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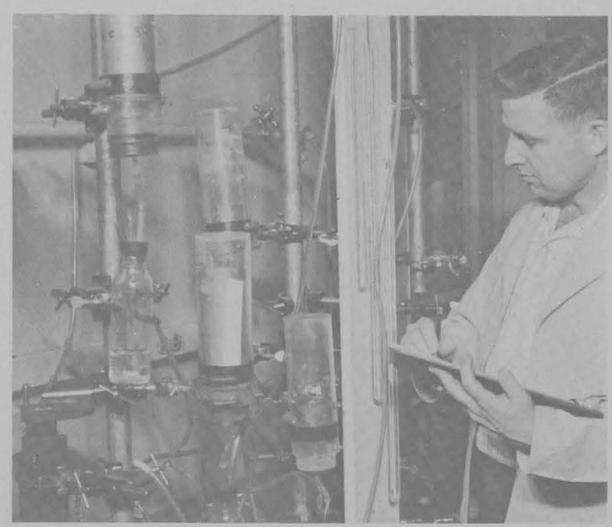
UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
GEOLOGICAL SURVEY

Johnson, A.I.

COMPILATION OF SPECIFIC YIELD
FOR
VARIOUS MATERIALS

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PREPARED IN COOPERATION
WITH THE CALIFORNIA
DEPARTMENT OF WATER
RESOURCES



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By A. I. Johnson

PREPARED IN COOPERATION WITH THE CALIFORNIA DEPARTMENT OF WATER RESOURCES

U.S. Geological Survey Open-File Report

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SPECIFIC YIELD--

COMPILATION OF SPECIFIC YIELDS FOR VARIOUS MATERIALS

By A. I. Johnson

ABSTRACT

The specific yield of a rock or soil is the ratio of (1) the volume of water which, after being saturated, it will yield by gravity to (2) its own volume, and usually is expressed as a percentage. The quantity of water that will drain by gravity is dependent on variables such as time of drainage, temperature, mineral composition of the water, and various rock or soil physical characteristics, such as texture. These values, though not definitive, nevertheless offer a convenient means for estimating the water-yield capacities of earth materials, and as such have much use in hydrologic studies.

The present report is a compilation of direct quotations and pertinent illustrations from many selected reports on methods for determining specific yield, limitations of the data, and results of the determinations of specific yield as related to texture for a wide variety of rock and soil materials. Although no particular values are recommended, a table summarizes values of specific yields determined for 10 rock textures and gives average values. An abstract of the table follows.

Specific yields of various materials

[Rounded to nearest whole percentage]

Material	Number of determinations	Specific yield		
		Maximum	Minimum	Average
Clay	15	5	0	2
Silt	16	19	3	8
Sandy clay	12	12	3	7
Fine sand	17	28	10	21
Medium sand	17	32	15	26
Coarse sand	17	35	20	27
Gravelly sand	15	35	20	25
Fine gravel	17	35	21	25
Medium gravel	14	26	13	23
Coarse gravel	14	26	12	22

INTRODUCTION

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this report is to assist hydrologists in estimating the quantity of water in storage in ground-water reservoirs by providing them with a compilation of specific yields representative of a variety of aquifer materials. The data presented here were compiled from those published reports which have presented specific yields in relation to the texture of rock and soil materials. No attempt is made to evaluate the specific yield data, but a table does summarize the published values for the convenience of the reader.

All specific yields from all published reports have not been listed in this report. However, this report does present a cross section of the publications noted as a result of rather lengthy library research. Along with pertinent tables or illustrations of data on specific yield, those parts of the text describing special methodology or the limitations of the data are quoted directly for each publication. In addition, all laboratory and field methods for determining specific yield and specific retention are described briefly to assist the reader in understanding the data compiled herein.

This report was prepared as one phase of the specific-yield research studies by the U.S. Geological Survey, in cooperation with the California Department of Water Resources. The research project has been carried out at the Hydrologic Laboratory of the U.S. Geological Survey at Denver, Colo. The project has been under the general supervision of Fred Kunkel, district geologist of the Ground Water Branch of the Survey, Sacramento, Calif., and under the direct supervision of A. I. Johnson, chief of the Hydrologic Laboratory.

Definition of Terms

Most rock or soil materials contain interstices, or void spaces. The space commonly is described quantitatively by a property known as porosity. Porosity is defined by the American Society for Testing and Materials (1961) as the ratio, usually expressed as a percentage, of (1) the volume of voids of a given soil mass to (2) the total volume of the soil mass. For all practical purposes, ground water fills all void spaces in the saturated zone. Therefore, from the previous definition, it follows that porosity represents a measure of the quantity of water contained per unit volume.

Not all water contained in the saturated zone may be removed from the rock or soil by drainage or by pumping from wells. Gravity ground water is that part of the water that will drain by gravity and thus is available to wells. The part of the water retained by molecular and surface tension forces within the void spaces of the rock and soil materials usually is known as retained water. The water-yielding capacity and water-retaining capacity of rock or soil materials have been identified as specific yield and specific retention. The specific yield and specific retention of a rock or soil when added together are equal to its porosity.

Meinzer (1923a, p. 28) defined the specific yield (w_y) of a rock or soil, with respect to water, as the ratio of (1) the volume of water which, after being saturated, it will yield by gravity to (2) its own volume. This ratio usually is expressed as a percentage.

Because it represents the void space that will yield water to wells and is therefore effective in furnishing water supplies, specific yield occasionally is known as effective porosity. However, because of confusion with similar terms with slightly different meanings used by soil scientists--who also occasionally call it noncapillary porosity--and petroleum geologists, the term "specific yield" is preferred and is used in this report exclusively.

The specific retention (w_r) of a rock or soil, with respect to water, has been defined by Meinzer (1923a, p. 28) as the ratio of (1) the volume of water which, after being saturated, it will retain against the pull of gravity to (2) its own volume. It usually is expressed as a percentage. Soil scientists and engineers use a similar measure called water-holding capacity, but it is expressed as a percentage of dry weight rather than of volume. Water-holding capacity is defined (American Society for Testing and Materials, 1961, p. 1418) as the smallest value to which the water content of a soil can be reduced by gravity drainage. The water-holding capacity may be converted to specific retention by multiplying by the dry unit weight of the rock or soil and dividing by the unit weight of the water.

Acknowledgments

Valuable information on publications suitable for this report was provided by Robert T. Bean, Hal C. Hanson, Helen J. Peters, and Raymond Richter of the California Department of Water Resources, and Joseph F. Poland, U.S. Geological Survey, all of Sacramento, Calif. Their assistance is gratefully acknowledged.

SOME FACTORS AFFECTING SPECIFIC YIELD

Meinzer (1923b, p. 52) indicated that the distinction between gravity water and retained water is not definitive, because the quantity of water that will drain out of a rock or soil material depends on the length of time it is allowed to drain, on the temperature and the mineral composition of the water--which affect its surface tension, viscosity, and specific gravity--and on various physical relations of the rock or soil under consideration. He noted (1923a, p. 29), for example, that a smaller proportion of water will drain out of a short sample than out of a long sample of the same material, because a larger proportion of the short sample will remain saturated as part of the capillary fringe. Meinzer pointed out that methods for determining specific yield have been so little standardized that specific-yield data always should be accompanied by a statement of the methods used, especially as to size of sample and period of draining.

Thus, the quantity of water yielded to wells from a body of saturated rock or soil depends upon its specific yield and not upon its porosity. As an example, the specific yield is 8 percent if a volume of saturated rock 10 feet thick and 100 feet square (100,000 cu ft) will supply 60,000 gallons (8,000 cu ft) of water when drained by pumping from wells. If the rock still retains a total of 13,000 cu ft of water in its void spaces after drainage, its specific retention would be 13 percent and its porosity would be 21 percent (8 + 13). Certain materials--such as clay--have high porosities and, thus, are capable of holding large quantities of water but yield only a small part of it in a reasonable length of time; consequently these materials usually are worthless as aquifers.

The effect of duration of drainage upon specific yield has been noted by a number of hydrologists. Meinzer (1923b, p. 65) stated that most of the gravity water in a rock or soil material is yielded early in the drainage cycle but that there is apparently almost no limit to the period during which slow draining will continue. He noted that fine-textured materials not only yield less water than coarse-textured materials but they also yield it more tardily. He also indicated that for most water-bearing materials the water drained out by rapid lowering of the water table in the immediate vicinity of a heavily pumped well is doubtless considerably less than the total that would be yielded by long-term draining, but that the draining that accompanies the annual fluctuation of the water table is virtually complete.

Williams and Lohman (1949, p. 213, 220) stated that the true value of specific yield is obtained only after the saturated material has been drained for a long period of time. Using field pumping methods, they concluded that their laboratory determinations of about 25 percent specific yield were probably correct and that the apparent specific yield of 15 percent obtained near the beginning of the pumping period would have increased to about 19 percent at the end of the second year of pumping and probably would have reached the true value of 25 percent sometime during the third year of pumping. A report by Prill, Johnson, and Morris (1964, p. 51) presents quantitative information on the phenomenon of time-of-drainage effects on specific yield as determined by laboratory drainage of long columns of material. They concluded that even for sand-size materials a period of two months to more than a year would be required to reach drainage equilibrium and thus give the maximum specific yield.

METHODS OF DETERMINING SPECIFIC YIELD

The specific yield of the rock or soil materials composing the zone of water-table fluctuation must be determined in order to estimate the available water supply represented by each increment of rise in the water table during a period of recharge, as well as to estimate the water supply obtainable from the materials for each increment that the water table is lowered. Although most field methods determine specific yield directly, most laboratory methods determine specific retention, and specific yield is found indirectly by subtracting the specific retention from the porosity.

Todd (1959, p. 24) stated that all methods have limitations-- laboratory samples may be disturbed or not representative, it is difficult to control and measure variables in field tests, and estimates often lack accuracy.

Tolman (1937, p. 482) noted that "perhaps the greatest difficulty in the application of quantitative methods lies in the variability in the texture and hence in the hydrologic properties of the water-bearing materials. The hydrologic properties vary greatly, even with apparently slight differences in texture. Hence the ordinary geologic descriptions are quite inadequate for hydrologic purposes, and quantitative descriptions based on laboratory determinations have become essential."

During the past 6 or 7 decades, a number of laboratory and field methods have been developed for the determination of specific yield or specific retention. However, from the early 1900's until the writer started the specific-yield research project discussed in the report by Johnson, Morris, and Prill (1961), little work had been done by hydrologists in this country to determine specific yield by laboratory methods. To assist the reader in understanding the data compiled in this report, the various laboratory and field methods for determining specific yield are summarized briefly in the following paragraphs. (Also see Meinzer, 1923b, p. 53-76.)

Laboratory Methods

Sample Saturation and Drainage

The method of sample saturation and drainage consists of draining columns of saturated materials by gravity and determining both the volume of material drained and the volume of water yielded. The volume of water yielded can be measured directly or can be computed from the porosity and the moisture content after draining, but the columns must be long enough to avoid having an undue percentage of the column occupied by the capillary fringe. Meinzer (1932, p. 114) pointed out that care must be taken to prevent loss by evaporation and the tests must be made at a uniform temperature or corrections for temperature variations must be applied. Because drainage continues for a long time at a diminishing rate, Meinzer also noted that the specific yield should be determined for specified periods of drainage.

As early as 1892 Hazen studied the water-retaining and water-yielding capacities of filter sands as related to their particle size. By alternate saturation and drainage of different sands, he found that the amount of water retained after the sand had drained increased as the particle size decreased. He found that the percentage of water retained by the finer materials was greater in the lower part of the bed than in the upper part. He explained this by stating that the height to which capillary attraction was effective was in inverse proportion to the square of the effective size of particles.

King (1899) published results of tests of the water-yielding and water-retaining capacities of assorted sands of five different sizes of particle, when these sands were saturated and then allowed to drain over a long period of time. Five galvanized-iron cylinders, 8 feet long and 5 inches in diameter, were filled with sand, and water was introduced at the bottom until the sand was saturated. The columns were allowed to drain for a period of $2\frac{1}{2}$ years. Discharged water was measured or weighed at frequent intervals initially and later only every few days, weeks, or months. At the conclusion of the tests, the quantity of water remaining in each 3-inch layer of sand was determined. The results of King's tests showed discrepancies of about 5 to 7 percent between the porosity (representing the total water content possible under saturated conditions) and the total quantity of water accounted for. King's tests seemed to give lower values for specific retention than Hazen's tests, especially for the coarser samples.

Meinzer (1923b, p. 57) stated that the results obtained by Hazen and King are inadequate and cannot safely be used as a basis for very definite conclusions as to water-yielding capacity. He concluded that many more tests of the same sort obviously were needed.

More recently, Johnson, Prill, and Morris (1963) have made a detailed study of the column-drainage method and determined many of the factors affecting specific yield as determined by this method.

After a standard method was developed for packing columns of porous media (Morris and Kulp, 1961), the research determined that the column diameter (1- to 8-inch) made little difference in the moisture distribution after drainage, that the drainage characteristics made little difference when the media were cleaned with acid, and that similar results were obtained no matter what procedure was used for saturating the media. The distribution of moisture after drainage was similar when any one of four designs of column were used for the tests. Later research (Prill, Johnson, and Morris, 1965) studied the effect of time on column drainage and concluded that even for the sand-size materials used in the study, a very long time would be required to reach drainage equilibrium.

Correlation with Particle Size

Particle-size analysis may be considered a method of estimating specific yield. By determining the specific retention by some other method and the effective size or median diameter by particle-size analysis, the relation of the two could be graphically represented by a curve (Meinzer, 1923b, p. 64). By determining the effective size or median diameter of a sample and referring to the curve, the approximate specific retention could be obtained. After determining the porosity, the specific yield could be obtained as mentioned before. Probably, at best, this method represents a speedy but approximate means for estimating specific yield.

Briggs and Shantz (1912, p. 72) determined the water-holding capacity by interpreting particle-size analyses and developed the following equation: $\text{Water-holding capacity} = (0.03 \text{ sand} + 0.35 \text{ silt} + 1.65 \text{ clay}) + 21$, wherein the water-holding capacity and the sand, silt, and clay are expressed in percentages of the weight of the dry sample. Middleton (1920, p. 160) developed several similar equations which appeared to provide more precise relations than those of Briggs and Shantz.

As a part of the specific-yield-research study discussed earlier, Prill and Johnson ("Specific Yield and Related Properties of California Sediments," manuscript in progress) developed a relation between specific yield and soil texture for samples from the San Joaquin and Antelope Valleys, Calif. The data are presented as specific-yield contours on a trilinear graph of textural classification (fig. 1). The specific yields were determined by both laboratory and field methods and the textural classes were determined by particle-size analysis of samples.

EXPLANATION

— 5 —
 Specific-yield contour: number is
 specific yield, in percent.

Sand size 2 - 0.0625 mm
 Silt size 0.0625 - 0.004 mm
 Clay size <0.004 mm

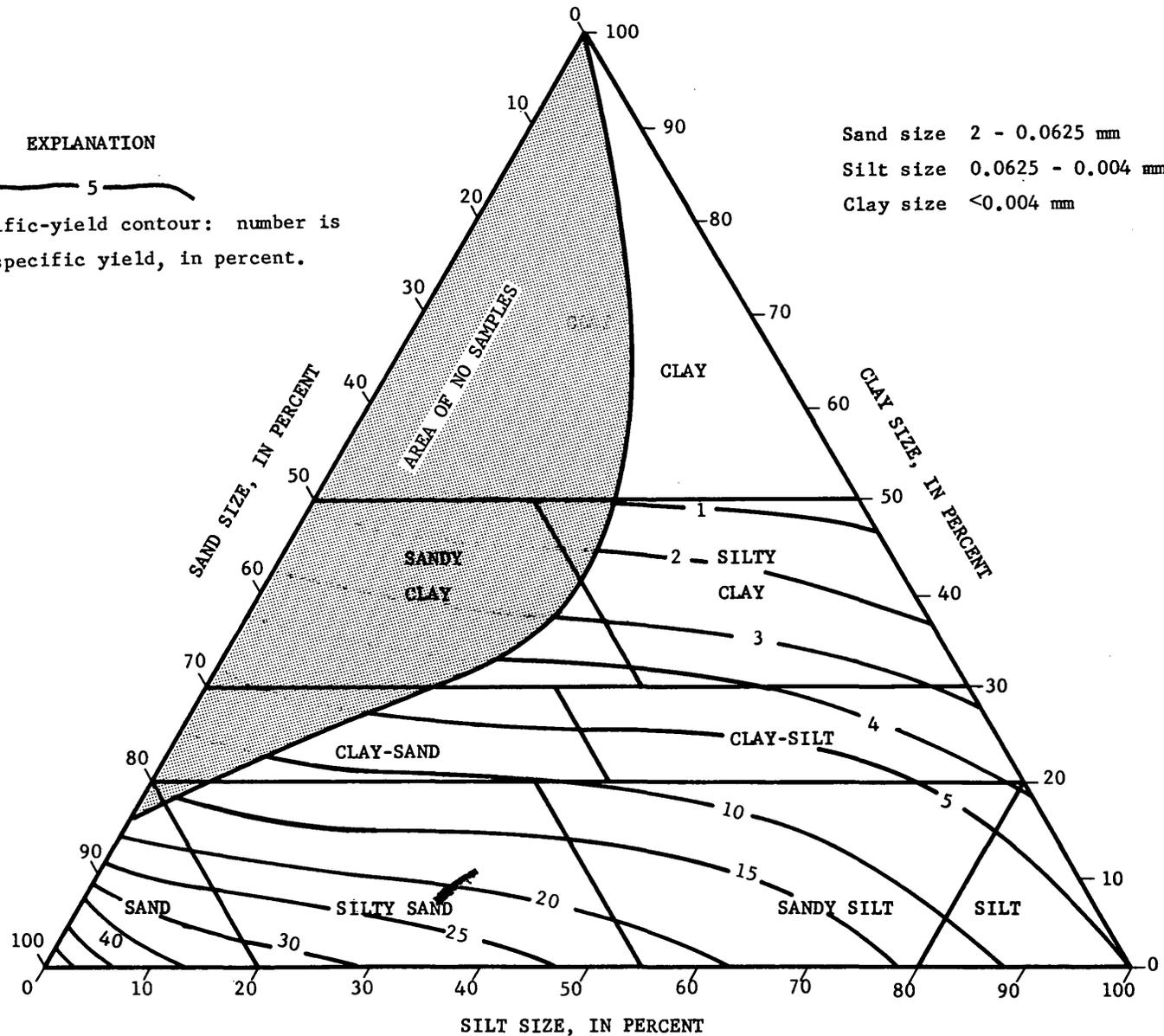


Figure 1.--Soil-classification triangle, showing specific yield as contours.

Centrifuge Moisture Equivalent

Specific yield may also be estimated from the centrifuge moisture equivalent. The latter is defined as the moisture content of a soil after it has been saturated with water and then subjected for 1 hour to a force equal to 1,000 times that of gravity (Am. Soc. Testing Materials, 1961, p. 1404). The centrifuge moisture equivalent is multiplied by the dry unit weight of the soil and divided by the unit weight of water to obtain the moisture equivalent in percentage of volume.

The concept of moisture equivalent was introduced by Briggs and McLane (1907) by determinations on over 100 soils of the moisture retained under a centrifugal force 3,000 times the force of gravity. Stearns (1927) pointed out that the moisture-equivalent method is based on the theory of applying a centrifugal force great enough to reduce the capillary fringe enough so it could be ignored without introducing much error, even in small samples, and yet not great enough to withdraw a large proportion of the water that is held more securely above the capillary fringe. Stearns noted that if a material will lift water 100 inches by capillarity acting against gravity, it will theoretically be able to hold it only 0.1 inch against a centrifugal force that is 1,000 times as great as the force of gravity. Prill (1961) discusses this relation in more detail and points out that water retention after centrifuging was comparable to that obtained by gravity drainage of long columns.

Briggs and McLane made their earlier determinations under a centrifugal force of 3,000 times gravity, but in a later publication (1910) they suggested that a force 1,000 times gravity could be used.

In 1912 Briggs and Shantz conducted moisture-equivalent tests employing a force 1,000 times gravity, and since then that force has been accepted as standard by most investigators, including the U.S. Bureau of Public Roads (1942), American Society for Testing and Materials (1961), and American Association of State Highway Officials (1942). However, many studies have been made since 1912 concerning the relation of many other factors to the moisture equivalent obtained.

Considerable experimental work has indicated that for at least some medium-textured materials the moisture equivalent approximates specific retention. Israelson (1918) stated that correlations between the moisture equivalent and the water retention after irrigation showed gratifying agreement. In 1933 Piper determined a relation (fig. 2) between centrifuge moisture equivalent and specific retention as determined by the field drainage of long columns of various materials. Since that time, the centrifuge moisture equivalent, in percentage of volume, has been adjusted to specific retention by multiplying by the ratio-correction factor determined by Piper (1933). This value is subtracted from the porosity to obtain the specific yield.

In 1963 Johnson, Prill, and Morris reported a detailed study of the centrifuge-moisture-equivalent method. This research showed, for example, that the effect of temperature was of sufficient magnitude to warrant establishment of a standard temperature for the test (Prill and Johnson, 1959). Since 1959, centrifuge moisture equivalents determined by the Hydrologic Laboratory have been made at a constant temperature of 20°C., and the American Society for Testing and Materials now (1966) has adopted this temperature as their standard for the test.

(Illustration from Piper, A. M., 1933)

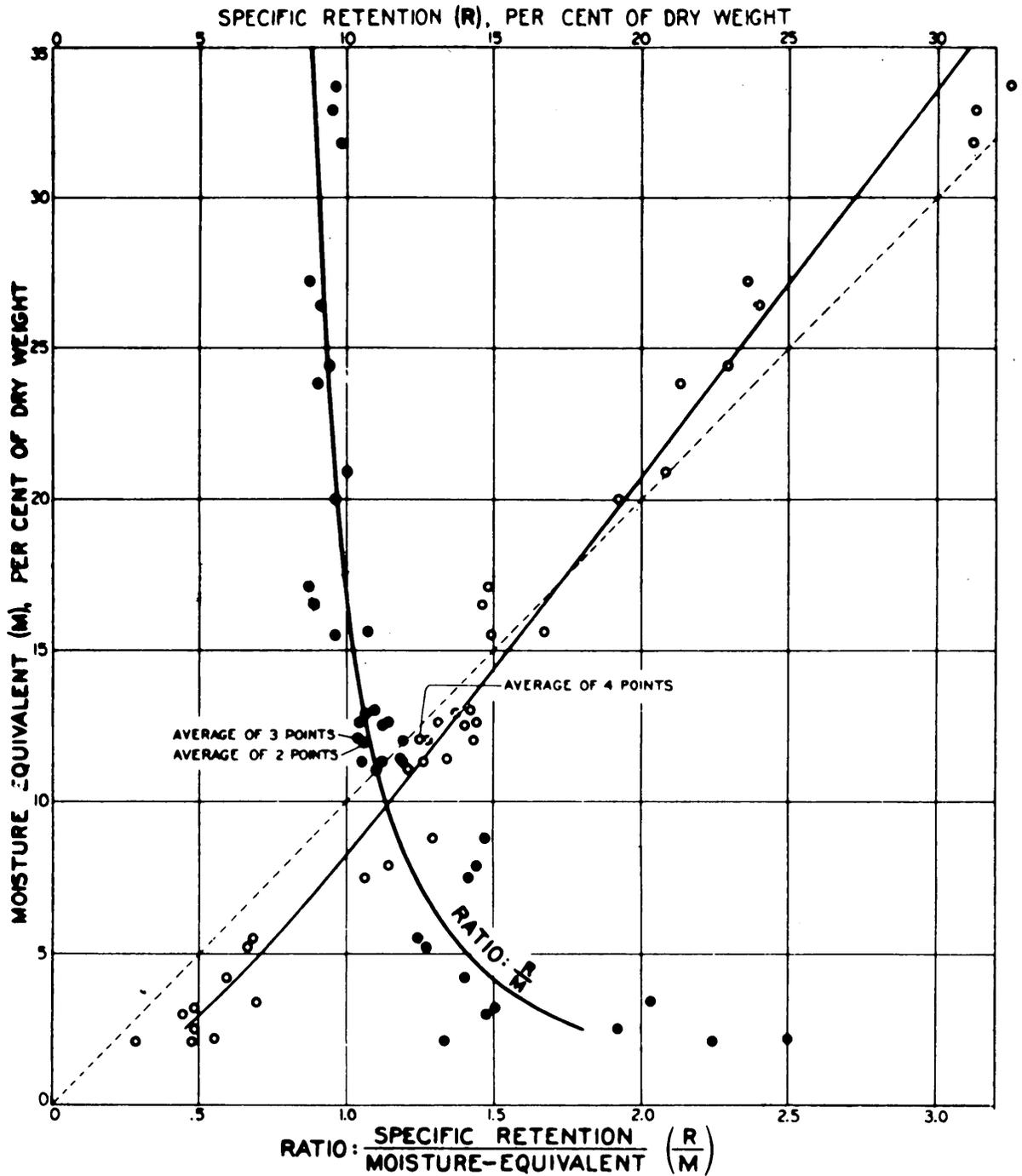


Figure 2.--Relation of moisture-equivalent to specific retention

Moisture-Tension Techniques

Moisture tension has been defined as the equivalent negative gage pressure, or suction, in the soil moisture. It is equal to the equivalent negative pressure to which water must be subjected in order to be in hydraulic equilibrium, through a porous permeable plate or membrane, with the water in the soil.

For tensions less than one atmosphere, the moisture-tension relations are determined by porous-plate apparatus consisting of a light-duty pressure chamber in which porous ceramic plates are installed. An air compressor maintains the air within the pressure chamber at a value equivalent to a given tension force.

Duplicate samples of the soil, retained in $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch-high plastic rings, are placed on the porous plates in the pressure chamber and allowed to saturate by capillary action. The samples are subjected to a pressure equivalent to the desired tension until the water outflow from the pressure chamber has attained equilibrium. The samples are then removed from the pressure chamber, and the moisture content by weight is determined.

The moisture content at 1/10- to 1/3-atmosphere tension has been considered as approximately equivalent to the field capacity (Coleman, 1947; Richards and Weaver, 1944), which if converted to moisture content by volume would approximate specific retention. Prill and Johnson (1965) have investigated moisture-tension techniques in detail in the interest of applying them to the routine determination of specific retention. They found, for example, that the moisture distribution in porous media as determined by moisture-tension techniques was comparable to that determined by gravity drainage of long columns.

Petroleum-reservoir engineers have used a mercury-injection method (Purcell, 1949) to determine the variation of capillary pressures (somewhat similar to moisture-tensions) above the water table. The Hydrologic Laboratory presently is studying the adaptability of this method to the estimation of specific retention and specific yield.

Field Methods

Field Saturation and Drainage

This method is similar in principle to the laboratory method. Meinzer (1932, p. 115) indicated that a plot of land should be selected where the water table and capillary fringe are at sufficient depth below the surface to permit gravity drainage. The material underlying the plot should then be thoroughly wetted and allowed to drain--care being taken to avoid all possible evaporation. After a sufficient period of drainage, samples are taken for determination of moisture content and porosity, and the specific yield is computed as the difference between these two.

Israelson (1918) conducted a series of field tests of the water-retaining capacities of different type soils in Sacramento Valley, Calif. His method was to determine the porosity of the different soils and their water content at successive depths immediately before irrigation and again about four days after irrigation. This second determination gave approximately the specific retention with limited drainage time.

Sampling After Lowering of Water Table

After appreciable lowering of the water table, samples are collected from the zone immediately above the capillary fringe. The moisture content and porosity of the samples are determined, and the specific retention and specific yield are calculated. Meinzer (1932, p. 116) cautions that when making tests of this kind, it is essential to ascertain that the part of the deposit from which the sample is taken has not received any recent contribution of water from rain or irrigation or has not been exposed to evaporation or to absorption by plants--both of which consume water that is retained against gravity by molecular attraction.

Experiments were made by Lee (Ellis and Lee, 1919) on fill of the major stream valleys of San Diego County, Calif. His method was to collect samples immediately above the capillary fringe after the water table had been appreciably lowered, as commonly happens in summer and autumn. Johnson and Kunkel (1963) discuss results of this method, combined with moisture-content determination by nuclear meter, to determine the specific yield in the area of water-table lowering surrounding a large well field near Fresno, Calif. They found that the moisture distribution determined by this field method could be reproduced very well by data obtained by the centrifuge, moisture-tension, and column-drainage techniques in the laboratory.

Pumping Method

This method consists of observing the lowering of the water table and determining the volume of sediments drained by pumping a measured volume of water. The specific yield is then obtained as the ratio of the volume of water pumped to the volume of sediments drained (Meinzer, 1932).

Pumping water from a well lowers the piezometric surface around the well and creates a cone of depression. In a carefully controlled pumping test, data are obtained on the rate of discharge, water-level measurements, and time since pumping started. The drawdown data are then used in various formulas to calculate the magnitude of one of the most important hydraulic characteristics of an aquifer--the coefficient of storage. Wenzel (1942, p. 87) defined the coefficient of storage as the cubic feet of water discharged from each vertical column of the aquifer with a base 1 foot square as the water level falls 1 foot. For water-table conditions the coefficient of storage is equal to the specific yield of the material unwatered during the pumping; for artesian conditions the coefficient is equal to the water obtained from storage by the compression of a column of water-bearing material whose height equals the thickness of the water-bearing material and whose base is 1 foot square.

Thiem (1906) apparently was the first hydrologist to develop a formula to determine aquifer characteristics by a well-pumping method. However, the greatest advance in aquifer analysis by well hydraulics was probably made through the development of the non-equilibrium formula by Theis (1935). The theory advanced by Theis introduced the time factor and the coefficient of storage. Since 1935, many modifications of formulas or methods of interpretation have been developed.

Methods for computing storage coefficient (specific yield) by the pumping method are described in detail by Wenzel (1942), Ferris (1948), Brown (1953), Bruin and Hudson (1955), and Ferris and others (1962). Most of the methods are based on the following assumptions: (a) the aquifer is homogenous and isotropic; (b) the aquifer has infinite areal extent; (c) the discharging well penetrates and receives water from the entire thickness of the aquifer; (d) the well diameter is infinitesimal; and (e) water removed from storage is discharged instantaneously with decline of head. Although very few field conditions meet these restrictive assumptions, successful application of the pumping method seems possible for many ground-water problems. Ferris (1948) pointed out that these methods can assist in the interpretation of local geology, but also emphasizes the point that any disagreement between the hydraulic and geologic evidence in a given problem is untenable and points to incorrect interpretation of either or both sets of data.

Specific yield could also be estimated from moisture contents determined by sampling or nuclear-meter logging in the cone of depression around a pumped well.

Recharge Method

The recharge method is the converse of the pumping method and consists of observing the seepage losses from streams or canals, or the amount of water recharged into an aquifer through a recharge well, and making corresponding observations on the resulting rise of the water table. From these observations, the volume of sediments saturated by the measured recharge is determined, and the specific yield can be computed (Meinzer, 1932, p. 116).

Moulder (1957) used the recharge method to analyze aquifer characteristics near Amarillo, Texas, and found that water levels may have risen as much as 5 feet during the 4-month recharge period. He noted that slow drainage or slow filling of sediments with water made the data collected early in the tests unusable for analysis by the nonequilibrium method. Moulder concluded that conformance to theoretical conditions takes longer times at greater distances from the pumping or recharging well.

Sniegocki (1963) made a detailed study of the fundamental principles of artificially recharging aquifers through wells. Results of his study show that recharge data may be satisfactory for calculating absolute values for hydraulic characteristics, such as specific yield (or coefficient of storage), for an aquifer. He concluded (Sniegocki, 1963, p. 22-23) that, if such a procedure is reliable and the field situation readily adaptable for a recharge test, the testing period generally required to determine absolute hydraulic constants could be shortened as much as 90 percent. He noted that the coefficient of storage (specific yield) for the aquifer in his study was 0.30 (30 percent) after cyclical recharge for about 9 days; whereas, in the discharge situation, a value of 0.30 would not be obtained until pumping had continued for more than 100 days. Meinzer had suggested earlier (1932, p. 136) "*** better results can doubtless be obtained, however, if the specific-yield test is made immediately after the well has been shut down, when the quantity of water taken into storage in the cylinder (cone of depression) will be equal to the total inflow during the period and the volume of material saturated can be computed from the rise of the water levels."

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following paragraphs present the results of library research to compile a list of specific yields for rock and soil materials of various textures. Pertinent parts of the publications describing the methods or limitations of the data have been quoted. All the following text is direct quotation, except for minor changes made by the writer, wherein additions are indicated by brackets []--or underlined in the case of figure and table numbers, and deletions are indicated by asterisks.

Clark, W. O., 1917, Ground water for irrigation in the Morgan Hill area, California, in Contributions to the hydrology of the United States, 1916: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 400, p. 82-83.

* * * The alluvium is composed, according to 69 well logs, of about 69 percent clay, 29 percent gravel, and 2 percent sand. From the available data on porosity (* * *) it has been concluded that the porosity of the sand and gravel is about 35 percent of its volume, that of the clay 32 percent, and that of the alluvium as a whole about 33 percent.

The vital question in this connection is not so much the total porosity of the materials and the total quantity of ground water present as the quantity of water that these materials will yield under a pump. Different materials by no means give up water to a pump in the proportion of the total water they contain. Fine materials are usually better sorted than coarser materials and therefore when saturated they may contain even more water than the coarser materials, but they permanently retain a large percentage of this water, whereas the coarser materials readily part with a large percentage of their water content. The fine materials are therefore of comparatively little value as water producers and the coarse materials are the important water-bearing formations.

The following table [table 1] shows the relative amount of water retained by sands of different degrees of fineness.

Table 1.--Quantity of water retained and given up by different sands after draining for 2½ years

[Based on tables given by King, 1899]

Effective diameter of sand grains, in millimeters	Porosity of sands, expressed in percentage of total volume	Quantity of water retained, expressed in percentage of total volume of the sands	Quantity of water given up by the saturated sands, expressed in percentage of total volume of the sands
0.47	38.86	6.57	32.29
.18	40.07	7.37	33.70
.16	40.76	10.35	30.41
.12	40.57	12.49	28.08
.08	39.73	14.09	25.64

It will be seen from this table that the coarsest of the five sands tested gives up a quantity of water equal to 32.29 percent of the total volume of the sand, or somewhat more than 83 percent of the water it contains. The gravel and sand of the Morgan Hill district are on the whole considerably coarser than this sand and would give up a larger proportion of their water. For purposes of calculation it is assumed that they would give up about 90 percent of their total water content. If the alluvium includes 29 percent of gravel and 2 percent of sand, these materials will hold a quantity of water equal to 10.85 percent of the total volume of the saturated alluvium; if they will yield 90 percent of this water they will furnish a quantity of water equal to 9.77 percent of the total volume of the saturated alluvium [table 2]. The clays form about 69 percent of the alluvium, and their average porosity is about 33 percent of their total volume. Clays give up a very small percentage of the water they contain. It is stated by King [1899] that clays of fine texture may retain as much as 32 percent of their dry weight of water.

The materials called clay in the Morgan Hill area are not true clays but perhaps more nearly clay loam, so that the quantity of water they retained would be considerably less than that retained by fine clay. The porosity of fine clays would be greater, but the clays from which the porosity data here used were obtained were not true clays, and hence it is believed that their average porosity represents the porosity of the clays of the Morgan Hill area. It is thought that 90 percent of the amount required for saturation is a liberal estimate for the quantity of water retained by the clays of the Morgan Hill area--that is, they would give up 10 percent of the amount required to saturate them. As about 69 percent of the alluvium is clay and the porosity of this clay is taken as 33 percent of its volume, the pore space in the clay is equal to about 22.77 percent of the total volume of the alluvium. If it gives up 10 percent of the water required for saturation the clay would yield a quantity of water equal to 2.28 percent of the volume of the saturated alluvium [table 2]. The total water that the saturated alluvium will give up is therefore calculated to be 12.06 percent of its volume.

Table 2 .--Specific yields for alluvial deposits in the Morgan Hill area, Santa Clara Valley, Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel, with sand-----	10
Clay loam -----	2

Ellis, A. J., and Lee, C. H., 1919, Geology and ground waters of the western part of San Diego County, California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 446, p. 121-123.

* * * Experiments made by the writer on 36 samples from the fill of the major river valleys of San Diego County, the material varying from coarse sand to silt, indicated total voids expressed as percent by volume as follows: Coarse sand, 39 to 41 percent; medium sand, 41 to 48 percent; fine sand, 44 to 49 percent; fine sandy loam, 50 to 54 percent. The average porosity of all 36 samples was 45.1 percent. The classification of materials is that used by the Bureau of Soils of the United States Department of Agriculture. These percentages represent the porosity of the material under natural condition as to size and arrangement of grains [table 3].

* * * * *

A certain proportion of the moisture that occupies the voids of any saturated porous material does not readily drain out, even when the zone of saturation has fallen below the depth from which the capillary rise of water is rapid. This moisture can not be extracted by pumping nor does it represent water that drains out and is replenished during the natural fall and rise of the water table. To determine the water-retaining capacity of various valley-fill materials, six experiments were made after the annual summer lowering of the water table had taken place. The water-retaining capacity was found to range from 6 to 10 percent in the coarse, medium, and fine sands, but no finer materials were examined where the depth to the water table was great enough to enable the field capacity to be determined with certainty. Etcheverry, [1915] quoting from Widtsoe's extensive experiments, gives the water-retaining capacity of sandy loam as $14\frac{1}{2}$ percent by weight, which is equal to about 22 percent by volume, and this percentage can be considered as representing roughly the condition in sandy loam soils of the major river valleys under consideration. The total volume of water that might be drained from the valley fill by the slow lowering of the water table can be estimated as ranging from about 33 to 37 percent by volume. Such complete drainage, however, requires considerable time, and the relatively quick drainage resulting from the artificial lowering of the water table by pumping undoubtedly represents the extraction of far less of the total water content. In practice the proportionate volume that could be extracted from the valley fill of the major valleys probably does not exceed 20 to 25 percent. * * *

Table 3.--Specific yields of valley-fill materials in San Diego County,
Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Coarse sand -----	34
Medium sand -----	37
Fine sand -----	37
Fine sandy loam -----	30

Stearns, H. T., Robinson, T. W., and Taylor, G. H., 1930,
Geology and water resources of the Mokelumne area,
California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 619,
p. 151-172.

* * * Experimental field tests were made on undisturbed soil columns to determine the specific yield of the soil directly above the water table. These soil columns were obtained during the fall, when the water table was at its lowest level. In this way a test was made of the soil within the belt of fluctuation of the water table.

A cylinder 18 inches in diameter and 36 inches long made of 16-gage galvanized iron was used for the tests. The cylinder was butt-jointed and riveted, and the joints were floated with solder and scraped smooth on the inside. A 3-inch iron collar was riveted and spot welded to the top of the cylinder to prevent damage to the cylinder in driving it. The bottom outside edge of the cylinder was beveled with a file to facilitate driving, and three equally spaced holes were drilled near the top, through which wires were placed to lift it.

A 4-foot square pit was dug within $3\frac{1}{2}$ or 4 feet of the water table. The cylinder was then driven into the bottom of the pit, and the soil was excavated around the cylinder as driving progressed. A driving cap of 2-inch planking was used on top and a 4 by 4 inch timber about 14 feet long, handled by two men, was used in a manner similar to a pile driver. Constant care was taken to keep the cylinder in a vertical position while it was being driven. Special care was taken as the soil neared the top of the cylinder to keep the soil from being compacted by the driving cap. Driving was stopped when the bottom of the cylinder was within a few inches of the water table. A strong flexible wire was then used to saw through the soil column at the bottom edge. Heavy wires were strung through the holes near the top of the cylinder by means of which the cylinder was lifted a fraction of an inch by either a lever or block and tackle. The cylinder was suspended only long enough to allow a 24 by 24 inch 16-gage galvanized-iron base plate to be slipped under it. If the soil was not compact enough to remain in the cylinder when lifted this much, the plate was forced under the cylinder by means of an automobile jack, special care being used to keep the plate flush with the bottom edge of the cylinder. The latter method proved to be the simpler of the two. The cylinder was then centered on the plate and leveled. It was found that for the base plate 12-gage galvanized iron is preferable to 16-gage.

Two $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch holes were then drilled in the confined soil column about 4 inches from diametrically opposite sides of the cylinder. These holes were drilled to the bottom of the soil column with a wood auger welded to an extension handle. They were then cased with $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch nickel-plated brass pipes. One of the pipes was perforated the entire length, except 6 inches on the upper end, and the other pipe was perforated only in the lower 6 inches. The perforations were one-sixteenth of an inch in diameter and were drilled in parallel rows about half an inch center to center. * * *

Water was added to the soil in the cylinder by pouring it into the $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hole in which only the lower 6 inches of the casing was perforated. The water was removed from the cylinder by drawing it up into a glass tube or rubber hose, and the amount of water removed or added was measured in a glass graduate.

The distance to the water level in the small holes was measured with a steel tape from the bottom edge of a spirit level placed across the top of the cylinder. A small lead weight, with a blunt point, was placed on the end of the tape, and the measurement was taken when the point of the weight broke the mirror surface of the water in the $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch holes. Measurements were made in one hole immediately after measurements had been made in the other, to ascertain whether or not the water table in the cylinder was level.

* * * * *

* * * the resulting specific yield would have been larger and more nearly the actual specific yield if the time interval between changes of water in the cylinder had been greater. Experiments conducted the following year proved that an interval of several days is necessary to obtain accurate results.

Tests 1, 2, and 5 are completed, but the remainder of the tests are still in progress, and the data obtained will be given in a later report. Additional observations are necessary and may change the results given here, hence these data are of a preliminary nature and subject to revision [table 4].

Test 1.--The time interval allowed for each determination was not long enough for accurate results. The average specific yield for a rising water table was 1.04 and for a falling water table 0.59. The average of the two is 0.82. The soil tested consisted of fine black clay and coarse black sand. The test was made chiefly on the fine black clay, which has a low specific yield and the result obtained is about what would be expected.

Test 2.--The soil was mainly a medium-coarse brown sand, hence the specific yield should be relatively high. The time interval for the first part of the experiment was short, being not over 45 minutes, but for the last part of the test the time interval ranged from about 1 hour to 50 hours. The specific yield was about 20.

Test 3.--The results of this test are not yet satisfactory, the specific yield ranging from 4.26 to 20.2. The soil is similar to that of test 2, and a specific yield of 15 or 20 would be expected. The temperature correction curves were not definite, but the corrections obtained were 0.015, 0.0084, and 0.014 foot per degree.

Test 4.--The soil tested was a very fine black sandy clay with a low specific yield. Owing to an undetected leak in the cylinder only one determination has been obtained so far. The specific yield was 4.4; corrected for temperature, 2.44. Two fairly well defined temperature correction curves have been obtained, showing corrections of 0.0096 and 0.0087 foot per degree.

Test 5.--The soil tested was a brown silty sand. This is doubtless the best test of the group and showed a specific yield of about 10. Very well defined temperature correction curves were obtained, giving corrections of 0.008, 0.0266, 0.0065, 0.0079, and 0.006 foot per degree. The time required for the water table to reach an equilibrium was established as being at least 25 days.

Test 6.--The soil tested was a fine black sandy silt. The specific yields were 1.6 and 1.4; corrected for temperature, 1.2 and 2.6. Fairly well defined temperature correction curves were obtained, showing corrections of 0.0264, 0.0112, and 0.0192 foot per degree. The time interval required for the water table to reach an equilibrium after a change of water was 43, 38, and 38 days for three series of observations.

Test 7.--The soil tested was a hard fine brown and gray sandy clay. Leakage caused considerable difficulty, and only one result of 13.6 for the specific yield was obtained. This result is believed to be high for soil of this texture, but additional data are needed to prove it. The result was obtained for a rising water table and would be too high if there was a small undetected leak in the cylinder. This is possible, for seven days after the last observation was made a leak appeared. Between February 5 and 16, 1929, a well-defined temperature correction curve was obtained, showing a correction of 0.055 foot per degree. Another series of observations gave no definite temperature correction curves, which may be an indication that an undetected leak was present.

Test 8.--The soil tested was a very hard sandy clay. The results are not consistent, for two tests gave a specific yield of 0.16 and 0.15 for a falling water table, and two tests gave 0.64 and 0.62 for a rising water table. Application of the temperature corrections to the results did not make them more consistent. The temperature correction curves were fairly well defined and showed corrections of 0.055, 0.033, 0.0218, 0.0168, 0.0172, and 0.018 foot per degree.

* * * If there were no recharge from April to September, and no discharge other than that by pumping from wells during this period, and if all the pumping occurred during this period, the specific yield could be approximately computed by dividing the average volume of water withdrawn (53,800 acre-feet) by the average volume of material unwatered (360,200 acre-feet). Such a computation would give a specific yield of about 15. If allowances are made for the modifying factors, however, it appears that the specific yield is more nearly 10. Intensive investigation that is now in progress should give a more accurate figure for average specific yield. * * *

Table 4 .--Specific yields of water-bearing materials in the Mokelumne area, near Lodi, Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Medium sand -----	20
Silty sand -----	10
Sandy silt -----	2
Sandy clay -----	2
Clay -----	1

White, W. N., 1932, A method of estimating ground-water supplies based on discharge by plants and evaporation from soil in Contributions to the hydrology of the United States: U.S. Geol. Survey Water Supply Paper 659, p. 74-76.

Determinations of specific yield were first made with the disturbed soils with which the tanks were filled, and it seemed for a time as if the questionable figures thereby obtained were the best that were to be had. After considerable experimenting, however, a method was developed by which determinations were made with undisturbed soils in the fields where ground-water plants were growing. The essential steps in the process were as follows: Cylinders of 16-gage galvanized steel were driven vertically downward so as to inclose undisturbed columns of soil. The cylinders were then sealed at the bottom to make them watertight, and they were also protected against evaporation at the top. Measured quantities of water were introduced into or taken from the cylinders, and the resulting rise or fall of the water table was observed.

Altogether nine cylinders were driven--one 18 inches in diameter and 54 inches high, three 18 inches in diameter and 36 inches high, three 12 inches in diameter and 36 inches high, and two 12 inches in diameter and 18 inches high. With the exception of the 54-inch cylinder all were driven nearly to the water table. All were sunk as closely as possible to selected observation wells, and they were put down in the fall, so as to inclose the soils in which the summer water-table fluctuation had occurred.

In order to reach the water table with one of these cylinders a pit 4 by 6 feet was sunk to a level above the water table equal to the height of the cylinder, the proper level being determined by sinking a small test hole to water and making observations with a wye level. The rim at one end of the cylinder was slightly beveled off in order to provide a cutting edge, and a heavy drive cap was provided consisting of short pieces of 3-inch plank under a block of undressed green oak. Operations were begun by placing the cylinder with cutting edge down, after which the cap was placed on its upper end and it was slowly driven downward, care being taken to keep it in a vertical position. Two methods of driving were used with about equal success--in one the cylinder was driven with a maul wielded by one man in the bottom of the pit; in the other, the drive was provided by a pole

about 6 inches in diameter and 12 feet long used pile-driver fashion, two men being required to handle it, one in the pit and the other standing on a plank over the pit. As the cylinder moved slowly downward the pit was deepened, the bottom of the pit being kept about 6 inches above the lower edge of the cylinder. In this way the friction on the outside of the cylinder was kept at a minimum, and at the same time sufficient support was provided at the bottom to keep the cylinder in a vertical position. When the lower edge of the cylinder reached the water table, the driving was stopped, but the outside excavation was continued until it was slightly below the lower edge of the cylinder. Then with a wire the soil column was sawed off even with the bottom of the cylinder, a bale was attached, and with the aid of a lever the cylinder with its included soil was slightly raised and a bottom was soldered to it. * * * Two small wells were then sunk in the inclosed soil, one to the bottom of the soil column and the other to a somewhat lesser depth. These wells were cased and stopped with cork. Finally the cylinder was provided with a cover to prevent evaporation.

In making determinations of specific yield in these cylinders, water was gradually introduced into the wells until the soil column was saturated practically to the top. Withdrawals were then made until the water table had subsided to the desired position in the column. Then water was alternately taken from or added to the deeper well, and the resulting changes in the water table in both wells were observed. Equilibrium was not established until about 24 hours after the addition of water and about 48 hours after its removal. Pronounced changes in barometric pressure between the time of addition or withdrawal and subsequent water-level observations seriously interfered with the results. On this account it was necessary to make the observations in fair weather. Part of the time it was necessary to make corrections for fluctuations in the water table produced by changes in temperature.

Table 5.--Specific yield of unconsolidated sediments in the Escalante
Valley, Utah

Material	Specific yield [average] (percent)
Sandy clay loam-----	5.3
Loam fill-----	5.1
Clay fill-----	4.2
Clay-----	3.4
Clay loam-----	2.7
Loam-----	2.4

Eckis, Rollin, 1934, Geology and ground water storage capacity of valley fill: California Div. Water Resources Bull. 45, p. 91-246.

The results presented cover a period of two and one-half years of field and laboratory investigation. During this time many methods were tried for determining porosity, water retention, and actual water yield of different sediments. * * *

* * * * *

During the course of this investigation, the moisture retention of about 150 samples was determined, four methods of study being used. In general the retention increases with the degree of fineness of the sediment [table 6]. From an analysis of the results, it is concluded that the approximate moisture retention of coarse sediments can be estimated from an index of fineness, called the surface factor, which is determined from the mechanical composition of the sample.

Five methods for the determination of specific retention were tried during the course of this investigation. Four of these are direct: (1) laboratory drainage method; (2) collection of samples from well pits and borings; (3) cylinders driven after a rain; and (4) cylinders driven into a material, which is then saturated and drained in the field.

A fifth method, not an independent one, is the estimation of specific retention from a description of the properties of the material (surface factor). * * * Wherever possible, the surface factors have been computed, and the ratio of weight of water retained, to surface factor has been given to facilitate comparison.

The Specific Yield Curve. Since both the specific retention and the porosity have been shown to vary with size, the computed specific retentions of the individual samples were averaged for each maximum 10 percent grade size and plotted on the graph [fig. 3]. The measured porosities were averaged and plotted in like manner. Values on the specific retention curve were subtracted from corresponding values on the porosity curve to obtain the points through which the specific yield curve was drawn. The specific yield curve gives the average yield value for gravels of which grade sizes of maximum 10 percent of particles are known approximately. This curve can not be used to predict the specific yield of an individual sample. If coarse gravels are considered to be those with maximum 10 percent grade sizes greater than 64 millimeters, the three grade sizes represented give an average specific yield of 14.1 percent for coarse gravel. If medium gravel be considered to occupy that part of the curve with maximum 10 percent between 16 and 64 millimeters, the two grade sizes represented give an average specific yield of 20.6 percent for medium gravels. If gravels the maximum 10 percent of which is 8 to 16 millimeters be considered fine gravels, the average specific yield of fine gravel is 26.5 percent.

* * * * *

Specific Yield of the Sands. From the specific yield curve [fig. 3], the maximum yield of the alluvial series represented is reached in coarse sand (maximum 10 percent size, 1-2 millimeters), and averages about 32.5 percent. The yield for all alluvial sand samples with maximum 10 percent size coarser than $\frac{1}{2}$ millimeter averaged by grade size is 30.9 percent. These sands are medium to coarse sands, and are considered to be the materials commonly logged as sand and coarse sand by well drillers. The specific yield values for coarse and medium sands were seen to be so nearly the same from the curve, that no attempt was made to differentiate the two for storage capacity computation.

The samples the maximum 10 percent grade sizes of which were greater than $\frac{1}{8}$ millimeter and less than $\frac{1}{2}$ millimeter were considered to be fine sands and probably represent the material logged as fine sand or quicksand by well drillers. The specific yield estimated by averaging grade sizes for fine sand is 21.3 percent.

(Illustration from Eckis, Rollin, 1934)

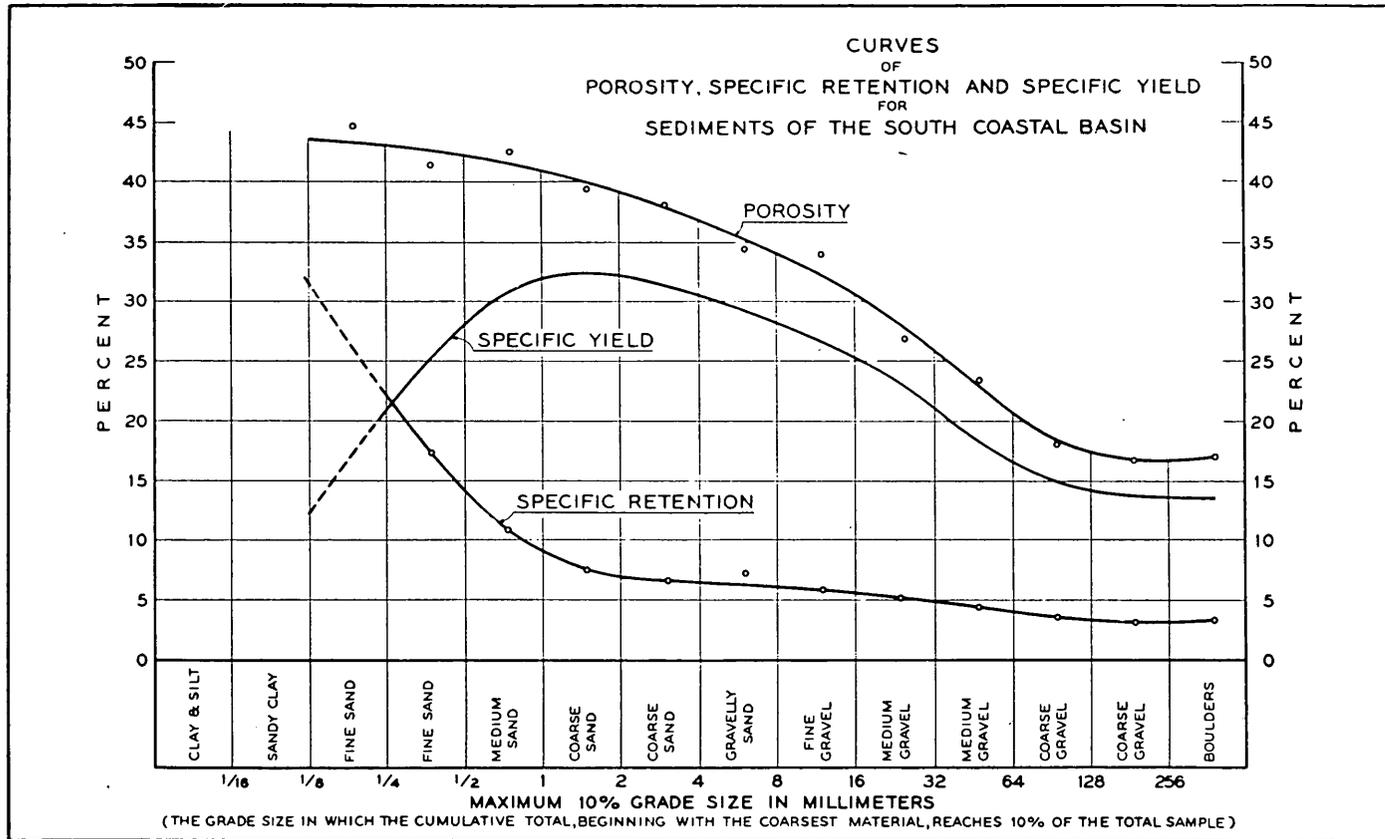


Figure 3.--Graph showing porosity, specific retention, and specific yield for sediments of the South Coastal Basin, Calif.

Since the average specific yields of coarse and medium sand were found to differ only a few percent, no attempt was made to assign different yield values for sand in different regions, as was done for gravels. The curve shows an average of 30.9 percent for the coarse and medium surface alluvial sands.

The sand samples used to obtain these specific yield values were taken from cuts or from borings at depths of a few feet below the surface in order to avoid the abnormally high porosities of unburied sands.

* * * * *

Specific Yield of the Clays. Mechanical analyses were made of only a very few of these samples, and therefore the samples were grouped according to maximum grade size by inspection of the grains under a binocular microscope. It was thought from inspection of about 30 samples in this manner that in those the maximum 10 percent grade size of which did not exceed 1/16 millimeter, the specific retention was generally about equal to the porosity. This lower limit is a rather indefinite approximation, but at any rate the materials classed as sandy clays fall on that part of the specific yield curve lying between 11 percent yield and zero yield. It is thought that these materials are those generally called sandy clays by well drillers. More properly speaking they are very fine sands and silts. The moisture retention and porosity of several samples of sandy clay were obtained from post auger borings at the average depth of a little more than 10 feet. The average computed specific yield of these samples was approximately 10 percent. The specific yields of nine clay samples from post auger holes were computed and found to average approximately zero.

* * * * *

Specific yield values have been estimated for the different types of material that fill the freshwater-producing basins, by adaptation of the results of experiments with surface samples to similar materials encountered in wells.

In order to assign specific yield values to the various types of sediments in the ground water basins the unaltered sediments, with their specific yield values shown on [fig. 3], were classified into gravel, sand, and clay groups with subdivisions under each. Then the corresponding types of materials encountered in wells were classified under each of these groups, and divided into four stages to represent various degrees of alteration, from fresh material to residual clay. The specific yield of each type for each stage of alteration recognized was estimated from the yield of its unaltered derivative. The classification with the yield values is shown in table 6.

The Unweathered Deposits. Line 1, table 6, gives yield values averaged from the specific yield of the unaltered gravel curve [fig. 3]. These values having been derived from practically unaltered surface samples could not be directly applied to the subsurface materials. Line 2 gives the specific yields estimated for subsurface unweathered materials. These values were modified from those of Line 1, because of settling.

The gravel values were reduced only slightly, as it seemed probable that the effects of settling, greatest in sand and clay, would become less with coarser materials and probably practically die out with very coarse poorly sorted gravel and boulders. Thus the specific yield of coarse to medium gravels was reduced an average of five-tenths of one percent (to the nearest whole number), fine gravel 1.5 percent, coarse and medium sand 3 percent, fine sand and sandy clay each about 5 percent. From Curves I and II, of [fig. 4], the loss of porosity from the surface to the depth of 50 feet appeared to be about 5 percent porosity. The depth of 50 feet, being below the steepest part of the curves, was thought to represent a fair average for the amount of compaction, and to take into account practically all of the near surface consolidation due to settling. It seems that lowering the specific yield of these materials (fine sand and sandy clay) 5 percent is conservative, since the specific yield may drop even more than the porosity. The values for coarser sands and gravels, though not measured, were reduced correspondingly less, estimates in all cases being made to the nearest whole number.

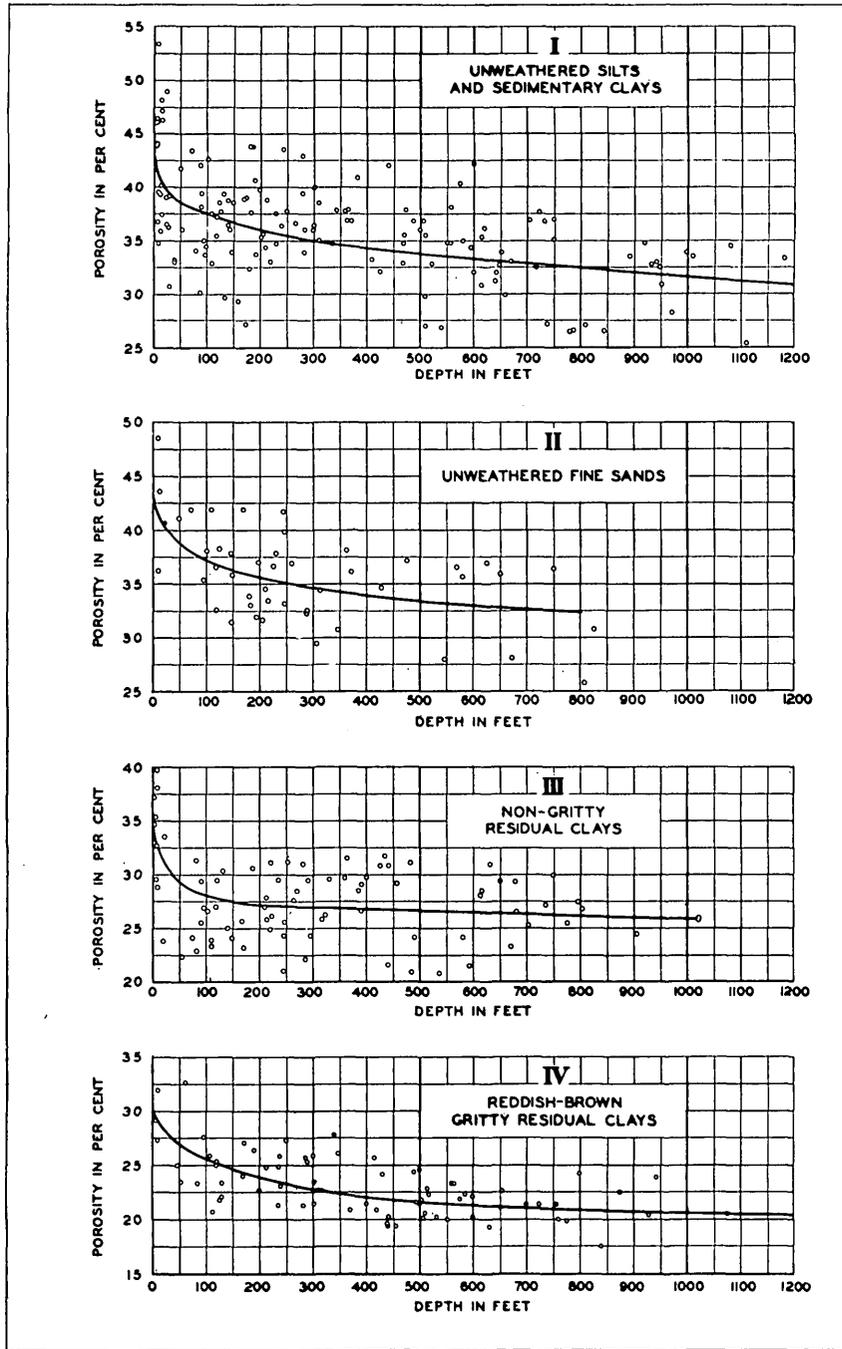


Figure 4.--Graphs showing relation of porosity to depth in certain types of sedimentary materials in the South Coastal Basin.

These subsurface values (Line 2, table 6), estimated from the surface sample averages, represent the unweathered materials of the water-producing section and include such types logged by well drillers, as loose water gravel and loose or running sand, which are the best water-yielding sediments of the formation.

* * * * *

The well samples showed significant size differences from surface gravels only at considerable distances from the mountains and in the regions where the gravels were interbedded with sands and fine gravels. In these areas, the materials on the surface do not represent the true average coarseness because the coarser gravels are usually covered by finer material deposited during the later stages of flood. The well samples were, in such cases, relied upon for size estimates. Values for practically the entire coastal plain were determined in this manner. Well samples were not available for large parts of the upper slopes of the basins and in these areas it was necessary to apply the surface size distribution to the buried materials. The two were thought to be comparable because no significant average size differences were noted between surface and depth conditions where well samples were obtained from the regions of coarse gravel.

Although well samples showed some differences in gravel sizes at different depths, the data were not complete enough to make possible the assignment of correspondingly different values. This inaccuracy is thought to be unimportant since doubling the maximum 10 percent size changes the specific yield only a few percent, and well samples seldom indicate consistent size changes of one grade size with change of depth.

* * * * *

The Weathered Deposits. Since all variations in specific yield from those of the unaltered deposits, to zero for residual clay, occur in weathered deposits, it was found necessary to make an arbitrary classification for the purpose of assigning specific yield values.

The specific yield of weathered gravels and sands depends on: (1) the specific yield of the unweathered deposit, and (2) the extent to which alteration has progressed. Slightly weathered gravels and sands that have retained their original structure are generally classified as tight gravels or tight sands by well drillers. Gravels and sands that have lost a large part of their original structure but retain resistant pebbles or cobbles embedded in a clayey sandy matrix are generally classed as gravelly clays and sandy clays. Gravels and sands that have been altered to red, brown, or gray clayey soils with gritty angular residual fragments embedded, are usually called clay by well drillers. These classifications were adopted and specific yield values assigned accordingly.

The specific yields of the weathered materials could not be successfully classified from measurements on actual samples because of the nature of variation. Therefore specific yields were assigned by making an arbitrary division according to the degree of alteration. Tight gravel was given a yield value of two-thirds that of unweathered subsurface gravel, and gravelly clay, one-third the specific yield of unweathered gravel. Probably the typical residual clay has a yield of zero, but since it is highly variable in composition it undoubtedly contains streaks that yield small quantities of water. It was, therefore, assigned a specific yield of one to indicate a probable slight yield throughout the well section.

The estimation of yield values for weathered sand was less simple. It was found that the decomposition of sand reduced the specific yield sharply, so that materials logged as tight sand had a specific yield value less than two-thirds that of good sand. Sandy clay formed by decomposition, being similar in mechanical composition to unweathered sandy clay, probably has an average specific yield similar to that of unweathered sandy clay.

Since unaltered sands were classified according to coarseness, as sand, fine sand and sandy clay, the two finer divisions were so similar to tight sand and sandy clay (weathered) that it was impossible to separate them in well logs. Therefore the value of 16 percent assigned to fine sand was used also for tight sand, and all sandy clays were considered to yield 5 percent.

Table 6.--Estimated specific yield values for sediments of the South Coastal Basin, Calif.

	Percent yield, gravel				Percent yield, sand		Percent yield, clay	
	256+ mm, boulders	64-256 mm, coarse	16-64 mm, medium	8-16 mm, fine	1/2-8 mm, coarse medium	1/8-1/2 mm, fine	Sandy	Clay
Unweathered--								
Surface alluvial	(1) 13.6	14.2	20.5	26.5	30.9	21.2	10	1
Subsurface alluvial	(2) 13	14	20	25	28	16	5	1
Weathered								
subsurface--								
Tight ^a	(3) 9	9	13	17	16			
Clayey ^b	(4) 4	5	7	8	5			
Residual clay ^c	(5) 1	1	1	1	1			1

^aLime cemented gravels are included in tight gravels.

^bLime cemented sands are included in clayey sand.

^cThe yield of one makes allowance for small sandy or gravelly streaks.

Lugn, A. L., and Wenzel, L. K., 1938, Geology and ground-water resources of South-Central Nebraska: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 779, p. 89-96.

In the laboratory the samples of water-bearing material are saturated and subjected to a centrifugal force approximately 1,000 times the force of gravity. The samples are weighed, then dried and reweighed. The difference in weight represents the weight of the moisture that is retained after centrifuging. The moisture equivalent by weight is computed by dividing the weight of the moisture retained after centrifuging by the weight of the dry soil, and the moisture equivalent by volume is computed by multiplying the moisture equivalent by weight by the apparent specific gravity of the material.

The moisture-equivalent determinations are made to ascertain the specific retention [Meinzer, 1923b]--that is, the quantity of water that a soil or rock will retain against the pull of gravity if it is drained after having been saturated, expressed as the ratio of the retained water to the total volume of material. The specific yield of a material is equal to the porosity minus the specific retention. * * *

* * * * *

Tests for moisture equivalent were made on four samples of loess obtained in the Platte Valley near Lexington. * * * The average moisture equivalent by volume was 33.8, and the average porosity was 53.7. If the average moisture equivalent is taken to represent the average specific retention, the average specific yield of the four samples of loess is about 20 [table 7].

* * * * *

The moisture equivalent of samples of the Pleistocene sand and gravel obtained near Grand Island, Kearney, and Lexington was also determined in the laboratory. * * * One sample was composed principally of clay, and its moisture equivalent was 27.1, and the specific yield 13.2. * * * The moisture equivalents of * * * 17 samples ranged from 1.9 to 3.9 and averaged 2.8. This average falls into the range where Piper found that the moisture equivalent was considerably less than the specific retention. By using his diagram, the specific retention corresponding to a moisture equivalent of 2.6 is found to be about 5. The porosity of the 17 samples of sand and gravel ranged from 21.5 to 41.8 and averaged about 29. The average specific yield is therefore computed to be 29 minus 5, or 24.

* * * * *

The moisture equivalent was determined also for several samples of soil in the vicinity of Lexington. Most of the soil is developed from loess and therefore may be expected to possess similar hydrologic properties. * * * The specific yields of these samples are 4.4 and 21.7 respectively. * * *

A pumping test was made on the farm of Fred Meyer, about 4 miles west of Grand Island, * * * and the specific yield of the water-bearing sand and gravel was determined in place. The method was suggested by Meinzer [1932] and consists of determining the ratio of (1) the quantities of ground water which in a given time are taken from storage between concentric cylindrical sections around the pumped well to (2) the volume of sediments between the cylinders that are unwatered in that time. * * *

* * * * *

The computed specific yield became larger as the pumping increased, for the reason that all the water in the material does not drain out of it immediately. When pumping starts, a comparatively large volume of material is unwatered, partly because only a small percentage of the water contained in the interstices of the sediments immediately drains down to the water table. As pumping is continued, more water gradually drains out of the unwatered sediments, and hence the specific yield computed from the first few hours of pumping is relatively small. The specific yield computed from the volume of water-bearing material unwatered in the last few hours of pumping would be too large because of the addition of water that percolated down from the material previously unwatered. The average results for specific yield * * * plotted against the periods of pumping, fall on a smooth curve. By extending this curve the conclusion is reached that the true specific yield lies between 22 and 23.

The specific yield determined by this test applies only to the upper few feet of water-bearing material that was unwatered during the period of pumping. A sample of water-bearing material from the well drilled at the location of this test was obtained close to the water table. * * * The porosity was found to be 27.1 and the moisture equivalent 2.6 in the hydrologic laboratory. Piper's relation between moisture equivalent and specific retention gave a specific retention of about 5, from which the specific yield is computed to be about 22.

Table 7 .--Specific yields of water-bearing sediments in the Platte
River Valley, Nebr.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Sand and gravel -----	24
Silt (loess) -----	20
Clayey silt -----	13

Piper, A. M., Gale, H. S., Thomas, H. E., and Robinson, T. W., 1939, Geology and ground-water hydrology of the Mokelumne area, California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 780, p. 101-121.

Two methods have been used to determine the specific yield of typical water-bearing materials of the Mokelumne area--(1) measuring the volume of material saturated and unwatered by alternate addition and withdrawal of measured volumes of water from columns of undisturbed soil; and (2) determining the difference between the porosity and the specific retention of samples of undisturbed material after drainage for periods as long as 390 days. These are * * * termed, respectively, the volumetric method and the drainage method.

* * * * *

In the [volumetric] tests * * * the mean elapsed time ordinarily ranged between 19 and 63 days. The shorter term was perhaps inadequate for equilibrium to be fully attained, but in contrast, the three columns for which the elapsed time was least * * * also afford results for specific yield after the lapse of 215 to 220 days and without further withdrawal or addition of water. The longer term increased the specific yield between 1 and 3 percent of the result derived from the shorter term. However, these three columns were coarse in texture; the increase in yield with longer term might well have been greater had the material been finer. * * *

Obviously, the lapse of time required for the water level to reach true equilibrium at any particular temperature depends largely upon the lag in replenishing the capillary fringe as water is added and in draining the fringe as water is withdrawn. In either case, the volume of material saturated or unwatered tends to diminish as the term of the test is lengthened--that is, the result for specific yield tends to increase. All the columns of material tested in the Mokelumne area have tended to give larger results for specific yield by saturation than by unwatering, whence it is inferred that the lag following withdrawal is the greater. For example, among four columns tested in 1930 and 1931, the respective mean results for determinations by saturation are between 108 and 115 percent of the mean results for alternate determinations by unwatering, the particular materials being relatively coarse. That the range might have been much greater for fine materials is suggested by the determinations for column 3626N in 1928-29. For that column, two results for specific yield by saturation were about three times as large as two results by unwatering, although all were small. The experimental errors due to lag seem not to compensate in short-term tests which withdraw and add equal volumes of water alternately. Further, if the columns are too short to contain the full capillary fringe, the results for specific yield tend to be too small, and the error becomes progressively greater as the stage of the water table is raised in the column. All the foregoing considerations suggest that the respective average specific yields determined by the volumetric method are likely to be less than the true specific yields of similar materials in the field.

Figure 5 shows the relation between the results for specific yield as determined by the drainage method and the mean size of the particles composing the respective samples. On that diagram the abscissas allot equal space to successive grades or classes whose limiting particle sizes are in the constant ratio 2:1; thus the silt fraction of the conventional nomenclature spans 3.6 classes, and the clay fraction is extended indefinitely. With three exceptions, the plotted points fall within a moderately narrow zone with parallel straight-line limits as indicated, the width of that zone being equivalent to one class interval. Without exception, the points that represent materials with small dispersion of particle sizes (standard size-ratio deviation is small) fall to the right on the diagram; likewise, the points that represent the materials of higher porosity for any particular mean size and size-ratio deviation fall to the right. These relations suggest that the specific yield of these particular water-bearing materials is a systematic function of mechanical composition and texture, although obviously the 16 tests just described afford too few data for statistical treatment of that suggestion.

The drainage tests on the second set of samples * * * were terminated after about a year (322 to 390 days). In all the samples the quantity of retained water decreased steadily, though at a diminishing rate. Thus, the retention at the end of the tests ranged between 61 and 97 percent of the respective quantities retained after the lapse of 96 to 111 days; also, in general, the greater additional drainage came from the coarser-grained samples. * * * The specific yields derived from the longer term of drainage ranged between 106 and 167 percent of the respective results derived from the shorter term and averaged 127 percent. In general, the percentage increase was least for the materials of large specific yield and greatest for the materials of moderate specific yield.

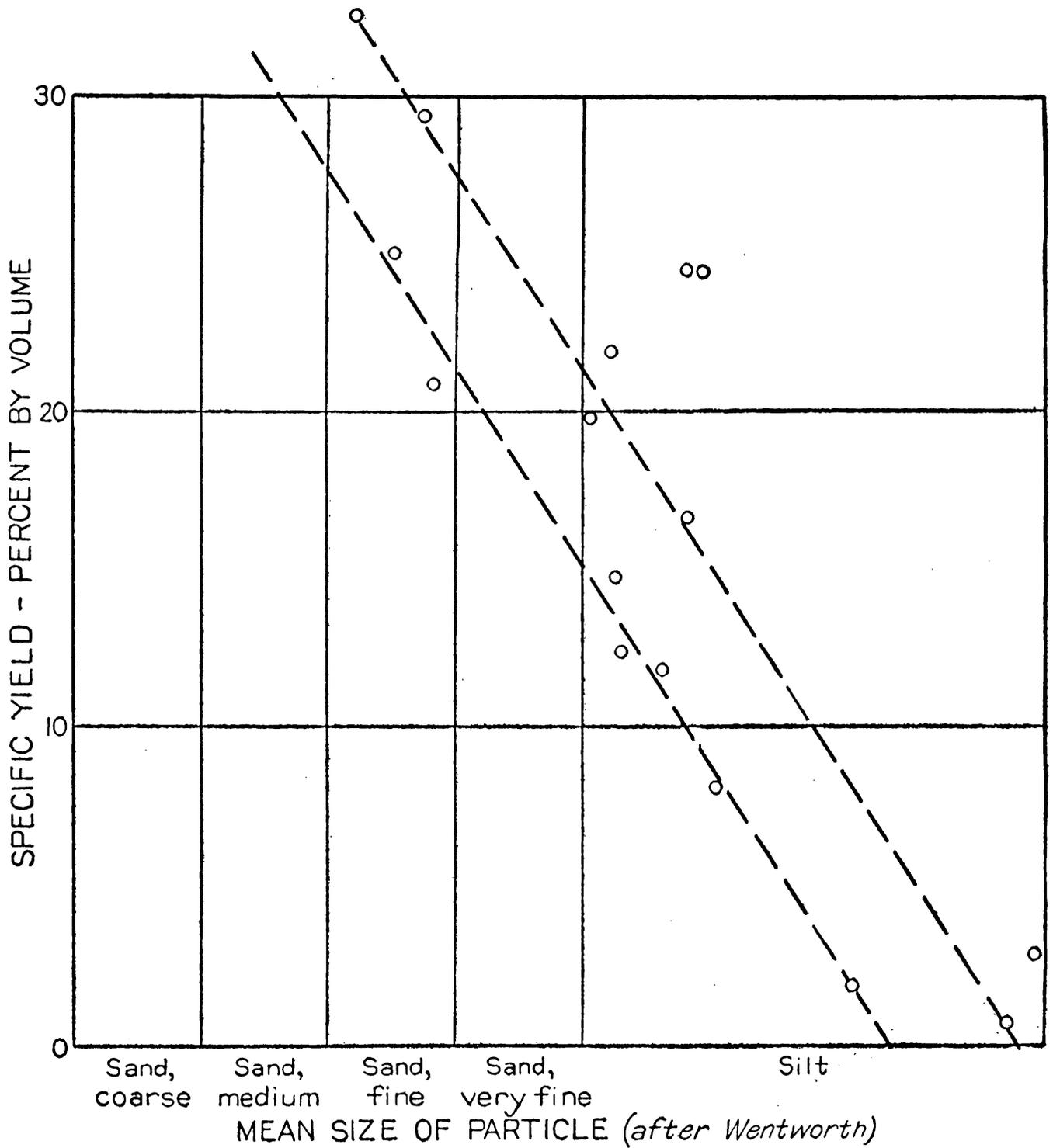


Figure 5.--Relation between texture and specific yield of materials after draining approximately 100 days.

The percentage increase in the results for specific yield derived from the longer term of drainage is greater than the increase in the few long-term tests by the volumetric method. However, it has been inferred that the volumetric method tends to yield results that are too small, whether the test is made by saturation or by unwatering, although the tests by saturation have consistently afforded results somewhat greater than those by unwatering. Accordingly, the increased yield indicated by the long-term drainage tests may measure the actual behavior of water-bearing materials under field conditions, whereas tests by the volumetric method as conducted in the Mokelumne area may not evaluate the final small increments of specific yield.

The graphs that constitute figure 6 show the mean specific retention of the materials tested by the drainage method in relation to their moisture equivalent, a property that has been used commonly as an approximate measure of the quantity of water that a material would retain against the pull of gravity. The graphs are based upon the two sets of axial subsamples taken from the respective gross samples after the two terms of drainage. * * *

* * * * *

Records for 231 irrigation wells within the area that receives percolate are available in sufficient detail to show the physical character of the material in the two zones. Of these, 185 wells have driller's records, which commonly discriminate three general classes of material--"gravel" and "coarse sand," "sand" or "standing sand," and "silt" or "clay." The remaining 46 wells have yielded samples that have been classified according to the standard grades or classes of granular material. * * * By comparing the two sorts of records for several wells within selected small areas approximate correlations have been derived as follows: (1) By "gravel" and "coarse sand" the driller designates material whose dominant grade falls under one or the other of those same terms in the standard classification--that is, material in which most particles are larger than 0.5 millimeter in diameter; (2) "sand" and "standing sand" span the medium-sand and fine-sand grades of the standard classification--that is, they include material in which the dominant fraction is 0.5 to 0.125 millimeter in diameter; (3) "silt" and "clay" include the very fine sand, the silt, and the clay fractions of the standard classification--that is, material composed largely of particles smaller than 0.125 millimeter in diameter. * * * Corresponding mean results for specific yield determined by the drainage method are interpolated from figure 5 as follows: Gravel and coarse sand, 35 percent; medium and fine sand, 26 percent; very fine sand, silt, and clay, 3.5 percent.

(Illustration from Piper, A. M., and others, 1939)

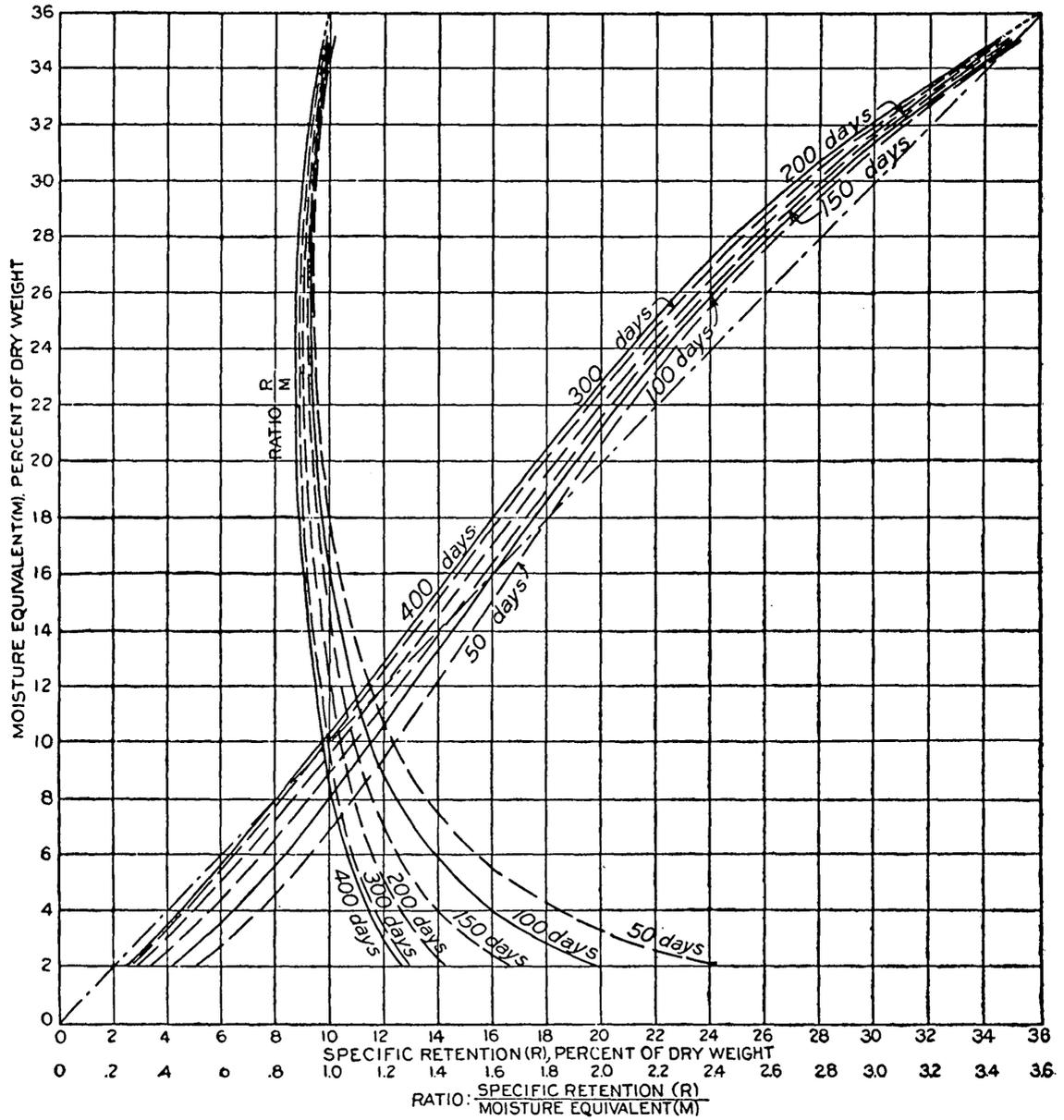


Figure 6.--Relation between moisture equivalent of water-bearing materials and their specific retention after draining 50 to 400 days.

Table 7a.--Specific yields of water-bearing sediments of the
Mokelumne area, California

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel and coarse sand-----	35
Medium and fine sand-----	26
Very fine sand, silt, and clay-----	3.5

Wenzel, L. K., 1942, Methods for determining permeability of water-bearing materials: U.S. Geol. Survey Water Supply Paper 887, p. 110, 100.

It is generally recognized that saturated water-bearing materials when allowed to drain, may yield water rather slowly. Investigations have shown that a sample of material after being saturated may continue to drain for several years, although most of the water in it may drain out in a much shorter time. Thus the value for the specific yield of a material, as ordinarily determined in the laboratory, is not likely to be reached under conditions found in nature except when the water-bearing material is permanently unwatered. Hence, material that is unwatered and then saturated again may hold in the period when it is unwatered considerably more water than is represented by the specific retention of the material.

The slow draining of water-bearing material in the vicinity of a pumped well causes the water table to decline rapidly at first and then more slowly as draining proceeds. * * *

* * * * *

* * * Although the material may yield a very large percentage of the water in it in a few hours or days, it may continue to yield small amounts for several years. The sand and gravel unwatered during a pumping test near Grand Island, Nebr., drained in such a manner that the computed specific yield of the material was 9.2 after 6 hours of pumping, 11.7 after 12 hours, 16.1 after 24 hours, 18.5 after 36 hours, and 20.1 after 48 hours of pumping [fig. 7]. A much longer period of pumping would be required before the true specific yield of the material would have been reached. The true specific yield was estimated to lie between 22 and 23. [See Lugn and Wenzel, 1938.]

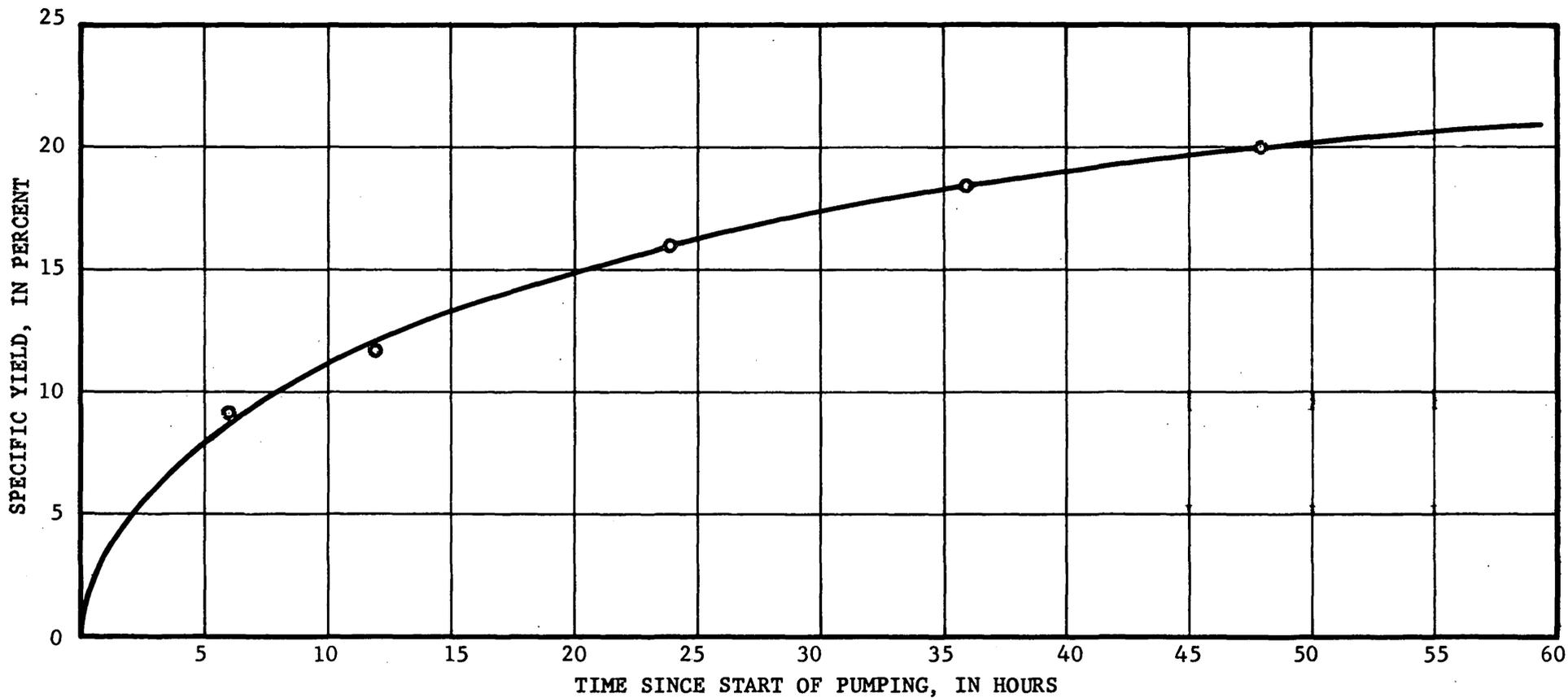


Figure 7.-- Variation of specific yield with time of pumping, for a pumping test at Grand Island, Nebr.

[Graph prepared by A. I. Johnson from data in Wenzel, 1942, p. 100]

Wenzel, L. K., Cady, R. C., and Waite, H. A., 1946, Geology and ground-water resources of Scotts Bluff County, Nebraska: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 943, p. 66-67, 86.

The Brule formation * * * is chiefly a ruddy-buff, or flesh-colored silt, massive and featureless in fresh exposures, but weathering into brick-shaped blocks or slabs.
* * *

* * * * *

Eighty-eight percent of the material was composed of very fine sand and silt, and almost 70 percent was silt.
* * *

* * * * *

The moisture equivalents determined in the laboratory for the two samples taken from the Brule formation were 24.9 and 20.9, respectively, an average of 22.9. Because the values fall in the higher range referred to by Piper, they can be taken to represent the approximate specific retention. The porosities of the samples were 51 and 54, an average of 52.5. Thus the average specific yield of the samples is 29.6. This indicates that a cubic foot of Brule, if allowed to drain for a long period will yield about 0.296 cubic foot of water and will retain about 0.229 cubic foot.

Investigations have shown that a sample of material after being saturated will not yield its water at once but the water will drain rather slowly, the rate of draining being somewhat proportional to the permeability of the material. The Brule, because of its tight character, yields water sluggishly, and several months to a year or more are doubtless required before the specific yield calculated in the laboratory is reached. As a result the quantity of water that is removed from storage by a decline of the water table in the Brule cannot be calculated from the specific yield determined in the laboratory unless the water table remains below the material for a long period. The comparatively large seasonal fluctuation of water levels in wells that tap the Brule results in part from the incomplete draining of the material during the time allowed. This means that the water table may decline for a considerable period before much water comes out of storage, except what drains from the cracks and fissures. This decline, however, will gradually slow up as the water table reaches lower stages, and a greater thickness of the formation thereby becomes available for draining.

Poland, J. F., Davis, G. H., Olmsted, F. H., and Kunkel, Fred, 1949, Ground-water storage capacity of the Sacramento Valley, California, Appendix D of Water resources of California: California Water Resources Board Bull. 1 [1951], p. 624-627.

* * * In order to estimate the storage capacity of the water-bearing deposits it was necessary to classify the materials in the drillers' logs into a few groups to which arbitrary specific yield values could be assigned. Although many of the logs reported only gravel, sand, or "clay" (actually silt in most places), or gradations between these primary units, other logs reported as many as 10 to 20 different types of material. After a review of the many types of material described, it was decided to group the materials logged in five general classes, namely: (1) gravel; (2) sand, including sand and gravel, and gravel and sand; (3) tight sand, hard sand, or sandstone, with which were combined 26 different drillers' terms covering material with more or less similar hydrologic properties; (4) cemented gravel, or clay and gravel, which embraced 19 additional drillers' terms; and (5) "clay," which included 19 different types of material ranging from silt through clay to shale, and included lava. To obtain a reasonable geographic distribution of logs, the same well logs previously selected for the peg model on the basis of depth and representative geographic distribution also were utilized for the classification of materials. Thus, for approximately 3,000 well logs, materials were classified in the five general classes described above.

Assignment of Specific Yield Values.--It was not feasible to make an extensive field investigation to determine the specific yield of the different types of water-bearing materials in the Sacramento Valley. Therefore, it was necessary to assign an estimated specific yield value to each of the five general categories of material on the basis of available data.

* * * * *

On the basis of the results obtained in * * * two investigations, [Eckis, 1934; Piper and others, 1939] together with specific-yield data from less detailed studies by others, * * * specific-yield values were assigned to the five groups of material classified in the well logs of the Sacramento Valley [table 8].

* * * For the purpose of estimating underground storage capacity, the Sacramento Valley was divided roughly into four storage groups and these in turn were subdivided into a total of 29 storage units, as shown on [fig. 8]. The subdivision into groups and into the smaller storage units was first made areally from physiography and soils; that is, from what can be seen at the land surface; then the boundaries of the units were modified on the basis of the subsurface geology to a depth of 200 feet, as shown by the peg model. In the modification, special emphasis was placed on the hydrologic character of the sediments and the continuity of water-bearing beds in the top 100 feet (the upper and middle zones).

This was done for three reasons. First, it is believed that the storage units should be representative for the depth range most widely subject to unwatering or resaturation under present conditions or under moderately increased utilization to be anticipated in the near future. Second, for nearly all the storage units in the valley except the basin deposits, the specific yield is greater above the 100-foot depth than below it. Lastly, with reference to natural or artificial recharge at or near the land surface, the distribution of water-bearing beds in the near-surface deposits is of primary importance. In this respect, the coarse gravel tongues or blankets that are so well defined at shallow depths beneath the channels of Cache Creek (A1), and the Feather River (A5), are especially noteworthy.

* * * * *

Computation of the ground-water storage capacity of the Sacramento Valley involved the following steps:

1. The valley deposits were divided areally into four storage groups and these were subdivided into 29 storage units.
2. For each of the 29 units the area within each township or portion of a township included was measured to the nearest 10 acres with a scale or planimeter. The township or part of a township became the basic subunit for computation of storage capacity.
3. For each of three depth zones under consideration (20-50, 50-100, and 100-200 feet below land surface), logged material in selected wells in each basic subunit was classified into five categories of material. An arbitrary specific yield was assigned to each category.
4. Using these arbitrarily assigned specific-yield values, the average specific yield was computed for each depth zone in each basic subunit.

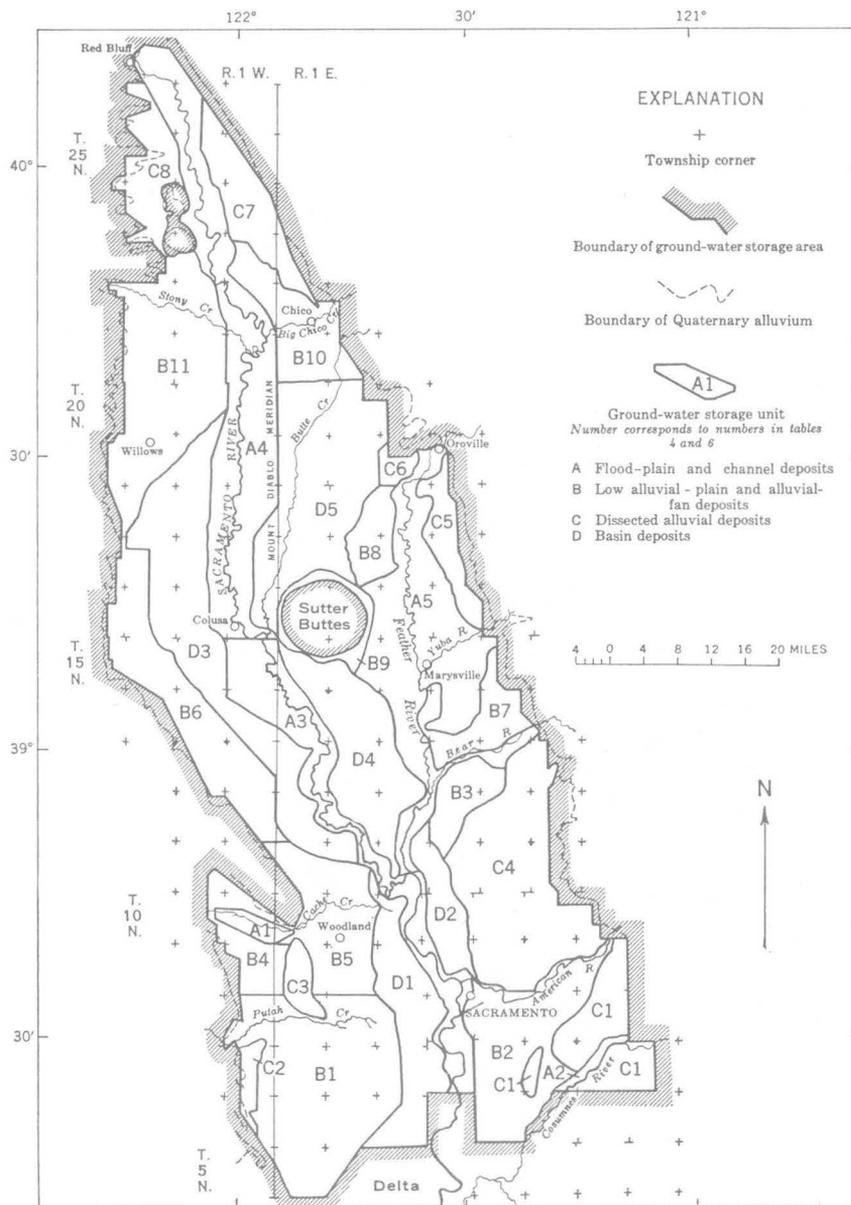


Figure 8.--Map of the Sacramento Valley, Calif., showing ground-water storage units.

5. The storage capacity (to the nearest 100 acre-feet) in each subunit was obtained as the product of average specific yield times volume of sediments in the depth zone.

6. Storage capacity for each storage unit was obtained as the sum of storage in all the subunits. These were then totaled by groups to give the estimated ground-water storage capacity for the Sacramento Valley.

Table 8 .--Specific yield of water-bearing sediments in the Sacramento Valley, Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel -----	25
Sand, including sand and gravel, and gravel and sand -----	20
Fine sand, hard sand, tight sand, sandstone, and related deposits -----	10
Clay and gravel, gravel and clay, cemented gravel, and related deposits -----	5
"Clay," silt, sandy clay, lava rock, and related fine-grained deposits -----	3

Upson, J. E., and Thomasson, H. G., Jr., 1951, Geology and water resources of the Santa Ynez River Basin, Santa Barbara County, California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 1107, p. 130-133.

The decline of shallow water level during the summer is a measure of the total discharge during that period. * * * The seasonal decline varies from year to year, apparently mainly in response to rainfall. The largest declines occurred after the 1938 and 1941 winters of excessive rain when pumpage was small, and probably are accounted for by relatively large seepage to the river in the ensuing summer seasons. * * * However, the average for the entire plain in the period 1935-44 is taken as 3.5 feet.

To determine the quantity of water represented by this decline of water level it is necessary to determine a value for the specific yield of the materials within the zone of water-level fluctuation. Specific yield is estimated approximately from the physical composition of the deposits by using a method similar to that employed by Piper (Piper, Gale, Thomas, and Robinson, 1939, p. 120-121) in the Mokelumne area. This method utilizes independently determined values for the specific yield of different grade sizes of material, together with the proportionate volumes of different sizes as revealed by well logs. * * *

The total footage of each of several types of material within the determined range of water-level fluctuations was obtained from well logs. The types are designated according to the drillers series, and are grouped into four main classes as follows: Gravel and coarse sand; sand; silt, including fine sand, sandy clay, and soft clay; and clay [table 9]. * * * Next, the total footage of the different classes of material as recorded in drillers' logs and Survey logs were added by areas, making allowance for a preponderance of wells bored in the coarse channel deposits; and new percentages were obtained. The percentages were weighted according to the acreage of the several areas and the following percentages by volume of the four classes of materials within the range of water-table fluctuations over the entire Lompoc plain obtained: Gravel and coarse sand, 7 percent; sand, 23 percent; silt, 32 percent; and clay, 38 percent.

The terms applied by drillers apparently correspond in general to standard terminology for grain sizes. By referring to the report on the Mokelumne area (Piper, Gale, Thomas, and Robinson, 1939, p. 117, fig. 8), the following values of specific yield for the grade sizes distinguished were taken: Gravel and coarse sand, 35 percent; sand, 30 percent; silt, 12 percent; and clay, 2 percent. Applying these values in proportion to the percentage volumes of the different classes of material, the average specific yield of the deposits within the zone of water-table fluctuation in the Lompoc plain is computed to be 14 percent.

Taking the total area as 16,300 acres, the average specific yield as 14 percent, and the average yearly decline as 3.5 feet, the amount of water represented by the decline is about 8,000 acre-feet a year. This represents the total amount discharged during the season of no replenishment, or about half the year. Some discharge also occurs in winter, but its effect is masked by recharge. * * *

Table 9 .--Specific yields for water-bearing sediments in the Lompoc plain, Santa Barbara County, Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel and coarse sand -----	35
Sand -----	30
Silt, including fine sand, sandy clay, and soft clay -----	12
Clay -----	2

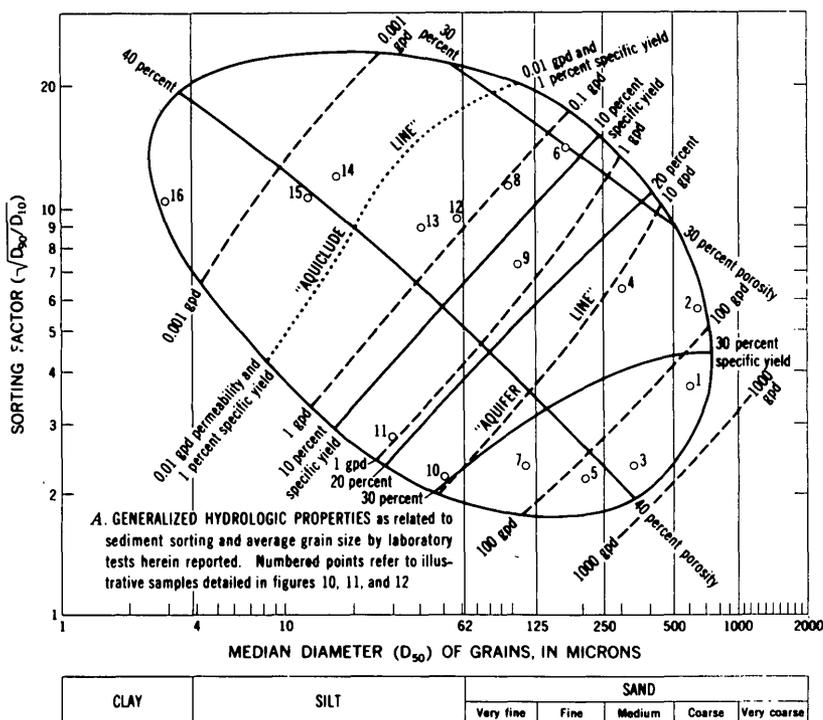
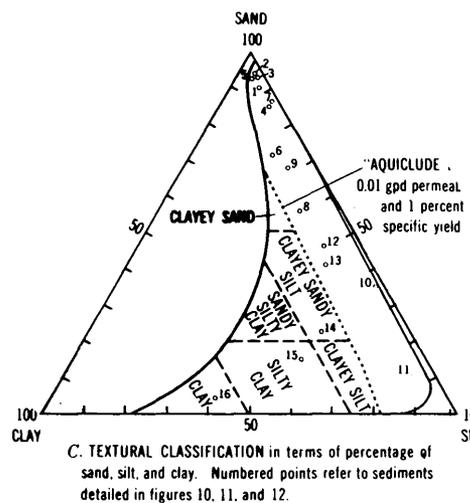
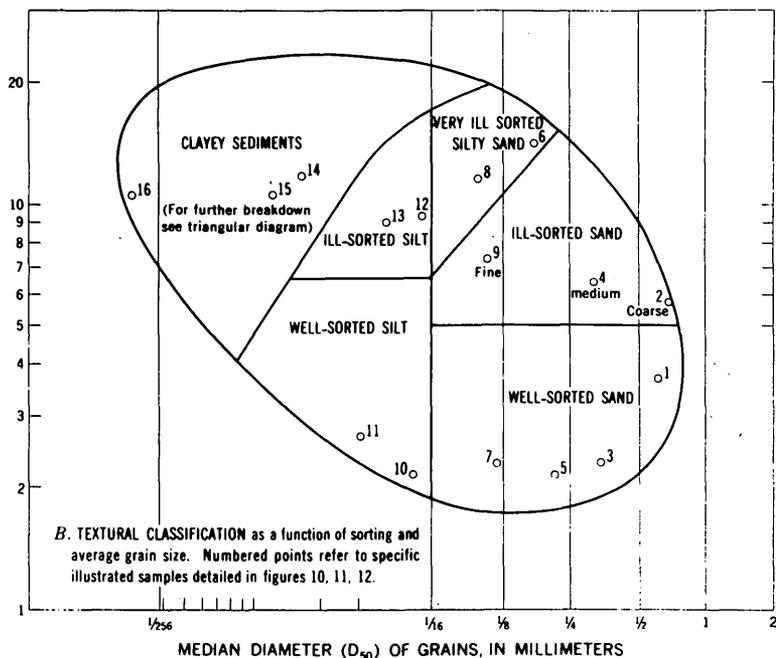
Klein, I. E., 1954, Written communication: Sacramento, Calif., U.S. Bureau of Reclamation.

Table 10.--Specific yield (or effective porosity) of the core samples from Bureau of Reclamation test holes in the Friant-Kern Canal service area, as determined from measured porosities and moisture equivalents

[Table 10 and figures 9 through 12 illustrate the relation between texture and hydrologic properties as determined by Mr. Klein]

Hydrotextural classification	Number of tests	Specific yield		
		Mean	Median	Range of 90 percent
Well-sorted fine sand	127	30	30	18-37
Well-sorted medium sand	130	30	30	23-35
Well-sorted coarse sand	35	29	30	25-33
Ill-sorted fine sand	204	14	13	4-25
Ill-sorted medium sand	123	20	21	9-30
Ill-sorted coarse sand	44	23	23	13-29
Well-sorted silt	122	13	12	1/2-28
Very ill sorted silty sand	329	5	4	1/2-15
Ill-sorted silt	372	3	2	1/2-11
Clayey sediments	446	1	1/2	0-2
Diatomaceous clayey sediments	34	1/2	1/2	0-1/2

(Illustration from Klein, I. E., 1954)

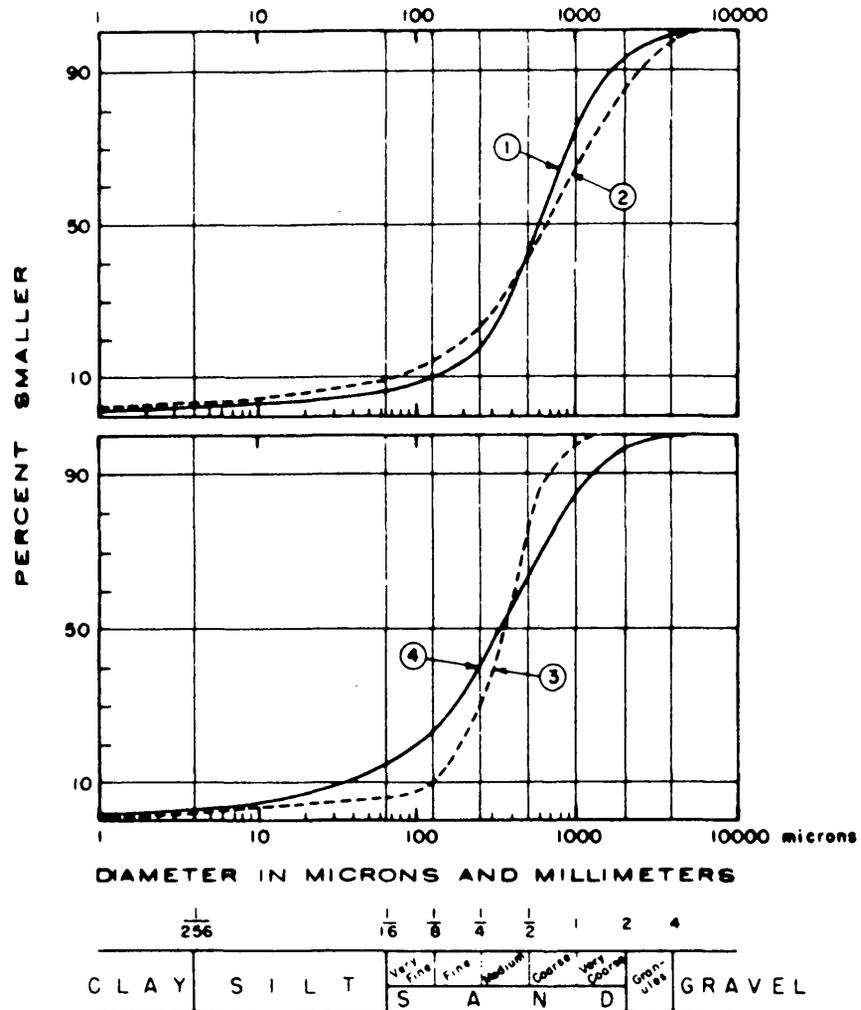


NOTES:

1. The oval fields of graphs A and B, and the unshaded area of graph C include more than 95 percent of the more than 1,000 core samples on which laboratory tests have been made. The hydrologic-property curves of graph A are based on the result of more than 500 tests which they generalize and summarize. The general order of precision of correlation is illustrated by specific examples of figures 10, 11, and 12.
2. Gravels, though hydrologically important, are restricted to the upper part of the major fans and are not represented here because undisturbed cores were not secured; nor are the less significant weathered sands. The relation of texture to the hydrologic properties of the weathered sediments is less definite and sometimes at variance with these graphs, especially for those sediments in which hardpans were formed. Other materials whose properties are not fully evident from these graphs are highly diatomaceous clays, firmly cemented calcareous sediments, and marls.

Figure 9.--Textural features and hydrologic properties of the unweathered sediments preponderant in the ground-water reservoir of the Friant-Kern Canal Service Area.

(Illustration from Klein, I. E., 1954)

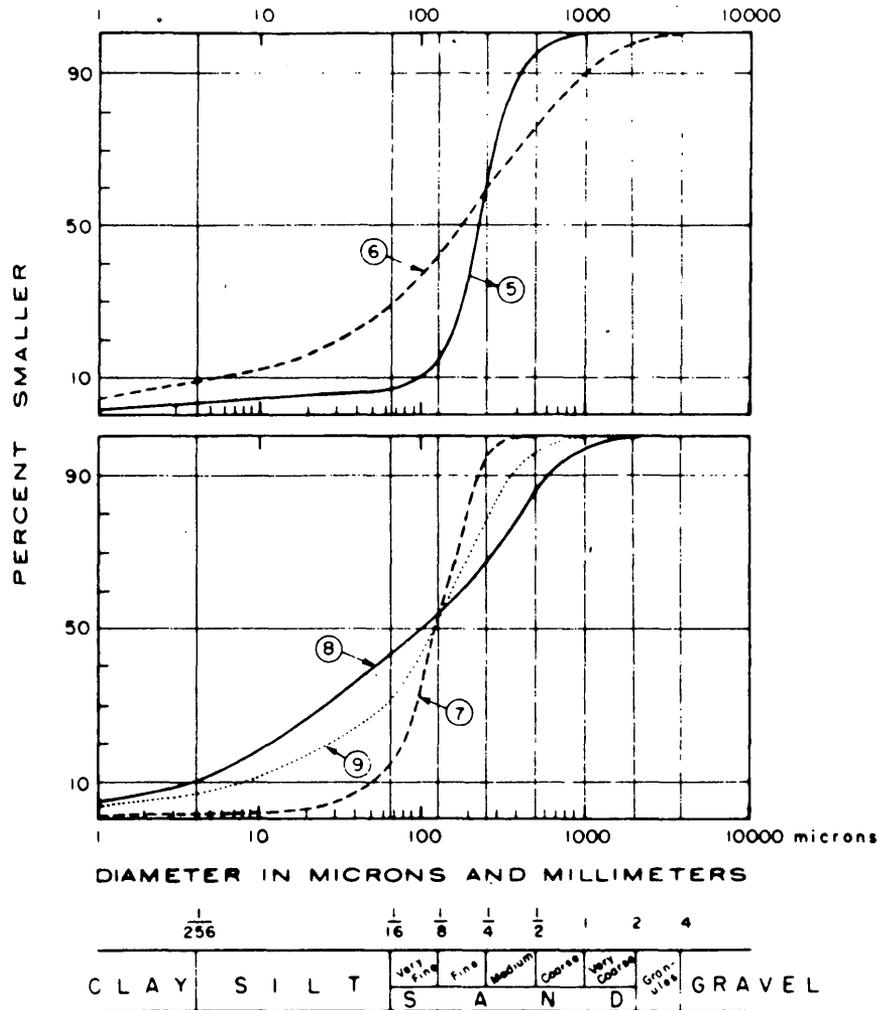


Reference Number	USBR Test-hole	Depth (ft)	TEXTURAL CLASSIFICATION based on Average Size and Sorting (Chart A, Figure 4)	Effective Size	Median Diameter	"10% Maximum Size"	Decile Sorting Factor $\sqrt{\frac{D_{85}}{D_{15}}}$	POROSITY (Vol %)	SPECIFIC YIELD (or Effective Porosity) (Vol %)	PERMEABILITY COEFFICIENT (U.S.G.S) gallons per day
				D_{10} MICRONS	D_{50} MICRONS	D_{85} MICRONS				
1	20/23-8D	418.0	Well-sorted Coarse Sand	125	600	1800	3.8	39.3	34	460
2	27/25-1A	401.5	Ill-sorted Coarse Sand	74	690	2300	5.7	38.0	28	85
3	28/24-23	364.3	Well-sorted Medium Sand	125	340	720	2.4	39.7	30	130
4	25/26-16C	482.3	Ill-sorted Medium Sand	28	320	1190	6.5	32.0	22	30

(abstracted from Regional Laboratory reports on the core samples from the test holes represented)

Figure 10.—MECHANICAL - ANALYSIS DATA AND HYDROLOGIC PROPERTIES of four representative coarse and medium sands (typical of the better sandy aquifers) of the ground-water reservoir in the Friant-Kern Canal Service Area.

(Illustration from Klein, I. E., 1954)



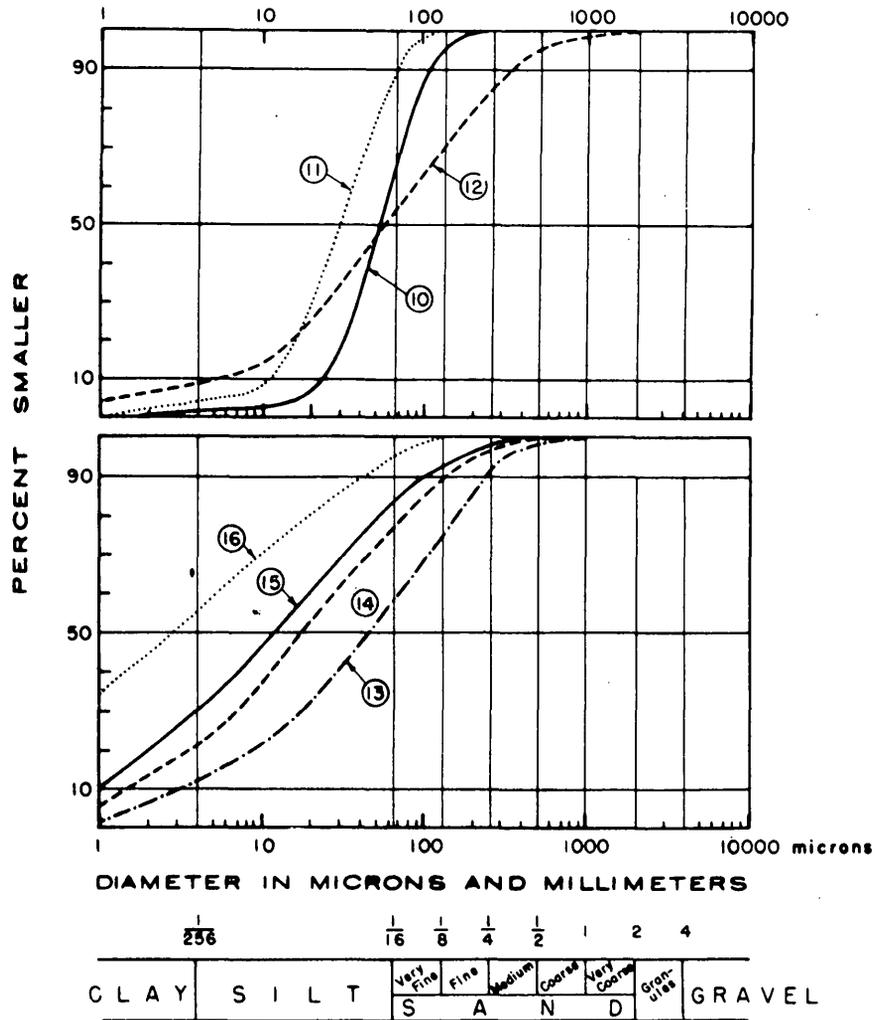
Reference Number	USBR Test-hole	Depth (ft.)	TEXTURAL CLASSIFICATION based on Average Size and Sorting (Chart A, Figure 4)	Effective Size d_{10}	Median Diameter d_{50}	10% Maximum Size d_{90}	Decile Sorting Factor $\sqrt{\frac{d_{90}}{d_{10}}}$	POROSITY (Vol %)	SPECIFIC YIELD (or Effective Porosity) (Vol. %)	PERMEABILITY COEFFICIENT (U.S.G.S) gallons per day
5	20/23-8D	593.0	Well-sorted Fine Sand	90	210	430	2.2	41.2	33	150
6	23/25-9D	94.0	Very Ill-sorted Silty Sand	5	180	1000	14.1	32.1	10	0.2
7	31/25-27	399.0	Well-sorted Fine Sand	45	120	240	2.3	40.4	34	47
8	20/23-8D	546.0	Very Ill-sorted Silty Sand	4	100	570	11.9	32.8	6	0.2
9	20/23-8D	686.5	Ill-sorted Fine Sand	7	110	370	7.3	35.9	17	0.2

(abstracted from Regional Laboratory reports on the core samples from the test holes represented)

FIGURE 11.--

MECHANICAL ANALYSIS DATA AND HYDROLOGIC PROPERTIES of five representative fine sands and silty sands (typical of the fair to poor aquifers) of the ground-water reservoir in the Friant-Kern Canal Service Area.

(Illustration from Klein, I. E., 1954)



Reference Number	USBR Test-hole	Depth (ft)	TEXTURAL CLASSIFICATION based on Average Size and Sorting (Chart A, Figure 4)	Effective Size d ₁₀ MICRONS	Median Diameter d ₅₀	"10% Maximum Size" d ₉₀ MICRONS	Decile Sorting Factor $\sqrt{\frac{d_{90}}{d_{10}}}$	POROSITY (Vol %)	SPECIFIC YIELD (or Effective Porosity) (Vol. %)	PERMEABILITY COEFFICIENT (U.S.G.S) gallons per day
10	23/23-33A	733.2	Well-sorted Silt	22	50	110	2.2	40.5	28	9
11	23/23-33A	233.5	Well-sorted Silt	10	30	70	2.7	40.6	17	0.2
12	20/23-8D	241.5	Ill-sorted Silt	4	58	350	9.4	36.0	7	0.07
13	25/23-28	93.5	Ill-sorted Silt	3	40	250	9.1	33.2	2	0.02
14	28/22-9B	597.5	Clayey Sand Silt	ca 1	18	140	ca 12	36.7	< 1/2	0.007
15	23/23-33A	219.5	Silty Clay	ca 1	13	120	ca 11	38.5	< 1/2	0.003
16	23/23-33A	155.6	Clay	ca 1/4	3	40	ca 20	47.0	< 1/2	estimated < 0.001

(abstracted from Regional Laboratory reports on the core samples from the test holes represented.)

FIGURE 12.--

MECHANICAL-ANALYSIS DATA AND HYDROLOGIC PROPERTIES

of seven representative silts and clays (typical of the poor aquifers and aquicludes) of the Friant-Kern Canal Service Area.

California Department of Public Works, 1956, Santa Margarita River Investigation: California Div. Water Resources Bull. 57, v. 2, App., p. B65-B67.

In general, the procedure adopted followed that prescribed by the Division of Water Resources in its South Coastal Basin Investigation. Briefly, this method entailed estimating the volumes of various sedimentary types such as sand, gravel, clay, etc., occurring within appropriate depth intervals in each basin, multiplying each of these volumes by an appropriate weighted specific yield factor to obtain the volume of extractable water contained in each interval and finally summing the capacities of each interval to obtain the total storage capacity of the basin. Specific yield is defined herein as the volume of extractable ground water obtained from a unit volume of material expressed as a percentage of the volume of the material.

The logs of water wells provided the information upon which the storage capacity estimates were based. Clay, sand, and gravel and numerous gradations between these types were recognized on most logs. Some logs reported as many as 20 different types of material. In order to estimate the storage capacities of individual sedimentary types, it was first necessary to assign a specific yield value to each type appearing on the logs. The values assigned are those set forth in Table [11] and were derived largely from laboratory determinations made at the time of the South Coastal Basin Investigation.

Estimates of the storage capacities of ground water basins are necessarily approximate because of inherent difficulties in extending data from relatively few wells to apply to entire basins. The results, however, are believed to be useful and to reasonably represent the physical situation under the stated assumptions.

Table 11.--Specific yield of water bearing sediments in Santa
Margarita Valley, Calif.

Type	Description of material	Specific yield value assigned
Clay	Carbonaceous-silt	1
	Hardpan	
	Decomposed granite	
	Hill formation	
Soil	Loam	4
	Lake bed	
Clay-sand	Sand and clay	5
	Muck	
	Sea mud and packed sand	
	Silty clay	
	Cement	
	Sandy clay	
	Cemented sediment	
	Clay with lime rocks	
Silt	Sandy soil	10
Sand	Fine sand	28
	Coarse sand	
	Quicksand	
Tight sand	Sandy-soil	16
	Silty-sand	
	Unsorted angular sand	
	Dirty sand	
	Cemented sand	
	Sand with trace of clay	
	Sand and mud	
Gravel	Gravel and sand	22
	Boulders	
	Cobbles and sand	
	Fill	
Tight gravel	Cemented gravel	15
	Sandy clay with gravel	
	Gravel with clay layers	
	Dirty gravel	
	Packed sand with rocks	
Gravel	Conglomerate (partially cemented)	7
Clay	Clay and boulders	

California Water Resources Board, 1956, Geology and ground water of Ventura County, California: California Water Resources Board, Ventura County Inv., Bull. 12, v. 2, App. B, p. 40-41.

* * * In its South Coastal Basin Investigation, the Division of Water Resources conducted extensive field and laboratory investigations for the purpose of assigning specific yield values to various types of material appearing in well logs. These procedures are described in Bulletin No. 45 "Geology and Ground Water Storage Capacity of Valley Fill" (Division of Water Resources, 1934). With slight variations, the values determined in this earlier work and Bulletin 46 "Ventura County Investigation" were adopted for compiling the change of storage estimates presented here.

The task of assigning specific yield values to the sediments appearing in logs was simplified by dividing all basin sediments into eight general categories. These included soil, clay, clay-sand, clay-gravel, tight sand, sand, tight gravel, and gravel. Sand, gravel, and clay, which constitute the bulk of the basin sediments, were generally found to be well differentiated on the driller's logs. Combinations of these materials, however, were frequently described by such unique terms as "ooze," "muck," "cement," etc. Materials so described were placed, based on the judgment of a geologist, into one of the above eight categories. Table [12] indicates specific yield values assigned to the general categories. In certain instances, these values were altered slightly whenever field observations indicated the advisability of changes.

Table 12.--Specific yields of sediments in Ventura County, Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Soil, including silty clay-----	3
Clay, including adobe and hard pan -----	0
Clayey sand, including sandy silt -----	5
Clayey gravel-----	7
Sand -----	25
Tight sand, including cemented sand -----	18
Gravel, including gravel and sand -----	21
Tight gravel, including cemented gravel -----	14

Back, William, 1957, Geology and ground-water features of the Smith River Plain, Del Norte County, California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 1254, p. 43-45.

Specific yields assigned to deposits on the Smith River plain were modified from specific-yield values used in a report on the Sacramento Valley (Poland, Davis, Olmsted, and Kunkel, 1951). * * * Table [13] shows the specific yields, in percent, used to estimate ground-water storage for the Smith River plain.

For each unit, * * * the drillers' logs were examined and the thickness of each class of material between 10 and 35 feet below the land surface was totaled. The total thickness for each class was divided by the total thickness for all classes to determine the percentage represented by each class. Each percentage was multiplied by the specific-yield value for that class; then these products were totaled and divided by 100 to determine the average specific yield for the sediments in that storage unit.

Table 13.--Specific-yield values for the various lithologic materials used in estimating ground-water storage on the Smith River plain, Calif.

	Specific yield (percent)
Class 1: Gravel; boulders; sand and gravel -----	25
Class 2: Dune sand -----	15
Class 3: Sand; clay and sand; fine sand -----	10
Class 4: Clay and gravel; sandy clay -----	5
Class 5: Clay; blue shale -----	1

California Water Rights Board, 1957, Determination of specific yield and storage capacity: California Water Rights Board Spec. Rept. 2 of Referee Tia Juana Basin, App. C., p. C12-C23.

In order to apply values of specific yield to materials described in drillers' logs, it was necessary to establish values that could be correlated with these descriptions. The primary bases for classification of materials in available drillers' logs being dominant or median grain sizes. In order to provide such a comparison the relationship between the maximum ten percent grade size and dominant grain size was determined from cored samples. This relationship is depicted on [fig. 13] which indicates that the maximum ten percent grade size is in general one grade size larger than the dominant particle size.

Many of the sediments reported in drillers' logs are broadly classified, necessitating the application of average specific yields to the large portion of the sediments so classified in the basin. Correlation of specific yields of cored samples with the general classification of that material shown by existing well logs in the test hole vicinity indicates a range of 17 to 32 percent specific yield for "sand" as described by the driller. Because of this variation average values of specific yields were applied to such general classification of sediments. Values so used are listed in [table 14].

* * * * *

Determination of specific yield of valley fill materials in type (2) samples [3-inch inside diameter by 3 feet long] was accomplished by use of the laboratory drainage method. * * *

* * * * *

After saturation the samples were immediately weighed and placed in a moisture room, in which atmospheric temperature and humidity remained essentially constant, and allowed to drain freely. The temperature of the air was maintained at 70 degrees Fahrenheit and the relative humidity at approximately 100 percent. * * *

Initial effluent was determined by weighing the samples daily for a period of twenty days; water loss thereafter was determined weekly. * * *

(From California Water Rights Board, 1957, Special Rept. No. 2 of Referee Tia Juana Basin)

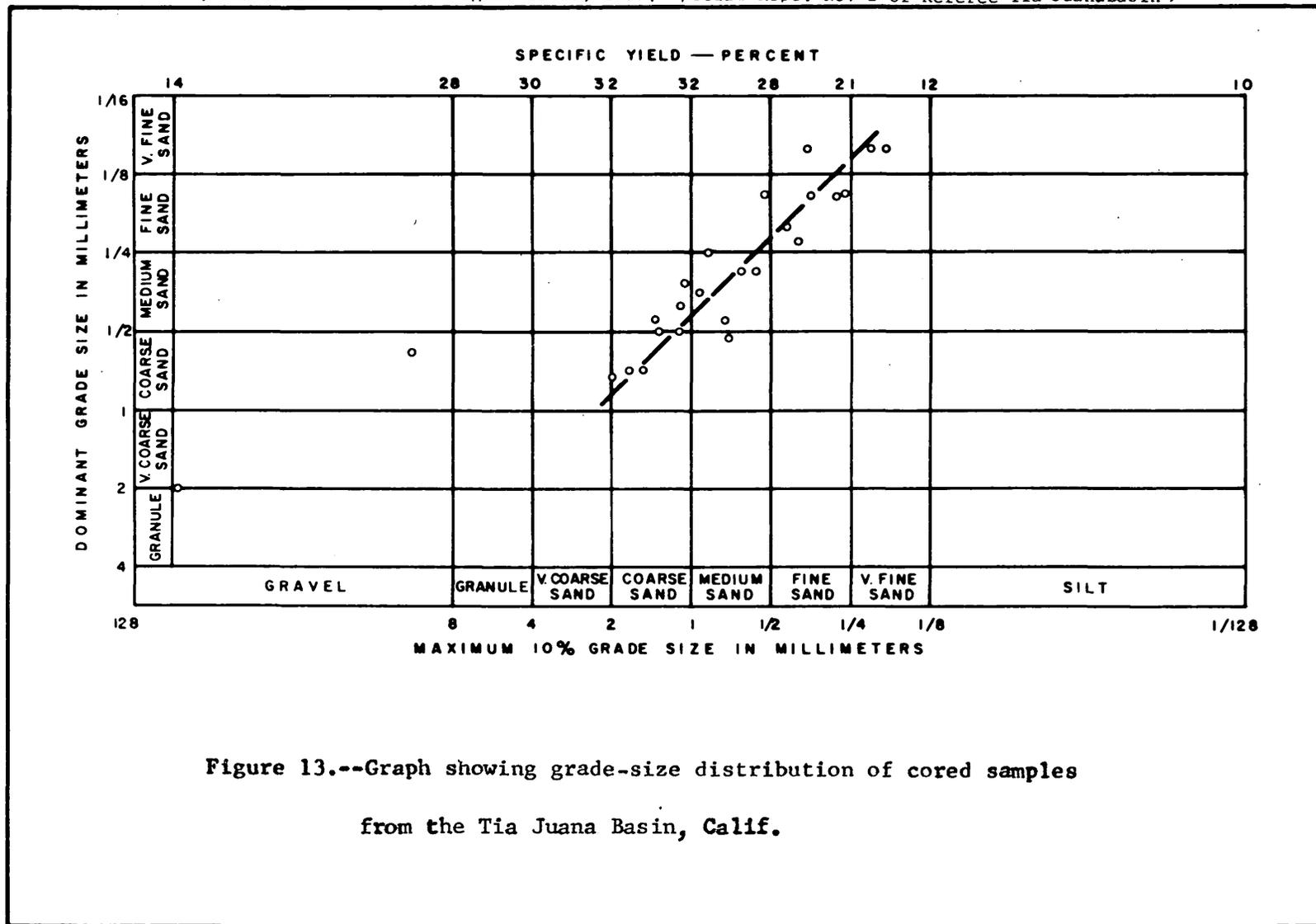


Figure 13.--Graph showing grade-size distribution of cored samples from the Tia Juana Basin, Calif.

After the samples had drained 34 or 35 days, at which time the remaining moisture content consisted essentially of moisture held as specific retention and capillary water, the samples were inadvertently subjected to ambient atmospheric temperature and humidity until 134 days of draining time had elapsed. * * *

* * * * *

The values of specific retention and specific yield obtained from laboratory drainage of type (2) samples * * * are illustrated graphically on [fig. 14]. Individual computed values * * * are represented by the average curve shown as a dashed line labeled Specific Yield - Partial Saturation on [fig. 14] and values incorporating porosity are shown by the solid line labeled Specific Yield - Total Saturation. The latter values are believed more representative and were therefore utilized. Thus specific yields for materials contained in type (2) samples were taken as the difference between porosity and specific retention. A comparison of the specific yield values so determined for Tia Juana Basin sediments and the specific yields of South Coastal Basin sediments are shown on [fig. 15] where these values are both depicted in relation to grain size.

Although the origin and mode of deposition of sediments in Tia Juana and South Coastal Basins differ, the specific yields of sediments sampled in Tia Juana Basin were found to be only slightly higher than those in the South Coastal Basin. The greatest variation ($2\frac{1}{2}$ percent specific yield) occurred in fine and medium sand, with less variation (1 percent specific yield) in the very fine and coarse sands. [Figure 15] also illustrates the size distribution of Tia Juana Basin sediments based upon the average percentages of the various grain sizes found in 32 samples obtained from five test holes.

Specific yield values determined by the drainage method for Tia Juana Basin sediments varying from very fine to coarse sand indicate an average of 1.9 percent (specific yield) greater value than the South Coastal Basin sediments. In view of the small variation in corresponding yield values and the more extensive studies of South Coastal Basin sediments, the specific yield values based upon maximum ten percent grade size are considered valid for the problem under consideration and therefore have been adopted.

* * * * *

From California Water Rights Board, 1957, Special Rept. No. 2 of Referee Tia Juana Basin)

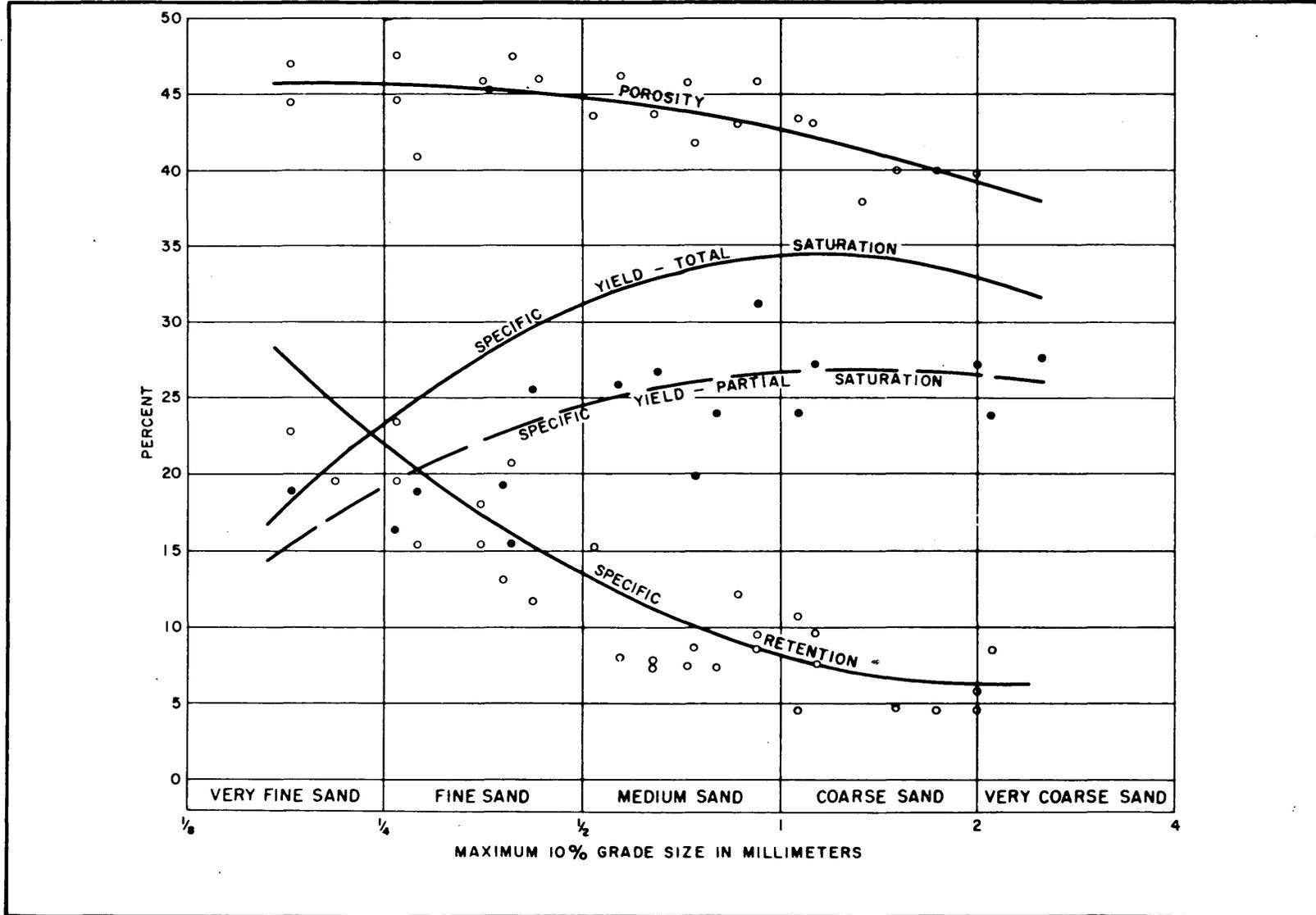


Figure 14.--Graph showing porosity, specific yield and specific retention of sediments from the Tia Juana Basin, Calif.

Table 21.--Specific yield of unconsolidated materials in the Little
Bighorn River valley, Montana

Material	Specific yield (percent) Rounded off
Very coarse (predominantly gravel)-----	[25]
Coarse (predominantly coarser than very fine sand-----	[32]
Medium (loam, silty loam, and very fine sandy loam)---	[28]
Moderately heavy (clay loam, silty clay loam, and sandy clay loam)-----	[29]
Heavy (clay and silty clay)-----	[17]

Thomasson, H. G., Jr., Olmsted, F. H., and LeRoux, E. F., 1960, Geology, water resources, and usable ground-water storage capacity of part of Solano County, California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 1464, p. 284-286, 366-368.

The continental sediments examined in the south coastal basin investigation were composed chiefly of alluvial-fan deposits that were laid down by torrential but intermittent streams of steep gradient. In contrast, the near-surface materials underlying most of the Putah area were transported by Putah Creek and the small streams to the south, and were deposited on the broad, relatively flat channel-ridged plain. Accordingly, the alluvial deposits in the south coastal basin undoubtedly are much coarser than those in the Putah area, much of the clay in the south coastal basin being of residual rather than depositional origin.

* * * * *

The samples tested in the Mokelumne investigation were obtained at depths of less than 15 feet from unconsolidated sediments of late Pleistocene and Recent age. On the other hand, wells drilled to a depth of 200 feet in the Putah area penetrate the Tehama formation and related continental sediments of Pliocene to early Pleistocene age in their lower portions throughout the area and almost from the land surface in some parts of the area. These older deposits are more weathered and indurated and, group for group as described by drillers, presumably are of lower specific yield than the alluvium. Certainly the yield factors of wells tapping these older deposits in the Putah area are systematically much lower than the yield factors of wells tapping only the Recent and upper Pleistocene alluvial deposits, suggesting a decrease of permeability and probably of specific yield in the older deposits.

The results obtained in those two investigations, together with specific-yield data from less detailed studies by others, were used as a basis from which to assign arbitrary percentages for specific yield of the five general classes of material in the Putah area. However, the figures obtained experimentally in the two detailed investigations were considered to be slightly higher than would be warranted for use in connection with the respective categories of material as classified from local drillers' logs in the Putah area.

Therefore, the percentages obtained in the earlier investigations were modified somewhat for use in the Putah area because of differences in the lithologic and hydrologic character of the sediments, which were considered to reflect differences in the source and composition of the materials and in the conditions under which the alluvial deposition occurred in the different areas. Table[22] shows the specific yield assigned to each of the five categories of material.

* * * * *

The specific yield of 25 percent assigned to the gravel category was the highest figure used in the computations for the Putah area. This figure was a rough average of results * * * which ranged from 13 to 35 percent.

The sand category was assigned a specific yield of 20 percent, which was appreciably below the 24-percent average of the experimental data. However, it is believed that the material ordinarily logged as sand by drillers in the Putah area is somewhat more consolidated or silty and, hence, of lower specific yield than the sand obtained from the south coastal basin and from the shallow alluvial deposits of the Mokelumne area.

Such drillers' terms as tight sand, hard sand, sandstone, cemented sand, and similar descriptive terms suggesting relatively low permeability and drainable void spaces were mentioned in enough well logs to warrant an intermediate category, to which a specific yield of 10 percent was assigned.

The fourth group comprised material described by means of 21 different terms of drillers, to refer to such materials as clay and gravel, "dry gravel," cemented gravel, and gravelly clay. Although obviously of low permeability and probably low specific yield, these materials doubtless include some moderately permeable beds of fair specific yield, and an average specific yield of 5 percent was assigned.

The finest grained deposits, including clay, silt, sandy clay, hardpan, muck, shale, and lava were assigned a specific yield of 3 percent. Deposits included in this category comprise more than two-thirds of the sediments in the 20- 200-foot zone in the Putah area; only locally do the coarse-grained deposits exceed half the section. The specific yield of 3 percent is higher than that used for clay in the south coastal basin study, but it is midway between the values used for clay and sandy clay in the unweathered subsurface alluvial deposits in that area. The term "clay" as applied by the driller is likely to include many beds that are silty or sandy, if they contain much material so fine that it remains in suspension in the drilling fluid. * * *

* * * * *

The total ground-water storage capacity * * * in the Suisun-Fairfield area was estimated by the same method as that used in the Putah area but with a few minor variations * * *.

* * * * *

As in the Putah area, the average specific yield for each depth range in each storage unit was estimated from the percentages of material * * * and the specific yields in table [22] plus a specific yield of zero for the Cretaceous rocks. The estimates of total storage capacity were then the product of the total volume of each subunit times its estimated average specific yield.

Table 22.--Specific yield used to estimate total ground-water storage capacity in the Putah area, California

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel-----	25
Sand, including sand and gravel, and gravel and sand-----	20
Tight sand, hard sand, fine sand, sandstone, and related deposits-----	10
Clay and gravel, gravel and clay, cemented gravel, and related deposits-----	5
"Clay," silt, sandy clay, lava and related fine-grained deposits-----	3
[Cretaceous rocks-----	0]

California Department of Water Resources, 1961, Planned utilization of the ground water basins of the coastal plain of Los Angeles County: California Dept. Water Resources Bull. 104, App. A, p. 121, Attachment 2, p. 2-3, 2-4.

Specific yield values for the sedimentary deposits of Los Angeles County are given in [table 23]. These specific yield values were compiled from available data, including work done by the State Water Rights Board for the San Fernando Valley Reference, and from Bulletin 45 (Calif. D. W. R. 1934). They were also checked against figures obtained from well tests but no new determinations were made during this investigation. Specific yield values are multiplied by the thickness and areal extent of the water-bearing sediments to determine the total storage capacity of these sediments. * * *

Table 23.--Specific yield values used in Coastal Plain of Los Angeles County, Calif.

[After State Water Rights Board Revised Values of Specific Yield as used for San Fernando Valley Reference, 7/9/59, which is based on values used in Bulletin 45, Geology and Ground Water Storage Capacity of Valley Fill]

Note: Specific yield values above base of Bellflower aquiclude = 00

00 Percent - Bellflower Aquiclude

03 Percent - Clay and Shale

Adobe	Granite clay	Shale
Boulders in clay	Hard clay	Shaley clay
Cemented clay	Hard pan	Shell rock
Clay	Hard sandy shale	Silty clay loam
Clayey loam	Hard shell	Soapstone
Decomposed shale	Muck	

05 Percent - Clayey Sand and Silt

Chalk rock	Rotten conglomerate	Sediment
Clay and gravel	Rotten granite	Shaley gravel
Clayey sand	Sand and clay	Silt
Clayey silt	Sand and silt	Silty clay
Conglomerate	Sand rock	Silty loam
Decomposed granite	Sandstone	Silty sand
Gravelly clay	Sandy clay	Soil
Loam	Sandy silt	

10 Percent - Cemented or Tight Sand or Gravel

Caliche	Dead gravel	Heavy rocks
Cemented boulders	Dead sand	Soft sandstone
Cemented gravel	Dirty pack sand	Tight boulders
Cemented sand	Hard gravel	Tight coarse gravel
Cemented sand and gravel	Hard sand	

14 Percent - Gravel and Boulders

Cobbles and gravel	Heaving gravel	Silty sand
Coarse gravel	Heavy gravel	Tight fine gravel
Boulders	Large gravel	Tight medium gravel
Broken rocks	Rocks	Muddy sand
Gravel and boulders	Sand and gravel, silty	

16 Percent - Fine Sand

Fine sand	Quicksand	Sand, gravel and boulders
Heaving sand	Sand and boulders	Tight sand

21-23 Percent - Sand and Gravel

Dry gravel	Gravelly sand	Sand
Loose gravel	Medium gravel	Water gravel

26 Percent - Coarse Sand and Fine Gravel

Coarse sand	Fine gravel	Medium sand
-------------	-------------	-------------

Value of one added to given value where streaks of sand or gravel occur in clay or clayey material.

Kaami, A. H., 1961, Laboratory tests on test drilling samples from Rechna Doab, West Pakistan, and their application to water resources evaluation studies: Athens, Internat. Assoc. Sci. Hydrology Pub. 57, p. 496, 500.

These tests have been used to calculate the specific yield of the samples, using the formulae:--

$$\text{Specific retention} = \frac{\text{Centrifuge moisture equivalent} \times \text{Correction factor (from tables)}}{\text{Apparent specific gravity}}$$

$$\text{and Specific yield} = \text{Porosity} - \text{Specific retention.}$$

Specific yields of 76 samples from 7 test holes, thus calculated, have been shown in fig. 17. [Table 24 has been interpreted from fig. 17 by A. I. Johnson.] From this data the average specific yields of various grades of sediments have been computed and have been used to calculate the mean specific yield for a thickness of 400 feet of sediments penetrated by each test hole. Based on this average specific yield, the subsurface sediments in the Rechna Doab have been zoned as shown in fig. 18.

* * * * *

Under the water table conditions the specific yield of an aquifer equals coefficient of storage. Thus the coefficient of storage as deduced from the behaviour of the rising water table * * *, in Rechna Doab varies from 0.2 to 0.3 (Tipton and Kalmbach, 1959). As deduced from the laboratory studies, the average storage coefficient for the entire aquifer in the Rechna Doab, is 0.17; in the north-eastern part of the doab the aquifer has an average specific yield of about 0.14; in the central zone (largely water-logged) the average is about 0.2 and in the southeastern portion of the doab the average is 0.19. However these figures are much higher than those obtained from aquifer tests according to which the storage coefficient ranges from 0.0016 to 0.073 at various locations (Wapda 1959). This wide range of variation is readily explained by the fact that some of the sand zones between the clay layers, in the pumped wells, have probably been under artesian or semi-artesian pressure.

(Illustration from Kazmi, A. H., 1961)

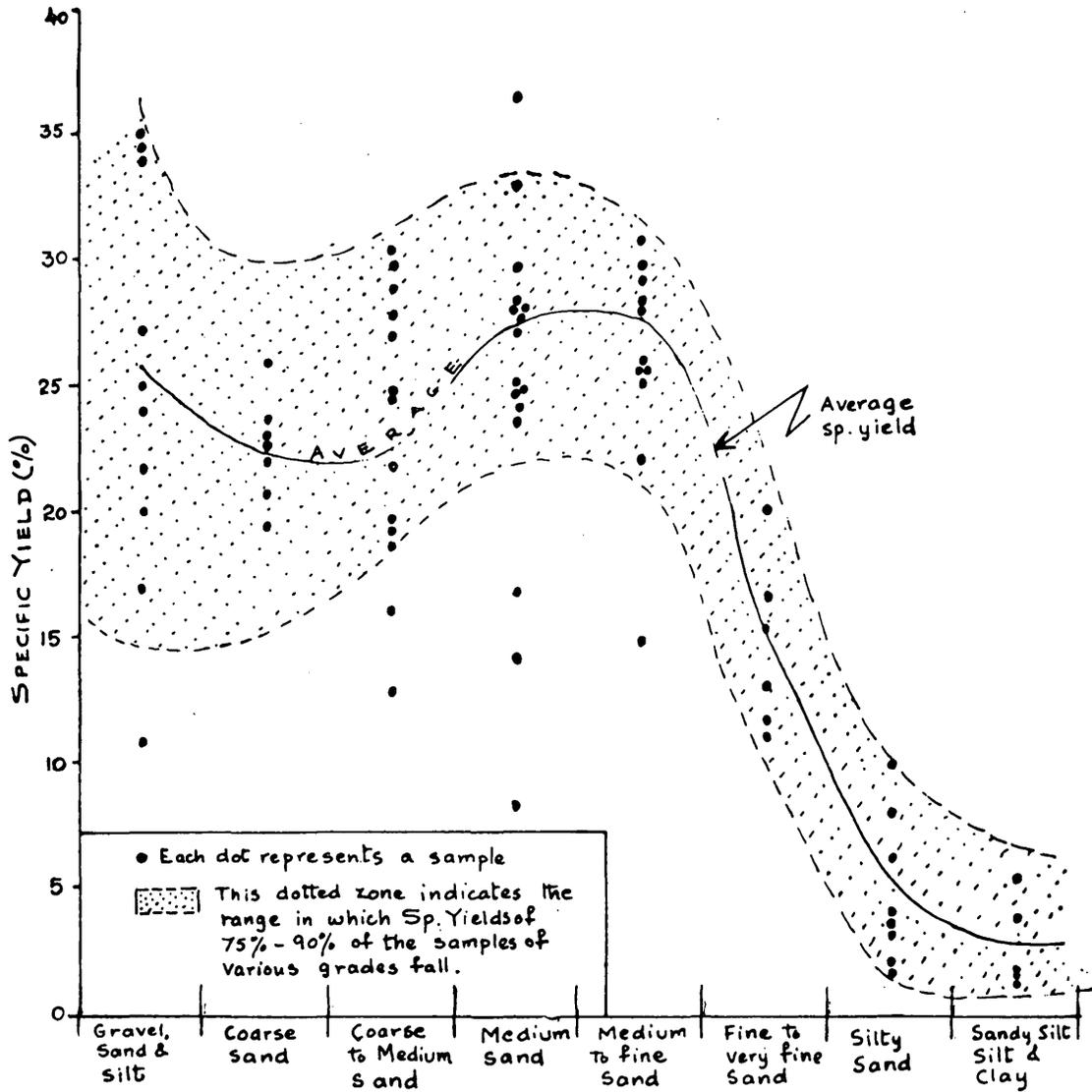


Figure 17.--A graph showing relation of specific yield to particle size, for sediments from Rechna Doab, West Pakistan.

(Illustration from Kazmi, A. H., 1961)

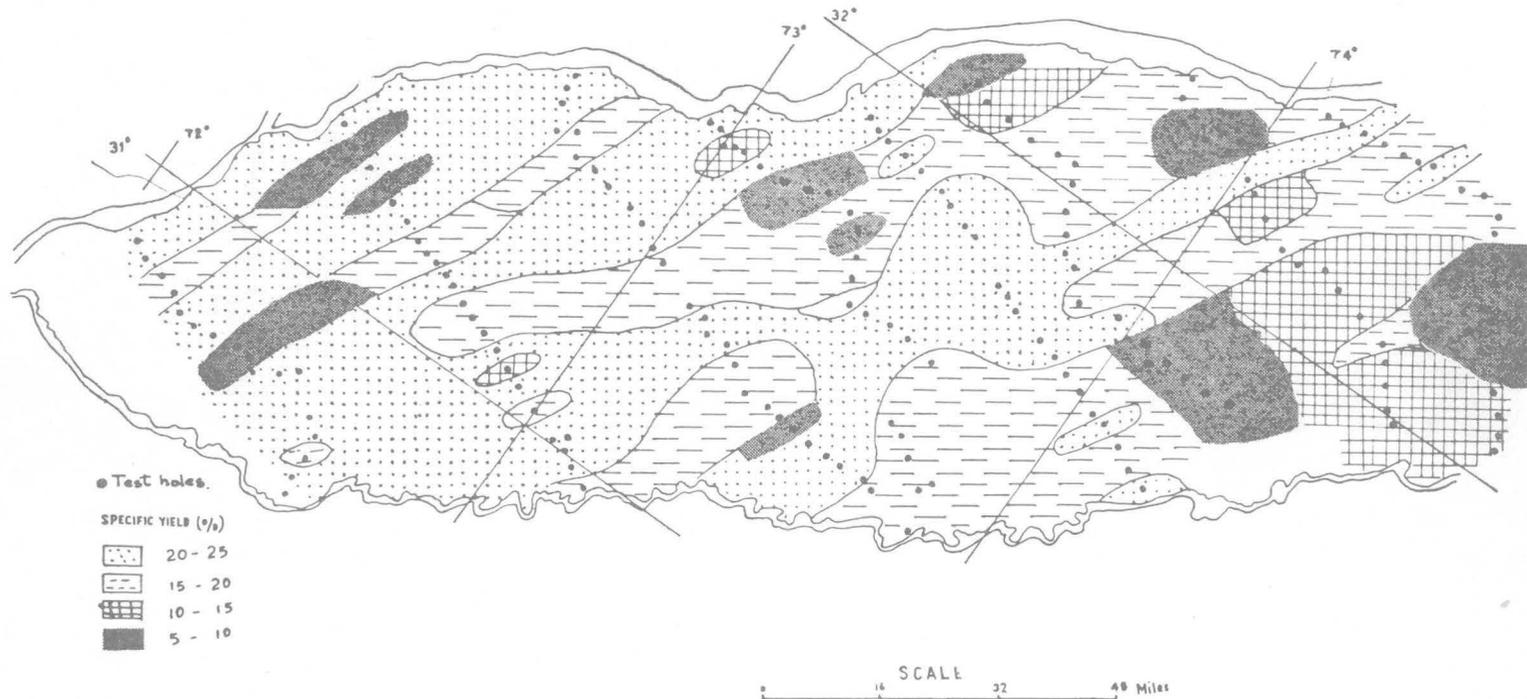


Figure 18.--Map of Rechna Doab, West Pakistan, showing specific yield of sediments.

Table 24.--Specific yield of alluvium from Rechna Doab, West Pakistan

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel, sand and silt -----	26
Coarse sand -----	23
Coarse to medium sand -----	23
Medium sand -----	28
Medium to fine sand -----	27
Fine to very fine sand -----	15
Silty sand -----	5
Sandy silt, silt and clay -----	3

Olmsted, F. H., and Davis, G. H., 1961, Geologic features and ground-water storage capacity of the Sacramento Valley, California: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 1497, p. 150-152.

* * * Modified specific yields were assigned to the five groups of material classified in the well logs of the Sacramento Valley [table 25].

* * * * *

The lithologic and hydrologic character of the sediments of the Sacramento Valley necessitated certain modifications of the specific yields obtained by experiments in earlier investigations. The conditions under which alluvial deposition occurred in the Sacramento Valley were different from those in the other area and are the principal reason for the modifications.

In contrast to the south-coast basin where continental sediments, composed essentially of alluvial-fan deposits, were laid down by intermittent streams of steep gradient, the sediments of the Sacramento Valley are predominantly slack-water deposits laid down by the Sacramento River and its tributaries on broad, flat, alluvial plains and fans. In general, the alluvial deposits of the south-coastal basin are much coarser than those of the Sacramento Valley. Also, most of the clay in the pre-Recent deposits of the south-coast basin is the result of weathering rather than deposition from water; hence, a gravel deposit may contain considerable clay in the form of weathered pebbles that would not reduce the permeability of the deposit as much as would an equal amount of interstitial clay deposited from water.

The samples tested in the Mokelumne area are not considered representative of the sediments in the 20- to 200-foot depth range in the Sacramento Valley, because they were all taken at depths of less than 15 feet in unconsolidated deposits of late Pleistocene and Recent age. Most of the wells drilled to a depth of 200 feet penetrate sediments of early Pleistocene and Pliocene age throughout the eastern and northern parts of the valley. These older deposits are more indurated and presumably of lower specific yield than the younger alluvium.

Probably the most important departure from the experimental results was the specific yield of 20 percent assigned to the sand category. It is believed that material ordinarily logged as sand by well drillers in the Sacramento Valley is somewhat more consolidated and hence of lower specific yield than sand in the south-coastal basin and sand samples from the younger alluvial deposits of the Mokelumne area. Facts tending to support this idea are that drillers frequently distinguish the unconsolidated sand from the more or less consolidated sand by use of the terms "loose sand," "running sand," "quicksand," and "caving sand;" and that a considerable part of the water-bearing deposits of the eastern and northern parts of the Sacramento Valley are firm enough to stand without casing * * *

Enough well logs mentioned tight sand, hard sand, sandstone, cemented sand, and other descriptive terms indicating restricted permeability that an intermediate category was set up with an assigned specific yield of 10 percent.

A specific yield of 5 percent was assigned deposits, such as clay and gravel, "dry" gravel, cemented gravel, and gravelly clay, which, although they are obviously of low permeability, supply small quantities of water to wells.

The fine-grained deposits, including clay, silt, sandy clay, hardpan, muck, shale, volcanic ash, and lava, were assigned a specific yield of 3 percent. In any one well log, deposits included in this category generally constitute more than half the sediments penetrated in the 20- to 200-foot depth range; only locally do the coarse-grained deposits occupy more than half this depth range. The specific yield of 3 percent is higher than that used for clay in the study of the south-coast basin, but it is midway between the values used for clay and sandy clay in the unweathered subsurface alluvial deposits in that area. Material logged by the drillers as "clay" is likely to include many beds that are silty, sandy, or even gravelly, if they contain much material so fine that it remains in suspension in the drilling fluid * * *

The specific yield of 25 percent assigned to gravel agrees fairly closely with experimental results obtained by Eckis (Eckis and Gross, 1934) and by Piper (Piper and others, 1939).

Table 25.--Specific yield of water-bearing sediments in the Sacramento Valley, Calif.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Gravel -----	25
Sand, including sand and gravel, and gravel and sand -----	20
Tight sand, hard sand, fine sand, sandstone, and related deposits -----	10
Clay and gravel, gravel and clay, cemented gravel, and related deposits -----	5
"Clay," silt, sandy clay, lava rock, and related fine-grained deposits -----	3

Cohen, Philip, 1963, Specific-yield and particle-size relations of Quaternary alluvium, Humboldt River Valley, Nevada: U.S. Geol. Survey Water-Supply Paper 1669-M, p. 20-23.

The data and graphs [table 26] * * * show the relations, or lack of relations, that seem to exist between specific-yield, porosity, specific-retention, sorting-coefficient, and median particle-size-diameter values of 323 samples from the Humboldt River valley. In summary, these apparent relations are:

1. For most samples, porosity values are virtually independent of sorting-coefficient values alone.
2. Porosity values tend to increase as median particle-size-diameter values decrease.
3. For most samples, specific-retention values do not correlate with sorting-coefficient values alone.
4. Specific-retention values tend to increase as median particle-size-diameter values decrease.
5. Specific-yield values do not correlate with sorting-coefficient values of samples whose median particle-size-diameter values fall within the silt- and gravel-size ranges but tend to increase as sorting coefficient values decrease in the intervening ranges.
6. There is a poor correlation between specific-yield values and median particle-size diameter values.

* * * * *

* * * the specific-yield values of the samples from the Humboldt River valley differ markedly from those shown by the other writers. The most striking difference is the tendency for samples from the Humboldt River valley to have considerably higher mean specific-yield values for samples whose median particle-size diameters fall within the silt-size range.

The relatively high specific-yield values of the samples whose median diameters are in the silt-size range probably partly is a result of the relatively high porosity of this material * * *

Table 26.--Specific yields for alluvial deposits in the Humboldt River Valley, Humboldt County, Nev.

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Fine gravel-----	19
Very-fine gravel-----	18
Very-coarse sand-----	21
Coarse sand-----	27
Medium sand-----	28
Fine sand-----	26
Very-fine sand-----	20
Silt-----	19
Clay-----	.5

Preuss, F. A., and Todd, D. K., 1963, Specific yield of unconsolidated alluvium: Berkeley, California Univ. Water Resources Center Contr. 76, p. 2-4, 13, 16, 19.

Because of the amount of data available from previous investigations, this study was restricted to the analysis of published data. However, it was necessary to assume (a) that the data from each of the four sources * * * were comparable; and (b) that the data were representative of what would be expected from other alluvial sources.

Several studies have indicated that gravity drainage of fine-grained materials, such as clay or silt, is a very slow process. Therefore, specific yield, as a measure of the ultimate volume of water drained, is seldom attained under field or laboratory conditions. Water yield is not constant but increases with time at an ever diminishing rate. Because the four data sources did not make any particular distinction with regard to their values, it will be assumed here that the samples had undergone complete drainage.

* * * * *

As the result of a thorough literature survey, four independent investigations were found to contain data presented in an usable form. From these investigations a total of 311 separate soil samples were selected for analysis in this study. The majority, 230 samples, was obtained from an extensive field investigation of the South Coastal Basin in the Los Angeles area of California. Porosities and specific retentions were determined in the laboratory, and specific yields were obtained as the difference.

From an investigation of the ground water aquifer in South-Central Kansas, 28 samples were obtained, and 32 samples came from a study in South-Central Nebraska. In both of these studies, porosities and moisture equivalents were determined in the laboratory. * * *

The remaining 21 samples were obtained from a ground water study of the Mokelumne area of California. The porosity and specific yield were determined in the laboratory for that study.

* * * * *

To determine which grain diameter was the most representative, the average deviation of specific yield values within plus or minus one standard error of estimate was plotted against the representative grain diameter. * * * It indicates that a representative grain diameter of about D_{50} has the least degree of specific yield deviation.

* * * * *

It appears that a maximum value of specific yield occurs with a D_{50} of between 0.4 and 0.5 of a millimeter. As the grain sizes become smaller beyond this point, the interstices also become smaller producing increased capillary forces. These increased forces result in greater retention of the water so that specific yield decreases. The large range in specific yield for any particular grain size can be largely attributed to variations in porosity.

* * * A relationship between uniformity coefficient and grain size resulted in no definite conclusions. However, it was noted generally that, for the samples used in this study, the uniformity coefficient decreases as the grain size decreases. * * *

* * * The results * * * indicate that porosity has perhaps the greatest single effect upon specific yield. It appears that a peak specific yield of 32.5 percent occurs at a porosity of between 41 and 42 percent. After the peak the specific yield seems to diminish quite rapidly.

* * * * *

[Table 27 was interpreted by A. I. Johnson from data in this report.] * * * The resulting colinear graph [fig. 19] shows the relation of D_{50} to specific yield for various porosities.

It is interesting to note that the family of lines has a characteristic shape. The range of specific yield is relatively broad for the same grain size. This broad range shows the importance of porosity. The flattening of the lines of porosity toward a constant specific yield value, always less than the porosity, indicates that specific retention approaches a finite value greater than zero.

(From Preuss and Todd, 1963, Calif. Univ. Water Resources Center Contr. 76)

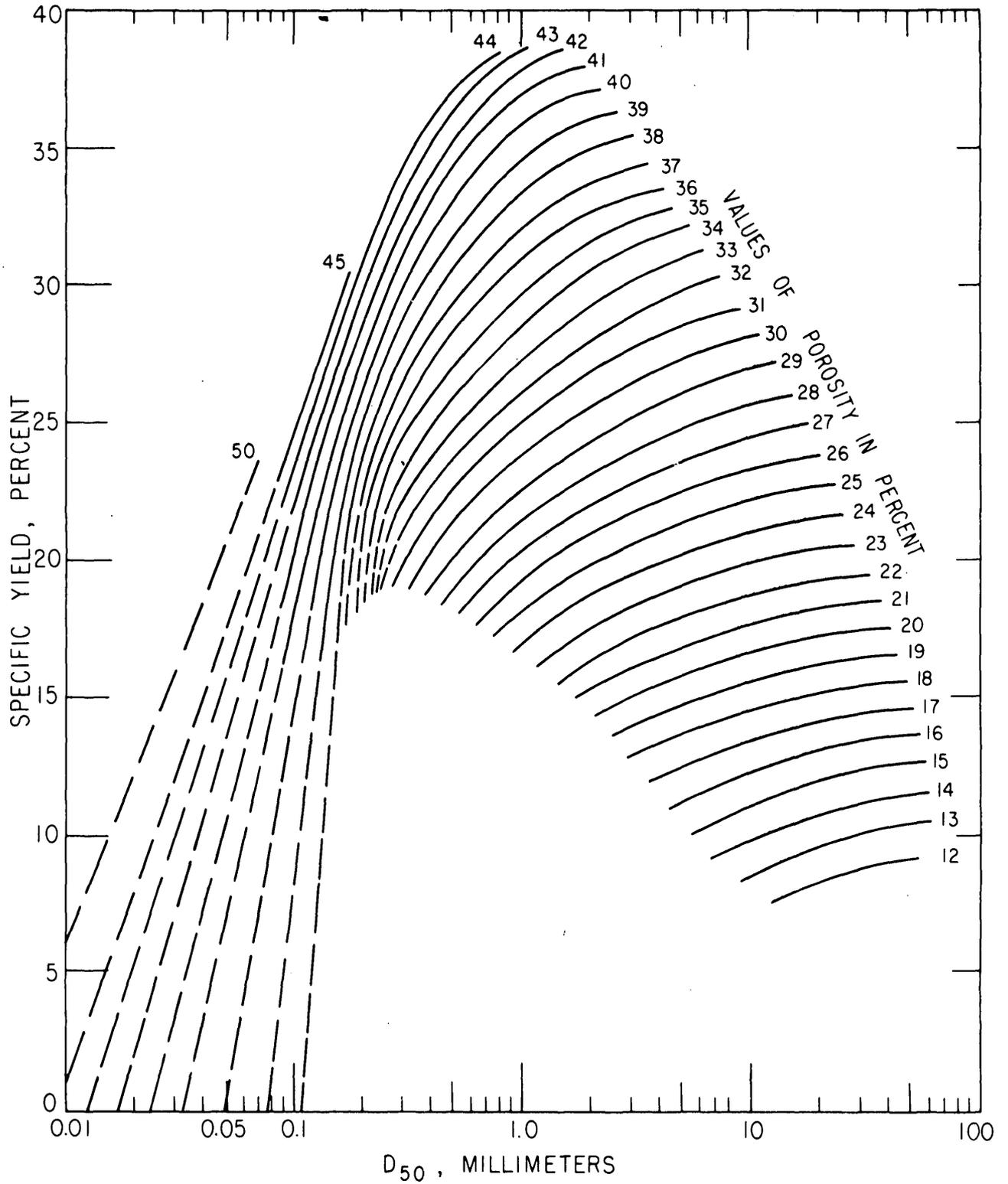


Figure 19.--Colinear plot of D_{50} to specific yield for various values of porosity.

Table 27.--Specific yields of unconsolidated alluvium

Material	Specific yield (percent)
Coarse gravel-----	12
Medium gravel-----	13
Fine gravel-----	17
Gravelly sand-----	22
Coarse sand-----	28
Medium sand-----	28
Fine sand-----	23
Very fine sand-----	16
Silt-----	4

SUMMARY

Table 28 summarizes the specific yields used in many of the previously listed investigations. A specific yield averaged from all values reported in the table also is reported for each texture of rock or soil material. The reported specific yields in general are representative of the ultimate amount of drainage. Corrections to lower values would have to be made for short drainage periods.

It should be remembered that the textures listed are, in general, broad classifications based on the predominate particle size. One can observe that the highest specific yields tend to be around the medium-sand texture--this is due to the fact that medium sands normally have a more uniform size distribution than do the gravels or the finer sands, silts, and clays.

Research on specific yield completed by the Hydrologic Laboratory indicates that many of the specific yields used in the past--especially for fine-textured materials such as the silts, sandy clays, and fine sands--are too small. Johnson and Kunkel (1963) point out that this conclusion is indicated by specific yields obtained by various field tests as well as by the centrifuge, column drainage, and moisture-tension tests in the laboratory. These authors also note that the specific yield varies depending on the interrelation of textures; for example, a silt over a sand may not have as high a specific yield as would the same silt over a clay.

Material	Valley fill, Calif. (Eckis, 1934)	1	4	2	3	1	0	1	1	3	3	3	5	3	5	3	5	3	3	5	3	3	0.5	--	--	2
Clay																										
Silt		10	4	12	3	--	3	10	10	5	5	10	5	5	5	10	5	5	10	5	19	19	4	17	8	
Sandy clay		10	4	12	3	5	5	5	5	5	5	10	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	7	
Fine sand		21	26	12	10	10	25	28	25	25	10	20	20	20	20	20	27	20	20	26	26	26	23	32	21	
Medium sand		31	26	30	20	15	25	28	30	25	25	20	30	30	28	20	28	20	28	28	28	28	28	32	26	
Coarse sand		31	35	35	20	25	25	32	32	25	25	20	30	30	23	20	23	20	27	27	23	27	28	32	27	
Gravelly sand		31	35	35	20	25	21	22	28	21	25	20	--	--	23	20	23	20	27	27	23	27	22	32	25	
Fine gravel		27	35	35	25	25	21	22	26	21	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	19	19	25	19	17	25	25	
Medium gravel		21	--	--	25	25	21	22	23	21	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	--	--	25	--	13	25	23	
Coarse gravel		14	--	--	25	25	21	22	18	21	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	12	--	22	
					</																					

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