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PILE DESIGN and CONSTRUCTION PRACTICE

Fourth edition



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Fourth edition

M.J.Tomlinson, CEng, FICE, FStructE



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Preface to fourth edition

In this edition the chapters dealing with methods of calculating the bearing capacity and settlements of piles and pile groups have been extensively revised to take account of recent research and development on this subject. A draft of Eurocode No. 7, *Geotechnics*, had been completed at the time of preparing this edition. Reference is made to the draft requirements of the Eurocode in the chapters dealing with the design of single piles and pile groups.

Generally the descriptions of types of pile, piling equipment and methods of installation have been brought up-to-date with current practice and a new section has been added on piled foundations for bridges.

The author is grateful to Mr Malcolm J. Brittain, MICE, of Grove Structural Consultants, for assistance in bringing [Chapter 7](#) into line with British Standard Code of Practice BS 8110 for structural concrete and for revising the worked examples in this chapter. The help of Mr Keith Brook, FICE in compiling the revised [Table 10.1](#) is also gratefully acknowledged.

Many specialist piling contractors and manufacturers of piling equipment have kindly supplied technical information and illustrations of their processes and products. Where appropriate the source of this information is given in the text.

In addition, the author wishes to thank the following for the supply of photographs and illustrations from technical publications and brochures:

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Canadian Geotechnical Journal	Figures 4.34 , 4.41 , 4.42 , 5.11 , 5.33 and 6.9
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M.J.T.
Deal, 1993

Preface to first edition

Piling is both an art and a science. The art lies in selecting the most suitable type of pile and method of installation for the ground conditions and the form of the loading. Science enables the engineer to predict the behaviour of the piles once they are in the ground and subject to loading. This behaviour is influenced profoundly by the method used to install the piles and it cannot be predicted solely from the physical properties of the pile and of the undisturbed soil. A knowledge of the available types of piling and methods of constructing piled foundations is essential for a thorough understanding of the science of their behaviour. For this reason the author has preceded the chapters dealing with the calculation of allowable loads on piles and deformation behaviour by descriptions of the many types of proprietary and non-proprietary piles and the equipment used to install them.

In recent years substantial progress has been made in developing methods of predicting the behaviour of piles under lateral loading. This is important in the design of foundations for deep-water terminals for oil tankers and oil carriers and for offshore platforms for gas and petroleum production. The problems concerning the lateral loading of piles have therefore been given detailed treatment in this book.

The author has been fortunate in being able to draw on the world-wide experience of George Wimpey and Company Limited, his employers for nearly 30 years, in the design and construction of piled foundations. He is grateful to the management of Wimpey Laboratories Ltd. and their parent company for permission to include many examples of their work. In particular, thanks are due to P.F. Winfield, FIstructE, for his assistance with the calculations and his help in checking the text and worked examples.

Burton-on-Stather, 1977

M.J.T.

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CHAPTER 1

General principles and practices

1.1 Function of piles

Piles are columnar elements in a foundation which have the function of transferring load from the superstructure through weak compressible strata or through water, onto stiffer or more compact and less compressible soils or onto rock. They may be required to carry uplift loads when used to support tall structures subjected to overturning forces from winds or waves. Piles used in marine structures are subjected to lateral loads from the impact of berthing ships and from waves. Combinations of vertical and horizontal loads are carried where piles are used to support retaining walls, bridge piers and abutments, and machinery foundations.

1.2 Historical

The driving of bearing piles to support structures is one of the earliest examples of the art and science of the civil engineer. In Britain there are numerous examples of timber piling in bridge works and riverside settlements constructed by the Romans. In mediaeval times, piles of oak and alder were used in the foundations of the great monasteries constructed in the fenlands of East Anglia. In China, timber piling was used by the bridge builders of the Han Dynasty (200 BC to AD 200). The carrying capacity of timber piles is limited by the girth of the natural timbers and the ability of the material to withstand driving by hammer without suffering damage due to splitting or splintering. Thus primitive rules must have been established in the earliest days of piling by which the allowable load on a pile was determined from its resistance to driving by a hammer of known weight and with a known height of drop. Knowledge was also accumulated regarding the durability of piles of different species of wood, and measures taken to prevent decay by charring the timber or by building masonry rafts on pile heads cut off below water level.

Timber, because of its strength combined with lightness, durability and ease of cutting and handling, remained the only material used for piling until comparatively recent times. It was replaced by concrete and steel only because these newer materials could be fabricated into units that were capable of sustaining compressive, bending and tensile forces far beyond the capacity of a timber pile of like dimensions. Concrete, in particular, was adaptable to in-situ forms of construction which facilitated the installation of piled foundations in drilled holes in situations where noise, vibration and ground heave had to be avoided.

Reinforced concrete, which was developed as a structural medium in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, largely replaced timber for high-capacity piling for works on land. It could be precast in various structural forms to suit the imposed loading and ground conditions, and its durability was satisfactory for most soil and immersion conditions. The partial replacement of driven precast concrete piles by numerous forms of cast-in-situ piles has been due more to the development of highly efficient machines for drilling pile boreholes of large diameter and great depth in a wide range of soil and rock conditions, than to any deficiency in the performance of the precast concrete element.

Steel has been used to an increasing extent for piling due to its ease of fabrication and handling and its ability to withstand hard driving. Problems of corrosion in marine structures have been overcome by the introduction of durable coatings and cathodic protection.

1.3 Calculations of load-carrying capacity

While materials for piles can be precisely specified, and their fabrication and installation can be controlled to conform to strict specification and code of practice requirements, the calculation of their load-carrying capacity is a complex matter which at the present time is based partly on theoretical concepts derived from the sciences of soil and rock mechanics, but mainly on empirical methods based on experience. Practice in calculating the ultimate carrying capacity of piles based on the principles of soil mechanics differs greatly from the application of these principles to shallow spread foundations. In the latter case the entire area of soil supporting the foundation is exposed and can be inspected and sampled to ensure that its bearing characteristics conform to those deduced from the results of exploratory boreholes and soil tests. Provided that the correct constructional techniques are used the disturbance to the soil is limited to a depth of only a few centimetres below the excavation level for a spread foundation. Virtually the whole mass of soil influenced by the bearing pressure remains undisturbed and unaffected by the constructional operations (Figure 1.1 a). Thus the safety factor against general shear failure of the spread foundation and its settlement under the design working load can be predicted from a knowledge of the physical characteristics of the *undisturbed* soil with a degree of certainty which depends only on the complexity of the soil stratification.

The conditions which govern the supporting capacity of the piled foundation are quite different. No matter whether the pile is installed by driving with a hammer, by jetting, by vibration, by jacking, screwing or drilling, the soil in contact with the pile face, from which the pile derives its support by skin friction, and its resistance to lateral loads, is completely disturbed by the method of installation. Similarly the soil or rock beneath the toe of a pile is compressed (or sometimes loosened) to an extent which may affect significantly its end-bearing resistance (Figure 1.1b). Changes take place in the conditions at the pile-soil interface over periods of days, months or years which materially affect the skin-friction resistance of a pile. These changes may be due to the dissipation of excess pore pressure set up by installing the pile, to the relative effects of friction and cohesion which in turn depend on the relative pile-to-soil movement, and to chemical or electro-chemical effects caused by the hardening of the concrete or the corrosion of the steel in contact with the soil. Where piles are installed in groups to carry heavy foundation loads, the operation of driving or drilling for adjacent piles can cause changes in the carrying capacity and load-settlement characteristics of the piles in the group that have already been driven.

In the present state of knowledge, the effects of the various methods of pile installation on the carrying capacity and deformation characteristics cannot be calculated by the strict application of soil or rock mechanics theory. The general procedure is to apply simple empirical factors to the strength density, and compressibility properties of the undisturbed soil or rock. The various factors which can be used depend on the particular method of installation and are based on experience and on the results of field loading tests.

The basis of the 'soil mechanics approach' to calculating the carrying capacity of piles is that the

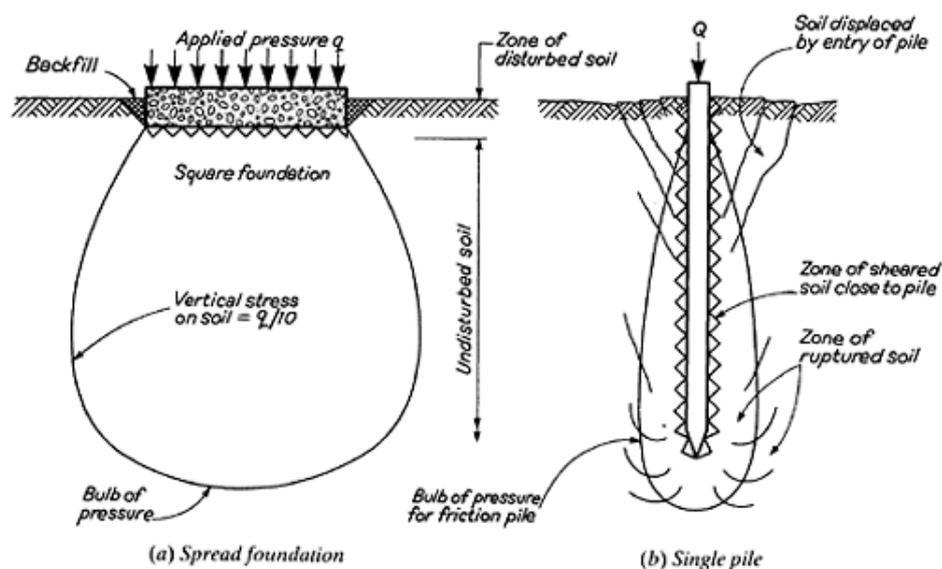


Fig. 1.1 Comparison of pressure distribution and soil disturbance beneath spread and piled foundations

total resistance of the pile to compression loads is the sum of two components, namely skin friction and end resistance. A pile in which the skin-frictional component predominates is known as a friction pile (Figure 1.2a), while a pile bearing on rock or some other hard incompressible material is known as an end-bearing pile (Figure 1.2b). However, even if it is possible to make a reliable estimate of total pile resistance a further difficulty arises in predicting the problems involved in installing the piles to the depths indicated by the empirical or semi-empirical calculations. It is one problem to calculate that a precast concrete pile must be driven to a depth of, say, 20 metres to carry safely a certain working load, but quite another problem to decide on the energy of the hammer required to drive the pile to this depth, and yet another problem to decide whether or not the pile will be irredeemably shattered while driving it to the required depth. In the case of driven and cast-in-place piles the ability to drive the piling tube to the required depth and then to extract it within the pulling capacity of the piling

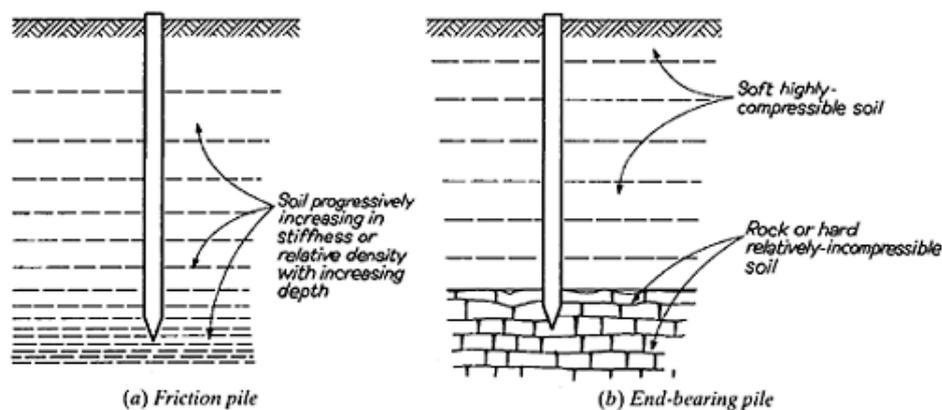


Fig. 1.2 Types of bearing pile

rig must be correctly predicted.

Bjerrum^(1.1) has drawn attention to the importance of time effects in calculating the resistance of a pile in clay. The time effects include the rate of applying load to a pile, and the time interval between installing and testing a pile. The skin-frictional resistance of a pile in clay loaded very slowly may only be one-half of that which is measured under the rate at which load is normally applied during a pile loading test. The slow rate of loading may correspond to that of a building under construction, yet the ability of a pile to carry its load is judged on its behaviour under a comparatively rapid loading test made only a few days after installation. The carrying capacity of a pile in sands may also diminish with time, but in spite of the importance of such time effects both in cohesive and cohesionless soils the only practicable way of determining the load-carrying capacity of a piled foundation is to confirm the design calculations by short-term tests on isolated single piles, and then to allow in the safety factor for any reduction in the carrying capacity with time. The effects of grouping piles can be taken into account by considering the pile group to act as a block foundation, as described in Chapter 5.

1.4 Dynamic piling formulae

The soil mechanics approach to calculating allowable working loads on piles is that of determining the resistance of static loads applied at the test-loading stage or during the working life of the structure. Methods of calculation based on the measurement of the resistance encountered when driving a pile were briefly mentioned in the context of history. Until comparatively recently all piles were installed by driving them with a simple falling ram or drop hammer. Since there is a relationship between the downward movement of a pile under a blow of given energy and its ultimate resistance to static loading, when all piles were driven by a falling ram a considerable body of experience was built up and simple empirical formulae established from which the ultimate resistance of the pile could be calculated from the 'set' of the pile due to each hammer blow at the final stages of driving. However, there are many drawbacks to the use of these formulae with modern pile-driving equipment particularly when used in conjunction with diesel hammers. The energy of blow delivered to the pile by these types increases as the resistance of the ground increases. The energy can also vary with the mechanical condition of the hammer and its operating temperature. They now are largely discredited as a means of predicting the

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