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CTTAM Technical Examination - Civil Engineering Technology C.E.T Sample Questions (Q24-Q29):

NEW QUESTION # 24

A civil engineering technologist is to inspect control joint saw-cuts on a newly poured concrete slab. What saw cut depth would be typically specified?

- A. 1/2 of the total depth of the slab
- B. Total depth of the slab
- C. 2/3 of the total depth of the slab
- D. 1/4 of the total depth of the slab

Answer: D

Explanation:

Control joints (contraction joints) are intended to create a plane of weakness so shrinkage cracking forms at the joint rather than randomly. For saw-cut control joints, typical practice is to cut deep enough to be effective but not so deep that it compromises slab capacity or cuts reinforcement. Civil engineering materials references describe contraction/control joints as used to control cracking and indicate that the joint must form an intentional weakened section. A common "rule of thumb" for saw-cut depth is approximately one-quarter of the slab thickness for conventional slabs-on-grade (deeper cuts may be specified for thicker slabs or special conditions, but 1/4 is the typical baseline). This depth is generally sufficient to initiate cracking at the joint line while preserving structural integrity of the slab. Therefore, the typical specified saw cut depth is 1/4 of the total slab depth.

NEW QUESTION # 25

In an oil and gas project, the location of a pile is offset by 78 mm north and 54 mm east of the key location plan. The location was stamped and issued for construction by a consulting engineering company. The statement on the drawings says, "Offset more than 75 mm is not accepted." Which of the following is the best approach for the civil engineering technologist to take?

- A. Inquire with the client if the pile location is acceptable.
- B. Accept the pile location as is because the offsets are close enough to 100 mm.
- C. Fill up the hole and re-drill the pile hole based on the pile key location plan.
- **D. Submit a non-conformance report to the design engineer for review and advice.**

Answer: D

Explanation:

When IFC drawings state a tolerance limit, exceeding it ($78\text{ mm} > 75\text{ mm}$) creates a nonconformance that must be dispositioned through the proper technical authority rather than accepted informally in the field. The appropriate response is to document the deviation and escalate it through the project's formal communication /decision chain so engineering can assess structural implications and provide written direction (accept as-is, redesign, relocate, mitigation). Labi outlines that when significant issues arise, effective professional practice includes maintaining records and communicating through the organization's chain of command as part of a formal resolution process. Lindeburg's ethics discussion also emphasizes notifying proper authorities when decisions may adversely affect public safety and welfare—supporting escalation rather than informal acceptance. Therefore, the best approach is to submit a non-conformance report to the design engineer for review and advice.

NEW QUESTION # 26

Which of the following tests are required as part of soil grain size analysis?

- A. Sieve analysis for coarse grains and Atterberg limit tests for fine grains
- **B. Sieve analysis for coarse grains and hydrometer test for fine grains**
- C. Sieve analysis for fine grains and hydrometer test for coarse grains
- D. Sieve analysis for fine grains and Atterberg limit tests for coarse grains

Answer: B

Explanation:

Soil grain size analysis determines the particle-size distribution across coarse and fine fractions. Coarse particles (sand and gravel) are sized by sieve analysis, where the sample is passed through a stack of sieves and the mass retained on each sieve is measured to build the gradation curve. Fine particles (silt and clay) are too small for practical sieving and are therefore sized using sedimentation methods, most commonly the hydrometer test, which infers particle sizes from settling velocity in a suspension. This combined approach (sieve for coarse, hydrometer for fines) is standard in civil geotechnical testing programs because it produces a continuous particle-size distribution needed for soil classification and engineering assessment. Atterberg limits (LL/PL) are consistency/plasticity tests for fine-grained soils—not grain size tests—so they are not the required fine-fraction method for grain-size analysis. Therefore, the correct combination for grain size analysis is sieve analysis for coarse grains and hydrometer test for fine grains.

NEW QUESTION # 27

What information is provided by a 5-point Proctor density test on a soil sample?

- **A. Maximum density at optimum moisture content**
- B. Maximum density at its current moisture content
- C. Maximum particle size within the soil sample
- D. Maximum moisture content of the sample

Answer: A

Explanation:

A Proctor compaction test is performed by compacting the same soil at several different moisture contents, calculating dry density for each point, and plotting dry density versus moisture content to form the compaction curve. The curve's peak defines two key outputs: maximum dry density (MDD) and its corresponding optimum moisture content (OMC). Standard descriptions note the test is

commonly run at about five moisture contents ("5-point" curve) specifically to determine and. These outputs are then used in specifications and field QA/QC (relative compaction and moisture window). The test does not directly give maximum particle size (that's from gradation/sieve analysis), nor does it define "maximum density at current moisture" as a standalone acceptance criterion. Therefore, the correct statement is that a 5-point Proctor provides maximum density at optimum moisture content.

NEW QUESTION # 28

A continuous bridge spans over multiple piers. If one of the piers collapses in standing because the adjacent piers will pick up the load. What type of redundancy does the bridge have?

- A. Internal
- **B. Load path**
- C. Structural
- D. Multi-span

Answer: B

Explanation:

The scenario describes the bridge continuing to stand after a support failure because loads can be redistributed through alternate routes to the remaining supports. That is the essence of alternate load paths, i.e., load path redundancy. Petroski explains bridge failures where collapse occurred because there was no alternate load path capable of supporting rerouted loads after a component became loose, highlighting that survival depends on alternate load paths. He also notes designers try to build alternate load paths so stresses can reroute when one load path becomes unavailable. Labi similarly describes redundancy as having another member/component "there to play its role" in the event of failure, enable when a component is out of service. Because the bridge remains standing due to load redistribution to adjacent supports, the redundancy type is best identified as load path redundancy.

NEW QUESTION # 29

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