

Closure by Mark B. Jaksa,⁵ Peter I. Brooker,⁶ and William S. Kaggwa⁷

The writers wish to thank the discussor for his valuable contribution to the treatment of this aspect of spatial variability analysis. While the writers are in general agreement with the discussor's comments, a couple of points warrant clarification.

Firstly, the aim of the paper was to explain, and demonstrate by means of case studies, a number of inaccuracies that have been, and continue to be, made by several researchers working in this field—in particular, the common error of inferring a random measurement error from often limited sampling. Many authors have used limited data sets with large sample spacings, in conjunction with the method proposed by Baecher (1982, 1986), to infer random measurement errors associated with particular testing procedures. As demonstrated in the paper, and reiterated by the discussor, such inferences can be made only if the data set includes sufficient samples and the sampling interval is less than the correlation distance or range.

With this in mind, a number of researchers have presented results of statistical analyses based on sparse data and, as a result, stationarity has not been investigated; hence, no trends have been removed. The case studies described in the paper presented data sets with a significant number of measurements at relatively close vertical and lateral spacings. Such information is generally atypical of the majority of data sets in geotechnical engineering. As a consequence, the writers were able to investigate the effects of removing quite high-order trends that would not normally be examined. The discussor states, and the writers agree, that few would fit a straight line or high-order polynomial trends to the data; however, the reality is that few authors have removed any trends or assessed the stationarity of their data prior to spatial variability analyses.

With respect to the discussor's comments in relation to statistical error, in the last paragraph of his section entitled "Measurement Error and Small-Scale Variation," the writers are in full agreement. However, it was never stated or implied that the three phenomena of microstructures, statistical errors, and measurement errors are all causes of variances—merely, as the discussor notes, that each contributes to the estimation of the nugget effect.

STABILITY OF UNIFORMLY REINFORCED SLOPES^a

Discussion by E. Ausilio² and E. Conte³

The author has derived an analytical expression, (10), to calculate the amount of reinforcement necessary to prevent

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^aJune 1997, Vol. 123, No. 6, by Radoslaw L. Michalowski (Paper 10907).

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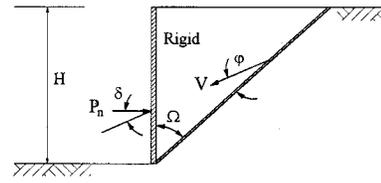


FIG. 10. The Case Examined

collapse of slopes under the assumption that the reinforcement is uniformly distributed throughout the height of the slope. The expression for the required reinforcement strength $k_r/\gamma H$, which includes the effect of pore-water pressure, is obtained by means of the upper-bound theorem of limit analysis. The energy balance equation used in the paper to derive (10) is

$$\dot{D} = \dot{W}_\gamma + \dot{W}_u \quad (34)$$

where \dot{W}_u is defined by the author as the rate of work of the pore-water pressure on the volumetric (dilative) deformation of the soil in a drained failure process. Pore pressure is considered as an external force that does positive work on the skeleton expansion.

The opinion of the discussors is that the definition given by the author for \dot{W}_u is disputable. In a drained failure process, in fact, water in the pores remains under steady conditions, therefore no work should be ascribed to pore-water pressure (Atkinson 1993). Consequently, the second term in the right-hand side of (34) has no mechanical interpretation; its presence in (34) should be seen rather as a means to include the effect of pore pressure in limit analysis. It is reasonable then to ask whether (34) leads to correct results when pore-water pressure is not zero. This can be ascertained by analyzing a case in which the solution is known. Fig. 10 shows a rough vertical wall with a flat backfill of cohesionless material. It is assumed that the soil is saturated and water is under static conditions. As is known, the expression for the active thrust from backfill is

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2} k_a (\gamma - \gamma_w) H^2 \quad (35)$$

where γ = total unit weight of the soil; γ_w = unit weight of water; P_n = resultant of the effective stresses against the wall; and

$$k_a = tg\Omega \frac{\cos(\Omega + \phi)}{\sin(\Omega + \phi) + tg\delta \cos(\Omega + \phi)}$$

(Chen 1975). The total thrust from the backfill in normal direction to the wall is the sum of P_n and the thrust exerted by pore-water, i.e.

$$P_t = P_n + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_w H^2 \quad (36)$$

On the contrary, by using (34) one obtains

$$P_t = \frac{1}{2} k_a \gamma H^2 + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_w H^2 \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos \Omega [\sin(\Omega + \phi) + tg\delta \cos(\Omega + \phi)]} \quad (37)$$

being

$$\dot{W}_u = \frac{1}{2} \gamma_w H^2 V \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos \Omega}$$

(Michalowski 1995). Eq. (37) is valid for $\delta < \phi$ (rough wall) and for $\delta = 0$ (smooth wall). When $\delta \geq \phi$, the expression for P_t results in [see also Chen (1975)]

$$P_t = \frac{1}{2} k_a \gamma H^2 + \frac{1}{2} \gamma_w H^2 \frac{\sin \phi + \cos \Omega \cos(\Omega + \phi) tg\phi}{\cos \Omega [\sin(\Omega + \phi) + tg\phi \cos(\Omega + \phi)]} \quad (38)$$

As can be noted, (37) and (38) differ from the expression in (36), and moreover, the terms on the right-hand side of these equations have no mechanical interpretation. In spite of this, it can be shown that (37) and (38) provide the same results as those that can be obtained from (36) when $\delta = 0$ and $\delta \geq \varphi$, respectively. On the contrary, (37) leads to incorrect values of P_t when $\delta < \varphi$, although in this case the solution is not a rigorous upper bound. To obtain the same results as (36) one has to assume that the interface between the rough wall and the soil mass is a shearing plane in such a way that the relative velocity vector makes an angle δ to the wall. It should be noted that this assumption, on the contrary, does not affect the values of P_t when pore pressure is zero (Chen 1975).

For the problem examined by the author in the paper, (34) should lead to correct results (Michalowski has not shown comparisons with other solutions when $0 < r_u < 0.5$). However, as the calculations carried out by the discussers have shown, in general it has to be used with care when pore-water pressure is not zero.

Finally, the discussers point out that in the case of slopes in seismic areas the expression in (10) can be easily extended to take into account the inertial forces induced by earthquakes on the evaluation of k_r . Equating the energy dissipation rate in (7) to the rate of work done by body forces in a toe logspiral failure mechanism leads to

$$\frac{k_r}{\gamma H} = \frac{2[(f_1 - f_2 - f_3) + k_h(f_4 - f_5 - f_6)] r_0}{\sin^2 \vartheta_h e^{2(\vartheta_h - \vartheta_0)/\gamma \varphi} - \sin^2 \vartheta_0} \frac{r_0}{H} \quad (39)$$

where k_h = seismic coefficient; and the functions $f_1 - f_6$ can be found in Chang et al. (1984). Eq. (39), which is valid for $r_u = 0$, can be also used to calculate the upper bound to the yield acceleration factor that is a key parameter for predicting the permanent displacement of slopes subjected to an earthquake.

APPENDIX. REFERENCES

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Discussion by Robert W. Day,⁴ Fellow, ASCE

The author has prepared a paper on the design of slopes containing uniform reinforcement. The discussor believes that there are other important design factors, as follows:

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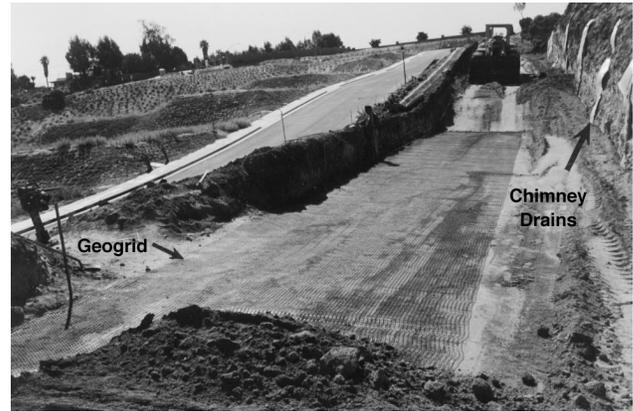


FIG. 12. Construction of Reinforced Slope

- Construction of a key
As shown in Fig. 11, the reinforced slope should contain a key. The advantage of a key is that the bottom of the reinforced zone can be located below the toe of slope. Also, the excavation of a key allows for the inspection of the soil below the toe, and the key can be extended to a depth of competent bearing material. Fig. 12 shows a picture of the construction of the key for a slope having Geogrid reinforcement.
- Drainage system
The author provides several design charts for different pore pressure (r_u) conditions. But it is usually difficult for the designer to estimate the final or most critical pore-water condition of the slope. The discussor prefers to use granular (permeable) soil as the compacted fill surrounding the Geogrids. Drains are provided in the key and along the back of the reinforced slope area as shown in Fig. 11. While the chimney drain could simply consist of bags of open-graded gravel, there are other products such as prefabricated porous drains that can be used in the back-cut as shown in Fig. 12. By using permeable granular soil and providing drainage in both the key and back-cut area, the pore pressure condition should be controlled and $r_u = 0$ can be used in the design analysis.
- Orientation of reinforcement
The author performed the stability analysis by using horizontal layers of reinforcement. But as shown in Fig. 11, the discussor prefers to tip the Geogrid at 10% into the slope. By tipping the Geogrid into the slope, it becomes more normal to the slope face, which increases its effectiveness for surficial stability. For the project shown in Fig. 12, the Geogrid was tipped 10% into the slope.

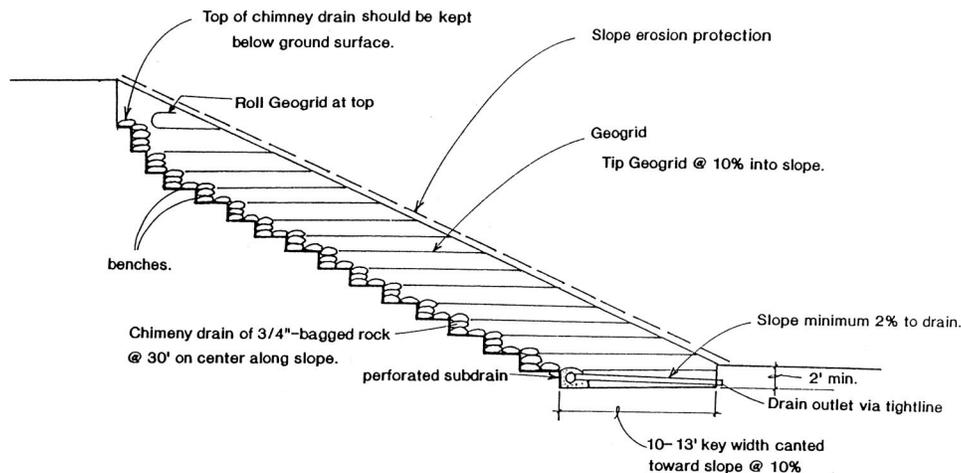


FIG. 11. Design Details for Reinforced Slope



FIG. 13. Completion of Slope Shown in Fig. 12, with Erosion Control Fabric on Slope Face

- Slope face erosion protection

Layers of reinforcement are commonly used so that the slope inclination can be increased. This will frequently result in surface erosion problems, especially when granular (free-draining) soil is used as the fill surrounding the Geogrid. In this case, it is important to provide slope face erosion protection. Fig. 13 shows a photograph of the completed Geogrid reinforced slope that has been faced with an erosion protection fabric. Deep-rooting shrubs were then planted on the slope face by cutting small holes in the erosion protection fabric.

In summary, important design factors for the construction of reinforced slopes include the construction of a key, mitigation of positive pore-water pressures in the reinforced slope by using granular (permeable) fill and installing a key drain and chimney drains, tipping the reinforcement into the slope to make it more effective, and installing an erosion control fabric and deep-rooting shrubs to reduce the potential for erosion of the slope face.

Discussion by P. de Buhan⁵ and J. Salençon,⁶ Member, ASCE

In this contribution by Professor Michalowski, a continuation of several papers, notably Michalowski and Zhao (1995), attention is paid to the stability analysis of reinforced slopes through a kinematic approach with special emphasis on the way the pullout failure mechanism of the reinforcement can be taken into account in the analysis. The discussers would like to add a few comments about the theoretical background of this paper and possible extensions.

As regards the distinction made by the author between the “continuum” and “structural” approaches, special interest should be given to the “mixed modeling” approach where the soil is modeled as a 3D continuum, the reinforcements being treated as 1D structural elements (beams) (Anthoine 1989). This approach, which does not refer to any homogenization procedure, may be applied to any kind of reinforcement pattern, whatever the distribution of the inclusions throughout the soil mass.

As an example, a computer program has been developed

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(de Buhan et al. 1993a,c), based upon this approach, for the stability analysis of reinforced soil structures, which makes use of rotational failure mechanisms within the framework of the yield design upper-bound method. It is suitable for any kind of reinforcement (nailing, tie-backs, geotextiles, etc.), multi-layered soils, and various loading conditions including seismic effects. Shear and bending resistances of the reinforcements may also be taken into account in the design procedure, although their favorable effects on the stability of the structures turns out to be negligible in most cases (de Buhan and Salençon 1993). It is fully compatible with the Ultimate Limit State Design (ULSD) concept, illustrating the fact that the theory of yield design is the theoretical background of ULSD (de Buhan et al. 1993b).

A comparison has been made between the results of this program when a periodic distribution of homogeneous reinforcing elements in a homogeneous soil is assumed, and those given by the homogenization procedure. The comparison is actually meaningful since both approaches rely on the same class of failure mechanisms. It proves that the two points of view become equivalent under the foregoing assumptions provided that the spacing of the reinforcing inclusions be small enough in comparison with a typical length for the considered structure: e.g., for a vertical embankment with evenly distributed horizontal nails the obtained results are practically similar when the number of nails reaches 10 (de Buhan et al. 1989).

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Discussion by Patrick Lemonnier⁷

The author has investigated the stability of the reinforced slopes by using the upper-bound method of the limit analysis theory. The discussor wishes to comment on the assumption made by the author concerning the determination of the required strength of the reinforcement. For this determination, a rotational log-spiral collapse mechanism is used. As is well known, this mechanism moves as a rigid body and the internal energy dissipation takes place only along the log-spiral surface.

In the opinion of the discussor, this assumption is valid in the case of inextensible reinforcements, but not in the case of extensible reinforcements. In the latter case, the mobilization of the tensions induces relatively important deformation of the reinforcement sheets (Gourc et al. 1988; Lemonnier 1995). Though the author has not explicitly dealt with any special reinforcement types, the results of his new method are compared to those obtained from methods that are only valid for

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geogrids (Schmertmann et al. 1987), or more generally for the full range of polymer reinforcement materials (Jewell 1990). Thus, the discussor would very much appreciate the clarification of the author concerning the assumption of a rigid body movement of the soil mass, with no energy dissipation within this mass, and considering this type of reinforcement.

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Closure by Radoslaw L. Michalowski⁸

The writer thanks Professors de Buhan and Salençon for their comments and interest in the paper. The method classified as the structural approach can indeed be considered also as "mixed modeling," since in the analysis the soil is taken as a continuum and the reinforcement as structural members. While it was convenient to represent the strength of reinforcement in terms of its average (or distributed) strength, k_r , the reinforcement sheets were considered as separate structural components in calculations of the length.

Both the structural and the continuum approach can be used in stability analysis of slopes. The gap in the calculated amount (or strength) of reinforcement necessary to maintain stability, using the two approaches, decreases with an increase in the number of layers, as the discussors noticed. There are some applications, however, where the homogenization technique cannot be used, for instance, in embankments reinforced with one or two geosynthetic layers. Also, the contribution of the reinforcement shear strength (and resistance to bending) requires that the structural approach be used, as presented by de Buhan and Salençon (1993). Calculations of the length of reinforcement sheets also require that they be considered as separate structural elements. In calculations of the length, the stress on reinforcement in the pullout force expression was taken as being approximately equal to the overburden weight. While such an assumption is reasonable (and generally accepted), the calculated length can no longer be proved a rigorous bound to a true solution; it is, however, a good estimate of the length. It did not come as a surprise that the calculated reinforcement length necessary to prevent failure was dependent on the number of layers.

Drs. Ausilio and Conte dispute the nature (or interpretation) of the term containing the influence of the pore-water pressure in the energy balance equation. The discussors apply the method used in the paper to a retaining wall problem, to indicate that it predicts a load inconsistent with the classical solution. The writer thanks the discussors for their interest in the paper and the effort they made to derive their equations, but he disagrees with their conclusions. In particular, (37) and (38) derived by Ausilio and Conte, which are the basis for their conclusions, are not consistent with the method proposed by the writer, and they predict incorrect results indeed.

To alleviate some of the questions with the interpretation of the method suggested in the paper, it is useful to investigate the work of the water pressure acting on a grain (or particle)

during a small displacement increment of the grain. Consider first a pore-water pressure field with constant hydraulic head (zero hydraulic head gradient) [Fig. 14(a)]. Let the soil deform, for instance, due to applied load \mathbf{P} , but the pore pressure field remain stationary. Consider particle A , which moves by displacement increment $\delta\mathbf{u}$. Pore-water pressure is an external load with respect to particle A , and its work on the particle displacement $\delta\mathbf{u}$ is exactly equal to the work of the buoyancy force acting on that particle. Notice that the net work of pore-water pressure on a horizontal displacement of a particle would be equal to zero. Now let particle B in Fig. 14(b) move by $\delta\mathbf{u}$. The work done by the pore-water pressure acting on the particle is now equal to the work of the buoyancy force (acting on particle B) plus the work of the seepage force. The work of both the buoyancy force and the seepage force must be included in analysis of stability of slopes.

In order to find a convenient way to include both forces in the kinematic approach of limit analysis, consider first the product of the pore-water pressure (u) and the rate of the volumetric strain ($\dot{\epsilon}_{ii}$) of the soil $-u\dot{\epsilon}_{ii}$. Such a product represents the rate of work of u on the volumetric expansion of the skeleton (pore-water pressure is assumed to be unaffected by the skeleton deformation as in a drained process). Because the dilatancy is considered a negative strain in soil mechanics convention, the minus sign is included to indicate that positive (compressive) pore pressure does positive work on skeleton expansion. This product is related to the work of the buoyancy force and the seepage force (Michalowski 1995); therefore, it is useful to investigate its integral over the volume of the entire failure mechanism. This investigation was not included in the original paper, but it is essential in order to give the physical interpretation to the term disputed by the discussors.

Let the vector of the displacement velocity in a failure mechanism be \mathbf{v} , [\mathbf{v} is a function of x , y , z , or x_i ($i = 1, 2, 3$)]. Derivative $\partial/\partial x_i$ of the product $u\mathbf{v}_i$ is $\mathbf{v}_i \partial u/\partial x_i + u \partial \mathbf{v}_i/\partial x_i$, and since $\partial \mathbf{v}_i/\partial x_i = -\dot{\epsilon}_{ii}$ (summation convention holds), one can write

$$\begin{aligned} -\int_V u \dot{\epsilon}_{ii} dV &= \int_V \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} (u\mathbf{v}_i) dV - \int_V \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} \mathbf{v}_i dV \\ &= \int_S u n_i \mathbf{v}_i dS - \int_V \frac{\partial u}{\partial x_i} \mathbf{v}_i dV \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

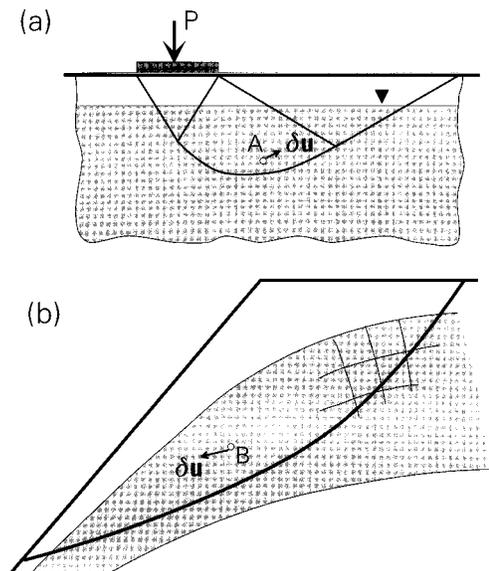


FIG. 14. Examples of Pore Water Pressure Distribution: (a) Stationary Water with Hydrostatic Distribution of Pore Pressure; (b) Schematic of Water Flow in Slope

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where S = surface bounding volume V of the failure mechanism; and n_i = outward unit vector normal to surface S . The divergence theorem was used in (40) to transform the volume integral into the surface integral. The hydraulic head, h , (with the omission of the kinetic part) is $h = (u/\gamma_w) + Z$, where Z is the elevation head. Substitution of u from this expression into (40) yields

$$-\int_V u \dot{\epsilon}_{ii} dV = \int_S u n_i v_i dS - \gamma_w \int_V \frac{\partial h}{\partial x_i} v_i dV + \gamma_w \int_V \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x_i} v_i dV \quad (41)$$

Notice that the second term on the right-hand side of (41) represents the integral of the rate of work of the seepage force ($-\gamma_w \partial h/\partial x_i$) over the entire mechanism, and the third term is the work rate of the buoyancy force in the entire volume of the failure mechanism. The first term on the right-hand side represents the work rate of the pore water pressure on boundary S . It was noticed earlier (Michalowski 1995) that for slopes with a phreatic surface contained within the soil, this term is equal to zero. Consequently, for such slopes, the work rate of the seepage and buoyancy forces is equal to the term on the left-hand side of (41), and this term was included in (1) of the original paper. Ausilio and Conte applied this term in calculations of the load on a retaining wall, arrived at (37), and noticed that (37) leads to incorrect values of load P_t on the wall. It does indeed, since in the retaining wall problem the first term on the right-hand side of (41) is no longer zero. The work rate of the seepage and buoyancy forces, \dot{W}_u , for the wall problem is

$$\dot{W}_u = -\int_V u \dot{\epsilon}_{ii} dV - \int_S u n_i v_i dS \quad (42)$$

and both terms in (42) need to be included in the analysis.

In the following paragraph the expression for the force acting on the wall is derived to show that the expression in (42) leads to correct results. For the retaining wall problem the expression in (34) needs to have an additional term due to the work rate of force P [Fig. 15(a)]

$$\dot{D} = \dot{W}_p + \dot{W}_\gamma + \dot{W}_u \quad (43)$$

This is an abbreviated form of (1) from the original paper. The hodograph for the problem is shown in Fig. 15(b). The wedge moves with velocity v , and the wall moves horizontally with velocity $v \sin(\Omega + \phi)$. Thus, sliding on the wall surface occurs with sliding vector magnitude of $[v] = v \cos(\Omega + \phi)$ (see hodograph), and the rate of work dissipation associated with this sliding is

$$\dot{D} = P v \sin \delta \cos(\Omega + \phi) \quad (44)$$

where δ is the wall friction angle. In the absence of cohesion the work dissipation rate along the failure surface is zero. The work rate of force P and the soil weight are

$$\dot{W}_p = -P v \cos \delta \sin(\Omega + \phi) \quad (45)$$

and

$$\dot{W}_\gamma = \frac{1}{2} \gamma H^2 v \tan \Omega \cos(\Omega + \phi) \quad (46)$$

respectively. The specific forms of the terms in (42) now become

$$\dot{W}_u = \frac{1}{2} \gamma_w H^2 v \frac{\sin \phi}{\cos \Omega} - \frac{1}{2} \gamma_w H^2 v \sin(\Omega + \phi) \quad (47)$$

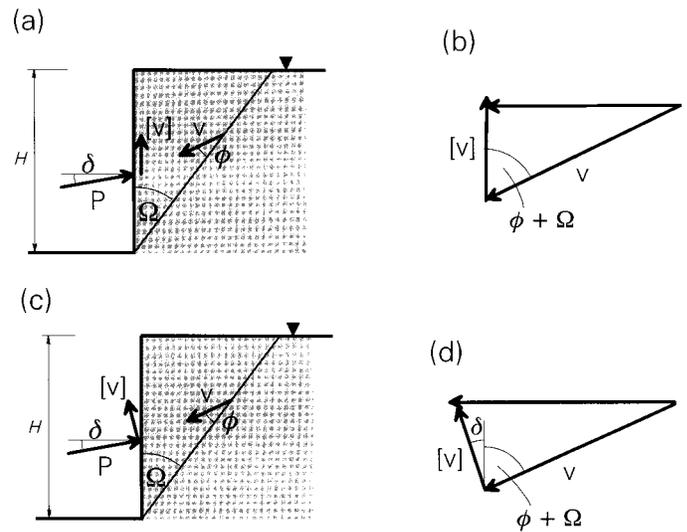


FIG. 15. Retaining Wall Load Problem: (a) Schematic for Analysis with Explicit Calculations of Work Dissipation on Wall Interface; (b) Hodograph; (c) Schematic for Alternative Method of Calculations; (d) Hodograph

The first term on the right-hand side of (42) now includes only the work of u along the failure surface, since dilation occurs only there. Upon substitution of (44)–(47) into (43), and rearranging, one obtains

$$P_n = \frac{1}{2} (\gamma - \gamma_w) H^2 \frac{\tan \Omega \cos(\Omega + \phi)}{\sin(\Omega + \phi) + \tan \delta \cos(\Omega + \phi)} = \frac{1}{2} k_a (\gamma - \gamma_w) H^2 \quad (48)$$

where $P_n = P \cos \delta$. Notice that (48) is consistent with the classical solution, and it is identical to (35). The expression in (43) leads to the wall load caused by the soil, and the load due to hydrostatic pressure, $\gamma_w H^2/2$, can be added to (48) to obtain the total load as in (36). The discussers, however, obtained (37) instead of (48), because of the omission of the second term in (47), and interpreted it as a total load. The expression in (37) is not correct.

The rate of work dissipation was calculated here explicitly in (44). However, this is possible only when sliding on the interface occurs with a uniform velocity (otherwise the distribution of load needs to be known for calculations of work dissipation). To make calculations possible for cases where sliding is not uniform, one can assume that the sliding vector is inclined at the angle of wall friction to the interface. Such an assumption does not violate kinematical admissibility of the failure mechanism. Consequently, the sliding vector and the force acting on the wall are mutually orthogonal, and the dissipation rate becomes zero. Of course, this technique can also be applied to the simple example where the sliding velocity is uniform [Fig. 15(c and d)]. Such a method was suggested independently by Collins (1969) for compression of a metal block between two rigid dies, and by Mróz and Drescher (1969) for a hopper flow problem; it was also used by Chen (1975). The limit force on the retaining wall calculated in such a manner, with inclusion of the pore-water pressure influence as suggested here, is identical to that in (48). The discussers followed this method only for the case where $\delta = \phi$, and arrived at (38), which is incorrect again, because of the omission of one term in the calculation of the influence of the pore-water pressure.

The discussers mention that their (37) “is not a rigorous upper bound.” Even if it were correctly derived, it would not be an upper but a lower bound. The kinematic theorem of limit analysis yields an upper bound to active limit forces (forces

for which the work rate in the failure process is positive), and a lower bound to reactions. The force calculated here is the wall reaction, whose work rate during failure is negative [see (45)]. To find the best estimate of P , one needs to find Ω such that P is a maximum (best lower bound).

The charts were produced in the paper for slopes with uniform spacing of reinforcement; however, calculations for slopes with a triangular distribution of "smeared" strength were also carried out, and compared to those for $r_u > 0$ obtained by means of the limit equilibrium method (Jewell 1990). They appear to be identical.

In conclusion, the method suggested for inclusion of the buoyancy and seepage forces in the kinematic limit analysis is a rigorous approach leading to a strict bound on the true solution. All terms associated with this approach, which appear in the energy balance equation, have a clear physical interpretation.

Finally, the discussers suggest that the kinematic approach can be used to arrive at reinforcement for slopes subjected to seismic loads. Indeed, such calculations were recently performed for both the strength and the length of reinforcement, and for both uniform and nonuniform distribution (Michalowski, in press, 1998).

The writer also thanks Dr. Lemonnier for his interest in the paper, and the comment on the rigid rotation collapse mechanism used in the analysis. The discussor points out that mobilization of the tensile force in the reinforcement may be associated with an elastoplastic deformation process in the entire soil mass.

The kinematic approach of limit analysis belongs to the class of limit state techniques where the process prior to failure is not analyzed. The stiffness of reinforcement does not enter the analysis, and the question as to whether the results are applicable to extensible or inextensible reinforcement cannot be addressed explicitly. For the same reason the progression of failure and size effects are not considered. For that, a numerical approach needs to be used (such as the finite-element method) where both the soil and reinforcement are modeled as elastoplastic materials with a frictional (at the very least) soil-reinforcement interface. However, the results from limit state techniques have been used in the past for both inextensible reinforcement (such as metal strips) and extensible inclusions (such as synthetic sheets).

The method used in the paper is based on the energy rate balance equation written for an incipient failure process. The process of reinforcement force mobilization takes place prior to failure, and not just in the neighborhood of what later becomes the failure surface. Such a process is likely to be elastoplastic, in which some energy is dissipated and some is stored in the soil mass. However, at the instant of failure the process becomes perfectly plastic, without further increase in elastic energy, and the rigid rotation was found to be the most adverse collapse mode. The kinematic approach of limit analysis leads to the upper bound on the limit load on the slope, or the lower bound to the strength of reinforcement necessary to prevent failure. Any kinematically admissible mechanism provides the lower bound to the reinforcement strength. Out of the different mechanisms considered, the rigid rotation yields the maximum strength (the best lower bound), and therefore it was used to produce the charts.

The comments of Dr. Day are appreciated. However, the paper was on stability of reinforced slopes, and the objective was to present a rational stability analysis, concluded with charts that can be used to design the amount of reinforcement necessary to prevent collapse of slopes. Stability analysis is only a part of the entire design process, which must, of course, include such issues as secondary reinforcement, drainage, ero-

sion protection, constructability, possible damage of geosynthetics prior to installation, etc.

Errata. The following corrections should be made to the original paper:

In Table 1, column 4 refer to Eq. (24) instead of Eq. (10).

In Eq. (27), the first minus sign should be replaced with a plus.

In Eq. (30), α should be replaced with θ_h .

APPENDIX. REFERENCES

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MODIFIED NEWMARK MODEL FOR SEISMIC DISPLACEMENTS OF COMPLIANT SLOPES^a

Discussion by Robert W. Day,³ Fellow, ASCE

The authors present an interesting paper on the development of a modified Newmark analysis for estimation of the permanent displacement of slopes in earthquakes. The authors conclude that for the decoupled procedure, the permanent displacement is underpredicted for relatively thin and/or soft failure masses. The discussor believes that there may be other cases where the earthquake deformation is underpredicted, such as the two cases described here.

• Reduction of shear strength during earthquake

The first case deals with the reduction of shear strength during the California Northridge earthquake (January 17, 1994; magnitude 6.7). The site is located about 11 km (7 mi) southwest of the epicenter (Day and Poland 1996). Using the EQSEARCH (Blake 1989) computer program, the estimated peak ground acceleration at the site was 0.55g. The earthquake caused the reactivation of landslide debris (Fig. 15) which caused damage to the property as shown in Figs. 16–18. Subsurface exploration discovered the presence of old fractures in the landslide debris filled with gypsum as well as recent open fractures due to the earthquake. An interesting feature of this case was that the landslide debris continued to move after the earthquake as shown by the inclinometer readings (Fig. 19). The results of the earthquake investigation revealed that the earthquake opened up fractures in the landslide debris, which reduced the factor of safety, and reactivated the landslide movement.

• Earthquake-induced slope deformation of loose cohesionless soils

The second case deals with slope movement due to earthquake-induced deformation of loose cohesionless

^aJuly 1997, Vol. 123, No. 7, by Steven L. Kramer and Matthew W. Smith (Paper 12083).

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