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VOLUME 13

ISSUE 6

VERSION 1.0



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: E
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING: E
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
VOLUME 13 ISSUE 6 (VER. 1.0)

OPEN ASSOCIATION OF RESEARCH SOCIETY

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
Volume 13 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2013
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN: 2249-4596 & Print ISSN: 0975-5861

An Extensive Evaluation of the Proposal for “Unified Terrain Categories Exposures and Velocity Profiles” by Choi (2009)

By S. A. Hsu

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Abstract - The proposal for “unified terrain categories exposures and velocity profiles” by Choi in 2009 has been evaluated extensively. On the basis of 6 articles in open literature (3 papers during Typhoon Muifa in 2011, one during Hurricane Ike in 2008, one during Typhoon Sally in 1996, and one during an atmospheric dispersion experiment in New York City, USA) and nearly simultaneous upper-air measurements when available, it is found that the proposed criteria (except the displacement height) by Choi are evaluated to be useful operationally for engineering applications. An alternative approach using the mean building height (rather than the displacement height) as the input to estimate the power-law exponent and the gradient height is proposed for practical use.

Keywords : *Typhoon Sally, Typhoon Muifa, Hurricane Ike, tall buildings, power-law exponent, roughness length, gradient height, displacement height, terrain exposures, velocity profiles.*

GJRE-E Classification : *FOR Code: 090599*



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S. A. Hsu

Abstract- The proposal for “unified terrain categories exposures and velocity profiles” by Choi in 2009 has been evaluated extensively. On the basis of 6 articles in open literature (3 papers during Typhoon Muifa in 2011, one during Hurricane Ike in 2008, one during Typhoon Sally in 1996, and one during an atmospheric dispersion experiment in New York City, USA) and nearly simultaneous upper-air measurements when available, it is found that the proposed criteria (except the displacement height) by Choi are evaluated to be useful operationally for engineering applications. An alternative approach using the mean building height (rather than the displacement height) as the input to estimate the power-law exponent and the gradient height is proposed for practical use.

Keywords: Typhoon Sally, Typhoon Muifa, Hurricane Ike, tall buildings, power-law exponent, roughness

length, gradient height, displacement height, terrain exposures, velocity profiles.

I. INTRODUCTION

Building or structural damages by storms, whether they are tropical or extra-tropical cyclones, require an estimation of wind speed. Numerous methodologies have been proposed and used (see, e.g. Wieringa, 1992, Zhou and Kareem, 2002, and Irwin, 2006). Most recently, Choi (2009) has proposed his “Unified Terrain Categories Exposures and Velocity Profiles” as presented in Table 1. The purpose of this study is to evaluate Table 1.

Table 1 : Terrain Categories and Related Parameters as proposed by Choi (2009)

Category	Exposure (description)	Roughness Length, meters	Power-law exponent	Gradient Height, meters	Displacement Height, meters
Cat I	Open water (open sea or lake and coastal areas with few obstructions)	0.002	0.103	250	5
Cat II	Open country (terrain with scattered obstructions up to 10 m high. Rural areas with a few low rise buildings)	0.04	0.15	350	5
Cat III	Forest/Sub-urban scattered low (3-5 m) buildings (numerous closely spaced 3-5 m obstructions)	0.2	0.198	450	10
Cat IV	Urban, large town (many medium height (10-50 m) buildings)	0.5	0.241	500	15

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Cat V	City (medium height buildings mixed with tall (50m+) buildings)	1.0	0.289	550	20
Cat VI	City center (concentration of very tall buildings mixed with other buildings)	>=2	0.362	650	30

II. AN EVALUATION DURING TYPHOON MUIFA IN 2011

During Typhoon Muifa in 2011 there are 3 studies which can be used for our evaluation. They are:

a) Wind Measurements at Two Locations on the Sutong Bridge

According to Xu et al (2013), the Sutong Bridge across the low reaches of the Yangtze River in China is a cable-stayed bridge with its longest span, which is under constant monitoring because of tropical cyclones and other strong winds. During Typhoon Muifa in 2011, there were two anemometers on the bridge. The mean wind speed measured at 76m was 17.08 m/s and at 300.4 m 19.58 m/s, respectively. Using the power-law wind profile formula (see, e.g. Hsu, 1988), we have

$$U_2/U_1 = (Z_2/Z_1)^p \quad (1)$$

$$Z_2 > Z_1$$

$$P = \ln (U_2/U_1) / \ln (Z_2/Z_1) \quad (2)$$

So that,

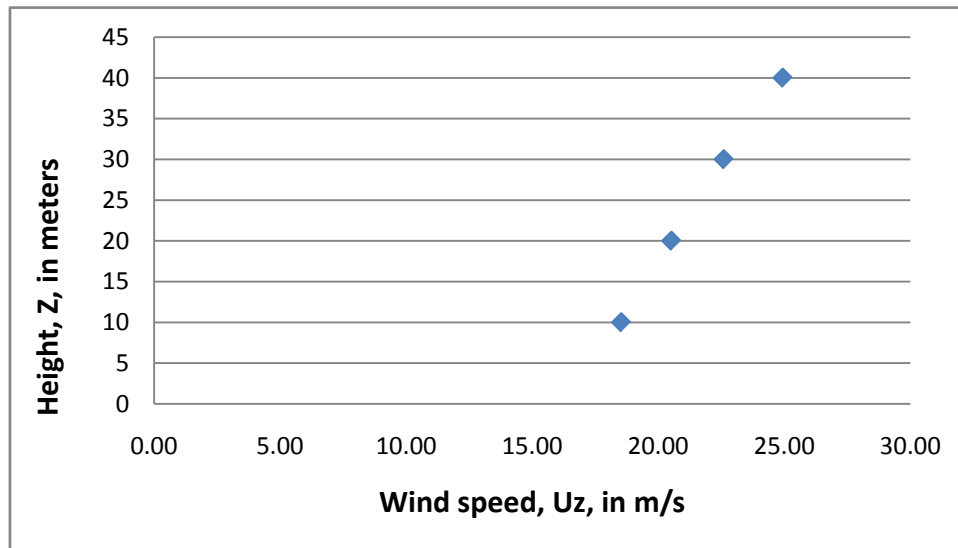
$$p = \ln (19.58/17.08) / \ln (300.4/76) = 0.099 = 0.100$$

Note that U2 and U1 are the wind speeds at height Z2 and Z1, respectively. P is the exponent of the power law.

Now, compare this over-water p (=0.100) with that in Table 1 for open water in Category I in which p = 0.103, we can say that the agreement is excellent. Note that the p (=0.10) value has been measured over the Sicily Strait by Hsu(1988), over the Gulf of Mexico by Hsu et al. (1994) under fair weather condition and by Hsu (2011) under hurricane condition. Note also that these measurements on the Sutong Bridge are unique in that it was over a large (the Yangtze) river.

b) Wind Profile Measurements on the East Coast of Shanghai, China

During Typhoon Muifa in 2011, Peng et al (2013) present a study with the measurements of the wind speed at 4 levels from 10 to 40 meters. These data are plotted in Fig. 1.



(Data Source : Peng et al, 2013)

Figure 1 : Measurements of the wind speed at 4 levels from 10 to 40 m on the east of Shanghai, China, during Typhoon Muifa in 2011

While the power law has been discussed above, the log law is presented as follows:

In the atmospheric boundary layer, vertical distribution of the wind speed (under strong wind conditions so that the thermal effects may be neglected, see Hsu, 2003) can be formulated according to the logarithmic wind profile (e.g. Panofsky and Dutton, 1984) as:

$$U_z = (U^*/k) \ln ((Z-d)/Z_0) \quad (3)$$

Where U_z is the wind speed at height Z , U^* is the friction velocity, k ($=0.4$) is the von Karman constant, d is the displacement height, and Z_0 is the roughness length.

Note that when Z is much larger than d , Eq. (3) may be reduced to

$$U_z = (U^*/k) \ln (Z/Z_0) \quad (4)$$

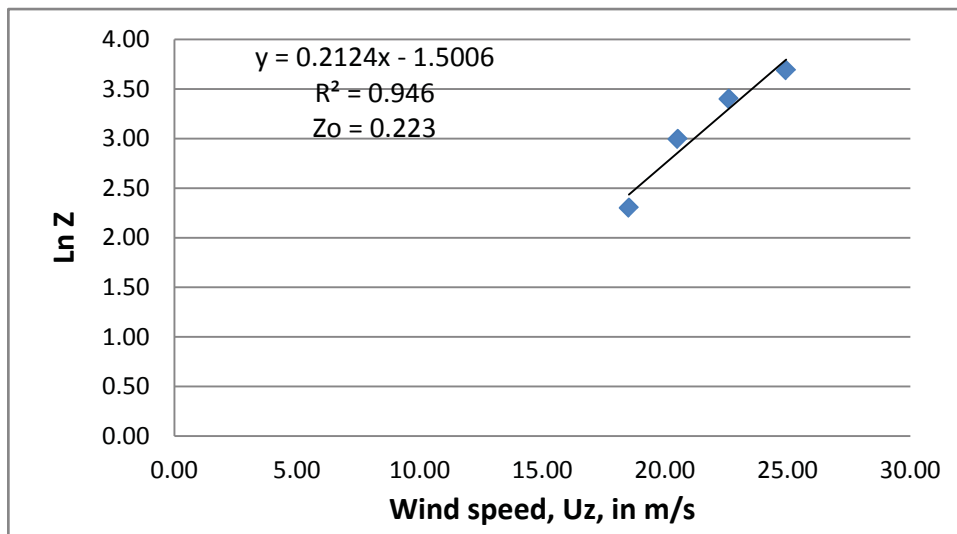
Statistically, Eq.(4) can be written as

$$\ln Z = \ln Z_0 + (k/U^*) U_z \quad (5)$$

$$Y = a_0 + a_1 X$$

Where $Y = \ln Z$, $X = U_z$, and $Z_0 = \text{Exp}(a_0)$ (6)

Analysis of the log law is presented in Fig. 2. Since approximately 95 per cent of the wind speed variation with height can be explained by this law (because $R^2 = 0.95$), we can get $Z_0 = 0.223$.

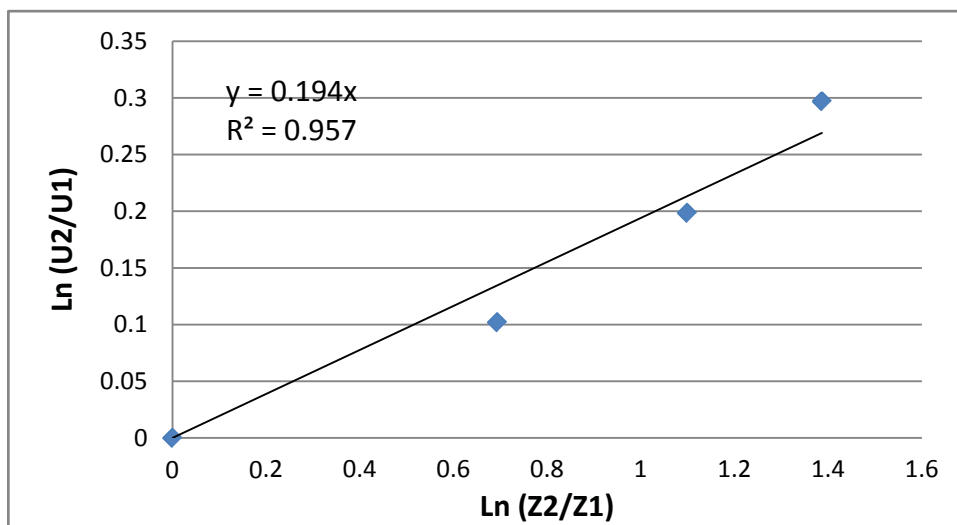


(Data Source : Peng et al, 2013)

Figure 2 : Verification of logarithmic wind profile during Typhoon Mufia in 2011 on the east coast of Shanghai, China

Analysis of power law is provided in Fig. 3, which demonstrates that nearly 96 per cent of the wind speed variation with height can be explained by the power law so that $p = 0.194$. Note that since R^2 is

higher for the power law than that for the log law, we can say that the former is as good as the latter for engineering applications.



(Data Source : Peng et al, 2013)

Figure 3 : Verification of power-law wind profile during Typhoon Mufia in 2011 on the east coast of Shanghai, China

Now, comparison of these $Z_0 = 0.223$ and $p = 0.194$ values to those in Table 1, we can see that the measurement site in Peng et al (2013) was located at Category III. Since values of Z_0 and p are consistent with those provided in Table 1, we can say that Cat. III is verified.

c) *Wind speed measurements at 494 m atop the Shanghai World Financial Center during Typhoon Muifa in 2011*

An et al (2012) present their wind measurements atop the Shanghai World Financial Center (SWFC) during Muifa. The maximum 10-min mean wind

$$U_{494m} = U_{650m} * (494/650)^{0.362} = 39.37 * 0.91 = 35.65 \text{ m/s}$$

Since the difference between estimated wind speed (35.65 m/s) and the measured (32.97) is approximately 8 per cent, which is within the 10 percent margin of error for the composite accuracy of the field measurement in wind speed (see www.ndbc.noaa.gov), we can say that Table 1 is evaluated to be useful.

d) *Upper-air Measurements from Shanghai during Muifa*

As indicated in Table 1, the gradient height over a large city is 650 m. Since there is no wind measurement at this altitude at present time, we employ the routine upper-air sounding called rawinsonding instead. According to Geer (1996), rawinsonde is a method of upper-air observation consisting of an evaluation of the wind speed and direction, as well as temperature, and humidity aloft by means of a balloon-borne radiosonde (instrument package) tracked utilizing position change as determined by directional radio techniques. Note that rawinsonde measurements are routinely available twice per day at many places around the world including Shanghai, China (see www.ncdc.noaa.gov).

Before the analyses of upper-air data are performed, the concept of virtual potential temperature,

speed reaches 32.97 m/s at 494 m on the rooftop. With this data we can evaluate Cat. VI using Table 1 that $p = 0.198$ for Cat. III. First, we need to estimate the wind speed at 450 m by applying the power law as follows:

$$U_{450m}/U_{10m} = (450/10)^{0.198} = 2.12$$

$$U_{450m} = 18.53 * 2.12 = 39.37 \text{ m/s}$$

This value is expected to be the same at 650 m over SWFC.

Now, the wind speed at 494 m atop SWFC is estimated to be

θ_v , needs to be discussed briefly, since it can serve as a stability criterion for an atmosphere with a moisture gradient. For more detail, see Stull (1988). For our analyses, we need to know that when θ_v is constant, the atmospheric boundary layer is statically neutral. When it decreases with height, the atmosphere is statically unstable. When it increases with elevation, the atmosphere is statically stable. Since the power-law wind profile is valid within a neutral boundary layer, we need to plot this virtual potential temperature value with height so that the gradient height can be determined.

Figs. 4 thru 9 show our results during Typhoon Muifa in 2011 near Shanghai. It can be seen from Figs. 6 and 9 that the average gradient height during these two rawinsondings is $(677 + 611)/2 = 644$ m, which is close to the value of 650 m as proposed in Table 1 for Category VI. Note that at 12Z on 06 August 2011, the wind was light and variable near the ground as shown in Figs. 4 and 5, but at 611 m, the wind speed was 17 m/s and direction from 40 degrees. Similar condition was prevailed 12 hours later (Figs. 7 and 8), but the direction was from 315 degrees with a speed of 7.2 m/s near the ground. At 611m, the speed increased to 26.3 m/s and the direction was from 340 degrees.

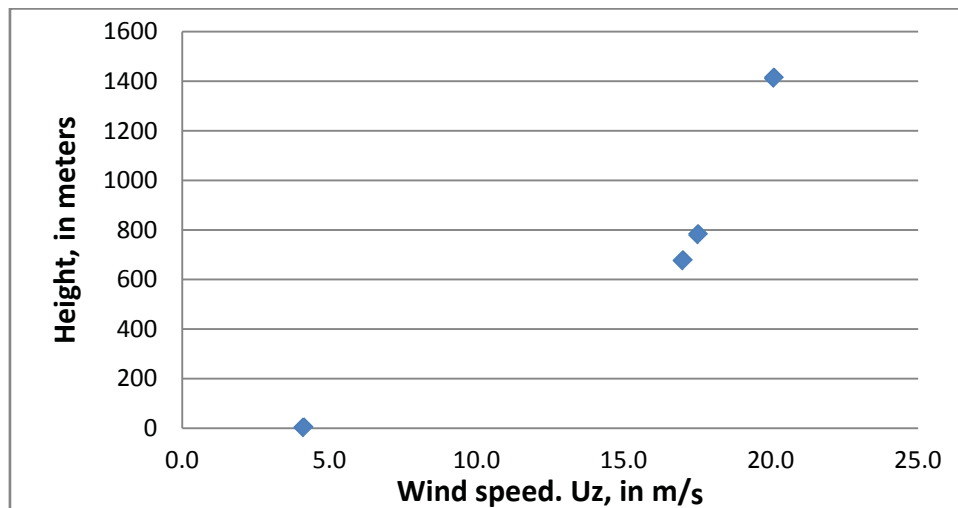


Figure 4 : Rawinsonding of wind speed from Shanghai, China, at 12Z on 06 Aug 2011 during Typhoon Muifa

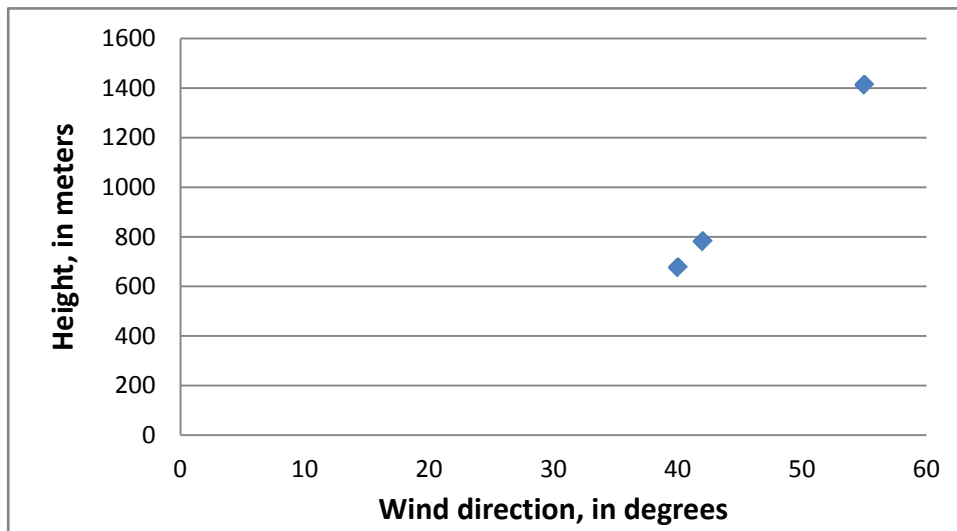


Figure 5 : Rawinsounding of wind direction from Shanghai, China, at 12Z on 06 Aug 2011 during Typhoon Muifa

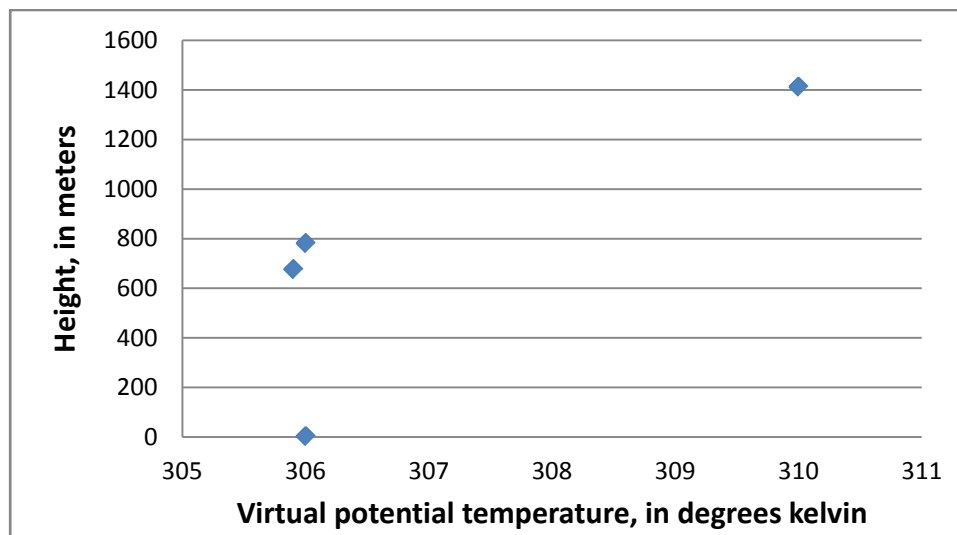


Figure 6 : Rawinsounding of virtual potential from Shanghai, China, at 12Z on 06 Aug 2011 during Typhoon Muifa

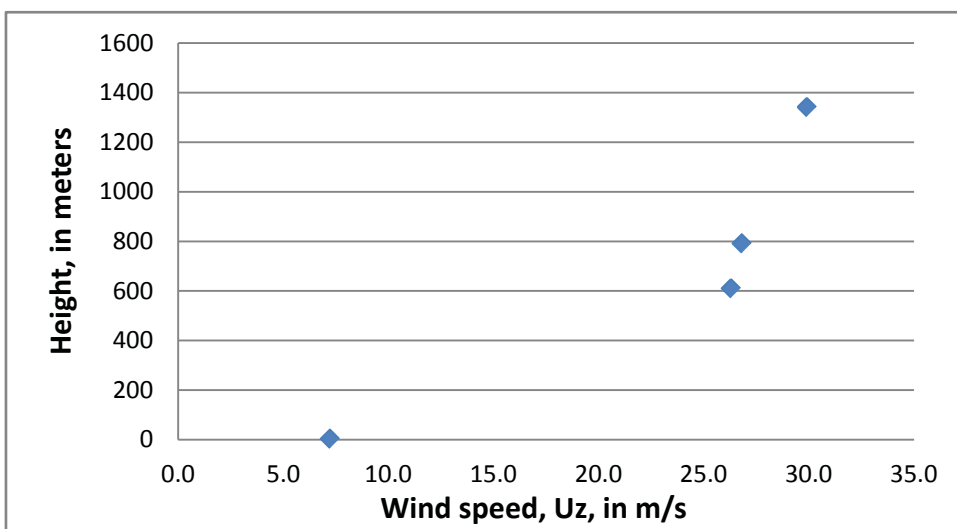


Figure 7 : Rawinsounding of wind speed from Shanghai, China, at 00Z on 07 Aug 2011 during Typhoon Muifa

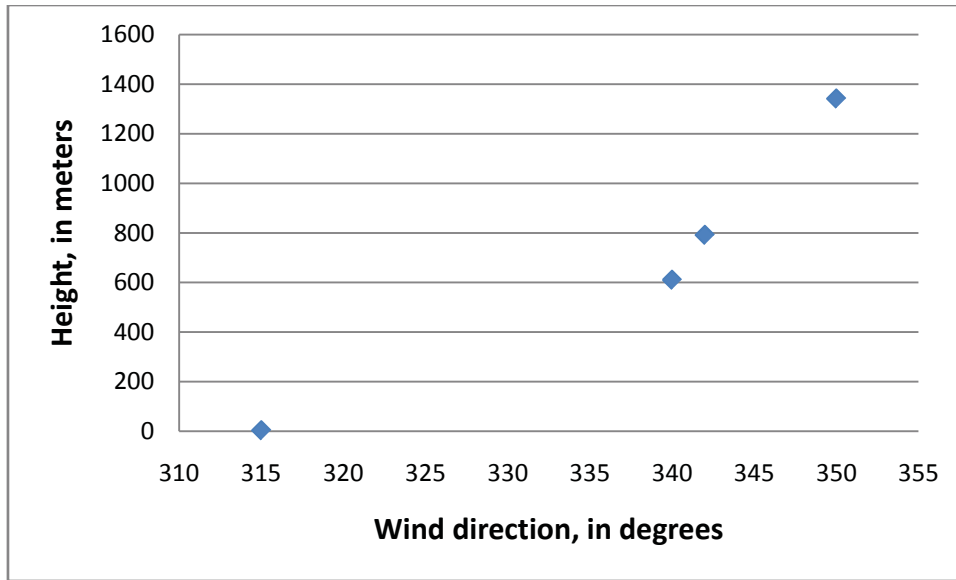


Figure 8 : Rawinsonding of wind direction from Shanghai, China, at 00Z on 07 Aug 2011 during Typhoon Muifa

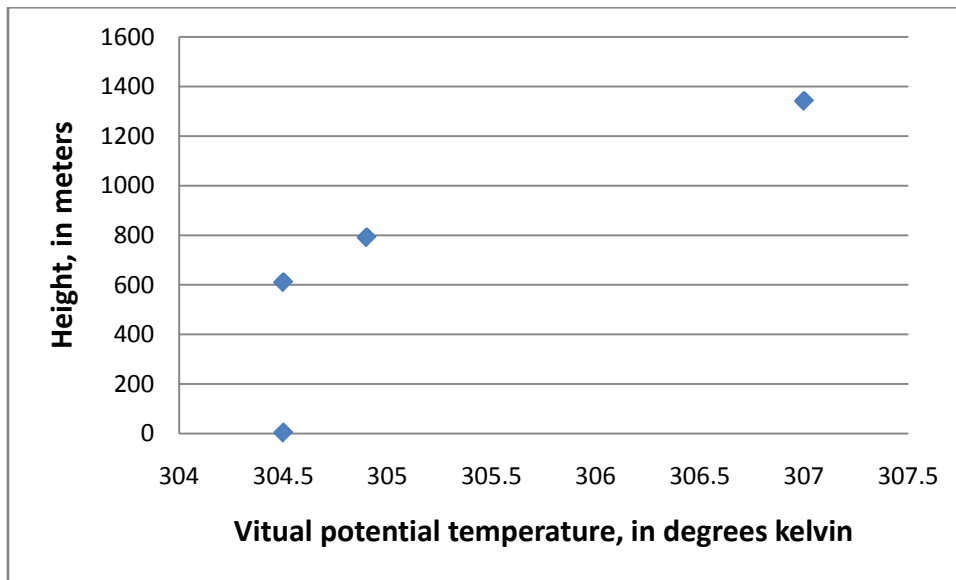


Figure 9 : Rawinsonding of virtual potential temperature from Shanghai, China, at 00Z on 07 Aug 2011 during Typhoon Muifa

III. AN EVALUATION USING MEASUREMENTS IN NEW YORK CITY

a) Validation of The Power-Law Exponent

Hanna et al (2007) present wind measurements during the Manhattan Madison Square Garden in New York City (NYC), USA, urban field experiments during 2005 suitable for our evaluation. Specifically, on 10 March 2005, there were 3 wind speed and direction measurements on three rooftops ranging from 34 to 229 m as shown in Fig. 10. A validation of the power law based on Eq. (1) is presents in Fig. 11, which also indicates that the exponent is determined to be 0.35.

This value is close to 0.362 as proposed in Table 1 for Category IV.

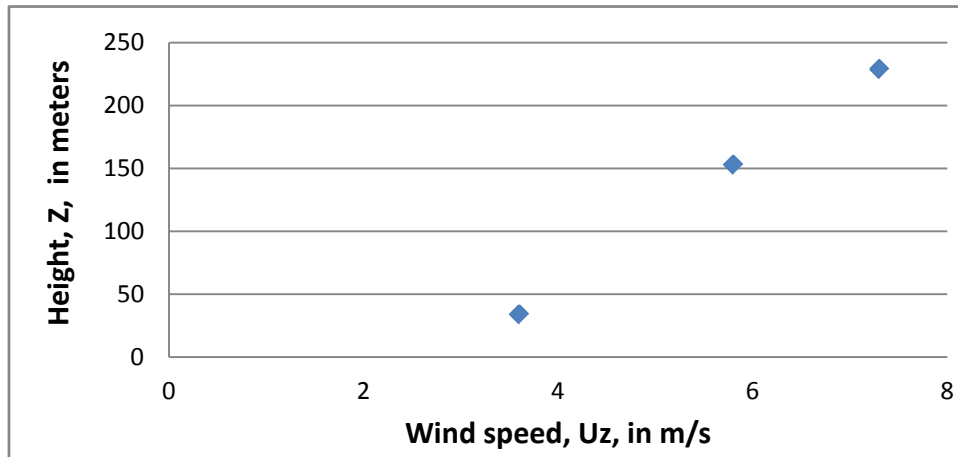


Figure 10 : Measurements of the wind speed on 3 rooftops in New York City by Hanna et al. (2007, Table 3)

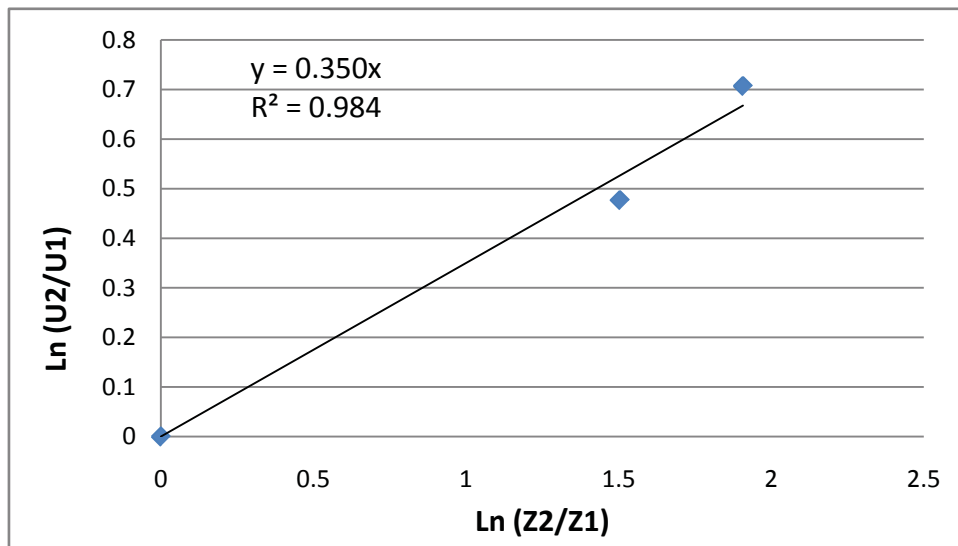


Figure 11 : Validation of the power-law wind profile based on data provided in Figure. 10 in New York City

b) Verifications of Wind Speed at 3 Elevations

Hanna et al (2007) also provided the wind measurement of 6.2 m/s at the standard 10 m height from nearby JFK Airport. We can now evaluate Table 1 using this JFK data as follows:

First, we need to calculate the wind speed at the gradient height for Category II such that, from Eq. (1),

$$U_{350m} = U_{10m} * (350/10)^{0.15} = 6.2 * 1.70 = 10.6 \text{ m/s,}$$

From Table 1, this value is expected to be the same as that of the wind speed at 650 m over NYC. So, we set $U_{650m} = 10.6 \text{ m/s}$ to compute the wind speeds located at the three rooftops.

For the rooftop at 229m, we have

$$U_{229m} = U_{650m} * (229/650)^{0.362} = 10.6 * 0.69 = 7.3 \text{ m/s,}$$

$$U_{153m} = U_{650m} * (153/650)^{0.362} = 10.6 * 0.59 = 6.3 \text{ m/s, and}$$

$$U_{34m} = U_{650m} * (34/650)^{0.362} = 10.6 * 0.34 = 3.6 \text{ m/s.}$$

These computed values are listed in Table 2 so that they can be compared to the measurements as provided in Hanna et al (2007). Since the margin of error

in wind speed measurement is 10 % as stated above, we can say based on Table 2, that the agreements are excellent and Table 1 is evaluated here as useful.

Table 2 : Comparisons between the computed and measured wind speeds at 3 heights in NYC (Data source: Hanna et al, 2007)

Rooftop height, m	Measured Wind speed,m/s	Computed Wind speed, m/s	Difference in Per cent
229	7.3	7.3	0 %
153	5.8	6.3	8 %
34	3.6	3.6	0 %

IV. AN EVALUATION USING MEASUREMENTS IN HOUSTON, TEXAS, DURING HURRICANE IKE IN 2008

When Hurricane Ike passed over the City of Houston, Texas, in September 2008 (see Berg, 2008), there were two wind speed measurements at 20 and 60 meters on a 91 meter communication tower (see Schade, 2012) which are useful for our evaluation as follows:

a) A Comparison of Boundary-layer Parameters with Table 1

According to Schade (2012), several boundary-layer parameters are available for the comparison as shown in Table 3. It can be seen that the Tower in Houston is located in Category V. While both values of roughness parameter and power-law exponent are in excellent agreement, the displacement is not. A recent study of zero-plane displacement height, *d*, in a highly built-up area of Tokyo shows that the value of *d* may not be determined from the average building height because of the large difference in building heights (see Tanaka et al., 2011). Therefore, values of the displacement height as listed in Table 1 need to be

further evaluated. But, for now, it is listed only as a general guide.

Table 3 : A comparison of boundary-layer parameters. Source Roughness

Source	Roughness Length, <i>Z₀</i> , m	Power-law Exponent, <i>p</i>	Displacement Height, m
Houston Tower	1.0	0.29	8
Table 1	1.0	0.289	20

b) A Comparison of Wind Speed Measurements

In order to evaluate the tower measurements from Houston, we need to first determine the power-law exponent from nearby Hobby Airport, which was not exactly located in open country but between Categories II and III. This is accomplished as follows:

According to Hsu (2013), the power-law exponent, *p*, can be determined from the 5-second gust over 2 minute (sustained wind speed) period as used in wind speed measurements by the Automated Surface Observing System (ASOS) station at airport worldwide such that,

$$G = 1 + 2.04 P \tag{7}$$

Where *G* is the gust factor (the ratio of 5-s gust to 2-min sustained wind speed) and *p* is the power-law exponent. Fig. 12 shows that since *G* = 1.3672 at Houston Hobby Airport, *P* = 0.180, indicating this location was between Categories II and III. Because there is no further classification, we need to produce the statistical relationships amongst roughness length, power-law exponent and the gradient height. On the basis of Table 1, these relationships are analyzed and presented in Figs. 13 through 15.

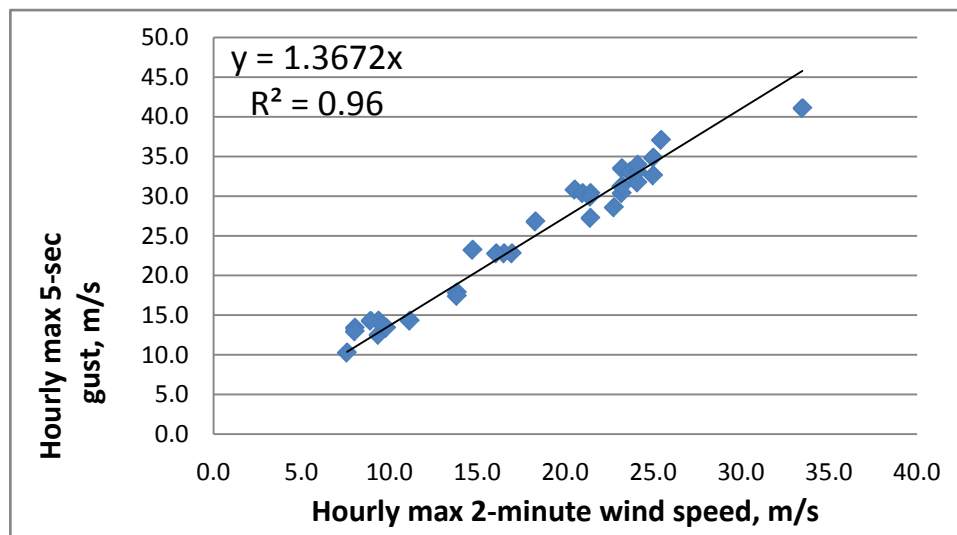
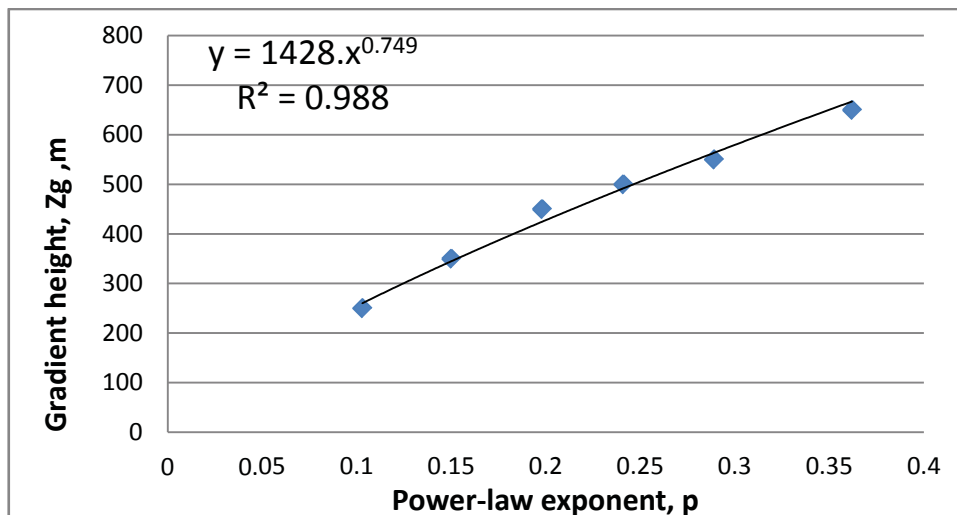
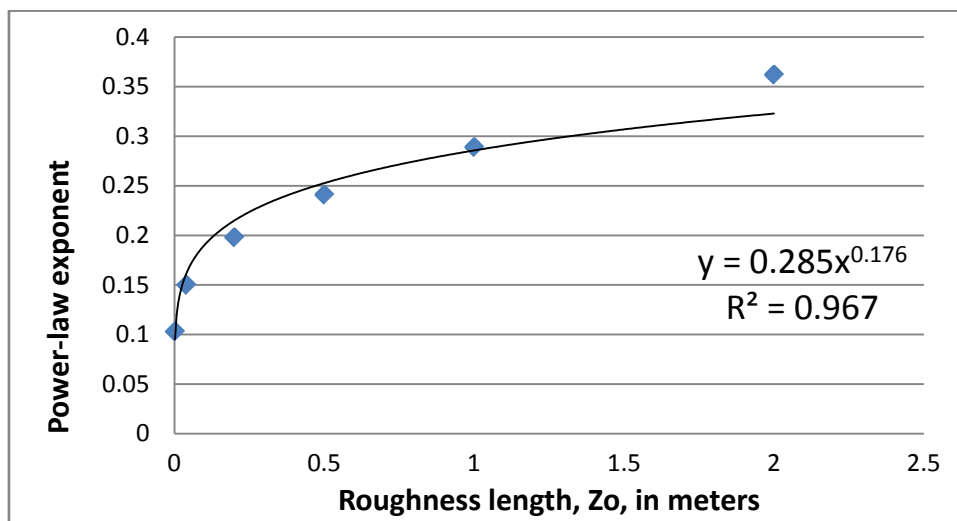


Figure 12 : Relationship between sustained wind speed and gust on 12-13 September 2008 in Houston Hobby Airport during Hurricane Ike



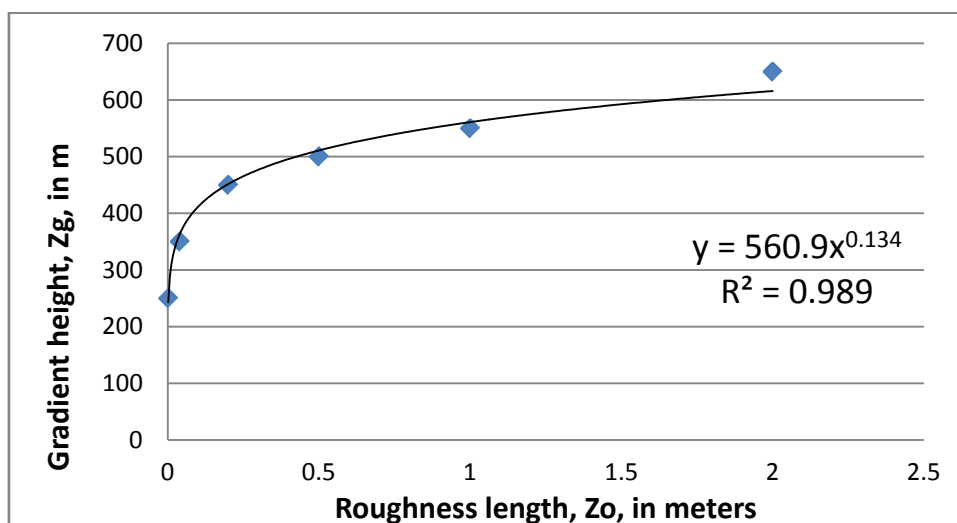
(Data Source : Choi, 2009)

Figure 13 : Relationship between the gradient height and power-law exponent



(Data Source : Choi, 2009)

Figure 14 : Relationship between roughness length and power-law exponent



(Data Source : Choi, 2009)

Figure 15 : Relationship between roughness length and gradient height



With these methods we can compute the wind speeds at the two heights on the Houston tower as follows:

- Based on Fig. 13, given $p = 0.180$ for Houston Hobby Airport, the gradient height is estimated to be 395 m;
- From Fig. 12, the max sustained 2-min wind speed over Hobby was approximately 34 m/s. Therefore the wind speed at the gradient height of 395 m over Hobby Airport is

$$U_{395m} = U_{10m} * (395/10)^{0.18} = 34 * 1.94 = 66 \text{ m/s,}$$

According to Schade (2007), the mean turbulence intensity was 0.29 for the tower. According to Hsu (2013), the power-law exponent, p , is numerically equal to the turbulence intensity. We can assign $p = 0.29$ for this tower location. Thus, from Fig. 13, the gradient height over the tower is 565 m. Now, we can now compute the wind speed at 60 m at the tower to be

$$U_{60m} = U_{565m} * (60/565)^{0.29} = 66 * 0.52 = 34 \text{ m/s.}$$

Similarly, the wind speed at 20 m on the tower is computed as

$$U_{20m} = U_{565m} * (20/565)^{0.29} = 66 * 0.38 = 25 \text{ m/s.}$$

A comparison of these estimations against the measurements is presented in Table 4. It is found that the agreement is excellent, indicating that our methodology as provided above is operational.

Table 4 : A comparison of wind speed at 2 levels during Hurricane Ike in 2008

Height, m	Estimated wind Speed, m/s	Measured wind Speed, m/s	Difference In per cent
60	34	33	3%
20	25	25	0%

V. AN EVALUATION USING MEAN BUILDING HEIGHT AS INPUT

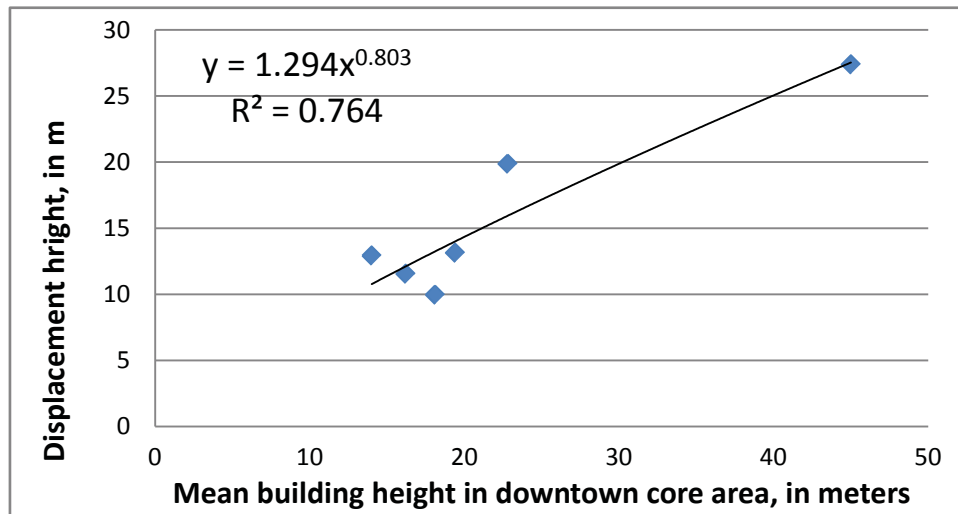
As stated above, the construction of few super tall buildings (building height > 300 m) in several cities makes the estimation of displacement difficult. However, for many urban areas, it is still useful to employ the mean building height as an input to estimate the displacement height. This is done as follows:

- According to the data as provided in Burian et al (2005), which is listed in Table 5, we can say that the displacement height is approximately 72 per cent of the mean building height in the downtown core areas in the cities as studied. This value is reasonably close to that of 80 % as suggested by Panofsky and Dutton (1984, P.376), since the difference is about 10 %.

Table 5 : Data for the displacement height and mean building height in several cities in USA (Data source: Burian et al, 2005)

City	Mean building Height in Downtown, m	Displacement Height, d, m	Ratio
Los Angeles	45	27.38	0.61
Houston	22.8	19.87	0.87
Oklahoma City	19.4	13.14	0.68
Albuquerque	14	12.93	0.92
Phoenix	16.2	11.55	0.71
Portland	18.1	9.97	0.55
		mean	0.72

- Using Table 5, we can now analyze and plot the relationship between the mean building height and the displacement height. Since there are only 6 cities, this $R^2 = 0.76$ is considered to be useful as a first approximation. This is needed since there are many cities in the hurricane or typhoon prone areas, which does not have the survey of the displacement height as those shown in Table 5, but the mean building heights in many downtown areas are known as published in the National Building Statistics Database: Version 2 by the Los Alamos National Laboratory (Publication Number LA-UR-08-1921).



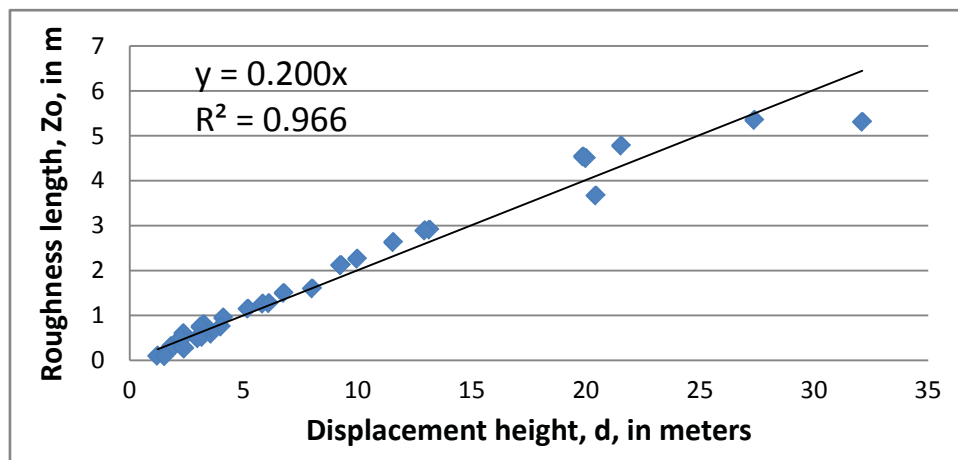
(Data Source : Burian et al., 2005)

Figure 16 : Relationship between mean building height and displacement height

- Because Table 1 requires the value of roughness length, Z_o , we further acquire and analyze the datasets including both Z_o and the displacement height in more cities. The results are presented in Table 17, which indicates that

$$Z_o = 0.2 d \quad (8)$$

Since the coefficient of determination, $R^2 = 0.97$, is very high, Eq. (8) should be useful operationally.



(Data Source : Burian et al., 2005)

Figure 17 : Relationship between displacement height and roughness length

VI. AN EVALUATION USING TYPHOON SALLY IN 1996 OVER HONG KONG AND SHENZHEN, CHINA

Full-scale monitoring of typhoon effects on super tall buildings was conducted during the passage of Typhoon Sally in 1996 (see Li et al., 2005). For our evaluation, we employ the measurements at Cheung Chau. From the position provided in Li et al (2005), this station is located in Category I. According to Hsu (1988, p. 202), $P = 0.10$ and Hsu (1988, pp. 126-127), the gradient height = 250 m. These values are in excellent agreement with Category I as listed in Table 1.

Further verification of the gradient height over Hong Kong City is presented in Figures 18 and 19, which show the distinct characteristics of two layer flow with the separation elevation located at 694 m in both wind speed (Fig. 18) and direction (Fig.19). Since the difference between this measured value of 694 m and the proposed value of 650 m is approximate 6 percent, we may use the proposed value as a first approximation.

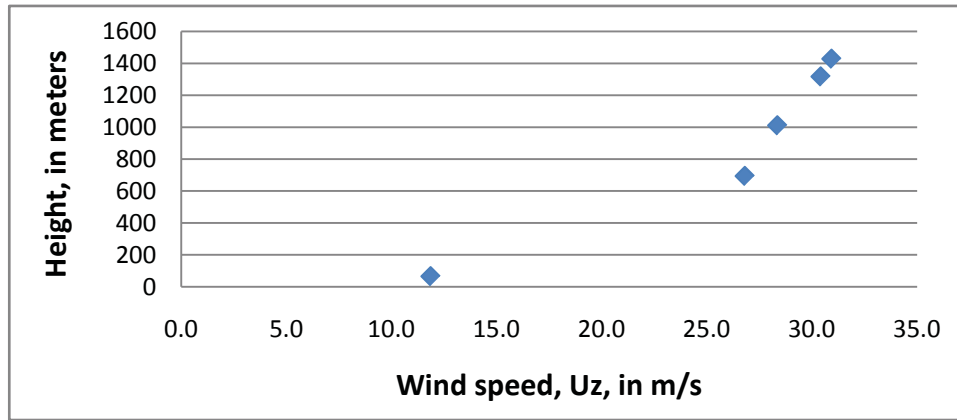


Figure 18 : Variation of wind speed with height at 18Z on 08 September 1996 based on Hong Kong Observatory during Typhoon Sally

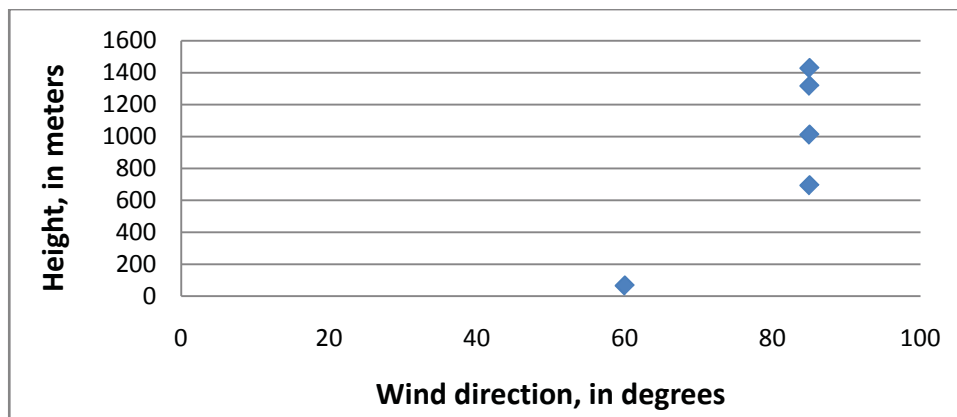


Figure 19 : Variation of wind direction with height at 18Z on 08 September 1996 based on Hong Kong Observatory during Typhoon Sally

With the aforementioned verification of the gradient height in mind, we can now compare the wind speed measurements atop the tall building and the wind speed estimates from Table 1 in Hong Kong.

First, on the basis of the measured max wind speed of 37.5 m/s at 92 m at Cheung Chau, the wind speed at 250 m over that station (Cat. I) is

$$U_{250m} = U_{92m} * (250/92)^{0.103} = 37.5 * 1.11 = 41.6 \text{ m/s.}$$

This max speed is expected to be the same at U650m over Hong Kong and Shenzhen so that the max wind speeds atop of the Central Plaza Tower at 374 m in Hong Kong and Di Wang Tower at 384 m in Shenzhen are estimated from Table 1 for Cat. VI as

$$U_{374m} = U_{650m} * (374/650)^{0.362} = 41.6 * 0.82 = 34.1 \text{ m/s, and}$$

$$U_{384m} = U_{650m} * (384/650)^{0.362} = 41.6 * 0.83 = 34.5 \text{ m/s,}$$

respectively. These results are compared with measurements as shown in Table 6.

Table 6 : A comparison of max wind speed between estimated and measured atop tall buildings during Typhoon Sally in 1996

Tall Building	Height, m	Estimated max speed, this study, m/s	Measured, see Li et al (2005), m/s	Difference in percent
Central Plaza Tower in Hong Kong	374	34.1	29.6	13 %
Di Wang Tower in Shenzhen	384	34.5	33.5	3 %

Since the average difference is $(0.13 + 0.03)/2 = 0.08$ or 8 %, which is within 10 % for the composite margin of error for wind speed measurements, it is reasonable to say that Table 1 is evaluated to be useful operationally.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

A proposal based on Choi in 2009 for "unified terrain categories exposures and velocity profiles" has been evaluated extensively in this study. This evaluation includes 3 separate papers published most recently under the conditions of Typhoon Muifa in 2011 over the greater Shanghai, China, region, one study during Hurricane Ike in 2008 over Houston, Texas, USA, one paper for super tall buildings (> 300m) during Typhoon Sally in 1996 over Hong Kong and Shenzhen, China and one study during an atmospheric dispersion experiment in New York City, USA. In addition, in order to support the evaluation of gradient height, upper-air sounding measurements are acquired and analyzed when appropriate. On the basis of these evaluations, it is found that the criteria as shown in Table 1 are useful operationally for engineering applications except the designation of the displacement height which requires further investigation. An alternative approach using the mean building height as the input for the power-law exponent is proposed.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
Volume 13 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2013
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN: 2249-4596 & Print ISSN: 0975-5861

Minimization of Spent Acid Waste from Galvanizing Plant in Malaysia

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Abstract - Hydrochloric acid is used as pickling acid in galvanizing industry to remove rust from steel. Usage of this acid incurs high expenditure cost when it is disposed as scheduled waste. The importance of this study is to come up with a better way to minimize the cost being spent for hydrochloric acid disposal by optimizing and extending the life span of the hydrochloric acid. The methodology used in this project is by conducting experiment of regeneration of Hydrochloric acid using Kleingarn acid management system, collecting experiment data and calculating the short and long term cost reduction that can be achieved. The results obtained through experimentation shows that acid purchase time has been successfully extended; which in return helps to reduce the fresh hydrochloric acid purchase frequency. Implementation of Kleingarn acid management system helped the acid dumping frequency to be extended. This is a positive result because extension of the acid disposal time also means that lesser spent acid waste are being produced and lesser hazardous waste will be disposed in the future.

Keywords : *galvanizing, hydrochloric acid, kleingarn acid management system.*

GJRE-E Classification : *FOR Code: 090599*



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Minimization of Spent Acid Waste from Galvanizing Plant in Malaysia

Nalienaa Muthu^α, Faieza Abdul Aziz^σ & Profesor Dr. Rosnah Binti Mohd Yusuff^ρ

Abstract - Hydrochloric acid is used as pickling acid in galvanizing industry to remove rust from steel. Usage of this acid incurs high expenditure cost when it is disposed as scheduled waste. The importance of this study is to come up with a better way to minimize the cost being spent for hydrochloric acid disposal by optimizing and extending the life span of the hydrochloric acid. The methodology used in this project is by conducting experiment of regeneration of Hydrochloric acid using Kleingarn acid management system, collecting experiment data and calculating the short and long term cost reduction that can be achieved. The results obtained through experimentation shows that acid purchase time has been successfully extended; which in return helps to reduce the fresh hydrochloric acid purchase frequency. Implementation of Kleingarn acid management system helped the acid dumping frequency to be extended. This is a positive result because extension of the acid disposal time also means that lesser spent acid waste are being produced and lesser hazardous waste will be disposed in the future.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Corrosion is a natural process of degradation caused by chemical reaction between steel which comes in contact with the environment or abrasive effects between steel and other material. Rusting is the most common and economically destructive form of corrosion. Potential damage that can be caused by corrosion is degradation of structures, machines, and containers. There are many approaches to protect steel from corrosion which can indirectly avoid damages caused by corrosion (Sastri, 2007).

Hot dip galvanizing process prevents corrosion of steel by providing a tough, durable barrier coating of metallic zinc which completely seals the steel from corrosive environment (Chandler, 1985). One of the main steps involved in galvanizing process would be removal of rust from the steel using pickling acid. In this project, the pickling acid used is hydrochloric acid because it is more economical and less hazardous. The fresh hydrochloric acid which is bought at certain price need to be disposed as scheduled waste which cost

even more than the purchasing price of fresh hydrochloric acid.

The importance of this study is to come up with a better way to minimize the cost being spent for hydrochloric acid disposal. This project uses application of the Kleingarn acid management system to minimize wastage of hydrochloric acid in galvanizing process through optimization of hydrochloric acid. Hydrochloric acid is optimized by recovering the acid value and extending the life span of the hydrochloric acid. Extension of the acids life span helps in reducing the frequency of acid disposal, which in return helps in reducing the cost being spent for hydrochloric acid disposal.

Once the strength of hydrochloric acid has been reduced, the hydrochloric acid cannot be reused, it needs to be disposed as schedule waste whereby the disposal cost happens to be more than the initial acid purchase price (McClay, 2007). There are many methods in disposing spent acid wastes, such as containing it in drums and selling it to vendors and disposing the spent acid waste in dedicated waste disposal landfill (Patnaik, 2007).

The main problem that the project concentrates on is minimization of spent acid waste in galvanizing industry. Galvanizing companies are facing the high expenditure cost spent in disposing the hydrochloric acid as scheduled waste. Once the strength of hydrochloric acid has been reduced, the hydrochloric acid cannot be reused and it becomes spent acid. This spent acid needs to be disposed as schedule waste whereby the disposal cost happens to be more than the initial acid purchase price. McClay, (2007); Fresner, (2006) and Steward, (1995) were facing the same problems that the company in galvanizing industry is facing which is the high expenditure cost spent in disposing the hydrochloric acid as scheduled waste.

This study is being conducted to propose an improved waste management system for hydrochloric acid and it can also act as a cost reduction project. The main objectives of this project are to identify feasible method for disposing hydrochloric acid as scheduled waste in a galvanizing company and to implement the Kleingarn acid management system method and test the effectiveness in reducing the waste.

II. HOT DIP GALVANIZING

The main purpose of galvanizing is to provide a protective coating to steel so that corrosion does not

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take place. Rusting is the most common and economically destructive form of corrosion (The Effects and Economic Impact of Corrosion, 2000). The process of galvanizing steel with zinc layer helps to form a barrier between steel and other corrosive elements, preventing it from corrosion which can cause dangerous damage. The galvanized steel coating of zinc also has excellent abrasion resistance (Hall, 1963). Hot-dip galvanizing is a form of galvanization. It is the process of coating iron, steel or aluminum with a thin zinc layer, by passing the metal through a molten bath of zinc at a temperature of around 450 °C (Hall, 1963). When exposed to the atmosphere, the pure zinc (Zn) reacts with oxygen (O₂) to form zinc oxide (ZnO), which further reacts with carbon dioxide (CO₂) to form zinc carbonate (ZnCO₃) (Volovitch, 2011).

Hot dip Galvanizing process can only be carried out in a galvanizing company and a galvanized material is only available in one color (Graham, 1970). The physical appearance of galvanized steel may vary from one galvanizing company to another due to the difference in additives used in their zinc kettle. However, the physical appearance does not change the initial functionality of galvanized zinc coating, which is to prevent steel from corrosion.

a) *Pickling using Hydrochloric Acid*

According to Tang (2012), every hot dip galvanizing process involves the steps of preparation and arrangement of untreated steel products, degreasing the steel, cleansing the steel, pickling, washing and cleansing the acid from steel, Pre-Fluxi chemical dipping, Molten Zinc dipping and at last there is the inspection step. Among these steps, the pickling process plays an important role in pre-treatment of the steel surface prior to chemical dipping and molten zinc dipping.

Tang (2012) also mentioned that the pickling process is a chemical procedure where the steel is dipped into a tank that contains one of these four acids, namely the sulfuric, nitric, hydrochloric or phosphoric acid solution. Although all of these strong acids can be used as pickling acid, hydrochloric acid is the much preferred acid for pickling process.

During the pickling process, any kind of impurities such as stains, inorganic contamination, rust, surface oxides and other contaminations are removed by a chemical reaction of the surface and the pickling solution. The final result of this pickling process would be that all layers of impurities dissolves as ions into the acid solution (Kittisupakorn, 2005).

The sulfuric, nitric, hydrochloric or phosphoric acid solution can be used for pickling process. Sulfuric acid was widely used by galvanizing companies for a long period of time, however, in recent years sulfuric acid has been replaced by hydrochloric acid for pickling process (Tang, 2012).

Although purchasing hydrochloric acid is more expensive compared to purchasing sulfuric acid, but hydrochloric acid tends to be a more preferred type of acid to be used for pickling process due to its waste disposal cost which is cheaper compared to disposing sulfuric acid as scheduled waste. Phosphoric acid is overall more expensive compared to both these acids (Chandler, 1985). Throughout this project, the focus will be on hydrochloric acid which is a commonly used acid in hot dip galvanizing companies in Malaysia for the surface treatment of steel products.

There are many advantages in using hydrochloric acid for pickling process compared with sulfuric acid. These advantages have been discussed by Tang (2012) and in (Surface Preparation of Structural Steel-Part 2 Communication from the Stichting Nederlands Corrosie Centrum). Hydrochloric acid is considered to be the better acid to allow faster cleaning rate at normal temperatures compared to other acids used for pickling process.

The galvanizers can attain better quality of galvanized product with complete coating and without visible patches by subjecting their products through the pickling process. Although this is just for visual enhancement, but materials that are not subjected to pickling will not look as attractive as the one that are subjected to pickling process. A complete coating will determine the galvanized materials standard.

b) *Hydrochloric Acid as Scheduled Waste*

The pickling bath is used in hot dip galvanizing process to remove impurities from the surface of steel and produce a clean surface (McLay, 2007). The concentration level and the contamination level of the hydrochloric acid that is used for this process will change and once it reaches an unaccepted level, it need to be disposed or discarded by sending to licensed specialist treatment operators to be neutralized using alkaline waste. This waste product which needs to be disposed is referred to as spent pickle liquor or acid waste. Spent pickle liquor or acid waste is the main source of waste in hot dip galvanizing industry.

The corrosive nature and presence of residual acid as well as high metal content are other reasons why spent pickling liquors are considered as hazardous wastes. Treatment of hazardous wastes involves costs and it's a job where regulations and certain rules need to be followed strictly. It cannot be taken for granted as the consequences can be very dangerous.

c) *Methods for Regeneration of Hydrochloric Acid*

Regeneration of spent pickling liquors is a process that involves reduction in the volume of hydrochloric acid wastes to be generated (Tang, 2012). Implementation of regeneration process or any type of a recovery process in hot dip galvanizing industry usually involve some extra investment and it is very important to ensure that skillful operators are deployed to handle the

task so that the objective can be achieved. There are many regeneration methods available in galvanizing industry due to the interest shown by the industry owners to develop a better recovery process of waste acid.

i. *Pyrohydrolysis*

Agrawal (2009) have discussed on Pyrohydrolysis which is a process where the spent pickle liquor will be thermally decomposed in order to convert the spent pickle liquor back into hydrochloric acid and iron oxide. This process is carried out at a very high temperature plus with water vapor and oxygen. The spent pickle liquor is pumped into a pyrohydrolysis which will convert the Fe_2Cl_2 into components of Fe_3O and hydrochloric acid.

Regeneration of hydrochloric acid using pyrohydrolysis method is usually considered by companies operating in very big scale because this method is considered to be costly, due to the high energy cost involved in the installation and operation of pyrohydrolysis. This method is not environmental friendly due to the corrosive chloride and fluoride salts that exist in the dust emitted by this process. As such, any company that would like to install this system will also need to install dust collection system which will incur more cost (Agrawal, 2009).

ii. *Crystallization*

According to Brown (2006), initially, regeneration using crystallization method was used for regeneration of waste sulphuric acid. However, in the long run, regeneration using crystallization was also able to be performed for hydrochloric acid waste. The applicability of regeneration using crystallization for hydrochloric acid have been confirmed upon conducting some technical feasibility tests. It was also concluded that multi-stage crystallization need to be conducted in a series of CSTR-type crystallizers. The hydrochloric acid waste also needs to go through crystal recycling process in order to yield impurity-free.

This regeneration process via crystallization of ferrous sulphate, which involves a standard technique, does not have a size limitation. The newly regenerated hydrochloric acid might have some impact on the pickling process due to the dead-load of sulfate. This problem can be eliminated by adjusting the conditions of pickling rates to be at least equal to pure hydrochloric acid with an acceptable surface finish. (Magdalena, 2010 and Brown, 2006).

iii. *Hydrolytic Precipitation*

Based on George (2008), the regeneration of hydrochloric spent pickling liquors using hydrolytic precipitation method involves the process of vapor distillation under evaporative hydrolysis conditions at temperatures as high as 250°C . When there are no other chloride salts present, hydrolytic distillation process proceeds to completion at around 175°C . However,

when Magnesium chloride is present, a higher temperature is required for the hydrolytic distillation process be completed.

iv. *Solvent Extraction Route*

The solvent extraction route method is a popular regeneration method. This regeneration method is preferred because it produces less hazardous by-products in the process of treating spent pickling liquors. By using the solvent extraction route method FeCl_2 and ZnCl_2 can be separated from hydrochloric acid. This process can be a little costly compared to the normal disposal of spent pickling liquors. Since this method requires waste water treatment which not all galvanizing company gives priority to, it can incur more cost. The byproduct produced from the regeneration of hydrochloric spent pickling liquors need to go through post-treatment before it can be discarded (Kerney, 1994).

v. *Kleingarn Acid Management System*

By adopting this regeneration method, the costs of replacement of the spent pickling liquors with new could be reduced. This method needs less initial investment. Application of Kleingarn acid management system as regeneration method in hot dip galvanizing company helps in reducing waste volume by saving the amount of hydrochloric acid being used. This regeneration method also may ease the recycling of acid wastes (Stocks, 2005).

Kleingarn acid management system needs less initial investment and at the same time it helps in reducing spent pickling liquors volume. Regeneration of spent pickling liquor using Kleingarn acid management system can assist in increasing the acid strength and reducing the iron concentration at the same time. Experiments need to be carried out in order to obtain the optimum pickle rate using this regeneration method. This regeneration process can be repeated until the dedicated hydrochloric acid bath tank needs to be emptied for cleaning or repair. Once the dedicated hydrochloric acid bath tank is emptied, fresh solution should be made up using partly spent acid from other tanks plus fresh acid. The regeneration of hydrochloric acid using Kleingarn acid management system has many efficient and ecological advantages.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The problem was identified as need for reduction of the extra cost spent on hydrochloric acid disposal by optimising the hydrochloric acid usage. Project proceeds with the site visit at the galvanizing company to enable to see the overall process including the problem area and to ensure the understanding on the overall process flow. Focus was on the current hydrochloric acid pickling process and the hydrochloric acid waste disposal process. Specifically four methods were proposed to the galvanizing company to decide on

applicability upon completion of literature review. After a brief discussion on the most appropriate method that can be applied for regeneration of hydrochloric acid, Kleingarn acid management system was chosen.

This experiment is conducted on one dedicated hydrochloric acid tank. This dedicated tank was used throughout the project experimentation. Next step would be conducting experiment of regeneration of Hydrochloric acid using Kleingarn acid management system to reduce the spent acid waste. The sample size of acid is taken on weekly basis in order to get the hydrochloric acid strength level and to determine the level of iron present in the dedicated tank.

Once the acid sample is taken from the dedicated hydrochloric acid tank, it is sent to the lab in the galvanizing company to test the hydrochloric acid strength level and iron level. This is done to confirm that the hydrochloric acid level and iron level are within the range set by the company. Once it is confirmed that the hydrochloric acid level and iron level are within the range set by the company, project goes ahead and continue with pickling process.

Once the hydrochloric acid strength and the iron content level is tested and found to be within the intended range which is set by the company the galvanizing process will follow the existing process flow. The pickling process will resume as usual. In this case, the pickled product is rinsed in the tank containing water and goes on to zinc bath and finally it is subjected to inspection.

However, if the hydrochloric acid level and iron level are not within the range set by the company, the regeneration of Hydrochloric acid methodology is applied. Fresh hydrochloric acid is added into the dedicated hydrochloric acid tank in order to increase the hydrochloric acid level and reduce the iron level. The amount of fresh hydrochloric acid to be added is determined using the equation as per Kleingarn acid management calculation.

Upon adding the amount of fresh hydrochloric acid, the new acid sample is taken from the dedicated hydrochloric acid tank and sent to the lab in the galvanizing company once again to test the new hydrochloric acid strength level and iron level. This is done to reconfirm that the hydrochloric acid level and iron level are within the range set by the company after adding in fresh hydrochloric acid.

This step is followed by collection of experiment data to validate the reduction rate of spent acid waste. The short and long term cost reductions are calculated by tabulating the experiment data collected for 20 weeks. The experiment data and calculation of cost reduction is being used to answer the second objective of this project which is to test the effectiveness of the chosen method for regeneration of hydrochloric acid.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The regeneration of hydrochloric acid using Kleingarn acid management system was considered to be more feasible and practical method to be applied for disposing hydrochloric acid as scheduled waste in galvanizing company. This is because this method is conducted by topping up the existing hydrochloric acid with fresh hydrochloric acid based on the iron and chloride level. The lab testing to obtain the experiment results incur minimum cost.

a) *The Experiment*

This experiment was conducted using hydrochloric acid as the main chemical for steel pickling process. The experiment was conducted for a period of 20 weeks and the sample size of acid was taken on weekly basis. The lab facility in the galvanizing company was utilized to test the hydrochloric acid strength level and to determine the level of iron present in the spent acid waste.

i. *Hydrochloric Acid Bath Tank and Hydrochloric Acid*

Firstly, a dedicated hydrochloric acid bath tank was set up. The dedicated acid bath tank functions as per normal in the sense where it was fully utilized for production. The size of the acid bath tank is 6 meters length, 1.6 meters width and 2.0 meters height.

The fresh hydrochloric acid that is bought by the company from their vendor is at 34% concentration level. Hydrochloric acid is a strong acid with low PH value; as such the hydrochloric acid cannot be poured into the acid bath tank directly at the concentration level of 34%. The acid bath tank is made of steel and lined with fiber glass, so, using the hydrochloric acid at this level will cause damage to the tank by corroding it due to the hydrochloric acids high level of corrosiveness (Davis, 2000).

That is the reason why the hydrochloric acid is diluted from 34% of acid concentration to 16% of acid concentration. During the dilution process, the acid will be added into water contained in the acid bath tank instead of adding the water into the concentrated hydrochloric acid. This is done in this manner because adding water into concentrated hydrochloric acid can cause strong reaction and may cause acid splash which can be dangerous to the worker who is handling the dilution process (Olmsted, 1997).

Although the acid bath tanks height is 2.0 meter, but the hydrochloric acid solution will not be filled at the height of 2.0 meter. This is because, the hydrochloric acid solution in the acid bath tank needs some room to raise once the steel that needs to be pickled is immersed into the acid bath tank. This is the reason why the total amount of hydrochloric acid diluted in water is set to be at the height of 1.6 meter in the acid

bath tank instead of the actual height of the acid bath tank which is 2.0 meter.

ii. *Pickling Process*

Iron should be present in the acid bath tank in order to help kick off the pickling process and to make the pickling process perform faster. Diluting the hydrochloric acid using the water taken from rinsing tank where there is iron present will help to expedite the pickling process. The optimum level of iron and hydrochloric acid need to be maintained because in case the solubility limit of iron in hydrochloric acid is exceeded then pickling will not take place.

When the pickling process takes place, the iron concentration of the pickle solution will increase in the acid bath tank as the acid strength decreases. Once the iron concentration increases out of the range due to pickling process, the spent pickle solution may be regenerated by the removal of a quantity of the spent acid and the addition of fresh acid.

iii. *Data Collection*

The hydrochloric acid sample to be tested which is taken from the dedicated acid bath tank is collected on weekly basis. The specific day to collect the sample was set to be every Wednesday. The reason behind this setting is because the hydrochloric acid strength reductions will not be significant if the sample is taken on daily basis. Taking the sample once a week gives the hydrochloric acid tank sufficient exposure to zinc and other materials due to the continues production for a period of one week. Another reason for taking the sampling in the mid of a week is because by doing the sampling on every Wednesday, the lab testing results can be obtained by the end of the day or latest by the next day which is Thursday and the project can determine the acidic level of the hydrochloric acid in the dedicated tank to decide on the addition of fresh acid. The experiment results have been tabulated into table form and presented below in table 1.

Table 1 : Experiment results

HCL TANK 1					
CHEMICALS	HCL (g/L)	Iron (g/L)	Addition Fresh HCL (tonnes)	New level of Hydrochloric acid upon top up (g/L)	New level of iron upon top up (g/L)
Range	90 – 140	60 - 90		90 – 140	60 – 90
MAX	140	90		140	90
MIN	90	60		90	60
Week					
1	135.00	78.00			
2	86.00	93.00	3.73	132.00	78.71
3	118.00	78.00			
4	75.00	91.00	4.11	128.00	77.02
5	129.00	78.00			
6	83.00	94.00	3.84	134.00	79.56
7	80.00	98.00	3.94	126.00	82.94
8	123.00	78.00			
9	83.00	92.00	3.84	127.00	77.86
10	98.00	78.00			
11	87.00	91.00	3.69	131.00	77.02
12	121.00	78.00			
13	96.00	78.00			
14	79.00	95.00	3.97	133.00	80.40
15	103.00	78.00			
16	88.00	92.00	3.66	126.00	77.86
17	104.00	78.00			
18	94.00	78.00			
19	84.00	99.00	3.80	134.00	83.79
20	85.00	91.00	3.76	125.00	77.02

iv. *Results with Acceptable Range of Hydrochloric Acid Strength*

For this project the hydrochloric acid level was maintained at the range of 9% to 14% under normal

condition with iron present in the acid bath tank. The iron content level was maintained at the range of 6% to 9% (Hornsby, 1995).

Theoretically the hydrochloric acid solution in the acid bath tank was calculated to achieve 16% of hydrochloric acid concentration; however, the lab test result confirmed that the hydrochloric acid strength was at 13.5% with iron present and the iron content was at 7.8% as per the lab test result noted in week 1.

This is because distilled water was not used, whereas rinsing water which already contains certain level of iron chloride was used in the process for diluting the hydrochloric acid. Rinsing water is the water in the tank where the metal which has already gone through pickling process will be rinsed in. Since hydrochloric acid is corrosive, it tends to least corrode the metal immersed in it during pickling process.

Once the pickled metal is dipped into the rinsing tank for washing the metal, elimination process of pickling reaction products takes place. Example of the pickling reaction products are namely iron salts and iron oxides. These pickling reaction products will be stacking in the rinsing water tank (Taylor, 2002).

In week 1, the fresh hydrochloric acid was not added to the acid bath tank because both the hydrochloric acid strength and iron content were within the intended range.

Once both the hydrochloric acid strength and the iron content are out of the intended range, the pickle solution needs to be regenerated. This is done by removing a volume of the spent pickle solution and adding it with an equivalent volume of fresh 34% of hydrochloric acid in order to produce a pickle solution with strength of 9% to 14% and iron content at the range of 6% to 9%.

The volume of spent pickle waste to be removed, r according to Eq. 1:

$$r = [(Concentration\ of\ regenerated\ acid \times Volume\ regenerated\ acid) - (Concentration\ of\ spent\ pickle\ solution \times Volume\ regenerated\ acid)] \div (Concentration\ of\ fresh\ ac) \quad (1)$$

$$r = [(16\% \times 15.36m^3) - (8.6\% \times 15.36m^3)] \div (34\% - 8.6\%)$$

$$r = 4.475m^3 \div 1.2$$

$$r = 3.73\ tonne$$

To achieve a regenerated solution with a concentration of 16% of hydrochloric acid, 3.73 tonnes of spent pickle waste need to be removed from the acid bath tank and topped up with 3.73 tonnes of fresh 34% of hydrochloric acid. The amount of spent pickle waste that needs to be removed varies from week to week. The

v. Results with Low Hydrochloric Acid Strength

Referring to the data obtained from the chemical lab test at week 2, the hydrochloric acid strength and the iron content showed 8.6% and 9.3% each. This value is out of the acceptable range, where the hydrochloric acid strength needs to be within 9% to 14% and iron content needs to be at the range of 6% to 9%.

Since the lab test data shows that the hydrochloric acid strength and the iron content are out of the intended range, certain quantity of pickled acid needs to be removed from the dedicated acid bath tank and replaced with fresh hydrochloric acid at the concentration of 34% to retain the hydrochloric acid strength and to enable the pickling process to take place at normal rate.

Refer to the calculation below for determining the volume of spent pickle solution to be removed and the iron concentration of the regenerated spent pickle waste:

$$Volume\ spent\ pickle\ solution = 6m \times 1.6m \times 1.6m$$

$$Volume\ spent\ pickle\ solution = 15.36m^3$$

$$Volume\ regenerated\ acid = 6m \times 1.6m \times 1.6m$$

$$Volume\ regenerated\ acid = 15.36m^3$$

$$Concentration\ of\ spent\ pickle\ solution = 8.6\%$$

$$Concentration\ of\ fresh\ acid = 34\%$$

$$Concentration\ of\ regenerated\ acid = 16\%$$

average amount of spent acid waste to be removed and topped up is 3.834 tonnes per week. The topping up process did not occur very often. There were weeks when fresh acid top up was not required as in week 1. The iron concentration of the regenerated spent pickle solution; z can be calculated using Eq. 2:

$$Volume\ of\ remaining\ pickle\ solution\ will\ be = 15.36m^3 - 4.475m^3 = 10.885m^3$$

$$z = \frac{(Iron\ concentration\ of\ spent\ pickle\ solution \times Volume\ of\ remaining\ spent\ pickle\ solution) + (Iron\ concentration\ of\ fresh\ acid \times Volume\ of\ fresh\ acid)}{Volume\ of\ regenerated\ solution} \quad (2)$$

$$z = [(90 \times 10.885) + (0 \times 4.475)] \div 15.36$$

$$z = 63.78$$

The newly regenerated solution should contain 63.78 gram/liter of iron. The new regenerated spent acid waste solution therefore should contain 16% of

hydrochloric acid strength and about 63.78 gram/liter of iron. These figures are based on the theoretical calculation. The hydrochloric acid strength and iron

content in actual galvanizing industry varies due to the presence of other components in the acid bath tank such as iron chloride.

Upon subjecting the regenerated pickle solution to lab test, it was found that the new regenerated spent acid waste contains 13.2% of hydrochloric acid concentration and about 78.71 gram/liter of iron content. Although there are some differences in the theoretical value compared to the actual value, the hydrochloric acid strength and iron content are still within the intended range.

It was also observed during the experimentation that whenever the acid concentration in the hydrochloric acid tank decreases, the iron content will increase. This experiment was started with hydrochloric acid strength at a high side then as the time passes by and production continues, the acid concentration reduces as it converts iron oxides to iron chloride (Peter Maa, 2011). From the experiment data, it can be noticed that the fresh acid top up process is not done on weekly basis. In average the top up process is done every alternate week.

vi. *Waste Minimization*

The experiment results can be divided into five months. Table 2 displays the comparison between hydrochloric acid usage before and after implementing regeneration of spent acid waste using Kleingarn acid management system.

Table 2 : Comparison of hydrochloric acid usage before and after implementing regeneration of spent acid waste using Kleingarn acid management system

Top up per month (consist of 4 weeks)	Usage of hydrochloric acid upon implementing Kleingarn acid management system (tonnes)	Usage of hydrochloric acid by using traditional method (tonnes)	Savings (tonnes)
Month 1	7.84	12.00	4.16
Month 2	7.78	12.00	4.22
Month 3	7.53	12.00	4.47
Month 4	7.63	12.00	4.37
Month 5	7.56	12.00	4.44
Average	7.67	12.00	4.33

It is proven that prior to implementing Kleingarn acid management system, an average of 12.00 tonnes of hydrochloric acid is used in the pickling process. This data was taken by averaging the total amount of hydrochloric acid used for a period of 11 months. Whereas after implementation of Kleingarn acid management system, the average amount of hydrochloric acid used in a month has reduced to 7.67 tonnes.

By comparing the data obtained, we can witness that the project has achieved average savings

of 4.33 tonnes of hydrochloric acid per month through implementation of Kleingarn acid management system. Although the fresh hydrochloric acid with 34% of concentration top up process involves some lab testing to be carried out, but the minimization rate of the hydrochloric acid used in a month proves its worth.

vii. *Cost Calculation*

Average usage of 12 tonnes of fresh hydrochloric acid for 4 weeks is also equivalent to usage of 3 tonnes of fresh hydrochloric acid per week. Average usage rate of fresh hydrochloric acid through implementation of Kleingarn acid management system is 7.67 tonnes. Once the usage rate is divided into 4 weeks, it is equivalent to 1.9 tonnes per week. Table 3 shows summary of the cost calculation for hydrochloric acid disposal before and after implementing regeneration of acid using Kleingarn acid management system.

Table 3 : Cost calculation for hydrochloric acid disposal before and after implementing regeneration of acid using Kleingarn acid management system

For 20 weeks	Before regeneration method	After regeneration method
Volume of spent acid waste at RM625.00 per tone	12 tonnes per month	7.67 tonnes per month
Treatment time	5 – 10 mins	15 mins
Spent acid waste dump Frequency in weeks	6 weeks once for every 18 tonne	9.5 weeks once for every 18 tonne
Steel Pickled (according to plant capacity)	1000 tonnes	1000 tonnes

Note : 1 tonne = 1000kgs

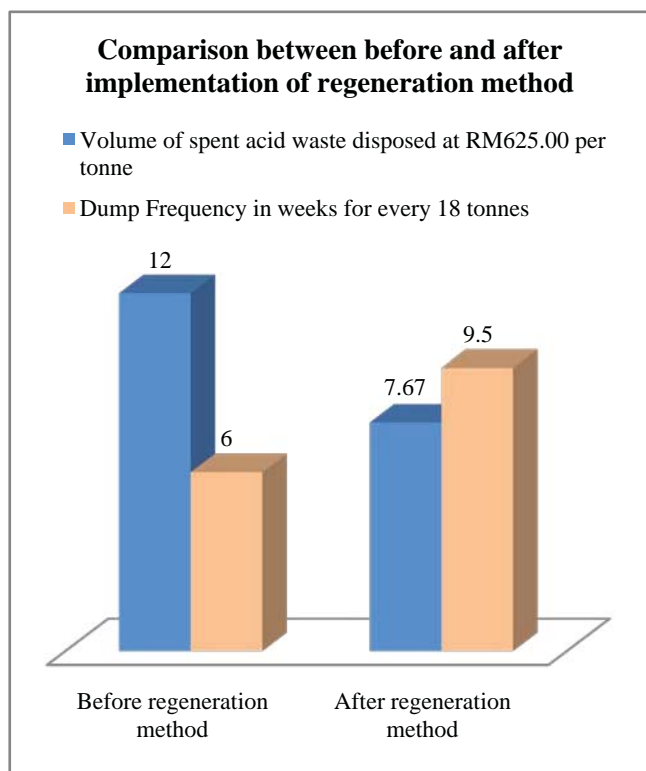
Currently 18 tonnes of hydrochloric acid is being bought every 6 weeks once to be used as the pickling acid. However, upon implementing the Kleingarn acid management system, 18 tonnes of acid can be bought every 9.5 weeks once. By implementing this regeneration method, the acid purchase time have been extended from 6weeks to 9.5 weeks. As such, the fresh hydrochloric acid with 34% concentration's purchase frequency is reduced because the usage time is extended.

The amount of steel pickled in both cases is maintained at 1000 tonnes so that the comparison will be fair and not affected by any external factors. Disposal of spent acid waste is carried out every 9.5 weeks once for 18 tonnes of acid after implementation of regeneration method.

Implementation of regeneration using Kleingarn acid management system also helps to extend the hydrochloric acid dumping frequency. The hydrochloric

acid dumping frequency has been extended from 6 weeks once for every 18 tonnes of spent acid waste to 9.5 weeks once for every 18 tonnes of spent acid waste.

Although the acid dumping frequency has only been extended for 3.5 weeks, in the long run, this value will contribute to a large amount of savings to the environment. This extension is healthy for the environment as lesser hazardous waste will be disposed in the future. Figure 1 helps to illustrate the comparison of volume of spent acid waste and spent acid waste dumping frequency before and after implementing regeneration of spent acid waste using Kleingarn acid management system



V. CONCLUSION

The effectiveness of the Kleingarn acid management system in reducing the scheduled waste was proven by extending the acid purchase time and by calculating the savings in monetary value. This project can be used by galvanizing company as a guidance in the process of scheduled waste minimization. Implementation of Kleingarn acid management system has helped to extend the existing acid purchase time from current duration of 6 weeks to a new extended duration of 9.5 weeks. Once the acid purchase time has been extended, the fresh hydrochloric acid purchase frequency can be reduced.

The amount spent for hydrochloric acid disposal as spent acid waste before implementation of regeneration using Kleingarn acid management system came up to RM7500.00 per month. The amount spent

for hydrochloric disposal after implementation of regeneration using Kleingarn acid management system came up to RM4750.00 per month. Savings of RM2750.00 per month was observed. This savings is possible for the galvanizing company that implements Kleingarn acid management system to treat their spent acid waste. Although this savings does not look like a large sum, but in the long run, it will save the galvanizing companies a huge chunk of their expense for hydrochloric acid disposal as spent acid waste.

Once acid consumption is reduced, it automatically helps to extend the hydrochloric acid dumping frequency. By implementing Kleingarn acid management system, the acid dumping frequency has been extended from the original 6 week to extra 3.5 weeks. Extending the acid disposal time also means that lesser spent acid waste are being produced. This extension is healthy for the environment as lesser hazardous waste will be disposed in the future.

Application of the Kleingarn acid management system reduces waste volume, saves hydrochloric acid usage rate and increases the company's financial returns. The method used is simple, does not involve high costing and it is practical to be applied by any galvanizing company.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
Volume 13 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2013
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN: 2249-4596 & Print ISSN: 0975-5861

Design Coefficients for Three Cell Box Culvert

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Abstract - Multiple cell reinforced box culverts are ideal bridge structure if the discharge in a drain crossing the road is large and if the bearing capacity of the soil is low as the single box culvert becomes uneconomical because of the higher thickness of the slab and walls. In such cases, more than one box can be constructed side- by- side monolithically.

The box culvert has to be analyzed for moments, shear forces and thrusts developed due to the various loading conditions by any classical methods such as moment distribution method, slope deflection method etc. It becomes very tedious for the designer to arrive at design forces for various loading conditions. Hence a study is made to arrive at the coefficients for moments, shear forces and axial thrusts for different loading cases and for different ratios of $L/H = 1.0$, $L/H = 1.25$, $L/H = 1.5$, $L/H = 1.75$ and $L/H = 2.0$ for three cell box culvert.

This enables the designer to decide the combination of various loading cases to arrive at the maximum design forces at the critical section thus saving considerable design time and effort.

Keywords : *design coefficients, three cell, culvert, moment, axial thrust, shear.*

GJRE-E Classification : *FOR Code: 290899*



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Sujata Shreedhar^α & R. Shreedhar^σ

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This enables the designer to decide the combination of various loading cases to arrive at the maximum design forces at the critical section thus saving considerable design time and effort.

Keywords: design coefficients, three cell, culvert, moment, axial thrust, shear.

I. GENERAL

Reinforced Concrete (RC) box culverts comprising of top slab, base slab and stem are cast monolithically to carry live load, embankment load, water pressure and lateral earth pressure in a better way. They may be either single cell or multiple cells. The top of the box may be at road level or it may be at a depth below the road level if the road is in embankment. The required height and number of boxes depends on hydraulic and other requirements at the site such as road level, nalla bed level, scour depth etc. The barrel of the box culvert should be of sufficient length to accommodate the carriageway and the kerbs.

II. LOADS

The loads considered for the analysis of box culverts are Dead load, Live load, Soil pressure on side walls, Surcharge due to live load, and Water pressure from inside.

a) Uniform Distributed Load

The weight of embankment, deck slab and the track load are considered to be uniformly distributed loads on the top slab with the uniform soil reaction on the bottom slab. For live load distribution, the width of dispersion perpendicular to the span is computed first.

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Width of dispersion parallel to the span is also calculated. Then the maximum magnitude of load is divided by width of dispersion parallel to span and width of dispersion perpendicular to the span to get the load intensity on the top slab.

b) Weight of Side Walls

The self weight of two side walls acting as concentrated loads are assumed to produce uniform soil reaction on the bottom slab.

c) Water Pressure Inside Culvert

The pressure distribution on side walls is assumed to be triangular with a maximum pressure intensity of $p=wh$ at the base, where w is the density of water and h is the depth of flow.

d) Earth Pressure on Vertical Side Walls

The earth pressure on the vertical side walls of the box culvert is computed according to the Coloumb's theory. The earth pressure intensity on the side walls is given by $p=Ka\gamma H$, where Ka is coefficient of active earth pressure, γ is the density of soil and H is the vertical height of box.

e) Uniform Lateral Load on Side Walls

Uniform lateral pressure on vertical side walls is considered due to the sum of effect of embankment loading and live load surcharge. Also the uniform lateral pressure on vertical side walls is considered due to embankment loading alone.

III. DESIGN MOMENTS, SHEARS AND THRUSTS

The box culvert is analysed for moments, shear forces and axial thrusts developed at the critical sections due to the various loading conditions by moment distribution method. The critical sections considered are at the centre of top slab, bottom slab and vertical slab and at the corners of top slab, bottom slab and vertical wall. The moments, shear forces and axial thrusts at the critical sections for different loading cases are computed for different ratios of $L/H = 1.0$, $L/H = 1.25$, $L/H = 1.5$, $L/H = 1.75$ and $L/H = 2.0$ for three cell box culverts.

IV. DESIGN COEFFICIENTS FOR MOMENTS, SHEARS AND THRUSTS

The design coefficients for moments, shear forces and axial thrusts at the critical sections for different loading cases are computed for different ratios

of $L/H = 1.0$, $L/H = 1.25$, $L/H = 1.5$, $L/H = 1.75$ and $L/H = 2.0$ for three cell box culverts.

a) *Uniform Distributed Load*

Design coefficient for moment = M/wL^2

Design coefficient for shear = V/wL

Design coefficient for thrust = N/wL

where,

w is the sum of weight of embankment, deck slab and track load.

b) *Weight of Side Walls*

Design coefficient for moment = M/WL

Design coefficient for shear = V/W

Design coefficient for thrust = N/W

where,

W is the weight of each vertical side wall

c) *Water Pressure Inside Culvert*

Design coefficient for moment = M/pL^2

Design coefficient for shear = V/pL

Design coefficient for thrust = N/pL

where,

p is the maximum pressure intensity at the base which is given by wh

w is the density of water and h is the depth of flow

d) *Earth Pressure on Vertical Side Walls*

Design coefficient for moment = M/pL^2

Design coefficient for shear = V/pL

Design coefficient for thrust = N/pL

where,

M, N, V are the moment, axial thrust and shear at the critical section

p is the earth pressure intensity which is equal to $K\gamma H$

γ is the density of soil

H is the vertical height of the box

V. SIGN CONVENTIONS

The following sign conventions are used in the analysis for moment, shear and thrust:

- Positive moment indicates tension on inside face.
- Positive shear indicates that the summation of force at the left of the section acts outwards when viewed from within.
- Positive thrust indicates compression on the section.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results for the box culvert analysed for moments, shears, and thrusts at the critical sections for various loading conditions are presented in tables (table no.s 1 to 5) and graphs (figure no.s 2 to 11). The variation of bending moment, shear forces and thrusts for various ratios of box culvert can be observed from the graphs plotted for various loading cases. This enables to arrive at the design forces resulting from the combination of the various cases yielding maximum moments and forces at the support and midspan sections.

The various loading cases are as given below:

- Case 1: Uniform Distributed Load due to weight of embankment, deck slab and track load
- Case 2 : Weight of side walls
- Case 3 : Water pressure from inside
- Case 4 : Earth pressure on side walls
- Case 5a : Uniform lateral earth pressure due to superimposed dead load and live load
- Case 5b : Uniform lateral earth pressure due to superimposed dead load only

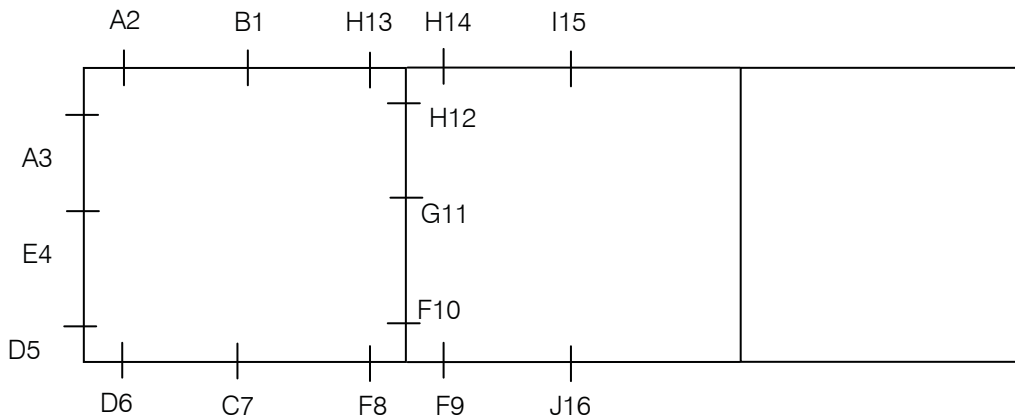


Figure 1 : Critical Sections for three celled box culvert

Table 1 : Coefficients for Moment, Shear and Thrust in three celled box culvert for ratio 1:1

L:H	Section	Coefficients for	Loading Case				
			1	2	3	4	5
1:1	B1	M	+0.063	+0.008	+0.008	-0.008	-0.008
		N	0	-0.077	-0.160	+0.160	+0.494
	A2	M	-0.030	+0.016	+0.023	-0.023	-0.023
		N	0	-0.077	-0.160	+0.160	+0.494
		V	+0.432	-0.017	-0.030	+0.030	+0.030
	A3	M	-0.030	+0.016	+0.023	-0.023	-0.023
		N	+0.432	-0.335	-0.030	+0.030	+0.030
		V	0	-0.017	0.160	-0.160	-0.494
	E4	M	-0.030	-0.023	-0.037	+0.037	+0.098
		N	+0.432	+0.165	-0.030	+0.030	+0.030
	D5	M	-0.030	-0.061	+0.030	-0.030	-0.030
		N	+0.432	+0.665	-0.038	+0.038	+0.038
		V	0	+0.077	-0.340	+0.340	+0.506
	D6	M	-0.030	-0.061	+0.030	-0.030	-0.030
		N	0	+0.077	-0.340	+0.340	+0.506
		V	-0.432	-0.665	+0.038	-0.038	-0.038
	C7	M	+0.063	+0.085	+0.011	+0.011	+0.010
		N	0	+0.077	-0.340	+0.340	+0.506
	F8	M	-0.098	-0.145	-0.009	+0.009	+0.009
		N	0	+0.077	-0.340	+0.340	+0.506
		V	+0.568	+0.835	+0.038	-0.038	-0.038
	F9	M	-0.091	-0.133	-0.004	+0.004	+0.004
		N	0	+0.077	-0.340	+0.340	+0.506
		V	-0.500	0	0	0	0
F10	M	-0.008	-0.012	-0.005	+0.005	+0.005	
	N	+1.068	+0.835	+0.038	-0.038	-0.038	
	V	0	-0.013	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
G11	M	-0.008	-0.006	-0.005	+0.005	+0.005	
	N	+1.068	+0.335	+0.038	-0.038	-0.038	
H12	M	-0.008	+0.001	-0.003	+0.003	+0.003	
	N	+1.068	-0.165	+0.030	-0.030	-0.030	
	V	0	-0.013	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
H13	M	-0.098	-0.003	-0.006	+0.006	+0.006	
	N	0	-0.077	-0.160	+0.160	+0.494	
	V	-0.568	-0.017	-0.030	+0.030	+0.030	
H14	M	-0.091	-0.004	-0.003	+0.003	+0.004	
	N	0	-0.077	-0.160	+0.160	+0.494	
	V	0.5	0	0	0	0	
I15	M	+0.034	-0.004	-0.003	+0.003	+0.004	
	N	0	-0.004	-0.160	+0.160	+0.494	
J16	M	+0.034	-0.133	-0.004	+0.004	+0.004	
	N	0	+0.077	-0.340	+0.340	+0.506	

Table 2 : Coefficients for Moment, Shear and Thrust in three celled box culvert for ratio 1.25:1

L:H	Section	Coefficients for	Loading Case				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.25:1	B1	M	+0.061	+0.006	+0.005	-0.005	-0.005
		N	0	-0.106	-0.129	+0.129	+0.395
	A2	M	-0.035	+0.016	+0.014	-0.014	-0.014
		N	0	-0.106	-0.129	+0.129	+0.395
		V	+0.437	-0.019	-0.018	+0.018	+0.018
	A3	M	-0.035	+0.016	+0.014	-0.014	-0.014
		N	+0.437	-0.325	-0.018	+0.018	+0.018
		V	0	-0.019	0.129	-0.129	-0.395
	E4	M	-0.035	-0.026	-0.025	+0.025	+0.064

	D5	N	+0.437	+0.175	-0.018	+0.018	+0.018
		M	-0.035	-0.068	+0.017	-0.017	-0.017
		N	+0.437	+0.675	-0.023	+0.023	+0.023
		V	0	+0.106	-0.271	+0.271	+0.404
	D6	M	-0.035	-0.068	+0.017	-0.017	-0.017
		N	0	+0.106	-0.271	+0.271	+0.404
		V	-0.437	-0.675	+0.023	-0.023	-0.023
	C7	M	+0.061	+0.083	+0.006	+0.006	+0.006
		N	0	+0.106	-0.271	+0.271	+0.404
	F8	M	-0.098	-0.144	-0.005	+0.005	+0.005
		N	0	+0.106	-0.271	+0.271	+0.404
		V	+0.563	+0.828	+0.023	-0.023	-0.023
	F9	M	-0.090	-0.132	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	0	+0.106	-0.271	+0.271	+0.404
		V	-0.500	0	0	0	0
	F10	M	-0.008	-0.012	-0.003	+0.003	+0.003
N		+1.063	+0.828	+0.023	-0.023	-0.023	
V		0	-0.015	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
G11	M	-0.008	-0.006	-0.003	+0.003	+0.009	
	N	+1.063	+0.328	+0.023	-0.023	-0.023	
H12	M	-0.008	0	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
	N	+1.063	-0.172	+0.018	-0.018	-0.018	
	V	0	-0.015	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
H13	M	-0.098	-0.003	-0.004	+0.004	+0.004	
	N	0	-0.106	-0.129	+0.129	+0.395	
	V	-0.563	-0.019	-0.018	+0.018	+0.018	
H14	M	-0.090	-0.003	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
	N	0	-0.106	-0.129	+0.129	+0.395	
	V	0.5	0	0	0	0	
I15	M	+0.035	-0.003	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
	N	0	-0.106	-0.129	+0.129	+0.395	
J16	M	+0.035	-0.132	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
	N	0	+0.106	-0.271	+0.271	+0.404	

Table 3 : Coefficients for Moment, Shear and Thrust in three celled box culvert for ratio 1.5:1

L:H	Section	Coefficients for	Loading Case				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.5:1	B1	M	+0.059	+0.006	+0.003	-0.003	-0.003
		N	0	-0.133	-0.108	+0.108	+0.329
	A2	M	-0.038	+0.016	+0.009	-0.009	-0.009
		N	0	-0.133	-0.108	+0.108	+0.329
		V	+0.441	-0.020	-0.012	+0.012	+0.012
	A3	M	-0.038	+0.016	+0.009	-0.009	-0.009
		N	+0.441	-0.318	-0.012	+0.012	+0.012
		V	0	-0.020	0.108	-0.108	-0.329
	E4	M	-0.038	-0.029	-0.018	+0.018	+0.045
		N	+0.441	+0.182	-0.012	+0.012	+0.012
	D5	M	-0.038	-0.073	+0.011	-0.011	-0.011
		N	+0.441	+0.682	-0.015	+0.015	+0.015
		V	0	+0.133	-0.225	+0.225	+0.336
	D6	M	-0.038	-0.073	+0.011	-0.011	-0.011
		N	0	+0.133	-0.225	+0.225	+0.336
		V	-0.441	-0.682	+0.015	-0.015	-0.015
	C7	M	+0.059	+0.082	+0.004	+0.004	+0.004
		N	0	+0.133	-0.225	+0.225	+0.336
	F8	M	-0.097	-0.143	-0.004	+0.004	+0.004
		N	0	+0.133	-0.225	+0.225	+0.336
V		+0.559	+0.822	+0.015	-0.015	-0.015	

	F9	M	-0.089	-0.131	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	+0.133	-0.225	+0.225	+0.336
		V	-0.500	0	0	0	0
	F10	M	-0.008	-0.012	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	+1.059	+0.822	+0.015	-0.015	-0.015
		V	0	-0.018	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
	G11	M	-0.008	-0.006	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	+1.059	+0.322	+0.015	-0.015	-0.015
	H12	M	-0.008	0	-0.002	+0.002	+0.001
		N	+1.059	-0.178	+0.012	-0.012	-0.012
		V	0	-0.018	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
	H13	M	-0.097	-0.003	-0.003	+0.003	+0.003
		N	0	-0.133	-0.108	+0.108	+0.329
		V	-0.559	-0.020	-0.012	+0.012	+0.012
	H14	M	-0.089	-0.003	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	-0.133	-0.108	+0.108	+0.329
V		0.5	0	0	0	0	
I15	M	+0.036	-0.003	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
	N	0	-0.133	-0.108	+0.108	+0.329	
J16	M	+0.036	-0.131	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
	N	0	+0.133	-0.225	+0.225	+0.336	

Table 4 : Coefficients for Moment, Shear and Thrust in three celled box culvert for ratio 1.75:1

L:H	Section	Coefficients for	Loading Case				
			1	2	3	4	5
1.75:1	B1	M	+0.057	+0.006	+0.002	-0.002	-0.002
		N	0	-0.162	-0.093	+0.093	+0.283
	A2	M	-0.042	+0.015	+0.006	-0.006	-0.006
		N	0	-0.162	-0.093	+0.093	+0.283
		V	+0.445	-0.019	-0.008	+0.008	+0.008
	A3	M	-0.042	+0.015	+0.006	-0.006	-0.006
		N	+0.445	-0.313	-0.008	+0.008	+0.008
		V	0	-0.019	0.093	-0.093	-0.283
	E4	M	-0.042	-0.031	-0.014	+0.014	+0.034
		N	+0.445	+0.187	-0.008	+0.008	+0.008
	D5	M	-0.042	-0.078	+0.008	-0.008	-0.008
		N	+0.445	+0.687	-0.010	+0.010	+0.010
		V	0	+0.162	-0.193	+0.193	+0.288
	D6	M	-0.042	-0.078	+0.008	-0.008	-0.008
		N	0	+0.162	-0.193	+0.193	+0.288
		V	-0.445	-0.687	+0.010	-0.010	-0.010
	C7	M	+0.057	+0.080	+0.003	+0.003	+0.003
		N	0	+0.162	-0.193	+0.193	+0.288
	F8	M	-0.097	-0.142	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	0	+0.162	-0.193	+0.193	+0.288
		V	+0.555	+0.816	+0.010	-0.010	-0.010
	F9	M	-0.088	-0.130	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	+0.162	-0.193	+0.193	+0.288
		V	-0.500	0	0	0	0
	F10	M	-0.009	-0.012	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	+1.055	+0.816	+0.010	-0.010	-0.010
		V	0	-0.019	-0.001	+0.001	0
G11	M	-0.009	-0.006	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
	N	+1.055	+0.316	+0.010	-0.010	-0.010	
H12	M	-0.009	-0.001	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
	N	+1.055	-0.184	+0.008	-0.008	-0.008	
	V	0	-0.019	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
H13	M	-0.097	-0.004	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002	
	N	0	-0.162	-0.093	+0.093	+0.283	

	H14	V	-0.555	-0.019	-0.008	+0.008	+0.008
		M	-0.088	-0.003	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	-0.162	-0.093	+0.093	+0.283
	I15	V	0.5	0	0	0	0
		M	+0.037	-0.003	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
	J16	N	0	-0.162	-0.093	+0.093	+0.283
		M	+0.037	-0.130	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	+0.162	-0.193	+0.193	+0.288

Table 5 : Coefficients for Moment, Shear and Thrust in three celled box culvert for ratio 2:1

L:H	Section	Coefficients for	Loading Case				
			1	2	3	4	5
2:1	B1	M	+0.056	+0.005	+0.002	-0.002	-0.001
		N	0	-0.191	-0.081	+0.081	+0.247
	A2	M	-0.044	+0.015	+0.004	-0.004	-0.004
		N	0	-0.191	-0.081	+0.081	+0.247
		V	+0.448	-0.019	-0.006	+0.006	+0.006
	A3	M	-0.044	+0.015	+0.004	-0.004	-0.004
		N	+0.448	-0.310	-0.006	+0.006	+0.006
		V	0	-0.019	0.081	-0.081	-0.247
	E4	M	-0.044	-0.033	-0.011	+0.011	+0.026
		N	+0.448	+0.190	-0.006	+0.006	+0.006
	D5	M	-0.044	-0.081	+0.005	-0.005	-0.005
		N	+0.448	+0.690	-0.007	+0.007	+0.007
		V	0	+0.191	-0.168	+0.168	+0.251
	D6	M	-0.044	-0.081	+0.005	-0.005	-0.005
		N	0	+0.191	-0.168	+0.168	+0.251
		V	-0.448	-0.690	+0.007	-0.007	-0.007
	C7	M	+0.056	+0.078	+0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	0	+0.191	-0.168	+0.168	+0.251
	F8	M	-0.096	-0.141	-0.002	+0.002	+0.002
		N	0	+0.191	-0.168	+0.168	+0.251
		V	+0.552	+0.809	+0.007	-0.007	-0.007
	F9	M	-0.088	-0.129	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	+0.191	-0.168	+0.168	+0.251
		V	-0.500	0	0	0	0
	F10	M	-0.009	-0.012	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	+1.052	+0.809	+0.007	-0.007	-0.007
		V	0	-0.021	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
	G11	M	-0.009	-0.007	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	+1.052	+0.309	+0.007	-0.007	-0.007
	H12	M	-0.009	-0.001	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	+1.052	-0.191	+0.006	-0.006	-0.006
		V	0	-0.021	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
	H13	M	-0.096	-0.004	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
		N	0	-0.191	-0.081	+0.081	+0.247
		V	-0.552	-0.019	-0.006	+0.006	+0.006
	H14	M	-0.088	-0.002	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001
N		0	-0.191	-0.081	+0.081	+0.247	
V		0.5	0	0	0	0	
I15	M	+0.037	-0.002	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
	N	0	-0.191	-0.081	+0.081	+0.247	
J16	M	+0.037	-0.129	-0.001	+0.001	+0.001	
	N	0	+0.191	-0.168	+0.168	+0.251	



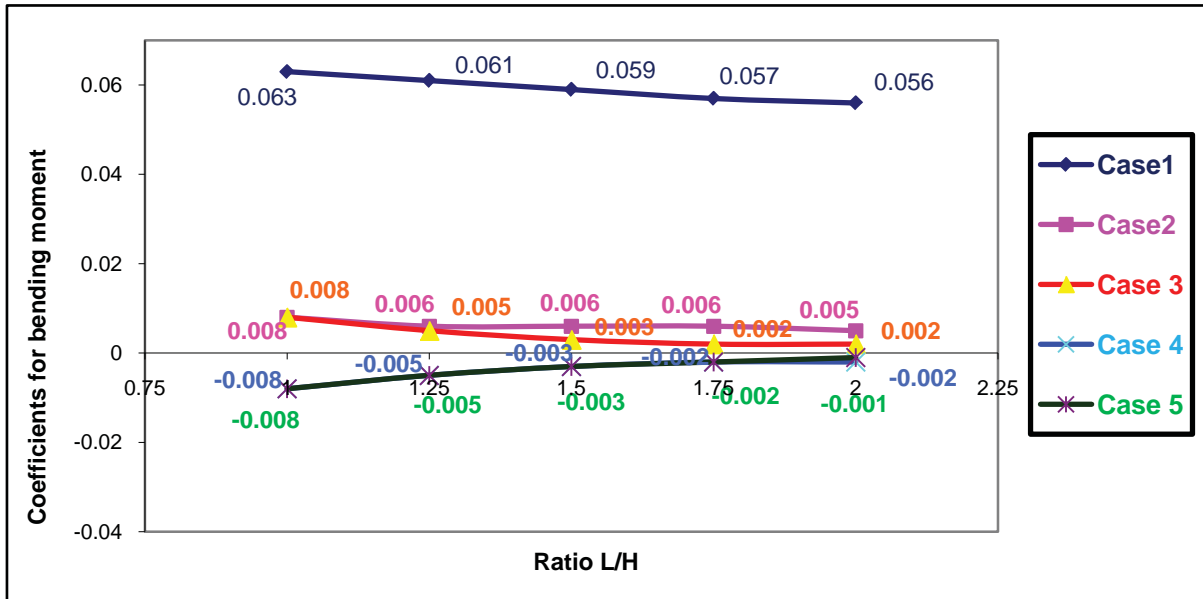


Figure 2 : Coefficients for BM at section B1 in three cell box culvert

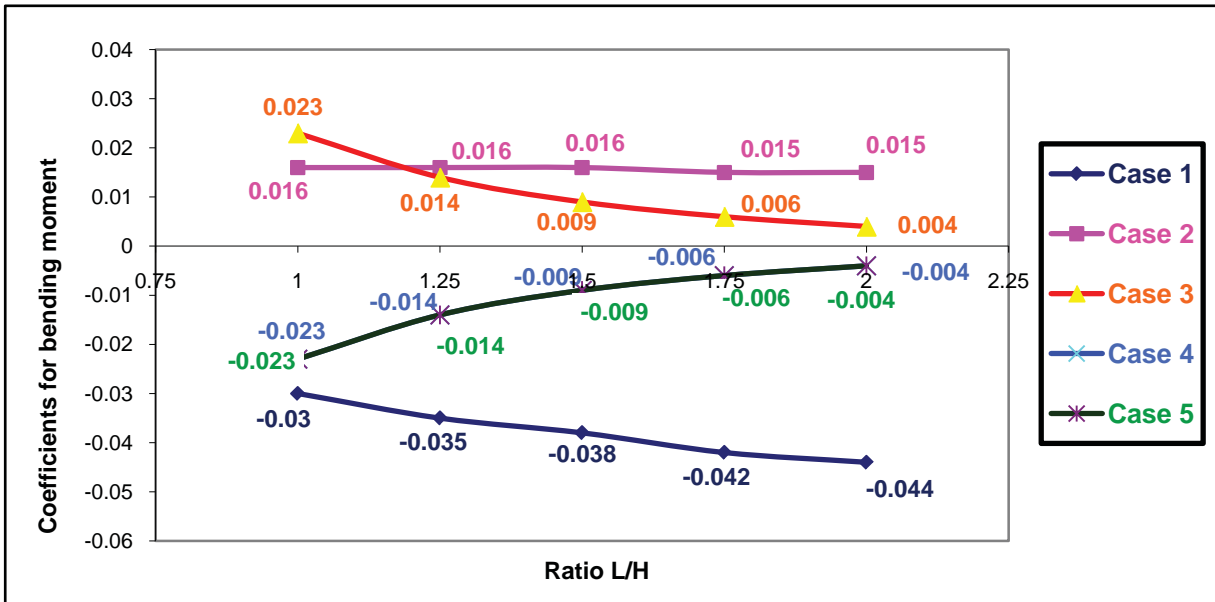


Figure 3 : Coefficients for BM at section A2 & A3 in three cell box culvert

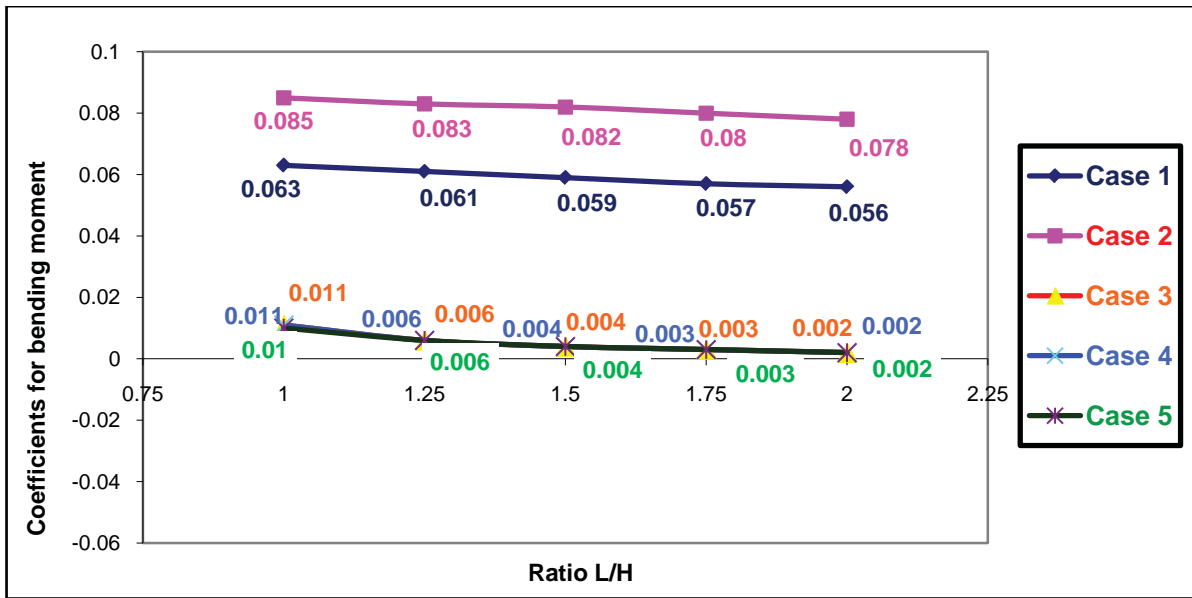


Figure 4 : Coefficients for BM at section C7 in three cell box culvert

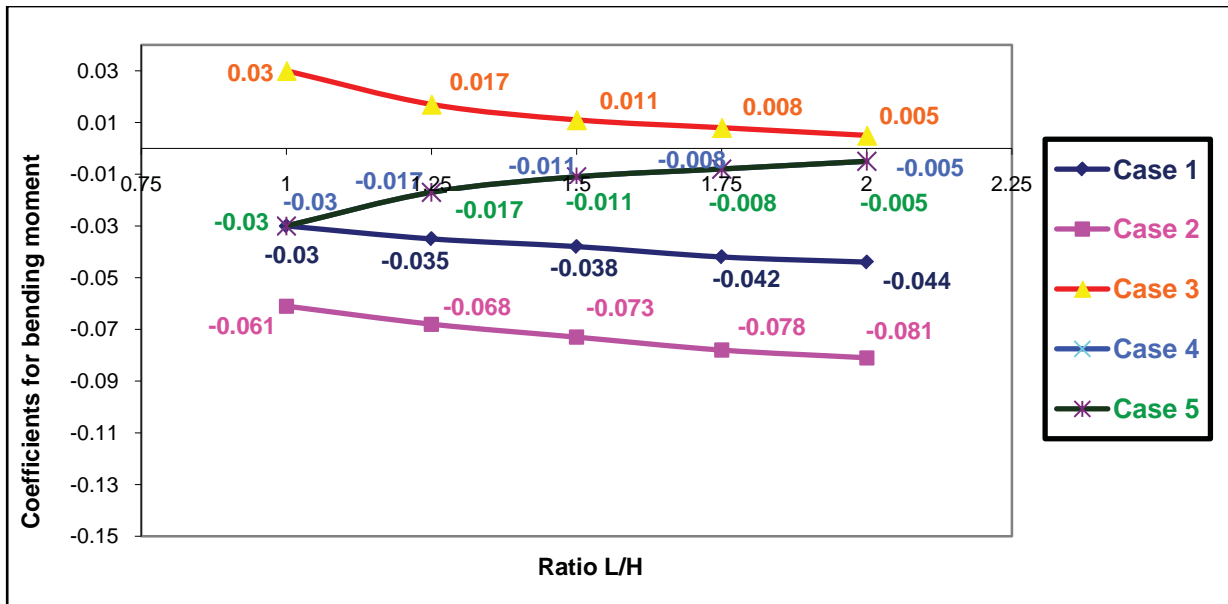


Figure 5 : Coefficients for BM at section D5&D6 in three cell box culvert

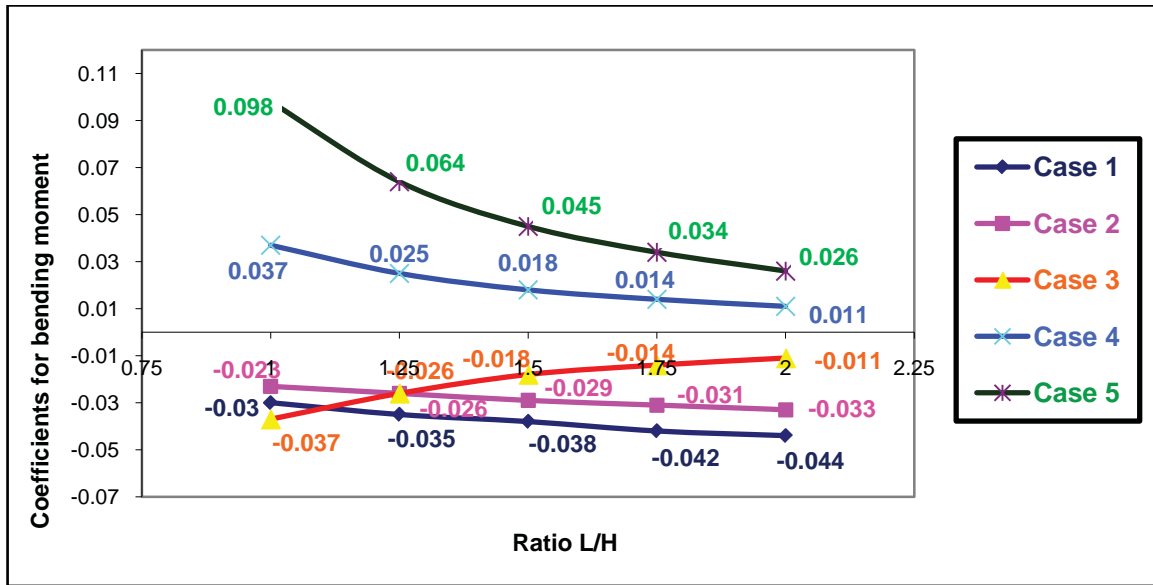


Figure 6 : Coefficients for BM at section E4 in three cell box culvert

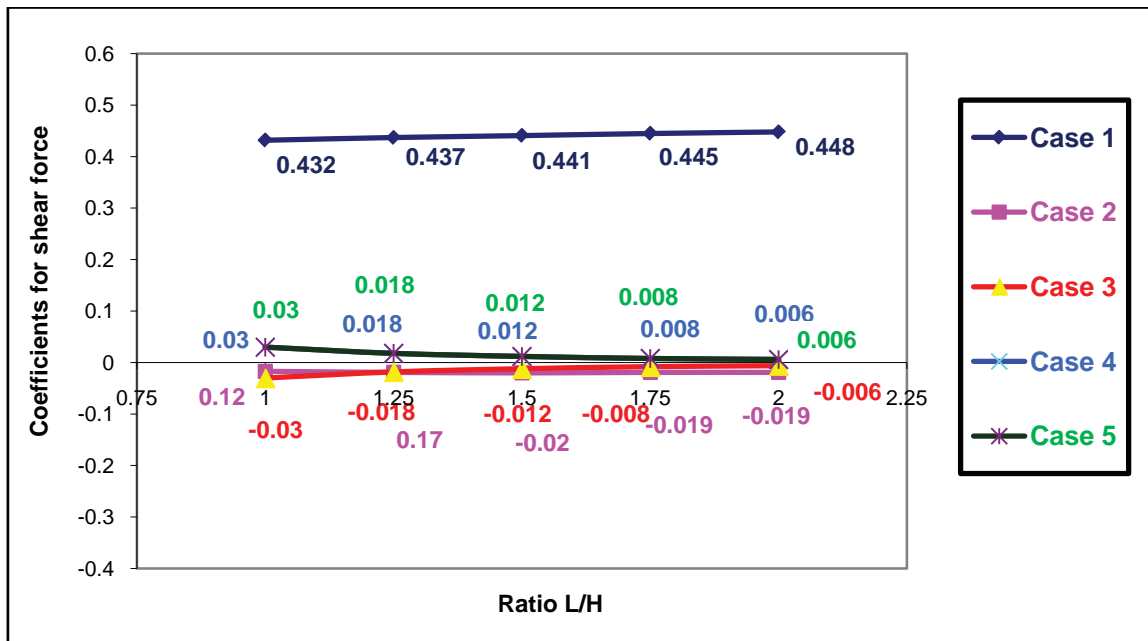


Figure 7 : Coefficients for SF at section A2 in three cell box culvert

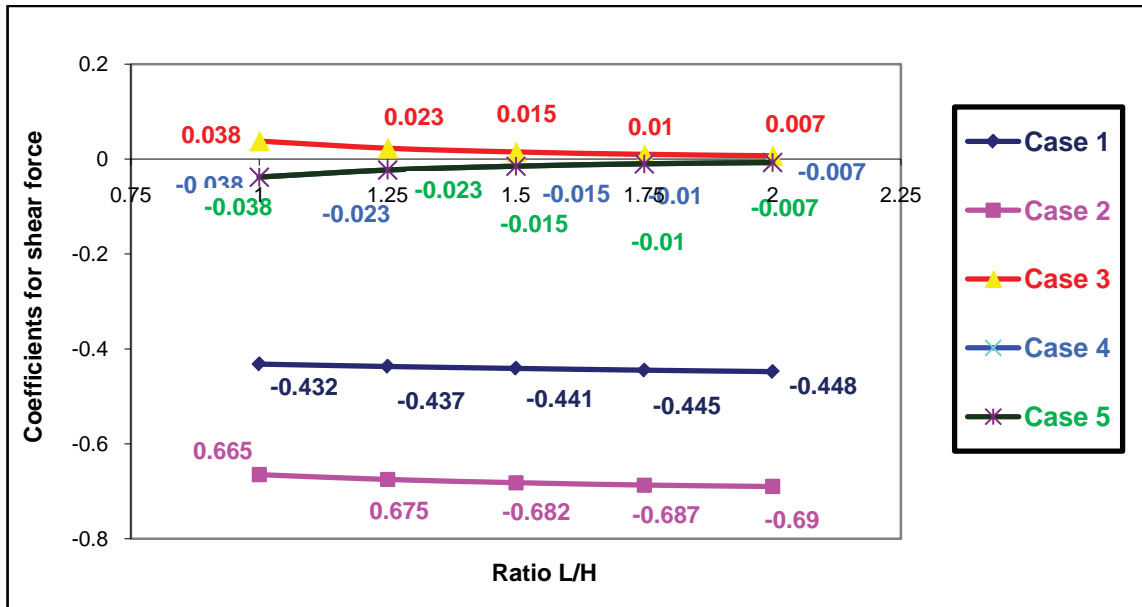


Figure 8 : Coefficients for SF at section D6 in three cell box culvert

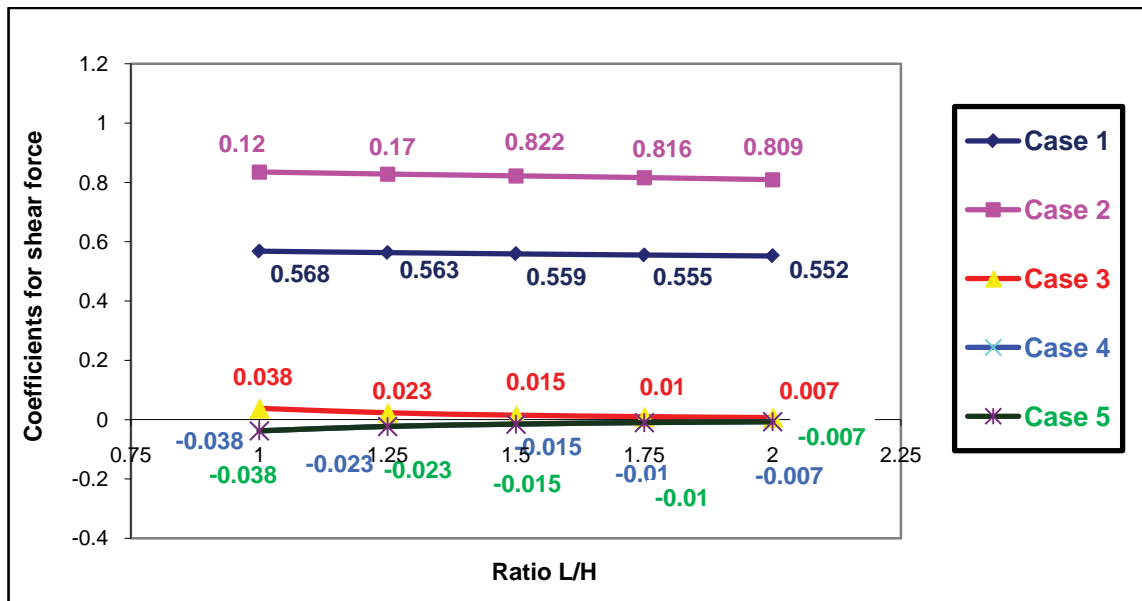


Figure 9 : Coefficients for SF at section F8 in three cell box culvert

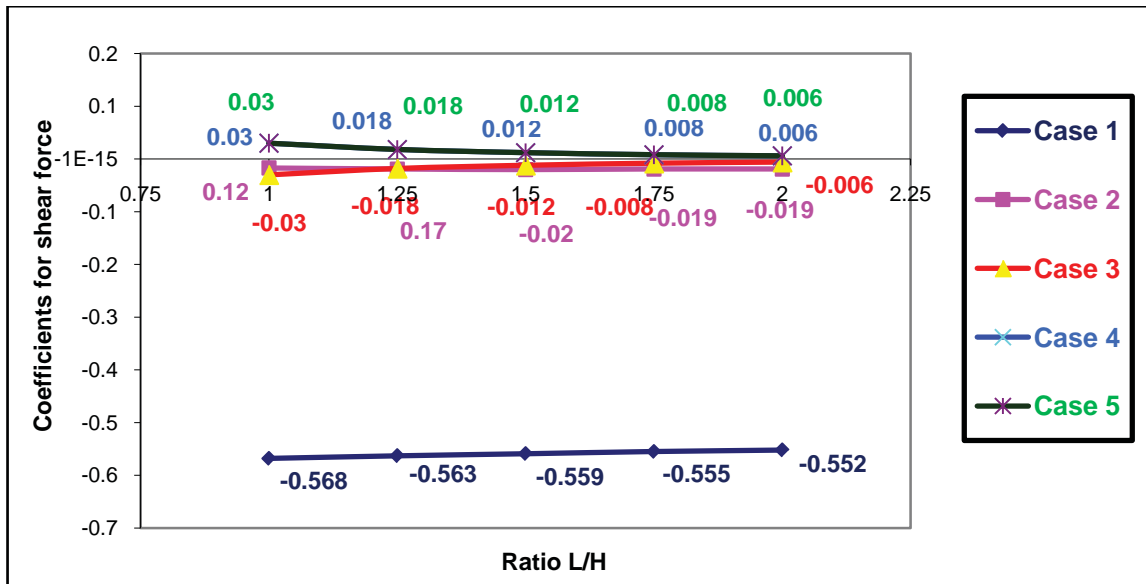


Figure 10 : Coefficients for SF at section H13 in three cell box culvert

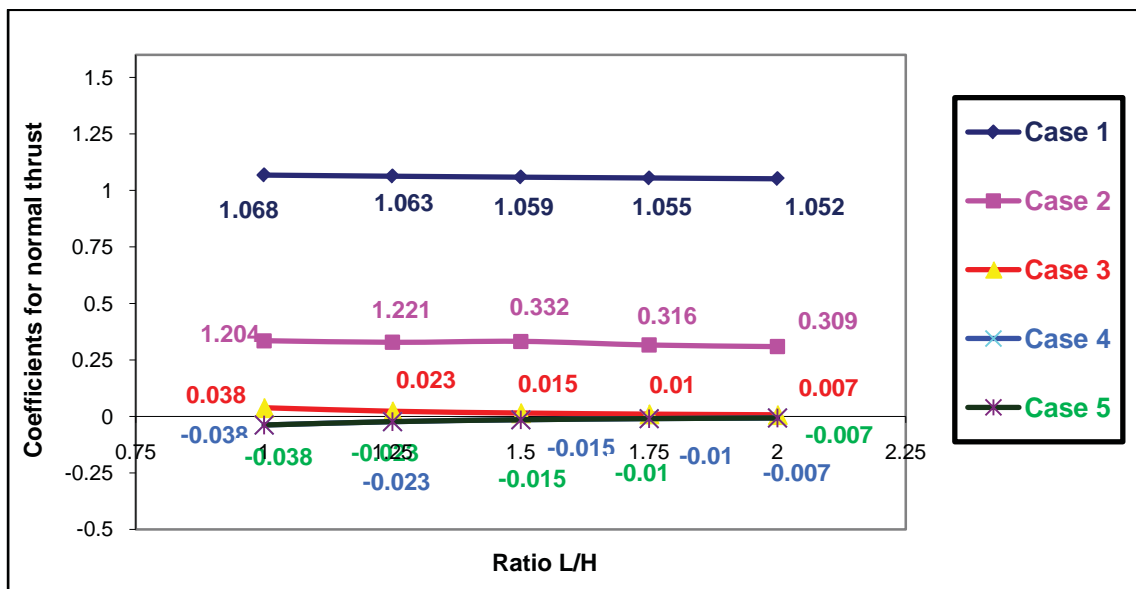


Figure 11 : Coefficients for Normal thrust at section G11 in three cell box culvert

VII. DISCUSSIONS ON THREE CELL BOX CULVERT

The maximum positive moment develop at the centre of top slab when the culvert is running full and uniform lateral pressure due to superimposed dead load only as shown in figure 2. As the span increases, there is significant contribution to positive bending moment due to dead load and live load only as the contribution due to earth pressure becomes less significant.

It is seen from figure 3 that the maximum negative moment develop at the corner of top slab when the culvert is empty and the top slab carries the dead

load and live load. The weight of side walls decreases the net negative moment as the moment due to side walls is positive. As the span increases, there is significant contribution to negative bending moment due to dead load and live load only as the contribution due to earth pressure becomes less significant.

The maximum positive moment develop at the centre of bottom slab when the culvert is running full and uniform lateral pressure due to superimposed dead load and live load (referring fig.4). As the span increases, there is significant contribution to positive bending moment due to dead load and live load only as the contribution due to earth pressure becomes less

significant. The weight of side walls also has the significant effect on net positive bending moment.

The maximum negative moment develop at the corner of bottom slab when the culvert is empty and the top slab carries the dead load and live load as shown in figure 5. There is significant contribution to maximum negative moment due to weight of side walls. As the span increases, there is contribution to negative bending moment due to dead load and live load only as the contribution due to earth pressure becomes less significant.

From figure 6 , it can be seen that the maximum negative moment develop at the centre of vertical wall when the culvert is running full and when uniform lateral pressure due to superimposed dead load acts only. As the span increases, there is significant contribution to negative bending moment due to dead load and live load only as the contribution due to water pressure becomes less significant.

The maximum positive shear force occurs at section A2 in the top slab and at section F8 in the bottom slab due to the superimposed dead load and live load case only as seen from figures 7 and 9. As seen in figures 8 and 10, the maximum negative shear occurs at section D6 in the bottom slab and at section H13 in the top slab. There is significant contribution to shear force values due to weight of side walls at section D6 and F8. The maximum positive normal thrust occurs at mid height of vertical wall due to superimposed dead and live load and due to weight of side walls as seen in figures 11.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

The present study makes an effort to evaluate the design coefficients for bending moment, shear force and normal thrust for three celled box culvert subject to various loading cases. An attempt is made to provide the information of the effects for different ratios of $L/H = 1.0$, $L/H = 1.25$, $L/H = 1.5$, $L/H = 1.75$ and $L/H = 2.0$ three celled box culverts. The results of the study lead to the following conclusions:

- a) The design coefficients developed for bending moment, shear and normal thrust at critical sections for various loading cases enables the designer to arrive at design forces thus reducing design time and effort.
- b) The critical sections considered are the centre of span of top and bottom slabs and the support sections and at the centre of the vertical walls since the maximum design forces develop at these sections due to various combinations of loading patterns.
- c) The study shows that the maximum design forces develop for the following loading conditions:

- i. When the top slab supports the dead load and live load and the culvert is empty.
- ii. When the top slab supports the dead load and live loads and the culvert is running full.
- iii. When the sides of the culvert do not carry the live load and the culvert is running full.
- d) The study shows that the maximum positive moment develop at the centre of top and bottom slab for the condition that the sides of the culvert not carrying the live load and the culvert is running full of water.
- e) The maximum negative moments develop at the support sections of the bottom slab for the condition that the culvert is empty and the top slab carries the dead load and live load.
- f) The maximum negative moment develop at the centre of vertical wall when the culvert is running full and when uniform lateral pressure due to superimposed dead load acts only.
- g) The maximum shear forces develop at the corners of top and bottom slab when the culvert is running full and the top slab carries the dead and live load,
- h) The study shows that there is significant contribution to positive normal thrust at centre of vertical wall (section E4) due to superimposed dead load & live load and weight of side walls.
- i) The study shows that the multi celled box culverts are more economical for larger spans compared to single cell box culvert as the maximum bending moment and shear force values decreases considerably, thus requiring thinner sections.

IX. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The authors thank the Principal and Management of S.G.Balekundri Institute of Technology, Belgaum and KLS Gogte Institute of Technology, Belgaum for the continued support and cooperation in carrying out this research study.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
Volume 13 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2013
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN: 2249-4596 & Print ISSN: 0975-5861

Enhanced Ergonomics Training; A Requisite to Safe Body Postures in Manual Lifting Tasks

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Abstract - This study evaluated working postures adopted by construction workers in Southwestern Nigeria. The objective was to compare risk factors among the group of workers. About 844 working postures were analyzed using Ovako Working Postures Analyzing System (OWAS). Semi-structured interviews were also conducted on different body regions regarding work related pains for 250 healthy Bricklayers (BL) and Bricklayers' Assistants (BA). More than forty nine percent (49%) of the postures observed were classified as Action Family 3 (AF3) (distinctly harmful) and AF4 (Action Family 4) (extremely harmful). The percentage of harmful postures for BL was higher with fifty one (51%) of the total recorded postures. Less than 10% of the total workers reported to have adopted ergonomics training and found it secured. Meanwhile more than sixty percent (60%) of them complained of pains in their various body regions. The study revealed that majority of the workers had no exposure to ergonomics training hence adopted harmful postures at work. BL are at a higher risk. Advancement in practical ergonomics trainings on safe postures in manual lifting tasks is a necessity.

Keywords : workers; construction; manual; tasks; lifting; pain; safe; posture; ergonomics; training.

GJRE-E Classification : FOR Code: 120399, 290899



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Enhanced Ergonomics Training; A Requisite to Safe Body Postures in Manual Lifting Tasks

Oluwole Adeyemi ^α, Samuel Adejuyigbe ^σ, Olusegun Akanbi ^ω, Salami Ismaila ^ρ & Adebayo Adekoya [¥]

Abstract- This study evaluated working postures adopted by construction workers in Southwestern Nigeria. The objective was to compare risk factors among the group of workers. About 844 working postures were analyzed using Ovako Working Postures Analyzing System (OWAS). Semi-structured interviews were also conducted on different body regions regarding work related pains for 250 healthy Bricklayers (BL) and Bricklayers' Assistants (BA). More than forty nine percent (49%) of the postures observed were classified as Action Family 3 (AF3) (distinctly harmful) and AF4 (Action Family 4) (extremely harmful). The percentage of harmful postures for BL was higher with fifty one (51%) of the total recorded postures. Less than 10% of the total workers reported to have adopted ergonomics training and found it secured. Meanwhile more than sixty percent (60%) of them complained of pains in their various body regions. The study revealed that majority of the workers had no exposure to ergonomics training hence adopted harmful postures at work. BL are at a higher risk. Advancement in practical ergonomics trainings on safe postures in manual lifting tasks is a necessity.

Keywords: workers; construction; manual; tasks; lifting; pain; safe; posture; ergonomics; training.

1. INTRODUCTION

Awkward posture is a considerable deviation from the neutral position of one or combination of joints (Pinzke and Kopp, 2001). According to Westgaard and Aaras (1984), these postures typically include reaching behind, twisting, working ahead, wrist bending, kneeling, stooping, forward and backward bending, and squatting. It was further stated that such postures are related to injuries that are incurred during tasks that are static in nature, long lasting and that demand exertion of force.

It is documented that there is a relationship between awkward postures and pain (Grandjean and Hunting, 1977). Awkward postures combined with heavy physical workload result in a high frequency of Work related Musculoskeletal disorders (WMSDs) (Pinke and Kopp, 2001). Body postures determine which joints and muscles are used in an activity and the amount of force

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or stresses generated (Putz-Anderson, 1998). According to Kerst (2003), extreme postures, combined with force and frequency, will cause damage more quickly than when the postures are more natural or neutral.

The increase in concerns for ergonomics issues in the workplace is well founded; as it is related to work, working position; the suitability of instruments to the physical and physiological characteristics of the workers, psychological factors and environmental conditions which may affect workplaces and affect the health of the workers (Bazroy, et.al., 2003; Ajimotokan, 2008).

The amount of fatigue experienced depends largely on the posture of the performer. Many of the conditions of musculoskeletal disorders could be prevented if the amount of awkward, heavy, repetitive activities required by the job is reduced (OSHA's 1999).

OWAS has been shown to be easy to use in analyzing a wide range of different postures and a suitable tool in analyzing construction jobs. The basic OWAS records the postures of the back, arms and legs (Mattila, et.al., 1993; Karhu et.al., 1981). Kivi and Mattila (1991) and Mattila et al. (1993) analyzed the working postures of construction workers using OWAS method. Their studies indicated that OWAS was a suitable, reliable and practical method for analyzing construction jobs. Lee and Han (2013) used OWAS to analyze the working postures of construction workers on building the foundations of a log cabin. The study discovered workers exhibited poor working posture. Thomas et al., 2007, measured the prevalence of low back pain among 94 residential carpenters using OWAS to measure elements of postures. Slight risk for injury was found in 10 jobs-tasks while distinct risk was found in 7 of the 10 jobs-tasks. The weight carried by workers in brick making factories and positions taken in their daily task were measured using OWAS method and it was concluded that the method is imperative for ergonomics recommendations for minimization or eradication of suffering injury and worker's postural constraints (Pandey and Vats, 2012). Mattila et al., (1993) applied OWAS method to identify the most problematic postures among 18 construction workers in hammering task performed at building construction site to reduce postural load of dynamic hammering tasks. It was concluded that the method proved to be very useful.

The manner in which construction activities are executed adversely affects the health of construction

workers. Hence, the necessity for more trainings on construction ergonomics which should include health and safety education and general training of workers (Smallwood, 2006). Proper work techniques should include training on the correct lifting procedures. Whereas work methods should be designed to reduce static, extreme and awkward postures among others (WSI, 2003).

Several studies have quantified the benefits that accrue from health and safety training (Jannadi and Al-Sudairi, 1995; Lingard & Rowlinson, 2005) and also confirmed positive correlation between health and safety training and health and safety performance (Rowlinson, 2004; Smallwood, 2006). The trade specific research conducted among bricklayers, plasterers, painters, and their respective assistants suggested a range of interventions that could contribute to an improvement in construction ergonomics one of which included ergonomics training of workers (Samuels et al., 2006). According to Bellis (2007), the goal of ergonomics training in the workplace is to prevent injuries and illnesses by reducing or eliminating worker's exposure to occupational hazards.

The aim of this study is to evaluate workers' postural behaviours at manual material lifting tasks among construction workers. The objectives of the study are;

- a) to compare the contributions of body movement at work to WMSDs
- b) to ascertain the level of ergonomics

training, its acceptability among the group of workers and its impacts on work methods.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Work place analyses were accomplished by observing the tasks and watching the workers as they were carrying out the manual lifting tasks. An instantaneous observation of the postures and video recording were made which was later played indoor and observed by two ergonomics experts drawn from academics. The OWAS data was analyzed with WinOWAS software, a computerized system for the analysis of work postures. Four-digit code representing the back (four choices), three arm postures, and seven leg postures were used. The use of the weight of loads handled was classified by a three-class scale (as shown in table 1). Postures were recorded for each of the work phase during the working periods and within 30 seconds.

A total of eight hundred and forty-four (844) working postures were recorded and analyzed (four hundred and twenty two (422) for each category of workers). For OWAS method and as adopted in this study, AF2 (Action family 2) are grouped postures that required actions in the nearest future), AF3 are grouped postures that required remedial actions very soon), and AF4 are grouped postures that required immediate remedial actions).

Table 1 : OWAS posture code definitions

Back	Arms	Legs	Load/Use of Force
1 = straight	1= both arms below shoulder level	1 = Sitting	1 = weight or force needed is 10kg or less
2 = bent forward or backward	2= one arm at or above shoulder level	2 = Standing on two legs	2= weight or force needed exceeds 10kg but is less than 20kg
3 = twisted or bent sideways	3 = both arms at or above shoulder level.	3 = Standing on One leg	3 = weight or force needed exceeds 20kg.
4 = bent and twisted or bent forward and sideways		4 = Standing on two bent knees	
		5= Standing on one bent Knee	
		6=Kneeling	
		7=Walking	

Questionnaires were conducted through interviews for 250 healthy male workers to identify the musculoskeletal symptoms among the workers. Level of ergonomics information readily made available, its approval among the group of workers and its impacts on their daily lifting tasks methods were also verified.

III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the OWAS code of AF3 and AF4 postures recorded for each category of jobs studied.

A total number of 417 harmful postures representing about forty-nine percent (49.4%) which included 161 and 126 postures for Bricklayers and

Bricklayers' Assistants respectively in the group of AF3 and 130 postures (15.4%) involving 52 and 78 postures in the categories of BL and BA respectively for AF4 family were reported (Figure 1).

Close to thirty percent (30%) of BA and about thirty-eight percent (38%) of BL recorded postures fall into the family of AF3. In the family of AF4, about nineteen percent (18.5%) of postures in BA group was reported while approximately twelve percent (12%) of BL postures fall into this category (Fig.2).

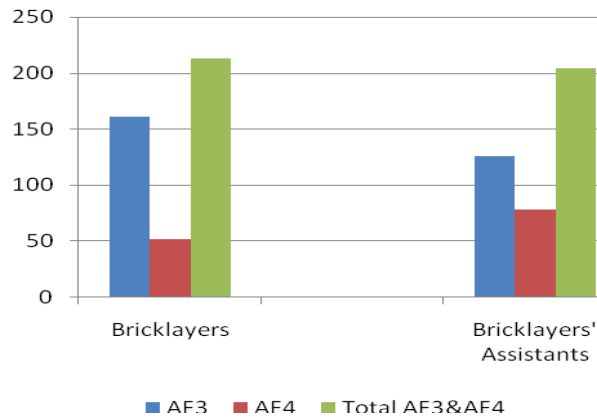


Figure 1 : The AF3 and AF4 postures that required Immediate remedial actions for the two categories of workers

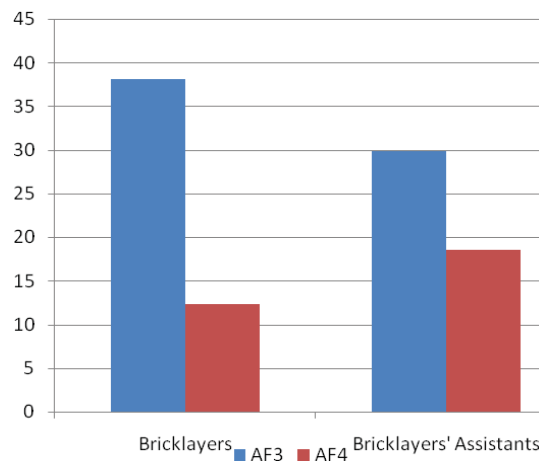


Figure 2 : Percentages of AF3 and AF4 postures that required immediate remedial actions for the two categories of workers

Table 2 : OWAS code of AF3 and AF4 postures for each studied jobs

AF3 POSTURES				AF4 POSTURES			
BRICKLAYERS		BRICKLAYER ASSISTANTS		BRICKLAYERS		BRICKLAYER ASSISTANTS	
CODE	FREQ.	CODE	FREQ.	CODE	FREQ.	CODE	FREQ.
2142	52	2153	63	4141	18	2343	78
3143	32	2143	32	4142	13		
2141	33	1343	31	4143	12		
2142	28			3242	9		
3142	10						
2113	3						
2133	3						
TOTAL	161		126		52		78

Comparing the two jobs (Figure 3), an average of fifty-one percent (51%) postures of workers in BL category and forty-eight percent (48%) postures of the workers in BA group required either soon or immediate remedial actions and ergonomics redesign to reduce the effect of harmful postures.

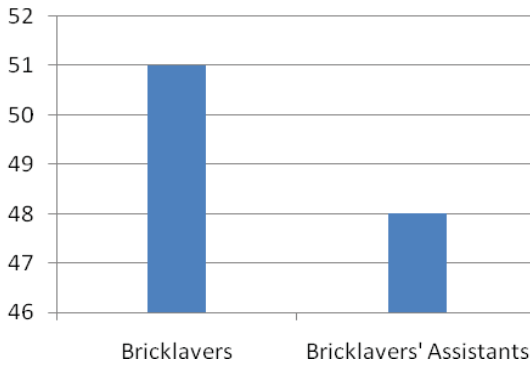


Figure 3 : Percentages of harmful postures that required ergonomics redesign for the two categories of workers

Bricklaying has been shown to cause severe muscle fatigue. Load on the lumbar spine has also been shown to be very high (Jorgensen et al., 1991). Therefore a high prevalence of work related pains among the workers as observed through the interview as summarized in Figure 4 is not surprising. Posture 3143 (3 = back twisted or bent sideways, 1= both arms below shoulder level, 4 = Standing on two bent knees, 3 = weight of load exceeds 20kg) and 2142 (2 = back bent forward or backward, 1= both arms below shoulder level, 4 = Standing on two bent knees, 2= weight of load exceeds 10kg but less than 20kg) are mostly adopted when the workers were lifting up blocks and lowering same which were classified as harmful. The most strenuous postures as observed are 4142 (4 = bent and twisted or bent forward and sideways 1= both arms below shoulder level 4 = Standing on two bent knees 2= weight or force needed exceeds 10kg but is less than 20kg) and 4141 (4 = bent and twisted or bent forward and sideways 1= both arms below shoulder

level 4 = Standing on two bent knees 1= weight or force needed is 10kg or less) which were observed when the workers were lifting up blocks and mortars from their sides (unnatural posture).

The awkward postures adopted by the workers' may have contributed to the various reported body pains as observed by more than sixty percent (60%) of the workers responses on the two categories of jobs in the last month and 7days of the study time (Figure 4). One way to reduce the effect created by AF3 and AF4 codes is to minimize the angle of asymmetric; by lifting the load directly from the front thereby maintaining natural postures.

a) Workers' Responses to Ergonomics Trainings and Impacts on their Manual Lifting Tasks

Two hundred and thirty three (representing 93.2%) of the total workers that participated in the study completed the questionnaire all of which have spent not less than 2 years on manual material lifting job in construction industry.

About 146 workers (63%) had no regular ergonomics training while 87 of the workers (37%) reported receiving regular training/information from their supervisors. Of the eighty seven workers who regularly receive ergonomics training, twenty one of them, representing 8.4%, have adopted ergonomics postures at work and hence perceived the lifting tasks safer than before the training (Figure 5). Forty of the workers despite receiving ergonomics training had not put it into practice but rather see the recommended postures very demanding. This category of workers perceived repositioning of body to lift at zero degree asymmetric neutral posture) each time of lift, as time wasting most especially to those who are involved in

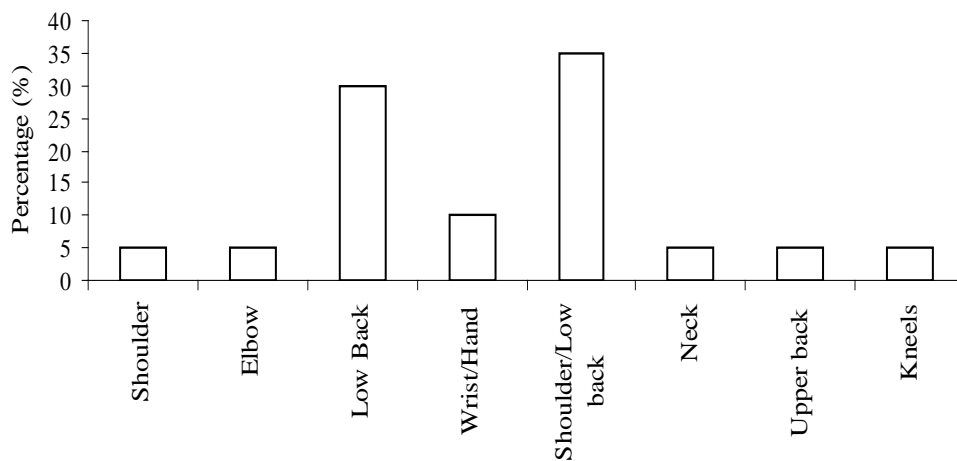


Figure 4 : Percentages of respondents who complained of pains in the last month and last 7 days

repeated and time bound lifting tasks (the like of concrete jobs). Twenty six of the workers however requested for further training to enable them adjust.

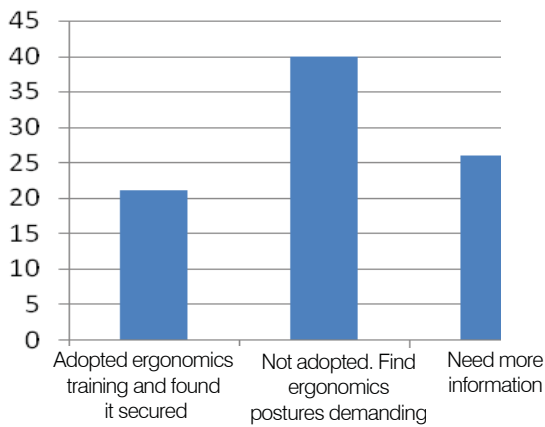


Figure 5 : Workers' responses to ergonomics trainings and impacts

IV. CONCLUSION

Twisting and bending of body parts are so frequent in the manual lifting jobs. Prolonged bending of back while lifting block/mortar from the sides was identified as most strenuous postures in the course of performing the tasks.

Meanwhile, health hazards are hardly considered by the group of workers. Majority of them had no regular ergonomics training as regarding safe postures. Not many of the trained ones put it into practice while many are still ignorant of the benefits for such change in work methods/habits. The few workers who adopted the training found it secured.

However, the level of ergonomics information made available to the group of workers needs some improvement. Physical demonstration/training on how and the best way to maintain natural postures at manual lifting related task are very necessary most especially in construction trades. Workers also need to be sensitized on the short and long time health implications of working in harmful postures.

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GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
Volume 13 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2013
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN: 2249-4596 & Print ISSN: 0975-5861

Construction Cost Modeling CCM an Ideal Tool for Value Engineering

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Abstract - Value Engineering is a systematic method to improve the value by examining different functions."Value "as defined is the ratio of function to cost. Value can therefore be increased by either improving the functions or reducing the cost by saving. The difference between the function-cost and function-worth indicates the measure of the potential for cost saving through Value Engineering. Construction Cost Modeling (CCM) is a useful tool where the cost are disproportionately high when considering there function, use, necessity. Construction Cost Modeling is an advance sophisticated technique for Value Engineering in construction management, where it can lead to very substantial of large and complex construction whose cost are disproportionately high when considering there function ,use or necessity, are highest as ideal subjects for cost reduction efforts.

Keywords : value engineering, construction cost modeling (ccm).

GJRE-E Classification : FOR Code: 290804



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Construction Cost Modeling CCM an Ideal Tool for Value Engineering

Sunil V Desale ^α & Dr. S V Deodhar ^σ

Abstract - Value Engineering is a systematic method to improve the value by examining different functions."Value "as defined is the ratio of function to cost. Value can therefore be increased by either improving the functions or reducing the cost by saving. The difference between the function-cost and function-worth indicates the measure of the potential for cost saving through Value Engineering. Construction Cost Modeling (CCM) is a useful tool where the cost are disproportionately high when considering there function, use, necessity. Construction Cost Modeling is an advance sophisticated technique for Value Engineering in construction management, where it can lead to very substantial of large and complex construction whose cost are disproportionately high when considering there function ,use or necessity, are highest as ideal subjects for cost reduction efforts.

Keywords: value engineering, construction cost modeling (ccm).

I. INTRODUCTION

Value Engineering (VE) is a systematic method to improve the "value" of goods or products and services by using an examination of function. Value, is the ratio of function to cost. Value can therefore be increased by either improving the function or saving the cost. It is a primary tenet of value engineering that basic functions be preserved and not be reduced as a consequence of pursuing value improvements. Value engineering is sometimes taught within the project management or construction management as a technique in which the value outputs is optimized by crafting a mix of performance (function) and costs. In most cases this practice identifies and removes unnecessary expenditures, thereby increasing the value for their customers.

Value Engineering follows a structured thought process that is based exclusively on "function", i.e. what something "does" not what it is. This is the basis of what value engineering refers to as "function analysis".

Value Engineering uses rational logic (a unique "how" - "why" questioning technique) and the analysis of function to identify relationships that increase value. It is considered a quantitative method similar to the scientific method, which focuses on hypothesis-conclusion approaches to test relationships, and operations

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research, which uses model building to identify predictive relationships.

II. CONSTRUCTION COST MODELING (CCM)

Value engineering is often done by systematically following a multi-stage job plan. Larry Miles' original system was a six-step procedure which he called the "value analysis job plan." Others have varied the job plan to fit their constraints depending upon the application; they may be four, five, six, or more stages. One modern version has eight steps.

As mention earlier, quite a few refinements, sophistications and advance technique has been added to value engineering. One of them Construction is Cost Modeling CCM; it has the diagrammatic representation of the structure and distribution of cost associated with any project, product or system. In value engineering, it is used to provide an over view of the cost the various element in relation to the other, so that those whose cost are disproportionately high when considering their function, use or necessity .A construction cost module is developed, by breaking down the main project first system under study to its major sub –system, which is further exploded or broken into more details at lower levels in the form of a typical organization chart. The budgeted or estimated cost is then assigned to each element. An overall look at the cost is then assigned to each element in relation to others in the cost structure will highlight those whose costs appear to be too high, when considering their functions and importance. The worth or the lowest cost of providing the essential functions is then assessed by the Team and entered against each element. The difference between the function-cost and function-worth indicates the value gap or value index, which is the measure of the potential for cost saving through Value Engineering. By following the further phases of the VE Job Plan, a large number of ideas for providing the function in other ways are generated through brainstorming, which are then short-listed; investigated and final recommendations are developed. Construction cost modeling is an ideal tool for value engineering in construction management where it can lead to very substantial saving in the execution of large and complex construction projects.

In CCM technique following four basic steps are utilized.

a) *Information Gathering*

This asks what the requirements are for the object. Function analysis, an important technique in value engineering, is usually done in this initial stage. It tries to determine what functions or performance characteristics are important. It asks questions like;

- What does the object do?
- What must it do?
- What should it do?
- What could it do?
- What must it not do?

b) *Alternative Generations (Creation)*

In this stage value engineers ask;
What are the various alternative ways of meeting requirements?
What else will perform the desired function?

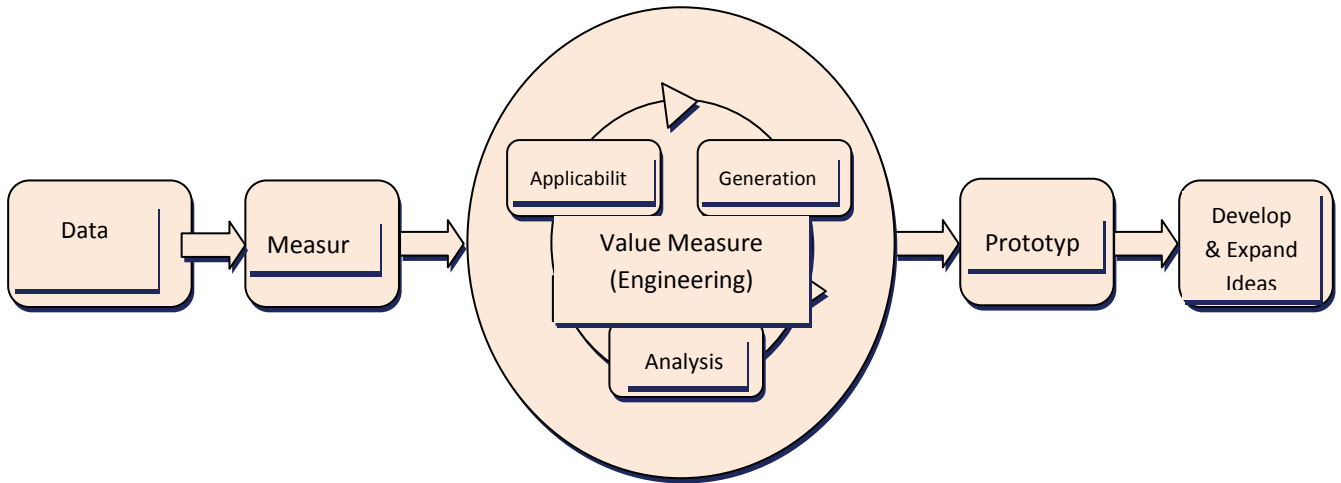
c) *Evaluation*

In this stage all the alternatives are assessed by evaluating.
How well they meet the required functions?
How great will the cost savings be?

III. RECOMMENDATION

In this final stage, the best alternative will be chosen and recommendation to the client for final decision as ideal for cost reduction effort. Develop thing with collaboration of customer.

Figure 1 : Step in CCM for Value Engineering



IV. CASE STUDY: SETTING UP OF A NEW FACTORY

This case study is of a factory located at a distance of 5.5 km from khada village and 1.5 km from Sutrepada village .The access road is khada to Sutrepada a village road of Dhulia Tehsil of district Dhule in Maharashtra State. The factory construction is in survey no. 85 and 88 and the construction of a new loom shade on a land having survey number 105 from the side of lack i.e. Percolation Tank. Figure 2 shows the Layout plan for a recently sited New Factory at Sutrepada at above location. Once the approval was given by the chairman and management of factory, a team of senior executives was assembled under the charge of a General Manager and given the mandate that the project must be completed in time and without asking for additional funds. Unfortunately, there was a steep hike in the price of steel and cement within three months and the new General Manager was hard

pressed to find adequate funds for completing the essential part of the project, by effecting economies elsewhere. Therefore to overcome with this problem CCM technique for value engineering is used. The problem was identify first in the project report and then finding out the maximum scope for cost reduction for achieving savings without loosing out on the basic requirements.

V. METHODOLOGY

Value Engineering was chosen for achieving cost savings and Cost Modelling for identifying the items where savings potential can be maximum. To start, a Construction Cost Model (as shown in Fig.3) was prepared in which all major items of expenditure were shown, under four board headings on one sheet of paper, in order to provide an overview of the costs in relation to one another and to highlight those which were disproportionately high considering their purpose and necessity.

After diagrammatic representation of all the cost and worth cost is calculated and are tabulated in expenditures occurred under the Main Heading, items Table 1.

Table 1 : Expenditure under the Main Heading

Sr. No.	Particulars	Cost in Lakhs	Worth in Lakhs
1	Land	74.31	59.00
2	Leveling and site development	25.00	18.50
3	Factory Office	32.28	12.90
4	Internal Roads	45.44	11.36
5	Compound Wall	39.89	19.94
6	Water and Sewerage Systems	28.00	16.80
7	The Main Factory Buildings		
	1. Sizing/warping/ TFO shade	244.68	224.68
	2. Compression room	41.77	41.77
	3. Boiler house	35.09	35.09
	4. Loom shade	199.54	199.54
	5. Loom plant room	70.80	70.80
	6. Sizing plant room	26.59	26.59
	Subtotal	643.60	623.60
8	Security office,	5.93	0.593
9	Construction of power House	25.13	25.13
10	Canteen and other buildings	19.35	15.48
11	Miscellaneous Civil Engineering Works	25.00	22.5
	Grand Total	938.80	800.67

(Source : Figures of expenditure are collected from site office, as per architect office estimate)

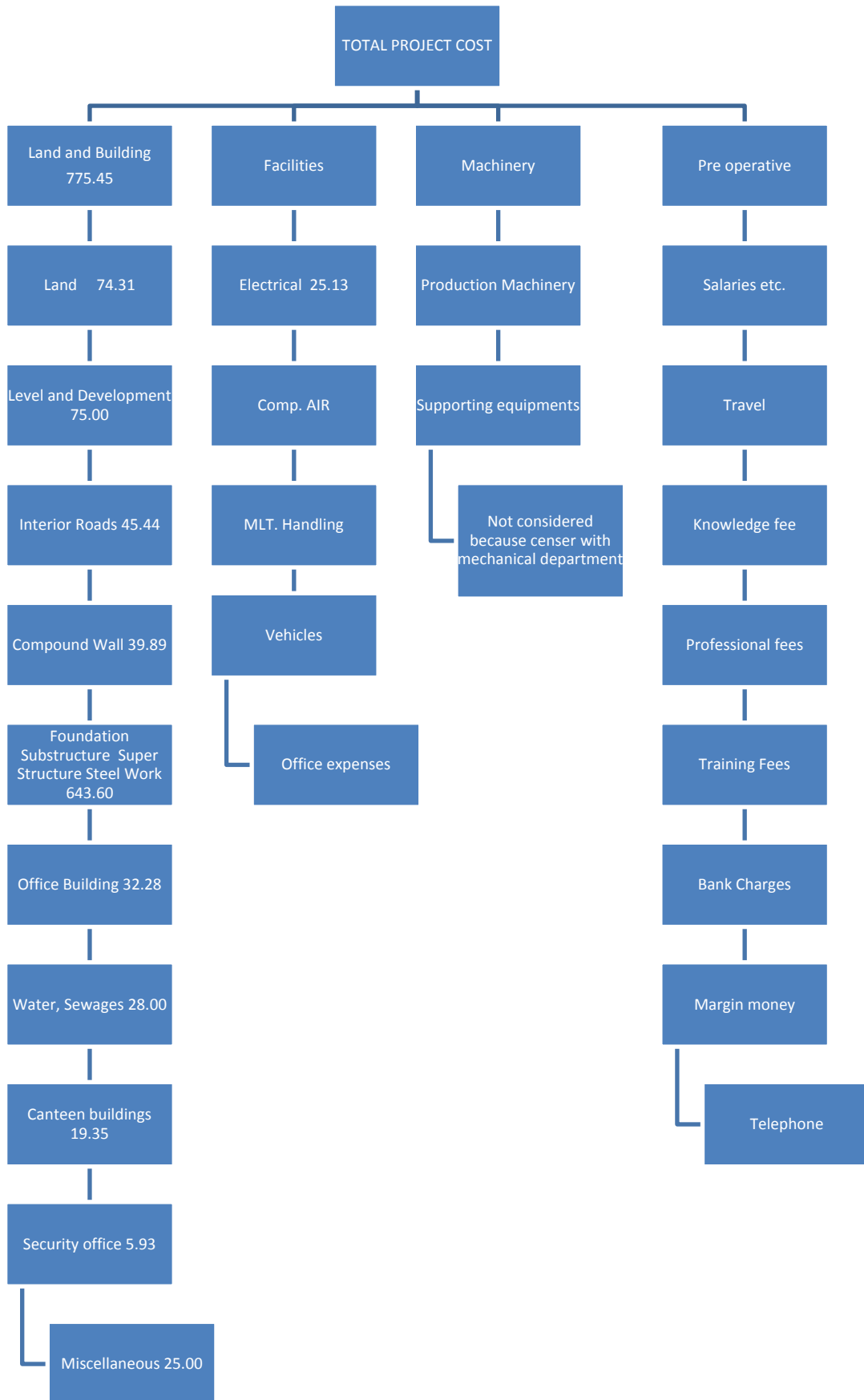


Figure 2 : Construction cost modeling of a new factory building

The project implementation team after collecting the preliminary data whose costs appeared to be too high in relation with the overall project costs and in consideration of their functions and importance prepare a list of such items. Among of those selected items were considered for Value Engineering.

- a) Site development
- b) Factory office
- c) Internal Roads
- d) Compound Wall
- e) Security
- f) Canteen and other buildings.

A team of senior Executives was assembled under the charge of General Manager for CCM, who first identifying their functions, cost and worth. Generating ideas to provide the essential functions in other ways and evaluation of the ideas and short-listing after detailed investigations.

For instance,

- *The function of a Compound Wall was* - to provide privacy, demarcate boundary, prevent trespass, prevent theft, provide aesthetics, and provide security.

A number of ideas were generated in the brainstorming session for providing these functions in other ways and after evaluation and investigation, the team decided to provide a fencing all around, except near the main entrance where the masonry wall was retained as a concession to aesthetics, also the land had been recently acquired in a rural community and the

unlikelihood of theft of the heavy and bulky materials, the team identified “demarcate boundary”, and “prevent trespass” as the basic functions and the others as secondary. The two different planes and cross section for wall compound is shown in figure 4 (a ,b)The actual cost of the construction is 39.89 but the worth is 19.94 , leading to saving of 19.95 on this account alone.

- The Team decided on the conventional location of the Factory office adjoining the main factory building which was preferred by the operating staff and executives. By this, nearly 34.08 cost of the internal roads and leveling and site development, retaining wall which had been planned earlier could also be reduced, resulting in a saving 6.5 overall.
- In the superstructure, a nearly 3 meter high extension of the side walls had been provided by the architects to hide the saw tooth shape of the roofing as a measure of aesthetics. This was promptly dropped by the team which felt that there was nothing wrong in a factory looking like a factory, thereby saving over 20.0
- Similarly, the project team was able to reduce cost in many other areas with the help of Construction Cost Modeling and successfully completing the project within the budget cost, inspite of steep escalations in the cost of steel and cement.

To derive maximum possible benefits from Value Engineering, it should be introduced and practiced as a systematic and continuing activity in the organization for successful launching by Value Engineering programmers.

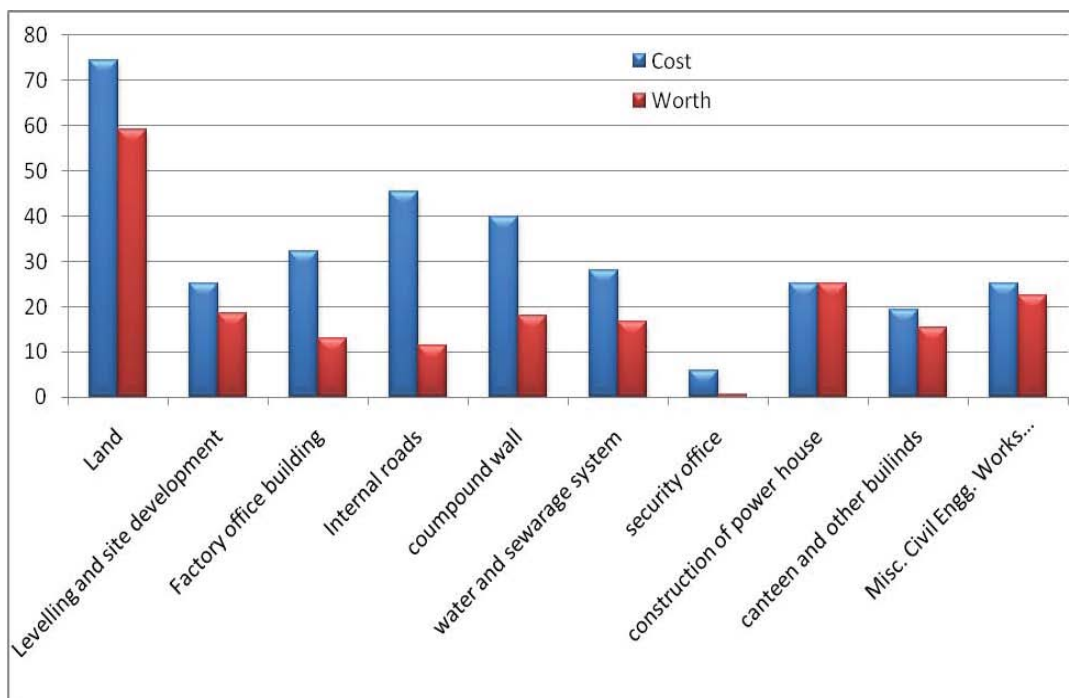


Figure 3 : Graphical representations of Cost and Worth

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- Land-Initially the total area of land requirement for the set up of a new factory building is 24.77 Acres, but CCM provide us substantial saving in cost. Minimum 19.67 acres of land is required initially and are purchased which provides sufficient fund saving for other activities .No doughty there is further expansion of factory which requires area of 5.10acres, which can be preached later on stage.
- Leveling and site development - by using CCM it is seen that complete leveling of land is not required for the project, so it is decided to level only the required area of land for project resulting in 25% saving on activity.
- Factory office – for factory office, curtailment of office building is imposed by using CCM technique which reduced the requirement cost by 2 times for office building it suggested a already constructed site office building with addition improvement and alteration.
- Internal Roads –for the transportation purpose and movement of the vehicles internal roads are provided with in the factory premises of cost 45.44 lacks .But to achieve economy and saving in funds for remaining activities, it is decided that only main roads which are 30 % of total road length subjected to heavy loading are constructed with bitumen, and remaining should be of Water Bond Macadamia type.
- Compound Wall –large saving on funds archived by applying CCM technique to compound wall. In this it is suggested to construct a compound wall in two different sections, which are shown at the end of paper. For front side of factory along the road side length section 1 is utilized and for remaining three sides of factory section 2 is suggested, resulting in 50 % saving in original cost.
- Water and Sewerage Systems- It is decided after discussion that only essential part of water supply and sewerage system in initial phase of work which results in 75 % saving on original investment on items.
- Security office- according to CCM technique it is decided to provide security office at the entrance only, using the same infrastruaction of entrance gate
- Canteen and other buildings and Miscellaneous Civil Engineering Works -already low budget buildings have been decided to construct so no major cost saving in this items.

VII. CONCLUSION

CCM technique can be effectively apply to reduced the cost of structure in many of the areas for very large and complex construction whose cost is

disproportionally more than considering these functional use or necessary in spite of steep escalation in the cost of steel, cement and over all cost due hike of market prices. The CCM tech was effective implementation for the construction new factory building at Sutrepada, Dhule (Maharashtra) .At eleven (11) different sections major saving in fund was observed total saving in funds was observed to be 111.75 lacks. This indicates the proportion of CCM as effective technique. However draw back of this technique can not be implemented for the section like power house construction.

VIII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We acknowledge the chairman Babasaheb K. R Patil along with body members, and M/s Mukesh & Associates, Salem. Chennai India who has prepared the project report based on the technical advice of the foreign collaborators and the estimates prepared by the planning team and Architects.

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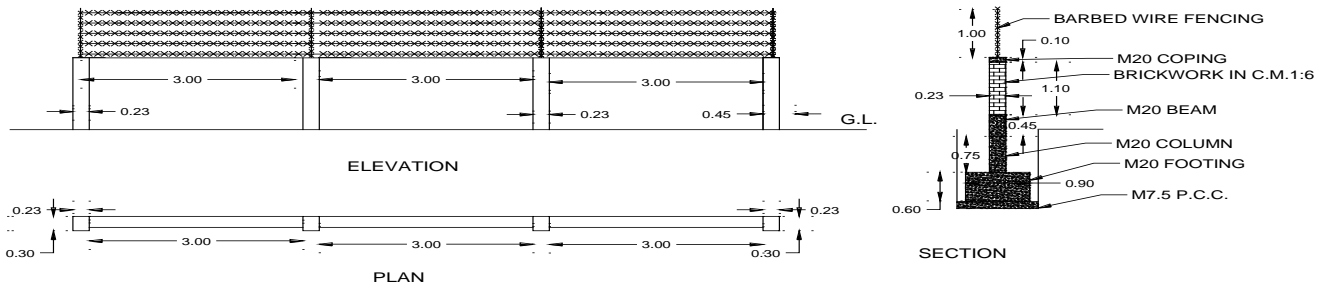


Figure 4a : Plan, elevation and Cross section of wall compound

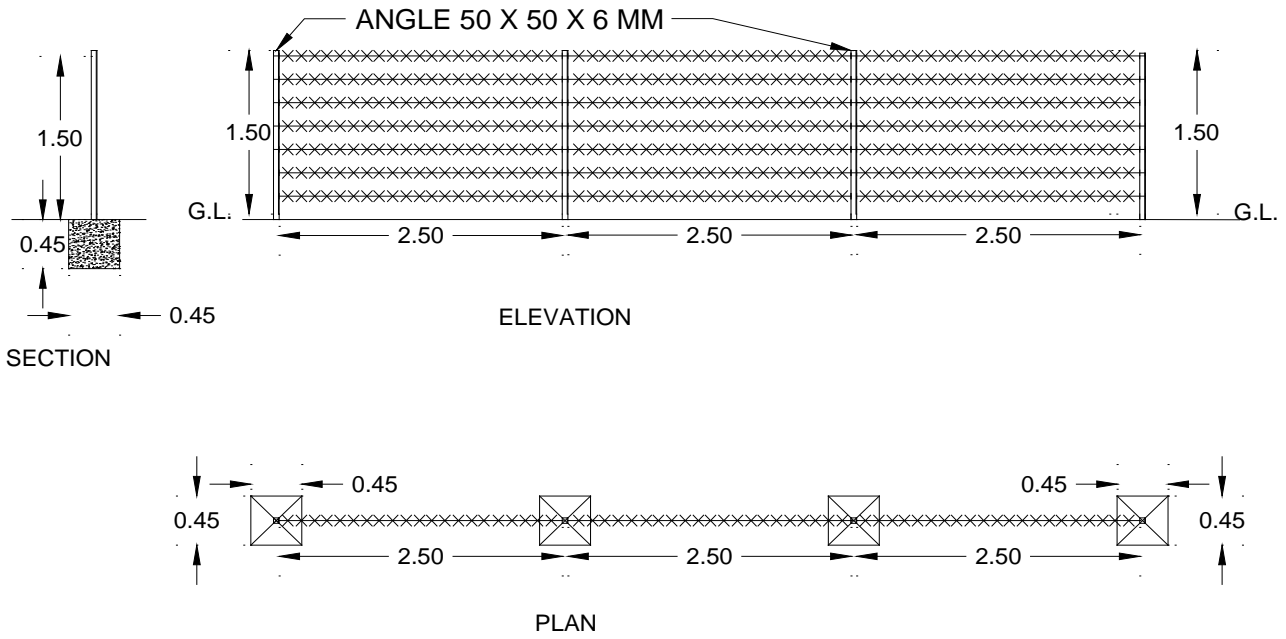
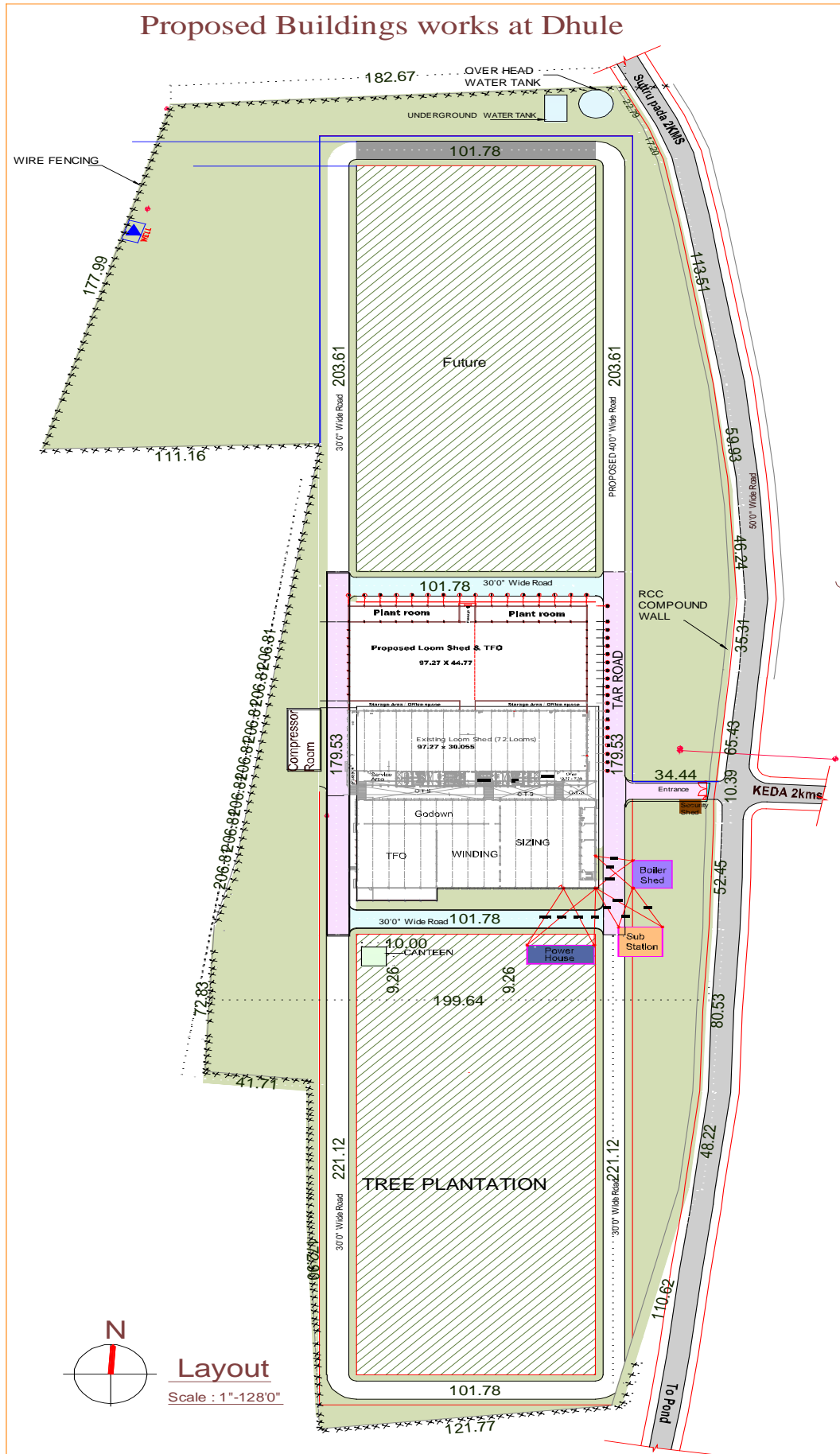


Figure 4b : Plan, elevation and Cross section of wall compound



(Source : Drawing collected from site)
Figure 2 : Layout plan of proposed factory building



GLOBAL JOURNAL OF RESEARCHES IN ENGINEERING
CIVIL AND STRUCTURAL ENGINEERING
Volume 13 Issue 6 Version 1.0 Year 2013
Type: Double Blind Peer Reviewed International Research Journal
Publisher: Global Journals Inc. (USA)
Online ISSN: 2249-4596 & Print ISSN: 0975-5861

Treatment of Water Drainage for Agriculture

By Professor Kadhim Naief Kadhim Al-Tae
& Basima Abbas Jabir Al-Humairi

University of Babylon, Iraq

Abstract - This research aims to examine the processing water drainage and used for agricultural purposes were used samples of water drainage and mixed with samples of river water at different ratios to get water containing salts proportions few were these samples (drainage and river from region Dujaili / Wasit Governorate) In this research ions were examine (Ca, Na, mg) to find a standard indicator of water quality labeled sodium adsorption ratio (SAR) as well as examine (EC, PH) was the tests in the laboratory of the College of Agriculture / University of Wasit. And compare the results with the system laboratory salinity U. S. (USSL) system and Food Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). In this study it was found that the proportion mixing (10%drainage + 90%River), (20%drainage + 80%River) is the ratio preferred as well as the more EC increased salt concentration in the water and the pH values of this water was within normal limits.

GJRE-E Classification : FOR Code: 290802



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I. INTRODUCTION

Both irrigation water quality and proper irrigation management are critical to successful crop production. The quality of the irrigation water may affect both crop yields and soil physical conditions, even if all other conditions and cultural practices are favorable/optimal. In addition, different crops require different irrigation water qualities. Therefore, testing the irrigation water prior to selecting the site and the crops to be grown is critical. The quality of some water sources may change significantly with time or during certain periods (such as in dry/rainy seasons), so it is recommended to have more than one sample taken, in different time periods. The parameters which determine the irrigation water quality are divided to three categories: chemical, physical and biological. In this review, the chemical properties of the irrigation water are discussed. The chemical characteristics of irrigation water refer to the content of salts in the water as well as to parameters derived from the composition of salts in the water; parameters such as EC/TDS (Electrical Conductivity/ Total Dissolved Solids), SAR (Sodium Adsorption Ratio) alkalinity and hardness. The primary natural source of salts in irrigation water is mineral weathering of rocks and minerals. Other secondary sources include atmospheric deposition of oceanic salts (salts in rain water), saline water from rising groundwater and the intrusion of sea water into groundwater aquifers. Fertilizer chemicals, which leach to water sources, may also affect the irrigation water quality.

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The main problem related to irrigation water quality is the water salinity. Water salinity refers to the total amount of salts dissolved in the water but it does not indicate which salts are present in High level of salts in the irrigation water reduces water availability to the crop (because of osmotic pressure) and causes yield reduction. Above a certain threshold, reduction in crop yield is proportional to the increase in salinity level. Different crops vary in their tolerance to salinity and therefore have different thresholds and yield reduction rates. *Mohsen Seilsepour and Majid Rashidi (2008)*: Studied Modeling of Soil Sodium Adsorption Ratio Based On Soil Electrical Conductivity The statistical results indicated that in order to predict soil SAR based on soil EC, the linear regression model $SAR = 1.91 + 0.68 EC$ with $R^2 = 0.69$ can be recommended,. *Mohsen Seilsepour et. al (2009)* Studied Prediction of Soil Exchangeable Sodium Percentage Based on Soil Sodium Adsorption Ratio The statistical results of the study indicated that in order to predict soil ESP based on soil SAR the linear regression model $ESP = 1.95 + 1.03 SAR$ with $R^2 = 0.92$ can be recommended. *Cannon et al (2004)*: studied Measured and Estimated Sodium-Adsorption Ratios for Tongue River and its Tributaries, Montana and Wyoming The Tongue River drains an area of about 5,400 square miles and flows northward from its headwaters in the Bighorn National Forest of northeastern Wyoming to join the Yellowstone River at Miles City, Montana. Water from the Tongue River and its tributaries is extensively used for irrigation in both Wyoming and Montana, and show resulting in a high sodium-adsorption ratio (SAR). Disposal of ground water with high sodium concentrations into the Tongue River has the potential to increase salinity and SAR of water in the river, and potentially reduce the quality of water for irrigation purpose. *Yaohu Kang et.al (2010)* : studies the effects of drip irrigation with saline water on waxy maize and the Results indicated was the irrigation water with salinity $<10.9dS/m$ did not affect the emergence of waxy maize. As salinity of irrigation water increased, seedling biomass decreased, and the plant height, fresh and dry weight of waxy maize in the thinning time decreased by 2% for every $1dS/m$ increase in salinity of irrigated water. The decreasing rate of the fresh ear yield for every $1 dS/m$ increase in salinity of irrigation water was about 0.4–3.3% Irrigation water use efficiency (IWUE) increased with the increase in salinity of irrigation water when salinity was $<10.9dS/m$. *Jamal et, al (2007)*: Studied Irrigation Water Quality Evaluation With Special Reference to Wasit Governorate the

classifications followed were the USSL and FAO systems, and then water suitability for irrigation was evaluated accordingly. The results showed that, all water samples fell within the water class (C3 – S1) according to USSL system. Whereas, in FAO system, the samples fell within the class (increase in salinity hazard) for the salinity hazard; within (no hazard, increase in permeability hazard) for soil permeability based on Eciw and Adj. SAR indicators; within (no hazard and increasing toxicity hazard) for toxicity based on $(Na^+ + Cl^-)$ concentrations; and within (increasing hazard) class for miscellaneous effects of irrigation water based on bicarbonate as showed the high content of $(Ca^{+2} + Mg^{+2})$ comparatively with Na^+ ions decrease the hazard of residual bicarbonate (RSC) effects, and hence reduce soil ESP values.

II. CHARACTERIZING SALINITY

There are two common water quality assessments that characterize the salinity of irrigation water. The salinity of irrigation water is sometimes reported as the total salt concentration or total dissolved solids (TDS). The units of TDS are usually expressed in milligrams of salt per liter (mg/L) of water. This term is still used by commercial analytical laboratories and represents the total number of milligrams of salt that would remain after 1 liter of water is evaporated to dryness. TDS is also often reported as parts per million (ppm) and is the same numerically as mg/L. The higher the TDS, the higher the salinity of the water. The other measurement that is documented in water quality reports from commercial labs is specific conductance, also called electrical conductivity (EC). EC is a much more useful measurement than TDS because it can be made instantaneously and easily by irrigators or farm managers in the field. Salts that are dissolved in water conduct electricity, and, therefore, the salt content in the water is directly related to the EC. The EC can be reported based on the irrigation water source (ECw) or on the saturated soil extract (ECe). Units of EC reported by labs are usually in millimhos per centimeter (mmhos/cm) or decisiemens per meter (dS/m). One mmho/cm = 1 dS/m. EC is also reported in micromhos per centimeter (μ mhos/cm) (1μ mho = 1/1000).

Often conversions between ECw and TDS are made, but caution is advised because conversion factors depend both on the salinity level and composition of the water (Stephen R. Grattan 2002). For example

$$TDS \text{ (mg/L)} = 640 \times ECw \text{ (dS/m)} \text{ when } ECw < 5 \text{ dS/m}$$

$$TDS \text{ (mg/L)} = 800 \times ECw \text{ (dS/m)} \text{ when } ECw > 5 \text{ dS/m}$$

Sulfate salts do not conduct electricity in the same way as other types of salts. Therefore, if water contains large quantities of sulfate salts, the conversion factors are invalid and must be adjusted upward.

III. SALINITY EFFECTS ON CROPS

The primary objective of irrigation is to provide a crop with adequate and timely amounts of water, thus avoiding yield loss caused by extended periods of water stress during stages of crop growth that are sensitive to water shortages. However, during repeated irrigations, the salts in the irrigation water can accumulate in the soil, reducing water available to the crop and hastening the onset of a water shortage. Understanding how this occurs will help suggest ways to counter the effect and reduce the probability of a loss in yield.

The plant extracts water from the soil by exerting an absorptive force greater than that which holds the water to the soil. If the plant cannot make sufficient internal adjustment and exert enough force, it is not able to extract sufficient water and will suffer water stress. This happens when the soil becomes too dry. Salt in the soil-water increases the force the plant must exert to extract water and this additional force is referred to as the osmotic effect or osmotic potential. For example, if two otherwise identical soils are at the same water content but one is salt-free and the other is salty, the plant can extract and use more water from the salt-free soil than from the salty soil. The reasons are not easily explained. Salts have an affinity for water. If the water contains salt, more energy per unit of water must be expended by the plant to absorb relatively salt-free water from a relatively salty soil-water solution (Ayers and Westcot 1994).

IV. IRRIGATION WATER QUALITY CRITERIA

Soil scientists use the following categories to describe irrigation water effects on crop production and soil quality:

- Salinity hazard - total soluble salt content
- Sodium hazard - relative proportion of sodium to calcium and magnesium ions
- pH - acid or basic
- Alkalinity - carbonate and bicarbonate
- Specific ions: chloride, sulfate, boron, and nitrate

a) pH and Alkalinity

The acidity or basicity of irrigation water is expressed as pH (< 7.0 acidic; > 7.0 basic). The normal pH range for irrigation water is from 6.5 to 8.4. High pH's above 8.5 are often caused by high bicarbonate (HCO_3^-) and carbonate (CO_3^{2-}) concentrations, known as alkalinity. High carbonates cause calcium and magnesium ions to form insoluble minerals leaving sodium as the dominant ion in solution. As described in the sodium hazard section, this alkaline water could intensify the impact of high SAR water on sodic soil conditions. Excessive bicarbonate concentrations can also be problematic for drip or micro-spray irrigation systems when calcite or scale build up causes

reduced flow rates through orifices or emitters. In these situations, correction by injecting sulfuric or other acidic materials into the system may be required. (Bauder.et.al 2012).

b) Sodium Hazard

Although plant growth is primarily limited by the salinity (EC_w) level of the irrigation water, the application of water with a sodium imbalance can further reduce yield under certain soil texture conditions. Reductions in water infiltration can occur when irrigation water contains high sodium relative to the calcium and magnesium contents. This condition, termed "sodicity," results from excessive soil accumulation of sodium. Sodic water is not the same as saline water. Sodicity causes swelling and dispersion of soil clays, surface crusting and pore plugging. This degraded soil structure condition in turn obstructs infiltration and may increase runoff. Sodicity causes a decrease in the downward movement of water into and through the soil, and actively growing plants roots may not get adequate water, despite pooling of water on the soil surface after irrigation.

The most common measure to assess sodicity in water and soil is called the Sodium Adsorption Ratio (SAR). *Sodium adsorption ratio (SAR)*: is a measure of the suitability of water for use in agricultural irrigation, as determined by the concentrations of solids dissolved in the water. It is also a measure of the *sodicity* of soil, The SAR defines sodicity in terms of the relative concentration of sodium (Na) compared to the sum of calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) ions in a sample (Bauder.et.al 2012).

The SAR assesses the potential for infiltration problems due to a sodium imbalance in irrigation water. The SAR is mathematically written below by equation 1, where Na, Ca and Mg are the concentrations of these ions in milliequivalents per liter (meq/L). Concentrations of these ions in water samples are typically provided in milligrams per liter (mg/L). To convert Na, Ca, and Mg from mg/L to meq/L, you should divide the concentration by 22.9, 20, and 12.15 respectively. Table (1) and (2) show limitation for SAR and EC depend for USSL and FAO and figure (1) show the determine SAR from {Na, Ca, Mg}. (متعامجو ريضخ ماصع)

$$SAR = \frac{Na^{+} \text{ meq/L}}{\sqrt{\frac{(Ca^{++} \text{ meq/L}) + (Mg^{++} \text{ meq/L})}{2}}} \quad (1)$$

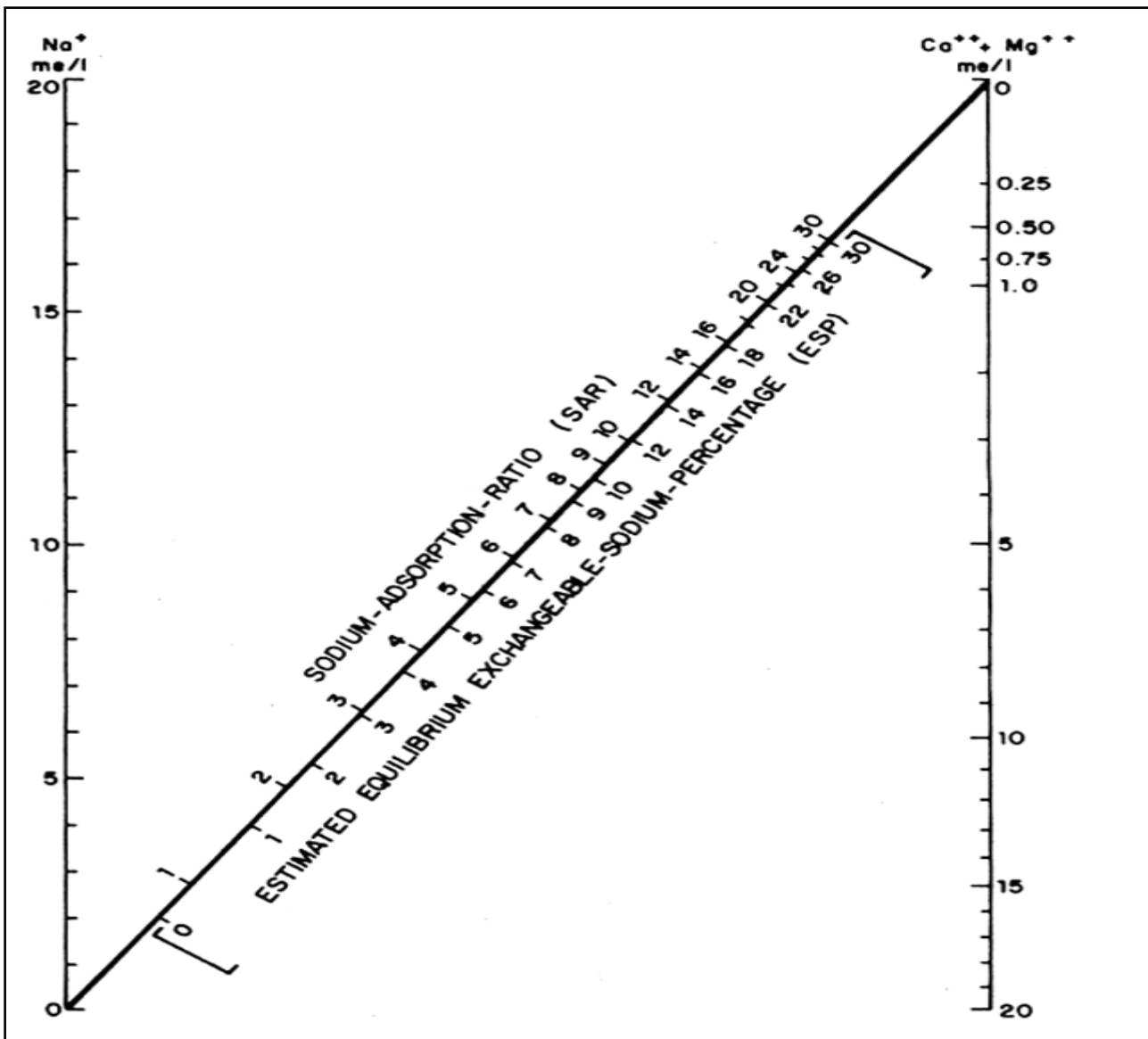


Figure 1 : Show the determining the SAR value of irrigation water

Table 1 : Show the Limit for Electrical Conductivity (EC)

Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)			Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)		
Class	Range (ds/m)	Notes	Class	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)
Low	0.25 ≤	C ₁	Excellent	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)
Meduim	0.25-0.75	C ₂	Good	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)
High	0.75-2.25	C ₃	Unsuitable	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)
Very high	2.25 ≥	C ₄		Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)	Table (1) show the limit for electrical conductivity (EC)

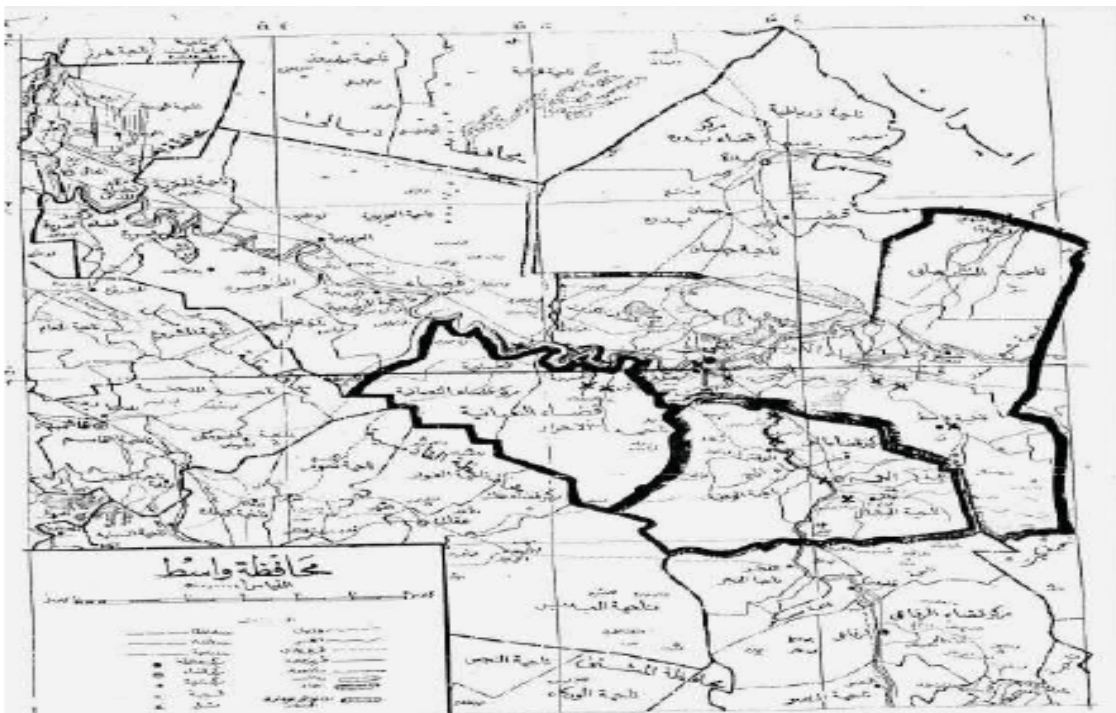
Table 2 : Show the Limit for Sodium Adsorption Ratio (SAR)

USSL (Richard) 1954			FAO Ayers and Westcot 1994		
Class	Range (ds/m)	Notes	Class	Range (ds/m)	Notes
Low	<10	S ₁	Low	<3	
Meduim	18-10	S ₂	Meduim	3-9	
High	18-26	S ₃	High	9>	
Very high	>26	S ₄			

V. EXPERIMENTAL WORK

In this study, bring samples of water drainage and river water taken from the region Dujaili located in Wasit Governorate shown in figure 1, was taking samples during the month of December after it was mixing water drainage with river water at different ratios to get water containing salts proportions few For example, has the mixing process (90% of the river water + 10% of the water drainage), as well as mixing (80% of the river water + 20% of the water drainage) and also has the mixing process versa where the mixing (90% of the water drainage + 10% river water), as well as mixing (80% of the water drainage + 20% of the water of the river) as shown in table No. 3. the mixing process was in

closed containers and was the tests in the laboratory of the College of Agriculture / University of Wasit. and has the test process for these samples by device flame photometer and devices PH and EC as shown in the figure 2 ,3 ,4 have been conducted I analyzes laboratory for these samples has been tested ions (Na, Ca, Mg) calcium and magnesium were estimated in a manner correction and sodium were appreciated your Flame Photometer, estimated electrical conductivity (EC) and the degree of interaction for sample of water using EC-meter and PH-meter then was calculated value sodium adsorption ratio (SAR) by equation 1.

*Figure 4* : EC Meter

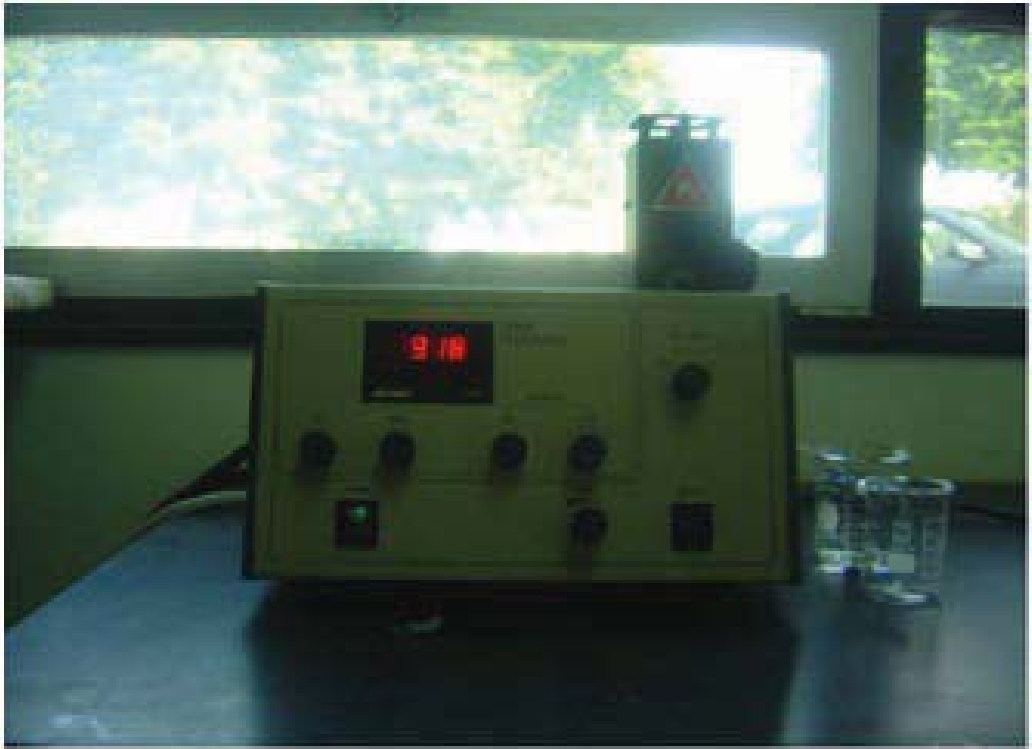


Figure 2 : Device Flame Photometer



Figure 3 : PH Meter



Figure 4 : EC Meter

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study results showed that the samples water of percentage (10% drainage + 90% River), (20% drainage + 80% River) located within product (s_1) while water of percentage (30% drainage + 70% River), (40% drainage + 60% River), (80% drainage + 20% River), (70% drainage + 30% River), (60% drainage + 40% River) located within product (s_2). The water of percentage (50% drainage + 50% River), (90% drainage + 10% River) located within class (s_3) this is according to the system USSL and FAO. Sample water of percentage (10% drainage + 90% River), (20% drainage + 80% River) incident within class (medium). Other

ratios located within the third category (high) these category for SAR as for the electrical conductivity sample water of percentage (10% drainage + 90% River), (20% drainage + 80% River) located within the class (C_3) according USSL system, other percentages and located within the class (C_4) according USSL system either by the FAO system it sample water of percentage (10% drainage + 90% River), (20% drainage + 80% River) 30% drainage + 70% River), (40% drainage + 60% River) located within class good other percentage within third class the result tests for sample of water shown in table 3. Figure (5) show percentage of water drainage and EC. Figure (6) show percentage of water drainage and SAR.

Table 3 : Show the Result Tests for Sample of Water for Different Ratios

No.of sample	Water of river	Water of drainage	Na(meq/L)	Ca+mg(meq/L)	SAR	EC(mmhos/cm)	PH
1	90%	10%	20.07	13	7.87	1.80	7.83
2	80%	20%	28.2	20	8.92	2.10	7.72
3	70%	30%	35.63	17	12.2	2.50	7.4
4	60%	40%	41.46	15	15.13	3.00	7.48
5	50%	50%	44.17	11	18.8	5.50	7.51
6	10%	90%	63	24	18.15	18	7.54
7	20%	80%	57.65	23	17	17.6	7.72
8	30%	70%	52.47	18	17.49	15.6	7.74
9	40%	60%	49.23	17	16.86	14.16	7.68
10	50%	50%	44.17	11	18.8	5.50	7.51
11		Only drainage	69.43	12	28.33	19	7.64
12	Only river		4.96	10	2.21	1.19	7.88

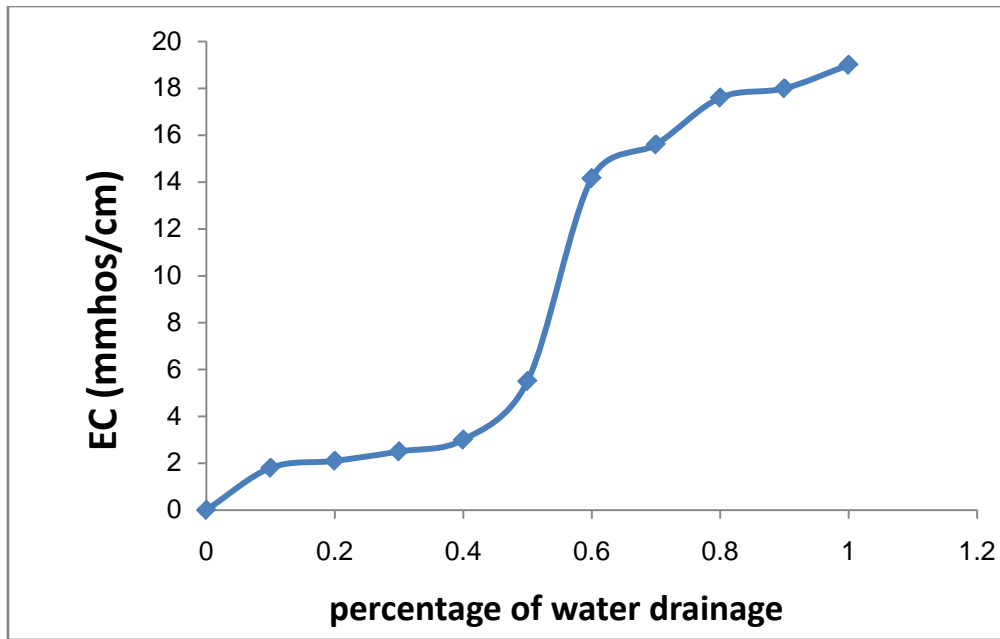


Figure 1 : show percentage of water drainage and EC

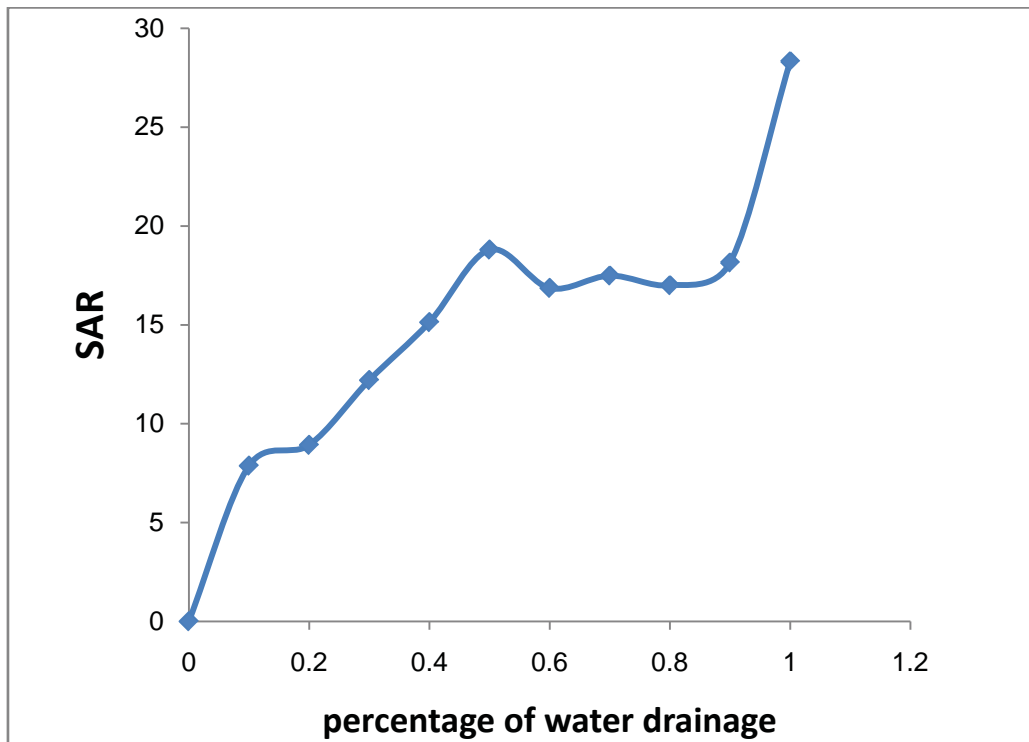


Figure 2 : show percentage of water drainage and SAR

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

- ❖ The increased electrical conductivity lead to increased salt concentration in the water.
- ❖ The interaction pH values ranging between (7.40-7.88).

- ❖ Results were compared with laboratory salinity U.S (USSL). and Food Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and found that the ratio favorite mixing process is (10%drainage +90% River) and (20 %drainage +80% River) located within ((S1-C3) according to the classification laboratory salinity U.S. While according to the

(FAO) the sodium adsorption ratio incident within class (medium) and the electrical conductivity sample located within class good.

- ❖ That determine the validity of water for irrigation and agriculture to not depend only on a laboratory tests for irrigation water, but must study other factors affecting determine the validity of water for irrigation and agriculture, including soil (determine characteristics of physical and chemical), type of crop grown and the bear saline, and climatic conditions include temperature, amount of precipitation rainfall, wind speed, the speed of evaporation, etc.) and management irrigation and drainage in terms of the availability of networks and appropriate irrigation techniques and good and effective drainage networks.

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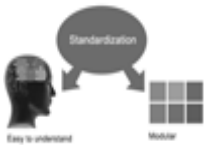
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Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or similar. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. This in turn will make it more likely to be viewed and/or cited in a further work. Global Journals Inc. (US) have compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

Key Words

A major linchpin in research work for the writing research paper is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and Internet resources.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy and planning a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Search engines for most searches, use Boolean searching, which is somewhat different from Internet searches. The Boolean search uses "operators," words (and, or, not, and near) that enable you to expand or narrow your affords. Tips for research paper while preparing research paper are very helpful guideline of research paper.

Choice of key words is first tool of tips to write research paper. Research paper writing is an art. A few tips for deciding as strategically as possible about keyword search:



- One should start brainstorming lists of possible keywords before even begin searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.
- It may take the discovery of only one relevant paper to let steer in the right keyword direction because in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.
- One should avoid outdated words.

Keywords are the key that opens a door to research work sources. Keyword searching is an art in which researcher's skills are bound to improve with experience and time.

Numerical Methods: Numerical methods used should be clear and, where appropriate, supported by references.

Acknowledgements: Please make these as concise as possible.

References

References follow the Harvard scheme of referencing. References in the text should cite the authors' names followed by the time of their publication, unless there are three or more authors when simply the first author's name is quoted followed by et al. unpublished work has to only be cited where necessary, and only in the text. Copies of references in press in other journals have to be supplied with submitted typescripts. It is necessary that all citations and references be carefully checked before submission, as mistakes or omissions will cause delays.

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Tables: Tables should be few in number, cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g. Table 4, a self-explanatory caption and be on a separate sheet. Vertical lines should not be used.

Figures: Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always take in a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g. Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in electronic form by e-mailing them.

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Even though low quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (or e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Do not use pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings) in relation to the imitation size. Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement Form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

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26. Go for seminars: Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.



27. Refresh your mind after intervals: Try to give rest to your mind by listening to soft music or by sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory.

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29. Think technically: Always think technically. If anything happens, then search its reasons, its benefits, and demerits.

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- Write your paper in the form, which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criterion for grading the final paper by peer-reviewers.

Final Points:

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The introduction will be compiled from reference matter and will reflect the design processes or outline of basis that direct you to make study. As you will carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed as like that. The result segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and will direct the reviewers next to the similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you took to carry out your study. The discussion section will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implication of the results. The use of good quality references all through the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness of prior workings.



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- Adhere to recommended page limits

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- Use past tense to describe specific results
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The summary should be two hundred words or less. It should briefly and clearly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript-- must have precise statistics. It should not have abnormal acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Shun citing references at this point.

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- To the point depiction of the research
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- Significant conclusions or questions that track from the research(es)

Approach:

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- Center on shortening results - bound background information to a verdict or two, if completely necessary
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Approach:

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Approach

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Approach:

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<i>Introduction</i>	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
<i>Methods and Procedures</i>	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
<i>Result</i>	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
<i>Discussion</i>	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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ISSN 9755861

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