

ECONOMIC CONCRETE FRAME ELEMENTS

A pre-scheme design handbook for the rapid sizing and selection of reinforced concrete frame elements in multi-storey buildings

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FOREWORD

This publication was commissioned by the Reinforced Concrete Council, which was set up to promote better knowledge and understanding of reinforced concrete design and building technology. The Council's members are Co-Steel Sheerness plc and Allied Steel & Wire, representing the major suppliers of reinforcing steel in the UK, and the British Cement Association, representing the major manufacturers of Portland cement in the UK. Charles Goodchild is Senior Engineer for the Reinforced Concrete Council. He was responsible for the concept and management of this publication.

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The ideas and illustrations come from many sources. The help and guidance received from many individuals are gratefully acknowledged on the inside back cover.

BS 8110 Pt 1:1997

The charts and data in this publication were prepared to BS 8110, Pt 1: 1985, up to and including Amendment No 4. During production, BS 8110 Structural use of concrete: Part 1:1997 Code of practice for design and construction was issued. This incorporated all published amendments to the 1985 version plus Draft Amendments Nos. 5 and 6. In general, the nett effect of the changes is that slightly less reinforcement is required: preliminary studies suggest 2 to 3% less in in-situ slabs and beams and as much as 10% less in columns. Readers should be aware that some of the tables in the new Code have been renumbered.

The charts and data given in this publication remain perfectly valid for pre-scheme design.

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ECONOMIC CONCRETE FRAME ELEMENTS

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Intended as a pre-scheme design handbook, this publication will help designers choose the most viable concrete options quickly and easily. CONCEPT is a complementary computer program, available from the RCC, which facilitates rapid and semi-automatic investigation of a number of concrete options.

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1 INTRODUCTION

In conceiving a design for a multi-storey structure, there are, potentially, many options to be considered. The purpose of this publication is to help designers identify least-cost concrete options quickly. Its main objectives are, therefore, to:

- Present feasible, economic concrete options for consideration
- Provide preliminary sizing of concrete frame elements in multi-storey structures
- Provide first estimates of reinforcement quantities
- Outline the effects of using different types of concrete elements
- Help ensure that the right concrete options are considered for scheme design

This handbook contains charts and data that present economic sizes for many types of concrete elements over a range of common loadings and spans. The main emphasis is on floor plates as these commonly represent 85% of superstructure costs. A short commentary on each type of element is given. **This publication does not cover lateral stability.** It presumes that stability will be provided by other means (eg. by shear walls) and will be checked independently.

The charts and data work on loads:

Thus a conceptual design can be built up by following load paths down the structure. This is the basis for *CONCEPT* (1), a complementary personal computer-based conceptual design program, available from the RCC.

Generally, the sizes given correspond to the minimum total cost of concrete, formwork, reinforcement, perimeter cladding and cost of supporting self-weight and imposed loads whilst complying with the requirements of BS 8110, *Structural use of concrete* (2,3). The charts and data are primarily intended for use by experienced engineers who are expected to make judgements as to how the information is used. The charts and data are based on simple and idealised models (eg. for in-situ slabs and beams, they are based on moment and shear factors given in BS 8110). Engineers must assess the data in the light of their own experience, methods and concerns⁽⁴⁾ and the particular requirements of the project in hand.

This publication is intended as a handbook for the conceptual design of concrete structures in multistorey buildings. It cannot and should not be used for actual structural scheme design which should be undertaken by a properly experienced and qualified engineer. However, it should give other interested parties a 'feel' for the different options at a very early stage before an engineer sets forth with calculator or computer.

2.1 General

2.2 Limitations

2.2.1 GENERAL

In producing the charts and data many assumptions have been made. These assumptions are more fully described in Section 7, *Derivation of the charts and data* and in the charts and data themselves. The charts and data are valid only if these assumptions and restrictions hold true. They are intended for use with medium rise multi-storey building frames and structures by experienced engineers who are expected to make judgements as to how the information is used.

2.2.2 ACCURACY

The charts and data have been prepared using spreadsheets which optimised on theoretical overall costs (see Section 7.1.1). Increments of 2 mm depth were used to obtain smooth curves for the charts (nonetheless some manual smoothing was necessary). The use of 2 mm increments is not intended to instill some false sense of accuracy into the figures given. Rather, the user is expected to exercise engineering judgement and round up both loads and depths in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria being used and normal modular sizing. Thus, rather than using a 282 mm thick slab, it is intended that the user would actually choose a 285, 290 or 300 mm thick slab, confident in the knowledge that a 282 mm slab would work. Going up to, say, a 325 mm thick slab might add 5% to the overall cost of structure and cladding but might be warranted in certain circumstances.

2.2.3 SENSITIVITY

At pre-scheme design, it is unlikely that architectural layouts, finishes, services, etc. will have been finalized. Any options considered, indeed any structural scheme designs prepared, should therefore, not be too sensitive to minor changes that are inevitable during the design development and construction phases.

2.2.4 REINFORCEMENT DENSITIES

The data contain estimates of reinforcement (including tendons) densities. These are included for very preliminary estimates and comparative purposes only. They should be used with great caution (and definitely should not be used for contractual estimates of tonnages). Many factors beyond the scope of this publication can affect actual reinforcement quantities on specific projects. These include non-rectangular layouts, large holes, actual covers used, detailing preferences (curtailment, laps, wastage), and the unforseen complications that inevitably occur. Different methods of analysis alone can account for 15% of reinforcement weight. Choosing to use a 300 mm deep slab rather than the 282 mm depth described above could alter reinforcement tonnages by 10%.

The densities given in the data are derived from simple rectangular layouts, the RCC's interpretation of BS 8110, the spreadsheets (as described in Section 7), with allowances for curtailment (as described in BS 8110), and, generally, a 10% allowance for wastage and laps.

Additionally, in order to obtain smooth curves for the charts for narrow beams, ribbed slabs, troughed and waffle slabs, it proved necessary to use and quote densities based on A_s s required rather than A_s provided. It may be appreciated that the difference between these figures can be quite substantial for individual spans and loads.

2.2.5 COLUMNS

The design of columns depends on many criteria. In this publication, only axial loads and, to an extent, moment, have been addressed. The sizes given (especially for perimeter columns) should, therefore, be regarded as tentative until proved by scheme design.

2.2.6 STABILITY

One of the main design criteria is stability. **This handbook does not cover lateral stability, and presumes that stability will be provided by independent means (eg, by shear walls).**

2.3 General design criteria

2.3.1 SPANS AND LAYOUT

Spans are defined as being from centreline of support to centreline of support. Although square bays are to be preferred on grounds of economy, architectural requirements will usually dictate the arrangement of floor layouts and the positioning of supporting walls and columns. Pinned supports are assumed.

Particular attention is drawn to the need to resolve lateral stability, and the layout of stair and service cores, which can have a dramatic effect on the position of vertical supports. Service core floors tend to have large holes, greater loads but smaller spans than the main area of floor slab. Designs for the core and main floor should at least be compatible.

2.3.2 MAXIMUM SPANS

The charts and data should be interrogated at the maximum span of the member under consideration. Multiple-span continuous members are assumed to have equal spans with the end span being critical.

Often the spans will not be equal.The use of moment and shear factors from BS 8110, Pt $1^{(2)}$ is restricted to spans which do not differ by more than 15% of the longest span. The charts and data are likewise restricted. Nonetheless, the charts and data can be used beyond this limit, but with caution. Where end spans exceed inner spans by more than 15%, sizes should be increased to allow for, perhaps, 10% increase in moments. Conversely, where the outer spans are more than 15% shorter, sizes may be decreased. (For in-situ elements, apart from slabs for use with 2400 mm wide beams, users may choose to multiply a maximum internal span by 0.92 to obtain an effective span at which to interrogate the relevant chart (based on BS 8110, Pt $2^{(3)}$, Cl 3.7.2 assuming equal deflections in all spans, equal EI and $1/r_b \propto M$)).

2.3.3 LOADS

Client requirements and, via BS 6399(5), occupancy or intended use usually dictate the imposed loads to be applied to floor slabs. Finishes, services, cladding and layout of permanent partitions should be discussed with the other members of the design team in order that allowances (eg superimposed dead loads for slabs) can be determined. See Section 8.

2.3.4 INTENDED USE

Aspects such as provision for future flexibility, additional robustness, sound transmission, thermal mass etc. need to be considered, and can outweigh first-cost economic considerations.

2.3.5 STABILITY

Means of achieving lateral stability (eg. using core or shear walls or frame action) and robustness (eg. by providing effective ties) must be resolved. Walls tend to slow up production, and sway frames should be considered for low-rise multi-storey buildings. **This publication does not cover stability.**

2.3.6 FIRE RESISTANCE AND EXPOSURE

The majority of the charts are intended for use on 'normal' structures and are therefore based on 1 hour fire resistance and mild exposure. Where the fire resistance and exposure conditions are other than 'normal', some guidance is given within the data. For other conditions and elements the reader should refer to BS 8110 or, for precast elements, to manufacturers' recommendations.

Exposure is defined in BS 8110, Pt $1^{(2)}$ as follows:

or aggressive conditions. Moderate – concrete sheltered from driving rain; concrete sheltered from freezing while wet; concrete subject to condensation; concrete continuously under water and/or concrete in contact with non-aggressive soils.

Mild – concrete surfaces protected against weather

Severe – concrete surfaces exposed to severe rain, alternate wetting and drying or occasional freezing, or severe condensation.

2.3.7 AESTHETIC REQUIREMENTS

Aesthetic requirements should be discussed. If the structure is to be exposed, a realistic strategy to obtain the desired standard of finish should be formulated and agreed by the whole team. For example, ribbed slabs can be constructed in many ways: in-situ using polypropylene, GRP or expanded polystyrene moulds; precast as ribbed slabs or as double 'T's; or by using combinations of precast and in-situ concrete. Each method has implications on the standard of finish and cost.

2.3.8 SERVICE INTEGRATION

Services and structural design must be co-ordinated.

Horizontal distribution of services must be integrated with structural design. Allowances for ceiling voids, especially at beam locations, and/or floor service voids should be agreed. Above false ceilings, level soffits allow easy distribution of services. Although downstand beams may disrupt service runs they can create useful room for air-conditioning units, ducts and their crossovers,

Main vertical risers will usually require large holes, and special provisions should be made in core areas. Other holes may be required in other areas of the floor plate to accommodate pipes, cables, rain water outlets, lighting, air ducts, etc. These holes may significantly affect the design of slabs, eg. flat slabs with holes adjacent to columns. In any event, procedures must be established to ensure that holes are structurally acceptable.

2.4 Feasible options

2.4.1 GENERAL PRINCIPLES

Concrete can be used in many different ways and often many different configurations are feasible. However, market forces, project requirements and site conditions affect the relative economics of each option. The chart on page 8 has been prepared to show the generally accepted economic ranges of various types of floor under 'normal' conditions.

Minimum material content alone does not necessarily give the best value or most economic solution in overall terms. Issues such as buildability, repeatability, simplicity, aesthetics, thermal mass and, notably, speed must all be taken into account. Whilst a superstructure may only represent 10% of new build costs, it has a critical influence on the whole construction process and ensuing programme. Time-related costs, especially those for multi-storey structures, have a dramatic effect on the relative economics of particular types of construction.

2.4.2 THE CHOICE

Concrete floor slabs: typical economic span ranges

Note: All subject to market conditions and project specific requirements

Briefly, the main differences between types of construction may be summarised as follows:

One-way slabs (solid or ribbed)

Economic over wide range but supporting downstand beams affect overall economics, speed of construction and service distribution.

Flat slabs

With flat soffits, quick and easy to construct and usually most economic, but holes, deflection and punching shear require detailed consideration.

Troughed slabs

Slightly increased depths, formwork costs and programme durations offset by lighter weight, longer spans and greater adaptability.

Band beam and slab

Very useful for long spans in rectangular panels - popular for car parks.

Two-way slabs

Robust with large span and load capacities - popular for retail premises and warehouses, but downstand beams disrupt construction and services.

Waffle slabs

May be slow, but can be useful for larger spans and aesthetics.

Precast and composite slabs

Widely available and economic across a wide range of spans and loads. Speed and quality on site may be offset by lead-in times.

Post-tensioned slabs and beams

Extend the economic span range of in-situ slabs and beams, especially useful where depth is critical.

2.4.3 HYBRIDS

Whilst the charts and data have been grouped into insitu, precast and composite, and post-tensioned concrete construction, the load information is interchangeable. In other words, hybrid options⁽⁷⁾ such as precast floor units onto in-situ beams can be investigated by sizing the precast units and applying the appropriate ultimate load to the appropriate width and type of beam.

2.5 Determine slab thickness

Determine economic thickness from the appropriate chart(s) or data using the maximum span and appropriate **characteristic** imposed load (IL). The charts illustrate thicknesses given in the data. The user is expected to interpolate between values of imposed load given and to round up both the depth and ultimate loads to supports in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria used and normal modular sizing.

The design imposed load should be determined from BS 6399, Design loadings for buildings, Pt 1⁽⁵⁾, the intended use of the building and the client's requirements, and should then be agreed with the client. The slab charts highlight the following characteristic imposed loads:

The charts and data assume $1.50 \, \text{kN/m}^2$ for superimposed dead loading (SDL). If the actual superimposed dead loading differs from 1.50 kN/m², the characteristic imposed load used for interrogating the charts and data should be adjusted to an equivalent imposed load, which can be estimated from the following table. See Section 8.1.

Equivalent imposed loads, kN/m2

It should be noted that most types of slabs require beam support. However, flat slabs, in general, do not. Charts and data for flat slabs work on **characteristic** imposed load but give **ultimate** axial loads to supporting columns. Troughed slabs and waffle slabs (designed as two-way slabs with integral beams and level soffits) incorporate beams and the information given assumes beams of specified widths within the overall depth of the slab. These charts and data, again, work on **characteristic** imposed load, but give **ultimate** loads to supporting columns. The designs for these slabs assumed a perimeter cladding load of 10 kN/m.

The data include some information on economic thicknesses of two-way slabs and flat slabs with rectangular panels. The user may, with caution, interpolate from this information.

2.6 Determine beam sizes

For assumed web widths, determine economic depths from appropriate charts using maximum spans and appropriate **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl).

The beam charts 'work' on **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl) in kN/m. The user must calculate or estimate this line load for each beam considered. This load includes the ultimate reaction from slabs and ultimate applied line loads such as cladding or partitions which are to be carried by the beam. Self-weight of beams is allowed for within the beam charts and data. See Section 8.2.

For internal beams, this load usually results from supporting slabs alone: the load can be estimated by interpolating from the slab's data and, if necessary, adjusting the load to suit actual, rather than assumed, circumstances (eg. two-span rather than three-span assumed – see Section 8.2.2).

Perimeter beams typically support end spans of slabs and perimeter cladding. Again, slab loads can be interpolated from the data for slabs. Ultimate cladding loads and any adjustments required for beam self-weight should be estimated and added to the slab loads, see Section 8.2.3.

The user can interpolate between values given in the charts and is expected to adjust and round up both the loads and depth in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria used and normal modular sizing.

Beams supporting two-way slabs

In broad outline the same principles can be applied to beams supporting two-way slabs. See Section 8.2.4.

Point loads

Whilst this publication is intended for investigating uniformly distributed loads, central point loads can be investigated, with caution, by assuming an equivalent ultimate applied uniformly distributed load of twice the ultimate applied point load/span, kN/m.

2.6.1 IN-SITU BEAMS

The charts for in-situ reinforced beams cover a range of web widths and **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl), and are divided into:

Rectangular beams: eg. isolated or upstand beams, beams with no flange, beams not homogeneous with supported slabs

Inverted 'L' beams: eg. perimeter beams with top flange one side of the web

'T' beams:eg. internal beams with top flange both sides of the web

The user must determine which is appropriate. For instance, a 'T' beam that is likely to have large holes in the flange at mid-span can be derated from a 'T' to an 'L' or even to a rectangular beam.

2.6.2 PRECAST BEAMS

The charts and data for precast reinforced beams cover a range of web widths and **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl), and are divided into:

Rectangular beams: ie. isolated or upstand beams

'L' beams:eg. perimeter beams supporting hollow core floor units

(Inverted) 'T' beams: eg. internal beams supporting hollow core floor units

The charts assume that the beams are simply supported and non-composite, ie. no flange action or benefit from

temporary propping is assumed. The user must determine which form of beam is appropriate.

2.6.3 POST-TENSIONED BEAMS

The first set of charts for post-tensioned beams assumes 1000 mm wide rectangular beams with no flange action. Other post-tensioned beam widths can be investigated on a pro-rata basis, ie. ultimate load per metre width of web (see Section 8.2.5). Additionally data are presented for 2400 mm wide 'T' beams assuming full flange action.

2.7 Determine column sizes

The charts are divided into internal, edge and (external) corner columns at different percentages of reinforcement contents. The square size of column required can be interpolated from the appropriate chart(s) using the total **ultimate axial** load at the lowest level and, in the case of perimeter columns, number of storeys supported.

The total **ultimate axial** load, N, is the summation of beam (or two-way floor system) reactions and column self-weight from the top level to the level under consideration (usually bottom). Ideally, this load should be calculated from first principles (see Section 8.3). In accordance with BS 6399, table 2, live loads might be reduced. However, to do so is generally unwarranted in pre-scheme design of low-rise structures. Sufficient accuracy can be obtained by approximating the load to be as follows:

N = {(ult. load from beams per level or ult. load from two-way slab system per level) + ultimate self-weight of column per level} x no. of floors

For schemes using beams

Beams reactions can be read or interpolated from the data for beams. Reactions in two orthogonal directions should be considered, eg. perimeter columns may provide end support for an internal beam and internal support for a perimeter beam. Usually the weight of cladding will have been allowed for in the loads on perimeter beams (see Section 8.2). If not, or if other loads are envisaged, due allowance must be made.

For schemes using two-way floor systems

Two-way floor systems (ie. flat slabs, troughed slabs and waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs with integral beams and level soffits) either do not require beams or else include prescribed beams.Their data include ultimate loads or reactions to supporting columns. These loads assume a cladding load of 10 kN/m (ie. 14 kN/m ultimate). NB: some reactions are expressed as meganewtons (MN, ie.1000 kN).

Roofs

Other than in areas of mechanical plant, roof loadings seldom exceed floor loadings. For the purposes of estimating column loads, loads from concrete roofs may be equated to those from a normal floor, and loads from a lightweight roof can be taken as a proportion of a normal floor. Around perimeters, an adjustment should be made for the usual difference in height of cladding at roof level.

2.8 Identify best value option(s)

Having determined sizes of elements, the quantities of concrete and formwork can be calculated and reinforcement estimated. By applying rates for each material, a rudimentary cost comparison of the feasible options can be made. Concrete, formwork and reinforcement in floor plates constitute up to 90% of superstructure costs. Due allowances for market conditions, site constraints, differences in time scales, cladding and foundation costs should be included when determining best value and the most appropriate option(s) for further study.

2.9 Visualize the construction process

Imagine how the structure will be constructed. Consider buildability and the principles of value engineering. Consider time-scales, the flow of labour, plant and materials. Whilst a superstructure may represent only 10% of new build costs, it has a critical influence on the construction process and ensuing programme. Consider the impact of the superstructure options on service integration, also types, sizes and programme durations of foundations and substructures.

2.10 Prepare scheme design(s)

Once preferred options have been identified, full scheme design should be undertaken by a suitably experienced engineer to confirm and refine sizes and reinforcement estimates. These designs should be forwarded to the remaining members of the design team, eg. the architect for co-ordination and dimensional control, and the cost consultant for budget costing.

The final choice of frame type should be a joint decision between client, design team, and whenever possible, contractor.

2.11Examples

2.11.1 SLABS

Estimate the thickness of a continuous multiple span one-way solid slab spanning 7.0 m supporting an imposed load of 2.5 kN/m2, and superimposed dead load of 3.2 kN/m2

From Section 2.5 or 8.1, equivalent imposed load is estimated to be 4.0 kN/m². From chart (p 16), depth required is estimated to be 220 mm.

Alternatively, interpolating from one-way solid slab data (p 17), multiple span, at 4 kN/m², between 2.5 (208 mm) and 5 kN/m2 (226 mm), then:

thickness = $208 + (226 - 208) \times (4.0 - 2.5)/(5.0 - 2.5)$ $= 208 + 18 \times 0.6$ = 219 mm, say, 220 mm

Answer: 220 mm thick solid slab.

2.11.2 INTERNAL BEAMS

Estimate the size of internal continuous beams spanning 8.0 m required to support the solid slab in example 2.11.1 above.

Interpolating from one-way solid slab data (p 17), multiple span, at 4 kN/m², between 2.5 (101 kN/m) and 5 kN/m2 (136 kN/m), then:

```
load = 101 + (4.0 - 2.5) \times (136 - 101)/(5.0 - 2.5)= 122 kN/m
```
This value assumes an elastic reaction factor of 1.1 is appropriate (see Section 8.2.2). Interpolating from the chart for, say, a 'T' beam web 900 mm wide multiple span (p 68) at 8.0 m span and between loads of 100 kN/m (408 mm) and 200 kN/m (586 mm, singly reinforced), then:

```
depth = 408 + (586 - 408) \times (122 - 100)/(200 - 100)= 408 + 39= 447 mm
```
Answer: say, 900 mm wide by 450 mm deep internal beams.

2.11.3 PERIMETER BEAMS

Estimate the perimeter beam sizes for the slab in the examples above. Perimeter curtain wall cladding weighs 3.0 kN/m (characteristic) per storey.

For perimeter beam perpendicular to slab span. Interpolating end support reaction from one-way solid slab chart and data (p 17), multiple span, at 4 kN/m², between 2.5 (46 kN/m) and 5 kN/m2 (62 kN/m), then:

Beam size: interpolating from 'L' beam chart and data, multiple span, say, 450 mm web width (p57), at 60 kN/m over 8 m. At 50 kN/m suggested depth is 404 mm; at 100 kN/m (662 mm), then:

depth required $= 404 + 20\%$ x (662 - 404) $= 456$ mm

For perimeter beams parallel to slab span. Allow, say, 1.0 m of slab, then:

Beam size: reading from 'L' beam chart and data, multiple span, say, 225 mm web width, at 25 kN/m over 7.0 m, suggested depth is 360 mm.

Answer: for edges perpendicular to slab span, use 450 x 460 mm deep edge beams; for edges parallel to slab span, 225 x 360 mm deep edge beams can be used. For simplicity, use 450 x 460 mm deep, say, 450 x 450 mm deep edge beams all round.

Commentary: for buildability, a wider shallower beam might be more appropriate.

2.11.4 COLUMNS

Estimate the column sizes for the above examples assuming a three-storey structure and floor-tofloor height of 3.5 m.

Loads

Beam reactions by interpolating data (pp 68 and 60)

Note:

Figure interpolated from data and no adjustment made for elastic reactions (see Section 8.3.2). Alternatively, this load may be calculated:

Self-weight of column

Assume 450 mm square columns and 3.5 m storey height, from table in Section 8.3.3, allow 25 kN or calculate:

0.45 x 0.45 x 3.5 x 24 x 1.4 = 23.8kN, say, 25 kN/floor

Total ultimate axial loads in the columns: Internal

 $(1035 + 0 + 25)$ kN x 3 storeys = 3180 kN, say, 3200 kN.

Estimating column sizes from charts

Internal columns, p 74, for 3200 kN

A 440 mm square column would require approximately 1% reinforcement. A 395 mm square column would require approximately 2% reinforcement. Try 400 mm square with 2% reinforcement provided by (from p 75) 8T25s, approximately 285 kg/m³.

Edge columns, pp 76 and 77, for 1900 kN over 3 storeys Estimated sizes: 535 mm square @ 2% or 385 mm square @ 3%. Try 450 mm square with 2.6% reinforcement provided by (from p 80) 12T32s, approximately 536 kg/m³.

Corner columns, pp 78 and 79, for 1000 kN over 3 storeys Estimated sizes: 530 mm square @ 2% or 435 mm square @ 3%. Try 450 mm square @ 2.8% reinforcement, 12T32s as above.

Answer: suggested column sizes: internal 400 mm square perimeter450 mm square

Commentary: the perimeter columns are critical to this scheme option. If this scheme is selected, these columns should be checked by design. Nonetheless, compared with the design assumptions made for the column charts, the design criteria for these particular columns do not appear to be harsh. It is probable that all columns could therefore be rationalized to, say, 450 mm square, without the need for undue amounts of reinforcement.

Perimeter beams would be rationalized at 450 wide, to match perimeter columns, by 450 mm deep. Internal beams would be 900 mm wide and 450 mm deep.

2.11.5 FLAT SLAB SCHEME

Estimate the sizes of columns and slabs in a sevenstorey building, five bays by five bays, 3.3 m floor to floor. The panels are 7.5 m x 7.5 m. Characteristic imposed load is 5.0 kN/m2, and superimposed dead load 1.5 kN/m2. Curtain wall glazing is envisaged. Approximately how much reinforcement would there be in such a superstructure?

Slab

Interpolating from the solid flat slab chart and data, p 37, at 5.0 kN/ $m²$ and 7.5 m, the slab should be 282, say, 285 mm thick with approximately 109 kg/m³ of reinforcement.

Columns

The minimum square sizes of columns should be 400 mm (from p 37, at 5.0 kN/m², average of 370 mm at 7 m and 430 mm at 8 m) internally and 355 mm (from p 37, average of 330 mm at 7 m and 380 mm at 8 m) around the perimeter to avoid punching shear problems.

From the flat slab data, ultimate load to **internal** column is 1.1 MN, ie. 1100 kN per floor. Allowing 25 kN/floor for ultimate self-weight of column, total axial load $=$ (1100 $+ 25$) x 7 = 7875 kN. From internal column chart, p 74, at 8000 kN, the internal columns could be 600 mm square, ie. greater than required to avoid punching shear problems. They would require approximately 2.5% reinforcement, ie. from p 75, 12T32s, about 318 kg/m³, including links.

From the flat slab data, ultimate load to **edge** columns is 0.7 MN, ie. 700 kN per floor. This includes a cladding load of 10 kN/m whereas 2.0 kN/m might be more appropriate. Therefore deduct (10.0 - 2.0) x 7.5 x 1.4 = 84 kN ultimate per floor. Allowing 25 kN/floor for ultimate self-weight of column, total axial load = $(700 +$ 25 - 84) x 7 = 4487 kN. Interpolating from edge column charts, pp 76 and 77, at 4500 kN and at seven stories, the edge columns could be 565 mm square at 2% reinforcement or 475 mm square at 3%.

Checking **corner** columns: load per floor will be approximately:

Floor less cladding

From corner column charts at 2400 kN, pp 78 and 79, these columns could be 555 mm square at 2% reinforcement or 460 mm at 3%.

For the sake of buildability, make all perimeter columns the same size as internal columns, ie. 600 mm square. This size avoids punching shear problems, and would require approximately 1.8% (effective) reinforcement. From the chart on p 80, allow for 12T32s, at a density of 318 kg/m3.

Walls

From p 112 assuming 200 mm thick walls, reinforcement density is approximately 80 kg/m³.

Stairs

From p 113 say 5 m span and 4.0 kN/m2 imposed load, reinforcement density is approximately 30 kg/m² (assume landings included with floor slab estimate).

Answer: use 285 mm flat slabs and 600 mm square columns throughout. Reinforcement quantities for the superstructure would be in the order of 445 tonnes.

Commentary: this example is based on the M4C7 building in the RCC's Cost Model Study(6) which used 300 mm thick flat slabs and 700 mm square columns. The estimated tonnage of of reinforcement in the superstructure was 452 tonnes. Further work on the Cost Model Study indicated that a 285 mm slab gives the least-cost solution (albeit with little scope for further design development).

More detailed analysis (including live load reduction) revealed that internal columns could be 500 mm square at 3.4% reinforcement (12T32s) and perimeter columns 450 mm at 2.1% (8T32s)

3 IN-SITU CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION

Combined Operations Centre, Heathrow, under construction

3.1 Slabs

3.1.1 USING IN-SITU SLABS

In-situ slabs offer economy, versatility, mouldability, fire resistance, sound attenuation, thermal capacity and robustness. They can easily accommodate large and small service holes, fixings for suspended services and ceilings, and cladding support details. Also, they can be quick and easy to construct. Each type has implications on overall costs, speed, self-weight, storey heights and flexibility in use: the relative importance of these factors must be assessed in each particular case.

3.1.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The charts and data give overall depths against spans for a range of **characteristic** imposed loads (IL). An allowance of 1.5 kN/m2 has been made for superimposed dead loads (finishes, services, etc).

Where appropriate, the charts and data are presented for both single simply supported spans and the end span of three continuous spans. Continuity allows the use of thinner, more economic slabs. However, depths can often be determined by the need to allow for single spans in parts of the floor plate.

In general, charts and data assume that the slabs have line support (ie. beams or walls). The size of beams required can be estimated by noting the load to supporting beams and referring to the appropriate beam charts. See Section 2.6

Two-way slab systems (ie. flat slabs, troughed slabs and waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs with integral beams) do not, generally, need separate consideration of beams. In these cases, the ultimate load to supporting columns is given. An allowance of 10 kN/m characteristic load has been made around perimeters to allow for the self-weight of cladding (approximately the weight of a traditional brick-and-block cavity wall with 25% glazing and 3.5 m floor-to-floor height; see Section 8.2.3.

Flat slabs are susceptible to punching shear around columns: the sizes of columns supporting flat slabs should therefore be checked. The charts and data include the minimum sizes of column for which the slab thickness is valid. The charts and data assume one 150 mm hole adjoining each column. Larger holes adjacent to columns may invalidate the flat slab charts and data unless column sizes are increased appropriately.

3.1.3 DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Design

The charts and data are based on moment and shear factors in BS 8110, Pt $1^{(2)}$ tables 3.6 and 3.13 assuming end spans are critical.

In order to satisfy defection criteria, service stress, f_s , is, in very many cases, reduced (to as low as 200 N/mm2) by increasing steel contents.

Reinforcement

Concrete

Main reinforcement, $f_y = 460 \text{ N/mm}^2$. Links, $f_y = 250 \text{ N/mm}^2$.

For reinforcement quantities, see Section 2.2.4.

C35, 24 $kN/m³$, 20 mm aggregate. *Fire and durability*

Fire resistance 1 hour; mild exposure.

Variations from the above assumptions and assumptions for the individual types of slab are described in the relevant data. Other assumptions made are described and discussed in Section 7, *Derivation of charts and data.*

One-way solid slabs

One-way in-situ solid slabs are the most basic form of slab. Deflection usually governs the design, and steel content is usually increased to reduce service stress and increase span capacity.

Generally employed for utilitarian purposes in office buildings, retail developments, warehouses, stores, etc. Can be economical for spans from 4 to 8 m.

ADVANTAGES

- Simple
- Holes cause few structural problems

DISADVANTAGES

• Associated downstand beams may require greater storey height, deter fast formwork cycles and compromise flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTING BEAMS, INTERNAL (END), kN/m

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: differences in slab thickness for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 5.0 kN/m2

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: differences in slab thickness for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 5.0 kN/m2

One-way slabs for use with 2400 mm wide band beams only

(One-way slabs with wide beams)

Used in car parks, schools, shopping centres, offices, etc. where spans in one direction are predominant and live loads are relatively light.

Slabs effectively span between edges of the relatively wide and shallow band beams; slab depth and overall depth of floor are thus minimized. Perimeter beams often take the form of upstands.

Economic for slab spans up to 9 m (centreline support to centreline support) and band beam spans up to 15 m in reinforced concrete (see pp 64 and 71) or up to 18 m using post- tensioned concrete (see pp 110 and 111). Thicknesses are typically governed by deflection and, to suit formwork, by ideally restricting the downstands of beams to 150 mm.

ADVANTAGES

- Medium range spans
- Simple
- Large and small holes can be accommodated
- **Fast**
- Amenable to simple distribution of horizontal services

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

(One-way joists)

ADVANTAGES

- Medium to long spans
- **Lightweight**
- Holes in topping easily accommodated
- Large holes can be accommodated
- Profile may be expressed architecturally, or used for heat transfer in passive cooling

Introducing voids to the soffit of a slab reduces dead weight and increases the efficiency of the concrete section. A slightly deeper section is required but these stiffer floors facilitate longer spans and provision of holes. Economic in the range 8 to 12 m.

The saving of materials tends to be offset by some complication in formwork. The advent of expanded polystyrene moulds has made the choice of trough profile infinite and largely superseded the use of standard T moulds. Ribs should be at least 125 mm wide to suit reinforcement detailing.

The chart and data assume line support (ie. beam or wall) and bespoke moulds.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for other slab systems
- Slightly greater floor thicknesses
- Slower

600 Single span 500 400 Multiple span 300 250 mm practical minimumE *SLAB DEPTH,* mm **200** SLAB DEPTH, **100 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0 13.0 14.0** *SPAN,* m *KEY* **Characteristic imposed load (IL)** $= 2.5$ kN/m² $= 5.0$ kN/m² $= 7.5$ kN/m² $= 10.0$ kN/m²

T4 mould, 325 deep 415 415 450 T5 mould, 400 deep 490 524

Ribbed slabs for use with 2400 mm wide band beams only

(One-way joists with wide beams)

ADVANTAGES

- Medium to long spans
- **Lightweight**
- Holes in topping easily accommodated (but avoid beams)
- Large holes can be accommodated

As with solid slab arrangements, the band beam has a relatively wide, shallow cross section which reduces the overall depth of floor while permitting longer spans.

Used in car parks, offices, etc. where spans in one direction are predominant and live loads are relatively light. Slab spans up to 10 m (centreline support to centreline support) with beam spans up to 16 m are economic.

Charts and data assume wide beam support, minimum 100 or 180 mm downstand, and bespoke moulds. For beam thicknesses refer to pp 64, 71, 110 or 111). Thicknesses are typically governed by deflection and, to suit formwork, by restricting the downstands of beams.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for other slab systems
- Slightly greater floor heights
- **Slower**

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTING BEAMS, INTERNAL (END), kN/m2

ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTING BEAMS, INTERNAL (END), kN/m2

 $IL = 10.0$ kN/m²

IL = 7.5 kN/m² 258 290 326 366 422 492

Troughed slabs

(Ribbed slabs with integral beams and level soffits, troughed flat slabs, one-way joist floors)

ADVANTAGES

- Longer spans than one-way solid or flat slabs
- **Lightweight**
- Level soffit
- Profile may be expressed architecturally, or used for heat transfer
- Holes in ribbed slab areas cause little or no problem

Troughed slabs are popular in spans up to 12 m as they combine the advantages of ribbed slabs with level soffits.

Economic depths depend on the widths of beams used. Deflection is usually critical to the design of the beams, which, therefore, tend to be wide and heavily reinforced. The chart and data assume internal beam widths of beam span/3.5, perimeter beam width of beam span/9 plus column width/2. They include an allowance for an edge loading of 10 kN/m. *(See also Ribbed slabs).*

In rectangular panels, the ribbed slab should usually span the longer direction.

DISADVANTAGES

• Higher formwork costs than plain soffits

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Beam span = 9.0 m 8.0 8.3 8.6 9.0 9.4 10.6 11.5 Beam span = 10.0 m 9.0 9.3 9.6 9.8 10.0 10.5 11.5 Beam span = 11.0 m 10.2 10.5 10.5 10.7 10.9 11.0 11.6 Beam span = 12.0 m 10.9 11.1 11.3 11.5 11.6 11.9 12.0

Two-way solid slabs

Two-way in-situ solid slabs are utilitarian and generally used for retail developments, warehouses, stores, etc. Economical for more heavily loaded spans from 9 to 12 m, but difficult to form when used with a grid of downstand beams.

Design is usually governed by deflection. Steel content is usually increased to reduce service stress and increase span capacity.

ADVANTAGES

• Economical for longer spans and high loads

DISADVANTAGES

- Presence of beams may require greater storey height
- Requires a regular column layout
- Grid of downstand beams deters fast formwork recycling
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution may be compromised.

Waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs (standard moulds)

ADVANTAGES

- Medium to long spans
- **Lightweight**
- Profiles may be expressed architecturally, or used for heat transfer

Introducing voids to the soffit reduces dead weight and these deeper, stiffer floors permit longer spans which are economic for spans between 9 and 14 m. The saving of materials tends to be offset by complication in site operations.

Standard moulds are 225, 325 and 425 mm deep and are used to make ribs 125 mm wide on a 900 mm grid. Toppings are between 50 and 150 mm thick.

The chart and data assume surrounding and supporting downstand beams, which should be subject to separate consideration, and solid margins. Both waffles and downstand beams complicate formwork.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for other slab systems
- Slightly deeper members result in greater floor heights
- Slow. Difficult to prefabricate reinforcement

600 500 Multiple span400 300 E *SLAB DEPTH,* mm SLAB DEPTH, **200 8.17.2 9.0 9.9 10.8 11.7 12.6 13.5 14.4** *SPAN,* m *KEY* **Characteristic imposed load (IL)** $= 2.5$ kN/m² $= 5.0$ kN/m² $= 7.5$ kN/m² $= 10.0$ kN/m²

Waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs (bespoke moulds)

ADVANTAGES

- Medium to long spans
- **Lightweight**
- Profile may be expressed architecturally, or used for heat transfer

Bespoke moulds make the choice of profile infinite, but their cost will generally be charged to the particular project. Polypropylene, GRP or expanded polystyrene moulds can be manufactured to suit particular requirements and obtain overall economy in spans up to 16 m.

Minimum width of rib usually 125 mm, although 150 mm may be more practical to suit reinforcement detailing on longer spans. Minimum topping thickness is usually 90 mm to suit fire requirements.

The chart and data assume a 900 mm grid and solid margins adjacent to beams. Supporting downstand beams complicate formwork.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for standard moulds and other slab systems
- Slightly deeper members result in greater floor heights
- Slow. Difficult to prefabricate reinforcement

Short span = 13.5 m 13.5 13.6 13.7 13.9 14.1 14.3

Waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs with integral beams and level soffits (standard moulds)

ADVANTAGES

- Medium spans
- **Lightweight**
- Level soffit
- Profile may be expressed architecturally, or used for heat transfer

These slabs are popular in spans up to 10 m. They combine the advantages of waffle slabs with those of level soffits.

Standard moulds are 225, 325 and 425 mm deep and are used with toppings between 50 and 150 mm thick. The ribs are 125 mm wide on a 900 mm grid.

Depth is governed by deflection of the beams, which, therefore, tend to be heavily reinforced. The chart and data assume internal beams at least 1925 mm wide (ie. two waffles wide) and perimeter beams at least 962 mm (ie. one waffle) plus column width/2, wide. They include an allowance for an edge loading of 10 kN/m.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for plain soffits
- Slow. Difficult to prefabricate reinforcement

Span, m 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0

Short span = 5.4 m 325 325 359 525 525
Short span = 6.3 m 325 333 425 425 525 Short span = 6.3 m 325 333 425 425 525
Short span = 7.2 m 347 347 425 431 475 Short span = 7.2 m 347 347 425 431 475 550 Short span = 8.1 m 425 425 441 525 563 Short span = 9.0 m
Short span = 9.9 m
Short span = 9.9 m

225 ribs @ 1000 cc 325 325 367 425 525 571 **Rectangular panels: economic thickness, mm Long span, m 7.2 8.1 9.0 9.9 10.8 11.7 12.6**

Short span $= 9.9$ m

Waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs with integral beams and

level soffits (bespoke moulds)

• Profile may be expressed architecturally, or used for

These slabs are popular in spans up to 10 m as they combine the advantages of bespoke waffle slabs with level soffits. Bespoke moulds can overcome the dimensional and aesthetic restrictions imposed by standard moulds. However, site operations remain complicated.

Economic depths are a function of the beam width. The beams are governed by deflection and, therefore, tend to be heavily reinforced. The ribs are a minimum of 125 mm wide.

For simplicity, the chart and data assume a 900 mm grid, internal beams at least 1925 mm wide (ie. two waffles wide) and perimeter beams at least 962 mm (ie. one waffle) plus column width/2, wide. They include an allowance for an edge loading of 10 kN/m.

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for standard moulds and other slab systems
- Slightly deeper members result in greater floor heights
- Slow. Difficult to prefabricate reinforcement

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

heat transfer

ADVANTAGES • Medium spans **Lightweight**

Short span =11.7 m 11.7 11.9

Flat slabs

(Solid flat slabs. Flat plates in US and Australia)

ADVANTAGES

- Simple and fast formwork and construction
- Absence of beams allows lower storey heights
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution
- Architectural finish can be applied directly to the underside of slab

Flat slabs are quick and easy to construct but punching shear, deflections and holes around columns need to be considered. Nonetheless, flat slabs are popular for office buildings, hospitals, hotels, blocks of flats, etc. as they are quick, allow easy service distribution and are very economical for square panels with a span of 5 to 9 m.

The chart and data assume a perimeter loading of 10 kN/m and one 150 mm hole adjacent to each column. They assume column sizes will at least equal those given in the data

DISADVANTAGES

- Holes can prove difficult, especially large holes near columns
- Shear provision around columns may need to be resolved using larger columns, column heads, drop panels or proprietary systems
- Deflections, especially of edges supporting cladding, may cause concern

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Short span = 6.0 m 6.0 6.5 7.0 7.7 8.4 9.3 10.1 Short span = 7.0 m 7.0 7.5 8.0 8.7 9.5 10.3 Short span = 8.0 m 8.0 8.5 9.0 9.7 10.5 Short span = 9.0 m d = 9.0 m = 9.0 short span = 9.0 and 9.0 and 9.0 ± 9.5 10.0 ± 10.7 Short span =10.0 m 10.0 11.1 compared to the c Short span =11.0 m 11.6 11.6

Flat slabs with drops

(Flat slab in US and Australia)

ADVANTAGES

- Relatively simple and fast formwork and construction
- Absence of beams allows lower storey heights
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution

Drop panels, formed by thickening the bottom of the slab around columns, increase shear capacity and increase the stiffness of the slab, allowing thinner slabs to be used. Popular for office buildings, hospitals, hotels, etc. Very economical for more heavily loaded spans of from 5 to 10 m. Square panels are most economical.

The chart and data assume an edge loading of 10 kN/m and one 150 mm hole adjacent to each column. They assume column sizes will at least equal those given in the data.

DISADVANTAGES

- Holes can prove difficult, especially large holes near columns
- Shear provision around columns may be considered a complication
- Deflections, especially at edges supporting cladding, may cause concern
- Drops may cause some disruption to formwork

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: differences in slab thickness for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 5.0 kN/m2

IL = 10.0 kN/m² 4 (3.3%) 5 (3.3%) 5 (3.2%) 6 (3.2%) 6 (2.8%) 7 (2.7%) 6 (3.1%) 5 (2.9%) 5 (3.0%)

Flat slabs with column heads

ADVANTAGES

- Relatively simple and fast formwork and construction
- Absence of beams allows lower storey heights
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution

Increasing the size of column heads under the slab increases the slab's shear-carrying capacity at columns.

Popular for office buildings, retail developments, hospitals, hotels, etc. Economical for more heavily loaded spans of from 6 to 10 m in square panels. However, unless the whole column can be poured at one time, column heads can disrupt cycle times.

The chart and data assume an edge loading of 10 kN/m and one 150 mm hole adjacent to each column head. They assume column head sizes will at least equal those given in the data.

DISADVANTAGES

- Holes can prove difficult, especially large holes near columns
- Shear provision around columns may be considered difficult
- Deflections, especially at edges supporting cladding, may cause concern
- Column heads can disrupt cycle times

4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0 *SPAN,* **m** 100 L
0. A **200 300 400 500 600** *SLAB DEPTH,* **m SLAB DEPTH, mm** *KEY* **Characteristic imposed load (IL)** $= 2.5$ kN/m² $= 5.0$ kN/m² $= 7.5$ kN/m² $= 10.0$ kN/m²

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Short span = 9.0 m 9.0 9.4 10.2 10.8 Short span =10.0 m 10.0 m 10.0 10.5 11.0 Short span =11.0 m 11.0 11.5

Flat slabs with edge beams

Introducing edge beams to flat slabs overcomes many of the problems associated with shear at perimeter columns and edge deflection. These slabs are popular for use in office buildings, retail developments, hospitals, hotels, etc. and commonly incorporate upstands rather than downstand perimeter beams. They are economical for spans up to 10 m in square panels.

The chart and data assume an edge loading of 10 kN/m and one 150 mm hole in the slab adjacent to each column. They assume internal columns sizes will at least equal those given in the data. The overall depth of edge beams must be at least 50% greater than the slab thickness.

ADVANTAGES

- Relatively simple and fast formwork and construction
- Architectural finish can be applied directly to the underside of the slab
- Absence of internal beams allows lower storey heights
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution.
- Perimeter holes present few problems

DISADVANTAGES

Perimeter downstand beams may hinder use of table forms

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Short span = 5.0 m 5.1 5.7 6.4 7.2 7.9 8.8 Short span = 6.0 m 6.0 6.3 6.9 7.5 8.2 9.2 10.0 Short span = 7.0 m 7.0 7.4 8.0 8.6 9.4 10.2 $\text{Short span} = 8.0 \text{ m}$ and S.0 and S.5 and S.6 and S.7 and S.8 and S.9 and S.9 and S.1 and S.1 and S.1 and S.2 and S.3 and S.4 and S.5 and $\$ Short span = 9.0 m 9.0 9.3 9.9 10.7 Short span =10.0 m 10.0 10.4 11.0 Short span =11.0 m 11.4 and 5.0 m 1

Waffle slabs designed as flat slabs (bespoke moulds)

Introducing voids to the soffit of a flat slab reduces dead weight and these slabs are economical in spans up to 12 m in square panels. Thickness is governed by deflection, punching shear around columns and shear in ribs.

The charts assume a solid area adjacent to supporting columns up to span/2 wide and long. The chart and data include an allowance for an edge loading of 10 kN/m.

ADVANTAGES

- Profile may be expressed architecturally
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution
- **Lightweight**

DISADVANTAGES

- Higher formwork costs than for other slab systems
- Slightly deeper members result in greater floor heights
- Difficult to prefabricate, therefore reinforcement may be slow to fix

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

3.2 Beams

3.2.1 USING IN-SITU BEAMS

In-situ beams provide support: they transfer loads from slabs to columns and walls. They offer strength, robustness and versatility, eg. in accommodating cladding support details.

In overall terms, wide flat beams are less costly to construct than narrow deep beams; the deeper and narrower, the more costly they are. Beams and columns of the same width give maximum formwork efficiency as formwork can proceed along a continuous line. However, used internally, these relatively deep beams result in additional perimeter cladding and tend to disrupt service runs. Deep edge beams may limit the use of flying form systems on the slab. Upstand perimeter beams (designed as rectangular beams) can reduce overall cost. Parapet wall beams are less disruptive and less costly to form than deep downstand beams.

The intersections of beams and columns require special consideration of reinforcement details. Sufficient width is required to get both beam and column steel through; end supports need to be long enough to allow bends in bottom reinforcement to start beyond half the support length yet maintain cover for links and/or lacers.

3.2.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The charts for in-situ reinforced beams cover a range of web widths and **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl). They are divided into:

Rectangular:

isolated or upstand beams, beams with no flange, beams not homogeneous with supported slabs.

Inverted 'L' beams:

perimeter beams with top flange one side of the web.

'T' beams:

internal beams with top flange both sides of the web

In the charts, sizes of singly reinforced beams are shown using solid lines; sizes of beams with two layers of reinforcement are shown using dashed lines. As the use of beams with two layers of reinforcement should normally be avoided, no further information is given.

The user must determine which form of beam is appropriate and, therefore, which chart and data to use. From the appropriate chart(s) and data, use the maximum span and appropriate **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl) to interpolate between values given in the charts and data. The user is expected to make adjustments for two-span configurations, etc. and to round up both the depth and loads to supports in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria used and normal modular sizing.

3.2.3 DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Design

The charts and data are based on moment and shear factors in BS 8110, Pt $1^{(2)}$, table 3.6 assuming end spans are critical. Assumptions about dimensions are given in the table below. See also Section 7.

In order to satisfy defection criteria, service stress, f_s , is, in very many cases (particularly with shallow beams), reduced by increasing steel contents.

Dimensions

Reinforcement

Main bars: maximum T32s top and bottom, T10 links. 10% allowed for wastage and laps. Nominal top steel in mid-span. Minimum 50 mm between bars.

For reinforcement quantities, please refer to Section 2.2.4

Concrete

C35, 24 kN/m³, 20 mm aggregate. For severe exposure, C40 is assumed.

Fire and durability Fire resistance 1 hour; mild exposure.

Loads

Beam self-weight (extra over an assumed 200 mm depth of solid slab) allowed for and included.

In line with BS 8110, Pt 1, Cl 3.8.2.3, ultimate loads to columns assume elastic reaction factors of 1.0 to internal columns supporting continuous beams and 0.5 to end columns.

3.2.4 DESIGN NOTES

Different design criteria can be critical across the range of beams described. The sizes given in the charts and data are critical on the following parameters:

- K Beams 20 mm shallower than those given in the charts cannot be designed because K, (M/bd^{2f}cu) at supports, exceeds maximum allowable (0.225)
- a AsB (area of steel, bottom) restricted by end support width or length
- b Compression steel required at internal supports but does not exceed nominal percentage of 30% AsB
- c Compression steel required at internal supports exceeds 30% AsB (ie. special curtailment required)
- d Two layers of reinforcement
- e Compression steel required in top of span

In-situ concrete beams: 'T' and inverted 'L' beams The slab data assume that internal beams support threespan slabs. Internal beams supporting two-span slabs might attract more load.

Upstand and band beams

Upstand beams and shallow downstand beams can be easier to construct and have less impact on horizontal services distribution and floor-to-floor heights.

SINGLE SPAN, m 4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0 *DEPTH, mm* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 264 320 374 428 484 544 610 708 816 **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 300 356 432 522 642 780 942 **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 370
 uaudl = 200 kN/m 788 uaudl = 200 kN/m *ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTS/COLUMNS INTERNAL (END), kN ult* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** n/a (55) n/a (71) n/a (86) n/a (102) n/a (120) n/a (137) n/a (156) n/a (177) n/a (199) **uaudl = 50 kN/m** n/a (106) n/a (134) n/a (163) n/a (193) n/a (226) n/a (260) n/a (297) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** n/a (207)
 uaudl = 200 kN/m n/a (416) **uaudl = 200 kN/m** *REINFORCEMENT, kg/m (kg/m3)* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 20 (249) 16 (170) 20 (181) 21 (164) 22 (148) 24 (144) 24 (133) 25 (117) 26 (105) **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 21 (228) 24 (223) 25 (195)
 uaudl = 100 kN/m 29 (257) 27 (176) 26 (131) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 29 (257)
 uaudl = 200 kN/m 21 (87) uaudl = 200 kN/m *DESIGN NOTES See Section 3.2.4 on p 47* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** a a a a a ad ad ad **uaudl = 50 kN/m** ae ae ade
 uaudl = 100 kN/m ae ade ad u audl = 100 kN/m **uaudl = 200 kN/m** d *VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl, mm* 2 hours fire $+5$
4 hours fire $= 368$ 4 hours fire 368 452 576 732 924 Moderate exposure Severe exposure (C40) 330 414 538 692 884 **4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0** *SPAN,* **m** 200 $_{4.0}$ **400 300 500 600 700** *BEAM DEPTH,* **m m** *KEY* **Ultimate applied udl** $= 25$ kN/m $= 50$ kN/m $= 100$ kN/m $= 200$ kN/m **1 layer** $\begin{array}{c} 2 \overline{)} - \overline{)}$ **reinforcement**

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

800

300 mm wide

Rectangular beams

Rectangular beams

600 mm wide

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

single span

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl

uaudl = 100 kN/m e ad ad de d d

uaudl = 50 kN/m d a a ad d

uaudl = 200 kN/m ae d d d

Moderate exposure +15 mm up to 10 m only Severe exposure $(C40)$ +20 mm up to 10 m only

² hours fire $+5$ mm up to 10 m only 4 hours fire +35 mm up to 10 m only

uaudl = 25 kN/m abe ab a ab ab ab ad ad ad

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl, mm

Rectangular beams 300 mm

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

wide

800

multiple span

Moderate exposure

uaudl = 200 kN/m d d

2 hours fire $+5$
4 hours fire 328

 u audl = 100 kN/m

uaudl = 50 kN/m ab K ace K ace abd ad ad ad ad

4 hours fire 328 398 506 638 800

Severe exposure (C40) 304 382 490 622 784

Rectangular beams

600 mm wide

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

multiple span

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire +5 mm 4 hours fire +25 mm Moderate exposure +15 mm Severe exposure (C40) +20 mm

Severe exposure (C40) 312 380 488 648 842

single span

wide web

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

600 mm

Inverted 'L' beams

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire +5 mm up to 10 m only

4 hours fire +30 mm up to 10 m only Moderate exposure $+16$ mm up to 10 m only Severe exposure (C40) +20 mm up to 10 m only

600 700 800 1 layer 2 layers of reinforcement *Inverted 'L' beams 1200 mm wide web* **SPAN:DEPTH CHART**

KEY **Ultimate applied udl**

4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0

 $= 25$ kN/m $= 50$ kN/m $= 100$ kN/m $= 200$ kN/m

ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTS/COLUMNS INTERNAL (END), kN ult

 $200\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 4.0 \end{array}$

400

500

300

BEAM DEPTH, **m**

m

uaudl = 25 kN/m

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl

 2 hours fire

4 hours fire +35 mm up to 10 m only Moderate exposure $+16$ mm up to 10 m only

Severe exposure $(C40)$ +20 mm up to 10 m only

single span

See Section 3.2.4 on p 47

SPAN, **m**

Inverted 'L' beams

multiple span

225 mm wide web

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire 4 hours fire not appropriate Moderate exposure not appropriate Severe exposure (C40) not appropriate

MULTIPLE SPAN, m 4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0 *DEPTH, mm* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 230 264 296 330 362 398 494 586 682 **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 284 324 370 450 574 692 828 988 **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 350 446
 uaudl = 200 kN/m 552 836 uaudl = 200 kN/m *ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTS/COLUMNS INTERNAL (END), kN ult* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 105 (52) 133 (66) 162 (81) 191 (95) 221 (111) 252 (126) 290 (145) 329 (164) 370 (185) **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 207 (104) 261 (131) 316 (158) 375 (187) 438 (219) 504 (252) 573 (287) 648 (324) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 410 (205) 517 (259) 631 (315) 747 (374) **uaudl = 200 kN/m** 818 (409) 1037 (519) *REINFORCEMENT, kg/m (kg/m3)* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 19 (283) 21 (277) 21 (235) 24 (243) 26 (240) 29 (244) 27 (183) 27 (154) 28 (135) **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 23 (267) 23 (235) 26 (235) 28 (207)
 uaudl = 100 kN/m 26 (243) 29 (215) 28 (155) 29 (125) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 26 (243) 29 (215)
 uaudl = 200 kN/m 29 (178) 28 (110) uaudl = 200 kN/m *DESIGN NOTES See Section 3.2.4 on p 47* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** ac ac ab ab ab ac ad ad ad **uaudl = 50 kN/m** acd K ac K ac abd ad ad ad ad u audl = 100 kN/m **uaudl = 200 kN/m** ad d *VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl, mm* 2 hours fire $+5$
4 hours fire 328 4 hours fire 328 392 498 630 788 980 Moderate exposure 302 380 488 618 776 968 Severe exposure (C40) 302 380 484 614 774 964 **4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0** *SPAN,* **m** 200 $_{4.0}$ **400 300 500 600 700 800** *BEAM DEPTH,* **m m** *KEY* **Ultimate applied udl** $= 25$ kN/m $= 50$ kN/m $= 100$ kN/m $= 200$ kN/m **2 layers of reinforcement 1 layer** *300 mm wide web* **SPAN:DEPTH CHART**

multiple span

Inverted 'L' beams

Inverted 'L' beams

multiple span

wide web

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

450 mm

MULTIPLE SPAN, m 4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0 *DEPTH, mm* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 224 244 268 304 346 386 424 470 540 **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 252 282 310 352 390 432 474 536 616 **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 304 342 380 426 496 630 758 898 uaudl = 200 kN/m *ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTS/COLUMNS INTERNAL (END), kN ult* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 108 (54) 140 (70) 170 (85) 204 (102) 241 (120) 277 (138) 311 (156) 354 (177) 406 (203) **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 212 (106) 268 (134) 325 (162) 386 (193) 447 (223) 510 (255) 575 (287) 647 (323) 725 (362) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 415 (207) 524 (262) 633 (316) 745 (373) 864 (432) 996 (498) 1130 (565) 1277 (638) **uaudl = 200 kN/m** 820 (410) 1032 (516) 1254 (627) 1485 (743) 1727 (864) *REINFORCEMENT, kg/m (kg/m3)* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** 31 (256) 25 (163) 31 (195) 32 (174) 30 (142) 33 (141) 39 (161) 41 (150) 39 (122) **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 28 (183) 34 (200) 39 (210) 40 (189) 47 (203) 50 (193) 55 (196) 58 (181) 59 (159) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 37 (215) 42 (202) 52 (233) 58 (231) 62 (208)
uaudl = 200 kN/m 53 (251) 61 (242) 63 (194) 63 (149) 65 (122) uaudl = 200 kN/m *DESIGN NOTES See Section 3.2.4 on p 47* **uaudl = 25 kN/m** a **uaudl = 50 kN/m** a a ab b b b ab ab uaudl = 100 kN/m **uaudl = 200 kN/m** cd K ac bd d **4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0** *SPAN,* **m** 200 $_{4.0}$ **400 300 500 600 700 800** *BEAM DEPTH,* **m m** *KEY* **Ultimate applied udl** $= 25$ kN/m $= 50$ kN/m $= 100$ kN/m $= 200$ kN/m layer **2 layers of reinforcement** *Inverted 'L' beams 600 mm wide web* **SPAN:DEPTH CHART** *multiple span*

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 50 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire $+5$ mm
4 hours fire $+25$ mm 4 hours fire $+25$ mm
te exposure $+20$ mm Moderate exposure Severe exposure $(C40)$ +25 mm *Inverted 'L' beams*

multiple span

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\int_{0}^{\pi} \frac{d\mu}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\,d\mu
$$

900 mm wide web

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

2 hours fire $+5$ mm
4 hours fire $+25$ mm 4 hours fire +25 mm
te exposure +20 mm Moderate exposure Severe exposure $(C40)$ +20 mm

Inverted 'L' beams 1200 mm

multiple span

wide web

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

2 hours fire $+5$ mm
4 hours fire $+25$ mm 4 hours fire $+25$ mm
te exposure $+20$ mm Moderate exposure Severe exposure $(C40)$ +20 mm

Severe exposure (C40) 428 620 858 648 842

IN-SITU BEAMS

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire +5 mm up to 10 m only 4 hours fire +40 mm Moderate exposure +20 mm Severe exposure (C40) +30 mm

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire
4 hours fire

- Moderate exposure
- Severe exposure $(C40)$ +25 mm up to 10 m only

 $+35$ mm up to 10 m only
 $+20$ mm

single span

'T' beams 2400 mm wide web

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire
4 hours fire

- $+35$ mm up to 10 m only
 $+20$ mm Moderate exposure
- Severe exposure $(C40)$ +25 mm up to 10 m only

multiple span

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

300 mm

'T' beams

wide web

MULTIPLE SPAN, m 4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0 *DEPTH, mm* **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 244 282 320 362 404 454 564 666 770 **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 306 362 420 526 664 798 956 **uaudl = 200 kN/m** 420 526
 uaudl = 400 kN/m 642 898 uaudl = 400 kN/m *ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTS/COLUMNS INTERNAL (END), kN ult* **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 203 (101) 256 (128) 311 (155) 367 (184) 425 (212) 485 (242) 555 (278) 628 (314) 703 (352) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 406 (203) 512 (256) 620 (310) 735 (367) 856 (428) 981 (491) 1114 (557) **uaudl = 200 kN/m** 813 (407) 1025 (512) 1246 (623) 1474 (737) **uaudl = 400 kN/m** 1627 (813) 2053 (1026) *REINFORCEMENT, kg/m (kg/m3)* **uaudl = 50 kN/m** 28 (253) 30 (236) 32 (222) 36 (221) 44 (239) 46 (225) 46 (179) 46 (153) 47 (136) **uaudl = 100 kN/m** 32 (234) 36 (224) 45 (236) 47 (197)
 uaudl = 200 kN/m 40 (213) 49 (207) 48 (151) 50 (124) **uaudl = 200 kN/m** 40 (213) 49 (207)
 uaudl = 400 kN/m 50 (174) 52 (129) uaudl = 400 kN/m *DESIGN NOTES See Section 3.2.4 on p 47* **uaudl = 50 kN/m** acd acd K c K ac K ac acd ad d d **uaudl = 100 kN/m** K ac K ac K ac bd d d d d uaudl = 200 kN/m **uaudl = 400 kN/m** d d *VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl, mm* $+0$ mm up to 10 m only
328 394 4 hours fire 328 394 506 630 780 Moderate exposure **4.0 5.0 6.0 7.0 8.0 9.0 10.0 11.0 12.0** *SPAN,* **m** 200 $_{4.0}$ **400 300 500 600 700 800** *BEAM DEPTH,* **m m** *KEY* **Ultimate applied udl** $= 50$ kN/m $= 100$ kN/m $= 200$ kN/m $= 400$ kN/m **1 layer 2 layers of reinforcement** *'T' beams 450 mm wide web* **SPAN:DEPTH CHART** *multiple span*

Severe exposure (C40) 328 392 502 628 776

'T' beams 600 mm wide web

multiple span

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire +5 mm 4 hours fire +25 mm Moderate exposure +20 mm Severe exposure (C40) +25 mm

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 3.2.3 on p 46): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire +5 mm 4 hours fire +30 mm Moderate exposure +30 mm Severe exposure (C40) +30 mm

 $+25$ mm up to 10 m only
 $+20$ mm

Moderate exposure

Severe exposure $(C40)$ +20 mm up to 10 m only

 \mathbb{R}^n

2 hours fire +15 mm 4 hours fire +35 mm Moderate exposure +25 mm Severe exposure (C40) +35 mm

'T' beams
multiple span

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

4 hours fire +25 mm
te exposure +20 mm Moderate exposure Severe exposure $(C40)$ +25 mm

3.3 Columns

3.3.1 USING IN-SITU COLUMNS

In-situ columns offer strength, economy, versatility, mouldability, fire resistance, and robustness. They are often the most obvious and intrusive part of a structure and judgement is required to reconcile position, size, shape, spans of horizontal elements and economy. Generally the best economy comes from using regular square grids and constantly sized columns. Ideally, the same size of column should be used at all levels at all locations. If this is not possible, then keep the number of profiles to a minimum, eg. one for internal columns and one for perimeter columns. Certainly up to about eight storeys, the same size and shape should be used throughout a column's height. The outside of edge columns should be flush with or inboard of the edges of slabs. Chases, service penetrations and horizontal offsets should be avoided. Offsets are the cause of costly transition beams which can be very disruptive to site progress.

High-strength concrete columns can decrease the size of columns required. Smaller columns occupy less lettable space and should be considered on individual projects. However, up to about five storeys the size of perimeter columns is dominated by moment: concrete strengths greater than 35 N/mm2 appear to make little difference to the size of perimeter column required. Rectangular columns can be less obtrusive than square columns.

3.3.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The column charts give square sizes against **total ultimate** axial load for a range of steel contents for internal, edge and corner **braced** columns. Further charts and tables allow bar arrangements to be judged and reinforcement densities estimated.

The column charts 'work' on **total ultimate** axial load in kN. The user should preferably calculate, otherwise estimate, this load for the lowest level of column under consideration (see Section 8.3).

Column design is dependant upon ultimate axial load **and** ultimate design moment. Design moments in columns are specific to that column and can only be generalized (but with unknown certainty) by using a fair amount of conservatism. The sizes given, particularly for perimeter columns, are, therefore, **estimates** only. The charts and data relate to square columns. However, these sizes can be used, with caution, to derive the sizes of rectangular columns, with equal area and aspect ratios up to 2.0, and of circular columns of at least the same cross-sectional area.

The charts and data for internal columns assume nominal moments only: they assume that the slabs and beams supported have equal spans in each orthogonal direction (ie. $I_{x1} = I_{x2}$ and $I_{y1} = I_{y2}$). If spans differ by more than, say 15%, consider treating internal columns as edge columns.

In order to allow for moments, the charts for edge and corner columns give sizes according to axial load and the number of storeys supported. As explained in Section 7, the sizes should, generally, prove conservative, but will not be so if imposed floor loads greater than 5.0 kN/m², floor plates less stiff than solid flat slabs or unequal adjacent spans, are required. If spans parallel to the edge are unequal by more than, say 15%, then consider treating edge columns as corner columns.

Sizes derived from the charts and data should be checked for compatibility with slabs (eg. punching shear in flat slabs) and beams (eg. widths and end bearings). The moment in the top of a perimeter column joined to a concrete roof can prove critical in final design. Unless special measures are taken (eg. by providing, effectively, a pin joint), it is suggested that this single storey load case should be checked at scheme design stage.

3.3.3 DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Reinforcement

Main bars: $f_y = 460 \text{ N/mm}^2$. Links: $f_y = 250 \text{ N/mm}^2$. Maximum bar size T40. Link size, maximum main bar size/4. Reinforcement weights assume 35 diameter laps and 3.6 m storey heights and links at 250 mm minimum centres. No allowance is made for wastage. With regard to reinforcement quantities, please refer to Section 2.2.4.

Concrete C35, 24 $kN/m³$, 20 mm aggregate.

Fire and durability Fire resistance 1 hour; mild exposure.

Other assumptions made are described and discussed in Section 7.

3.3.4 DESIGN NOTES

General

As described in Section 7, the charts and data are based on considering square braced columns supporting solid flat slabs, with panel aspect ratios of 1.00, 1.25, 1.5 and 1.75, carrying 5.0 kN/m2 imposed load and 10 kN/m perimeter load. The charts and data correspond to the worst case, ie. largest size derived from considering the flat slabs described above. Generally the sizes given should prove conservative but may not be so when fully analysed and designed, or, especially, when less stiff structures, or very lightweight cladding is used.

Main bars

Feasible bar arrangements for various square column sizes and reinforcement percentages are given on pages 75 and 80. These graphs have been prepared on the basis of maximum 300 mm centres of bars or minimum 30 mm gap at laps. For perimeter columns it is assumed that in 8 bar arrangements (3 bars per face), 6 bars are effective, and that in 12 bar arrangements (4 bars per face), 8 bars are effective.

In-situ concrete columns

Size is not only dependent on load but also, especially in perimeter columns, on moment. In order to allow for moments in perimeter columns, the charts for edge and corner columns give sizes according to the number of

Internal columns

SIZE:PERCENTAGE REINFORCEMENT CHART, INTERNAL COLUMNS

Feasible bar arrangements for internal columns are given above. These are dependant on column sizes and required percentage of reinforcement. The graphs have been prepared on the basis of maximum 300 mm centres or minimum 30 mm gap at laps. All bars are assumed to be effective.

Edge columns 1% reinforcement

LOAD:SIZE CHART

Edge columns 2% reinforcement

Edge columns 3% reinforcement

LOAD:SIZE CHART

Edge columns 4% reinforcement

3 storeys 225 225 255 295 335 410 475 535 **4 storeys** 225 225 245 280 315 395 455 505 555 **6 storeys** 225 225 235 265 295 365 425 480 530

Corner columns 1% reinforcement

LOAD:SIZE CHART

Corner columns 2% reinforcement

Corner columns 3% reinforcement

LOAD:SIZE CHART

Corner columns 4% reinforcement

Perimeter columns

(Edge and corner columns)

SIZE:PERCENTAGE REINFORCEMENT CHART, PERIMETER COLUMNS

Feasible bar arrangements for perimeter columns are given above. These are dependant on column sizes and required percentage of reinforcement. The graphs assume maximum 300 mm centres or minimum 30 mm gaps at laps. As they are perimeter columns, ie. edge and corner columns, it is assumed that in 8 bar arrangements, 6 bars are effective and in 12 bar arrangements, 8 bars are effective. This makes the above chart slightly different from the one on p 75 which deals with internal columns; but for the same arrangement and size, reinforcement densities are the same for perimeter as internal columns.

4.1 Slabs

4.1.1 USING PRECAST AND COMPOSITE SLABS

Precast concrete flooring offers many advantages: speed of erection, small, medium and long spans, structural efficiency, economy, versatility, fire resistance, thermal capacity and sound insulation. It will readily accept fixings, floor and ceiling finishes, and small holes. Provision can be made for large holes. Handling and stacking is straightforward. Precast concrete flooring provides immediate safe working platforms and can eliminate formwork and propping.

The combination of precast concrete with in-situ concrete (or hybrid concrete construction (7)) harnesses the best of both materials. Structurally, these hybrids can act separately (non-compositely) or together (compositely). Hybrid floors combine all the advantages of speed and quality of precast concrete with the robustness, flexibility and versatility of in-situ construction.

Each type has implications for overall costs, speed, selfweight, storey heights and flexibility in use; some guidance is given with the charts. The relative importance of these factors should be assessed for each particular case.

The units are designed to BS 8110, generally using grade C50 concrete and high tensile strand or wire prestressing steel to BS 5896 or high tensile steel to BS 4449. All prestressed precast concrete flooring systems exhibit a degree of upward camber and due allowance should be made. Minimum bearing of precast members is 40 mm plus allowances for spalling and construction inaccuracies (see BS 8110, Pt. 1, Cl 5.2.3 and Cl 5.2.4).

4.1.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The charts and data give overall depths against spans for a range of **characteristic** imposed loads assuming simply supported spans. An allowance of 1.5 kN/m² has been made for superimposed dead loads (finishes, services, etc). The range of many precast floors is considerably extended if this allowance is reduced.

Actual span/load capacities and self-weights vary between manufacturers and are subject to development and change. The user should refer to manufacturers and their current literature. The sizes, spans and weights quoted in the charts and data are selected, whenever possible, from those offered in late 1996 by at least two manufacturers. Thicknesses are measured overall of structural toppings, etc.

Precast concrete construction

The diagram above shows typical components. *See Precast concrete framed structures - Design guide(8) and Multi-storey precast concrete framed structures⁽⁹⁾* for detailed guidance on procurement and design.

Composite solid prestressed soffit slabs

Solid prestressed slabs act compositely with a structural topping (generally grade C30 with a light mesh) to create a robust composite floor. The units, usually 600 mm or 1200 mm wide, act as fully participating formwork which may be propped or unpropped during construction

ADVANTAGES

- Speed
- Elimination of formwork
- Structural efficiency
- **Robustness**

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

DISADVANTAGES

- Limited spans and capacities
- Propping usually required

Composite lattice girder soffit slabs

-
- **Speed** Robust
Elimination of formwork Ouality soffit **Elimination of formwork**
- Safe working platform

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

Precast plates act as permanent formwork and as precast soffits for robust, high-capacity, composite floor slabs.

The units are cast with most, if not all, of the bottom reinforcement required. Top reinforcement is fixed insitu. The lattice girders give the precast section strength during construction. The units, typically 50 mm to 100 mm thick and 1200 mm or 2400 mm wide, are usually propped during construction. The chart and data relate to 75 mm (up to 200 mm final thickness) and 100 mm thick units. Self-weight can be reduced by having the units supplied with polystyrene void-formers bonded to the upper surface.

DISADVANTAGES

• Propping usually required

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 5.0 kN/m2

Unpropped 75 mm unit depth 115 to 200 mm deep max span 3.75 m
100 mm unit depth 150 & 200 mm deep max span 5.00 m, 150 & 200 mm deep max span 5.00 m, 300 deep max span 4.71 m

Precast hollow-core slabs, no topping

ADVANTAGES

-
-
- **Speed** High capacities
Elimination of formwork Structural efficiency Elimination of formwork
- Short, medium and long spans
- Elimination of propping

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

Hollow-core floor slabs are precast prestressed concrete elements with continous voids provided to reduce selfweight and achieve structural efficiency. They are very popular, and economic across a wide range of spans and loadings. They are used in a wide range of buildings.

Depths range in increments from 110 mm to 450 mm; widths are generally 1200 mm. Span/load capacities may vary slightly between manufacturers. The soffit finish is suitable for exposure in car parks and industrial buildings, or for applied finishes. The top is designed to receive a levelling screed or appropriate flooring system.

DISADVANTAGES

• Cranage may prove critical

Composite hollow-core slabs, with topping

ADVANTAGES

-
- Speed Elimination of formwork

High capacities Robustness High capacities
	- Structural efficiency Elimination of propping
- Short, medium and long spans

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

Hollow-core floor slabs (see opposite) are used in conjunction with a structural topping where enhanced performance is required.

The units act compositely with the in-situ structural topping to creat a robust, high capacity composite floor. The structural topping overcomes possible differential camber between units, and is usually a grade C30 normal weight concrete, 50 mm thick, reinforced with a light mesh. Overall thicknesses are given.

DISADVANTAGES

• Cranage may prove critical

Precast double 'T's, no topping

ADVANTAGES

- Quick
- Long spans
- Elimination of formwork and propping
- **Efficient**

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

Double 'T's are used for long spans. They are relatively lightweight with a high load capacity. The units are prestressed and can be left exposed. TT2 units are intended for up to 2 hours fire resistance; TT4 for up to 4 hours. The top surface is designed to receive a levelling screed or appropriate flooring system.

Effective load sharing between units is achieved by welding cast-in plates together and brushing dry grout into the shaped longitudinal joints. Units are generally 2400 mm wide with ribs at approximately 1200 mm centres.

DISADVANTAGES

• Cranage may prove critical

Composite double 'T's, with topping

-
- Quick Robust Long spans
- Elimination of formwork and propping

Double 'T's (see opposite) are used in conjunction with a structural topping where enhanced performance is required. Specifications vary between manufacturers

The units act compositely with the in-situ structural topping to create a robust composite floor. The structural topping overcomes possible differential camber between units and is usually a grade C30 normal-weight concrete, reinforced with a light mesh.

DISADVANTAGES

• Cranage may prove critical

Precast beam and block floors

(Beam and pot)

These systems combine prestressed beams with either solid blocks or voided 'pots'. They are widely used in the domestic market but can be used for commercial loadings for spans up to 6.5 m. Diaphragm action can be achieved by using a structural topping. Units are manhandable and ideal where access is restricted.

Flush soffits can be achieved using 'pots'. Holes can be formed by omitting 'pots' and making good. Slip tiles facilitate service runs or solid sections of concrete.

DISADVANTAGES

• Limited spans and capacities

ADVANTAGES

- Ease of use
- Elimination of formwork
- Elimination of propping

Composite prestressed rib floors

ADVANTAGES

- Speed Structural efficiency
- Long spans Robustness
- Elimination of formwork
- Elimination of propping

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

Precast, prestressed rib beams combine with precast soffit slabs or profiled metal decking and in-situ concrete to provide an economic, long-span ribbed floor. The ribs are manufactured in depths of 455 and 550 mm and used in slabs approximately 575 or 670 mm deep overall. Usually, they are at 2.0 to 2.4 m centres; closer centres increase load and span capacities. The extremes of the chart assume 0.9 m centres

The composite ribbed slab offers the advantages of a lightweight, yet efficient, floor construction, with the minimum of traditional formwork

DISADVANTAGES

• Cranage may prove critical

ULTIMATE LOAD TO SUPPORTING BEAMS, INTERNAL (END), kN/m

IL = 7.5 kN/m2 575 575 575 575 670 **IL = 10.0 kN/m2** 575 575 575 670

4.2 Beams

4.2.1 USING PRECAST AND COMPOSITE BEAMS

Factory-engineered precast concrete frames are used widely in offices, car parks, commercial and industrial developments of all types. Precast beams facilitate speed of erection by eliminating formwork, propping and, in many cases, site-applied finishes and follow-on trades. They have inherent fire resistance, durability and the potential for a vast range of integral and applied finishes.

Manufacturers produce a wide range of preferred crosssections based on 50 mm increments. Designs with other cross-sections are easily accommodated. However, the economics of precasting beams depend on repetition: a major cost item is the manufacture of the base moulds. Manufacturers should be consulted at the earliest opportunity (see Section 10.4).

4.2.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The charts and data for precast reinforced beams cover a range of web widths and **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl). They are divided into:

Rectangular beams, eg:

- isolated or upstand beams
- 'L' beams or single booted beams, eg: perimeter beams supporting hollow-core floor units
- (Inverted) 'T' beams or double booted beams, eg: internal beams supporting hollow-core floor units

The charts assume that the beams are simply supported and non-composite, ie. no flange action or benefit from temporary propping is assumed. For 'L' and inverted 'T' beams, a ledge width of 125 mm has been assumed.

From the appropriate chart(s), use the maximum span and appropriate ultimate applied uniformly distributed loads to determine depth. The user is expected to interpolate between values given in the charts and data, and round up both the depth and loads to supports in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria used and normal modular sizing.

4.2.3 DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Reinforcement

Main bars: maximum T32T & B, minimum T20T & B at simply supported ends, links T10. Nominal T16T in midspan. Minimum 50 mm between bars.

Concrete

C40, 24 kN/m³, 20 mm aggregate. Fair-faced finish. Concrete grades up to C60 are commonly used to facilitate early removal from moulds. For severe exposure grade C50 concrete is assumed.

Fire and durability Fire resistance 1 hour; mild exposure.

Support

Precast beams are assumed to be supported by precast columns with compatible connection details. Refer to column charts and data to estimate sizes.

Span

For sizing precast beams, span can be taken as being centreline of support to centreline of support. For example, assuming 300 mm wide columns and, say, 100 mm from the end of beam to the centreline of support, beam span might be 500 mm less than centreline column to centreline column: however, for assessing loads to columns, the full centreline column to centreline column dimension should be used and is assumed in the charts and data.

Ledge widths

The ledge (or boot) width has been taken to be 125 mm. This allows 75 mm bearing, 10 mm fixing tolerance and 40 mm for in-situ infill.

Loads

Ultimate loads to columns assume elastic reaction factors of 1.0 to internal columns and 0.5 to end columns.

4.2.4 DESIGN NOTES

Different design criteria can be critical across the range of beams described. The sizes given in the charts and data are critical on the following parameters:

- a A_sB (area of steel, bottom) restricted by end support width or length.
- d Sizes given are close to requiring two layers of steel. The use of two layers of reinforcement in precast beams is not uncommon.
- e Compression steel required in top of span.

single span

Rectangular precast beams

300 mm

wide

Rectangular precast beams

450 mm

wide

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

Severe exposure (C50) 290 350 410 500 630 780

Precast 'L' beams 300 mm wide overall

single span

Precast 'L' beams 450 mm wide overall

single span

single span

Precast inverted 'T' beams

600 mm

wide overall

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see Section 4.2.3 on p 90): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

2 hours fire $+ 5$ mm
4 hours fire $+ 50$ mm **4 hours fire** $+50$ mm
Moderate exposure $+20$ mm **Moderate exposure Severe exposure (C50)** + 30 mm

Precast inverted 'T' beams 750 mm

single span

wide overall

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see section 4.2.3 on p 90): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

4.3 Columns

4.3.1 USING PRECAST COLUMNS

Precast columns facilitate speed of erection by eliminating formwork, propping and, in many cases, siteapplied finishes and follow-on trades. They have inherent fire resistance, durability and the potential for a vast range of integral and applied finishes.

Typical precast column sizes are 300 mm square for twostorey buildings and 350 mm square for three-storey buildings. Smaller columns may be possible using higher grades of concrete and higher percentages of reinforcement. In such cases reference should be made to manufacturers as handling and connections, details of which are usually specific to individual manufacturers, may make smaller sections difficult to use. Manufacturers tend to produce preferred cross-sections based on 50 mm increments. Nonetheless, designs with other crosssections and bespoke finishes are easily accommodated. For instance, storey-height corbels are common in precast concrete car parks.

The economics of precast construction depend on repetition. As far as possible, the same section should be used throughout. Columns are often precast three or four storeys high.

4.3.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The column charts give square sizes against **ultimate** axial load for a range of steel contents for internal, edge and corner braced columns. Column design is dependant upon ultimate axial load and ultimate design moment. Design moments are specific to a project and cannot be generalized.The sizes of columns shown in the charts and data should be considered as being indicative only, until they can be confirmed at scheme design by a specialist engineer or contractor. For similar reasons, reinforcement densities are not quoted.

The user is expected to interpolate between values given in the charts and data and round up both the load and size derived in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria used and normal modular sizing. The thickness of any specialist finishes required should be added to the sizes given.

The column charts 'work' on **total ultimate** axial load (N) in kN. Preferably, this load should be calculated from first principles for the lowest level of column under consideration (see Section 8.3). However, it may suffice to estimate the load in accordance with Section 2.7.

The charts for internal columns assume equal adjacent spans in each direction.

The charts for edge and corner columns give sizes according to the number of storeys in order to allow for the effects of moments generated by the eccentricity of the beam/column connection. As explained in Section 7, the sizes should generally prove conservative. As axial load predominates, so the design is less controlled by moment. Above about five storeys, perimeter columns can be sized by using the chart for internal columns. The sizes given may prove to be inadequate when unequal spans, eccentric loads or high imposed loads are envisaged.

4.3.3 DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Reinforcement

Main bars: fy = 460 N/mm², links fy = 250 N/mm². Link size, maximum main bar size/4. Maximum bar size T40.

Concrete

C50, 24 kN/m^3 , 20 mm aggregate.

Fire and durability Fire resistance 1 hour; mild exposure.

4.3.4 DESIGN NOTES

Internal columns

The charts and data for internal columns assume equal spans in each orthogonal direction (ie. $I_{x1} = I_{x2}$ and $I_{v1} = I_{v2}$). If spans are unequal by more than, say, 15%, then consider treating the column as an edge column.

Perimeter (edge and corner) columns

The charts and data for edge columns assume equal spans in the direction parallel with the edge. If these spans are unequal, by more than, say, 15%, consider treating edge columns as corner columns.

Precast internal columns

Precast edge columns 2% reinforcement

LOAD:SIZE CHART

Precast edge columns 3% reinforcement

Precast corner columns 2% reinforcement

LOAD:SIZE CHART

Precast corner columns 3% reinforcement

ULTIMATE AXIAL LOAD, N, **kN**

5.1 Notes

5.1.1 POST-TENSIONING

Compressing concrete, using tensioned high strength steel strands, reduces or even eliminates tensile stresses and cracks in the concrete. This gives rise to a range of benefits over normally reinforced sections: increased spans, stiffness and watertightness, and reduced construction depths, self-weights and deflections. Prestressing can be carried out before or after casting the concrete. Tensioning the strands before casting, (ie. pre-tensioning) tends to be used in the factory, eg, in precast floor units; and post-tensioning tends to be used on site.

In floors, where the level of prestress tends to be low, post-tensioning is usually achieved using monostrand **unbonded** tendons (typically 15.7 mm in diameter, covered in grease within a protective sheath) cast into the concrete. Once the concrete achieves sufficient strength, tendons are stressed using a simple hand-held jack and anchored off.

In beams, where the level of prestress tends to be higher and where tendon congestion is to be avoided (or in oneway slabs and beams, where large amounts of normal untensioned reinforcement are to be avoided), posttensioning is generally achieved using multi-strand **bonded** tendons (eg. 3, 4, 5, or 9 no. 15.7 mm strands in round or flattened galvanised ducts). These too are cast into the concrete and tensioned once the concrete has gained sufficient strength. The strands are then anchored off and the ducts grouted.

As post-tensioned slabs and beams are relatively easy to design and construct, they are compatible with fast construction techniques. They are also safe and adaptable. Concrete Society Technical Report No. 43, *Post-tensioned concrete floors - design handbook(10)* gives further details of design. *Posttensioned floors for multi-storey buildings(11)* gives more general guidance. For specific applications, advice should be sought from specialist engineers and contractors.

5.1.2 USING THE CHARTS AND DATA

The charts and data for slabs cover one-way solid, ribbed and flat slabs, and assume the use of unbonded tendons. They give depths and other data against spans for a range of **characteristic** imposed loads. An allowance of 1.5 kN/m2 has been made for superimposed dead loads (SDL).

The first set of charts for post-tensioned beams assume 1000 mm wide rectangular beams with no flange action. Other web widths can be investigated on a pro-rata

basis, ie. by determining the ultimate applied uniformly distributed load per metre width of web. Charts and data for 2400 mm wide 'T' beams are also presented. These assume full flange action. The beam charts 'work' on **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl) in kN/m. The user must calculate or estimate this line load for each beam considered (see Section 8.2). The user is expected to interpolate between values given in the relevant charts and data, and round up both the loads and depth in line with his or her confidence in the design criteria used and normal modular sizing.

Please note that for any given load and span, there is a range of legitimate depths depending on the amount of prestress assumed. Indeed, in practice, many posttensioned elements are designed to make a certain depth work (see Section 7.3).

5.1.3 DESIGN NOTES

The charts and data assume the use of single-strand unbonded tendons. In longer spans, where single-strand unbonded tendons would become congested, consideration should be given to using bonded multistrand tendons in flat or round ducts. In such cases, appropriate allowances should be made as several design assumptions made in the derivation of the charts become invalid (eg. cover, effective depth, wobble factor, etc.). Generally sections with bonded tendons need to be deeper than the theoretical sizes indicated for sections with unbonded tendons.

Design assumptions for the individual types of slab and beams are described in the relevant data. Other assumptions made are described and discussed in Section 7. Reinforcement and tendon quantities are approximate only (see Section 2.2.4).

For specific applications, advice should be sought from specialist engineers and contractors (see Section 10.4). For examples: CDM regulations oblige designers to consider demolition during initial design, and the effects of restraint need to be assessed. The use of detailed frame analysis can lead to significant economies in an overall package.

5.2 Post-tensioned slabs

One-way slabs
One-way in-situ solid slabs are the most basic form of

slab. Post-tensioning can minimize slab thickness and control deflection and cracking. Generally used in office buildings and car parks. Economical in spans up to 10 m.

ADVANTAGES

- **Simple**
- Minimum thickness
- Controlled deflection and cracking

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: differences in slab thickness for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 5.0 kN/m2

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

 P/A 3.5 $N/mm² max$

Ribbed slabs

Post-tensioning can minimize slab thickness and control deflection and cracking. Generally employed in office buildings and car parks. Economical in spans from 8 to 18 m. Charts are based on 300 mm wide ribs, spaced at 1200 mm centres.

ADVANTAGES

- Medium and long spans
- **Lightweight**
- Profile can be expressed architecturally
- Holes in topping cause few structural problems

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: differences in slab thickness for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 5.0 kN/m2

Flat slabs with edge beams

Popular overseas for apartment blocks, office buildings, hospitals, hotels etc, where spans are similar in both directions. Economical for spans of 7 to 12 m. Square panels are most economical.

ADVANTAGES

- Simple, fast construction and formwork
- Architectural finish can be applied directly to the underside of the slab
- Minimum thickness and storey heights
- Controlled deflection and cracking
- Flexibility of partition location and horizontal service distribution

DISADVANTAGES

- Holes, especially large holes near columns, require planning
- Punching shear provision around columns may be considered to be a problem but can be offset by using larger columns, column heads, drop panels or proprietary systems. Post-tensioning improves shear capacity

T16@350B both ways 220 246 274 306 360 424 516

max 7 tendons/m

5.3 Post-tensioned beams

Rectangular 1000 mm wide

Prestressing beams can give great economic benefit for spans of 8 to 16 m in a wide range of structures. Whilst the charts and data relate to 1000 mm wide rectangular beams, other widths can be investigated pro-rata.

ADVANTAGES

- Minimum thickness and storey heights
- Post-tensioning perceived to be a specialist operation

In line with the post-tensioned slab charts, the use of single-strand **unbonded** tendons is assumed. However, in practice, serious consideration whould be given to using bonded multi-strand tendons in flat or round ducts.

DISADVANTAGES

- Controlled deflection and cracking
- Tendon congestion

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

'T' beams 2400 mm wide web

Wide, shallow, post-tensioned multiple-span 'T' beams maximize the benefits of minimum construction depths, minimum deflections and less theoretical cracking. Economical for spans of 8 to 16 m.

ADVANTAGES

- Minimum thickness and storey heights
- Controlled deflection and cracking

The charts and data assume the use of single-strand unbonded tendons. However, in practice, bonded multistrand tendons in flat or round ducts are more likely to be used. This will lead to increases in depth.

DISADVANTAGES

Post-tensioning perceived to be a specialist operation Tendon congestion

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see above): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

v = reinforcement added, B, for ultimate load case t-- = tendon congestion and no. of tendons required per 2.4 m width **uaudl= 50 kN/m** no no no no no nov noqvt20 noqvt22 noqvt24 **uaudl= 100 kN/m** no no nov novt21 novt23 novt25 noqvt27 noqvt30 noqvt32

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS (see above): implications on beam depths for 100 kN/m uaudl

SPAN:DEPTH CHART

6 WALLS AND STAIRS

6.1 Walls

they also very often provide lateral stability to a Reinforced concrete walls not only take vertical load, but structure. Whilst this publication is not intended to cover stability, the design of such walls is considered here briefly.

Walls should be checked for the worst combination of vertical loads, in-plane bending (stability against lateral loads) and bending at right angles to the plane of the wall (induced by adjoining floors, etc).

Walls providing lateral stability should be continuous throughout the height of the building or structure. In plan, the shear centre of the walls should coincide as much as possible with the centre of action of the applied horizontal loads (wind) in two orthogonal directions; otherwise twisting moments need to be considered.

For an element to be considered as a wall, the breadth (b) must be at least four times the thickness (h). To be considered as being reinforced, a wall must have at least 0.004bh of high yield reinforcement in the vertical direction and 0.0025bh of high yield reinforcement horizontally.

Slender walls should be avoided, ie. the ratio of their effective height to thickness should be less than 15. From BS 8110 Pt 1 Cl 3.8.1.6, effective height factors for braced columns/walls are given as:

Condition 1 at both ends . . .

walls connected monolithically to slabs either side that are at least as deep as the wall, or connected to a foundation able to carry moment . . . 0.75

Condition 2 at both ends . . .

walls connected monolithically to slabs either side that are shallower but at least half as deep as the wall . . . 0.85 *Condition 3* at both ends . . .

walls connected to members that provide no more than nominal restraint to rotation **...** 1.00

A factor of 0.85 is commonly used for conceptual design of in-situ walls. In practice these requirements usually result in the use of 200 mm thick cantilever walls in lowrise multi-storey buildings. The walls are dispersed around the plan and, as far as possible, located in cores and stair areas. The vertical load capacities of walls, with minimum quantities of reinforcement, are usually adequate in these low-rise structures. Obviously the design of walls becomes more critical with increasing height of structures as both in-plane bending and axial loads increase.

With these caveats in mind the information in the table below is given for guidance only.

Notes: a capacities for A_{sreq'd} assume nominal eccentricity only # preferred thickness
b includes 20% for laps and wastage. etc. bs both sides b includes 20% for laps and wastage, etc.

6.2 Stairs

There are many possible configurations of stair flights, landings and supports. The charts and data consider parallel flights as illustrated opposite.

In-situ spans may be considered as being simply supported or continuous – depending upon the amount of continuity available. Precast flights are usually considered as simply supported. Landings are treated as solid slabs.

In-situ stairs provide robustness, mouldability and continuity of work for formworkers. Precast stairs provide quality, speed of construction and early access.

DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

SUPPORTED BY	BEAMS, WALLS or LANDINGS.							
REINFORCEMENT	T16. T10 @ 300 distribution. 10% allowed for wastage and laps.							
DIMENSIONS	Flight assumed to be 60% of span. Going 250 mm, rise 180 mm.							
LOADS	Superimposed load (SDL) of 1.50 kN/m ² (for finishes, services, etc.) included. Ultimate loads assume elastic reaction factors of 0.5 to supports of single spans, 1.1 and 0.46 to supports of continuous spans.							
IMPOSED LOADS	1.5 kN/ $m2$ - self-contained dwellings; 4.0 kN/ $m2$ - hotels, offices, institutional buildings, etc.							
CONCRETE	C35, 24 kN/m ³ , 20 mm aggregate							
FIRE & DURABILITY	Fire resistance 1 hour; mild exposure.							
	SINGLE SPANS, m					MULTIPLE SPANS, m		
SPANS, m	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0
WAIST THICKNESS, mm								
$IL = 1.5$ kN/m ²	100	126	162	202	100	106	134	164
$IL = 4.0$ kN/m ²	100	134	174	216	100	112	144	176
ULTIMATE LOAD TO INTERNAL (END) SUPPORTS, KN/m					(Equivalent to a ultimate applied udl to landing)			
$IL = 1.5$ kN/m ²	n/a(10)	n/a (17)	n/a (25)	n/a (36)	21(9)	34 (16)	51 (23)	70 (32)
$IL = 4.0$ kN/m ²	n/a (14)	n/a(23)	n/a (34)	n/a(47)	30(13)	48 (22)	70 (32)	95 (43)
REINFORCEMENT, kq/m ²								
$IL = 1.5$ kN/m ²	16	20	24	27	9	12	15	18
$IL = 4.0$ kN/m ²	18	24	26	30	11	15	17	20

VARIATIONS TO DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS: differences in waist thickness for a characteristic imposed load (IL) of 4.0 kN/m2

LANDINGS (chart only)

Reinforcement approximately 20 to 30 kg/m2 extra over flight reinforcement.

7 DERIVATION OF CHARTS AND DATA

7.1 In-situ elements

7.1.1 GENERAL

For a given load and span, slabs (or beams) can be designed at different depths. Thinner slabs have proportionally more reinforcement, but require less concrete, less perimeter cladding and less support from columns and foundations. Each of these items can be ascribed a cost. The summation of these costs is a measure of overall construction cost. There is a minimum overall cost which can be identified by designing an element at different depths and pricing the resulting quantities using budget rates and comparing totals. In order to derive the charts and data in this publication, this process was automated using computer spreadsheets.

For a particular span and load, elements were designed in accordance with BS 8110 Pt. 1 (up to and including Amendment $4)^{(2)}$ and Pt 2 (up to and including Amendment 1)⁽³⁾. Unit rates were applied to the required quantities of concrete, reinforcement and formwork. Allowances were made for perimeter cladding and supporting self-weight. The resulting budget costs were summed and the most economic valid depth identified, as illustrated by the chart below.

The example relates to the RCC's *Cost Model Study* (6) M4C3 building. This used solid flat slabs on a 7.5 m square grid, with 5.0 kN/m² imposed load, 1.5 kN/m² superimposed dead load and a 10 kN/m allowance for cladding. A thickness of 280 mm would appear to give best overall value. The data for a 280 mm depth would have been identified and saved.

Data for different spans and loads, and different forms of construction were obtained in a similar manner.This body of data forms the basis for all the information in this publication. The charts and data therefore represent optimum depths over a range of common spans and loadings using the methods and assumptions described.

The budget rates used in the optimization were as follows:

Origin of data: example showing how most economic sizes were identified

These rates, apart from post-tensioning tendons, are taken from the RCC's *Cost Model Study,* which was published in 1993. The rates have dated and will undoubtedly date further. However, the optimization process used in the derivation of the charts is not sensitive to actual rates and is not too sensitive to relative differences in rates. For instance using curtain wall cladding at, say, £750/m², would make little difference to the chart or data for flat slabs (but would probably improve the relative economics of using flat slabs compared with other forms of in-situ construction).

Had the optimisation process been carried out using concrete, reinforcement and formwork alone, slightly larger slab and beam sizes with lower amounts of reinforcement would have been found. However, whilst the concrete superstructure costs would have been less, the aggregate cost of the building, including cladding, foundations and vertical structure, would have been greater.

The allowance for self-weight is a measure of the additional cost in columns and foundations to support an additional 1 kN in slabs or beams. The figure used is derived from the *Cost Model Study* buildings and is based on the difference in supporting three storeys rather than seven storeys in terms of £/kN. The foundations were simple pad foundations (safe bearing pressure 200 kN/m2). Using a higher cost per kN to allow for piling, rafts or difficult ground conditions would tend to make thinner slabs theoretically more economic, but would make their design more critical.

Construction durations and differences attributable to different types of construction tend to be project specific and are difficult to model. Time costs, therefore, were not taken into account in the optimization process.

7.1.2 DESIGN ASSUMPTIONS

Unless noted otherwise, the charts assume:

The use of BS $8110^{(2)}$ moment and shear factors (tables 3.6 and 3.13)

End spans are critical

The use of C35 concrete ($f_{cu} = 35$ N/mm²) and high yield steel ($f_y = 460 \text{ N/mm}^2$)

Mild exposure conditions and 1 hour fire resistance

Concrete density of 24 kN/m3

Other assumptions made in the design spreadsheets are described more fully below and within the charts and data. The implications of variations to some of these assumptions are covered in the data. Other limitations of the charts and data, especially accuracy of reinforcement quantities, are covered in Section 2.2. Whenever appropriate, reference was made to relevant texts(12, 13, 14, 15).

Moments and shears factors given in BS 8110, Pt 1⁽²⁾ tables 3.6 and 3.13 were used. More sophisticated analysis may be appropriate during more detailed design at a later stage of the design process.

The charts and data for multiple spans assume a minimum of three spans. Theoretically, to maintain a common 20% redistribution of support moments, twospan slab elements should be subject to greater support moment and shear coefficients than those given in table 3.13 of BS 8110. Nonetheless, the sizes given in the charts and data can be used for two-span slab elements unless support moment or shear is considered critical. In this case two-span slabs should be justified by analysis and design.

In many cases, particularly with slabs, deflection is critical to design. In such instances additional tension reinforcement was provided to reduce service stress, f_s, and increase the modification factor for tension reinforcement (see BS 8110, table 3.11). A modification factor allowing for small amounts of compression reinforcement was used in the determination of flat slab and beam depths.

As lightweight concretes are not always readily available, they were considered to be inappropriate for this publication. Nonetheless, they might be an ideal solution for a particular project.

7.1.3 SLAB CHARTS AND DATA

Slab charts give overall depths against spans for a range of **characteristic** imposed loads assuming end spans. An allowance of 1.5 kN/m2 has been made for superimposed dead loads (finishes, services, etc). For two-way slab systems (ie. flat slabs, troughed slabs and waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs with integral beams), an allowance of 10 kN/m has been made around perimeters to allow for the self-weight of cladding.

As BS 8110, Pt 1, Cl 3.5.2.4, the charts and data are valid where:

In a one-way slab the area of a bay (one span x full width) exceeds 30 m²

The ratio of characteristic imposed loads, q_k , to characteristic dead loads, g_{k} , does not exceed 1.25

The characteristic imposed load, q_k , does not exceed 5 kN/m2 , excluding partitions

Additionally, for flat slabs, there are at least three rows of panels of approximately equal span in the direction being considered.

If design parameters stray outside these limits, the sizes and data given should be used with caution.

In general, slabs were assumed to have simple end supports, ie. an ultimate bending moment factor of 0.086 was used. For flat slabs, continuous end supports were

assumed, but the end support moment was restricted to M_{tmax} with possible consequential increase in span moments.

Reinforcement densities assume that the areas or volumes of slabs are measured gross, eg. slabs are measured through beams and the presence of voids in ribbed slabs is ignored.

7.1.4 BEAM CHARTS AND DATA

The beam charts and data give overall depths against span for a range of **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl, see 8.2.1) and web widths. For multiple spans, sizes given result from considering the end span of three.The charts and data were derived using essentially the same optimization process as for slabs. As BS 8110, Pt 1, Cl 3.4.3, the charts and data are valid where:

Characteristic imposed loads, Q_{k} , do not exceed characteristic dead loads, Gk

Loads are substantially uniformly distributed over three or more spans

Variations in span length do not exceed 15% of the longest span

Where the charts stray outside these limits, the sizes and data given should be used with caution.

In the optimisation process there were slight differences in the allowances for cladding and the self-weight of beams compared with slabs. The allowance for perimeter cladding was applied only to 'T' (ie. internal) beams greater than 500 mm deep: the assumption made is that shallower internal beams, perimeter inverted 'L' beams and rectangular beams would not affect storey heights. For the purposes of self-weight, the first 200 mm depth of beam was ignored: it was assumed that the applied load included the self-weight of a 200 mm solid slab.

Different design criteria can be critical across the range of beams described. The sizes given in the charts and tables are at least 20 mm deeper than for an invalid design using BS 8110 table 3.6 for analysis. The critical criteria are given under *Design notes* in Section 3.2.4.

Particular attention is drawn to the need to check that there is adequate room for reinforcement bearing at end supports. End support/column dimensions can have a major affect on the number and size of reinforcing bars that can be curtailed over the support. Hence, the size of the end support can have a major effect on the main bending steel and therefore size of beam. The charts assume that the end support/column size is based on edge columns with 2.5% reinforcement supporting a minimum of three storeys or levels of similarly loaded beams. Smaller columns or narrower supports, particularly for narrow beams, may

invalidate the details assumed and therefore size given (see Cl 3.12.9.4 of BS 8110).

Beam reinforcement densities relate to web width multiplied by overall depth.

7.1.5 COLUMN CHARTS

The column charts give square sizes against **ultimate** axial loads for a range of steel contents for **braced** internal, edge and corner columns. Column design is dependant on both ultimate axial load and ultimate design moments. In recognition of the different amounts of moment likely to be experienced by the columns, internal, edge and external corner columns are treated separately. Design moments depend on spans, loads and stiffnesses of members and are specific to a column or group of columns. Whilst the allowance made for moments is considered to be conservative, it is uncertain. The sizes given, particularly for perimeter columns, are, therefore, **estimates** only.

All data were derived from spreadsheets that designed square braced columns supporting solid flat slabs. Forces were derived in accordance with BS 8110, Pt 1, Cl 3.8.2.3; and applied moments in perimeter columns in accordance with Cl 3.2.1.2.3. Many different configurations were used: 2 to 10 storeys, panel aspect ratios (I_v/I_x) of 1.00, 1.25, 1.5 and 1.75 etc. In general, the slabs were assumed to carry 5.0 kN/m² imposed load, 1.0 kN/m2 superimposed dead load, and 8.5 kN/m perimeter load (3.0 kN/m at roof level). Floor-to-floor height was set at 3.6 m and β for columns, 0.85. Checks were carried out over a limited range of aspect ratios assuming different imposed loads, different perimeter loads and different types of slab (troughed floors and one-way slab and beams).

Internal columns

Internal column sizes are based on 'an allowable stress', pc, where:

 $p_c = 0.384 \times f_{cu} + 3.6 \times f_y \times (As/100)/460.$

The extensive trials suggested an accuracy of ± 12 mm in square column size. The charts and data will be less accurate if unequal adjacent spans and/or imposed loads higher than 5 kN/m² are used or if other than nominal moment is envisaged.

Perimeter columns

The charts were derived from the design of square braced columns as described above: the largest square column size from the range of panel aspect ratios is quoted. As relatively flexible flat slabs were used in the derivation, these sizes should, in general, prove conservative. However, they may not be so when less stiff floor plates or very lightweight cladding is used.

In order to model design moments simply, the charts and data are presented in terms of ultimate axial load and number of storeys supported.

Comparisons of the charts with the base data suggested that the square sizes given are reasonably accurate. They appear to be an average of 12 mm (sd 25 mm) greater than those required for the desired percentage of reinforcement for the worst panel aspect ratio. Suggested sizes are less accurate for one- and two-storey columns, floor or beam spans greater than 12 m, and floor panel aspect ratios greater than 1.50.

Concrete grade

The use of concrete strengths greater than the 35 N/mm2 concrete assumed can decrease the sizes of column required. Smaller columns occupy less lettable space. However, this publication is aimed at low-rise buildings where buildability issues (eg. different mixes on site, punching shear and reinforcement curtailment requirements) minimize potential gains. Also, in the range considered, the use of column concrete strengths greater than 35 N/mm2 appears to make little difference to the size of perimeter column required. Higher strength columns are therefore not covered in this publication, but should be considered, particularly on high-rise projects.

Reinforcement percentages

Reinforcement percentages assume 3.6 m storey heights and 37 diameters $+100$ mm laps.

7.2 Precast and composite elements

7.2.1 SLABS

The charts and data for proprietary precast and composite elements are based on manufacturers' 1996 data. The sizes given are selected, wherever possible, from those offered in late 1996 by at least two manufacturers. The ultimate loads to supporting beams are derived from the maximum self-weight quoted for the relevant size.

The units are designed to BS 8110, generally using grade C50 concrete, high tensile strand or wire prestressing steel to BS 5896 or high tensile steel to BS 4449. For specific applications the reader should refer to manufacturers' current literature.

Precast and in-situ concrete can act together to give efficient, economical and quick composite sections. For slabs, these benefits are exploited in the range of composite floors available. The data have been abstracted from manufacturers' literature.

7.2.2 COMPOSITE BEAMS

For composite beams the position is not so clear cut. During the construction of a composite beam (precast downstands acting with an in-situ topping), the precast element will usually require temporary propping until the in-situ part has gained sufficient strength. The number of variables (construction stage loading, span, propped span, age at loading, etc.) has, to date, precluded the preparation of adequate span/load charts and data for such beams. However, the combination of precast concrete with in-situ concrete (or hybrid concrete construction) has many benefits, particularly for buildability, and should not be discounted.

7.2.3 PRECAST BEAMS

The charts and data in this publication therefore concentrate on unpropped non-composite beams. They cover a range of profiles, web widths and **ultimate** applied uniformly distributed loads (uaudl).

These charts were derived from spreadsheets using the same optimisation process as in-situ beams. The design of precast beams was based on ordinary reinforced concrete design principles as covered in BS 8110⁽²⁾ and *Multi-storey precast concrete framed structures* (9). The single spans were measured from centreline of support to centreline of support. For 'L' and inverted 'T' beams, a ledge width of 125 mm was assumed. Upstanding concrete is therefore relatively wide and, for structural purposes, was considered part of the section. In-situ concrete infill was ignored. The depths of beams were minimized consistent with allowing suitable depth for precast floor elements.

The main complication with precast beams is the connections. The type of connection is usually specific to individual manufacturers and can affect the beams. The sizes of beams given should therefore be considered as indicative only. Other aspects, notably, connection design and details, other components, columns, floors, walls, stairs, stability, structural integrity and overall economy can influence final beam sizing.

Manufacturers produce a wide range of preferred crosssections based on 50 mm increments. Designs with other cross-sections are easily accommodated. The economics of precast beams depend on repetition: a major cost is the manufacture of the base moulds. Reinforcement is usually part of an overall package and, therefore, densities are not quoted (but they tend to be high). For specific applications, the reader should refer to manufacturers and their current literature.

7.2.4 COLUMNS

These charts were derived from spreadsheets using the same optimization process as that described for in-situ columns. The design of precast columns is based on ordinary reinforced concrete design principles as covered in BS 8110. Column design is dependant upon axial load and design moment induced. The charts and data for internal columns assume equal spans in each direction (ie. $I_{x1} = I_{x2}$ and $I_{y1} = I_{y2}$) and, therefore, nominal moments.

The charts and data for edge and corner columns are presented in terms of ultimate axial load, and, in order to model design moments simply, number of storeys. They have been derived by assuming that the floor reaction acts at a nominal eccentricity of $\mathbb E$ column size + 150 mm.

Grade 50 concrete suits factory production requirements and is commonly used for precast columns. Reinforcement densities are affected by connection details and are therefore not given.

Factory production and casting in a horizontal position allow much greater percentages of reinforcement to be used. This is acknowledged in BS 8110, which allows reinforcement areas of up to 8%. However, connection details can limit the amounts of reinforcement that can be used. The charts for perimeter columns, therefore, concentrate on relatively small amounts of reinforcement. Higher percentages and higher or lower grades of concrete should be checked by a specialist engineer or contractor.

For specific applications, please refer to manufacturers.

7.3 Post-tensioned elements

7.3.1 GENERAL

The charts and data are derived from spreadsheets that designed the elements in accordance with BS 8110 (2) and Concrete Society Technical Report No 43(10). Reference was made to other material (11,16) as required. The effects of columns and restraint were ignored in the analysis and design.

In many respects, span:depth charts for post-tensioned elements are very subjective as, for any given load and span, there is a range of legitimate depths. Indeed, in practice, many post-tensioned elements are designed to make a certain depth work. The amount of load balanced or prestress assumed can be varied to make many depths work.

For the purposes of this publication, preliminary studies were undertaken to investigate the overall economics of slabs and beams versus amount of prestress. The studies suggested that high levels of prestress (eg. 3.0, 4.0 and 5.0 N/mm2) were, theoretically, increasingly more economic in overall terms. However, at these upper limits of stress (and span), problems of tendon and anchorage congestion and element shortening become increasingly dominant. Theoretical economies have to be balanced against issues of buildability and serviceability. The charts and data in this publication are, therefore, based on more typical mid-range levels of prestress, 2.5 N/mm2 for slabs and 3.0 N/mm2 for beams. The charts give an indication of the range of depth for higher and lower levels of prestress. Higher levels of pre-stress may be appropriate in certain circumstances. 2.5 N/mm2 might be considered high for flat slabs.

The shape of the lines for the span:depth charts for prestressed elements is the product of a number of slopes (in order of increasing slope - vibration limitations, load balanced, limits on the amount of prestress (P/A limit), deflection and the number of tendons allowed). For longer spans, number of tendons and limiting prestress predominate. At shorter spans and lower loads, it is the amount of load balanced that is critical. The amounts of load that were used to balance loads were:

Solid slabs
100% dead load

25% imposed load

Ribbed slabs, flat slabs and beams 133% dead load 33% imposed load

The charts and data assume the use of single-strand unbonded tendons. Where these become congested, consideration should be given to using bonded multistrand tendons in flat or round ducts. The use of bonded tendons in ducts will alter assumptions made regarding cover, drapes, wobble factors, coefficient of friction, construction methods etc. and, without increasing assumed prestress, will increase depths. For beams, indications of increased depths using bonded flat-4 and round-7 multi-strand tendons are given.

The charts for multiple spans are based on a three-span condition. Normally, at the serviceability limit state for a multiple span, the two-span condition would be assumed to give the maximum moment (at support). However, preventing post-tensioned multi-span elements rising at internal supports causes secondary moments in the elements. These moments are usually beneficial to support moments and detrimental to span moments to the extent that ultimate three-span span moments (including ultimate secondary moments) are generally more critical than serviceability two-span support moments (or, indeed, ultimate or serviceability four-span span or support moments). The three-span case has therefore been used.

Special care must be taken, however, with one-way slabs over 12 m and flat slabs, where the two-span condition appears to be more critical than the three-span condition. The depths of highly loaded two-span rectangular beams may also need minor adjustment. Please refer to relevant data.

BS 8110 allows for three serviceability classes: class 1 allows no flexural tensile stresses, class 2 allows flexural tensile stresses but no visible cracking, and class 3 allows flexural tensile stresses with cracks limited to 0.2 mm (0.1 mm in severe environments). Most elements in buildings are assumed to be in an internal environment, and are designed to serviceability class 3. The charts are therefore based on class 3. (The allowable crack width in the design of untensioned bonded reinforcement is 0.3 mm.)

7.3.2 RIBBED SLABS

Charts and data for ribbed slabs are based on 300 mm wide ribs, spaced at 1200 mm centres and assume a maximum of six 15.7 mm diameter tendons per rib. The weight of (untensioned) reinforcement allows for nominal links to support the tendons, but does not allow for mesh, eg. A142, in the topping. Where four or fewer tendons are used (and apart from 2 and 4 hours fire resistance and severe exposure), the sizes are equally valid for 150 mm wide ribs at 600 centres or 225 mm wide ribs at 900 centres.

7.3.3 FLAT SLABS

The rules in Concrete Society Technical Report 43 regarding allowable tensile stresses determined the use of serviceability class 2 design. The inclusion of untensioned bonded reinforcement was assumed.

Punching shear can limit minimum thicknesses. The charts and data assume that column sizes will be at least equal to those given in the data.

7.3.4 BEAMS - RATIO OF DEAD LOAD TO LIVE LOAD

The charts and data 'work' on applied ultimate load. However, in multiple spans, the ratio of imposed load to dead load can alter span moments, and a ratio of 1.0 (ie. applied imposed load = applied dead load) was assumed.

Lower ratios, with dead loads predominating, make little difference to the sizes advocated. For a higher ratio of 1.25 (imposed:dead, eg. a 300 mm ribbed slab, average 4.5 kN/m2 , supporting 1.5 kN/m2 SDL and 7.5 kN/m2 IL), guidance is given. Still higher ratios can induce mid-span hogging and might be dealt with by assuming the beam depth tends towards being the same as those for a single span (where ratios are of little consequence).

7.3.5 DESIGN BASIS

The spreadsheets used in the preparation of the charts and data followed the method in Concrete Society Technical Report No 43, and used the load balancing method of design. Moments and shears were derived from moment distribution analysis. Both tensioned and untensioned reinforcement were designed and allowance was made for distribution steel and reinforcement around anchorages. Designs were subject to limiting amount of prestress and number of tendons. Generally, service moments were critical.

Deflection checks were based on uncracked concrete sections and limited to span/250 overall and span/500 or 20 mm after the application of finishes. Vibration was considered using the Concrete Society Technical Report 43 method of analysis assuming three bays with square panels in the orthogonal direction. Generally, response factors of less than 4 were found (4 is acceptable for special offices, 8 for general offices and 12 is acceptable for busy offices).

The following data was used in the preparation of the charts:

Bonded reinforcement $f_v = 460$ N/mm²

Tendons

15.7 mm diameter unbonded tendons, $A_p = 150$ mm²

 $f_{\text{pu}} = 1770 \text{ N/mm}^2$ Transfer $losses = 10%$

Service losses = 20% Coefficient of friction, $\mu = 0.06$

Wobble factor, $\omega = 0.019$ rads/m

Relaxation $= 2.5\%$

Relaxation factor $= 1.5\%$

Young's modulus, $E_{ps} = 195$ kN/mm²

Sheath thickness $= 1.5$ mm

 P_{Ap} =150 kN approx.

Inflection of tendon at 0.1 of span.

Wedge draw-in $= 6$ mm

Whilst Superstrand tendons were used in the derivation of the charts and data, other tendons, eg. Dyform strand, may prove to be just as, or more, economic.

Concrete

Properties at transfer: characteristic compressive strength, f $_{\rm ci}$ = 25.0 N/mm², Young's modulus, E $_{\rm ci}$ = 21.7 kN/mm2 .

Indoor exposure; Coefficient of drying shrinkage, e_{sh} = 300 microstrain.

Creep coefficients, ϕ , for loads applied after 7 days, 2.0; after 1 month, 1.8 and after 6 months, 1.2.

8 LOADS

8.1 Slabs

The slab charts and data give overall depths, etc. against span for a range of **characteristic** imposed loads assuming end spans and a superimposed dead load (finishes, services, etc) of 1.5 kN/m2 . In order to use the slab charts and data as intended, it is essential that the correct characteristic imposed load is used (if necessary modified to account for different superimposed dead loads).

8.1.1 IMPOSED LOADS, qks

The imposed load should be determined from the intended use of the building (see BS 6399 Pt $1⁽⁵⁾$). The actual design imposed load used should be agreed with the client. However, the following characteristic imposed loads are typical of those applied to floor slabs.

In addition, an allowance of 1.0 kN/m2 should be considered for demountable partitions in office buildings. A common specification is '4 + 1', ie. 4.0 kN/ m^2 imposed load plus 1.0 kN/m2 for demountable partitions. No reductions in imposed load have been made (BS 6399 Pt 1 tables 2 and 3) nor are provisions for concentrated loads considered.

8.1.2 **SUPERIMPOSED DEAD LOADS (SDL), glssdl**

Superimposed dead loads allow for the weight of services, finishes, etc. The IStructE/ICE publication, *Manual for the design of reinforced concrete building structures(12),* recommends that allowances for dead loads on plan should be generous and not less than those shown in the opposite column.

Raised access flooring imparts loads of up to approximately 0.5 kN/m2 and suspended ceilings weigh up to approximately 0.15 kN/m². BS 648⁽¹⁷⁾ schedules the weight of building materials. It can be used to derive the following typical characteristic loads:

Examples of typical build-ups are given below:

Offices

BS 6399 allows one to take " of the line load from partitions as a uniformly distributed load. In this case, say, 3.25 m high 150 mm thick dense blockwork @ 1.90 kN/m2 plus gypsum plaster 12.7 mm both sides @ 0.42 kN/m2

8.1.3 SUPERIMPOSED DEAD LOADS, gksdl: IMPOSED LOADS (IL) FOR USE WITH SLAB CHARTS AND DATA

The charts and data make an allowance of 1.50 kN/m2 for superimposed dead loading (SDL). If the actual superimposed dead load differs from 1.50 kN/m², the characteristic imposed load used for interrogating the charts and data should be adjusted by adding 1.4/1.6 x (actual SDL - 1.50) kN/m². The equivalent characteristic imposed load can be estimated from the table opposite.

Equivalent imposed loads, kN/m2

8.1.4 SELF-WEIGHTS OF SLABS, gks

In order to use the beam and column charts and data as intended, it may be necessary to calculate beam and column loads from first principles, or, as in the case of post-tensioned beams, it may be necessary to know the proportion of dead load to imposed load. All slab charts and data include allowances for self-weight at a density of 24 kN/m2

The following self-weights are indicative. Values for ribbed and waffle slabs may differ, depending upon mould manufacture. Values for precast slabs also may differ between manufacturers.

Characteristic self-weight of slabs, gks, kN/m2

Notes

- 1 including in-situ, precast and composite solid slabs
- 2 bespoke moulds, 150 mm ribs at 750 mm cc, 100 mm topping
- 3 bespoke moulds, 125 mm ribs at 900 mm cc, 100 mm topping
- 4 for slabs with 50 mm structural topping, add 0.2 kN/m²
- 5 for slabs 300, 400, 500 mm, etc. thick, deduct 0.6 kN/m2
- 6 for slabs with 100 mm topping, add 0.6 kN/m^2

8.1.5 ULTIMATE SLAB LOAD, n_s

Ultimate loads are summations of characteristic loads multiplied by appropriate partial load factors, ie:

 n_s = ultimate self-weight of slab, $q_{ks} \times \gamma_{fak}$

+ ultimate superimposed dead loads, $g_{ksdl} \times \gamma_{fgh}$

+

ultimate imposed load, $q_{ks} \times \gamma_{fqk}$

where

 g_{ks} , g_{ksdl} and g_{ks} are as explained above and measured in kN/m2

 $y_{\text{fak}} =$ load factor for dead loads = 1.4

 γ_{fak} = load factor for dead loads = 1.6

Example

What is the ultimate load of a 300 mm solid slab supporting 1.5 kN/m2 superimposed dead loads and 5.0 kN/m2 imposed load?

n_s =
$$
7.2 \times 1.4 + 1.5 \times 1.4 + 5.0 \times 1.6
$$

= 20.46 kN/m²

8.2 Beams

8.2.1 CALCULATING ULTIMATE APPLIED UNIFORMLY DISTRIBUTED LOADS (uaudl) TO BEAM, nb

The beam charts give overall depths against span for a range of **ultimate** applied loads and web widths, assuming end spans. This load can be calculated as follows:

Ultimate applied udl to beam,

- n_b = ultimate applied load from slabs, $n_s \times l_s \times erf$
	- + ultimate line loads, n_{\parallel}

8.2.2 ULTIMATE APPLIED LOAD FROM SLABS, $n_s \times l_s \times erf$

Ultimate applied load from slabs should be calculated by multiplying the following terms:

 $n_s \times l_s \times erf$

where

- ns ultimate slab load, kN/m2, as described above.
- $ls = slab span perpendicular to the beam, m. In the$ case of multiple-span slabs, take the average of the two spans perpendicular to the beam.
- $erf =$ elastic reaction factor $=$
- 0.46 for end support of continuous slabs (0.45 for beams)
- 0.5 for end support of simply supported slabs (or beams)
- 1.0 for interior supports of multiple-span continuous slabs (eg. in-situ slabs) or for all interior supports of discontinuous slabs (eg. precast slabs)
- 1.1 for the first interior supports of continuous slabs of three or more spans
- 1.2 for the internal support of continuous slabs of two spans

Adjustments for elastic reactions

The data for slabs include ultimate applied loads from slabs to beams. These figures may need to be adjusted to account for actual conditions, eg. for an in-situ slab of two spans rather than that for the three spans assumed, consider increasing loads to beams by 1.2/1.1, ie. approximately 10%. NB: data for post-tensioned slabs is the result of analysis and therefore includes elastic reactions.

8.2.3 **ULTIMATE LINE LOADS, n**_{ll}

Ultimate line load,

- $n_{\text{II}} =$ ultimate cladding loads, $g_{kc} \times \gamma_{fgh} \times h$
	- + other ultimate line loads, $q_{ko} \times \gamma_{fak}$
	- +

adjustment for ultimate beam self-weight, $q_{\text{kbm}} \times \gamma_{\text{fqk}}$

where

- g_{kc} = characteristic dead load of cladding, kN/m², see opposite
- $h =$ supported height of cladding
- q_{ko} = characteristic dead load of other line loads, kN/m
- q_{kbm} = characteristic dead load, kN/m. Beam selfweight is allowed for in the charts but the user may wish to make adjustments.
- γ_{fgk} = partial safety factor for dead load, 1.4

Ultimate cladding loads, gkc ^x h ^x Yfgk

Ultimate cladding loads should be determined by multiplying characteristic cladding loads by the partial load factor and supported height. Cladding loads can be estimated from the following tables.

Ultimate applied load from cladding, $q_{kc} \times h \times \gamma_{fak}$ **, kN/m**

Typical characteristic cladding loads, gkc

Example

Determine typical line loads from traditional brickand-block cavity wall cladding onto a perimeter beam.

Determine load/m2

102.5 mm brickwork, solid high density clay

Ultimate line loads from other sources, gko ^X Yfgk

Any other applied loads on a particular beam must be determined. For example, characteristic partition loads:

Total $= 3.62 \text{ kN/m}^2$

If the height of cladding to be supported is 3.0 m then ultimate cladding load, $q_{kp} \times h \times \gamma f_{qk} =$

$$
3.62 \times 3.0 \times 1.4 = 15 \text{ kN/m}
$$

The ultimate applied load from partitions can be determined from characteristic loads and supported heights from the tables opposite.

Adjustment for self-weight of beam, gkb X Yfgk

The beam charts assume that in-situ slab loads are imparted by a 200 mm thick solid slab. Where the slab is not 200 mm thick some adjustment can be made as follows:

Additional ultimate load per metre width of beam web, kN/m/m

Example

Determine the ultimate applied load to a 300 mm wide perimeter beam supporting a 250 mm oneway solid slab, IL 5.0 kN/m2, SDL 1.5 kN/m2, spanning 6.0 m, and 3.5 m of cladding, average 3.0 kN/m2.

Ultimate slab load, kN/m².

Ultimate applied load from slabs, $n_s \times l_s \times erf =$

 $18.5 \times 6.0 \times 0.5$ = 55.5 kN/m

Ultimate line load from cladding $=$

 $3.5 \times 3.0 \times 1.4$ = 14.7 kN/m

Adjustment for self-weight of beam, =

 $(0.25 - 0.20) \times 0.30/2 \times 24 \times 1.4 = -0.2$ kN/m

Total, ie. ultimate applied udl to beam, $n_b = 70.0 \text{ kN/m}$

8.2.4 BEAMS SUPPORTING TWO-WAY SLABS

The loads outlined in the two-way slab data are derived in accordance with BS 8110 assuming square corner panels and assuming that these loads will be treated as uniformly distributed loads over 75% of the beam span. Treating the load as though it were applied to 100% of the beam span overestimates the moment by approximately 5%, making little practical difference for the purposes of sizing beams.

For non-square panels, it is suggested that the loads on the longer supporting beams should be determined from the loads for a square panel of the longer dimension. Using this load over 100% of the beam's span overestimates the span moment by an additional amount dependant on the slab panel aspect ratio:

Aspect ratio 1.00 1.25 1.33 1.50 2.00 Overestimate on moment 0% 6% 9% 15% 32%

Assuming that deflection is proportional to moment, these percentages can be used to modify the loads used in determining the beam sizes. The user may or may not choose to use this approximate method.

Example

What loads should be used in sizing the internal beams supporting bespoke waffle slabs designed as two-way slabs (SDL 1.5 kN/m2, IL 5.0 kN/m2) on a 13.5 by 9.0 m grid?

For the 9.0 m span, from p 31 (bespoke moulds, multiple span, 9.0 m span, 5.0 kN/m2) load to internal beam $= 108$ kN/m

Allow 5% for overestimate of moment due to using load over 100% of length of beam 108/1.05

 $108/1.05$ = 103 kN/m

For the 13.5 m span, from p 31 (bespoke moulds, multiple span, 13.5 m span, 5.0 kN/m²) load to internal beam $= 197$ kN/m

Allow 5% for overestimate of moment due to using load over 100% of length and 15% for overestimate of moment due to overestimating load for an aspect ratio of 1.5. Therefore, for the purposes of sizing beam only use:

 $197/(1.05 \times 1.15)$ = 163 kN/m

8.2.5 POST-TENSIONED BEAMS

The first set of charts for post-tensioned beams assume 1000 mm wide rectangular beams. Other post-tensioned beam widths can be investigated on a pro-rata basis, ie. by determining the ultimate applied uniformly distributed load (uaudl) per metre width of web. The following table may help.

Equivalent uaudl per metre width of web, kN/m width/m run

8.3 Columns

8.3.1 CALCULATING ULTIMATE AXIAL LOAD, N

In design calculations, it is usual to determine the **characteristic** loads on a column on a floor-by-floor basis, assuming simple supports (see BS 8110, Pt 1, Cl 3.8.2.3) and keeping dead and imposed loads separate. Load factors, γ_f , are applied to the summation of these loads to obtain **ultimate** loads used in the design. BS 6399⁽⁵⁾ allows some reduction in imposed load depending on usage, area supported and number of storeys.

Hence, the ultimate axial load can be expressed as

 $N = \sum \{ g_{ks} \times I_x \times I_y + g_{kbx} \times I_x + g_{kby} \times I_x + g_{kc} \} \times \gamma_{fgh}$ + Σ { $a_{ks} \times$ $\vert_{x} \times \vert_{y} \rangle \times$ Y_{fakx} \times ilrf

where

- Σ {....} = summation from highest to lowest level
- q_{ks} = characteristic slab self-weight and superimposed dead loads
- q_{kbx} = characteristic extra over beam, cladding loads and any other dead loads supported
- q_{kc} = characteristic self-weight of column
- q_{ks} = characteristic imposed load for the slab
- I_x = supported span in the \times direction, taken to be half of the sum of the two adjacent spans (but see Section 8.3.2, elastic reaction factors, below)
- I_v = supported span in the y direction, taken to be half of the sum of the two adjacent spans (but see Section 8.3.2, elastic reaction factors, below)

 γ_{fgk} = partial safety factor for dead load, 1.4

- γ_{fqk} = partial safety factor for imposed load, 1.6
- $ilrf =$ imposed load reduction factor

Imposed load reduction factors

In accordance with BS 6399 table 2, imposed loads may be reduced in accordance with the number of floors, including roof, being supported. Generally, live load reduction is unwarranted in the pre-scheme design of low-rise structures: a factor of 1.00 may be used

Imposed load reduction factors

8.3.2 ELASTIC REACTION FACTORS

To allow for the effects of continuity when calculating column loads, many engineers use elastic reactions or summation of ultimate shears rather than simply supported (single span) reactions of beams or slabs. According to BS 8110, Pt 1, Cl 3.8.2.3, this precaution is unnecessary - simple supports may be assumed.

However, if required to avoid anomalies with more rigorous analysis or to reflect serviceability foundation loads more accurately, beam or slab loads to columns may be increased. The amount by which beam loads are increased depends on the circumstance (see Section 8.2.2 and BS 8110 tables 3.6 and 3.13) and engineering judgement. Often an increase of 10% (1.1/1.0) is used for penultimate columns supporting a beam of three or more spans. In the case of two-span beams an increase of 20% might be warranted. In the case of flat slabs, troughed slabs, etc. allowance might be made for each orthogonal direction.

8.3.3 ULTIMATE SELF-WEIGHT OF COLUMNS, kN

Ultimate self-weight of columns can be estimated from the following table

Ultimate self-weight of columns per storey, kN

slenderness may exceed 15, ie. may be a slender column in a braced frame.

8.3.4 ESTIMATING ULTIMATE AXIAL LOAD

See Section 2.7.

8.3.5 EXAMPLES

See Sections 2.11.4 and 2.11.5.

9 THE CASE FOR CONCRETE

9.1 General

Primarily, clients expect three things from building structures -

- low cost of construction
- short construction times
- excellent functional performance and quality.

Concrete frames fit the bill.

9.2 Costs

Construction costs

In comparison with steel frames, reinforced concrete can

- save up to 24% in frame costs
- save 5.5% in overall construction costs⁽⁶⁾

Finance costs

All other things being equal, concrete construction's 'pay as you pour' principle saves on finance costs. This could amount to saving 0.3% of overall construction cost compared with structural steel-framed buildings.

Thermal mass

Concrete's thermal mass tends to reduce excessive diurnal temperature fluctuations and causes a useful delay between peak external and peak internal temperatures. It can therefore, reduce cooling requirements in buildings, thereby reducing both initial and running costs of services. Concrete can be formed into appropriate shapes to aid the transfer of heat from circulating air to the structure.

Foundations

Foundations for concrete-framed buildings may cost up to 30% more than those for steel-framed buildings. However, this is more than compensated by up to 24% saving in superstructure costs⁽⁶⁾. Superstructures cost 5 to 15 times as much as foundations.

Fees

The advent of fixed fees has tended to eliminate traditional additional engineers' fees for the detailing of reinforced concrete. Now however, reinforced concrete detailing is considered an additional service under the 1995 ACE *Conditions of engagement*. Fees for consultants are a small proportion of total costs, but their work has a great effect on buildability, functionality and value.

Specialist concrete contractors, notably members of *Construct*, are able to offer contractor detailing. Contractor detailing can offer many benefits. These include lower overall costs, faster construction, less adversarial relationships, increased buildability, more opportunity to innovate and to control safety within the requirements of the design.

9.3 Time

Speed

Overall, in-situ concrete-framed buildings generally take no longer to construct than steel-framed buildings: indeed they can be faster⁽⁶⁾.

Perceptions about fast steel-frame construction must be balanced against the availability of suitable areas for follow-on trades. With no secondary application of fireproofing, and apart from propping of in-situ frames, concrete construction gives follow-on trades the opportunity of working on completed floors. Enlightened specifications and a willingness to adopt specialist contractors' methods, where appropriate, can have a remarkable effect on concrete construction programmes.

Buildability

The prerequisites for fast construction in any material are design discipline, repetition, integration, simplification and standardization of design details. Rationalising reinforcement, designing and detailing for prefabrication, precasting or part-precasting are some of the techniques that can help progress on site.

Many contractors appreciate the opportunity to discuss buildability and influence designs for construction.

Forms of contract

Construction management and design-and-build forms of contract are becoming more popular. Lack of lead-in times and concrete's ability to accommodate late information and variations are especially useful under these forms of contract (as the work can be let without finalising the design of following elements).

Weather

Cold and hot weather working need some preparation and planning. Precautions should be taken to ensure that progress is not impeded by rain or snow.

Striking times and propping

Striking times and propping are a part of traditional insitu concrete construction. When critical to programme, contractors, with the co-operation of designers, can mitigate their effects.

Late changes

By its nature, concrete allows alteration at a very late stage. It is important that this attribute is not abused or productivity will suffer.

9.4 Performance

Quality

Quality requires proper motivation and committed management from the outset. Success is dependant on the use of skilled and motivated personnel and quality materials. Overspecification is both costly and wasteful.

Accuracy

Overall accuracy of concrete framed buildings is not markedly different from other forms of construction. BS 5606(18) gives 95% confidence limits as follows:

Variation in plane for beams: concrete +22 mm, steel +20 mm

Position in plan: concrete +12 mm, steel +10 mm.

Lettable areas

Concrete-framed buildings can give up to 1.5% more net lettable area than steel-framed buildings⁽⁶⁾. This is due to the flexibility of concrete construction, the dual use of structural concrete walls as partitions (and not needing to allow for steel bracing zones) and fewer stair treads due to lower floor-to-floor heights.

Adaptability

Like no other construction material, concrete can deal with complex geometry. Concrete structures are amenable to many alteration techniques and adaptability can be designed in. Ribbed floor construction gives obvious soft spots for later holes with minimal disruption.

Service integration

Flat soffits allow simple, flexible service routes to access all parts of a floor. Forming openings for risers is relatively easy, although the size of openings adjoining columns in flat slabs may be restricted.

Deflections

Generally, deflections are not large.

Long spans

The chart on p 8 gives many examples of reinforced concrete floors and many options for spans greater than 12 m. Beyond about 7.5 m, prestressing or posttensioning becomes economic, particularly if construction depth is critical. Traditional reservations about posttensioning are very often misconceived.

Vibration

Except for extremely thin slabs, vibration is imperceptible.

Stability

In low- to medium-rise buildings, it is most economic to use the inherent moment-resisting frame action of the slab (and beams) and columns. Otherwise, discrete cantilever shear walls should be used around permanent openings such as lifts and stairs.

Corrosion

Corrosion is a problem only in concrete in external or damp environments. Provided that prescribed covers to reinforcement are achieved, and the concrete is of appropriate quality, concrete structures should have no corrosion problems.

Fire protection

Concrete provides inherent fire resistance.

10 REFERENCES

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10.3 Abbreviations

10.4 Organisations

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