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A Handbook on

Civil Engineering

Contains well illustrated formulae & key theory concepts

For

IES, GATE, PSU\textsuperscript{s} & OTHER COMPETITIVE EXAMS
Director’s Message

During the current age of international competition in Science and Technology, the Indian participation through skilled technical professionals have been challenging to the world. Constant efforts and desire to achieve top positions are still required.

I feel every candidate has ability to succeed but competitive environment and quality guidance is required to achieve high level goals. At MADE EASY, we help you to discover your hidden talent and success quotient to achieve your ultimate goals. In my opinion IAS, IES, GATE & PSU's exams are tool to enter in to main stream of Nation serving. The real application of knowledge and talent starts, after you enter in to the working system. Here in MADE EASY you are also trained to become winner in your life and achieve job satisfaction.

MADE EASY aluminae have shared their winning stories of success and expressed their gratitude towards quality guidance of MADE EASY. Our students have not only secured All India First Ranks in IES, GATE and PSU entrance examinations but also secured top positions in their career profiles. Now, I invite you to become aluminae of MADE EASY to explore and achieve ultimate goal of your life. I promise to provide you quality guidance with competitive environment which is far advanced and ahead than the reach of other institutions. You will get the guidance, support and inspiration that you need to reach the peak of your career.

I have true desire to serve Society and Nation by way of making easy path of the education for the people of India.

After a long experience of teaching in Civil Engineering over the period of time MADE EASY team realised that there is a need of good Handbook which can provide the crux of Civil Engineering in a concise form to the student to brush up the formulae and important concepts required for IES, GATE, PSUs and other competitive examinations. This handbook contains all the formulae and important theoretical aspects of Civil Engineering. It provides much needed revision aid and study guidance before examinations.

B. Singh (Ex. IES)
Founder & Director, MADE EASY Group
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# Strength of Materials

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1. PROPERTIES OF METALS, STRESS AND STRAIN

IMPORTANT MECHANICAL PROPERTIES

- Elasticity
  It is the property by virtue of which a material deformed under the load is enabled to return to its original dimension when the load is removed.

  If body regains completely its original shape it is called perfectly elastic body
  Elastic limit marks the partial break down of elasticity beyond which removal of load result in a degree of permanent deformation.
  Steel, Aluminium, Copper, may be considered to be perfectly elastic within certain limit.

- Plasticity
  The characteristics of the material by which it undergoes inelastic strain beyond those at the elastic limit is known as plasticity.

  This property is particularly useful in operation of pressing and forging.
  When large deformation occurs in a ductile material loaded in plastic region, the material is said to undergo plastic flow.

- Ductility
  It is the property which permits a material to be drawn out longitudinally to a reduced section, under the action of tensile force.

  A ductile material must posses a high degree of plasticity and strength.
  Ductile material must have low degree of elasticity.
  This is useful in wire drawing.

- Brittleness
  It is lack of ductility. Brittleness implies that it can not be drawn out by tension to smaller section

  In brittle material failure take place under load without significant deformation.
Ordinary *Glass* is nearly *ideal* brittle material. Cast iron, *concrete* and ceramic material are brittle material.

- **Malleability**
  It is the property of a material which permits the material to be *extended* in all *direction* without rupture.

  A malleable material possesses a *high degree* of plasticity, but *not necessarily* *great strength*.

- **Toughness**
  It is the property of material which enables it to absorb energy *without* fracture.

  It is desirable in material which is subjected to *cyclic* or *shock loading*.
  It is represented by area under *stress-strain* curve for material up to fracture.
  *Bend test* used for common comparative test for toughness.

- **Hardness**
  It is the ability of a material to resist *indentation* or *surface abrasion*.

  Brinnell hardness test is used to check hardness.

  \[
  \text{Brinnell hardness number} = \frac{P}{\pi D \left[ D - \sqrt{D^2 - d^2} \right]} \]

  Here, \( P \) = Standard load
  \( D \) = Diameter of steel ball (mm)
  \( d \) = Diameter of indent (mm)

- **Strength**
  This property enables material to resist fracture under load.

  This is most important property from *design* point of view.
  Load required to cause fracture, divided by area of test specimen, is termed as *ultimate strength*. 
STRESS AND STRAIN

STRESS \((N/m^2)\)

It is the resistance offered by the body to deformation

- **Nominal stress (Engineering stress)** = \(\frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Original Area}}\)

- **Actual/True stress** = \(\frac{\text{Load}}{\text{Changed (Actual) Area}}\)

STRAIN

Deformation per unit length in the direction of deformation is known as strain.

\[
\text{Strain} = \frac{\Delta L}{L}
\]

It is a **dimensionless** quantity.

ENGINEERING STRESS-STRAIN CURVE OF MILD STEEL FOR TENSION UNDER STATIC-LOADING

- **OA** — Straight line (proportional region, *Hooke’s law is valid*)
- **OB** — Elastic region
- **BC** — Elasto plastic region
- **CD** — Perfectly plastic region
- **DE** — Strain hardening
- **EF** — Necking region
- **A** — Limit of proportionality
- **B** — Elastic limit
- **C** — Lower yield point
- **D** — Strain hardening starts
- **E** — Ultimate point or maximum stress point

- **Limit of Proportionality**
  It is the stress at which the stress-strain curve **ceases** to be a straight line.
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Soil Mechanics

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1. PROPERTIES OF SOILS

PHASE DIAGRAM
Soil mass is in general a three phase system composed of solid, liquid and gaseous matter.
The diagrammatic representation of the different phases in a soil mass is called the "phase diagram".
A 3-phase system is applicable for partially saturated soil whereas, a 2-phase system is for saturated and dry states of soil.

WATER CONTENT
\[ w = \frac{W_w}{W_s} \times 100 \]
where, \( W_w \) = Weight of water
\( W_s \) = Weight of solids
There can be no upper limit to water content, i.e., \( w \geq 0 \)
VOID RATIO

\[ e = \frac{V_v}{V_s} \]

where, \( V_v \) = Volume of voids
\( V_s \) = Volume of solids.

Void ratio of fine grained soils are generally higher than those of coarse grained soils.
In general \( e > 0 \) i.e., no upper limit for void volume.

POROSITY

\[ n = \frac{V_v}{V} \times 100 \]

where, \( V_v \) = Volume of voids
\( V \) = Total volume of soil

Porosity cannot exceed 100% i.e.,
\( 0 < n < 100 \)

In comparison to porosity, void ratio is more frequently used because volume of solids remains same, whereas total volume changes.

DEGREE OF SATURATION

\[ S = \frac{V_w}{V_v} \times 100 \]

where, \( V_w \) = volume of water
\( V_v \) = Volume of voids

0 \( \leq S \leq 100 \)
for perfectly dry soil : \( S = 0 \)
for Fully saturated soil : \( S = 100\% \)

AIR CONTENT

\[ a_c = \frac{V_a}{V_v} = 1 - S \]

UNIT WEIGHT

(a) Bulk unit weight

\[ \gamma = \frac{W}{V} = \frac{W_s + W_w}{V_s + V_w + V_a} \]

Thus Bulk unit weight is total weight per unit volume.
(b) **Dry Unit Weight** is the weight of soil solids per unit volume.

\[
\gamma_d = \frac{W_s}{V}
\]

- Dry unit weight is used as a measure of denseness of soil. More dry unit weight means more compacted soil.

(c) **Saturated unit weight**: It is the ratio of total weight of fully saturated soil sample to its total volume.

\[
\gamma_{sat} = \frac{W_{sat}}{V}
\]

(d) **Submerged unit weight**

Q, Buoyant unit weight (\(\gamma\)). It is the submerged weight of soil solids per unit volume.

- \(\gamma\) is roughly 1/2 of saturated unit weight.

**SPECIFIC GRAVITY**

- Specific gravity of soil solids (G) is the ratio of the weight of a given volume of solids to the weight of an equivalent volume of water at 4°C.

\[
G = \frac{W_s}{V_s \cdot \gamma_w} = \frac{\gamma_s}{\gamma_w}
\]

- **Apparent or mass specific gravity** (\(G_m\)): Mass specific gravity is the specific gravity of the soil mass and is defined as the ratio of the total weight of a given mass of soil to the weight of an equivalent volume of water.

\[
G_m = \frac{W}{V \gamma_w} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma_y}
\]

**SOME IMPORTANT RELATIONSHIPS**

(i) Relation between \(W_s\), \(W\) and \(w\):

\[
W_s = \frac{W}{1 + w}
\]

(ii) Relation between \(e\) and \(n\)

\[
\frac{n}{1 + e} \quad \text{or} \quad e = \frac{n}{1 - n}
\]
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Engineering Hydrology

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1. PRECIPITATION AND GENERAL ASPECTS OF HYDROLOGY

INDEX OF WETNESS

- Index of wetness = \( \frac{\text{rainfall in a given year at a given place}}{\text{average annual rainfall of that place}} \times 100 \)
- % Rain deficiency = 100 – % Index of wetness

ARIDITY INDEX

- \( A.I. = \frac{\text{PET} - \text{AET}}{\text{PET}} \times 100 \)
  - where, A.I. = Aridity Index
  - PET = Potential Evapotranspiration
  - AET = Actual Evapotranspiration

  (a) \( A.I. \leq 0 \rightarrow \) Non-arid
  (b) \( 1 \leq A.I. \leq 25 \rightarrow \) Mild Arid
  (c) \( 26 \leq A.I. \leq 50 \rightarrow \) Moderate Arid
  (d) \( A.I. > 50 \rightarrow \) Severe Arid.

In this A.I. calculation, AET is calculated according to Thornthwaite’s water balance technique.

OPTIMUM NUMBER OF RAIN GAUGE: (N)

\[
N = \left( \frac{C_v}{E} \right)^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{C_v}{E} = \frac{100\sigma}{\bar{P}}
\]

\[
\bar{P} = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + \ldots + P_n}{n}
\]

\[
P^2 = \frac{P_1^2 + P_2^2 + \ldots + P_n^2}{n}
\]

\[
\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-1} \left( \frac{P^2}{\bar{P}^2} - 1 \right)}
\]

where, \( C_v = \) Coefficient of variation, \( E = \) Allowable % Error,
\( \sigma = \) Standard deviation, \( n = \) Number of stations

ESTIMATION OF MISSING RAINFALL DATA

(a) \( P_x = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + \ldots + P_n}{(n-1)} \)

If \( N_1, N_2, \ldots, N_n < 10\% \) of \( N_x \)
where, \( N_1, N_2, \ldots N_x \ldots N_n \) are normal annual precipitation of 1, 2, ... \( x \ldots n \) respectively.

\( P_1, P_2 \ldots P_n \) are rainfall at station 1, 2, ... \( n \) respectively.

and \( P_x \) is the rainfall of station \( x \).

**Case**: A minimum number of three stations closed to station ‘\( x \)’

\[
P_x = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + P_3}{3}
\]

(b) \[
P_x = \frac{N_x}{n - 1} \left[ \frac{P_1}{N_1} + \frac{P_2}{N_2} + \ldots + \frac{P_n}{N_n} \right]
\]

If any of \( N_1, N_2, N_3 \ldots N_n > 10\% \) of \( N_x \).

**MEAN RAINFALL DATA**

To convert the point rainfall values at various stations into an average value over a catchment the following three methods are in use.

(i) **Arithmetic Avg Method**: When the rainfall measured at various stations in a catchment show little variation, the average precipitation over the catchment area is taken as the arithmetic mean of the station values.

\[
P_{\text{avg}} = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + \ldots + P_n}{n}
\]

where, \( P_1, P_2 \ldots P_n \) are rainfall values of station 1, 2, ... \( n \) respectively.

In practice this method is used very rarely.

(ii) **Thiessen Polygon Method**: In this method the rainfall recorded at each station is given a weightage on the basis of an area closest to the station.

\[
P_{\text{avg}} = \frac{P_1A_1 + P_2A_2 + \ldots + P_nA_n}{A_1 + A_2 + \ldots + A_n}
\]

where, \( P_1, P_2 \ldots P_n \) are the rainfall data of areas \( A_1, A_2 \ldots A_n \).

The Thiessen-polygon method of calculating the average precipitation over an area is superior to the arithmetic average method.

(iii) **Isohyetal Method**: An isohyet is a line joining points of equal rainfall magnitude. The recorded values for which areal average \( P \) is to be determined are then marked on the plot at appropriate stations. Neighbouring stations outside the catchment are also considered.

\[
P_{\text{avg}} = \frac{A_1\left(\frac{P_1 + P_2}{2}\right) + A_2\left(\frac{P_2 + P_3}{2}\right) + \ldots + A_{n-1}\left(\frac{P_{n-1} + P_n}{2}\right)}{A_1 + A_2 + \ldots + A_{n-1}}
\]
2. EVAPORATION AND ITS MEASUREMENT

Evaporation is a cooling process in which heat of evaporation of about 585 cal/gm is provided by the water body. In this process liquid changes into gaseous phase of free surface.

DALTON’S LAW

The rate of evaporation is proportional to the difference between the saturation vapour pressure at the water temperature, \( e_s \), and the actual vapour pressure in the air, \( e_a \). Thus

\[
E = K(e_s - e_a)
\]

where,

- \( E \) = Rate of evaporation
- \( e_s \) = Saturation vapour pressure of air
- \( e_a \) = Actual vapour pressure of air

\( e_s - e_a = \) Saturation deficiency

MEASUREMENT OF EVAPORATION

(i) ISI Standard Pan

Lake evaporation = \( C_p \times \) Pan evaporation

where,

- \( C_p \) = Pan coefficient
  - = 0.8 for ISI pan
  - = 0.7 for class-A pan

(ii) Empirical Evaporation Equations (Meyer’s Formula)

\[
E = k_m(e_s - e_a)
\left(1 + \frac{V_g}{16}\right)
\]

where

- \( k_m \) = Coefficients which accounts for size of water body.
  - = 0.36 (for large deep water)
  - \( \approx 0.50 \) (for small and shallow waters)
- \( e_s \) = Saturation vapour pressure of air in mm of Hg.
- \( e_a \) = Actual vapour pressure of overlying air in mm at Hg at specified height of 8 m.
- \( V_g \) = Monthly mean wind velocity in km/hr at about 9m above the ground level.
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Airport, Dock, Harbour & Tunnelling Engineering

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1. AIRCRAFT CHARACTERISTICS AND PLANNING

AEROPLANE COMPONENT PARTS

- **Engine**
  1. **Piston engine**: is driven by propeller. Suitable to operate at low altitudes and moderate speeds.
  2. **Turbojet**: efficiency is higher at high altitudes owing to the drop in the atmospheric density and greater temperature difference through the turbine.
  3. **Turbo Prop**: performs well at low altitudes as well as high altitude.
  4. **Ram jet**: no moving parts, must be operated at high speed.
  5. **Rocket engine**: no limit on altitude since oxygen in the atmosphere is not relied upon for combustion. Engine carries its own supply of oxygen.

- **Fuselage**
  - main body of the aircraft
  - provides for power plant, fuel, cockpit, passengers, cargo etc.

- **Wings**: The purpose of an aircraft wing is to support the machine in the air when the engine has given it the necessary forward speed.

![Diagram showing lift and drag components](image)

**Note**: As the angle of incidence increase, the drag component also increases and the lift component reduces.
Three control

- The movement of aircraft about the X-axis is called rolling movement.
- The movement about y and z axes are called pitching and yawing movements respectively.
- **Elevator**: controls the pitching or up and down movements of the aircraft.
- **Rudder**: It is used for turning or yawing movement of the aircraft.
- **Aileron**: It is used to control of rolling movement about longitudinal axis.

**AIRPORT PLANNING**

- The regional plan usually provides the following information:
  1. Approximate locations of the airports in national map.
  2. Classification of airports
  3. Location of air strips
  4. Routes of air Travel.
- Following data is collected for regional planning:
  1. Population
  2. Topographical and geographical features
  3. Existing airports in the vicinity
  4. Air traffic characteristics
- Minimum spacings from existing airports:
  (i) for Airports serving small general aviation aircrafts under VFR conditions = 3.2 km (2 Miles)
  (ii) for airports serving bigger aircrafts under VFR conditions = 6.4 km (4 Miles)
  (iii) for airports operating piston engine aircrafts under IFR conditions = 25.6 km (16 Miles)
  (iv) for jet aircrafts under IFR conditions = 160 km (100 Miles)

The best location is a site adjacent to the main highway.
2. RUNWAY DESIGN

ORIENTATION

- Runway is usually oriented in the direction of prevailing winds.
- The head wind i.e. the direction of wind opposite to the direction of landing and take off, provides greater lift on the wings of the aircraft when it is taking off.
- Cross wind component = V sin \( \theta \) where \( \theta \) = Angle of wind direction to runway centreline
- Normal component of the wind is called Cross wind component.
- The maximum permissible cross wind component depends upon the size of aircraft and the wing configuration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Airports Serving</th>
<th>Max. limit of C.W.C.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. For small aircrafts.</td>
<td>15 kmph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– for mixed traffic</td>
<td>25 kmph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. For big Aircrafts</td>
<td>35 kmph</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BASIC RUNWAY LENGTH

It is the length of runway under the following assumed conditions at the airport:

1. Airport altitude is at sea level
2. Temperature at the airport is standard (15°C)
3. Runway is levelled in the longitudinal direction.
4. No wind is blowing on runway.
5. Aircraft is loaded to its full loading capacity.
6. There is no wind blowing enroute to the destination.
7. Enroute temperature is standard.

CORRECTIONS FOR ELEVATION, TEMPERATURE AND GRADIENT

(a) Correction of Elevation: Basic runway length is increased at the rate of 7% per 300 m rise in elevation above the mean sea level.
3. AIRPORT CAPACITY AND TUNNELING AREA

AIRPORT CAPACITY
- The number of aircraft movements which an airport can process within a specified period of time with an average delay to the departing aircraft within the acceptable time limit is defined as airport capacity.
- The following factors affect the airport operating capacity:

  Runway configurations and the connected taxiways

  (i) Single runway

  (ii) Parallel runway

  (iii) Intersecting runways

  L = Landing  T.o. = Taking off.

- **Single Runway**: is usually adopted when the wind blows in one direction for most of the time in a year and air traffic requirement does not exceed the capacity of such pattern.