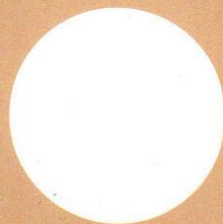


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FIELD MODEL TESTS TO DRAIN UPPER BASIN OF SAGARKHALI KHAL OF G. K. PROJECT

BY

A. K. M. SHAMSUL HAQUE*

INTRODUCTION

Sagarkhali area comprising about 140 Sq Km. was a part of G. K. Project, Jessore Unit Phase- III. This area has been suffering from drainage congestion due to closure of Sagarkhali khal since 1960. Although some drainage improvement measures have been taken, but flood has been occurring frequently due to synchronization of the intensive local rainfall with high stage of the Mathabhanga. Most of the years drainage congestion occurs due to high stage of the river Mathabhanga and synchronised local rainfall and the crops of the area suffer from inundation. In order to find out a rational solution of the problem, Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB), constituted a committee to investigate the cause and recommend remedial measures for the drainage problem of the Sagarkhali area.

The Terms of Reference (TCR) of the Committee as follows:-

To examine & evaluate the necessity of construction syphons and other structures for removal of drainage problem of Sagarkhali area,

To prepare the design & drawing of the structures, and

To submit the report with specific recommendation of the problem.

In course of discharging its duties, members of the committee visited the affected area, inspected existing drainage system, discussed with the local people & project officials, and studied the reports prepared by different

agencies in past and also examined the opinions of different officials, experts and local people.

The committee conducted a field model test in order to examine the efficiency of the drainage system in the project area and possibility of passing excess water of the affected area without causing harm in the project area.

DRAINAGE PROBLEM OF SAGARKHALI AREA

Problem and its Salient Feature

A flood control and irrigation project named as G. K. Project was taken up in 1952, with its main component, pump house located at Bheramara. In order to develop Kushtia Unit Phaset - I, along with other activities, it was necessary to close Sagarkhali Khal near Amla in 1960. This crossdam obstructed the natural flow of flood water of upper basin of Sagarkhali to pass through the natural drainage system in the Kushtia Unit, Phase- I, and created drainage problem in the upper basin of Sagarkhali Khal, comprising about 90,000 acres of land.

Although several items of works were done the problem of drainage congestion of the area could not be removed. As and when high water stage in the river Mathabhanga synchronises with the local intense rainfall, the drainage is not effected in the river Mathabhnaga and the crops and dwelling housed of the area suffer from inundation. People of the area attempt to cut open the cross dam to drain out the area.

*Director General, River Research Institute Faridpur and one of the members of the committee framed by WDB.

Location of the area

The Sagarkhali area comprising about 140 sq. km (about 90,000 acres) is bounded by the river Ganges in the north-east and Mathabhanga river in the south-west and Ganges canal of G. K. Project Kushtia unit phase- II in the east. The area which was originally a part of G. K. Project Jessore unit, phase- III falls in the upazilla of Daulatpur, part of Bheramara and Mirpur.

Sagarkhali river and its influence on the problem

The Sagarkhali river originated from the river Ganges near Mohishkundi in Kushtia district flowing towards south-east to drain into the Chapai beel in the same district. At the mouth the river was known as Hishna, it was then called Chasnidoa in the flood problem area and thereafter upto Chapai beel it was named as Sagarkhali khal. A channel named Barisal khal took off from Chapai beel to join Kumar river at Vishnudia in Jessore district. It flows further downstream as Kumar to meet the Nabaganga river at Magura and ultimately drains into the sea. After construction of closure dam at Amla natural drainage of Sagarkhali area has been obstructed.

Background of G. K. Project and creation of the problem

A project for agricultural development in Kushtia, Jessore, and Khulna, named as G. K. Project, providing flood control/drainage, and irrigation was taken up in 1952 with the help of F. A. O, which recommended immediate implementation of the Kushtia Unit of the Project by pumping water from the Ganges. The Kushtia Unit Phase- I with a gross area of 200000 acres and a net cultivable area of 120000 acres was taken up for execution in 1954. A pumping plant was constructed at Bheramara for pumping water from the river Ganges through an intake channel. A system of irrigation canals was constructed for carrying

and distributing the water into the entire commanded area. A flood embankment along the bank of the Ganges and the Gorai river (left bank of main canal) for a length of about 65 miles was constructed to protect the project area from annual flooding. A net work of drainage channels for quick surface drainage as well as for removing drainage congestion from the low pockets, swamps and beels in the project area were constructed to reclaim lands and to ensure effective drainage. Before the project development of the Kushtia unit, phase- I, the entire low lying area of the project used to be flooded almost every year from the spills of the Ganges and Gorai through the river and channels, namely, Hishna (Sagarkhali), Kaliganga, Dakoa, etc, and the crops of these beels and low lying areas were damaged frequently. With gradual development of the project, all these spill channels were closed by earthen dams. Kaliganga and Dakoa were closed at their offtakes whereas the Sagarkhali khal was closed near Amla in the year 1960. The cross dam over the Sagarkhali khal near Amla was so located that the Ganges canal for the Kushtia unit phase- I of the same project can cross the Sagarkhali khal through the cross dam, obstructing the natural flow of flood water of the Sagarkhali upper catchment area between the Ganges, Mathabhanga and the Ganges canal of G. K. Project Kushtia unit.

Previous plans executed for removal of the problem

To solve the anticipated drainage congestion due to the obstruction of natural drainage of upper Sagarkhali basin a diversion channel named D5M was excavated in the year 1961 to divert the Sagarkhali water from its original course to Mathabhanga river. The diversion channel took off from the Sagarkhali khal at a point near Amla, upstream of the cross-dam and connected river the Mathabhanga at Khalishakundi. But it was observed that the spill from the Ganges

through Hishna, Chasnidoa (Sagarkhali) inundates the entire low lying area of the upper catchment of the Sagarkhali khal and damages the crops.

To prevent the spills from the Ganges a cross-dam was constructed in the year 1964 on the Hishna (Sagarkhali) at Mohishkundi. Subsequently it was also observed that during low stage of Mathabhanga drainage through D5M is effectively occurred, but during high stage of Mathabhanga (which generally occurs in August-September), instead of drainage, back flow from Mathabhanga entered in the area and caused damage to the crops. The maximum water level of Mathabhanga at the outfall of D5M and water level at U/S of D5M regulator for some periods of non-effective drainage are shown in Table 1

Table- 1
MAX^m WATER LEVEL AT U/S OF D5M
REGULATOR AND WATER LEVEL OF
MATHABHANGA
AT OUTFALL OF D5M

Period	W. L. at U/S of D5M Regulator Fl. (PWD)	W.L. of Mathabhanga river at the outfall of D5M
1.9.82 to 18.9.82	40.00 to 40.70	40.05 to 44.80
14.9.83 to 29.9.83	39.10 to 41.70	39.40 to 46.40
1.9.84 to 21.8.87	40.80 to 43.75	40.65 to 45.85
17.8.87 to 24.8.87	38.60 to 41.85	39.10 to 42.70

To stop backflow of Mathabhanga through D5M a regulator was also constructed at the outfall of D5M.

Present problem

Almost every year when high stage of Mathabhanga is synchronised with heavy rainfall large area of Sagarkhali basin including homesteads submerges. In 1987 due to heavy

rainfall (about 11 inches in 3 days) the problem became acute. As a result crops of about 11000 acres of land and 300 homesteads were damaged causing immense suffering to the people of the area. Thousands of people from the effected area of Daulatpur upazilla gathered at the cross-dam site of Sagarkhali at Amla and tried to cut open the Sagarkhali dam.

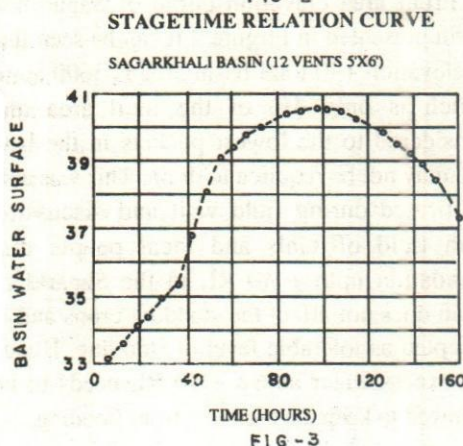
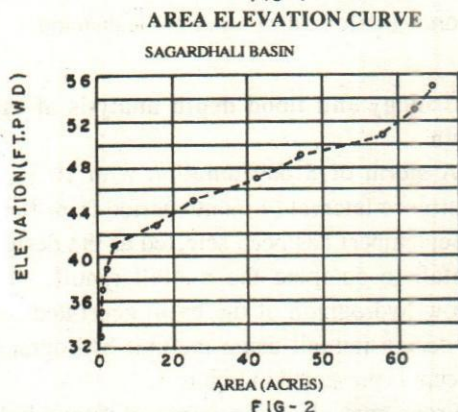
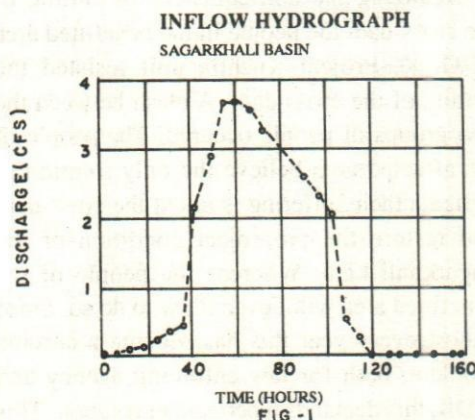
Realizing the consequences of cutting of the cross-dam the people in the benefitted area of G. K. Project Kushtia unit resisted the cutting of the cross-dam. A clash between the two groups of people occurred. The people of the affected area believe the only solution to mitigate their suffering is to cut the cross-dam and restore the preproject condition of the Sagarkhali khal. Whereas the people of the benefitted area will never allow to do so. Since almost every year this has become a chronic problem, both for law enforcing agency and WDB, this demands a permanent solution. This report is therefore, the output of the demand.

Hydrology and flood depth analysis of the basin

A storm of 5 day duration with 10 year recurrence interval (4 month period from June to September) has been selected as the design rainfall to compute the rainfall runoff. The inflow hydrograph of the basin generated for the design rainfall using the unit hydrograph concept is presented in Figure 1.

From area elevation curve of Sagarkhali basin presented in Figure 2 it can be seen that at elevation +40 total basin area is 3600 acres which is only 4% of the total area and considered to the lowest pockets in the beel and may not be required to drain. This was also confirmed during field visit and discussion with field officials and local people that inundation upto + 40 RL in the Sagarkhali basin does not affect the standing crops and is accepted as tolerable level of flooding. Hence the excess water above + 40 RL needs to be removed to keep the area free from flooding.

A number of flood routing computations were made by micro computer using LOTUS 123 package program and from the time stage relation curve for 12 vents (5' X 6') regulator with outflow of 1675 cfs it is observed that above + 40 Ft. PWD the depth of inundation for 48 hours is less than 7" and hence is considered acceptable Figure 3.



Present agriculture in the Sagarkhali area:

Present agricultural practice in the flood problem area of Sagarkhali basin showing present cropping pattern with percent of area covered are furnished in Table- 2 below.

Table- 2
**PRESENT AGRICULTURE IN THE
FLOOD PROBLEM AREA OF
SAGARKHALI BASIN**

Crops	% of total area covered
Local Aus	30
IRRI Aus	20
Aman	55
Jute	40
Sugarcane	20
Wheat	20
Boro	10
Pulses/Tobacco	50

Proposed alternative plans.

To solve the drainage problem in the Sagarkhali basin following alternative plans were studied :

- Construction of a syphone at Sagarkhali across Ganges canal to pass the entire flood excess water into G. K. project area.

- Construction of a pumping plant for drainage at the outfall of D5M.

- Construction of a regulator over Mathabhanga at a suitable distance U/S of the outfall of D5M. to keep the river stage lower permitting efficient drainage.

- Construction of an inlet structure to pass the flood water through Ganges canal, Alamadana canal. and escape channel.

DISCUSSION ON THE PROPOSED PLANS:

Construction of syphone at Sagarkhali across Ganges canal :

The people of the affected area have been demanding to restore the original flow

condition of Sagarkhali khal. This can only be achieved by constructing a syphon across the canal and passing the flood water of upper Sagarkhali basin into G. K. Project area and drain into Chapai beel and then in to Kumar river. This will cause inundation in the developed area of G. K. Project phase- I & phase- II & will damage the crops, specially in Chapai beel and adjoining area, This proposal will not be acceptable to the people in the developed and benefitted area of G. K. project Kushtia unit and will be very difficult to implement. Irrigation in the vast Ganges canal command area may have to be suspended for two seasons during construction of the proposed syphon.

Pumping plant for drainage at the outfall of D5M :

Possibility of lowering the water level of Sagarkhali basin during monsoon by installing a pumping plant at the outfall of D5M, when water level at Mathabhanga remains high, was already studied by the Consultants engaged for the feasibility study of G. K. project Jessore unit phase- III. It was found that provision of pump drainage is not economically feasible. Moreover the drainage pumps will remain idle for eleven months in a year which also appears to be not desirable.

Construction of regulator over Mathabhanga :

Construction of a regulator over Mathabhanga at a suitable distance U/S of the outfall of D5M will keep the stage of Mathabhanga river, at the D/S of the regulator, lower during monsoon period, which will enable efficient drainage of the affected area through D5M. But the Mathabhanga being a border river construction of any structure over this will require prior permission of the Joint River Commission (J. R. C.). Though this proposed appears to be best alternative to solve the drainage problem in the Sagarkhali basin,

but can not be implemented soon for want of necessary permission and detailed study. So it has become necessary to think for other alternatives.

Construction of inlet structure to pass the flood water through Ganges canal Alamdanga canal and escape channel:

Under this plan an inlet structure will be constructed to allow the flood water of Sagarkhali basin to enter into the Ganges canal of G. K. Project Kushtia unit and then pass through Ganges canal, Ganges canal extension and Alamdanga canal, the excess water of afterwards will be escaped through escape regulators E3G (on Ganges canal) E2A and E4A (on Alamdanga canal) to Kumar river and through the tail escape of Ganges canal extension into Nabaganga river. As the FSL of Ganges canal is higher than the tolerable flood level of Sagarkhali basin, the water level of Ganges canal will have to be lowered during operation of the Sagarkhali inlet structure. This will be accomplished by controlling the flow of Ganges canal with the help of RIG. cross regulator and by reducing the number of pumps operating at Bherama pump station. Lowering of FSL in Ganges canal is not likely to cause any problem to normal irrigation practice in G. K. project, as the Sagarkhali inlet will only be operated when there will be heavy rainfall in the Sagarkhali basin and at the same time the Mathabhanga stage is high. Moreover it is expected that when there will be heavy rain in Sagarkhali basin similar intensity of rainfall will also occur in G. K. project area and irrigation demand at that time will not be so acute. In addition to that an escape regulator with smaller capacity will also be constructed on the left bank of the Ganges canal opposite to the proposed Sagarkhali inlet regulator, which will only be operated when required. As the proposal can be implemented immediately without much adverse affect to the existing G. K. project area, the proposal is considered

GANGES - KOBADAK IRRIGATION SCHEME

(Phase I & Phase II)

FLOOD PROBLEM AREA OF SAGARKHALI WITH PROPOSED PLAN



LEGEND

- Primary Irrigation Canals
- Secondary Irrigation Canals
- Tertiary Irrigation Canals
- Rivers, Major Drains
- Secondary Drains
- Roads
- Railways
- Levees
- Villages
- Regulators
- International Boundaries
- Affected Area
- Excavation of channel

SOURCE : DHV - ACE

FIGURE :4

attractive under existing condition. An index map of G. K. project Kushtia unit phase- I and phase- II showing the problem area with proposed plan is presented in Figure 4.

FIELD MODEL TEST

To check the effectiveness of the last proposal, in the field, a field model test was performed from 24th to 26th September, 1988 by regulating the flow in the Ganges canal so as to attain the desired design water level at the D/S of the proposed inlet structure and find the actual discharge capacity of Ganges canal at that level. The details of the adopted procedure for field model test is furnished below, while a schematic diagram of the proposed solution is shown in Figure 5.

Water level of Ganges canal at the Sagarkhali cross-dam was maintained at +39.5 by controlling the gates of RIG (regulator No. 1 across Ganges canal) at the U/S of the proposed inlet structure.

E3G regulator (Escape regulator No. 3 of Ganges canal at left bank) and R1A regulator (Regulator No 1 across Alamdanga canal) were kept open.

The model was run for more than 24 hours to stabilize the flow.

Discharges through Ganges canal, Alamdanga canal and through the escape channel of E3G regulator were respectively measured by current meter at Sagarkhali cross-dam. D/S of R1A and D/S of E3G regulators. The results of the tests were as follows :

Location	Discharge (cfs)
Ganges canal at Sagarkhali X-dam	875
Alamdanga canal at the D/S of R1A	340
Escape channel at the D/S of E3G	550

Discussion on the results of the field model test

During model test the tail escape of Ganges canal extension could not be opened as the escape channel has not yet been excavated. But from the opening of the escape regulator and gauge observation of Nabaganga river it is estimated that another 200 cfs of water can easily be passed through this tail escape to Nabaganga/river. From the field model test it is therefore, conservatively estimated that out of 1675 cfs, 1075 cfs of water can safely be passed through the Ganges canal and for the rest 600 cfs. a 3 vents (5' X 6') escape regulator is proposed just opposite to the Sagarkhali inlet structure to escape into Chapai beel.

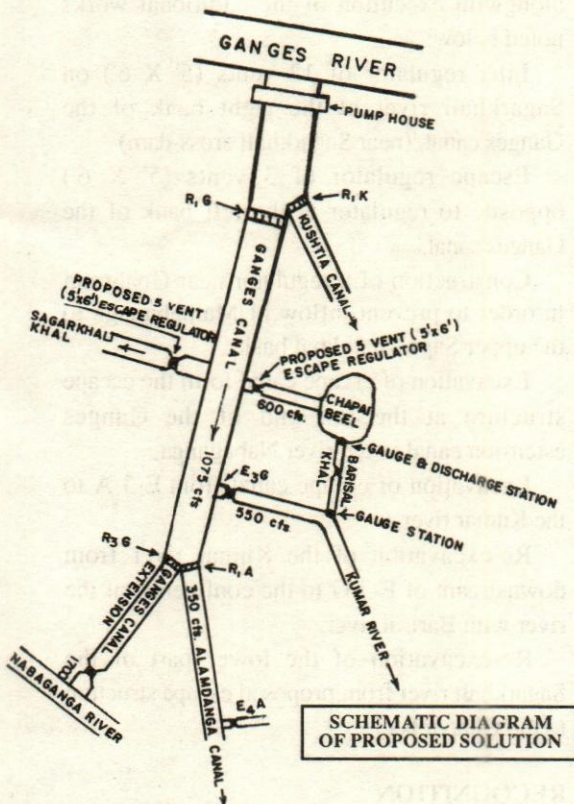


FIG - 5

Effect of the recommended proposal on Chapai beel and adjoining areas and comparison of the effect with the provision of syphone across Ganges canal instead of inlet structure.

Two water level gauges were installed on 9.8.88 one at the off-take of Barisal khal rear Chapai been and other at the confluence of Barisal khal and Kumar river with a view to check the effect of model test in Chapai been and adjoining areas. After passing 550 cfs of water through E3G regulator during model test no rise of water level was observed on Chapai beel. From the water level records of the above gauge and corresponding discharges, a rating curve has been developed for Barisal khal and from the rating curve and area elevation curve of G. K. Project area (Chapai been and adjoining areas) it is found that about 400 acres of additional land may be submersed if 600 cfs of water is allowed to pass through escape into Chapai beel. Whereas about 2000 acres of additional land will be submersed if a syphone is constructed across Ganges canal instead of inlet structure and 1675 cfs of water is passed through the syphone into the Chapai beel. Moreover in average years it is expected that the Ganges canal will be capable enough to take care of the flood flow of Sagarkhali basin and the proposed escape at Amla might not be required to operate. On the other hand, if a syphone is provided, every year some additional area in and around Chapai beel will be subjected to flooding. Besides, construction of syphone will cause suspension of irrigation in the Ganges canal system at least for two years or diversion canal should be needed at the cost of huge lands and additional expenditure. Priority of providing a syphone of 600 cfs instead of the proposed escape of same capacity was also examined. Results of routing with or without syphone is indecate that Provision of syphone of 600 cfs capacity instead of escape of same discharge reduce the ultimate storage level in the basin by 0.25 ft.

On the other hand dewatering expenditure, land requirement for diversion or suspensions of irrigation in Ganges canal system during construction is cost prohibative.

Moreover, syphone will always encourage drainage in the project area in all floods to incurs regular damage of additional land in Chapai beel area, of G. K. project area.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Until decision can be taken to construct off-take regulator on the river Mathabhnaga to ensure all time effective drainage of the upper Sagarkhali basin through D5M, it will be justified to utilize Ganges canal system and other drainage system of the project area occasionally to drain out the excess water of the basin in case of need. To ensure this following structures may be constructed alongwith execution of the additional works noted below:

Inlet regulator of 12 vents (5' X 6') on Sagarkhali river at the right bank of the Ganges canal. (near Sagarkhali cross-dam)

Escape regulator of 3 vents (5' X 6') opposite to regulator at the left bank of the Ganges canal.

Construction of a regulator near Goalgram in order to prevent inflow of Mathabgnaga to the upper Sagarkhali khal basin.

Excavation of escape canal form the escape structure at the tail end of the Ganges estension canal to the river Nabaganga.

Excavation of escape canal from E-3 A to the Kumar river.

Re-excavation of the Kumar river from downstream of E-3 G to the confluence of the river with Barisal river.

Re-excavation of the lower part of the Sagarkhali river from proposed escape structure to the Chapai beel.

RECOGNITION

This presentation is the abstract of the main report of hte eight membered committee of

WDB, The Author recognizes the contribution of the committee in presenting this case study report.

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PHYSICAL MODELLING ON RIVER CHANNEL EROSION WITH CASE STUDIES

BY

MD. TOZAMMEL HOSSAIN*

ABSTRACT :

Bangladesh is a riverine country having most complex river system of the world. Great social problems are caused every year by bank erosion on three major rivers the Brahmaputra-jamuna, the Ganges, the Meghna and their tributaries and distributerries. Different river channel characteristics were discussed along with the cause of bank erosion with special emphasis on braided river. Physical modelling technique as used for solving the above river bank erosion were described briefly. Also reviewed the following problems, solutions obtained by physical modelling and its implementations :

Protection of Shumvuganj on old Brahmaputra River ;

Protection of Kustia and Kumarkhali Towns on Gorai River ;

Erosion of Sovapur Bridge on Feni River ;

Protection of Sirajgoni Town on Jamuna River ;

Protection of Rajshahi Town on the Ganges.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of the paper is to present the main features of the Bangladesh river channel characteristics and the applied results of studies on hydraulics physical models in connection with engineering solutions for bank protection against erosion and local river training. Therefore 1st part summarises relevant existing data and 2nd part reviews some case studies.

TYPES OF CHANNEL AND EROSION IN PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF BANGLADESH & THEIR STUDY ON PHYSICAL HYDRAULIC MODELS.

The river network.

The main rivers of Bangladesh are Brahmaputra-jamuna, the Ganges and Meghna. Jamuna River is a part of the Brahmaputra River, one of the largest of the world, flowing from the Himalyas in Tibet through Assam. Before crossing the border between India and Bangladesh, Brahmaputra collects it's Dharla River tributary and after the border another one, Teesta River. At the same place it changes own geographical name, being known as the Jamuna until its confluence with the Ganges near Aricha. After the confluence, the river is known as Padma, and after joining the Meghna River near Chandpur it flows into the Bay of Bengal.

The Brahmaputra-Jamuna-Padma River and the Ganges carry together at flood peak about 85% of the total river discharge of the country. The average flood curves of the two rivers reach quite high peak discharges, but at different times as shown in Table 1 and the grain size of bed materials at different locations of Brahmaputra, Ganges and other Rivers have been shown in Table 2 The 10 years return period flow in the Jamuna is estimated 76, 400m³/s at Bahadurabad, based on flows recorded between 1950 and 1970. A flow of 92.300 m³/s was recorded there in 1974. By comparison, the maximum flow recorded in the

*Director (Research) River Hydraulics Dte.
River Research Institution, Faridpur.

Table-1
CONCOMITANT DISCHARGES ON JAMUNA AND GANGES RIVERS

RIVER	Q	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	J	F	M
JAMUNA AT BAHADURABAD	MONTHLY MEAN DISCHARGES FROM MEAN HYDROGRAPHS	6100	11200	27500	42700	44100	38700	28700	46200	8400	5800	4500	4500
GANGES AT HARDINGE BRIDGE		4800	4800	3100	44700	28500	37500	226500	42300	5600	3000	2400	2000
RIVER	Q	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	J	F	M
JAMUNA AT BAHADURABAD	MEAN MONTHLY DISCHARGES 1980/81	9070	47500	28700	38200	48700	33300	23000	10700	6700	6860	4500	5340
GANGES AT HARDINGE BRIDGE		843	1220	3290	25300	48000	44500	14500	5110	2730	1640	1330	994
RIVER	Q	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	M	D	J	F	M
JAMUNA AT BAHADURABAD	MAXIMUM MONTHLY DISCHARGES 1980/81	18500	21700	44100	50200	61200	33800	38500	15500	8350	5350	4700	6540
GANGES AT HARDINGE BRIDGE		959	1470	5350	43000	57800	57200	26700	7610	3510	2060	1500	1150

Table- 2
GRAIN SIZE OF BED MATERIALS IN mm.

River	Place	D ₆₅	D ₆₀	D _{Mean}	U.C.
Brahmaputra-Jamuna	Chilmari	0.266	0.249	0.261	1.9
	Bahadurabad	0.270	0.259		1.8
	Sirajgonj	0.171	0.149	0.172	1.9
	Ballabbari	0.165	0.161	0.162	2.0
	Nakfater Char	0.186	0.174	0.176	1.8
	Nagarbari	0.181	0.172	0.176	2.0
Ganges	Hardinge Br.	0.181	0.163		4.6
	Kalikapur	0.134	0.126	0.131	2.1
	Gorai	0.193	0.187		1.8
Ganges-	Baruria	0.164	0.153		2.6
	Goalundo	0.153	0.144		2.5
	Taraghat	0.139	0.129		1.8
	Bhagyakul	0.187	0.175		2.1
	Chandpur	0.180	0.129		1.9
Other river	Jagir	0.165	0.162		2.2

Ganges at Hardinge bridge was 73,000 m³/s in 1960.

Most of the difficult River Engineering problems are faced on Brahmaputra-Jamuna-Padma River, especially between Bahadurabad and Aricha, and on Meghna River. The Ganges Manifests nowadays a certain trend towards meandering and less randomly varying erosion, probably due to both a services of rather dry hydrological years and to flood discharge accumulation at Farakka dam plus discharge diversion.

Therefore, the comments on particular morphological and hydraulic river characteristics will be focused on Jamuna River.

Geographical morphological and hydraulic characteristics.

The Brahmaputra-Jamuna-Padma River is a very young river, especially in the Jamuna sector. Two hundred years ago, the main Brahmaputra River flowed east of Dhaka and entered the Bay of Bengal through a mouth separate from that of the Ganges, Maps based on surveys made between 1764 and 1779

clearly show it. Before 1787 Teesta River, which comes from Sikkim and drains part of the southern himalayas, joined the Ganges upstream of its existing confluence with Jamuna. In that year it switched its course to join the Brahmaputra, taking with its large quantities of coarse sediment. By 1810 the combined river started to divert its flow into the present course of the Jamuna. By 1830 it had become the main watercourse and the channel passing to the east of Dhaka has decayed. The reasons for the change are complex and not yet fully understood but apart from the fact that the rivers all carry vast amount of sediments the area is subject to earthquakes. It is likely there has been progressive uplift and tilting of land which has caused changes in the course of rivers.

Immediately to the north of the river Ganges and upstream of its junction with the Jamuna is a low-lying belt associated with the courses of the rivers Atrai. This belt contains quantities of clay that have probably inhabited northward migration of the Ganges. A region further north and to the west of the Jamuna is raised above the general level of the Gangetic plain between 3 and 10 m. The raised part,

known as the Barind Terrace, is similar geographically too, though much older than the area south of the river. The raised land consists of layers of silt with some clay overlaying and, at greater depths, gravel. Still further north, rivers draining the southern slopes of Himalayas bring down coarser sediments which form alluvial fans, the development of which has led to migration of river channels now feed the western side of the Jamuna.

It is interesting to examine the typical morphological trends of Jamuna River. It is known that three main types of flow pattern in river beds exists namely:

Straight streams, quite similar to straight canals;

Meandering streams, with more or less symmetrical loops or bends;

Braided streams, which consist of many intertwined channels (anabranches) separated by islands. Braided streams tend to be very wide and relatively shallow, with a random morphology of the bed. No formal statements about the geometry of braided streams are yet possible by difference of the first two types of flow.

For the main rivers of Bangladesh, the frequent case at relevant (high) discharges is just the braided type of flow.

Even for the most straight sector of Jamuna, before the junction with the Ganges, the river is close to the braiding flow pattern at high discharges and has large migratory shoals of sand known as Chars, which contribute to the development of braided channels in the wide river bed. At low discharges, some meandering in the individual channels becomes possible. More upstream on the river, the braiding becomes more manifest (Sirajgonj for example).

A special sector is the junction with the Ganges, with a trend to produce a secondary delta and at the same time it moves towards

upstream for reasons which are not yet very clear.

The banks of Jamuna River are easily erodable in most cases due to the nature of the soil. The constituent sediments of the river bed show quite similar characteristics (Uniformity coefficient).

The hydraulic characteristics of the Jamuna vary with the discharge and increase towards upstream. The manning co-efficient varies from low to high stages and from downstream to upstream. It is interesting to compare the values with those of alluvial channels with sand bed and no vegetation, at various of bed types of bed forms:

Lower regime	n
Ripples	0.017-0.028
Dunes	0.018-0.035
Washed-out dunes or transition	0.014-0.024

Upper regime	n
Plane bed	0.011-0.015
Standing waves	0.012-0.016
Anti dune	0.012-0.020

The comparison suggests the river in most situations a lower bed form regime up to transition. Indeed, a detailed analysis of the flow conditions at Bahadurabad shows that during rising discharges up to the flood peak, the transition and plane bed are attained several times.

For this reason the n values from field data should be carefully scrutinized.

Typical engineering problems. The technique of physical modelling used for solving local river channel and bank erosion/protection problem.

The typical engineering problems are bank erosion and changes in river bed configuration with influence on navigation and local crossing. The bank erosion is caused by the geotechnical nature of the noncohesive bank material. At high stages the moisturing of the

bank, accompanied by variations in water level, increased pore pressure and also local higher flow velocities produces bank sliding with serious implications for landing fronts and towns along the river. The braiding flow pattern, with random changes of channels and frequent modifications of the flow velocity incidence attacking the bank brings a very high factor of risk.

It is beyond the scope of the proceeding to analyse here the different approaches in physical modelling erosion. Sometimes, it is felt that a short review of the approach used in several studied cases where the prototype faced the conditions briefly mentioned above case studies could be useful.

The careful examination of every case history is much more important on braided river sectors, because of quick random changes from one year to the other one and from one season to the other one.

Therefore, for the study on hydraulic model of any bank protection of local river training works, two possibilities exist in principle :

A very large number of experiments on a mobile bed model which could (statistically) reproduce braiding flow pattern in the considered stretch.

A reasonable number of experiments on a fixed bed model (undistorted/distorted), covering dangerous relevant and extreme cases of morphological and flow incidence cases to which the bank/local training structures could become exposed. It is less expensive and probably safer to use the second approach for both general and sectional hydraulic models. It is advantageous to use fixed bed models made of granular material at its limit of equilibrium, which permits also to identify local scour trends. The most of the case studies of the present proceeding are based on such models.

The flow regime on the river model for calibrating and running it in relevant conditions is usually the steady flow one,

although river discharge is rateable in time according to the locally known hydrograph.

The engineer and the scientist must therefore decide what constant discharges are of relevance for carried out the study. In the literature, a frequently met notion is the dominant discharge, which has a meaning if the river model has a mobile bed. If the model is a fixed-bed one, the highest relevant discharge is usually the bank full discharge, which has a return period of about 1.4 to 1.5 years calculated from annual maximum floods.

The calibration of fixed-bed models is a specific one and differs from that practised with mobile-bed river models, because it mainly implies a checking of the global kinematic behaviour of the model at discharges equivalent to those at which the field data on prototype were collected. The main steps are the following ones:

Verification of the similarity of flow velocity distribution in the reference cross-section, with possible interventions for improving the similarity.

Verification of the similarity of reference flow pattern, if such information from the prototype exists (at given discharges).

A possible adjustment of model's roughness to improve both the similarity of flow velocity distribution and to get a similar longitudinal profile of the free-level surface.

To get model a correct reproduction at relevant discharges (flood peak, bank-full discharge etc.) of the bank exposure to stream velocity concentrations, for making sure that the model gives proper information on bank scouring "trends" in natural (non-modified, viz. without the presence of such structures like dikes, spurs ect.) conditions.

This checking will make it possible to have confidence that the model will give later reliable information also it modifies local conditions, viz. after using groynes, spurs or other changes on the model.

CASE STUDIES.

Some example of model studies are described below by which one may get the idea of different types of problems, the solutions obtained from the model studies and the implementations in the field with its consequences.

Erosion and protection of the left bank of the old Brahmaputra River opposit to Mymensingh Town.

Shamvuganj Jute Mill was threatened by the erosion of left bank of the river old Brahmaputra at opposite of Mymensingh Town. Hydraulic Model study was conducted in 1977 with Horizontal scale of 1:200 and vertical 1:48 with distortion 1:4:2. It was recommended for construction of one closure dam of 500 ft length with guide bank of 1600 ft and 2 Nos. of impermeable spurs of length 600 ft of which the closure with guide bank and one impermeable spur (600 ft) were constructed and the Shamvuganj Jute Mill was saved. But one spur is still to be constructed, the consequence of which is visible by bank erosion of the river u/s of the Mymensingh Rly. Bridge, which may be threatened ultimately.

Bank erosion and protection on Gorai River at Kustia Town.

Kustia Town was threatened by the right bank erosion of river Gorai. Model study was conducted with $H=1:200$ and $V=1:30$ and it was first recommended for construction of 2 Nos. of T-head groynes of size shank 500 ft and Head 400 ft. Out of the two, one T-head groynes (No. 2) was constructed in 1974, by which a big char was developed d/s of it but the problem of protection of Kustia Town deteriorated day by day. Again model study was performed in 1979 and 1985 and it was recommended for construction of 3 Nos. of T-head groynes in place of the two. The second T-head entirely been changed. The char u/s of

the groyne No. 1 and d/s of groyne No. 2 has completely been washed out during the last flood. Again model study is going to be conducted on the present condition of the river. If the execution of construction of two groynes was taken up at a time in 1978. the cost of additional groynes may be saved which are required for the changing condition of the river after passage of time.

Bank erosion and protection on Gorai River at Kumarkhali Town:

Kumarkhali Town was threatened on the left bank of river Gorai and two Nos of T-head groynes of shank length 850 ft. and Head 400 ft. and shank 600 ft and Head 350 ft. about 5000 ft apart were constructed in 1970 & 1972 respectively without any model study. Now, the thalweg of the river has been changed and the flow hits the bank directly at Kumarkhali by way of meandering pattern. Model investigation has been performed and one T-head groyne shank 500 ft. and Head 400 ft. and one Bell-mouth spur of 300 ft. length were recommended as a permanent solution.

Bank erosion and protection of Suvapur Bridge on Feni River

The Dhaka-Chittagong road crosses the river Feni through Suvapur Bridge. The bridge was initially 780 ft. long but in the year 1968 there was a high flood and the river bank was eroded heavily at right bank and out-flanked the bridge. The R & H department extended the bridge for about 448 ft. on the right bank of the river. In the year 1976 there was again a big flood and the right bank of the river was eroded heavily and threatened the bridge.

Model study was conducted with $H=1:100$ and $V=1:30$ and it was observed that four Nos. of T-head groynes of size head 200 ft. and shank length 100 ft. guide bank of 800 ft at both the banks and stone revetment would be necessary to protect the bridge from further

erosion. When the site of that bridge was selected, no model investigation was conducted and bank erosion was not considered, otherwise it may not be constructed in a river bend or if constructed necessary river training works were provided for its safety.

Bank protection of Sirajgonj Town on Jamuna River :

The right bank embankment of Brahmaputra River was constructed in 1967-68 keeping a distance of about half mile from non-eroding bank (firm bank) and about one mile from eroding bank. Since its construction, the right bank have seen continuing to shift towards the embankment in the process of bank erosion. As a result, within a few years of construction the embankment was attacked by erosion in several places e.g. Belka, Karaibari, Fulchari, Pakulla, Sariakandi, Kazipur, Sailabari, Sirajgonj, Someshpur, Enayetpur and Malipara. Retired embankment were constructed several times but the erosion advanced unabated. Sometimes closure of one channel at Fulchari and Kazipur, and revetment at some places were tried but without success. In 1985-86, model study was conducted to find out a permanent solution for the protection of Sirajgonj Town and it was recommended to construct a Hockey spur of 2800 ft. shank length with 250 ft. Hockey Head and two Nos. of 300 ft. and one No. of 250 ft. spur. Out of this 2700 ft. shank of Hockey spur has been constructed in 1985-86. As a result there is no erosion on the embankment adjacent to Sirajgonj Town. In this year the 250 ft. Hockey Head and the three Nos. of spur as recommended by model study should be constructed to make the protection permanent.

Protection of Rajshahi Town from the bank erosion of the Ganges :

Rajshahi Town is situated on the left bank of the river Ganges at about 40 miles u/s of Hardinge Bridge. During British Indian flood used to cause damages to the Rajshahi Town

and it was protected by Earthen Embankment for a length of about 10.5 miles covered with brick mattressing. The main channel of Ganges at Rajshahi are constantly migrating channel swings around often tangentially and changes its course depending on the formation of shoals at the upstream. The unprecedented long duration of peak flood of 1970 damaged considerable portion of the existing mattressing and the following emergency works were doing against erosion without model study.

Construction of a T-head groyne No. 1 in front of General Post Office having 400 ft. earthen shank 165 ft. Head protected up to the toe with stone/Boulders.

A spur with brick cases projecting 90 ft deep into the river near the Dargah.

Strengthening and reconstructing Kajla Embankment.

Constructing short spurs at the strategic points at Kajla and Talaimari for deflecting the hitting current.

Later on, erosion started upstream of Post Office. Different alternative proposals for the protection of Rajshahi Town were thought and Design Directorate, BWDB suggested to construct a heavy armoured T-head groynes at 12,500 ft. u/s. of the groyne No. 1 with 4300 ft. long shank and 2500 ft. head with protection up to the apron by hard materials. The proposal was studied in RRI in 1979 in a physical model of scale $H=1:300$ and $V=1:72$ and followings were the recommendations as a permanent and economic solution.

To construct three Nos. of Bell-mouth spur of 500 ft. length each at 12,500 ft., 8000 ft. and 5000 ft, and one Bell-mouth spur of 250 ft. length at 2700 ft. from the groyne No.1. During 1979-80, the above works were completed except the construction of spur No. 4 which could not be constructed for the constraint of fund. Now, there is no immediate

problem of bank protection but ultimately the erosion problem may be developed between the bank of 12,500 ft. to 5000 ft.

CONCLUSIONS :

Applied hydraulic research of design solutions concerning local river training and bank protection works is nowadays a recognized necessity in River Engineering and successful solutions are based on good collaboration between designers and researchers. This is even more true for braiding rivers like Brahmaputra-Jamuna-Padma and Ganges.

Since the cost of river training and bank protection works are high/very high, applied hydraulic model research enables both a higher functional efficiency of the investment and saving of funds by possible amendment of the solution;

The design of local river training and bank protection works is at present time quite much based on general empirical or semiempirical formulae/equations. It is essential to improve and prototype, in order to get efficient guide lines for such specific design adapted to Bangladesh conditions (rivers with braiding pattern, high liquid and solid discharges wind waves at flood time etc);

When the river bank is subject to erosion and intended to be taken as early as possible rather than to tackle the problem when erosion become serious.

It has been observed that required fund is not make available to make the protection work as per design, so work could not be completed as per design and so the measure taken could not be come out successful.

For protection works against erosion, the type of materials should be decided

considering its availability and cost of procurement.

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SILT EXCLUDER SYSTEM OF TEESTA BARRAGE

BY

A.K.M. NURUL ALAM*

ABSTRACT :

Laboratory experiments were conducted to investigate the hydraulic performance of silt excluder tunnel system of Teesta Barrage having reference to the discharge in the head regulator Canal and for the exclusion of sand to the Canal. This paper presents a brief description about performance of keeping bed material out of the off-take channel, preventive measures of sediment control, advantages & disadvantages of silt excluder as well hydraulic model studies conducted in River Research Institute on silt excluder system of Teesta Barrage. The salient design features of excluder tunnel system of Teesta Barrage and some important excluder systems of this sub-continent are also devoted in this paper to the approach rather than to specific findings.

IMPORTANCE OF KEEPING BED MATERIAL OUT OF THE OFF-TAKING CHANNEL

Practically all the canals off-taking from the rivers at the foot of hills have a serious problem of sedimentation. The composition of bed material mainly depends upon the slope and stage of the river. Canals taking off from the rivers lower down in the alluvial stage draw sediment which is comparatively finer.

While designing an off-take from a river carrying sediment load, the control at entry of sand into the off-taking channel is extremely important and often decisive for the success or failure of a water conveyance project. Both

preventive and curative methods have been used for controlling the sand entering channel. In the former method, the relatively coarser sediment is excluded before the water enters the channel, while in the later the material is excluded/ejected after it has entered it. Before this aspect of silt exclusion is discussed, it may be essential to give a brief idea of the sediment transport phenomena. This occurs in two ways, in suspension and as bed load. The relatively coarse material to be excluded is mainly confined to about one-third the depth above the bed. The finer particles of sand & clay are more or less uniformly distributed throughout the vertical. Fundamentally this occurs because of the tractive force, $\tau_0 = \gamma ds$. Shield has given a formula for bed load movement of material having different density:

$$\frac{q_s(\rho_s - 1)}{q \cdot S} = \frac{10(\tau_0 - \tau_c)}{\gamma(\rho_s - 1)D_{50}}$$

where

q_s = bed load per unit time per unit width

q = intensity of discharge per unit width

f_s = sp. gravity of bed material

P_s = slope of energy line

τ_0 = bed shear stress

τ_c = critical shear stress for bed material

D_{50} = particle size

Variation in the suspended load concentration along the depth is given by Rouse,

*Director (Research), Estuarine & Coastal Hydraulics Dte. River Research Institute, Faridpur.

$$\frac{C_y}{C_a} = \left[\frac{d - Y}{Y} \cdot \frac{a}{d - a} \right] \omega / \beta K u_*$$

where

C_y = sediment conc. at any elevation 'y' in the vertical above bed.

C_a = reference conc. at a known height 'a' above bed

d = total depth of flow

w = particle fall velocity

u_* = shear velocity

k = Von-Karman's constant

β = ratio of sediment diffusion coeff. to momentum coeff.

For a still pond condition, the rate of silting should be much more than the rate of lifting and diffusion by turbulence. According to regime theory, the velocity in a channel for a given silt charge and channel dimension can be calculated by the following equation of Lacey,

$$v = 0.552 \times 1.15 \times f^{1/2} R^{1/2}$$

where

v = velocity in m/sec.

R = hyd. depth in meter

f = Lacey's silt factor = $1.76\sqrt{D_{50}}$

where

D_{50} = mean dia. in mm.

So, whenever the velocity is reduced below the regime velocity, sediment charge would start settling and to reduce bed movement. These principles are used in the "still pond" system where the water is drawn from the top layers.

PREVENTIVE METHODS OF SEDIMENT CONTROL:

Proper location of an off-take : Prevention of excess load getting into the canal is achieved either through utilization of existing favourable curvature or by imposing suitable curvature such that off-take of a canal lies on the concave curve where comparatively sediment free water is available.

Sill level of an off-take : If sill levels of head regulators are kept higher than those of the

barrage (under sluice), they would help to arrest an excess draw off sand into canal. Field experience and model tests have shown the limitation of this device. Raised sills results in a greater width of the head regulator and longer divide wall, both of which make the design less economical.

Length of divide walls and width of Pocket for effective sediment control :- A divide wall of optimum length plays an effective role in controlling the entry of sediment in the canal, efficient functioning of barrage.

A divide wall in conjunction with favorable curvature of flow are found to be successful in checking the sediment entry into the canals and suitable ratio of V_R/V_p more than 1 can be obtained (V_R = velocity of flow on river side and V_p = velocity in pocket). This factor helps in better flushing of the shoal deposited in under-sluice pocket. The design of the nose of the divide wall also influences the sand exclusion to some extent. A compromise is to give the nose a flat slope on the pocket side and steep slope on the riverside. the deep scour hole on the river side will materially improve sand exclusion.

Barrage regulation : Two methods of operating the canals taking off upstream of a barrage are in practice :

(i) The "Still pond" operation in which all the gates in the pocket are closed and the discharge drawn into the pocket is limited to the canal withdrawals.

(ii) The "Semi-open flow" operation in which the pocket gates kept partially open.

So far as the exclusion of sand is considered, the "still pond" operation is decidedly more advantageous.

Guidebanks : The alignment of the guide bank upstream directs the flow pattern and helps to control the sediment from entering the canals. The exact shape is governed by the river approach upstream of the head works. Various types used are :

(i) Parallel guide banks,

- (ii) Converging guide banks,
- (iii) Diverging guide banks,
- (iv) Bottle neck guide banks,
- (v) Concave banks, and
- (vi) Concave-convex banks,

The overriding consideration in fixing the alignment of the guide banks is to make the best use of the river energy to develop favourable conditions such as deep channel along the guide bank and a proper curvature of flow.

Cantilever and skimmer platforms : The construction of cantilever and skimmer platforms in front of the head regulator in the canal pocket is one of measure used for preventing sediment from entering the canal.

Splay to the Head Regulator : Splay to the head regulator gives an upstream orientation to the canal, enabling the water to flow smoothly into the canal. Generally a splay of 10^0 to 12^0 induces a suitable curvature of flow in the pocket.

Sediment Excluder Tunnels : In spite of a good location of a head regulator, a large quantity of coarser material may still find its way into the pocket. In these circumstances excluding or ejecting devices have to be employed. In 1932, F. V. Elsdon propounded the idea of tunnel type silt excluder to prevent the sediment entering the canal. The basic principle is to exclude bottom layers of heavily silt laden water through the tunnel and diverting comparatively less silted water into the canal. The idea took a practical shape in 1934 when H. W. Nicholas constructed an excluder in the pocket of lower Chenab canal at Khanki Headworks. Later on reviewing the success of this excluder, it was observed that the side openings provided are unnecessary and closure of these further improved the efficiency. Since then a number of excluders have been constructed in Pakistan and India. With the success of these excluders, it has now become an integral part of the headworks. Salient

design features of some important sediment excluders are given in Table- 1.

Description and design of a silt excluder :

A silt excluder consists of a no. of tunnels generally rectangular in cross section and have a bell mouth entry running parallel to the axis of the head regulator and terminating near the undersluices. The lengths of the tunnels are different but the head loss in each tunnel is kept same by suitably changing the cross sections of the tunnels. The tunnel nearest to the crest of the head regulator has to be of the same length as the head or regulator or longer. Other tunnels may be shorter in length. The height of the excluder tunnels is generally kept equal to the difference between the crest level of the canal head regulator and the upstream floor level of the undersluice bays minus the thickness of the top slab. The bottom layer of water which is highly charged with silt and sediment will pass down the tunnels and escaped through the undersluices. The clearer water over the top of the roof of the excluder tunnels, enters the canal through the head regulator. The excluder tunnels covering only that much of the width of the approach channel which is carrying discharge almost equivalent to canal discharge should be provided.

Design of tunnels : A theoretical design of silt excluder is confined mainly to find out the area of the tunnel openings required to pass the designed discharge and to determine its structural requirements. On the basis of past experience and model studies, the design of an excluder system is finalised. Lahore Irrigation Research Institute and other similar Institutes in India carried out extensive research in the design of excluders. Based on their research findings, it has been found that if the excluder discharge is restricted to 20 to 30% of the canal discharge, satisfactory silt exclusion can be obtained. A minimum velocity of 2 to 4.5 m/sec. may be maintained through the tunnels in order to keep them free from sediment. After fixing the discharge and velocity, the cross-

sectional area of the excluder tunnel openings, can be obtained. Knowing the height, the required width can be found and divided into a suitable number of bays.

Approach & exit : At the entrance, the tunnels are generally given a bell mouthed shape so as to increase the zone of suction. At the exit end, the tunnels are throttled for restricting the discharge to the desired value and to increase the velocity to prevent deposition of silt.

Losses in channels : The following head losses may be taken into account for calculating the tunnel sections :-

(i) Frictional loss, (ii) Loss due to bend, (iii) Transitional loss due to change of velocity in contraction and (iv) Transitional loss due to change of velocity in expansion.

The river approach condition, river regulation, sediment characteristics, alignment of head regulator, position of divide wall and staggering of excluder tunnels play a vital role in improving the efficiency of a particular excluder. Efficiency of such structure expressed as

$$\eta = \frac{I_r - I_c}{I_r} \times 100$$

Where

I_1 = sediment conc. in the river pocket
and

I_c = sediment conc. in the canal.

For model studies, the formula in the following form may be used :

$$\eta = V_{ex} - V_c \times \frac{Q_{ex}}{Q_c} / V_{ex} - V_c$$

Where

V_{ex} = Quantity of sediment excluded

V_c = Quantity of sediment in canal

Q_{ex} = Discharge through the excluder

Q_c = Discharge in the canal.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF EXCLUDER

Advantages :

(i) The head across the barrage for operation is usually available.

(ii) Economy is secured by the use of barrage gates and

(iii) Large orifices, unlikely to be choked by rolling or submerged debris, can be provided easily.

Disadvantages :

(i) The difficulty of securing good approach conditions :

(ii) The undersluice bays covered by the excluders cannot be used simultaneously for the passage of flood discharge, and

(iii) The structure being subject to the river action has to be robust.

HYDRAULIC MODEL STUDIES IN RRI ON SILT EXCLUDER SYSTEM OF TEESTA BARRAGE PROJECT

The Teesta Barrage at Dalia now under construction, is located on the left bank of main course of river Teesta (Doani channel) at 6700 ft. from right bank starting pillar of C. S. No. 7. M/S. Binnie & Partners, Consulting Engineers, London prepared the hydraulic design of Teesta Barrage in the year 1969-70. It was then decided that RRI will conduct the model studies of Teesta Barrage Project based upon design as prepared by the consul. Engineers. According to this, a distorted three-dimensional model study on silt excluder tunnel system was first taken up in 1980. M/S. Binnie & Partners suggested silt, exclusion through 18 tunnels cover 6 out of total 8 bays of the undersluices together with an alternative proposal of silt exclusion through sluice/escape channel which prove unfavourable and so avoided. Tests on sediment excluder system were completed as per original plan of M/S. Binnie & partners. Plan was then modified further and study was conducted with silt excluder tunnels cover 3 out of total 7 bays of the undersluices. Axis of canal head regulator modified to 112^0 and the upstream approach right guidebank in front of canal head regulator to 106^0 in relation to the axis of barrage.

Table - 1.
Salient design features of some important sediment excluders.

Excluder for	Year of construction	Stage of river	Type of Excluder	Width of excluder	Canal discharge m ³ /sec.	Discharge through excluder (m ³ /sec)	Number of tunnels	Stagging of tunnel inlets (m)	Tunnel Dimension At inlet (mxm)	Shape at exit (mxm)	Avail- of intake	Efficiency head in (m)	Length of Model per centage	Proto- type per centage	regulator covered by exclu- der.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Western Jamuna Canal at Tajewala	1942-43	Boulder sand and gravel	khanki	6.1	255.00	22.7	2	33.9	1.83x1.83	...	Con- verging	...	98.0	98	2/3rd
Thal Canal at Kalabagh Headworks	1944	Ditto	Modified khanki	56.5	6	...	2.10x4.0	Full
Remodelled Sedi- ment Excluder at Western Jamuna Canal at Tajewala	1945	Ditto	Khanki	13.7	5	16.95	95.0	93.98	5/6th
Nargal Hydel Channel at Nargal	1954	Ditto	Khanki	...	339.8	421.93	6	80.100	Full
Lower Chenab Canal at Kharki	1933-34	Alluvial	khanki	17.07	340.0	113.0	6	17.70	2.13x3.05	1.52x3.05	Con- verging	3.5	65.0	60.70	Full
Haveli Main Line Canal at Emerson Barrage	1937	Ditto	Emerson	42.98	141.6	24.0	4	in one line	9.75x2.44	9.75x2.44	Straight	4.0	70.0	72	Full
Rajasthan Canal at Harke	1952-53	Ditto	khanki	40.8	509.7	141.6	12	10.96	3.38x1.98 to 1.79x1.98	2.48x1.98	70.0	...	Full
Sediment Excluder in the left pocket at Tilpara Barrage (West Bengal)	1949-50	Ditto	khanki	38.7	2x4	...	4.15x2.18	4.15x1.88	Straight	Full
Lower Ganga Canal at Narora	1967	Ditto	khanki	15.24	241.0	56.6	2x4	6	2.74x1.43 to 1.77x1.43	2.08x1.43	Con- verging	0.50	72.2	50.87	Full
Lower Sarda Canal at Barda Barrage	1974	Ditto	C.W.P.C	39.88	780.0	170.0	14	at a slope of 1:1	2.5x1.9 to 2.26x1.9	2.0x1.00	Straight	0.70	50.0	...	Full
Sediment Excluder in right pocket at Teesta Barrage (Bangladesh)	under construction	Ditto	khanki	40.24	284	200.8	12	...	3.05x2.29 to 2.13x2.29	3.05x1.68	Straight	0.90	77.0	...	Full

Table - 2
Showing total river discharge, canal discharge, water levels, dynamical head diff & amount of silt deposition for different discharges.

Discharge in cfs. (Proto) River	Gauge in ft. P.W.D. Datum at D.S. in River	Piezometer readings (Height) in ft.												Amount of Silt deposition (in lbs.)		\$ of Silt entry in canal.	
		1st Tunnel			3rd Tunnel			5th Tunnel			D/S of canal tunnels			In	D/S of tunnels Sluice		
		U. S.	D. S.	Diff. (M)	Diff. (P)	U. S.	D. S.	Diff. (M)	Diff. (P)	U. S.	D. S.	Diff. (M)	Diff. (P)				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
20.000	164.34	.540	.476	.064	3.07	.627	.557	.070	3.36	.431	.368	.063	3.02	1.88	4.00	-	32 %
30.000	164.90	.466	.410	.056	2.69	.493	.429	.064	3.07	.431	.383	.048	2.30	2.00	2.60	1.70	31.8 %
40.000	165.40	.474	.422	.052	2.50	.444	.384	.060	2.88	.515	.470	.045	2.16	4.50	8.00	2.37	30.26 %
50.000	165.76	.665	.614	.041	1.97	.482	.426	.056	2.69	.453	.409	.044	2.11	7.0	14.87	4.35	26.69 %
60.000	166.10	.539	.504	.034	1.68	.516	.463	.053	2.54	.494	.462	.032	1.54	10.12	15.0	6.50	32 %
70.000	166.40	.514	.484	.030	1.44	.481	.531	.050	2.40	.502	.471	.031	1.49	14.25	27.13	10.44	27.5 %
80.000	166.70	.521	.499	.022	1.06	.503	.458	.045	2.16	.476	.449	.027	1.30	22.0	64.5	12.30	22 %

In all cases canal discharge 10,000 cfs. (p)

In all cases upstream W.S. elevation in River 170. R. L.

In all cases canal W. S. elevation 168.0 R. L.

P = Prototype
M = Model

Table - 3
Showing the Gauge and Tunnel velocities for different discharges

Discharge in cfs. (p)	Gauge in ft. P.W.D Datum at	Head Diff. in ft.	Velocity in different tunnels (ft./sec.)														
			No. 1	No. 2	No. 3	No. 4	No. 5	No. 6	No. 7	No. 8	No. 9	No. 10	No. 11	No. 12	No. 13	No. 14	No. 15
River	D.S. in River																
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15			
20,000	164.35	5.65	9.55	10.96	11.89	13.21	13.26	13.32	15.52	15.98	13.15	12.66	12.57	15.83			
	165.0	5.0	8.78	9.43	10.10	11.26	12.73	12.21	14.29	14.61	12.78	11.94	12.00	15.83			
	166.0	4.0	7.26	8.50	8.28	9.47	10.52	10.65	10.65	12.47	10.20	9.72	10.77	13.26			
	167.0	3.0	6.99	7.78	8.43	8.64	9.05	9.08	10.49	9.32	8.89	8.77	8.89	8.77			
	168.0	2.0	5.07	5.68	6.99	6.80	7.86	7.76	8.31	7.03	6.68	6.92	8.14				
	168.20	1.80	5.40	5.36	5.71	6.19	5.94	6.23	6.87	7.20	6.43	5.88	6.18	7.31			
40,000	165.40	4.60	8.60	10.65	11.50	12.2	12.45	12.70	13.36	13.20	12.00	11.90	12.21	13.40			
	166.0	4.0	7.86	9.15	10.31	10.49	10.79	11.96	12.78	12.78	10.93	10.71	10.77	12.39			
	167.0	3.0	7.02	8.24	8.43	9.09	8.43	9.09	9.30	10.22	9.29	8.70	9.08	10.55			
	168.70	1.30	5.02	4.86	4.95	5.67	5.84	6.37	6.46	6.91	5.97	5.42	5.71	6.70			
60,000	166.10	3.90	9.22	9.43	10.03	10.57	11.68	11.38	13.41	12.94	11.63	10.58	11.78	12.39			
	167.0	3.0	8.13	8.10	8.78	8.80	9.57	10.10	10.75	10.99	9.86	9.60	9.92	9.50			
	168.0	2.0	6.51	6.17	6.95	7.01	6.99	7.10	8.29	8.18	7.56	7.53	7.93	8.14			
	169.20	0.80	4.47	4.16	4.48	5.03	5.30	5.63	6.00	6.01	5.67	5.06	5.89	6.47			
80,000	166.70	3.30	7.20	7.27	7.37	7.34	7.53	8.81	8.29	9.13	7.82	7.96	7.96	9.19			
	168.0	2.0	5.47	5.56	5.34	5.77	5.92	6.47	6.50	6.91	6.13	5.68	7.04	7.40			
	169.0	1.0	4.25	4.31	4.40	4.87	4.63	5.16	5.60	5.84	4.80	5.46	5.75	6.13			
	169.60	0.40	4.66	4.20	4.75	5.32	5.37	6.07	6.74	6.72	5.85	5.72	6.67	7.12			

In all cases canal discharge 10,000 cfs. (p)
In all cases unstream W.S. elevation in River 170.0' R.L.
In all cases canal W.S. elevation 168.0' R.L.

P = Prototype

In order to verify the result of the above study, an undistorted 3-dimensional model study was conducted with excluder tunnels system as supplied by the Design Directorate of Teesta Head works. The salient test results are presented in Table- 2 & Table- 3. The physical features of excluder tunnel system of Teesta Barrage are also given in Table- 1.

CONCLUSION :

It is concluded that the hydraulic performance of sediment excluder tunnels system for Teesta Barrage will work satisfactorily and will satisfy the design

consideration. There would be little chance of clogging of tunnels.

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APPLICATION OF MIKE 11 IN DRAINAGE SLUICE DESIGN

BY

RANAJIT KUMAR DAS*

ABSTRACT :

A large number of drainage-Sluices/regulators are being constructed on river embankments in different parts of Bangladesh. The performance of these structures as well as the design of a proposed structure can be successfully studied applying MIKE 11 mathematical modelling system. In the present study an attempt was made to find the most economical and effective design of a drainage sluice in the tidal zone with respect to drainage capacity and stilling basin velocity applying MIKE. 11. However, the study should be treated as a preliminary study as the model setup was hypothetical.

MIKE 11 : A Short Description

MIKE 11 is a one dimensional, one-layer mathematical modelling system developed at the Danish Hydraulic Institute (DHI) and the Water Quality Institute, Denmark for the simulation of flows, sediment transport and water quality in rivers, estuaries, irrigation systems and similar water bodies. It offers a unique and friendly tool for design, management and operation of river basins and channel net works. MIKE 11 simulates unsteady one dimensional flows, transports and bio-chemical reactions in one layer (Vertically homogeneous) fluids. It has a wide range of applications, such as :

- Design of channel systems
- Studies of tides and storm surges in rivers and estuaries
- Design and operation of irrigation and surface drainage systems
- Simulation of flood control measures

- Flood forecasting
- Sedimentation Studies
- Study of salt-intrusion in estuaries

Object of the present study :

In the present study, MIKE 11 mathematical modelling system was applied to find the most economical and appropriate design of a drainage sluice-which is usually built into the embankment of a river for the purpose of draining excess rain water from a polder and at the same time to prevent saline water or flood-water from entering into the polder.

For the appropriate design of a drainage sluice, the following points were taken into consideration :

- Location of the drainage sluice
- Width and sill level
- Maximum and average daily precipitation into the polder (particularly in the rainy season)
- The area of the polder
- Hydraulic condition of down-stream
- Velocity on the stilling basin etc.

Location of the sluice should be such that the whole amount of water can be drained out into the nearest river or canal. The width and the sill level of the sluice should be such that it has the capacity of draining out a certain amount of water within a particular time. The amount of precipitation and area of the polder is needed to calculate the amount of water to be drained out. The hydraulic condition of down stream is important for the operation of the sluice (one way or two ways operation). Velocity on the stilling basin is necessary for the design of the stilling basin. MIKE 11 is

* Junior Research Officer, River Hydraulics Div.
River Research, Institute, Faridpur.

able to study all of these conditions. For this study, the required data were collected from CERP II project, Khulna.

The Model

The set-up of the model is shown in fig. 1. It consists of a river branch, a polder of area 11.0 sq. km. (Cultivable land) with hypothetical boundary, location of the drainage sluice and the river embankment.

FIG 1: The Model Set-up.

The polder was connected with the river through a branch. The sluice was situated at

the middle of the branch. A zero discharge boundary ($Q_c=0$) was selected for upstream boundaries, where as, a tidal variation of water level was set at its down-stream boundary (WT). The nature of the tide was as follows :

Time cycle	:	12 hours
Mean level	:	1.2 m
Amplitude	:	0.8 m
HTL	:	2.0 m
LTL	:	0.4 m

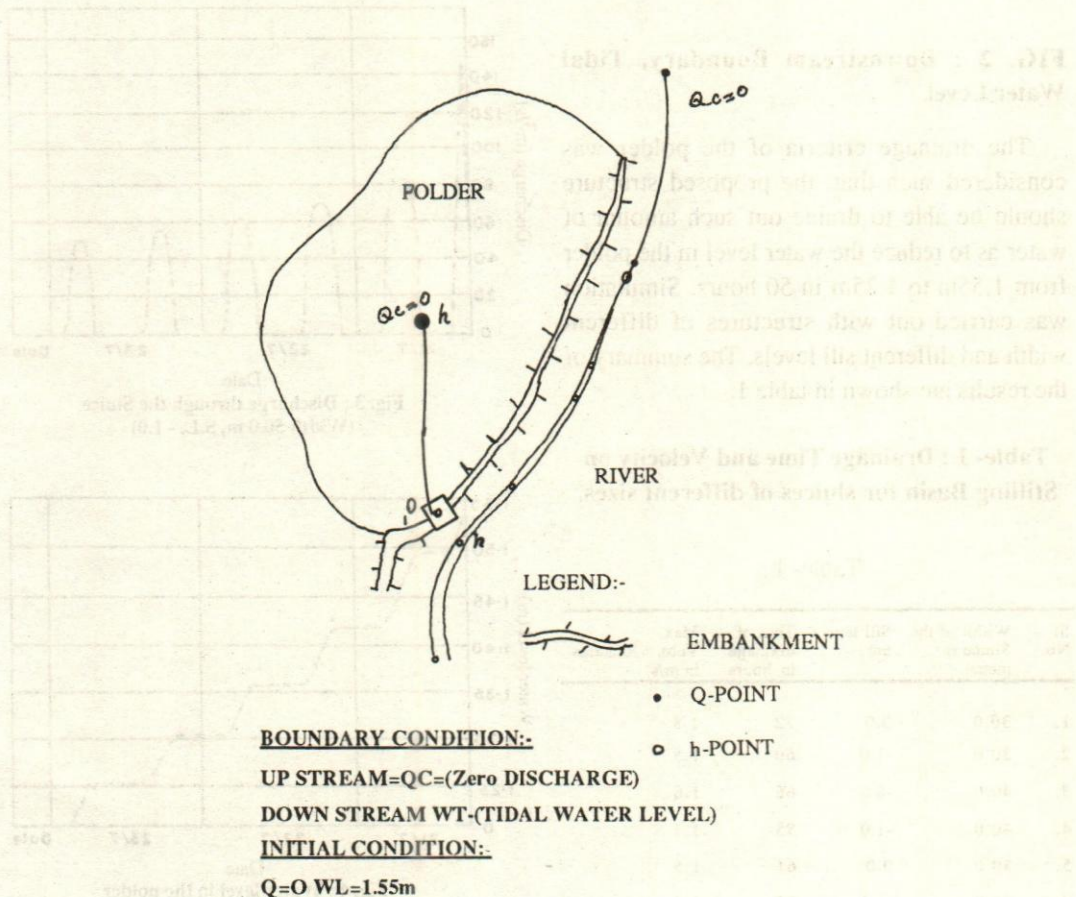


FIG. 1: The Model Set-up

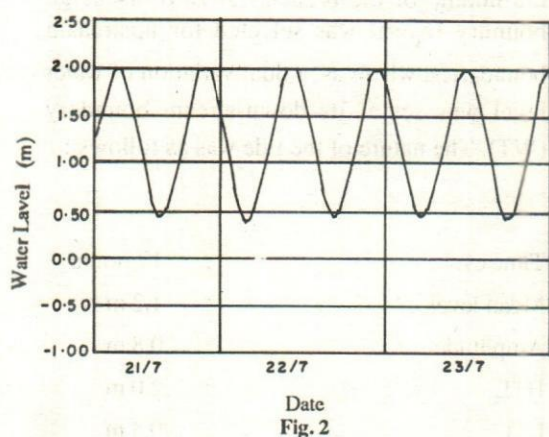


FIG. 2 : Downstream Boundary, Tidal Water Level.

The drainage criteria of the polder was considered such that, the proposed structure should be able to drain out such amount of water as to reduce the water level in the polder from 1.55m to 1.25m in 50 hours. Simulation was carried out with structures of different width and different sill levels. The summary of the results are shown in table 1.

Table- 1 : Drainage Time and Velocity on Stilling Basin for sluices of different sizes.

Table- 1

Sl. No.	Width of the Sluice in metre.	Sill level (m)	Time of drainage in hours	Max. Velo. in m/s	Remarks
1.	30.0	0.0	72	1.8	
2.	30.0	-1.0	60	1.5	
3.	40.0	-0.0	66	1.6	
4.	40.0	-1.0	55	1.4	
5.	50.0	0.0	61	1.5	
6.	50.0	-1.0	50	1.4	
7.	60.0	0.0	55	1.4	
8.	60.0	-1.0	50	1.3	
9.	70.0	-1.0	50	1.1	

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS.

A sluice of 50m width with sill level - 1.0 m was found to be optimum for the present purpose.

A wider sluice with the same sill level (say 60m or 70m wide) can not reduce the drainage time. The increase in width only can reduce the velocity at the mounth of structure.

However, it was found from another test that instead of one sluice of 60m width, two sluices of 30 m each at different locations can reduce the drainage time fairly. It indicates that the drainage capacity of the adjacent river is also an-important factor for the performance of the sluice.

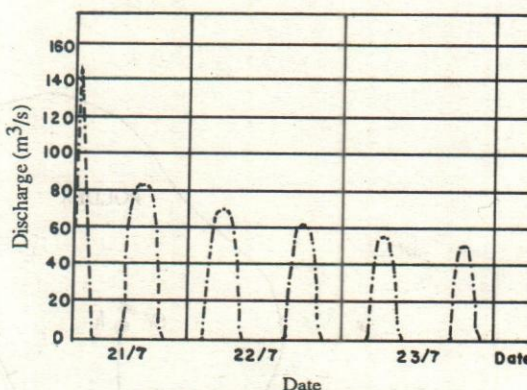


Fig. 3 : Discharge through the Sluice (Width 50.0 m, S.L. - 1.0)

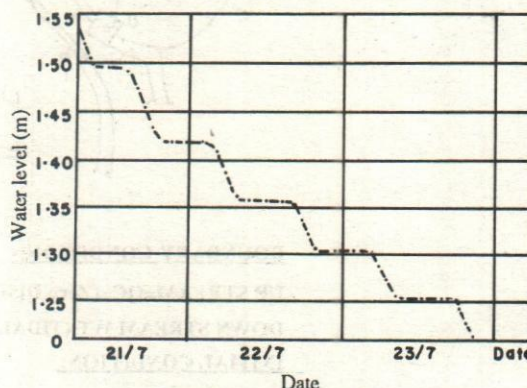


Fig. 4 : Water level in the polder

Fig. 3 shows the discharge through the sluice. The alternate zero discharges are due to

tidal variation of water level in the down stream of the sluice. When the tidal water level rises above the water level in the polder, then there will be no discharge through the sluice. In each tidal cycle, when the down stream water level falls upto the lowest Tide level (LTL), the discharge through the sluice is a maximum.

The fig. 4 indicates that drainage of water occurs only when the tidal water level in the downstream is less than that in the polder.

CONCLUSION

MIKE 11 mathematical modelling system can be applied successfully for the design of a drainage sluice / regulator, even in the tidal zone.

A sluice of 50.0 m width with sill level 1.0m PWD was found most effective for the present case study with respect to drainage time and stilling basin velocity.

The stilling basin velocity for the above case was found 1.4 m/s.

In stead of one sluice of a particular width, two sluices of half the width at two different locations can reduce the drainage time fairly. So the later is preferable.

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EVALUATION OF QUALITY CONTROL OF EARTH STRUCTURES IN BANGLADESH

BY

A. M. ZAHURAL ISLAM*, MD. ABDUL HAI**, MD. MUJIBUR RAHMAN***

ABSTRACT

Earth structures like embankments, dams, retaining walls, high ways, rail roads and airfields require man placed soil or fill. Failure of embankments and dams may lead to catastrophic damage to land and people. The main reasons of their failure are bank-erosion by flood water, percolation of water through embankment, seepage flow and sliding of soil mass.

To put an effective halt to such failures and to satisfy the increasing demand, the required compaction of placement soils is desirable to decrease future settlement, increase shear strength and decrease permeability. The desired compaction is attained in the field by means of suitable compacting devices. Qualitatively speaking, the density of soils beneath a structure should be as high as possible.

The bearing capacity of an embankment is a function of its in situ density and increases with the increasing relative density and decreases with the decreasing density. For this reason quality control is necessary during the construction phase of an embankment. The field engineer or an experienced soil technician can conduct the quality control tests namely, the determination of field moisture content and the density of the compacted soils to ensure proper compaction.

INTRODUCTION

The term quality control has become a familiar phrase in recent years and is equally applicable in different fields of industries, engineering and in other spheres. The application of statistical method to quality control for construction works is an old one and is a very vital tool in assessing the quality of the finished products. For this purpose some standard statistical procedures are used. For quality control of earth embankments emphasis is laid upon the following.

Selection of certain properties of the placed embankment.

Measurement of these properties of the placed embankment.

Analysis of the control test of these properties.

Practical limitation of these properties of the acceptable range compatible with design criteria.

In this paper an attempt has been made to evaluate the quality attained in some completed earth structures in Bangladesh.

LABORATORY TEST

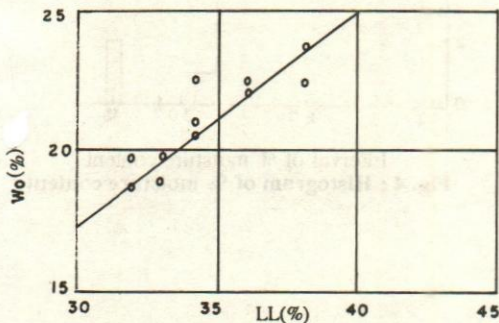
In order to determine the maximum dry density and the optimum moisture content of the materials of the embankment, standard or modified Proctor compaction tests were run on the soils under consideration but as these tests are laborious and time consuming, for minor structures these are usually estimated by using the correlations arrived at by simple Identification tests.. The requisite curves have

* Director, Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte, RRI, Faridpur.

** Senior Research Officer, Soil Mech. & Mat. Dte, RRI, Faridpur.

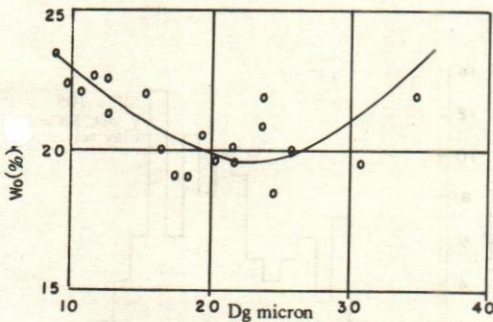
*** Senior Research Officer, Soil Mech. & Mat., Dte. RRI, Faridpur.

been shown in Figs. 1, 2, & 3. But for major works periodic checking of estimated values must be made with the laboratory compaction test results. The usual specification for field compaction is to attain certain percentage of the maximum dry density attainable by a compacting method like standard or modified Proctor compaction tests.



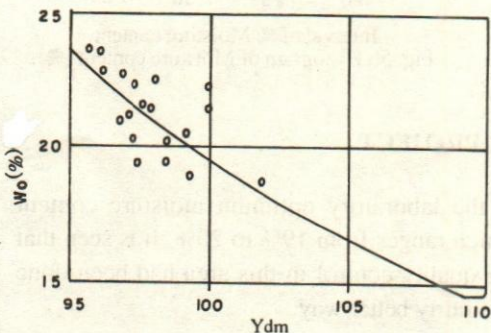
Optimum moisture content vs. liquid limit.

FIG - 1



Optimum moisture content vs. geometric diameter.

FIG - 2



Optimum moisture content vs. maximum dry density

FIG - 3

In this paper quality control histograms of some project works have been prepared and presented. From the study of quality control it appears that quality control done in the field was fairly good. The reason for deviation from the ideal compaction may be attributed to the fact that in nature there are innumerable number of soils occurring in the same place side by side and probably none of them has all the behaviours similar to these of others. It is also very difficult to keep the moisture in the field at the optimum moisture content as determined by standard or modified Proctor compaction test.

PRESENTATION OF HISTOGRAM

In this paper several histograms of percent compaction and moisture contents (Figs. 4, 5, 6, 7,) have been presented by carrying out site investigation in different areas of Bangladesh by the research personnel of RRI.

DISCUSSIONS

It appears from Fig. 4 that the percent compaction varies from 70% to 99% and in many areas it did not attain the generally desired values. It is also seen that there has been a wide range of moisture content from 9% to 43% despite the fact that the optimum moisture content in all the areas was 14.4%. It is, however, estimated that if the moisture content in the field would have been rigidly controlled, the better attainment in density could be achieved.

Fig. 5 shows that the percent compaction varies from 84% to 97% and in many areas compaction did not attain the generally desired values and it is also seen that the percent moisture content varies from 18% to 41% whereas percent optimum moisture content was 23.86%. It is desired that if the moisture contents in the field had been brought closer to the laboratory optimum moisture value, the yield would have been better and commendable.

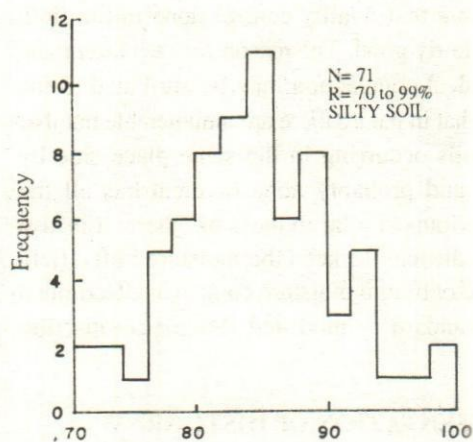


Fig. 4a : Histogram of % compaction
(Modified AASHO)

N= No. of compaction test
R= Range of % compaction

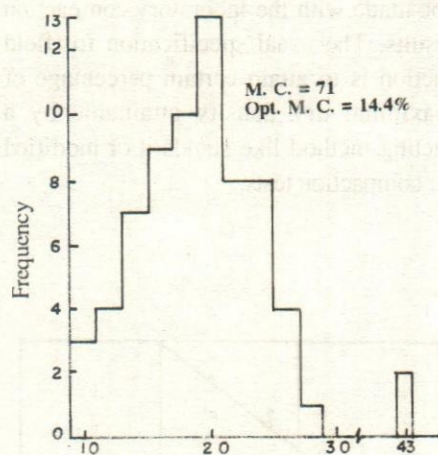


Fig. 4 : Histogram of % moisture content

KARNAFULI IRRIGATION PROJECT

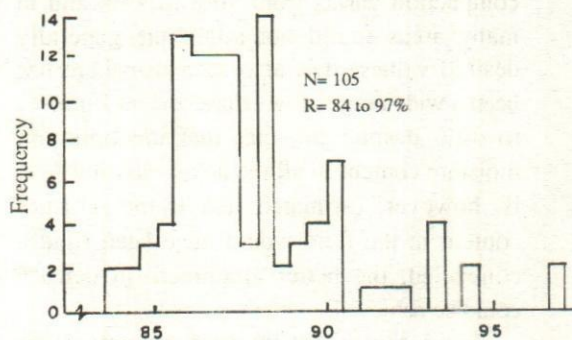


Fig. 5a : Histogram of % compaction
(Modified AASHO)

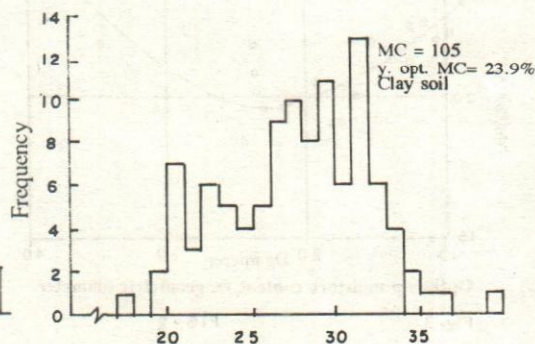
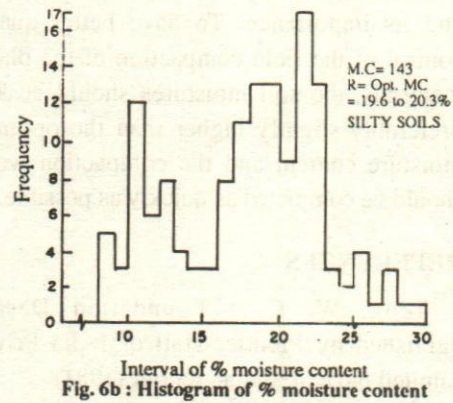
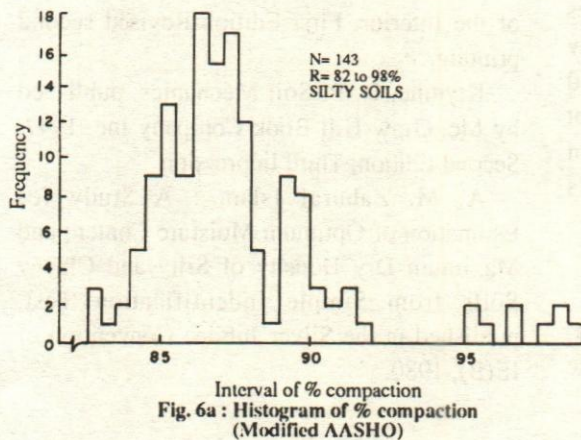


Fig. 5b Histogram of Moisture content (%)

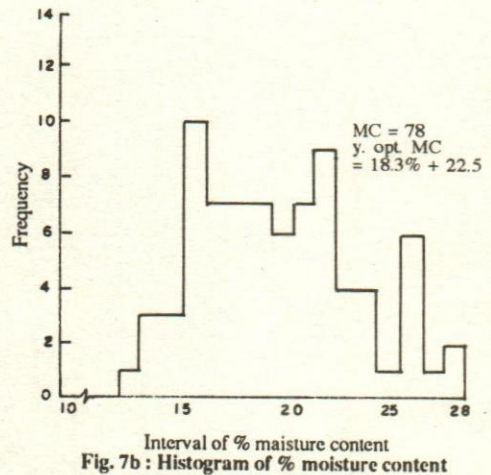
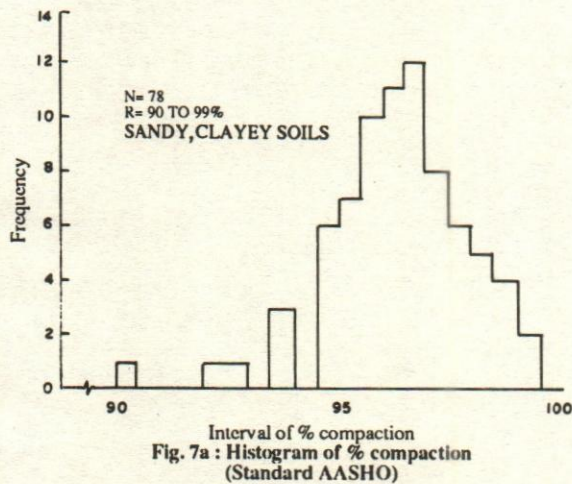
MONU RIVER PROJECT .

From Fig. 6 it appears that percent compaction varies from 82% to 98% and this range of values is very close to the desired attainment of density. It is also seen that the field moisture attainment is more or less nearer

to the laboratory optimum moisture content which ranges from 19% to 20%. It is seen that the quality control in this area had been done in a fairly better way.



MEGHNA DHDNAGODA PROJECT



MUHURI IRRIGATION PROJECT

It appears from Fig. 7 that the extent of variation of percent compaction is very small ranging from 90% to 99% and all these areas, so far the data are concerned, compacted to the range of maximum density as desired by the

standard AASHO. The range of moisture content seems to be much closer to the percent optimum moisture content which range from 18.26% to 22.50%.

CONCLUSION

This paper briefly gives a general idea of evaluation of quality control of earth structures and its importance. To have better quality control of the field compaction of the placed materials, the soil moistures should be kept preferably slightly higher than the optimum moisture content and the compaction works should be completed as quickly as possible.

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SECONDARY COMPRESSION CHARACTERISTICS OF CLAYS FOR SOME AREAS OF BANGLADESH

BY

A. M. ZAHURAL ISLAM*, PANKAJ KUMAR ROY**

ABSTRACT

The consolidation characteristics of foundation soils can be attributed to two distinct phenomena, one results from primary consolidation due to reduction of volume change by out flow of air and water from the soil pores and the other from secondary consolidation due to plastic deformation of the soil mass. Both the phenomena take place under applied constant load. In this paper the secondary consolidation characteristics of the some areas in western region of Jamuna-Padma-Meghna river system have been calculated and some relations developed with the index properties of these soils. The soils of the region consist mostly of fine grained materials and show a wide range of secondary compression characteristics under a constant load. The value of the co-efficient of secondary consolidation, C_{α} , is less for sandy silt and stiff clays and relatively high for organic and soft clays.

INTRODUCTION

Every material undergoes a certain amount of strain when stress is applied. The compression strain of a foundation soil is attributable to two distinct phenomena within the soil. The first of these types of strain results from reduction in volume due to outflow of water from the soil pores under applied load and is generally referred to as

primary consolidation. The 2nd type of strain is the result of plastic deformation of the mass under constant load and is called secondary consolidation. In this paper the secondary consolidation characteristics of the soils of some areas of Bangladesh, specially from some locations of the western belt of Jamuna-Padma-Meghna river system have been calculated and some relations have been developed with the index properties of these soils.

GEOLOGICAL BACKGROUND

The landform of Bangladesh is constituted by the alluvial deposit of sediment that has been transported from the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan region to its present location by water and deposited in a wide range throughout the areas of Bangladesh. The main streams or rivers which still carrying on this processes, are the Ganges, the Brahmaputra, Meghna, Teesta, Gumti etc. As the soils of Bangladesh comprised of alluvial deposit varying from gravel to fine grained soil material, the stratified arrangement of soil materials mainly depends on the fluctuation of the stream velocity. Thus in the upper region of Bangladesh the soil is a mixture of coarse and fine grained soils like boulders, gravels, sands and silt, and clay and in the lower region is obviously a deposit of fine grained soils like sand, silt and clay. In the western region of the country the soils mainly consists of sand, silt and clay deposits.

* Director (Research) SM. & M. Dte. RRI, Faridpur

** Senior Research officer, SM. & M. Dte. RRI Faridpur

PRIMARY CONSOLIDATION

The portion of the total settlement that takes place in accordance with the theory of consolidation is called primary consolidation. The rate of primary consolidation was first derived by Terzaghi for the special case of one dimensional flow from a laterally confined soil. After application of a pressure increment ΔP , the excess pore pressure becomes instantaneously equal to ΔP everywhere in the soil mass. The gradual out flow of water decreases ΔP and this process continues until the excess pore pressure is reduced to zero and the applied pressure is entirely supported by the intergranular structure. The void ratio at this point is e_{100} , the void ratio at 100% consolidation.

SECONDARY COMPRESSION

The additional settlement which occurs after 100% primary consolidation is known as secondary consolidation. This difference between observed consolidations and the theoretical primary consolidation is attributed to secondary effect and is defined as secondary compression. The secondary effects are illustrated in Fig. 1, 2. The most notable

difference in the curves occurs when the theoretical primary curve approaches to its ultimate value. Then for the laboratory curve a linear relation is observed between void ratio change and the logarithm of time. The slope of this line, in units of void ratio change per logarithmic cycle of time is called the co-efficient of secondary compression, C_∞ and it is used to measure the magnitude of secondary compression effects. The co-efficient of secondary consolidation is found from the following formula:

$$C_\infty = \frac{\Delta e}{1+e_0} \frac{1}{\log_{10}(t_2/t_1)} = \frac{C_t}{1+e_0}$$

where $C_t = \frac{\Delta e}{\log_{10}(t_2/t_1)}$

the slope of the straight line portion of the e - $\log t$ curve and is known as the secondary compression index. Numerically C_t is equal to the value Δe for a single cycle of time on the curve. The additional settlement S due to secondary compression can be estimated as $S = 2H C_\infty$. Here $2H$ represents the total thickness of the soil layer for two phase drainage.

When the pore pressure falls to zero at the end of the primary consolidation, the secondary consolidation is governed by the rate of transfer of the absorbed water film to the solid bond. The secondary compression is assumed

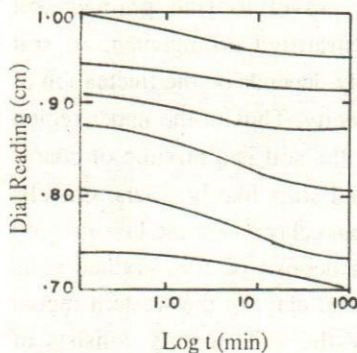


Fig. 1

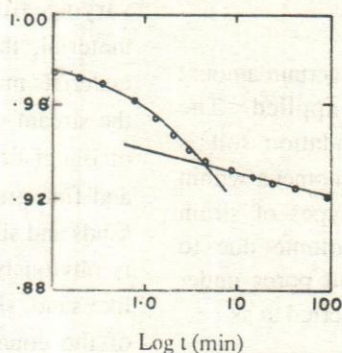


Fig. 2

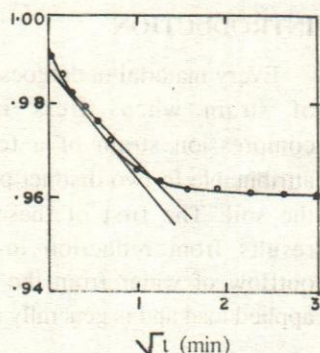


Fig. 3

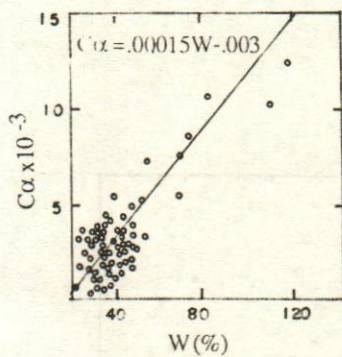


Fig. 4

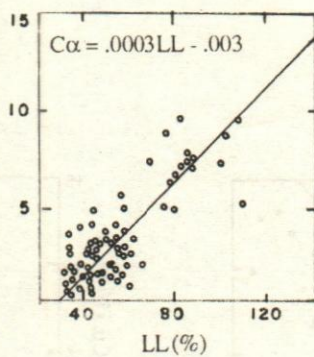


Fig. 5

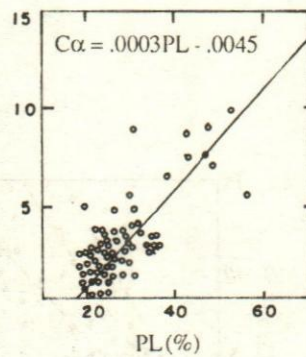


Fig. 6

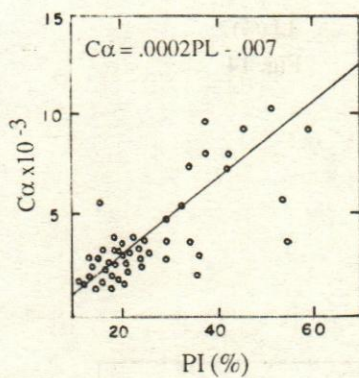


Fig. 7

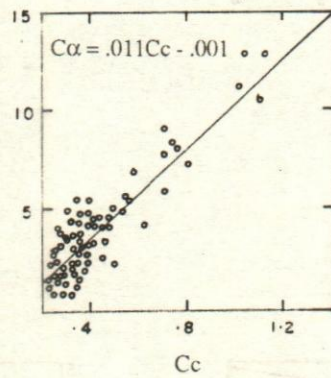


Fig. 8

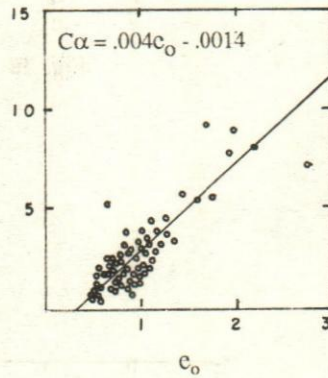


Fig. 9

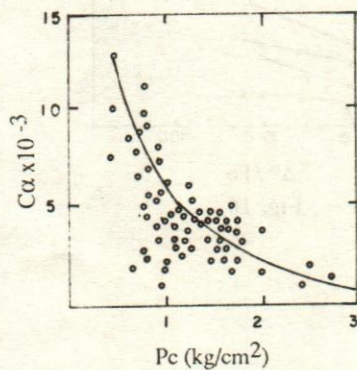


Fig. 10

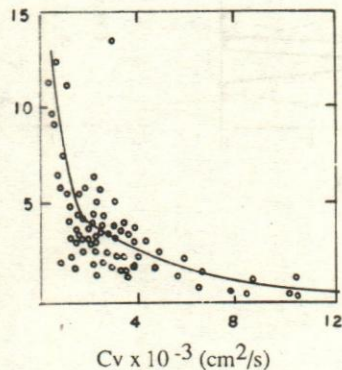


Fig. 11

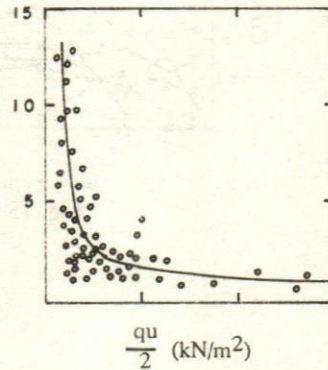


Fig. 12

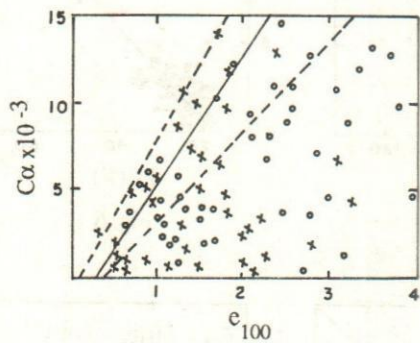


Fig. 13

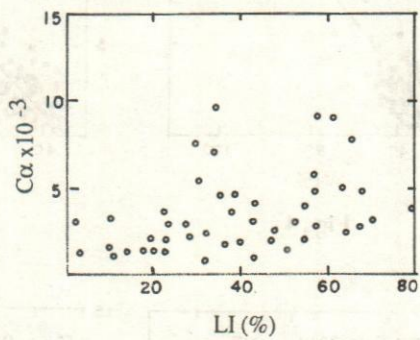


Fig. 14

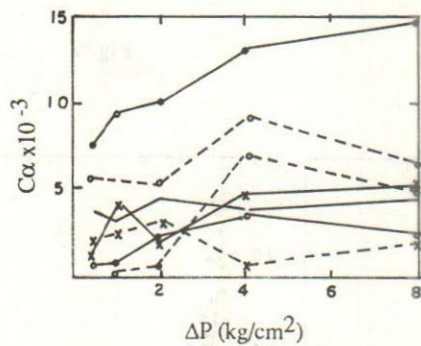


Fig. 15

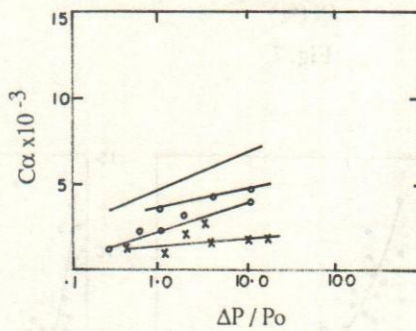


Fig. 16

to be the void ratio change that results from viscous yielding of the grain structure. The effective pressure that the intergranular structure can support depends on the particle orientation as well as the void ratio. Therefore, the viscous re-orientation of the grains gradually reduces the capacity of the intergranular pressure to be transferred to the pore water. This tendency is relieved if the void ratio is reduced slightly. It is assumed that the particle orientation occurs so slowly that the pore pressure developed by the process are negligible. Thus the secondary rate of void ratio change is governed entirely by the rate of viscous yielding and is independent of hydrodynamics.

LABORATORY INVESTIGATION

In order to study the secondary compression behavior of the soils of some areas of Bangladesh, about one hundred consolidation tests data were reviewed and thereby the co-efficient of secondary compression, C_{α} was calculated. The soil samples had been collected from different location of Rangpur, Pabna, Khulna and Barisal. the samples were collected in 3" to 4" diameter shelly tubes.

Soil Materials : The soil materials used in the laboratory tests were classified as SILT, CLAY and ORGANIC CLAYS. The materials of these types were taken as to find out the general secondary compression characteristics of the soils in this region.

From laboratory tests the solid matters ranges by percentage as follows:

FINE SAND	-	0 to 20%
SILT	-	50 to 95%
CLAY	-	5 to 40%
Organic matter	-	0 to 20%

Also the range of other parameters were as follows :

Unit weight (Dry) (kN/m^3)	-	5.35 - 15.71
Natural water content (%)	-	20 - 141
Liquid limit (%)	-	33 - 184
Preconsolidation loads (Kg/cm^2)	-	.25 - 3.0
Relative Density	-	2.03 - 2.69

Apparatus and Procedure : The sizes of the consolidometer rings were 2.54 cm high x 6.35 cm dia and 2 cm high x 5 cm dia. A double lever system and a single lever system consolidation frames were used for the application of loads.

The undisturbed samples were carefully trimmed to fit into the consolidometer ring. Six load increments were applied starting from 0.25 to 8.0 Kg/cm^2 of the saturated specimen and each load was allowed to remain in the machine for about 24 hours. Pressure increment varies a little for few samples.

For each pressure increment compression readings were taken at time intervals necessary for accurately plotting the complete compression logarithm of time curve.

Void ratio to 100% consolidation and co-efficient of secondary compression was determined.

PRESENTATION OF DATA

The values of natural moisture content, liquid and plastic limits, wet and dry densities, relative density, compression index, co-efficient of comparability test results have been tabulated in Table- 1 and the results of pressure increment, compression dial reaching void ratio at 100% consolidation and the values of Coefficient of secondary consolidation have been shown in Table- 2.

The graphical representation of C against some widely used parameters have been presented as below :

Table-1
SUMMARY OF SOME TEST RESULTS

1	2	3	4	5	6	Density		8	9	10	11	12	13	14
						Wet kN/m ³	Dry kN/m ³							
Location	Hole No. Sample depth	N.W.C. No. (%)	LL (%)	PI (%)				eo	Relative Density	PC kg/cm ²	Cc	Cv	C _u x10 ⁻³ cm ² /sec	Soil Description
Laxmipur	I ₂ B ₅ U ₁													Sandy SILT
Pabna	20'-22'	23.0	34	10	19.3	15.7		.664	2.66	1.7	.114	1.6	.72	
	4-U ₁ 15'-17'	26.4	40	15	19.3	15.3		.728	2.68	1.5	.167	.31	1.34	Clay SILT
Ekbokta	3-U ₁ 26'-22'	23.6	39	20	19.1	15.5		.70	2.67	2.65	.155	.32	1.6	-do-
Rangpur	1-U ₁ 10'-12'	39.1	44	19	17.9	12.8		1.062	2.67	1.35	.277	3.5	2.5	-do-
Kalatali Khulna	3-U ₁ 15'-17'	46.6	51	.24	16.9	11.5		1.263	2.67	0.362	1.0	1.02	.14	Silty clay with organic matter
Jirbunia Khulna	4-U ₁ 25'-27'	37.3	13	17.6	12.8	1.0515	2.67	1.3		0.188	2.9	3.1		Silty CLAY
Rithein para	1-U ₁ 15'-17'	56.8	110	54	15.7	10.0		1.575	2.64	0.88	.505	.91	5.5	Organic Clay
Gazipara Khulna	Shniyer khal 2-U ₁ 20'-22'	59.7	86	37	14.4	9.0		1.974	2.60	1.2	0.80	1.2	7.81	-do-
Jirbunia Khulna	2-U ₂ 25'-27'	141	150	70	12.9	5.4		3.614	2.5	0.65	1.405	.37	11.3	-do-
Khulna	2-U ₁ 16'-12'	114.2	194	86	13.2	6.1		2.945	2.48	0.55	1.1325	.67	13.8	-do-

Table-2
Experimental Results of Three Tests

Pre- ssure kg/cm	Test No. 1			Test No. 2			Test No. 3		
	24 hrs Dial Reading cm	e100 Void ratio	C_{∞} $\times 10^{-3}$	Dial ing cm	e100 read-	C_{∞} $\times 10^{-3}$	Dial Read- cm	e100 ing	C_{∞} $\times 10^{-3}$
0.00	0.00	-	-	0.00	-	-	0.00	-	-
.25	.020	.6485	.24	.052	1.0816	2.02	.1445	3.305	4.6
.50	.035	.6357	.81	.0905	1.0388	3.62	.2329	3.085	7.70
1.0	.051	.6223	.25	1.052	.9901	3.05	.3615	2.785	10.14
2.0	.075	.5764	.51	.2907	.8180	3.11	.7365	1.906	16.66
4.0	.105	.5764	.51	.2907	.8180	3.11	.7365	1.906	16.66
8.0	.1452	.5434	1.47	.3840	.7206	4.13	.900	1.503	15.29

Fig. 1. Dial reading Vs. log time in minute for six loads circlements.

Fig. 2 & 3: Typical curves of dial readings V_s log time in minute and square root of time minute for 90% consolidation respectively.

Fig. 4-12 : Co-efficient of secondary compression C_{∞} vs. N.M.C., LL, PL, PI, C_c , e_0 , P_0 , c_u , s_u , e_{100} , LI, $P \frac{\Delta P}{P_0}$ in order.

DISCUSSION

From the observed behavior in Fig. 1, 2 & 3 it concluded that the shape of the compression-logarithmic of time curve depends on the relative magnitude of the primary and secondary effects. As the results of the widely used parameters varies to a wide range, average lines were drawn in the curves and the following relations have been made.

- (i) $C_{\infty} = 0.0015W - 0.003$
- (ii) $C_{\infty} = 0.0013 LL - 0.003$
- (iii) $C_{\infty} = 0.003 PL - 0.0045$
- (iv) $C_{\infty} = 0.002PI - 0.007$
- (v) $C_{\infty} = 0.011Cc - .001$
- (vi) $C_{\infty} = 0.004 e_0 - 0.0014$
- (vii) $C_{\infty} = 0.0075 e_{100} - 0.002$

It is evident that with the increasing values of LL, PL, C_c , e_0 , e_{100} the corresponding values of C_{∞} increases. Al though the values of these parameters varies widely for the soils of different regions of the western Belt of Jamuna-Meghna, the straight lines may be used to give general relation among the test parameters. The relations of C_{∞} with P_c , C_v and S_u , $\frac{qu}{2}$ are such that with the increasing values of these parameters the values of C_{∞} decreases exponentially. No notable relation has been observed with C_{∞} & liquidity index. Load increment ΔP and pressure increment ratio $\frac{\Delta P}{P}$ have no significant effect on C_{∞} .

CONCLUSION :

From the foregoing experimental results the following conclusions may be drawn :

The co-efficient of secondary compression C_{∞} is dependent on the void ratio, total pressure, liquid limit, compression index, etc but independent of the pressure increment.

The time required for the rate of secondary compression C_{∞} is directly related to the time required for completion of primary consolidation.

With higher value of C_{∞} , the magnitude of P_c , C_v and decreases rapidly and then slowly.

As the value of C_{∞} is very less for sand silt and stiff clay it may not be considered as a significant parameter for them but for organic and soft clays the value is found to be relatively high.

In the northern portion of the Ganges, as Pabna, Rajshahi, Rangpur the soils are mostly sand, silt and clays, and naturally the value of C_{∞} is also found less. But for the southern region as in some locations of Khulna & Barisal the soils are soft silty and clayey and consisted considerable mount of organic matter and the settlement calculated for secondary compression is found as high as about 96% of the primary consolidation, which may cause a serious effect for the structure.

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EFFECT OF PARTICLE SIZES OF CLAY AND SILT ON THE COMPRESSIBILITY AND CONSOLIDATION CHARACTERISTICS

BY
ALIMUDDIN AHMED *

ABSTRACT

The compression index (C_c), coefficient of compressibility (a_v) and coefficient of consolidation (C_v) are soil parameters which are used in computation of settlement characteristics of sub-surface soils under structural load and these parameters are usually determined from the conventional laboratory consolidation test. In this paper an attempt has been made to correlate the compression index, coefficient of compressibility and coefficient of consolidation of compressible soils with percent 5 of 2 micron clay, percent of 5 micron clay and the ratio of percent 5 micron clay and percent silt (74 micron to 5 micron) which are obtained from simple hydrometer test. Some empirical relationships have been indicated mostly for inorganic silts and clays. In this paper soils of Khulna, Barisal, Patuakhali, Jessore, Faridpur and Kushitia districts have been considered.

INTRODUCTION

The magnitude and rate of settlement of silt-clay soils caused by consolidation under foundation load are measured by the consolidation test. For this purpose it is necessary to obtain undisturbed soil from various depths and various points of the site. The collection of such sample is costly and the performance of consolidation test on it needs

about ten working days for a sample. In this paper a study has been made to estimate soil parameters necessary for computation of settlement from simple hydrometer test on disturbed samples which may be collected comparatively easily and at a small cost.

From laboratory consolidation test the settlement S can be computed from the equations.

$$S = H \frac{C_c}{1+e_0} \log_{10} \frac{P_0 + \Delta P}{P_0} \dots\dots\dots(1)$$

$$S = H \cdot \Delta P \cdot \frac{a_v}{1+e_0} \dots\dots\dots(2)$$

$$S = H \cdot \Delta P \cdot m_v \dots\dots\dots(3).$$

where H is the thickness of the bed of silt or clay under a pressure P_0 and ΔP is the difference of pressure from P_0 to $P_0 + \Delta P$ due to structure load, m_v is the coefficient of volume compressibility and e_0 is the initial void ratio. Degree saturation for soils considered in this study is found to about 95% to 100% and may be taken as 100% for all practical purposes. Knowing the values of natural moisture content (W) and specific gravity (G) of a soil, e_0 may be computed from the relation $e_0 = WG$.

In this paper as attempt has been made to correlate C_c , a_v , m_v and C_v with % clay (finer than 5 micron), % clay (finer than 2 micron) and ratio of % 5 micron clay and % silt (74 micron- 5 micron) which are determined by simple hydrometer test on disturbed silt and clay samples, which can be collected

* Senior Research Officer, Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte.
River Research Institute, Faridpur

comparatively easily from different cohesive soils strata and at a small cost.

From the knowledge of % 2 micron clay, % 5 micron clay and ratio of 5 micron clay and % silt, the values of compression index and coefficient of compressibility may be estimated from the empirical relations as indicated in this paper.

ANALYSIS OF EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Test data of as many as eighty three undisturbed samples from different areas of Khulna, Barisal, Patuakhali, Jessore, Faridpur and Kushtia in connection with different projects of Water Development Board were selected and studied to correlate the grain sizes with the consolidation test parameters.

The range of values of different soil mechanics tests results of the samples as considered in this study have been shown in Table- 1.

The statistical analysis was performed to establish the relation between (i) compression index and percent 2 micron clay, (ii) compression index and percent 5 micron clay and (iii) compression index and ratio of percent 5 micron clay and percent silt. The equations of the regression lines for the problems were developed having calculated the correlation coefficient and the standard deviations of the variables from their combinations and squares and cross products of the difference between variables and their respective mean.

Table- 1

Soil Parameters	Khulna	Barisal	Jessore	Faridpur	Kushtia
	Values in the range of				
% Sand (200-74 micron)	1-25	0-24	1-29	1-10	0-27
% Silt (74-5 micron)	52-83	51-83	31-79	41-84	33-85
% Clay (Finer than 5 micron)	14-43	9-35	7-67	15-56	7-66
% Clay (Finer than 2 micron)	4-21	4-22	4-37	4-32	4-37
Liquid limit (%)	37-103	37-83	34-109	34-82	35-69
Plasticity index (%)	11-15	6-27	10-29	8-48	5-40
Compression index C_c	0.179-1.00	0.14-0.91	0.14-0.457	0.145-0.532	0.12-0.51
Coeff. of compressibility a_v ($\times 10^{-2}$ ft ² /ton)	1.84-34.00	2.03-15.08	1.72-7.86	2.16-8.37	0.39-8.0
Coeff. of consolidation C_v ($\times 10^{-4}$ cm ² /sec.)	5.0-172.0	8.0-663.0	11.0-90.0	2.66-158.0	2.46-566.00
Initial void ratio, e_0	0.87-2.681	0.88-2.24	0.66-1.570	0.75-1.538	0.670-1.080
Natural moisture content (%)	27-66	33-84	22-119	27-57	24-104
Wet density, (PCF)	110-116	110-118	115-119	111-117	116-119
Specific gravity	2.625-2.70	2.583-2.730	2.55-2.70	2.635-2.750	2.66-2.684

Table- 2 shows the relationships developed between variables by statistical analysis.

Percent 2 Micron Clay vs. Compression Index.

The values of compression index of different silt and clay soils increase consistently with increasing % clay (finer than 2 micron) as shown in Figure 1A. The abscissas of the points shown in the diagram represent % 2 micron clay and the ordinates the corresponding values of C_c for different silt-clays. All the points are located close to a straight line with the equation.

$$C_c = 0.0088 C_f + 0.128 \dots\dots\dots(3)$$

The correlation coefficient is found to be 0.52.

Percent 5 Micron Clay vs. Compression Index.

percent 5 micron clay of different silt and clay soils were plotted against corresponding values of compression index and the following statistic relation is obtained as shown in Figure 1B.

$$C_c = 0.0034 C_l + 0.156 \dots\dots\dots(4)$$

The correlation coefficient is about 0.62. It is seen that increasing values of compression index are associated with increasing values of 5 micron clay.

Ratio of % 5 Micron Clay and % Silt vs. Compression Index

In Figure- 1C is shown graphical presentation of ratio of % 5 micron clay and % silt against compression index. It is also observed that the values of compression index increase with increasing values of ratio of 5 micron clay and % silt. The straight line relationship is obtained by statistical analysis which is as follows :

$$C_c = 0.133 C_l/S + 0.19 \dots\dots\dots(5)$$

where C_l/S indicates ratio of clay and silt fractions. The correlation coefficient is about 0.56.

From the knowledge of % 2 micron clay, % 5 micron clay and ration of % 5 micron clay and % silt the values of compression index can be obtained roughly from equations (3), (4)

Table- 2

Soil Parameter	Statistical Relationships
Compression index (C_c) and % 2 micron clay, (C_f)	$C_c = 0.0088 C_f + 0.128$; $r = 0.52$; $s(C_c) = 0.101$ and $s(C_f) = 5.95$
Compression index and % 5 micron clay (C_l)	$C_c = 0.0034 C_l + 0.156$; $r = 0.62$; $s(C_l) = 10.95$
Compression index and % clay / % silt (C_l/S)	$C_c = 0.133 C_l/S + 0.19$; $r = 0.56$; $s(C_l/S) = 0.413$
Coeff. of compressibility (a_v) and % clay (2micron)	$a_v = 0.039 C_f + 3.58$; $r = 0.25$; $s(a_v) = 1.83 \times 16$

Note of abbreviations :

r = correlation coefficient

s = standard deviation.

s = % Silt

C_l = % 5 micron Clay

C_f = % 2 micron Clay

C_l/S = ratio of % 5 micron clay and % silt.

$s(C_c)$ = Standard deviation of C_c

$s(C_f)$ = " " of C_f

$s(C_l)$ = " " of C_l

$s(C_l/S)$ = " " of C_l/S

$s(a_v)$ = " " of a_v

and (5). From compression index so obtained, the estimation of settlement of the strata under structural load may be made without performing consolidation test.

clay, compression ratio and % 5 micron clay and compression ratio and ratio of % 5 micron clay and % silt by plotting the values of silt and clay soils and three straight line relationships have been obtained as shown in

Table-3

Composition of Soils			Compression index C_c				
% Cf	% CI	% C1/% S values	Tested Values	Estimated Equation (3)	Values Equation (4)	Equation (5)	Average estimated values
19.5, (Kushtia)	35.5,	0.53	0.253	0.299	0.296	0.260	0.276
17.0, (Khulna)	31.0	.45	0.270	0.277	0.261	0.249	0.262
16.0 (Barisal)	35.0	0.57	0.367	0.268	0.275	0.265	0.269
11.0 (Jessore)	26.0	0.37	0.190	0.224	0.244	0.239	0.235
9.0 (Faridpur)	27.0	0.38	0.218	0.207	0.247	0.240	0.231

Comparison of Tested values estimated values of compression Index from equations (3), (4) and (5)

A comparison of the values of compression index obtained by actual consolidation test and estimated from the derived equations is shown in Table-3

Compression Ratio vs % Clay (2 & 5 micron) and Ratio % Clay & % Silt.

Another attempt was made to correlate compression ratio $\frac{C_c}{1+e_0}$, and % 2 micron

Figures 2A, 2B, 2C. From these relationships the values of compression ratio may be estimated with the knowledge of % 2 micron clay, % 5 micron clay and ratio of % 5 micron clay and silt by conducting grain size analysis on disturbed samples without running consolidation test on undisturbed samples.

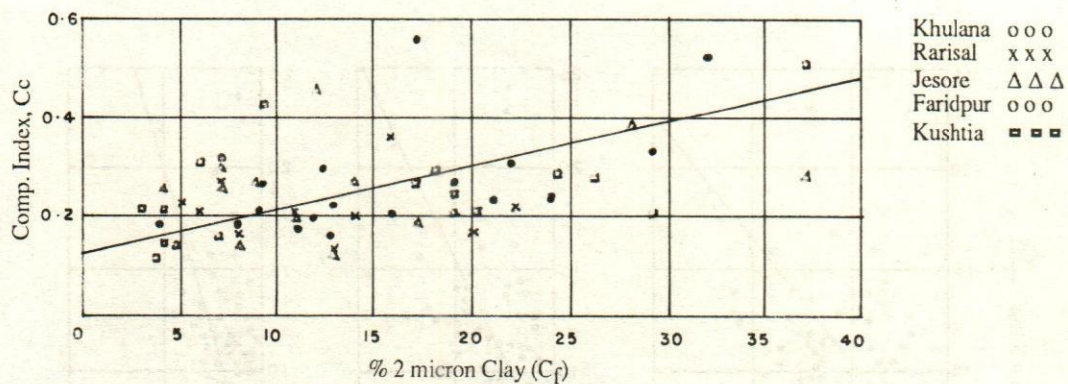


Fig. 1a : Relation between compression index (Cc) and % 2 micron clay

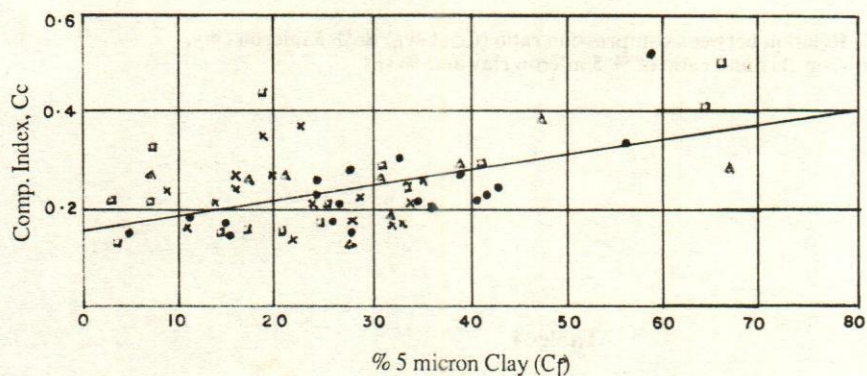


Fig. 1b : Relation between compression index (Cc) and % 5 micron clay

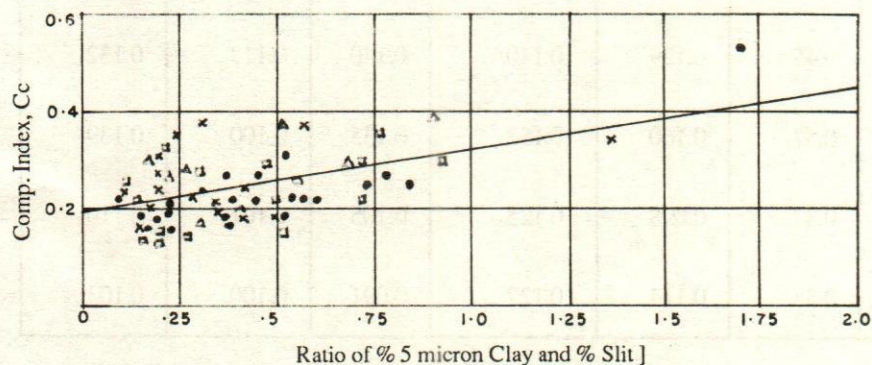


Fig. 1c : Relation between compression index (Cc) and Ratio of % 5 micron clay & % silt (74 micron)

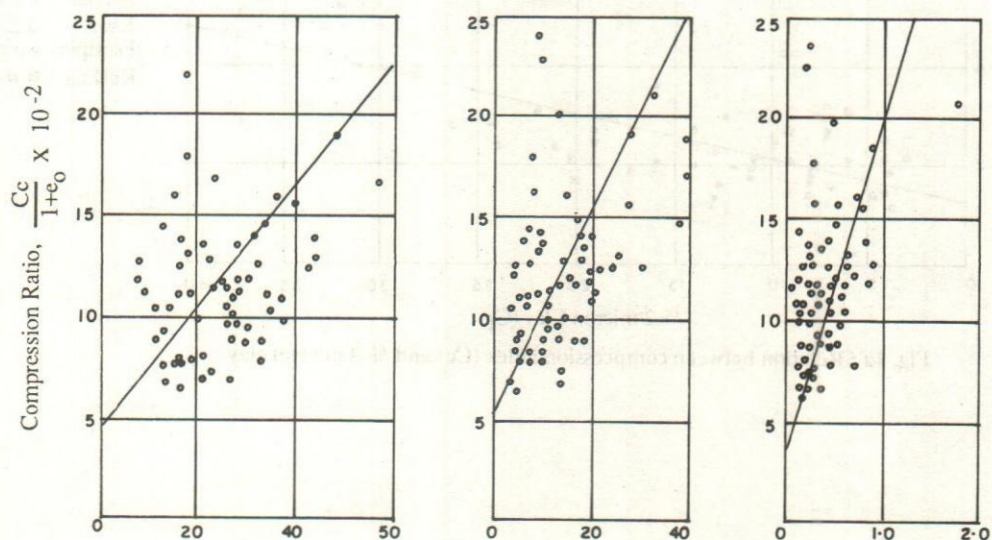


Fig. 2 : Relation between compression ratio ($C_c/(1+e_0)$) & % 5 micron clay, % 2 micron clay and ratio of % 5 micron clay and % silt

Table- 4

Composition of Soils			Compression ratio = $\frac{C_c}{1+e_0}$				
% Cf	% Cl	%Cl/% S	Tested values	Estimated values		Graph C	Average estimated values
				Graph A	Graph B		
19.5 (Kushtia)	33.5	0.53	0.122	0.150	0.150	0.125	0.141
17.0 (Khulna)	31.0	0.45	0.129	0.140	0.140	0.117	0.132
16.0 (Barisal)	35.0	0.57	0.160	0.153	0.135	0.100	0.139
11.0 (Jessore)	26.0	0.37	0.098	0.125	0.105	0.101	0.110
9.0 (Faridpur)	27.0	0.35	0.114	0.127	0.091	0.100	0.103

Comparison of tested values of compression ratio and that of estimated values from graphs as in Fig 2A, 2B & 2C

A comparison of values of compression ratio determined from actual test results and estimated from the graphs of Fig. 2A, 2B and 2C has been shown in Table- 4 and the samples were selected at random.

Coefficient of Compressibility vs. % 2 & 5 micron Clay and % clay / % silts

The values of % 2 micron clay, % 5 micron clay and ratio of % clay and % silt are plotted against the values of coefficient of compressibility and the average lines as shown in Fig. 3A, 3B & 3C have been drawn. It appears that the values of coefficient of compressibility tend to increase with

increasing values of % clay (2 & 5 micron) and % clay / % silt. The estimation of coefficient of compressibility from physical compositions as discussed in this paper is not encouraging. However, the author intends to make further study on this point considering the results of soil samples from selected areas and calculating a_v from change in void ratio with respect to small pressure difference instead of 4 of 6 ton/ft² as considered in this study. In Table- 5 is shown a comparison between tested results of coefficient of compressibility and calculated results from the graphs as shown in Fig. 3B and 3C.

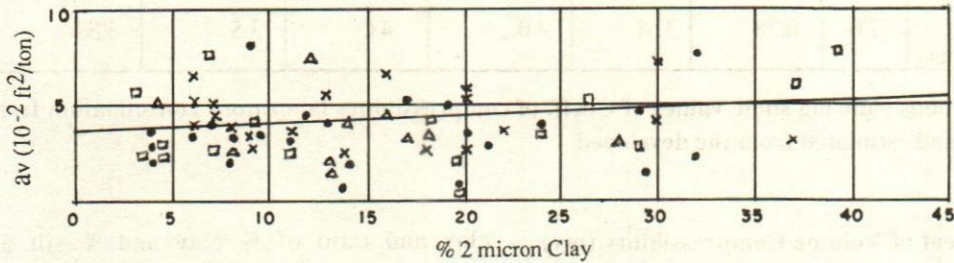


Fig. 3a : Relation between co-efficient of compressibility (a_v) and % 2 micron clay

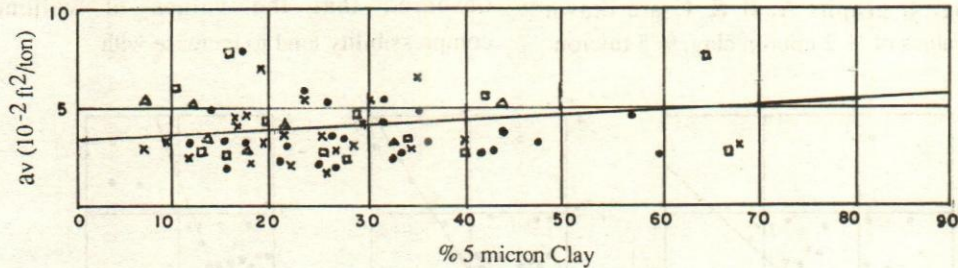


Fig. 3b : Relation between co-efficient of compressibility (a_v) and % 5 micron clay

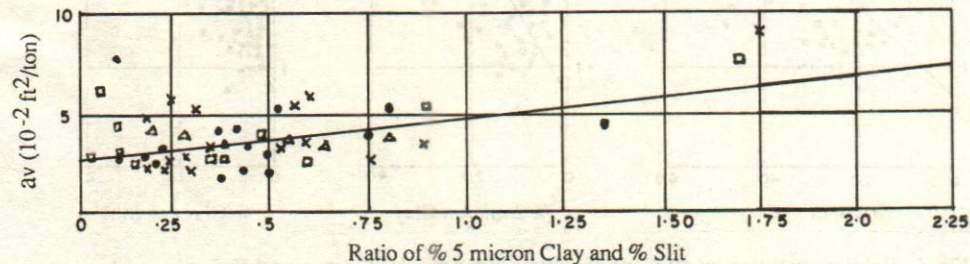


Fig. 3c : Relation between co-efficient of compressibility (a_v) and % 5 micron clay and % silt

Table- 5

Soil Parameters		Coeff. of compressibility a_v ($1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ft}^2/\text{ton}$)					
% Cf	% Cl	%Cl/%S	Tested values	Estimated Values			Average of estimated values.
				Graph 3A	Graph 3B	Graph 3C	
26.5 (Kushtia)	39	0.73	5.14	4.6	4.3	4.2	4.36
17.0 (Khulna)	31.0	0.45	5.36	4.3	4.2	3.6	4.03
16.0 (Barisal)	35.0	0.57	6.74	4.2	4.2	4.0	4.13
11.0 (Jessore)	26.0	0.37	2.93	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.83
9.0 (Faridpur)	27.0	0.38	3.51	4.0	4.0	3.5	3.83

Illustrations showing some values of Coeff. of compressibility laboratory consolidation tests results and estimated from the developed

Coefficient of Volume Compressibility (m_v) vs % Micron Clay, % 5 Micron Clay and Ratio of % Clay and % Silt.

In Fig. 4. graphs A, B & C are drawn having values of % 2 micron clay, % 5 micron

clay and ratio of % clay and % silt as abscissas and the corresponding values of volume compressibility as ordinates. It is observed that the values of volume compressibility tend to increase with

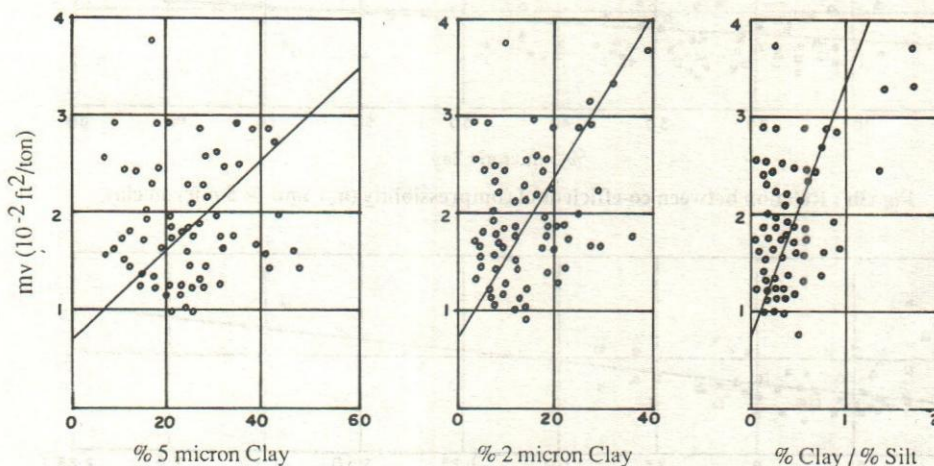


Fig. 4 : Relation between co-efficient of volume compressibility (m_v) and % 5 micron clay, % 2 micron clay and % 5 micron clay/% silt

increasing values of % 2 micron clay % 5 micron clay and ratio of % clay and % silt. From these graphs rough estimate of volume compressibility may be made by grain size analysis on disturbed soil samples.

In Table 6 is shown the comparison of coefficient of volume compressibility from actual test and computed from graphs obtained. The soil parameters for comparison are selected at random.

Table- 6

Soil parameter			Coeff. of volume compressibility (1×10^{-2} ft ² /ton)				
% Cf	% Cl	% Cl/% S	Tested values	Estimated Values			Average estimated values
				Graph A	Graph B	Graph 3	
26.5 (Kushtia)	39	0.73	2.84	2.55	2.95	2.65	2.71
17.0 (Khulna)	31.0	0.45	2.57	2.10	2.15	1.95	2.06
16.0 (Barisal)	35.0	0.57	2.90	2.35	2.05	2.25	2.21
11.0 (Jessore)	26.0	0.37	1.52	1.90	1.65	1.65	1.73
9.0 (Faridpur)	27.0	0.38	1.84	1.95	1.50	1.75	1.73

Illustrations showing some values of coeff. of volume compressibility from laboratory consolidation tests results and estimated from graphs developed.

Coefficient of Consolidation versus % 5 Micron Clay % 2 Micron Clay and Ratio of % Clay and % Silt.

An attempt has been made to correlate between coefficient of consolidation and % 5 micron and % 2 micron clay of % clay and % silt by plotting their values and all these curves A, B and C of Fig. 5 appear to be

concave upwards and there is a wide scattering of points at given % 5 micron and % 2 micron clay and % clay % silt. However it will provide a range of values. As there is a trend of relation between these parameters the author intends to make some further study taking into consideration of tests results of soil samples from limited areas.

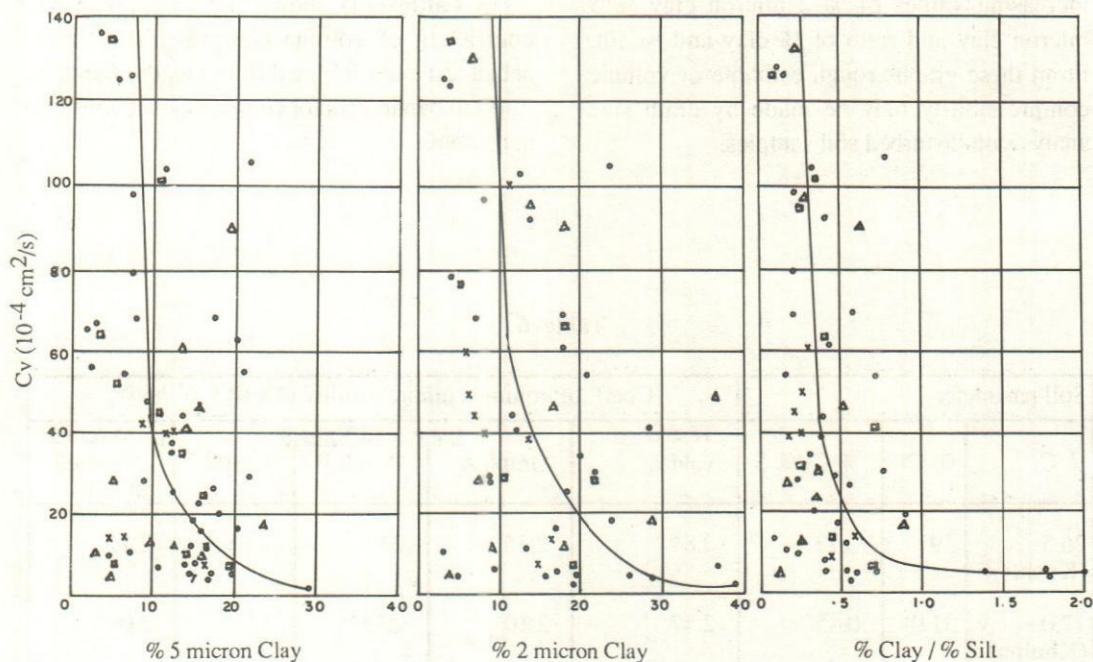


Fig. 5 : Relation between co-efficient of consolidation (C_v) and % 5 micron clay
% 2 micron clay and % 5 micron clay/% silt

CONCLUSIONS

The empirical equations (3), (4) and (5) for C_c as obtained for silt and clay soils of the south west region of Bangladesh may be conveniently used to estimate settlement from grain size analysis on disturbed samples without running the expensive and time consuming consolidation test for minor foundation and to help minimising the number of consolidation test.

The graphical relationships in Fig. 2A, 2B

A rough estimation of a_v may be obtained using relations as in Fig. 3A, 3B and 3C in computation of settlement from grain size analysis of silt and clay soils. A direct estimation of m_v in computation of settlement may be done from the relation as shown in Fig. 4A, B and 4C simply running the grain size analysis.

The study reveals that the estimation of C_c is more reliable than that of a_v from mechanical analysis.

The empirical relations so far obtained during this study are applicable to inorganic silt and clays.

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STUDY OF CORRELATION OF 28 DAYS COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH OF CONCRETE WITH THOSE OF 3 & 7 DAYS

BY

A. M. ZAHURAL ISLAM *, MD. ASHRAFUL BARI ** & MD. AFTABUDDIN***

INTRODUCTION

Concrete which is one of the most important construction materials is a hardened mixture of cement, water and aggregates (sand, stone or brickchips). It gives strength with continued hydration. The rate of development of strength is quicker at earlier ages than at the later ages. Though concrete develops strength beyond 28 days, for design purposes it is customary to assume 28-day strength as the full strength of concrete. Both in the construction work and running of trial design mixes of concrete it is not only time consuming and uneconomic but also risky to wait for 28 days to confirm whether or not the design strength is achieved. To overcome the situation, many research works have been carried out in different countries to correlate 28-day strength with those of 3 and 7-days strength. Due to many factors such as nature and composition of the contents of concrete, mode of preparation, variation of climatic condition, etc, the suggested empirical relationships vary widely.

In Germany the relation between 18-day and 7-day compressive strengths is taken to lie between :

$$f_{28} = 1.4f_7 + 150$$

$$f_{28} = 1.7f_7 + 850$$

* Director (Research), Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte. RRI, Faridpur.

** Senior Research Officer, Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte. RRI, Faridpur.

*** Senior Research Officer, Senior Research Officer, Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte. RRI, Faridpur.

Another suggested relation is :

$$f_{28} = k_2 (f_7)k_1$$

where k_1 ranges from 0.3 to 0.8 and k_2 from 3 to 6.

The number within parenthesis indicates references.

Troxell and Devis stated that in America 3 and 7-days compressive strengths are assumed to be 38-40% and 62% respectively of the 28-day strength at 70⁰ F while as per USBR. it is 40% and 62% respectively.

Shetty opines that for ordinary portland cement with water-cement ratio of 0.40 to 0.80, the percentages of 3 and 7-days strengths relative to 28-day strength are respectively 40-56% and 68-80%.

In this paper an attempt has been made to derive some empirical relations between f_{28} and f_7 & f_3 under both field and laboratory conditions using shingles and brickchips as coarse aggregates for conditions prevalent in Bangladesh.

LABORATORY AND FIELD STUDIES

In connection with different project works of BWDB quite a good number of 6"X 12" concrete cylinders were prepared under both laboratory and field conditions by RRI personnel using Type- I Portland cement, sand of different FM and 1.5" down-graded shingles or brickchips and tested in the concrete laboratory of the Institute from time to time. The details about the studies are available in the internal reports of RRI

PRESENTATION OF TEST DATA

For the purpose of analysis the test results have been divided into of the following three classes :

6" X 12" concrete cylinders prepared and tested in the laboratory using shingles as coarse aggregates (Table- 1).

6" X 12" concrete cylinders prepared and tested in the laboratory using brickchips as coarse (Table- 2).

6" X 12" concrete cylinders prepared in the field and tested in the laboratory using shingles as coarse aggregates (Table- 3).

The frequency distributions of the test results for the specimen under (a), (b) & (c) have been shown in Figs. 1, 2 & 3 respectively along with corresponding normal distribution curves. The values of f_3 and f_7 for samples under (a) and those of f_7 for samples under (b) and (c) have been plotted against f_{28} in Figs. 4 & 5 arithmetic paper and in Figs. 6, 7 & 8 in log-log paper. The linear and exponential relationships as obtained have also been shown against each of the respective curves.

The summary of the values of average strength, average relative strength in percent, standard deviation, co-efficient of correlation and standard error of estimate have been provided in Table- 4.

DISCUSSION OF TEST RESULTS AND COMMENTS

It will appear from the values in Table- 4 that although the data analysed contained strength as low as about 800 psi to as high as over 5000 psi, except correlation between f_3 and f_{28} , all other relations obtained in the study are quite reasonable. A comparative statement of the values obtained in the study to that suggested by different authors have been shown in table- 5.

In some cases the values seem to be apparently a bit higher which may be attributed to the climatic conditions and other factor prevailling in the country. For rough estimate 28-day strength can be predicted from average strength of 3- & 7-days multiplying by the factors 2.10 and 1.46 respectively. It will also

Table- 1

f_3	f_7	f_{28}	$f_3/f_{28}(\%)$	$f_7/f_{28}(\%)$
1343	2015	3005	44.7	67.1
1438	2086	3157	45.6	66.1
790	1260	2062	38.3	61.1
848	1379	2262	37.5	61.0
2144	2911	4030	53.2	72.2
2015	3028	4195	48.0	72.1
2180	3052	4112	53.0	74.2
2168	3299	4442	48.8	74.3
2350	3715	5129	46.0	72.4
2439	3538	5129	47.6	69.0
2580	4138	5553	46.5	74.5
2545	4138	5517	46.1	75.0
3181	4634	5765	55.2	80.4
3110	4598	5765	54.0	79.8

Values of 3, 7 and 28 days compressive strength of 6" X 12" concrete cylinders prepared in the laboratory using shingles as coarse aggregates along with relative values of 3- and 7-days compressive strength in percent of 28-day strength.

Table- 2

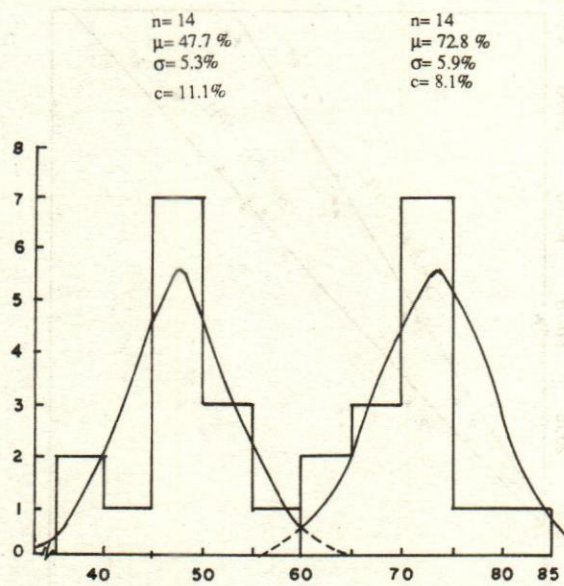
f_7	f_{28}	$f_7/f_{28}(\%)$	f_7	f_{28}	$f_7/f_{28}(\%)$
2316	3537	65.4	2884	4369	66.0
1999	2776	72.0	3025	4708	64.0
3113	4298	77.0	3395	4510	75.2
2688	4175	64.3	2334	3555	65.5
3396	4528	75.0	2351	3781	62.1
4599	5307	86.6	2635	3980	66.2
2157	3219	67.0	2529	3502	72.2
2122	3272	64.8	1857	2705	68.6
2334	3502	66.6	1750	2865	61.0
1415	2133	64.5	2281	3449	66.1
1380	2157	63.9	1362	2104	64.7
1344	2087	64.3	1273	2334	54.5
2198	2972	73.9	1486	2422	61.3
1945	3148	61.7	1061	1999	53.0
2334	3343	69.8	972	1734	56.0
2416	3267	73.9	1133	1398	81.0
4157	5395	77.0	1133	1680	67.4
2865	4316	66.3	1928	2948	65.4
2900	3927	73.8	2511	3657	68.6
2386	3609	66.1	2458	4033	60.9
2264	3449	65.6	2511	4227	59.4
2650	3753	70.6	2794	4528	61.7
2299	3166	72.6	3095	3750	82.5
2064	3201	64.6	2653	4015	66.0
1875	2653	70.6	3025	4561	66.3
2263	3715	60.9	3272	5272	62.0

Values of 7 and 28 days compressive strength of 6" X 12" concrete cylinders prepared in the laboratory using brickchips as coarse aggregates along with relative values of 7-day compressive strength in percent of 28-day strength.

Table- 3

f_7	f_{28}	$f_7/f_{28}(\%)$
2215	3830	57.8
1868	2993	62.4
2934	4224	69.4
2969	4135	70.7
3476	4960	70.0
2663	4130	64.4
3093	4843	63.8
3234	4607	70.2
2539	4053	62.6
3343	4772	70.0
3140	4218	74.4
2704	4312	62.7
3429	4454	76.9
3240	4724	68.5

Values of 7 and 28 days compressive strength of 6" X 12" concrete cylinder prepared in the field using shingles as coarse aggregates along with relative values of 7-day compressive strength in percent of 28-day strength.



Interval $f_3 / f_{28}\%$ Interval $f_7 / f_{28}\%$

Fig. 1 : Lab. specimen with shingles

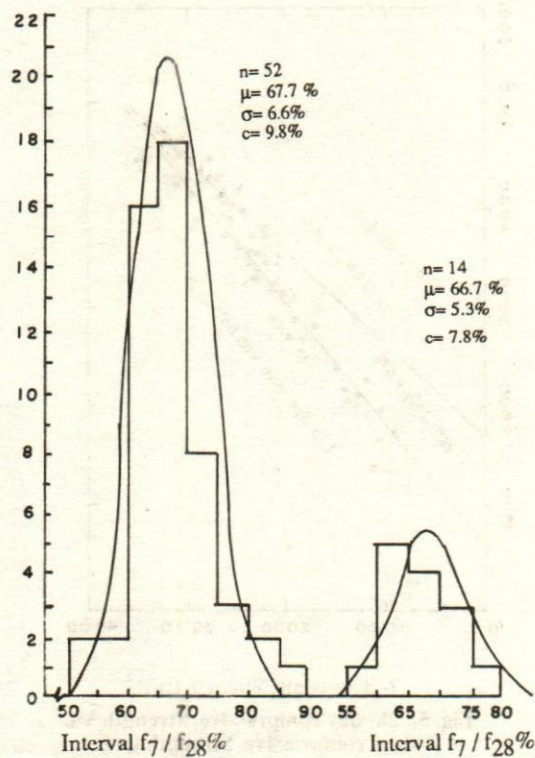


Fig. 2 : Lab. specimen with Brickchips Fig. 3 : Field. specimen with shingles

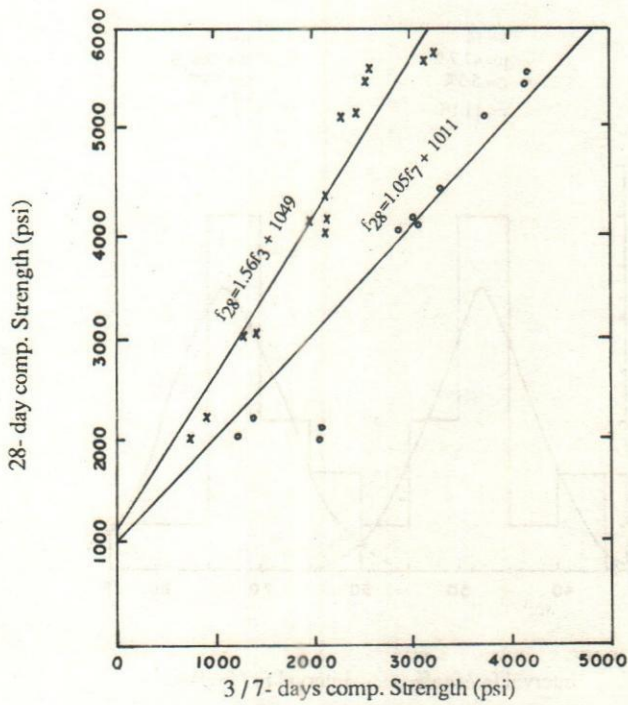


Fig. 4 : 28- day compressive Strength Vs. 3/7- days compressive Strength (psi)

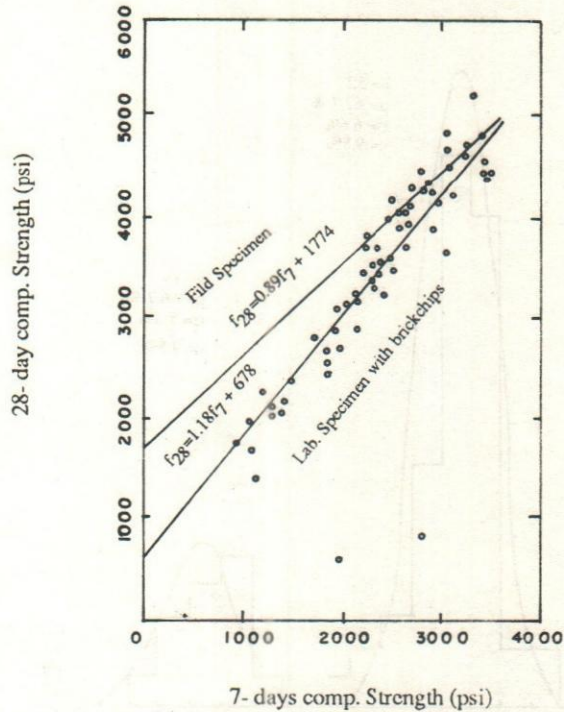


Fig. 5 : 28- day compressive Strength Vs. 7- days compressive Strength (psi)

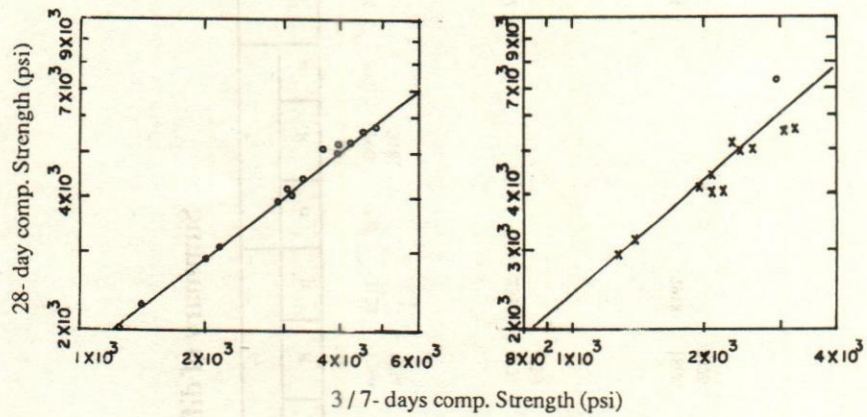


Fig. 6 : 28-day comp. Strength Vs. 3/7-day comp. strength (Lab. specimen with shingels)

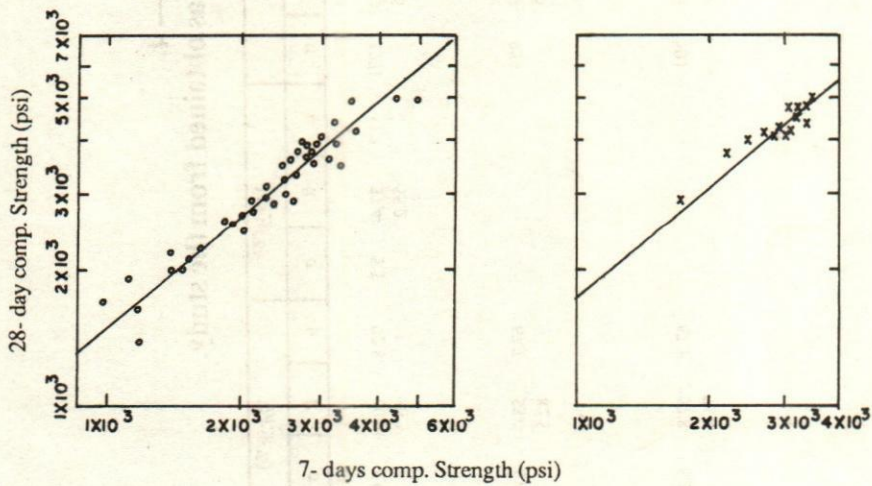


Fig. 7 : 28- day comp. Strength Vs. 7- days comp. Strength (Lab. Specimen with brickchips)

Fig. 8 : 28- day comp. Strength Vs. 7- days comp. Strength (Field Specimen with shingels)

Table—4.
Summary of different values as obtained from the study.

Type of 6"x12" Con. Cylinder	n	f ₃			f ₇			f ₂₈			f ₃ /f ₂₈ (%)			f ₇ /f ₂₈ (%)			Correlation	r	S y. x
		μ	R	σ	μ	R	σ	μ	R	σ	μ	R	σ	μ	R	σ			
Lab. specimen with shingles	14	2081	790- 3181	739	3128	1260- 4634	1108	4295	2062- 5765	1271	47.7	37.4- 55.2	5.3	72.8	60.9- 80.3	5.9	f ₂₈ =1.56f ₃ +1049 f ₂₈ =7.07f ₃ 0.83	0.91	537
Laboratory Specimen with good quality Type-1 Portland cement, sand and bricks.																			498
	52				2331	972- 4599	750	3443	1398- 5395	953				67.7	53.0- 82.5	6.66	f ₂₈ =1.186f ₇ +678 f ₂₈ =4.48f ₇ 0.887	0.93	350
Field specimen with good quality Type-1 Portland cement, sand and shingles.	14				2918	1868- 3476	472	4308	2993- 4843	503				67.7	57.8- 76.9	5.3	f ₂₈ =0.89f ₇ +1774 f ₂₈ =4.77f ₇ 0.855	0.83	280

Table. 5

Values as given in or suggested by	f_3/f_{28} (%)	f_7/f_{28} (%)	linear relation	exponential
Troxelland Devis	38-40	62	-	-
USBR	40	62	-	-
Shetty	40-56	68-80	-	-
Used in Germany			$f_{28} = 1.4f_7 + 150$ $f_{28} = 1.7f_7 + 850$ $k_2 = 3 \text{ to } 6$	$f_{28} = k_2 (f_7) K_1$ $k_1 = 0.3 \text{ to } 0.8$

Comparative statement of the values obtained in the study to that suggested by different authors

appear that all the co-efficient of correlation obtained are very close to unity and almost 95% of the values analysed are expected to appear to fall within two standard errors of estimates and by trying the correlations obtained from the study with the respective maximum, minimum and average 3 & 7 days strength corresponding to those of 28 days in all the three sets of linear and exponential relations, the estimated 28 days strength are found to differ by about 0 to 18% only of the actual strength obtained. The correlations obtained can, therefore, be fairly used both in the laboratory and in the field.

It is, however, suggested that to be more precise and to remain in safer side in estimating the 28-day strength from that of 3 & 7 days, both linear and exponential relations may be tried and the more conservative value may be used as estimated 28-day strength as a guide-line for determining the future course of action. The study may be continued further with various types of materials and by keeping the temperature of mixing, casting and curing constant as and when better laboratory facilities for the same are developed.

SYMBOLS

C	= Coefficient of variation
f_3	= 3-day compressive strength in psi
f_7	= 7-day " "
f_{28}	= 28-day " "
k_1	= Constant
k_2	= Constant
n	= number of specimen
r	= coefficient of correlation
R	= range of values in psi
μ	= average value in psi
δ	= standard deviation
$S_y x$	= Standard error in psi

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SEDIMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF SOME RIVERS OF BANGLADESH

BY

A. M. ZAHURAL ISLAM* & MD. NURUL HAQUE**

ABSTRACT

Bangladesh is a flat deltaic riverine country having a unique system of rivers, tributaries and distributaries which play an important role in her overall economic activities.

The rivers are being silted up each year, thereby causing problems for irrigation, navigation, flood inundation, etc. Flood has become almost a regular phenomenon in Bangladesh causing serious damage to standing crops and properties. Extensive and proper studies of sediment can help in a long term solution of these sediment problems.

The paper deals with the mechanism of sediment transportation, classification of sediments into bed material load and wash load, and into suspended load, bed load and saltation load, and the samplers usually used for collection of different types of sediment samples. It states that in the laboratory, suspended sediment samples are analysed to determine their sediment concentration, and suspended sediments, bed load and bed materials are analysed to determine their grain size distribution and the results are presented in the form of summation curves.

To get a reasonable assessment of sediment in a stream, a number of formulae has been proposed by different authors, the paper deals with the relative performances of those formulae. Finally, the paper presents some of the sediment parameters of the Brahmaputra,

Gumti, Surma and Gorai rivers. Graphs presented in the paper may be used as a tool evaluating one variable when the other is known.

INTRODUCTION

Bangladesh is a flat deltaic riverine country formed by the sediments carried by three international river systems, namely, the Ganges-Padma, the Brahmaputra-Jamuna and the Meghna. It has a unique system of rivers, tributaries and distributaries which play an important role in the development of agriculture, industries, communications and overall economy of the country.

The river systems are being silted up each year, thereby causing problems for irrigation, navigation, communication, flood inundation and maintenance of port & harbour. Flood has become almost a regular phenomenon in Bangladesh causing serious damage to standing crops and properties, and taking a huge toll of cattleheads and other livestock. Bangladesh Inland Water Transport Authority (BIWTA) is spending a large sum of money for dredging river beds to maintain their navigability and Chittagong and Chalna port Authorities to maintain accessibility to their ports & harbours. Bangladesh Water Development Board (BWDB) is also facing much problems in keeping the intake channel of G.K. Project from being silted up. Extensive and proper studies of sediment can help in a long term solution of these sediment problems. Sediment studies are also essential in assessing

*Director (Research), Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte.
River Research Institute, Faridpur.

**Research officer, Soil Mechanics & Materials Dte.
River Research Institute, Faridpur.

the life-span of storage reservoir as well as in the design of hydraulic structures and other problems of siltation.

Let us consider the flow of water over non-cohesive sandy bed (1) when the flow passes over an individual particle, the streamlines are deflected around the particles as a result of which several forces are exerted on individual particles. These are known as lift, pressure drag and skin friction drag. In response to these forces, the particles roll or slide over neighbouring particles and the motion of bed particles commence at some favourable values of them.

The most important factor governing the sediment transport is shear stress which generates turbulent motion in the water and thus causes upward transportation of sediment. In terms of diffusion equation based on Fick's law, the vertical sediment distribution can be expressed as :

$$\frac{T_v}{\rho} = CW - K \frac{dc}{dy} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

For uniform flow at equilibrium condition $T_v = 0$. Then eq. 1 reduces to :

$$C = C_0 e^{\frac{W}{K} \cdot y} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

At any time a good number of bed particles may jump but eventually some of them return to be again but by that time other particles go into suspension and the process goes on continually. As a result, depending on the magnitude of turbulence and the shape and size of bed particles, some of them remain in suspension and move along with the flowing water. It may be pointed out that at one stage a particle may move as suspended material but in the next instant it may move as saltation or bed load particle.

SEDIMENT AND ITS CLASSIFICATION

According to source, sediments can be divided into two groups viz. bed material load and wash load. But according to mode of transportation, the sediment can be classified into three categories, viz, bed load, saltation load and suspended load. The above classifications are shown schematically in Fig. 1.

In the light of above discussions, the different types of loads are described below :

Bed load is defined as sediment particles which move by sliding or rolling over and near the bed, generally in the propagating bed forms such as ripples and dunes.

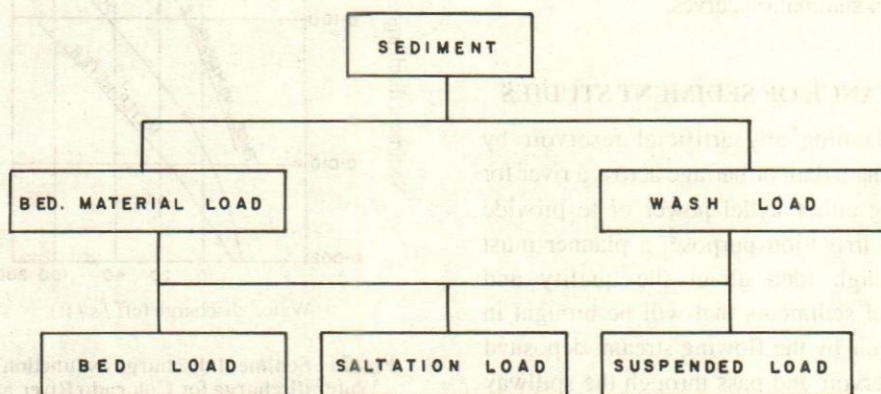


Fig. 1

Saltation load is defined as sediment particles which make their journey by hopping and jumping as a result of drag force. These particles very frequently move as bed load and sometimes as suspended load.

Suspended load consists of sediment particles held in suspension by balancing their gravitational force with the upward forces due to the turbulence of the fluid.

COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF SEDIMENT SAMPLES

Depending on the mode of transportation, instruments used for collecting different types of sediment samples are also different. In the advanced countries many improved instruments and sophisticated methods are used for the collection and measurement of different types of sediments. In Bangladesh bottle sampler, Binckley sampler, point integrated sampler and depth integrated sampler are used for the collection of suspended sediments samples, bed load transport meter of Arnhem is used for bed load sediments and BM 54, BM 60 and other grab-type samplers are used for bed material samples.

In the laboratory, the suspended sediment samples are analysed to determine their sediment concentration and the suspended sediments, bed load sediments and bed materials are analysed to determine their grain size distributions. The results are presented in the form of summation curves.

IMPORTANCE OF SEDIMENT STUDIES

For planning any artificial reservoir by constructing a dam or barrage across a river for generating either hydel power or to provide water for irrigation purpose, a planner must have enough idea about the quality and quantity of sediments that will be brought in the reservoir by the flowing stream, deposited in the reservoir and pass through the spillway by-pass or silt excluder tunnel. Similarly,

sound knowledge about the sediments are also needed in the design of any hydraulic structure. Grain size distribution of bed material is needed in the design of stable canal as will be evident from the Lacey's (3) regime equation for slope as :

$$S = \frac{f^{5/3}}{178.8} Q^{1/6} \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

or, for mean width, W , as :

$$W = \sqrt{b/s} Q^{1/2} \dots\dots\dots (4)$$

Sediment Transport Formulae

There are quite a large number of formulae for assessing the total transported load of a stream. Most of the formulae were derived from laboratory studies as functions of bed load. Some of the formulae relate unit sediment discharge as function of a selected diameter of bed material distribution while others relate them as junction of bed shear stress. ASCE Task Committee studied a good number of such formulae and compared the values of sediment load obtained from these relations with those obtained by field measurements for Niobrara and Colorado rivers Fig.2a, 2b.

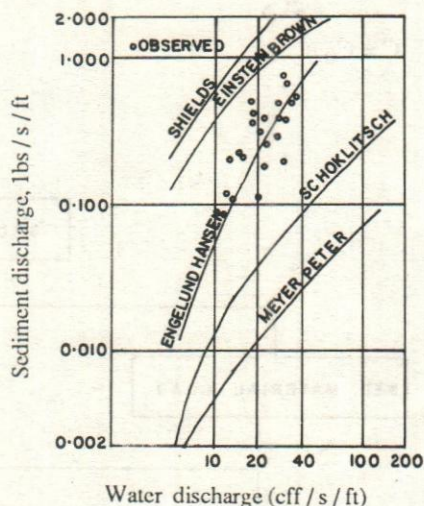


Fig. 2a : Sediment discharge as function of Water discharge for Colorado River at Taylors Ferry obtained from observations and calculations by several formulas

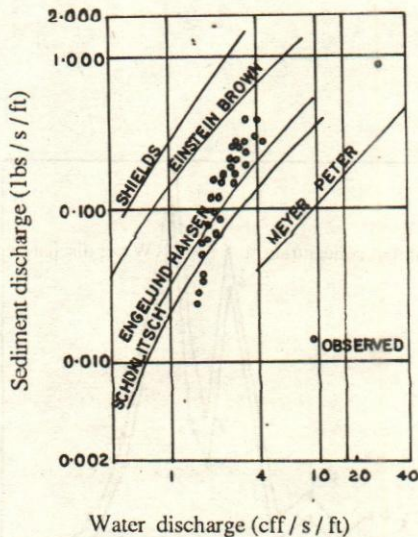


Fig. 2b : Sediment discharge as function of Water discharge for Niobrara River near Cody, NEB obtained from observations and calculations by several formulas

Some of these formulae where diameters of bed sediments come in are cited below for the convenience of the readers.

Engelund-Hansen formula :

$$g_s = 0.05 \gamma_s V^2 \left[\frac{d_{50}}{g(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)} \right]^{1/2} \left[\frac{\tau_0}{(\gamma_s - \gamma d_{50})} \right] \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

Meyer-Peter formula :

$$g_s^{2/3} = 39.25 g^{2/3} S - 9.95 d_{50} \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

Schoklitsch formula :

$$g_s = \sum \pi_i 25.3 / \sqrt{d_{si}} S^{3/2} (q - q_{ci}) \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

Shields formula :

$$g_s = 10 q S \frac{(\tau_0 - \tau_c)}{(\gamma_s/\gamma - 1)^2} d_{50} \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

Einstein's formula (5)

$$g_s = 11.6 u_* C_{a,a} \left[2.3 \log_{10} \left(\frac{\gamma}{R_s} \right) I_1 + I_2 \right] \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

PRESENTATION OF TEST RESULTS

Characteristics of four rivers, namely, the Brahmaputra at Bahadurabad, Surma at Sylhet, Gumti at Comilla and Gorai at Railway bridge in respect of their minimum and maximum values of water level, water discharge, sediment discharge, sediment concentration, flow velocity, bed materials and suspended materials have been presented in Table- 1 along with the corresponding values of Niobrara and Colorado rivers, as reported by the ASCE Task Committee for comparison. Annual variations of sediment concentration and water discharge of the Brahmaputra at Bahadurabad, Gumti at Comilla and Bogkhali at Ramu have been presented graphically in Fig. 3a, 3b, & 3c. Variations of water discharge against sediment discharge of the Brahmaputra at Bahadurabad and Gorai at Railway bridge, and those of water discharge with water level of the Brahmaputra at Bahadurabad and Gumti at Comilla have been presented graphically in Fig. 4 and Fig. 5 respectively.

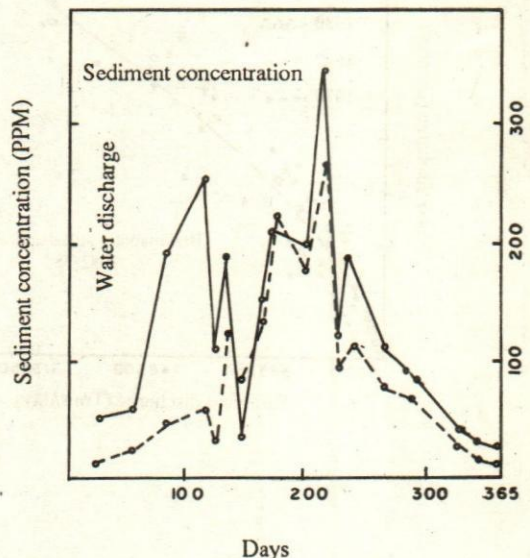


Fig. 3a Gumti at Comilla during the year 1982

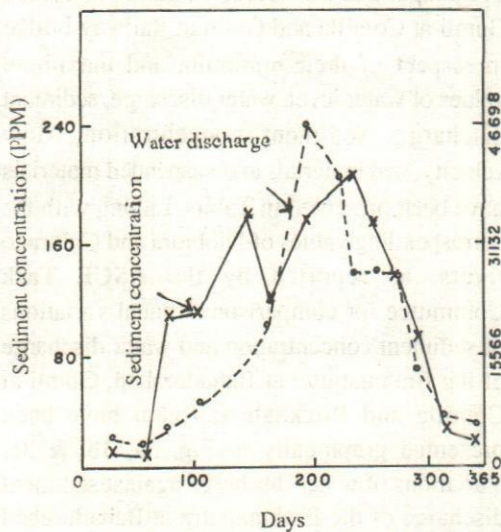


Fig. 3b : Brahmaputra at Bahadurabad during the year 1982

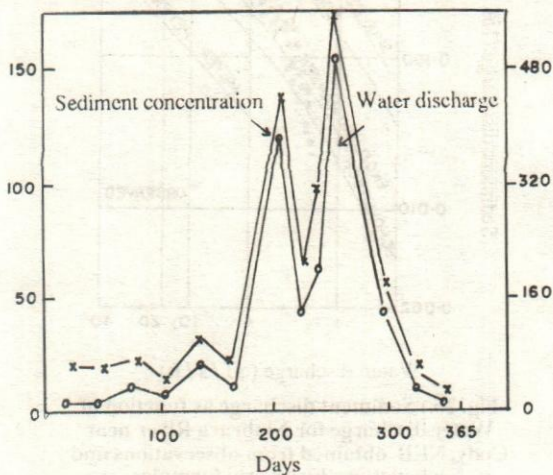


Fig. 3c : Bogkhli at Ramu during the year 1982

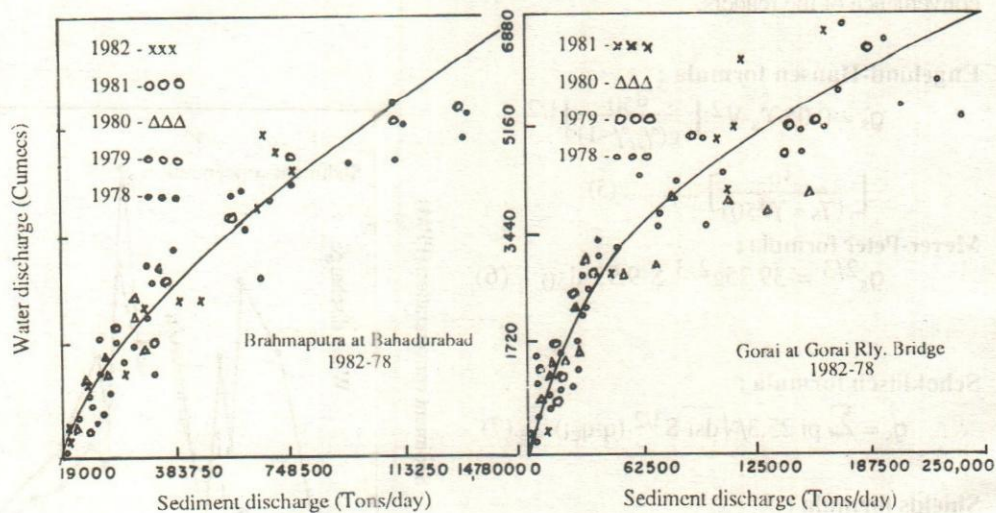


Fig. 4

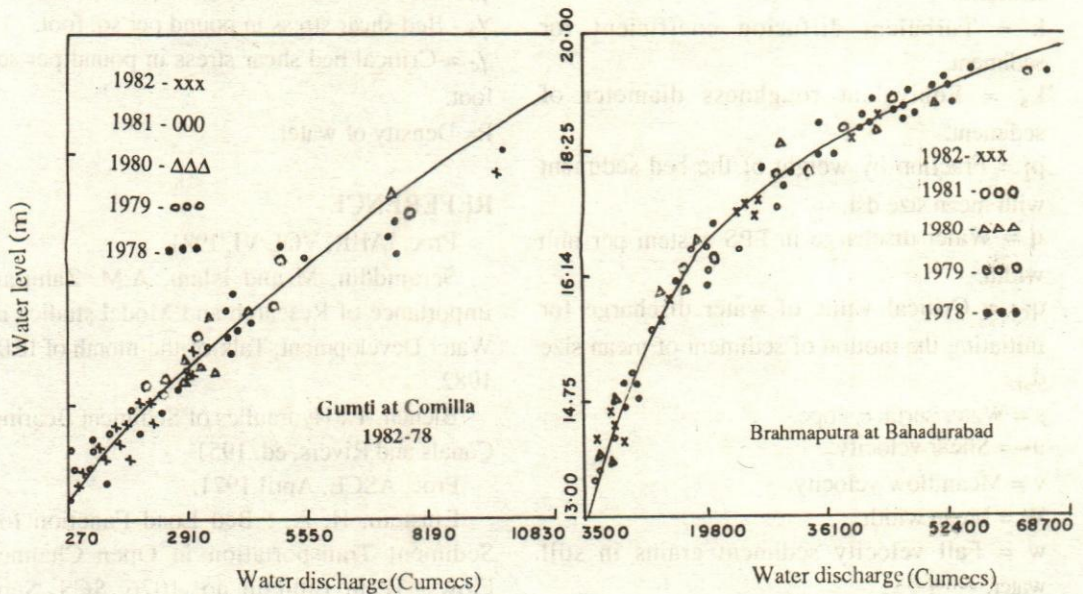


fig. 5

DISCUSSIONS :

The results presented in Table- 1 will give an indication about the range of variations of the concerned parameters of the rivers where as the graphs provided in Figs. 3, 4 & 5 may be used as tools for computing one variable when the other is known.

CONCLUSION

A design engineer at the time of designing a hydraulic structure like barrage, drainage channel, irrigation canal, reservoir, flushing sluice, closure etc, has to consider to what extent his design will be affected by scouring or deposition of sediment. In this respect a sound knowledge among others about the water discharge, sediment concentration, sediment discharge, grain size distribution of bed material, bed load material and suspended material is almost indispensable for proper design.

The data presented in the paper may help an engineer in the planing phase of ascheme and the formulae stated in the paper may help a design engineer in assessing the sediment load he is concerned.

List of symbols

- a = Reference elevation above the bed.
- $b = 2\sqrt{m}$, bed factor.
- C = Sediment concentration (by wt.)
- C_a = Sediment concentration at elevation a above the bed.
- C_0 = Sediment concentration at zero vertical depth.
- d_{50} = Medium size of the bed sediment in feet.
- d_{si} = Mean sediment size.
- f = Lacey's silt factor.
- g = Acceleration due to gravity.
- g_s = Sediment discharge in pound per see per foot of width.

I_1 & I_2 = Integral functions evaluated by Einstein.

k = Turbulent diffusion coefficient for sediment.

k_s = Equivalent roughness diameter of sediment.

p_i = Fraction by weight of the bed sediment with mean size d_{si} .

q = Water discharge in FPS system per unit width.

q_{ci} = Critical value of water discharge for initiating the motion of sediment of mean size d_{si} .

s = Water surface slope.

u^* = Shear velocity.

v = Mean flow velocity.

W = Mean width.

w = Fall velocity sediment grains in still water.

γ = Vertical coordinate.

γ = sp. wt. of water in pound per cubic foot.

γ = sp. wt. of the sediment grain.

γ_s = Bed shear stress in pound per sq. foot.

γ_o = Bed shear stress in pound per sq. foot.

γ_c = Critical bed shear stress in pound per sq. foot.

P = Density of water.

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Table-1
Comparison of parameters of several rivers for the year 1982

Characteristics. River	Water discharge in m ³ /sec.		Sediment discharge in tons/day		Sediment conc. in ppm by wt.		Water level in m (PWD)		Flow velocity in m/sec.		Ranges of material in mm	
	max.	min.	max.	min.	max.	min.	max.	min.	max.	min.	bed.	suspended
1. Gumi at Comilla	275	142	13519	73	569	60	10.72	7.98	1.03	0.41	.90-.001	.39-.001
2. Gorai at Gorai Rly.	5440	630	159,995	929	278	29	12.66	3.68	1.65	1.02	.40-.002	.40-.001
3. Surma at Sylhet	1292	5	44,651	12	400	26	33.61	10.66	1.11	0.14	.84-.001	-
4. Brahmaputra at Bahadurabad.	46,700	3515	9,39,645	3210	233	10	18.77	13.06	2.70	1.00	.27.011	.07-.009
5. Colorado at Taylor's Ferry	312	105	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.80	0.70	-	-
6. Niobrara near Cody	20	6	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.37	0.54	-	-

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