LECTURE-1

Module-1

Raw Water Source

The various sources of water can be classified into two categories:

1. Surface sources, such as
    a. Ponds and lakes;
    b. Streams and rivers;
    c. Storage reservoirs; and
    d. Oceans, generally not used for water supplies, at present.
2. Sub-surface sources or underground sources, such as
    a. Springs;
    b. Infiltration wells ; and
    c. Wells and Tube-wells.

Water Quantity Estimation

The quantity of water required for municipal uses for which the water supply scheme has to be designed requires following data:

1. Water consumption rate ***(Per Capita Demand in litres per day per head)***
2. Population to be served.

Quantity= Per capita demand x Population

Water Consumption Rate

It is very difficult to precisely assess the quantity of water demanded by the public, since there are many variable factors affecting water consumption. The various types of water demands, which a city may have, may be broken into following classes:

Water Consumption for Various Purposes:

	Types of Consumption	Normal Range (lit/capita/day)	Average	%
1	Domestic Consumption	65-300	160	35
2	Industrial and Commercial Demand	45-450	135	30
3	Public Uses including Fire Demand	20-90	45	10
4	Losses and Waste	45-150	62	25

Fire Fighting Demand:

The per capita fire demand is very less on an average basis but the rate at which the water is required is very large. The rate of fire demand is sometimes traeted as a function of population and is worked out from following empirical formulae:

	Authority	Formulae (P in thousand)	Q for 1 lakh Population)
1	American Insurance Association	Q (L/min)=4637 √P (1-0.01√P)	41760
2	Kuchling's Formula	Q (L/min)=3182 √P	31800

3	Freeman's Formula	Q (L/min)= 1136.5(P/5+10)	35050
4	Ministry of Urban Development Manual Formula	Q (kilo liters/d)=100 √P for P>50000	31623

Factors affecting per capita demand:

a. Size of the city: Per capita demand for big cities is generally large as compared to that for smaller towns as big cities have sewered houses.
b. Presence of industries.
c. Climatic conditions.
d. Habits of people and their economic status.
e. Quality of water: If water is aesthetically & medically safe, the consumption will increase as people will not resort to private wells, etc.
f. Pressure in the distribution system.
g. Efficiency of water works administration: Leaks in water mains and services; and unauthorised use of water can be kept to a minimum by surveys.
h. Cost of water.
i. Policy of metering and charging method: Water tax is charged in two different ways: on the basis of meter reading and on the basis of certain fixed monthly rate.

Fluctuations in Rate of Demand

Average Daily Per Capita Demand

= Quantity Required in 12 Months/ (365 x Population)

If this average demand is supplied at all the times, it will not be sufficient to meet the fluctuations.

- ***Seasonal variation***: The demand peaks during summer. Firebreak outs are generally more in summer, increasing demand. So, there is seasonal variation .
- ***Daily variation*** depends on the activity. People draw out more water on Sundays and Festival days, thus increasing demand on these days.
- ***Hourly variations*** are very important as they have a wide range. During active household working hours i.e. from six to ten in the morning and four to eight in the evening, the bulk of the daily requirement is taken. During other hours the requirement is negligible. Moreover, if a fire breaks out, a huge quantity of water is required to be supplied during short duration, necessitating the need for a maximum rate of hourly supply.

So, an adequate quantity of water must be available to meet the peak demand. To meet all the fluctuations, the supply pipes, service reservoirs and distribution pipes must be properly proportioned. The water is supplied by pumping directly and the pumps and distribution system must be designed to meet the peak demand. The effect of monthly variation influences the design of storage reservoirs and the hourly variations influences the design of pumps and service reservoirs. As the population decreases, the fluctuation rate increases.

Maximum daily demand = 1.8 x average daily demand

Maximum hourly demand of maximum day i.e. Peak demand

= 1.5 x average hourly demand
= 1.5 x Maximum daily demand/24
= 1.5 x (1.8 x average daily demand)/24
= 2.7 x average daily demand/24
= 2.7 x annual average hourly demand

Design Periods & Population Forecast

This quantity should be worked out with due provision for the estimated requirements of the future . The future period for which a provision is made in the water supply scheme is known as the **design period**.

Design period is estimated based on the following:

- Useful life of the component, considering obsolescence, wear, tear, etc.
- Expandability aspect.
- Anticipated rate of growth of population, including industrial, commercial developments & migration-immigration.
- Available resources.
- Performance of the system during initial period.

Population Forecasting Methods

The various methods adopted for estimating future populations are given below. The particular method to be adopted for a particular case or for a particular city depends largely on the factors discussed in the methods, and the selection is left to the discrection and intelligence of the designer.

1. Arithmetic Increase Method
2. Geometric Increase Method
3. *Incremental Increase Method*
4. Decreasing Rate of Growth Method
5. *Simple Graphical Method*
6. *Comparative Graphical Method*
7. Ratio Method
8. *Logistic Curve Method*

LECTURE-2

Population Forecast by Different Methods

Problem: Predict the population for the years 1981, 1991, 1994, and 2001 from the following census figures of a town by different methods.

Year	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961	1971

Population: (thousands)	60	65	63	72	79	89	97	120

Solution:

Year	Population: (thousands)	Increment per Decade	Incremental Increase	Percentage Increment per Decade
1901	60	-	-	-
1911	65	+5	-	(5+60) x100=+8.33
1921	63	-2	-3	(2+65) x100=-3.07
1931	72	+9	+7	(9+63) x100=+14.28
1941	79	+7	-2	(7+72) x100=+9.72
1951	89	+10	+3	(10+79) x100=+12.66
1961	97	+8	-2	(8+89) x100=8.98
1971	120	+23	+15	(23+97) x100=+23.71
Net values	1	+60	+18	+74.61
Averages	-	8.57	3.0	10.66

+=increase; - = decrease

Arithmetical Progression Method:

$P_n = P + ni$
Average increases per decade = i = 8.57
Population for the years,
1981= population 1971 + ni, here n=1 decade
= 120 + 8.57 = 128.57
1991= population 1971 + ni, here n=2 decade
= 120 + 2 x 8.57 = 137.14
2001= population 1971 + ni, here n=3 decade
= 120 + 3 x 8.57 = 145.71
1994= population 1991 + (population 2001 - 1991) x 3/10
= 137.14 + (8.57) x 3/10 = 139.71

Incremental Increase Method:

Population for the years,
1981= population 1971 + average increase per decade + average incremental increase
= 120 + 8.57 + 3.0 = 131.57
1991= population 1981 + 11.57
= 131.57 + 11.57 = 143.14
2001= population 1991 + 11.57
= 143.14 + 11.57 = 154.71
1994= population 1991 + 11.57 x 3/10
= 143.14 + 3.47 = 146.61

Geometric Progression Method:

Average percentage increase per decade = 10.66
$P_n = P (1+i/100)^n$
Population for 1981 = Population 1971 x $(1+i/100)^n$
= 120 x (1+10.66/100), *i = 10.66, n = 1*
= 120 x 110.66/100 = 132.8

Population for 1991 = Population 1971 x $(1+i/100)^{n}$
= 120 x $(1+10.66/100)^{2}$, *i = 10.66, n = 2*
= 120 x 1.2245 = 146.95
Population for 2001 = Population 1971 x $(1+i/100)^{n}$
= 120 x $(1+10.66/100)^{3}$, *i = 10.66, n = 3*
= 120 x 1.355 = 162.60

Population for 1994 = 146.95 + (15.84 x 3/10) = 151.70

LECTURE-3

Intake Structure

The basic function of the intake structure is to help in safely withdrawing water from the source over predetermined pool levels and then to discharge this water into the withdrawal conduit (normally called intake conduit), through which it flows up to water treatment plant.

Factors Governing Location of Intake

1. As far as possible, the site should be near the treatment plant so that the cost of conveying water to the city is less.
2. The intake must be located in the purer zone of the source to draw best quality water from the source, thereby reducing load on the treatment plant.
3. The intake must never be located at the downstream or in the vicinity of the point of disposal of wastewater.
4. The site should be such as to permit greater withdrawal of water, if required at a future date.
5. The intake must be located at a place from where it can draw water even during the driest period of the year.
6. The intake site should remain easily accessible during floods and should noy get flooded. Moreover, the flood waters should not be concentrated in the vicinity of the intake.

Design Considerations

1. sufficient factor of safety against external forces such as heavy currents, floating materials, submerged bodies, ice pressure, etc.
2. should have sufficient self weight so that it does not float by upthrust of water.

Types of Intake

Depending on the source of water, the intake works are classified as follows:

Pumping

A pump is a device, which converts mechanical energy into hydraulic energy. It lifts water from a lower to a higher level and delivers it at high pressure. Pumps are employed in water supply projects at various stages for following purposes:

1. To lift raw water from wells.
2. To deliver treated water to the consumer at desired pressure.
3. To supply pressured water for fire hydrants.
4. To boost up pressure in water mains.
5. To fill elevated overhead water tanks.
6. To backwash filters.
7. To pump chemical solutions, needed for water treatment.

Classification of Pumps

Based on principle of operation, pumps may be classified as follows:

1. Displacement pumps (reciprocating, rotary)
2. Velocity pumps (centrifugal, turbine and jet pumps)
3. Buoyancy pumps (air lift pumps)
4. Impulse pumps (hydraulic rams)

Capacity of Pumps

Work done by the pump,

$$H.P.=wQH/75$$

where, w= specific weight of water kg/m^3, Q= discharge of pump, m^3/s; and H= total head gainst which pump has to work.

$H= H_s + H_d + H_f +$ (losses due to exit, entrance, bends, valves, and so on)

where, H_s=suction head, H_d = delivery head, and H_f = friction loss.

Efficiency of pump (E) = wQH/Brake H.P.

Total brake horse power required = wQH/E

Provide even number of motors say 2,4,with their total capacity being equal to the total BHP and provide half of the motors required as stand-by.

Conveyance

There are two stages in the transportation of water:

1. Conveyance of water from the source to the treatment plant.
2. Conveyance of treated water from treatment plant to the distribution system.

In the first stage water is transported by gravity or by pumping or by the combined action of both, depending upon the relative elevations of the treatment plant and the source of supply. In the second stage water transmission may be either by pumping into an overhead tank and then supplying by gravity or by pumping directly into the water-main for distribution.

Free Flow System

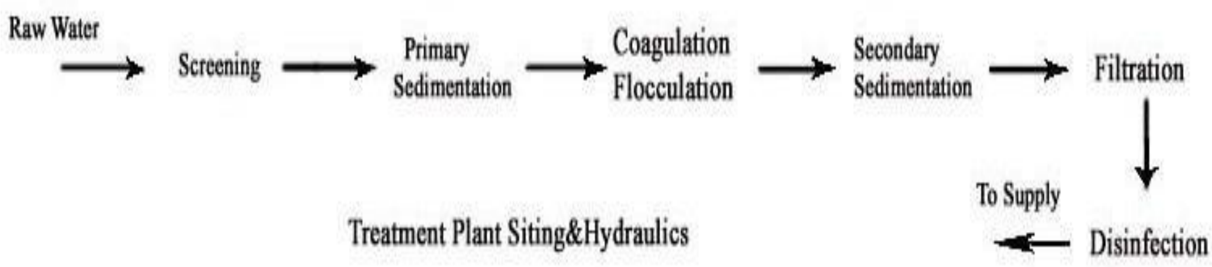
In this system, the surface of water in the conveying section flows freely due to gravity. In such a conduit the hydraulic gradient line coincide with the water surface and is parallel to the bed of the conduit. It is often necessary to construct very long conveying sections, to suit the slope of the existing ground. The sections used for free-flow are: Canals, flumes, grade aqueducts and grade tunnels.

Pressure System

In pressure conduits, which are closed conduits, the water flows under pressure above the atmospheric pressure. The bed or invert of the conduit in pressure flows is thus independant of the grade of the hydraulic gradient line and can, therefore, follow the natural available ground surface thus requiring lesser length of conduit. The pressure aqueducts may be in the form of closed pipes or closed aqueducts and tunnels called *pressure aqueducts or pressure tunnels* designed for the pressure likely to come on them. Due to their circular shapes, every pressure conduit is generally termed as a *pressure pipe*. When a pressure pipe drops beneath a valley, stream, or some other depression, it is called a depressed pipe or an *inverted siphon*. Depending upon the construction material, the pressure pipes are of following types: Cast iron, steel, R.C.C, hume steel, vitrified clay, asbestos cement, wrought iron, copper, brass and lead, plastic, and glass reinforced plastic pipes.

The layout of conventional water treatment plant is as follows:

Depending upon the magnitude of treatment required, proper unit operations are selected and arranged in the proper sequential order for the purpose of modifying the quality of raw water to meet the desired standards. Indian Standards for drinking water are given in the table below.



LECTURE-4

Water Distribution Systems

The purpose of distribution system is to deliver water to consumer with appropriate quality, quantity and pressure. Distribution system is used to describe collectively the facilities used to supply water from its source to the point of usage.

Requirements of Good Distribution System

1. Water quality should not get deteriorated in the distribution pipes.
2. It should be capable of supplying water at all the intended places with sufficient pressure head.
3. It should be capable of supplying the requisite amount of water during fire fighting.
4. The layout should be such that no consumer would be without water supply, during the repair of any section of the system.
5. All the distribution pipes should be preferably laid one metre away or above the sewer lines.
6. It should be fairly water-tight as to keep losses due to leakage to the minimum.

Layouts of Distribution Network

The distribution pipes are generally laid below the road pavements, and as such their layouts generally follow the layouts of roads. There are, in general, four different types of pipe networks; any one of which either singly or in combinations, can be used for a particular place. They are:

Dead End System
Grid Iron System
Ring System
Radial System

Distribution Reservoirs

Distribution reservoirs, also called service reservoirs, are the storage reservoirs, which store the treated water for supplying water during emergencies (such as during fires, repairs, etc.) and also to help in absorbing the hourly fluctuations in the normal water demand.

Functions of Distribution Reservoirs:

- to absorb the hourly variations in demand.
- to maintain constant pressure in the distribution mains.
- water stored can be supplied during emergencies.

Location and Height of Distribution Reservoirs:

- should be located as close as possible to the center of demand.
- water level in the reservoir must be at a sufficient elevation to permit gravity flow at an adequate pressure.

Types of Reservoirs

1. Underground reservoirs.
2. Small ground level reservoirs.
3. Large ground level reservoirs.
4. Overhead tanks.

Storage Capacity of Distribution Reservoirs

The total storage capacity of a distribution reservoir is the summation of:

1. *Balancing Storage:* The quantity of water required to be stored in the reservoir for equalising or balancing fluctuating demand against constant supply is known as the balancing storage (or equalising or operating storage). The balance storage can be worked out by ***mass curve method***.
2. *Breakdown Storage:* The breakdown storage or often called emergency storage is the storage preserved in order to tide over the emergencies posed by the failure of pumps, electricity, or any othe mechanism driving the pumps. A value of about 25% of the total storage capacity of reservoirs, or 1.5 to 2 times of the average hourly supply, may be considered as enough provision for accounting this storage.
3. ***Fire Storage:*** The third component of the total reservoir storage is the fire storage. This provision takes care of the requirements of water for extinguishing fires. A provision of 1 to 4 per person per day is sufficient to meet the requirement.

The total reservoir storage can finally be worked out by adding all the three storages.

Pipe Network Analysis

Analysis of water distribution system includes determining quantities of flow and head losses in the various pipe lines, and resulting residual pressures. In any pipe network, the following two conditions must be satisfied:

1. The algebraic sum of pressure drops around a closed loop must be zero, i.e. there can be no discontinuity in pressure.
2. The flow entering a junction must be equal to the flow leaving that junction; i.e. the law of continuity must be satisfied.

Based on these two basic principles, the pipe networks are generally solved by the methods of successive approximation. The widely used method of pipe network analysis is the Hardy-Cross method.

or $d = -SH_L / x.S\ lH_L/Q_al$

where H_L is the head loss for assumed flow Q_a.

The numerator in the above equation is the algebraic sum of the head losses in the various pipes of the closed loop computed with assumed flow. Since the direction and magnitude of flow in these pipes is already assumed, their respective head losses with due regard to sign can be easily calculated after assuming their diameters. The absolute sum of respective KQ_a^{x-1} or H_L/Q_a is then calculated. Finally the value of d is found out for each loop, and the assumed flows are corrected. Repeated adjustments are made until the desired accuracy is obtained.

The value of x in Hardy- Cross method is assumed to be constant (i.e. 1.85 for Hazen-William's formula, and 2 for Darcy-Weisbach formula)