

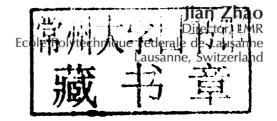


Underground Infrastructures

Planning, Design, and Construction

R. K. Goel Chief Scientist CIMFR Regional Centre Roorkee, India

> Bhawani Singh Former Professor IIT Roorkee, India







Butterworth-Heinemann is an imprint of Elsevier 225 Wyman Street, Waltham, MA 02451, USA The Boulevard, Langford Lane, Kidlington, Oxford, OX5 1GB, UK

© 2012 Elsevier, Inc. All rights reserved.

No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher. Details on how to seek permission, further information about the Publisher's permissions policies and our arrangements with organizations such as the Copyright Clearance Center and the Copyright Licensing Agency, can be found at our website: www.elsevier.com/permissions.

This book and the individual contributions contained in it are protected under copyright by the Publisher (other than as may be noted herein).

Notices

Knowledge and best practice in this field are constantly changing. As new research and experience broaden our understanding, changes in research methods, professional practices, or medical treatment may become necessary.

Practitioners and researchers must always rely on their own experience and knowledge in evaluating and using any information, methods, compounds, or experiments described herein. In using such information or methods they should be mindful of their own safety and the safety of others, including parties for whom they have a professional responsibility.

To the fullest extent of the law, neither the Publisher nor the authors, contributors, or editors, assume any liability for any injury and/or damage to persons or property as a matter of products liability, negligence or otherwise, or from any use or operation of any methods, products, instructions, or ideas contained in the material herein.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Goel, R. K., 1960-

Underground infrastructures: planning, design, and construction / R.K. Goel, Bhawani Singh, Jian Zhao.

p. cm.

ISBN 978-0-12-397168-5

- 1. Underground construction-Planning. 2. Underground construction-Design. 3. Underground storage-Planning.
- Underground storage—Design. 5. Underground areas—Design and construction. I. Singh, Bhawani. II. Zhao, Jian, 1960- III. Title.

TA712.G584 2012 624.1'9-dc23

2011051741

British Library Cataloguing-in-Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

For information on all Butterworth-Heinemann publications visit our Web site at http://store.elsevier.com

Typeset by: diacriTech, Chennai, India

Printed in the United States of America 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Working together to grow libraries in developing countries

www.elsevier.com | www.bookaid.org | www.sabre.org

ELSEVIER

BOOK AID International

Sabre Foundation

Heavenly underground cities are dreams of civil and mining engineers, architects, city planners, and geologists. Everywhere people like underground metros, nearby underground malls, and underground parks in the 21st century. The usefulness of underground infrastructure in business is no less in developed and developing nations. Safety against major devastating earthquakes, landslides, cyclones, and wars is the key attraction in underground cities. Safety costs money. Hence a humble effort has been made to write this comprehensive book on "Underground Infrastructures: Planning, Design, and Construction" for city planners, civil and mining engineers, architects, military engineers, administrators, and municipal authorities. Our dear people may also like reading this simple book. The rail and road tunneling networks in weak hilly areas and mega cities are rightly regarded as engineering marvels by people. The aim of this book is to generate more creative confidence among civil, mining, and nuclear energy engineers; city and town planners; architects; geologists and geophysicists; managers; and administrators.

Earlier Bhawani Singh and R.K. Goel have published three books. The first book is on "Rock Mass Classification—A Practical Approach in Civil Engineering" in 1999. The second book is on "Software for Engineering Control of Landslide and Tunnelling Hazards" in 2002. Subsequently, the third book is on "Tunnelling in Weak Rocks" in 2006. Practicing civil and mining engineers, geologists, geophysicists, and students have enjoyed and used all these books. Everyone has boosted our morale so we have written a fourth book. We pray God that everyone enjoys reading and using this book in imagining real master plans for underground cities or infrastructure. The aforementioned three books are offered for detailed designs of underground opening systems, which are envisaged in their master plans.

The Himalayan region is vast, an amazingly beautiful creation of nature that possesses an extensive rejuvenating life support system. It is also one of the best field laboratories for learning rock mechanics, tunneling, underground space science, engineering geology, and geohazards. The research experience gained in the Himalayas is precious to the whole world.

The authors' foremost wish is to express their deep gratitude to Professor Charles Fairhurst, University of Minnesota; Professor E. Hoek, International Consulting Engineer; Dr. N. Barton, Norway; Professor J.J.K. Daemen, University of Nevada; Professor Ray Sterling, USA; Dr. E. Grimstad, NGI; Professor G.N. Pandey, University of Swansea; Professor John Hudson, UK; Professor J. Nedoma, Academy of Sciences of Czech Republic; Professor V.D. Choubey;

Professor T. Ramamurthy, IITD; Mr. B.B. Deoja, Nepal; Mr. A. Wagner, Switzerland; Professor R.N. Chowdhary, Australia; Professor S. Sakurai, Japan; Professor R. Anbalagan, IITR; Professor M. Kwasniewski, Poland; Dr. B. Singh; Professor B.B. Dhar, Dr. N.M. Raju, late Dr. A.K. Dube, Dr. J.L. Jethwa, Dr. Amalendu Sinha, CIMFR; Dr. V.M. Sharma, ATES; late Professor L.S. Srivastava; Professor Gopal Ranjan, COER; Professor P.K. Jain, IITR; Professor M.N. Viladkar, IITR; Dr. A.K. Dhawan, CSMRS; Dr. V.K. Mehrotra; Dr. H.S. Badrinath; Dr. Prabhat Kumar, CBRI; Dr. P.P. Bahuguna, ISM; Dr. Subhash Mitra, Uttarakhand Irrigation Department; Dr. Rajbal Singh, CSMRS; Professor Mahendra Singh, IITR; Professor N.K. Samadhiya, IITR; Mr. H.S. Niranjan, HBTI; and Dr. Rajesh K. Goel, ONGC, for their constant moral support and vital suggestions and for freely sharing precious field data. The authors are also grateful to the scientists and engineers of CIMFR, CSMRS, IRI Roorkee, IIT Roorkee, IIT Delhi, ATES, AIMIL, HEICO, New Delhi and to all project authorities for supporting field research and sharing data.

The authors are very grateful to their families and friends for their sacrificing spirit. Without their support the writing of this book would have been very difficult.

The authors also thank A.A. Balkema, Netherlands; American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE), Reston; Ellis Horwood, U.K.; Institution of Mining & Metallurgy, London; John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York; Springer-Verlag, Germany; Trans Tech., Germany; Wilmington Publishing House, U.K.; Pergamon, Oxford, U.K.; Van Nostrand Reinhold, New York; Wiley Interscience, USA; Elsevier Ltd., U.K.; Bureau of Indian Standards, India; ISO for the kind permission; and all eminent professors, researchers, and scientists whose work is referred to in the book.

All engineers, architects, city planners, and geologists are requested to kindly send their precious suggestions for improving the book to the authors for future editions.

> R. K. Goel Bhawani Singh Jian Zhao

Contents

Pre	face		XV
1.	Int	roduction	
	1.1	0	1
		History of Underground Space Use	3
		Underground Space for Sustainable Development	5
		What Should Be Done?	7
		Future of Underground Space Facilities	8
		Scope of the Book	9
	Ref	erences	9
2.	Cla	ssification of Underground Space	
	2.1	General	11
	2.2	Major Classification Grouping	12
		2.2.1 Function	12
		2.2.2 Geometry	13
		2.2.3 Origin	15
		2.2.4 Site Features	15
		2.2.5 Project Features	15
	2.3	Benefits and Drawbacks of Underground Facilities	15
	Ref	erences	18
3.	lm	portant Considerations	
	3.1	Geological Considerations	19
	3.2	Engineering Considerations	21
	3.3	Psychological and Physiological Considerations	23
		3.3.1 Image of the Underground	24
		3.3.2 Actual Experiences in Underground Buildings	25
		3.3.3 Actual Experience in Windowless and	
		Other Analogous Environments	27
		3.3.4 Potential Psychological Problems Associated with	
		Underground Space	29
		3.3.5 Mitigating Factors	30
	3.4	Choosing to Go Underground—General Advantages	33
		3.4.1 Potential Physical Benefits	34
		3.4.2 Protection	35

viii Contents

		3.4.3 Security	36
		3.4.4 Aesthetics	36
		3.4.5 Environmental Advantages	37
		3.4.6 Materials	37
		3.4.7 Initial Cost/Land Cost Savings	37
		3.4.8 Construction Savings	37
		3.4.9 Sale of Excavated Material or Minerals	38
		3.4.10 Savings in Specialized Design Features	38
		3.4.11 Operating Cost/Maintenance	38
		3.4.12 Energy Use	38
		3.4.13 Land Use Efficiency	39
		3.4.14 Disaster Readiness/National Security	39
	3.5	Drawbacks of Underground Space Use	40
		3.5.1 Physical	40
		3.5.2 Climate Isolation	40
		3.5.3 Communication	40
		3.5.4 Human Occupancy	40
	3.6	Safety Considerations	41
		3.6.1 Fire Explosion	41
		3.6.2 Oxygen Shortage/Poisoning	44
		3.6.3 Flood	44
		3.6.4 Electric Power Failure	45
	3.7	Ventilation	46
	3.8	Legal and Administrative Considerations	47
		3.8.1 Limits of Surface Property Ownership	47
		3.8.2 Ownership and the Right to Develop Subsurface Space	47
		3.8.3 Application of Surface Land Use Regulations	48
		3.8.4 Environmental Controls	48
		3.8.5 Restrictions due to Surface and Subsurface Structures	48
	3.9	Economic Considerations	49
	Refe	erences	50
4.	Un	derground Space Planning	
	41	Forms of Underground Space Available and Uses	51
		Level-Wise Planning of Underground Space Use	53
		Future Forms of Underground Space Use	55
		Technology for Underground Development	56
		Conceptual Designs	60
		Cost Considerations	64
		Planning of Underground Space	65
		erences	67
	nen	renees	07
5.	Une	derground Storage of Food Items	
	5.1	General	69
	Sect	tion 1	70
		Problems Associated with Underground Food Storage	70
	5.3	Site Selection	71

Contents (ix

	5.4	Cons	truction and Design	71
	2016		Depth	71
			Unit Size	75
			Lining	75
			Loading and Unloading Equipment	75
			Equipment to Equilibrate Grain Temperature	
			during Loading and Unloading	75
		5.4.6	Considerations while Loading the Storage	76
			Considerations prior to Unloading of Underground Storage	77
			Underground Storage Bins in Argentina	77
	5.5		o Storage	78
	Sec	tion 2		78
			gerated Rock Stores	78
			n of Underground Cold Storage	79
	5.7		Shape and Size	79
			Thermal Properties	80
	5.8		Comparison	81
			Histories	83
			Warehouse Caverns in Singapore	83
			Cold Storage Plant in Bergen, Norway	84
	Refe	erence	· ·	87
		-	e e	
6.	Un	dergr	ound Storage of Water	
	6.1	Gene	ral	89
	6.2	Wate	r Storage by Recharge Methods	90
		6.2.1	Controlling Factors	90
			Recharge Methods	90
	6.3	Unde	rground Rock Cavern Tank Storage	94
			Function and Location of Water Tanks	94
		6.3.2	Comparison between Aboveground and Underground	
			Water Tanks	94
			Planning and Design	95
			Cost for Underground Cavern Storage	96
			Construction and Maintenance Experience	97
	6.4		Histories	98
			The Liver have a Deal Constitution Test	98
			The Kvernberget Rock Cavern Tank	
		6.4.2	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway	99
		6.4.2 6.4.3	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway	99 100
	Refe	6.4.2	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway	99
7.		6.4.2 6.4.3 erences	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway	99 100
7.	Un	6.4.2 6.4.3 erences	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway s	99 100
7.	Un:	6.4.2 6.4.3 erences dergre	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway s ound Parking duction	99 100 101
7.	Une 7.1 7.2	6.4.2 6.4.3 erences dergre Introd	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway s ound Parking duction of Parking Facilities	99 100 101
7.	Une 7.1 7.2	6.4.2 6.4.3 erences dergre Introd	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway s ound Parking duction	99 100 101 103 103
7.	Une 7.1 7.2	6.4.2 6.4.3 erences dergre Introd Types Variot 7.3.1	The Steinan Rock Cavern Tank, Norway The Groheia Rock Cavern Tank in Kristiansand, Norway s ound Parking duction s of Parking Facilities us Modern Mechanical Underground Parking Options	99 100 101 103 103 107

x) Contents

	7.4	Evaluation Criteria of a Site for Underground Parking	112
	7.5	Design of Underground Parking Facilities	113
	7.6	Parking Guidance System	115
		Parking Lot Security	116
		Ventilation in Underground Car Parks	117
		Economics of Underground Parking Facilities	119
	7.10	Case Histories	120
		7.10.1 Sydney Opera House Underground Car Park	120
		7.10.2 Munich Automated Underground Parking System,	122
	Refe	Germany erences	124
•		I Development	
8.	Un	derground Metro and Road Tunnels	
	8.1	Introduction	125
		8.1.1 Findings of International Tunnelling Association	129
	8.2	Tunnel Boring Machine (TBM)	130
		8.2.1 Tunnel Boring Machines for Hard Rocks	130
		8.2.2 Shielded Tunnel Boring Machines	132
	8.3	Precast Lining	135
	8.4	Building Condition Survey and Vibration Limit	136
	8.5 8.6	Impact on Structures Subsidence	137 137
	8.7	Half-Tunnels for Roads	139
	8.8	Road Tunnels	139
	0.0	8.8.1 General	139
		8.8.2 Traffic Safety	141
		8.8.3 Construction Details	141
		8.8.4 Precautions to Protect Road Tunnels from Deterioration	144
		8.8.5 Cost of Construction	145
	8.9	Subsea Tunnels	146
		8.9.1 General	146
		8.9.2 Maintenance	150
	8.10	Case Histories	155
		8.10.1 Gotthard Base Tunnel (GBT)	155
		8.10.2 Lötschberg Base Tunnel (LBT)	165
	Refe	erences	171
9.	Un	derground Storage of Crude Oil, Liquefied	
٠.	Pet	roleum Gas, and Natural Gas	
	9.1	Introduction	173
	9.2	Investigations and Design	173
	9.3	Underground Storage Technology	174
		9.3.1 Underground Unlined Storage	174
		9.3.2 Underground Lined Storage	181
	9.4	Storage of Natural Gas	183

Contents xi

	9.5	Tunnel-Shaped Storage Facility	185
		9.5.1 Disadvantages	186
		9.5.2 Separation Distance between Caverns	186
	9.6	Multitank Storage (Polytank) Concept	187
		9.6.1 Construction Principles	187
		9.6.2 Rock Mechanics of Polytank Storage	188
		9.6.3 Field of Applications	189
		9.6.4 Advantages	190
	9.7	General Advantages and Disadvantages of	100
		Underground Storages	190
		9.7.1 Advantages	190
	0.0	9.7.2 Disadvantages	191
	9.8	Inground Tanks	191
		9.8.1 Advantages	191 191
	0.0	9.8.2 Disadvantages	191
		Cost Aspects Effect of Earthquake	194
		Carbon Dioxide Sequestration	194
		erences	196
	Kere	rences	130
10	C:	to Footbeloo Undonessed	
10.	Civ	ic Facilities Underground	
	10.1	General	199
	10.2	Sewage and Waste Water Treatment Plant	199
		10.2.1 Case Example of Cost Comparison	200
	10.3	Sports Center	202
		10.3.1 Underground Ice Rink	202
		10.3.2 Swimming Center	203
	10.4	Underground Pedestrian Path	204
		10.4.1 Operation of the System	205
		Shopping Mall	207
		Underground Recreational Facilities	209
	Refe	erences	210
11.	Und	derground Structures for Hydroelectric Projects	
	11.1	Introduction	213
		Recent Developments in Planning of Hydroelectric Projects	217
		Types of Underground Structures	220
		Principles of Planning	220
		Fundamental Requirements	225
		Planning a Cavern	226
		Design of a Cavern	227
		11.7.1 Space and Geometrics	227
		11.7.2 Geotechniques	228
		11.7.3 Orientation	228
		11.7.4 Excavation Sequence and Techniques	228
		11.7.5 In Situ Stresses	229

xii) Contents

	11.7.6 Earthquake Forces	229
	11.7.7 Supports	229
	11.8 Advantages and Disadvantages	231
	11.9 Case Histories	233
	11.9.1 Churchill Falls Hydroelectric Project	233
	11.9.2 Chhibro Underground Powerhouse	235
	11.9.3 Tala Hydroelectric Project, Bhutan	237
	11.10 Summary	241
	References	242
12.	Underground Shelters for Wartime	
	12.1 General	245
	12.2 State-of-the-Art Defense Shelters	246
	12.3 Shelter Options	250
	12.4 Design of Shelters	253
	12.4.1 Basement Shelters	253
	12.4.2 Expedient Shelter Designs	254
	12.5 Case Histories	255
	12.5.1 Civil Defense Shelter in Singapore	255
	12.5.2 Beijing's Underground City	256
	References	257
13.	Underground Storage of Ammunitions and Explosives	
	13.1 General	259
	13.2 Explosion Effects in Underground Ammunition Storage Sites	260
	13.3 Advantages and Disadvantages of Underground Storage	261
	13.4 Storage Limitations	262
	13.4.1 Ammunition Containing Flammable Liquids or Gels	262
	13.4.2 Ammunition Containing Toxic Agents	262
	13.4.3 Suspect Ammunition and Explosives	262
	13.4.4 Ammunition Containing Pyrotechnics	262
	13.4.5 Ammunition Containing Depleted Uranium	263
	13.5 Design Requirements of Underground Ammunition	
	Storage Facility	263
	13.5.1 Safety Requirements	263
	13.5.2 Military Requirements	263
	13.5.3 Financial Aspects	264
	13.5.4 Humidity Control and Ventilation	264
	13.5.5 Electric Installations and Equipment	264
	13.5.6 Lightning Protection	264
	13.5.7 Transport and Handling Equipment	264
	13.5.8 Fire-Fighting Equipment	265
	13.6 Facility Layout	265
	13.6.1 Design Guidelines	265
	13.6.2 Underground Chambers	266
	13.6.3 Exits	266

Contents	xiii

 13.6.4 Branch Passageways 13.6.5 Blast Closures 13.6.6 Expansion Chambers 13.6.7 Constrictions 13.6.8 Debris Traps within Underground Facility 13.6.9 Blast Traps 13.6.10 Portal Barricade 13.6.11 Interior Wall Roughness 13.6.12 Depth of Cover above Storage Chambers 13.6.13 Chamber Separation Requirement 13.7 Sympathetic Detonation by Rock Spall 13.8 Case History Underground Ammunition Storage Facility, Singapore References 	267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 275 277 278 278 280
14. Underground Nuclear Waste Repositories	
 14.1 Introduction 14.2 Types of Radioactive Nuclear Waste 14.3 Underground Research Laboratory 14.3.1 Stripa Underground Research Facility 14.4 Concept of Barriers 14.5 Design Aspects of Underground Repository 14.5.1 Vertical Emplacement in a Pit 14.5.2 Alternative System Layout for Very Long Hole (VLH) 14.6 Instrumentation 14.7 Retrievability of Canister 14.8 Public Acceptance of Radioactive Waste Repository References 	283 285 286 298 299 300 300 304 305 306 306
15. Contractual Risk Sharing	
 15.1 The Risk 15.2 Management of Risk 15.2.1 Risk Management Tools—Fault Tree Analysis 15.2.2 Recommendations of International Tunnelling	309 314 318 319 320 321 321 322 323
Annexure Index	325 329

Introduction

Life is given to us, we earn it by giving it.

Rabindranath Tagore

1.1 UNDERGROUND SPACE AND ITS REQUIREMENT

The joy of traveling through underground metros, rail, and road tunnels, especially the half-tunnels in mountains and visiting caves, cannot be described. Modern underground infrastructures are really engineering marvels of the 21st century. The space created below the ground surface is generally known as *underground space*. Underground space may either be developed by open excavation in soft strata or soil, the top of which is subsequently covered to get the space below, or created by excavation in hard strata or rock.

Underground space is available almost everywhere, which may provide the site for activities or infrastructure that are difficult or impossible to install above-ground or whose presence aboveground is unacceptable or undesirable. Another fundamental characteristic of underground space lies in the natural protection it offers to whatever is placed underground. This protection is simultaneously mechanical, thermal, acoustic, and hydraulic (i.e., watertight). It is effective not only in relation to the surface, but also within the underground space itself. Thus underground infrastructure offers great safety against all natural disasters and nuclear wars, ultraviolet rays from holes in the ozone layer, global warming, electromagnetic pollution, and massive solar storms.

Increasing population and the developing needs and aspirations of human-kind for our living environment require increasing provision of space of all kinds. This has become a high priority for most "mega cities" since the closing years of the 20th century. The world's population is becoming more urbanized, at an unprecedented pace. There were 21 mega cities with populations of more than 10 million people by the year 2000, as predicted earlier; 17 of these cities were in developing countries [1]. There is a need for sustainable development that meets the need of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

At the same time, growing public concerns for both conservation and quality of life are rightly giving pause to unrestrained development of the cities at ground level. Provision of new urban infrastructure may either coexist or conflict with improvement of the urban environment. In each city, the balance will depend on local priorities and economic circumstances; but unquestionably, environmental considerations are now being accorded greater importance everywhere. Even skyscrapers have three- to four-storied basements.

In the aforementioned scenario, city planners, designers, and engineers have a greater responsibility to foster a better environment for living, working, and leisure activity at the ground surface and are therefore turning increasingly to the creation of space underground to accommodate new transportation, communication and utility networks, and complexes for handling, processing, and storing many kinds of goods and materials. So to stay on top, go underground.

In different countries, various facilities have been built underground. These facilities include:

- · Underground parking space
- Rail and road tunnels
- Sewage treatment plants
- Garbage incineration plants
- Underground mass rapid transport systems, popularly known as "underground metro"
- Underground oil storage and supply systems (through pipelines in tunnels)
- · Underground cold storage
- Hydroelectric projects with extensive use of underground caverns and tunnels

In Shanghai, China, more than 2 million m² of subsurface space has been developed as underground buildings for various uses since modernization in 1980. Underground supermarkets, warehouses, silos, garages, hospitals, markets, restaurants, theaters, hotels, entertainment centers, factories and workshops, culture farms, plantations, subways, and subaqueous tunnels may be found throughout the city of Shanghai [2].

A publication of Royal Swedish Academy of Engineering Sciences "Going Underground" [3] is a useful document describing various uses of underground space. One outstanding example of the use of underground space is an underground ice hockey stadium with a span of 61 m, in Gjovik, Norway, built for the 1994 winter Olympic Games.

"Out of sight, out of mind" summarizes the advantages of creating public awareness of underground space, a remarkable resource that is still largely underdeveloped but available worldwide. The time is ripe for exploring the possibilities of developing underground space for civic utilities in mega cities. It is pertinent to give the example of the Palika Bazar, an underground market in New Delhi, India. As part of the Cannought Place shopping area, the Palika Bazar was built as a cut-and-cover subsurface structure with a beautiful garden created above

it. If the Palika Bazar was on the surface, the garden space would have been lost and surface congestion would have increased immeasurably.

There is a challenge for developing countries because they have to find solutions that are effective, affordable, and locally acceptable, which can be implemented at a rate that keeps pace with the growing problems. So, more rock engineering experts are being consulted now.

1.2 HISTORY OF UNDERGROUND SPACE USE

In the primitive ages, beginning roughly three million years ago, from the time human beings first existed on earth to the Neolithic age of approximately 3000 B.C., underground space was used in the form of cave dwellings so that people could protect themselves from the threats posed by natural (primarily climatic) hazards. The world's biggest cave is 207 m high and 152 m wide in a Vietnam forest. This Hang Son Doong cave is larger than the Dear cave in Sarawak, Malaysia, which is more than 100 m high and 90 m wide. Following this period, in ancient times from roughly 3000 B.C. to A.D. 500, which spanned the civilizations of Egypt, Mesopotamia, Greece, and Rome, technology employed in the construction of tunnels progressed considerably [4].

The earliest examples of underground structures in India were in the form of dwelling pits cut into the compacted loess deposits in Kashmir around 3000 and 500 B.C. This was brought to light by the Archaeological Survey of India (ASI) during excavations in 1960. These pit houses were found to provide excellent protection against cold and severe winter weather as well as the heat of summer. They also offered protection against external attack. Dwellings dating back to 1600 B.C. were also noted at Nagarjuna Konda in Andhra Pradesh state [5].

The world's most beautiful and elaborate rock tunnels, the rock temples in Maharashtra state, cut out of the hardest rock and having a length of some kilometers, indicate early experience in underground engineering by humans. The tunnels of Ellora alone add up to 10.8 km in length. In medieval India, forts and palaces were provided with fountains, underground pathways, basement halls for storage, meeting halls, summer retreats, and water tunnels. Underground constructions in Daulatabad fort, Man Mandir in the palace of King Man Singh, and the 17 basement chambers below the famous TajMahal, are outstanding constructions of medieval kings of India [6].

The mythological story of Ramayana mentions the town of Kishkindha, which was built completely underground and thus enabled its King Bali to win all battles.

Ancient Egyptians gave utmost care to bury their dead in the underground structures, as they believed strongly in life after death. The upper level is in a rectangular shape with a flat top called "mastaba." The lower part is an underground level where the floor was covered by mortar, crushed stones, and straw. Later the idea of mastaba evolved toward the true pyramid. The pyramid

contains an underground tomb structure that was built first before construction of the pyramid. These pyramids are as old as 2778 B.C. The great pyramid of Khufo at Giza in Egypt has an incline tunnel as long as 82 m in Giza rock [7].

In the area of the pyramid, ancient Egyptians were fond of underpasses below causeways leading to other pyramids. Sometimes these causeways were considered sacred paths; workers were not permitted to walk on them and therefore it was necessary to cross them by these underpasses. Another example also in the area of the pyramids is the underground drainage canals for the drainage systems in the funerary temples of Khufo and Chephern. In the courtyard of Khufo's temple, a basin of 20 by 30 feet $(7 \times 10 \text{ m})$ with a depth of approximately 7 feet (2 m) was cut in the rock as a collector tank from which branch canals go out; most of its length was underground. Another example from this area is the underground construction under the Sphinx and the pedestrian tunnel between the pyramids [7].

In June 1992, 5 large man-carved rock caverns were unearthed by four local farmers after they pumped water out of five small pools in their village near the town of Longyou in the Zhejiang Province of China. Subsequently, 19 other caverns were found nearby. These caverns were excavated in Fenghuang Hill, a small hill that is 3 km north in Longyou County. The hill has elevations between 39 and 69 m above mean sea level. The Longyou rock caverns are a group of large ancient underground caverns. They were carved manually in pelitic siltstone in the Quxian Formation of the Upper Cretaceous. They have the following five characteristics: more than 2000 years old, man carved, large spanned, near the ground surface, and medium to hard surrounding rock. This discovery attracted the attention of many specialists from China, Japan, Poland, Singapore, and the United States [8].

There are 23 known large-scale underground cities in the Cappadocia region in Turkey. The underground cities were connected by hidden passages to houses in the region. Hundreds of rooms in the underground cities were connected to each other with long passages and labyrinth-like tunnels. The corridors were made long, low, and narrow to restrict the movement of intruders. Shafts (usually connected with the lowest floor of the underground cities) were used for both ventilation and communication inside the underground cities. Although some researchers claim that the underground settlements were connected to each other with tunnels, conclusive evidence to support this idea has not yet been found [9].

New hydropower projects are being taken up involving construction of more than 1000-km length tunnels with sizes varying from 2.5 to 14 m diameter to add 16,500 MW of hydropower by the end of 11th 5-year plan in India. After the success of the metro rail project in Delhi with state-of-the-art technology, construction of a metro rail project is planned in various cities, including Mumbai, Bangalore, Hyderabad, Lucknow, Pune, Chandigarh, and Howrah-Kolkata. The Indian Railways is constructing the most challenging Jammu–Udhampur–Srinagar–Baramulla railway line in the difficult Himalayan terrain of Jammu and Kashmir State, and

there are 42 tunnels with a total length of 107.96 km in the Katra-Quazigund section (142 km). The Konkan Railway Corporation Limited (KRCL) has constructed a 760-km Konkan railway line with 92 tunnels with a total length of 83.6 km. The Border Roads Organisation has planned a prestigious and challenging highway tunnel with a length of 8.9 km under the 3978-m high Rohtang pass on Manali-Leh road, and construction of the tunnel is to start shortly [10]. Sixstory underground parks are under construction in New Delhi and are planned in many cities. The government of India is planning a 497-km-long rail link between Bilaspur-Manali and Leh in Himalaya. China is building 5000-km-long rail lines in Himalaya for rapid development there. Interesting case histories of construction are presented extensively in The Master Builder (Vol. 8, No. 8, Sept. 2006, India).

The basic difference in these historical underground spaces and present-day spaces, however, is that those in the past were built or created out of an interest to do something new and creative. However, today underground space is required for sustainable development and for providing better lifestyles to people.

1.3 UNDERGROUND SPACE FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

When the United Nations was established in 1945, 90% of the world's population lived in rural areas [11]. With time and migration of people toward cities in search of jobs and better lifestyles, the populations of cities grew many fold. Already a billion of these new urban residents live in health- and life-threatening situations, with hundreds of millions living in absolute poverty. At least 250 million people have no access to safe piped water. Four hundred million people lack sanitation.

Ninety percent of the population growth will be in developing countries; 90% of that will be in urban areas. In effect, every year we are witnessing the birth of 20 new cities the size of Washington, DC, or, put another way, more people will be packed into the cities of the developing world in the 21st century than were alive on the entire planet in 1996 [11]. This global trend of migration toward mega cities is the consequence of rapid growth and sometimes destructive wars that face both rural and urban populations the world over.

Most of these huge cities will be located in developing nations with limited financial resources. Will these cities become ecological and human disasters or can they be designed to evolve as healthy, desirable places to live? Planners are beginning to develop planning tools for future mega cities surrounded by sustainable regions, which in turn would be linked to other regions as part of a global economic network. Each region would import resources such as clean water, energy, raw materials, and finished products. Most cities would be surrounded by rural areas that would provide agricultural and other locally generated products. These sustainable regions in turn would export products and services.