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A new type of truss joint for prevention of progressive collapse

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Abstract: This paper presents a study on a new type of truss joint (Pinned-Slidable or PS joint) that is designed to maximize the function of catenary action upon a sudden member removal. The basic idea for a PS joint is such that it is fixed on the bottom chord without sliding under the design load, but can slide along the bottom chord to help distribute the unbalanced tensile forces that the catenary action generates on different bottom chord members. The sliding resistance of this joint is provided by the friction generated by the preloaded bolts and the shear resistance of a locking rod, which can be designed according to the proposed design schemes. A Warren truss with PS joints as the bottom joints (Truss-PSJ) has been designed and tested under a scenario of a sudden removal of one of its diagonal members, and the response of the structure is compared with that of an identical truss model except for its non-slidable joints (truss-PJ). Results show that significant catenary action develops in the bottom chord of the remaining structure in the process of establishing a new equilibrium state after the member removal, and the catenary action tends to generate much larger tensile forces in the bottom chord members in the mid-span than in the neighboring bottom chord members, leading to the sliding of a PS joint. By comparing the test results of truss-PSJ with those of its counterpart truss-PJ, the benefits of the PS joints have been clearly demonstrated. The sliding of the PS joint not only releases the excessive unbalanced forces between neighboring members and thus enables a

23 fuller development of the catenary action, but also facilitates the adaptation of the remaining structure towards a
24 new balanced state with a near-optimal deformation shape. A finite element analysis has also been conducted to
25 confirm the above experimental observations, and to demonstrate the performance of PS joints under other
26 progressive collapse scenarios. Furthermore, a method for determining the sliding resistance of PS joints is also
27 proposed.

28

29 Keywords: slidable truss joints; progressive collapse; catenary action; adaptive system;

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Truss structures are widely used in roofing systems and bridges. Even built with many redundant members, a
32 truss may still collapse due to the spread of the initial failure of one or a few load-bearing members. This was what
33 happened to the space truss roof of the Hartford Civic Center, which collapsed in 1978 after a few compressive
34 members buckled [1]. Another example of accident involved the collapse of the Minneapolis I-W35 steel truss
35 bridge in 2007; the primary cause of the collapse was deemed to be the fracture of a few undersized gusset plates
36 [2]. Recent years have therefore seen increasing attention to the progressive collapse of truss structures in the
37 research and practicing communities.

38 A number of studies have been conducted to investigate the key factors affecting the collapse resistance of
39 truss roofs and truss bridges. These factors include the location of initial failure [3-5], the stiffness of the joints [6],
40 the live load intensity [7] and the live load distribution and span ratio of continuous truss bridges [8]. The collapse-
41 resisting mechanisms of truss structures have been found to vary depending upon the location of the initial failure.
42 For planar trusses, catenary action provides the bridge-over capacity for the remaining structure when the initial
43 failure occurs at a top chord or a diagonal member, while arch action plays a dominant role in the collapse resistance
44 under a bottom chord loss scenario [5, 6]. For a truss roof system, the tie forces provided by the roof braces help
45 transfer the external load on the damaged truss to the neighboring undamaged truss [7]. With regard to the analysis
46 methods, USR [9], Goto et al. [10] and Khuyen and Iwasaki [11] investigated the dynamic amplification factor to
47 be used in association with a linear static analysis for steel truss bridges. Yan et al. [5] presented an improved FE
48 approach, by applying viscous damping forces and controlling the stiffness degradation of the removed member, to
49 improve the efficiency of nonlinear dynamic analysis of truss structures. On the experimental front, Zhao et al. [6]
50 provided a comprehensive solution for the testing of progressive collapse resistance of truss structures allowing for
51 an abrupt initiation of a local failure and development of the dynamic responses.

52 Generally speaking, to prevent the collapse of a structure in a progressive manner, one may always look into
53 identifying the critical members whose initial failure could cause the most severe disruption and damage of the
54 structural system, and enhance these members so that they do not fail when the structure encounters plausible
55 exceptional loads. According to [5], for a planar truss these members include all members at the mid-span and the
56 end-span bottom chord member. However, there are events which are unpredictable, for example accidental
57 explosions and accelerated fatigue due to construction errors, and for such situations it would be impractical or
58 impossible to completely prevent initial local failures. In this respect, a more viable approach to mitigating the
59 collapse risk of truss structures would be to ensure a desirable load-carrying capacity through adequate collapse-
60 resisting mechanisms in the event of a local failure.

61 During the process of regaining a balanced state through the collapse-resisting mechanisms, there would be
62 certain structural members that are at a higher risk of subsequent failure than other members. It is shown in [6] that
63 for a truss structure subjected to the loss of a diagonal member or a bottom chord member, highly non-uniform
64 tension could be generated in different bottom chord members during the development of the catenary action. Fig.
65 1 presents a brief illustration of the test results of a Warren truss with pinned connection between diagonal members
66 and continuous chords (truss-PJ) following a sudden removal of a diagonal member. It was found that in this case
67 the central bottom chord member (BC3) experienced a considerably larger tensile force than other chord members.
68 Such members are normally regarded as the “key elements” which can be exposed to much higher risk of follow-
69 on failure and consequently lead to the collapse of the entire structure.

70 Clearly, mitigating the risk of failure of the key elements is crucial to increasing the overall collapse resistance
71 of the structure. An ideal situation would be that all structural members are rendered the same risk of subsequent
72 failure. One of the possible solutions is to enhance these key elements by increasing their cross sections. However,
73 more often the key elements depend on the location of the initial failure and thus cannot be predicted in advance.

74 Moreover, it is not an efficient approach for the key elements to be designed “passively” with a much larger strength
75 to counter the extra loads which would only occur in an accidental condition. Instead, finding an effective way to
76 “proactively” improve the re-distribution of the loads to other members would be a more desirable strategy. Based
77 on the above considerations, this paper presents a new type of truss joint with an aim to release the unbalanced
78 forces among bottom chord members, and thus enable a “proactive” resistance enhancement against progressive
79 collapse.

80 The following sections describe the assembly of the new type of joints and its working mechanism under a
81 progressive collapse scenario. A planar Warren truss was built with the new joints and it was tested under a sudden
82 removal of a diagonal member. The experimental programme is described and the test results are compared with
83 the results obtained previously from a comparable truss but without the new type of joints to demonstrate the
84 advantages of the new joints in improving the collapse resistance of the structure. A method for determining the
85 usage of the new joints in a truss and their design sliding resistances is then put forward. Finite element (FE)
86 investigations are also conducted to confirm the experimental observations, and to demonstrate the performance of
87 this new type of joints under other progressive collapse scenarios.

88 **2. Concept of the new joint and its working mechanism**

89 The concept of the new joint involves the following attributes: (a) under design loads, the joint behaves the
90 same as a commonly used joint such as a welded joint, (b) when catenary action is being developed in the bottom
91 chord under a progressive collapse scenario, the mechanism of the joint is activated so that it helps to realize a
92 uniform tension in the bottom chord members, (c) to enhance the catenary action function, the joint also realizes a
93 pinned connection between a diagonal member and the bottom chord, and this helps prevent early buckling of the
94 diagonal members, which would otherwise experience significant distortions as the catenary action develops [6].

95 *2.1. Prototype design*

96 According to the above objectives for the new truss joint, the prototype of the joint is designed. Fig. 2 illustrates
97 the components of the joint and the assembly method. Firstly, two steel blocks are fixed onto the bottom chord
98 through four preloaded bolts. The upper steel block has a lug plate on its top surface and a half-cylinder groove on
99 its bottom surface, and the lower steel block has an identical half-cylinder groove on its top surface. The position
100 of the paired steel blocks on the bottom chord is guaranteed by a locking rod, which threads through the vertical
101 holes at the center of the steel blocks and the holes in the bottom chord at the joint location. The diagonal members,
102 which are fitted (through weld) with a connection coupler at their bottom end, are jointed to the bottom chord by
103 connecting the ear plates of the coupler to the lug plate of the upper steel block through pins.

104 Under design loads, the friction generated by the preloaded bolts and the shear resistance provided by the
105 locking rod are combined in a certain way, which is to be discussed later, to provide the sliding resistance required
106 for the steel blocks to stay immobilized on the bottom chord. When catenary action is developed under a progressive
107 collapse scenario, if the tensile force difference between the bottom chord members on two sides of a PS joint
108 (referred as the unbalanced force of this joint) exceeds the sliding resistance, the locking rod shall break and the
109 steel blocks can slide along the bottom chord. This will largely release the unbalanced force. Therefore, the
110 objectives of (a) and (b) are met. As a matter of fact, the “ear plate - pin - lug plate” design for the connection of
111 diagonal members to the bottom chord already guarantees a pin-connected condition for the diagonal members to
112 the bottom chord, in this way the objective (c) is also satisfied.

113 Hence, this new joint is named as Pinned-Slidable Joint (abbreviated as PSJ or PS joint). It is noted that the PS
114 joint is similar to the pinned joint connector in the previous test truss-PJ, except that in the pinned joint connector
115 the steel blocks are permanently fixed onto the bottom chord through welding in addition to the preloaded bolts and
116 locking rod, allowing no relative sliding at any stage of the response.

117 2.2. Control of sliding resistance

118 The sliding resistance is controlled through the number of the preloaded bolts and size of the locking rod. Fig.
119 3 illustrates schematically the sliding resistance versus sliding displacement curves. The curves are based on two
120 simple yet important physical phenomena, namely, a) the locking rod lags behind the preloaded bolts in providing
121 sliding resistance due to its installation tolerance, and b) the maximum static friction generated by the preloaded
122 bolts (F_s) is generally larger than the kinetic friction generated by the same bolts (F_k).

123 For a PS joint being immobilized on the bottom chord, the sliding resistance is solely provided by the static
124 friction. If the maximum static friction F_s is overcome by the unbalanced force of this joint, the joint starts to slide
125 along the bottom chord, and the sliding resistance shall experience an instantaneous drop until the locking rod starts
126 to play its role. Depending on the shear resistance of the locking rod, the PS joint can have two different modes of
127 subsequent performance, i.e., mode 1 and mode 2 in Fig. 3. Accordingly, these two modes correspond to two design
128 schemes.

129 If the design sliding resistance of a PS joint (R) can be fully achieved by the static friction generated by the
130 preloaded bolts, the PS joint should follow mode 1, thus the locking rod must be small or can even be cancelled.
131 This design scheme can be referred to as “strong bolts, weak rod”. In this respect, the shear resistance of the locking
132 rod (S_L) should be no larger than the friction change during transition from static friction to kinetic friction:

133
$$\begin{cases} F_s = R \\ S_L = S_1 \leq F_s - F_k \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

134 The preloaded bolts and the locking rod can thus be designed. By assuming a circumferentially uniform
135 pressure between the inner surface of the steel blocks and the bottom chord member, the product of the number of
136 the bolts (n) and the preload in each bolt (P) is

137
$$n \cdot P = \frac{R}{\pi \mu_s} \quad (2)$$

138 where μ_s is the static friction coefficient. The shear resistance of the locking rod should satisfy

$$139 \quad S_L \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu_k}{\mu_s}\right) \cdot R \quad (3)$$

140 where μ_k is the kinetic friction coefficient.

141 Sometimes the number or the size of the preloaded bolts might be insufficient due to architectural and
142 constructional considerations, thus a strong locking rod must be used to fill the gap between the design sliding
143 resistance and the kinetic friction generated by the preloaded bolts. In this case, the design scheme can be referred
144 to as “weak bolts, strong rod”, and the PS joint follows mode 2:

$$145 \quad \begin{cases} F_s < R \\ S_L = S_2 = R - F_k \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

146 The shear resistance of the locking rod can thus be designed as

$$147 \quad S_L = R - \pi \mu_k \cdot n \cdot P \quad (5)$$

148 The determination of the shear resistance for the PS joints will be discussed later in Section 5.

149 **3. Experimental study of truss with PS joints**

150 To verify the effectiveness of incorporating the new joints in a truss structure, an experimental study was first
151 carried out. The details of the experimental programme and the main test results are presented in this section.

152 *3.1. Test model design*

153 The tested truss model with the use of the PS joints along the bottom chord is referred as truss-PSJ. To facilitate
154 a direct comparison between truss-PSJ with truss-PJ mentioned earlier, the geometric and material properties of
155 truss-PSJ was kept the same as that of truss-PJ.

156 Truss-PSJ had a span of 4.0 m and a height of 0.45 m, as shown in Fig. 4. The top chord (TC) and the bottom
157 chord (BC) were continuous, and the diagonal members (DM) were connected to the top chord and the bottom chord

158 through pinned joint connectors and the new PS joints, respectively. All members were constructed using DIN2391
 159 St.35 steel pipes, and the cross-sections and mechanical properties are shown in Table 1. The two edge supports
 160 (SJ1 and SJ2) were made as fixed pins with full horizontal restraints. The design loads were applied as point loads
 161 at the top joints: 1.0 kN was applied on each edge top joint (TJ1 and TJ5) and 2.0 kN was applied on each middle
 162 top joint (TJ2, TJ3 and TJ4).

163 The sliding resistances of PS joints must be carefully designed. Otherwise, a PS joint with sliding resistance
 164 smaller than the required immobilizing force under design loads shall experience unwanted sliding prior to member
 165 removal, and a PS joint with excessively large sliding resistance tends to always stay immobilized on the bottom
 166 chord even under a severe progressive collapse scenario. For a demonstrative purpose, the sliding resistance of each
 167 PS joint has been determined based on the testing results of truss-PJ with non-slidable joints. Fig. 5 shows the
 168 unbalanced force of each bottom joints in truss-PJ. It is observed that the unbalanced force of BJ2 increased
 169 dramatically upon the removal of DM2, while that of the other bottom joints decreased. Therefore, a sliding
 170 resistance of $R = 7.5$ kN was designed for BJ1 and BJ4 to guarantee their immobilized state under design loads and
 171 possible perturbations during the static loading process. For PS joint at BJ2, the sliding resistance was designed as
 172 5.0 kN which was slightly smaller than the peak value of the unbalanced force but was much larger than the required
 173 immobilizing force (about 1.7 kN). For PS joint at BJ3, a sliding resistance of 2.0 kN would have been sufficient;
 174 however, its sliding resistance was designed to be the same as that of BJ2 (i.e., 5.0 kN) to facilitate test result
 175 comparisons between BJ2 and BJ3.

176 The “strong bolts, weak rod” design scheme was adopted for truss-PSJ. For PS joints at BJ1 and BJ4, the
 177 preload of each bolt and the shear resistance of the locking rod were designed according to Eq. (2) and (3):

$$178 \quad P_1 = P_4 = \frac{7.5\text{kN}}{4 \times \pi \times 0.30} = 1.99\text{kN} \quad (6)$$

$$179 \quad S_L \leq \left(1 - \frac{0.15}{0.30}\right) \times 7.5\text{kN} = 3.75\text{N} \quad (7)$$

180 where μ_S was taken as 0.30 for clean steel surfaces [12], and μ_K was taken as half of μ_S for clean steel-on-steel
181 friction [13].

182 Bolts with nominal diameter of 6mm were used. For each bolt, the torque necessary to generate bolt preload
183 of 1.99 kN must be estimated. The wrench torque (T) can be determined by using a general relation [13]:

$$184 \quad T = K \cdot P \cdot d \quad (8)$$

185 where K is a constant that depends on the bolt material and size, and a value of $K=0.2$ may be used in this equation
186 for mild-steel bolts; d is the nominal bolt diameter. Thus according to Eq. (8), the wrench torque was calculated to
187 be 2.39 kN·mm, which was applied using a wrench and a forcemeter attached at its end.

188 Fine-machined small rods with diameter of 2.5 mm were used as the locking rods. The rod material had a
189 tensile strength of about 320 MPa which was determined by trial, thus the shear strength was estimated to be about
190 256 MPa ($=0.8 \times 320 \text{MPa}$). Therefore, the shear resistance of a locking rod was 1.26 kN, and Eq. (7) was satisfied.

191 For PS joints at BJ2 and BJ3, the preload of each bolt and the maximum shear resistance of the locking rod
192 were calculated following the above procedure. Results showed that $P_2 = P_3 = 1.33 \text{ kN}$, and the corresponding wrench
193 torque is 1.59 kN·mm. The maximum shear resistance is 2.5 kN, thus the 2.5 mm-diameter rods can also be used in
194 these two PS joints.

195 3.2. Test setup

196 Fig. 6 shows an overall view of the test setup. The test setup, including support conditions, method of applying
197 static loads, measurement locations, as well as the location of the suddenly removed member, were also maintained
198 the same with that of its counterpart truss-PJ. A detailed description of the general testing program can be found in
199 [6]. A brief overview is given in what follows.

200 The test truss was supported at both ends with fixed pins on two reaction frames fixed onto a strong floor.
201 Meanwhile, a pair of transparent plexiglass plates was placed on both sides of the tested truss to ensure that the

202 tested planar truss only deformed vertically.

203 When the test was carried out, the test structure was first loaded to simulate a normal loading condition. The
204 point load on each top joint was applied by means of weights (iron plates) through hanger rods that were attached
205 to the top joint connector. The main test then proceeded with a sudden removal of a diagonal member, in this case
206 DM2, using a member-breaking device. The member-breaking device was invented to break a predefined structural
207 member instantaneously, and it has been used successfully in the progressive collapse tests of truss and steel dome
208 model structures [6, 14]. The member removal time is about 0.06s.

209 As is generally known, a sudden removal of a member from a structure triggers a transient dynamic response
210 with abrupt changes of the geometrical shape and internal forces. To capture the dynamic responses, a
211 videogrammetric technique was employed with the aid of two high-speed CMOS cameras (Basler ACA 2040-
212 180KM) to capture the full field measurement of the structural dynamic deformation in the 3D domain. The image
213 rate was set at 180 frames per second. A dynamic strain data acquisition system (DH3820) was employed to collect
214 the dynamic strain responses in all members at a sampling frequency of 100 Hz.

215 *3.3 Test results and performance comparisons*

216 Before the diagonal member DM2 was removed, all PS joints in the test truss-PSJ kept staying at their original
217 locations on the bottom chord under the statically applied point loads. Upon the removal of DM2, the truss
218 underwent immediate deformation and the catenary action began developing in the bottom chord. Joint BJ2 started
219 to slide leftwards along the bottom chord at about 0.24 s after the trigger of removal of DM2. The overall shape and
220 the truss grids underwent significant distortion. At about 0.5 s, the truss regained a balanced state with the joint BJ2
221 having slid for up to 143 mm, as shown in Fig. 7a. Under the re-balanced state, the overall deformation was
222 approximately symmetric with the largest vertical displacement occurring at the mid-span of the top chord. Due to
223 the sliding of BJ2, the balanced configuration of the current truss-PSJ clearly deviated from that of its counterpart

224 truss-PJ in which sliding of the bottom joints was not allowed as shown in Fig. 7b.

225 The removal of DM2 will tend to greatly amplify the unbalanced force between bottom chord BC3 and BC2,
226 as already demonstrated in the test of truss-PJ. Fig. 8a shows the unbalanced forces of BJ2 in both truss-PSJ and
227 truss-PJ. In truss-PSJ, at about 0.24 s the unbalanced force rose up to about 5.29 kN, which went slightly beyond
228 the design sliding resistance (5.0 kN) and thus triggered the sliding mechanism to come into play. With the sliding
229 of BJ2, the unbalanced force was largely released. Fig. 8b shows the unbalanced forces of the other three bottom
230 joints, namely, BJ1, BJ3 and BJ4. Their unbalanced forces stayed below the design sliding resistance with a large
231 margin for the entire deformation history; as a result, these PS joints did not move.

232 As the sliding of BJ2 released the unbalanced tensile forces between BC2 and BC3, all bottom chord members
233 in truss-PSJ had almost the same tensile forces in them, as shown in Fig. 9a. This is apparently different from the
234 pattern of catenary action in truss-PJ, in which disproportionate tensile strains were found in different bottom chord
235 members as shown in Fig. 1b. By comparing Fig. 9a to Fig. 1b, it is observed that while the tensile strain in BC3 of
236 truss-PSJ was very much smaller than that of truss-PJ, tensile strains in other bottom chord members of truss-PSJ
237 were a little larger than that of truss-PJ. Therefore, the sliding of joint BJ2 improved the performance of the catenary
238 action in truss-PSJ directly, as no significant concentration of tensile force within a single member as did in truss-
239 PJ occurred. In all, the PS joints enabled a more robust development of the catenary action in the bottom chord.

240 During the sliding of joint BJ2 towards its final position on the bottom chord, the load-bearing mechanism of
241 the remaining structure went through a notable change. The pattern of alternate tensile-and-compressive internal
242 forces in the diagonal members disappeared, and all diagonal members were under compression to transfer the point
243 loads applied on the top joints to the supports through the bottom chord where the catenary action developed, as
244 shown in Fig. 9b. This is different from truss-PJ, in which the undamaged truss grids on the right hand side of DM2
245 still behaved as typical trusses. The top chord members, on the other hand, had the compressive forces in them

246 unloaded, with TC2, TC3 and TC4 even under certain amount of tension, as shown in Fig. 9c. Therefore, upon the
247 removal of DM2, the remaining structure of truss-PSJ behaved more like a cable-strut structure than a typical truss,
248 which was the result of sliding of joint BJ2. It would be wrong to assert that the load-bearing mechanism of cable-
249 strut structures is definitely better than that of trusses, but according to the experimental data the internal forces in
250 truss-PSJ are smaller than those of truss-PJ for almost all members. In fact, the PS joints helped truss-PSJ become
251 an adaptive system to a certain extent, and facilitated the adaptation of the remaining structure towards a new
252 balanced state with a near-optimal deformation shape. Adaptive ability provided by the sliding of structural
253 components can be found in other types of civil structures as well. For example, in the flexible barriers commonly
254 used for rockfall mitigation, the netting attached to cable ropes spanning across steel posts can slide along the cable
255 ropes after hit by debris flows [15].

256 It is also noted that although the grids of truss-PSJ experienced dramatic change (for instance, the angle
257 between DM5 and BC3 changed from 48° to 33°), no buckling was observed in any diagonal member. As a
258 comparison, a truss with rigid connections between the diagonal members and the chord members tested in [6]
259 collapsed due to successive buckling of several diagonal members due to grid distortions. This comparison further
260 demonstrates the importance of adopting pinned connections between diagonal members and chord members.

261 **4. Numerical simulation: FE model development and validation**

262 *4.1. FE modelling considerations*

263 Finite-element investigation is carried out to assist in the interpretation of test results, as well as to investigate
264 the performance of PS joints under the loss of a member other than the diagonal member considered in the test.

265 A finite-element model of truss-PSJ is developed in commercial FE package *Abaqus*, and the analyses are
266 performed using the explicit time integration solve *Abaqus/Explicit*. The improved FE analysis procedure for

267 progressive collapse analysis put forward in [5] is adopted. The static initial condition of the intact truss-PSJ is
268 obtained first, and then the elements of DM2 are removed in 0.06 s corresponding to the actual time period of the
269 member removal as observed from the physical experiment. Fig. 10 shows the overview of the FE model along with
270 the modelling details at top and bottom joints.

271 The top chord members and diagonal members are modeled with two-node linear space beam elements
272 (element type “B31”) with a pipe cross-section, and each member is modeled by 10 beam elements, which is enough
273 to capture the potential buckling behavior under compression [5]. The bottom chord members are modeled with
274 four-node reduced integration doubly curved shells (element type “S4R”) for simulation of PS joints’ sliding along
275 the bottom chord. The materials of the chord members are modeled using a piecewise-linear plasticity model with
276 stress-strain curves based on the coupon test data.

277 At each top joint, the joint connector is modeled with B31 elements with a rectangular cross-section and B31
278 elements with a circular cross-section, where elastic material model is adopted. All degrees of freedom are
279 constrained between the joint connector and the top chord members, while the in-plane rotational degree of freedom
280 is released between the joint connector and the diagonal members.

281 At each bottom joint, the top and bottom steel blocks of the PS joints (refer to the PS joint details in Fig. 2) are
282 modeled with discrete rigid bodies, and they are assembled together through “Tie” constraint at the contact surface.
283 Contact between the half-cylinder grooves of the steel blocks and the outer surface of the bottom chord is defined
284 in order to simulate the sliding of the PS joints along the bottom chord. A “hard” contact with zero-penetration
285 between contact surfaces is specified for the normal behavior. For the tangential behavior, a friction coefficient of
286 0.30 is specified, which is adopted as the static friction coefficient in this FE analysis. Because the cylindrical
287 contact surfaces fit closely together, local stress concentration would not occur, and therefore the mesh size has little
288 effect on the stress and strain calculation within the connection. Nevertheless, sufficiently small mesh size should

289 still be adopted for the shell elements to avoid penetration between the contact surfaces. The cross-section of the
290 bottom chord is partitioned into 16 shell elements, resulting in a uniform mesh size of about 3.7 mm. By adopting
291 this mesh size, good convergence had already been achieved, and no penetration was observed between the contact
292 surfaces.

293 Normally, the pretension of bolts in a structure can be simulated with assembly loads in *Abaqus*. However, this
294 technique can only be employed in association with the implicit solver *Abaqus/Standard*. Since the role of the
295 pretension bolts in the FE model is solely related to the friction, the same effect can be realized by directly simulating
296 the static friction without explicit inclusion of the pretension bolts. In the current model, this is achieved by using a
297 fictitious “shear stud”, connecting the top steel block and the cross-section center of the bottom chord member, with
298 a specified shear fracture limit equal to the friction resistance as would be provided by the preloaded bolts. It should
299 be pointed out that this fictitious “shear stud” is not part of the “locking rod” and its property is specified just to
300 represent the friction effect. The shear stud has a length of 10 mm and a rectangular cross section of 3 mm×3 mm,
301 and is modeled with eight-node linear reduced integration brick solid elements (element type “C3D8R”). Shear
302 stress distribution is uniform over any rectangular cross-sections of the stubby shear stud, and therefore mesh size
303 has little influence on the calculation of shear stress. In this study, a mesh size of about 3 mm equal to the width of
304 the shear stud is adopted. The material of the shear stud is modeled using elastic material, where a large elastic
305 modulus of 2×10^6 MPa is assigned to reduce the bending deformation of this shear stud. For PS joints at BJ1 and
306 BJ4, the design sliding resistance generated by the preloaded bolts is 7.5 kN, thus a shear failure limit of 833 MPa
307 ($=7500 \text{ N}/9 \text{ mm}^2$) enables an adequate simulation for the immobilizing effect of the static friction generated by the
308 preloaded bolts. For PS joints at BJ2 and BJ3, the shear failure limit is 555 MPa ($=5000 \text{ N}/9 \text{ mm}^2$). It is noted that
309 as the preloads of the bolts are not modeled, the tangential friction coefficient mainly works in association with the
310 contact pressure generated by the vertical component of the resultant force of the connecting diagonal members.

311 As the design of the sliding resistance follows the “strong bolts, weak rod” scheme (refer to mode 1 in Fig. 3),
312 the shear resistance of the locking rod can be ignored without causing much difference, thus the locking rod is not
313 included in this FE model.

314 The point loads are modeled with lumped masses. The out-of-plane translational and rotational degrees of
315 freedom are fully restrained at all joints to simulate the out-of-plane constraint in the actual experiment.

316 *4.2. Model validation and comparative results*

317 After DM2 is removed, the FE model of truss-PSJ deformed downwards rapidly, and catenary action develops
318 along the bottom chord with the increase of the displacements. The sliding mechanism of the PS joint at BJ2 is
319 activated at about 0.21 s, and the final sliding distance is about 155 mm. Fig. 11 presents the comparisons between
320 the FE predictions and the experimental measurements of the structural responses, including the balanced
321 configuration, the vertical displacement at the mid-length of the top chord and the unbalanced force of bottom joint
322 BJ2. Overall, good agreement is observed between the FE and the experimental results. The results demonstrate that
323 the FE model represents well the sliding behavior of the PS joints, the dynamic responses of the remaining structure
324 and the collapse-resisting mechanism of the tested truss, and therefore it can be applied in the extended numerical
325 studies of other member removal scenarios.

326 When the removal of a different structural member is considered, it can be expected that a different sliding
327 resistance demand for a particular PS joint will arise, so the joint sliding resistances adopted in the test programme
328 may not apply to other member removal scenarios. Therefore, a method for determining the design sliding resistance
329 for the PS joints to be used under all progressive collapse scenarios is required and this is discussed in the following
330 section.

331 **5. Sliding resistance design of the PS joints**

332 The PS joints in a truss should function properly under different member loss scenarios. To this end, the
333 proposed method is based on the following considerations: 1) no sliding should occur in the intact truss under design
334 loads, and thus the sliding resistance of each PS joint should be larger than the unbalanced force of this joint under
335 design loads; 2) but to avoid setting the sliding resistance unnecessarily too high, there is a need to identify the
336 unbalanced forces that would occur under a variety of catenary action scenarios; 3) PS joints may not be needed for
337 all bottom joints because for certain bottom joints the maximum unbalanced force under all catenary action scenarios
338 can be smaller than the unbalanced force under design loads; 4) it is also important the PS joints keep immobilized
339 on the bottom chord under bottom chord member removal scenarios to enable proper function of the arch action,
340 and the design sliding resistance of each PS joint should also be larger than the maximum unbalanced force that
341 would occur under arch action. Therefore, the procedure includes five steps, as illustrated in Fig. 12. The unbalanced
342 forces of PS joints can be calculated by assuming all PS joints are non-slidable, therefore, only the most simplified
343 FE models with all members modelled with beam elements are needed.

344 Step 1 calculates the unbalanced force under design loads for each bottom joint BJm (F_m^0). Linear static analysis
345 is performed on the intact truss, thereby the axial force of each bottom chord member BCm (T_m^0) can be obtained.
346 Then F_m^0 can be calculated by the difference in the internal forces of the two adjacent chord members:

$$347 \quad F_m^0 = |T_m^0 - T_{m+1}^0| \quad (9)$$

348 Step 2 calculates the unbalanced force under different catenary action scenarios for each bottom joint. Alternate
349 Path (AP) analysis is performed on the truss by removing the top chord members one at a time. There are m bottom
350 joints, thus in terms of re-balanced deformation shape there can be as many as m catenary action scenarios, in each
351 of which a different bottom joint is at the lowest point of the entire bottom chord. These catenary action scenarios
352 can be created by removing the top chord member right above this joint one at a time [5], therefore, there is no need
353 for AP analysis of removing the diagonal members although the initial failure of a diagonal member also leads to

354 catenary action in the bottom chord. For instance as shown in Fig. 13, the removal of diagonal members DM1 and
 355 DM2 lead to identical re-balanced deformation shapes compared with that caused by the removal of the top chord
 356 member TC1. For bottom chord joint BJ_m , the unbalanced force under the removal of a top chord member TC_n
 357 ($F_m^{TC_n}$) can be obtained through

$$358 \quad F_m^{TC_n} = |T_m^{TC_n} - T_{m+1}^{TC_n}| \quad (10)$$

359 AP analysis can be performed with varying complexities, and generally there are three analysis procedures
 360 [16]. Since the main purpose of the analysis is for sliding resistance design, a nonlinear static analysis is
 361 recommended and this is employed herein. Currently, there is no codified recommendation on the dynamic increase
 362 factor (DIF) value to be used in nonlinear static analysis of truss structures. It is shown that for a linear static analysis
 363 of steel truss bridges, the DIF varied between bridges and with the location of the removed members, but in all cases
 364 the DIF values were smaller than 1.4 [11]. For simplicity, in this study the DIF is taken as a constant value of 1.4.

365 Step 3 determines the usage of PS joints, namely, where PS joints are to be used. This is achieved by comparing
 366 the maximum unbalanced force under catenary action F_m^{TC} (the maximum $F_m^{TC_n}$) against the unbalanced force
 367 under design loads F_m^0 for each bottom joint. For bottom joint BJ_m , a circumstance of F_m^{TC} being smaller than F_m^0
 368 indicates that the sliding mechanism of a PS joint (if used at BJ_m) shall never be activated as long as the PS joint is
 369 designed to be immobilized on the bottom chord under design loads. Therefore, PS joints are only used at bottom
 370 joint where F_m^{TC} is larger than F_m^0 .

371 Step 4 investigates the unbalanced forces generated by the arch action under different bottom chord member
 372 loss scenarios on the bottom joints where PS joints are used. AP analysis is performed on the truss by removing the
 373 bottom chord members one at a time. Previous discussions on analysis procedures employed to perform AP analysis
 374 in step 2 can also apply for the AP analysis in this step. For each bottom joint BJ_m where PS joint are used, the
 375 unbalanced force following the removal of a bottom chord member BC_p can be calculated through

376
$$F_m^{BCp} = |T_m^{BCp} - T_{m+1}^{BCp}| \quad (11)$$

377 Step 5 determines the design sliding resistance for the PS joints. In ideal condition, the design sliding resistance
 378 for a bottom joint (R_m) can be determined as the larger of the unbalanced force under design loads F_m^0 and the
 379 maximum unbalanced force under arch action F_m^{BC} (maximum F_m^{BCp}). Considering the potential overloading and
 380 the possible inaccuracy of the AP analysis results due to model simplification, an amplification factor may be
 381 introduced (take a value of 1.1 for example), thus:

382
$$R_m = 1.1 \times \max(F_m^0, F_m^{BC}) \quad (12)$$

383 For certain bottom joints, sometimes the unbalanced force under arch action may be larger than the unbalanced
 384 force under catenary action, indicating that the sliding mechanism under catenary action will not be activated when
 385 Eq. 12 is satisfied. In this situation, PS joints are not needed at these bottom joints for the same reason mentioned
 386 previously. Alternatively, PS joints can still be still adopted, but in order to examine the effect of releasing the
 387 unbalanced forces between the bottom chord members on the proper function of the arch action, detailed numerical
 388 investigation that can simulate the sliding of PS joints along the bottom chord as presented above has to be
 389 performed.

390 **6. Performance of PS joints under different member-loss scenarios**

391 In this section, three numerically simulated cases are presented to show the performance of PS joints in truss-
 392 PSJ subjected respectively to the loss of i) a diagonal member, ii) a top chord member, and iii) a bottom chord
 393 member. In order to facilitate a more general application of the PS joints under other member loss scenarios, PS
 394 joints in truss-PSJ are re-designed following the method presented above. The modelling approach for the sliding
 395 joints, along with the general modelling considerations, follows the validated FE model as described in the previous
 396 section.

397 *6.1. Design of PS joints in the new truss-PSJ*

398 Fig. 14 shows the results of the sliding resistance design. The AP analysis in step 2 and step 4 are performed
399 using a nonlinear static analysis procedure with a dynamic increase factor of 1.4. Considering the bilateral
400 symmetric configuration of the truss, there are only two top chord member removal scenarios and three bottom
401 chord member removal scenarios. It is concluded from step 1 to step 3 that PS joints are to be used at BJ2 and BJ3
402 (the removal of TC3 shall increase the unbalanced force of BJ3). Through step 4 and step 5, the design sliding
403 resistances of BJ2 and BJ3 are determined as $R_{BJ2}=R_{BJ3}=1.1 \times 2.55 \text{ kN} = 2.8 \text{ kN}$. All other joints, including all four
404 top joints and bottom joint BJ1 and BJ4, use the standard pinned joint connectors. This new truss model is referred
405 as truss-PSJ-new to distinguish it from the truss model in the experimental program (truss-PSJ).

406 *6.2. Case 1: Removal of DM2*

407 The sliding resistance of BJ2 in truss-PSJ-new is much less than that being used in truss-PSJ, therefore, the
408 study on DM2 removal scenario helps to investigate the effect of different sliding resistances.

409 The removal of DM2 leads to catenary action along the bottom chord and generates an increased unbalanced
410 force at BJ2. As shown in Fig. 15a, the unbalanced force required to trigger the sliding mechanism of BJ2 is reached
411 at about 0.16 s, and then the unbalanced force of this joint is largely released. The final sliding distance is about 157
412 mm. It is noted that although the sliding start time is 0.05 s ahead of that in the FE model of truss-PSJ, the sliding
413 distance and the re-balanced deformation shape of the remaining structure are almost identical for these two FE
414 models. Fig. 15b further compares the vertical displacement histories at the mid-span of the top chord. The results
415 match well with only a very small difference after 0.16 s due to the different sliding start times.

416 Different sliding resistances will tend to result in different sliding start times, but the sliding distance and the
417 associated re-balanced state are determined by the force flow of the remaining structure and thus should not be

418 affected significantly. Therefore, although there can be many possible choices of design sliding resistance, it is
419 reasonable to design the sliding resistance to be just above the minimum sliding resistance demand (Eq. 12), to
420 ensure a timely activation of the sliding mechanism of the PS joints following a triggering event.

421 *6.3. Case 2: Removal of TC1*

422 When initial local failure occurs at a top chord member, the catenary action shall develop along the bottom
423 chord, and the PS joints are expected to play a similar role in maximizing the function of the catenary action as they
424 do under the diagonal member loss scenario. Herein TC1 is chosen as the removed top chord member to examine
425 the performance of the PS joints.

426 As shown in Fig. 16a, the sliding mechanism of BJ2 is activated at about 0.17 s after TC1 is removed. This is
427 very close to the DM2 removal case because for truss-PJ with non-slidable joints the removal of DM2 and TC1 lead
428 to almost identical deformation shapes (refer to Fig. 13) and thereby similar unbalanced forces of the bottom joints.
429 Fig. 16b shows the re-balanced deformation shape of the remaining structure with a sliding distance of BJ2 being
430 about 159 mm, which is also very close to the DM2 removal case.

431 *6.4. Case 3: Removal of BC3*

432 Among all bottom chord members, the removal of BC3 leads to the largest unbalanced forces at BJ2 and BJ3,
433 thus this scenario is investigated.

434 When BC3 suddenly fails, arch action is developed to provide the bridge-over capacity for the remaining
435 structure. Fig. 17a shows the unbalanced forces at BJ2 and BJ3. It is noted that the unbalanced forces have always
436 been below the design sliding resistance of the PS joints, thus the sliding mechanism of both joints is not activated.
437 The remaining structure regains a balanced state easily with its original position maintained, as shown in Fig. 17b.

438 **7. Conclusions**

439 This paper presents a study on a new type of truss joint, called Pinned-Slidable or PS joint, for enhancing the
440 progressive collapse resistance of planar trusses. A PS joint stays fixed on the bottom chord without sliding under
441 the design loads, but can slide along the bottom chord to help distribute the unbalanced tensile forces that the
442 catenary action generates in different bottom chord members in a member removal scenario. The working
443 mechanism of the PS joint has been explained in detail, and a full design approach has also been provided for
444 implementation of this new type of truss joint in practice. An experimental study has been carried out on a warren
445 truss with the PS joints as the bottom joints (truss-PSJ) under a sudden removal of a diagonal members, and the
446 response is compared with that of its conventional counterpart with non-slidable joints (truss-PJ). Finite element
447 analyses have also been conducted to further examine the performance of PS joints under different progressive
448 collapse scenarios. The following main conclusions may be drawn:

449 (1) The sliding resistance of the PS joint can be controlled through the pressure applied by the preloaded bolts
450 and the size of the locking rod, which can be designed according to the design schemes proposed in this paper. Two
451 design schemes for the PS joints may be adopted, namely, a) the “strong bolts, weak rod” scheme, in which the
452 design sliding resistance is fully achieved by the static friction generated by the preloaded bolts, and b) the “weak
453 bolts, strong rod” scheme, in which the design sliding resistance is achieved by both the kinetic friction generated
454 by the preloaded bolts and the shear resistance of a locking rod.

455 (2) Results from the experiments demonstrate that much larger tensile forces develop in the mid-span area of
456 the bottom chord members than in the neighboring bottom chord members after the removal of a diagonal member,
457 leading to the actual sliding of a PS joint. The sliding of the PS joint not only releases the excessive unbalanced
458 forces between neighboring members and thus enables a fuller development of the catenary action, but also
459 facilitates the adaptation of the remaining structure towards a new balanced state with a near-optimal deformation
460 shape.

461 (3) Finite element analyses demonstrate that the proposed design procedure for the sliding resistance of the PJ
462 joints is effective in that sliding of the PS joints can be timely realized when necessary, and thereby improves the
463 overall progressive collapse resistance of the truss structures.

464 The experimental and numerical studies in this paper have been focused on the PS joints with a “strong bolts,
465 weak rod” design. Although the same principle applies, further investigations into the actual effectiveness of PS
466 joints with a “weak bolts, strong rod” design is useful and this extended work is currently underway. Meanwhile,
467 the concept of the PS joints represents an attempt to develop an adaptive truss system that would lead to
468 maximization of the resistance of the structure against accidental exposures. To this end, further investigations are
469 still needed to improve and optimize the design of the PS joint and explore possible use of other types of structural
470 connections with adaptive functions.

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476 is also appreciated.

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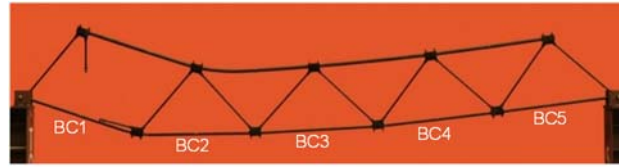
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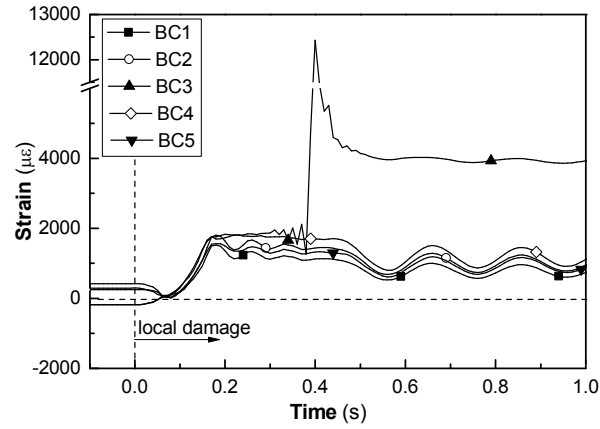
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507 **Figure**

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(a)

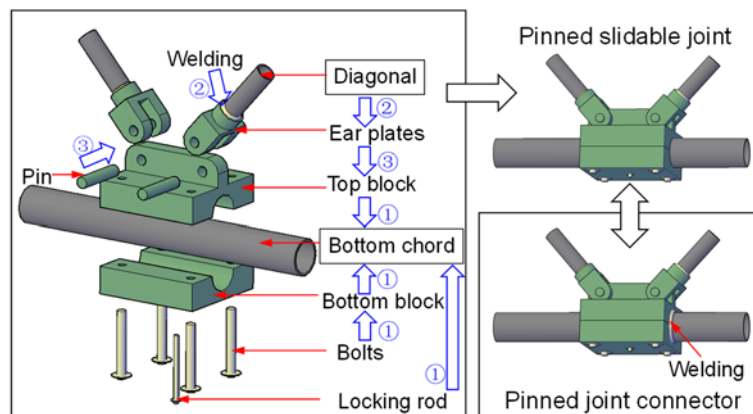


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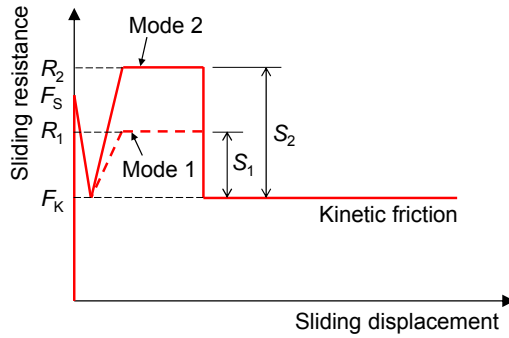
(b)

512 Fig. 1. Catenary action developed under a diagonal member loss scenario in the truss-PJ test in [6]. (a) Re-
513 balanced state; (b) axial strains in bottom chord members.

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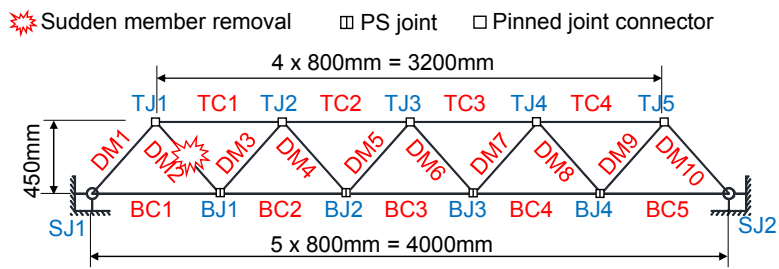


515 Fig. 2. Pinned slidable joint.



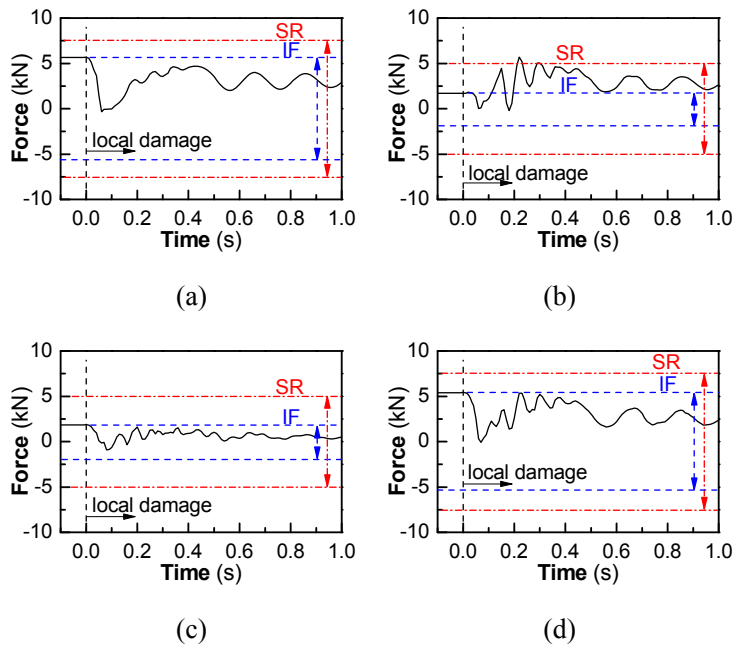
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517 Fig. 3. Sliding resistance of a PS joint with two possible modes.



518

519 Fig. 4. Overview of truss-PSJ and designation of members and joints.



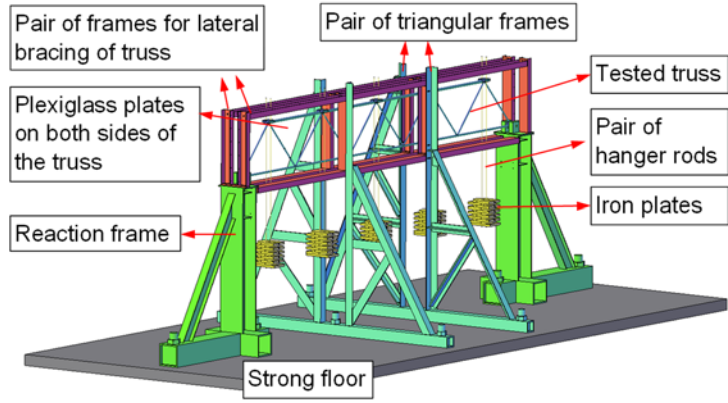
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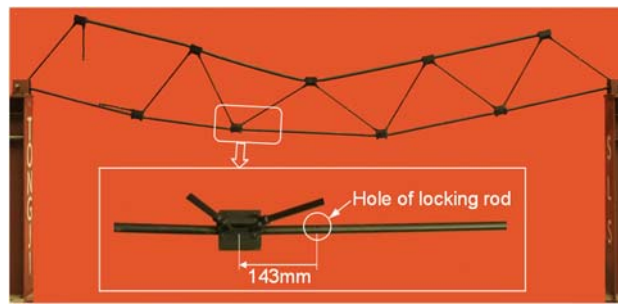
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524 Fig. 5. Unbalanced force histories of the bottom joints in truss-PJ, and the immobilizing force (IF) and the sliding
 525 resistances (SR) of the PS joints in truss-PSJ. (a) BJ1; (b) BJ2; (c) BJ3; (d) BJ4.



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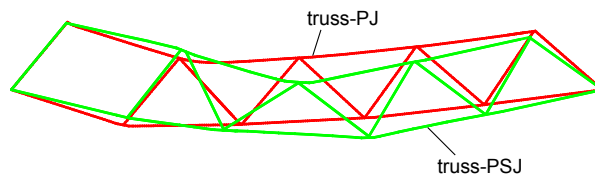
527 Fig. 6. Test setup



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(a)



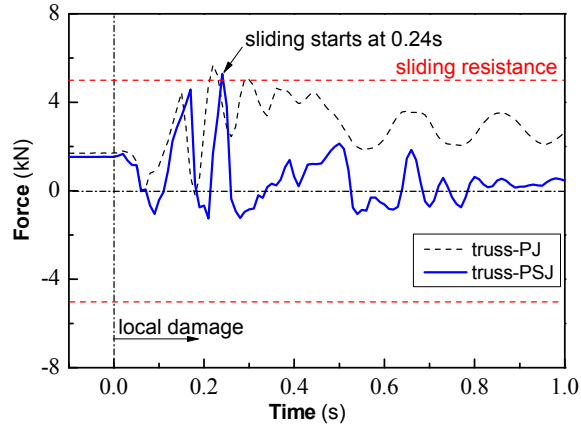
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(b)

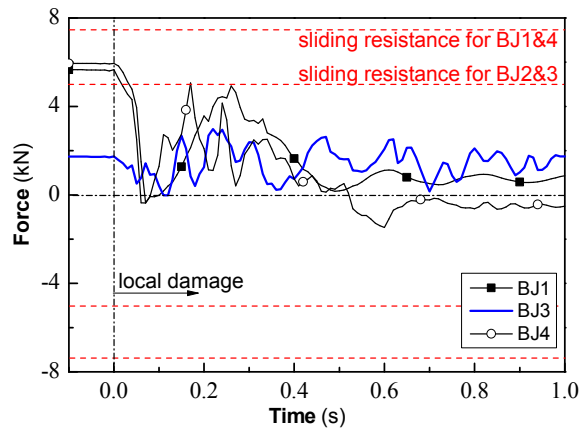
532 Fig. 7. Re-balanced state of truss-PSJ following the removal of DM2. (a) BJ2 slid along the bottom chord for

533 143mm; (b) comparison between truss-PSJ and truss-PJ.



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535

(a)

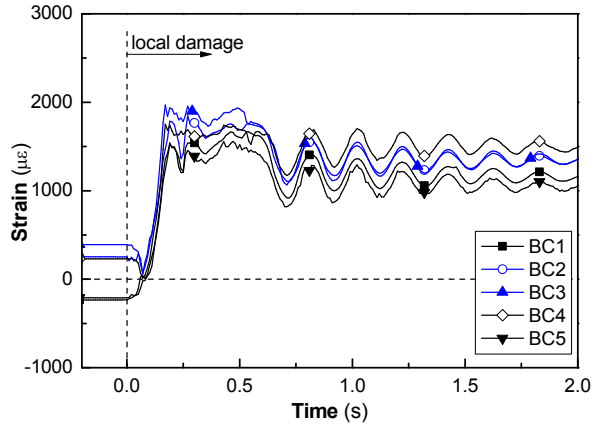


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(b)

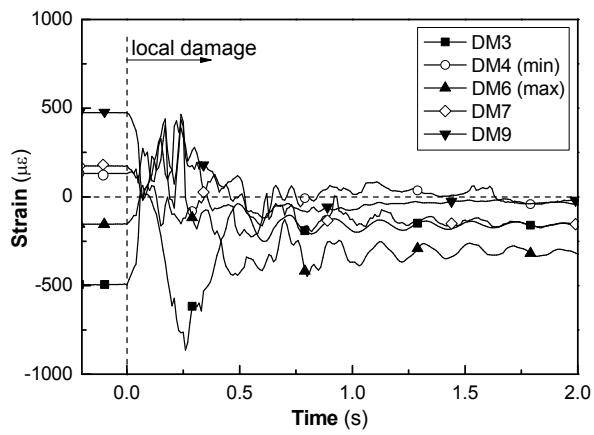
538 Fig. 8. Unbalanced force of bottom joints. (a) BJ2; (b) BJ1, BJ3 and BJ4.

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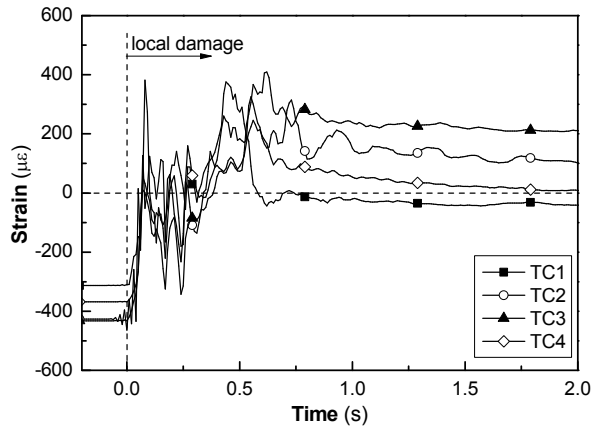
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(a)



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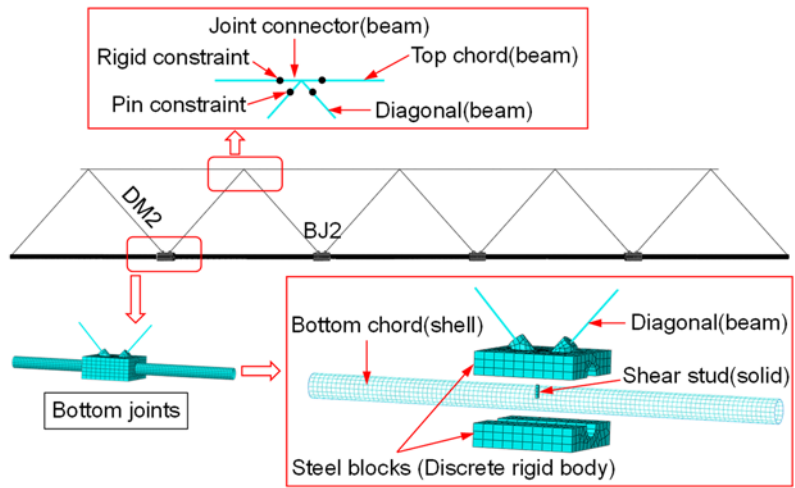
(b)



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(c)

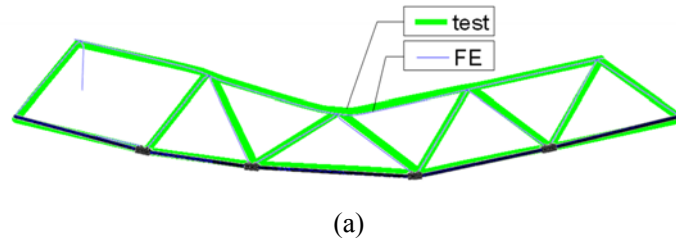
546 Fig. 9. Axial strain in members of truss-PSJ. (a) Bottom chord members; (b) diagonal members; (c) top chord
547 members.



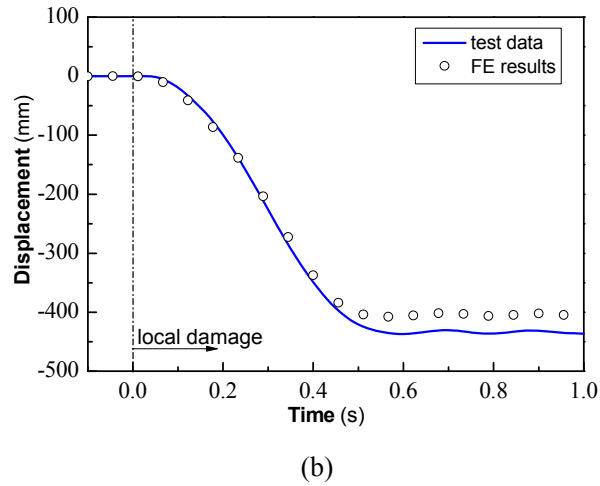
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549 Fig. 10. FE model of truss-PSJ

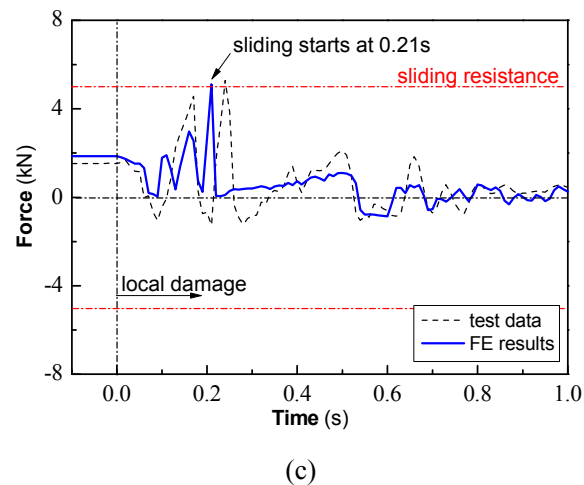
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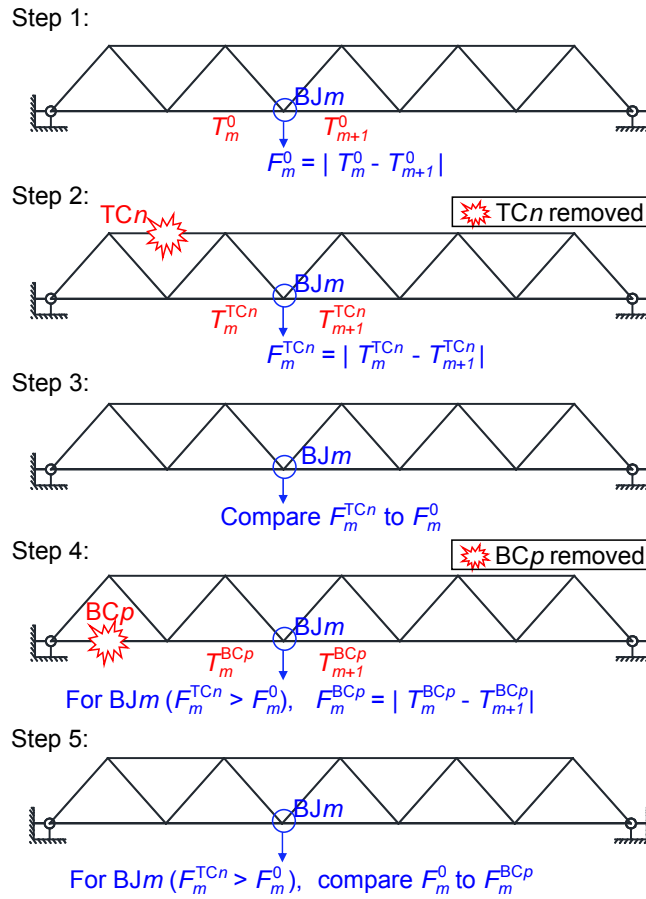
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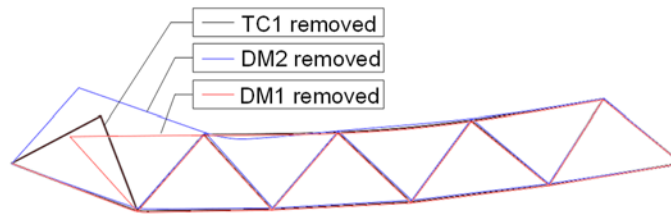


556 Fig. 11. Comparison of test and FE results of truss-PSJ. (a) Balanced configuration; (b) vertical displacement of
557 TC3; (c) unbalanced force of BJ2.



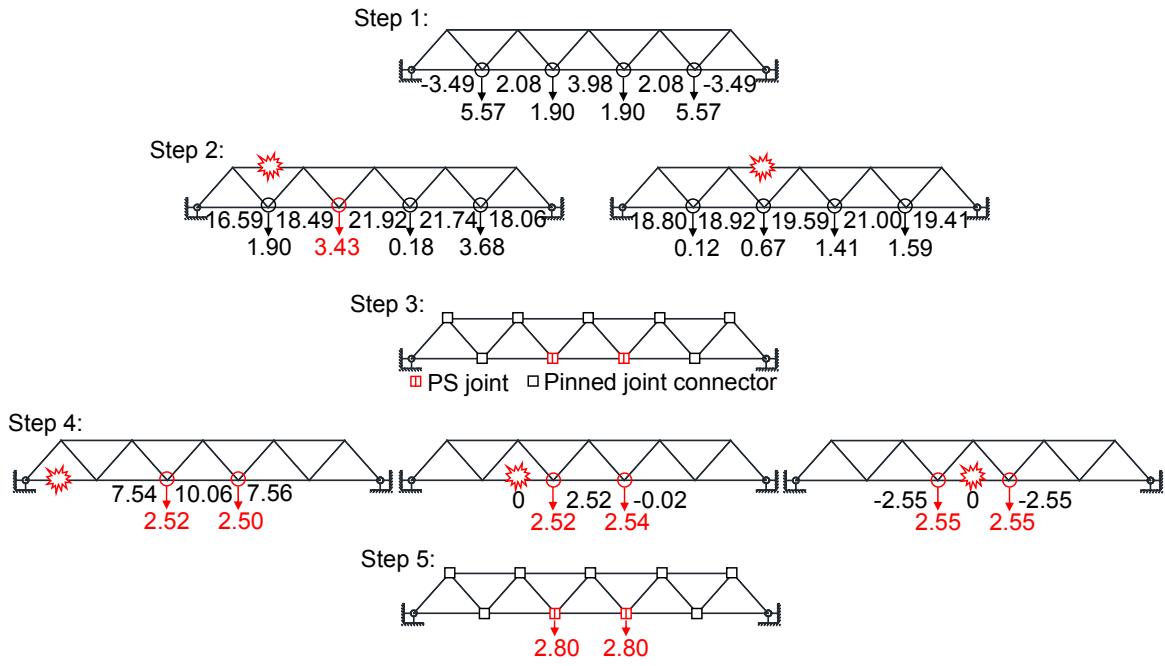
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559 Fig. 12. Method for sliding resistance design of PS joints.



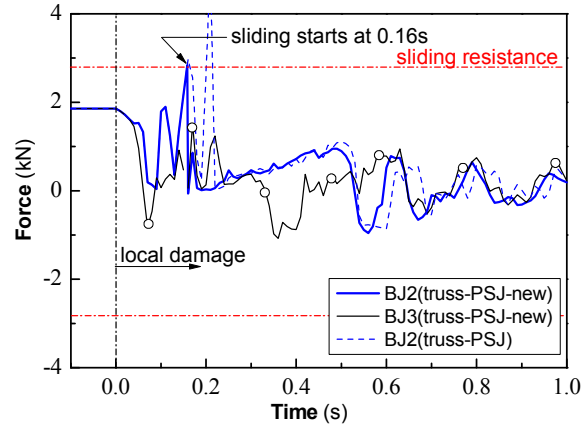
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561 Fig. 13. Re-balanced deformation shapes of truss-PJ subjected to removal of TC1, DM1 and DM2.



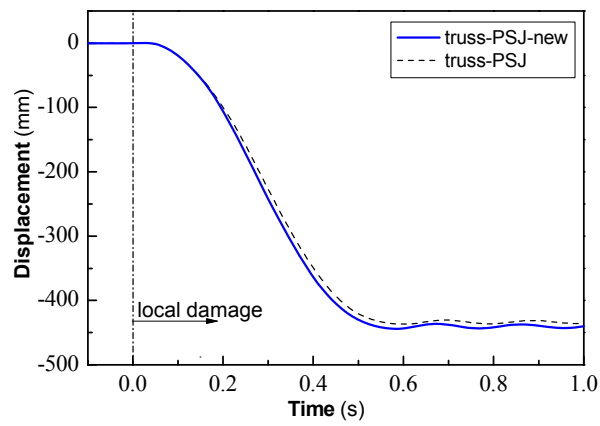
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563 Fig. 14. Design of PS joints for truss-PSJ-new. (Unit: kN)



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(a)

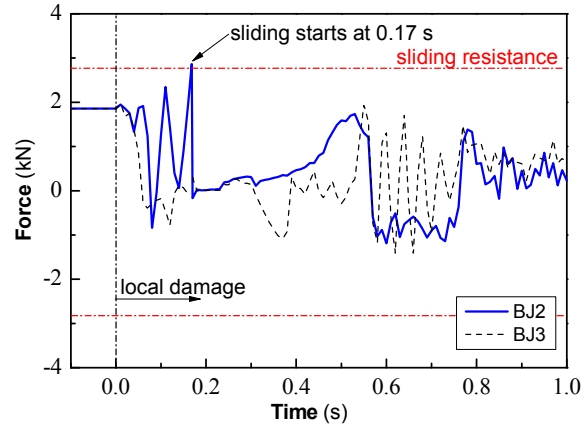


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(b)

568 Fig. 15. Results of truss-PSJ-new following removal of DM2 and their comparison against truss-PSJ. (a)

569 Unbalanced force of BJ2 and BJ3; (b) vertical displacement of TJ3.



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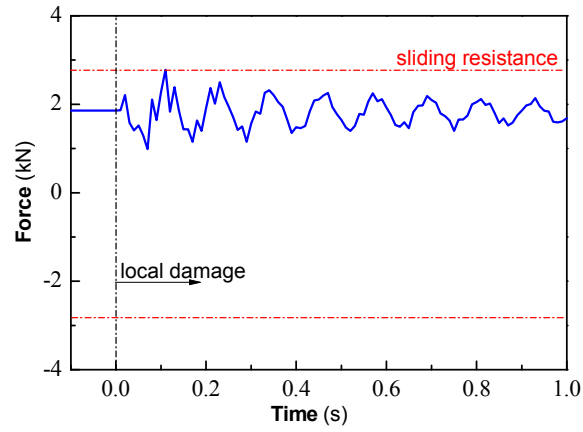
(a)



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(b)

574 Fig. 16. Results of truss-PSJ-new following removal of TC1. (a) Unbalanced force of BJ2 and BJ3; (b) Re-
575 balanced deformation shape.



576
577

(a)



578
579

(b)

580 Fig. 17. Results of truss-PSJ-new following removal of BC3. (a) Unbalanced force of BJ2 and BJ3; (b) Re-
581 balanced deformation shape.

582

583 **Tables**

584 Table 1. Cross-sections and mechanical properties of members

	Cross-section	Yield strength f_y (MPa)	Ultimate strength f_u (MPa)	Fracture strain ϵ_u^a
TC	$\phi 25 \times 1.5$	300	409	0.26
BC	$\phi 20 \times 1$	305	418	0.26
DM	$\phi 14 \times 1$	278	415	0.35

585 ^a Fracture strain is based on proportional coupon gauge length of $5.65\sqrt{S_0}$, where S_0 = original cross-section area of coupons.

586