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An Investigation of Loads & Combinations Loads Design of Safety High Rise Building

[1]Manoj Kumar, [2]Mr. Ashish Kumar,
[1]M. tech Civil Engineering, Institute of Technology and Management Lucknow
[2]Assistant Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, Institute of Technology and Management Lucknow

Abstract : In the present study an attempt has been made to investigate the load and combination load design of safety high rise building. Structures built using civil engineering are intended to withstand a wide variety of loads, as well as any and all combinations of loads that could be placed on them throughout the course of their lifetimes. In the process of structural analysis, having an accurate calculation of the magnitudes of these loads is one of the most crucial aspects to consider. Designers may get assistance in this area from a variety of sources, including local and international codes, research papers and publications, and more. Structural loads may be classified as dead, alive, impact, or environmental. The next sections explain these burdens. Columns, load-bearing walls, or towers transfer vertical loads self-weights, finishing loads, and living loads to the foundation. Live load depends on building use and design.

***Index Terms* - Design of High Rise Building, Structural Systems, load and combination load, Design loads for the residential building**

1.1 Introduction

A structural load is any force, deformation, or acceleration that is exerted on structural elements. Structural loads may take many different forms. A structure will experience stresses, deformations, and displacements as a result of the loads that are applied to it. The effects of loads on structures and the parts that make up structures are analysed by the engineering field known as structural analysis. Because an excessive load might cause the structure to collapse, it is essential that it be taken into consideration and kept under control throughout the design phase [1]. The structure may suffer from stresses, displacements, and deformations as a consequence of the many forms of loads that are applied to it, which may ultimately lead to the structure's collapse. It is both highly necessary and very difficult to calculate the total load that is imposed on a structure. Engineering in the field of building construction focuses on erecting structures like homes. A home, in its most basic sense, is a structure that provides shelter, food, and clothing to its occupants. In the distant past, people began constructing huts out of wood branches after spending significant amounts of time living in incaves, either above or beneath trees, to avoid the elements [2]. Modern society has transformed the primitive dwellings of the past into aesthetically pleasing homes. The homes of the wealthy are often in pristine shape. Structures show how far a country has come socially. We all want to live in nice houses because we spend so much time there—roughly two-thirds of our lives. Safety and a community-minded feeling of duty. These are some of the most important reasons why people should work so hard and save so much money to buy their own homes [3]. These days, the construction of homes is a significant part of the socioeconomic development made in a county. Engineers and architects are responsible for the design work, as well as the planning and layout, among other aspects, of the structures. On a daily basis, new methods are created for the inexpensive and speedy construction of homes that also satisfy the standards imposed by the community. In the construction industry, draughts men are the individuals who are accountable for carrying out the drawing works under the guidance of engineers and architects. The draughtsman is responsible for knowing his profession, being able to follow the engineer's directions and develop the required building drawings, site plans, and layout plans, among other things.

1.2 Structural Systems

The conservative engineering approach and the difficulties of transferring narrowly focused structural systems research to broad design applications contribute to this lack of applicability. This paper discusses, references, and applies housing system-based research and design knowledge [4]. In light frame residential construction, the system's strength and stiffness affect a structural member's reaction. System performance involves load sharing and composite action. In repeating member systems like wood framing, load sharing allows one member to share the weight with another or, in the event of a uniform load, carry part of the burden on a weaker member. When components are combined, a "composite member" with greater capacity and stiffness is formed. However, joining components impacts composite activity. Effective section modulus should exceed component members. The floor system is more composite when floor sheathing is connected and bonded to floor joists. Robust adhesive prevents shear slippage [5]. Shear stress slippage between components requires partial composite action, which uses assembly connection stiffness. Completely composite T-beam floor systems may be unconservative. Compared to conservative design that just considers floor joists without composite system effect. Sharing and partly composite action increase strength when design advice is provided. Because system impact varies based on system assembly and materials, establishing repeating member increase factors (also called system factors) for general design usage is challenging. To handle wide situations, general design system factors must be conservative. Accurately depicting system impacts requires precise assembly details and material specifications. However, system effects influence light-frame assemblies (including walls, floors, and roofs) beyond strength and stiffness. They also change how loads are carried between sophisticated wood-framed housing systems. "Because of the added dead load and resulting stresses," engineering practice doubles floor joists under non-load-bearing partition walls. It assumes a conservative load route and structural reaction. When linked to the ceiling and floor construction, the partition wall stiffens and acts as a deep beam. The internal wall resists floor deflection. The wall configuration (openings) and other factors determine the effect's size [6]. The partition wall improves the structural reaction of the floor system, allowing it to handle more dead and living than without it.this impact (Hurst,1965). This means that a second joist is unnecessary underneath a standard, non-load-bearing wall. It is possible that just one joist is needed if the floor sheeting is designed to hold up the dividing wall. This is something a designer has to keep in mind while making assumptions about how a light frame house will turn out. How horizontal and vertical stresses are distributed and resisted by a structure depends on the response of the structural system as a whole, not just its individual sections. Wood-framed structures may not use traditional engineering mechanics (single components with typical tributary regions and presumed elastic behaviour) and simplified load route assumptions.

1.3 Design Loads for the Residential Building

For a building to deliver a fair performance (i.e., safety and serviceability) throughout the course of its useful life, its designers must take into account the loads that it will be subjected to over the course of its lifetime. Use, configuration, and location determine projected loads. Design loads have an impact on the selection of materials, the planning of construction details, and the layout of buildings. Because building regulations regard design loads differently [7], Even though the design loads in this book are theoretically sound, the designer is responsible for identifying any discrepancies with local accepted practice and the applicable code.

1.3.1 Dead Loads:

Dead loads push down on roof, floor, wall, and foundation systems. Loads include claddings, finishes, and permanent machinery. A structure's "dead load" is the total of its static sections' loads during its lifetime. Among these parts are the steel pillars, the concrete flooring, the bricks, and the roofing materials. Through the use of the process of distributing the member's property, Staad Pro is able to automatically allocate the dead load that has to be moved. In the load scenario, you have the option to use self-weight, which is responsible for the automatic calculation of weights based on the properties of the material, namely its density. This choice is open to you. As a result of the application of dead load, the skeletal structure, which was previously blue, now appears red, as seen in the picture.

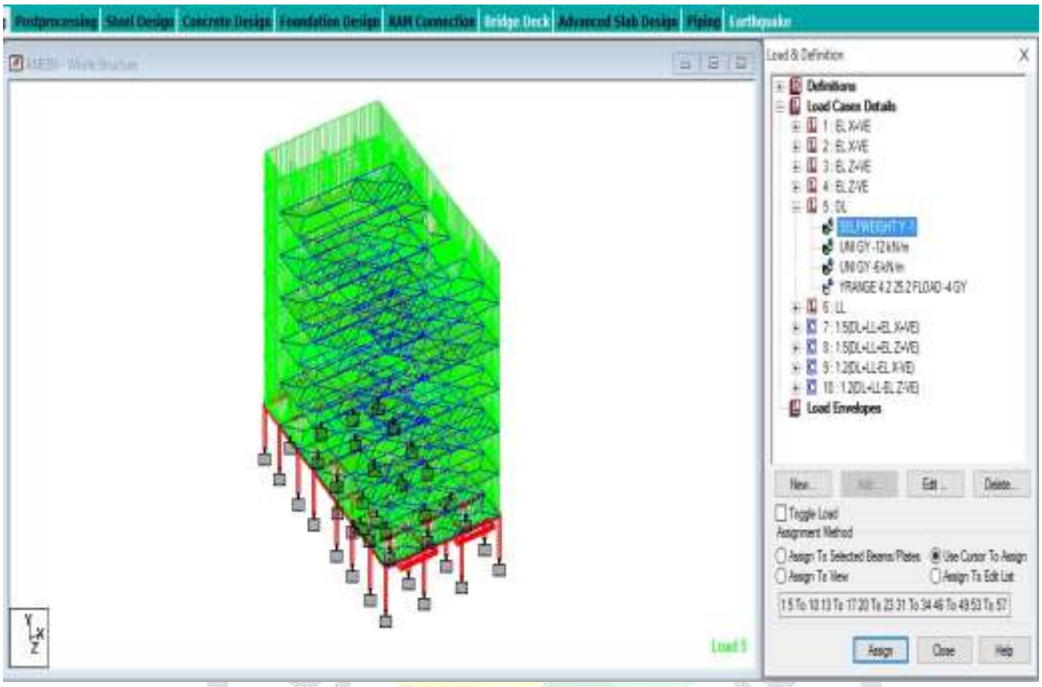

Fig 1 Illustration of how to calculate the dead load

Here is an example of how to calculate the dead load:

Dead load calculation

Weight=Volume x Density

Self-weight floor finish=0.12*25+1=3kn/m^2

The following is an example of dead load computation.

The dead load is determined in accordance with IS 875 part 1.

The accompanying diagram uses UNI GY -20.063N/mm to illustrate how the loads on a multistory building's masonry brick wall are defined.

1.3.2 Imposed Loads

Occupants produce live loads. Loads include people, furniture, no-fixed equipment, storage, construction, and maintenance. Loads are uniform area, concentrated, or uniform line loads, depending on the loading scenario. In a structural analysis, it is not advisable to apply both uniform and concentrated live loads at the same time [8]. For maximal load impact in endues situations, concentrated loads should be given to the smallest area or surface feasible, while still fitting the application. It's crucial to put weights like the 300-pound stair load squarely in the centre of the tread between the supports. Live load in staad is:

- *Floor load = 2.125KN/m* (as per IS 875 Part 2) (Incorporating floor finish, for use in residential construction)
- *Plate/Element Load = 2KN/m^2 (*Imposed/live load on slab)

We must create a live load scenario and choose all beams that can sustain it. Following the distribution of the live load, the structure takes on the appearance that is illustrated below.

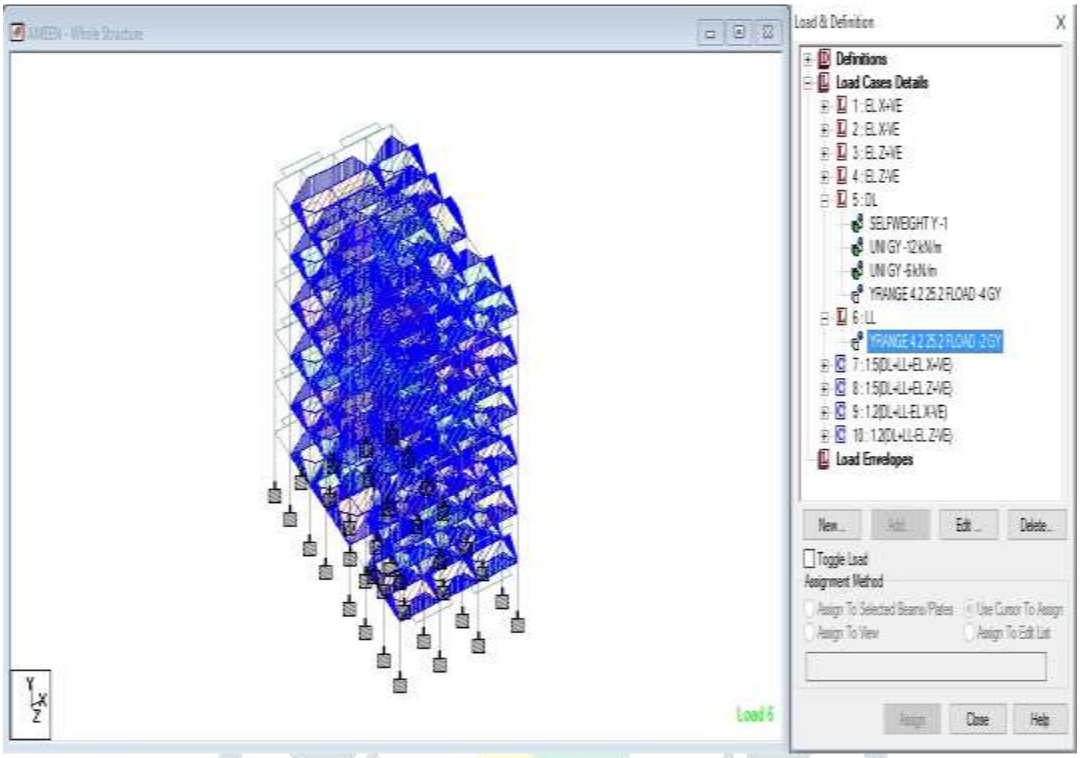

Fig. 2 Diagram of live loads

1.3.3 Earthquake Loads

Seismic or earthquake loads on a structure vary with its location, lateral stiffness, and mass, and may be felt in either direction. Its impact may be seen along any of a building's main axis, but each must be examined separately. The relationship between mass and velocity is used to calculate a force. Buildings contribute mass during earthquakes, whereas ground disturbances impart acceleration. The building's bulk should be minimised to provide the least possible force. The acceleration of the ground is a force of nature and hence beyond human control. Each floor's mass centre of gravity serves as the location where this internal force is exerted. If a force is applied, it must be met by an equal and opposite response. When a building encounters an inertial force, it pushes back, and this pushing force operates at the shear centre of the structure on each story.

There are two ways to figure out how strong an earthquake is in a particular structure:-

a) The seismic coefficient method or the static approach.
b) The spectral acceleration technique, the modal analysis method, the dynamic method, or the response spectrum method.

Response Spectra: In the context of earthquakes, The term "response spectrum" refers to the theoretical maximum response of a system with a single degree of freedom, a constant period of vibration, and a constant damping factor.

In the IS: 1893:2002 code, There has been a suggestion made for an elastic response spectrum for the (MCE) condition.

However, the seismic loads are more significant for this structure than the wind loads, and as a result, the seismic loads determine the design of the structure.

Design Spectrum

As can be seen of International Standard 1893, the nation is split up into four distinct seismic zones for the purpose of calculating the effects of earthquakes.

The following formulation is what has to be used to figure out a structure's horizontal seismic coefficient Ah for design purposes:

$$Ah = Z.I.Sa/2.R.g$$

In the event that any structure has a time constant of less than 0.1 second, the value of A_h cannot be less than Z/2 regardless of what the ratio of I/R is, and where:

Z = Maximum Considered Earthquake (MCE) zone factor and building service life. Dividing MCE zone factors by 2 yields DBE zone factors.

I = Importance element, characterized by hazardous implications of collapse, post-earthquake functional needs, historic worth, or economic relevance.

Based on whether ductile or brittle deformations are expected from the earthquake, a factor called R is used to reduce the response. specifies that the I/R ratio cannot be less than 1.0. Table 7 provides typical building R-values.

Sa/g = Based on adequate natural periods and structural damping, average reaction acceleration coefficient for rock or soil locations. These curves indicate ground free-field motion.

ZONE FACTOR (Z)

Seismic Zone	II	III	IV	V
Seismic Intensity	LOW	MODERATE	SEVERE	VERY SEVERE
Z	0.10	0.16	0.24	0.36

1.4 Force Calculation Based on Earthquake Design-Imposed Loads

the dead load and percentage of applied load needed to determine earthquake force for various loading classes.

The applied load on the roof does not need to be taken into consideration when calculating structure's design seismic forces. For floor loads up to, 25% of applied loads is suggested 3KN/m^2

Seismic Weight of Floors

Add a floor's dead load and applied load to calculate seismic weight. A building's seismic load is distributed over its levels by how equally its columns and walls weigh.

Seismic Weight of Building

Add each level's seismic weight to compute the structure's seismic weight. It is necessary for the weight that is supported between storeys to be transferred to the floors above and below in a manner that is inversely proportional to both the weight and the distance that is present between the floors.

Design Lateral Force

Parts of buildings and whole structures need to be planned and built so that they can withstand the lateral forces that are anticipated.

First, calculate the structure's lateral design force. Design lateral force must be distributed over storeys. Each level's lateral load resisting components get the design seismic force from the floor's diaphragm motion.

Design Seismic Base Shear

Design seismic base shear and total lateral design force (V_b) along any principal direction, the following formulation should be used.

$$V_b = A_h W$$

Where,

A_h = Using the basic natural time T, vibration direction, and seismic weight W of the structure, create a horizontal acceleration spectrum.

1.4.1 Seismic Loading in Staad Pro V8i:

Given that we are familiar with the earthquake load requirements, the following are the seismic weights that are provided by the Staad Pro V8i software *V8i* are as follows: -

- Determining the seismic parameters, which consist of the items listed below:
- Lucknow is located in Earthquake Zone IV (which corresponds to a Zone Factor of 0.24)
- Response Reduction Factor equal to five, (for Special RC moment-resisting frame (SMRF)
- Importance Factor = 1.0, (hospitals, schools, monumental structures, emergency buildings like telephone exchange, television stations, radio stations, railway stations, fire station buildings, major community halls like cinemas, assembly halls, tube stations, power stations, I = 1.5) Importance Factor = 1.0.
- Spectra of Reaction to Different Rock and Soil Conditions (SS) = 2, which stands for "for Medium Type Soil at 0.5% damping."
- The Type of Structure is equal to 1 (which stands for Reinforced Concrete Framed Structure).
- Damping Ratio = 0.5%
- The depth of the foundation is two meters

After that, the weights for the structure, which include the following, are specified.

SELFWEIGHT (indicates the total amount of dead weight)

PLATE WEIGHT is the measure of the live load that is supported by the slab.

MEMBER WEIGHT (also known as the weight of masonry bricks)

This is followed by a definition of the seismic load situation in the two perpendicular (X, Z) axes.

1.5 LOAD COMBINATIONS

The action of many load types on a structure leads to the formation of a combined load. Building standards frequently need numerous load combinations and load factors (weights) for each load type to ensure structural safety under varied maximum projected loading circumstances. The IS 875 Part 5 load combinations are considered.

Combining the loads (as described in IS 875 Parts 1–4 and earthquake) prudently, taking into account the likelihood of:

a) Their acting together, and

b) Their configuration in respect to other loads and the degree of stresses or strains

c) In order to provide the necessary safety and cost effectiveness in the planning and construction of a building, consideration of deformations generated by combinations of the different loads is essential.

Load Combinations- Therefore, the different loads should be mixed in a manner that is consistent with the requirements stipulated in the applicable design standards. The following should be considered in light of the lack of any such recommendations:

If there are many loading combinations, the one that has the most unfavourable impact on the structure, whether it be the building, the foundation, or a structural part, should be the one that is chosen (as a general rule). When considering load combinations, it is important to keep in mind that it is very unlikely that the maximum levels of all four types of loads—wind, earthquake, imposed, and snow—will all occur at the same time: -

1)	DL + LL
2)	DL + LL+ELX
3)	DL + LL + ELZ
4)	DL + LL -ELX
5)	DL + LL -ELZ
6)	1.5 (DL + LL)
7)	1.2 (DL +LL +ELX
8)	1.2(DL +LL -ELX)
9)	1.2(DL+LL+ELZ)
10)	1.2(DL + LL-ELZ)

In this case, the load factors according to IS 875 Part 5 are represented by the numbers 1.5, 1.2, and 1.0 respectively. The negative sign in the load combinations described above indicates the direction that is contrary to the scenario that was specified.

1.6 Conclusion

In this study, Load and Combination Load protection is of great importance in the design of high rise buildings. The design of a high-rise building can only be measured by estimating its weight and combination load correctly. Structural engineers create safe, functional structures. You must forecast the structure's lifetime loads to do so. Consider the chance of many load types being applied simultaneously. The profession has established design guidelines for loads and their likely combinations to ensure load forecast uniformity. These loads and combinations are not exhaustive. In your professional and peer judgement, you may need to surpass standards. Most, if not all, of the loads mentioned above will be experienced by many buildings at some point throughout their lifetimes. The next obstacle is finding a fair way to mix the burdens. It is unlikely that there would be a simultaneous maximum accumulation of all loads. For instance, during a design level wind storm, it would be unreasonable to anticipate a full live load in addition to a full snow load.

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