MODELLING AND DESIGN OF FLAT TIMBER ROOF AND HIGH PITCH TIMBER ROOF, A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS.

BY

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(NAU/2017224023)

A RESEARCH WORK SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF BACHELOR DEGREE IN CIVIL ENGINEERING (B.ENG.)

TO THE

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING

FACULTY OF ENGINEERING

NNAMDI AZIKIWE UNIVERSITY, AWKA.

MAY, 2023.

CERTIFICATION PAGE

This is to certify that this project titled **"MODELLING AND DESIGN OF FLAT TIMBER ROOF AND HIGH PITCH TIMBER ROOF, A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS"** was carried out by CHUKWU CHINAGOROM OKIKE, with Registration Number 2017224023 in the Department of Civil Engineering, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka.

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APPROVAL PAGE

This is to certify that this project work titled **"MODELLING AND DESIGN OF FLAT TIMBER ROOF AND HIGH PITCH TIMBER ROOF, A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS"** is an authentic academic work undertaken by CHUKWU CHINAGOROM OKIKE with Registration Number 2017224023 in the Department of Civil Engineering, Faculty of Engineering, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to God Almighty, who guided me all through my stay in school. And also, to my mom and mentor, Mrs Chukwu Chinyere who struggled and made sure that I’m able to acquire this level of knowledge. I am forever grateful.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

All thanksgiving and adoration go to the Almighty God for His provision and protection all through my stay in school.

My profound gratitude goes to Engr. Dr. C. A. Ezeagu and Engr Ubani who supervised and assisted me in the work and made sure that I was carried along through the learning process. I am also very grateful to the Head of the Department of Civil Engineering Engr. Ezeagu and all his staff members of Civil Engineering Department, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka for their contribution throughout my studies and stay in the school.

I equally thank God for my mother, Mrs Chukwu Chinyere, for her motivation and financial support throughout the years I spent in the school, you have been a blessing to me and also to my siblings and relations for their unalloyed support and advice. My unreserved appreciation goes to my friend Somtochukwu, Godwin, Christian and others too numerous to mention, for their understanding, support and cooperation, and also to all those who contributed to make this program a success, may the Almighty God continue to keep you all and shower His Blessings upon you.

ABSRACT

The project "Modelling and Design of Flat Timber Roof and High Pitch Timber Roof, A Comparative Analysis" aims to investigate and compare the structural and design aspects of flat timber roofs and high pitch timber roofs. Timber roofs are widely used in construction due to their aesthetic appeal and sustainability. However, choosing between a flat or high pitch design requires careful consideration of various factors such as structural performance, environmental impact, and architectural design.

Based on the findings from the literature review and modelling analysis, the project will provide recommendations for the selection of the most suitable roof design based on specific project requirements and constraints. These recommendations will consider factors such as cost-effectiveness, durability, sustainability, and architectural compatibility.

The research methodology includes an extensive literature review to gather existing knowledge on timber roof design and construction. Computer-aided design (CAD) software will be utilized to create accurate 3D models of both flat timber roofs and high pitch timber roofs. Structural analysis will be performed to assess the load-carrying capacity, stability, and durability of each roof type.

The outcomes of this project aim to contribute to the existing knowledge on flat and high pitch timber roofs and assist architects, engineers, and construction professionals in making informed decisions regarding roof design selection. The study focuses on evaluating the structural performance, environmental considerations, and design considerations of these two roof types.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

A roof has at various times and by various authors been given different definitions. While the World Book Encyclopedia (2013) defines it as the cover of any building including the materials that support it, Paton (2019) describes it as the exterior surface and the supporting structure on the top of a building or generally as the top covering of any object, and yet Ezeji (2014) defined it as a framework on top of a building comprising of steel, timber or concrete on which a covering material is placed.

A roof is a structure forming the upper covering of a building or other shelter. Its primary purpose is generally to provide protection from the elements, but it may also contribute to safety, security, privacy, insulation, and so on.

Arising from these definitions, it can be deduced that a roof is the top covering and sustaining structure for a building. It comprises of structural and non-structural members, fasteners and covering materials. The structural members are the trusses, purlins and wall plates, while the non-structural members are the noggins and slats. The covering materials are the upper coverings and the ceilings. The roof is an integral part of a building that has its outer part directly exposed to the sun and other weather elements while its inner part encloses the attic space (Ezeji, 2014).

The World Health Organization (WHO) recognizes that the roof is one of the important requirements for a house to be considered suitable for healthy habitation (WHO, 2015). This is because while a house may be inhabited without some elements of buildings such as partition walls, beams or columns, a house without a roof is not conducive for human and even animal accommodation.

Roofs may have openings or windows within them to allow light into buildings, as well as providing, access, ventilation, views, and so on. They also frequently include other features such as chimneys, communications infrastructure, building services, drainage, lighting, access routes, and so on.

Roofs can be constructed from a wide variety of materials and in a wide variety of shapes depending on the requirements they have to satisfy, the local climate, the availability of material and skills, the span to be covered and so on.

A high pitch timber roof is a roof that slopes downwards, typically in two parts at an angle from a central ridge, but sometimes in one part, from one edge to another. The ‘pitch’ of a roof is its vertical rise divided by its horizontal span and is a measure of its steepness. By definition, pitched roofs are roofs with a pitch of 20 degrees or more.

A flat roof is known as a roof that is nearly flat. It should be noted that no roof can be laid perfectly level. The roof must slope in one direction or the other to cause rain water to flow off rapidly and easily. The construction of flat roof is same as that of floors except that the top surface is made slightly sloping in case of flat roofs.

A building cannot be considered complete without a roof. As such, the structural adequacy of a roof is crucial in civil engineering because failure could result in serious danger and inconvenience to people's lives and property. A structure is a collection of parts and components connected in such a way that it can withstand the effects of loads being applied to it. These loads may be due to gravity, wind, ground shaking impact, temperature, or other environmental sources (Connor and Faraji, 2015).

Important examples related to civil engineering include buildings, bridges, and towers; and in other branches of engineering, ship and aircraft frames, tanks, pressure vessels, mechanical systems, and electrical supporting structures are important. When designing a structure to serve a specified function for residential use, the engineer must account for its safety, aesthetics, and serviceability, while taking into consideration economic and environmental constraints (Hibbeler, 2014). Researchers from all over the world are working to create new and inventive structural forms that can outperform and be more affordable than the ones currently in use. In order to replace the forms that would be found in the near future, more valuable forms would also be discovered as time goes on. As a result, structural engineers in this century have the responsibility of researching and developing structural forms that surpass those made by engineers in the century before. This creates a dynamic system.

1.2 Statement of Problem

The aim of this project is to develop an optimized and sustainable design for flat timber roofs and high pitch timber roofs. The project will address the need for cost-effective and structurally sound roof designs while considering factors such as material selection, construction feasibility, compliance with building codes and regulations, and environmental sustainability. The goal is to provide a comprehensive understanding of the design principles and considerations involved in timber roof construction and propose innovative solutions that meet both functional and economic requirement

1.3 Aim and Objective of the Study

1.3.1 Aim

The aim of this research work is to bring out a comparative modelling and designing of flat timber roof and high pitch timber roof outlining and comparing their components, forces, loads acting on them, lifespans, wind effect, cost variations.

1.3.2 Objective

The objectives of this work are:

i) To check the structural effects and structural adequacy of pitch timber roof and flat timber roof commonly used in residential buildings in Nigeria.

ii) To identify the deflection/internal forces (instantaneous and final deformation term) on flat timber roof and high pitch roof.

iii) To carry out a comparative analysis of the cost (material sections) on the high pitch timber roof and flat timber roofs as a structural member used in Nigeria.

1.4 Scope of the Study

The scope of this project is to the model, design and analyze the timber roof as a structural and load resisting member of the building (i.e. the roof truss) in accordance with Euro codes of practice.

The study also covers the comparative analysis of high pitch timber roof and flat timber roof in terms of forces, life span, loads, cost effects and thermal effects acting on roofs at residential buildings located in of Nigeria.

It is important to state that this research work is analytical work and is in compliance to the already set standards of Eurocode 5.

1.5 Significances of Study

The comparative modelling and design of high pitch timber roof and flat timber roof in residential buildings will be of immense benefit to engineers in the field of structural engineering, to contractors and other researchers that desire to carry out similar research on the above topic. The findings of the study will enlighten the above population on the performance of proper analyses when designing the roof as a structural element as well as its importance. The study will also determine the structural adequacy and stability of the roof covering in terms of loads, forces, thermal effects and resistance to failure when subjected to tensile, compressive, shear and bending stresses. The study will equally recommend the best option of roof covering to use and the types to avoid based on their good or poor performances in various conditions.

The outcomes of this project aim to contribute to the existing knowledge on flat and high pitch timber roofs and assist architects, engineers, and construction professionals in making informed decisions regarding roof design selection. Ultimately, the project strives to promote sustainable an This project aims to conduct a comparative analysis of the modeling and design aspects of flat timber roofs and high pitch timber roofs. The study focuses on evaluating the structural performance, environmental considerations, and design considerations of these two roof types. Through a combination of theoretical analysis, computer modeling, and practical case studies, the project aims to provide insights into the strengths and weaknesses of each roof type. Finally, the study will contribute to the body of existing literature and knowledge in this field of study and provide a basis for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

The project "Modelling and Design of Flat Timber Roof and High Pitch Roof in Residential Building: A Comparative Analysis" aims to compare the structural and functional aspects of flat timber roofs and high pitch roofs in residential buildings. The research involves analyzing the design, construction, and performance of these two types of roofs in terms of stability, durability, energy efficiency, and cost-effectiveness. Several studies have been conducted on the design and performance of flat roofs and pitched roofs in residential buildings.

In a study by Al-Kodmany and Ali (2016), the authors investigated the impact of roof design on the thermal performance of residential buildings in hot and dry climates. The study found that flat roofs were more effective in reducing heat gain compared to pitched roofs due to their ability to reflect solar radiation.

In another study by Lee et al. (2018), the authors compared the structural performance of flat roofs and pitched roofs in terms of wind loads. The study found that pitched roofs were more resistant to wind loads due to their sloping design, while flat roofs required additional structural support to withstand wind loads.

Additionally, a study by Yao et al. (2019) evaluated the energy performance of different types of roofs in residential buildings in China. The study found that flat roofs with insulation had better energy performance compared to pitched roofs, mainly due to the reduced heat loss through the roof.

In terms of cost-effectiveness, a study by Oti et al. (2016) compared the cost of construction and maintenance of flat roofs and pitched roofs in residential buildings in Nigeria. The study found that flat roofs were more cost-effective to construct and maintain than pitched roofs due to the lower cost of materials and labor.

Overall, the literature suggests that the choice between a flat timber roof and a high pitch roof in residential buildings should be based on several factors, including climate, wind loads, energy efficiency, and cost-effectiveness. While flat roofs may be more energy-efficient and cost-effective, pitched roofs may be more structurally stable and durable in areas with high wind loads.

This project aims to contribute to the existing literature by providing a detailed comparative analysis of flat timber roofs and high pitch roofs in residential buildings, taking into account the specific design and construction requirements of each type of roof. The findings of this research could be useful for architects, engineers, and builders in selecting the most appropriate roof design for residential buildings based on their specific needs and requirements.

2.2 Timber/wood

Wood is natural, organic, inhomogeneous, and anisotropic material which has its advantages

and disadvantages dictated by its physiological and biological factors. There are various methods and materials used for timber connections and roof coverings, each with their own advantages and disadvantages. It is important to choose the appropriate method and material based on the specific requirements of the project to ensure a safe, durable, and aesthetically pleasing timber structure.

After the technological process of making laminated timber which includes drying, adhesives, pressure, planning, etc.) the final product is far stronger that natural wood. Research conducted in last decade shows that laminated girders are less susceptible to fire and have insulating properties, while other types of materials which are more susceptible to fire quickly lose strength while burning. Water resistance is ensured by having high quality construction process and by selecting the most appropriate type of timber. Axial range of girder is 4-10m. In our area there are several types of roof structures made of laminated timber: beam girder, truss girder, cantilever, two-hinged and three-hinged frame, two-hinged and three-hinged arch, and rough girder.

2.3 Design of Timber roof

Roof design is an essential aspect of building construction, and it plays a significant role in determining the overall structural stability and aesthetic appeal of a building.

Timber has been used as a construction material for centuries due to its abundance, sustainability, ease of use, and aesthetic appeal. In recent years, there has been a renewed interest in timber as a construction material due to its low carbon footprint and high strength-to-weight ratio, which makes it ideal for use in structural applications. This has led to increased research into the analysis and design of timber structures.

One of the key challenges in designing timber structures is the variability of the material. Timber is an organic material, and therefore its strength, stiffness, and other properties can vary significantly depending on factors such as species, moisture content, and knots. This variability must be taken into account when designing timber structures to ensure that they are safe and durable.

There are several methods for analyzing and designing timber structures, including analytical methods, empirical methods, and numerical methods. Analytical methods involve using mathematical equations to calculate the stresses and strains in a timber structure, based on its geometry, loading, and material properties. Empirical methods, on the other hand, are based on experimental data and are often used to develop design rules for specific types of timber structures. Numerical methods involve using computer models to simulate the behavior of timber structures under different loading conditions.

One of the most widely used analytical methods for timber structural analysis is the finite element method (FEM). FEM involves dividing the structure into small elements and using mathematical equations to calculate the stresses and strains in each element. FEM can be used to analyze complex timber structures with irregular geometries and loading conditions, and can also take into account the variability of the material.

Empirical methods for timber structural design include the use of design codes and standards, which provide guidelines for designing timber structures based on experimental data and best practices. Examples of such codes include the American Wood Council's National Design Specification for Wood Construction and the European Committee for Standardization's Eurocode 5.

Numerical methods for timber structural analysis and design include the use of computer-aided design (CAD) software and finite element analysis (FEA) software. CAD software can be used to create 3D models of timber structures, while FEA software can be used to simulate the behavior of these structures under different loading conditions.

In recent years, there has been increased interest in the use of cross-laminated timber (CLT) for construction. CLT is a prefabricated timber panel made by gluing together layers of solid timber boards at right angles to each other. CLT panels can be used as load-bearing walls, floors, and roofs in buildings, and can be used to construct high-rise buildings. The analysis and design of CLT structures involves many of the same principles as traditional timber structures, but also involves considerations such as panel-to-panel connections and the effects of moisture on the panels.

The two most common roof designs are the flat timber roof and the high pitch roof, each with its unique advantages and disadvantages. The purpose of this literature review is to explore the modelling and design of these two types of roofs.

2.4 Flat Timber Roof

Flat timber roofs are popular in modern architecture due to their clean lines and modern aesthetic. However, their design requires careful consideration of the structural integrity of the building. In a flat roof, the roof deck must be strong enough to support the weight of any snow or water that accumulates on the roof, as well as any equipment installed on the roof such as HVAC units or solar panels. The following literature review will discuss the modelling and design of flat timber roofs.

In a study by Hui et al. (2021), the authors investigated the structural behavior of timber-concrete composite flat roofs. The study involved a series of experimental tests and numerical simulations to analyze the strength, stiffness, and cracking performance of the composite roof system. The results showed that the timber-concrete composite roofs significantly increased the strength and stiffness of the roof compared to traditional timber roofs.

Another study by Wang et al. (2020) focused on the design of flat timber roofs using prefabricated timber trusses. The study used finite element analysis to investigate the structural performance of the trusses under different loading conditions. The results showed that the prefabricated trusses were an effective solution for flat roof structures, providing high strength and stiffness with reduced material usage and construction time.

2.4.1 Advantages of Flat Roof

a) The roof can be used as terrace for playing, gardening, sleeping and for celebrating functions.
b) Construction and maintenance are easier.
c) They can be easily made fireproof in comparison to pitched roof.
d) They avoid the enclosure of the triangular space. Due to this, the architectural appearance of the building is very much improved.
e) Flat roofs have better insulating properties.
f) They require lesser area of roofing material than pitched roofs.
g) They are more stable against high winds.
h) They do not require false ceiling, which is essential in pitched roof.
i) Flat roofs are proved to be overall economic.
j) In multistoried buildings, the flat roof is only choice. Since overhead water tanks and other services are located on the terrace.
k) The construction of upper floors can be easily done over flat roofs, if required in future.

2.4.2 Disadvantages of Flat Roof

a) They are vulnerable to heavy temperature variations, due to which cracks are developed on the surface. These cracks may lead to water penetration latter, if not repaired in time.
b) It is difficult to locate and rectify leak in flat roof.
c) The speed of flat roof construction is much slower.
d) The initial cost of flat roof is much.
e) The flat roofs expose the entire building to the weather agencies.
f) The span of flat roof is restricted, unless intermediate columns are introduced.
g) The self-weight of flat roof is very high.
h) They are unsuitable at the places of heavy rainfall.
i) They are highly unsuitable to hilly areas or other areas where there is heavy snowfall.

2.5 High Pitch Timber Roof

High pitch roofs are common in traditional architecture and are known for their durability and ability to shed water and snow easily. However, their design requires careful consideration of the structural integrity of the roof trusses and the materials used. The following literature review will discuss the modelling and design of high pitch roofs.

In a study by Pino et al. (2021), the authors investigated the structural behavior of high pitch timber roofs using digital image correlation techniques. The study involved a series of experimental tests on full-scale roof trusses under different loading conditions. The results showed that the high pitch roof trusses demonstrated high strength and stiffness, and the use of digital image correlation techniques was an effective way to analyze the structural behavior of the roof trusses.

Another study by Chauhan et al. (2020) focused on the design of high pitch timber roofs using hybrid truss systems. The study used finite element analysis to investigate the structural performance of the hybrid truss systems under different loading conditions. The results showed that the hybrid truss systems were an effective solution for high pitch roof structures, providing high strength and stiffness with reduced material usage and construction time.

2.5.1 Types of High-Pitched Roof

- Mono Pitched Roof
- Couple Roof
- Close Couple Roof
- Collar Tie Roof

2.5.2 Advantages of High-Pitched Roof

a) Style: these roofs are available in various shapes and sizes and can be covered with different tiles that look visually appealing. Also, these roofs can be seen from the ground allowing homeowners and architects to express themselves freely.

b) Protection against environmental hazards: these roofs are constructed to withstand heavy rainfall, snowfall, and wind. These roofs have a triangle shape that is much more stable and stronger and provides excellent water drainage to avoid any possibility of waterlogging.

c) Thermal efficiency: pitched roof has natural ventilation under the top roof layer that greatly enhances the house's thermal efficiency, providing optimum indoor comfort in summer and winter.
d) Energy efficient: the space between the pitched roof and flat interior roof enhances the house's energy efficiency by permitting ventilation. Adding a ventilation tower to the roof during its construction to eliminates cold air in cold weather and removes hot air from the roof space in hot weather.
e) Sustainability: for pitched roofs, there are a wide variety of roofing tiles with sustainable credentials for integrating solar panels within the pitched roof's structure. Since solar panels require positioning at an angle to perform them efficiently that is already available in pitched roof, it is therefore straightforward to install solar panels on these roofs.
f) Longer lifespan: it is easier to maintain and require less constant maintenance. A high-quality natural slate roof can stay 100 years with lower maintenance.
g) Rainwater reuse: makes the reuse of rainwater easier in comparison to flat roofs. Modifying and redirecting external drainage systems in these roofs is simple. These roofs make rainwater harvesting easier. Natural slate roof tiles, which are created with natural slate and manufactured without chemical products, have no adverse effect on water quality.
h) Low-cost additional space: these roofs offer additional space within their structure that can be used as storage space or extra room at a low cost without adding a new storey.

2.5.3 Disadvantages of high-pitched roof

a) Pitched roofs puts more significant load on the building's foundations and need a greater depth of footing.
b) It is often not possible to replace a flat roof with pitch roof on a current structure.
c) These roofs are not suitable for buildings having multiple floor levels or complex plans.
d) These roofs are costlier to install and maintain.
e) Pitched roofs cannot be used for people to climb or do any kind of activity on the surface of the roof.

2.6 Methods Used in Timber Roof Design

2.6.1 BS Method

BS refers to the British Standards, which are a set of technical standards and guidelines for construction and engineering. There are several BS codes that are relevant to roof construction, including BS 5534, which covers the design and installation of pitched roofs, and BS 6399, which covers the design of buildings for wind and snow loads.

BS 5534 provides guidelines for the design and construction of pitched roofs, including the selection of roofing materials, the design of roof structures and supports, and the installation of roof components such as flashings and gutters. The standard also provides guidance on the testing and performance of roofing products, such as tiles and slates, to ensure that they meet the required standards for durability and weather resistance.

BS 6399 provides guidelines for the design of buildings to resist wind and snow loads, which can have a significant impact on the design and construction of roofs. The standard provides guidance on determining the appropriate wind and snow load requirements for a given location, as well as the design of roof structures and supports to withstand these loads.

2.6.2 American Method of Design

The American method of timber design is a set of procedures and equations used to determine the strength and stiffness of wood members. The primary design reference for timber in the United States is the National Design Specification for Wood Construction (NDS), which is published by the American Wood Council.

The American method of timber design is based on the allowable stress design (ASD) philosophy, which specifies acceptable levels of stress in a wood member based on its strength properties and safety factors.

The American method of timber design is widely used in the United States for a variety of applications, including residential and commercial construction, bridges, and utility poles.

2.6.3 Eurocode Method

The Eurocodes are a set of European standards that provide guidelines for the design and construction of structures, including timber roofs. Eurocode 5 (EN 1995-1-1) provides guidelines for the design of timber structures, including roofs. When designing a timber roof according to Eurocode 5, several factors need to be considered, including the type of timber, the dimensions of the members, and the intended use of the roof. The design must also take into account the loads that the roof will be subjected to, including dead loads (the weight of the roof structure and any permanent components) and live loads (the weight of temporary loads such as people and equipment).

The Eurocode 5 provides guidelines for the calculation of the strength and stiffness of the timber members, as well as the connections between them. The standard also provides guidance on the selection of appropriate timber grades and preservatives, and the treatment of timber to improve its durability and resistance to decay.

In addition to the structural design of the timber roof, Eurocode 5 also provides guidelines for the fire safety of the roof, including the selection of appropriate fire-resistant materials and the design of fire protection systems.

2.7 Types of load associated with timber roof

2.7.1 Dead load

The dead load for a roof refers to the weight of the roof structure and any permanent components that are attached to it, such as roofing materials, insulation, and ceiling finishes. The dead load of a roof varies depending on the type of roof construction, the materials used, and the design of the building. For example, a flat roof with a concrete deck may have a higher dead load than a sloped roof with asphalt shingles.

In general, the dead load for a roof is calculated by adding up the weight of all the structural components, including the roof decking, framing, and any permanent fixtures such as skylights or solar panels. This weight is then divided by the area of the roof to determine the dead load per square foot.

2.7.2 Live load

The live load for a roof refers to the weight of all movable or temporary items that may be placed on the roof during its use, such as people, equipment, and snow accumulation. The live load for a roof is typically determined by building codes and local regulations, and is based on the intended use of the building. For example, a commercial building with a flat roof may have a higher live load requirement than a residential building with a sloped roof. The live load for a roof is usually expressed in kilo Newton per square meter (kN/m^2) and is intended to ensure that the roof can support the weight of any temporary loads without experiencing any structural failure or damage.

In addition to the weight of people and equipment, other factors that can affect the live load for a roof include the climate and weather conditions in the area, the design of the roof and its support structure, and the frequency of use.

2.7.3 Wind load

The wind load for a roof refers to the force exerted by wind on the roof structure and any components attached to it, such as roofing materials, insulation, and mechanical equipment.

The wind load on a roof is determined by a number of factors, including the wind speed and direction, the shape and orientation of the building, the height of the building, and the type of roof construction and roofing materials.

In order to determine the wind load for a roof, engineers use complex formulas and calculations that take into account these factors, as well as the strength and stiffness of the roof structure and its support system.

The wind load is usually expressed in kilo Newton per square meter (kN/m^2) and is intended to ensure that the roof can withstand the forces generated by wind without experiencing any structural failure or damage.

Building codes and standards typically specify wind load requirements for different types of buildings and roof designs, based on the location of the building and the expected wind conditions in the area.

2.8 Structural Terms Associated with Timber

2.8.1 Timber Connections

Timber connections are used to join two or more pieces of timber together to form a larger structural element. There are various types of timber connections, including mechanical fasteners, adhesives, and traditional joinery methods such as mortise and tenon joints and dovetail joints.

Mechanical fasteners, such as bolts, screws, and nails, are commonly used in timber connections due to their ease of use and ability to provide a strong and durable connection. However, the use of mechanical fasteners can weaken the timber, particularly if the connection is not properly designed or installed.

Adhesives, such as epoxy resins, can be used to create strong and durable timber connections without weakening the timber. Adhesives can also be used to join timber to other materials, such as steel or concrete, to create hybrid structures.

Traditional joinery methods, such as mortise and tenon joints and dovetail joints, have been used for centuries in timber construction. These methods involve cutting the timber to precise shapes and sizes to create interlocking joints that provide a strong and durable connection. However, traditional joinery methods can be time-consuming and require skilled labor.

2.8.2 Roof Coverings

Roof coverings are used to protect the timber structure from the elements, including rain, snow, and wind. There are various materials used for roof coverings, including shingles, tiles, metal, and membrane systems.

Shingles are a traditional roofing material made from wood, slate, or asphalt. Wooden shingles are commonly used in timber construction due to their aesthetic appeal and ability to blend in with the natural surroundings. However, wooden shingles can be prone to decay and require regular maintenance.

Tiles, such as clay or concrete tiles, are another traditional roofing material that can be used in timber construction. Tiles are durable and long-lasting, and can provide a beautiful finish to the roof. However, tiles can be heavy and require a strong roof structure to support their weight.

Metal roofing, such as standing seam metal roofing and corrugated metal roofing, is becoming increasingly popular in timber construction due to its durability, low maintenance, and ability to be installed quickly. Metal roofing can also be made from recycled materials, making it an eco-friendly option.

Membrane systems, such as PVC or TPO, are lightweight and flexible roofing materials that are commonly used in flat or low-slope roofs. Membrane systems are easy to install and can provide excellent waterproofing for the roof. However, membrane systems can be prone to punctures and require regular maintenance to ensure their longevity.

2.8.3 Fire Protection

One of the major concerns with using timber in construction is its flammability.

In a study conducted by Gales and McDaniel (2019), it was found that the use of fire-retardant coatings on timber can significantly improve its fire resistance. Another study by Blomqvist *et al*. (2019) explored the use of water mist systems as a form of fire protection for timber roofs. They found that these systems could effectively suppress fires in timber roofs, but further research is needed to determine the most effective system design.

However, there are various methods of fire protection for timber, some of which include:

- Chemical Treatments: Chemical treatments can be applied to timber to make it more fire-resistant. For example, fire retardant coatings, which are often sprayed onto the surface of the timber, can improve fire resistance.

- Structural Design: Building designers can use structural design to improve fire resistance. For example, they can use non-combustible material for roof covering or use fire-resistant insulation.

- Sprinkler Systems: The installation of sprinkler systems within a building can also help to protect timber from fire damage.

2.8.4 Moisture Protection

Timber is also susceptible to moisture damage, which can lead to rot, decay, and loss of structural integrity. Proper moisture protection is therefore critical to ensure the durability and longevity of timber roofs.

In a study by Hietala *et al*. (2019), it was found that the use of a vapor barrier on the inside of a timber roof can significantly reduce the level of moisture in the roof space, thereby reducing the risk of moisture damage to the timber. Some methods of moisture protection for timber roofs include:

- Ventilation: Adequate ventilation can help to reduce the level of moisture in the roof space, preventing moisture damage to the timber.

- Waterproofing: The use of waterproof membranes or coatings on the roof covering can help to prevent water penetration into the timber.

- Timber Treatment: Chemical treatments such as pressure impregnation with wood preservative can help to protect timber from moisture damage.

2.8.5 Sustainability

Timber is a renewable and sustainable building material that has gained popularity in recent years due to its low carbon footprint and potential to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. However, sustainability in building with timber goes beyond just the material itself and includes factors such as the sourcing and production of the timber, as well as its end-of-life options. Some sustainable practices in building with timber include:

- Sourcing from sustainable forests: Timber should be sourced from sustainably managed forests to ensure that the timber is harvested in a way that preserves the forest ecosystem.

- Use of recycled timber: The use of recycled timber can reduce the demand for new timber, thereby reducing the impact on forests.

- Design for disassembly: Timber buildings can be designed to allow for the easy disassembly and reuse of the timber components at the end of their life.

2.9 Truss Analysis

Truss analysis is an essential aspect of structural engineering, and it involves determining the internal forces and loads acting on the truss members. Trusses are structural assemblies that respond to applied loads with pure axial compression or tension in their members. The accurate analysis of truss structures is crucial for ensuring their safety and stability. The following literature review will discuss various techniques and methods used in truss analysis to determine the forces and loads acting on them.

Truss is an assemblage of long, slender structural elements that are connected at their ends. The role of trusses in engineering Structures should not be underrated, as they form a significant component in various engineering structures Ezeagu and Offor, (2011).

In a study by Zheng et al. (2020), the authors introduced a new method for truss analysis based on artificial neural networks (ANN). The study used a dataset of truss structures to train the ANN model and predict the internal forces and loads on the truss members. The results showed that the ANN model accurately predicted the internal forces and loads with high accuracy, demonstrating the potential of this method in truss analysis.

Another study by Wang et al. (2020) used finite element analysis (FEA) to analyze the internal forces and loads in steel truss structures. The study focused on the influence of different types of connections on the structural behavior of the truss under different loading conditions. The results showed that the type of connection had a significant impact on the internal forces and loads in the truss members, and the FEA method provided accurate results for the truss analysis.

In a study by Sivaraj *et al*. (2021), the authors investigated the use of genetic algorithms (GA) in truss optimization and analysis. The study used GA to optimize the truss structures based on different design criteria such as minimum weight and maximum stiffness. The results showed that GA was an effective method for truss optimization and analysis, and the optimized truss structures demonstrated improved structural behavior with reduced material usage.

Another study by Abid *et a*l. (2021) used the finite element method (FEM) to analyze the internal forces and loads in timber truss structures. The study focused on the influence of different types of timber species and cross-sectional shapes on the structural behavior of the truss under different loading conditions. The results showed that the type of timber species and cross-sectional shape had a significant impact on the internal forces and loads in the truss members, and the FEM method provided accurate results for the truss analysis.

The most important property of any structure, truss or not, is that it be stable; i.e. not fall down. For a truss structure to be considered stable, none of the joints can be out of force balance. Trussed roof assembly design methodology has changed little over the past 30 years. Each truss is designed to carry full tributary area load (Ronald and Timothy, 2013).

The top and bottom truss members are called chords and the members between the chords are called web members. Web members that are in axial compression are called struts. Web members that are in axial tension are called ties (Flemming and Coleman, 2020). In an ideal truss, members meet at nodes or joints (also called panel points) that are idealized as hinges or pins that are incapable of transmitting bending moments. Loads are applied to an ideal truss only at its nodes. Applying loads (and supports) only at nodes keeps the truss members shear-free. It helps, too, that ideal truss analysis tended to neglect member self-weight. The centroidal axes of all truss members meeting at a node converge to a discrete point. A truss is an assemblage of long, slender structural elements that are connected at their ends. The role of trusses in engineering Structures should not be underrated, as they form a significant component in various engineering structures (Ezeagu and Offor, 2011).

Trusses are structures that consist of members arranged to form a triangular shape. These members, when brought together as an assembly, remain together as one object and are used in constructing bridges, roofs, walls, joists, floors, and towers. Specifically, they support large amounts of external loads in construction. In the aspect of supporting a roof, trusses provide a safe and healthy roof system. Additionally, they create an optimum vapor barrier to prevent the development of molds. They also help in providing good insulation and ensure proper ventilation of a structure. Trusses prevent the penetration of ultraviolet radiation into homes and structures. Trusses are environmentally friendly, promote energy efficiency, support, and strengthen roof framework (Domodroof, 2021).

In addition to their practical importance as useful structures, truss elements have a dimensional simplicity that will help us extend further the concepts of mechanics introduced in the modules dealing with uniaxial response. The most important property of any structure, truss or not, is that it be stable; i.e. not fall down. For a truss structure to be considered stable, none of the joints can be out of force balance. Trussed roof assembly design methodology has changed little over the past 30 years. Each truss is designed to carry full tributary area load. Trusses consist of slender elements, usually arranged in triangular fashion. Planar trusses are composed of members that lie in the same plane and are frequently used for bridge and roof support, whereas space trusses have members extending in three dimensions and are suitable for derricks and towers (Hibbeler, 2017).

The Webster's revised unabridged dictionary as referenced by Ezeagu (2018) defined truss as "an assemblage of members of wood or metal supported at two points and arranged to transmit pressure vertically to these points with the least possible strain across the length of any member." It also defines further architectural trusses when left visible as in open timber and steel roofs. Truss structures constitute a special class of structures in which individual straight members are connected at joints. The members are assumed to be connected to the joints in a manner that permit rotation, and thereby it follows from equilibrium considerations, to be detailed in the following, that the individual structural members act as bars, i.e. structural members that can only carry an axial force in either tension or compression. Often, the joints do not really permit free rotation, and the assumption of a truss structure then is an approximation. Even if this were the case, the design of a truss construction suggests that it can support its loads if the individual members are thought of as bars that support only an axial force. This makes it much easier to analyze the pressures acting on the structure manually, which probably contributed to their popularity up until the middle of the 20th century, for structures like bridges, towers, pavilions, etc. The layout of the structural members in the form of a truss structure also finds use with rigid or semi-rigid joints, e.g. space truss roofs, girders for suspension bridges, or steel offshore structures. The rigid joints introduce bending effects in the structural members, but these effects are easily included by use of numerically based computational methods (Krenk and Hogsberg, 2013).

A truss is essentially a triangulated system of (usually) straight interconnected structural elements; it is sometimes referred to as an open web girder. The individual elements are connected at nodes; the connections are often assumed to be nominally pinned. The external forces applied to the system and the reactions at the supports are generally applied at the nodes. When all the members and applied forces are in a same plane, the system is a plane or 2D truss. In the fields of building and construction, trusses play a great role in determining the performance of the structures. Engineers developed trusses due to the inability of some materials to carry tremendous load and pressure. The engineer is usually influenced by the architecture's considerations, the type and length of material, support conditions, span and economy, and probably chooses from three basic truss types: pitched (minor-or due pitch), parallel chord or bowstring trusses. There are examples of trusses all around us, many are hidden from sight underneath cladding or bricking but there are also many good examples of truss structures left exposed. The range of trusses in use today is quite diverse, they vary enormously in shape and size. (Ezeagu and Nwokoye, 2009).

In conclusion, the accurate analysis of truss structures is crucial for ensuring their safety and stability. The use of different techniques and methods such as artificial neural networks, finite element analysis, genetic algorithms, and timber truss analysis can provide valuable insight into the internal forces and loads acting on truss members. Overall, the literature suggests that these methods are effective for truss analysis, and their use can lead to optimized truss structures with improved structural behavior and reduced material usage.

2.9.1 Method of Joints

The method of joints is a method of analyzing a statically determinate truss by the application of the equations of equilibrium to the joints of the truss. There are two independent equations of equilibrium for each joint of a simple truss, such as the sum of all horizontal forces and the sum of all vertical forces. If these equations are sufficient to determine all the member forces and all the support reactions, the truss is statically determinate. If not, the truss is statically indeterminate. In the method of joints, free-body diagrams of the joints of the truss are drawn, and the equations of equilibrium written for each joint, with the joints treated as particles. In a statically determinate truss, the solution of these equations yields all the forces acting on the joints, and hence the forces in the truss members.

Truss analysis by the method of joints involves the same techniques used to solve problems of particle equilibrium. Each joint in the truss is considered to be a particle. Since, the force in each member is aligned with the axis of the member, the force exerted by a member on a joint is directed along the axis of the member. Forces acting on the joint can be the result of the actions of members, the actions of a support, and the effects of concentrated loads.

2.9.2 Method of Sections

If a truss is in equilibrium under the action of a set of coplanar forces, any part of the truss is also in equilibrium. In the method of sections, we divide the truss into two or more parts, each containing at least one member, by sectioning (cutting) through certain members of the truss. This sectioning does not disturb the state of equilibrium. Since each part of the truss is in equilibrium, it may be treated as a separate rigid body. Thus, we may draw a free-body diagram of a part of the truss, showing the forces in the members at the cut section.

2.10 Limit State Philosophy

Limit state design considers the functional limits of strength, stability and serviceability of both single structural elements and the structure as a whole. This contracts with allowable stress design which considers permissible upper limits of stress in the cross-sections of single members. Limit state design methods may accord more logically with a performance-based design approach. Limit state design is based on the requirement that the 'Resistance' of the structure (R) should exceed the 'Load Effects' (L) for all potential modes of failure, including allowance for uncertainties in load effects and variability in resistance and material properties (Paul *et al.*, 2011).

2.10.1 Serviceability Limit State (SLS)

Serviceability limit states consider service requirements for a structure or structural element under normally applied loads. For satisfactory design of an element at serviceability limit state, the serviceability design resistance must be greater than or equal to the serviceability design load effects.

2.10.2 Ultimate Limit States (ULS)

Ultimate limit states consider the strength and stability of structures and structural members against failure. For satisfactory design of an element at ultimate limit states, the design resistance or capacity of the element must be greater than or equal to the ultimate design load effects. The design resistance is obtained by reducing the characteristic ultimate strength of the material by a partial material factor.

2.11 Flat Timber Roof Trusses

Flat roof trusses are used to provide structural support for flat roofs in a variety of buildings, including commercial, industrial, and residential structures. There are several types of flat roof trusses that are commonly used, each with its own unique set of advantages and disadvantages. Here are some of the most common types of flat roof trusses:

1. Pratt Truss: This is one of the most common types of flat roof trusses, and it consists of diagonal members that slope towards the center of the span, along with vertical members that connect the diagonals at the center. Pratt trusses are ideal for flat roofs with a relatively short span and a low pitch.

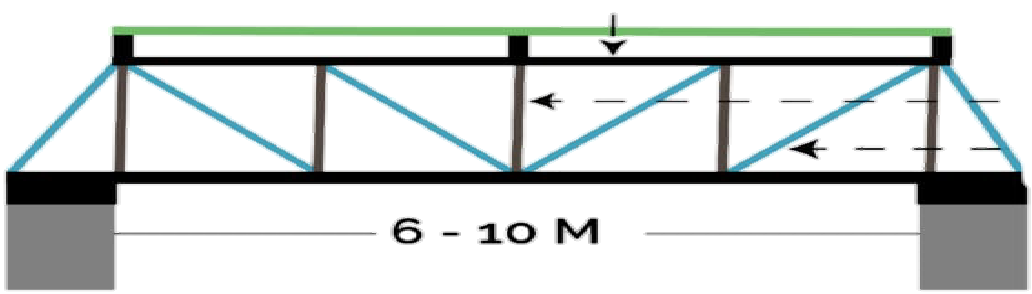


Figure 2.1. Pratt Truss Diagram

2. Warren Truss: This type of flat roof truss is similar to the Pratt truss, but it has additional diagonal members that slope in the opposite direction, forming a series of alternating triangles. Warren trusses are ideal for flat roofs with longer spans and higher pitches.

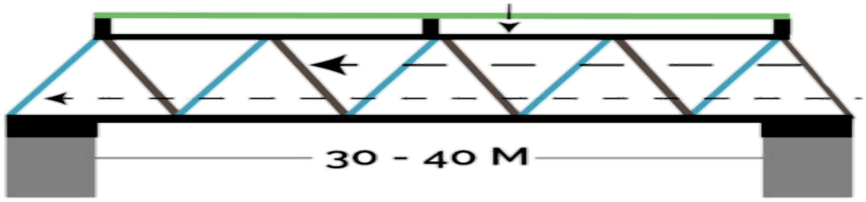


Figure 2.2. Warren Truss Diagram

3. Howe Truss: This type of flat roof truss consists of diagonal members that slope towards the center of the span, like the Pratt truss, but it also has horizontal members that connect the diagonals at the center. Howe trusses are ideal for flat roofs with a relatively short span. and a high pitch.

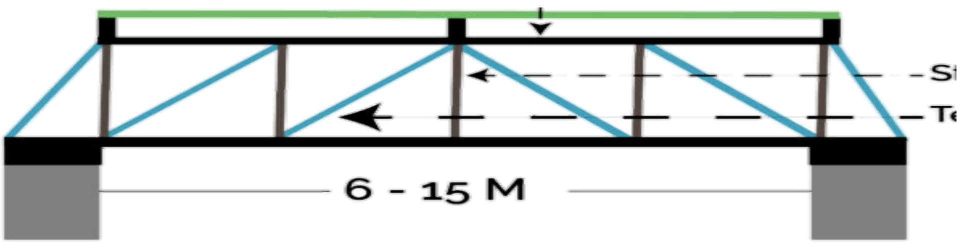


Figure 2.3. Howe Truss

4. North Light Truss: This type of flat roof truss features a series of diagonal members that slope towards the center of the span, along with a central vertical member that supports the roof load. North light trusses are ideal for flat roofs with a long span and a steep pitch, as they allow for maximum natural light to enter the building.

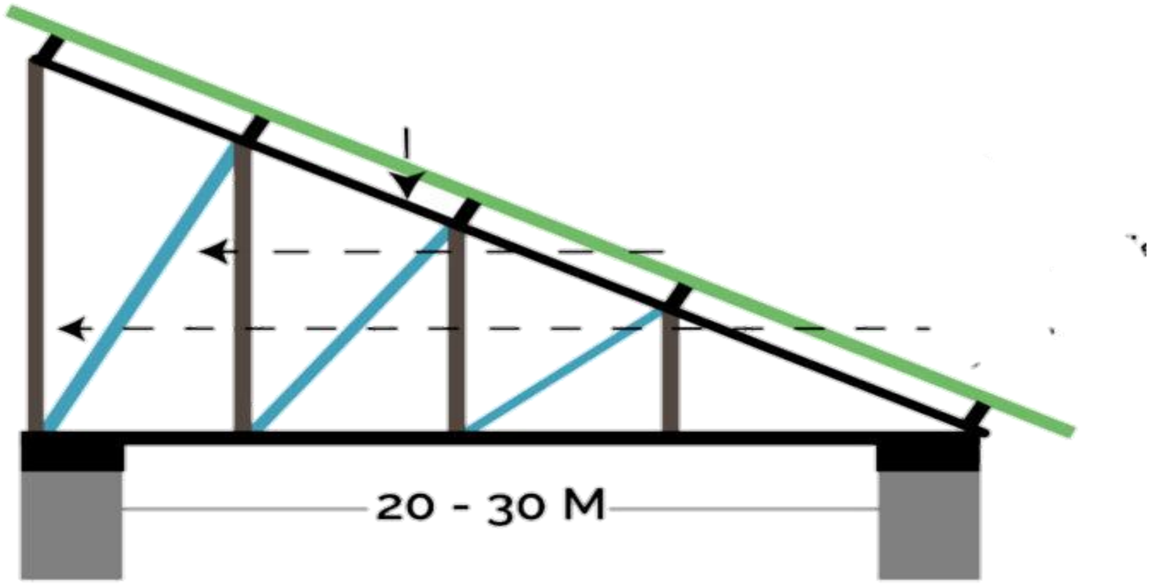


Figure 2.4 North Light Truss

5. Bowstring Truss: This type of flat roof truss features an arched shape, with diagonal members that curve upwards towards the center of the span. Bowstring trusses are ideal for flat roofs with a long span and a low pitch, as they provide excellent structural support and can be visually appealing.

In summary, the type of flat roof truss that is best for a particular building will depend on a variety of factors, including the span of the roof, the pitch of the roof, and the desired aesthetic appearance of the building. Consultation with a structural engineer or architect is often necessary to determine the best type of flat roof truss for a particular project.

2.12 High Pitch Timber Roof Trusses

High pitch roof trusses are designed to provide structural support for roofs with steep slopes. These types of roofs are often found on buildings with an aesthetic emphasis on traditional or historic architecture, such as churches, cathedrals, and residential homes with a classic design. Here are some of the most common types of high pitch roof trusses:

1. King Post Truss: This is one of the most common types of high pitch roof trusses, and it consists of a central vertical member (the king post) that supports a horizontal beam (the

tie beam) and two angled rafters. King post trusses are ideal for roofs with a span of up to 8 meters and are often used in residential homes.

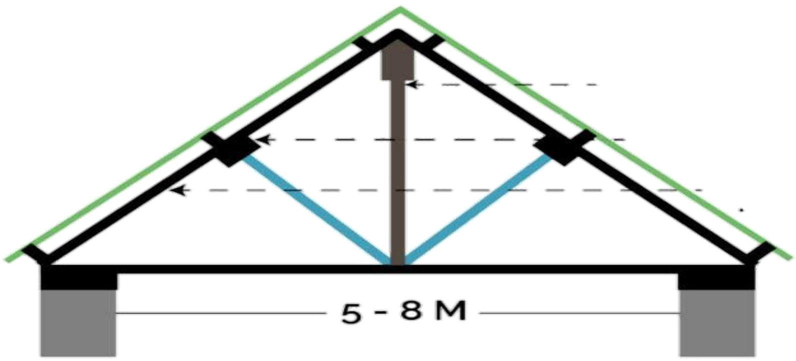


Figure 2.5. King Post Truss

2. Queen Post Truss: This type of high pitch roof truss is similar to the king post truss, but it features two vertical members (the queen posts) that support the tie beam and the angled rafters. Queen post trusses are ideal for roofs with a span of up to 14 meters and are often used in larger residential homes or small commercial buildings.

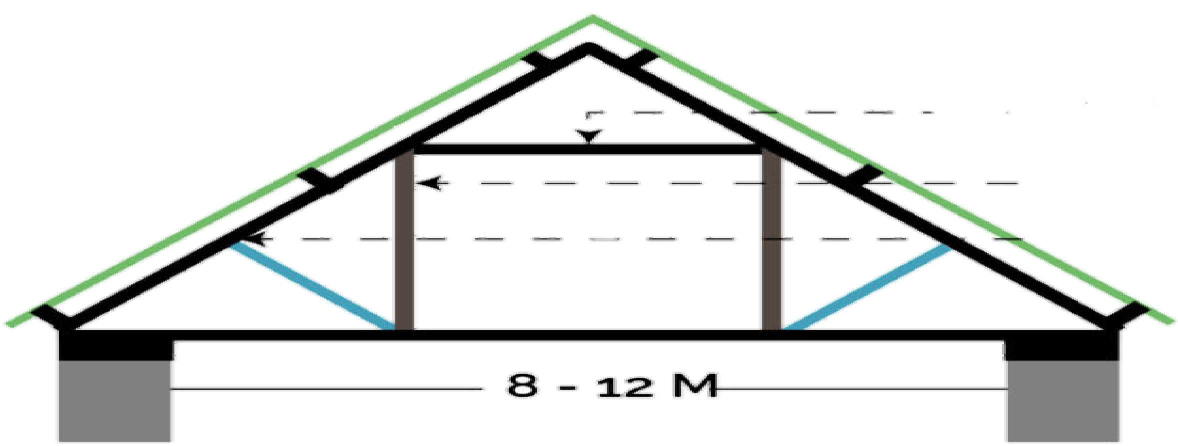


Figure 2.6. Queen Post Truss

3. Scissor Truss: This type of high pitch roof truss features two angled beams that cross each other in the center of the span, forming a "scissor" shape. Scissor trusses are ideal for roofs

with a span of up to 15 meters and are often used in residential homes with vaulted ceilings or in commercial buildings such as warehouses or factories.

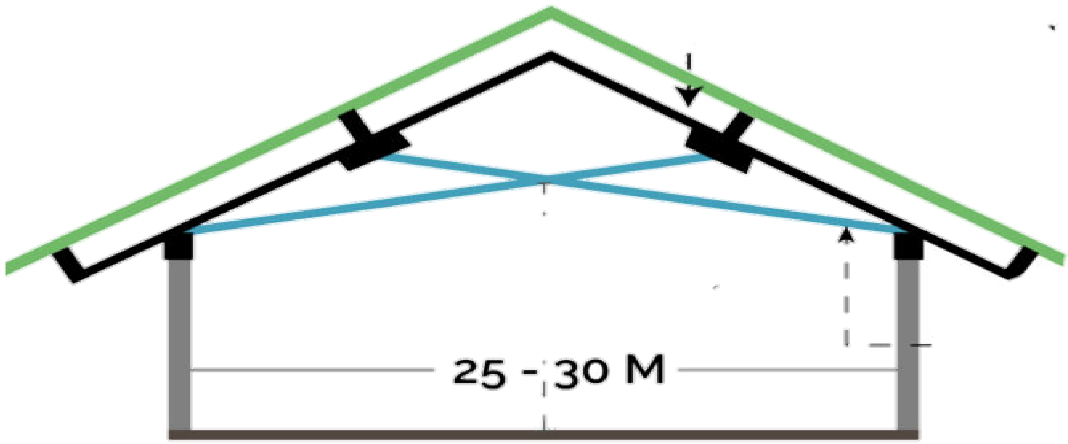


Figure 2.7. Scissor Truss

4.Fink Truss: This type of high pitch roof truss features a "W" shape formed by the angled rafters and the central vertical member. Fink trusses are ideal for roofs with a span of up to 30 meters and are often used in commercial buildings such as shopping centers or sports arenas.

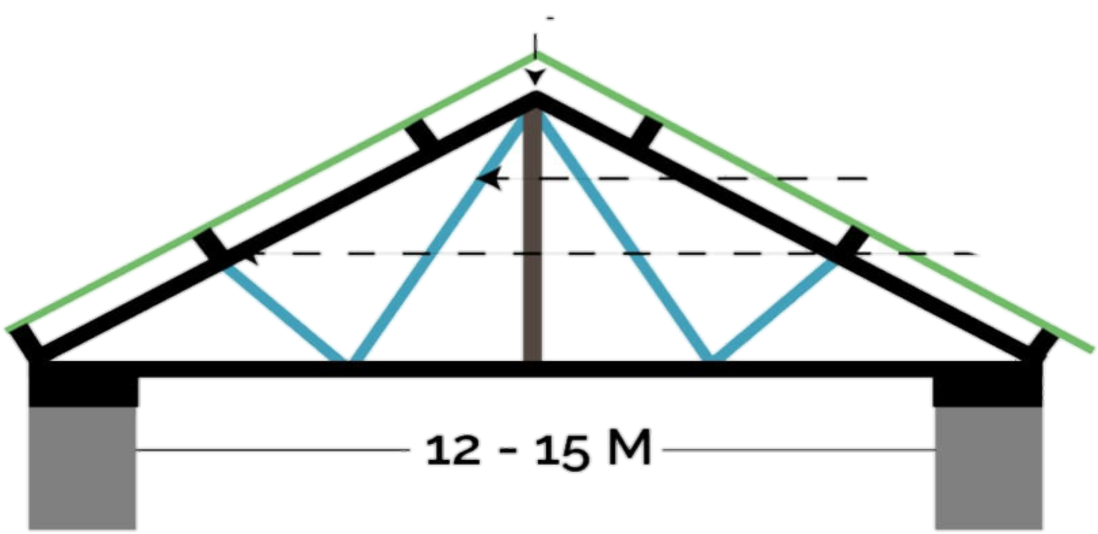


Figure 2.8. Fink Truss

5. Hammer-beam Truss: This type of high pitch roof truss is often used in churches and cathedrals, and it features a horizontal beam (the hammer beam) that is supported by angled braces and vertical posts. The hammer beam truss is ideal for roofs with a span of up to 20 meters and is often used in buildings with a grand or ornate design.

In summary, the type of high pitch roof truss that is best for a particular building will depend on a variety of factors, including the span of the roof, the desired aesthetic appearance of the building, and the required level of structural support. Consultation with a structural engineer or architect is often necessary to determine the best type of high pitch roof truss for a particular project.

2.13 Truss Terminology

- Bearing Width: The width dimension of the member providing support for the truss. Bearing must occur at a truss joint location.
- Cantilever: That structural portion of a truss which extends beyond the support. The cantilever dimension is measured from the outside face of the support to the heel joint. Note that the cantilever is different from the overhang.
- Purlin: is a horizontal structural member that is used to support the roof covering and transfer the load of the roof to the roof trusses or rafters. Purlins are typically made from wood, steel, or other materials and are installed parallel to each other across the length of the roof, with the spacing and size of the purlins depending on the design and load requirements of the roof.
- Camber: An upward vertical displacement built into a truss bottom chord to compensate for deflection due to dead load.
- Chords: The outer members of a truss that define the envelope or shape.
- Top Chord: An inclined or horizontal member that establishes the upper edge of a truss. This member is subjected to compressive and bending stresses.

- Bottom Chord: The horizontal (and inclined, i.e. Scissor trusses) member defining the lower edge of a truss, carrying ceiling loads where applicable. This member is subject to tensile and bending stresses. (On a simply supported, non-cantilevered truss).
- Clear Span: The horizontal distance between inside faces or supports.
- Connector Plate: A galvanized steel plate with teeth punched out on one side, which is hydraulically pressed or rolled into both sides of a joint to fasten chord and web members together.
- Girder: A main truss supporting secondary trusses framing into it.
- Heel: The joint in a pitched truss where top and bottom chords meet.
- Joint: The point of intersection of a chord with the web or webs, or an attachment of pieces of lumber (e.g. splice).
- Lateral Brace: A permanent member connected to a web or chord member at right angle to the truss to restrain the member against a buckling failure, or the truss against overturning.
- Overhang: The extension of the top chord beyond the heel joint.
- Panel: The chord segment between two adjacent joints.
- Panel Point: The point of intersection of a chord with the web or webs.
- Peak: Highest point on a truss where the sloped top chords meet.
- Plate: Either horizontal 2x member at the top of a stud wall offering bearing for trusses or a shortened form of connector plate, depending on usage of the word.
- Plumb Cut: Top chord cut to provide for vertical (plumb) installation of fascia.
- Scarf Cut: For pitched trusses only - the sloping cut of upper portion of the bottom chord at the heel joint.

- Splice Point: The location where the chord member is spliced to form one continuous member. It may occur at a panel point but is more often placed at 1/4 panel length away from the joint.

- Slope (Pitch): The units of horizontal run, in one unit of vertical rise for inclined

  members.

- Tie: A temporary bottom chord brace, may be omitted if ceiling is attached directly to bottom chord and provides adequate lateral support.

- Truss: A pre-built structural member capable of supporting a load over a given span. A truss consists of one or more triangles in its construction.

- Pitched Truss: Any truss in which the top chord is sloped and the bottom chord is horizontal.

- Flat Truss: A truss which has the top chord parallel to the bottom chord over the entire length of the truss.

- Webs: Members that join the top and bottom chords to form the triangular patterns which give truss action. The members are subject only to axial compression or tension forces (no bending).

2.14 Conclusion

In conclusion, modelling and designing of flat timber roofs and high pitch roofs requires careful understanding of basic beam and truss theory. Also, consideration of the structural integrity of the roof trusses and the materials used is also required. The use of numerical simulations and experimental tests can provide valuable insight into the structural behavior of these roof systems.

However, high pitch roofs are generally more complex to model due to their irregular shape and the need to support greater loads. Both types of roofs can be modelled using FEA software, but this requires a higher level of expertise and computing power.

Overall, the literature suggests that prefabricated timber trusses and hybrid truss systems are effective solutions for flat timber roofs and high pitch roofs, respectively, providing high strength and stiffness with reduced material usage and construction time.

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Materials

Two roof trusses of different types (based on roof design) of roof trusses were designed with timber species-Obeche, also known as Abaci, with density of 430Kg/m3, has the following general properties;

- Grain: The grain of obeche is typically straight, with a fine to medium texture.

- Color: The heartwood of obeche is a pale-yellow color, while the sapwood is slightly lighter in color. The wood tends to darken slightly with exposure to light.

- Strength: Obeche is a relatively soft and weak wood, with low bending and crushing strength. However, it has good tensile strength and is moderately durable and stable in service.

- Workability: Obeche is easy to work with hand and machine tools. It has good nailing and screwing properties, and it can be glued and finished with ease.

- Size: Obeche is available in a range of sizes and thicknesses, depending on the specific application.

For a fair and easy comparison, the selected trusses were all designed using timber grade strength C27 with properties;

Bending parallel to grain ($f_{m.k}$)	27 N/mm^2
Compression parallel to grain ($f_{c.0.k}$)	22 N/mm^2
Tension parallel to grains ($f_{t.0.k}$)	16 .5 N/mm^2
Shear modulus of elasticity G_{mean}	720 N/mm^2
Mean density (ρ_{mean})	430 kg/m^3
Characteristic density (ρ_k)	360 kg/m^3
Shear parallel to grain ($f_{v.k}$)	4 N/mm^2
$E_{0.mean}$	11.5 kN/mm^2

$E_{0.005}$	7.7 kN/mm^2
Spacing between truss	1 m
Width of building	12 m

Table 3.1 Obeche properties specified in Eurocode 5

The selected two trusses resist load applied to them in different ways due to the different satisfactory design of an element at ultimate limit states, the design resistance or capacity of the element or section must be greater than or equal to the ultimate design load effects.

3.2 Methodology

The section started by analysis of loads acting on the roofs considering all permanent load and imposed loads (wind and variable loads). This section provides a brief introduction to the techniques used for roof truss design in this research work. The design of the truss members began with load analysis on the rafters and purlins. The load analysis of the rafters and that of purlins was done according to Eurocode 5. This research work considers live load, dead load, and wind load. The loads are applied to the joints and the trusses are analyzed using the method of joint. This gives the tensile and compressive axial forces acting on each member.

This section deals with determination of the characteristic values of the material properties of the timber, such as strength, stiffness, and density. Determination of the loads that the roof is expected to carry, such as the weight of the roofing material, wind load, and imposed load, calculation of the design values of the material properties of the timber, which take into account the safety factors required by the code, determination of the cross-sectional dimensions of the timber members, such as rafters, purlins, and beams, based on the design values of the material properties and the loads. Verification of the strength and stiffness of the timber members against the applied loads using appropriate engineering formulas and equations given in Eurocode 5 . Checking for structural stability and buckling of the timber members using appropriate criteria also giving in Eurocode five. Verification of the connections between the timber members, such as bolts, screws, and nails, using appropriate design methods and formulas. Checking for the overall stability of the roof structure against overturning and sliding.

3.3 Terms used in this research work

1. Wind speed: The speed of the wind at the site of the structure, which can be determined based on local weather data or regional wind maps.

2. Exposure category: The degree of exposure of the building to wind, which can be determined based on the surrounding terrain, vegetation, and nearby structures.

3. Building geometry: The shape, size, and orientation of the building, including the roof slope, height, and plan dimensions.

4. Roof pitch: The angle of the roof slope, which affects the pressure distribution and wind uplift forces on the roof.

5. Roof area: The total area of the roof, which affects the overall wind load on the roof.

6. Roof slope length: The horizontal distance along the slope of the roof, which affects the wind pressure distribution and uplift forces on the roof.

7. Thermal effects: The effects of temperature differences between the interior and exterior of the building, which can create pressure differences and affect the wind load on the roof.

8. Building location: The geographic location of the building, which may affect the design wind speed and exposure category.

9. Building use: The intended use of the building, which may affect the design wind loads and safety factors required by the relevant design codes or standards.

10.Timber member selection formulas

- Characteristic strength (f_k): Determined based on the species, grade, and moisture content of the timber.

- Partial safety factor (γ_M): Applied to the characteristic strength to determine the design strength.

- Service class (SC): Based on the expected conditions of use and the required durability of the timber.

- Cross-sectional dimensions: Determined based on the design loads and the allowable stresses for the selected timber species and grade.

11. Member verification formulas

- Bending moment (M): Calculated based on the design loads and the span of the timber member.

- Shear force (V): Calculated based on the design loads and the geometry of the timber member.

- Deflection (δ): Checked against the allowable deflection limits based on the span and service class.

These terms are used in conjunction with other design procedures and requirements specified in EC5, such as the calculation of design load combinations, the application of load factors and safety factors, the consideration of timber connections and detailing, and the verification of the overall stability of the roof structure.

These parameters can be used to calculate the design wind load on the timber roof, which can then be used to design the roof structure and connections to resist the wind forces. The specific calculation methods and equations depend on the design codes or standards used for the project.

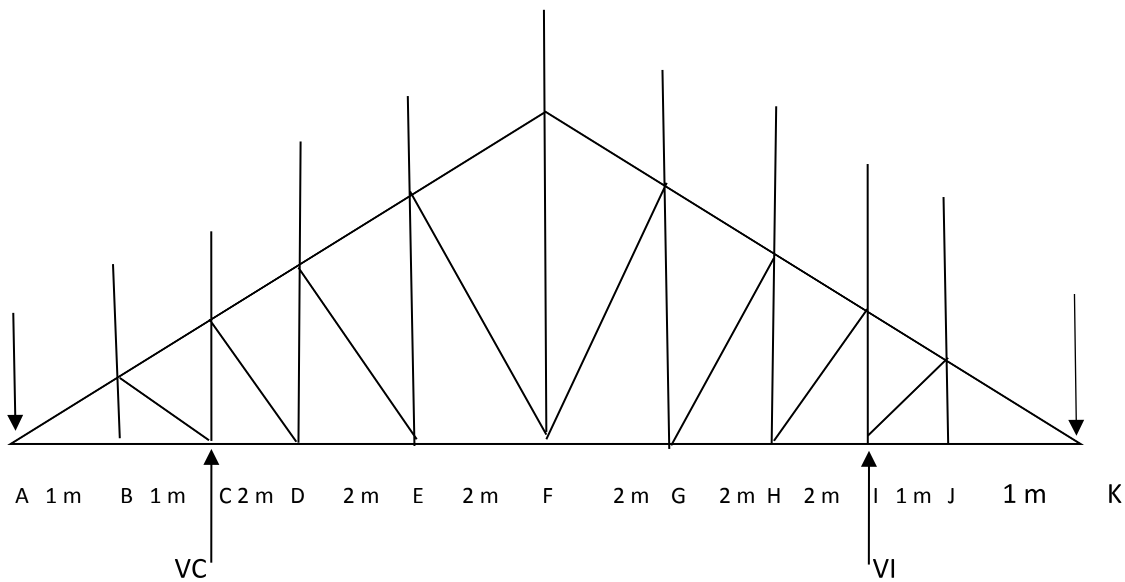
Eurocode 5 (EC5) provides guidelines and procedures for the design of timber structures, including timber roofs. The design of timber roofs according to EC5 involves several key steps and calculations, including the determination of the loads on the roof, the selection of appropriate timber members, and the verification of the members against the design requirements.

3.4 TEKLA Tedds: streamlines the analysis and design process for timber trusses by automating calculations and providing a user-friendly interface. It saves time and effort compared to manual calculations, reduces errors, and ensures compliance with design codes and standards. The software's capabilities make it a valuable tool for structural engineers and designers working with timber trusses, enabling them to efficiently analyze, design, and document timber truss structures. The geometry of the trusses was first determined manually and then was added into the Tekla Tedds which in turn performs the analysis and computations.

CHAPTER FOUR
ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Method of joint

All the nodes have point load of 1kN and the truss is 12 m of length with 2 m space between each node.



$\sum Fy = 0$=

1 x 11= 11 KN

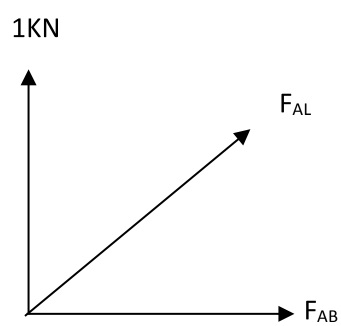
BUT VC=VI = $(\sum Fx)/2 = \ 11/2 = 5.5KN$

α = $\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{3}{8}\right) = 20.56°$

Cos α= Cos20.56° = 0.936

Sin α= Sin20.56° = 0.3512

JOINT A



$\sum Fy = 0$

$-1 + F_{AL} \sin \alpha = 0$

$F_{AL} = 1/ \sin \alpha = 1/0.3512 = 2.85KN$ (T)

$\sum Fx = 0$

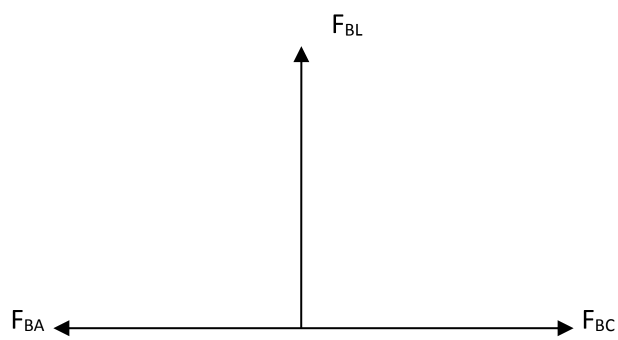
$F_{AL} \cos \alpha + F_{AB} = 0$

$F_{AB} = - F_{AL} \cos \alpha$

$F_{AB} = -2.85 \cos 20.56$

$F_{AB} = -2.67KN$ (C)

JOINT B



$\sum Fy = 0$

$F_{BL} = 0KN$

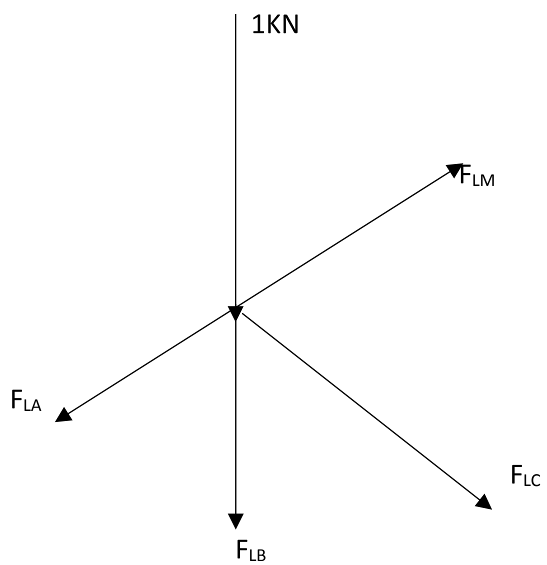
$\sum Fx = 0$

$-F_{BA} + F_{BC} = 0$

$-(-2.67) + F_{BC} = 0$

$F_{BC} = -2.67KN$ (C)

JOINT L



$\sum Fy = 0$

$-1 - F_{LA}\text{Sin}\alpha - F_{LB} - F_{LC}\text{ Sin }\alpha + F_{LM}\text{ Sin }\alpha = 0$

$-1 - (2.85 \times 0.351) - 0 – F_{LC}\text{ Sin }\alpha + F_{LM}\text{ Sin }\alpha = 0$

$F_{LM}\text{ Sin }\alpha - F_{LC}\text{ Sin }\alpha = 2$ ………………………………….. (1)

$\sum Fx = 0$

$-F_{LM}\text{ Cos }\alpha + F_{LC}\text{ Cos }\alpha + F_{LM}\text{ Cos }\alpha = 0$

$- (2.85 \times 0.936) + F_{LC}\text{ Cos }\alpha + F_{LM}\text{ Cos }\alpha = 0$

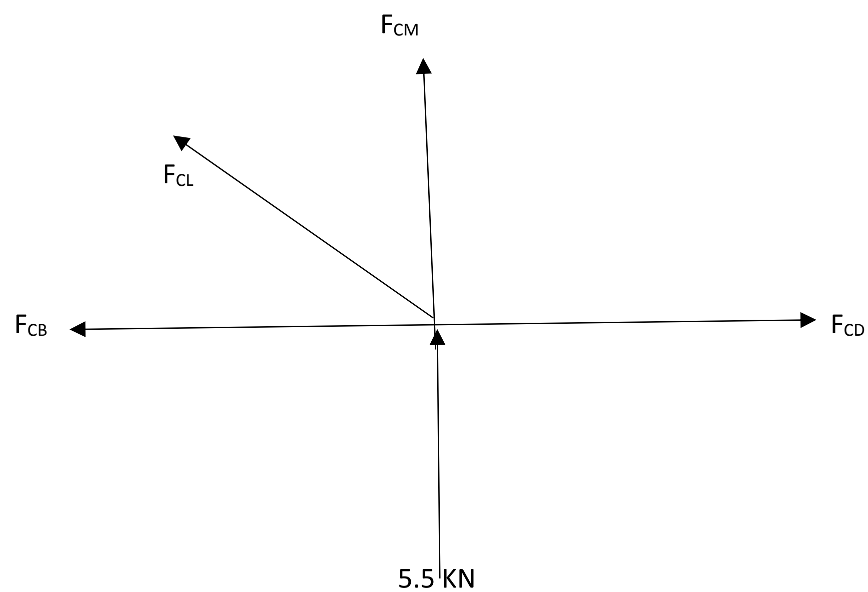
$F_{LM}\text{ Cos }\alpha + F_{LC}\text{ Cos }\alpha = 2.67$ ………………………………….. (2)

SOLVING SIMULTANEOUSLY

$F_{LC} = - 1.42$ (C)

$F_{LM} = 4.28$ (T)

JOINT C



$\sum Fy = 0$

F_{CM} + 5.5 + F_{CL} Sin α = 0

F_{CM} = 0 - 5.5 - (-1.42 x 0.351)

F_{CM} = -5KN (C)

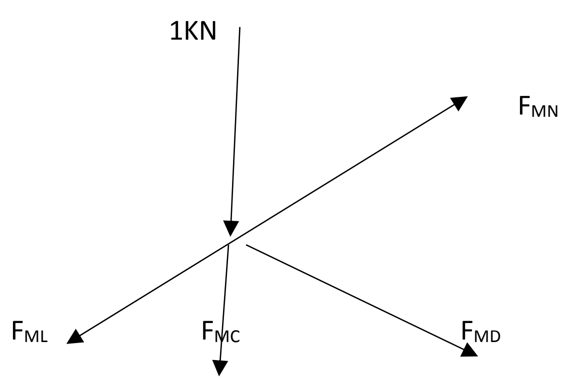
$\sum Fx = 0$

-F_{CB} – F_{CL} Cos α + F_{CD} = 0

-(-2.67) – (- 1.42 x 0.936) + F_{CD} = 0

F_{CD} = - 3.99KN (C)

JOINT M



$\sum Fy = 0$

-1 - F_{MC} - F_{ML} Sin α - F_{MD} Sin α + F_{MN} Sin α = 0

-1 +5 –1.50 – 0.351 F_{MD} + 0.351F_{MN} = 0

F_{MN} - F_{MD} = -7.12 …………………………………… (1)

$\sum Fx = 0$

-F_{ML} Cos α + F_{MD} Cos α + F_{MN} Cos α = 0

- 4 + 0.936F_{MD} + 0.936F_{MN} = 0

F_{MN} + F_{MD} = 4.27 …………………………………… (2)

SOLVING SIMULTANEOUSLY

F_{MN} = - 1.42 (C)

F_{MD} = 5.70 (T)

MEMBERS	AXIAL FORCES (KN)
AB	-2.67 (C)
AL	2.85 (T)
BC	-2.67 (C)
BL	0
CL	-1.42 (C)
CM	-5 (C)
CD	-3.99 (C)
LM	4.28 (T)
MD	5.70 (T)
MN	-1.42 (C)
NO	-2.37 (C)
ND	-2 (C)
NE	1.11 (T)
DE	1.35 (T)
EO	0.67 (C)
EF	2.34 (T)
OF	-0.33 (C)
OP	-2.13 (C)
FP	-0.25 (C)

TABLE 4.1

4.2 DESIGN OF FLAT TIMBER AND HIGH PITCH TIMBER TRUSSES

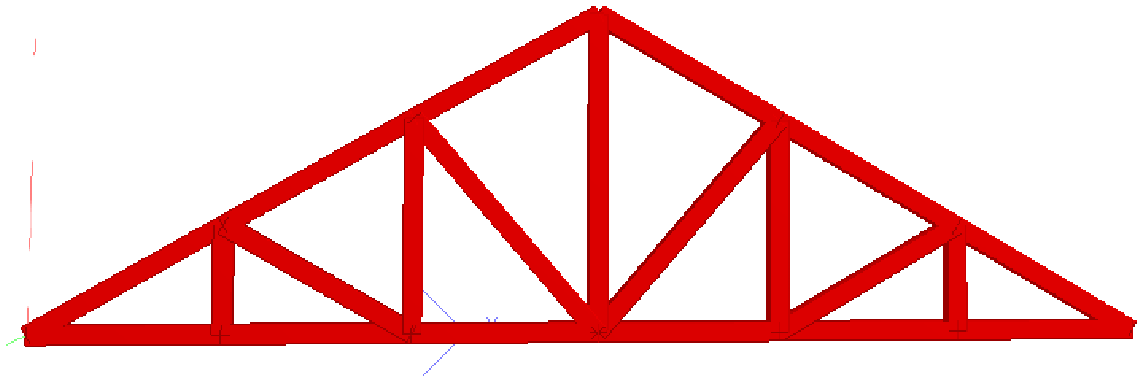


Figure 4.1 High pitch timber roof

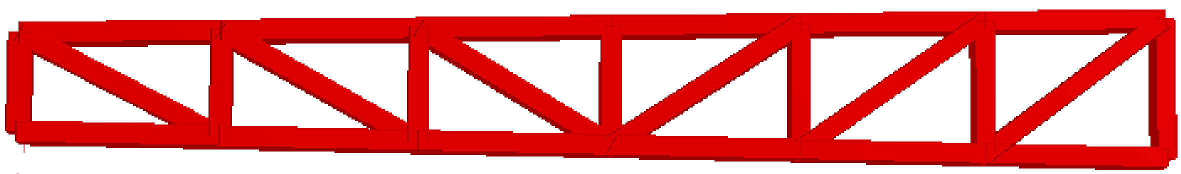


Figure 4.2 Flat timber roof

4.3 Load Analysis

Span of roof truss = 12 m

Spacing of the truss = 1.2 m

Nodal spacing of the trusses = 1.0 m

4.3.1 Permanent (dead) Loads

Self-weight of long span aluminum roofing sheet (0.55mm gauge thickness) = 0.019 kN/m^2

Weight of ceiling (adopt 10mm insulation fiber board) = 0.077 kN/m^2

Weight of services = 0.1 kN/m^2

Weight of purlin (assume 75mm x 50mm softwood) = 0.05 kN/m^2

Self weight of trusses (to be calculated automatically)

Total deal load (g_k) = 0.246 kN/m^2

Therefore the nodal permanent load (g_k) = 0.246 kN/m^2 × 1.2 m × 1.0 m = 0.295 kN

4.3.2 Variable (Imposed) Load

Category of roof = Category H – Roof not accessible except for normal maintenance and repairs (Table 6.9 EN 1991-1-1:2001)

Imposed load on roof (q_k) = 0.75 kN/m^2

Therefore the nodal variable load (Q_K) = 0.75 kN/m^2 × 1.2m × 1m = 0.9 kN

4.3.3 Wind Load

Wind velocity pressure (dynamic) is assumed as = $q_{p(z)}$ = 1.5 kN/m^2

When the wind is blowing from right to left, the resultant pressure coefficient on the windward and leeward slopes with positive internal pressure (c_{pe}) is taken as −0.9

Therefore the external wind pressure normal to the roof is;

$\boldsymbol{q_e}$ = $q_p c_{pe}$ = −1.5 × 0.9 = 1.35 kN/m^2

Vertical component p_{ev} = q_e $\boldsymbol{cos\ \theta}$ = 1.35 × cos 30 = 1.17 kN/m^2 acting upwards ↑

Therefore the nodal wind load (W_k) = 1.17 kN/m^2 × 1.2m × 1m = 1.4 kN

4.4 Analysis of the Truss for Internal Forces

N/B: Please note that the internal forces in the members are denoted by $F_{i\text{-}j}$ which is also equal to $F_{j\text{-}i}$ e.g. $F_{2\text{-}3}$ = $F_{3\text{-}2}$; so kindly distinguish this from other numeric elements.

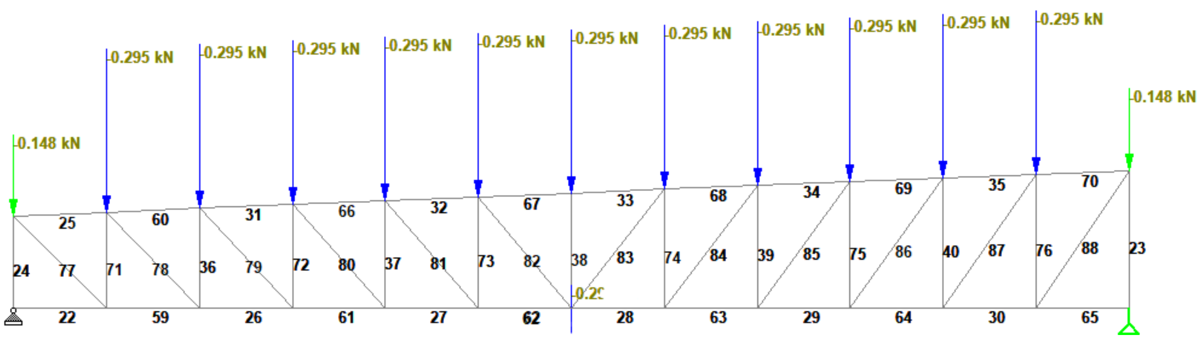


Figure 4.3 Flat roof under dead loading

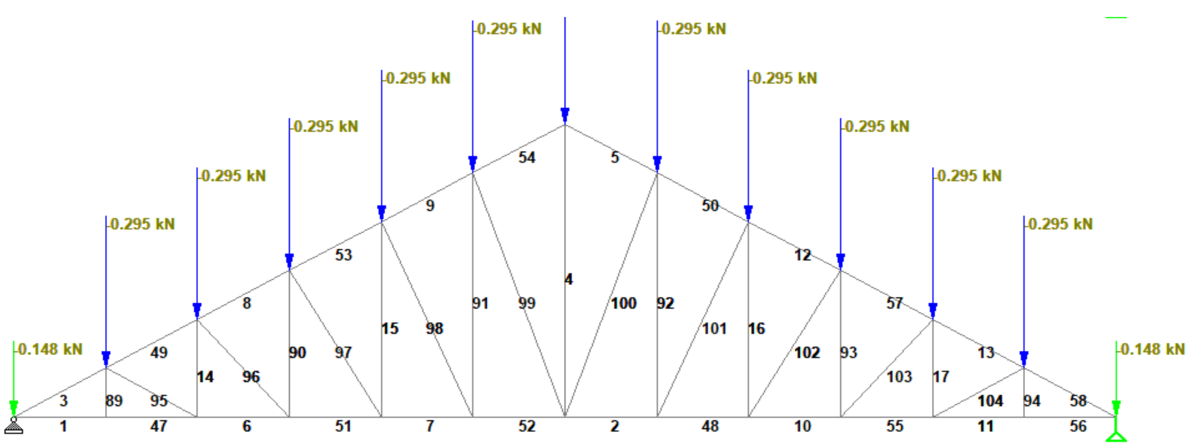


Figure 4.4 High pitch timber roof under dead loading

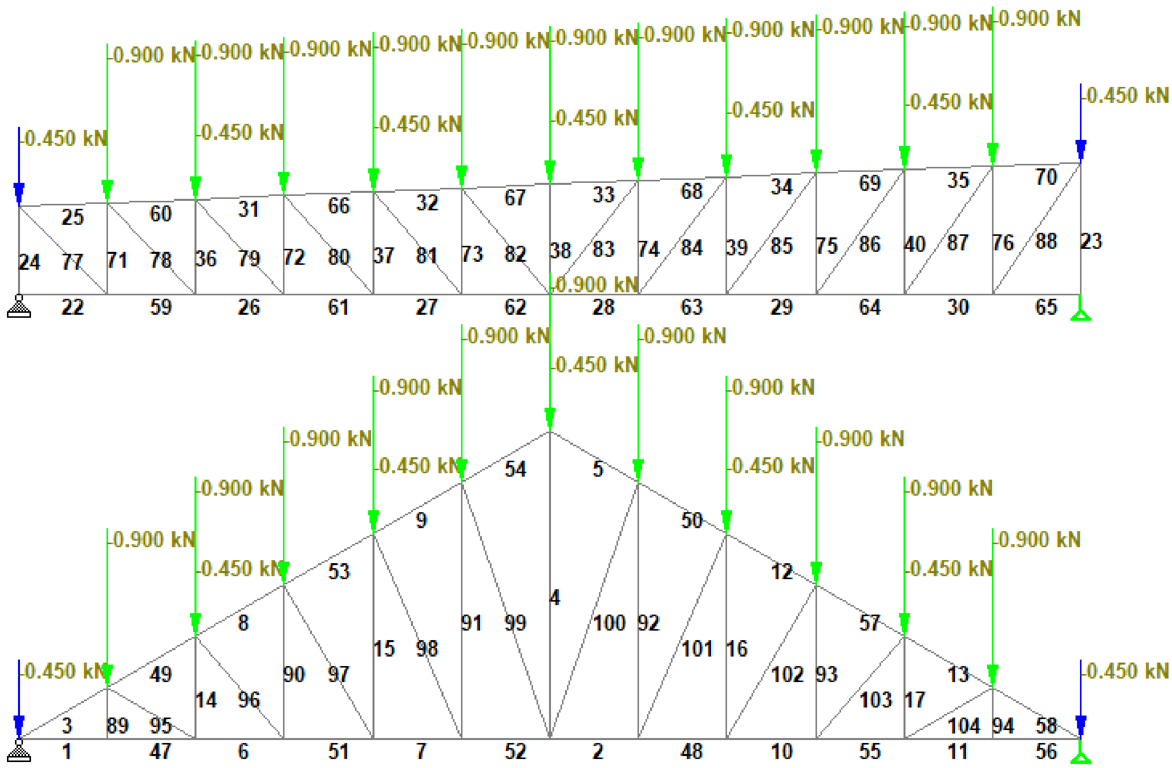


Figure 4.5 flat and pitch roof under live loading

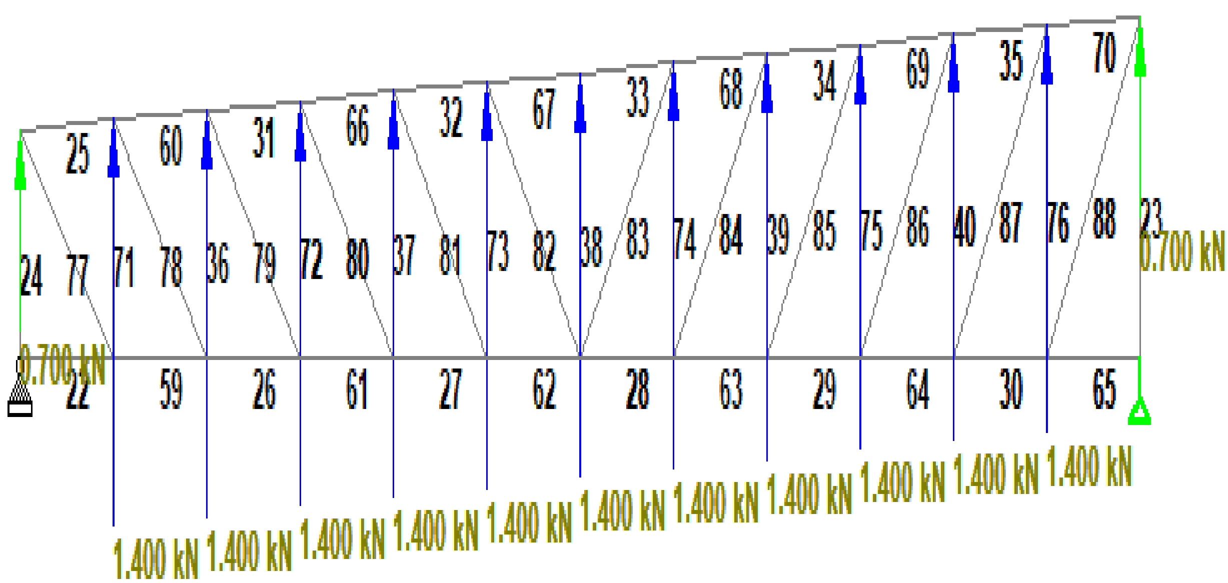


Figure 4. 6 Flat roof under wind loading

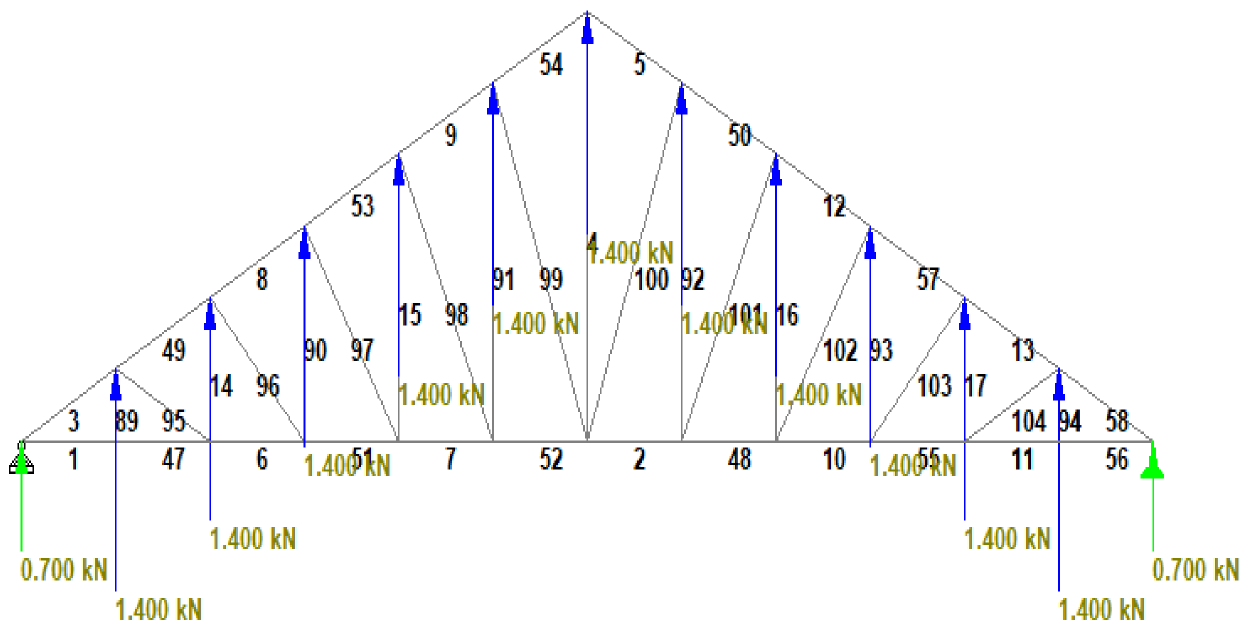


Figure 4. 7 pitch roof under wind loading

4.4 Load Combination Equations

1.35gk + 1.5qk

1.0gk + 1.5wk

4.5 Analysis Results

4.5.1 Flat roof Analysis

Top and Bottom Chord (ULS)

	Beam	L/C	Node	Fx kN	Fy kN	Fz kN	Mx kN-m	My kN-m	Mz kN-m
Max Fx	32	4 1.35GK + 1.	23	**29.687**	0.135	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.107
Min Fx	62	4 1.35GK + 1.	42	**-29.724**	-0.016	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.197
Max Fy	25	4 1.35GK + 1.	15	10.217	**0.760**	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.366
Min Fy	70	4 1.35GK + 1.	50	7.333	**-0.777**	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.379
Max Fz	22	4 1.35GK + 1.	5	-0.650	0.694	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.336
Min Fz	22	4 1.35GK + 1.	5	-0.650	0.694	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.336
Max Mx	22	4 1.35GK + 1.	5	-0.650	0.694	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.336
Min Mx	22	4 1.35GK + 1.	5	-0.650	0.694	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.336
Max My	22	4 1.35GK + 1.	5	-0.650	0.694	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.336
Min My	22	4 1.35GK + 1.	5	-0.650	0.694	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.336
Max Mz	70	4 1.35GK + 1.	16	7.333	-0.777	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	**0.399**
Min Mz	25	4 1.35GK + 1.	40	10.217	0.760	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	**-0.395**

Table 4.2 moment , normal stress and shear stress of top and bottom chord of flat roof

Design compressive axial force = 29.687 kN
Design tensile axial force = 29.724 kN (tension)
Design moment = 0.399 kNm
Design shear = 0.777 kN

4.6 CHECKS ON THE TOP AND BOTTOM CHORD

Design section 1

Partial factor for material properties and resistances

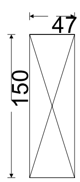
Partial factor for material properties - Table 2.3;	γ_M = **1.300**

Member details

Load duration - cl.2.3.1.2;	Long-term
Service class - cl.2.3.1.3;	1

Timber section details

Number of timber sections in member;	N = **1**
Breadth of sections;	b = **47** mm
Depth of sections;	h = **150** mm
Timber strength class - EN 338:2016 Table 1;	**C27**



47x150 timber section

Timber strength class C27

Span details

Unbraced length - Major axis;	L_y = **1000** mm
Effective length - Major axis;	$L_{e,y} = L_y$ = **1000** mm
Unbraced length - Minor axis;	L_z = **1000** mm
Effective length - Minor axis;	$L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **1000** mm
Bearing length;	L_b = **100** mm

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.399** kNm
Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.777** kN
Design axial compression force; P_d = **29.687** kN

Section s1 results summary	Unit	Capacity	Maximum	Utilisation	Result
Compressive stress	N/mm^2	11.8	4.2	0.355	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	14.5	2.3	0.156	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.2	0.115	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.282	PASS
Column stability check				0.806	PASS
Beam stability check				0.722	PASS

Table 4.3 compression summary of top and bottom memebr of flat roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; k_{mod} = **0.7**
Deformation factor - Table 3.2; k_{def} = **0.6**
Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2); k_m = **0.7**
Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check compression parallel to the grain - cl.6.1.4

Design axial compression; P_d = **29.687** kN
Design compressive stress; $\sigma_{c,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **4.211** N/mm^2
Design compressive strength; $f_{c,0,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{c.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **11.846** N/mm^2
$\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d}$ = **0.355**

PASS - Design parallel compression strength exceeds design parallel compression stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.777** kN
Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.247** N/mm^2
Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm^2
$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.115**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.399** kNm
Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **2.264** N/mm^2
Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **14.538** N/mm^2
$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.156**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial compression - Section 6.2.4

Combined loading checks - exp.6.19 & 6.20; $(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.282**
$(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.235**

PASS - Combined bending and axial compression utilisation is acceptable

Check columns subjected to either compression or combined compression and bending - cl.6.3.2

Effective length for y-axis bending; $L_{e,y}$ = **1000** mm
Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_y = L_{e,y} / i_y$ = **23.094**
Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.21; $\lambda_{rel,y} = \lambda_y / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **0.393**
Effective length for z-axis bending; $L_{e,z}$ = **1000** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_z = L_{e,z} / i_z =$ **73.704**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.22; $\lambda_{rel,z} = \lambda_z / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})} =$ **1.254**

Both $\lambda_{rel,y} > 0.3$ and $\lambda_{rel,z} > 0.3$, column stability check is required

Straightness factor; $\beta_c =$ **0.2**

Instability factors - exp.6.25, 6.26, 6.27 & 6.28; $k_y = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,y} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,y}^2) =$ **0.586**

$k_z = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,z} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,z}^2) =$ **1.382**

$k_{c,y} = 1 / (k_y + \sqrt{(k_y^2 - \lambda_{rel,y}^2)}) =$ **0.979**

$k_{c,z} = 1 / (k_z + \sqrt{(k_z^2 - \lambda_{rel,z}^2)}) =$ **0.510**

Column stability checks - exp.6.23 & 6.24; $\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,y} \times f_{c,0,d}) + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d} =$ **0.519**

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d}) + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d} =$ **0.806**

PASS - Column stability is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; $L_{ef} = 1000$ mm $+ 2 \times h =$ **1300** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef}) =$ **68.037** N/mm^2

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})} =$ **0.630**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; $k_{crit} =$ **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.35; $(\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d}))^2 + \sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d}) =$ **0.722**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.7 AXIAL TENSION CAPACITY CHECK

Span details

Unbraced length - Minor axis; $L_z =$ **1000** mm

Effective length - Minor axis; $L_{e,z} = L_z =$ **1000** mm

Bearing length; $L_b =$ **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d} =$ **0.399** kNm

Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d} =$ **0.777** kN

Design axial tension force; $P_d =$ **29.687** kN

Section s1 results summary	**Unit**	**Capacity**	**Maximum**	**Utilisation**	**Result**
Tensile stress	N/mm^2	8.9	4.2	0.474	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	14.5	2.3	0.156	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.2	0.115	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.630	PASS
Beam stability check				0.156	PASS

Table 4.4 tension summary of top and bottom memebr of flat roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; $k_{mod} =$ **0.7**

Deformation factor - Table 3.2; $k_{def} =$ **0.6**

Depth factor for tension - exp.3.1; $k_{h,t} =$ **1**

Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2); $k_m =$ **0.7**

Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); $k_{cr} =$ **0.67**

Check tension parallel to the grain - Section 6.1.2

Axial tension; $P_d =$ **29.687** kN

Design tensile stress; $\sigma_{t,0,d} = P_d / A =$ **4.211** N/mm^2

Design tensile strength; $f_{t,0,d} = k_{h,t} \times k_{mod} \times f_{t.0.k} / \gamma_M =$ **8.885** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} =$ **0.474**

PASS - Design tensile strength exceeds design tensile stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d} =$ **0.777** kN

Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h) =$ **0.247** N/mm^2

Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M =$ **2.154** N/mm^2

$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d} =$ **0.115**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d} =$ **0.399** kNm

Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y =$ **2.264** N/mm^2

Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M =$ **14.538** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d} =$ **0.156**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial tension - Section 6.2.3

Combined loading checks - exp.6.17 & 6.18; $\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d} =$ **0.630**

$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d} =$ **0.583**

PASS - Combined bending and axial tension utilisation is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; $L_{ef} = 1000$ mm $+ 2 \times h =$ **1300** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef}) =$ **68.037** N/mm^2

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})} =$ **0.630**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; $k_{crit} =$ **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.33; $\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d}) =$ **0.156**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.8 DESIGN OF DIAGONAL AND VERTICAL MEMBERS

	Beam	L/C	Node	Fx kN	Fy kN	Fz kN	Mx kN-m	My kN-m	Mz kN-m
Max Fx	77	6 1.0GK + 1.5	15	**11.756**	0.063	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.045
Min Fx	77	4 1.35GK + 1.	15	**-13.400**	-0.072	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.051
Max Fy	71	6 1.0GK + 1.5	39	-8.514	**0.671**	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.362
Min Fy	71	4 1.35GK + 1.	39	9.682	**-0.775**	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.417
Max Fz	23	4 1.35GK + 1.	14	11.527	0.388	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.311
Min Fz	23	4 1.35GK + 1.	14	11.527	0.388	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.311
Max Mx	23	4 1.35GK + 1.	14	11.527	0.388	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.311
Min Mx	23	4 1.35GK + 1.	14	11.527	0.388	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.311
Max My	23	4 1.35GK + 1.	14	11.527	0.388	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.311
Min My	23	4 1.35GK + 1.	14	11.527	0.388	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.311
Max Mz	71	4 1.35GK + 1.	40	9.682	-0.775	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	**0.390**
Min Mz	71	4 1.35GK + 1.	39	9.682	-0.775	0.000	0.000	0.000	**-0.417**

Table 4.5 moment forces, shear force and normal forces of diagonal and vertical member of flat roof

Design compressive axial force = 11.756 kN
Design tensile axial force = 13.4 kN (tension)
Design moment = 0.417 kNm
Design shear = 0.775 kN

4.9 CHECKS ON THE VERTICAL AND DIAGONAL CHORD

Design section 1

Partial factor for material properties and resistances

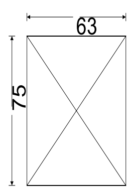
Partial factor for material properties - Table 2.3;	γ_M = **1.300**

Member details

Load duration - cl.2.3.1.2;	Long-term
Service class - cl.2.3.1.3;	1

Timber section details

Number of timber sections in member;	N = **1**
Breadth of sections;	b = **63** mm
Depth of sections;	h = **75** mm
Timber strength class - EN 338:2016 Table 1;	**C27**



63x75 timber section
Cross-sectional area, A, 4725 mm
Timber strength class C27

Span details

Unbraced length - Major axis;	L_y = **1800** mm
Effective length - Major axis;	$L_{e,y} = L_y$ = **1800** mm
Unbraced length - Minor axis;	L_z = **1800** mm
Effective length - Minor axis;	$L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **1800** mm

Bearing length; L_b = **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.417** kNm

Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN

Design axial compression force; P_d = **11.756** kN

Section s1 results summary	Unit	Capacity	Maximum	Utilisation	Result
Compressive stress	N/mm^2	11.8	2.5	0.210	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	16.7	7.1	0.423	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.4	0.170	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.467	PASS
Column stability check				0.976	PASS
Beam stability check				0.858	PASS

Table 4.6 compression summary of vertical and ddiagonal memebr of flat roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; k_{mod} = **0.7**

Deformation factor - Table 3.2; k_{def} = **0.6**

Depth factor for bending - Major axis - exp.3.1; $k_{h,m,y}$ = $\min((150\text{ mm} / h)^{0.2}, 1.3)$ = **1.149**

Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2); k_m = **0.7**

Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check compression parallel to the grain - cl.6.1.4

Design axial compression; P_d = **11.756** kN

Design compressive stress; $\sigma_{c,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **2.488** N/mm^2

Design compressive strength; $f_{c,0,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{c.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **11.846** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d}$ = **0.210**

PASS - Design parallel compression strength exceeds design parallel compression stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN

Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.367** N/mm^2

Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm^2

$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.170**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.417** kNm

Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **7.06** N/mm^2

Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{h,m,y} \times k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **16.7** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.423**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial compression - Section 6.2.4

Combined loading checks - exp.6.19 & 6.20; $(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.467**

$(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.340**

PASS - Combined bending and axial compression utilisation is acceptable

Check columns subjected to either compression or combined compression and bending - cl.6.3.2

Effective length for y-axis bending; $L_{e,y}$ = **1800** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_y = L_{e,y} / i_y$ = **83.138**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.21; $\lambda_{rel,y} = \lambda_y / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **1.415**

Effective length for z-axis bending; $L_{e,z}$ = **1800** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_z = L_{e,z} / i_z$ = **98.974**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.22; $\lambda_{rel,z} = \lambda_z / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **1.684**

Both $\lambda_{rel,y}$ > 0.3 and $\lambda_{rel,z}$ > 0.3, column stability check is required

Straightness factor; β_c = **0.2**

Instability factors - exp.6.25, 6.26, 6.27 & 6.28; $k_y = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,y} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,y}^2)$ = **1.612**

$k_z = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,z} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,z}^2)$ = **2.056**

$k_{c,y} = 1 / (k_y + \sqrt{(k_y^2 - \lambda_{rel,y}^2)})$ = **0.419**

$k_{c,z} = 1 / (k_z + \sqrt{(k_z^2 - \lambda_{rel,z}^2)})$ = **0.309**

Column stability checks - exp.6.23 & 6.24; $\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,y} \times f_{c,0,d}) + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.924**

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d}) + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.976**

PASS - Column stability is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; L_{ef} = 1800 mm + 2 × h = **1950** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef})$ = **162.994** N/mm^2

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})}$ = **0.407**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; k_{crit} = **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.35; $(\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d}))^2 + \sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d})$ = **0.858**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.10 AXIAL TENSILE CAPACITY CHECK

Span details

Unbraced length - Minor axis; L_z = **1800** mm

Effective length - Minor axis; $L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **1800** mm

Bearing length; L_b = **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.417** kNm

Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN

Design axial tension force; P_d = **13.4** kN

Section s1 results summary	**Unit**	**Capacity**	**Maximum**	**Utilisation**	**Result**
Tensile stress	N/mm^2	10.2	2.8	0.278	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	16.7	7.1	0.423	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.4	0.170	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.701	PASS
Beam stability check				0.423	PASS

Table 4.7 tension summary of vertical and diagonal memebr of flat roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; k_{mod} = **0.7**

Deformation factor - Table 3.2; k_{def} = **0.6**

Depth factor for bending - Major axis - exp.3.1;	$k_{h,m,y}$ = min((150 mm / h)$^{0.2}$, 1.3) = **1.149**
Depth factor for tension - exp.3.1;	$k_{h,t}$ = min((150 mm / max(b, h))$^{0.2}$, 1.3) = **1.149**
Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2);	k_m = **0.7**
Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2);	k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check tension parallel to the grain - Section 6.1.2

Axial tension;	P_d = **13.4** kN
Design tensile stress;	$\sigma_{t,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **2.836** N/mm^2
Design tensile strength;	$f_{t,0,d} = k_{h,t} \times k_{mod} \times f_{t.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **10.206** N/mm^2
	$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d}$ = **0.278**

PASS - Design tensile strength exceeds design tensile stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force;	$F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN
Design shear stress - exp.6.60;	$\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.367** N/mm^2
Design shear strength;	$f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm^2
	$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.170**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment;	$M_{y,d}$ = **0.417** kNm
Design bending stress;	$\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **7.06** N/mm^2
Design bending strength;	$f_{m,y,d} = k_{h,m,y} \times k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **16.7** N/mm^2
	$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.423**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial tension - Section 6.2.3

Combined loading checks - exp.6.17 & 6.18;	$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.701**
	$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.574**

PASS - Combined bending and axial tension utilisation is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1;	L_{ef} = 1800 mm + 2 × h = **1950** mm
Critical bending stress - exp.6.32;	$\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef})$ = **162.994** N/mm^2
Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30;	$\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})}$ = **0.407**
Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34;	k_{crit} = **1.000**
Beam stability check - exp.6.33;	$\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d})$ = **0.423**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.11 PITCHED ROOF

4.12 Top and Bottom Chord (ULS)

	Beam	L/C	Node	Fx kN	Fy kN	Fz kN	Mx kN-m	My kN-m	Mz kN-m
Max Fx	27	6 1.0GK + 1.5	18	**24.466**	-0.027	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.140
Min Fx	27	4 1.35GK + 1.	18	**-28.259**	0.024	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.165
Max Fy	54	6 1.0GK + 1.5	34	-10.622	**0.698**	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.355
Min Fy	54	4 1.35GK + 1.	34	12.286	**-0.777**	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.394
Max Fz	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	1	-17.521	0.686	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.047
Min Fz	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	1	-17.521	0.686	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.047
Max Mx	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	1	-17.521	0.686	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.047
Min Mx	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	1	-17.521	0.686	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.047
Max My	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	1	-17.521	0.686	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.047
Min My	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	1	-17.521	0.686	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.047
Max Mz	1	6 1.0GK + 1.5	27	15.384	-0.604	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	**0.563**
Min Mz	1	4 1.35GK + 1.	27	-17.521	0.686	-0.000	-0.000	-0.000	**-0.639**

Table 4.8 moment forces, shear force and normal forces of top and bottom member of high pitch roof

Design compressive axial force = 24.466 kN
Design tensile axial force = 28.259 kN (tension)
Design moment = 0.693 kNm
Design shear = 0.777 kN

<u>TIMBER COLUMN WITH BIAXIAL BENDING AND COMPRESSION</u>

<u>Design section 1</u>

Partial factor for material properties and resistances

Partial factor for material properties - Table 2.3; γ_M = **1.300**

Member details

Load duration - cl.2.3.1.2; Long-term

Service class - cl.2.3.1.3; 1

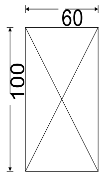
Timber section details

Number of timber sections in member; N = **1**

Breadth of sections; b = **60** mm

Depth of sections; h = **100** mm

Timber strength class - EN 338:2016 Table 1; **C27**



60x100 timber section
Cross-sectional area, A, 6000 mm
Timber strength class C27

Span details

Unbraced length - Major axis;	L_y = **1154** mm
Effective length - Major axis;	$L_{e,y} = L_y$ = **1154** mm
Unbraced length - Minor axis;	L_z = **1154** mm
Effective length - Minor axis;	$L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **1154** mm
Bearing length;	L_b = **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis;	$M_{y,d}$ = **0.693** kNm
Design shear force - Major axis;	$F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN
Design axial compression force;	P_d = **24.466** kN

Section s1 results summary	**Unit**	**Capacity**	**Maximum**	**Utilisation**	**Result**
Compressive stress	N/mm^2	11.8	4.1	0.344	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	15.8	6.9	0.440	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.3	0.134	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.558	PASS
Column stability check				0.890	PASS
Beam stability check				0.776	PASS

Table 4.9 compression summary of top and bottom memebr of high pitch roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1;	k_{mod} = **0.7**
Deformation factor - Table 3.2;	k_{def} = **0.6**
Depth factor for bending - Major axis - exp.3.1;	$k_{h,m,y}$ = min((150 mm / h)$^{0.2}$, 1.3) = **1.084**
Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2);	k_m = **0.7**

Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check compression parallel to the grain - cl.6.1.4

Design axial compression; P_d = **24.466** kN

Design compressive stress; $\sigma_{c,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **4.078** N/mm^2

Design compressive strength; $f_{c,0,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{c.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **11.846** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d}$ = **0.344**

PASS - Design parallel compression strength exceeds design parallel compression stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN

Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.289** N/mm^2

Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm^2

$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.134**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.693** kNm

Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **6.93** N/mm^2

Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{h,m,y} \times k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **15.767** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.44**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial compression - Section 6.2.4

Combined loading checks - exp.6.19 & 6.20; $(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.558**

$(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.426**

PASS - Combined bending and axial compression utilisation is acceptable

Check columns subjected to either compression or combined compression and bending - cl.6.3.2

Effective length for y-axis bending; $L_{e,y}$ = **1154** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_y = L_{e,y} / i_y$ = **39.976**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.21; $\lambda_{rel,y} = \lambda_y / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **0.68**

Effective length for z-axis bending; $L_{e,z}$ = **1154** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_z = L_{e,z} / i_z$ = **66.626**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.22; $\lambda_{rel,z} = \lambda_z / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **1.134**

Both $\lambda_{rel,y}$ > 0.3 and $\lambda_{rel,z}$ > 0.3, column stability check is required

Straightness factor; β_c = **0.2**

Instability factors - exp.6.25, 6.26, 6.27 & 6.28; $k_y = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,y} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,y}^2)$ = **0.769**

$k_z = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,z} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,z}^2)$ = **1.226**

$k_{c,y} = 1 / (k_y + \sqrt{(k_y^2 - \lambda_{rel,y}^2)})$ = **0.886**

$k_{c,z} = 1 / (k_z + \sqrt{(k_z^2 - \lambda_{rel,z}^2)})$ = **0.591**

Column stability checks - exp.6.23 & 6.24; $\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,y} \times f_{c,0,d}) + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.828**

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d}) + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.890**

PASS - Column stability is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; L_{ef} = 1154 mm + 2 × h = **1354** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef})$ = **159.687** N/mm^2

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})}$ = **0.411**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; k_{crit} = **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.35; $(\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d}))^2 + \sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d})$ = **0.776**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.13 TENSILE CAPACITY CHECK

Span details

Unbraced length - Minor axis; L_z = **1154** mm

Effective length - Minor axis; $L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **1154** mm

Bearing length; L_b = **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.693** kNm

Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN

Design axial tension force; P_d = **28.259** kN

Section s1 results summary	Unit	Capacity	Maximum	Utilisation	Result
Tensile stress	N/mm^2	9.6	4.7	0.489	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	15.8	6.9	0.440	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.3	0.134	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.928	PASS
Beam stability check				0.440	PASS

table 4.10 tension summary of top and bottom memebr of high pitch roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; k_{mod} = **0.7**

Deformation factor - Table 3.2; k_{def} = **0.6**

Depth factor for bending - Major axis - exp.3.1; $k_{h,m,y}$ = $\min((150 \text{ mm} / h)^{0.2}, 1.3)$ = **1.084**

Depth factor for tension - exp.3.1; $k_{h,t} = \min((150 \text{ mm} / \max(b, h))^{0.2}, 1.3)$ = **1.084**

Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2); k_m = **0.7**

Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check tension parallel to the grain - Section 6.1.2

Axial tension; P_d = **28.259** kN

Design tensile stress; $\sigma_{t,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **4.710** N/mm^2

Design tensile strength; $f_{t,0,d} = k_{h,t} \times k_{mod} \times f_{t.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **9.635** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d}$ = **0.489**

PASS - Design tensile strength exceeds design tensile stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.775** kN

Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.289** N/mm^2

Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm^2

$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.134**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.693** kNm

Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **6.93** N/mm^2

Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{h,m,y} \times k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **15.767** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.44**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial tension - Section 6.2.3

Combined loading checks - exp.6.17 & 6.18; $\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.928**

$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.796**

PASS - Combined bending and axial tension utilisation is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; L_{ef} = 1154 mm + 2 × h = **1354** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef})$ = **159.687** N/mm^2

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})}$ = **0.411**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; k_{crit} = **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.33; $\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d})$ = **0.44**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.14 WEB AND DIAGONALS

	Beam	L/C	Node	Fx kN	Fy kN	Fz kN	Mx kN-m	My kN-m	Mz kN-m
Max Fx	4	6 1.0GK + 1.5	4	**7.598**	-0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.000
Min Fx	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	**-8.506**	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
Max Fy	89	6 1.0GK + 1.5	27	-0.939	**0.393**	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.196
Min Fy	89	4 1.35GK + 1.	27	1.056	**-0.468**	0.000	0.000	0.000	-0.228
Max Fz	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	-8.506	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.000
Min Fz	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	-8.506	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.000	0.000
Max Mx	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	-8.506	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.000
Min Mx	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	-8.506	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.000	0.000
Max My	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	-8.506	0.000	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.000
Min My	4	4 1.35GK + 1.	4	-8.506	0.000	0.000	0.000	**0.000**	0.000
Max Mz	89	6 1.0GK + 1.5	27	-0.939	0.393	0.000	0.000	0.000	**0.196**
Min Mz	89	4 1.35GK + 1.	27	1.056	-0.468	0.000	0.000	0.000	**-0.228**

Table 4.11 moment forces, shear force and normal forces of web and diagonal member of high pitch roof

Design compressive axial force = 7.598 kN
Design tensile axial force = 8.506 kN (tension)
Design bending moment = 0.228 kNm
Design shear force = 0.468 kN

<u>TIMBER COLUMN WITH BIAXIAL BENDING AND COMPRESSION</u>

<u>Design section 1</u>

User note: Check column at mid-height

Partial factor for material properties and resistances

Partial factor for material properties - Table 2.3; γ_M = **1.300**

Member details

Load duration - cl.2.3.1.2; Long-term

Service class - cl.2.3.1.3; 1

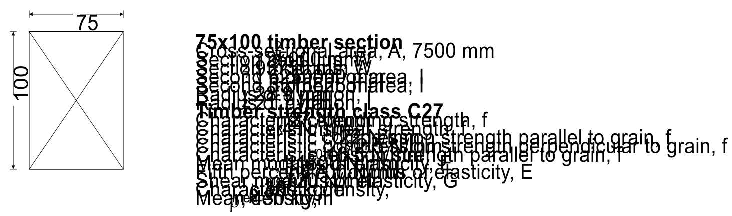
Timber section details

Number of timber sections in member; N = **1**

Breadth of sections; b = **75** mm

Depth of sections; h = **100** mm

Timber strength class - EN 338:2016 Table 1; **C27**



Span details

Unbraced length - Major axis; L_y = **3460** mm

Effective length - Major axis; $L_{e,y} = L_y$ = **3460** mm

Unbraced length - Minor axis; L_z = **3460** mm

Effective length - Minor axis; $L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **3460** mm

Bearing length; L_b = **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.228** kNm

Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.468** kN

Design axial compression force; P_d = **7.598** kN

Section s1 results summary	**Unit**	**Capacity**	**Maximum**	**Utilisation**	**Result**
Compressive stress	N/mm^2	11.8	1.0	0.086	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm^2	15.8	1.8	0.116	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm^2	2.2	0.1	0.065	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.123	PASS
Column stability check				0.761	PASS
Beam stability check				0.693	PASS

Table 4.12 compression summary of web and diagonal memebr of high pitch roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; k_{mod} = **0.7**

Deformation factor - Table 3.2; k_{def} = **0.6**

Depth factor for bending - Major axis - exp.3.1; $k_{h,m,y}$ = $\min((150\ mm / h)^{0.2}, 1.3)$ = **1.084**

Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2); k_m = **0.7**

Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check compression parallel to the grain - cl.6.1.4

Design axial compression; P_d = **7.598** kN

Design compressive stress; $\sigma_{c,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **1.013** N/mm^2

Design compressive strength; $f_{c,0,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{c.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **11.846** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d}$ = **0.086**

PASS - Design parallel compression strength exceeds design parallel compression stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.468** kN

Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.140** N/mm^2

Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm^2

$\tau_{y,d} / f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.065**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.228** kNm

Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **1.824** N/mm^2

Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{h,m,y} \times k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **15.767** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.116**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial compression - Section 6.2.4

Combined loading checks - exp.6.19 & 6.20; $(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.123**

$(\sigma_{c,0,d} / f_{c,0,d})^2 + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.088**

PASS - Combined bending and axial compression utilisation is acceptable

Check columns subjected to either compression or combined compression and bending - cl.6.3.2

Effective length for y-axis bending; $L_{e,y}$ = **3460** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_y = L_{e,y} / i_y$ = **119.858**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.21; $\lambda_{rel,y} = \lambda_y / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **2.039**

Effective length for z-axis bending; $L_{e,z}$ = **3460** mm

Slenderness ratio; $\lambda_z = L_{e,z} / i_z$ = **159.811**

Relative slenderness ratio - exp. 6.22; $\lambda_{rel,z} = \lambda_z / \pi \times \sqrt{(f_{c.0.k} / E_{0.05})}$ = **2.719**

Both $\lambda_{rel,y}$ > 0.3 and $\lambda_{rel,z}$ > 0.3, column stability check is required

Straightness factor; β_c = **0.2**

Instability factors - exp.6.25, 6.26, 6.27 & 6.28; $k_y = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,y} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,y}^2)$ = **2.753**

$k_z = 0.5 \times (1 + \beta_c \times (\lambda_{rel,z} - 0.3) + \lambda_{rel,z}^2)$ = **4.439**

$k_{c,y} = 1 / (k_y + \sqrt{(k_y^2 - \lambda_{rel,y}^2)})$ = **0.217**

$k_{c,z} = 1 / (k_z + \sqrt{(k_z^2 - \lambda_{rel,z}^2)})$ = **0.126**

Column stability checks - exp.6.23 & 6.24; $\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,y} \times f_{c,0,d}) + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.509**

$\sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d}) + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.761**

PASS - Column stability is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; L_{ef} = 3460 mm + 2 × h = **3660** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef})$ = **92.305** N/mm²

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})}$ = **0.541**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; k_{crit} = **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.35; $(\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d}))^2 + \sigma_{c,0,d} / (k_{c,z} \times f_{c,0,d})$ = **0.693**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.15 TENSILE CAPACITY CHECK

Span details

Unbraced length - Minor axis; L_z = **3460** mm

Effective length - Minor axis; $L_{e,z} = L_z$ = **3460** mm

Bearing length; L_b = **100** mm

Analysis results

Design bending moment - Major axis; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.228** kNm

Design shear force - Major axis; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.468** kN

Design axial tension force; P_d = **8.506** kN

Section s1 results summary	Unit	Capacity	Maximum	Utilisation	Result
Tensile stress	N/mm²	9.6	1.1	0.118	PASS
Bending stress	N/mm²	15.8	1.8	0.116	PASS
Shear stress	N/mm²	2.2	0.1	0.065	PASS
Bending and axial force				0.233	PASS
Beam stability check				0.116	PASS

Table 4.13 tension summary of web and diagonal memebr of high pitch roof

Modification factors

Duration of load and moisture content - Table 3.1; k_{mod} = **0.7**

Deformation factor - Table 3.2; k_{def} = **0.6**

Depth factor for bending - Major axis - exp.3.1; $k_{h,m,y}$ = min((150 mm / h)$^{0.2}$, 1.3) = **1.084**

Depth factor for tension - exp.3.1; $k_{h,t}$ = min((150 mm / max(b, h))$^{0.2}$, 1.3) = **1.084**

Bending stress re-distribution factor - cl.6.1.6(2); k_m = **0.7**

Crack factor for shear resistance - cl.6.1.7(2); k_{cr} = **0.67**

Check tension parallel to the grain - Section 6.1.2

Axial tension; P_d = **8.506** kN

Design tensile stress; $\sigma_{t,0,d} = P_d / A$ = **1.134** N/mm²

Design tensile strength; $f_{t,0,d} = k_{h,t} \times k_{mod} \times f_{t.0.k} / \gamma_M$ = **9.635** N/mm²

$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d}$ = **0.118**

PASS - Design tensile strength exceeds design tensile stress

Check shear force - Section 6.1.7

Design shear force; $F_{y,d}$ = **0.468** kN

Design shear stress - exp.6.60; $\tau_{y,d} = 1.5 \times F_{y,d} / (k_{cr} \times b \times h)$ = **0.140** N/mm²

Design shear strength; $f_{v,y,d} = k_{mod} \times f_{v.k} / \gamma_M$ = **2.154** N/mm²

$\tau_{y,d}$ / $f_{v,y,d}$ = **0.065**

PASS - Design shear strength exceeds design shear stress

Check bending moment - Section 6.1.6

Design bending moment; $M_{y,d}$ = **0.228** kNm

Design bending stress; $\sigma_{m,y,d} = M_{y,d} / W_y$ = **1.824** N/mm^2

Design bending strength; $f_{m,y,d} = k_{h,m,y} \times k_{mod} \times f_{m.k} / \gamma_M$ = **15.767** N/mm^2

$\sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.116**

PASS - Design bending strength exceeds design bending stress

Check combined bending and axial tension - Section 6.2.3

Combined loading checks - exp.6.17 & 6.18; $\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.233**

$\sigma_{t,0,d} / f_{t,0,d} + k_m \times \sigma_{m,y,d} / f_{m,y,d}$ = **0.199**

PASS - Combined bending and axial tension utilisation is acceptable

Check beams subjected to either bending or combined bending and compression - cl.6.3.3

Effective length - Table 6.1; L_{ef} = 3460 mm + 2 × h = **3660** mm

Critical bending stress - exp.6.32; $\sigma_{m,crit} = 0.78 \times b^2 \times E_{0.05} / (h \times L_{ef})$ = **92.305** N/mm^2

Relative slenderness for bending - exp.6.30; $\lambda_{rel,m} = \sqrt{(f_{m.k} / \sigma_{m,crit})}$ = **0.541**

Lateral buckling factor - exp.6.34; k_{crit} = **1.000**

Beam stability check - exp.6.33; $\sigma_{m,y,d} / (k_{crit} \times f_{m,y,d})$ = **0.116**

PASS - Beam stability is acceptable

4.16 Comparative Analysis

Aesthetic Appearance

The high pitch timber roof typically has a steeper slope, resulting in a more traditional and visually striking appearance. In contrast, Flat Timber Roof: It offers a modern and minimalist appearance, suitable for contemporary architectural styles.

Structural Design

The flat timber roof is characterized by horizontal or nearly horizontal surfaces, while the high pitch timber roof features sloping surfaces. The structural design of the high pitch roof requires more complex truss configurations and additional bracing elements compared to the flat roof.

The high pitch timber roof, with its steeper slope and larger wind loads, requires careful consideration of structural stability. The design should account for the increased overturning moments and shear forces on the roof trusses and connections. Additional bracing elements may be needed to ensure the stability of the high pitch roof.

Load-Bearing Capacity / Internal Forces

Load-bearing capacity refers to the ability of the roof structure to support the imposed loads, such as dead loads (weight of the roof itself) and live loads (wind, occupants, etc.).

Both roof types experience similar internal forces such as moment (bending), tension, compression, and shear forces. However, the distribution and magnitude of these forces can vary due to differences in the roof shape and slope.

Flat Timber Roof: The internal forces, such as moment (bending), tension, compression, and shear forces, are distributed more evenly across the roof structure. The load-bearing capacity is generally uniform throughout the roof due to the even distribution of forces. It can handle moderate to heavy loads effectively.

High Pitch Timber Roof: The internal forces are concentrated towards the top and bottom chords of the truss, resulting in higher stresses in those areas. The load-bearing capacity is higher at the top and bottom chords of the truss, enabling it to withstand heavier loads, especially vertical loads.

Drainage

The flat timber roof may require additional considerations for proper drainage due to its horizontal or low slope design. Adequate slope or drainage systems need to be incorporated to prevent water accumulation and potential leaks.

High Pitch Timber Roof: The steep slope facilitates natural drainage, reducing the risk of water accumulation and ensuring efficient runoff.

Roof Space and Usability

The flat timber roof offers a potentially usable rooftop space, which can be utilized for recreational purposes or installation of rooftop equipment. In contrast, the high pitch timber roof generally has limited usable space due to its steep slope.

Construction and Material Costs

The cost of a timber roof depends on various factors, including the size, complexity of design, quality of timber, labor costs, and local market conditions.

The construction cost of the flat timber roof is generally lower compared to the high pitch timber roof, primarily because of its simpler structural design and reduced material requirements. It may involve fewer design considerations and construction challenges. The high pitch timber roof may involve additional expenses for more complex truss systems and increased material quantities. The steeper slope and complex geometry require additional structural elements, such as support beams and bracing, making the construction process more intricate.

Maintenance

The maintenance requirements for both roof types can differ. The flat timber roof may need more regular maintenance to ensure proper drainage and prevent issues related to water pooling. The high pitch timber roof may require periodic inspection and maintenance of the truss system, particularly in areas with heavy snow loads or high wind conditions.

Wind Load Distribution

The high pitch timber roof with its steeper slope presents a larger surface area to the wind compared to the flat timber roof. This can result in higher wind loads acting on the high pitch roof. The flat timber roof, being more horizontal, experiences relatively lower wind loads.

Wind Pressure

Due to the larger surface area exposed to the wind, the high pitch timber roof may experience higher wind pressures on its surfaces compared to the flat timber roof. The steep slope of the high pitch roof can create a more pronounced pressure difference between the windward and leeward sides, leading to increased wind forces.

Aerodynamic Consideration

The flat timber roof has a more streamlined shape with less disruption to the wind flow, which can help in reducing wind-induced pressures. On the other hand, the high pitch timber roof with its steeper slope may create more turbulence and airflow separation, potentially resulting in higher wind pressures and forces.

Lifespan

The lifespan of timber roofs can vary depending on several factors, such as the quality of timber, maintenance, exposure to weather conditions, and structural design. In general, if properly constructed and maintained, timber roofs can last for several decades. However, flat timber roofs may have a shorter lifespan compared to high-pitch timber roofs. The sloped design of a high-pitch roof allows for better water drainage, reducing the likelihood of water pooling and potential damage to the timber over time. Both flat timber roofs and high-pitch timber roofs can have long lifespans if properly designed, constructed, and maintained. Both flat and high-pitched timber roofs can have a long lifespan if properly maintained and protected from environmental factors. The lifespan of a timber roof can range from 20 to 50 years or more, depending on the quality of materials, installation, and maintenance.

Forces

Flat top and bottom chord: The design compressive axial force of 29.687 kN indicates its ability to handle compressive loads, while the design tensile axial force of 29.724 kN suggests its capacity for resisting tension.

Flat vertical and diagonal chord: The design compressive axial force of 11.756 kN and the design tensile axial force of 13.4 kN indicate the load-bearing capacity of the vertical and diagonal chord members.

Pitch top and bottom chord: The design compressive axial force of 24.466 kN and the design tensile axial force of 28.259 kN suggest its ability to handle compressive and tensile loads.

Vertical and web chord: The design compressive axial force of 7.598 kN and the design tensile axial force of 8.506 kN indicate the load-bearing capacity of the vertical and web chord members.

From the results data, it appears that the high-pitch timber roof generally has higher load-bearing capacities compared to the flat timber roof. However, a comprehensive analysis considering other factors such as the span of the roof and the specific application would be required for a

Flat timber roof: The design forces for a flat timber roof include compressive axial forces, tensile axial forces (in tension), moments, and shear forces. The magnitudes of these forces are specific to the particular roof design and load requirements.

High-pitched timber roof: The forces acting on a high-pitched timber roof are similar to those in a flat roof, including compressive axial forces, tensile axial forces (in tension), moments, and shear forces. However, the magnitudes of these forces may differ due to the different design and load characteristics of a high-pitched roof.

Comparing the provided design results, the forces experienced by both roofs are relatively similar. However, it appears that the flat timber roof experiences slightly higher compressive and tensile axial forces for the top/bottom and vertical/diagonal chords, indicating potentially higher stress levels. This is due to the flatter design, which results in less efficient load distribution compared to the high-pitch timber roof.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Conclusion

The top and bottom chords of the flat timber roof have higher load-bearing capacities compared to the high-pitched timber roof.

This indicates that the high pitch timber roof can potentially support heavier loads and may be more suitable for structures requiring greater load-bearing capabilities.

The flat timber roof generally experiences higher forces, including compressive axial force, tensile axial force, moment, and shear, compared to the high-pitched timber roof.

This suggests that the flat timber roof may be subjected to greater internal stresses and loads, possibly due to its design or structural characteristics.

Without specific cost information, it is challenging to make a direct cost comparison between the two roofs.

However, the flat timber roof may have cost advantages due to its potentially simpler design and construction process.

Both the flat timber roof and high-pitched timber roof can have similar lifespans if properly designed, constructed, and maintained.

Regular inspections, repairs, and treatments are essential for maximizing the lifespan of timber roofs.

Based on these conclusions, it appears that the choice between a flat timber roof and a high-pitched timber roof depends on various factors, including the desired load-bearing capacity, design considerations, and project requirements. The high-pitched timber roof may be preferable when higher load-bearing capacities are needed, while the flat timber roof might be suitable for projects where a simpler design and potentially lower costs are desired. Ultimately, the specific project requirements, architectural considerations, and other factors should be carefully evaluated to determine the most suitable roof design.

5.2 Recommendation

Consider Load-Bearing Requirements: If the structure requires higher load-bearing capacity, such as for larger spans or heavy loads, the high timber roof with its higher load-bearing capacity tendency for the top and bottom chords should be considered.

Evaluate Design Complexity and Cost: Assess the project's design requirements and budget constraints. If simplicity and potentially lower costs are priorities, the flat timber roof may be a more suitable choice due to its potentially simpler design and construction process.

Account for Internal Forces: Evaluate the internal forces, including compressive axial force, tensile axial force, moment, and shear, to ensure that the chosen timber roof design can adequately withstand these forces. Consult with a structural engineer to ensure the roof design meets the necessary safety standards.

Prioritize Regular Maintenance: Regardless of the chosen roof design, regular inspections, repairs, and treatments are crucial for maximizing the lifespan of timber roofs. Implement a maintenance plan to address potential issues, such as pest infestation, rot, or weathering, to ensure the longevity and durability of the timber roof.

Seek Professional Guidance: Engage the services of experienced architects, engineers, and timber roof specialists who have expertise in designing and constructing timber roofs. Their knowledge and expertise will help ensure that the chosen roof design meets the specific requirements of the project and complies with relevant building codes and regulations.

Consider Aesthetics and Architectural Compatibility: Take into account the desired aesthetic appeal and architectural style of the structure. Both flat timber roofs and high-pitched timber roofs can offer unique visual characteristics. Choose a design that aligns with the overall architectural vision and enhances the visual appeal of the building.

Local Wind Climate: The local wind climate and geographical location should also be taken into account. If the area is prone to high winds, such as in coastal regions or areas with strong prevailing winds, the wind effects will be more significant. Proper wind load calculations based on local wind codes and regulations are essential for both roof types.

It is important to note that these recommendations are general in nature and should be tailored to the specific project requirements and conditions. Consulting with professionals in the field will provide more accurate and detailed guidance based on the specific context of the project.

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