

2nd Revised Edition

Fundamentals of STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

WITH COMPUTER ANALYSIS AND APPLICATIONS



**SUJIT KUMAR ROY
SUBRATA CHAKRABARTY**

S. CHAND

FUNDAMENTALS OF STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

With Computer Analysis & Applications

[For B.E. / B.Tech. in Civil Engineering and also
Useful for M.E./M.Tech. Students]

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PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

In this edition the book has been thoroughly revised and corrected. A chapter on Plastic Analysis has been added. Hope the students will find the book more useful.

Kolkata

Dr. S.K. ROY
Dr. S. CHAKRABARTY

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

The book "Fundamentals of Structural Analysis" is the outcome of the authors' long experience of teaching structural engineering to undergraduate and post-graduate students in Civil Engineering. The book takes an integral look at structural engineering starting with fundamentals and ending with computer analysis. Computer applications have been introduced early though the full fledged analysis has been postponed to later stages when physical conception on structural behaviour is clear.

The book is suitable for 5th, 6th and 7th semesters of undergraduate course. The sixteenth chapter on Matrix Analysis and Computers can be taught in the 7th semester which will prepare the students for extensive study on Computer Analysis in the 8th semester and will be useful transition from matrix method to more general finite element study at P.G. level. Similarly the seventeenth chapter on "Dynamic Analysis" is introductory in character.

In writing this book we have consulted large number of Indian and foreign books on structural analysis. A select bibliography is given at the end of the book. We are grateful to all authors whose works form the background of this book. The senior author is grateful to Dr. N.C. Sinha, former Professor and Head of C.E. Deptt. of Jalpaiguri Govt. Engineering College and B.E. College (D.U.) for initiating him into the field of textbook writing.

A large number of examples have been worked out in the book so that students can master the subject by practising the examples and problems. It is quite possible to have some computational and typographical errors. Readers will earn our gratitude by pointing them to us.

We are grateful to Mr. Ravindra Kumar Gupta, Managing Director of M/s S. Chand and Co. Ltd. for publishing the book with great care and also in a very short time.

Our grateful thanks are due to Mr. R.S. Saxena, Advisor, Delhi office and to Mr. R.M. Nath, Manager, Calcutta Branch for coordinating the publication of the book.

Kolkata

Dr. S.K. ROY
Dr. S. CHAKRABARTY

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BASIS OF STRUCTURAL ANALYSIS

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Engineering structures must carry load with small deformation. Examples of common engineering structures are : buildings, bridges, dams, offshore oil platforms, water and gas tanks, piping systems, nuclear and chemical reactor vessels, ships, air planes, buses and other transportation systems.

From engineering point of view

(i) a *Framed structure* is an assembly of members inter connected by joints. Other types of structural systems are shells, domes, dams, walls etc.

(ii) *Structural behaviour* is the response of a structure to applied loads and environmental effects (wind, earthquake and temperature changes).

(iii) *Structural analysis* is the determination of reactions, member forces, deformation of the structure and deflection of the joints due to applied loads and environmental effects.

1.2. RELATION BETWEEN ANALYSIS AND DESIGN

The primary work of an engineer is to design. But analysis of a structure is required to check whether the design is safe either of a new or old structure. Usually design consists of preliminary design and checking by analysis, redesign with suitable modifications which is repeated a number of times till final design is obtained. At this stage, all the design constraints are fulfilled, that is, stresses and deflections are within permissible limits and cost is usually minimum.

1.3. STRUCTURAL IDEALISATION

Structural analysis is conducted on an analytical (or mathematical) model which is an idealisation of the actual structure. Engineering judgment must be used in defining the idealised structure such that it represents the actual structural behaviour as accurately as is practically possible.

Depending on the problem in hand, structures are idealised using line, plate or brick elements. Line elements are used to model the structural components that have one dimension much greater than other two. Typical examples are truss members, beams, columns etc. Plate elements are used to model structural components such as slabs and shells of which two dimensions are much greater than the third. Brick elements are used to model structures such as thick slabs and machine components where the structural action is truly three dimensional. Assembling the elements in accordance with the geometry of the structure produces a model of the complete structure that can be used to investigate the effect of the applied loading.

Fig. 1.1. (a) shows an actual structure.

Fig. 1.1 (b) shows the idealisation.

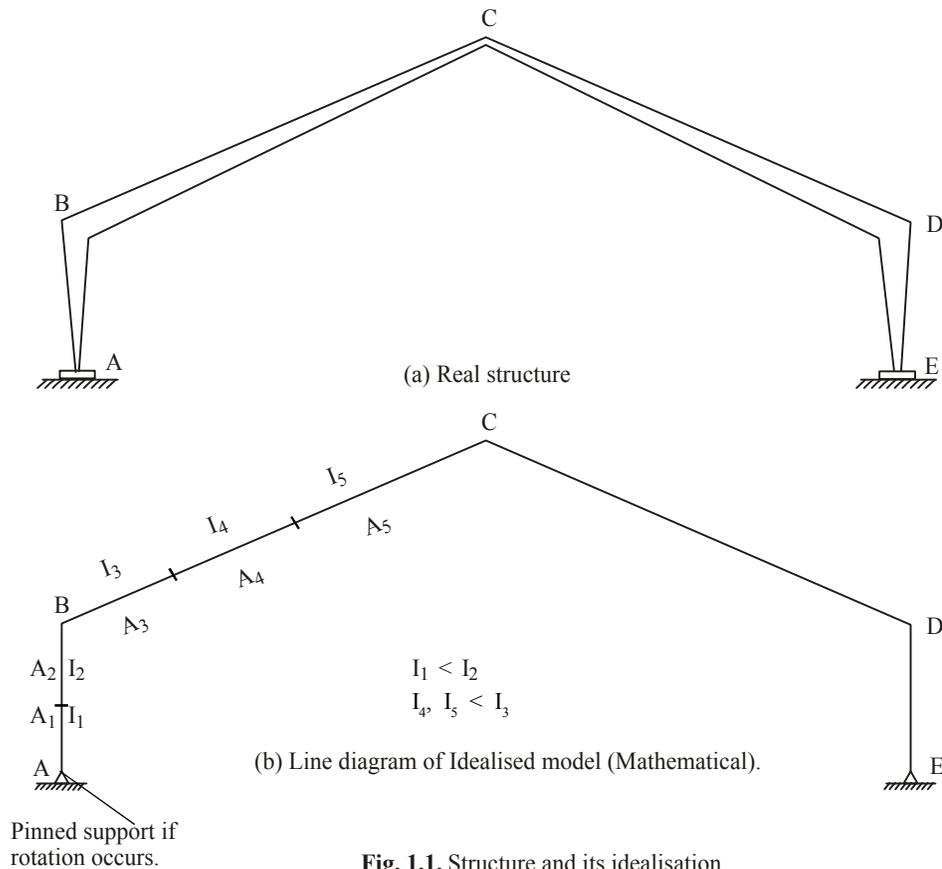


Fig. 1.1. Structure and its idealisation.

The following points can be observed :

(i) The actual structure is a welded frame of I section. The section is variable *i.e.* it is thicker at *B* and *D* and thinner at *A*, *C* and *E*.

(ii) It is supported at the ground level by means of concrete foundation. Hence in the idealised model represented by the line diagram we should have variable *I* and Area, large *I* and Area near *B* and *D* while small *I* and Area near the supports *A* and *E*. and mid region *C*. If the supports allow rotations it should be pinned, if no rotation occurs it should be considered as fixed support.

1.4. CLASSIFICATION OF STRUCTURES

Structures can be classified in many different ways. One way of classification is based on dimensions, such as

(i) One dimensional, for example, trusses, beams, frames, grids, arch ribs and cable structures. Here one dimension, say length, is very large compared to other two dimensions for the components of the structure.

Some of these structures are shown in Fig. 1.2. (a) to (g).

(ii) Two dimensional or surface structures *e.g.* slab, deep beams, shells or walls. Here length and breadth are large in comparison to thickness. Fig. 1.2 (i) and (j).

(iii) Three dimensional or solid structures where all the three dimensions of length, breadth

or height are equally prominent *e.g.* foundations, retaining walls, gravity dams. Fig. 1.2. (k) (l) (m) and (n).

They can also be classified from the way they carry load. For example,

(i) Beams carry their loads by developing bending moments and shear forces at different sections.

(ii) Trusses carry their loads by developing axial forces in the bars.

(iii) Frames carry loads by axial force, bending moment and shear.

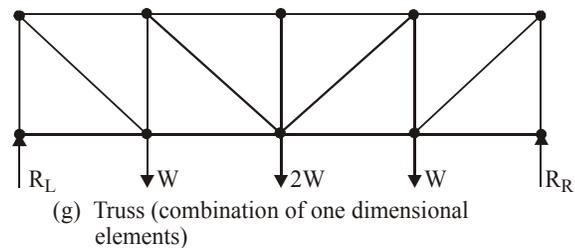
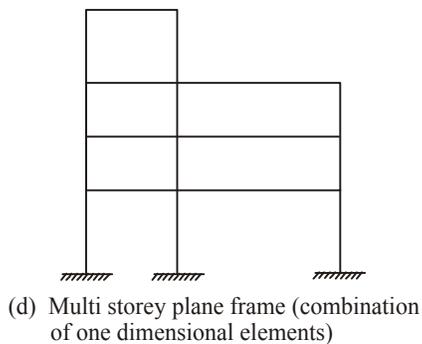
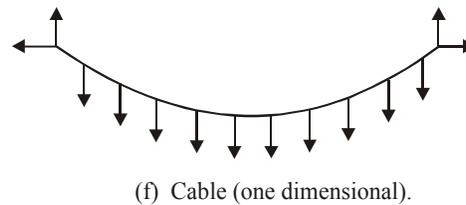
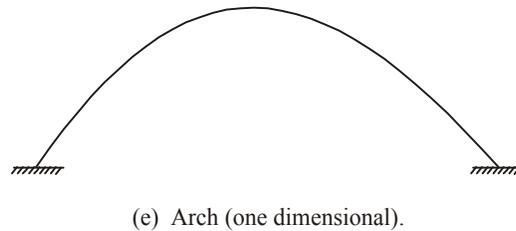
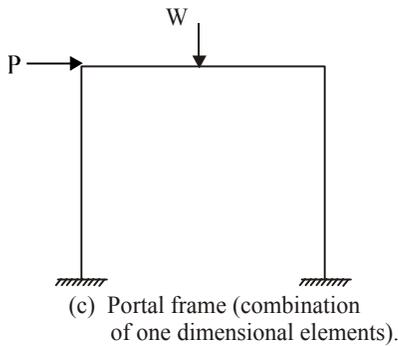
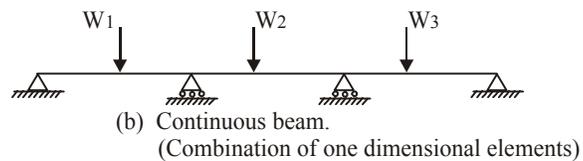
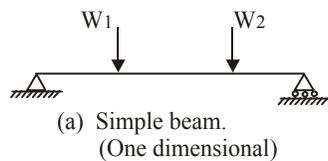
(iv) Arches carry load by compression and bending.

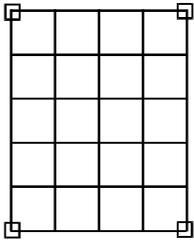
(v) Cables carry loads by developing axial tension.

(vi) Two way grids are subjected to both bending and twisting

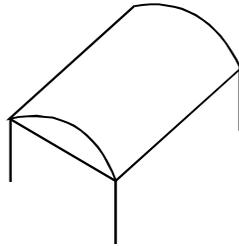
(vii) Thin plates are subjected to both bending and twisting.

(viii) Thin shells transmit forces mainly by in plane or membrane stresses.

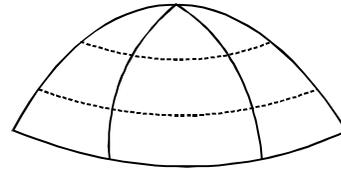




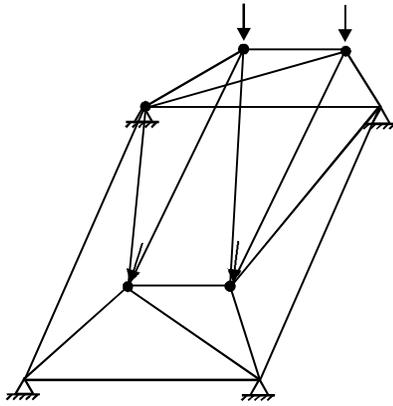
(h) A horizontal grid (Combination of one dimensional elements).



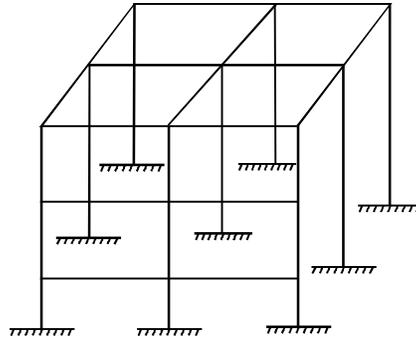
(i) A cylindrical vault (Two dimensional).



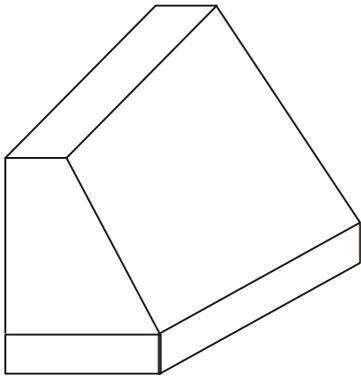
(i) A dome (Two dimensional)



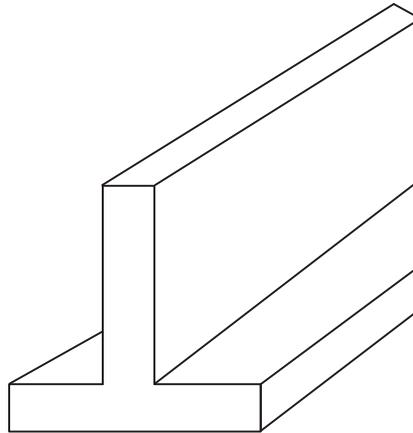
(k) Space Truss. (Three dimensional with one dimensional elements).



(l) Space Frame (Three dimensional with one dimensional elements).



(m) Dam. (Three Dimensional structure).

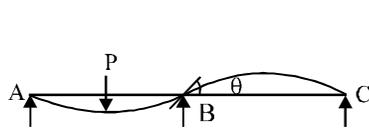


(n) Retaining Wall (Three dimensional).

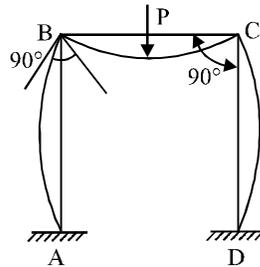
1.5. JOINT AND SUPPORT CONDITIONS

(a) **Joints.** As already explained, a structure is an assemblage of a number of elements. Joint is connection between these elements. Joints may be (i) Rigid or (ii) Pinned. Fig. 1.3. (a) shows rigid joint. A rigid joint maintains the angles between the centre lines of members framing into the joint. A rigid joint will carry any moment assigned to it and the joint will rotate as a whole and there will be no change in the angle between the members. Fig. 1.3. (b) shows a pinned joint.

This joint allows the members joining it independent rotation. Hence angle between the member changes. Since the joint is pinned it cannot resist any moment.

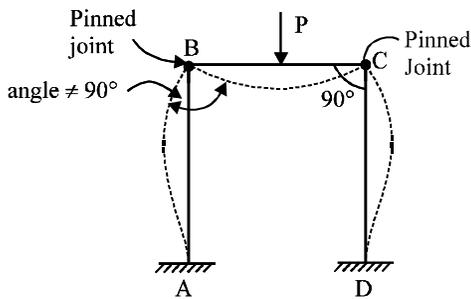


(i) 180° rigid joint between AB and BC.
Joint rotates as a whole.



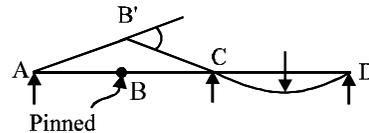
(ii) 90° rigid joint between AB and BC under load. Joint rotates as a whole.

(a) Behaviour of Rigid Joints.



90° Pinned Joint between AB and BC.

(i) Angle between AB and BC does not remain 90° under load.

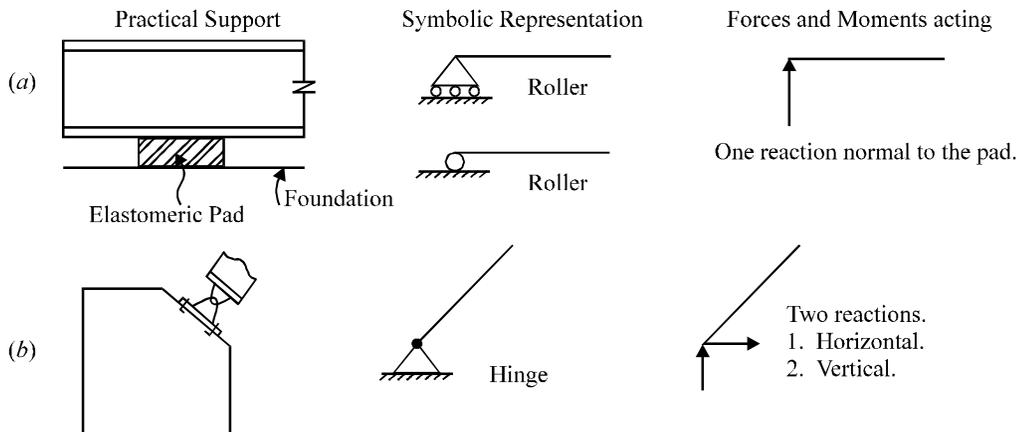


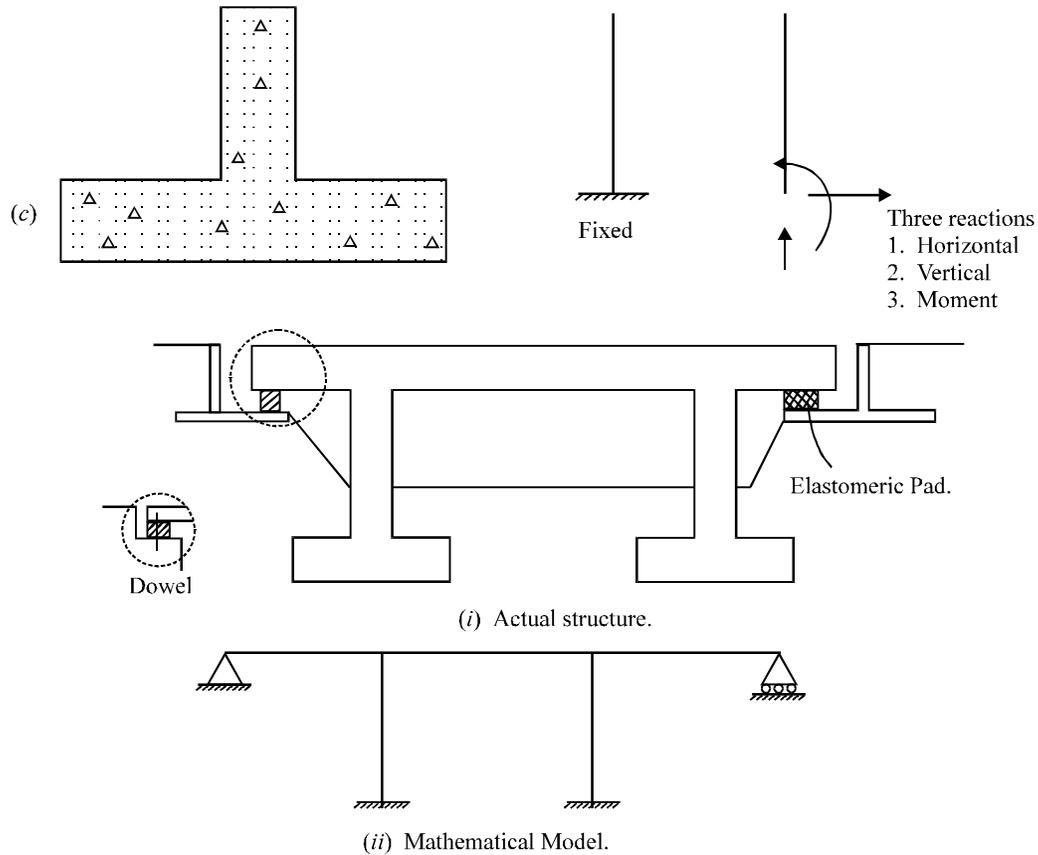
(ii) 180° pinned joint between AB and BC
Angle between AB' and B'C does not remain 180°.

(b) Behaviour of pinned Joints.

Fig. 1.3. Behaviour of Joints.

(b) **Supports.** The loads applied to a structure must be transferred to the ground by the supports, that is, the support will generate reactions to counteract the actions of the loads. The type and number of reactions depend on the support conditions. Support may be roller, hinge or pin and fixed. Fig. 1.4. shows actual supports, how it is symbolically represented and forces and moments which act on the support. The bridge deck constructed as monolithic with the columns is shown in Fig. 1.4. (d) (i) and the corresponding support conditions that might be taken for analysis is shown in Fig. 1.4. (d) (ii).





(d) Actual structure and mathematical model of a bridge deck.

Fig. 1.4. Different types of supports (a) Roller support (b) Hinged support (c) Fixed support (d) Actual structure and mathematical model of a bridge deck.

1.6. MATERIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Structures are usually made of different materials like wood, concrete or steel. Their stress-strain curves are all different as shown in Fig. 1.5.

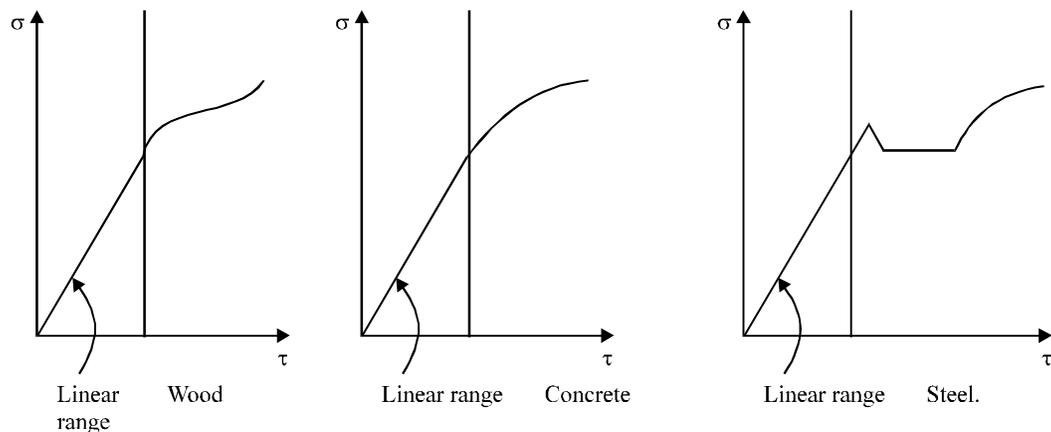


Fig. 1.5. Stress Strain curve of different materials.

Upto some level of load, stress is proportional to strain and E , the slope of the stress strain curve is constant and hence stress strain curve is linear. Another characteristic of member is its elasticity. Upon unloading, a material may come back to its original position, then it will be called elastic. When it does not come back to its original position it is termed inelastic, hence considering (i) linearity (ii) elasticity four combinations of curves are possible.

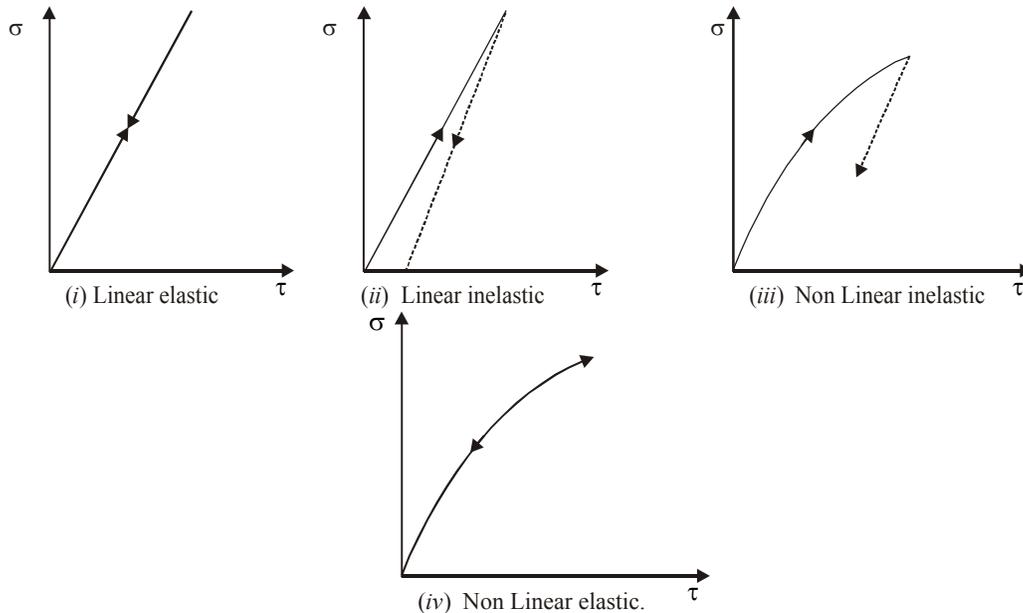


Fig. 1.6 Different types of stress strain curve.

Steel upto proportional limit is linear and elastic; steel beyond its yield point is nonlinear and inelastic. Rubber is nonlinear and elastic.

1.7. SUPER POSITION

The deformations of structures are generally small. In most cases, the geometry of the structure is sensibly unaffected by deformation. In such a case, the conditions of equilibrium and conditions of compatibility can be written down for the undisturbed structure without loss of accuracy. The principle of super position states that

if cause A produces Effect A
 and cause B produces Effect B
 then cause A + cause B produce Effect A + Effect B.

Three categories of super position will be considered—

- (i) Super position of force systems.
- (ii) Super position of displacements.
- (iii) Super position of linear elastic structures.

(i) **Super position of force systems** : For statically determinate structures the principle of super position is valid with only restriction that distortion of structure is small. This means internal forces and moments can be added together for two different loading systems. Under such conditions super position of forces is valid for statically indeterminate structures also with the additional restriction that material of the structure must obey Hooke's law because the internal forces depend on the deformation of the members.

(ii) Super position of displacements : Superposition of displacements is valid both for statically determinate and indeterminate structure provided deflection of the structure is not gross.

The propped cantilever shown in Fig. 1.7. illustrates the principle of superposition.

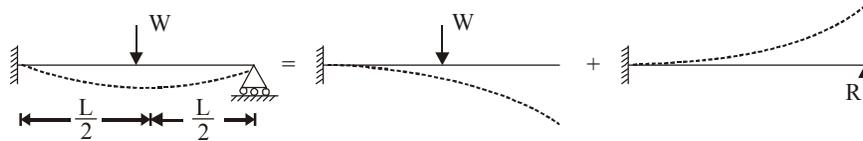


Fig. 1.7 Superposition of displacements.

The diagram shows that if the effect of the propping force (*i.e.* the right hand reaction) is superimposed on the effect of the applied load on the unpropped cantilever then the actual results are obtained. Here propping force and the applied load have been treated as two independent load systems and then their effects have been superposed. Superposition is not valid when the structural behaviour is not linear. There are two sources of nonlinearity in structures. The *first* is when the displacements are large making small deflection theory inapplicable. The following example explains the situation.

Consider the eccentrically loaded strut of Fig. 1.8

$$\text{Central deflection } d = e \sec \frac{l}{2} \sqrt{\frac{W}{EI}}$$

$$\text{Here } d_1 = e \sec \frac{l}{2} \sqrt{\frac{W_1}{EI}}$$

$$d_2 = e \sec \frac{l}{2} \sqrt{\frac{W_2}{EI}}$$

and d , due to load of $(W_1 + W_2)$

$$= e \sec \frac{l}{2} \sqrt{\frac{(W_1 + W_2)}{EI}}$$

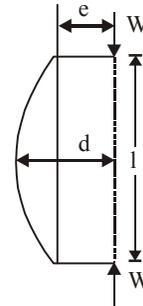


Fig. 1.8 Gross deformation of structure.

Obviously $d \neq d_1 + d_2$. This is because deformation is gross and conditions of equilibrium are appreciably affected by the distortion of the structure. The *Second* case when method of superposition is not valid occurs when the structural behaviour is nonlinear due to material nonlinearity.

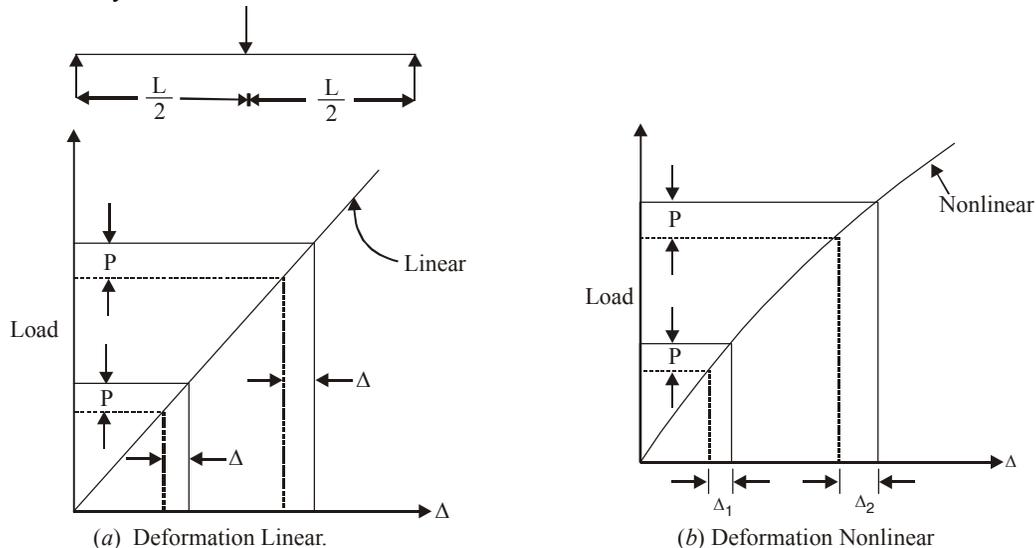
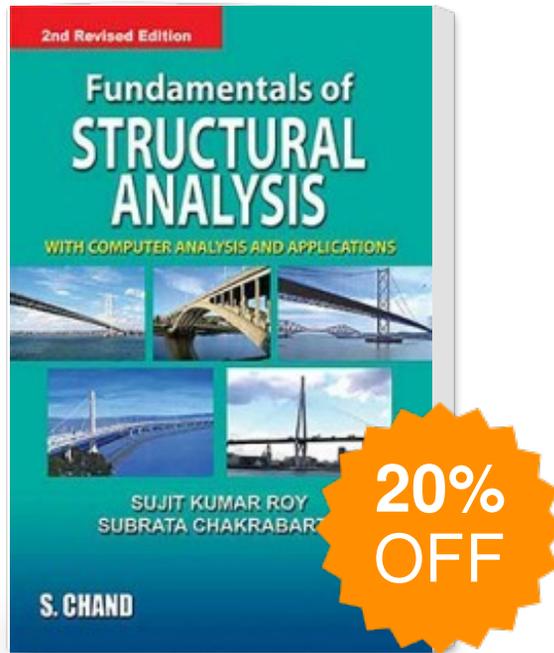


Fig. 1.9 Load deformation graphs.

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