given for creep-load ratio. There seems, therefore, to be no reason for changing the method of analysis used by this bureau from that due to the short-path. But if one prefers the short-path method, no great harm will result if properly used.

It should be noted particularly, however, that the foregoing discussion applies only to safety from piping and not to the computation of upward pressures. No study of the latter was made in connection with this report.

Summary and Conclusions

As a result of the analysis of approximately one hundred structures it may be concluded that the rules given by ASCE 16 will give results necessarily conservative and the somewhat lower values given in the following table may be used:

SUGGESTED MINIMUM RATIOS FOR SAFETY AGAINST PIPING FAILURE

Importance of Structure	Bligh's or Creep-Road Ratios	Short-Path Ratios			Very Important
		Unimportant	Average	Very Important	
Very tough harpan	3	4	5	-	-
Ordinary harpan or hard clay	3½	4½	5½	-	-
Medium clay	4	5	6	-	-
Soft clay	4½	5½	6½	-	-
Boulders with some cobbles and gravel	4½	5½	6½	7	8½
Gravel with a few cobbles or boulders	6	6½	7	8½	9½
Gravel without cobbles or boulders.	6½	7	8	9½	10½
Gravel with large proportion of sand	6	6½	7	8½	9½
Coarse sand with cobbles or boulders	6½	7	8	9½	10½
Coarse sand with some fine gravel	6½	7	8	9½	10½
Coarse sand	6	7½	9	10½	12½
Medium sand	7	8½	9	11	12½
Fine sand	7	8½	10½	13	15
Very fine sand or silt	10	12½	15	18	21

These ratios assume good construction work and exclude old concrete or interlocking steel sheet piling. The meaning of the terms are those current among engineers and not those of the classification adopted by the Bureau of Soils. The studies showed no example of failure where Eligh's ratios were used. In fact, for the

* A possible exception to this is the failure of the Pittsburgh Dam with creep-load ratio 4.0, which is given by Eligh in one reference under "Liberd... gravel and sand."

river materials, if we accept Wood's contention regarding the cause of failure of the Narora and Kherki weirs, no failures at all due to piping were found. For this reason the minimum ratios for this class of material are not definitely fixed and it may be that the values suggested above are still too conservative. In the light of information now available, however, they are believed to be as low as it is safe to go.

Since the conclusion regarding the unnecessary conservatism of the Eligh constants for fine material was arrived at, an interesting confirmation of it has been found in the third edition of Eligh's "Practical Design of Irrigation Works," (Preface page vi) which was revised and brought up to date by Mr. W. W. Woods, Chief Engineer of Irrigation Works, Punjab, India. Mr. Woods contends that Eligh should have used a ratio of 11 instead of 15 for ordinary sand.

This study also indicates that, as regards piping failure, there is little to choose between Eligh's line of creep theory and the short-path theory for pervious material, other uncertainties being so

seems to obscure any effect of the smaller difference between these two theories. On clay foundations, however, the short-path theory does not apply. The safe ratios suggested (page 36) for short-path analysis are approximately 75% of those suggested for the creep load analysis. It should be recognized, however, that this study did not consider upward pressure and, therefore, the conclusions regarding sliding vs. short-path methods may not apply to upward pressure.

Weep holes and vents are shown to be advantageous in reducing upward pressure and in decreasing the ratios necessary to prevent piping. Reverse filters also permit lower ratios. With a reverse filter or a sufficient number of weep holes located a reasonable distance upstream from the downstream side, so constructed that they will not freeze or the material beneath the dam cannot escape through them, it is believed that the total length of the travel path for infiltration would be decreased 1/3 (from those computed with the ratios given on page 36). In determining the best ratios to adopt in the design of a structure, other factors than American material will be considered. Such factors are the damage which a property sustains from flooding, the probable competence of the structure, and the time required for the temporary repairs in case of failure.

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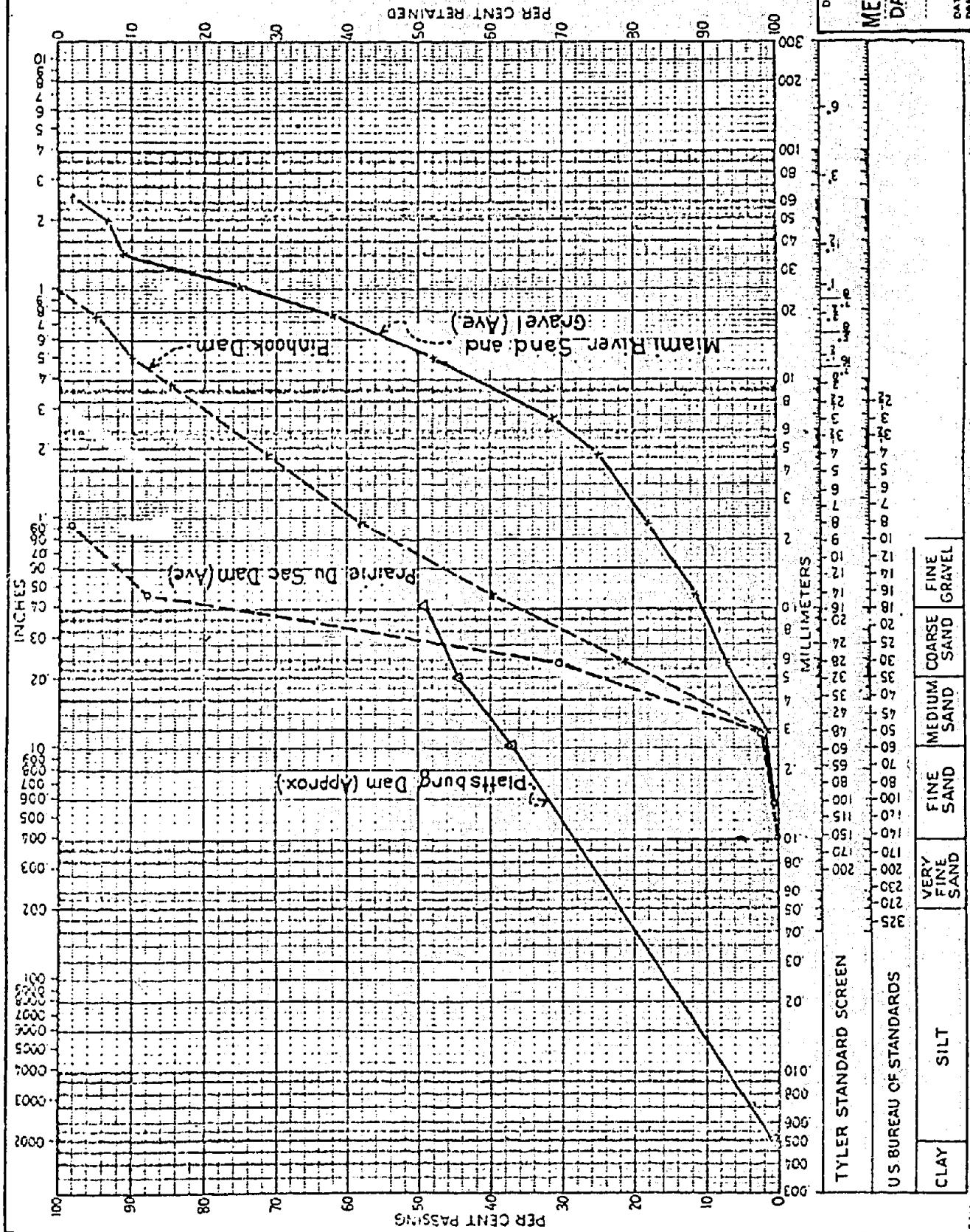
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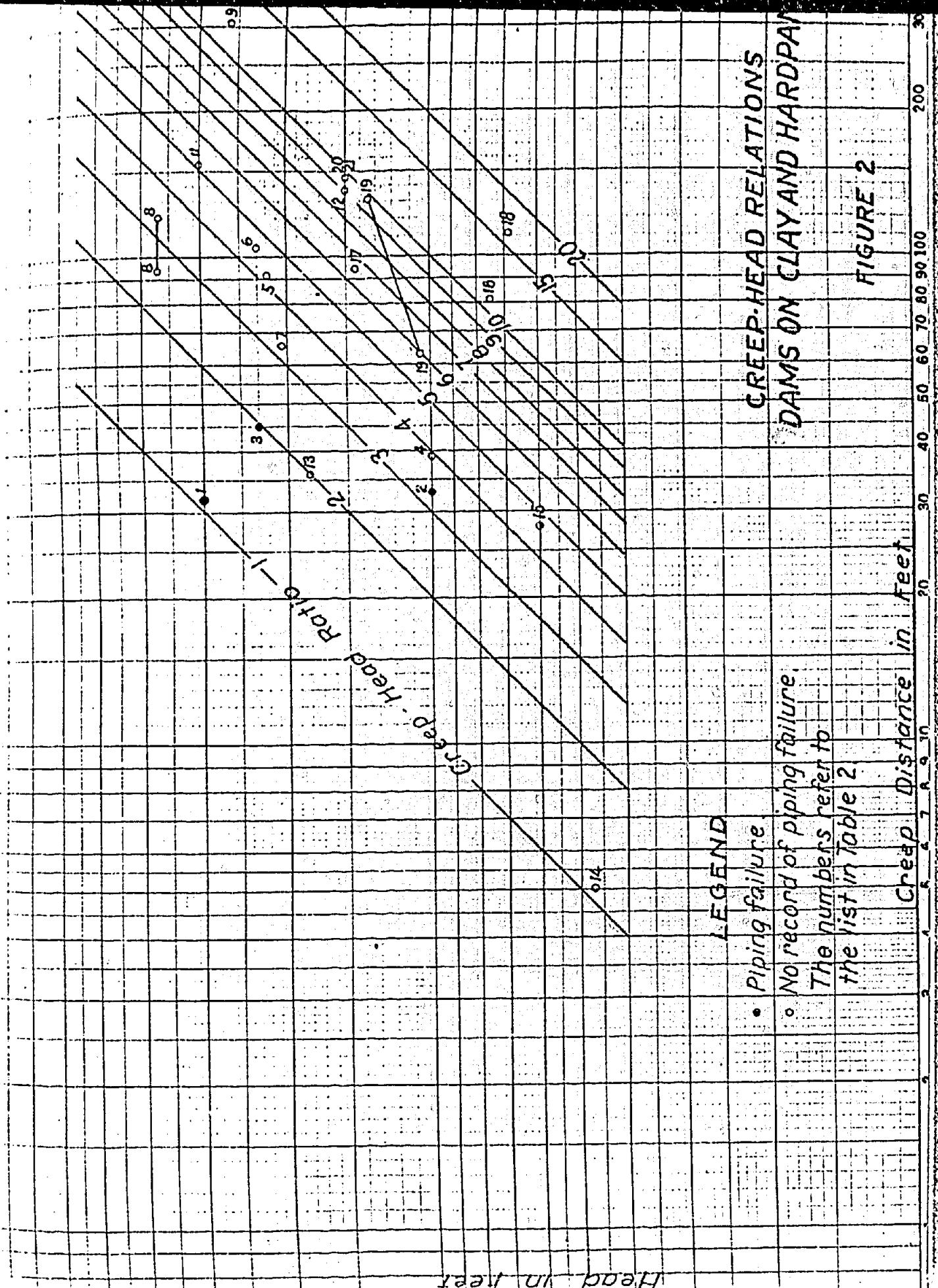
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FIGURE 1

MECHANICAL ANALYSIS
OF THE INVESTIGATED
DAM FOUNDATION
MATERIAL

BUREAU OF RECLAMATION
DATE 7-31-30
C. C. COOPER
T.D.S.





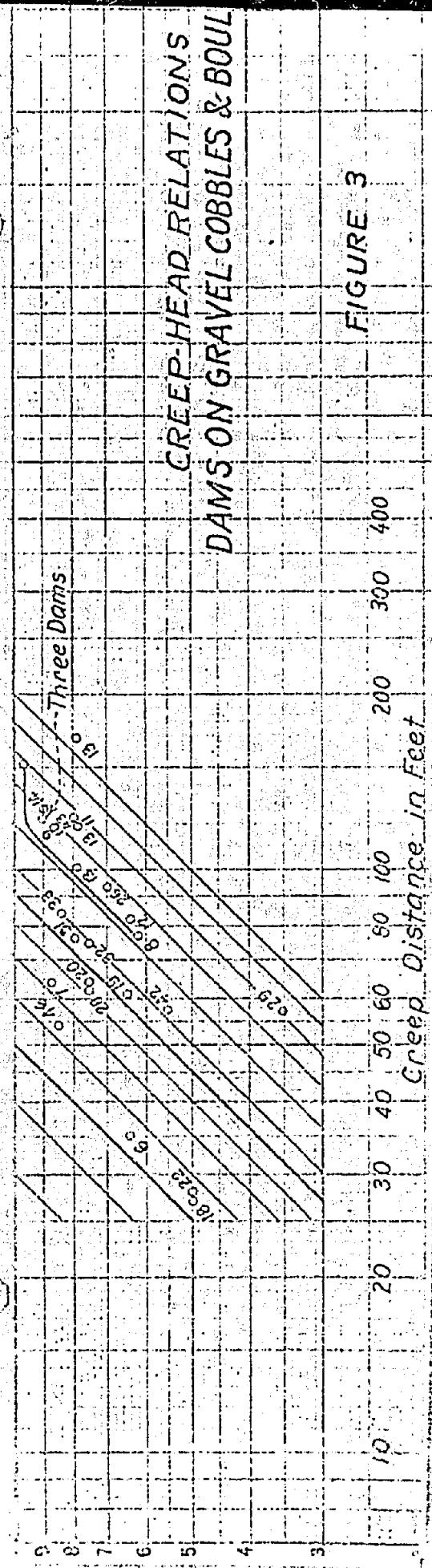
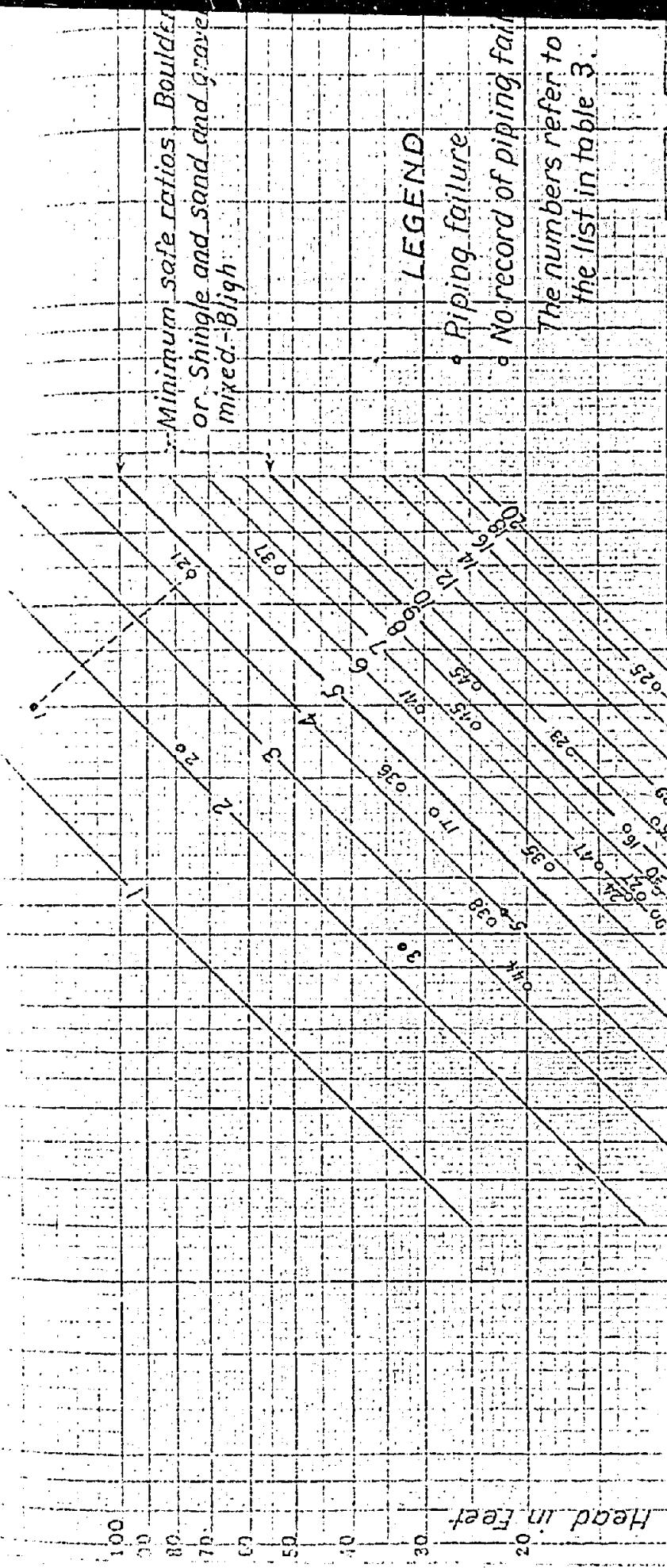


FIGURE 3

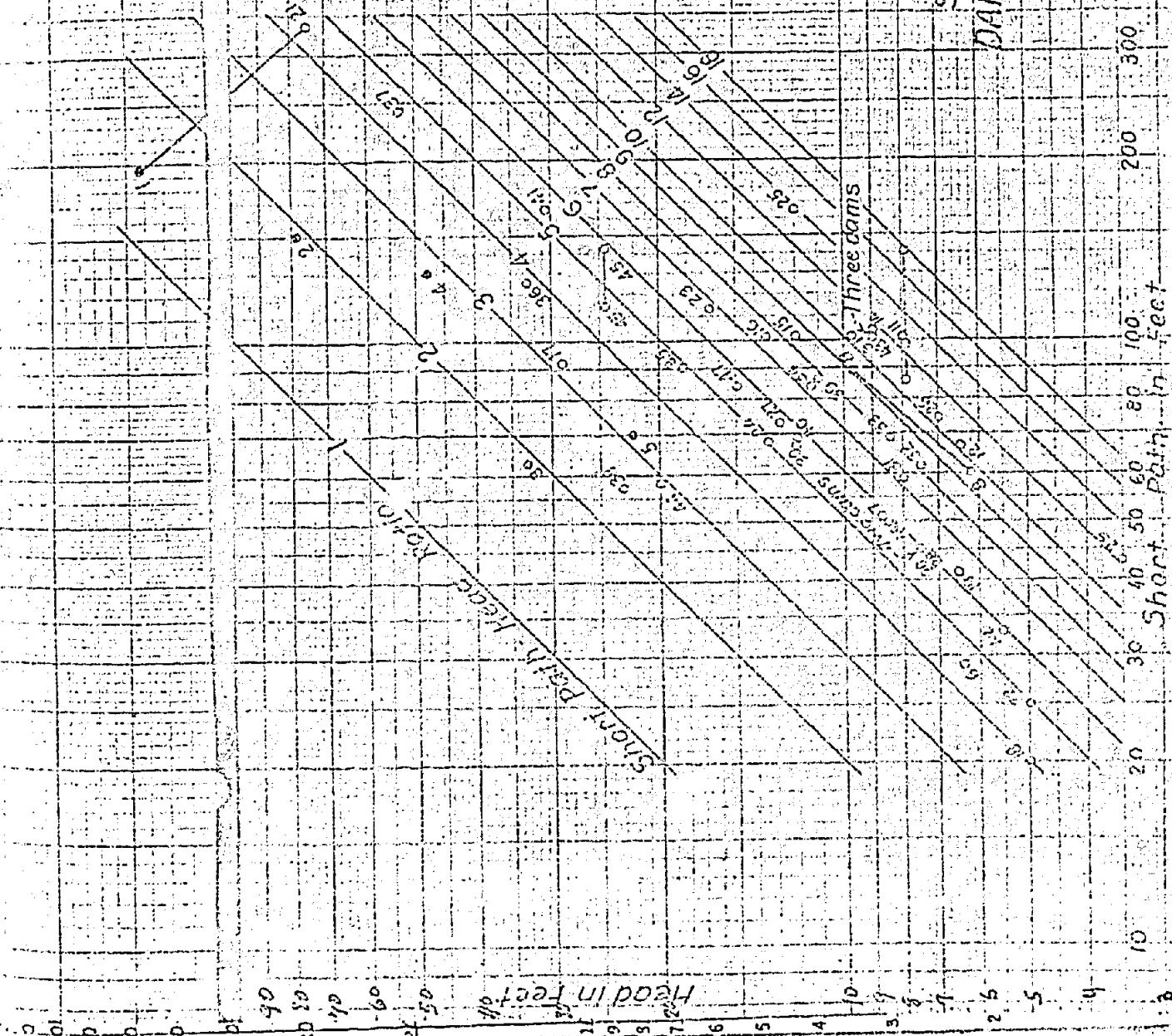
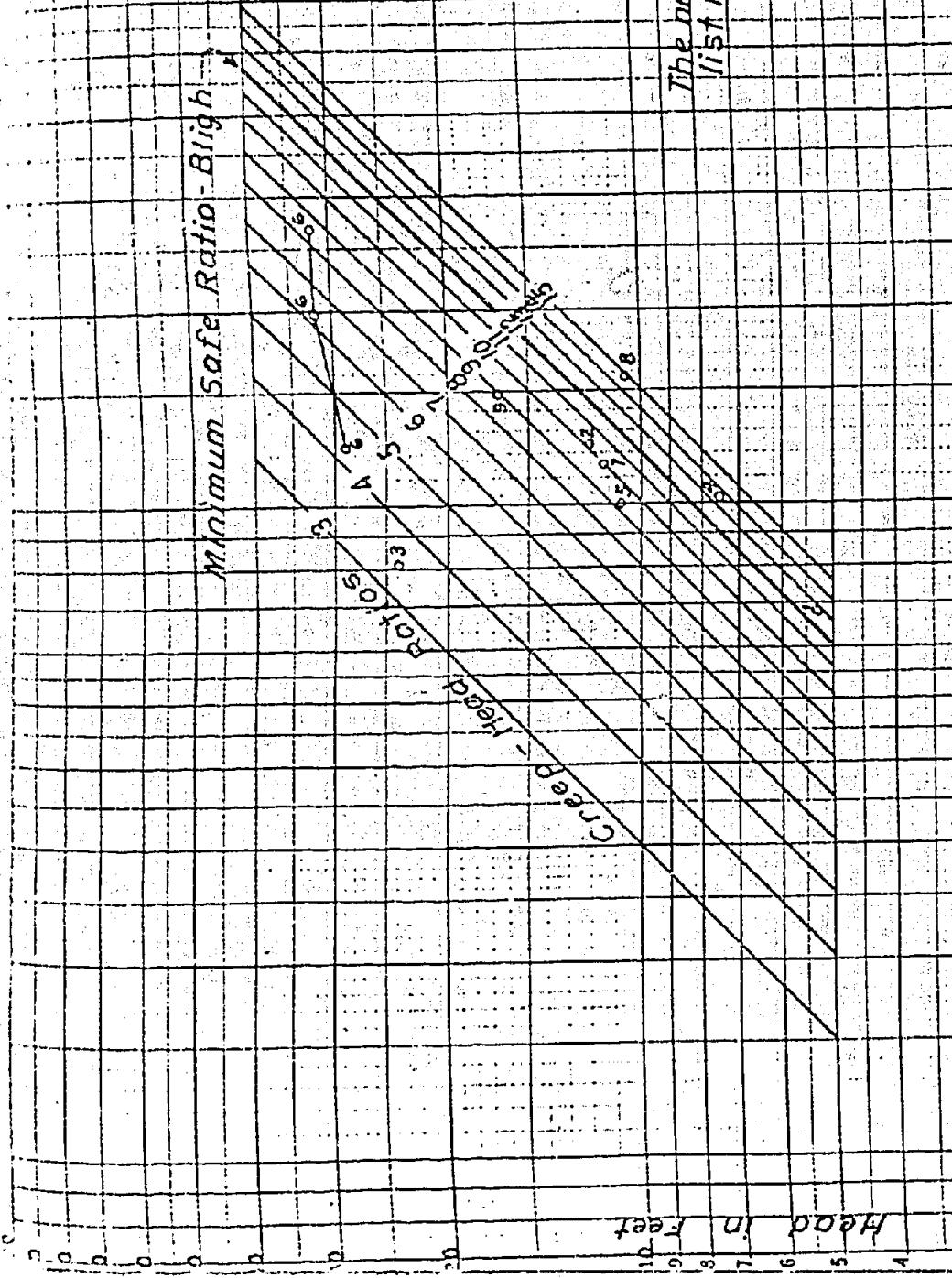


FIGURE 4

SHORT PATH-HEAD RELATIONS DAMS ON GRAVEL, COBBLES & BOULDERS

100
80
60
40
20
0

400
300
200
100
80
60
40
20
0



The numbers refer to the
list in Table 4.

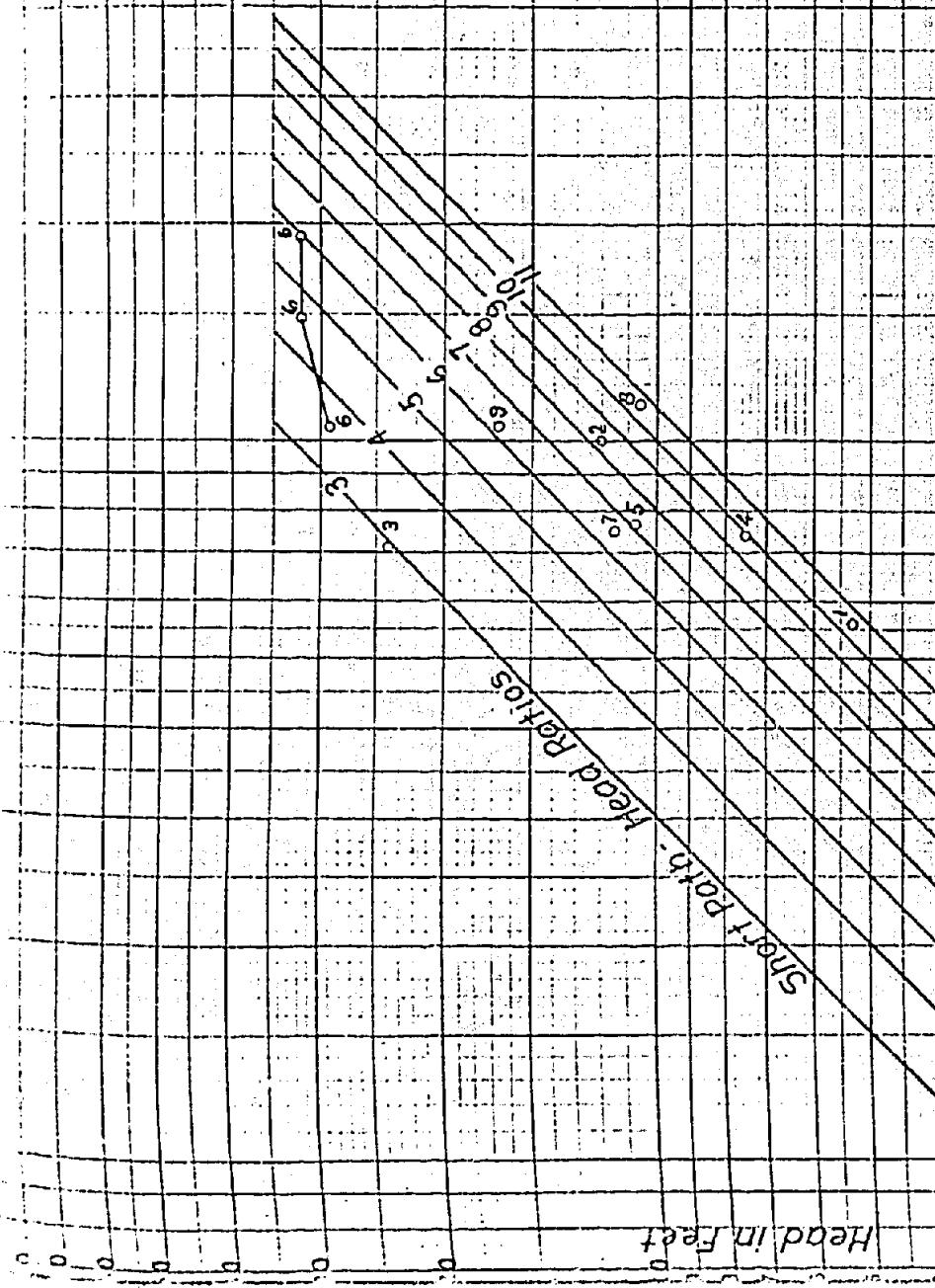
CREEP-HEAD RELATIONS
DAMS ON COARSE SAND

FIGURE 5

Creep Distance in feet

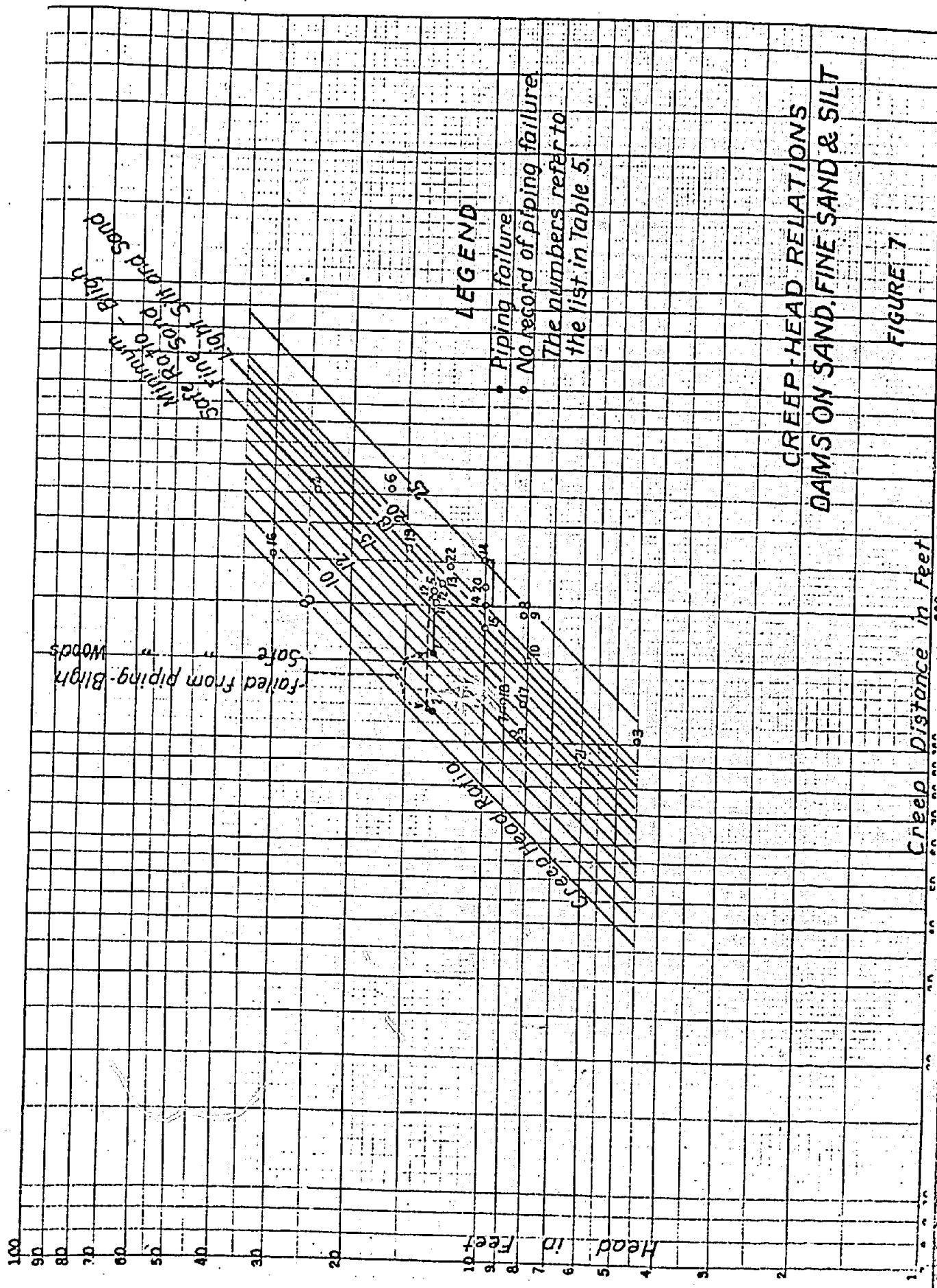
SHORT PATH-HEAD RELATIONS
DAMS ON COARSE SAND

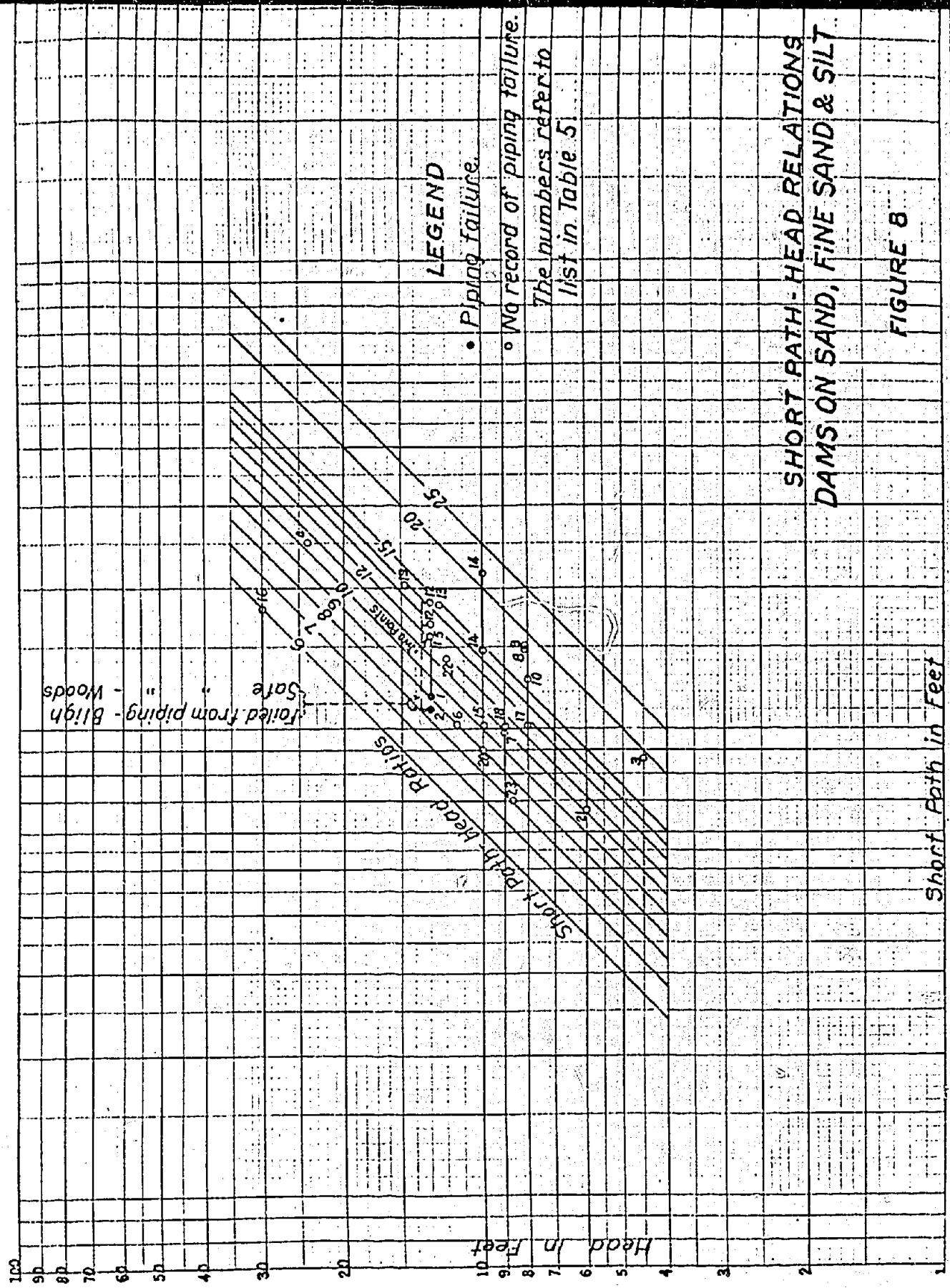
FIGURE 6
Short Path in Feet



CREEP-HEAD RELATIONS
DAM ON SAND, FINE SAND & SILT

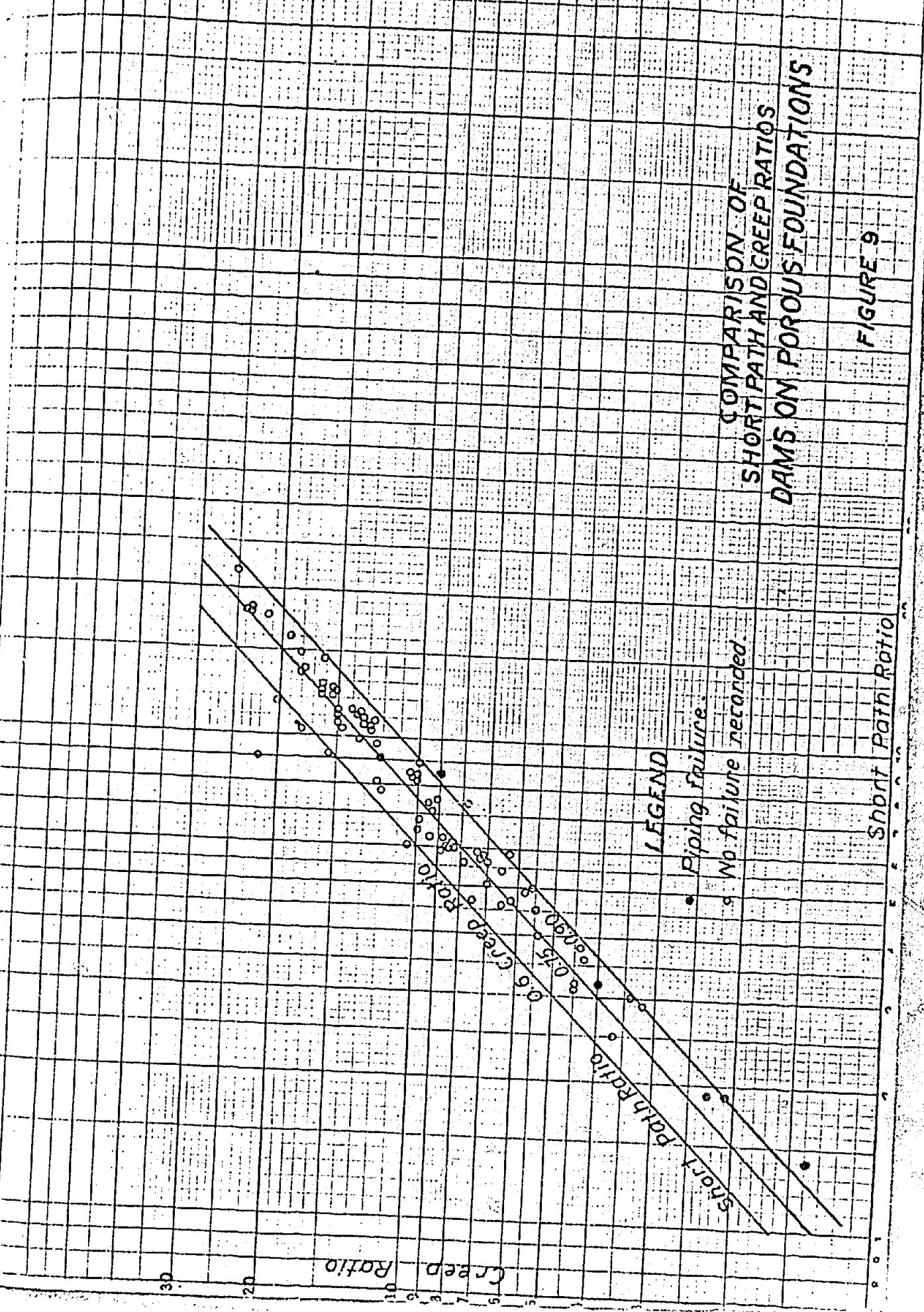
FIGURE 7
Creep Distance in Feet





SHORT PATH-HEAD RELATIONS
DAMSON SAND, FINE SAND & SILT

FIGURE 8



DRAFT AND REPRO

TABLE NO. 1.

No.	Name	Station	Location	Wind	Cloudy Distance	Rain	Waves	Material	Condition	Material	Remarks
1	Portland	Portland Break	Will, P. R.	N	82	3.1	Fair	In service 4 or 5 years	Hard material, probably carbons. May have had some		
2	Duluth	Lake Superior	North Shore	10	52	3.8	Good	In service 4 or 5 years	Hard material, probably carbons. May have had some		
3	Perma Falls	Red River	Minnesota	32	60	3.0	Fair	• 14 years	Same fine gray carbonaceous buildings.		
4	Duluth	Lake Superior	North Woods	10	80	3.0	Fair	• 11 months	Buildings.		
5	Marquette	Muskegon River	New Marquette	S	20	4.2	Good				
6	Perma Falls	Red River	Minnesota	32	104	4.5	Good	In service 11 months	Same fine gray carbonaceous buildings.		
7	Seattle Creek	Seattle Creek	Oregon	40.0	44	5.4	Good				
8	Lake St. Francis	St. Francois R.	Quebec	37	126	5.0	Good				
9	Yankton	Mississippi	South Dakota	37	104	5.0	Good				
10	Cochrane	La Crosse River	Michigan	40	104	4.8	Good				
11	Upper Gaspé	Blanc Creek	Quebec	30	100	5.1	Good				
12	Basswood	Wolf River	Wisconsin	30	50	5.0	Good				
13	Whiting Street			10	127	5.1	Good				
14	North Branch Min.			10	70	5.0	Good				
15	Big Cedars	Big Cedars	Michigan	4.7	56	5.0	Good				
16	St. Ignatius	St. Ignatius River	Puget Sound	7.0	6.0	5.1	Good				
17	Mac No. 8			6	14	4.7	Good				
18	Mac No. 8	Quinnibec River	Quinnibec	7.0	42	10.6	Good				
19	Mac No. 4	Quinnibec River	Apalachee	6.0	211	10.1	Good				
20	Mac No. 3 (Harrington)	Robert River	New York	10.4	43	6.0	Good				
21	Mac No. 6 (Grandville)	Robert River	New York	10	142	9.7	Good				
22	Mac No. 10 (Grandville)	Robert River	Michigan	8	260	10.4	Fair				

TABLE II

Seq.	River	St. Name	Location	Road	Bishop's Method	Searle's Method	Reliability of Data	Remarks	Production Material		Remarks
									Creep Rate	Creep Rate	
1	Dupper Colorado	Colorado River	India	1.0	12.0	12.0	Fair	Precip. more than 270.	Pure, water soft.	Water soft.	Homogeneous condition. Cross-bedded material in all.
2	Burns	Idaho	12	1.0	10.0	100	Good	Soil at least 8 years.	Soil soft.	Impaired soil.	
3	Idaho Falls	Idaho	12	81	8.4	71	Good	Soil at least 8 years.	Soil soft.	Impaired soil.	
4	Malibow	Idaho	7.5	102	18.0	74	Good	Soil at least 8 years.	Soil soft.	Impaired soil.	
5	Colleyville	Idaho	10.0	100	8.3	77	Good	Soil at least 8 years.	Soil soft.	Impaired soil.	
6	Prarie du Sac	Wisconsin	20	125	6.0	104	Good	In service over 15 years.	Soil soft.	Soil soft.	Condition may be homogeneous. Soil soft.
7	22	125	6.0	125	6.7	104	Good				
8	22	125	6.0	125	6.0	104	Good				
9	Missouri River	Florida	11.0	115	16.0	78	Good	Material from very flat to very steep.	Soil soft.	Soil soft.	
10	Missouri River	Arizona	10.5	137	18.0	112	Good	Material from flat and fine sand at surface to coarse sand at bottom of short hillside.	Soil soft.	Soil soft.	
11	Big Mountain R.	Mississippi	14.0	149	8.0	104	Good	Material 6 years.	Soil soft.	Soil soft.	
12	Missouri R.	Mississippi	14.0	149	8.0	104	Good	Material 10 years.	Soil soft.	Soil soft.	

TABLE NO. 4

DATA OF RIVER, FLOOR, BANK AND STLP.

No.	Name	Stream	Location	Bank Elevation feet above sea-level	River Elevation feet above sea-level	Dolomitic bedrock below bank	Bedrock below river	Formation Material	Remarks
1	—	Colorado River (Lower Grand)	India	18	18.0	20.0	19.0	6.1	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
2	—	Colorado River (Lower Grand)	India	20	18.0	20.0	19.0	6.1	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
3	Colorado	Colorado River	California	4.0	10.1	8.0	10.1	Pebbles	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
4	Colorado	Colorado River	California	24	16.0	16.0	16.0	10.4	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
5	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	18	21.0	16.0	16.0	12.2	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
6	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	16.0	16.1	16.0	16.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
7	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	11.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
8	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	6.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
9	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	6.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
10	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	6.0	11.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
11	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	2.0	10.1	10.1	10.1	10.1	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
12	Colorado	Colorado River (Lower Grand)	Arizona	12	20.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
13	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	12	21.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
14	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	12	22.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
15	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	12	22.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
16	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	10	17.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
17	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	10	17.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
18	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	4.0	12.0	10.0	10.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
19	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	3.0	12.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
20	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	3.0	12.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
21	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	3.0	12.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
22	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	—	—	—	—	—	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
23	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	—	—	—	—	—	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.
24	Colorado	Colorado River	Arizona	—	—	—	—	—	River probably not formed by solution. Rivers probably not formed by solution bedrock below 15 feet.

TABLE NO. 8.
WATER CROPS EXPERTINED INTO THE IRIGATION MATERIAL.

No.	Name	Stream	Location	Soil	Slight Heated Grass	Soil Heated Perry Ferry Mall.	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation	Production Material	Remarks		
									Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation		
1	Kettage	Mississippi River, Minnesota	1860	152 112 111 87 100 304	0 56 14 82 71 16 12 163 4	Good 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation			
2	Can No. 8	Quabbin River, Louisiana	1468	151	12	47	12	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation		
3	Arkansas-Illinois Crops	Tedon River, Arkansas	20.4	278	14	117	4	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation	Recently concentrated Soil samples from fine to coarse materials by clay from present fact and finally a layer of clay underlying clay with a thin crust of clay in the situation		
4	Demar	Illinoia	17.	142	8	77	27	In service at least 10 years. Some broken stems by greater & additional sheet plow	In service at least 10 years. Some broken stems by greater & additional sheet plow		
5	Can No. 5 (Irrigated)	New York	15.	109				In service at least 10 years. Some broken stems by greater & additional sheet plow	In service at least 10 years. Some broken stems by greater & additional sheet plow		
6	Can No. 4 (Crossville)				18.	37	47	60	60		
7	Johnson	Madison River			60.	228	160	125	180	Poor	
											Indicated also under date in clay foundation.

PAUL BOE

Table 26, p.

DATA ON OHIO RIVER DAMS

Dam No.	Location	Head Retained	Bilby's Method Creep Distances	Shortest Distance	Rath Ratio	Position of Dam	Approximate Rate of Completion	A	B	C	D	E
4	Farmington	7.0	7.0	10.0	62	0.3	Markable Pass	1904	7	36	32	Gravel
10	Ohio-W. Va.	9.4	9.4	10.0	61	0.2	-	1910	7	42	35	-
35	Chillicothe	6.4	6.4	12.0	67	10.8	-	1919	7	40	36	Sand and gravel
36	-	7.0	11.0	16.0	10.4	18.4	-	1926	7	77	55	-
37	-	10.0	10.0	21.4	16.0	19.7	Dear Prop	-	12	77	60	-
38	-	10.0	12.4	16	10.4	16.0	Poured Wall	-	5	77	20	-
43	Indiansburg	8.0	12.0	16.0	10.0	11.4	Markable Pass	1912	9	77	40	-
44	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1923	10	77	7	-
45	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1917	10	77	7	Sand, gravel, and boulders
46	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1920	10	77	7	Sand and gravel, much sand gravel
47	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	7	Sand and small gravel
48	Millersburg	8.0	11.0	13.0	10	10.9	-	1912	7	77	35	Sand predominating. Very fine to medium. A little gravel, many fine
49	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	Very fine sand
50	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	Sand and gravel
51	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	Part on fine sand, remainder on sand and gravel, some of it fine
52	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	Sand and gravel, some silt
53	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	-
54	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	-
55	-	8.0	12.0	13.0	10.1	11.2	-	1927	10	77	35	-

Adapted to sand at different times due to bottom or surface portion of dam.

Appendix of 45 pages follows, all white on dark blue, and will not
reproduce. If needed, consult bound volume.