

CONCEPT	FORMULAE AND DIAGRAMS	COMMENTS
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Trigonometry/Math

Memory Trick: SOHCAHTOA (Indian Tribe)

$\sin C = \frac{OPP}{HYP}$ or $\frac{Rise}{Slope}$ or $\frac{c}{a}$ (Rise)
 $\cos C = \frac{ADJ}{HYP}$ or $\frac{Run}{Slope}$ or $\frac{b}{a}$ (Run)
 $\tan C = \frac{OPP}{ADJ}$ or $\frac{Run}{Rise}$ or $\frac{c}{b}$ (Slope)

Law of Sines

$$\frac{a}{\sin A} = \frac{b}{\sin B} = \frac{c}{\sin C}$$

Law of Cosines

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 - 2bc (\cos A)$$

$$b^2 = a^2 + c^2 - 2ac (\cos B)$$

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab (\cos C)$$

90° triangle

Non- 90° Triangle

- used when triangle has a 90° angle.
- SIN ⇒ RISE
- COS ⇒ RUN
- TAN ⇒ SLOPE
- SIN and COS of any angle are between (+/-) 1
- 0° < angle < 45° ⇒ COS > SIN
- 45° < angle < 90° ⇒ SIN > COS

- Law of Sines and Cosines are used when triangle has no right angles.
- Law of Sines is used when you are given more angles than sides.
- Law of Cosines is used when you are given more sides than angles

Forces

Variations in L.O.A.

- Shallower angles (<45°) have larger horizontal components
- Steeper angles (>45°) have larger vertical components

Properties of a Force:

Components of a Force:

Variations in Sense:

Force Addition:

Algebraic Method:

- For finding the resultant of several forces

Force	Horizontal	Vertical
1	+/-	+/-
2	+/-	+/-
3	+/-	+/-
R	+/- R _x = ΣX	+/- R _y = ΣY

Graphic Method for Force Addition:

- For finding the Resultant of several forces.

- Tail of 2 on Head of 1
- Tail of 3 on Head of 2
- Resultant begins at 1st Tail and ends at last Head

Transmissibility:

- A Force is defined by four properties:
 1. Point of Application (P.O.A.)
 2. Magnitude (#, kips)
 3. Sense (Arrowhead, Push or Pull, C or T)
 4. Line of Action (L.O.A.), (Angle with horizontal)
- The Resultant of several forces is a single force that has the same effect on a body as all the other forces combined.
- The Resultant is also a force and is thus defined by the four properties listed above.
- The Equilibrant is also defined as a force that has the same P.O.A., Magnitude and L.O.A. as the Resultant but has an opposite sense (Arrow)
- Algebraic Method for finding the Resultant of several forces is used when force magnitudes and lines of action for each force are known
- Algebraic Method of Force Addition
 1. Resolve each force into vertical and horizontal components
 2. The algebraic (+/-) sum of all horizontal components gives the horizontal component of the Resultant.
 3. The algebraic (+/-) sum of all vertical components gives the vertical component of the Resultant
- Graphic Method is used when a system is in equilibrium and we need to calculate one or more unknown forces that contribute to equilibrium
- Graphic Method for Force Addition
 1. Arrange all forces Head to Tail then add (independent of order)
 2. Resultant begins with its Tail at the Tail of the 1st Force and Head at the Head of the last
 3. Resultant can be determined through calculation

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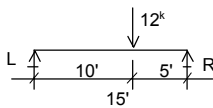
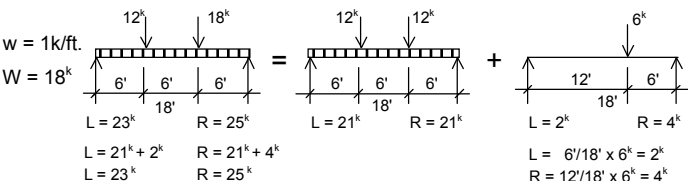
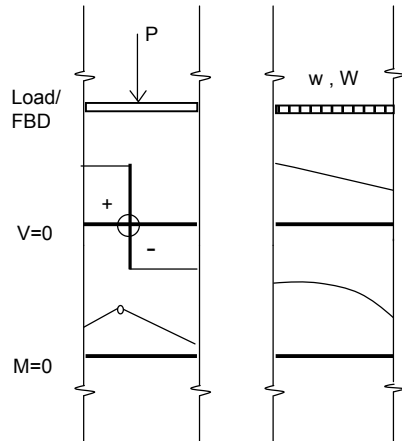
Moments and Couples	<p>Moment</p> <p>Moment = Force X Distance</p> <p>Force P creates a Positive Moment about point A</p> <p>Force P creates a Negative Moment about point B</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> A & B are called Centers of Moment, or Centers of Rotation The perpendicular distance (d) is called the Moment Arm, or Lever Summing Moments ($\sum M = 0$) to establish equilibrium To find Beam / Truss reactions To maintain equilibrium of members Overturning Moments due to Wind Loads or Hydrostatic Pressure
	<p>Couple</p> <p>Moment of a Couple = $P \times d$ (clockwise, CW)</p> <p>(CCW)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Unlike a Moment, a Couple is NOT about a certain point, but rather it is about ANY and ALL points. A Couple depends on Force (P), and perpendicular distance (d) between two Forces that make up the couple. Couple between top Chord (C) and bottom chord (T) in a simply supported truss Couple between compression (top) and tension in rebar (bottom) of reinforced beam

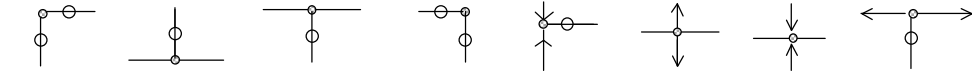
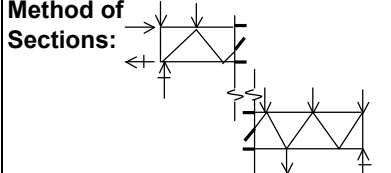
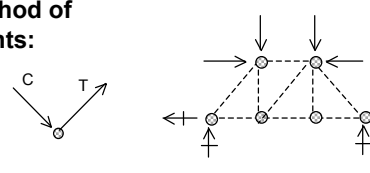
Stress / Strain	<p>Formulas</p> <table border="1"> <tr> <td>$F: \frac{P}{A} \Rightarrow$</td> <td>Direct Stress</td> <td>PSI</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$\epsilon: \frac{\Delta L}{L_0} \Rightarrow$</td> <td>Unit Strain</td> <td>in / in</td> </tr> <tr> <td>$E: \frac{F}{\epsilon} \Rightarrow$</td> <td>Modulus of Elasticity = Stress / Strain</td> <td>PSI</td> </tr> </table>	$F: \frac{P}{A} \Rightarrow$	Direct Stress	PSI	$\epsilon: \frac{\Delta L}{L_0} \Rightarrow$	Unit Strain	in / in	$E: \frac{F}{\epsilon} \Rightarrow$	Modulus of Elasticity = Stress / Strain	PSI		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> ELASTIC RANGE: straight line relationship, slope = E PLASTIC RANGE: increase in strain, no increase in Load / Stress STRAIN HARDENING: material deforming in section (necking), and in length FAILURE: Material is gone! YIELD POINT/ YIELD STRENGTH: material is no longer elastic, deformation is permanent ULTIMATE STRENGTH: material is about to fail RUPTURE: Kiss it Good-Bye E: Modulus of Elasticity. Measures material's resistance to deformation
	$F: \frac{P}{A} \Rightarrow$	Direct Stress	PSI									
$\epsilon: \frac{\Delta L}{L_0} \Rightarrow$	Unit Strain	in / in										
$E: \frac{F}{\epsilon} \Rightarrow$	Modulus of Elasticity = Stress / Strain	PSI										

Axial Loads	<p>$\Delta L = \frac{PL_0}{AE}$</p> <p>$\Delta L$: deformation, changes in Length (in) caused by Axial Load (P)</p> <p>P : Axial Load (#,k)</p> <p>L_0 : Original, undeformed Length (in. not ft.)</p> <p>A : Cross Sectional Area (in²)</p> <p>E : Modulus of Elasticity (PSI, KSI)</p>	<p>$E_{A36}, A_{50} = 29,000 \text{ KSI}$</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> $\nearrow P \Rightarrow \nearrow \Delta L$ $\nearrow L_0 \Rightarrow \nearrow \Delta L$ $\nearrow A \Rightarrow \searrow \Delta L$ $\nearrow E \Rightarrow \searrow \Delta L$ 	<p>$\Delta L = \alpha (\Delta T) L_0$</p> <p>$\Delta L$: Deformation, change in length (in), caused by change in temperature ($^{\circ}\text{F}$)</p> <p>ΔT: Change in temperature</p> <p>α : Coefficient of thermal expansion/contraction</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Shortening or Elongation of members along their axis Change (Expansion & Contraction) of shape due to Temperature Examples include Columns, Trusses, Cables, Cross Bracing
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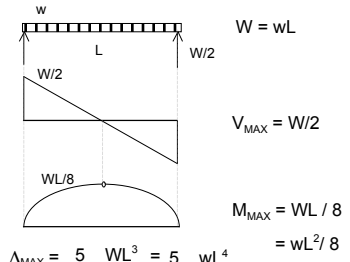
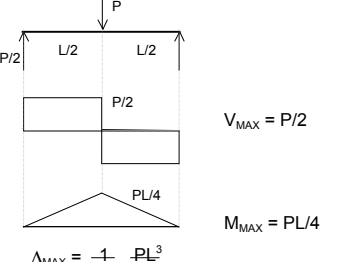
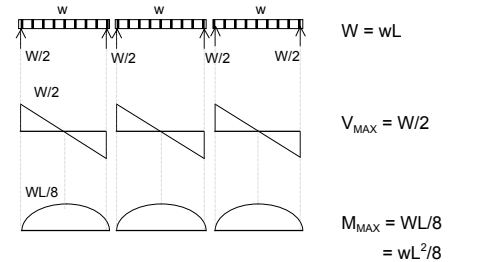
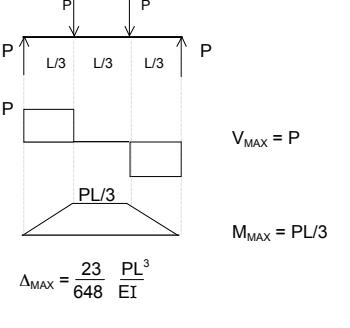
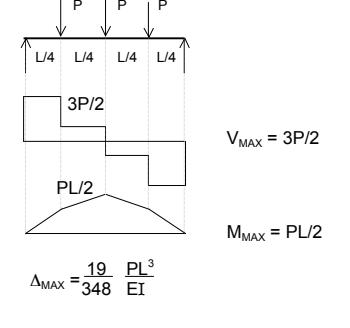
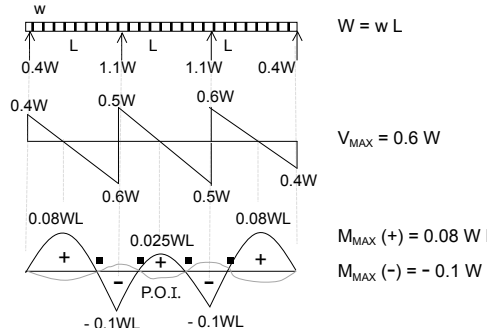
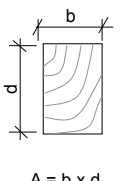
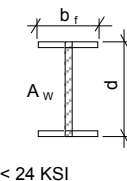
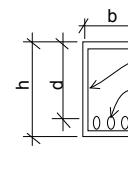
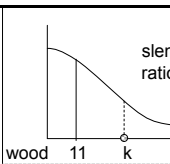
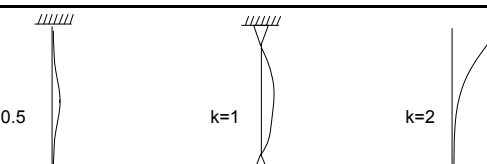
Geometry	<p>$A = bd \Rightarrow$ Area (In²) \Rightarrow Shear</p> <p>$I_{xx} = \frac{bd^3}{12} \Rightarrow$ Moment of Inertia (In⁴) \Rightarrow Deflection</p> <p>$S_{xx} = \frac{I_{xx}}{C} = \frac{bd^2}{6} \Rightarrow$ Section Modulus (In³) \Rightarrow Bending Moment</p>	<p>b = width</p> <p>d = depth</p> <p>c = location of Neutral Axis</p> <p>CG ; Center of Gravity</p> <p>Radius of Gyration $r = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}$</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> If a Member is inadequate in Shear, increasing the Area (either Width (b) or Depth (d)) is effective. If a Member is inadequate in Deflection, increasing the Moment of Inertia (Width (b) is OK; but Depth (d) is cubed and) is much more effective in reducing Deflection. If a Member is inadequate in Bending, increasing the section modulus (width (b) is OK; but Depth (d) is squared and) is much more effective in reducing Bending.
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Support Conditions	<p>Roller: 1 Reaction (V)</p>	<p>Pin / Hinge: 2 Reactions (V, H)</p>	<p>Simply Supported: (Determinate)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Statically Determinate (Simply Supported) loading = three unknown reactions, and can be solved using the equation of Static equilibrium. Statically Indeterminate loading > 3 unknown Reactions Call your engineer. Pin/Hinged connections include most wood to wood, bolted steel, and precast concrete connections. fixed connections include most welded steel / steel connections and cast-in-place concrete.
	<p>Fixed / Moment: 3 Reactions (V, H, M)</p>	<p>Continuous: Multiple Reactions</p>	<p>Indeterminate Loading:</p>	

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Shear and Bending Moment Diagrams	<p>Example 1:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ $L < R$ ▪ $L = \frac{5'}{15'} \times 12^k = 4^k$ ▪ $R = \frac{10'}{15'} \times 12^k = 8^k$  <p>Example 2:</p> <p>$w = 1k/ft.$ $W = 18^k$</p>  <p>Load/FBD:</p> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ $M = \text{Moment}$ ▪ $V = \text{Shear}$ ▪ Equilibrium = $\sum F_x = 0; \sum F_y = 0; \sum M_{Any} = 0$ ▪ Sum of Areas in Shear Diagram = Moment ▪ Magnitude of drop = Concentrated Load ▪ Between concentrated loads, Moment Diagram Slopes ▪ Uniform loads create gradual drop in Shear (straight line) ▪ Uniform loads create curve (downward cup) in Moment Diagram ▪ Overhangs and cantilevers will always have a negative Moment in Moment Diagram. Simply supported beams always have positive Moments ▪ V_{MAX} always occurs at support \Rightarrow Moment is minimum ▪ M_{MAX} occurs where $V = 0$ ▪ Uniform load coefficient, w, = slope in Shear Diagram ▪ Point of Inflection (P.O.I.) is a point on the Moment Diagram where $M = 0$ ▪ Point of Inflection only happens when a beam has an overhang ▪ If Loading Diagram (FBD) is symmetrical, then the Shear Diagram and the Moment Diagram are also symmetrical. ▪ Maximum Shear dictates how much Beam area is needed ▪ Maximum Moment dictates how much Bema Depth is needed ▪ If a hole must be punched out of a Beam to allow for passage of pipe or similar reduction, this must happen at a location of low Shear and low Bending Moment

Trusses	Possible Zero Members  Method of Sections:  Method of Joints:  Top and Bottom Chord Stress Stress increases towards middle Web Stresses Stress increases towards end panels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ A Truss is inherently stable due to triangulation ▪ Truss is stable in its own plane but needs bridging or cross-bracing perpendicular to its own plane ▪ All joints in an honest Truss are Pinned Joints ▪ Rigid Joints in a Truss will result in less Deflection than Pinned Joints (Advantage) ▪ Rigid Joints in a Truss will result in larger size members than Pinned Joint Trusses since members will have to resist V and M in addition to C or T (Disadvantage) ▪ Members carrying Tension can be much smaller than members carrying Compression ▪ $m + 3 = 2j$; where m = Number of Members j = Number of Joints ▪ Method of Joints is used to analyze Force / Stress in every member of a Truss ▪ Method of Joints is also used to analyze Force / Stress in a member that is close to a support (not in middle of truss) ▪ Method of Sections is used to analyze only a few (3 max) members of a truss ▪ After cutting a truss in 2 segments, each segment is in Equilibrium $\sum F_x = 0 ; \sum F_y = 0 ; \sum M_{ANY} = 0$ ▪ Concentrated Loads in a Truss must be applied at panel points; otherwise we have combined stresses (T or C + V and M) ▪ Joints that have three or less members framing into them, may potentially have Zero Members
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The Non-User's Pocket Guide to the Transient Information Needed to Successfully Pass the General Structures Division of the Architect Registration Exam - ARE

CONCEPT	FORMULAE AND DIAGRAMS		COMMENTS	
General Beam Design	MATERIAL: F_v, F_b, E F_c, F_T, F_P	LOAD: L, w, W, P, FBD V_{MAX}, M_{MAX}	GEOMETRY: $A = bd \Rightarrow$ Shear $I = bd^3/12 \Rightarrow$ Deflection $S = (bd^2)/6 \Rightarrow$ Bending	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Beam design must satisfy Shear, Bending Moment and Deflection requirements The Allowable Stress (F) of a species of wood or a Grade of steel depends on the material itself and is tabulated in Manuals and Building Codes The Actual Stress (f) is an outcome of the application of a load (W, P) on a member When a Load is applied <u>perpendicular</u> to the axis of a member (Normal Loading), Shear and Bending stresses develop The Strain associated with Bending is called Deflection and the deflected shape of a Beam is the inverse (upside/down) of the Moment Diagram When a load is applied <u>along</u> the axis of a member, Axial Compression and Tension Stresses develop The strain associated with Tension is Elongation and the strain associated with Compression is Shortening For the same Magnitude and span, a Uniform Load will cause less Deflection than a Concentrated Load for the same material and geometry The the same Load and Span, a Cantilever will deflect more than a simply supported beam For the same Load, Material and Geometry a slight increase in Span will create a huge increase in Deflection For the same Load and Span, an increase in the Modulus of Elasticity, E, (a stronger material), will result in less Deflection For the same Load and Span, an increase in the Moment of Inertia, I, (a deeper member) will result in less deflection The Points of Inflection on the Moment Diagram of the Continuous beam (Left) indicate the locations of curve reversal, and are the locations where reinforcing steel would be flipped from bottom to top of the beam.
	DESIGN FOR SHEAR: $f_v < F_v; F_v \propto \frac{V_{MAX}}{A_{MIN}}$	DESIGN FOR BENDING: $f_b < F_b; F_b = \frac{M_{MAX}}{S_{MIN}}$	DEFLECTION: $\Delta_{actual} = \frac{CONST \times (W \text{ or } P) \times (L \times 12''/ft.)^3}{EI}$ $\Delta_{actual} < \Delta_{allow}$	
	 <p>$W = wL$ $V_{MAX} = W/2$ $M_{MAX} = WL/8 = wL^2/8$ $\Delta_{MAX} = \frac{5}{384} \frac{WL^3}{EI} = \frac{5}{384} \frac{wL^4}{EI}$</p>	 <p>$V_{MAX} = P/2$ $M_{MAX} = PL/4$ $\Delta_{MAX} = \frac{1}{48} \frac{PL^3}{EI}$</p>	 <p>$W = wL$ $V_{MAX} = W/2$ $M_{MAX} = WL/8 = wL^2/8$</p>	
	 <p>$V_{MAX} = P$ $M_{MAX} = PL/3$ $\Delta_{MAX} = \frac{23}{648} \frac{PL^3}{EI}$</p>	 <p>$V_{MAX} = 3P/2$ $M_{MAX} = PL/2$ $\Delta_{MAX} = \frac{19}{348} \frac{PL^3}{EI}$</p>	 <p>$W = wL$ $V_{MAX} = 0.6W$ $M_{MAX} (+) = 0.08WL$ $M_{MAX} (-) = -0.1WL$</p>	
Beams	WOOD BEAMS: Shear: $F_v = \frac{3V_{MAX}}{2A_{MIN}}$ Bending: $F_b = \frac{M_{MAX}}{S_{MIN}}$  <p>$A = b \times d$</p>	STEEL BEAMS: Shear: $F_v = \frac{V_{MAX}}{A_{WEB}}$ Bending: $F_b = \frac{M_{MAX}}{S_{MIN}}$ $F_b = 24 \text{ KSI}$ (full lateral support) $\Rightarrow S_{xx}$ tables $F_b < 24 \text{ KSI}$ (partial lateral support) $\Rightarrow L_{UNB}, M\text{-Charts}$ 	CONCRETE BEAMS: Shear: Concrete: f'_c b, d, f'_c Stirrups: $f_y, \phi, A_v, \text{spacing}$ Bending: Concrete: f'_c b, d, f'_c Rebars: $f_y, \phi, \# \text{ rebars}, A_s$ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> For all beams; $\Delta_{actual} = \frac{CONST \times (W \text{ or } P) \times (L \times 12''/ft.)^3}{EI}$ Allowable Deflection is specified by model codes as a fraction of the span $\Delta_{allow} = L/240, L/360, \dots$
Columns	WOOD COLUMNS: Slenderness: L_{UNB}/d_{least} $k_{wood} = 0.671 \sqrt{\frac{E}{F_c}}$  <p>wood 11, steel 50</p>	STEEL COLUMNS: Slenderness: $\frac{kL_{UNB}}{r}$  <p>$k=0.5, k=1, k=2$</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> $F_c = P/A$ Long and thin (slender) columns tend to be governed by buckling Short and fat (chunky) columns tend to be governed by crushing 	