

4 Frame Design

4.1 FRAME DESIGN BY ELASTIC ANALYSIS

Traditionally, portal frame analysis and design in Australia has been elastic rather than plastic. Although AS 4100 [1] is a limit states code with section and member capacities based on the plastic moment of resistance, the main method in the code for determining the forces and bending moments in a frame is still elastic analysis whether linear or non-linear. Plastic analysis may lead to more economical structures in some cases but the availability of plastic design software is limited. By contrast, design software for elastic design has continually evolved and is now very user-friendly. There is also the added complication of the non-uniform, asymmetric nature of the wind load which makes plastic design even more difficult. Hence plastic design tends to be very labour intensive and elastic analysis is needed anyway to calculate deflections. Methods of plastic design were demonstrated in previous editions of this book.

In the Australian wind code AS/NZS 1170.2 [2], coefficients for external pressures, unless the roof pitch is 10° or greater, or h/d is greater than 0.5, decrease in steps starting from -0.9 at the windward edge to -0.5 to -0.3 to -0.2 , or alternatively from -0.4 to 0 , $+0.1$ and $+0.2$. For transverse wind cases, this non-uniform pressure can be handled easily by an elastic analysis using a plane frame computer program. In fact, it would be extremely difficult to take advantage of the reduction in pressure and achieve an economical structure without recourse to a plane frame computer program.

In the design of rafters and columns in portal frames, the selection of the member sizes may be governed by the ultimate *strength limit state*, or by limiting deflections in the *serviceability limit state*. For the strength limit state, the design axial and bending capacities ϕN_c and ϕM_{bx} respectively are obtained through a consideration of flexural and flexural-torsional buckling respectively.

To obtain an economical rafter design, it is important to ensure that the design bending strength is as close as possible to the section capacity ϕM_{sx} , which for many sections will be the plastic moment capacity $\phi S f_y$. This capacity is usually achieved by the use of adequate restraints such as fly braces to restrain the inside rafter and column flanges laterally when in compression. Of course, there are some cases where deflections govern the design, and these are discussed in Section 4.9 of this chapter.

4.2 COMPUTER ANALYSIS

4.2.1 Load Cases

For computer analysis, using load cases which are complete in themselves is recommended. For example, internal pressure should be a load case by itself, and not combined with an external pressure case. The loads on columns and rafters should not be separated. Recommended load cases for a computer analysis are as follows:

1. Dead Load (DL) or (G)
2. Live Load (LL) or (Q)
3. Transverse Wind Maximum Uplift (TW1) (external only)
4. Transverse Wind Minimum Uplift (TW2) (external only)
5. Longitudinal Wind on First Internal Frame (LW1) (external only)
6. Longitudinal Wind on Downwind Frame (LW2) (external only)
7. Internal Pressure under Transverse Wind (IPTW)
8. Internal Pressure under Longitudinal Wind (IPLW)
9. Internal Suction under Transverse Wind (ISTW)
10. Internal Suction under Longitudinal Wind (ISLW)

Extra load cases may be necessary for non-symmetrical buildings, for buildings where the transverse wind terrain category is different on one side from the other, and for buildings where it may be an advantage to consider different wind speeds in different directions. Transverse wind load combinations with internal suction are not often critical, but designers should check such combinations nevertheless. It is possible that the hogging moment at the downwind knee joint will be worse under dead load, transverse wind and internal suction ($1.2DL + TW + IS$) than under dead load plus live load ($1.2DL + 1.5LL$). This particularly affects the downwind column as its unrestrained inside flange will be in compression. The internal suction case (IS) can be obtained simply by factoring the internal pressure load case by an appropriate negative number but the design example in this book uses separate load cases for internal suction.

The recommended load combinations for a computer analysis are:

- **LC20:** $1.2DL + 1.5LL$
- **LC21:** $0.9DL + TW1$ (maximum uplift) + IPTW
- **LC22:** $0.9DL + TW2$ (minimum uplift) + IPTW
- **LC23:** $1.2DL + TW2$ (minimum uplift) + ISTW
- **LC24:** $0.9DL + LW1$ (maximum uplift) + IPLW
- **LC25:** $1.2DL + LW2$ (minimum uplift) + ISLW

Note that the loading code AS/NZS 1170.0 [3] states that it is not necessary to consider live load and wind load acting simultaneously.

The distribution of bending moment will not vary much from the trial to the final section properties provided that the ratio of trial column and rafter second moments of area is similar to that finally adopted. Some computer programs allow for shear deformations, although the effect is not significant. To account for shear deformations in Microstran, the web area must be input. The web area can be taken as the overall depth D times the web thickness t_w .

4.2.2 Methods of Analysis

AS 4100 permits a number of types of analysis consisting of first and second order elastic analysis, first and second order plastic analysis and advanced structural analysis. First and second order *elastic* analysis are covered in this chapter.

First order elastic analysis assumes the frame remains elastic and that its deflections are so small that secondary effects resulting from the deflections (second order effects) are negligible. First order analysis is generally carried out using plane frame analysis computer programs. Despite the basic assumption of first order analysis, second order effects are not negligible. Second order effects are essentially $P-\Delta$ effects which arise from the sway Δ of

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including
Crane Runway Beams and Monorails

Fourth Edition

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Contents

| | |
|---|----|
| CONTENTS | i |
| PREFACE..... | ix |
| NOTATION | xi |
| 1 INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1.1 Key Features of Portal Framed Buildings | 1 |
| 1.2 Design Issues | 3 |
| 1.2.1 General Design Criteria | 3 |
| 1.2.2 Structural Design | 3 |
| 1.2.2.1 Introduction | 3 |
| 1.2.2.2 Grey Areas in Design | 4 |
| 1.2.2.3 Aims of This Book | 7 |
| 1.3 Limit States Design | 7 |
| 1.3.1 Background | 7 |
| 1.3.2 Design for the Strength Limit State | 8 |
| 1.3.3 Design for the Serviceability Limit State | 9 |
| 1.4 Design Examples | 9 |
| 1.4.1 Building | 9 |
| 1.4.2 Crane Runway Beams | 11 |
| 1.4.3 Monorails | 11 |
| 1.5 References | 12 |
| 2 LOADS | 15 |
| 2.1 Background | 15 |
| 2.2 Dead Loads | 15 |
| 2.3 Live Loads | 16 |
| 2.4 Wind Loads | 16 |
| 2.4.1 Regional Wind Speed | 16 |
| 2.4.2 Site Wind Speeds | 17 |
| 2.4.3 Terrain Category | 18 |
| 2.4.4 Design Wind Speeds and Pressures | 19 |
| 2.4.5 External Pressures | 21 |
| 2.4.6 Internal Pressures | 21 |
| 2.4.7 Area Reduction Factor (K_a) | 24 |
| 2.4.8 Action Combination Factor (K_c) | 24 |
| 2.4.9 Local Pressure Factors (K_l) | 25 |
| 2.5 Seismic Loads | 26 |
| 2.6 Load Combinations | 27 |
| 2.6.1 Strength Limit State | 27 |
| 2.6.2 Serviceability Limit State | 28 |
| 2.7 Design Example - Loads | 28 |
| 2.7.1 Dead Loads | 28 |
| 2.7.2 Live Loads | 29 |
| 2.7.3 Wind Loads | 29 |
| 2.7.3.1 Basic Wind Data | 29 |
| 2.7.3.2 External Wind Pressures | 31 |
| 2.7.3.3 Internal Wind Pressures | 33 |
| 2.7.3.4 Peak Local Pressures | 35 |
| 2.7.4 Seismic Loads | 36 |
| 2.7.5 Load Cases for Portal Frames | 37 |
| 2.7.6 Load Combinations | 41 |
| 2.8 References | 42 |

| | | |
|----------|---|----|
| 3 | PURLINS & GIRTS | 43 |
| 3.1 | General | 43 |
| 3.2 | Roof and Wall Sheeting | 44 |
| 3.2.1 | Rainwater and Temperature | 44 |
| 3.2.2 | Cladding Capacity | 44 |
| 3.3 | Purlin Spans or Frame Spacing | 45 |
| 3.4 | Loads | 45 |
| 3.4.1 | Base Loads | 45 |
| 3.4.2 | Peak Local Pressures | 46 |
| 3.4.2.1 | Summary of Code Provisions | 46 |
| 3.4.2.2 | Aspect Ratio of Patches | 47 |
| 3.4.2.3 | Contributing Widths | 53 |
| 3.4.3 | Equivalent UDL's For Peak Pressure | 54 |
| 3.5 | Member Capacities | 57 |
| 3.5.1 | Manufacturers' Brochures | 57 |
| 3.5.1.1 | Design Capacity Tables | 57 |
| 3.5.1.2 | Bridging | 57 |
| 3.5.2 | Manufacturers' Software | 58 |
| 3.5.3 | R-Factor Method | 58 |
| 3.5.4 | Stramit Method | 58 |
| 3.6 | Deflections | 59 |
| 3.7 | Axial Loads | 59 |
| 3.8 | Purlin and Girt Cleats | 59 |
| 3.9 | Purlin and Girt Bolts | 60 |
| 3.10 | Design Example – Purlins | 60 |
| 3.10.1 | Methodology | 60 |
| 3.10.2 | Select Purlin Spacing | 61 |
| 3.10.3 | Outward Purlin Loading – Transverse Wind | 62 |
| 3.10.3.1 | General | 62 |
| 3.10.3.2 | Edge Zone 0 to 2600 mm from Eaves (TW- Excluding Fascia purlin) | 62 |
| 3.10.3.3 | Fascia Purlin (Edge Zone 0 to 2600 mm from Eaves - TW) | 69 |
| 3.10.3.4 | Edge Zone 2600 mm to 5200 mm from Eaves (TW) | 72 |
| 3.10.3.5 | Zone 5200 mm to 8350 mm from Eaves (TW) | 72 |
| 3.10.3.6 | Zone between 8350 mm from Eaves and the Ridge (TW) | 73 |
| 3.10.4 | Outward Purlin Loading – Longitudinal Wind | 73 |
| 3.10.4.1 | Edge Zone 0 to 5200 mm from Eaves (LW) | 73 |
| 3.10.4.2 | Zone between 5200 mm from Eaves and the Ridge (LW) | 76 |
| 3.10.5 | Check Inward Loading | 80 |
| 3.10.5.1 | Zone 0 to 5200 mm from Eaves (LW) | 80 |
| 3.10.5.2 | Zone between 5200 mm from Eaves and the Ridge (LW) | 80 |
| 3.10.6 | Using Manufacturers' Software | 81 |
| 3.10.7 | R-Factor Method | 81 |
| 3.10.8 | Purlin Summary | 83 |
| 3.11 | Design Example – Girts | 84 |
| 3.11.1 | Long Wall Girts | 84 |
| 3.11.1.1 | Coefficients & Girt Spacing | 84 |
| 3.11.1.2 | Outward Loading | 84 |
| 3.11.1.3 | Inward Loading | 88 |
| 3.11.2 | End Wall Girts with Span of 6250 mm | 90 |
| 3.11.2.1 | Coefficients and Girt Spacing | 90 |
| 3.11.2.2 | Outward Loading | 90 |
| 3.11.2.3 | Inward Loading with 1700 mm Spacing | 91 |
| 3.11.3 | Girt Summary | 93 |
| 3.12 | References | 94 |

| | | |
|---------|---|-----|
| 4 | FRAME DESIGN | 95 |
| 4.1 | Frame Design by Elastic Analysis | 95 |
| 4.2 | Computer Analysis | 95 |
| 4.2.1 | Load Cases | 95 |
| 4.2.2 | Methods of Analysis | 96 |
| 4.2.3 | Moment Amplification for First Order Elastic Analysis | 97 |
| 4.3 | Rafters | 98 |
| 4.3.1 | Nominal Bending Capacity M_{bx} in Rafters | 98 |
| 4.3.1.1 | Simplified Procedure | 98 |
| 4.3.1.2 | Alternative Procedure | 99 |
| 4.3.2 | Effective Length and Moment Modification Factors for Bending Capacity | 100 |
| 4.3.2.1 | General | 100 |
| 4.3.2.2 | Top Flange in Compression | 100 |
| 4.3.2.3 | Bottom Flange in Compression | 101 |
| 4.3.3 | Major Axis Compression Capacity N_{cx} | 103 |
| 4.3.4 | Minor Axis Compression Capacity N_{cy} | 104 |
| 4.3.5 | Combined Actions for Rafters | 104 |
| 4.3.6 | Haunches for Rafters | 104 |
| 4.4 | Portal Columns | 104 |
| 4.4.1 | General | 104 |
| 4.4.2 | Major Axis Compression Capacity N_{cx} | 105 |
| 4.4.3 | Minor Axis Compression Capacity N_{cy} | 105 |
| 4.4.4 | Nominal Bending Capacity M_{bx} in Columns | 105 |
| 4.4.4.1 | General | 105 |
| 4.4.4.2 | Inside Flange in Compression | 105 |
| 4.4.4.3 | Outside Flange in Compression | 106 |
| 4.5 | Combined Actions | 106 |
| 4.5.1 | General | 106 |
| 4.5.2 | In-Plane Capacity | 106 |
| 4.5.2.1 | In-Plane Section Capacity | 106 |
| 4.5.2.2 | In-Plane Member Capacity | 107 |
| 4.5.3 | Out-of-Plane Capacity | 108 |
| 4.5.3.1 | Compression Members | 108 |
| 4.5.3.2 | Tension Members | 108 |
| 4.6 | Central Columns | 108 |
| 4.6.1 | General | 108 |
| 4.6.2 | Effective Lengths for Axial Compression | 109 |
| 4.6.2.1 | Top Connection Pinned | 109 |
| 4.6.2.2 | Top Connection Rigid | 110 |
| 4.6.3 | Combined Actions with First Order Elastic Analysis | 110 |
| 4.6.4 | Combined Actions with Second Order Elastic Analysis | 110 |
| 4.7 | End Wall Frames | 110 |
| 4.7.1 | General | 110 |
| 4.7.2 | End Wall Columns | 111 |
| 4.7.3 | End Wall Columns to Rafter Connection | 111 |
| 4.7.3.1 | General | 111 |
| 4.7.3.2 | Continuous Rafter | 111 |
| 4.7.3.3 | Discontinuous Rafter | 112 |
| 4.8 | Rafter Bracing Design | 113 |
| 4.8.1 | General | 113 |
| 4.8.2 | Purlins as Braces | 113 |
| 4.8.2.1 | AS 4100 Approach | 113 |
| 4.8.2.2 | Eurocode Approach | 114 |
| 4.8.2.3 | Conclusions | 117 |
| 4.8.3 | Fly Braces | 117 |
| 4.8.3.1 | General | 117 |
| 4.8.3.2 | AS 4100 Approach | 119 |
| 4.8.3.3 | Eurocode Approach | 120 |

| | | |
|----------|--|-----|
| 4.9 | Deflections | 120 |
| 4.9.1 | General | 120 |
| 4.9.2 | Problems of Excessive Deflection | 121 |
| 4.10 | Design Example – Frame Design | 124 |
| 4.10.1 | Frame Analysis | 124 |
| 4.10.1.1 | Preliminary Design | 124 |
| 4.10.1.2 | Haunch Properties | 125 |
| 4.10.1.3 | Methods of Analysis | 126 |
| 4.10.2 | Frame Deflections | 127 |
| 4.10.2.1 | Sidesway Deflection | 127 |
| 4.10.2.2 | Rafter Deflection | 127 |
| 4.10.3 | Columns (460UB74) | 127 |
| 4.10.3.1 | Column Section Capacities | 127 |
| 4.10.3.2 | Column Member Capacities | 128 |
| 4.10.3.3 | Column Combined Actions | 128 |
| 4.10.4 | Rafters (360UB45) | 132 |
| 4.10.4.1 | Rafter Section Capacities | 132 |
| 4.10.4.2 | Rafter Member Capacities | 133 |
| 4.10.4.3 | Rafter Combined Actions | 134 |
| 4.10.5 | LIMSTEEL Results | 145 |
| 4.10.6 | End Wall Frames | 145 |
| 4.10.7 | End Wall Columns | 145 |
| 4.10.7.1 | Inside Flange in Tension (Inward Loading) | 145 |
| 4.10.7.2 | Inside Flange in Compression (Outward Loading) | 147 |
| 4.10.7.3 | Axial Compression Under Gravity Loads | 148 |
| 4.10 | References | 149 |
| 5 | FRAME CONNECTIONS | 151 |
| 5.1 | General | 151 |
| 5.2 | Bolted Knee and Ridge Joints | 152 |
| 5.3 | Column Bases | 154 |
| 5.3.1 | Holding Down Bolts | 154 |
| 5.3.2 | Base Plates | 155 |
| 5.4 | Design Example - Frame Connections | 155 |
| 5.4.1 | General | 155 |
| 5.4.2 | Knee Joint | 156 |
| 5.4.2.1 | General | 156 |
| 5.4.2.2 | Calculate Design Actions | 157 |
| 5.4.2.3 | Bottom Flange Connection | 163 |
| 5.4.2.4 | Top Flange Connection | 185 |
| 5.4.2.5 | Summary of Adopted Knee Connection Details | 197 |
| 5.4.3 | Ridge Connection | 197 |
| 5.4.3.1 | General | 197 |
| 5.4.3.2 | Calculate Design Actions | 198 |
| 5.4.3.3 | Carry Out Design Checks | 200 |
| 5.4.3.4 | Summary of Adopted Ridge Joint Details | 205 |
| 5.4.4 | Base Plates | 206 |
| 5.4.5 | End Wall Column Connections | 211 |
| 5.4.5.1 | General | 211 |
| 5.4.5.2 | Centre Column - Top Connection | 211 |
| 5.4.5.3 | Quarter-Point Columns – Top Connection | 213 |
| 5.5 | References | 214 |
| 6 | ROOF & WALL BRACING | 215 |
| 6.1 | General | 215 |
| 6.2 | Erection Procedure | 216 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----|
| 6.3 | Roof and Wall Bracing Forces | 216 |
| 6.3.1 | Longitudinal Wind Forces | 216 |
| 6.3.2 | Rafter or Truss Bracing Forces | 216 |
| 6.3.2.1 | General | 216 |
| 6.3.2.2 | Quantifying Bracing Forces | 217 |
| 6.4 | Bracing Plane | 219 |
| 6.5 | Bracing Layout | 221 |
| 6.6 | Tension Rods | 223 |
| 6.7 | Tubes and Angles in Tension | 226 |
| 6.8 | Tubes in Compression | 229 |
| 6.9 | End Connections for Struts and Ties | 231 |
| 6.9.1 | Tubes | 231 |
| 6.9.1.1 | Tubes in Tension | 231 |
| 6.9.1.2 | Tubes in Compression | 233 |
| 6.9.2 | Angles | 235 |
| 6.10 | In-plane Eccentricity of Connection | 235 |
| 6.11 | Design Example - Roof and Wall Bracing | 235 |
| 6.11.1 | Longitudinal Forces | 235 |
| 6.11.1.1 | General | 235 |
| 6.11.1.2 | Forces due to Longitudinal Wind | 236 |
| 6.11.1.3 | Forces due to Rafter Bracing | 238 |
| 6.11.1.4 | Forces in Roof Bracing Members | 238 |
| 6.11.2 | Ties or Tension Diagonals | 238 |
| 6.11.3 | Struts | 241 |
| 6.11.4 | Connections | 244 |
| 6.11.4.1 | End Connections for Struts | 244 |
| 6.11.4.2 | Bolts | 246 |
| 6.11.5 | Side Wall Bracing | 247 |
| 6.12 | References | 268 |
| 7 | FOOTINGS & SLABS | 269 |
| 7.1 | General | 269 |
| 7.2 | Design Uplift Forces | 270 |
| 7.3 | Pad Footings | 270 |
| 7.4 | Bored Piers | 271 |
| 7.4.1 | General | 271 |
| 7.4.2 | Resistance to Vertical Loads | 273 |
| 7.4.3 | Resistance to Lateral Loads | 274 |
| 7.5 | Holding Down Bolts | 275 |
| 7.5.1 | General | 275 |
| 7.5.2 | Design Criteria | 276 |
| 7.5.3 | Grouting or Bedding | 277 |
| 7.5.4 | Bolts in Tension | 277 |
| 7.5.4.1 | Anchorage of Straight or Cogged Bars | 277 |
| 7.5.4.2 | Cone Failure | 278 |
| 7.5.4.3 | Embedment Lengths | 279 |
| 7.5.4.4 | Minimum Edge Distance for Tensile Loads | 280 |
| 7.5.5 | Bolts in Shear | 282 |
| 7.5.6 | Corrosion | 283 |
| 7.6 | Slab Design | 283 |
| 7.6.1 | Design Principles | 283 |
| 7.6.2 | Slab Thickness | 284 |
| 7.6.3 | Joints | 284 |
| 7.6.3.1 | General | 284 |
| 7.6.3.2 | Sawn Joints | 284 |
| 7.6.3.3 | Cast-In Crack Initiators | 285 |
| 7.6.3.4 | Keyed Joints | 286 |
| 7.6.3.5 | Dowelled Joints | 287 |
| 7.6.3.6 | Joint Spacing and Reinforcement | 287 |

| | | |
|----------|---|-----|
| 7.7 | Design Example – Footings | 288 |
| 7.7.1 | Typical Portal Footings | 288 |
| 7.7.1.1 | Bored Piers | 288 |
| 7.7.1.2 | Compare Pad Footings | 290 |
| 7.7.2 | End Wall Column Footings | 291 |
| 7.7.3 | Main Portal Footings in Bracing Bays | 292 |
| 7.7.3.1 | Corner Columns | 292 |
| 7.7.3.2 | Column on Grid B2 | 292 |
| 7.7.3.3 | Columns on Grids A2, A8 and B8 | 293 |
| 7.7.4 | Holding Down Bolts for Portal Columns | 293 |
| 7.7.5 | Holding Down Bolts for End Wall Columns | 294 |
| 7.8 | Design Example - Slab | 294 |
| 7.8.1 | Design Criteria | 294 |
| 7.8.2 | Slab Thickness Design | 294 |
| 7.8.3 | Joints | 295 |
| 7.8.4 | Reinforcement | 296 |
| 7.9 | References | 296 |
| 8 | CRANE RUNWAY BEAMS | 297 |
| 8.1 | General | 297 |
| 8.2 | Design Procedure for Crane Runways and Supporting Structure | 299 |
| 8.3 | Design of Crane Runway Beams | 300 |
| 8.3.1 | General | 300 |
| 8.3.2 | Design Loads and Moments | 300 |
| 8.3.3 | Member Capacity in Major Axis Bending ϕM_{bx} | 301 |
| 8.3.3.1 | AS 4100 Beam Design Rules | 301 |
| 8.3.3.2 | Proposed Monosymmetric Beam Design Rules | 302 |
| 8.3.4 | Crane Runway Beam Deflections | 305 |
| 8.4 | Design of Supporting Structure | 305 |
| 8.4.1 | Portal Frame Structure | 305 |
| 8.4.2 | Portal Frame Loads | 306 |
| 8.4.2.1 | General | 306 |
| 8.4.2.2 | Serviceability Wind Speeds | 306 |
| 8.4.3 | Portal Frame Deflection Limits | 307 |
| 8.5 | Design Example – Crane Runway Beams and Supporting Structure | 308 |
| 8.5.1 | General | 308 |
| 8.5.2 | Load Cases | 309 |
| 8.5.3 | Crane Runway Beams | 311 |
| 8.5.3.1 | Major Axis Bending Moments | 311 |
| 8.5.3.2 | Minor Axis Bending Moments | 312 |
| 8.5.3.3 | Combined Actions | 315 |
| 8.5.3.4 | Check Major Axis Compound Section Moment Capacity ϕM_{sy} | 315 |
| 8.5.3.5 | Deflections | 315 |
| 8.5.3.6 | Vertical Shear Capacity | 316 |
| 8.5.3.7 | Shear Buckling Capacity | 316 |
| 8.5.3.8 | Shear and Bending Interaction | 317 |
| 8.5.3.9 | Bearing Capacity of Crane Runway Beam | 317 |
| 8.5.3.10 | Check Local Transverse Bending of Compression Flange | 319 |
| 8.5.3.11 | Check Effect of Vertical Loads on Web | 321 |
| 8.5.3.12 | Check Effect of Eccentric Rail Loading on Crane Runway Beam Web | 321 |
| 8.5.3.13 | Check Effect of Web Buckling Under Vertical Loads | 324 |
| 8.5.3.14 | Fatigue | 325 |
| 8.5.3.15 | Check Effect of Eccentric Corbel Loading on Column | 325 |
| 8.5.4 | Check Portal Frame | 327 |
| 8.5.4.1 | General | 327 |
| 8.5.4.2 | Loads | 327 |
| 8.5.4.3 | Load Combinations | 329 |
| 8.5.4.4 | Columns | 329 |

| | | |
|--------------|---|-----|
| 8.6 | References | 334 |
| Appendix 8.1 | Design Capacity Tables | 335 |
| Appendix 8.2 | Background to Design Capacity Tables | 342 |
| 9 | MONORAILS | 349 |
| 9.1 | Introduction | 349 |
| 9.2 | Structural Design | 350 |
| 9.2.1 | General | 350 |
| 9.2.2 | Loads | 350 |
| 9.2.2.1 | General | 350 |
| 9.2.2.2 | Vertical Loads | 351 |
| 9.2.2.3 | Lateral Loads | 352 |
| 9.2.2.4 | Dynamic Factors | 352 |
| 9.2.3 | Member Capacity in Major Axis Bending ϕM_{bx} | 353 |
| 9.2.3.1 | General | 353 |
| 9.2.3.2 | Segments Restrained at Both Ends | 353 |
| 9.2.3.3 | Cantilevers | 354 |
| 9.2.4 | Elastic Buckling Moment M_{oa} - Effective Length Approach | 354 |
| 9.2.4.1 | General | 354 |
| 9.2.4.2 | Typical Values of k_t , k_r and k_l | 355 |
| 9.2.5 | Elastic Buckling Moment M_{ob} – Design by Buckling Analysis | 357 |
| 9.2.5.1 | Advantages of Using Design by Buckling analysis | 357 |
| 9.2.5.2 | Single and Continuous Spans | 357 |
| 9.2.5.3 | Cantilevers | 358 |
| 9.2.6 | Member Capacity in Major Axis Bending ϕM_{bxc} for Curved Monorails | 360 |
| 9.2.7 | Local Bottom Flange Bending | 361 |
| 9.2.8 | Web Thickness | 365 |
| 9.2.9 | Deflections | 365 |
| 9.3 | Design Example I – 2 Tonne Single Span Monorail | 366 |
| 9.3.1 | Description | 366 |
| 9.3.2 | Design Loads | 367 |
| 9.3.3 | Preliminary Sizing | 367 |
| 9.3.4 | Check Flange Thickness | 368 |
| 9.3.5 | Check Member Bending Capacity | 369 |
| 9.3.5.1 | Design by Buckling Analysis | 369 |
| 9.3.5.2 | Effective Length Method | 370 |
| 9.3.5.3 | Comparison of Methods | 370 |
| 9.3.6 | Web Thickness | 371 |
| 9.3.7 | Deflections | 371 |
| 9.3.7.1 | Vertical | 371 |
| 9.3.7.2 | Horizontal | 371 |
| 9.3.8 | Summary | 372 |
| 9.4 | Design Example II – 1 Tonne Cantilever Monorail | 372 |
| 9.4.1 | Description | 372 |
| 9.4.2 | Design Load | 373 |
| 9.4.3 | Preliminary Sizing | 374 |
| 9.4.4 | Check Flange Thickness | 374 |
| 9.4.5 | Check Member Bending Capacity | 375 |
| 9.4.5.1 | Cantilever | 375 |
| 9.4.5.2 | Back Span | 379 |
| 9.4.6 | Check Web Thickness | 380 |
| 9.4.7 | Deflections | 380 |
| 9.4.7.1 | Vertical | 380 |
| 9.4.7.2 | Horizontal | 381 |
| 9.4.8 | Summary | 381 |
| 9.5 | Design Example III – 5 Tonne Single Span Monorail | 381 |
| 9.5.1 | Description | 381 |
| 9.5.2 | Design Loads | 382 |
| 9.5.3 | Preliminary Sizing | 383 |
| 9.5.4 | Check Flange Thickness | 383 |

| | | |
|---------------|--|-----|
| 9.5.5 | Check Member Bending Capacity | 385 |
| 9.5.6 | Check Web Thickness | 385 |
| 9.5.7 | Deflections | 386 |
| | 9.5.7.1 Vertical | 386 |
| | 9.5.7.2 Horizontal | 386 |
| 9.5.8 | Summary | 386 |
| 9.6 | References | 386 |
| Appendix 9.1 | Design Capacity Tables | 389 |
| Appendix 9.2 | Background to Design Capacity Tables | 398 |
| Appendix 9.3 | Effective Length Factors | 401 |
| Appendix 9.4 | Hoist & Trolley Data | 404 |
| APPENDIX I | DRAWINGS..... | 409 |
| APPENDIX II | FRAME ANALYSIS OUTPUT | 419 |
| APPENDIX III | LIMSTEEL OUTPUT..... | 439 |
| APPENDIX IV | LIMCON OUTPUT | 444 |
| APPENDIX V | OUTPUT FOR PORTAL FRAME WITH CRANE | 461 |
| SUBJECT INDEX | | 467 |