CHAPTER 5

Indeterminate Structures:  
The Truss

5.1 Compatibility of Deformation

The key to resolving our predicament, when faced with a problem and the equations of static equilibrium do not suffice to determine a unique solution, lies in opening up our field of view to consider the displacements of points in the structure and the deformation of its members. This introduces new variables, a new genera of flora and fauna, into our landscape; for the truss structure the species of node displacements and the related species of uniaxial member strains must be engaged. For the frame structure made up of beam elements, we must consider the slope of the displacement and the related curvature of the beam at any point along its length.

Displacements you already know about from your basic course in physics – from the section on Kinematics within the chapter on Newtonian Mechanics. Displacement is a vector quantity, like force, like velocity; it has a magnitude and direction. In Kinematics, it tracks the movement of a physical point from some location at time \( t \) to its location at a subsequent time, say \( t + \delta t \), where the \( \delta \) indicates a small time increment. Here, in this text, the displacement vector will, most often, represent the movement of a physical point of a structure from its position in the undeformed state of the structure to its position in its deformed state, from the structure’s unloaded configuration to its configuration under load.

These displacements will generally be small relative to some nominal length of the structure. Note that previously, in applying the laws of static equilibrium, we made the tacit assumption displacements were so small we effectively took them as zero; that is, we applied the laws of equilibrium to the undeformed body.\(^1\) There is nothing inconsistent in what we did there with the tack we take now as long as we restrict our attention to small displacements. That is, our equilibrium equations remain the same and valid as they were obtained even as we admit that the structure has deformed a small amount.

Although small in this respect, the small displacement of one point relative to the small displacement of another point in the deformation of a structural member can engender large internal stresses.

\[^1\] The one exception is the introductory exercise where we allowed the two bar linkage to “snap through” in that case we wrote equilibrium with respect to the deformed configuration.
Compatibility of Deformation

Now when the members of a structure deform, the structure, unless it breaks apart, still looks very much the same. The same truss members that were joined at a node in the undeformed state still are joined at that node in the deformed state. This observation is the basis of a new requirement – that of compatibility of deformation. An example best illustrates the point:

**Exercise 5.1** – A relatively rigid \(^1\) carton, carrying fragile contents (of negligible weight), rests on a block of foam and is restrained by four elastic cords which hold it fast to a truck-bed during transit. Each cord has a spring stiffness \(k_{\text{cord}} = 25\ \text{lb/in.}\); the foam has eight times the spring stiffness, \(k_{\text{foam}} = 400\ \text{lb/in.}\). The gap \(\Delta\), in the undeformed state, i.e., when the cords hang free, is 1.0 in.\(^2\)

Show that when the carton is held down by the four cords that each of the cords experiences a tensile force of 20 lb.

We begin by making a cut through the body to get at the internal forces in the cords and in the foam. We imagine the cords hooked to the floor; the system in the deformed state. We cut through the foam and the cords at some quite arbitrary distance up from the floor. Our isolation is shown at the right.

Force equilibrium gives, noting there are four cords to take into account:

\[
F_f - 4F_c = 0
\]

Here we model the system as capable of motion in the vertical direction only. The internal reactive force in the foam is taken as uniformly distributed across the cut. \(F_f\) is the resultant of this distribution. Consistent with this, the foam, like the cords, is taken as a uniaxial truss member, like a linear spring.

Observe that the foam will compress, the cords will extend. Note that I seemingly violate my convention for assumed direction of positive truss member forces in that I take a compressive force in the foam as positive. I could argue that this is not a truss; but, no, the real reason for proceeding in this way is to make full use of our physical insight in illustrating the new requirement of compatibility of deformation. We can be quite confident that the foam will compress and the cords extend. In other instances to come, the sign of the internal forces will not be so clear. Careful attention must then be given to the convention we adopt for the positive directions of displacements, as well as forces. Note also that there exists no externally applied forces yet internal forces exist and must satisfy equilibrium. We call this kind of system of internal forces self-equilibrating.

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1. The word rigid comes to the fore now that we consider the deformations and displacements of extended bodies. Rigid means that there is no, absolutely no relative displacement of any two, arbitrarily chosen points in the body when the body is loaded. Of course, this is all relative in another sense. There is always some relative displacement of points in each, every and all bodies; a rigid body is as much an abstraction as a friction-less pin. But in many problems, the relative displacements of points of some one body or subsystem may be assumed small relative to the relative displacements of another body. In this exercise we are claiming that the carton is rigid relative to the elastic foam and to the elastic cords.

2. It is not necessary to state that we neglect the weight of the carton if we work from the deformed state with the foam deflected some due to the weight alone. This is ok as long as the relationship between force and deflection is linear which we assume to be the case.
We see we have but one equation of equilibrium, yet two unknowns, the internal forces $F_c$ and $F_f$. The problem is statically, or equilibrium indeterminate.

We now call upon the new requirement of Compatibility of deformation to generate another required relationship. In this we designate the compression of the foam $\delta_f$; its units will be inches. We designate the extension of the cords $\delta_c$; it too will be measured in inches.

Compatibility of deformation is a statement relating these two measures. In fact their sum must be, $\Delta$, the original gap. We construct this statement as follows:

The original length of the cord is
$$L_o = h_f + h_c - \Delta$$
while its final length is
$$L_f = (h_f - \delta_f) + h_c$$

The extension of the cord is the difference of these:
$$\delta_c = L_f - L_c = -\delta_f + \Delta$$

Compatibility of Deformation then requires
$$\delta_c + \delta_f = \Delta$$

Only if this is true will our structure remain all together now as it was before fastening down.

Here is a second equation but look, we have introduced two more unknowns, the compression of the foam and the extension of the cords. It looks like we are making matters worse! Something more must be added, namely we must relate the internal forces that appear in equilibrium to the deformations that appear in compatibility. This is done through two constitutive equations, equations whose form and factors depend upon the material out of which the cord and foam are constituted. In this example we have modeled both the foam and the cords as linear springs. That is we write

$$F_c = k_c \cdot \delta_c \quad \text{where} \quad k_c = 25(\text{lb/in})$$
and
$$F_f = k_f \cdot \delta_f \quad \text{where} \quad k_f = 400(\text{lb/in})$$

These last are two more equations, but no more unknowns. Summing up we see we now have four linearly independent equations for the four unknowns, — the two internal forces and the two measure of deformation.

There are various ways to solve this set of equations; I first write $\delta_f$ in terms of $\delta_c$ using compatibility, i.e. $\delta_f = \Delta - \delta_c$; then express both unknown forces in terms of $\delta_c$.

$$F_c = k_c \cdot \delta_c \quad \text{and} \quad F_f = k_f \cdot (\Delta - \delta_c)$$

Equilibrium then yields a single equation for the extension of the cords, namely
$$k_f \cdot (\Delta - \delta_c) - 4k \delta_c = 0$$
so
and we find the tension in the cords, \( F_c \), to be:

\[
F_c = k_c \cdot \delta_c = 20 \text{ lb}.
\]

The compressive force in the foam is four times this, namely 80 \( \text{lb} \), since there are four cords. Finally, we find that the extension of the cords and the compression of the foam are

\[
\delta_c = 0.8 \text{ in.} \quad \text{and} \quad \delta_f = 0.2 \text{ in.}
\]

which sum to the original gap, \( \Delta \).

This simple exercise\(^1\) captures all of the major features of the solution of statically indeterminate problems. We see that we must contend with **three requirements: Static Equilibrium, Compatibility of Deformation, and Constitutive Relations**. A less fancy phrasing for the latter is **Force-Deformation Equations**. We turn now to say a few words more about the Force-Deformation behavior of a truss member under uniaxial loading.

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1. *Simplicity* is not meant to imply that the exercise is not without practical importance or that it is a simple matter to conjure up all the required relationships: If I were to throw in a little dash of the dynamics of a single degree of freedom, Physics I, Differential Equations, mass-spring system I could start designing cord-foam support systems for the safe transport of fragile equipment over bumpy roads. More to come on this score.
5.2 Force/Deformation - Uniaxial Tension.

We have already said a few words about the failure of a truss member in tension – how a material like aluminum or steel will begin to yield or a more brittle material fracture when the tensile stress in the member becomes too large in magnitude. We want to say more now; in particular, we want to attend to the deformations that occur in a bar under uniaxial tension and look more closely at the mechanisms responsible for either brittle fracture or the onset of yield.

The tension test is a standard test\(^1\) for characterizing the behavior of bars under uniaxial load. The test consists of pulling on a circular shaft, nominally a centimeter in diameter, and measuring the applied force and the relative displacement of two points on the surface of the shaft in-line with its axis. As the load \(P\) increases from zero on up until the specimen breaks, the relative distance between the two points increases from \(L_0\) to some final length just before separation. The graph at the right indicates the trace of data points one might obtain for load \(P\) versus \(\Delta L\) where

\[
\Delta L = L - L_0
\]

Now, if we were to double the cross-sectional area, \(A\), we would expect to have to double the load to obtain the same change in length of the two points on the surface. That indeed is the case, as Galileo was aware. Thus, we can extend our results obtained from a single test on a specimen of cross-sectional area \(A\) and length \(L_0\) to another specimen of the same length but different area if we plot the ratio of load to area, the tensile stress, in place of \(P\).

Similarly, if, instead of plotting the change in length, \(\Delta L\), of the two points, we plot the stress against the ratio of the change in length to the original length between the two points our results will be applicable to specimens of varying length. The ratio of change in length to original length is called the extensional strain.

For the moment we designate the tensile stress by \(\sigma\) and the extensional strain by \(\varepsilon\); that is, we assume that the load \(P\) is uniformly distributed over the cross-sectional area \(A\) and that the relative displacement is “uniformly distributed” over the length \(L_0\). Both stress and strain are rigorously defined as the limits of these ratios as either the area or the original length between the two points approaches zero. Alternatively, we could speak of an average stress over the section as defined by

\[
\sigma = P / A
\]

and an average strain as defined by

\[
\varepsilon \equiv (\Delta L) / L_0
\]

---

1. Standard tests for material properties, for failure stress levels, and the like are well documented in the American Society for Testing Materials, ASTM, publications. Go there for the description of how to conduct a tensile test.
The figure below left shows the results of a test of 1020, Cold Rolled Steel. Stress, $\sigma$, is plotted versus strain $\varepsilon$. The figure below right shows an abstract representation of the stress-strain behavior as elastic, perfectly plastic material.

Observe:

- The plot shows a region where the stress is proportional to the strain. The linear relation which holds within this region is usually written

\[
\sigma = E \cdot \varepsilon
\]

where $E$ is the coefficient of elasticity of 1020CR steel - $30 \times 10^6 \text{ lb/in}^2$.

- The behavior of the bar in this region is called elastic. Elastic means that when the load is removed, the bar returns to its original, undeformed configuration. That is $L$ returns to $L_0$. There is no permanent set. Please note that linear behavior and elastic behavior are independent traits; one does not necessarily imply the other. A rubber band is an example of an elastic, non-linear material and you can design macro structures that are non-linear and elastic. Linear, inelastic materials are a bit rarer to find or construct.

- The relative displacements of points — the strains in the elastic region — are very small, generally insensible without instruments to amplify their magnitude. To “see” a relative displacement of two points originally 100 mm apart when the stress is on the order of 400 Mega Newtons/m$^2$ your eyes would have to be capable of resolving a relative displacement of the two points of 0.2 mm! Strains in most structural materials are on the order of tenths of a percent at most.

- At some stress level, the bar does not return to its undeformed shape after removing the load. This stress level is called the yield strength. The yield strength defines the limit of elastic behavior; beyond the yield point the material behaves plastically. In most materials definition of the yield strength is a matter of convention. Whether or not the material has returned to its original shape upon removal of the load depends upon the resolution of the instrument used to measure relative displacement. The convention of using an offset relies upon the gross behavior of the material but this is generally all we need in engineering practice. In the graphs above, we show the yield strength defined at a 2% offset, that is, as the intersection of the experimentally obtained stress-strain curve with a straight line of slope $E$ intersecting the strain axis at a strain of 0.002. Its value is approximately 600 MN/m$^2$.

- Loading of the bar beyond the yield strength engenders very large relative displacements for relatively small further increments in the stress, $\sigma$. Note that the stress is defined as the ratio of the load to the original area; once we enter the region of plastic deformation, of plastic flow.
the bar will begin to neck down and the cross sectional area at some point along the length will diminish. The true stress at this section will be greater than $\sigma$ plotted here.

- For some purposes, it is useful to idealize the behavior of the material in tension as elastic, perfectly plastic; that is, the yield strength fixes the maximum load the material can support. This fantasy would have the material stretch out to infinite lengths once the yield strength was reached. For most engineering work, a knowledge of yield strength is all we need. We design to make sure that our structures never leave the elastic region.$^1$

As an example of the real behavior of materials, consider the semi-real structure shown below. I want to determine what weight it can support without collapsing.

**Exercise 5.2** – I know that the tip deflection at the end $C$ of the structure — made of a rigid beam $ABC$ of length $L=4m$, and two 1020CR steel support struts, $DB$ and $EB$, each of cross sectional area $A$ and intersecting at $a=L/4$ — when supporting an individual weighing 800 Newtons is 0.5mm. What if I suspend more individuals of the same weight from the point $C$; when will the structure collapse?

Here is a problem statement which, when you approach the punch line, prompts you to suspect the author intends to ask some ridiculous question, e.g., “What time is it in Chicago?” No matter. We know that if it’s in this textbook it is going to require a free-body diagram, application of the requirements of static equilibrium, and now, we suspect, something about compatibility of deformation and constitutive equations. So we proceed. I start with equilibrium, isolating the rigid bar, $ABC$.

**Force Equilibrium:**

$$A_x = F_D \cdot \cos 45^\circ - F_E \cdot \cos 60^\circ = 0$$

$$A_y + F_D \cdot \sin 45^\circ - F_E \cdot \sin 60^\circ - W = 0$$

Moment equilibrium (positive ccw), about point$^2 A$ yields

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1. On the other hand, if you are designing energy absorbing barriers, machine presses for cold rolling or forming materials and the like, plastic behavior will become important to you.

2. Member $ABC$ is not a two-force member even though it shows frictionless pins at $A$, $B$ and $C$. In fact it is not a two-force member because it is a three-force member—three forces act at the three pins ($F_D$ and $F_E$ may be thought of as equivalent to a single resultant acting at $B$). The member must also support an internal bending moment, i.e., over the region $BC$ it acts much like a cantilever beam. Note that, while there can be no couple acting between the frictionless pin and the beam at $B$, there is a bending moment internal to the beam at a section cut through the beam at this point. If you can read this and read it correctly you are mastering the language.
These are three equations for the four unknowns, $A_x$, $A_y$, $F_D$, and $F_E$. The structure is redundant. We could remove either the top or the bottom strut and the remaining structure would support an end load – not as great an end load but still some significant value.

Compatibility of Deformation:

The deformations of member $BD$ and member $BE$ are related. How they relate is not obvious. We draw a picture, attempting to show the motion of the system from the undeformed state ($W=0$) to the deformed state, then relate the member deformations to the displacement of point $B$.

I have let $\Delta_B$ represent the vertical displacement of point $B$ and $\Delta_C$ the vertical displacement at the tip of the rigid beam. Because I have said that member $ABC$ is rigid, there is no horizontal displacement of point $B$ or at least none that matters. If the member is elastic, the horizontal displacement should be taken into account in relating the deformations of the two struts. When the member is rigid, there is a horizontal displacement of $B$ but for small vertical displacements, $\Delta_B$, the horizontal displacement is second order. For example, if $\Delta_B/L$ is of order $10^{-1}$, then the horizontal displacement is of order $10^{-2}$.

Shown above the full structure is an exploded view of the vertical displacement $\Delta_B$ and its relationship to the deformation of member $DB$, the extension $\delta_D$. From this figure I take

$$\delta_D = \Delta_B \cdot \cos 45^\circ = (\sqrt{2}/2)\Delta_B$$

Shown at the bottom is an exploded view of the vertical displacement and its relationship to the deformation of member $EB$. Taking the measures of deformation as positive in extension, consistent with our convention of taking the member forces as positive in tension, and noting that member $EB$ will be in compression, we have

$$\delta_E = -\Delta_B \cdot \cos 30^\circ = -(\sqrt{3}/2)\Delta_B$$

These two equations relate the deformations of the two struts through the variable $\Delta_B$. We can read them as saying that, for small deflections and rotations, the extension or contraction of the member is equal to the projection of the displacement vector upon the member.

Only if these equations are satisfied are these deformations compatible; only then will the two members remain together, joined at point $B$. This is then our requirement of compatibility of deformation.

Constitutive Equations:

These are the simplest to write out. We assume the struts are both operating in the elastic region. We have

$$\sigma_{DB} = E \cdot \varepsilon_{DB} \quad \text{or} \quad F_D/A = E \cdot \delta_D/((\sqrt{2}/L)/4)$$

and

$$\sigma_{EB} = E \cdot \varepsilon_{EB} \quad \text{or} \quad F_E/A = E \cdot \delta_{DE}/(L/2)$$

where I have used the geometry to figure the lengths of the two struts.
Now let’s go back and see what was given, what was wanted. We clearly are interested in the forces in the two struts, the two $F$'s; more precisely, we are interested in the stresses engendered by the end load $W$, for if either of these stresses reaches the yield strength for 1020CR steel we leave the elastic region and must consider the possibility of collapse of our structure. These forces, in turn, depend upon the member deformations, the $\delta$'s which, in turn depend upon the vertical deflection at $B$, $\Delta_B$.

We can think of the problem, then, as one in which there are five unknowns. We see that we have seven equations available, but note we have the horizontal and vertical components of the reaction force at $A$ as unknowns too, so everything is in order. In fact we only need work with five of the seven equations because $A_x$ and $A_y$ appear only in the two, force equilibrium equations. The wise choice of point $A$ as our reference point for moment equilibrium enables us to proceed without worrying about these two relations. I first express the member forces in terms of $\Delta_B$ using the constitutive and compatibility relations. I obtain

$$F_D = 2 \cdot (AE/L) \cdot \Delta_B \quad \text{and} \quad F_E = -\sqrt{3} \cdot (AE/L) \cdot \Delta_B$$

where the negative sign indicates that member $EB$ is in compression. Note that the magnitude of the tensile load in $DB$ is greater than the compression in member $EB$. Now substituting these for the forces as they appear in the equation of moment equilibrium I obtain the following relationship between the end load $W$ and the vertical displacement of point $B$, namely:

$$W = \left(\frac{3 + 2\sqrt{2}}{8}\right) \cdot (AE/L) \cdot \Delta_B$$

This relationship is worth a few words: It relates a force at a point, $W$, at the end of the rigid beam, to the displacement, $\Delta_B$, in the direction of the force at that point. The factor of proportionality can be read as a stiffness, $k$, like that of a linear spring. Note that the dimensions of the factor, $(AE/L)$ are just force per length.

Now I can use this, and the observation that when $W=800\text{N}$, the tip deflection is 0.5mm to obtain an expression for the factor $(AE/L)$. But first I have to relate $\Delta_B$ to the tip deflection $\Delta_C = .5\text{mm}$. For this I return to my sketch of the deformed geometry and note, if (and only if) $ABC$ is rigid then the two deflections are related, “through similar triangles” by $\Delta_B = \Delta_C/4$

This then yields

$$\frac{8W}{\left[\frac{\Delta_C}{4}\right] \cdot (3 + 2\sqrt{2})} = 8.76 \times 10^6 \text{N/m}$$

Now with the length given as 4 meters and $E$ the elastic modulus, found from the tables at the back of the text to be $200 \times 10^9 \text{N/m}^2$, we find that the cross sectional area must be

$$A = 1.76 \times 10^{-4} \text{m}^2 = 176 \text{ mm}^2$$

If the struts were solid and circular, this implies a 15 mm diameter.

The stress will be bigger in member $DB$ than member $EB$. In fact, from our expression above for $F_D$, we have $\sigma_D = 2 \cdot E \cdot (\Delta_B/L)$ This, evaluated for the particular deflection recorded with one individual supported at $C$ and taking $E$ as before yields $\sigma_D = 12.6 \times 10^6 \text{N/m}^2$.

If we idealize the constitutive behavior as elastic-perfectly plastic and take the yield strength as $600 \times 10^6 \text{N/m}^2$, we conclude that we could suspend forty-seven individuals, each a hefty weight of 800 Newtons before the onset of yield in the strut $BD$, before collapse becomes a possibility. But will it collapse at that point? No, not in this idealized world anyway. Member $EB$ has yet to reach its yield strength; once it

1. If we were concerned, as perhaps we should be, with the integrity of the fastener at $A$ we would solve these two equations to determine the reaction force.
does, then the structure, again in this idealized world, can support no further increase in end load without infinite deflection and deformations of the struts.

2. This is a strange kind of problem – using the observed displacement under a known load to calculate, to back-out the cross sectional areas of the struts. The ordinary, politically correct textbook problem would specify the area and everything else you needed (but not a wit more) and ask you to determine the tip displacement. But nowadays machines are given that kind of straightforward problem to solve. A more challenging kind of dialogue in Engineering Mechanics – common to diagnostic situations where your structure is not behaving as expected, when something goes wrong, deflects too much, fractures too soon, resonates at too low a frequency, and the like – demands that you construct different scenarios for the observed behavior, e.g., (did it deflect too much because the top strut exceeded the yield strength?), and test their validity. The fundamental principles remain the same, the language is the same language, but the context is much richer; it places greater emphasis upon your ability to formulate the problem, to construct a story that explains the system’s behavior. Often, in these situations, you will not have, or be able to obtain, full or complete information about the structure. In this case, backing out the area of the struts might be just one step in diagnosing and explaining the observed and often mystifying, behavior.
5.3 Matrix analysis of Truss Structures - Displacement

Formulation

The problems and exercises we have assigned to date have all been amenable to solution
by hand. We now consider a method of analysis especially well suited for truss structures
that takes advantage of modern computer power and allows us to address structures with
many nodes and members. Our aim is to find all internal member forces and all nodal dis-
placements given some external forces applied at the nodes. In this, we make use of a dis-
placement formulation of the problem; the unknowns of the final set of equations we give
the computer to solve are the components of the node displacements. We use matrix nota-
tion in our formulation as an efficient and concise way to represent the large number of
equations that enter into our analysis.

These equations will account for i) equilibrium of internal member forces and external forces
applied at the nodes, ii) the force/deformation behavior of each member and iii) compatibility of the exten-
sion and contraction of members with the displacements at the nodes. If the structure is statically determi-
nate and we seek only to determine the forces in the truss members, we need only consider the first of these
three sets of equations. If, however, we want to go on and determine the displacements of the nodes as well,
we then must consider the full set of relations. If the truss is statically indeterminate, if it has redundant
members, then we must always, by necessity, consider the deformations of members and displacements of
nodes as well as satisfy the equilibrium equations.

To illustrate the displacement method we do two examples, one that could be done by hand, the sec-
ond that is more efficiently done by computer.

Exercise 5.3– The members of the redundant structure shown below have the same cross sectional
area and are all made of the same material. Show that the equations expressing force equilibrium of node #1
in the x and y directions, when phrased in terms of the unknown displacements of the node, \( u_1 \), \( v_1 \), take the form

\[
2 \left( \frac{AE}{L} \right) \cdot \left( \sin \phi \cdot \cos \phi^2 \right) \cdot u_1 = X_1 \\
\text{and} \\
\left( \frac{AE}{L} \right) \cdot \left( 1 + 2 \sin \phi^3 \right) \cdot v_1 = Y_1
\]

Note: We let \( X \) and \( Y \) designate the \( x,y \) components of the applied force at the node, while \( u_1 \)
and \( v_1 \) designate the corresponding components of displacement of the node.
**Equilibrium.** with respect to the undeformed configuration, of node #1

![Equilibrium Diagram](image)

\[-f_{12}\cos\phi + f_{14}\cos\phi + X_1 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad -f_{12}\sin\phi - f_{13} - f_{14}\sin\phi + Y_1 = 0\]

These are two equations in three unknowns as we expected since the structure is redundant. In matrix notation they take the form:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos\phi & -\cos\phi \\
\sin\phi & 1 & \sin\phi \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
f_{12} \\
f_{13} \\
f_{14} \\
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
X_1 \\
Y_1 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

**Compatibility of deformation** of the three members is best viewed from the following perspective: Imagine an arbitrary displacement of node #1, a vector with two scalar x,y components

\[u = u_i i + v_j j\]

where, as usual, i, j are two unit vectors directed along the x,y axes respectively.

We take as a measure of the member deformation, say of member 1-2, the projection of the displacement upon the member. We must be careful to take account if the member extends or contracts. In the second example we show a way to formally do this bit of accounting. Here we rely upon a sketch. Shown below is member 1-2 and an arbitrary node displacement \(u\) drawn as if both of its components were positive.

The projection upon the member is given by the scalar, or dot product

\[\delta_{12} = u \cdot t_{12}\]

where \(t_{12} = \cos\phi i + \sin\phi j\)

is a unit vector directed as shown, along the member in the direction of a positive extension.

We obtain\(^1\)
These three equations relate the three member deformations to the two nodal displacements. If they are satisfied, we can rest assured that our structure remains all of one piece in the deformed configuration. In matrix notation, they take the form:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\delta_{12} \\
\delta_{13} \\
\delta_{14}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos \phi & \sin \phi \\
0 & 1 \\
-cos \phi & \sin \phi
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
u_1 \\
v_2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Keeping count, we now have five scalar equations for eight unknowns, the three member forces, the three member deformations, and the two nodal displacements. We turn now to the three...

**Force-Deformation** relations are the usual for a truss member, namely

\[
f_{12} = (AE/L_{12}) \cdot \delta_{12} \quad f_{13} = (AE/L_{13}) \cdot \delta_{13} \quad f_{14} = (AE/L_{14}) \cdot \delta_{14}
\]

The lengths may be expressed in terms of \( H \), e.g.,

\[
L_{12} = L_{14} = H/\sin \phi \quad \text{and} \quad L_{13} = H
\]

These, in matrix notation, take the form

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
f_{12} \\
f_{13} \\
f_{14}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
(AE \sin \phi / H) & 0 & 0 \\
0 & (AE / H) & 0 \\
0 & 0 & (AE \sin \phi / H)
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\delta_{12} \\
\delta_{13} \\
\delta_{14}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

**Displacement Formulation.** first expressing the member forces in term of the nodal displacements using compatibility and the force-deformation equations, (in matrix notation)

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
f_{12} \\
f_{13} \\
f_{14}
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
(AE \sin \phi / H) & 0 & 0 \\
0 & (AE / H) & 0 \\
0 & 0 & (AE \sin \phi / H)
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos \phi & \sin \phi \\
0 & 1 \\
-cos \phi & \sin \phi
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
u_1 \\
v_2
\end{bmatrix}
\]

1. Note that the horizontal displacement component, \( u_1 \), engenders no elongation or contraction of the middle, vertical member. This is a consequence of our assumption of small displacements and rotations.
Matrix analysis of Truss Structures - Displacement

then substitute for the forces in the equilibrium equations. We have, again continuing with our matrix representation:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
    \cos \phi & 0 & -\cos \phi \\
    \sin \phi & 1 & \sin \phi
\end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
    \frac{AE \sin \phi}{H} & 0 & 0 \\
    0 & \frac{AE}{H} & 0 \\
    0 & 0 & \frac{AE \sin \phi}{H}
\end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
    \frac{\cos \phi \sin \phi}{H} & 0 & \frac{\cos \phi \sin \phi}{H} \\
    0 & 1 & 0 \\
    -\cos \phi & \sin \phi & \frac{\cos \phi \sin \phi}{H}
\end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
    u_1 \\
    v_1 \\
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
    X_1 \\
    Y_1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

Carrying out the matrix products yields a set of two scalar equations for the two nodal displacements:

\[
\frac{AE}{H} \begin{bmatrix}
    2 \sin \phi (\cos \phi)^2 & 0 \\
    0 & 1 + 2 \sin^3 \phi
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
    u_1 \\
    v_1
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
    X_1 \\
    Y_1
\end{bmatrix}
\]

These are the *equilibrium equations in terms of displacements*. They can be easily solved since they are *uncoupled*, that is each can be solved independently for one or the other of the nodal displacements. The symmetry of the structure is the reason for this happy outcome. This becomes clear when we write them out according to our more ordinary habit:

\[
(\frac{AE}{H} \cdot (2 \sin \phi (\cos \phi)^2)) u_1 = X_1 \quad \text{and} \quad (\frac{AE}{H} \cdot (1 + 2 \sin^3 \phi)) v_1 = Y_1
\]

Unfortunately this decoupling doesn’t occur often in practice as the second example shows. We turn to that now, a more complex structure, which in a first instance we take as statically determinate.

Now consider the truss structure shown above. Although this system is more complex than the previous example in that it has more *degrees of freedom* – six scalar nodal displacements versus two for the simpler truss – the structure is less complex in that it is statically determinate; there are no redundant or unnecessary members; remove any member and the structure would collapse.

We first develop a set of equilibrium equations by isolating each of the free nodes and requiring the sum of all forces, internal and external, to vanish. In this, lower case $f$ will represent member forces,
assumed to be positive when the member is in tension, and upper case $X$ and $Y$, the $x$ and $y$ components of the externally applied forces.

These six equations for the six unknown member forces can be put into matrix form

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos\alpha & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\sin\alpha & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
-cos\alpha & 0 & 0 & 1 & \cos\alpha & 0 \\
-sin\alpha & 0 & -1 & 0 & -\sin\alpha & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
f_1 \\
f_2 \\
f_3 \\
f_4 \\
f_5 \\
f_6 \\
\end{bmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
X_1 \\
Y_1 \\
X_2 \\
Y_2 \\
X_3 \\
Y_3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

We could, if we wish at this point, solve this system of six linear equations for the six unknown member forces $f$. If you are so inclined you can apply the methods you learned in your mathematics courses about existence of solutions, about solving linear systems of algebraic equations, and verify for yourself that indeed a unique solution does exist. And given enough of your spare time, I wager you could actually carry through the algebraic manipulations and obtain the solution. But our purpose is not to burden you with ordinary menial exercise but rather to show you how to formulate the problem for computer solution. We will let it do the menial and mundane work.

Something is lost, something is gained when we turn to the machine to help solve our problems. The expressions you would obtain by hand for the internal forces would be explicit functions of the applied forces and the parameter $\alpha$. For example, the second equation alone gives

\[f_1 = Y_1 / (\sin\alpha)\]

The computer, on the other hand, would produce, using the kinds of software common in industry, a solution for specific numerical values of the member forces if provided with a specific, numerical value for $\alpha$ and specific numerical values for the externally applied forces at the nodes as input. Of course the computer does this very fast, compared to the time it would take you to produce a solution by hand. And, if need be, with the machine you can make many runs and discover how your results vary with $\alpha$.

But note: How the solution changes with changes in the external forces applied at the nodes is a simpler matter: since the solutions will be linear functions of the $X$ and $Y$’s you can scale your results for one loading condition to get another loading condition. That’s what linear systems means.
A small detour:

The system is linear because we assumed that the structure experiences only small displacements and rotations. We wrote our equilibrium equations with respect to the undeformed geometry of the structure. If we thought of the structure otherwise, say as made of rubber and allowed for large displacements, our free-body diagrams would be incorrect as they stand above. For example, the situation at node 3 would appear as at the right rather than as before (at the left)

\[
\begin{align*}
-f_6 + f_2 + X_3 &= 0 \\
-f_3 + Y_3 &= 0 \\
-f_6 \cos \alpha_6 (u) + f_2 \cos \alpha_2 (u) + X_3 &= 0 \\
-f_3 \sin \alpha_3 (u) - f_6 \sin \alpha_6 (u) - f_2 \sin \alpha_2 (u) + Y_3 &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

and our equilibrium equations would now have the more complex form shown.

In these, the alpha’s will be unknown functions of all the nodal displacements, for example \( \alpha_2 \) will depend upon the displacement of node 3 relative to node 1. We say that the equilibrium equations depend upon the displacements.

But the displacements are functions of the extensions and contractions of the members. These, in turn, are functions of the forces in the members which means that the equations of equilibrium are no longer linear. The entries in our square matrix, the coefficients of the unknown forces in our system of six equilibrium equations, depend upon the member forces themselves.

Fortunately, although we did so in our introductory exercise in Chapter 1, you will not be asked to consider large deformations and rotations. The reason is that most structures do not experience large deflections and rotations. If they do they are probably in the process of disintegration and failure. Indeed, eventually we will entertain a discussion of buckling which ordinarily, though not always, is a mode of failure. We leave, then, the study of such complex, but interesting, modes of behavior to other scholars. Our detour is complete; we return now to more ordinary behavior.

Out in the so-called real world, where truss structures span canyons, support aerospace systems, and have hundreds of nodes and members, complexity requires the use of the computer. Imagine a three-dimensional truss with 100 nodes. Our linear system of equilibrium equations would number 300; we say that the system has 300 degrees of freedom. That is, 300 displacement components are required to fully specify the deformed configuration of the structure. But that is not the end of it: if the structure includes redundant members and hence is statically indeterminate, other equations which relate the member forces to member deformations and still others relating member deformations to node displacements must be written down and solved together with the equilibrium equations. You could still, theoretically, solve all of these hundreds of equations by hand but if you want to remain industrially competitive, if you want to win the bid, you will need the services of a computer.
To illustrate how our system is complicated by adding a redundant member, we connect nodes 3 and 4 with an additional member, number 7 in the figure.

The number of linearly independent equilibrium equations remains the same, namely six, but two of the equations, expressing horizontal and vertical equilibrium of forces at node 3, now include the additional unknown member force $f_7$. Leaving to you the task of sketching the free-body diagram, we have

$$-f_6 + f_2 - f_7 \cos \alpha + X_3 = 0$$
$$-f_3 - f_7 \sin \alpha + Y_3 = 0$$

With six equations for seven unknowns our problem becomes \textit{statically indeterminate} or \textit{equilibrium indeterminate} as some would prefer. The difficulty is not in finding a solution; indeed, there are an \textit{infinity} of possible solutions. For example we could choose the force in member six to be equal to zero and then solve for all the other member forces. Or we could choose it to equal $X_3$ and solve, or 10 lbs, or 2000 newtons, or 2.3 elephants, (just be careful with your units), whatever. Once having arbitrarily specified the force in member six, or the force in any single member for that matter, the six equations will yield values for the forces in all the remaining six members. The difficulty is not in finding a solution, it is in finding a \textit{unique} solution. The problem is indeterminate.

This unique solution, whatever it is, is going to depend upon the kind of member we add to the structure as member number seven. It will depend upon the material properties and cross-sectional area of this new member; for that matter, it will depend upon the force/deformation behavior of \textit{all} members. If the first six members are made of steel and have a cross-sectional area of ten square inches and member seven is a rubber band, we would not expect much difference in our solution for the forces in the steel members when compared to our original solution for those member forces without member seven. If, on the other hand, the added member is also made of steel and has a comparable cross-sectional area, all bets are off, or rather on. The effect of the new member will be significant; the member forces will be substantially different when compared to the statically determinate solution.

Our strategy for solving the \textit{statically indeterminate} problem is the same one we followed in the previous exercise: We will express all seven unknown internal forces $f$ in terms of the seven, unknown, member deformations which we will designate by $\delta$. We will then develop a method for expressing the member deformations, the $\delta$'s, in terms of the $x$ and $y$ components of nodal displacements $u$ and $v$. There are six of these latter unknowns. After substitution, we will then obtain our six equilibrium equations in terms of the six unknown displacement components. \textit{Voila, a displacement formulation.}

\textit{Equilibrium}
The full set of six equilibrium equations in terms of the seven unknown member forces may be written in matrix form as:

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos \alpha & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\sin \alpha & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
-cos \alpha & 0 & 0 & 1 & \cos \alpha & 0 & 0 \\
-sin \alpha & 0 & -1 & 0 & -\sin \alpha & 0 & 0 \\
0 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \cos \alpha \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \sin \alpha \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
f_1 \\
f_2 \\
f_3 \\
f_4 \\
f_5 \\
f_6 \\
f_7 \\
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
X_1 \\
Y_1 \\
X_2 \\
Y_2 \\
X_3 \\
Y_3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

or in a condensed form as:

\[ [A] \{f\} = \{X\} \]

Note that the array \([A]\) has six rows and seven columns; there are but six equations for the seven unknown internal forces.

**Force-Deformation**

We assume that the truss members behave like linear springs and, as before, take the member force generated in deformation of the structure as proportional to their change in length \(\delta\). We introduce the symbol \(k\) for the expression \((AE/L)\) where \(A\) is the member cross-sectional area, \(L\) its length, and \(E\) its modulus of elasticity. For example, for member number 1, we take

\[ f_1 = k_1 \cdot \delta_1 \quad \text{where} \quad k_1 = \frac{A_1E_1}{L_1} \]

In matrix form,

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
f_1 \\
f_2 \\
f_3 \\
f_4 \\
f_5 \\
f_6 \\
f_7 \\
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
k_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
k_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
k_3 & 0 & 0 & k_3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
k_4 & 0 & 0 & k_4 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
k_5 & 0 & 0 & 0 & k_5 & 0 & 0 \\
k_6 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & k_6 & 0 \\
k_7 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & k_7 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\delta_1 \\
\delta_2 \\
\delta_3 \\
\delta_4 \\
\delta_5 \\
\delta_6 \\
\delta_7 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]

or again, in condensed form:

\[ \{f\} = [k] \cdot \{\delta\} \]

**Compatibility of Deformation**

Taking stock at this point we see we have thirteen equations but fourteen unknowns; the latter include seven member forces \(f\) and seven member deformations \(\delta\). In this our final step, we introduce another six unknowns, namely the \(x\) and \(y\) components of the displacements at the nodes and require that the member deformations be consistent with these displacements. Seven equations, one for each member, are required to ensure compatibility of deformation. This will bring our totals to twenty equations for twenty unknowns and allow us to claim victory.
To relate the $\delta$'s to the node displacements we consider an arbitrarily oriented member in its undeformed position, then in its deformed state, a state defined by the displacements of its two end nodes. In the following derivation, bold face type will indicate a vector quantity.

Consider a member with end nodes numbered $m$ and $n$. Let $\mathbf{u}_m$ be the vector displacement of node $m$. In terms of its $x$ and $y$ scalar components we have:

$$\mathbf{u}_m = u_m \mathbf{i} + v_m \mathbf{j}$$

where $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{j}$ are unit vectors in the $x,y$ directions. A similar expression may be written for $\mathbf{u}_n$.

Let $L_0$ be a vector which lies along the member, going from $m$ to $n$, in its original, undeformed state and $L$ a vector along the member in its displaced, deformed state. Vector addition allows us to write: $L_0 + \mathbf{u}_n = \mathbf{u}_m + L$.

Now consider the projection of all of these vector quantities upon a line lying along the member in its original, undeformed state, that is along $L_0$. Let $t_0$ be a unit vector in that direction, directed from $m$ to $n$.

$$t_0 = \cos \phi \mathbf{i} + \sin \phi \mathbf{j}$$

The projection of $L_0$ upon itself is just the original length of the member, the magnitude of $L_0$. The projections of the node displacements are given by the scalar products $t_0 \cdot \mathbf{u}_m$ and $t_0 \cdot \mathbf{u}_n$. Similarly the projection of $L$ is $t_0 \cdot L$ which we take as approximately equal to the magnitude of $L$. This is a crucial step. It is only legitimate if the member experiences small rotations. But note, this is precisely the assumption we made in writing out our equilibrium equations.

Our vector relationship then yields, after projection upon the direction $t_0$ of all of its constituents

$$L - L_0 = \mathbf{u}_n \cdot t_0 - \mathbf{u}_m \cdot t_0$$

or since the difference of the two lengths is the member’s extension, we have

$$\delta = \mathbf{u}_n \cdot t_0 - \mathbf{u}_m \cdot t_0$$

For member 1, for example, carrying out the scalar products we have $\delta_3 = v_3 - v_2$.

Note how the horizontal displacement components, the $u$ components, do not enter into this expression for the extension (or compression if $v_2 > v_3$) of member 3. That is, any displacement perpendicular to the member does not contribute to its change in length! This is clearly only approximately true, only true for small displacements and rotations.
Similar equations can be written for each member in turn. In some cases, \( \phi \) is zero, in other cases a right angle. The full set of seven compatibility relationships, one for each member, can be written in matrix form as:

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
\delta_1 \\
\delta_2 \\
\delta_3 \\
\delta_4 \\
\delta_5 \\
\delta_6 \\
\delta_7
\end{pmatrix} =
\begin{bmatrix}
\cos \alpha \sin \alpha & -\cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{pmatrix}
u_1 \\
v_2 \\
u_3 \\
u_4 \\
u_5 \\
u_6 \\
u_7
\end{pmatrix}
\]

In condensed form we write

\[ \mathbf{[\delta]} = \mathbf{[A]}^T \cdot \mathbf{[u]} \]

where \([A]^T\) is the transpose of the matrix appearing in the equilibrium equations \([A]\). The consequence of this seemingly happenstance event will be come clear in the final result.

**Equilibrium in terms of Displacement**

We now do some substitution to obtain the equilibrium equations in terms of the displacement components at the nodes, all the \(u\)s and \(v\)s. We first substitute for the member forces \(f\), their representation in terms of the member deformations \(\delta\) and obtain:

\[ \mathbf{[A]} \cdot \mathbf{[k]} \cdot \mathbf{[\delta]} = \mathbf{[X]} \]

Now substituting for the \(\delta\) column matrix its representation in terms of the node displacements we obtain:

\[ \mathbf{[A]} \cdot \mathbf{[k]} \cdot \mathbf{[A]}^T \cdot \mathbf{[u]} = \mathbf{[X]} \]

which are the six equilibrium equations with the six displacement components as unknowns.

The matrix product \([A][k][A]^T\) can be carried out in more spare time. We designate the result by \([K]\) and call it the *system stiffness matrix*. It and all of its elements are shown below: In this, \(c\) is shorthand for \(\cos \alpha\) and \(s\) shorthand for \(\sin \alpha\).

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{[K]} = \mathbf{[A]} \cdot \mathbf{[k]} \cdot \mathbf{[A]}^T
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
(k_1 c^2 + k_1) & k_1 cs & -k_1 c^2 & -k_1 cs & k_2 & 0 \\
k_1 cs & (k_1 s^2) & -k_1 cs & -k_1 s^2 & 0 & 0 \\
-k_1 c^2 & -k_1 cs & (k_4 + k_1 c^2 + k_5 c^2) & (k_1 cs - k_5 cs) & 0 & 0 \\
-k_1 cs & -k_1 s^2 & (k_1 cs - k_4 cs) & (k_3 + k_1 s^2 + k_5 s^2) & 0 & -k_3 \\
k_2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & (k_2 + k_6 + k_7 c^2) & k_7 cs \\
0 & 0 & 0 & -k_3 & k_7 cs & (k_3 + k_7 s^2)
\end{bmatrix}
\]

\([K]\) is symmetric (and will always be!) and, for our example is *six by six*. 
The equilibrium equations in terms of displacement are, in condensed form

\[
[K] \cdot [u] = [x]
\]

This is the set of equations the computer solves given adequate numerical values for

- the material properties including the Young’s modulus or modulus of elasticity, \( E \), and the member’s cross-sectional area \( A \),
- member nodes and their coordinates, from which member lengths may be figured, and subsequently together with the material properties, the member stuffiness, \((AE/L)\), computed,
- the externally applied forces at the nodes,
- specification of any fixed degrees of freedom, i.e., which nodes are pinned.

The computer, in effect, inverts the system, or global, stiffness matrix \([K]\), and computes the node displacements \( u \) and \( v \) given values for the applied forces \( X \) and \( Y \). Once the displacements have been found, the deformations can be computed from the compatibility relations. Making use of the force/deformation relations in turn, the deformations yield values for the member forces. All then has been resolved, the solution is complete.

Before ending this section, one final observation. A useful physical interpretation of the elements of the system stiffness matrix is available: In fact, the elements of any column of the \([K]\) matrix can be read as the external forces that are required to produce or sustain a special state of deformation, or system of node displacements – namely a unit displacement corresponding to the chosen column and zero displacements in all other degrees of freedom. This interpretation follows from the rules of matrix multiplication.

**A Note on Scaling**

It is useful to consider how the solution for one particular structure of a specified geometry and subject to a specific loading can be applied to another structure of similar geometry and similar loading. By "similar loading" we mean a load vector which is a scalar multiple of the other. By "similar geometry" we mean a structure whose member lengths are a scalar multiple of the corresponding member lengths of the other - in which case all angles are preserved.

\[
[k] \cdot [u^*] = [x^*]
\]

we have, if \([X] = \beta [X^*]\) simply that the displacement vector scales accordingly, that is, from

\[
[k] \cdot [u] = [x] = \beta \cdot [X^*]
\]

we obtain \([u] = \beta [u^*]\).

This is a consequence of the linear nature of our system (which, in turn, is a consequence of our assumption of relatively small displacements and rotations). What it says is that if you have solved the problem for one particular loading, then the solution for an infinity of problems is obtained by scaling your result for the displacements (and for the member forces as well) by the factor \( \beta \) which can take on an infinity of values.
For similar geometries, we need to do a bit more work. We note first that for both statically determinate and indeterminate systems, the only way length enters into our analysis is through the member stiffnesses, $k_j$, where $k_j = AE/L_j$. (We assume for the moment that the cross-sectional areas and the elastic modulae are the same for each member). The entries in the matrix $[A]$, and so $[A^T]$ are only functions of the angles the members make, one with another.

Let us designate some reference geometry, drawn in accord with some reference length scale, by a superscript "*", a reference structure in which the member lengths are defined for all members, $j= 1, \text{number of members}$, by

\[ L^*_{j} = \beta_j \cdot L^* \]

The force-deformation relations $[f] = [k] \cdot [\delta]$ can then be written $[f] = (1/L^*) \cdot [k^*] \cdot [\delta]$ where the elements of the matrix $[k^*]$ are given by $AE/\beta_j$.

Re-doing our derivation of the equilibrium equations expressed in terms of displacements yields.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
 K_0 \\
 \mu^* \\
 L^* \\
 X
\end{bmatrix} = L^* \cdot \begin{bmatrix}
 K_{1b} \\
 A \\
 [A] \cdot [A]^T
\end{bmatrix}
\]

where the stiffness matrix $[K_{1b}]$ is given by

\[
[K_{1b}] = [A] \cdot [k^*_b] \cdot [A]^T
\]

Note that this is only dependent upon the relative lengths of the members, upon the $\beta_j$. Then if we change length scales, say our reference length becomes $L$, we have to solve

\[
[K_{1b}] \cdot [\mu] = L \cdot [X]
\]

But the solution to this is the same, in form, as the solution to the "*" problem, differing only by the scale factor $L/L^*$. Hence, solving the reference problem gives us the solution for an infinite number of geometrically similar structures bearing the same loading. (Note that if the loading is scaled down by the same factor by which the geometry is scaled up, the solution does not change!)
5.4 Energy Methods

We have now all the machinery, concepts and principles, we need to solve any truss problem. The structure can be equilibrium indeterminate or determinate. It matters little. The computer enables the treatment of structures with many degrees of freedom, determinate and indeterminate.

But before the computer existed, mechanicians solved truss structure problems. One of the ways they did so was via methods rooted in an alternative perspective - one which builds on the notions of work and energy. We develop some of these methods in this section but will do so based on the concepts and principles we are already familiar with, without reference to energy.

The first method may be used to determine the displacements of a statically determinate truss structure. Generalization to indeterminate structures will follow.

Before proceeding, we review how we might determine the displacements following the path taken in developing the stiffness matrix. We take as an example the statically determinate example of the last section. We simplify the system, applying but one load, \( P \) in the vertical direction at node 1.

The system is determinate so we solve for the six member forces using the six equations of equilibrium obtained by isolating the structure’s three free nodes.

\[
\begin{align*}
-f_2 - f_1 \cos \alpha &= 0 \\
-f_4 - f_5 \cos \alpha + f_1 \cos \alpha &= 0 \\
-f_6 - f_2 &= 0 \\
-f_1 \sin \alpha + P &= 0 \\
f_5 \sin \alpha + f_3 + f_1 \sin \alpha &= 0 \\
f_3 &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

These give:

\( f_1 = P/\sin \alpha; \quad f_2 = -P \cos \alpha/\sin \alpha; \quad f_3 = 0; \quad f_4 = 2P \cos \alpha/\sin \alpha; \quad f_5 = -P/\sin \alpha; \quad f_6 = -P \cos \alpha/\sin \alpha \)

where a positive quantity means the member is in tension, a negative sign indicates compression.

With proceed to determine member deformations, \([\delta]\), from the force/deformation relationships

\[
[\delta] = [k_{\text{diag}}]^{-1} [f]
\]

that is, from \( \delta_1 = f_1/k_1; \quad \delta_2 = f_2/k_2; \quad \ldots \) etc; where the \( k \)'s are the individual member stiffnesses, e.g.,

\( k_1 = A_1E_1/L_1 \) etc.

Then, from the compatibility equation relating the six member deformations to the six displacement components at the nodes,
we solve this system of six equations for the six displacement components $u_1$, $v_1$, $u_2$, $v_2$, $u_3$, $v_3$. That's it.

### 5.4.1 A Virtual Force Method

Now consider the alternative method:

We start with the compatibility condition:

$$\delta = [A]^T[u]$$

and take a totally unmotivated step, multiplying both sides of this equation by the transpose of a column vector whose elements may be anything whatsoever;

$$[f^*]^T[\delta] = [f^*]^T[A]^T[u]$$

This arbitrary vector bears an asterisk to distinguish from the vector of member forces acting in the structure.

At this point, the elements of $[f^*]$ could be any numbers we wish, e.g., the price of coffee in the six largest cities of the US (it has to have six elements because the expressions on both sides of the compatibility equation are 6 by 1 matrices). But now we manipulate this relationship, taking the transpose of both sides and write

$$[\delta]^T[f^*] = [u]^T[A][f^*]$$

then consider the vector $[f^*]$ to be a vector of member forces, any set of member forces that satisfies the equilibrium requirements for the structure, i.e.,

$$[A][f^*] = [X^*]$$

So $[X^*]$ is arbitrary, because $[f^*]$ is quite arbitrary - we can envision many different vectors of applied loads.

With this, our compatibility pre-multiplied by our arbitrary vector, now read as member forces, becomes

$$[\delta]^T[f^*] = [u]^T[X^*] \quad \text{or} \quad [u]^T[X^*] = [\delta]^T[f^*]$$

(Note: The dimensions of the quantity on the left hand side of this last equation are displacement times force, or work. The dimensions of the product on the right hand side must be the same).

Now we choose $[X^*]$ in a special way; we take it to be a unit load, a virtual force, along a single degree of freedom, all other loads zero. For example, we take

$$[X^*]^T = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1]$$

a unit load in the vertical direction at node 3 in the direction of $v_3$.

Carrying out the product $[u]^T[X^*]$ in the equation above, we obtain just the displacement component associated with the same degree of freedom, $v_3$ i.e.,

$$v_3 = [\delta]^T[f^*]$$

We can put this last equation in terms of member forces (and member stiffnesses) alone using the force/deformation relationship and write:

$$v_3 = [f]^T[k]^{-1}[f^*]$$
And that is our special method for determining displacements of a statically determinate truss. It requires, first, solving equilibrium for the "actual" member forces given the "actual" applied loads. We then solve another force equilibrium problem — one in which we apply a unit load at the node we seek to determine a displacement component and in the direction of that displacement component. With the "starred" member forces determined from equilibrium, we carry out the matrix multiplication of the last equation and there we have it.

We emphasize the difference between the two member force vectors appearing in this equation; \([f]\) in plain font, is the vector of the actual forces in structure given the actual applied loads. \([f^*]\) with the asterisk, on the other hand, is some, originally arbitrary, force vector which satisfies equilibrium — an equilibrium solution for member forces corresponding to a unit loading in the vertical direction at node 3.

Continuing with our specific example, the virtual member forces corresponding to the unit load at node 3 in the vertical direction are, from equilibrium:

\[
\begin{align*}
  f^*_1 &= 0 \\
  f^*_2 &= 0 \\
  f^*_3 &= 1 \\
  f^*_4 &= \cos \alpha / \sin \alpha \\
  f^*_5 &= -1 / \sin \alpha \\
  f^*_6 &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

We these, and our previous solution for the actual member forces, we find

\[
v_3 = \frac{P}{k_4} \left( \frac{2 \cos \alpha \sin \alpha}{\sin^2 \alpha} \right) + \frac{P}{k_5} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \alpha}
\]

If the members all have the same cross sectional area and are made of the same material, then the ratio of the member stiffnesses goes inversely as the lengths so \(k_5 = \cos \alpha k_4\) and, while some further simplification is possible, we stop here.

### 5.4.2 Virtual Force Method for Redundant Trusses - Maxwell/Mohr Method.

Let’s say we have a redundant structure as shown at the left. Now assume we have found all the actual forces, \(f_1, f_2, \ldots, f_5\), in the members by an alternative method yet to be disclosed (it immediately follows this preliminary remark). The actual loading consists of force components \(X_1\) and \(X_2\) applied at the one free node in directions indicated by \(u_1\) and \(u_2\).

Now say we want to determine the horizontal component of displacement, \(u_1\): Proceeding in accord with our Force Method #1, we must find an equilibrium set of member forces given a unit load applied at the free node in the horizontal direction.

Since the system is redundant, our equilibrium equations number 2 but we have 5 unknowns. The system is indeterminate: it does not admit of a unique solution. It’s not that we can’t find a solution; the problem is we can find too many solutions. Now since our "starred" set of member forces need only satisfy equilibrium, we can arbitrarily set the redundant member forces to zero, or, in effect, remove them from the structure. The figure at the right shows one possible choice.
For a unit force in the horizontal direction, we have
\[ f_1^* = 1/\cos \alpha \] and \[ f_3^* = -1 \sin \alpha /\cos \alpha \]
so the displacement in the horizontal direction, assuming again we have determined the actual member forces, is
\[ u_1 = (f_1/k_1)(1/\cos \alpha) - (f_3/k_3)(1 \sin \alpha /\cos \alpha) \]
(Note: If the structure is symmetric in member stiffnesses, \( k \), then this component of displacement, for a vertical load alone, should vanish. This then gives a relationship between the two member forces).

We now develop an alternative method to determine the actual member forces in statically indeterminate truss structures. Consider, for example, the redundant structure shown at the right. We take members 11 and 12 as redundant and write equilibrium in a way that explicitly distinguishes the forces in these two redundant members from the forces in all the other members. The reasons for this will become clear as we move along.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
A_d & A_r
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
f_d \\
f_r
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
X
\end{bmatrix}
\]

In this, because there are 5 unrestrained nodes, each with two degrees of freedom, the column matrix of external forces, \([X]\), is 10 by 1. Because there are two redundant members, the column matrix \([f_r]\) is 2 by 1. The column matrix of what we take to be "determinate member forces" \([f_d]\) is 10 by 1, i.e., there are a total of 12 member forces. Here, then, are 10 equations for 12 unknowns - an indeterminate system.

The matrix \([A_d]\) has 10 rows and 10 columns and contains the coefficients of the 10 \([f_d]\). The matrix \([A_r]\), containing coefficients of the 2 \([f_r]\), has 10 rows and 2 columns.

Equilibrium can then be re-written
\[
[A_d][f_d] + [A_r][f_r] = [X] \quad \text{or} \quad [A_d][f_d] = -[A_r][f_r] + [X]
\]
but leave this aside, for now, and turn to compatibility. What we are after is a way to determine the forces in the redundant members without having to explicitly consider compatibility of deformation. Yet of course compatibility must be satisfied, so we turn there now.

The relationship between member deformations and nodal displacements can also be written to explicitly distinguish between the deformations of the "determinant" members and those of the redundant members, that is, the matrix equation \([\delta] = [A]^T[u]\) can be written:
\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\delta_d \\
\delta_r
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
A_d^T \\
A_r^T
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
u
\end{bmatrix}
\quad \text{or} \quad [\delta_d] = [A_d]^T \cdot [u]
\quad \text{and} \quad [\delta_r] = [A_r]^T \cdot [u]
\]

The top equation on the right is the one we will work with. As in force method #1, we premultiply by the transpose of a column vector (10 by 1) whose elements can be any numbers we wish. In fact, we multiply by the transpose of a general matrix of dimensions 10 rows and 2 columns - the 2 corresponding to
the number of redundant member forces. The reasons for this will become clear soon enough. We again indicate the arbitrariness of the elements of this matrix with an asterisk. We write

\[
[f_d^*]^T [\delta_d] = [f_d^*]^T [A_d]^T [u]
\]

In this \([f_d^*]^T\) is 2 rows by 10 columns and \([\delta_d]\) is 10 by 1.

Now take the transpose and obtain

\[
[\delta_d]^T [f_d^*] = [u]^T [A_d] [f_d^*]
\]

At this point we choose the matrix \([f_d^*]\) to be very special; each of the two columns of this matrix (of 10 rows) we take to be a solution to equilibrium. The first column is the solution when

- the external forces \([X]\) are all zero and
- the redundant force in member 11 is taken as a virtual force of unity.

The second column is the solution for the determinate member forces when

- the external forces \([X]\) are all zero and
- the redundant force in member 12 is taken as a virtual force of unity.

That is, from equilibrium,

\[
[A_d] [f_d^*] = - [A_d] [I]
\]

where \([I]\) is the identity matrix.

With this, our compatibility condition becomes

\[
[\delta_d]^T [f_d^*] = - [u]^T [A_d]
\]

and taking the transpose of this, noting that \([\delta]\) = \([A_d]^T [u]\)

we have

\[
[f_d^*]^T [\delta_d] = - [\delta]
\]

which gives us the redundant member deformations, \([\delta]\), in terms of the "determinate" member deformations, \([\delta_d]\).

But we want the member forces too so we now introduce the member force deformations relations which are simple enough, that is

\[
[\delta] = [k_d]^{-1} [f_d]
\]

and

\[
[\delta_d] = [k_d]^{-1} [f_d]
\]

which enables us to write

\[
[f_d] = - [k_d] [f_d^*]^T [k_d]^{-1} [f_d]
\]

which, if given the determinate member forces, allows us to compute the redundant member forces.

Substituting, then, back into the equilibrium equations, we can eliminate the redundant forces, expressing the redundant forces in terms of the 10 other member forces, and obtain a system of 10 equations for the 10 unknowns \([f_d]\), namely

\[
[A_d] - [A_d] [k_d] [f_d^*]^T [k_d]^{-1} [f_d] = [X]
\]

There we have it; a way to determine the member forces in a equilibrium indeterminate truss structure and we don’t have to explicitly consider compatibility. What we must do is solve equilibrium several times over; two times to obtain the elements of the matrix \([f_d^*]\) in accord with the bulleted conditions stated previously, then, finally, the last equation above, given the applied forces \([X]\).

To go on to determine displacements, we can apply force method #1 - apply a unit load according to the displacement component we wish to determine; use the above two equations to determine all member
**forces** (with an asterisk to distinguish them from the actual member forces); then, with the artificial, equilibrium satisfying, "starred" member forces, carry out the required matrix multiplications.

We might wonder how we can get away without explicitly considering compatibility on our way to determining the member forces in an indeterminate truss structure. That we did include compatibility is clear - that's where we started. How does it disappear, then, from view?

The answer is found in one special, mysterious feature of our truss analysis. We have observed, but not proven, that the matrix relating displacements to deformations is the transpose of the matrix relating the applied forces to member forces.

That is, equilibrium gives  \[ [\mathbf{A}] [\mathbf{f}] = [\mathbf{X}] \]

While, compatibility gives  \[ [\mathbf{\delta}] = [\mathbf{A}]^T [\mathbf{u}] \]

Now that is bizarre! A totally unexpected result since equilibrium and compatibility are quite independent considerations. (It’s the force/deformation relations that tie the quantities of these two domains together). It is this feature which enables us to avoid explicitly considering compatibility in solving an indeterminate problem. Where does it come from? How can we be sure these methods will work for other structural systems?

### 5.4.3 Symmetry of the Stiffness Matrix - Maxwell Reciprocity

The answer lies in that other domain; that of work and energy. In fact, one can prove that if the work done is to be path independent (which defines an elastic system) then this happy circumstance will prevail.

Consider some quite general truss structure, loaded in the following two ways: Let the original, unloaded, state of the system be designated by the subscript "o".

A first method of loading will take the structure to a state "a", where the applied nodal forces \([X_a]\) engender a set of nodal displacements \([u_a]\), then on to state "c" where an additional applied set of forces \([X_b]\) engender a set of additional nodal displacements, \([u_b]\). Symbolically: \(o \rightarrow a \rightarrow c = a + b\) and the work done in following this path may be expressed as

\[
\text{Work}_{o ightarrow c} = \int_{o}^{c} [X]^T \cdot [du] = \int_{o}^{a} [X]^T \cdot [du] + \int_{a}^{c} [X]^T \cdot [du]
\]

and, in that the second integral can be expressed as

\[
\int_{a}^{c} [X]^T \cdot [du] = \int_{a}^{b} [X_a + (X - X_a)]^T \cdot [du] = [X_a]^T \cdot \int_{a}^{b} [du] + \int_{b}^{c} [X]^T \cdot [du]
\]

we have, for this path from o to c:

\[
\text{Work}_{o ightarrow c} = \int_{o}^{a} [X]^T \cdot [du] + \int_{a}^{b} [X]^T \cdot [du] + [X_a]^T \cdot [u_b]
\]

A second method of loading will take the structure first to state "b", where the applied nodal forces \([X_b]\) engender a set of nodal displacements \([u_b]\), then on to state "c" where an additional

---

1. We assume linear behavior as embodied in the stiffness matrix relationship \([X] = [K][u]\).
applied set of forces $[X_a]$ engender a set of additional nodal displacements, $[u_a]$. Symbolically: $o\to b\to c = a + b$. And following the same method, we obtain for the work done:

$$\text{Work}_{o\to c} = \int_{o}^{a} [X] \cdot \{du\} + \int_{a}^{b} [X] \cdot \{du\} + \int_{b}^{c} [X_b] \cdot \{u_a\}$$

Comparing the two boxed equations, we see that for the work done to be path independent we must have

$$[X_a]^T \cdot [u_b] = [X_b]^T \cdot [u_a]$$

or, with $[X] = [K][u]$

$$[u_a]^T \cdot [K] \cdot [u_b] = [u_b]^T \cdot [K] \cdot [u_a]$$

from which we conclude that $[K]$, the stiffness matrix, must be symmetric.

Now, since, as derived in a previous section, $[K] = [A] \cdot [k_{\text{diag}}] \cdot [A]^T$, we see how this must be if work done is to be path independent.

### 5.4.4 A Virtual Displacement Method.

Given the successful use of equilibrium conditions alone for, not just member forces, but nodal displacements and for indeterminate as well as determinate truss structures, we might ask if we can do something similar using compatibility conditions alone. Here life gets a bit more unrealistic in the sense that the initial problem we pose, drawing on force method #1 as a guide, is not frequently encountered in practice. But it is a conceivable problem - a problem of prescribed displacements. It might help to think of yourself being set down in a foreign culture, a different world, where mechanicians have only reluctantly accepted the reality of forces but are well schooled in displacements, velocities and the science of anything that moves, however minutely.

That is, we consider a truss structure, all of whose displacement components are prescribed, and we are asked to determine the external forces required to give this system of displacements. In the figure at the right, the vectors shown are meant to be the known prescribed displacements. (Node #1 has zero displacement). The task is to find the external forces, e.g., $X_3, Y_3$, which will produce this deformed state and be in equilibrium - and we want to do this without considering equilibrium explicitly!

We start with equilibrium:

$$[X] = [A] [f]$$

and take a totally unmotivated step, multiplying both sides of this equation by the transpose of a column vector whose elements may be anything whatsoever;

$$[u^*]^T [X] = [u^*]^T [A] [f]$$

1. We allow the system to be indeterminate as indicated in the figure.
This arbitrary vector bears an asterisk to distinguish it from the vector of actual displacement prescribed at the nodes.

At this point, the elements of $[u]$ could be any numbers we wish, e.g., the price of coffee in the 12 largest cities of the US (it has to have twelve elements because the expressions on both sides of the equilibrium equation are 12 by 1 matrices). But now we manipulate this relationship, taking the transpose of both sides and write


then consider the vector $[u^*]$ to be a vector of nodal displacements, any set of nodal displacements that satisfies the compatibility requirements for the structure, i.e.,

$$[A]^T[u^*] = [\delta^*]$$

So $[\delta^*]$ is still arbitrary, because $[u^*]$ is quite arbitrary - we can envision many different sets of member deformations.

With this, our equilibrium equations, pre-multiplied by our arbitrary vector becomes

$$[X]^T[u^*] = [f]^T[\delta^*] \quad \text{or} \quad [u^*]^T[X] = [\delta^*]^T[f]$$

(Note: The dimensions of the quantity on the left hand side of this last equation are displacement times force, or work. The dimensions of the product on the right hand side must be the same).

Now we choose $[u^*]$ in a special way; we take it to represent a unit, virtual displacement associated with a single degree of freedom, all other displacements zero. For example, we take

$$[u^*]^T = [0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 
\ldots]$$

a unit displacement in the vertical direction at node 3 in the direction of $Y_3$.

Carrying out the product $[u^*]^T[X]$ in the equation above, we obtain just the external force component associated with the same degree of freedom, $Y_3$ i.e.,

$$Y_3 = [\delta^*]^T[f]$$

We can cast this last equation into terms of member deformations (and member stiffnesses) and write:

$$Y_3 = [\delta^*]^T[k_{\text{dia}}][\delta]$$

And that is our special method for determining external forces of a statically determinate (or indeterminate) truss when all displacements are prescribed. It requires, first, solving compatibility for the “actual” member deformations $[\delta]$ given the “actual” prescribed displacements. We then solve another compatibility problem - one in which we apply a unit, or “dummy” displacement at the node we seek a to determine an applied force component and in the direction of that force component. With the “dummy” member deformations determined from compatibility, we carry out the matrix multiplication of the last equation and there we have it.

We emphasize the difference between the two deformation vectors appearing in this equation; $[\delta]$ in plain font, is the vector of actual member deformations in the structure given the actual prescribed nodal displacements. $[\delta^*]$ starred, on the other hand, is some, originally arbitrary virtual deformation vector which satisfies compatibility - compatibility solution for member deformations corresponding to a unit displacement in the vertical direction at node 3.
We emphasize that our method does not require that we explicitly write out and solve the equilibrium equations for the system. We must, instead, compute compatible member deformations several times over.

5.4.5 A Generalization

We think of applying Displacement Method #1 at each degree of freedom in turn, and summarize all the relationships obtained for the required applied forces in one matrix equation. We do this by choosing

\[
[u^*]^T = \begin{bmatrix}
1 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & \ldots & 0 & 0 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 0 & \ldots & 0 & 1 \\
\end{bmatrix} = [I]_{12 \times 12}
\]

where each row represents a unit displacement in the direction of the “rowth” degree of freedom.

The corresponding member deformations \([\delta^*]\) now takes the form of a 11 x 12 matrix whose “jth” column entries are the deformations engendered by the unit displacement of the “ith” row above. (Note there are 11 members, hence 11 deformations and member forces).

We still have

\[
[u^*]^T [X] = [\delta^*]^T [f]
\]

but now \([u^*]^T\) is a 12 by 12 matrix, in fact the identity matrix. So we can write:

\[
[X] = [\delta^*]^T [f]
\]

- an expression for all the required applied forces, noting that the matrix \([\delta^*]^T\) is 12 by 11.

Some further manipulation takes us back to the matrix displacement analysis results of the last section. Eliminating \([\delta^*]^T\) via the second equation on the line above, and setting \([u^*]\) to the identity matrix, we have

\[
[X] = [A][f]
\]

which we recognize as the equilibrium requirement. (But remember, in this world of prescribed displacements, analysts look upon this relationship as foreign; compatibility is their forte). We replace the real member forces in terms of the real member deformations, then, in turn, the real member deformations in terms of the prescribed and actual displacements and obtain

\[
[X] = [A][k_{dila}] [A]^T [u]\quad \text{of} \quad [X] = [K][u]
\]
Design Exercise 5.1

You are a project manager for Bechtel with responsibility for the design and construction of a bridge to replace a decaying truss structure at the Alewife MBTA station in North Cambridge. Figure 1 shows a sketch of the current structure and Figure 2 a plan view of the site. The bridge, currently four lanes, is a major link in Route 2 which carries traffic in and out of Boston from the west. Because the bridge is in such bad shape, no three-axle trucks are allowed access. Despite its appearance, the bridge is part of a parkway system like Memorial Drive, Storrow Drive, et. al., meant to ring the city of Boston with greenery as well as macadam and concrete. In fact, the MDC, the Metropolitan District Commission, has a strong voice in the reconstruction project and they very much would like to stress the parkway dimension of the project. In this they must work with the DPW, the Department of Public Works. The DPW is the agency that must negotiate with the Federal Government for funds to help carry through the project. Other interested parties in the design are the immediate neighborhoods of Cambridge, Belmont, and Arlington; the environmental groups interested in preserving the neighboring wetlands. (Osprey and heron have been seen nearby.) Commuters, commercial interests – the area has experienced rapid development – are also to be considered.

1.1 Make a list of questions of things you might need to know in order to do your job.

1.2 Make a list of questions of things you might need to know to enable you to decide between proposing a four-lane bridge or a six-lane bridge.

1.3 Estimate the “worst-case” loads a four lane bridge might experience. Include “dead weight loading” as well as “live” loads.

1.4 With this loading:

a) sketch the shear-force and bending-moment diagram for a single span.

b) for a statically determinate truss design of your making, estimate the member loads by sectioning one bay, then another...

c) rough out the sizes of the major structural elements of your design.

CONSERVATION COMMISSION FRUSTRATED AT ALEWIFE PLAN (October 4, 1990, Belmont Citizen-Herald) by Dixie Sipher Yonkers, Citizen-Herald correspondent

1. Reprinted with permission of Harte-Hanks Community Newspapers, Waltham, MA
Opponents of the planned $60 to $70 million Alewife Brook Parkway reconstruction can only hope the federal funding falls through or the state Legislature steps in at the eleventh hours with a new plan. Following a presentation by a Metropolitan District Commission planner on the Alewife Development proposal Tuesday night, the Belmont Conservation Commission expressed frustration over an approval process that appears to railroad a project of questionable benefit and uncertain impact, regardless of communities' concerns and requests. The Alewife project would widen Route 2 and redesign the truss bridge, access roads and access ramps on Route 2 near the Belmont-Arlington-Cambridge border. It also would extend Belmont's Brook Parkway significantly. Alewife Basin planner John Krajovick told the commission that MDC has grave concerns about the proposed transportation project and that, funding issues aside, it might be impossible to prevent the Massachusetts Department of Public Works' "preferred alternative" from being implemented. According to Krajovick, the MDC's concerns center around the loss of open space that will accompany the project, specifically the land along the eastern bank of Yates pond, the strip abutting the existing parkway between Concord Avenue and Route 2, the wetlands along the railroad right-of-way near the existing interim access road, and that surrounding the Jerry’s pool site. “Our goal is to reclaim parkways to the original concept of them,” said Krajovick. “It was Charles Elliot’s vision to create a metropolitan park system—a kind of museum of unique open spaces...and use the parkways to connect them as linear parks.”

“The world has changed. They are no longer for pleasure vehicles only, but parkways, we feel, are a really important way to help to control growth and maintain neighborhood standards,” he added. “We would like to see the character of this more similar to Memorial Drive and Storrow Drive as opposed to an expressway like Route 2.” Krajovick outlined the MDC’s further concerns with the project, citing its likely visual, physical, noise, and environmental impacts on surrounding neighborhoods. Projected to cost $60-$70 million, he said, the “preferred alternative” will also hurt a sensitive wetland area, the Alewife Reservation, in return for minimal traffic improvements. In spite of these concerns, Krajovick reported that the project is nearing a stage at which it becomes very difficult to prevent implementation. The Final Environmental impact Statement is expected to be submitted to the Federal Highway Department within a month. The same document will be used as the final report the state’s Executive Office of Environmental Affairs. EOEA Secretary John Devillars cannot stop the project once he receives that report. He can call for mitigating measures only. Krajovick noted a bill currently before the state Legislature’s Transportation Committee could prohibit the project from going forward as presently designed. He took no position on that bill. Conservation Commission members, however, voiced doubts on the likelihood a passage in the face of the fiscal crisis and state elections that loom before legislators. In addition, Krajovick said that state budget cuts are expected to result in layoffs for nearly 600 of the MDC’s staff of 1,000 workers, effectively decimating the agency. “Our hopes for a compromise solution may not happen,” he said. Discouraged by Krajovick’s dismal prognosis, Conservation Commission members expressed concern that there was nothing they could do to change the course of the project. The commission has been providing input on the project for 12 years with no results. In response to Krajovick’s presentation, Commission member William Pisano called the need for updated impact studies, saying, “We agree with you. What we want to see is a lot more data and a more accurate realization of what we’re playing ball with today.” Commending the way in which concerned residents of Arlington, Cambridge and Belmont have gotten involved in the project, however, Krajovick said their thinking as a neighborhood rather than individual towns is a positive thing that has come from the project. Building on that team spirit, he said, the communities can raise their voice through formation of a Friends group and work toward the development of a master plan or restoration plan for the whole Alewife reservation area.

BRIDGE MEETING HIGHLIGHTS ISSUES
Belmont Citizen-Herald September 26, 1991 by Alin Kocharians, Citizen-Herald staff

Some 50 residents turnout out Tuesday night at Winn Brook School to hear a presentation by the state Metropolitan District Commission on the Alewife Brook Parkway Truss Bridge. MDC representatives previewed their Truss Bridge renovation and Parkway restoration plans. The Parkway segment affected is in
Cambridge, between the Concord Avenue rotary and Rindge Avenue. Plans for the two-year project, MDC officials hope, will be completed by early 1992, with construction following in the spring of that year. Julia O’Brien, MDC’s director of planning, said that the $12 million necessary for the project will be provided by the Legislature and federal grants. Once the bridge renovation is completed, the truck ban on it will be lifted, hopefully reducing truck traffic in Belmont. The renovation plans are 75 percent complete, according to John Krajovic, the MDC planner in charge of the project. The MDC is also visiting with Arlington and Cambridge residents, asking for input on the project’s non-technical aspects. Residents and MDC representatives exchanged compliments in the first hour, but as the meeting wore on, the topics of cosmetic versus practical and local versus regional issues proved divisive. One Belmont resident summed up what appeared to be a common misgiving in town. “I don’t want to cast stones, because it is a nice plan,” said John Beaty of Pleasant Street, “but it doesn’t solve the overall problem. I wish that I were seeing not just MDC here. There were two competing plans. It is the (State Department of Public Works’) charter to solve the overall region’s problem. I see those two as being in conflict.” Beaty said that the DPW plan was presented two years ago to residents, when officials had said that the plan was 60 percent complete. Stanley Zdonik of Arlington agreed. “I am impressed with the MDC presentation, but what bothers me is, are you going to improve on the traffic flow?” he said. “You have got one bottleneck at one end, and another at the other.” He said that the Concord Avenue and Route 2 rotaries at either end of the bridge should have traffic signals added, or be removed altogether. Krajovic replied that according to what the MDC’s traffic engineer had told him, “historically, signalizing small rotaries actually backs up traffic even more.” Belmont Traffic Advisory Committee member Marilyn Adams took issue with the decision not to add signals to the rotaries, and asked to see the study that produced this recommendation. Adams was also concerned with a “spill off” of traffic from the construction. “I can’t guarantee people won’t seek out other routes,” including Belmont, O’Brien said. However, she added, she did not expect the impact to be very great, as the Parkway would still be open during construction. “We will make really a strong effort for a traffic mitigation” plan to be negotiated with the town, she said. Selectman Anne Paulsen also asked about the impact of traffic on the town. MDC representatives said that various traffic surveys were being conducted to find a way to relieve the traffic load on Belmont. Krajovic said that traffic problems in Belmont were regional questions, to be handled by local town officials, a point with which Paulsen disagreed. Paulsen said that she would prefer a more comprehensive plan for the region. Aside from the reconstruction of the Truss Bridge, she said, “I think the point of the people of Belmont is that...we want improvement in the roadway, so that we are relieved of some of the traffic.” According to the plans, the new bridge will have four 11-foot lanes, one foot wider than the current width for each lane. There will also be a broader sidewalk, and many new trees planted both along the road and at the rotaries. There will be pedestrian passes over the road, and a median strip with greenery. The bridge will be made flat, so that motorists will have better visibility, engineering consultant Ray Oro said. It will be constructed in portions, so that two lanes will always be able to carry traffic, he said. According to Blair Hines of the landscaping firm of Halvorson Company, Inc., by the end of the project, “Alewife Brook Parkways will end up looking like Memorial Drive.” All the talk about landscaping, Paulsen suggested with irony, “certainly calms the crowd.”
5.5 Problems

5.1 If the springs are all of equal stiffness, $k$, the bar ABC rigid, and a couple $M_o$ is applied to the system, show that the forces in the springs are

$$ F_A = -(5/7)M_o/H \quad F_B = (1/7)M_o/H \quad F_C = (4/7)M_o/H $$

5.2 The stiffness matrix for the truss structure shown below left is

$$ 2 \begin{bmatrix} AE/L & \cos \theta & 0 \\ \cos \theta & 0 & \sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \\ X \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix} $$

What if a third member, of the same material and cross-sectional area, is added to the structure to stiffen it up; how does the stiffness matrix change?

5.3 The problem shown within the box was worked incorrectly by an MIT student on an exam. The student's work is shown immediately below the problem statement, again with the box.

i) Find and describe the error.

ii) Re-formulate the problem—that is, construct a set of equations from which you might obtain valid estimates for the forces in the two supporting members, $BD$ and $CD$.

A rigid beam is supported at the three pins, A, B, and C by the wall and the two elastic members of common material and identical cross-section. The rigid beam is weightless but carries an end load $W$. Find the forces in the members BD and CD in terms of $W$.

1. $R_a - F_b \sqrt{2} + F_c \sqrt{2} = 0$

2. $W + F_b \sqrt{2} + F_c \sqrt{2} = 0$

3. $F_b \sqrt{2} \frac{L}{2} + F_c \frac{L}{\sqrt{5}} - WL = 0$

Rewrite 3. $-W + F_b \sqrt{4} + F_c \sqrt{4} = 0$

Subtract 2. $F_b = 0$ and $F_c = \sqrt{5} W$ ans.!
5.4 Without writing down any equations, *estimate* the maximum member tensile load within the truss structure shown below. Which member carries this load?

![Truss Structure Diagram]

5.5 The truss shown below is loaded at midspan with a weight \( P = 60 \text{ lbs} \). The member lengths and cross-sectional areas are given in the figure. The members are all made of steel.

\[
\begin{align*}
A_{\text{top}} &= 0.01227 \text{ in}^2 \\
A_{\text{diag}} &= 1.09 A_{\text{top}} \\
A_{\text{bot}} &= 2.35 A_{\text{top}} \\
E &= 29.0 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}
\end{align*}
\]

\( H = 4.0^\circ \)

![Truss Structure Diagram with Forces and Dimensions]

a) Verify that the forces in the members are as indicated.

b) Using Trussworks, determine the vertical deflections at nodes 2 and 4.

c) Using the virtual force method of section 5.4.1, determine the vertical deflections at node 4.

5.6 All members of the truss structure shown at the left are of the same material (Elastic modulus \( E \)), and have the same cross-sectional area. Fill in the elements of the stiffness matrix.

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\frac{AE}{H} & ? & ? \\
? & ? & ?
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{u} \\
\mathbf{v}
\end{bmatrix}
= 
\begin{bmatrix}
\mathbf{X} \\
\mathbf{Y}
\end{bmatrix}
\]

5.7 For the three problems 1a, 1b, and 1c, state whether the problem posed is statically determinate or statically indeterminate. In this, assume all information regarding the geometry of the structure is given as well as values for the applied loads.

1a) Determine the force in member \( ab \).

1b) Determine the force in member \( bd \).

1c) Determine the reactions at the wall.
5.8 The simple truss structure shown is subjected to a horizontal force $P$, directed to the right. The members are made of the same material, of Young’s modulus $E$, and have the same cross-sectional area, $A$ (for the first three questions).

i) Find the force acting in each of the two members $ab$, $bc$, in terms of $P$.

ii) Find the extension, (contraction), of each of the two members.

iii) Assuming small displacements and rotations, sketch the direction of the displacement vector of node $b$.

iv) Sketch the direction of the displacement vector if the cross-sectional area of $ab$ is much greater than that of $bc$.

v) Sketch the direction of the displacement vector if the cross-sectional area of $ab$ is much less than that of $bc$.

5.9 The rigid beam is pinned at the left end and supported also by two linear springs as shown.

What do the equilibrium requirements tell you about the forces in the spring and their relation to $P$ and how they depend upon dimensions shown?

Assuming small deflections (let the beam rotate cw a small angle $\theta$), what does compatibility of deformation tell you about the relationships among the contractions of the spring, the angle $\theta$?

What do the constitutive equations tell you about the relations between the forces in the springs and their respective deflections?

Express the spring forces as a function of $P$ if $k_2 = (1/4)k_1$

5.10 A rigid board carries a uniformly distributed weight, $W/L$. The board rests upon five, equally spaced linear springs, but each of a different stiffness.

Show that the equations of equilibrium for the isolated, rigid board can be put in the form

$$[A] \cdot [F] = [W]$$
where \([A]\) is a 2 by 5 matrix and \([F]\) is a 5 by 1 column matrix of the compressive forces in the five springs. Write out the elements of \([A]\).

If the springs are linear, but each of a different stiffness, show that the matrix form of the force/deformation relations take the form

\[
[F] = [k_{\text{diag}}] \cdot [\delta]
\]

where the \([\delta]\) is the column matrix of the spring deformations, taken as positive in compression, and the \(k\) matrix is diagonal.

Show that, if the beam is rigid, in order for the spring deformations to be compatible, one with another, the following five equations must be satisfied (for small deformations).

\[
\begin{align*}
\delta_1 &= u \\
\delta_2 &= \theta \\
\delta_3 &= 0 \\
\delta_4 &= 0 \\
\delta_5 &= 0
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\delta\) is the vertical, downward displacement of the midpoint of the rigid beam and \(\theta\) is its counter-clockwise rotation.

Write out the elements of \([B]\). Then show that the equations of equilibrium in terms of displacement take the form:

\[
[A] \cdot [k_{\text{diag}}] \cdot [A]^T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} u \\ \theta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} W \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}
\]

where \([A]^T\) is the transpose of \([A]\).