



**This electronic thesis or dissertation has been  
downloaded from Explore Bristol Research,  
<http://research-information.bristol.ac.uk>**

*Author:*

**Blackwell, Alison**

*Title:*

**The behavioural effects of formamidine pesticides in lepidoptera.**

**General rights**

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author, unless otherwise identified in the body of the thesis, and no quotation from it or information derived from it may be published without proper acknowledgement. It is permitted to use and duplicate this work only for personal and non-commercial research, study or criticism/review. You must obtain prior written consent from the author for any other use. It is not permitted to supply the whole or part of this thesis to any other person or to post the same on any website or other online location without the prior written consent of the author.

**Take down policy**

Some pages of this thesis may have been removed for copyright restrictions prior to it having been deposited in Explore Bristol Research. However, if you have discovered material within the thesis that you believe is unlawful e.g. breaches copyright, (either yours or that of a third party) or any other law, including but not limited to those relating to patent, trademark, confidentiality, data protection, obscenity, defamation, libel, then please contact: [open-access@bristol.ac.uk](mailto:open-access@bristol.ac.uk) and include the following information in your message:

- Your contact details
- Bibliographic details for the item, including a URL
- An outline of the nature of the complaint

On receipt of your message the Open Access team will immediately investigate your claim, make an initial judgement of the validity of the claim, and withdraw the item in question from public view.

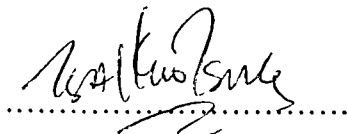
**An Investigation into the Fatigue Behaviour of Wood  
Laminates for Wind Energy Converter Blade Design.**

Submitted by Kuo Tsing Tsai  
for the degree of Ph.D.  
of the University of Bath 1987

**COPYRIGHT**

Attention is drawn to the fact that copyright of this thesis rests with its author. This copy of the thesis has been supplied on condition that anyone who consults it is understood to recognise that its copyright rests with its author and that no quotation from the thesis and no information derived from it may be published without the prior consent of the author.

This thesis may be made available for consultation within the University Library and may be photocopied or lent to other libraries for the purposes of consultation.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Kuo Tsing Tsai', is written over a horizontal dotted line.

(Kuo Tsing Tsai)



# CONTENTS

	<u>PAGE NO.</u>
Summary	7
Acknowledgements	9
1 Introduction	10
2 Introduction to Wood as a Structural Material	13
2.1 Composition and Structure of Wood	14
2.1.1 Chemical Composition	14
2.1.2 Cell Wall Structure	15
2.1.3 Structure at the Macroscopic and Microscopic Level	17
2.2 Variability and Defects in Wood	20
2.3 Mechanical Properties of Wood	22
2.3.1 On Determining Mechanical Properties	22
2.3.2 Elastic Deformation	23
2.3.3 Factors affecting Strength and Elastic Modulus	24
2.4 Failure and Fracture Morphology	26
2.4.1 Tension Parallel to the Grain	26
2.4.2 Compression Parrallel to the Grain	28
2.4.3 Static Bending	30
2.4.4 Fracture Mechanics	31
3 Time Dependent Behaviour of Wood	33
3.1 Introduction	34
3.2 Duration of Load	35
3.3 Rate of Loading Effects	37
3.4 Behaviour <sup>u</sup> nder Sustained Loading	40
3.4.1 Describing Creep and Creep Recovery	40

3.4.2	Creep of Wood	42
3.4.3	Theories of Wood Structure and Time Dependency	46
3.4.4	Modelling Creep	48
3.5	Intermittent Loading	51
4	Fatigue of Wood	55
4.1	Introduction	56
4.2	Fatigue Life Data for Wood	57
4.3	Factors affecting Fatigue Life	59
4.4	Property Changes During Fatigue	61
4.5	Fatigue Mechanisms	65
5	Design Considerations for Wind Energy Converter Blades	66
5.1	The Load Spectrum of WEC Blades	67
5.2	Wood Design Methods	70
5.2.1	Working Stress Design	70
5.2.2	Limit-States Design	74
5.2.3	Comparison of WSD and LSD	75
5.3	Fatigue Design	76
6	Fatigue Testing:	
	Development of a Computer Control and Monitoring System	79
6.1	Fatigue Test Methodology	80
6.1.1	Constant Amplitude Tests	80
6.1.2	Variable Amplitude Tests	82
6.1.3	Fatigue Test Machines	84
6.2	Why a New System?	89
6.2.1	Introduction	89
6.2.2	Basic Requirements of a Computer Control System	90
6.2.3	Small Single Actuator Control Systems	91

6.2.4	Problems and Principles in Computer Control of Servohydraulic Machines	93
6.3	Design of SArGen - Signal Analyser and Generator	96
6.3.1	System Architecture	96
6.3.2	SArGen Hardware Design	98
6.3.3	SArGen Software Design	99
6.3.4	Macintosh Software Design	102
7	Experimental Method	106
7.1	Introduction	107
7.2	Sample Preparation	108
7.2.1	Khaya Ivorensis Laminates	108
7.2.2	Sitka Spruce and Permalii Compressed Beech Laminates	110
7.3	Environmental Conditioning	112
7.4	Fatigue Test and Monitoring Equipment	112
7.5	4-Point Bend Rig	115
7.6	Microscopy	120
7.7	The Experimental Program	121
7.7.1	Static Flexural and Compression Tests	121
7.7.2	Rate of Stress Application Effects	121
7.7.3	Fatigue Testing	122
7.7.4	Fatigue Testing with SArGen	123
7.7.5	Microscopy	123
8	Results and Discussion of Static and Fatigue Tests	125
8.1	Density and Static Mechanical Properties	126
8.1.1	Results	126
8.1.2	Statistical Variation in Strength and Density properties	127
8.1.3	Effect of Stress Rate	131
8.1.4	Relation between Strength, Modulus and Density	133

8.2	Fatigue Life of Various Types of Wood at R = 0.1	136
8.2.1	S-N Fatigue Curves at R = 0.1	136
8.2.2	Assessment of the Scatter of Fatigue Data	140
8.3	Effect of Moisture on Fatigue Life	142
8.4	Effect of R-ratio	144
8.5	Block Loading	147
9	Changes in Fatigue Deflections and Dynamic Modulus	149
9.1	Introduction	150
9.2	Analysis of Fatigue Deflections	152
9.2.1	Effect of Load Level at R-ratio of 0.1	152
9.2.2	Effect of R-ratio	157
9.3	Analysis of Dynamic Modulus	159
9.3.1	Effect of Load Level at R-ratio of 0.1	159
9.3.2	Effect of R-ratio	163
9.4	Miscellaneous	165
9.4.1	Block Loading	165
9.4.2	Comparison of Species	168
10	Macroscopic and Microscopic Study of Fatigue Failure	169
10.1	Visual Observation of Fatigue Damage	170
10.2	Electron Microscopy	171
10.3	Study of Damage Accumulation by Optical Microscopy	176
11	Discussion	181
11.1	Fatigue Damage Mechanisms in Wood	182
11.2	Flexural Fatigue Failure	184
11.3	Implications of Results to WEC Blades Design	188
12	Conclusions	192

REFERENCES

195

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX E

# SUMMARY

With the needs of the designers of Wind Energy Converter blades in mind, this work sets out to improve the understanding of the fatigue properties of wood and fatigue failure mechanisms. Three important areas were identified for research: (a) the effect of R ratio on fatigue life, (b) the effect of moisture on fatigue life, and (c) the development of cumulative damage laws. In order to understand fatigue damage mechanisms, a computer control and monitoring system called SARGen was developed.

The computer system is designed to accurately control a fatigue machine and simultaneously monitor load, deflections and/or strains for every cycle in a fatigue test. It is also capable of block loading a specimen with a load history consisting of up to 200 changes in load level. The system includes a load level correction routine to compensate for drift in load levels and can be used for static tests, monitoring load and deflection or strain at high rates of loading.

Constant load flexural fatigue tests were conducted. Most of the tests were on 4-ply laminates of 4mm thick sliced *Khaya ivorensis* veneers glued with epoxy resin. For comparison, fatigue tests were also performed on rotary cut *Khaya ivorensis* laminates, solid Sitka spruce and unidirectional and 0/90 compressed Beech laminates.

The tests on the effect of R ratio showed clearly the severity of reversed fatigue stress application at negative R ratios. At an R ratio of 0.5, the mean fatigue strength for  $10^7$  cycles was nearly 90% of static flexural strength but with fully reversed flexural fatigue ( $R = -1$ ), the mean fatigue strength was only about 35% of static strength. The constant life diagram for  $10^7$  cycles showed that the mean stress is best related to the alternating stress by a parabolic function or Gerber line. The results indicate that two distinct fatigue mechanisms are operating for positive and negative R ratios.

The effect of moisture on fatigue life was investigated by fatiguing sliced *Khaya* specimens at 5%, 11% and 35% Moisture contents. Increased moisture reduced the static strength and increased the slopes of the fatigue curves.

The fatigue properties of sliced and rotary cut Khaya and Sitka spruce at the same moisture content were found to be largely similar. When S-N lines were normalized by static strengths, they were found to be almost identical. Only when the wood structure has been greatly modified, as for the unidirectional and 0/90 compressed Beech laminates, is there a greater slope to the S-N curve.

The minimum fatigue deflection peak and modulus for sliced sliced Khaya and Sitka spruce were found to change in three stages with fatigue cycles which may be classified as primary, secondary and tertiary stages. For tests at  $R=0.1$ , when the changes in deflection and modulus was plotted against different load levels, a transition was found to occur at between 65% and 75% of static strength. It is suggested that this transition corresponds to the movement of the neutral axis following progressive compressive damage on the compression side of the specimen. An increase in modulus was also found when the fatigue stress was below 65% of static strength. Various mechanisms are proposed to explain this behavior.

With an R ratio of -1, no increase in modulus was observed, neither was there a transition to the change in modulus. The maximum and minimum deflection peaks changed in opposite directions and the modulus decreased consistently throughout the range of load levels tested. Damage from compressive stresses affects tensile strengths when the stress is reversed even at very low cyclic stresses.

Micro-cellular damage accumulation was observed in Sitka spruce stressed at 70% of the static strength is repeated loading at  $R=0.1$ . Compression kinks were observed after only 500 fatigue load cycles and they developed progressively in bands until visible compressive creases were formed. *Macroscopically*, tensile fractures was observed from beyond 50% of the fatigue life of the specimen.

Some block loading experiments have been performed at  $R=0.1$  and  $R=0.5$ . The results suggests that sequence effects may have a major influence on the fatigue life of WEC blades which experience complex loads in the field. The subject of block and complex loading is one which should now receive detailed attention to more accurately satisfy the needs of WEC blade designers using a probabilistic design method.

# ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was financed by the SERC on a CASE award with James Howden (Glasgow) Ltd., and the Khaya veneers were supplied by Gifford Technology (Southampton) . Their support is gratefully acknowledged.

I wish to express my thanks to my supervisor Dr. Martin P. Ansell for giving me this opportunity to undertake this research. His enthusiasm and guidance in this work has been invaluable. I would like to thank Mr. Robin Jones for his invaluable help and technical skill in specimen preparation, equipment maintenance and jig making. Also thanks are due the technicians in the School of Materials Science for their assistance. For special thanks is Mr. Peter Wakeford, Chief Technician, for always being available when help was needed. I would like to commend Mr. S. Bowman for his genius in electronics without whom SARGen would still be simply a dream.

Grateful thanks is also due to Dr. John Dinwoodie of the Building Research Establishment for suggesting the microtoming technique and preparing the slides seen in figures (10.9) to (10.13). Mr. Duncan Lawrie and Mark Hancox of Gifford Technology must also be thanked for contributing so greatly with some most helpful discussions on the WEC blade design.



# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

In contrast to many engineering materials, wood has a very long history serving man. With the world production of timber at  $10^9$  tonnes annually (Dinwoodie, 1981), it is still a very important structural material. Despite this high production figure, information on the fatigue behaviour of wood is limited compared to metals or even the new composite materials. This is probably because wood has been used mainly in civil engineering where creep or duration of loading is the dominant design factor rather than fatigue. Even when wood was used in the aircraft industry, fatigue was considered insignificant or at any rate covered by safety factors and factors accounting for creep. It was not until just before the Second World War that fatigue in wood was recognized with its increased use in aircraft such as the Mosquito. At any rate, with the development of light weight metals, the use of wood in aircraft declined after the war.

In the past few decades, the interest in fatigue of wood has been sporadic. When planes were made from ply-wood during the Second World War, the US Forest Products Laboratory performed some tests to determine the fatigue life of various wood species. That work destroyed the myth that fatigue was unimportant. However, interest declined and publications since then have been scattered with most of the work done in Germany and more recently, in Japan.

The current interest in fatigue is due directly to the advent of Wind Energy Converters (WEC). Wood is potentially the most suitable material for WEC blades which for medium and large machines are over 20 meters in diameter. A few medium size WECs with wooden blades have been built with much success (Lark, 1983; Jamieson and McLeish, 1983). The notable ones in the U.K. are the HWP-300, built in 1984 and installed in the Orkney Islands by James Howden Ltd., and the Wind Energy Group's MS-2, which has been operating since 1985. These were commercial prototypes of which over 50 machines have since been exported. The latest machine constructed, the HWP750 has a blade diameter of 45 metres from tip to tip and the possibility of blade diameters of about 100 metres are being studied. In the USA, interest is also strong in wooden blades and a number have also been designed and

manufactured (Zuteck, 1981).

Wood has many advantages over other materials for WEC blade applications. Wyatt et al (1983) have made a careful study of candidate materials. To the supporters of wood, its advantages are clear. It is light which reduces the weight of the blades and consequently the fatigue stresses due to gravity loads. Manufacture is simple using vacuum bagging with room temperature cure resins. Where stresses are very high, wood can be conveniently combined with GRP in the blade structure. This is a much cheaper option compared with the exclusive use of expensive composite materials such as GRP or CFRP. However despite these excellent qualities, the use of wood has been tentative due to the lack of design expertise with wood in fatigue. Fatigue data, particularly in the high cycle region is scarce. This research sets out <sup>to</sup> reduce this lack of data and to provide a sound basis for fatigue design with wood.

## CHAPTER 2

# INTRODUCTION TO **W**OOD AS A **S**TRUCTURAL **M**ATERIAL

## 2.1 Composition and Structure of Wood

### 2.1.1 Chemical Composition

In any study of a material, a basic understanding of its chemistry and structure is essential. This is especially true of wood because its chemistry and structure is very complex due to its natural origins. Many papers and books have been written on this subject (Panshin and Zeeuw, 1970; Dinwoodie, 1981; Bodig and Jayne, 1982) and only the relevant essentials are mentioned here. Table (2.1) summarizes its basic chemical constituents, the proportions of which vary according to the wood type and species.

The first class of constituents are the polysaccharides, the most important in terms of the mechanics of wood. These are subdivided into two distinct groups, cellulose and hemicellulose. Cellulose  $(C_6H_{12}O_5)_n$  is a linear polymer built up of glucose units  $(C_6H_{12}O_6)$  with oxygen linkages between the 1 and 4 atoms of adjacent units. It is only a moderately large molecule with a degree of polymerization of around 5000 and 10,000. Cellulose molecules in wood are not totally crystalline. The degree of crystallinity is quite high, up to 90%, with regions of complete crystallinity and totally amorphous regions. X-ray analysis suggests that these crystalline regions, called crystallites, are about 60nm in length, 5nm in width and 3nm in thickness. This is much

Table (2.1) Chemical composition of timber. (*Dinwoodie, 1981*)

	% Weight	Polymeric State	Molecular derivatives	Function
Cellulose	40-50	Crystalline highly oriented large molecule	Glucose	'fibre'
Hemicellulose	20-25	Semi-crystalline smaller molecule	Galactose Mannose Xylose	'matrix' " "
Lignin	25-30	Amorphous large 3-D Molecule	Phenyl Propane	'matrix'
Extractives	0-10	Some polymeric; others nonpolymeric	e.g. Terpenes Polyphenols	extraneous

less than the length of the cellulose molecule. Cellulose molecules therefore pass through many crystallites and interlocks to form long slender strands called microfibrils. It is in fact surrounded by hemicellulose and lignin making the microfibrils about 10nm to 30nm in breadth. Within the crystalline and noncrystalline regions, the cellulose molecules also form strong cross-links with each other through its numerous hydroxyl (OH) groups along its length making the microfibril stiff and strong. With such a structure, it is estimated that the microfibrils have a modulus (in the axis of the molecule) of 132 GPa. Also, because of the hydroxyl groups, cellulose is basically hydrophilic.

While cellulose is analogous to fibres in composites, hemicellulose and lignin is analogous to the matrix. Hemicellulose is derived from various sugars (mannose, sucrose, lactose, etc.) and has a highly branched molecular structure. The molecular weights of hemicelluloses are much less than cellulose and this is confirmed by their solubility and ease of removal from wood. There are also many different side groups in the molecular chain and it is amorphous. Like cellulose, it is hydrophilic and in fact, because of its less rigid and amorphous state, it holds much of the moisture in wood.

Lignin is the most chemically complex of the main constituents and it is also very difficult to extract. It is a phenolic polymer having a three-dimensional structure with apparently no ordered molecular arrangement. Lignin results from free radical polymerization of various phenolic substances. Unlike polysaccharides, it is hydrophobic. The elastic modulus of lignin has been estimated to be of the order of 2GPa.

Extractives are various oils and other chemicals which can control the durability, colour, odour and taste of wood. They have little or no direct effect on the mechanical properties of wood, only raising its density.

### 2.1.2 Cell Wall Structure

The arrangement of the constituents of wood may be described as a composite

of cellulose fibrils in a matrix of hemicellulose and lignin. The arrangement of these components are however not entirely certain and models have been proposed to define the structure. What is agreed however, is that the cellulose is arranged in a core with hemicellulose and lignin. The core of cellulose is highly crystalline and it is enclosed by an outer layer of semicrystalline hemicellulose and then amorphous lignin (Dinwoodie, 1981). This gradual transition of crystallinity from fibre to matrix results in high interlaminar shear strength which contributes considerably to the high tensile strength and toughness of wood.

The microfibrils form the basic unit in the cell walls. The cell wall itself however may be described as a laminate of 4 plys with different orientations of the microfibrils and a layer for bonding between the cells. Figure (2.1) shows a model of wood structure. The whole structure may be described as made up of five concentric

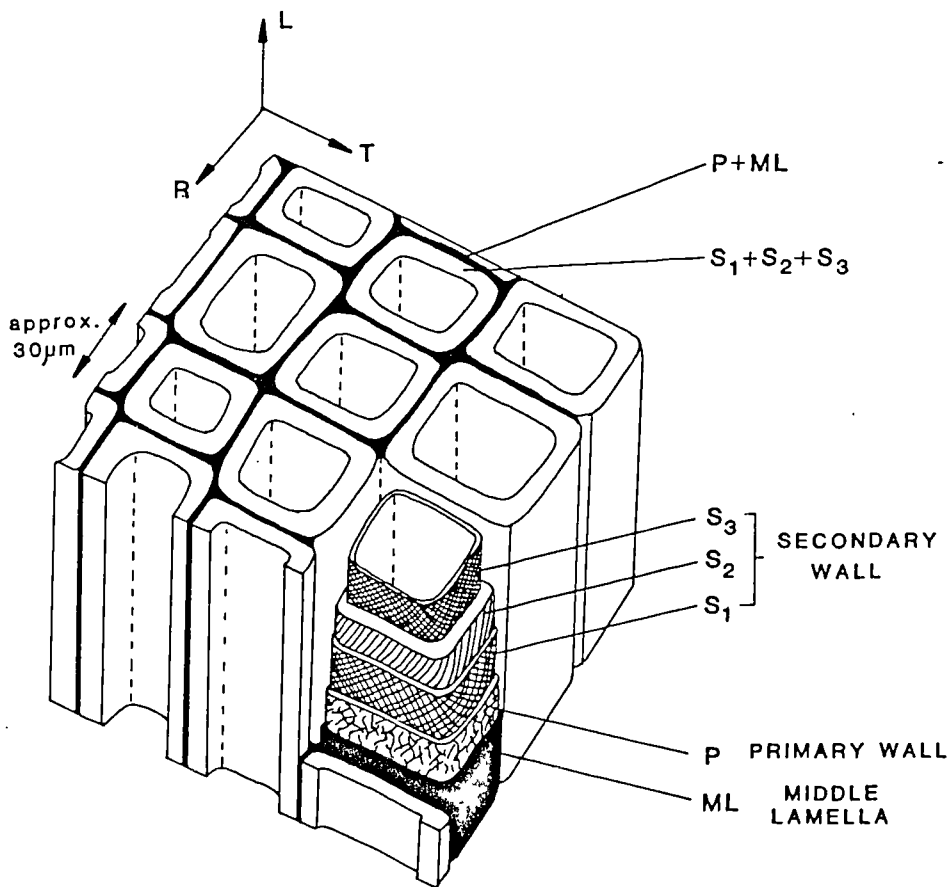


Figure (2.1) Simplified structure of the cell wall showing orientation of each major wall layers. (Ansell and Tsai, 1984)

cylindrical rings. The directional arrangement of the microfibrils of each cell wall also vary amongst the layers as indicated in the figure. The middle lamella is the bonding medium between the cells being made up of a lignin-pectin complex and is devoid of cellulosic microfibrils. The primary or outer layer is very thin, usually no greater than  $0.1\mu\text{m}$ , has a random arrangement of the microfibrils and usually its contribution to strength is minimal. The other three layers are usually referred to as the secondary wall and form the main structural part of the cell wall. The S2 layer dominates the secondary wall forming over 85% of its thickness and has a microfibrillar orientation typically of between  $10^\circ$  and  $30^\circ$ . It therefore contributes most to the behaviour of wood and properties such as shrinkage, tensile strength and failure morphology can be related to the microfibrillar angle.

### 2.1.3 Structure at the Macroscopic and Microscopic Level

A tree trunk has to fulfill the functions of support, conduction of mineral solutions and storage of food. Figure (2.2) shows the various parts of the cross-section

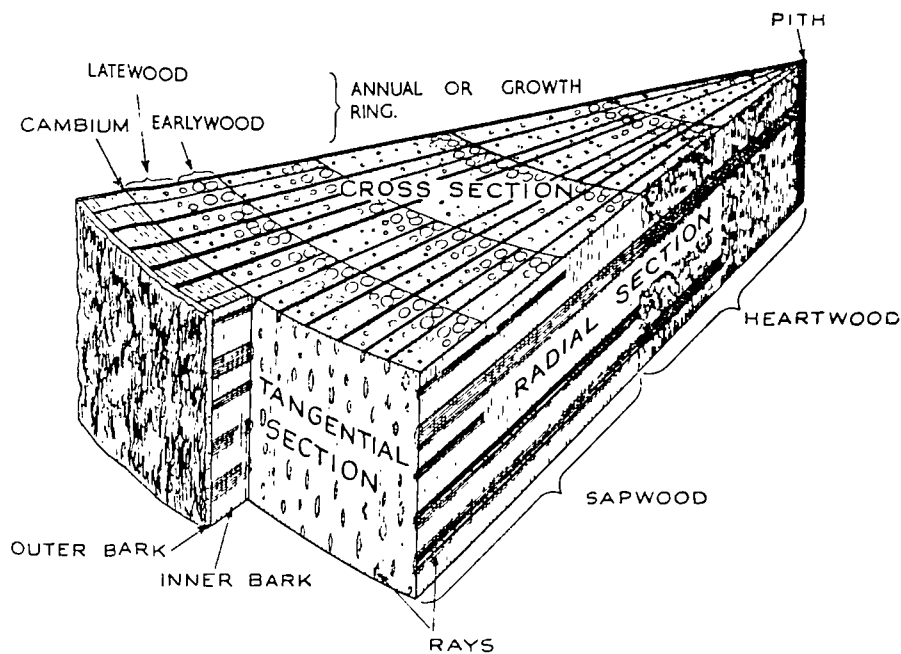


Figure (2.2) Diagrammatic illustration of a wedge segment cut from a five year old hardwood tree showing principal structural features. (Dinwoodie, 1981)



of a trunk. The entire cross-section of the trunk fulfills the function of support but conduction and storage is restricted only to the sapwood and growth in diameter is restricted to the cambium. The widest and inner part, the heartwood, consists of cells which were once part of the sapwood. With time cell changes occur and the functions of conduction and storage cease. The heartwood is often distinguished by its darker colour due to extractives.

The cambium is a thin layer of living wood cells and lies between the bark and the woody part of the trunk. Growth occurs from this layer. In tropical climates, growth is generally continuous but in temperate regions, climate affects the growth. In the winter, the cambium is dormant but in the spring and through the growing season, the cells divide radially to form daughter cells which further develop to form wood cells or bark. Where the seasons affect growth, annual rings are formed. Wood formed in the early or spring part of the growth season (earlywood) has a low density, but towards the latter or autumn part of the season (latewood), the density increases as growth slows and cells have a greater cell wall thickness. In winter, growth ceases and with the new spring season, a transition between the high density latewood and the low density earlywood is formed.

The radial growth of the trunk must also accommodate the branches. In so doing, knots are formed. Where the cambium of the branch is still alive at the point of fusion with the cambium of the trunk, a continuity in growth will arise although the cell orientation will change. This results in a green or live knot. However if the cambium of the branch is dead, a black or dead knot is formed where no continuity exists. Such knots may drop out during sawing of planks.

At the microscopic level, the structure of wood remains sophisticated. Figure (2.3) shows an electron micrograph of a temperate hardwood, oak. As a three dimensional section, the figure shows the cell types present and their arrangement. The transverse section shows the large vessels present which serve to transport fluid up the tree. Also present are smaller cells for support called fibres. Annual ring interfaces of

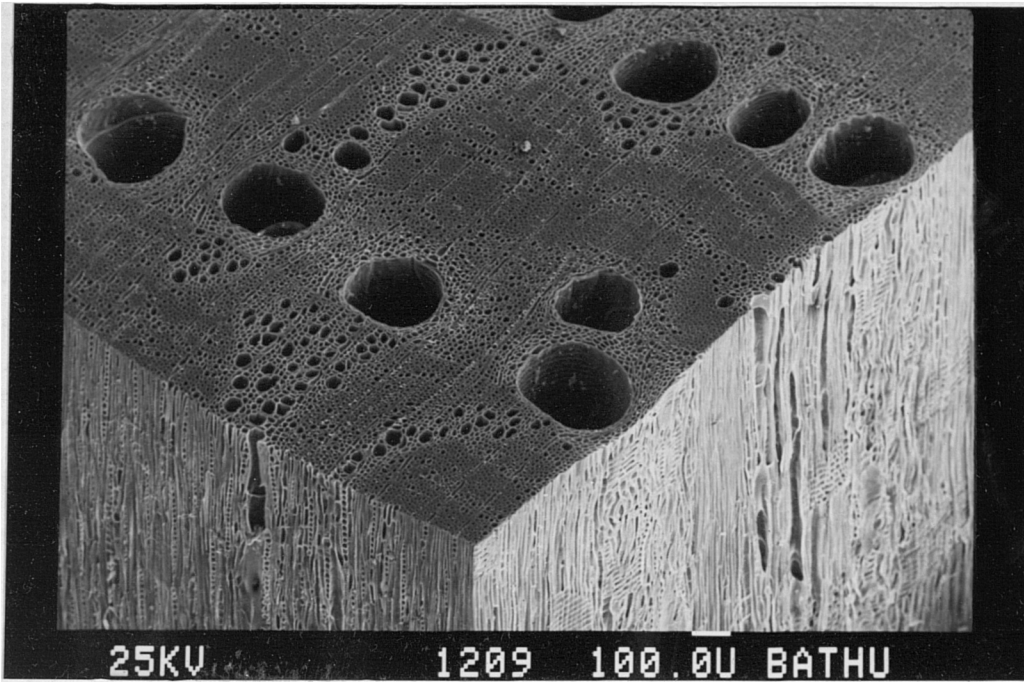


Figure (2.3) Transverse, tangential longitudinal and radial longitudinal sections through English Oak. (*Ansell and Tsai, 1984*)

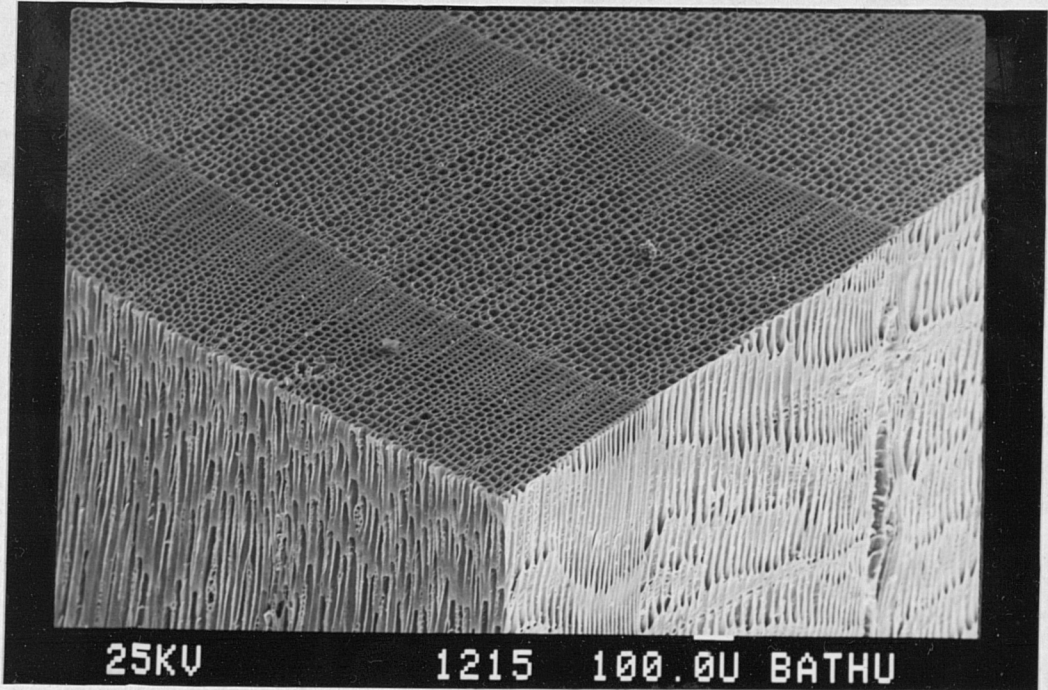


Figure (2.4) Transverse, tangential longitudinal and radial longitudinal sections through Scots Pine. (*Ansell and Tsai, 1984*)

varying density can also be seen where the latewood growth ends and the earlywood begins. As seen in figure (2.4), softwood structure is much simpler, without large vessels, and is composed mainly of tracheids. This differ from hardwood fibers in serving both functions of support and fluid transport. Tracheids are in fact also present in hardwoods but in small amounts. In both hardwoods and softwoods, ray cells or parenchyma cells are also found. These cells may be seen in figures (2.3) and (2.4) on the radial longitudinal section lying in the radial direction. They are much shorter with thinner cell walls than tracheids or fibers. They function mainly for storage of food although their presence does affect properties in the radial direction.

## **2.2 Variability and Defects in Wood**

Variability in the properties of wood is perhaps its greatest deficiency. Different species of wood have very different mechanical properties due to genetics affecting cell wall thickness, distribution of cell types, and other factors. This may in fact be an advantage as it provides a wide range of woods to select from. However, variations within each species are also present and can be quite considerable.

With a single tree, variability is systematic. Length of cells, thickness of cell wall, grain angle, microfibrillar angle of the S2 layer all show systematic trends from the centre of the tree to the bark and upwards from the base to the top of the tree. Environmental factors affect properties from tree to tree and are therefore more random. The relation is complex but for example in softwoods, an increased growth rate generally results in a decrease in density and mechanical properties. All these factors contribute to the scatter in any measured property of wood.

However, defects in wood can be much more specific and they contribute most to reducing its strength. They are often due to unusual situations in the environment or may be a product of processing. Reaction wood is particularly important defect in timber used as structural members. When bending stresses are present in growth, as with a tree at an incline or in large branches in hardwoods, the distribution of growth

promoting hormones is disturbed causing formation of abnormal tissues. In softwoods, compression wood is formed as the tissue develops on the compression side of the trunk. The tissue is characterized by an abnormally high lignin content, higher microfibrillar angle in the S2 layer and a generally darker appearance. Compression wood is more brittle and has a lower tensile strength. In hardwoods, the growth is on the tension side and is therefore referred to as tension wood. It has a high cellulosic content imparting a rubbery characteristic to the fibres which causes difficulties in sawing and machining. It raises the tensile strength of the timber but reduces its compressive strength.

Another defect particularly significant with *Khaya ivorensis* and other low density tropical hardwoods is brittleheart. This defect is due to the slight shrinkage of the outer layers of the tree after its formation resulting in it being in a state of tension and the core in compression. This compressive stress builds up as the tree grows resulting in a critical state when the stress exceeds the compression strength and yield occurs. Shear lines form on the cell walls which weaken the timber.

Checks and shakes are defects which greatly reduce the stiffness and strength. They are defined as cracks perpendicular to the grain. Checks usually form from drying stresses while shakes are usually present in trees but appear on processing. Members with these defects when stressed behave as multiple members and have a weak shear strength and low stiffness.

Defects can also be found within the grain. Ideally the wood should have a straight grain but often this is not the case. If the trunk is crooked, diagonal grain will result in the timber or the grain may spiral resulting in a twist in the grain direction. The region around a knot is also not straight grained. Dead knots weaken timber especially and tests have shown the number of knots per unit area of timber has an important influence on strength. Other defects found in timber include compression failures (often the result of tree felling), insect and fungal injuries. These defects can all seriously affect strength and careful selection procedures must be used to avoid unexpected failures.

## **2.3 Mechanical Properties of Wood**

### **2.3.1 On Determining Mechanical Properties**

A comprehensive range of standard tests are available which describe in detail the methods of determining various static mechanical properties. In the U.K. the BS 373:1957 'Methods of Testing Small Clear Specimens of Timber' is available detailing a range of tests. A wider range of tests are also available in the ASTM Standard D143-52. These includes testing methods for measuring the following properties:

- (1) 3-point static bending
- (2) Compression parallel to grain
- (3) Compression perpendicular to grain
- (4) Shear parallel to grain
- (5) Tension parallel to grain
- (6) Tension perpendicular to grain
- (7) Hardness
- (8) Impact bending
- (9) Toughness
- (10) Cleavage perpendicular to grain
- (11) Nail withdrawal

These tests are based on small, clear specimens requiring careful control of specimen selection. Specimens may either be in the green condition or have a 12% moisture content. Some of the tests are only for comparative purposes, such as hardness and cleavage, and to make practical use of the other test results require adjustments using factors to derive a working stress. The results therefore do not directly represent the strength of larger scale timber, glue-laminated timber and plywood as used in industry. Therefore other ASTM Standard tests are available for testing these directly. The ASTM Designation D198-76 details tests on full -size lumber in bending, compression parallel to grain and tension parallel to grain. These tests, which may also be used on glued-laminated timber, include the effects of defects, moisture content, species, size and other variables in their results which are relevant to the application.

### 2.3.2 Elastic Deformation

Tested in tension, compression or bending, a specimen of wood will initially deform almost linearly with increasing load but deviations occur at higher loads. Wood therefore follows Hooke's Law in the early part of the test until the point of deviation known as the limit of proportionality. Figure (2.5) illustrates the load-deflection characteristics of timber. In tension, the limit of proportionality is much higher, around 60% of ultimate load, than in compression which occurs at between 30% to 50% of ultimate. With wood, a modulus of elasticity can therefore be defined although its limits must be recognized. Its value is also dependent on the test variables such as loading rate.

Another important feature of timber is its anisotropy. From its structure, it is not surprising that the properties all vary according to the three mutually perpendicular axis, longitudinal, radial and tangential. Ignoring the fact that the tangential face is

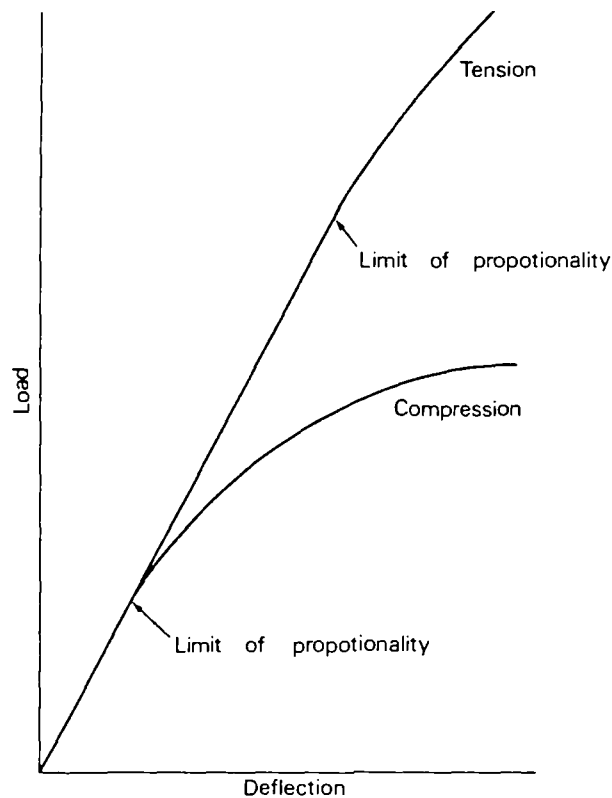


Figure (2.5) Typical load-deflection graphs for timber in tension and compression parallel to grain with the assumed limit of proportionality indicated. (Dinwoodie, 1981)

curved, timber can then be described as having orthotropic symmetry and the theory of elasticity can be applied. It is not intended here to discuss the theory but to note that considered in this manner, a general description of the deformation of timber under any system of stress is possible. Also, there are only nine independent constants that need be defined, three elastic moduli, one in each of the L, R and T directions; three shear moduli, one in each of the principal planes LT, LR and TR; and three Poisson's ratios namely  $\nu_{RT}$ ,  $\nu_{LR}$  and  $\nu_{TL}$ . A comprehensive set of these constants for various species are available from Hearmon (1948).

### 2.3.3 Factors affecting Strength and Elastic Modulus

Defects discussed in section 2.2 are obvious factors affecting strength and modulus. Other factors which also affect strength and modulus are also present and are of a more general nature such as test environment, material conditioning and treatment. The following is a list of all these factors briefly described.

- (a) **Grain angle** : The degree of anisotropy between the longitudinal and transverse planes in timber is as high as 48:1. Therefore depending on the angle of grain of the specimen, strength and modulus will vary greatly.
- (b) **Density** : The greater the cell wall thickness, the greater is the density of the wood and the greater the strength and modulus. Figure (2.6) shows the results of many species of wood plotted to relate specific gravity and compression strength. As a means of quality control for a single species, the density-compression strength relationship may be considered to be linear.
- (c) **Ratio of Latewood to Earlywood** : Latewood is about 150%-300% stronger than earlywood. This is mainly due to the difference in cell wall thickness but other more fundamental differences in the cells also make it weaker.
- (d) **Microfibrillar Angle** : The microfibrillar angle of the S2 layer, measured by X-ray diffraction, markedly affects strength and modulus. The higher the angle is from the axis of the cell, the lower the strength and modulus.

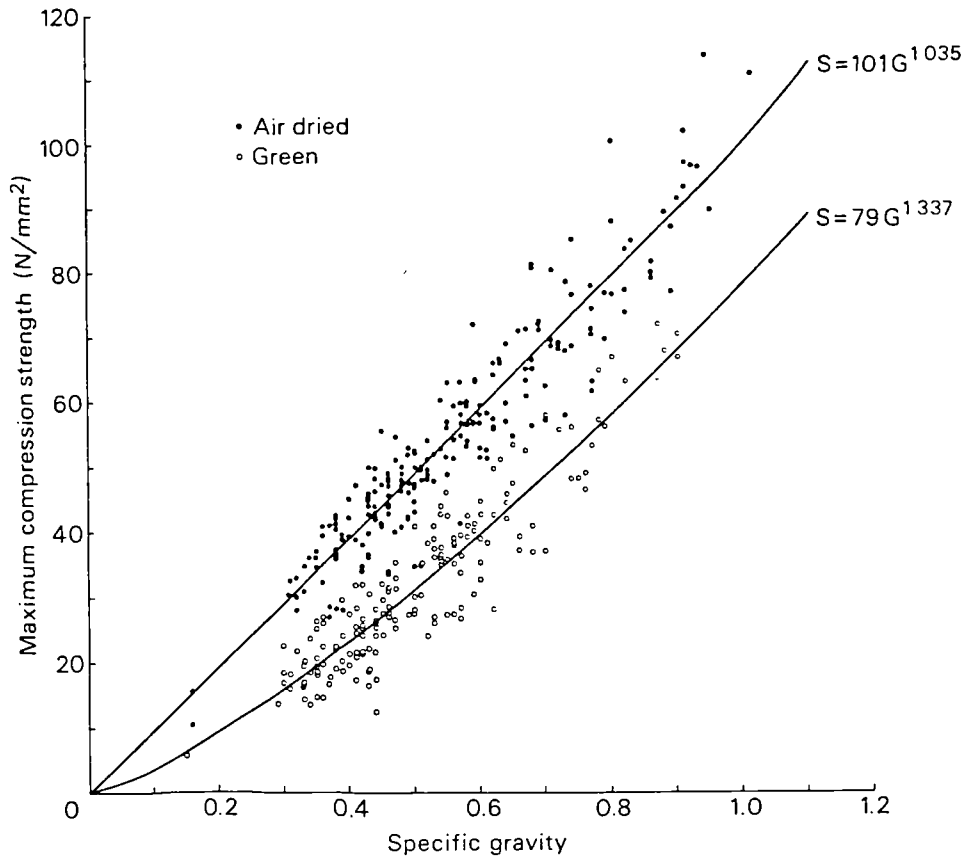


Figure (2.6) The relation of maximum compression strength to nominal specific gravity. (Lavers, 1983)

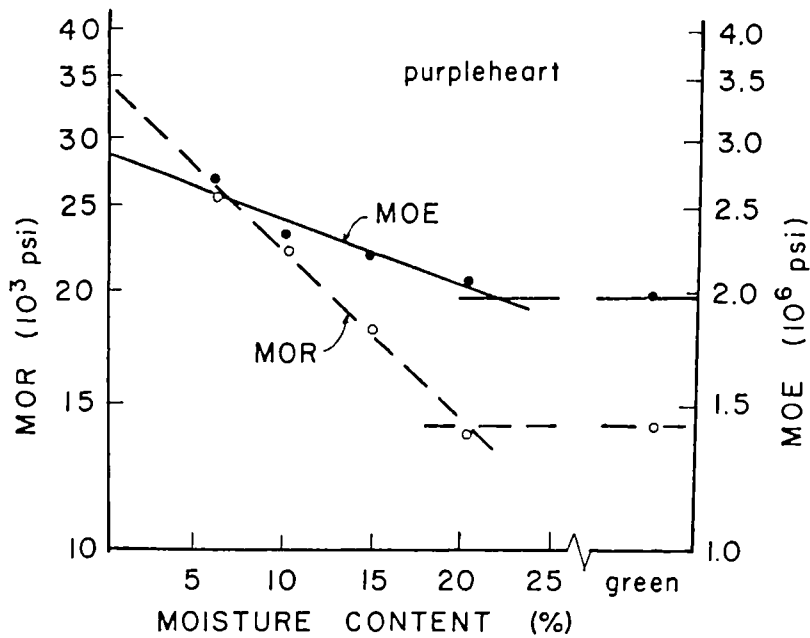


Figure (2.7) Typical linear relationship between log mechanical properties and moisture content. (Bodig and Jayne, 1982)



- (e) **Defects** : The effect of defects on strength has been briefly discussed earlier. In the application of Wind Energy Converter blades, reaction wood, brittleheart, compression failures, checks, shakes, and other strength reducing defects should be removed by good visual quality control. The effect of knots is more complicated but in general, they should be as few as possible.
- (f) **Moisture** : Moisture affects virtually all the physical properties of wood. Strength and modulus as shown in figure (2.7), are greatly reduced with increasing moisture content up to around 20% to 25% above which there is no significant difference. The point of inflection in the graphs is known as the fibre saturation point and is related to the point when any additional moisture in wood is related to an increase in the free water in the cell cavities.
- (g) **Temperature** : Between +200°C and -200°C and at constant moisture content, strength and modulus can be considered to be linearly decreasing with increasing temperature. There are complications however in that properties may not be reversible when exposed to above 95°C for short periods, or 65°C, if it is for a longer period of time.

## **2.4 Failure and Fracture Morphology**

### **2.4.1 Tension Parallel to the Grain**

There are four distinct macroscopic types of failure observed in wood loaded in tension parallel to the grain. As shown schematically in figure (2.8), they are (a) splintering tension, (b) combined tension and shear, (c) diagonal shear, and (d) brittle tension. Closer studies using microtensile specimens have revealed a difference in the failure types of the latewood and earlywood. For latewood, a shallow zig-zag fracture plane appears to dominate while earlywood in contrast usually fail with a vertical fracture plane and horizontally across the thin cell walls. Studies by electron microscope of the fracture surface in latewood shows that the fracture occurs either in the S1 layer or as is more common, between the S1 and S2 layers. It appears therefore that shear

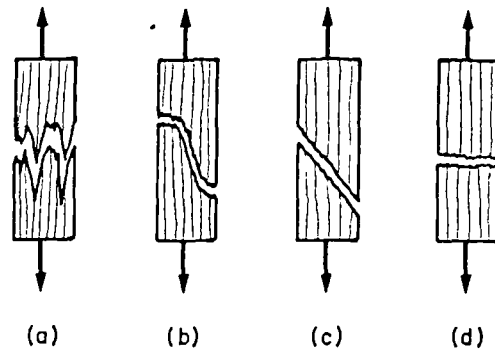


Figure (2.8) Failure types of clear wood in tension parallel to grain: (a) splintering tension, (b) combined tension and shear, (c) shear, and (d) brittle tension. (*Bodig and Jayne, 1982*)

within the cell wall is the dominant mode of failure. The exception is brittle tension which is observed only if the specimen has been compressed prior to failure in tension.

Attempts have been made to estimate the theoretical tensile strength of wood. There are two principal views here; chain scission or rupture of the primary C-O-C covalent bonds (Meyer, 1950), and chain slippage where secondary hydrogen bonds are broken. Of the two models, calculations have shown that chain slippage is unlikely, requiring a much higher failure stress than chain scission. Including factors like finite chain length and the presence of amorphous regions in the model for chain scission, it is estimated that the minimum theoretical tensile strength is of the order of 1000-7000 MNm<sup>-2</sup> (Mark, 1967).

Considering that the tensile strength of wood is of the order of 100 MNm<sup>-2</sup>, the theoretical calculations are at least a factor of 10 too high. With the observations made in microscopic studies of latewood and earlywood, the current view of failure in tension is one where failure is initiated by shear. Between the S1 and S2 layers, the opposite orientations of the shear stresses would result in very high shear stresses and it is often observed that delaminations occur there. Calculations by Mark (1967) of the theoretical stresses in the various cell wall layers at the point of failure has indicated that these shear stresses are such as to initiate failure. It therefore appears that both the microscopic observations and developed theories agree that failure in tension is

primarily by shear.

## 2.4.2 Compression Parallel to the Grain

The work of Dinwoodie (1968, 1974, 1978) and Keith (1968, 1971, 1972, 1974) has established a clear picture of the development of compressive damage in wood. Compressive failures have always been recognized in wood because of the characteristic crease formed. It does not lead to total separation of the specimen except at very high strains. In tests, a range of types of failures have been found as shown in figure (2.9). Usually, failure is by shear with the crease easily visible. This often develops gradually as a slow yielding process although high strength specimens sometimes shear suddenly.

Microscopic studies suggest that the yielding process begins at a stress much less than the ultimate. Dinwoodie (1968) suggests damage begins at as low a stress as 25% of the ultimate though Keith (1971) considers damage begins from 60%. Certainly, around 60% of the ultimate strength, a marked increase in damage has been observed corresponding to the deviation from linearity in the stress-strain curve. The compression damage in wood takes the form of kinks or slip lines in the cell walls. This can be observed using polarized light through 20 $\mu$ m thick microtomed section (figure (2.10)). These kinks are irreversible in nature and result from shearing of the cell wall. Often "X-shaped" compression failures are observed as well as "<-shaped" failures.

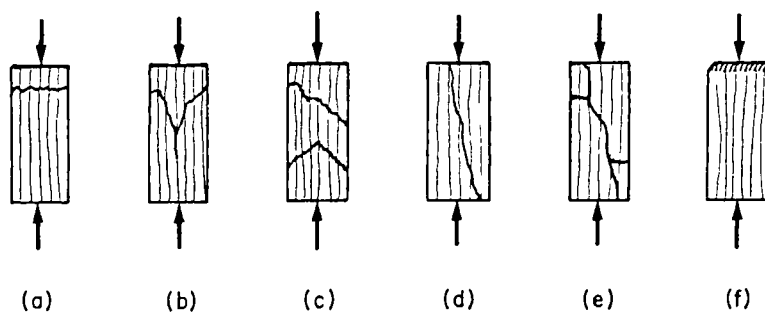


Figure (2.9) Failure types of nonbuckling clear wood in compression parallel to grain: (a) crushing (b) wedge splitting, shearing, (d) splitting, (e) crushing and splitting, (f) brooming and end rolling. (*Bodig and Jayne, 1982*)

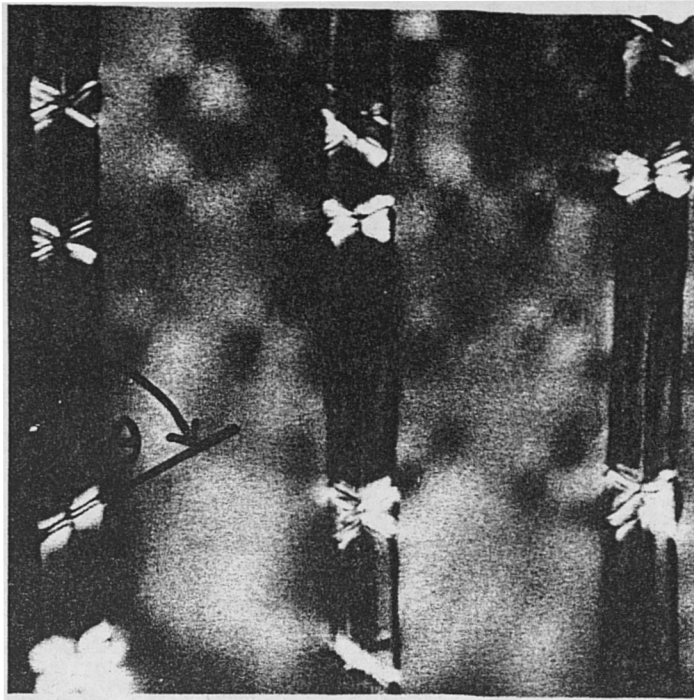


Figure (2.10) Formation of kinks, in the cell walls of spruce timber during longitudinal compression stressing. (*Dinwoodie, 1981*)

As illustrated in figure (2.11), this is a consequence of the direction of the deformation in the individual cell walls of a compound of two which are joined at the middle lamella. With increased stress and strain, the number of kinks increase and become more prominent. The line of kinks formed develops horizontally on the radial plane, but on the tangential plane develops at an angle of 45° to 60° to the vertical. Only at or beyond the ultimate stress is this line of damage visible to the naked eye in the form of the crease.

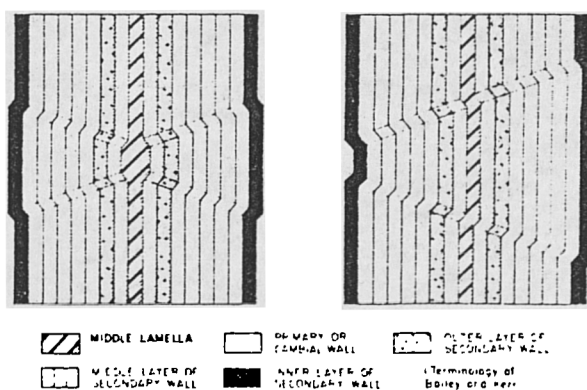


Figure (2.11) Diagram illustrating the appearance of minute compression failures in the compound cell wall viewed in radial longitudinal section. (*Keith,1968*)

### 2.4.3 Static Bending

In bending, the specimen is subjected to a compressive stress on one side with a tensile stress on the other. At the centre of the specimen, or more accurately along the line of neutral axis, there is no stress. In many materials, the tensile strength is less or about equal to the compressive strength. Therefore, the standard beam formula used in analysis of bend tests, gives strengths approximately equal to the tensile strength of the material. However with wood, the compressive strength of clear timber is only about a third of the tensile strength hence strictly, the beam equation is not applicable but is used to define the modulus of rupture for wood. Also, compression failure would occur well before the tensile strength of the wood is reached. However, since compression failure is progressive, redistribution of stresses must occur as the load is increased beyond the compressive strength. This stress redistribution can be achieved by the movement of the neutral axis towards the tension side increasing the cross-sectional area for the compressive load and reducing the section carrying the tensile load. This would also effectively lower the failure load of the specimen.

Modelling of the stress distribution in a bend specimen was reviewed by Malhotra and Bazan (1980). Using the simplified stress profile shown in figure (2.12),

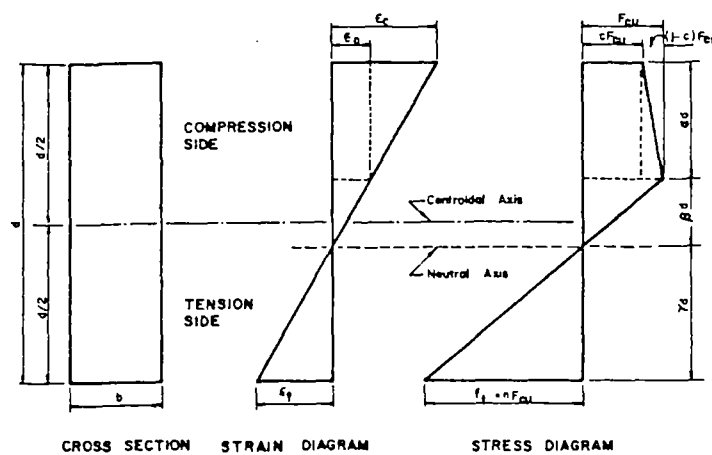


Figure (2.12) Theoretical stress and strain distribution across the depth of a beam of rectangular cross section in the inelastic range. (Malhotra and Bazan, 1980)

Malhotra and Bazan derived the following expressions for the ultimate bending moment,  $M_u$  and the distance of the neutral axis measured from the tensile face,  $\gamma$ , at ultimate bending moment.

$$M_u = F_{cu} \frac{bd^2}{6} \left[ \frac{3N}{N+2} \right] \quad \dots 2.1$$

$$\frac{\gamma}{d} = \frac{2N+1}{(N+1)(N+2)} \quad \dots 2.2$$

where  $N$  is the ratio of the ultimate tensile strength to the ultimate compressive strength,  $F_{cu}$ . The specimen dimensions are  $b$ , the width, and  $d$ , the depth.

#### 2.4.4 Fracture Mechanics

The fracture mechanics approach to strength of materials is well established and developed in its application to isotropic and to a more limited extent, orthotropic materials. In its essence, it proposes that the critical strain energy release rate of a crack propagating through an infinite sheet of a homogeneous material is a constant. Multiplied by the Young's modulus and taking the square root, the term critical stress intensity factor,  $K_{1C}$  can be defined which is particularly useful since it is a material property, independent of crack length. Therefore knowing its value, this factor provides the means to calculate the critical flaw size for a material under stress. This approach has been found to be particularly useful for brittle materials which is sensitive to cracks and therefore a definition of strength is subjective.

Its applicability to timber has been much researched and discussed in the literature. The assumptions made in the basic concept of fracture mechanics does not directly apply to wood. Wood is orthotropic and inhomogenous. However, modifications are possible to apply fracture mechanics to orthotropic materials. In the crack opening mode (usually referred to as Mode 1), Atack et al (1961) showed that fracture mechanics is applicable to wood for the fracture planes of RL and TL, ie. for

crack extension along the direction of the grain. Schniewind and Centano (1973) measured the  $K_{1C}$  values for Douglas fir in all six fracture planes. Two planes, the LT and LR, where cracks were propagated across the grain had values of 2.4 and 2.7  $MNm^{-3/2}$  respectively which was a factor of ten higher than the other fracture planes. However in general, the applicability of fracture mechanics to these two tough fracture planes is poor. For the other two fracture modes, forward shear and transverse shear, research has been very limited.

## CHAPTER 3

# TIME DEPENDENT BEHAVIOUR OF WOOD



### **3.1 Introduction**

The properties of materials may be considered as two ideal types - the elastic solid and the viscous liquid. However, wood, like most polymeric materials is a neither an elastic or a viscous material. It is not purely elastic as strain continues to increase even when stressed below the proportional limit. It is not purely viscous as viscous liquids have no definite shape and flow irreversibly under stress. Having an intermediate characteristic, wood is termed viscoelastic. As such, the stress-strain behaviour of wood is strongly time dependent.

The time dependent nature of wood properties is in many applications very important. Deflections in beams and other types of wooden members under long term loading is often critical to their performance. Furthermore, failures can occur under sustained loads which are less than their ultimate static loads. Design engineers must therefore have a clear means of quantifying time dependent properties of wood.

Many factors also affect the time dependent behaviour of wood in creep. The magnitude of stress, the rate of stress or strain and the duration of load are all important. The condition of the wood is also important, its moisture content and temperature being the most significant. All these have been studied in many different ways, the most common are:

- (a) **Creep.** This is the change in strain with time under a constant stress.
- (b) **Stress Relaxation.** A corollary of creep where the stress changes with time under constant strain.
- (c) **Duration of Load.** The dependency of failure strength on the length of time under stress.
- (d) **Rate of Loading.** The rate of loading affects a variety of mechanical properties of wood.
- (e) **Damping Capacity.** The absorption of energy during oscillatory loads or deflection is a consequence of viscoelastic behaviour.
- (f) **Intermittent Loading.** A variation of creep and duration of load where the load is

held for a period, removed for a period and repeated. This arises out of real life situations where loads are rarely only dead loads.

Much has been published within all these areas as evidenced by the number of review papers on the subject of time dependent behaviour (Schniewind, 1968; Sugiyama, 1967; Grossman et. al, 1969; Grossman, 1976; Ugulev, 1976; Westlund, 1976). Textbooks on wood invariably devote a substantial section on this phenomenon (Bodig and Jayne, 1982; Dinwoodie, 1981). These references and others have been used as the basis of the following review which, while not intending to be extensive, covers the most important and relevant ground.

### 3.2 Duration of Load

When loaded over a period of time, failure in timber will occur at a stress much less than that for short term tests. This is known in the timber industry as *Duration of load*. It is also referred to as creep-rupture or static fatigue. Such a reduction in strength of wood has enormous implications for the strength of wood that can be used in the design of timber structures.

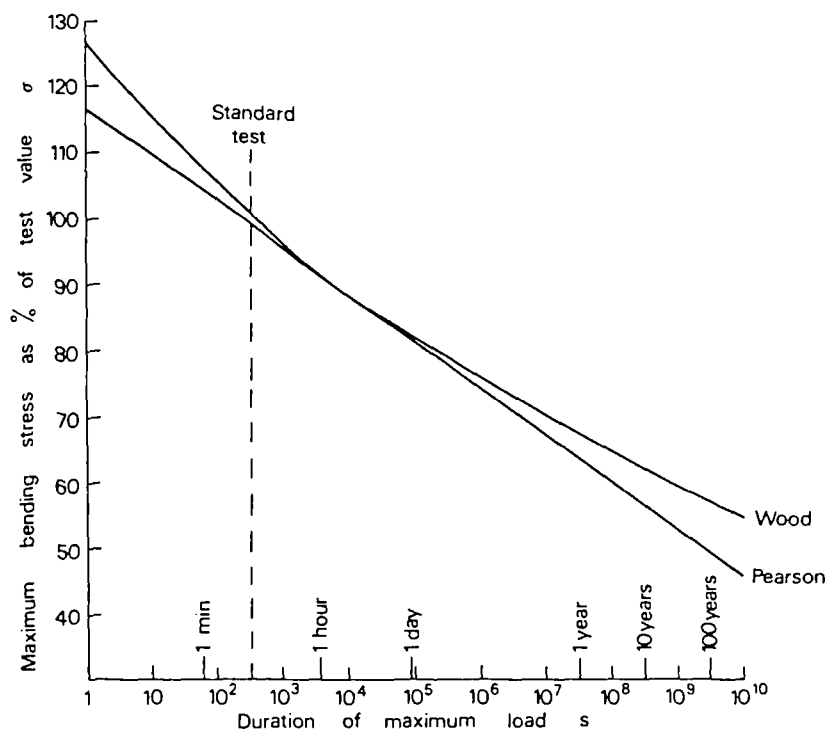


Figure (3.1) The effect of duration of load on the bending strength of timber.  
(Dinwoodie, 1981)

A great deal of experimental work has been carried out to characterize duration of load. The modulus of rupture or bend strength has been found to be nearly proportional to the logarithm of time. Figure (3.1) shows two relationships based on experimental tests from two early papers. The curvilinear relationship established by Wood (1951) is based on a hyperbolic function fitted to test results for small clear Douglas fir specimens. Such a relationship indicates a levelling off at the lower loads suggesting a stress level at which failure will not occur. The linear relationship of strength to the logarithm of time due to Pearson (1972) was derived from previously published results for different species, moisture contents and solid or laminated timber. The regression line through the data is given by

$$s = 91.5 - 7\log_{10}t \quad \dots 3.1$$

where  $s$  is the percentage stress level and  $t$ , the duration of maximum load. Such a linear relation will not have a critical stress level below which failure will not occur.

More recent work with full size lumber has found however that both the relationships of Wood and Pearson do not accurately apply. The work of Madsen (1978), Mindness, Madsen & Barret (1978) and Foschi & Barret (1982) with lumber size specimens suggested that for higher stress ratios, the severity of duration of load is less with times to failure all occurring above the Wood or Pearson lines. The general trend of the results appeared to be opposite to that of Wood suggesting a downturn in duration of load for lower stress ratios. However, longer term tests suggest that the slope diminishes and appear asymptotic to a stress level of about 50%. To model this behaviour, Barret & Foschi (1978) used a damage factor and suggested possible damage accumulation rate functions. Another approach by Nadeau, Bennet & Fuller (1982) uses fracture mechanics and the concept of slow crack growth. This is discussed more fully in Section 3.3 in the context of rate of loading effects.

Where the level of the duration of load varies with time as is common in real life conditions, the direct application of duration of load relationships such as equation 3.1 is not strictly applicable. The use of a high load in order to conservatively characterize

the duration of load strength is often used. Gerhards (1979) suggested the use of a cumulative damage approach in the form similar to Miner's Rule for the fatigue of metals. This may be expressed using a residual lifetime factor,  $g$ , where  $g = 0$  indicates failure.

$$g = 1 - \sum \frac{t_i}{L_i} \quad \dots\dots 3.2$$

$t_i$  is the period under a load  $SL_i$  and  $L_i$  is the life time associated with that load. No experimental verification of this however is available.

### 3.3 Rate of Loading Effects

The rate of loading to failure of small defect free specimens of wood has been found to influence its strength, stiffness and proportional limit (Sugiyama, 1967). These properties have been found to increase with rate of loading as schematically illustrated in figure (3.2). This tendency has been shown to occur in tests made in bending, in compression parallel to the grain and other stress states. Sugiyama reported work by Liska (1950) which showed that the strength ratio (in %),  $P$ , followed the equation:

$$P = 121 - A \log_{10} T \quad \dots\dots 3.3$$

where  $A=8.5$  in compression and  $7.5$  in bending.  $T$  is the time to failure in seconds.

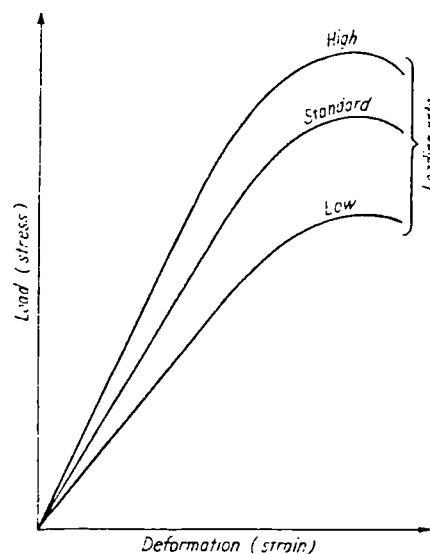


Figure (3.2) Effect of loading rate on stress-strain curve. (Sugiyama, 1967)

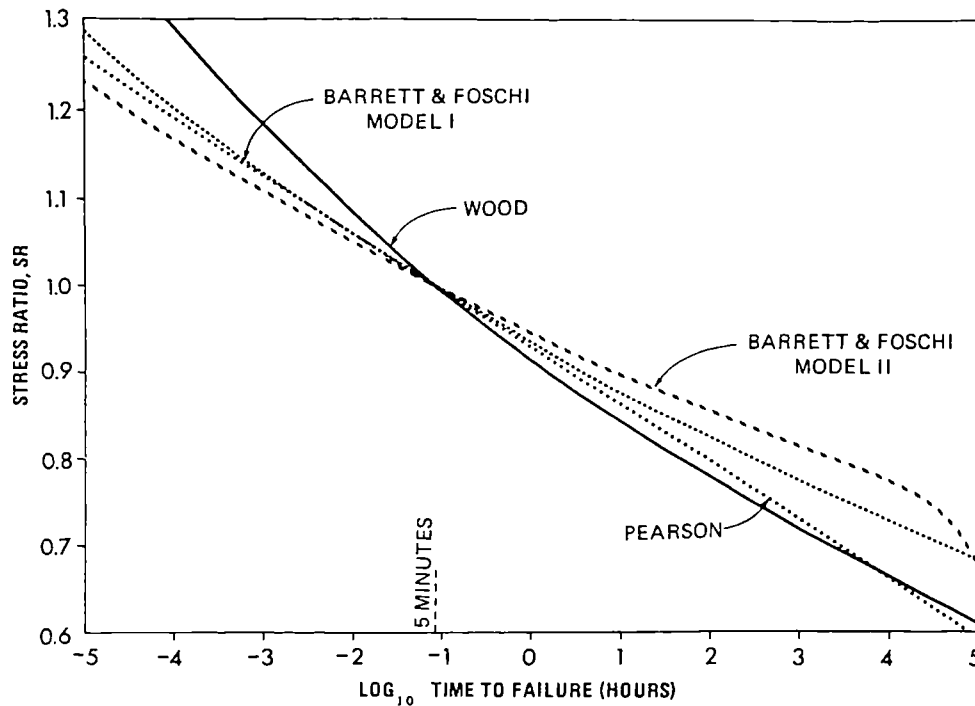


Figure (3.3) Relationships for effect of time to failure on stress ratio for ramp loading. Stress ratio, SR, is defined as the ratio of the failure strength to the failure strength when the duration of stress is 5 minutes. (*Spencer, 1978*)

This implies that the strength of wood will be higher at higher loading rates. Strickler & Pellerin (1973) found in tensile tests on Western Hemlock and Douglas-fir, that only the proportional limit was affected but not the modulus and strength. It should be noted though that the moisture content of their specimens was relatively low at 6% in Western Hemlock and 10% for Douglas fir. Spencer (1978) reviewed various analytical and experimental relationships from the literature. Figure (3.3) shows the behaviour of these relationships reviewed all indicating a significant increase in strength with loading rate.

Recent work (Spencer, 1978; Nadeau et. all, 1982; McLain & Woester, 1986) however has cast some doubt over this simple approach of modelling data from tests with small defect free specimens. Such an approach may be misleading especially since commercial lumber is never defect free. In flexural tests with commercial Douglas-fir lumber of Grade 2 or better, Spencer found that only in comparing the higher strength samples is there an increase in strength with rate of loading. Lower strength specimens showed less increase and may in fact show a decrease in strength. As figure (3.4)

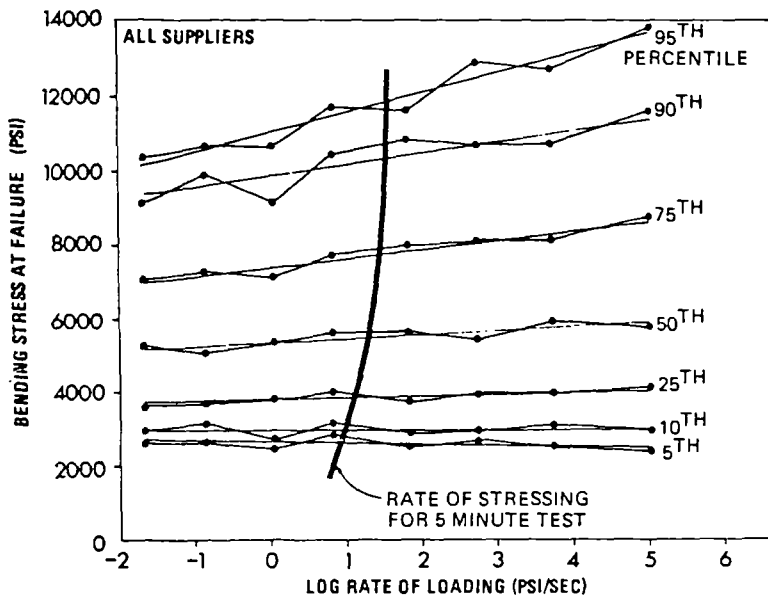


Figure (3.4) Effect of rate of loading on bending strength at different failure probability levels. (Spencer, 1978)

shows, at the 95<sup>th</sup> percentile, there was an increase of about 40% for the very fast rates but at the 5<sup>th</sup> percentile, the strength appeared to be independent of loading rate. Nadeau, Bennet & Fuller (1982) in testing notched and unnotched Douglas-Fir showed that only in unnotched specimens is there a rate effect. They also showed a correlation with Spencer's result where the notched specimens were of the same mean strength as the 5<sup>th</sup> percentile strength. Using a simple fracture mechanics model, Nadeau et al were able to predict rate effects for Douglas-fir based on initial strengths. They also suggested an explanation for the observed result showing that there exists two regions in stress-rate behaviour - the higher rate region where strength is independent of rate and the lower rate region where strength is influenced by subcritical crack growth. For lower strength specimens where defect sizes are larger, the boundary between the two regions would shift to lower stressing rates. Therefore short term rate effects will not be found but duration of load effects will still occur since there, crack growth rate is slow. It was acknowledged however that the model is simplistic as it assumes opening-mode fracture when mixed-mode fracture is more the situation. Nevertheless the theory is very attractive.

### 3.4 Behaviour Under Sustained Loading

#### 3.4.1 Describing Creep and Creep Recovery

When a viscoelastic material is loaded and unloaded, the typical creep and recovery curve obtained is as shown in figure (3.5). Creep is defined as the time dependent deformation under constant load. Recovery follows when the load is removed resulting in a decrease in deformation as a function of time.

If creep causes failure, three distinct stages of deformation can be identified as shown in figure (3.6): primary, secondary and tertiary. The changing strain rates between the three stages suggests a period of stabilization of stress(primary), a transitional period(secondary) before the final failure process(tertiary). The length and degree of these three stages vary greatly depending on the condition of the material and its load level. Generally, the primary stage almost always occurs. The secondary stage can be very extended or very short while the tertiary stage may be nonexistent with sudden catastrophic failure.

In describing creep, three components of the deformation are often defined.

- (a) Elastic deformation. This is instantaneous and fully recoverable,  $\partial_E$ .
- (b) Delayed elastic deformation. This is time-dependent and recoverable,  $\partial_{DE}$ .
- (c) Viscous flow or plastic deformation. Permanent and nonrecoverable,  $\partial_V$ .

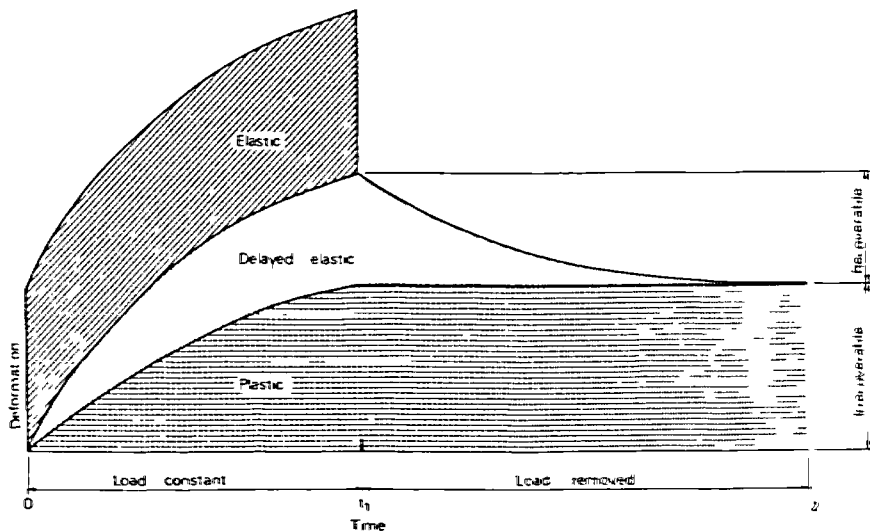


Figure (3.5) The various elastic and plastic components of the deformation of timber under constant load.(Dinwoodie, 1981)

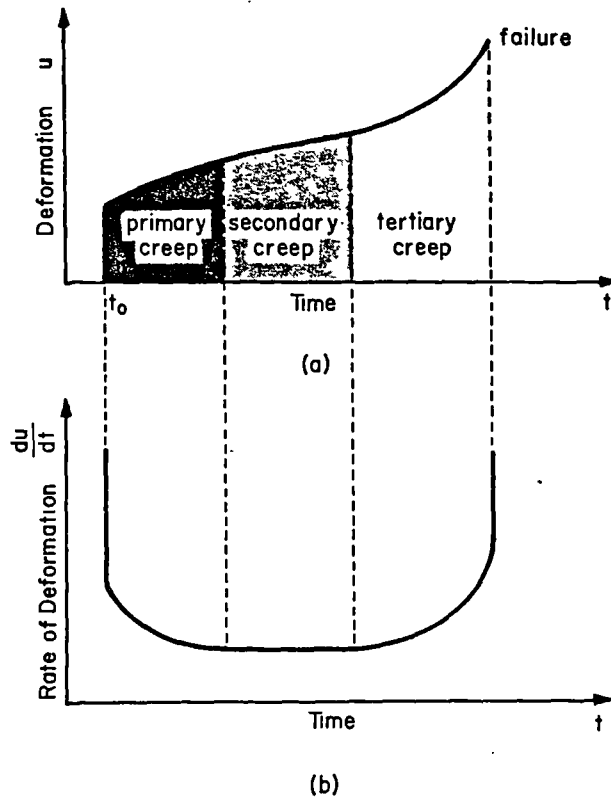


Figure (3.6) (a) Stages of creep. (b) Creep rate. (Bodig and Jayne, 1982)

These components are simplistically illustrated in figure (3.5). The most basic form of viscoelasticity is linear viscoelasticity where the elastic and viscous components are considered as linear following Hooke's Law and Newtonian fluid flow. The delayed elastic deformation behaves as a combination of linear elastic and linear viscous behaviour. The behaviour of these three components with wood however is not straight forward. While elastic deformation is generally linear, the viscous component may not be linear. It is sufficient here to describe total creep deformation,  $\partial_T$ , as the sum of the three components.

$$\partial_T = \partial_E + \partial_{DE} + \partial_V \quad \dots\dots 3.4$$

The concept of a linear viscoelasticity is described in greater detail in section (3.3.4).

In experimental studies of creep, certain parameters and terms may be defined namely creep compliance and relative creep. Creep compliance, also referred to as specific creep, is defined as the ratio of strain (which is time dependent) to the applied constant stress.



$$C_c(t) = \frac{\text{(varying) strain}}{\text{applied constant stress}} \quad \dots\dots 3.5$$

Relative creep, also known as the creep coefficient, is defined as a ratio of the time dependent strain over the time independent strain. This may be expressed as

$$C_r(t) = \frac{\partial_t}{\partial_0} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial_t - \partial_0}{\partial_0} \quad \dots\dots 3.6$$

where  $\partial_t$  is the deflection at time t and  $\partial_0$ , the initial deflection. It may also be defined as the change in compliance with time expressed as a ratio of the original compliance.

Another term, the stress ratio, used to describe the stress level. It is defined as the ratio of the applied stress level over the static failure strength. In flexure, this would be the extreme fiber stress over the modulus of rupture.

### 3.4.2 Creep of Wood

#### Factors Affecting Creep of Wood

The creep trajectories of wood depend greatly on the stress ratio. Figure (3.7) illustrates the different trajectories at different stress ratios in bending. The higher the stress, the higher the relative creep. In his excellent review, Schniewind (1968) reported

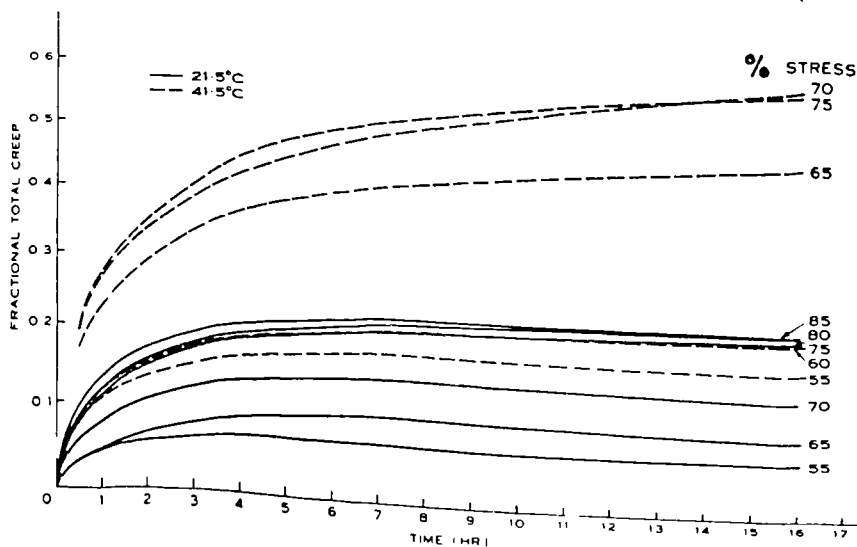


Figure (3.7) Creep curves of Hoop pine at two temperatures and various stress ratios. (Bodig and Jayne, 1982)

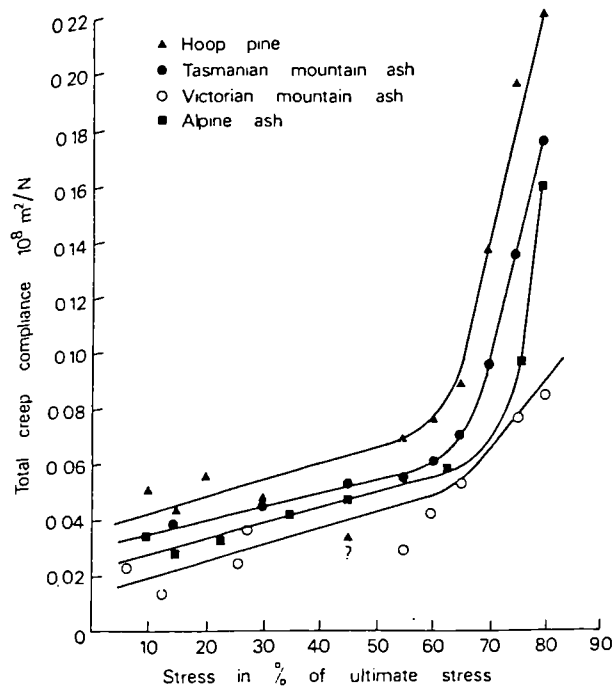


Figure (3.8) The relation of total creep compliance to stress as a percentage of ultimate for four Australian species loaded in bending for 20 hours.(Dinwoodie, 1981)

that where moisture content and temperature is constant, at very low stress ratios, wood behaves as a linear elastic solid following Hooke's Law. At intermediate levels however, wood is linearly viscoelastic with increasing deviations from linearity at higher stresses. Figure (3.8) shows the deviation from linear viscoelasticity for various species between 56-60% of flexural strength. For modes of testing other than flexure, a similar deviation has also been found. In tension it has been found to occur as high as 75% of ultimate strength although a great variation of the level of deviation has been reported (Dinwoodie,1981). In compression parallel to the grain, the onset of nonlinearity appears to occur at 70%. The stress level for this is much lower than that in tension although it translates to about the same level as in flexure. Once nonlinearity occurs, much of the increased deformation is nonrecoverable and has been associated with progressive structural change.

As figure (3.7) shows, creep is also greatly affected by temperature. By increasing the temperature from 21.5°C to 41.5°C, the relative creep of Hoop pine

almost doubles. In fact, increase in temperature accelerates creep in the primary, secondary and tertiary stages, with failure occurring at shorter times. Significantly, most of the increase is due to the irreversible component. Also, cycling between low and high temperatures repeatedly will result in even greater creep.

Moisture is one of the most important modifiers of wood response. The plasticising effect of moisture invariably increases the creep compliance. The higher the moisture content, the greater the creep compliance. This effect has been observed in tension perpendicular and parallel to the grain, compression, torsion and bending.

If the moisture content of wood is cycled from dry to wet and back repeatedly, the creep deformation will follow a cyclic pattern but with only a partial recovery. Armstrong and Christenson (1961) investigated this phenomenon and found a great increase in the nett deflection with a greatly reduced time to failure. The results of Hearmon and Paton (1964) is shown in figure (3.9). It is significant that the creep of beech at 93% RH tends to remain constant after approximately 15 days while for the same load level but with cyclic changes in moisture, the creep increases by a factor of

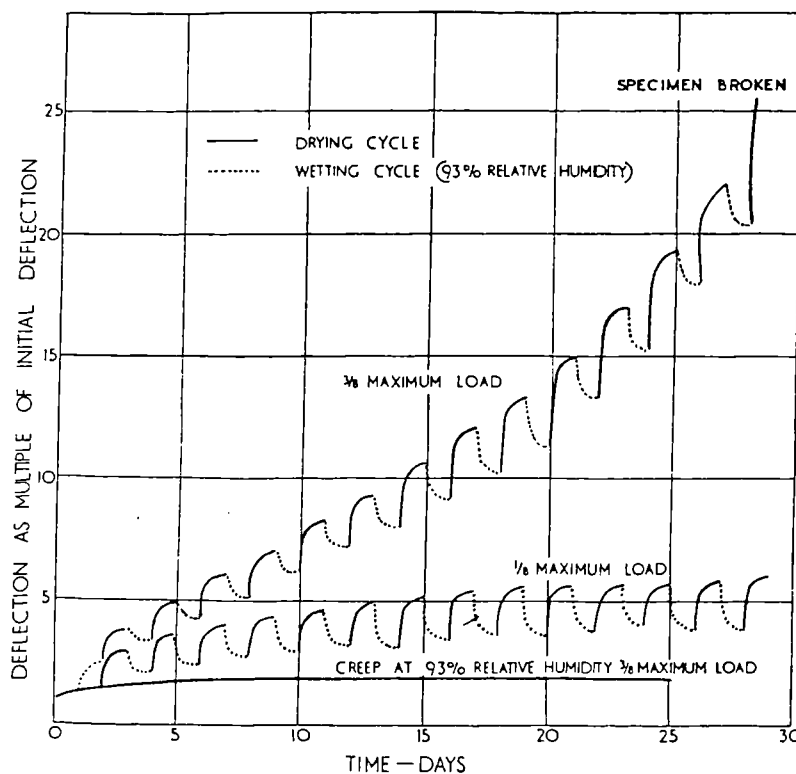


Figure (3.9) The relationship between deflection and length of exposure cycle. (Hearmon and Paton, 1964)

nearly 20 and is nearly 25 times the initial deflection. Even at a lower load, a cyclic moisture content results in a greater amount of creep deflection. Also for the same load level, failure occurred in less than 30 days whereas the uncycled moisture specimen would not be expected to fail for a much longer period. Another characteristic seen in figure (3.9) is that the creep strains increased during the drying cycle and recovery occurs, though not totally, during the wetting cycle. An exception to this is the first wetting cycle. This exception however depends on the initial moisture content (Schniewind, 1968). Hearmon and Paton (1964) found that the increase in creep deflection is dependent on the range of moisture change and the load level. Grossman (1976), in reviewing this effect reported that the deformation is little affected by the period of the moisture cycle, only its moisture step.

The recovery following cyclic moisture under constant load is also remarkable. Armstrong and Christensen (1961) found that on removal of load, the elastic component recovered immediately followed by a small amount of delayed elastic recovery. Therefore the specimen was still considerably deformed. However, this is not truly permanent as when the unloaded specimen is taken through another moisture cycle or cycles, a large part is recovered.

#### **Boltzmann's Superposition Principle and Time-Temperature Superposition**

In most polymeric materials that are linearly viscoelastic, the Boltzmann's principle of superposition applies. This principle states that the total creep occurring by a sequence of stress increments is equivalent to the superposed sum of the creep at each of the incremental stress level. At low moisture content and temperature, this principle has been found to be applicable to wood. However, above the limits of linearity, this principle no longer applies.

The time-temperature superposition principle is also another important principle applicable to many linearly viscoelastic polymers. Here viscoelastic behaviour at one temperature can be related to that at another temperature by a change in the time scale only. However, in Schniewind's (1968) review, this principle has been found to be not

applicable to wood. Extensions of the principle to time-temperature-moisture content has been attempted but found to have limited or no application.

### 3.4.3 Theories of Wood Structure and Time Dependency

As yet, time dependency is far from clearly understood. No comprehensive theory of the processes occurring during creep which results in failure is available. The problem is complicated by the complex interactions of creep with temperature and moisture content. Conceptually, creep processes may be explained according to the elastic, delayed elastic and viscous components.

Elastic strain being instantaneous and fully recoverable must be associated with the straining of molecular bonds. The molecular organization, described briefly in section (2.1), suggests a complex system composed of many different substances with amorphous and crystalline areas. A complete description of all the sources of elastic strain is not feasible, however it is clear that many types of bonds would be involved; both intramolecular and intermolecular. The important idea here is that bonds are not broken or formed.

Following the molecular level of description, delayed elastic or recoverable strains are ascribed to the uncoiling and recoiling of polymer chains. Cellulose, hemicellulose and lignin macromolecules would be involved in this process. In the absence of external forces, a polymer will take a shape which maximizes its randomness and minimizes its free energy according to the laws of thermodynamics. Under external forces, polymers chains will seek to reorientate, breaking and making secondary bonds to establish a new thermodynamic equilibrium. As this occurs, a complex redistribution of stresses would occur in parallel causing other areas to reorientate until total stability is reached.

Cellulose is a more linear molecule than hemicellulose and lignin is highly branched. Therefore, cellulose will reorientate while lignin will slowly flow transferring stress to the cellulose. This will occur until the new orientation of cellulose fully

accommodates the stress and the retarded elastic response ceases. On removal of stress, the process occurs in reverse as the polymers seek to return to their original thermodynamic equilibrium with a random, low energy state. While cellulose seeks to return to its original orientation, the lignin will retard the process resulting in a delayed elastic recovery.

Chow (1973) proposed an alternative theory suggesting from experimental observations that the process is a two stage one involving all the three major wood constituents. The first stage concerns the initial response to the application of stress. His experimental studies in molecular motion of the constituents of wood suggested that the carbohydrates crystallize while the lignin reorientates directionally differently to the carbohydrates in the paracrystalline or amorphous regions. The directional difference in molecular movement causes molecular interference between the lignin and carbohydrates to occur which results in stress being transmitted through the lignin network. This reduces the stress burden on the carbohydrates. The second stage follows as the system recovers its equilibrium. Lignin therefore serves as an energy transfer medium and it is postulated, serves also as an "energy sink" maintaining and controlling the energy created by the stressing.

The irreversible strains or viscous component of creep has been associated with the failure and reconstitution of secondary bonds. Once a bond is broken, load is transferred to other areas allowing new bonds to form. The energy barriers present in breaking bonds makes this a time dependent process according to the kinetics of the system. Hydrogen bonds have been identified as the main source of these bond failures and formation. Since the hydrogen bond has water molecules as a crosslink between the carbohydrate molecules, the diffusion of moisture through wood would greatly affect viscous flow. However, it appears that such a mechanism cannot wholly explain irreversible deformation and cannot explain the deformation under cyclic moisture condition. At moderate to high stress levels, it is suggested that the amount of irreversible creep is closely associated with the development of incipient failures. The work of Dinwoodie (1968) and Keith (1971) showed that under compressive stresses,

compression kinks develop. The number and severity of the damage depends not only on stress level but also the duration of load. Such compression kinks which develop into compression creases would account for a considerable amount of irreversible deformation for creep in compression and bending.

#### 3.4.4 Modelling Creep

Mathematical modelling of experimental creep test results for polymeric materials have been extensive (Bodig and Jayne, 1982). The application of these models to wood however has been more limited with the Power Law or parabolic equation being the most popular. The parabolic equation takes the form

$$\varepsilon = \varepsilon_0 + at^m \quad \dots 3.7$$

where  $\varepsilon_0$  is the instantaneous elastic strain,  $t$  the time, with  $a$  and  $m$ , experimentally determined constants. Where instead of strain, relative creep is related to time, the Power Law model would result.

$$\varepsilon_t = At^m \quad \dots 3.8$$

This equation has been found to be extremely successful in the modelling of wood especially for primary creep. It is in fact found to fit creep trajectories better than linear viscoelastic models described below (Hoyle, 1985). Hoyle has also successfully used the Power Law to fit creep subjected to cyclic moisture content.

Schniewind (1968) reported that a logarithmic model has also been used for short term experiments in tension parallel to the grain. This model may be expressed as

$$\varepsilon = a + b \log(t) \quad \dots 3.9$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants.

Sugiyama (1967) used two empirical equations for creep in bending above and below the limit of linear viscoelasticity. For creep below the limit,

$$\varepsilon = (a + b\alpha)t^N \quad \dots 3.10$$

and for creep above the limit,

$$\varepsilon = a'\alpha^b t^{m\alpha^{-n}} \quad \dots 3.11$$

where  $\alpha$  is the stress ratio,  $t$ , the time,  $d$  the % creep and the other terms are constants.

A more classical approach to viscoelasticity is the theory of linear viscoelasticity. The basis of this approach, as suggested at the introduction of this chapter, is the combined use of the Hookean model of a linear elastic solid and the Newtonian model of a linear viscous liquid. Conventionally, the Hookean model is expressed as a spring and described as

$$P_e = ku_e \quad \dots\dots 3.12$$

where load  $P_e$  is linearly related to elastic deformation  $u_e$  with a spring constant  $k$ . Newton's law on viscous flow states that load  $P_v$  is proportional to the velocity gradient in the liquid,  $du_v/dt$ .

$$P_v = r (du_v/dt) \quad \dots\dots 3.13$$

This behaviour is often represented by a dashpot with viscosity  $r$ .

By combining these two models, two simple models are possible to describe viscoelasticity. To model the stress-strain behaviour under constant deflection or under stress relaxation conditions, the Maxwell body of a spring and dashpot in series may be used. This is illustrated in figure (3.10a). Under constant stress, this model combines the elastic and viscous components of creep. A Kelvin or Voight body of a spring and dashpot in parallel however is often used to model the delayed elastic strain. This model as illustrated in figure (3.10b), allows a slow transfer of load from the dashpot to the

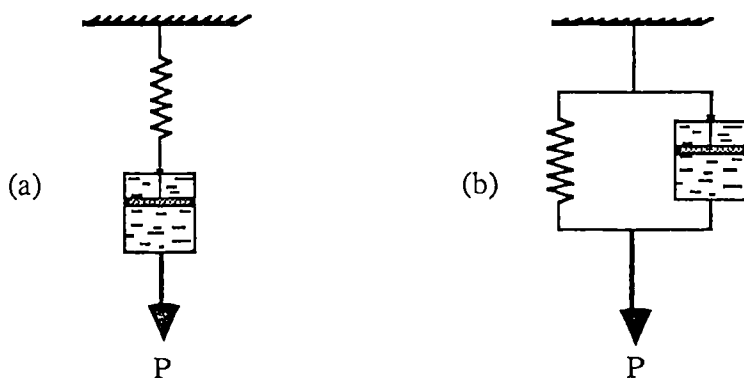


Figure (3.10) (a) Two element Maxwell body for describing stress relaxation.  
 (b) Two element Kelvin or Voight body for describing recoverable strain.



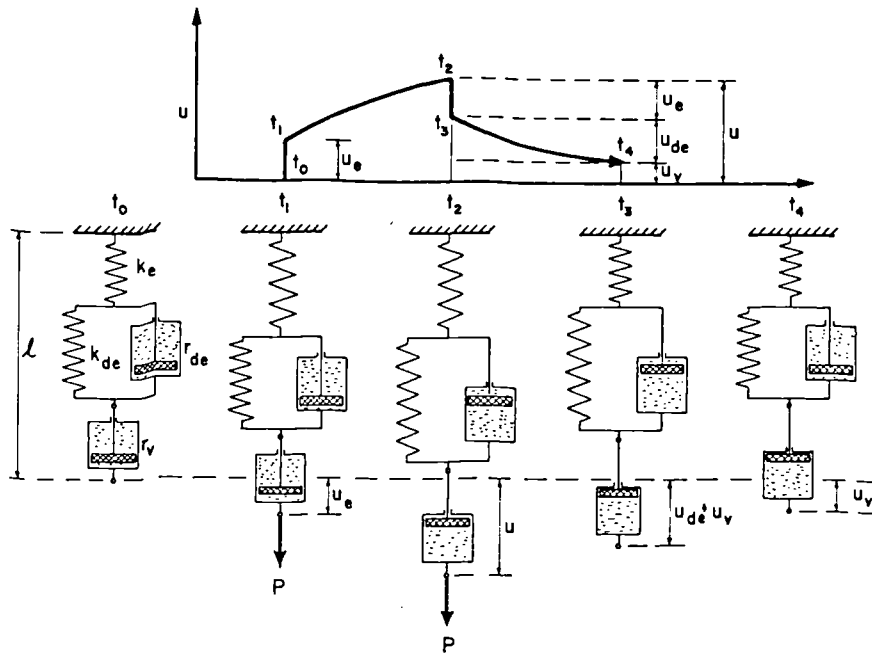


Figure (3.11) A four element burger body representing creep behaviour.(Bodig and Jayne, 1982)

spring as the displacement of the dashpot increases. The two bodies can therefore be combined to provide a four element body which includes an elastic, delayed elastic and viscous component as illustrated in figure (3.11). The mathematical expression of the four element body may be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 u_{\text{Total}} &= u_{\text{Maxwell}} + u_{\text{Voight}} \\
 &= \frac{P_0}{k_m} + \frac{P_0}{r_m} + \frac{P_0(1 - \exp(-k_v t / r_v))}{k_v} \quad \dots 3.14
 \end{aligned}$$

where  $k_m$  and  $r_m$  are the spring constant and viscosity constants of the Maxwell body, while  $k_v$  and  $r_v$  are those of the Voight body. The ratio,  $k_v / r_v$ , is often referred to as the retardation time constant,  $\tau$ . The experimental fit of this model is reasonable. Improvements can be made to the model by adding more Voight bodies in series extending the expression for creep. However, should the viscous component of creep be non-linear as in compression creep at high stresses (Keith, 1974), such an approach would not be accurate.

### 3.5 Intermittent Loading in creep

Intermittent loading or cyclic loading is not immediately distinguishable from fatigue. Indeed, the dividing line between the two may be quite arbitrary. Intermittent loading is define here as loading where the time dependency is of greater importance than the number of cycles to failure. Therefore while under load, creep must occur and while unloaded, some recovery must also be present. Limiting the scope further, intermittent loading is only where the loading pattern does not include reversals, whether it be constant or variable and of load or deflection. In other words, the loading pattern cannot include a combination of tension and compression. This limitation is imposed as much of the interest in intermittent loading arises out of situations which in the building industry are not classified as fatigue but rather of as combined 'dead' and 'live' loads .

The response of wood under intermittent loading is dependent on whether it is subject to primary, secondary or tertiary creep. Assuming equal time loaded and unloaded, under primary creep conditions, the recoverable component of creep would dominate compared with the nonrecoverable component. This is illustrated in figure (3.12). The change in residual deformation,  $\Delta u$ , therefore decreases with every cycle.

$$\Delta u_1 > \Delta u_2 > \Delta u_3 > \dots > \Delta u_n. \quad \dots 3.15$$

Under secondary creep conditions, full recovery of the recoverable creep would occur with only the nonrecoverable component as residual. Therefore,

$$\Delta u_1 = \Delta u_2 = \Delta u_3 = \dots = \Delta u_n. \quad \dots 3.16$$

Once into tertiary stage, the nonlinear increase of strain would therefore imply that,

$$\Delta u_1 < \Delta u_2 < \Delta u_3 < \dots < \Delta u_n. \quad \dots 3.17$$

It is important to note that it is possible that the loading cycle will initiate with primary creep, continue into secondary creep, and finally tertiary creep until failure. In which case, a combination of the above will apply. It is assumed also that Boltzmann's superposition principle applies implying a linear viscoelastic response. This means that intermittent load response may be predicted from known creep response.

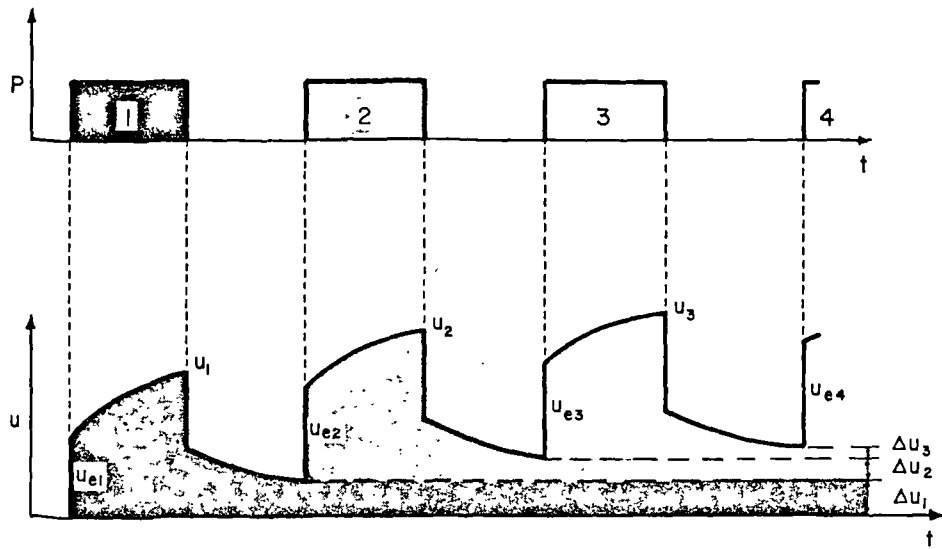


Figure (3.12) Constant load level cycling in the primary creep range. (Bodig and Jayne, 1982)

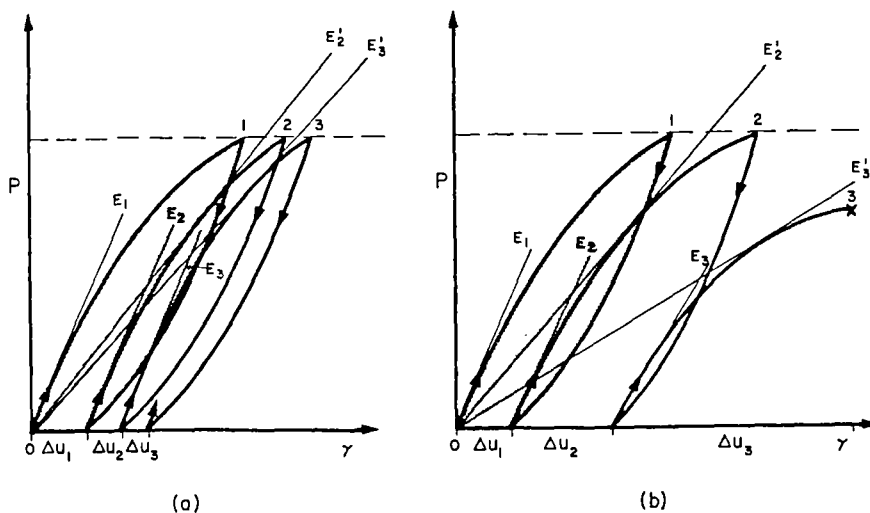


Figure (3.13) Load-deformation relationship in cycling with a constant rate of deformation to a constant load level: (a) primary creep range, (b) tertiary creep range. (Bodig and Jayne, 1982)

Should the load pattern, instead of being a square wave function, involve a triangular wave function, ie. a constant load rate, the deformation-time response would be different. However, the change in the residual deformation would still follow equations 3.15 to 3.17 according to the creep stage. With regards to the changes in stiffness with each intermittent load cycle, there is also a difference depending on the creep conditions. Bodig and Jayne suggests that

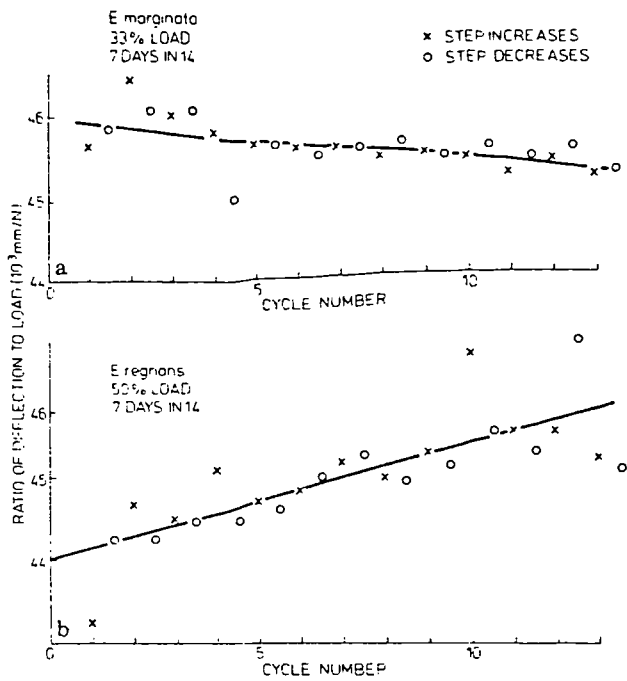


Figure (3.14) Step deflections due to successive applications and removals of load: (a) low stress level, (b) high stress level. (Nakai and Grossman, 1983)

$$E_1 < E_2 < E_3 < \dots < E_n \quad \text{for primary creep} \quad \dots 3.18$$

$$E_1 = E_2 = E_3 = \dots = E_n \quad \text{for secondary creep} \quad \dots 3.19$$

$$E_1 > E_2 > E_3 > \dots > E_n \quad \text{for tertiary creep} \quad \dots 3.20$$

The stiffness defined above does not include the residual deformation caused by the previous cycles. If the original starting point for the deformation is used, then the tangent modulus must consistently decrease with every cycle. Figure (3.13) shows the load-deformation relationship in the primary and tertiary stages illustrating the change in stiffness.

Sugiyama (1967) presented results under intermittent load, that indicated that the reduction in modulus of rupture was much smaller than under constant load. The curve joining the peaks of creep deformation was similar to the creep curve for constant load. A difference was also noted above and below the limit of linear viscoelastic behaviour of wood (see section 3.4.2). Nakai and Grossman (1983) found, as shown in figure (3.14), that the change in deflection over the applied load was level or decreased slightly when the load levels were low. At higher loads, the deflection over load increased with each cycle. This suggests that the stiffness of the specimen increased when the load level was low but decreased at a high load consistent with equations 3.18 and 3.20

above. This also pointed to the difference in behaviour above and below the limit of linearity. Their results suggested that Boltzmann's principle of superposition may be used with a fair degree of confidence.

## CHAPTER 4

# FATIGUE OF WOOD

## 4.1 Introduction

Considering the complexity of fatigue and the number of papers published on fatigue of metals and composites, very little work has been done on the fatigue response of wood. Publication has been very sparse over the years with interest developing only from the early 1940's. Probably, the view of fatigue of wood prior to World War II can be summed up by Dr. Fokker, the noted aircraft designer, who once stated that "fatigue in properly seasoned wood is unknown" (Lewis, 1960). The total number of publications since 1940 number less than fifty, which probably reflects the decrease in the use of wood for structural members in aircraft. The fact that wood had served well in aircraft such as the De Haviland Mosquito bomber and in troop gliders made such studies appear redundant. In recent decades, much of the papers published on fatigue have come from Japan and some occasional publications from other countries.

Much of the published data on fatigue of wood has been based on constant amplitude deflection tests. The limitations of early test equipment meant that constant load tests were difficult to perform. Constant deflection tests however limit the relevance of the data obtained since wood is susceptible to creep and a reduction in modulus. The peak loads applied to the specimen therefore decrease significantly with time. This can result in a test which can continue indefinitely without visible signs of failure, so the point at which it ends becomes arbitrary. Direct comparison between different published results is therefore difficult. Lewis (1946) has given a clear analysis of the problems of constant deflection fatigue testing with wood. Difficulties in gripping of specimens to avoid localised damage is also a problem. Various specimen geometries have been used. Kommers (1943) attempted to use necked specimens and contoured specimens which gave a constant bending stress from a cantilever arrangement. These were found unsatisfactory as specimens developed longitudinal splits due to shear stresses. Straight sided specimens with wood inserts at the grips were found to be the best. Other configurations used in published results include three point and four point bending but in all cases, some localised damage had to be accepted.

Fatigue tests in the literature are generally described as repeated or reversed fatigue tests. Reversed bending tests refer to tests where the stress level changes between tension and compression with a mean stress of zero. Repeated fatigue simply means that the stress level does not change sign and the minimum stress is nominally at zero. Rotating bending is approximately similar to reversed bending with perhaps some torsion and the entire circular surface is cyclically stressed rather than just the top and bottom surfaces of a flexural specimen.

## **4.2 Fatigue Life Data for Wood**

Despite the few publications, a wide range of different wood and wood laminates have been evaluated in constant deflection fatigue. Kommers (1943) tested in repeated and reversed bending fatigue, Sitka spruce, Douglas fir, five-ply yellow birch and five-ply yellow poplar. The results for all the reversed bending fatigue tests, as shown in figure (4.1), fall in a single band when plotted as a percentage of the static strength. The four types of wood had a fatigue strength of around 27% of static strength at 50 million cycles. Dietz and Grinsfelder (1943) in flexural fatigue tests on 2 and 3 ply birch plywood found fatigue strengths of 25% of static at 2 million cycles. Jenkins (1962) in tests on 4-ply birch plywood obtained similar results. Imayama and Matsumoto (1970) in tests on Sugi using constant load amplitude tests in 3-point bending found the fatigue strength at 1 million cycles to be around 35%. In tests on solid and glued laminated Japanese Cypress bonded with urea or phenolic resin, Ibuki et. al. (1962) estimated fatigue strengths of 15-20% at 10 million cycles.

In rotating bending Fuller and Oberg (1943) found results which superimpose over Kommers' results. Their tests were on maple and yellow birch and they are shown plotted together with Kommers' results in figure (4.1). Maku and Sasaki (1963) tested solid and 4-ply urea or phenolic resin glue laminated wood of Hinoki in rotating bending. The results for all three types were coincident when plotted as a percentage of their respective static strengths. At 10 million cycles, a fatigue strength of around 20-



25% was found. For repeated flexural fatigue, Kommers (1943) found only slightly higher fatigue strengths in solid Douglas fir and Sitka spruce. At 50 million cycles, the fatigue strength was approximately 35-40% of static.

In all the above results, it is clear that there is some uncertainty as to the correct fatigue strength of wood. However, it is also apparent that when plotted as a function of percentage static strength, the S-N data closely coincide. This means that solid wood and laminated wood do not fundamentally differ in fatigue behaviour. Sterr (1963) however concluded differently from results on tests with large sized specimens. He suggested that fatigue strengths of laminated beams were 23% higher than solid beams, density and moisture being equal. The above results also suggest that the type of resin used has no influence on fatigue strengths. Ota and Tsubota (1966,) in a series of papers, on Tanguile laminated with phenolic resin, polyvinylacetate resin and casein glue, concluded that the resin did not affect the fatigue behaviour especially when the repeated deflection was small. Ibuki et al. (1963) however found urea resin marginally better than phenol laminated Japanese cypress.

The form of the fatigue curve plotted as stress against the logarithm of cycles (S-N curve) is also subject to some uncertainty. The results of Kommers clearly suggests that the data is asymptotic to a horizontal line as seen in figure (4.1).

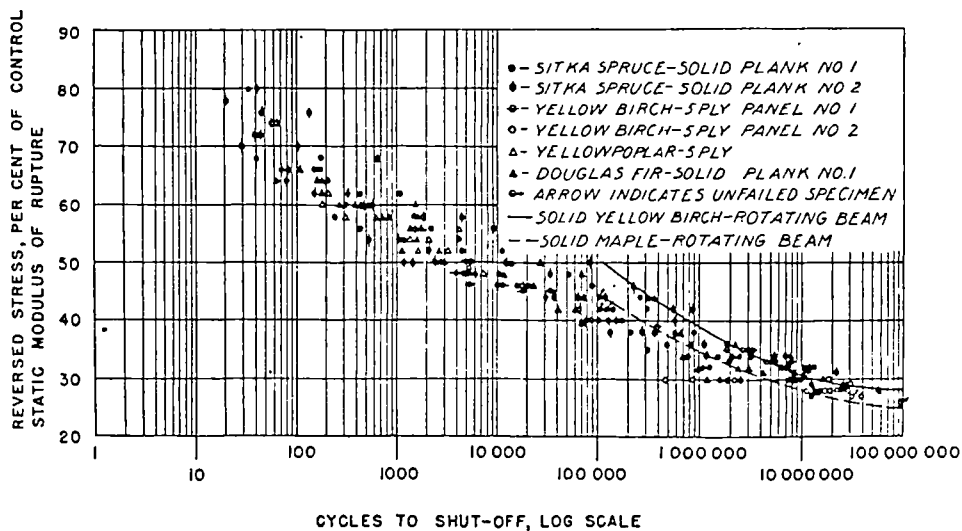


Figure (4.1) Results of tests to determine the endurance of wood and plywood when subjected to reversed bending stress. Included in the plot are rotating bending fatigue data of Fuller and Oberg (1943). (Kommers, 1943)

However, the significance of this is not wholly convincing. The use of constant deflection tests means that the peak load levels would decrease during the test. A relatively high test frequency (30 Hz) was used. This would result in some adiabatic heating which would dry up the specimen giving longer fatigue lives. Most of the other published fatigue results are for less than 5 million cycles and linear regression lines were used to describe the data. McNatt (1978) in considering published data on particle boards and hardboards recommended the use of linear regression analysis to extrapolate data to 10 million cycles.

Also of great interest is the effect of joints on fatigue strength. Maku and Sasaki (1963) examined in rotating bending fatigue, various configurations of scarf and butt jointed wood laminates. No reduction in fatigue life was found with scarf joints of all configurations, and results were coincident with unjointed specimens. Significantly, the static strength of all the scarf jointed specimens were about the same as unjointed specimens. Some configurations of butt jointed specimens were however much weaker than unjointed specimens and correspondingly, their fatigue strengths were much lower. However, expressed as a percentage of static strengths, the results were coincident with unjointed specimens. Lewis (1951) in tensile fatigue tests on solid and scarf jointed Douglas fir found no difference in the fatigue curves.

### **4.3 Factors affecting Fatigue Life**

The influence of moisture must be of singular importance in assessing the fatigue properties of wood. However, no comprehensive study on the influence of moisture content on the S-N curve of wood is available. Sekhar, Sukla and Gupta (1963, 1964) showed that at a fixed stress level, in torsional fatigue, a higher moisture content greatly reduced the fatigue life. This is not surprising since a higher moisture content would reduce static properties. If S-N data was plotted as a percentage of static strength, it is unclear whether moisture content would be a factor. Freas and Warren (1959) found that at 50% of static strength, both dry (11% MC) and wet (>30% MC)

specimens survived 9 million repeated stress cycles. Lewis (1962) compared green and air-dried southern pine and Douglas fir. The specimens were quarter scale bridge stringers with dimensions 2 by 4 by 43 inches. Green specimens with straight grain were found to have a fatigue strength at 2 million cycles of 50% of static strength for southern pine and 55% for Douglas fir. The result for air dry specimens were slightly higher at 60% of static for both species. However, the green specimens did not fail in 10 million cycles unless the stress level was high enough to produce compression wrinkles in the extreme fibers. The failure mode was different with either progressive compression damage followed by shear or the compression damage reaching such an extent that load could not be sustained. Air dry specimens failed by progressive compressive damage followed by simple or splintering tensile damage.

The effect of temperature has not been investigated in fatigue. However, the frequency of tests can raise the temperature of the specimen through adiabatic heating. Kommers found that in reversed bending (38% of static MOR) at 30 Hz, the rise in temperature can result in moisture loss of 1% in one hour. This must have an effect on fatigue strength. At 40 Hz, Imayama and Matsumoto (1970) found temperature rises of about 5°C until close to failure when temperature rises can be as much as 20°C. No indication as to what the effect would be on the S-N curve is available.

The effect of density has been briefly investigated. Sekhar and Sukla (1979) found the fatigue life at 30% to 45% of MOR increases with specific gravity. The tests covered a wide range of species with moisture contents of around 11% to 15%. Sieminski (1960), found the fatigue strength increased with density. Sapwood was differentiated from the more dense heartwood with sapwood showing equal fatigue strength to heartwood. The proportion of early wood to latewood was also found to have an effect.

Lewis (1962) compared straight grained specimens and specimens with a 1:12 slope of grain. Straight grained specimens were found to have slightly higher fatigue strengths although for green specimens the reverse was found. Air-dried straight

grained specimens showed compressive failures followed by final tensile failure while specimens with 1:12 slope of grain usually failed in cross-grain tension without compression. He also investigated the effect of coal-tar creosote preservative treatment on fatigue strength. Treatment not only reduced static properties but, when plotted as a percentage of static strength, also showed some reduction in fatigue resistance.

The effect of notches, holes and checks on the fatigue life has been studied by Lewis (1962), Ibuki et al (1962, 1963) and Maku and Sasaki (1963). Maku and Sasaki showed the stress concentrating effect of holes and surface notches. Most of the fatigue failures were found to develop from these stress concentrations. Lewis tested the effect of artificial checks on Southern pine and Douglas fir. The static properties were greatly reduced by the checks as was the fatigue strength. Expressed as a percentage of static strength for comparison, a small decrease in fatigue performance was found in the checked specimens. Ibuki et al compared the effect of holes of various diameters and side notches on flat plate bend specimens of solid and glue laminated Japanese cypress. Comparison was made using the fatigue notch factor,  $\beta$ , where  $\beta$  is the ratio of the fatigue strength of solid (or laminated) specimens to fatigue strength of specimens with holes or notches (the fatigue strength was calculated using the reduced cross sectional area due to the hole). Remarkably, for solid Japanese cypress, the fatigue notch factor was below 1 implying an increased fatigue strength due to the hole or notch. Glue laminated wood had fatigue notch factors between 0.8 and 1.2. Also in general, the specimens with holes of 7.1mm diameter had a greater fatigue strength than those with holes of 2.6mm diameter. The specimens were 24mm in width with centrally located holes. This suggests that wood is not very notch sensitive in fatigue.

#### 4.4 Property Changes During Fatigue

The residual strength of wood as affected by fatigue cycling was first investigated by Kommers (1943). 5-ply Sitka spruce plywood was fatigued without stress reversals for 5000 cycles at various stress levels. Specimens were then statically tested to failure, either in the same direction as the fatigue stress or in the reversed

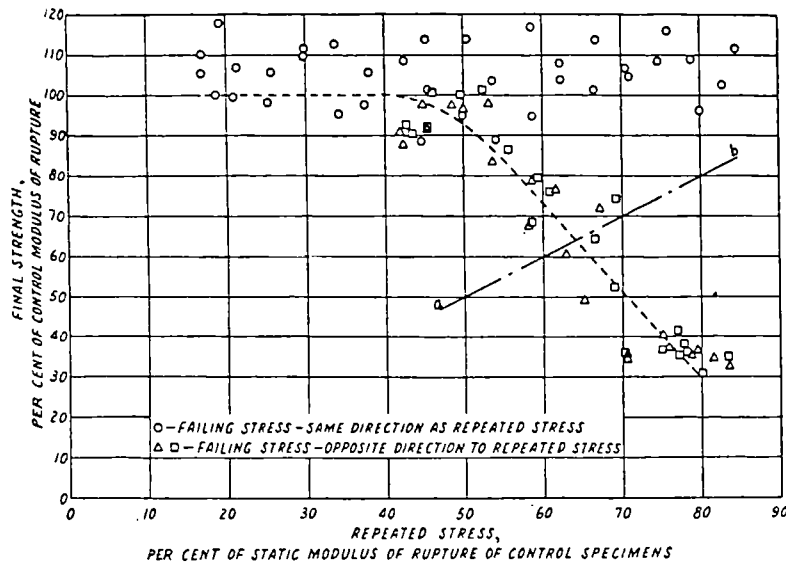


Figure (4.2) Results of tests to determine the effect of 5000 repetitions of stress on the residual flexural strength of five-ply Sitka spruce plywood.(Kommers, 1943)

direction. As figure (4.2) shows, when tested in the same direction, even at 85% of static strength, no reduction in strength, indeed possibly an increase in strength resulted. That however may be due to drying out of the specimen as a result of adiabatic heating. The damage in the compression side during fatigue cycling is evident in the data from residual strength tests in the opposite direction to the repeated fatigue stress.

The effect of ten cycles of bending or compressive stress on Sitka spruce and Douglas fir was also studied by Kommers (1943). Although the stress level was at around 95% of static, no reduction in strength was found but the modulus of elasticity decreased with each cycle, the greatest decrease after the first cycle. Kellogg (1958, 1960) found no significant change in tension modulus after 100 cycles except for tests at very high levels of strain. Kommers found that after 5000 repeated fatigue cycles above 80% of the flexural strength, specimens began to show a large decrease in modulus. Imayama and Matsumoto (1970) found a sharp drop in dynamic modulus towards the end of the fatigue life of the specimen. This was combined with a rise in damping close to failure. Rose (1965) however found an increase in modulus with a decrease at higher peak stresses.

While the modulus may remain constant, Kellogg found in repeated tension cycling, the residual strain after each cycle increased similar to the creep of wood under a constant load. Gildwald (1961) also found this behaviour as did Noak and Stockmann (1969). The change in residual strain with number of cycles was found to fit the power law model as expressed in equation 3.7 with  $t$ , the time variable, replaced by  $N$ , the cycle number. This behaviour was found in the nine species tested and even at very low peak strain levels. Kellogg also showed that the amount of creep was largely independent of species if the level of fatigue strain rather than stress was the same. This is perhaps another indication of the relation between density, modulus and strength.

The temperature changes due to adiabatic heating in the specimen under reversed bending fatigue at 40 Hz was investigated by Imayama and Matsumoto (1970, 1974). They described the temperature change as a four stage process as illustrated in figure (4.3). They found that the slope of stage I increased with the fatigue stress level. Stages II and III dominated the fatigue life of the specimen although for shorter fatigue lives, their proportion of the number of fatigue cycles was less. Microcracks were also observed around the transition between stage II and stage III.

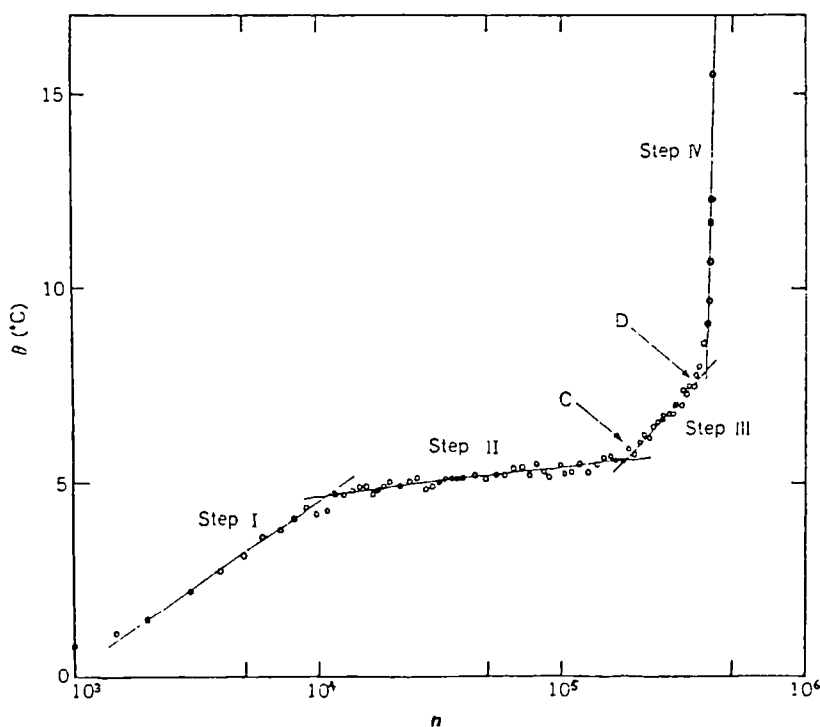


Figure (4.3) The four stage temperature rise due to adiabatic heating under reversed flexural fatigue. (Imayama and Matsumoto, 1974)

The acoustic emission from wood during fatigue was studied by Dobraszcyk (1983). He found that at very high fatigue stress levels (90%), the emissions were greatest during the first cycle with emission during the loading as well as unloading. With every subsequent cycle, the emissions were less with emission occurring around the load cycle peak. In comparing the acoustic emission from samples tested to failure after fatigue at various strain levels, the total number of acoustic events decreased with increasing fatigue strains and also the acoustic events began at lower strain levels. Sato, Noguchi and Fushitani (1983) also showed that acoustic events occurred in decreasing quantities with every cycle. Figure (4.4) shows the result of ten tension cycles with the specimen taken to failure at the tenth cycle.

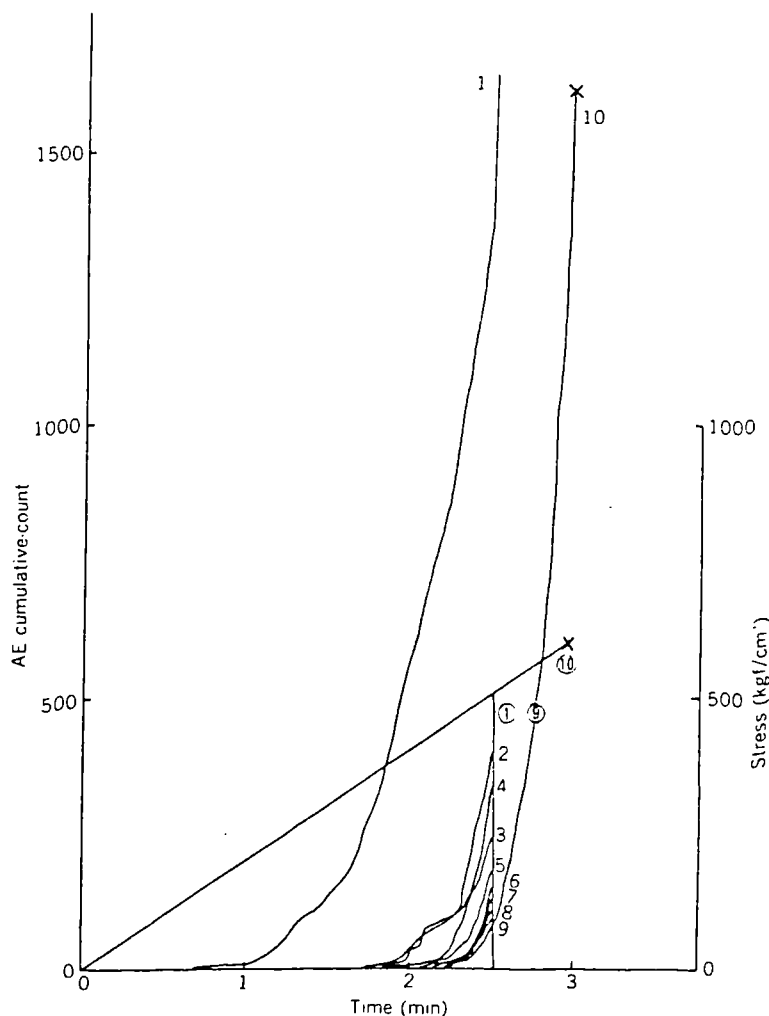


Figure (4.4) Cumulative acoustic emission count for each of the 10 cycles of load with the specimen loaded to failure in the 10th cycle. *(Sato et al, 1983)*

The many property changes observed in a fatigue test points to a damage mechanism that begins from the very first cycle. The contribution of damage in every subsequent cycle appears to decrease. This is evidenced by a reduced rate of decrease in modulus, a decrease in rate of "creep" strain, temperature change and acoustic emission. There appears to be no correlation of this "damage" with residual strength however suggesting that only in the final damage development is it strength reducing. This is evidenced in stage III and IV of the temperature rise reported by Imayama and Matsumoto. Uncertainties however do exist as the picture of property changes is far from complete, particularly in the modulus and "creep" changes.

#### **4.5 Fatigue Mechanisms**

In flexural fatigue, it is generally accepted that the low compression strength of wood implies that in the compression side, some failure would occur. This is most evident in tests on green wood of structural dimensions (Lewis, 1948). In air-dry wood however, final failure is always in the tension side. Maku and Sasaki (1963) also observed compression damage in rotating bending specimens after 10 million cycles. However, apart from structural collapse as observed in green wood, such compression damage is not the mode of final failure observed. Imayama and Matsumoto (1970) observed the development of microcracks on the tension face in three-point flexural fatigue and correlated it with stage III, a stage of steep temperature rise in the specimen. Kollmann and Schmidt (1962) also found microscopic structural damage in fatigued telegraph poles with separation of cells and spiral fractures in the cell wall following the S2 winding direction. It therefore might be suggested that a combination<sup>of</sup> mechanisms are at work. Most other descriptions of fatigue failure mechanisms such as the extension of the Reiner and Weisenberg's fracture theory by Bach (1973) follow from time dependent arguments although its relevance to a cycle-dependent fatigue situation is debatable.



## CHAPTER 5

# DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS FOR WIND ENERGY CONVERTER BLADES

## 5.1 The Load Spectrum of WEC Blades

The load spectrum of any machine is by nature complex. Every loading possibility must be considered and an understanding of the sources of loads is important. With Wind Energy Converters (WECs), the load spectrum is complicated further by dependence on their type and location of operation. Two basic configurations of WECs exist, the Horizontal Axis Wind Turbine (HAWT) and the Vertical Axis Wind Turbine (VAWT), Figure (5.1) illustrates some variants of these two basic types. The wind speed distribution varies with location hence even identical machines can have very different load spectrums. These two complications mean that each WEC must be properly analysed or unexpected disasters can easily occur. This research concentrates on the HWP300 designed and built by James Howden Ltd. It is the first of a number of machines sited at Burgar Hill in the Orkney Islands. This is a three bladed, horizontal axis machine of medium size having a blade diameter of 22 meters. The wooden blades of this machine were subcontracted to Gifford Technology Ltd. who designed and constructed them.

Horizontal axis machines of this type experience a number of sources of fatigue

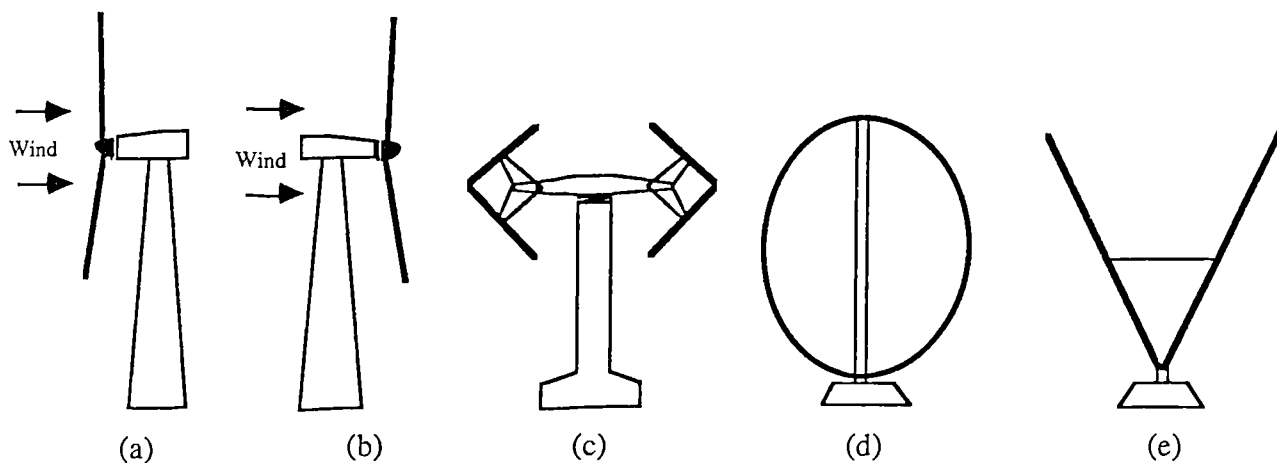


Figure (5.1) Basic Wind Energy Converter configurations. (a) Upwind HAWT, (b) downwind HAWT, (c) Musgrove VAWT, (d) Dairrius VAWT and (e) the Inverted Cone VAWT.

load (Pretlove and Worthington, 1983). These may be considered as deterministic loads and stochastic loads. Deterministic loads arise from many sources. They include gravity loads which induces edgewise bending with the frequency corresponding to the rotational speed of the blade. The HWP300 was found to have very low stresses due to gravity loads. This is directly due to the exceptional specific properties of wood. The most severe fatigue stresses are due to aerodynamic loadings. This induces flapwise bending and some torsion. The stresses here show a few fundamental frequencies. The first is due to wind shear. The wind speed profile from the ground upwards is always in a form of an exponential curve with zero wind speed at ground level and increasing wind speed with height. This means that with every cycle, the blade passes through a region of low wind speeds and a region of high wind speeds. Another fundamental

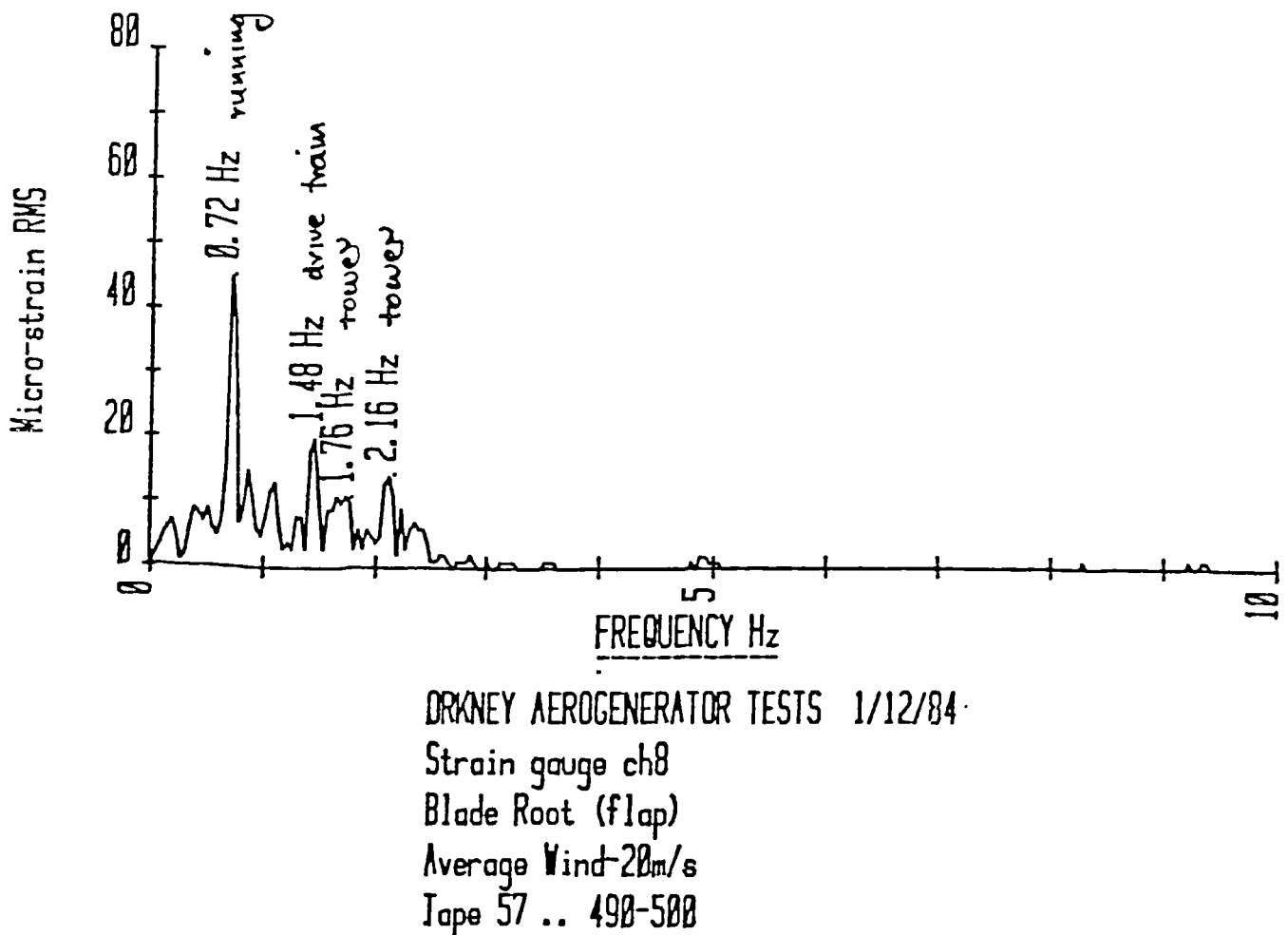


Figure (5.2) Sample frequency spectrum of the flapwise strains near the root of the HWP-300 blade. (Smith, 1984)

frequency arises due to blade resonance. Every blade has a resonant frequency and careful design is necessary to minimize this effect. The vibrations of the tower add another fundamental frequency. Figure (5.2) shows the frequency spectrum of the flapwise strains (Smith, 1984).

Stochastic loads arise from wind turbulence. While deterministic loads may be predicted from the WEC design, stochastic loads are difficult to ascertain. They are usually estimated from knowledge of the wind spectrum and turbulence of the installation site of the machine. Computer simulation programs of the loadings on the blade are now available and further developed.

The complete load spectrum of a WEC blade must include the operational characteristics on top of the wind speed effects. A WEC does not operate throughout the wind speed regimes but only within a specific band. Above and below the threshold wind speeds, the machine would automatically shut down stopping the blades. With the HWP300, this is achieved by rotating the top third of a blade which results in an aerodynamic stall condition hence slowing down the blades. Disc brakes are also present to bring the blade to a complete standstill. The shut down and start up procedure must contribute its own load characteristics and indeed, the high wind shutdown results in the most severe stresses. The HWP300 also uses its blade tips to regulate its blade rotational speeds so as to generate a reasonably steady voltage. This means that loads are proportional to wind speed and only direct measurements of the entire wind speed spectrum is necessary.

Although the above description of loads on a WEC is specific to the HWP300, the principle of assembling the data from the instrumented blade is general to all machines. The procedure requires,

(1) Obtaining data with the machine operating under different wind speed conditions.

This is not straight-forward since wind speeds are not controllable. Continuous monitoring is necessary and careful editing is required.

(2) Transitions in wind speed alter the loading on the blade. Again careful analysis of the load and wind characteristics is necessary. Computer analysis to segment the

entire data collected is required.

- (3) Assembling the load spectrum by combining representative parts of the data in proportion to the annual wind speed data.
- (4) Operational characteristics such as maintenance shutdowns, or long periods of parking are finally included.
- (5) The final step is one of editing the entire load history assembled. This cuts down the time needed to test the specimen to failure while not seriously affecting the predicted life. This may be done by filtering out the very low amplitude alternating loads.

The assembled load history may then be used to estimate the fatigue life of the blade and to assess life prediction models.

## **5.2 Wood Design Methods**

The many years of use of wood in industry and extensive research by forest products laboratories throughout the world, notably in USA and Canada, has resulted in a comprehensive design approach to wood. However, traditional applications for wood are primarily in areas that involve long term static loads and where cyclic loads are small in number. Under such conditions, fatigue may be safely ignored and hence standard design procedures do not have the scope to consider fatigue (AITC, 1974). However, before considering developments in fatigue design, it is instructive to examine static design approaches to examine how fatigue could be incorporated. There are two basic static design standards, the traditional Working Stress Design (WSD) approach as given in the Wood Designers Handbook (AITC, 1974), and the newer probability based design or Limit States Design (LSD) approach currently being incorporated into design codes (Goodman, 1981).

### **5.2.1 Working Stress Design**

This approach attempts to relate laboratory testing to real loading conditions by the use of an array of factors. The starting point is the laboratory tests carried out using

small clear specimens of wood selected for freedom of any defects and conditioned to a standard moisture content (i.e. air-dried condition - 10% to 15% moisture content depending on species). From a host of laboratory tests, a certain variation in results will be obtained. This variation is assumed to be characterized by a normal distribution function and to establish the allowable unit stress, the ASTM Designation D245-70 calls for the use of the lower 5% exclusion limit,  $l_5$ . This allowable unit stress is therefore the strength value of the wood species based on the probability that only 5% of the sample population will fail at that unit stress.

Although basic variations of wood properties is accounted for in the above, the extension of controlled laboratory test results to visually graded lumber in real use requires further modifications to the test results. This is achieved by using correction factors (Bodig and Jayne, 1982).

- (1) Duration of Loading,  $k_t$
- (2) Safety factor,  $k_s$
- (3) Special condition,  $k_p$
- (4) Defects,  $k_d$
- (5) Special grading,  $k_g$
- (6) Moisture condition of test material,  $k_c$
- (7) Moisture condition of lumber,  $k_f$

These factors are established from all the mechanical test data that appear relevant. Where test data is absent (or results of which are not obtainable from handbooks), the experience of the designer and material supplier is relied on.

The duration of load factor,  $k_t$ , is the factor used to correct for the time dependent strength of wood. Data suggests that the stress level for a clear wood specimen to last for ten years is 62.5% of the short term strength. Accordingly, 0.625 is the value for  $k_t$ . To account for high shorter term loads such as snow loads and wind loads, factors are applied as illustrated by figure (5.3). The stress ratio is based on a ten year load. The treatment then is an iterative process to determine which combination of

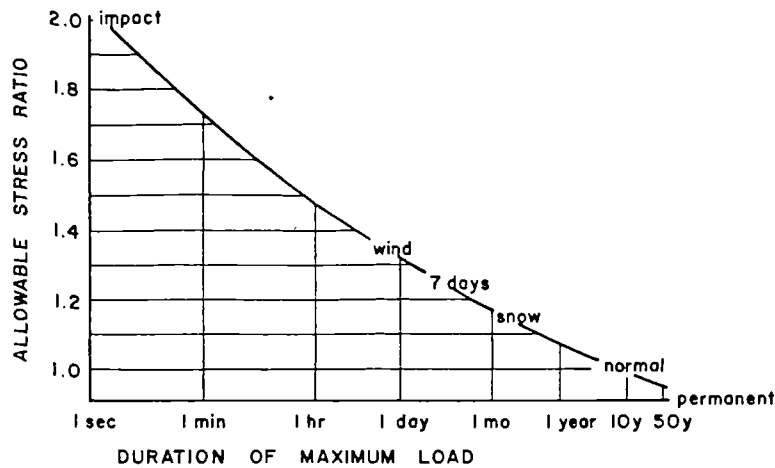


Figure (5.3) Adjustment of allowable stress to duration of maximum load.  
*(Bodig and Jayne, 1982)*

loads, while applying the factor for the load of the shortest duration, would give the largest size member required. It is important to note however, that in the calculations, the modulus of elasticity is time independent.

The safety factor  $k_s$ , is a design factor against accidental or unpredictable high loads. The  $l_5$  strength value only accounts for the material variability tested in three point flexure. Table (5.3) lists some correction factors used for softwood lumber. The values for hardwoods are shown in parentheses. The large reduction in allowable load in shear,  $F_v$ , is due to the somewhat unpredictable behaviour of wood in shear.

The special conditions factor  $k_p$ , is applicable to account for size effects and most importantly, the depth of beam in bending. The presence of defects in commercially graded lumber is accounted for by assigning a particular value of  $k_d$  for each grade. Lumber is generally visually graded at various defect densities. The special grading factor  $k_g$ , considers the effect on allowable stress of preservative treatments or fire retardant treatment which affects wood species differently. All the factors are applied and their effect may be reflected in the general equation :

$$F = l_5 * k_t * k_s * k_p * k_d * k_g * k_c * k_f \quad \dots\dots 5.1$$

where F represents a particular allowable stress (Bodig and Jayne, 1982).

The use of the strength of small clear specimens as the starting point results in

Table (5.3) Correction factors used in the derivation of allowable unit stress values for visually graded lumber as applied to small, clear specimens. (Bodig and Jayne, 1982).

Prop- erty	Correc- tion Base	Dura- tion of Load, $k_f$	Safety, $k_s$	Special Adjust- ment, $k_p$	Strength Ratio, $k_d$	Special Grading, $k_g$			Moisture Condition, $k_m$				
						All Grain	Medium Grain	Close Grain <sup>3</sup>	Dense <sup>4</sup>	< 4 in., Thick			
										M < 15%	M < 19%	M > 19%	> 5 in. Thick
$F_b$	$\sigma_{5\%}$	0.625	$0.76 (0.70)^2$	0.82	$k_d < 1.0$	1.00	1.00	1.07	1.17	1.35	1.25	1.00	1.00
$F_f$	$\sigma_{5\%}^1$	0.625	$0.76 (0.70)$	1.00	depending on the severity of defects	1.00	1.00	1.07	1.17	1.35	1.25	1.00	1.00
$F_c$	$\sigma_{5\%}$	0.625	$0.84 (0.76)$	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.07	1.17	1.75	1.50	1.00	1.00
$F_{cL}$	$\bar{\sigma}_{pl}$	0.625	1.00	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.07	1.17	1.50	1.50	1.50 <sup>5</sup>	1.00, 1.10 <sup>6</sup>
$F_v$	$\sigma_{5\%}$	0.625	$0.39 (0.36)$	1.00		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.13	1.08	1.00	1.00
$E$	$\bar{E}$	1.00	1.00	0.94		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.05	1.20	1.14	1.00	1.00, 1.02 <sup>6</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Tensile strength values parallel to grain are set approximately  $\frac{1}{2}$  of MOR.

<sup>2</sup> Values in parentheses are applicable to hardwoods only.

<sup>3</sup> Douglas-fir and redwood only.

<sup>4</sup> Douglas-fir and southern pine only.

<sup>5</sup> Applies to any degree of seasoning below fiber saturation point.

<sup>6</sup> For partially dried lumber.



the use of the many factors which unfortunately lead to a considerable uncertainty as to the level of safety in the design. It would always be desirable to reduce the number of factors required to arrive at the allowable stress  $F$ . To do so, it has recently become preferable to test full-size structural lumber or perform in-grade-testing. This alleviates the need for most of the factors and the ASTM Designation D198-76 details the testing procedure. This is however both time consuming and expensive.

### 5.2.2 Limit-States Design

While the WSD method has been used for many years, its drawbacks have been well recognized and the need for an alternative method has resulted in the development of probabilistic approaches. These methods come under various names; Limit-States Design, Reliability-Based Design, Load-Resistance Factor Design, all being similar. The advantage of this new method is that it seeks to quantify the risk level of the design, in other words, to guarantee that an unacceptable level of in-service failures does not occur (Ang and Cornell, 1974; Aplin and Keenan, 1977) This is a recognition that structural problems are often non-deterministic and that there is a risk involved - no matter how small.

The LSD method begins with a definition of the limit states. A structure may be considered as no longer able to satisfy the requirements for which it was designed in two categories of states (Zahn, 1977):

- (1) Ultimate limit state (buckling, rupture of main member, collapse due to fatigue or creep etc.)
- (2) Serviceability limit states (excessive deflection, excessive vibration, cracking of non-structural elements etc.)

These two categories of states indicate the nature of the level of risk each state defines.

To quantify the level of risk, the probability of failure,  $P_f$ , is calculated - a probability of one indicating certainty of failure and zero indicating impossibility of failure. The required limit state then defines the acceptable failure probability. In the

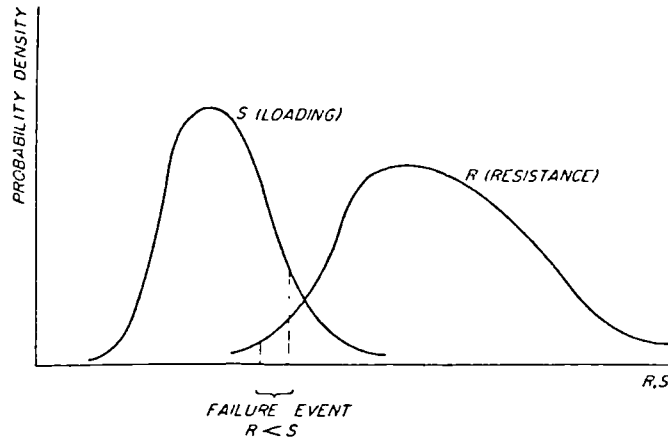


Figure (5.4) Probability density functions of loading and resistance showing typical failure event. (Zahn, 1977)

ideal case, the two governing factors for failure are known - the load  $S$ , and the resistance (or strength)  $R$ . These are defined using the probability density functions  $f(s)$  and  $f(r)$  respectively as illustrated in figure (5.4). Here  $R$  and  $S$  are independent variables and hence the probability of failure is given by;

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_f &= P(R < S) \\
 &= \int \left\{ \int f(r) dr \right\} f(s) ds \qquad \dots 5.2
 \end{aligned}$$

However, in structural design, the exact form of the probability functions is not determinable. The alternative is to assume the form of the probability distribution - normal, log-normal, Weibull, etc., have all been suggested. Using these standard distributions has the advantage also of being able to calculate the moments of the distribution. The simplest technique then is to use the second moment model where only the first two moments of the distribution, the mean and variance, are used. The complete procedure of the second moment model is beyond the scope of this report and a paper by Zahn (1977) contains its full description.

### 5.2.3 Comparison of WSD and LSD

The WSD method has the advantage of simplicity and a long history of

reliability. One suspects that structures built by this method are generally over designed. This may be acceptable in many applications but with WECs, weight is a critical factor and any means of reducing it is desirable. Its chief disadvantage however is that it does not provide the engineer with any indication of the survivability of the product.

The LSD method is new and promises to overcome this disadvantage. It is however inherently complicated to use and a large data base is necessary so as to be able to ascribe a more accurate probability density function. This is important as it is the overlap of the tails of the S and R probability density functions that defines the failure probability (see figure (5.4)). It is also the definition of the tails that is most difficult as they are very sensitive to the size of the data group and the type of probability function assumed. Limit-States Design can still be applied and be rigorously logical and semantically pure.

### 5.3 Fatigue Design

As suggested above, both WSD and the LSD do not have the capacity to consider fatigue in its current state. The most straightforward way of accounting for fatigue is simply the addition of another factor following the WSD approach. Lewis (1960) suggested this while concluding that the current approach with the duration of

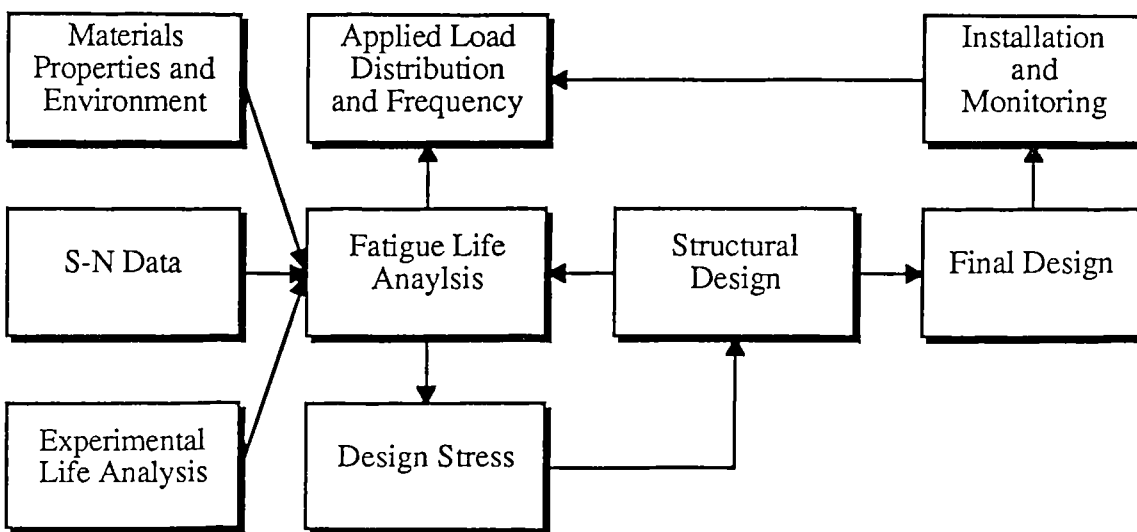


Figure (5.5) Schematic of a fatigue design approach.

load factor would account for fatigue up to  $10^7$  cycles. The additional factor could be determined by simply extrapolating S-N (applied stress vs. number of cycles to failure) curves to the required number of cycles. This method however would ignore the effect of mean stress and complex loading and it is the only feasible option at present given the current understanding of wood fatigue.

A more comprehensive approach is to develop fatigue design as has been done for metals (Lewis, 1960). Research has also been underway in fatigue design of fiber composites for a number of years and the lessons learnt would also be instructive (Schijve, 1972). Fundamentally fatigue design seeks to relate the real loading conditions of a component to S-N data through a life prediction model. The procedure may be illustrated as in figure (5.5) where the life prediction model is central. Crack propagation methods are the alternative. However, such approaches will not be specifically considered in this research as wood, like composites, is notch insensitive except in the grain direction.

There are various types of approaches to fatigue life prediction each having its advantages. Various references exist which give excellent reviews on the subject (Osgood, 1982; Schijve, 1972; Gerharz 1982). Osgood (1982) classifies the approaches in three basic groups.

- (1) Linear Cumulative Damage based on S-N data or  $\epsilon$ -N data and cyclic properties.
- (2) Nonlinear Cumulative Damage based on S-N data for each type of specimen configuration.
- (3) Cumulative Damage from Damage Boundaries or Modified S-N curves.

Avoiding a description of all the different theories, it suffices simply to look at the most commonly quoted model, the Linear Cumulative Damage model which embodies Palmgren-Miner's rule. The model introduces the idea of progressive damage to the material and uses a damage parameter D, which may be given as,

$$D = \sum \frac{n_i}{N_i} \quad \dots\dots 5.3$$

where  $n_i$  is the number of cycles at a particular stress amplitude,  $S$ , and  $N_i$  is the corresponding number of cycles to failure derived from the S-N curve. The damage parameter  $D$ , can therefore have a value between 0 and 1 where 1 indicates failure. This model and indeed many other models, have significant limitations. A consequence of using a damage parameter is that the true mechanisms of fatigue damage accumulation are often ignored. It is an empirical parameter and its relevance and reliability is often suspect. This is particularly the case when the Palmgren-Miner's rule is used with composites where an error of 300% has been found (Schijve, 1972). The composite researchers have therefore attempted to incorporate a more mechanistic approach although these theories have yet to be developed to a state where they are applicable to design.

It is impossible to consider all the many facets of fatigue life prediction in the brief examination above. It has only so far been possible to provide a flavour of the difficulties. A list the main considerations involved follows:

- (1) Residual strength. This is a useful concept in seeking to follow the strength of the material as it is subjected to fatigue. It provides some physical significance where as damage parameters do not.
- (2) Fracture mechanics. With metals where mechanisms are conceptually well understood in terms of crack initiation and propagation, fracture mechanics is particularly useful. Its relevance to wood is debatable but this approach has been suggested (Gerharz,1982).
- (3) Reliability. This cannot be ignored and the LSD approach or variations of it can be incorporated in some life prediction models.
- (4) Load Characteristics. Any model tends to assume certain load characteristics. The Palmgren-Miner's rule neglects the effect of load sequence and the load history.

To sum up, the wood designer requires a design procedure which accounts for fatigue and provides a measure of reliability. The approach is therefore one which involves fatigue life prediction. This however is a complex subject which requires much research.

## CHAPTER 6

# FATIGUE TESTING: DEVELOPMENT OF A COMPUTER CONTROL AND MONITORING SYSTEM

## 6.1 Fatigue Test Methodology

A fatigue test can be conducted in a wide variety of ways with many different variables to consider. Traditionally, fatigue testing was limited by the type of machine available. This meant having to test under conditions of constant deflection, whether it be in axial loading, bending, torsion or a combination of these modes. Today, the wide range of machines available allows almost the entire range of fatigue tests to be carried out. This means not only constant deflection but also constant and variable load or any other denominator such as stress intensity factor in a fatigue crack propagation test. In the context of determining the fatigue properties of wood, the capability for load control is essential although, as noted earlier in Chapter 4, almost all published results to date are based on constant deflection tests. For any form of stressing (axial, bending or crack propagation etc.) fatigue tests can be classified into Constant Amplitude and Variable Amplitude.

### 6.1.1 Constant Amplitude Tests

The simplest of all to perform, constant amplitude tests still requires careful consideration before tests are carried out. The following defines the terms used in describing fatigue tests.

$\sigma_{\max}$  = Maximum peak stress

$\sigma_{\min}$  = Minimum peak stress

R = stress Ratio =  $\sigma_{\min} / \sigma_{\max}$

$\sigma_{\text{alt}}$  = Alternating stress =  $(\sigma_{\max} - \sigma_{\min})/2$

$\sigma_{\text{mean}}$  = Mean stress =  $(\sigma_{\max} + \sigma_{\min})/2$

In the past, fatigue tests were conducted at a constant mean stress with a varying alternating stress. The trend however is to use constant R ratio with varying peak stress as it defines the nature of the fatigue test better. In axial fatigue, the R ratio can vary between zero and one for tension-tension tests or infinity to one for compression-

compression. Where stress reversals occur, the R ratio is always negative. Where the tension stress is always greater than the compression stress, the R ratio varies from minus one to zero. Where the compression stress is greater, it varies from minus one to minus infinity. For bending fatigue, the R ratio can only vary between zero and 1 for bending in one direction only and zero and -1 for when the stress reversals occur.

An important consideration in fatigue testing is the frequency at which the tests is carried out. This consideration is particularly relevant for polymeric materials including wood due to adiabatic heating. Imayama and Matsumoto (1970) has already shown that for wood significant adiabatic heating occurs at a frequency of 40 Hz. Sims and Gladman (1978) argues that keeping a constant frequency for different load levels is not sufficient. Figure (6.1) illustrates the difference between keeping a constant frequency and a constant rate of stress application (RSA). If samples are tested at different stress levels and if the RSA is to be kept constant, the frequency has to be changed. This mode of testing has the effect of isolating the effect of rate on the fatigue life of the specimen. It has also a practical advantage in speeding up tests at lower stresses which would have a corresponding longer life. The equation for the calculation

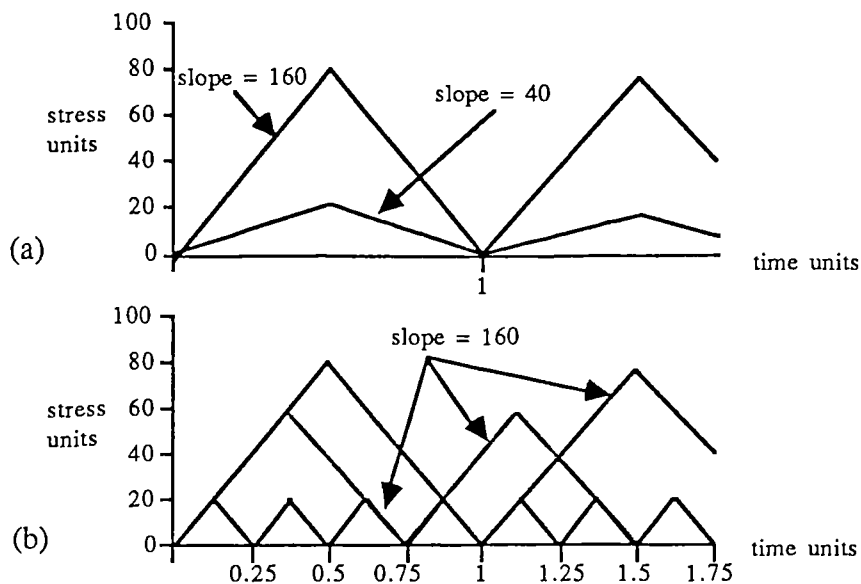


Figure (6.1) Comparison of fatigue tests at (a) constant frequency and (b) constant rates of stress application



of the frequency for constant RSA may be expressed as

$$\text{Frequency} = (\text{rate of stress application}) / (4 * \text{Alternating stress}) \dots 6.1$$

It should be noted that this expression is derived for fatigue tests using a triangular waveform. In most fatigue tests however, a sinusoidal waveform is used where it becomes the rate of change of the RSA that is constant. However as an approximation, the equation may still be used.

### 6.1.2 Variable Amplitude Tests

As the name suggests, with variable amplitude tests, the amplitude of the load (or deflection) is not constant but may vary in some predefined way. The basic reason for performing such tests is simply that engineering components in real life do not experience a constant amplitude fatigue regime. Also it is not straightforward to extend fatigue life from constant amplitude tests to real life variable amplitude. The only way to do so is to use Life Prediction Models, the most popular being the Miner's Rule of cumulative damage. This rule however is empirical and was proposed in the context of metal fatigue and has been shown to be unreliable for other materials such as composites (Shutz & Gerharz, 1971). Also for metals this rule is by no means accurate. Therefore it is still necessary to simulate service conditions in tests especially for critical components. However, as Figure (6.2) shows there are many possibilities in performing these tests.

The most expensive and difficult to conduct would be random tests with the number of stress levels not predetermined. The other approach is to reduce the complex waveform into some groups of levels which can then be intimately mixed in a Random Test or in a Block Program Test. By doing so, standard test programs have been established such as FALSTAFF etc. The creation of such standard programs in the context of Wind Energy Generators is discussed in Chapter 5.

Besides simply simulating service conditions, the design of a variable amplitude fatigue program can yield much information. The most obvious of these is in the

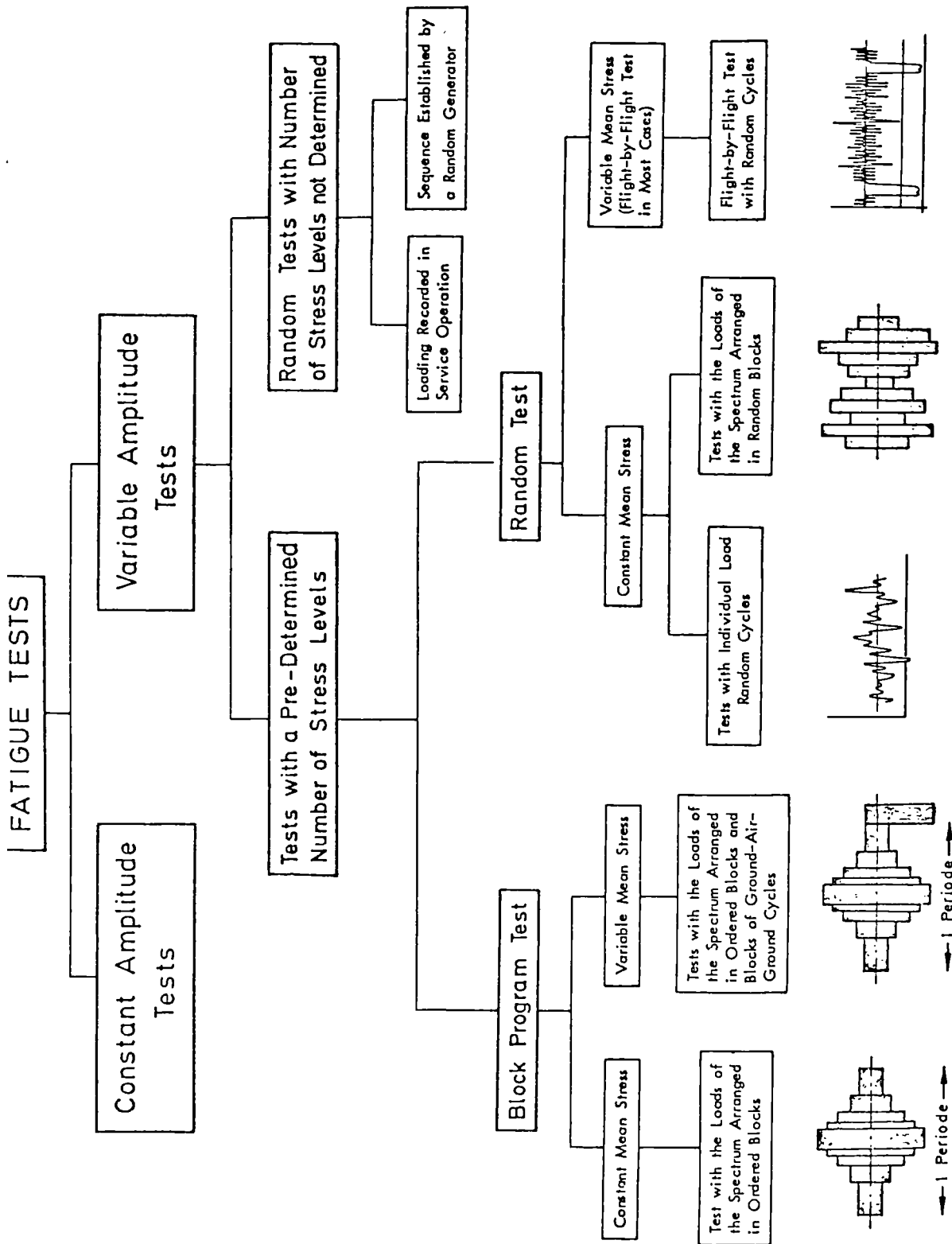


Figure (6.2) Most usual Variable Amplitude Tests. (Schutz, D. 1981).

assessment of theoretical life prediction laws or the derivation of empirical laws. These laws may be specific to particular types of load conditions or may be more general like Miner's Rule. However, deviations from these laws often occur and the errors involved must be assessed. These errors can arise for many reasons but the most important are sequence effects. Sequence effects arise from inherent material properties. For example, in some metals, high load cycles followed by low load cycles have been found to extend fatigue life compared to prediction and the reverse reduces fatigue life. This effect is thought to arise from work hardening or the creation of residual stresses at high loads which extends the fatigue performance of the material at low loads (Osgood, 1982). With wood, summation of cycles of stress reversals with compression-compression and tension-tension loads are not likely to be straight forward and requires investigation.

### 6.1.3 Fatigue Test Machines

Over two decades, fatigue machines have greatly improved in capability, reliability and cost effectiveness. The developments are in two main categories - servohydraulic machines and the use of computers. Nowack (1981) has reviewed the types of fatigue machines available and this will be briefly summarized here.

Fatigue machines can be broadly categorized into two types, resonant and non-resonant machines. Within these two categories there are mechanical, electro-magnetic, hydraulic and servohydraulic machines. Figures (6.3) and (6.4) schematically illustrates the working principle of some non-resonant and resonant machines respectively.

Those types of machines where the loads are generated in a direct drive mode are of the conventional non-resonant category. Screw drives, hydraulic drives, cam drives or crank drives with adjustable eccentric or electro-magnetic drives are the oldest types. Although the simplest, these machines are not ideally suited for fatigue tests. These machines suffer the problem of slow test speeds (<1 Hz) or slightly higher test speeds if the loads are very small (<5 kN). However accepting low speeds, mechanical

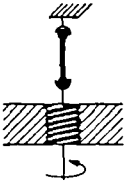
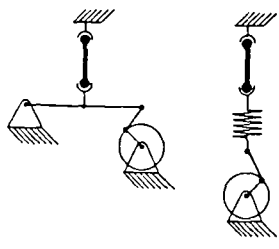
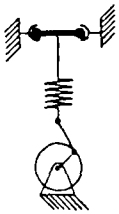
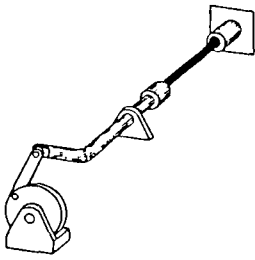
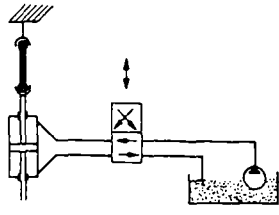
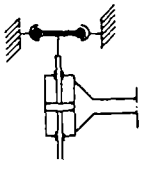
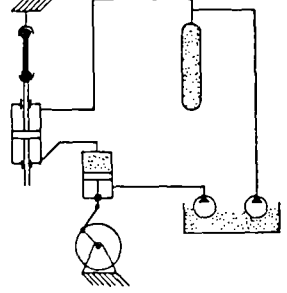
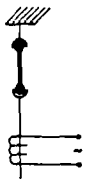
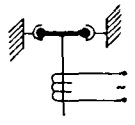
push-pull	bending	torsion
mechanical - low frequency		
	analogous	analogous
mechanical - high frequency		
		
hydraulic - low frequency		
		analogous
hydraulic - high frequency		
	analogous	analogous
electro magnetic		
		analogous

Figure (6.3) Conventional non-resonant direct drive machines. (Nowack, 1981)

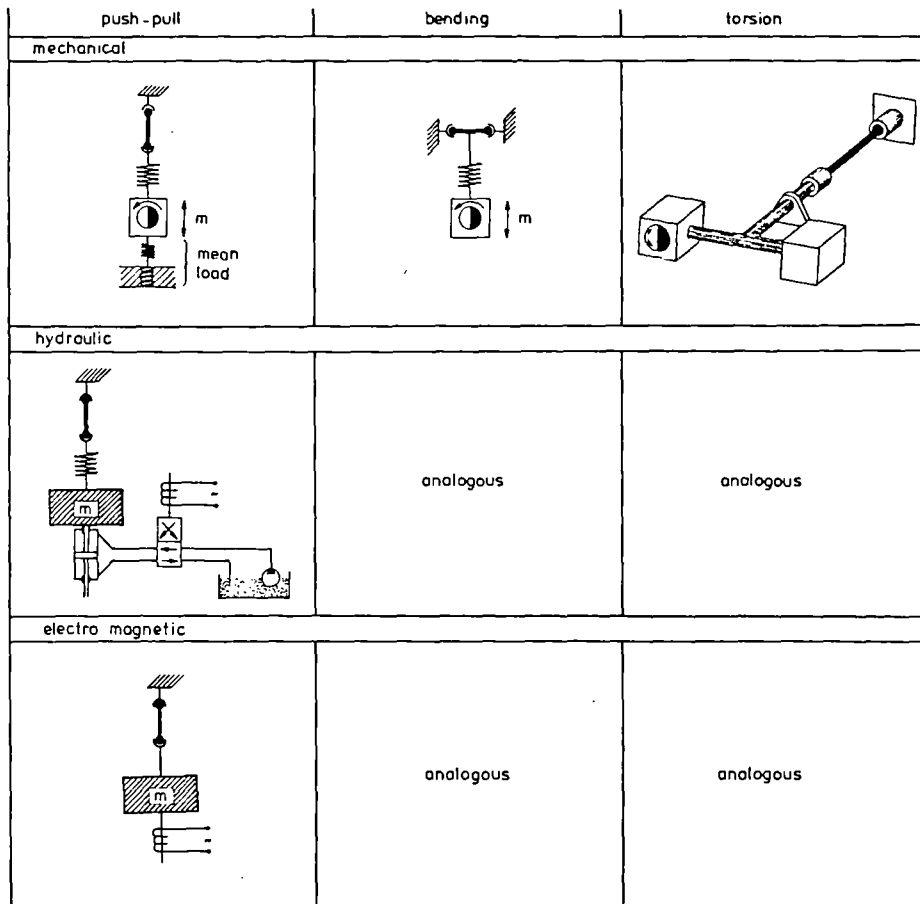


Figure (6.4) Conventional resonance fatigue test machine. (Nowack, 1981)

and hydraulic machines can achieve extremely high loads. They do have the advantage arising from their slow test speeds, that they are fundamentally easy to control and can establish reliable load or deflection control conditions.

Conventional resonant drive fatigue machines utilize the principle that a big spring mass system can be excited to perform sinusoidal oscillations with comparatively small amounts of energy, if the energy is supplied to the system at a rhythm and close to the resonant frequency of the whole system. It is important therefore that the energy dissipated by the specimen (eg. in the form of hysteretic heating) and the general damping of the system is small. This allows the undisturbed oscillations of the system to be rapidly built up. It is a characteristic of resonant machines that the load is gradually built up hence it is more applicable to constant amplitude tests where specimens can tolerate frequencies in excess of 10 Hz. They are therefore extremely useful in long term fatigue tests and have low running costs.

The servohydraulic fatigue machines are available in non-resonant and resonant forms, but they are not limited to constant amplitude tests. Since the following section is concerned with the development of a computer system to control a non-resonant servohydraulic system, much more detail is given of its design principles and characteristics. The resonant system is of less interest and is basically an extension of the non-resonant system, again utilizing the principle of a large spring mass.

Servohydraulic machines are commonly used today in laboratories as general purpose fatigue machines. They are extremely versatile and capable of applying a wide range of loads and frequencies. The basic working principle is shown in figure (6.5) and consists of four basic elements- the hydraulic pump, the servovalve, the actuator and the servo or feedback loop controller. One or more hydraulic pumps are used to keep the hydraulic fluid at a constant pressure of around 3000 psi. with accumulators to level out any instantaneous variations. The servovalve is the most critical part of the system as it controls the hydraulic flow into the actuator. The whole system is then controlled by means of a feedback loop controller.

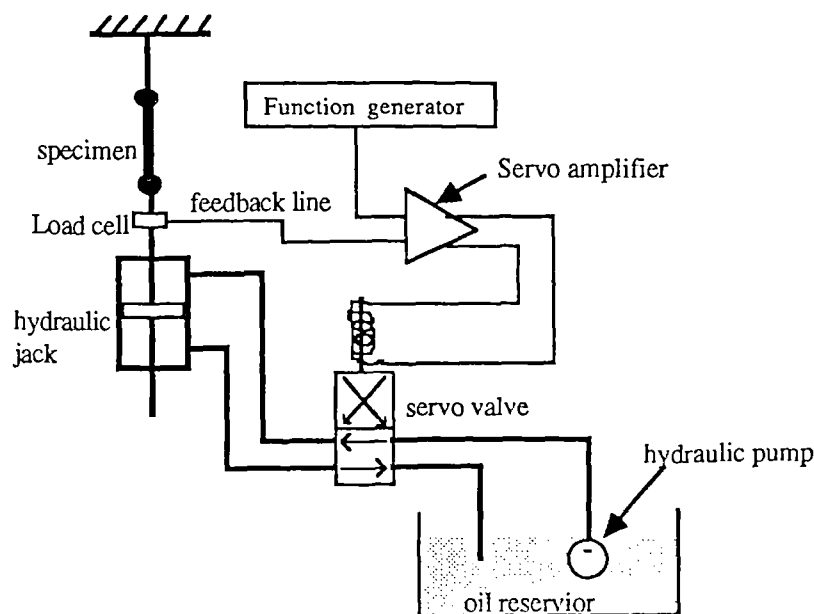


Figure (6.5) Basic components of a servohydraulic fatigue machine.

[signal is commonly from either a load cell or LVDT although any other source relevant]

The controller functions to ensure that the actuator performs as required. An electrical command signal is fed into the servovalve so that its position determines that a certain amount of hydraulic fluid flows into the appropriate chamber of the actuator which causes a force at the test specimen and a feedback (control) signal. This feedback to the type of test may be used. The command signal is balanced with the feedback signal by means of an integrator circuit so that what is required by the command signal is achieved. In practice careful optimization of the integrator circuit is necessary as two conflicting requirements exist. The first, the deviation between the command and feedback must be small, and second, the closed loop must be stable. Instability occurs when the resonance frequency of the system is reached or the phase angle of the servovalve reaches  $90^\circ$ . In tests, conditions of this nature rarely occur however in the context of computer control this is important as should the command signal of the computer be incorrectly defined instability can occur (and has been experienced). Because a phase difference always occurs with the command signal leading the feedback, attempts to use a computer to track and control the fatigue machine as a secondary feedback loop can result in severe difficulties. This will be discussed further in the design of the computer control system.

Two factors govern the design and hence the performance of a servohydraulic system. First, the size of the actuator determines the maximum load capability of the system. A larger actuator diameter provides a higher maximum load capability. Second, the flow rate of hydraulic fluid as supplied by the hydraulic pump combined with the number of servovalves limits the stroke amplitude versus the frequency capability of the system. Figure (6.6) shows the performance limits of a typical system. At higher frequencies, the maximum stroke amplitude that can be achieved is smaller. Also, this limitation is dependent on the peak loads required and is due to the compressibility of the fluid. To obtain high frequencies and stroke amplitudes, large or multiple hydraulic pumps are required. This limitation often exhibits itself during a fatigue test when the specimen loses its stiffness resulting in a fall in the peak load to compensate for the

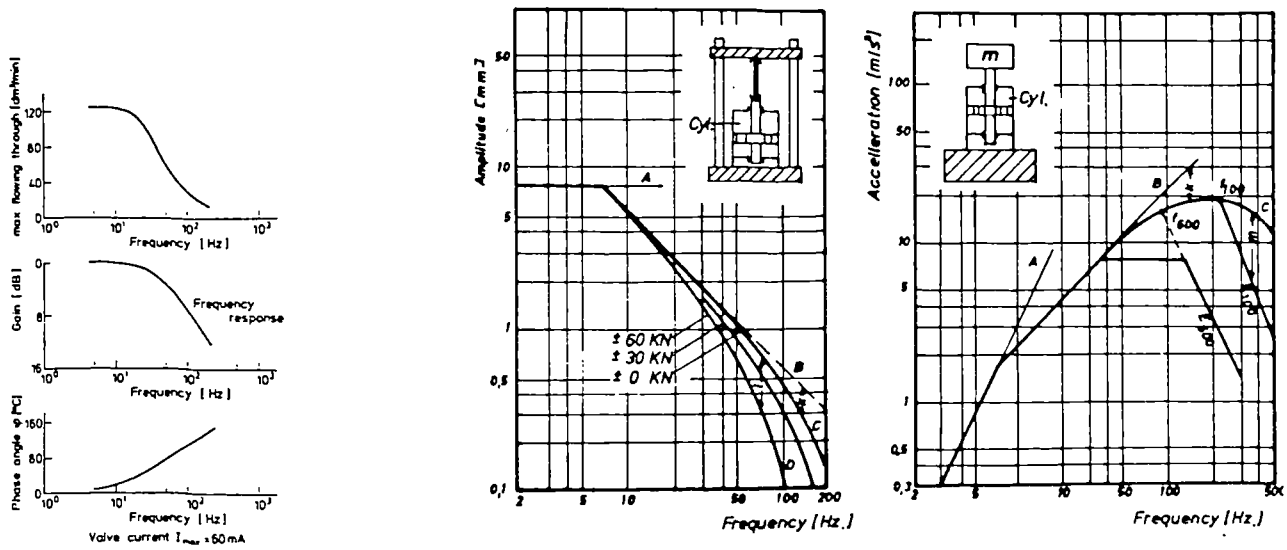


Figure (6.6) Example performance diagrams of a servovalve and of a servohydraulic fatigue machine. (Nowack, 1981)

increased stroke required. This effect may be avoided by specifying a bigger pump and increasing the number of servovalves. Alternatively, adjustments are necessary in the command signal. For some materials this is not significant. However, polymers, some composites and wood do show significant reductions in stiffness.

Another consequence of the limitation is experienced in variable amplitude fatigue tests. Where the loads change sharply from high amplitudes to low and vice versa. Overshoots and undershoots occur resulting in incorrect loading. Lanciotti (1983) proposed a scheme to reduce this problem by performing dummy runs of the load program measuring each peak and correcting the load program from that measured. By repeating this the error involved was significantly reduced. With wood, a realtime correction system would be of great benefit.

## 6.2 Why a New System?

### 6.2.1 Introduction

The development of a new computer control system has to be examined in the



light of the effort and cost required. To use the latest in computer technology may be a good reason but one that can hardly justify the many hours required in developing the hardware and software. This section therefore reviews the current systems available on the market and those developed by various laboratories. The decision to develop one's own system can therefore be examined in the context of what is required and what is available. However given that the decision to develop is taken, the nature of developmental work is such that hindsight often exposes errors in judgement. Underestimation of the time scale of a task is always the Achilles heel in development. The experience of the author is no different.

Computer control systems may be considered as large scale systems and small scale systems. Large systems are those using large mini computers for controlling one or even multiple actuators. These are common in large fatigue laboratories where large structures or an array of servohydraulic machines are used (Nowack et. all, 1979). Commonly, PDP 11s or Minc 11/73s are used costing upwards of £20,000 for the computer hardware alone. These systems are beyond the needs of the test program in this research. Also it is interesting to note that the capability of these computers only match modern microcomputers in speed with less memory available and cost ten times as much. Therefore, they will not be discussed.

### 6.2.2 Basic Requirements of a Computer Control System

The basic functions required of the control system in its original conception may be stated as follows:

- (1) Cycle by cycle monitoring of peak loads and peak strains or deflection of the specimen up to a test frequency in excess of 20 Hz. Data monitored should be stored on magnetic discs for post test analysis.
- (2) The system should be able to accurately control the loading of the sample by the servohydraulic machine ensuring that load fluctuations associated with the changes in specimen compliance are corrected for.

- (3) Complex loading. A minimum capability of programmed block loading with possible extensions to more complex random loads.
- (4) The system should be low cost, easily duplicated and uncomplicated to use requiring no modifications to the servohydraulic machine.

### 6.2.3 Small Single Actuator Computer Control Systems

There are a variety of systems described by their designers in the literature. Various commercial systems have also come on the market, some since the development work of the author began. It is noted however that these systems are generally designed for static testing and are therefore either unsuitable for the needs of this project or need substantial modification. It is instructive however to consider their designs and limitations.

Most systems described in the literature have been designed in the context of fracture mechanics type testing. A total of seven different systems were reviewed all of them using different computers although Digital Equipment's range of computers were most popular with the LSI/11 (Styles & Baker, 1978), PDP 11/23 (Jablonski & Lee, 1983), and Minc 11/23 (Griffiths, 1983) being used, the last being the most recent machine. Other computers include the Apple II (Fleck & Hooley, 1983), Texas Instrument's TM 990 (Barker & Smith, 1985) and the Commodore 8296 (Smith and Abbot). Each system has its advantages although those based on Digital Equipment's computers tend to be more expensive (>£10,000). Commercial systems available from Dartec or Instron are often based on Digital Equipment computers and therefore costs are prohibitive. These systems however have the advantage of being well designed but are biased towards static testing and therefore require some custom software (which would have to be purchased).

The concept of using computers to monitor fatigue crack propagation is similar in all the published systems. The implementations however do vary greatly. Much depends on the type of signal being monitored. The Krak-gauge which is an adhesively bonded foil gauge makes less demands on the computer than the potential drop method

which correspondingly demands less than the Crack Opening Displacement (COD) method. This is because the COD method requires the following of an oscillating displacement signal while the signal of the other two methods varies slowly. With the compliance measurements necessary in the COD method, this is not very dissimilar to the system required. A few limitations however exists in all these systems. Firstly, sampling rates tend to be slow which means that the test frequency is slow. Fleck and Hooley overcame this by interrupting the test cycles during data logging. With a more powerful computer, Jablonski and Lee used "burst mode" which meant data was continuously sampled and stored for a short time followed by the analysis. Either way, the compliance is not continuously monitored and cycles are lost which would be significant for shorter term (<10,000 cycles) fatigue tests. It is evident therefore that a much more advanced computer system is necessary.

Another consideration is the ability of the computer control system to accurately impose the load level required of the fatigue machine during test. As discussed earlier, servo-hydraulic fatigue machines do not maintain peak loads when the compliance of the specimen changes. In complex loading the problem is more serious due to the phase lag of the feedback signal to the command signal. The computer controller should automatically adjust for such changes. This can only be achieved if the monitoring of the load signal is performed in real time. Low cost systems are not able to perform this automatic correction and only with the more powerful PDP11/23 and Minc 11/23 systems is this possible.

It is interesting to note that for the system using the Commodore 8296 (Smith and Abbott), the IEEE488 interface was used hence the computer was in a secondary role, not directly controlling the fatigue machine. Digital volt meters with peak detectors and IEEE function generators were used controlled via the IEEE488 interface. Using this scheme the computer serves in a supervisory role and hence load correction becomes possible. The simplicity and development time for such a system is relatively low but it suffer from drawbacks. It is basically costly since each individual component

such as the function generator, digital volt meter, peak detectors, etc., costs as much if not more than the computer itself. Digital volt meters are slow in sample rates and peak detection is not accurate. System extensions to perform complex load tests are not possible without giving the computer direct control using digital to analogue converters hence reverting to a system more similar to the others.

#### 6.2.4 Problems and Principles in Computer Control of Servohydraulic Machines

The principles associated with the computer control of a servohydraulic fatigue machine and solutions to some of the problems involved were described briefly above. They may be considered in four categories.

(1) **Sampling Rate.**

The hardware and software must be able to handle the task of monitoring a signal of at least 100 Hz and generating a signal of up to 50Hz continuously. While a very smooth sinusoidal waveform is desirable in signal generation, in practice this is not strictly necessary since the hydraulics will not be able to respond to smooth steps. However, should the steps be too large, the ability of the hydraulics to follow decreases. In the system developed, 180 steps are used. The sampling rate required for monitoring the feedback signal depends on the sophistication of the peak detection routine. For a simple routine as used in this system, the sampling rate for 12 bits accuracy should be at least 90 to 180 samples per cycle depending on the signal amplitude. However the feedback signal from the fatigue machine may not be purely sinusoidal. Slackness in joints and clamps contribute to give some higher frequency components to the feedback signal. Therefore in practice it is desirable to exceed the minimum sampling rate by a factor of 3. Otherwise the accuracy of the system might be much less.

(2) **Phase lag between command and feedback signals.**

Phase lag creates problems, especially for variable amplitude tests, in

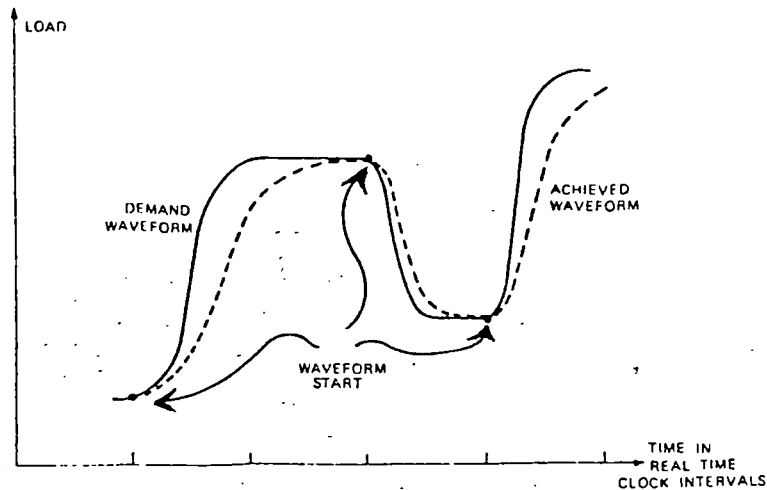


Figure (6.7) Schematic of possible shape for a demand waveform generated incorporating demand holding. (Craig, 1978)

ensuring the accuracy of the peak loads on the sample. The phase lag has the command signal leading the feedback and therefore making any direct comparison of the two signals to make fine corrections is not possible. One solution is to generate command signals of half sine waves from peak to peak with dwell times at the peaks. As illustrated in figure (6.7), when the feedback signal has reached the peak, comparisons and adjustments to the peak can then be made. Lanciotti (1983) suggested an alternative solution which will avoid the slower test speeds due to the dwell periods. The whole variable amplitude test block is initially used and the corresponding actual peaks achieved in the test are recorded. The errors associated with each peak are then calculated and the entire block can be corrected as follows:

$$\text{new input peak} = \text{old input peak} + (\text{required peak} - \text{old output peak}) \dots 6.2$$

This procedure was applied to a dummy specimen prior to the actual test. It can conceivably be extended, repeating the procedure and applied in real time on a test specimen provided there is sufficient computing power.

### (3) Stiffness Changes.

When the fatigue machine has a pump with a low flow rate, stiffness changes in the specimen can result in a large drop in peak loads as the test progresses. This problem is overcome when the routine for load peak correction

as described above is applied. However, the problem is more gradual here hence if Lanciotti's method is used, it has to be applied continuously throughout the test. Also correction must be carried out for constant amplitude tests although this is necessary only occasionally, eg. every 100 cycles.

(4) **Signal Noise.**

Electrical equipment inevitably suffers from signal noise. This can arise from many sources. It can be due to its own circuitry although good design would ensure that this source is minimized. Generally, the level of signal noise is sufficiently low however if this not the case, for low frequency applications such as fatigue testing, high frequency filters can be added easily. External sources inducing signal noise into the equipment are however more difficult to overcome.

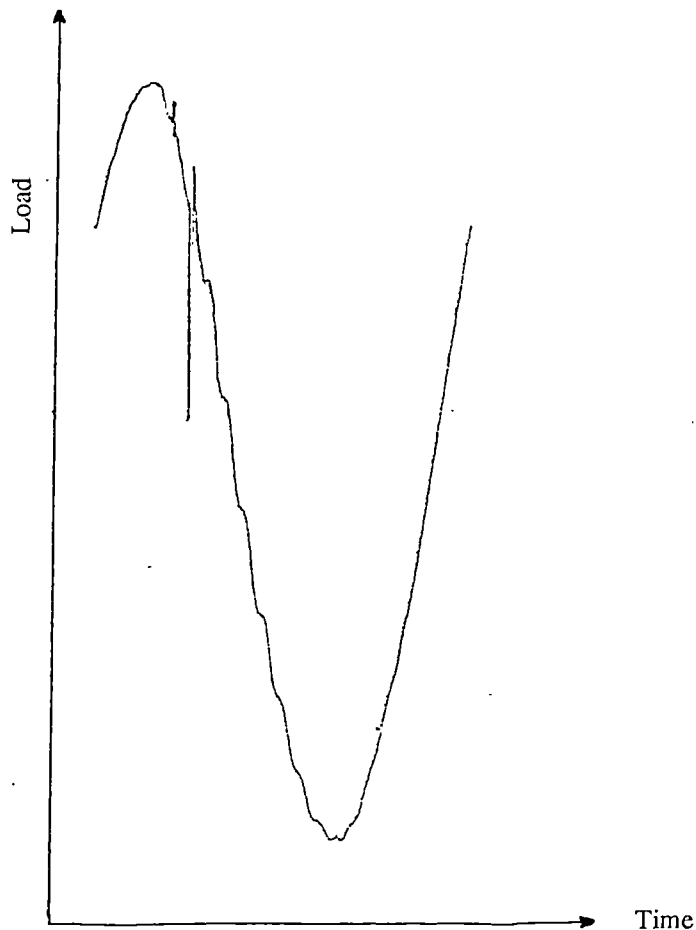


Figure (6.8) Example of a transient and its effect on the output signal waveform.

Radio frequency and mains supply transients are the most common sources. These often arise from adjacent heavy current equipment such as electric motors and relay switches. A typical occurrence monitored during a fatigue test is illustrated in figure (6.8). Such occurrences would interfere with load correction procedures as they are random and can lead to over corrections. No workable scheme has yet been found which eliminates this problem and it can only at best be contained.

### **6.3 Design of SArGen - Signal Analyser and Generator**

#### **6.3.1 System Architecture**

The concept of the new computer control system is illustrated in figure (6.9). It centres around a custom designed 6800 microprocessor based computer (called SArGen) with a digital to analogue converter (DAC) and analogue to digital converter (ADC). An Apple Macintosh computer is used as the user-system interface which supervises the SArGen and stores relevant data on 3.5" magnetic disks for later analysis. The idea of this design is to separate the task of basic peak to peak detection and function generation from online data analysis, decision making and data storage. In other words, SArGen acts as an intelligent interface between the Macintosh computer and the servohydraulic machine. The use of the 6800 based computer with 8K of firmware (software in Read Only Memory or ROM) and 48K of Random Access Memory (RAM) provides the necessary 'intelligence'. A high speed serial link is used for communication with Macintosh. It may be argued that all the tasks could be performed by just one powerful computer like the Macintosh or IBM PC, however the software would largely have to be written in Assembly language and timing difficulties would occur especially at higher test frequencies. By separating the tasks between Macintosh and SArGen, the complications are reduced and only the firmware for SArGen needs be written in Assembly Language. Software for the Macintosh is largely written in Pascal with only the software for the serial interface in Assembly language.

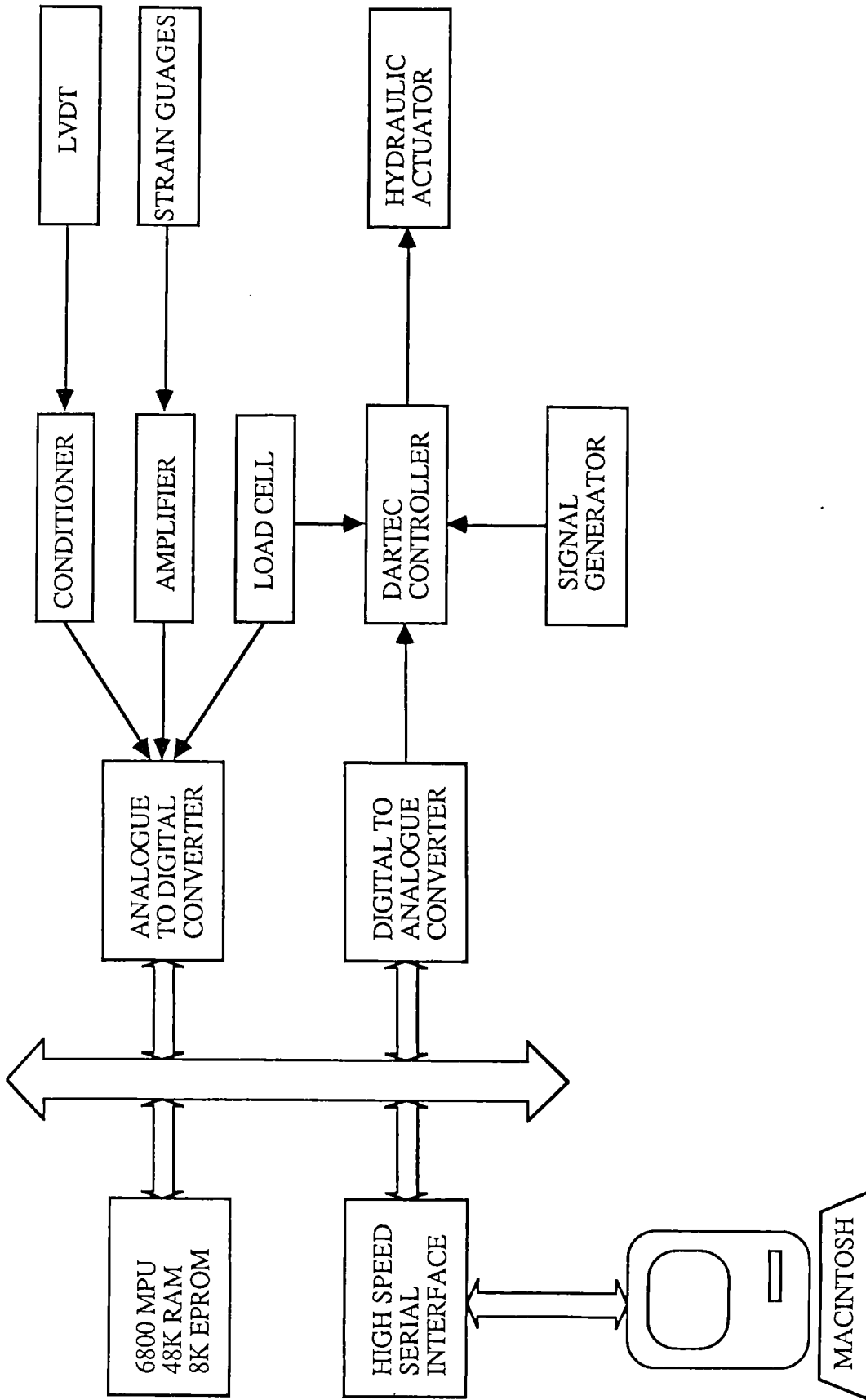


Figure (6.9) SArGen system architecture for monitoring and controlling fatigue machine.



### 6.3.2 SArGen Hardware Design

SArGen is designed in modular form with plug-in cards for each of its functions. There are 5 cards apart from the power supplies - microprocessor, memory, serial interface, DAC and ADC cards. The assembly is capable of taking additional cards: a LVDT transducer card and a 3 channel autozeroing strain gauge amplifier card are included.

The 6800 microprocessor unit or MPU forms the heart of SArGen. It is an 8 bit processor running at 2 MHz and capable of addressing 64K of memory. All the address, data and control lines have been made available on the backplane (see figure (6.9)) so that the full capability of the MPU can be exploited. A particularly useful feature of this processor is its interrupt capability which enables external timing signals to be used to cause the 6800 MPU to perform specific tasks at regular intervals. This facility is used in signal generation. The choice of the 6800 MPU is mainly dictated by familiarity with it. It is not the most powerful MPU available but based on conservative calculations, was deemed adequate for the task.

The memory of SArGen is decoded to give 48K of RAM located from \$0000 to \$BFFF and 8K of ROM located at E000 to FFFF. The remaining 8K is made available as 8 chip select lines for input/output peripherals. The address of the select lines are C000, C400, C800, CC00, D000, D400, D800, DC00. The 8K of ROM is organized to use two 4K EPROM chips which can then be independently programmed when necessary. Four of the select lines are used in the basic system for the serial interface, ADC, DAC and programmable timer (for interrupts). The other four may be used for other devices as necessary. With the program stored into ROM, no down loading is necessary and the system is ready from switch on. The 48K of RAM is used as a temporary store of variables and as a buffer for data either to be used in digital to analogue conversion or vice versa before transmitting to the Macintosh.

The analogue to digital converter card uses a high speed 12 bit converter. It is capable of conversion rates of up to 20 KHz giving accuracy of 1 in 4096 or 0.025%.

Four input channels are available so that four different analogue sources can be monitored. To avoid time delay differences when the four channels are monitored (it takes over 50  $\mu$ s between conversions) the card is designed so that all four channels are sampled and the signal held until all four channels (or the required number) are converted. This means that readings from the four channels are effectively performed at the same time. This is important as in a fatigue test, all incoming signals are varying rapidly and significant errors would result if readings were not taken simultaneously. For example, with a 10 Hz sine wave, errors of greater than 0.5% can easily occur.

The digital to analogue converter card also uses a 12 bit converter. This is of a standard design. The card also has a programmable timer. This is a device which can be used as a counter or a timer which causes an interrupt signal to be generated to the MPU at regular intervals set by the software program. In this case, the timer function is used to vary the frequency of the sine wave generated to the fatigue machine. Interrupts can occur at rates of 1 MHz down to 16 Hz. Since 180 discrete points (therefore interrupts necessary) are used to define a sine wave, this corresponds to the generated signal frequency of 5,555 Hz to 0.088 Hz (in practice the highest frequency is only about 500 Hz due to software delays).

Macintosh has the capability of communicating with other computers at speeds of up to 0.9 MBits/sec using a RS232/422 interface. The serial interface card of SArGen uses this interface and is designed to communicate with Macintosh at a speed of 0.5 MBits/sec. At this speed data transfer can be achieved very rapidly with very little delay.

### 6.3.3 SArGen Software Design

There are three components to the software. SArGen has a 4K ROM programmed in 6800 Assembler language. The main control program on the Macintosh is programmed in compiled Pascal with the serial communication software part coded in 68000 assembler for speed.

With the Macintosh supplying commands to SArGen, the range of commands that must be programmed into SArGen must be complete for all possible control requirements. The commands are coded as single byte characters with data bytes following if required. Table (6.1) lists all the commands and their respective command code used. Most of these commands are associated with the setting up of test parameters and manual control of the servohydraulic machine.

Table (6.1) Command codes used in the software for communication between SArGen and Macintosh.

Code	Hex. Code	Command Description
1	01	Start ADC and DAC processing
96	60	Terminate processing
3	03	Transmitting 128 bytes of data
4	04	Transmitting 256 bytes of data
5	05	Transmitting 512 bytes of data
6	06	Transmitting 1024 bytes of data
128 to 255	80 to FF	Transmitting data: 0 to 127 bytes
8	08	Manual DAC control
80	50	Terminate manual DAC control
10	0A	Option select: continuous ADC. Must be followed by two bytes for time delay.
11	0B	Option select: ADC with peak detection.
13	0D	Option select: DAC sine wave generation. Must be followed by 6 data bytes.
14	0E	Option select: ADC off
15	0F	Option select: DAC off
16	10	Transmitting program code. Followed by two bytes of program size and program code.
17	11	Send XON Character
18	12	Send XOFF Character
20	14	JSR to RAM program
21	15	Set Strain Gauge amplifier offset
33 to 42	21 to 2A	JSR to ROM2: locations E000 to E012
113 to 127	71 to 7F	Channel selection

The structure of the program in ROM is illustrated by the flowcharts in Appendix A. The complete listing of the program is also given in Appendix C. On turning on SArGen, the program immediately goes through an initialization routine to ensure the DAC is set at zero volts, the timer is turned off and all the memory in RAM is working. Also necessary is to set up the serial interface chip for the correct communications protocol ie. 8 bits data character with even parity and 1 stop bit. Once initialization is done, SArGen is ready to perform any of the tasks required. It therefore goes through a routine waiting for a command to be received from Macintosh. When a command is received, it immediately checks if it is a command to perform the main test. If not, it goes into a subroutine to check if the various other command options are required. It then returns and repeats this until the command to start test is invoked.

Among the command options are two to control the digital to analogue converter. Command code 16 turns off this facility but code 15 commands a sine wave to be generated. Six data bytes must be provided with this command to specify the maximum peak, minimum peak and conversion rate. When a test is to begin, two tables are calculated from the given maximum and minimum peaks to describe the two half waves of a sinusoidal waveform. This is done by scaling a quarter wave table stored in ROM to give a half wave starting from the the minimum peak to the maximum peak (91 values) and another half wave from the value after the maximum to the value before the minimum peak (89 values). A total of 180 conversions are therefore used to describe one complete cycle. This also means that a conversion rate 180 times faster than the required cycle frequency is required (eg. 1800 conversions per second for a 10 Hz wave frequency). The timer has to be set to give this conversion rate. Once set, the timer will interrupt the 6800 to perform D to A conversion at that rate. The routine that initiates the conversion itself is a selfcontained program separate from the main program. It is invoked by the jump vector which the MPU, when interrupted by the timer, automatically goes to. On completion of the interrupt routine, the MPU returns to the location of the main program where it was at the point of interrupt. The interrupt routine is therefore invisible to the main routine except for the small delays associated

with servicing the interrupt.

Two test options are available: fatigue testing and static testing. Static testing simply enable continuous sampling and A to D conversions to be performed at a preset rate (up to 1000 samples and conversions a second). This is therefore a simple routine with a loop to perform these conversions. A software delay is used to adjust for different sample rates. The routine for fatigue testing performs A to D conversions at the full speed of the 6800 MPU. It includes routines to detect the peaks of the input cyclic signals. The maximum peak is detected by comparing successive conversions until the latest value is less than the maximum sampled value by a given threshold amount. Once detected, the maximum is stored and the software begins seeking for the minimum peak. This is found when the the value is greater then the minimum sampled by the same threshold amount. The value of the threshold is not preset but variable and can be adjusted by software. It is important that the threshold is not too small as then spurious noise signals would be deemed as peaks or not too large resulting in no peaks detected. A value of 128 (representing 0.6 Volts) has been found to be ideal.


When a specimen fails, SArGen must be able to terminate its fatigue testing routine itself since such an event could occur when the machine is unattended. Fatigue machines generally have trips to do this, shutting off the pump or isolating the machine from the signal generator and switching to a safe mode. To reduce complications in the development, this facility of the fatigue machine is used hence SArGen does not need to directly stop the test but only recognise it. This it does by recognising the fact that when a specimen fails, the cyclic input signals stop hence no peaks can be detected. If two cycles have been generated by the DAC, without any peaks detected, this invariably means sample failure. The program therefore performs the required termination routine.

#### 6.3.4 Macintosh Software Design

##### **The Display Screen for User Operation**

The Macintosh side of the software has been developed making full use of the

windows, icons, menus and mouse facilities of the machine. There are two separate programs for fatigue testing and static testing (see Appendix D for listing of fatigue testing program). The program for static testing is a subset of that for fatigue testing being simpler in concept. The image of the screen during fatigue testing is illustrated in figure (6.10). The menu line at the top contains the following options.

- (a)  : These are Desk Accessories and are installed by the user for the machine.
- (b) **General** : A general control menu.

**Clear replies** : Clears the data displayed on screen.

**Clear Data** : Clears the memory of the data from preceding test.

**Save Data** : Saves data from the completed test in an alternative file.

The following selects the active channels for data input.

**Channel 1**

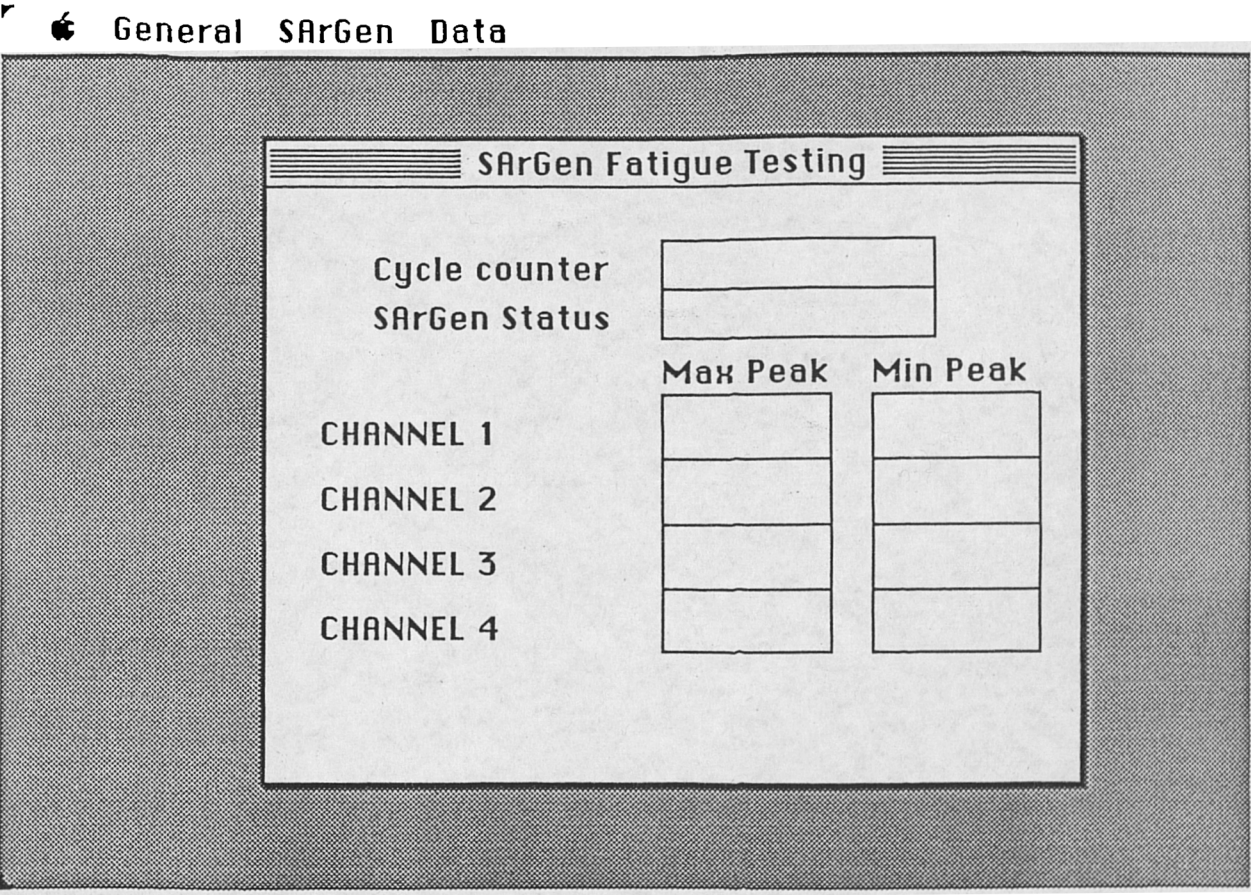


Figure (6.10) The display screen on the Macintosh computer on startup.

**Channel 2**

**Channel 3**

**Channel 4**

(c) **SArGen** : A menu for direct communications with SArGen.

**XON** : Send XON Character.

**XOFF** : Send XOFF Character.

**Calling SArGen** : To test communications with SArGen; SArGen replies with an XON which the screen will indicate with "OK".

**DA Off** : Turns off digital to analogue signal generation.

**DA Constant Amp Wave** : Selects sine wave generation. The user will be prompted for maximum peak, minimum peak and signal frequency.

**DA Variable Amp Wave** : Selects a variable amplitude test. The user will be prompted for a text file which contains the amplitude data.

**Zero SGA** : This facility is used to zero the 3 channel Strain Gauge Amplifier card. The output from channel 1 to 3 of the SGA must be connected to channels 2 to 4 of the ADC card.

**Jack Control** : A scroll bar is used to manually control the hydraulic jack. The control mode (position or load) is dependent on the mode the fatigue machine is in.

**Begin Test** : To initiate a fatigue test. A file name and the level for recording of a change in peak level will be requested if needed for data storage.

**Stop Test** : To terminate a current test.

**Send Integer** : This facility is for special situations where the user wishes to send specific commands to SArGen.

(d) **Data** :

A moving average routine which averages 5 peaks (maximum and minimum) continuously can be selected for each channel. Where the peak changes by greater than 1.2% of the fullscale, the routine starts afresh its moving average. The

following selects the channels to which the smoothing routine is applied.

**Smooth Channel 1**

**Smooth Channel 2**

**Smooth Channel 3**

**Smooth Channel 4**

The next two options offer to save peak data or to control the fatigue machine. These options are included for complex loading as the data recorded in a test can be extremely large.

**Sample and Save**

**Sample only**

The default is for **Sample and Save**.

### **Program Structure**

The programs for fatigue and static testing was developed using compiled PASCAL. The version for static testing is a subset of that for fatigue testing. The flow chart for the program is given in Appendix B. The Macintosh computer receives commands from the operator through the screen as what is termed *events*. Data from SArGen is received asynchronously via the RS422 serial port. An RS422 serial port driver was developed and a listing is found in Appendix E. When data is transmitted by SArGen, the Macintosh processor is interrupted to the driver to receive the data which is stored in a temporary buffer. The processor than returns to the main program which polls the buffer continuously to check and read the data. The main routine also checks for any user initiated events diverting and branching to the appropriate routines for processing. The cycle counter has also to be continuously maintained on screen and the load level checked at programmed intervals. Should variable amplitude testing have been selected, a check has also to be made if the next block level is to be initiated.



# CHAPTER 7

## EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

## 7.1 Introduction

The main thrust of this research is to investigate the flexural fatigue properties of wood under the condition of constant peak load as compared to previous work published in the literature which is primarily in constant deflection. Constant deflection suffers from the fact that the load level drops with cycles due to the increase in compliance and the development of creep strains or perhaps, more appropriately, fatigue strains. The experimental program therefore centres around the use of a servo-hydraulic fatigue machine which can accurately apply a constant load to the specimens.

Early in the program, it was realised that more information on the changes occurring in the specimen while being fatigued was necessary to obtain a better picture of possible fatigue failure mechanisms in wood. It was therefore felt that two approaches were necessary: (a) to follow the fatigue strains and stiffness changes during fatigue, and, (b) to make a fresh study of wood microstructure, using electron and optical microscopes.

To facilitate the first approach, a new computer system was developed. This is described in detail in Chapter 6. The system enabled changes in applied peak loads and the resulting peak deflections to be accurately monitored cycle by cycle. This allowed the detection of the drift in deflection due to fatigue strains and allowed the calculation of the secant modulus of the material. With the new system, complex block loading fatigue was also possible and in view of the need to establish design procedures for the new generation of wooden WEC blades, an exploratory study of block fatigue loading was attempted.

Time prevented a detailed study of microstructural damage to be made using electron and optical microscopes. With assistance from Dr. J. M. Dinwoodie of the Building Research Establishment, a promising approach to the study of fatigue failure mechanisms was developed. 20 $\mu$ m thick microtomed sections of wood were examined with the optical microscope.

The needs of the Wind Energy Industry in this study of the fatigue failure of

wood have been considered. As a result, two main types of wood were chosen for this work - Khaya ivorensis, a tropical African hardwood and Sitka spruce from the UK. Khaya has been used in the form of sliced 4mm thick veneers laminated with epoxy resin for WEC blade manufacture. This was therefore the principle material tested. Later on, rotary cut Khaya was used for the second generation blades. This new material was therefore incorporated into the testing for comparative purposes. Because Khaya is a hardwood it has a relatively complex structure. Sitka spruce, a softwood, was therefore selected for studies of possible ways in which fatigue damage develops. This also provided a means of comparison between the fatigue properties of hardwoods and softwoods.

The experimental program therefore fell into three categories to obtain and observe the following:

- (a) The stress versus cycles to failure or fatigue life of wood.
- (b) The development of fatigue damage as monitored by changes in fatigue strains and stiffness.
- (c) Anatomical changes during fatigue as observed using electron and optical microscopy.

## **7.2 Sample Preparation**

### **7.2.1 Khaya Ivorensis Laminates**

Khaya ivorensis was supplied as 4mm thick veneers in two forms, sliced and rotary cut. The sliced veneers were used in the HWP-300 WEC blades and supplies were from the consignment used for the manufacture of the blades. Rotary cut Khaya was introduced later for the second generation blades and subsequently incorporated into the test program. The veneers were visually examined for defects following the quality control procedure used by the blade manufacturers. Three types of defects were found which resulted in the rejection of veneers. These were longitudinal splits and transverse cracks, shakes and brittle heart. These defects would reduce the strength of

the laminate and brittle heart also greatly increases its density.

The veneers were laminated together using a room temperature cure epoxy resin purchased from Structural Polymers Ltd. This resin system consists of, by volume, 100 parts of SP110 epoxy resin and 20 parts of SP210 hardener. Because a vacuum bagging technique was used in blade manufacture, a similar method was adopted. This meant that the resin needed a filler to provide a more viscous resin characteristic during vacuum bagging. The filler used was 20 parts of SP glass microfibre, also from Structural Polymers, added to the resin mix.

The vacuum bagging manufacturing technique, widely used in the boat building industry and in the making of composite structures, is an extremely simple and effective method for laminating the veneers. The set up used is illustrated in figure (7.1). The resin mix with filler was first applied to the surfaces of the veneers using approximately 300 gm/m<sup>2</sup>. The veneers, about 0.5m wide by 1m to 1.3m long, were then sandwiched together, 4-ply thick, and placed into a polythene bag with a wooden base. Netting was placed above the veneers and the bag sealed. A vacuum was then applied removing any air bubbles between the laminations. The atmospheric pressure around the bag also pressed the veneers together giving a laminate of very high integrity. Figure (7.2) shows an electron micrograph of a section of the laminate showing that the resin has penetrated some of the vessels in the veneers. The vacuum was applied for over 15

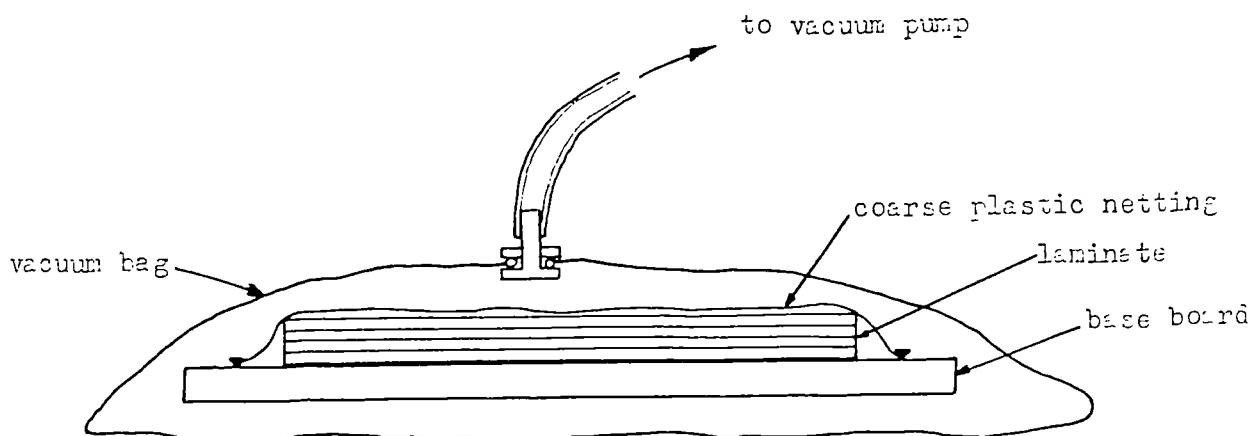


Figure (7.1) Illustration showing the simple technique of vacuum bagging for the manufacture of Khaya Laminates.

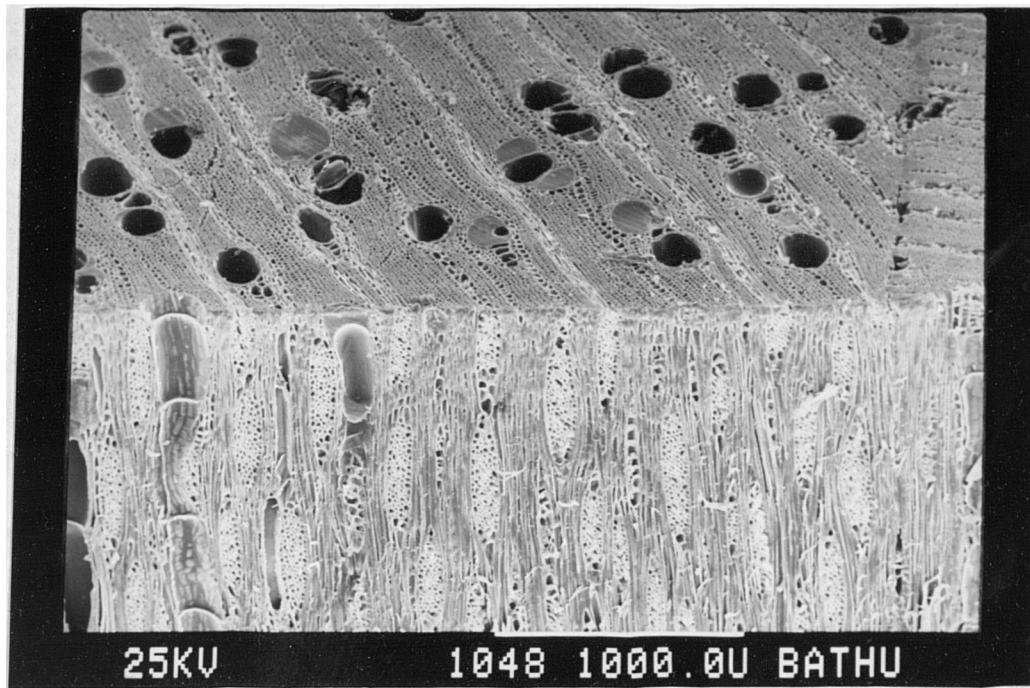


Figure (7.2) Transverse and tangential-longitudinal sections of a Khaya laminate showing a glue line on the far right.

hours before laminate removal. Specimens were then cut to the size of 30mm by 270mm with the longitudinal direction along the length of the specimen. Surfaces were then sanded using a belt sander to remove excess resin before the samples were placed into conditioning cabinets. Specimens were not measured and weighed until just before testing. A total of 14 laminates were manufactured 13 of which were labelled A to N omitting I. Each specimen cut from the laminate was then sequentially numbered, most plates yielding around 35 to 40 specimens. The 14th laminate was a 0.4m long laminate and the specimens cut were labelled KA to KH.

### 7.2.2 Sitka Spruce and Permalii Compressed Laminates

A total of four beams of United Kingdom Sitka spruce were carefully selected and purchased from a local lumber yard. They were chosen specially for straightness of grain and a large radius of curvature of the growth rings. Specimens were cut ensuring that the longitudinal, tangential and radial directions were parallel to the planes of the specimen as shown in figure (7.3). The specimens selected for testing were clear being

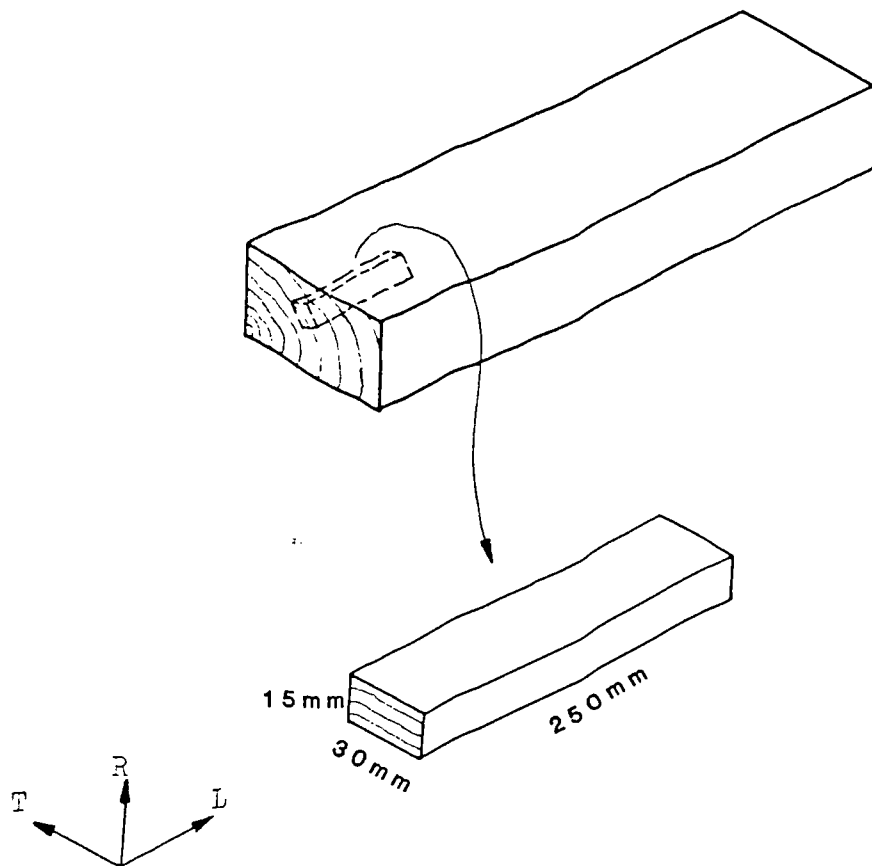


Figure (7.3) Dimensions and orientation of the Sitka spruce specimens.

straight grained and free from knots, resin bands and compression wood. Each specimen was carefully labelled so that its source and location in the beam could be traced. The cut specimens were then placed into conditioning cabinets for at least one month before being measured and weighed for testing.

Compressed Beech laminates were also used initially in this study. These laminates were obtained from Permal Gloucester Limited. They were in two forms; unidirectional and cross (0/90) laminated. The material was 12 plies of Beech veneer thick, laminated using a phenolic resin and compressed with a force of  $15 \text{ MN/m}^2$ . This type of material is often used in aircraft propellers and in subsonic wind tunnels. The laminates supplied were both about 6.35mm thick and were cut into lengths of 150mm and widths of 20mm. The laminates were cut with the outer plies in the direction of the length of the specimen.

### **7.3 Environmental Conditioning**

With wood properties being strongly influenced by moisture content, careful conditioning is necessary. Three different environments were used. The first was the air-dry condition. Specimens were simply left in the laboratory atmosphere which had a relative humidity of 40%. Most of the specimens tested were conditioned at 65% RH. Glass tanks with a saturated salt solution of sodium nitrite were used to maintain this humidity. To obtain an even higher humidity, a salt spray cabinet was used with distilled water only. This created an environment of 98% RH. The cabinet was carefully adjusted to ensure a low water collection rate to avoid excess condensation of water onto the specimens. The salt spray cabinet design followed the ASTM B117-73 description.

Sliced Khaya conditioned in the three environments attained moisture contents of approximately 5%, 11% and 35%, the last being above the fiber saturation point. Sitka spruce and rotary cut Khaya was conditioned at 65% RH only which also gave a moisture content of about 12-13% and 11% respectively. Compressed Beech wood specimens were not specially conditioned and were tested as received. Their moisture content was not sensitive to fluctuations in the humidity of the laboratory and were at about 8%.

Specimens were conditioned for a minimum of three weeks in each environment. Their moisture content was measured using the oven drying method as described in the ASTM standards. This simply involved measuring the weight before and after drying in a oven with a temperature of between 101°C and 103°C. At various time intervals, a resistance type moisture meter was also used to monitor the moisture content of specimens to ensure that the moisture content was as stated to within 1%.

### **7.4 Fatigue Test and Monitoring Equipment**

The fatigue tests were conducted on a 5kN capacity servo-hydraulic machine supplied by Dartec Ltd. It had a 5kN fatigue rated load cell mounted on a hydraulic jack

with  $\pm 50$ mm of travel. The load cell was calibrated to give  $\pm 10$  Volts fullscale. The jack itself was mounted on a stiff load frame with a manually adjusted crosshead. This is illustrated in figure (7.4). Hydraulic supply was provided by a  $\approx 10$  litres/min pump which was aircooled and needed only a standard 13amp single phase supply. The Dartec electronics was separated into two parts, the closed loop servo valve amplifier which was mounted on the frame and a general purpose control console. The control console consisted of various sections. The function generator was capable of generating a ramp function and sinusoidal, square and triangular waveforms up to a frequency of 100 Hz although for the testing of wood, 30 Hz would be the practical limit of the machine. Other sections include a digital volt meter with peak detectors for monitoring the peak loads, a cycle counter, trips to shut the pump off when the specimen fails, and

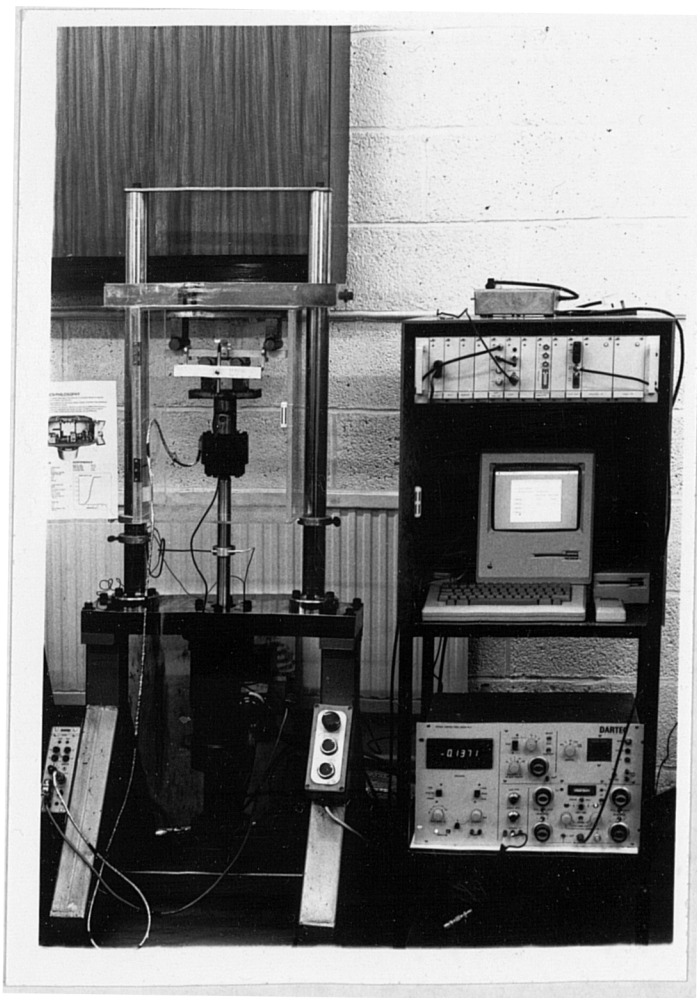


Figure (7.4) Photograph of the Dartec fatigue machine.



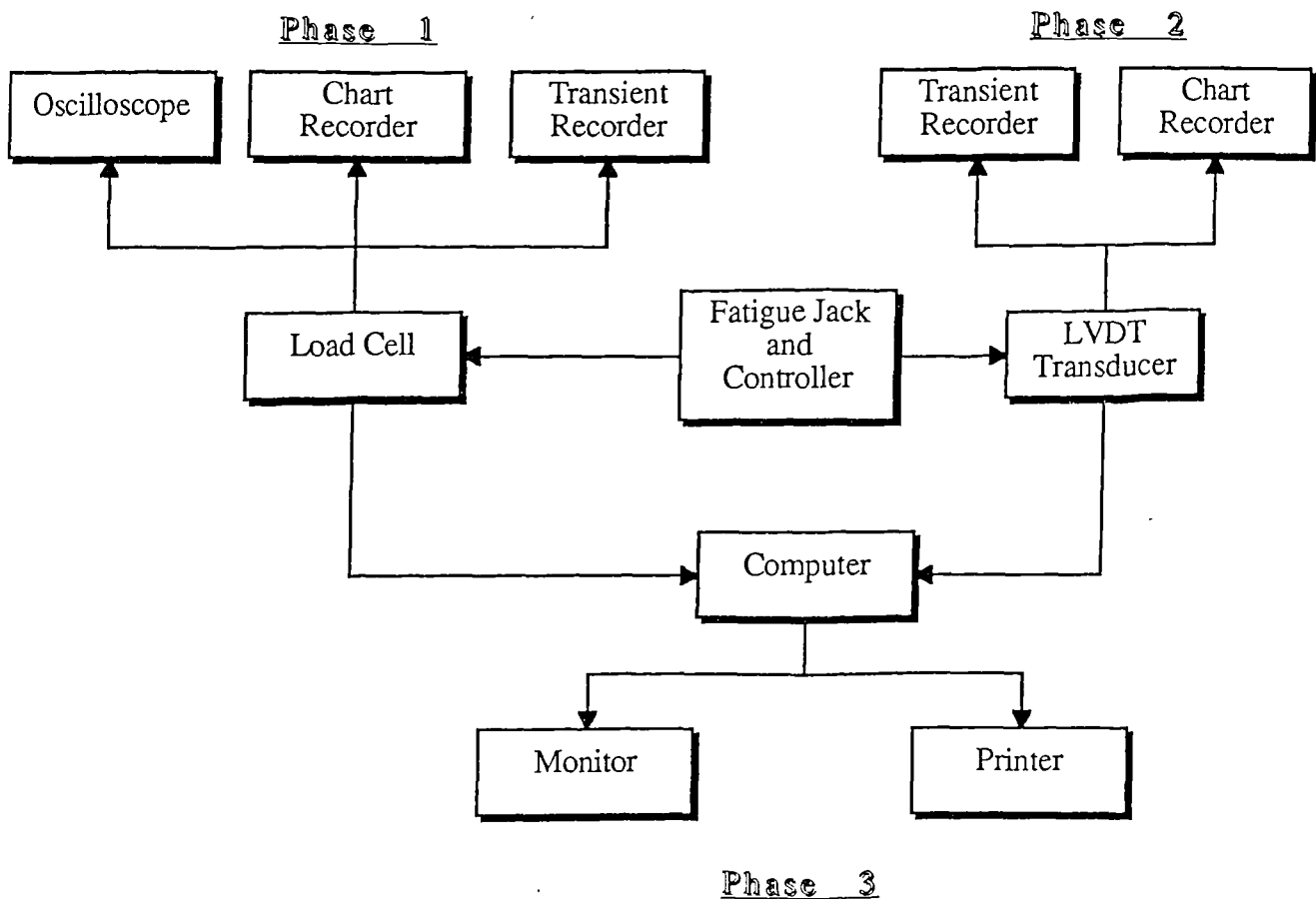


Figure (7.5) Sequence of monitoring equipment added to fatigue machine. SARGen was developed in Phase 3 which made Phase 1 and 2 redundant.

two sets of dials for controlling the command signal to obtain the appropriate peak loads.

Additional monitoring equipment was added in three phases as illustrated in figure (7.5). The first was a transient recorder of 8 bits (or 1 in 256) accuracy to measure the peak failure loads during high speed ramp tests. A second transient recorder was then added to measure deflections from an Linearly Variable Differential Transformer (LVDT) transducer mounted on the specimen (see section 7.5). This set

up enabled preliminary measurement of the development of fatigue strains. This setup however has drawbacks. Firstly, the accuracy of the system was poor especially since the drift in the signal due to fatigue strains meant that the sensitivity setting had to be low. A greater problem however was associated with the manual nature of measuring. Generally, the first few hundred cycles were lost due to the need to manually dial up the loads until the peak loads required were reached. For short term tests, this loss of early data would be a significant. Also being manual, the cycles leading up to failure would generally be missed, likewise intermediate events such as the development of cracks. A clear picture of the development of fatigue strains and stiffness changes would therefore not be obtained. The need therefore existed for the third phase which would utilize a computer to control and monitor the fatigue machine. The system would also provide additional features such as complex loading facilities and automatic correction of drifts in the peak loads. This system referred to as SArGen is described fully in Chapter 6. The calibrations of load cell and LVDT transducer with SArGen gave  $\pm 100\%$  fullscale for  $\pm 5\text{KN}$  or  $\pm 8\text{mm}$  respectively, although the transducer was only physically capable of deflecting through  $\pm 4\text{mm}$ .

A perspex cabinet was also constructed to fit the fatigue frame to prevent the drying out of specimens during a fatigue test. This drying out can be significant for longer term tests and the cabinet with a beaker of saturated sodium nitrite solution was used to prevent this from occurring. For tests at 98% RH, the fog from the salt spray cabinet was ducted over to the cabinet ensuring that the specimen remained moist.

## **7.5 4-Point bend Rig**

All fatigue tests on Khaya and Sitka spruce specimens were conducted in flexure using a four point bend rig with the supports made from one inch diameter rollers spaced at 70mm apart. This gave a total outer support span of 210mm. The flexural strength,  $\sigma_p$ , is calculated using the formula:

$$\sigma_F = \frac{PL}{bd^2} \quad \dots\dots 7.1$$

where P is the applied load, L is the distance between the outer rollers and b and d are the specimen width and depth respectively.

Problems were encountered however with this standard arrangement as, in a fatigue test, the two central rollers had a tendency to dig into the specimen creating a damage zone. This effect did not appear to seriously affect fatigue lives but affected the measurement of deflections. To minimize this, polyethylene pads with a surface curvature of about two inches radius were used spreading out the area of contact and reducing any damage due to the relative movement between the specimen and rollers. The problem was not totally removed but the damage with the pads was much less and its effect fell within acceptable limits.

For reversed flexural fatigue, the rig had to be greatly modified. The basic four point frame was used but additional rollers were added so that there were now eight rollers in four pairs. These pairs of rollers were attached to each other by means of a steel ring which provided a hinge for movement. The arrangement is illustrated in figure (7.6). The arrangement is by no means ideal. Firstly, as the specimen was fatigued, the rollers inevitably dug into the specimen resulting in premature failure. The use of polyethylene pads as before was not possible as it would add too much thickness

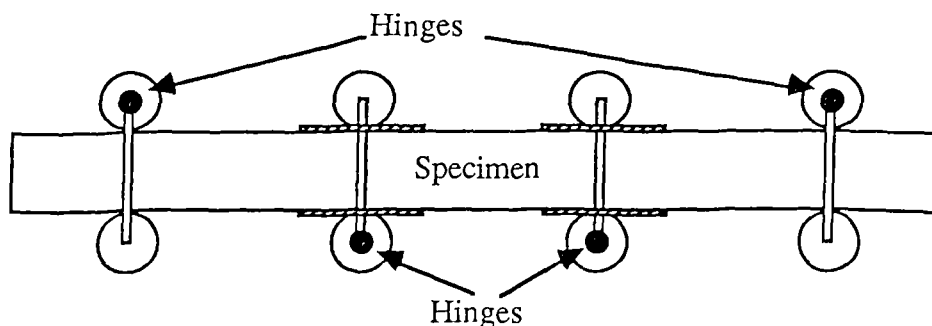


Figure (7.6) Arrangement used for reversed four point bending fatigue. GRP pads were glued to reduce lateral damage at the central load points.

between the rollers. Therefore an alternative method had to be considered and it was found that GRP pads glued to the specimen was the most satisfactory. Woven glass in epoxy resin was used which had the advantage that it was harder than wood, so did not crush easily. Also, since it had a modulus not much greater than wood, it reinforced the area of greatest stress without inducing excessive shear stress between the pads and wood, unlike aluminum pads. The use of these glued on pads however, has the disadvantage of affecting the flexural rigidity of the specimen and the deflections measured would not correspond to the stiffness of wood and can only be used for comparative purposes.

Another weakness of the arrangement is that it does not fully address the manner in which the rollers move as the specimen is loaded in each direction. Ideally, the hinge should be frictionless and located at the line of the neutral axis of the specimen. This would enable both rollers to rotate with the surface of the specimen as illustrated in figure (7.7). The rollers should also be free to rotate to allow for some small expansion and contraction of the specimen when bent. But the ideal arrangement

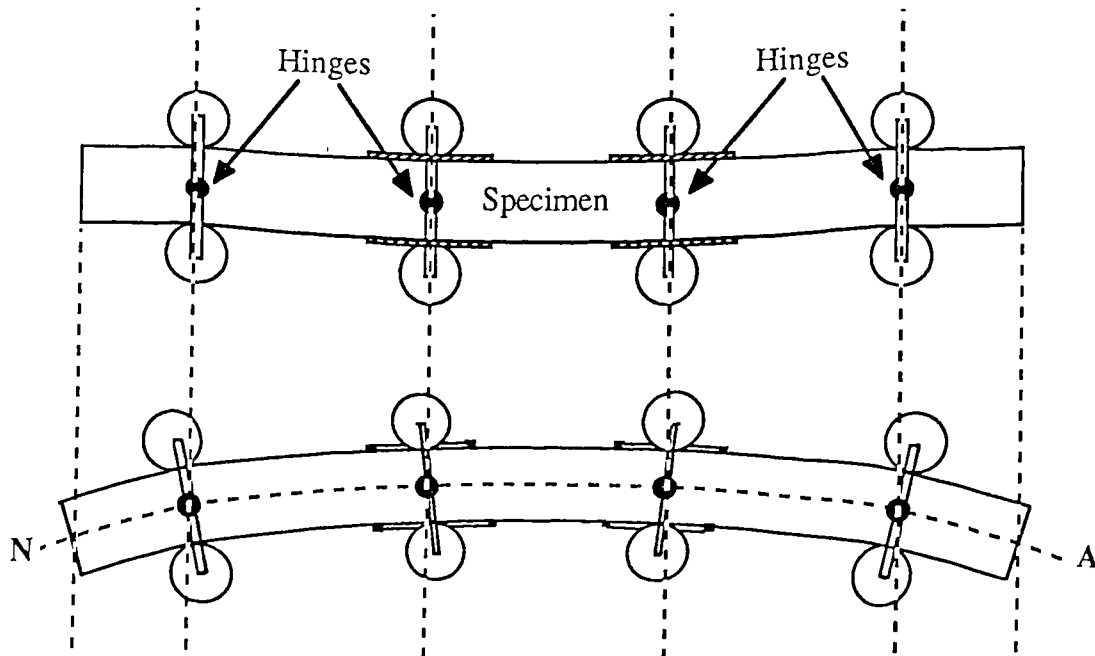


Figure (7.7) Ideal arrangement for reversed four point bending fatigue. The hinge should be frictionless and located at the neutral axis (N - A) of the specimen.

would still have the problem of rollers digging into the specimen, hence it was felt that time expended to redesign and construct a new rig was not justifiable.

Deflections were measured using a LVDT transducer mounted on the specimen by means of an aluminum frame as shown in figure (7.8). Pointed screws were used to hold the frame at the neutral axis of the specimen. The two outer locating points were

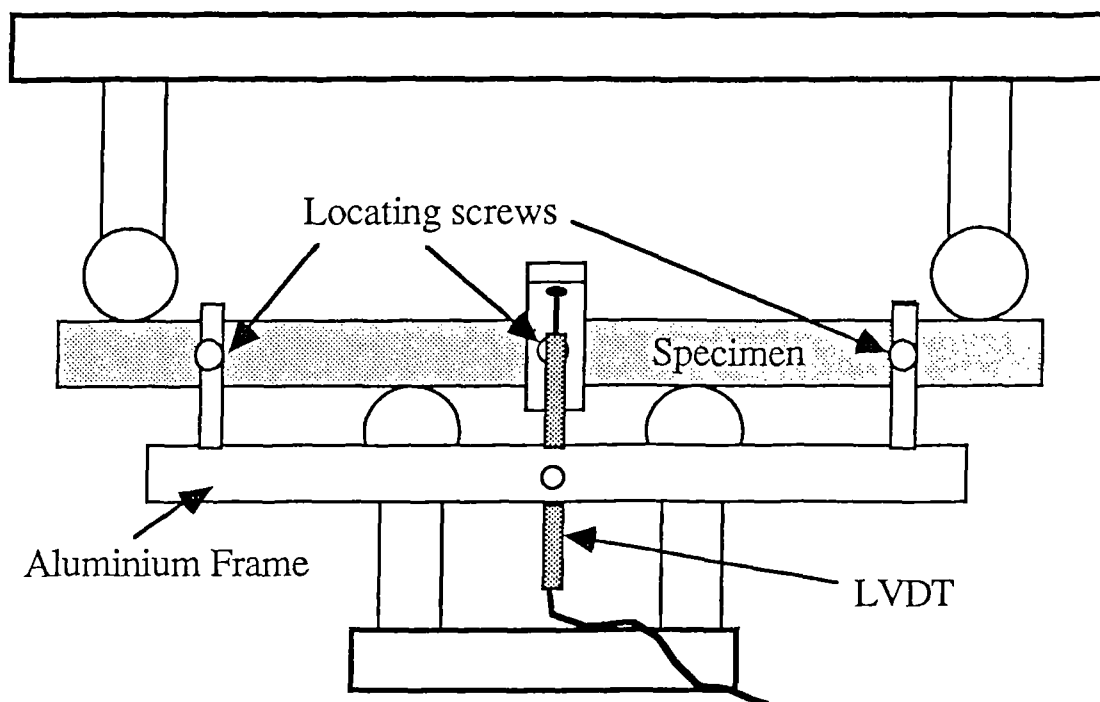


Figure (7.8) Illustration of the rail used to measure centre-point deflections of the specimen.

170mm apart with one at the centre of the specimen. The LVDT transducer therefore measured the relative movement between the two outer and the central points. The deflection measured was therefore non-standard. This was necessary as it would increase the sensitivity of the deflection measured. Also the form of the loading jig imposed considerable restrictions on the possible frame design. The system worked well although the locating points would need improvements for tests exceeding 100,000 cycles as there was a tendency for them to become slack due to the vibrations.

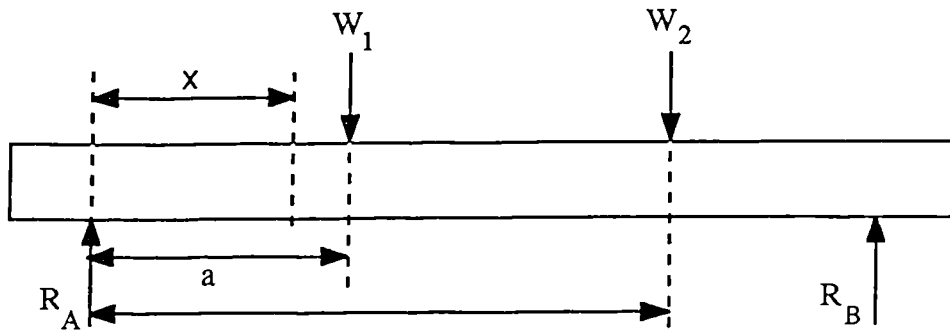


Figure (7.9) Schematic of the terms used in equation 7.2.

The LVDT transducer itself was capable of measuring deflections of  $\pm 4\text{mm}$ . It was calibrated to give  $\pm 5$  Volts fullscale.

Based on this arrangement, no standard formula for modulus calculation exists. The formula has therefore to be derived. The general formula for the deflection,  $\delta$ , at a distance  $x$  from  $R_A$ , in a four point test may be given as (Urrey, 1953)

$$EI\delta = -R_A \frac{x^3}{6} + W_1 \frac{(x-a)^3}{6} + W_2 \frac{(x-b)^3}{6} + Cx + D \quad \dots 7.2$$

where the terms used are as shown in figure (7.9) and the expressions in the brackets are ignored if negative. The constants  $C$  and  $D$  may be determined from the conditions at the outer two rollers. For the configuration of the test,

$$D = 0,$$

$$C = \frac{PL^2}{18} .$$

Equation 7.2 may be rewritten as

$$EI\delta = -\frac{Px^3}{12} + \frac{P(x-a)^3}{12} + \frac{P(x-b)^3}{12} + \frac{PL^2x}{36} \quad \dots 7.3$$

where the expressions are again ignored if negative. The deflection measured in the test,  $\delta_T$ , is the relative movement of the central point with respect to the outer points.

Therefore, the equation for the modulus may be expressed as

$$EI\delta_T = EI\delta_1 - EI\delta_2 \quad \dots 7.4$$

where  $\delta_1$  is the deflection for  $x=105$  mm (the center point deflection) and  $\delta_2$  is the deflection for  $x=20$  mm. Since  $L=210$  mm, it can be shown that

$$E = \frac{1392250P}{bd^3\delta_T} \quad \dots 7.5$$

It must be noted that shear has not been included in the derivation and that its contribution is not insignificant. Care should therefore be exercised when comparing measured values based on equation 7.5 with flexural moduli quoted in the literature. The ASTM standard for modulus calculations based on the three point bend test also ignores the shear contribution. However the smaller shear area of the test used would result in a higher modulus.

Permali compressed Beech wood specimens were tested on the fatigue machine using a four point bend rig with the outer rollers spaced at 85mm apart and the two inner rollers 28.5mm apart. No deflection measurements were made with these tests.

## 7.6 Microscopy

Sections and fracture surfaces of fatigued and ramp tested specimens were examined under the Scanning Electron Microscopes to study fracture morphology. The work was carried out on two models, JEOL 35C and JEOL T20. Fracture surfaces were first coated with a thin layer ( $\approx 15$ nm) of gold-palladium in a sputter coater using an accelerating voltage of 20kV for 10 mins. Photomicrographs were taken of the fracture surfaces.

Optical microscopy was performed using the technique developed by C.T. Keith (1968) and J.M. Dinwoodie (1966, 1968) to study compression damage in wood. This technique involves taking a 5mm by 5mm by 15mm section of wood and boiling it for 2-4 hours until softened. The section can then be microtomed into 20 $\mu$ m thick sections using a base sledge microtome. Great care was taken to orient the microtome blade to 1.5° to the sample axis in order to avoid inducing compression damage into the microtomed section. This is a common problem as described by

Dinwoodie (1966). Sections were then mounted on microscope slides and examined using polarized light microscopy. Grateful thanks is due to Dr. Dinwoodie for introducing this technique to the author and preparing the slides.

## **7.7 The Experimental Program**

### **7.7.1 Static Flexural and Compression Tests**

The main aim of this work was to characterize the properties of the Khaya laminates, compressed Beech laminates and Sitka spruce. About 20% of the specimens were ramp tested to obtain their flexural strengths using the ramp function of the fatigue machine and the same four-point bending rig as the fatigue tests. The tests were carried out at a constant rate of loading of 40 KN/sec which corresponded to a rate of stress application (RSA) of about 1000 MPa/sec for Khaya and Sitka spruce, and 3900 MPa/sec for compressed Beech specimens.

A number of compression tests parallel to the grain were also made. The specimens for these tests were cut from standard flexural specimens into dimensions 15mm by 30mm by 90mm. These tests were performed using a 100KN, screw driven Instron, model 1195, at a crosshead speed of 1mm/min. A total of 6 sliced Khaya specimens and 15 Sitka spruce specimens conditioned at 65% RH were tested.

### **7.7.2 Rate of Stress Application Effects**

Since wood is sensitive to the RSA of the test, rate effect was examined in a series of tests carried out on the 5% and 11% moisture content sliced Khaya specimen. The RSAs used were 1, 14, 150, 1115, 3230 MPa/sec. giving a range of over three decades. The specimens were all taken from two laminates, one for each moisture content to reduce the spread of results within each family of tests. A series of tests were also performed on 0/90 compressed Beech specimens with RSAs of 5, 50, 600, 4200, and 145600 MPa/sec.



### 7.7.3 Fatigue Testing

The fatigue tests carried out on the specimens followed various themes. These are listed as follows.

**(a) Comparison of various species and types of wood.**

With five very different types of wood and wood composites, a comparative study was performed by establishing S-N curves for each type. They were all tested at an R ratio of 0.1. Test frequency however was not fixed. The unidirectional compressed Beech specimens were tested at a fixed frequency of 20Hz but the 0/90° specimens were tested at a constant RSA of 2600 MPa/sec. Sitka spruce specimens could not be tested at that rate due to the limitations of the fatigue machine and the rate was therefore reduced to 1600 MPa/sec. Tests on the sliced and rotary cut Khaya laminates were at a slower rate of 1000MPa/sec.

**(b) Moisture effects.**

The three moisture conditions of the sliced Khaya specimens, 5%, 11% and 35%, were compared by fatigue tests at a R ratio of 0.1. The 5% moisture specimens were tested at a fixed frequency of 15 Hz while the other two tests were conducted at an RSA of 1000MPa/sec.

**(c) R ratio effects.**

The R ratio is an important test variable. Five different R ratios were used to generate fatigue curves. Two R ratios, -1 and -0.5, involved stress reversals. The other three R ratios were at 0.1, 0.3 and 0.5. In all the tests a constant RSA of approximately 1000 MPa/sec was used.

**(d) Block loading.**

Within the time scale of the research project, it was impossible to perform a thorough investigation into the problem of complex loading. A wide variety of tests would be necessary. Therefore, an exploratory study in to the possible problems associated with complex loading fatigue of wood was made. Sliced Khaya specimens conditioned at 65% RH were used in all the tests. Until the

development of SArGen, block loading had to be done manually. Initially an attempt was made to reduce the burden of manual operation by conducting a two level block test using R=ratios of 0.1 and 0.5. Stress reversals were avoided in view of the problems in the loading rig.

From the S-N curves established earlier, a stress level for the two R ratios were chosen to give a mean failure life of around 5 million cycles as estimated using Miner's Rule. Therefore, for R = 0.1, the stress level of 75% of flexural strength was chosen and for R = 0.5, 85%. Specimens were first fatigued at R = 0.1 for  $2 \times 10^5$  cycles followed by R = 0.5 till failure. The sequence was then reversed with tests at R = 0.5 for  $10^6$  cycles followed by R = 0.1 till failure. Two other programs with shorter blocks of two levels but repeated until failure were attempted but it was found to be tedious to conduct manually and only a few tests were performed. These were at two stress levels with R=0.1. Two specimens were tested at 63.2% for 100,000 cycles followed by 73.7% for 10,000 cycles, the sequence repeated till failure. Another two specimens were tested at 60% for 10,000 cycles and 70% for 10,000 cycles.

Following the development of SArGen, more tests were conducted but these samples did not all fail. Changes in peak loads and deflections were recorded during these tests and unfortunately due to the size of data files created, the tests automatically terminated with less than 250,000 cycles tested. There were also difficulties with over loads during the transitions from one load level to another. The software for SArGen was later improved but the limited time available meant only a few tests could be performed.

#### 7.7.4 Fatigue Testing with SArGen

Tests with SArGen were carried out initially on sliced Khaya conditioned at 65% RH. These tests were conducted at an R ratio of 0.1 with the aim of looking at the changes in stiffness and fatigue strains from the start of the tests till failure. Most tests

were therefore conducted between the stress levels of 85% to 70% of flexural strength. Subsequently, stiffness and strain changes at low stress levels were also felt to be of interest hence tests were conducted without taking them to failure, up to 150,000 cycles.

A more comprehensive examination of the effect of stress level on the changes in stiffness and fatigue strains were carried out on Sitka spruce conditioned at 65% RH. These tests were carried out at  $R = 0.1$  with tests conducted till the data recorded by SArGen was no longer meaningful due to movement of the LVDT frame caused by vibration. A number of tests on rotary cut Khaya were also made at 75% of flexural strength with  $R = 0.1$ .

The effect of stress reversals was also examined with a series of tests at different load levels and at  $R = -1$ . Tests were conducted on both sliced Khaya and Sitka spruce conditioned at 65% RH.

#### 7.7.5 Microscopy

The work on microscopy is relatively limited. Examination of sliced Khaya specimens failed in ramp tests and fatigue tests were made using the SEM for comparison of microstructural differences. Using the optical microscope technique to examine compression creases, the development of damage in fatigue of Sitka spruce was studied. Closely matched specimens from the same block were used. They were fatigued at 75% of flexural strength at  $R = 0.1$  to 100, 500, 1000, 10,000 and 100,000 cycles. Each specimen were then microtomed at the region of maximum compressive stress and examined for structural changes.

## CHAPTER 8

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF STATIC AND FATIGUE TESTS

## 8.1 Density and Static Mechanical Properties

### 8.1.1 Results

The properties of the materials tested are summarised in table (8.1). In all cases, the flexural strengths were measured although for sliced Khaya and Sitka spruce, the main species investigated, the properties were more thoroughly characterized. A total of 86 specimens of sliced Khaya at 11% MC and 27 specimens of Sitka spruce were statically tested. The density results included the densities of the fatigue specimens. Early tests on sliced Khaya at 5% MC and the Permali compressed Beech laminates did not include density measurements and no data was available. In addition to the data in table (8.1), the flexural modulus of Sitka spruce was also measured using the high sampling rate available with SArGen. The modulus, based on 14 specimens was found to be 11.9 GPa with a standard deviation of 1.5. The compression strength were measured using the Instron 1195 and was tested at a relatively low speed of 0.1 mm/min or approximately 0.05 MPa/sec, more than four decades slower than the stress rate of the flexural tests.

Table 8.1 The density and basic static mechanical properties of species tested.

Material	Moisture Content	Flex. Str.(MPa)			Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )			Comp. Strength(MPa)		
		Mean	Std. Dev	No.	Mean	Std. Dev	No.	Mean	Std. Dev	No.
Sliced Khaya	5%	106.74	7.23	18						
	11%	95.58	12.61	86	572.16	50.21	170	43.68	2.66	6
	>35%	67.46	3.37	6	985.7	49.9	19			
Rotary Khaya	11%	109.04	10.85	5	540.42	16.08	19			
Permali UD	8%	255.0	8.6	4						
Permali 0/90	8%	227.88	13.24	7						
Sitka spruce	12%	91.32	4.64	27	416.5	30.2	35	37.66	5.31	15

Compared with the data for solid wood published in Lavers (1983), the flexural properties of both the Khaya laminates and Sitka spruce shown in table (8.1) are much higher. For solid Khaya ivorensis at 12% MC, Lavers reported a flexural strength of

only 78 MPa with a density of 497 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. While the lamination process with the added resin would account for the 13% difference in densities, this would not be expected to make a major effect on the mean strength. The measured flexural strength was found to be 22% higher. Sitka Spruce at 12% MC from the U.K. was reported to have a flexural strength of only 74 MPa and a modulus of 8.1 GPa with a density of 384 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. The density of the Sitka tested was only 8.5% higher and cannot account for the 23% difference in strength and 46.9% difference in modulus. The higher flexural properties measured compared to that reported by Lavers may be due to the difference in test method, a 4 pt. test being used rather than a 3 pt. test. However, as seen in the results on rate effects (section 8.1.3), most of the difference must be due to the high stress rate used. It was significant that the compression strength results measured under similar test conditions (except for the difference in size) were slightly lower than those reported by Lavers. Given the statistical scatter, however, the difference was not significant and it can be concluded that the material tested did not have exceptional properties.

#### 8.1.2 Statistical Variation in Strength and Density properties.

As the aim of the fatigue program on sliced *Khaya ivorensis* was to test material as used on the HWP-300 Wind Energy Converter blades, the veneers for tests were sourced from the same consignment used for blade manufacture with similar quality control procedures. Since only veneers with obvious defects such as brittle heart, cracks and shakes were rejected, a high variability in properties would be expected. This was due to the fact that the veneers, although sourced from the same consignment, would be from different trees. Therefore a variation in density, chemical composition and cell wall structure would occur from veneer to veneer all contributing to scatter of properties. Even within a veneer or tree, properties will vary due to changes in conditions and rate of growth. To characterize this variability, a large number of tests were carried out. A closer analysis of the sliced *Khaya* and Sitka spruce results was therefore possible.

About 20% of specimens from each laminate of sliced Khaya manufactured were statically tested. Results for the tests and the densities of the specimens from each laminate is summarised in table (8.2). Considering all specimens together, it can be seen that the scatter of bend strengths is quite large, ranging from 60.15 to 123.2 MPa with the mean of 95.58 MPa occurring approximately at the middle. A large scatter in results also exists for the densities which range from 488.1 to 717.1 kg/m<sup>3</sup> with a mean of 563.4 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Using a simple statistical test for comparison of two normal distributions with known variances, it was found that there exists a difference in strength and densities between laminates E, F and G and laminates J, N and KA at the 95% confidence level. Some laminates are therefore significantly stronger and denser than others. However, taken as a whole, the standard deviation remains quite small and is of the order of that of individual laminated boards.

Table 8.2 Flexural strength and density of sliced Khaya ivorensis laminates

Laminate	No. of Samples	Flexural Strength (MPa)			Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )		
		Mean	Std. Dev	Range	Mean	Std. Dev	Range
C	5	96.93	7.01	18.29	-	-	-
D	4	95.68	1.18	2.3	-	-	-
E	4	108.10	13.49	28.10	698.4	17.8	34.4
F	5	112.73	8.72	21.11	608.9	44.8	107.8
G	5	106.27	12.10	32.54	585.3	9.4	26.1
H	11	96.78	11.49	39.66	566.3	23.0	77.3
J	5	88.62	7.10	17.47	527.2	3.9	10.8
K	8	94.97	8.31	22.73	547.9	16.2	45.9
L	7	91.41	12.26	28.58	551.8	31.6	91.4
M	12	93.80	15.00	57.53	544.7	35.2	110.2
N	12	89.64	14.54	43.06	561.5	15.2	47.2
KA	8	89.59	7.29	20.38	528.5	15.9	50.5
Total	86	95.58	12.61	63.05	563.4	44.4	229.0

The distribution of the flexural strengths can also be seen in figure (8.1) as a cumulative failure probability plot based on a median ranking of data. The fitted normal distribution function of the data is also plotted with the data. The figure clearly shows

that the distribution closely fits that of a normal distribution. The good fit reinforces the use of the total sample of specimens as the basis of estimating the strength of the sliced Khaya laminates. The cumulative probability plot of the density is shown in figure

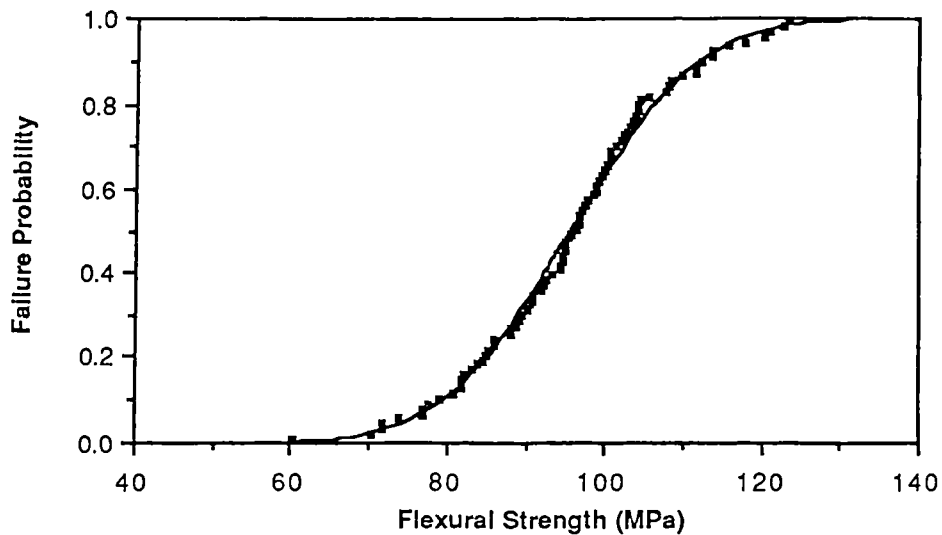


Figure (8.1). Cumulative probability plot for the static flexural strength of sliced khaya laminates. The curve shows the normal distribution function fitted to the data.

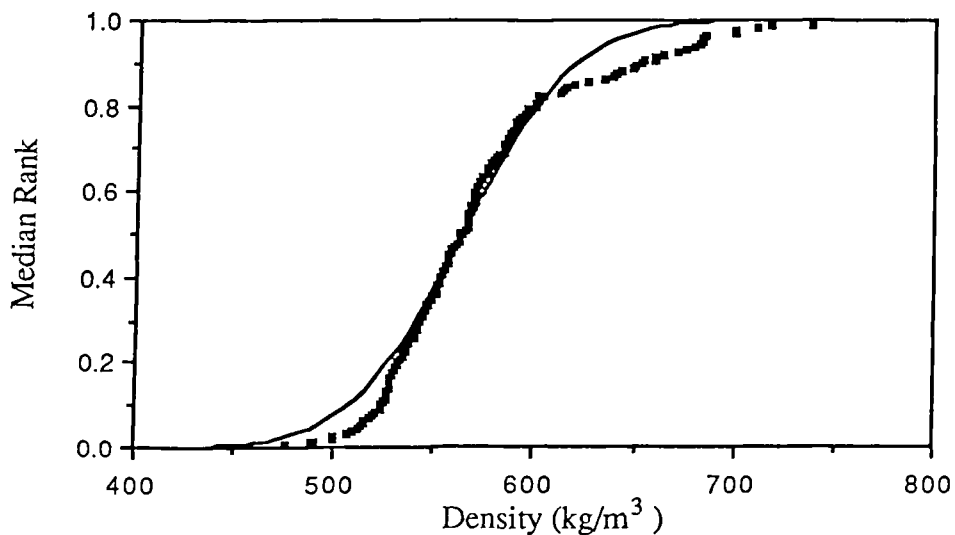


Figure (8.2). Cumulative probability plot for the density of sliced khaya laminates. The curve shows the normal distribution function fitted to the data.



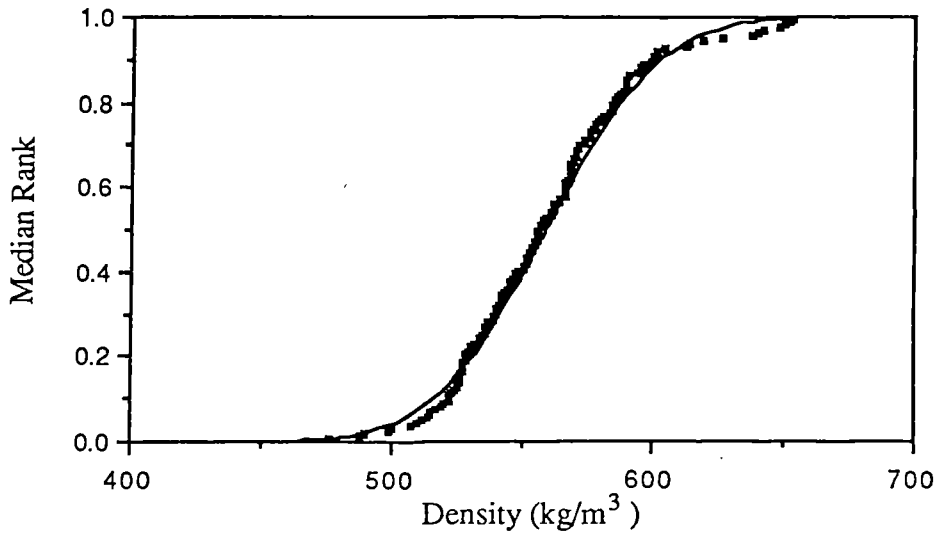


Figure (8.3). Cumulative probability plot for the density of sliced khaya laminates with laminate E omitted. The data shows an improved fit to the normal distribution function.

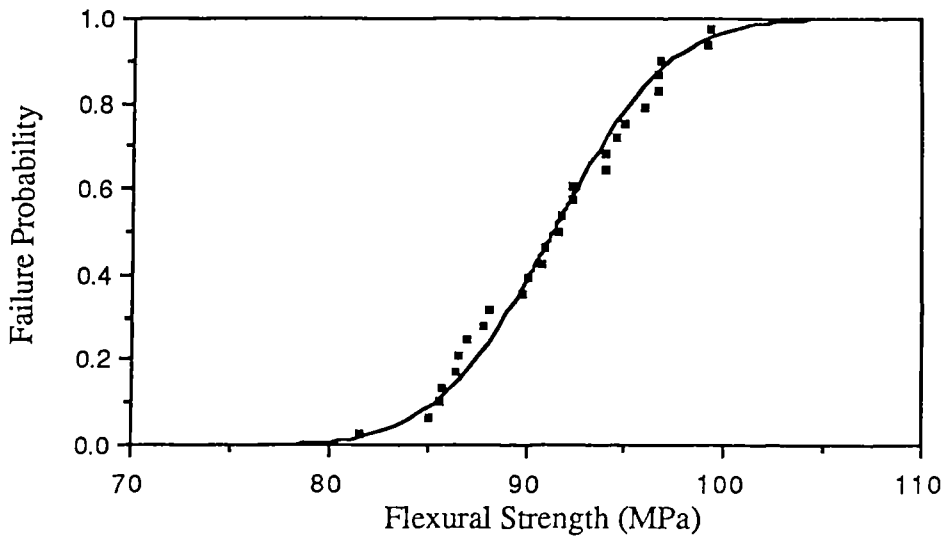


Figure (8.4). Cumulative probability plot for the flexural strength of Sitka spruce with the normal distribution function fitted to the data.

(8.2). Unlike the strength plots however, the data does not closely follow a normal distribution. A closer look at the results reveal however that a bias in density was created by an exceptionally high density laminate labelled E. Laminate E was  $90\text{kg/m}^3$

greater in density than the next highest density laminate. When the data was plotted omitting this laminate, the density distribution follows closely a normal distribution as seen in figure (8.3). Laminate E is therefore an exceptionally dense laminate although this does not appear to affect the flexural strengths. The laminate was visibly darker reflecting the high extractive content of heartwood.

The flexural strengths distribution of Sitka spruce similarly followed a normal variate as seen in figure (8.4). The density probability plot however does not follow the normal function. Figure (8.5) shows that like Khaya, it is at the high density tail of the distribution that the deviation occurs. That the distribution in strength remains normal despite the skewness in the density distribution suggests that a non-strength affecting factor, such as extractive content, was influencing the density of the specimens.

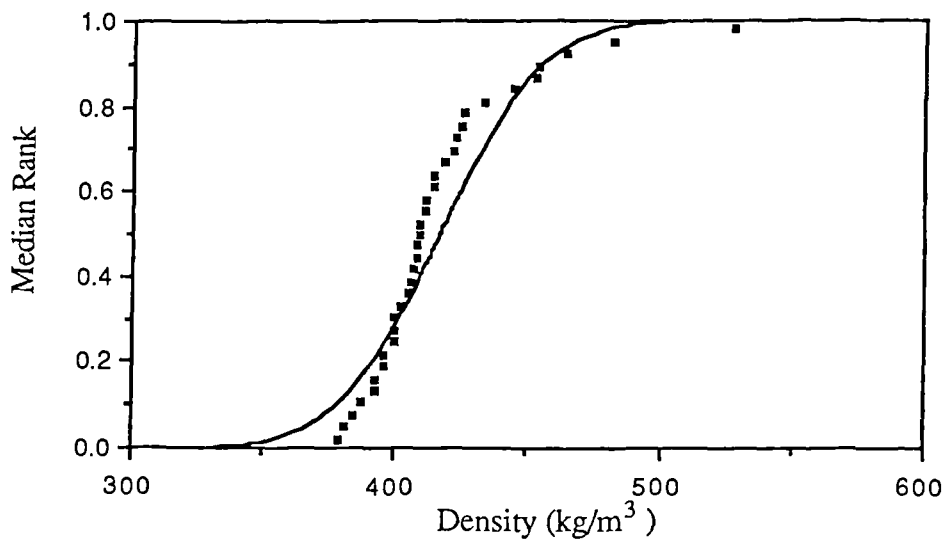


Figure (8.5). Cumulative probability plot for the density of Sitka spruce with the normal distribution function fitted to the data.

### 8.1.3 Effect of Stress Rate

The effect of stress rate was studied with 5% MC and 11% MC sliced Khaya and 0/90 Permali compressed Beech laminates. At 5% MC, the results, as shown in figure (8.6), indicate no increase in strength over a three decade change in stress rate.

Any effect, if present was totally masked by the scatter of results. Figure (8.7) however, shows that for 11% MC, there was a significant increase in strength. The data is based on tests using one laminate and there was a very small scatter of results with a strength increase of over 10% from  $10^0$  to  $10^3$  MPa/sec. It is therefore important

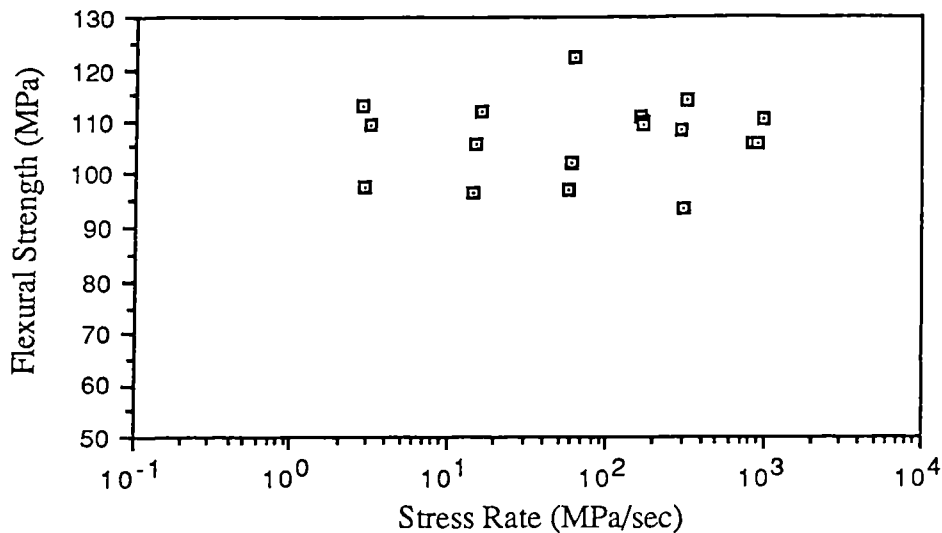


Figure (8.6). Effect of stress rate on the flexural strength of 5% MC sliced khaya laminates.

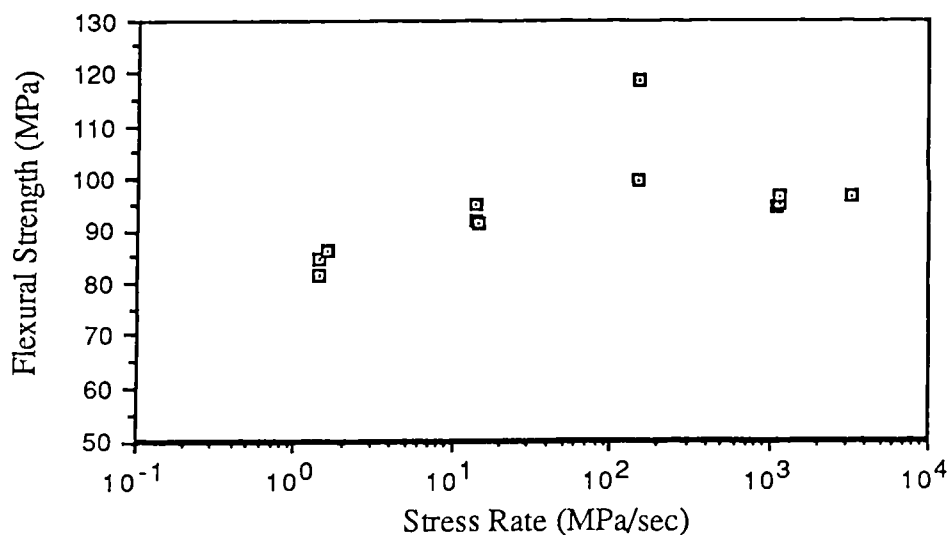


Figure (8.7). Effect of stress rate on the flexural strength of 11% MC sliced khaya laminates.

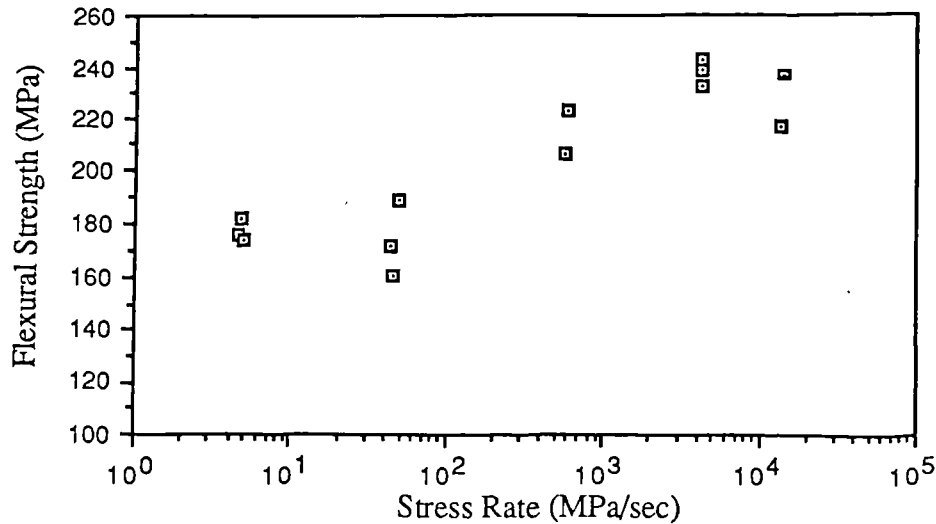


Figure (8.8). Effect of stress rate on the flexural strength of 0/90 Permalite Compressed Beech laminates

that the estimation of flexural strengths for fatigue tests be based on tests at the appropriate stress rate. Figure (8.7) also shows that above  $10^2$  MPa/sec, the strength increase is not significant supporting the result of Nadeau et. al. (1982).

For 0/90 Permalite laminates, the stress rate also greatly affects the flexural strength as shown in figure (8.8). This sensitivity to stress rate can be explained by the opening of flaws in the  $90^\circ$  laminae, following the slow crack growth theory of Nadeau et. al. (1982).

#### 8.1.4 Relation between Strength, Modulus and Density

The relation between strength, modulus and density are well established as reviewed in Chapter 2. However it is of interest here to examine these relationships for Khaya and Sitka spruce specimens to determine if they are sufficiently reliable for reducing the scatter of the results in the fatigue tests. For sliced Khaya at 11% MC, figure (8.9) shows that a relationship does exist between flexural strength and density. The correlation of the data is however quite low (0.46) due to the fact that most of the data is concentrated around the average density. As noted earlier, laminate E also

created a bias in the results and it may be concluded that for sliced Khaya, any attempt to use density for correction of estimated static strength is futile.

Figures (8.10) and (8.11) shows the relation of flexural strength to density and modulus respectively for Sitka spruce. Again the correlations of the regression lines

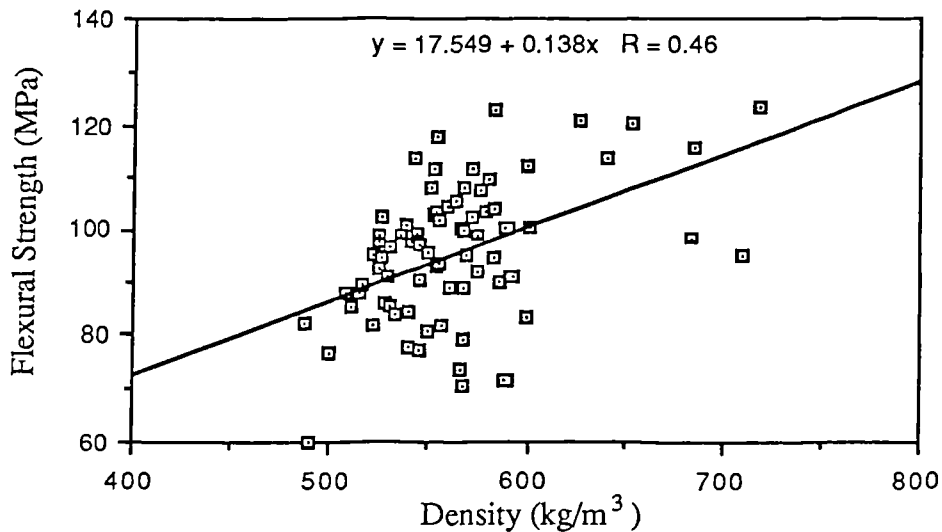


Figure (8.9). Flexural strength versus density plot of 11% MC sliced Khaya laminates.

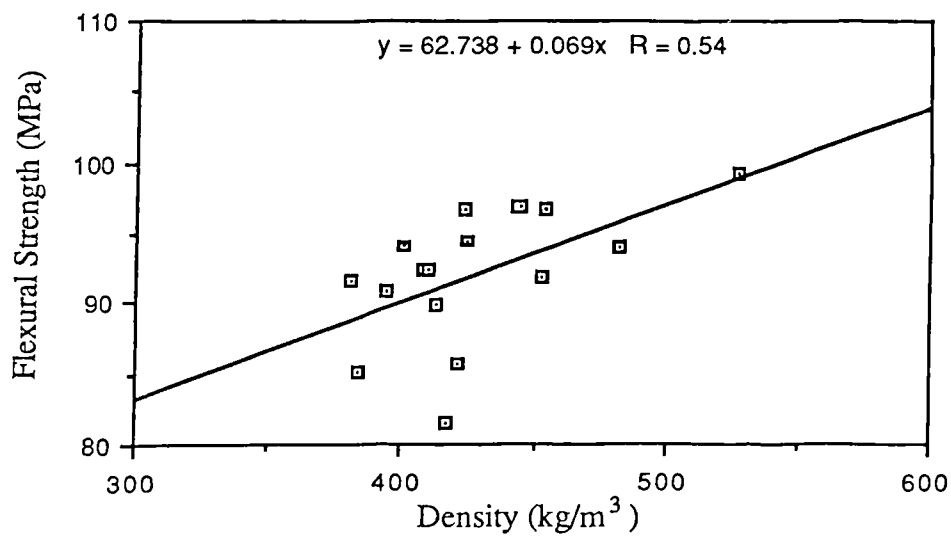


Figure (8.10). Flexural strength versus density plot for Sitka spruce.

are not high. However, when the compression strengths are plotted against density, figure (8.12), the correlation is much greater and the regression line extrapolates to nearly zero strength at zero density. It therefore suggests that where compression strength is to be estimated, the regression equation may be used from the measured specimen density.

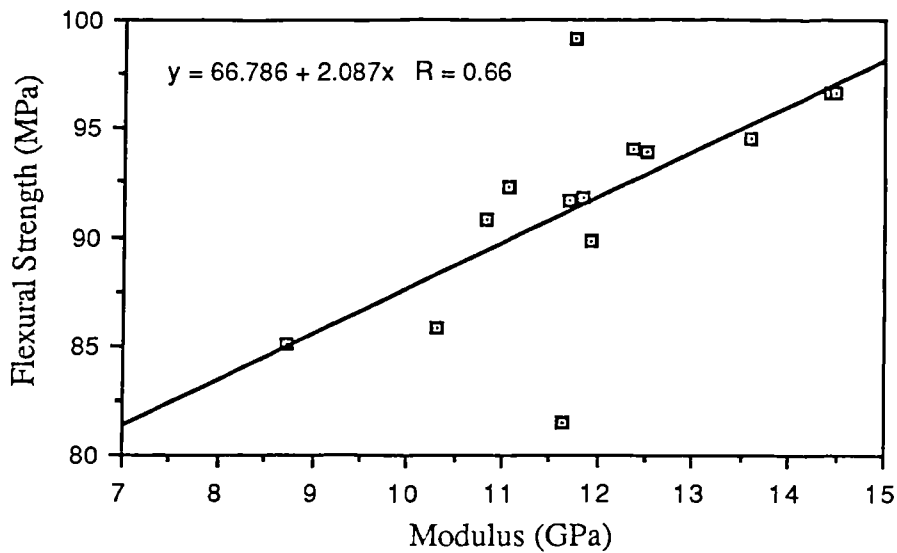


Figure (8.11). Flexural strength versus modulus plot for Sitka spruce.

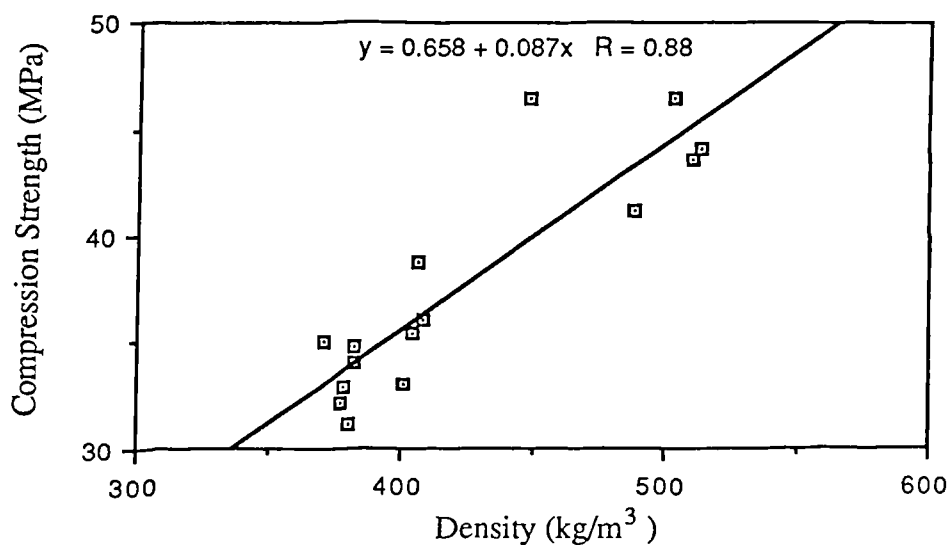


Figure (8.12). Compression strength versus density plot for Sitka spruce.

## 8.2 Fatigue Life of Various Types of Wood at R = 0.1

### 8.2.1 S-N Fatigue curves at R = 0.1

The fatigue curves for the five different types of wood and wood laminates are shown in figures (8.13) to (8.17) as plots of maximum applied peak stress against the logarithm of the number of cycles (S-N curve). The fatigue curves for Sitka spruce, rotary cut Khaya and Permalis 0/90 laminate support the log-linear model for the fatigue of wood. All their respective linear regression lines extrapolate to values very close to the measured static strength. For sliced Khaya (figure(8.14)) however, the line extrapolates to a value nearly 9MPa less than that measured. This however is still within one standard deviation of the scatter of measured values and with the small gradient of the line, it is unlikely that the fatigue behaviour of sliced Khaya is significantly different from the other three.

The unidirectional Permalis compressed Beech laminates however, show a strong non-linear behaviour for low cycle fatigue. It would be unlikely for the fatigue

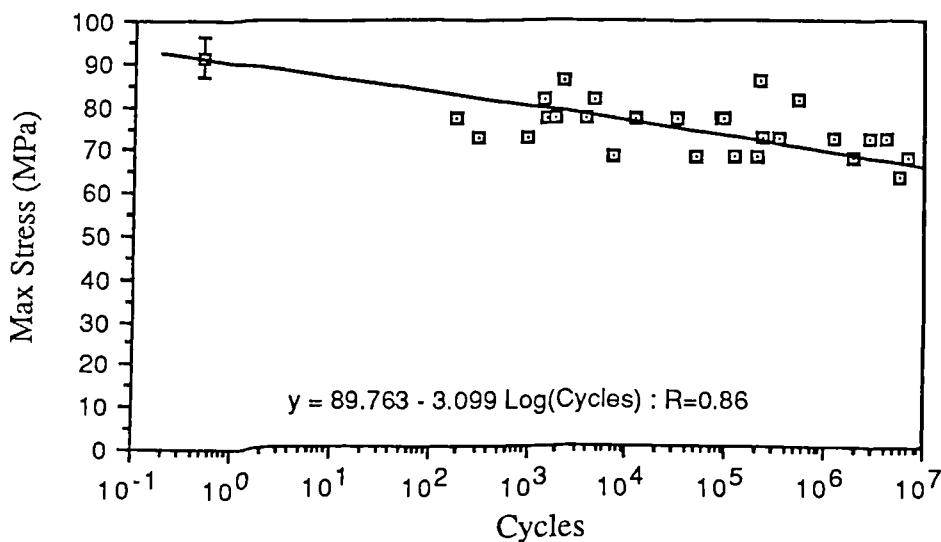


Figure (8.13). S-N fatigue curve for Sitka spruce with regression line through data. The static strength and its error bars indicating one standard deviation is also included in the plot.

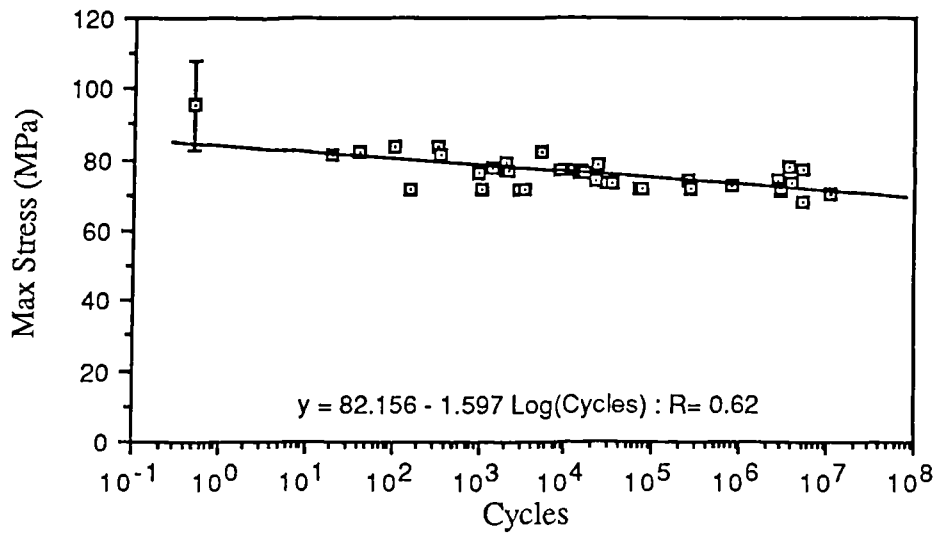


Figure (8.14). S-N fatigue curve for 11% MC sliced Khaya laminates with regression line through data but excluding the static strengths. The static strength and its error bars indicating one standard deviation is also included in the plot.

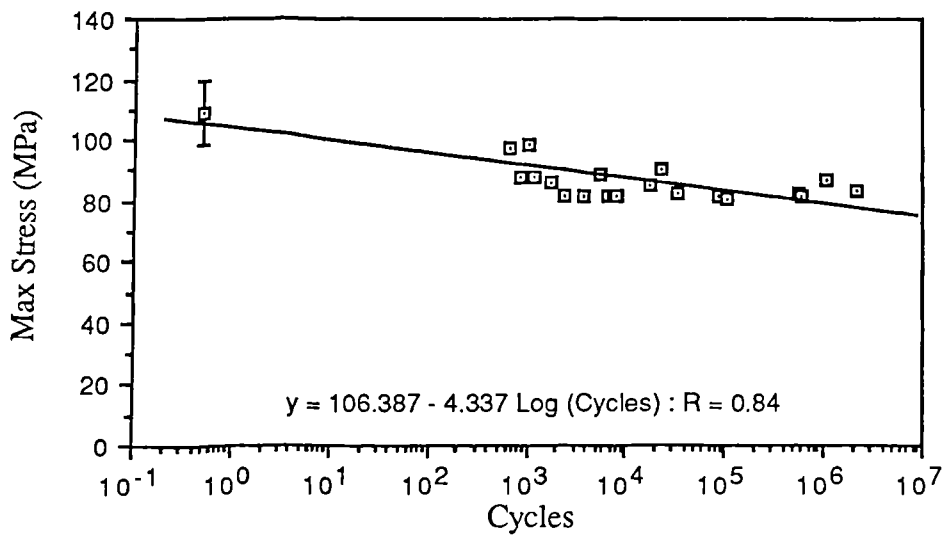


Figure (8.15). S-N fatigue curve for rotary cut Khaya with regression line through data. The static strength and its error bars indicating one standard deviation is also included in the plot.



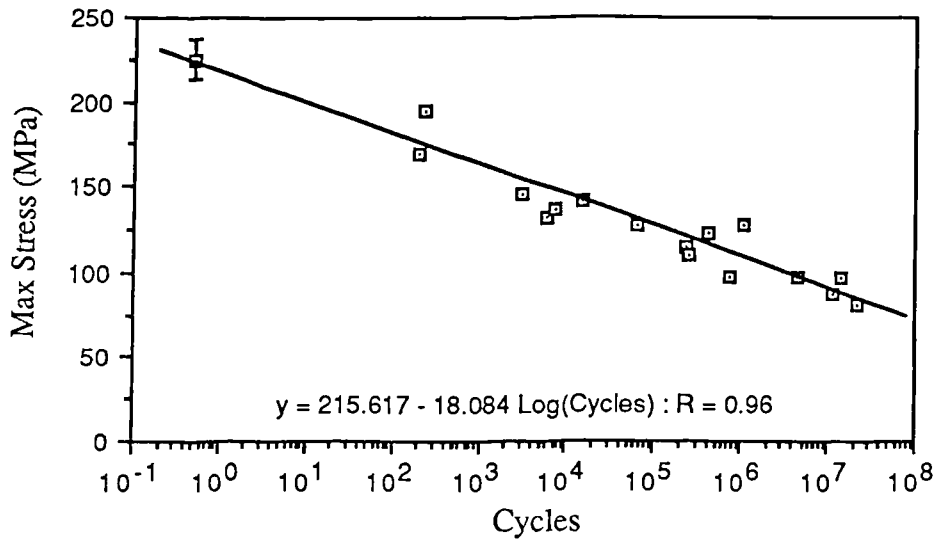


Figure (8.16). S-N fatigue curve for 0/90 Permalite compressed Beech laminates with regression line through data. The static strength and its error bars indicating one standard deviation is also included in the plot.

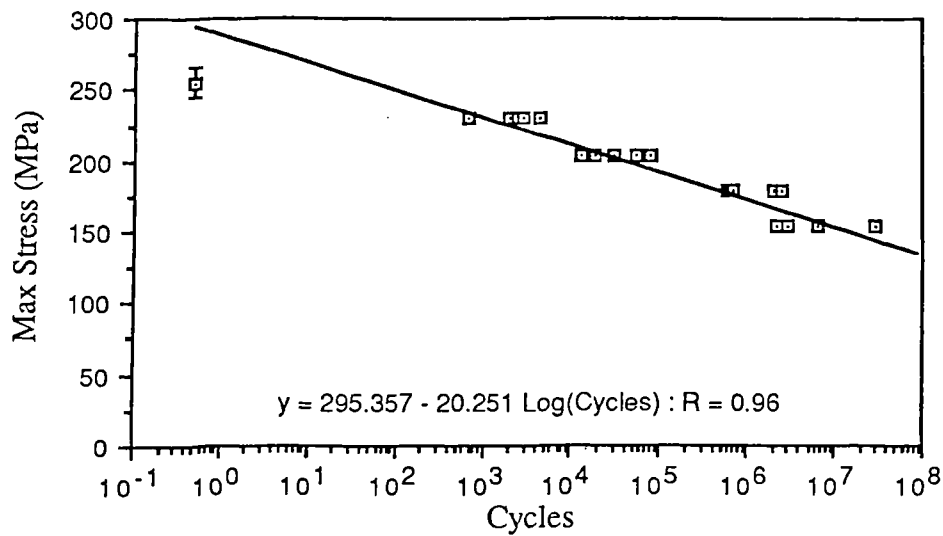


Figure (8.17). S-N fatigue curve for unidirectional Permalite compressed Beech laminates with regression line through data. The static strength and its error bars indicating one standard deviation is also included in the plot.

strength to be greater than the static strength hence the curve must flatten towards the static strength for fatigue lives of less than 1000 cycles. A comparison of the fatigue curves plotted together in figure (8.18) and in their normalized form in figure (8.19) suggests that the Sitka spruce and Khaya laminate fatigue curves differ greatly to the Permalii compressed beech laminate fatigue curves. While the curves for Sitka spruce and Khaya laminates appear to have similar gradients when normalized (especially if the line for sliced Khaya is made to regress through its static strength), those for the compressed laminates have greater and almost equal gradients. This would indicate that the two compressed Beech laminates have a similar fatigue behaviour distinct from the other three. This is not surprising since the structure of the compressed laminates is very different from the uncompressed Khaya and solid Sitka. The cellular structure of wood is destroyed in compressed laminates to give a more homogeneous material less susceptible to compression damage. Furthermore, since the tests are in flexure, the unidirectional and 0/90 laminates behave quite similarly with the highly stressed outer plies of the laminates being in the same direction. The 90° plies of the 0/90 laminate do not contribute significantly to the strength and serve more as a shear stress transfer medium. Also where tensile cracks occur in the 90° plies, they act as stress

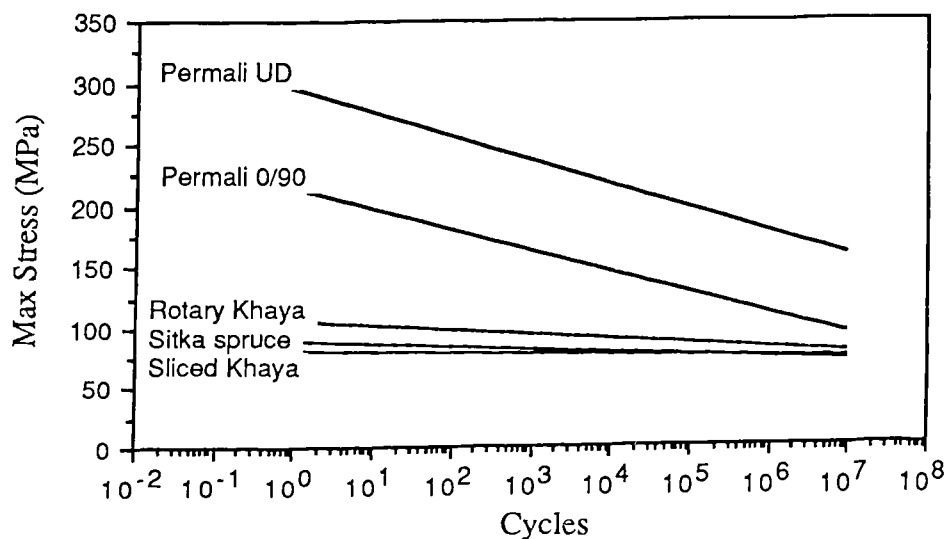


Figure (8.18). A combined plot of the regression lines of figures (8.13) to (8.17).

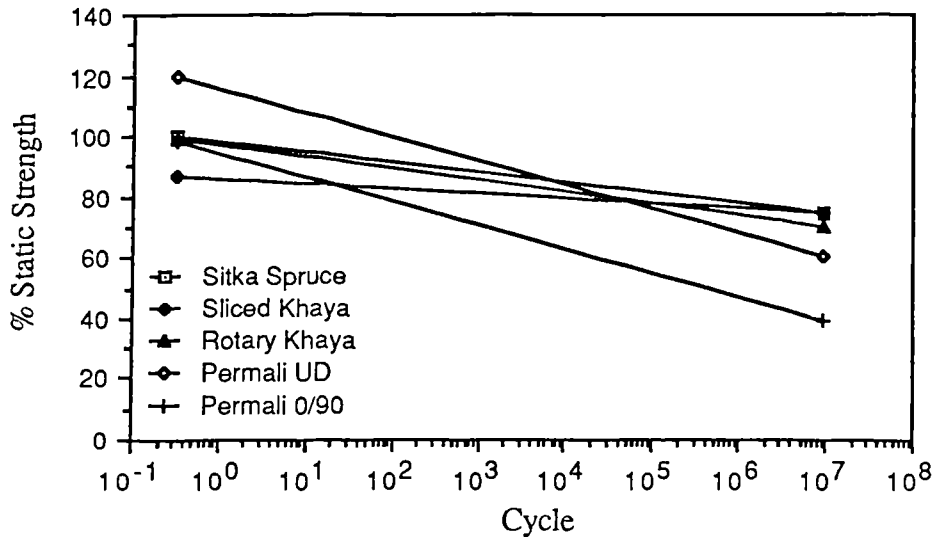


Figure (8.19) A combined plot of the regression lines in figures (8.13) to (8.17) with maximum stress expressed as a percentage of static strength.

concentrators. However, as the cracks would be against plies in the direction resistant to crack growth their role would be more severe in fatigue in the form of slow crack growth. Fatigue crack growth studies on the 0/90 laminates (Ansell and Tsai, 1984) have shown this slow fatigue crack growth.

### 8.2.2 Assessment of the Scatter of Fatigue Data

It should be noted that the scatter in results as shown in the fatigue graphs is quite high. With the larger data set of 11% MC sliced Khaya, further analysis of the nature of this scatter was made. First, an improvement was obtained when the stresses were normalized using their respective laminate strength as listed in table (8.2). This new plot was assessed using a log-linear regression analysis with a constant of 100% assumed. This ensured that the line regressed through the static strength of the slice Khaya. This is shown in figure (8.20). The error of the data from the model, called residuals, was stored as the scatter in fatigue strength. The residuals can then be analysed for comparison with the scatter of the static strength. The regression model is given by the equation,

$$\% \text{ Static Strength} = 98.8 - 4.038 \log(\text{Cycles}) \quad \dots 8.1$$

The residuals to this regression model had a standard deviation of only 4.77% of static strength. Figure (8.21) shows the cumulative probability plot and its fit to the normal

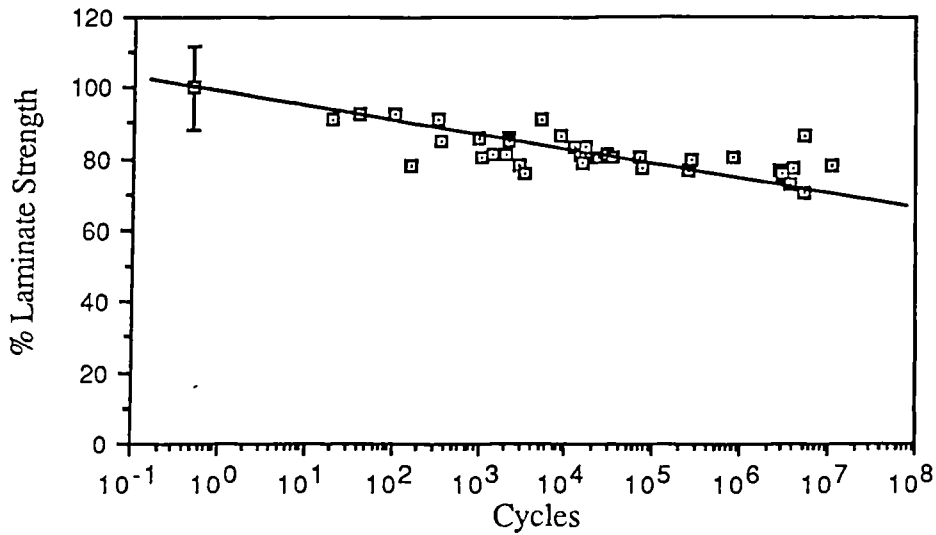


Figure (8.20). Fatigue plot for 11% sliced Khaya with fatigue strength normalized with the laminate strength of the specimen. The log-linear regression model used in the statistical analysis is also shown.

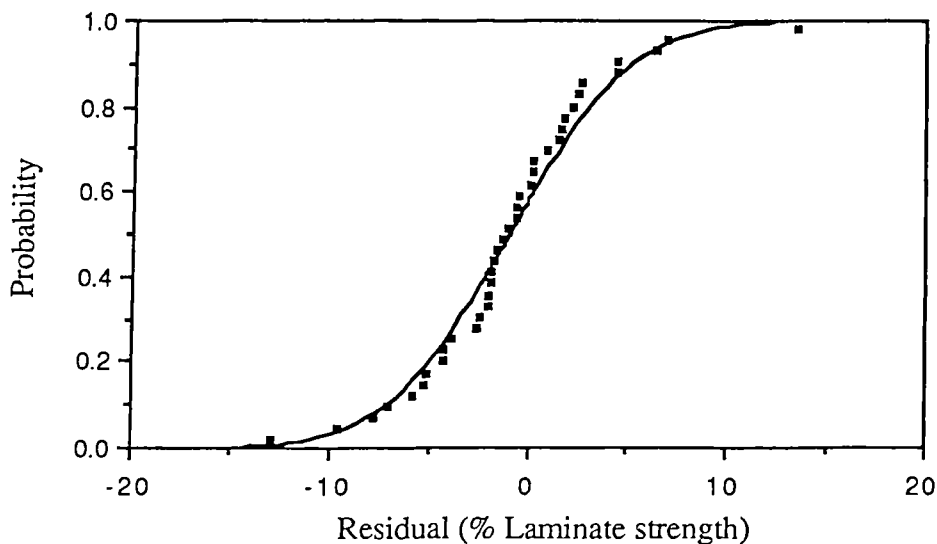


Figure (8.21). Cumulative probability plot for the residuals in fatigue strength based on data normalized with laminate strength.

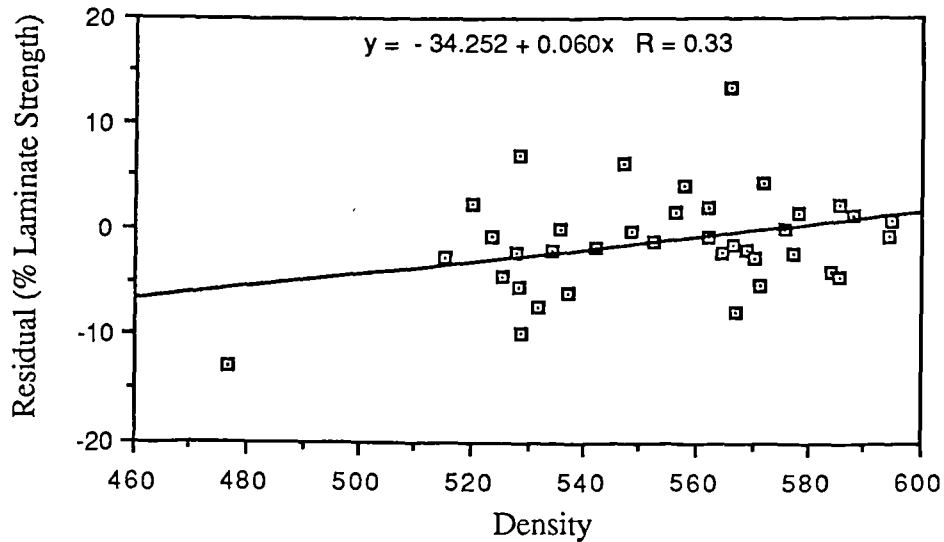


Figure (8.22). Relation between the residuals of fatigue strength with density.

distribution function. The fit is reasonable and the small scatter in results suggests that the log-linear model with a constant assumed was reasonable. Also like the static data, there was a similar correlation between the residuals and density as figure (8.22) shows. Further similar analysis of rotary cut Khaya and Sitka spruce confirmed this model.

### 8.3 Effect of Moisture on Fatigue Life

Table (8.1) shows clearly that with the increase in moisture content, the flexural strength of sliced Khaya is greatly reduced. This is also well established in the literature but in fatigue, it is important to consider if the reduction in fatigue life is proportional to the reduction in static strength. The data for the three moisture contents of sliced Khaya assessed (5%, 11% and >35%) is plotted in its normalized static strength form in figure (8.23). Moisture can clearly be seen to have a strong effect on fatigue strength and the reduction in strength cannot be factored based on the static properties. Plotting the gradients against the moisture contents shows a very good linear relationship. Figure (8.24) shows this with the regression equation included. It should be noted that there is some error involved in the moisture determination particularly for the 35% moisture

content results. Nonetheless, the trend is clear and extrapolating the line towards zero moisture level gives a gradient of -2.5, suggesting that fatigue still occurs and is not negligible. Also since 35% MC is about the fibre saturation point of wood, the trend

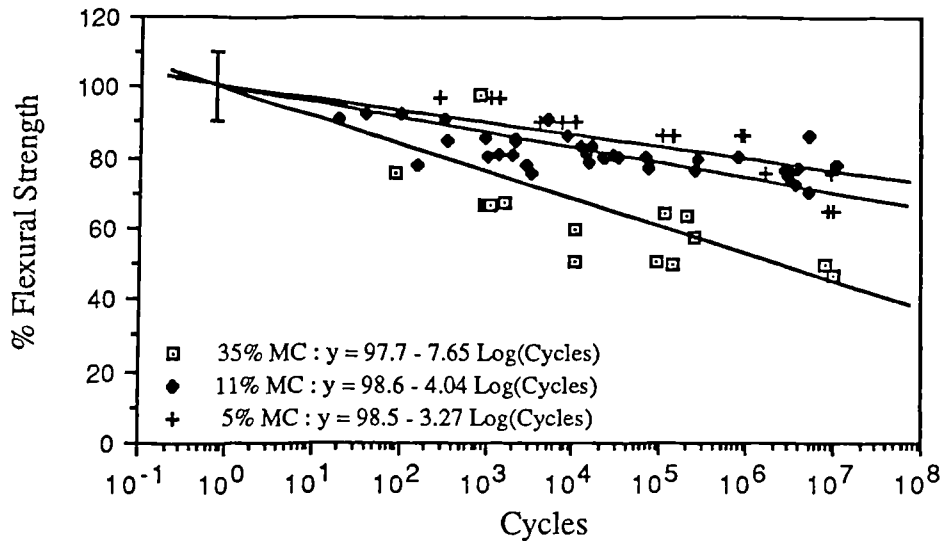


Figure (8.23) The effect of moisture content on sliced Khaya laminates fatigued at an R ratio of 0.1. The maximum peak stresses is expressed as a percentage of static flexural strengths.

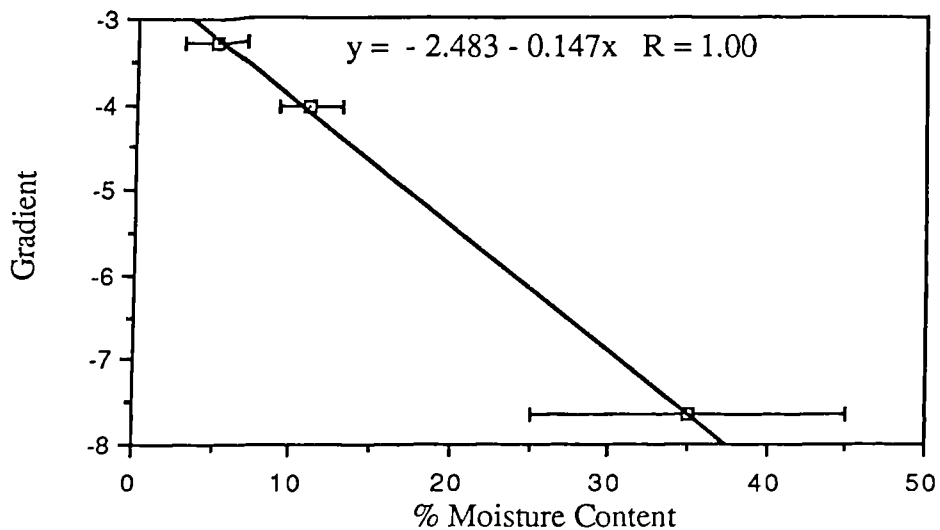


Figure (8.24) Relation between the gradient of the regression lines in figure (8.23) and the moisture content.

beyond 35% may not follow the line but, like the effect of moisture on compression strength, may level off. A further element of the effect of moisture can be seen in figure (8.25) where the fatigue data is plotted in absolute stress terms. The curves show clearly that moisture has not only affected the static strength but also the fatigue process. The higher the moisture content, the greater the gradient of the line indicating a higher rate of fatigue damage accumulation.

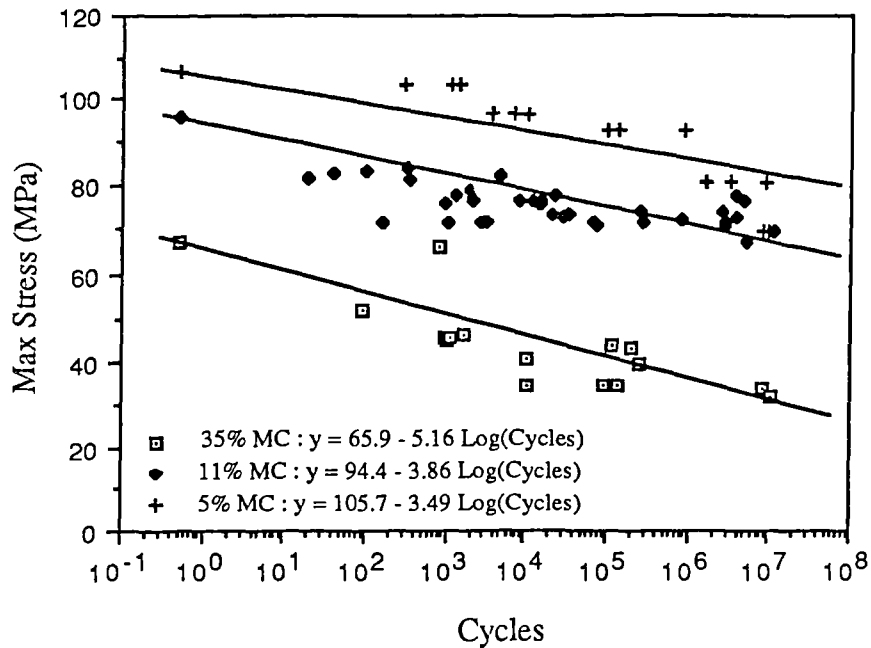


Figure (8.25) Data in figure (8.23) replotted as absolute peak stresses.

#### 8.4 Effect of R ratio

The R ratio as noted in chapter 6, defines the ratio of the minimum to the maximum applied stress. It includes within its value therefore an indication of the stress range and through its sign, any stress reversals. Therefore in a discussion of the effect of R ratio, three important variables are being incorporated,

- (a) the absolute stress level,
- (b) the stress range,
- (c) the combination of tensile and compressive stresses.

The three variables may be considered together in terms of the energy released with each cycle. Low negative R ratios would result in higher energy dissipation rates. This is a consequence of the different stress range and therefore the work done to the system. Compressive damage would be expected to result in a different energy release rate compared to tensile damage.

The results of the effect of R ratio are shown in figure (8.26). As expected the lower the R ratio, the greater the fatigue damage rate with more energy dissipated per cycle and enhanced structural damage rates. The equations of the regression lines drawn for each R ratio follow,

$$R \text{ ratio} = 0.5 : y = 99.5 - 1.66 \text{ Log}_{10}(\text{Cycles}) \quad \dots 8.2$$

$$R \text{ ratio} = 0.3 : y = 99.2 - 2.74 \text{ Log}_{10}(\text{Cycles}) \quad \dots 8.3$$

$$R \text{ ratio} = 0.1 : y = 98.8 - 4.04 \text{ Log}_{10}(\text{Cycles}) \quad \dots 8.4$$

$$R \text{ ratio} = -0.5 : y = 97.9 - 7.13 \text{ Log}_{10}(\text{Cycles}) \quad \dots 8.5$$

$$R \text{ ratio} = -1.0 : y = 97.5 - 8.40 \text{ Log}_{10}(\text{Cycles}) \quad \dots 8.6$$

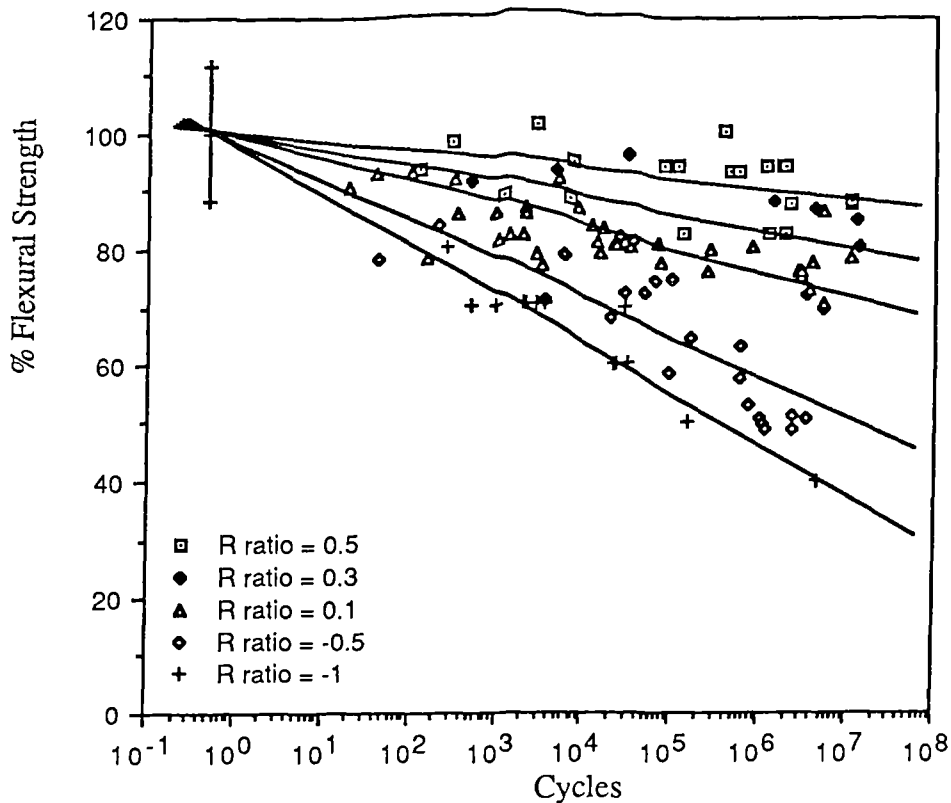


Figure (8.26) S-N characteristics of sliced Khaya laminates conditioned at 65% RH and fatigued in flexure at R ratios of 0.5, 0.3, 0.1, -0.5, -1.



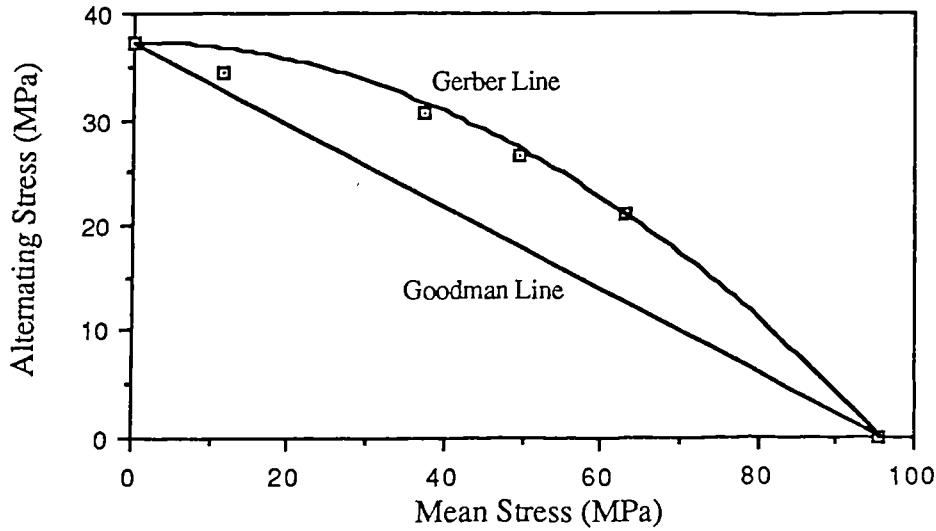


Figure (8.27) Goodman and Gerber constant life lines for sliced Khaya laminates for a life of  $10^7$  cycles.

A method of representing the fatigue data is by means of a Constant Life diagram or Goodman diagram. Figure (8.27) shows this for a fatigue life of  $10^7$  cycles. A straight line relating alternating stress  $\sigma_{alt}$ , and mean stress  $\sigma_{mean}$ , is given by the Goodman line

$$\sigma_{alt} = \sigma_e \left[ 1 - \frac{\sigma_{mean}}{\sigma_{ult}} \right] \quad \dots\dots 8.7$$

where,  $\sigma_e$  is the alternating stress at R ratio of -1 and  $\sigma_{ult}$  is the ultimate flexural strength. A better fit of the data may be obtained using a parabolic relationship proposed by Gerber.

$$\sigma_{alt} = \sigma_e \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\sigma_{mean}}{\sigma_{ult}} \right)^2 \right] \quad \dots\dots 8.8$$

The nonlinear relationship suggests that for negative R ratios, the alternating stress has more influence than the mean stress. This is significant as wood is weaker in compression than tension hence the damage rate in compression would be greater than in tension and as a consequence, with increasing negative R ratios, the compressive

component of the fatigue cycle will play an increasing role in damage accumulation.

### 8.5 Block Loading

Initially, the different block loading programs investigated gave a relatively poor set of results. Early tests with blocks of  $10^5$  cycles at 65% of static strength followed by  $10^4$  at 75% of static strength with  $R = 0.1$ , were difficult to conduct and were discontinued. The block program was therefore simplified to a two-stage fatigue test. The first stage was at a load level of either 70%, 75% or 80% of static strength with an  $R$  ratio of 0.1 lasting 200,000 cycles. This was followed by the second stage with a load level of 85% and an  $R$  ratio of 0.5 lasting till failure. The result for this test is seen in figure (8.28) with the x-axis representing the total life of the specimen. The vertical line next to the y-axis represents the 200,000 cycle mark and specimens which did not survive the first stage would fall to the left of the line. The load level of the first block can be seen to affect the life of the second block. Specimens which survived the first block at 80% had a smaller likelihood of surviving longer than those at 70% or 75%.

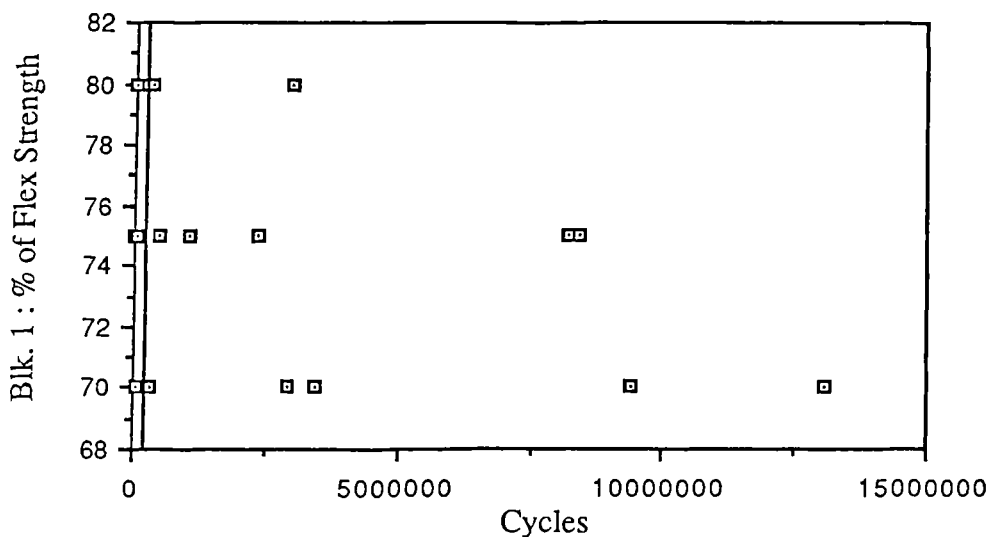


Figure (8.28) The effect of the first stage load level of a two stage fatigue program on the total fatigue life of the specimen.

Based on equation (8.1) for the fatigue curve at  $R=0.1$ , the three load levels for the first stage, 70%, 75% and 80%, would have survived for  $26.9 * 10^6$ ,  $1.55 * 10^6$  and 90,000 cycles respectively. Also the fatigue life at 85% of static and  $R=0.5$ , according to the regression analysis, is predicted to be very high being of the order of  $10^9$  cycles. The results show clearly that the life of the second stage is significantly reduced by the first stage. The effect however does not correlate with the severity of the first stage since at 70%, 200,000 cycles corresponds to less than 0.75% of the fatigue life. It should be noted however that for  $R=0.5$ , the low gradient combined with a scatter in strength of at least 10%, the fatigue life can be expected to vary from at least  $10^5$  to  $10^{13}$  cycles. This large scatter would cover the range of results for the 70% and 75% tests although the total number of cycles would still be relatively low.

Another set of results were obtained with a load level of 85% at  $R=0.5$  for the first stage lasting  $10^6$  cycles, followed by 75% at  $R=0.1$  to failure. Three specimens out of 10 specimens did not complete the first stage although they survived for more than 200,000 cycles. For the seven which did, they survived for an average of a further 760,000 cycles (assuming a log-normal distribution) with a standard deviation of over one decade. The data ranged from 2230 to 15,690,000 cycles. This is within the expected scatter of results for fatigue at  $R=0.1$  hence the effect of the first stage here is negligible. Considering the extremely small damage contribution of the first stage ( $<0.1\%$ ), this is perhaps not surprising. Considered with the previous set of results however, it suggests that there is a strong sequence effect. A low  $R$  ratio followed by a high one is more severe. It suggests that the damage contribution at a low  $R$  ratio is very high for the initial cycles compared to that of the higher  $R$  ratio. This would explain the apparent short fatigue life for the second stage at  $R=0.5$  following fatigue at 70% and 75% with  $R=0.1$ .

It can therefore be concluded that there is a clear correlation between the damage due to the first stage of the load program and the subsequent fatigue life in the second stage. Also, there is a strong suggestion of sequence effects because the fatigue life in the second stage can be reduced more greatly by the first stage than estimated from Miner's rule calculations.

## CHAPTER 9

# CHANGES IN FATIGUE DEFLECTIONS AND DYNAMIC MODULUS

## 9.1 Introduction

Fatigue deflections are defined as the changes in the maximum and minimum deflections during a fatigue test. They are similar to creep deflections but instead of being time dependent, they are cycle dependent. A typical curve for fatigue deflection is shown in figure (9.1) for rotary cut Khaya tested at an R-ratio of 0.1. The test was in flexure and therefore since the load was applied in the compressive direction, the deflection was increasing in the negative direction. This convention was used throughout the tests. The upper curve therefore represents the change in the minimum deflection peak while the lower represents the maximum deflection peak corresponding to the minimum and maximum applied loads. The true deflection of the specimen would be oscillating between the minimum and maximum peaks.

The form of the curves are very similar to that found for creep tests. It can be similarly considered as having three stages: a primary, secondary and tertiary stage. The primary stage shows a rapid increase in levels of strain followed by a secondary stage where the increase is at a constant rate. The final failure is preceded by an rapid

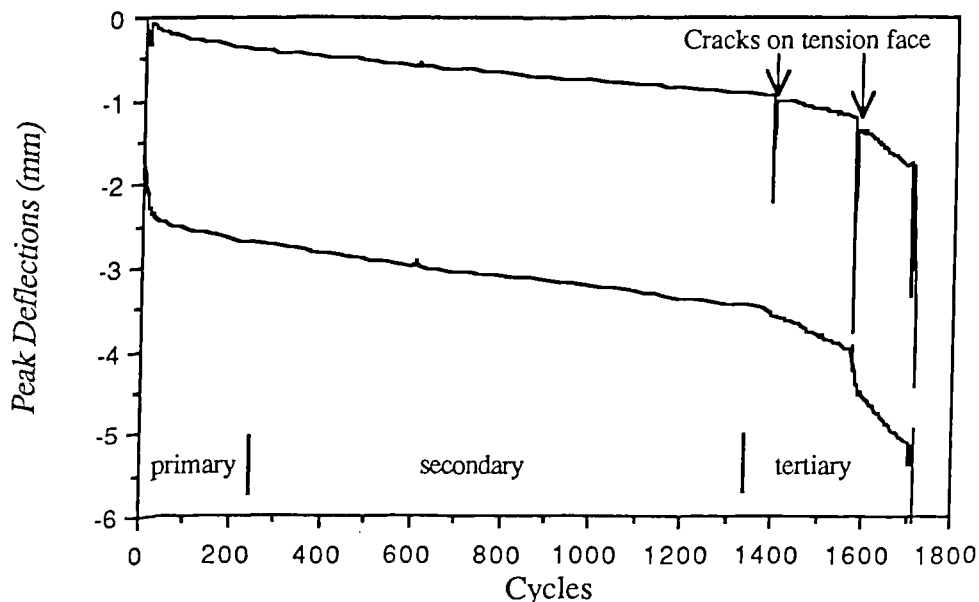


Figure (9.1). The minimum and maximum fatigue deflection curves for a rotary cut Khaya specimen at 78% of flexural strength.

increase in the strains. As in the creep of wood, the extent of each stage is variable and the tertiary stage may not be found before catastrophic failure. The specimen in figure (9.1) illustrates the development of failure of some specimens in the tertiary stage with cracks developing in the tension face prior to final catastrophic failure. The transition between the stages is however not definite. Each stage is not distinguishable as a physical phenomenon. They are used simply to separate the trends and therefore the transition from one stage to another is determined quite arbitrarily depending on the model used for each stage of the curve.

The dynamic modulus is based on the peak strains measured and the peak stresses applied to the specimen. Equation 7.5 was used to calculate the modulus. This will not be expected to be equivalent to the static modulus as measured in standard tests. This is due to rate effects, since the fatigue tests were conducted at stress rates of between 500-1000 MPa/sec while standard flexural tests recommend stress rates of about 6 MPa/sec (a constant strain rate of 0.0015 m/m/min is usually specified). The higher stress rates would result in a higher modulus. A typical effect of fatigue cycles on the dynamic modulus is shown in figure (9.2), based on the same specimen as

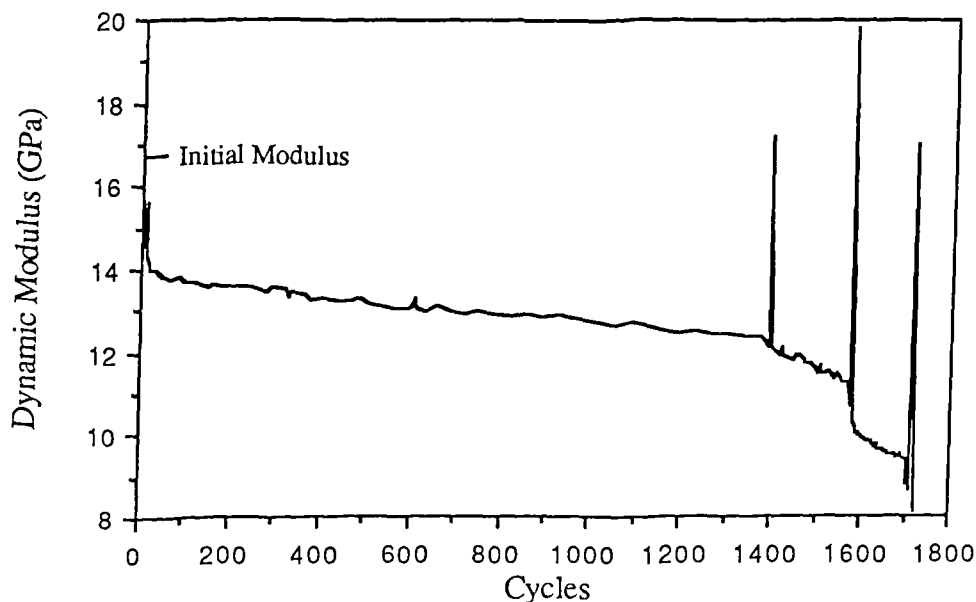


Figure (9.2). The change in dynamic modulus with fatigue cycles for a rotary cut Khaya specimen at 78% of flexural strength.

above. Again, a trend similar to the three stages of fatigue deflection is found. The modulus decreases rapidly in the primary stage followed by an approximately linear secondary stage prior to the final tertiary stage and failure.

In a fatigue test where the R-ratio is positive, ie. no stress reversals, and the minimum load is close to zero, the changes in the minimum and maximum deflections largely reflects the delayed elastic and nonrecoverable components of strain in the specimen (see figure (9.1)). The difference between the minimum and maximum deflections is due to the elastic component of strain which reflects the modulus of elasticity. Therefore, with positive R-ratios, it would be easier to consider just the minimum fatigue deflection to follow the delayed elastic and nonrecoverable components. The change in modulus may then be used to reflect changes in the elastic contribution. In so doing, two means of monitoring the changes in the specimen during fatigue become available. However, if the minimum load is not close to zero (such as for an R-ratio of 0.5), then the change in modulus would also contribute to some of the changes in the minimum deflection although this would be small. The higher average stress the specimen is at would result in a smaller dynamic contribution and increased time dependent effect.

If stress reversals occur, ie. at negative R-ratios, the maximum and minimum peak strains may not change in the same direction. Where the mean stress is close to zero, there would be only a small component of delayed elastic and nonrecoverable strain. The use of fatigue deflections would not therefore be directly relevant. In fact with  $R = -1$ , any changes in the fatigue deflection would be more a result of changes in modulus.

## **9.2 Analysis of Fatigue Deflections**

### **9.2.1 Effect of Load Level at R-ratio of 0.1**

A series of fatigue tests for a wide range of load levels at  $R = 0.1$  was conducted for Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya laminates. The result to 10,000 cycles is shown in figure (9.3) for Sitka spruce and figure (9.4) for sliced Khaya. It can be seen

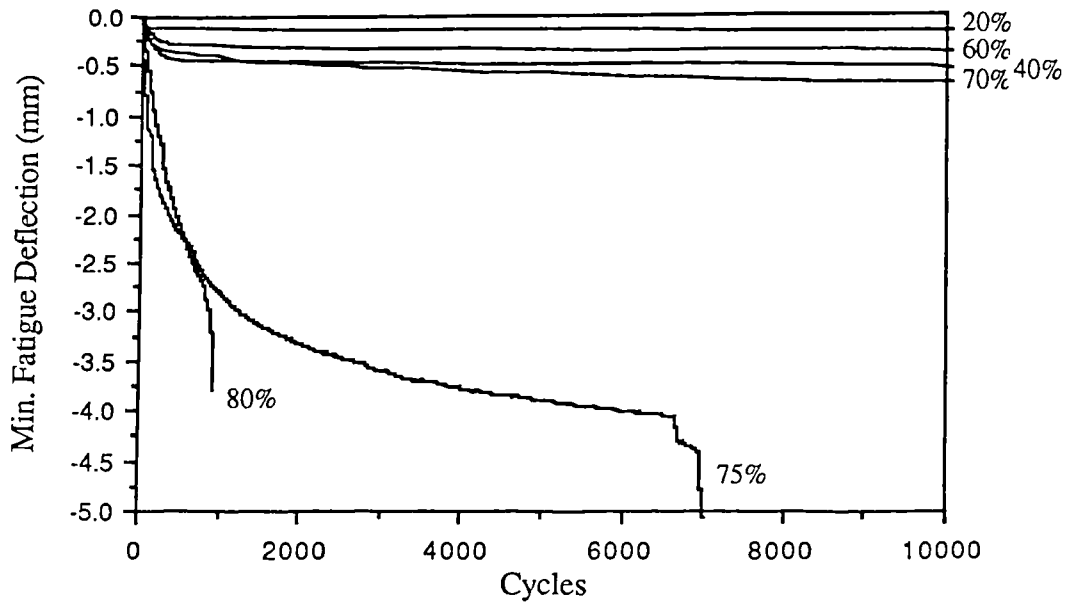


Figure (9.3). Fatigue deflection curves for Sitka spruce fatigued at different levels of load expressed as a percentage of static flexural strength.

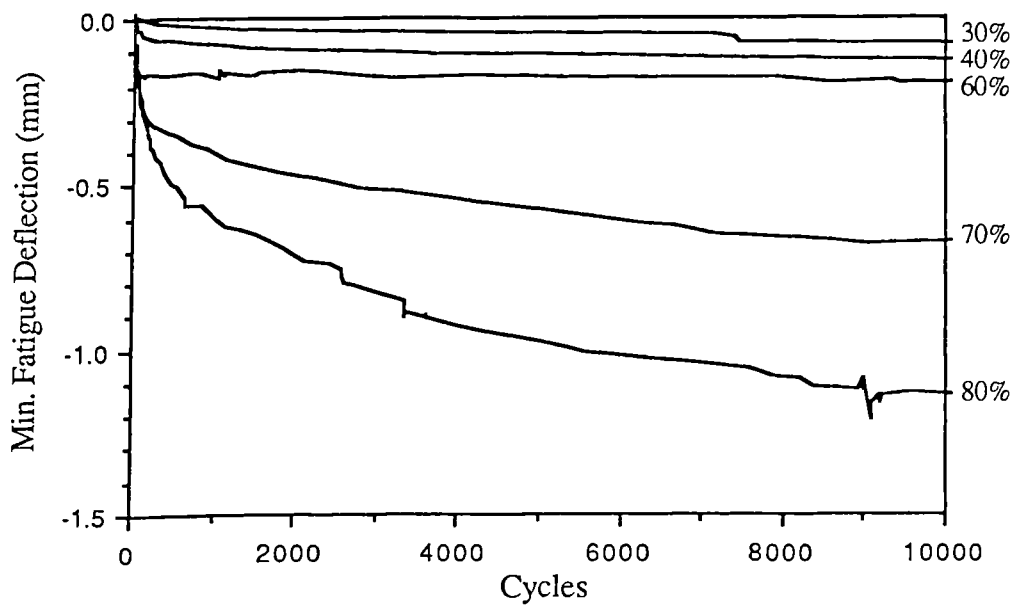


Figure (9.4). Fatigue deflection curves for sliced Khaya laminates fatigued at different levels of load expressed as a percentage of static strength.

that at higher load levels, the amount of fatigue deflection is much higher. In figure (9.3), the specimens at 75% and 80% failed within 10,000 cycles and they show a very large increase in fatigue deflection. The specimens at 70% and lower however all



survived the fatigue test beyond 1 million cycles. The large difference in fatigue deflections is probably reflected by the difference in fatigue life. It can also be seen that the fatigue deflection at 40% was in fact marginally greater than that at 60%. This could be due to the scatter in static strengths with the consequence that the quoted load levels are wrong to the extent that the true applied load level are actually similar.

The variability in the specimens may also be considered as variability in fatigue lives. Figure (9.5) shows the fatigue deflections of four Sitka spruce specimens fatigued at a nominal load level of 80% of static flexural strength. The result shows an increased rate of change in the deflection for specimens with a lower fatigue life. The final deflection close to failure is however variable although 4mm appears to be typical for most tests. Therefore, any direct prediction of fatigue life from the rate of change of deflections would not be possible but a slow rate of change in deflection is a strong indicator of a longer life specimen.

All the data collected for Sitka spruce to 100,000 cycles is shown in figure (9.6) as a plot of the change in deflection at a cycle level over a wide range of load levels. The data points are plotted in different symbols for 100, 1000, 10000 and 100000

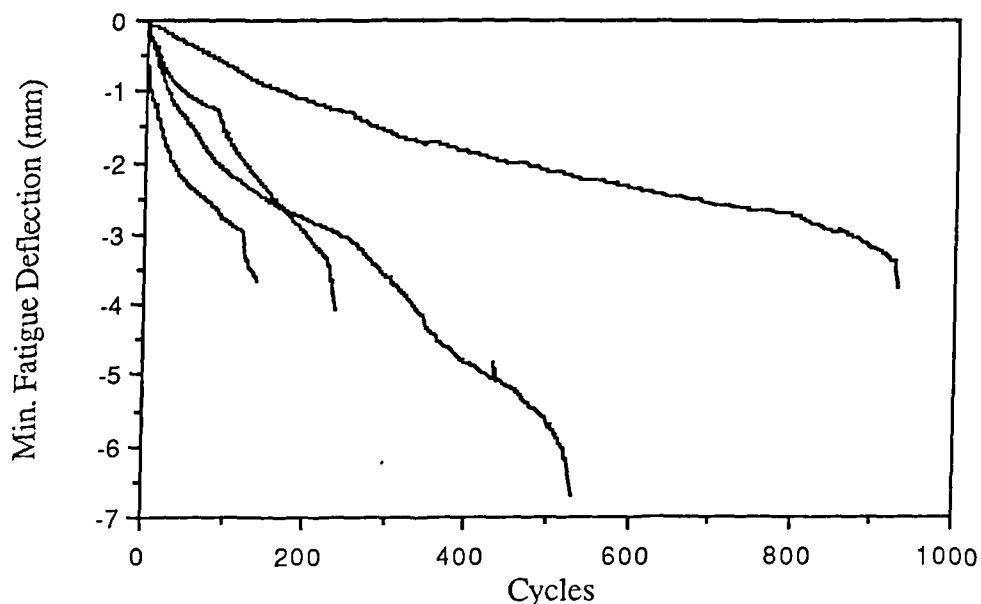


Figure (9.5) Fatigue deflection curves for four Sitka spruce specimens fatigued at 80% of static flexural strength.

cycles. For the results that are above 65% of the flexural strength, a rapid rise in the fatigue deflection occurs. This is significant as it corresponds to the change in creep compliance with load as seen in figure (3.8). Figure (9.7) shows the result for sliced Khaya plotted in a similar way. A similar transition or knee is found in the graph at

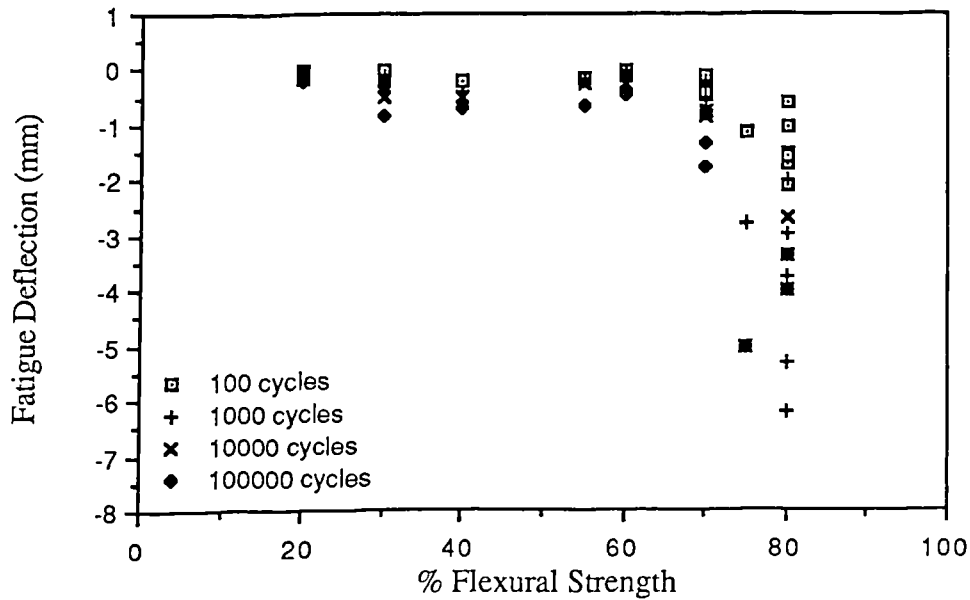


Figure (9.6) The effect of load level on the fatigue deflection at 100, 1000, 10000 and 100000 cycles of Sitka spruce specimens.

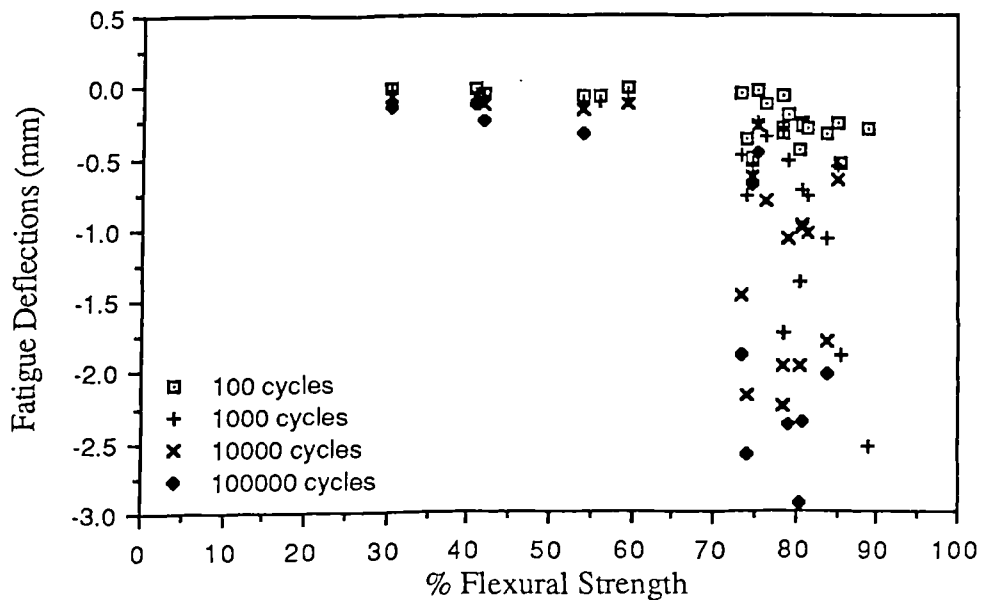


Figure (9.7) The effect of load level on the fatigue deflection at 100, 1000, 10000 and 100000 cycles of sliced Khaya specimens.

around 65% of the flexural strength. Attempts to curve fit this result were made using an inverse function which may be expressed as

$$\frac{1}{F_d} = k + cS \quad \dots 9.1$$

where  $F_d$  is the fatigue deflection and  $S$  the percentage load or stress level. The constants,  $k$  and  $c$  was determined using linear regression. The results and the correlation coefficient,  $R$  is shown in table (9.1). The curves show a very good fit for Khaya especially at higher fatigue cycles. For clarity, the curves for Khaya at 100 and 100,000 cycles are plotted with the data in figure (9.8). It indicates a small shift to lower load levels of the 'knee' at 100,000 cycles. There are however difficulties in this analysis. The asymptote for the vertical axis appears to occurs at approximately 81% of flexural strength for all fatigue cycles. This cannot be valid and is simply due to the nature of the data, being available only to 80% of flexural strength. Since the fatigue deflection is greater at lower loads for 100,000 cycles, the curve fit is more reliable. Further, the data is more sensitive at higher load levels to the variability in strength. However, the very good fit for 100,000 cycles does suggest that the inverse relation is a reasonable model for the data.

Table (9.1). Constants and Correlation coefficients of equation 9.1 fitted to the data in figures (9.6) and (9.7).

Material	Cycles	k	c	R
Khaya	100	-94.74	1.144	0.79
	1000	-42.46	0.529	0.88
	10000	-21.12	0.260	0.91
	100000	-11.74	0.145	0.94
Sitka	100	-57.24	0.733	0.57
	1000	-28.86	0.373	0.59
	10000	-13.06	0.165	0.63
	100000	-5.197	0.063	0.81

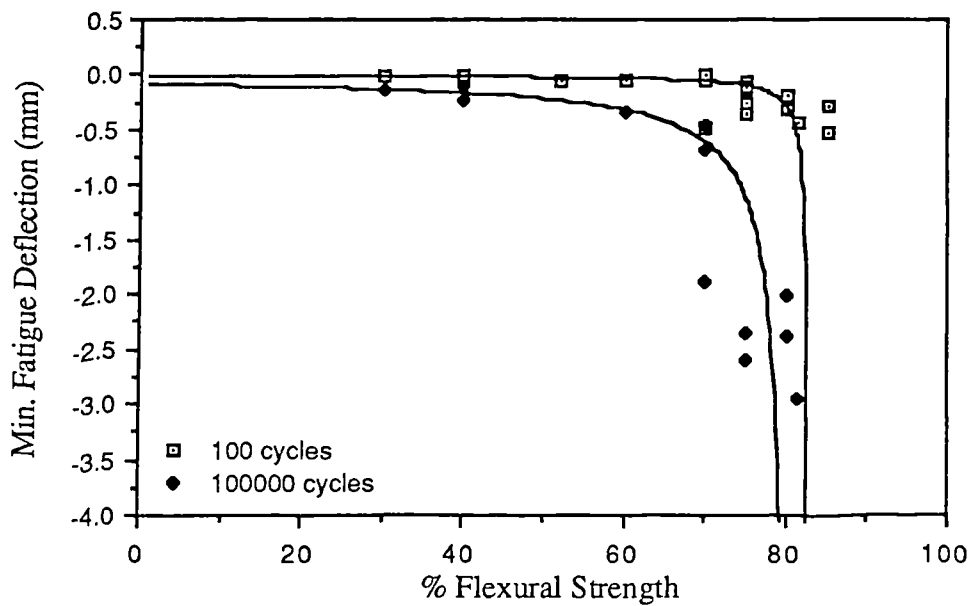


Figure (9.8) Data for sliced Khaya specimens at 100 and 100000 cycles plotted with the fitted curve based on equation (9.1) and coefficients in table (9.1).

### 9.2.2 Effect of R-ratio

The effect of R-ratio was considered by conducting another series of tests with Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya at an R-ratio of -1. This provided a totally different loading regime compared with  $R=0.1$ . As elaborated in the introduction, at  $R=-1$ , the zero mean stress would imply that with every cycle, full recovery of the delayed elastic and nonrecoverable strain would occur. Figure (9.9) and (9.10) shows this for Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya respectively with the deflections changing in both directions. The deflections here were plotted as absolute deflections of the specimens rather than fatigue deflections as in earlier plots of  $R=0.1$  data. The deflections appear to change rapidly during the initial cycles followed by a steady increase before the final rapid rise following the three primary, secondary, and tertiary stages found with  $R=0.1$ . This can be clearly seen in both plots at the higher load levels. Both the maximum and minimum peaks appear to change in a similar but opposite direction suggesting these changes may be better considered as changes in modulus (see Section 9.3.2). Not all results

however gave a symmetrical change in maximum and minimum deflections with cycles. Some specimens appear to sustain greater damage to one face with the effect that most of the change occurred to only one of the peaks. This can be seen occurring

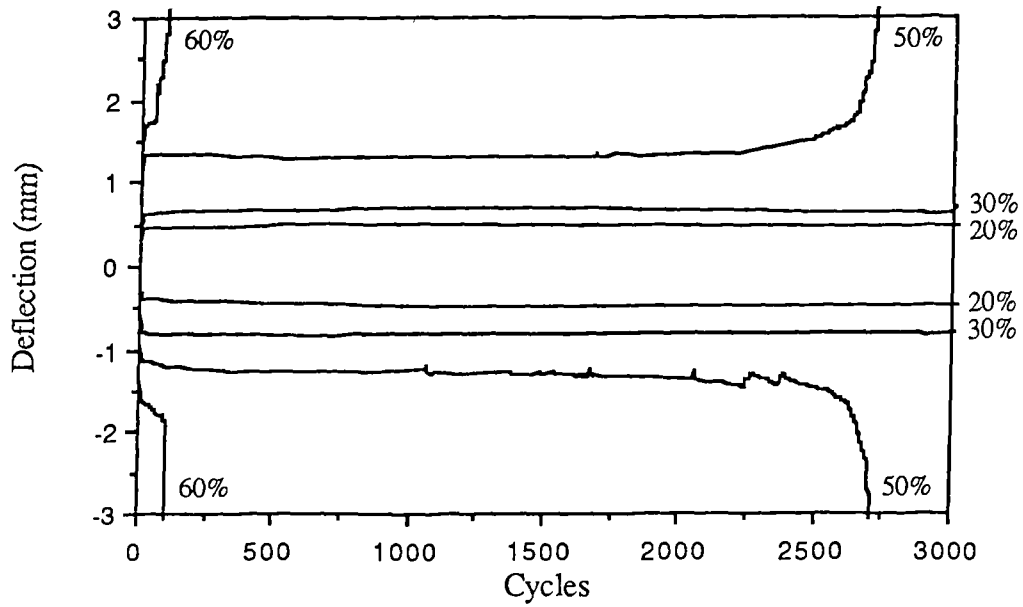


Figure (9.9) Changes in peak deflections of Sitka spruce fatigued at  $R=-1$  and at various load levels.

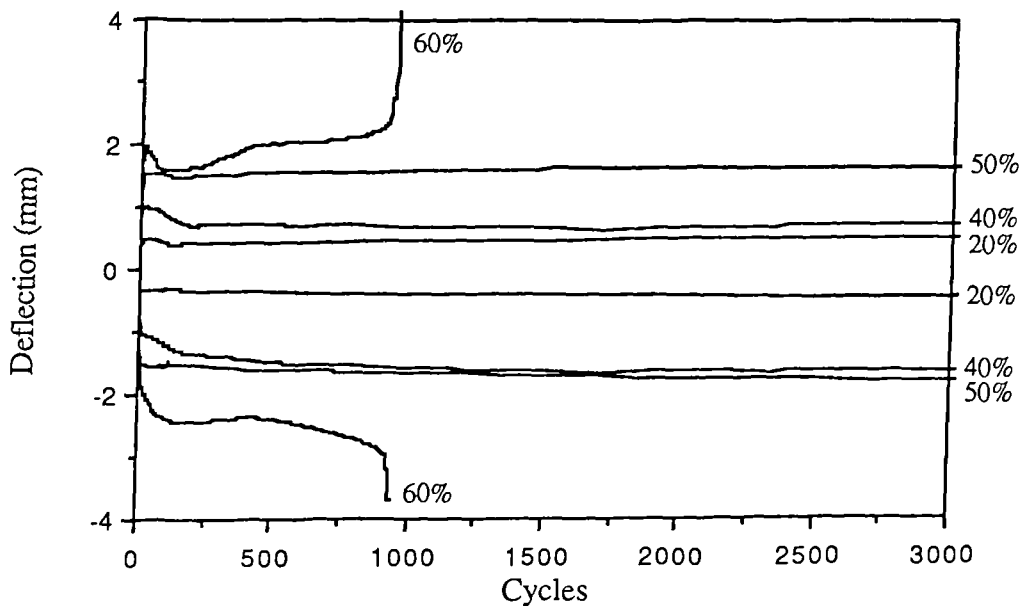


Figure (9.10) Changes in peak deflections of sliced Khaya fatigued at  $R=-1$  and at various load levels.

in figure (9.10) for sliced Khaya at 40% of static strength. The initial cycles resulted in a net decrease in both deflection peaks before stabilizing and proceeding in the manner similar to other specimens.

The load level also greatly affected the changes in deflection. At higher loads, the change is greater as seen in figures (9.9) and (9.10). It is interesting to note that like the R=0.1 results, at the lower load levels, the difference in the change in deflections are all very small. Unfortunately, insufficient reliable data was available to examine if a similar 'knee' was present. The available data however indicate this though not conclusively. Better results were obtained from the modulus measurements and these are examined in Section 9.3.2.

### 9.3 Analysis of Dynamic Modulus

#### 9.3.1 Effect of Load Level at R-ratio of 0.1

The changes in modulus were studied in the similar manner to that of the deflections. Its relevance however is different as the modulus reflects the elastic response of the wood structure. Any damage such as cell wall buckling, cracking and a

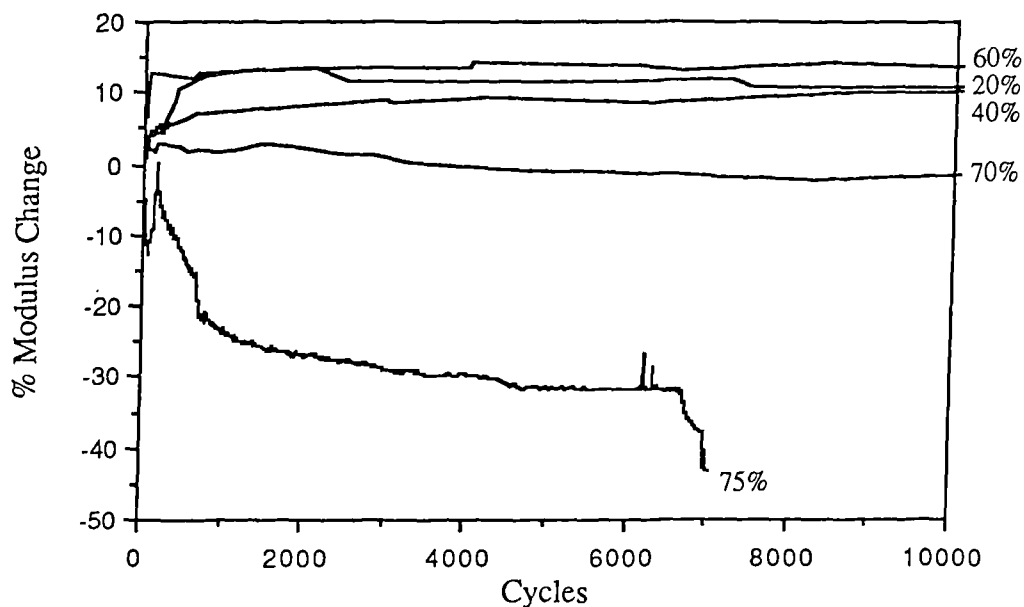


Figure (9.11) The changes in dynamic modulus with cycles for Sitka spruce at different percentage load levels.

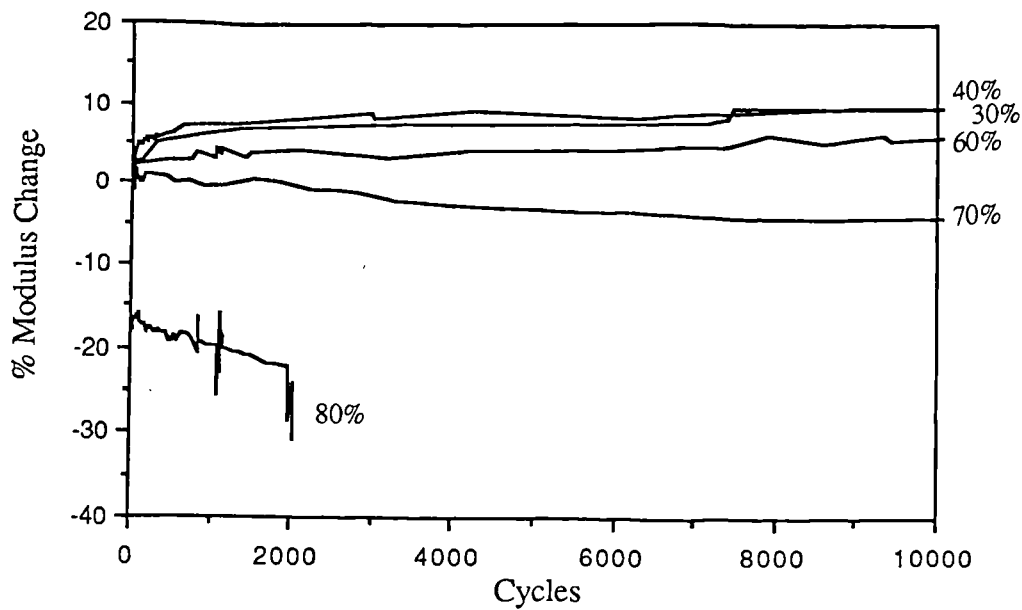


Figure (9.12) The changes in dynamic modulus with cycles for sliced Khaya at different percentage load levels.

general redistribution of stresses in the specimen would alter the elastic response. Figure (9.11) and (9.12) compare the changes in dynamic modulus at different load levels for Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya respectively. Two features stand out in the results. The first is that the modulus changes to a different extent for high and low load levels. This is as expected since the higher load levels would cause greater damage and cell wall buckling in the compression face.

The second rather more startling result is the increase in modulus with cycles for low load level specimen and a decrease in modulus at higher loads. Both for Sitka and Khaya, the results show the greatest increase in modulus at the lowest load level with a smaller increase up to 60%. At 70%, the specimens showed both changes with a small increase before a decrease. Indeed, only in the much higher load levels was the characteristic three stages described in Section 9.1 found. However, at the lower loads, the form of the increase followed the characteristic primary, then secondary stages of change. It was not possible to ascertain if at the low loads, the increase in modulus would be followed by a decrease at much higher fatigue cycles. If fatigue failure was to occur, this downturn would be expected to occur in a similar way to the 70% results.

Plotting the percentage change in dynamic modulus against the fatigue load level at different fatigue cycle level, the transition point between an increase in modulus and a decrease can be more clearly seen. Figure (9.13) and (9.14) show the plots for Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya respectively with the load level expressed as a percentage of

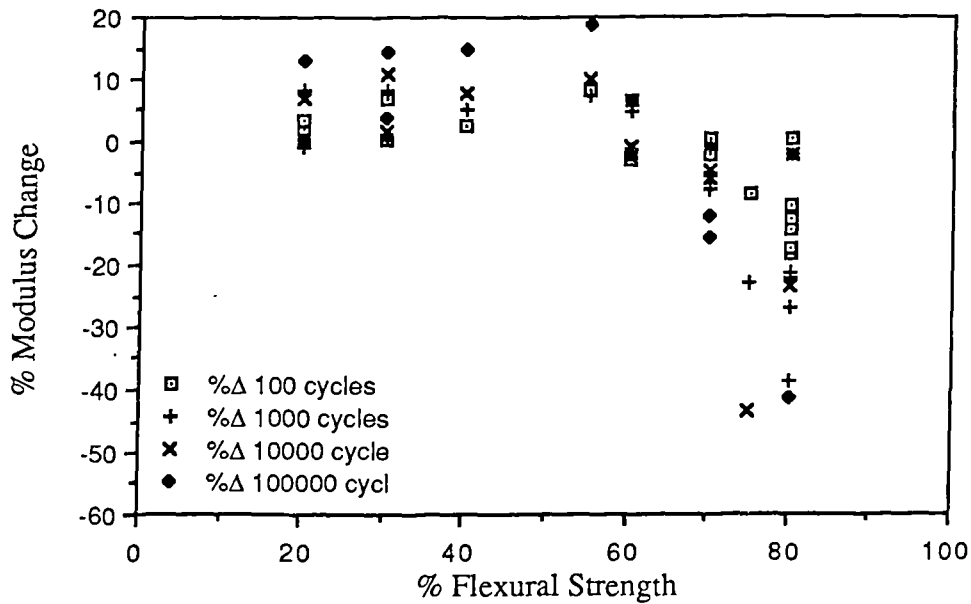


Figure (9.13) The effect of load level on the percentage change in the dynamic modulus of Sitka spruce at 100, 1000, 10000, 100000 cycles.

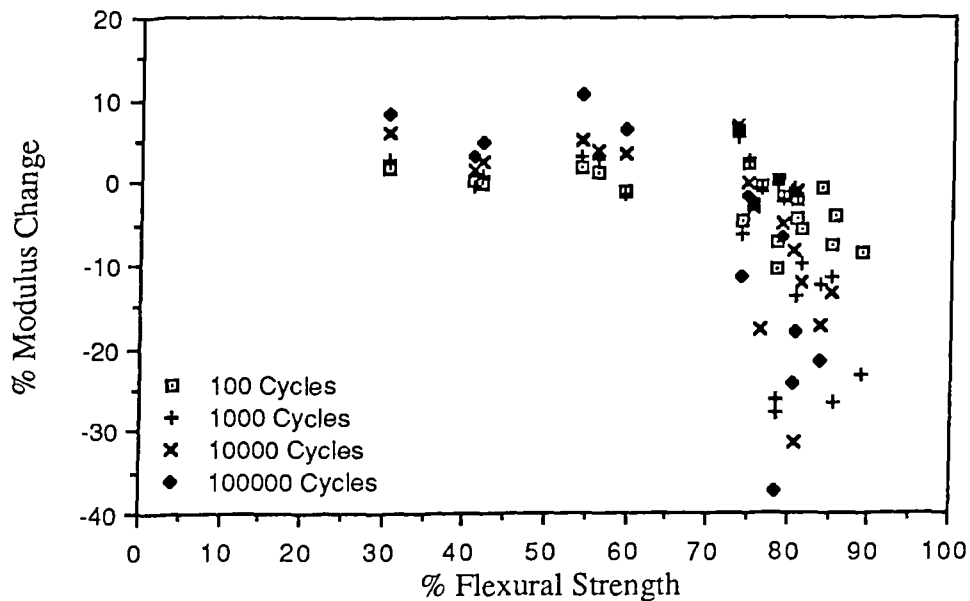


Figure (9.14) The effect of load level on the percentage change in the dynamic modulus of sliced Khaya at 100, 1000, 10000, 100000 cycles.



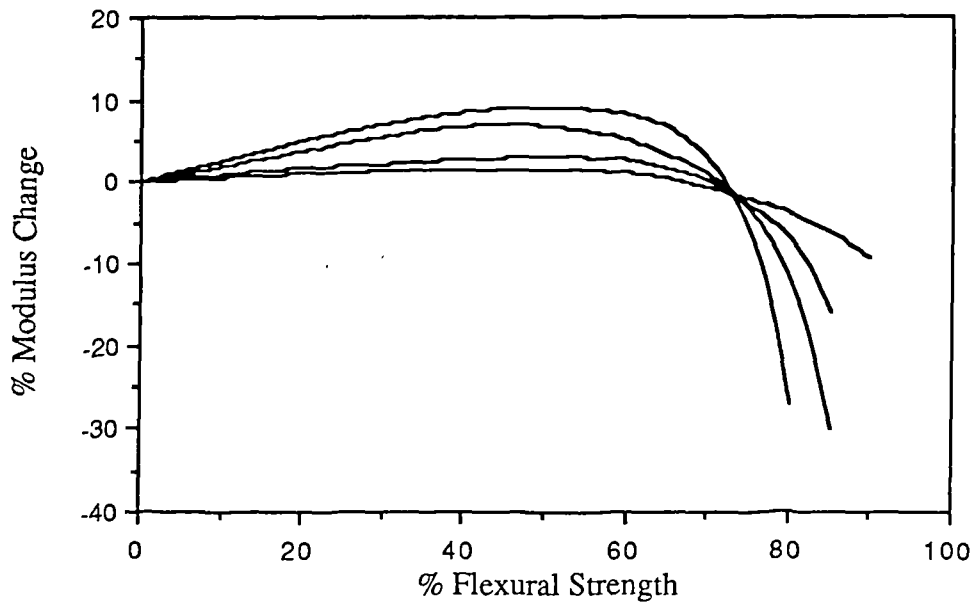


Figure (9.15) Visually fitted lines based on data of sliced Khaya in figure (9.14).

static flexural strength. Despite the scatter in results, the data shows a net increase in modulus up to around 70-75% of static strength. Beyond 75%, the plots shows a vary rapid decrease in modulus. Figure (9.15) shows visually fitted lines through the sliced Khaya data at the various cycle levels. The figure also suggests that around the transition point, the modulus will increase before at higher cycles, decreasing. Although the cycle level is a decade apart, the change in the transition point with cycle is small compared with the intercept with the x-axis. Also the fall in modulus above the transition point is much more rapid at higher fatigue cycles. These observations suggest strongly that the transition point at around 70-75% of the flexural strength is also a transition for the fatigue damage mechanism. Also the increasing steepness of the fall above the transition suggests that below the transition point, fatigue life can be very high and possibly a fatigue limit may exist. Confirmation of this however is required with tests to  $10^6$  and  $10^7$  cycles but it may be experimentally very difficult to obtain. The scatter in results is also a major problem which greatly affects the accuracy in determining the changes in the transition point.

### 9.3.2 Effect of R-ratio

A very different characteristic was found in the change in dynamic modulus when the R-ratio is -1. As noted in section 9.2.2, the opposite movement in the peak deflections must imply that a more rapid decrease in dynamic modulus must occur with cycles. Indeed, unlike for R=0.1, no increase in modulus was found. Figure (9.16) and (9.17) are plots showing the effect of fatigue cycles on modulus at different load levels for Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya respectively. The plots indicate the similarity in the characteristics at low load levels but the decrease in modulus is rapid at higher load levels. No major difference in the characteristics of Sitka and Khaya were observed although Khaya appears to be less affected at the same load level.

The quality of the results at R=-1 was relatively poor due to the difficulties of the test as discussed in chapter 7. Figure (9.18) shows the modulus changes for sliced Khaya up to 10000 cycles at various load levels. Despite the scatter, it appears that no definite "knee" exists as for tests at R=0.1. The modulus decreased steadily with load level with the rate of decrease greater at the higher cycle level. This may be because unlike the tests at R=0.1, where much of the modulus decrease was associated with the

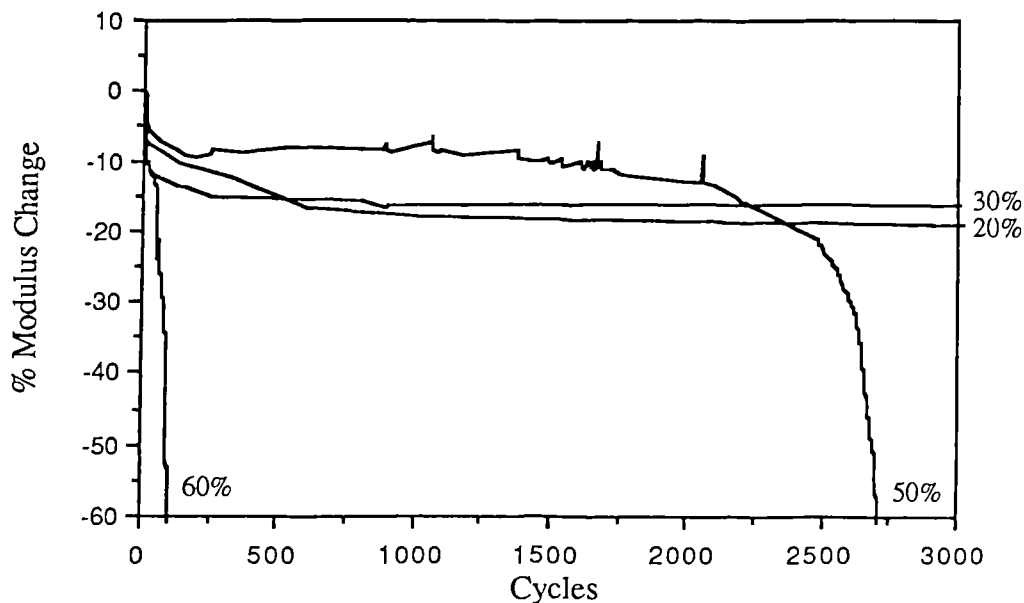


Figure (9.16) Effect of fatigue cycles on dynamic modulus of Sitka spruce at different load levels and a R-ratio of -1.

tertiary stage, a substantial decrease occurred during the primary and secondary stages. It suggests that when under compression, structural damage such as cell wall buckling occurs which, although not extensive at low stresses, reduces the tensile modulus as the stress is reversed.

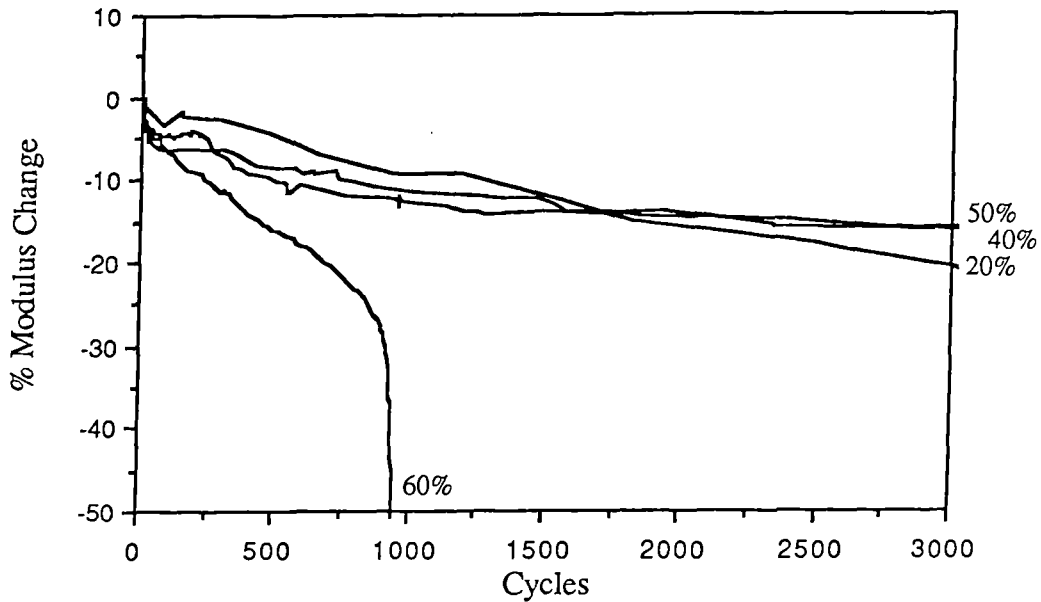


Figure (9.17) Effect of fatigue cycles on dynamic modulus of sliced Khaya at different load levels and a R-ratio of -1.

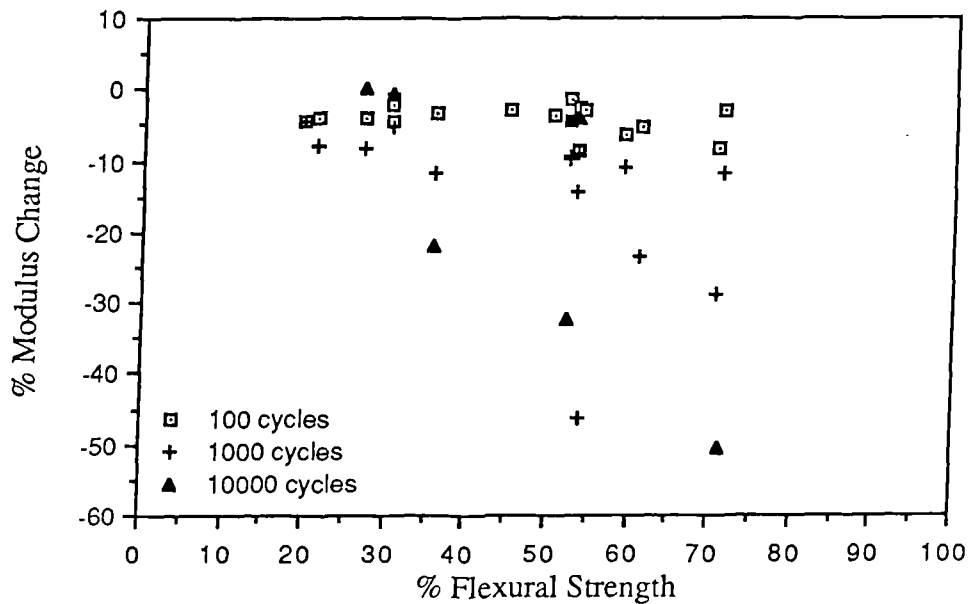


Figure (9.18) Effect of load level on the dynamic modulus of sliced Khaya fatigued at R=-1.

## **9.4 Miscellaneous**

### **9.4.1 Block Loading**

A few tests were conducted using the block loading capability of SArGen. Initial tests suffered from problems of overshoot as the load levels changed from one level to another. This was clearly unacceptable and modifications to the program were made to eliminate this. A successful result was achieved based on a loading program with a maximum stress of 75% of flexural strength and at two R-ratios, 0.1 and 0.5. The peak deflections are shown in two parts in figures (9.19a and b). Failure of this sample occurred at just over 200,000 cycles. As expected with the same maximum load levels, the maximum deflection showed a continuity while the minimum peak changed between the two R-ratios. In the initial primary stage, most of the change in deflection appear to occur during the larger amplitude block. However during the secondary stage, it is noticed that the changes tended to occur in the R=0.5 block immediately following the R=0.1 block. In fact, the small tertiary stage and final failure occurred in a similar manner following the fatigue cycles at R=0.1.

The changes in dynamic modulus surprisingly showed a large difference in value between the two R-ratios. Figure (9.20) shows the change in modulus with cycles. At R=0.5, the modulus appeared to be significantly higher. It increased after the initial block before showing the usual decrease in modulus. It appears that the difference in modulus at the two R-ratios was systematic and may be due to the different parts of the load-deflection curves in the cycles. This however is inconsistent with expectations since at the upper half of the load-deflection curve would show a decrease rather than the increase in modulus found. This is seen in figure (9.21) with the different moduli measured and the expected load-deflection curve from which a decrease in modulus might be expected. In figure (9.20), the maximum peaks were continuous which imply that the difference in modulus is due to the minimum peak being not coincident with the load-deflection line for R=0.1. In fact, extrapolating the minimum deflection peak for R=0.5 to zero load, a positive residual deflection of about

0.5mm remain. Apart from being an experimental error (which may be discounted since errors are more likely increase the modulus at  $R=0.1$  rather than  $R=0.5$ ) no explanation for this unexpected behavior could be found.

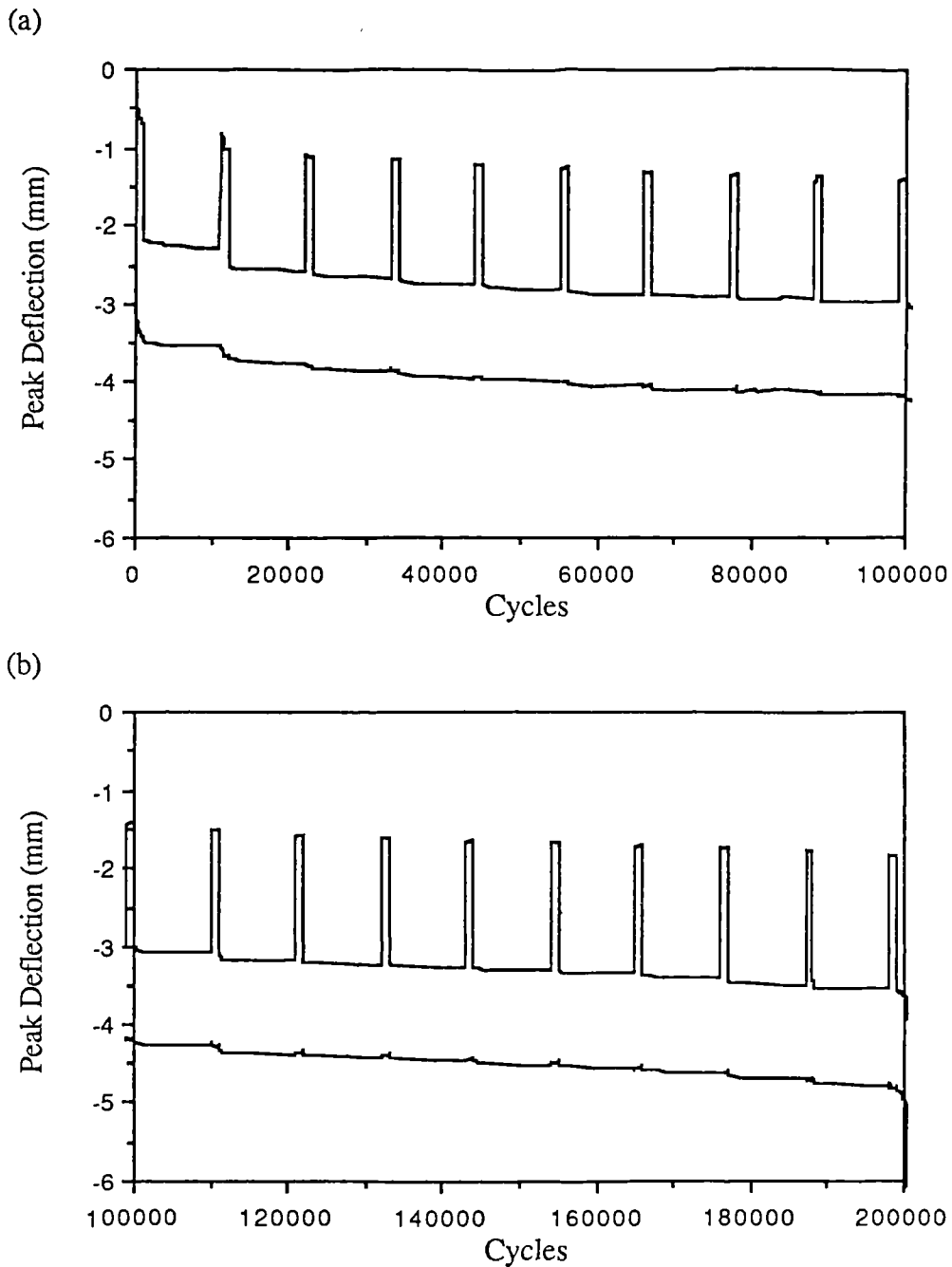


Figure (9.19) The changes in fatigue deflections of sliced Khaya subjected to a block loading program at 75% of flexural strength and at R-ratios of 0.1 (1000 cycles) and 0.5 (10,000 cycles). (a) Fatigue cycles between 0 and 100,000 cycles. (b) Fatigue cycles between 100,000 and 200,000 cycles.

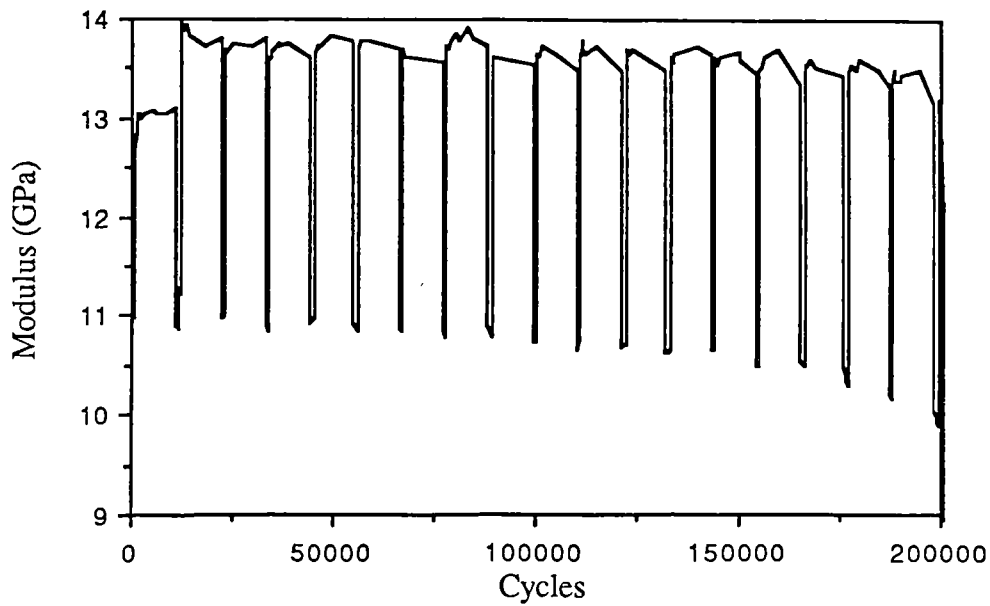


Figure (9.20) The variation of the dynamic modulus of sliced Khaya subjected to a block loading program at 75% of flexural strength and at R-ratios of 0.1 (1000 cycles) and 0.5 (10,000 cycles).

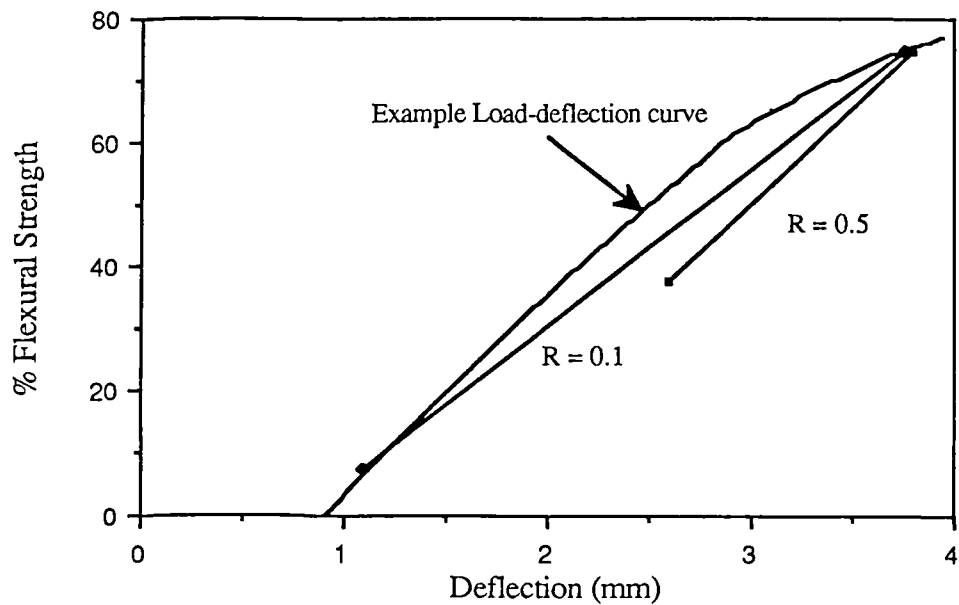


Figure (9.21) Comparison of the measured dynamic modulus at R=0.1 and R=0.5 with an example load deflection curve.

## 9.4.2 Comparison of Species

The results for Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya in the figures above are now compared since the two woods are structurally very different. However, as the plots show, the fatigue deflections and changes in dynamic modulus are not significantly different between the two species. Indeed the results on rotary cut Khaya were also very similar as seen in figure (9.1) and (9.2). It reinforces the view that different wood species are distinct largely because of the amount of wood tissue present. Other factors do cause some difference but they are not as significant. This may be seen in some difference found in the relative amount of change in modulus (figures (9.13) and (9.14)) although this is difficult to compare due to the different load levels. However, in general, by comparing figure (9.7) and (9.8), the fatigue deflections of Sitka spruce do appear higher. This may be because of the more brittle nature of sliced Khaya laminates with their interfacial resin bonds. The knee however does not appear to be significantly higher. Comparing the changes in modulus, Sitka spruce appears to be affected more greatly. The knee in the result also appears to be slightly lower for Sitka spruce occurring at around 60% rather 70% for sliced Khaya. Differences appear to coincide with the difference in compression strengths. As seen in table (8.1), Sitka has a much lower compressive strength to flexural strength ratio. With much of the damage appearing to occur in the compression face a higher amount of damage would occur at the same percentage load on the compression face with Sitka spruce. This damage would be reflected in the fatigue deflections.

## CHAPTER 10

# **M**ACROSCOPIC AND **M**ICROSCOPIC **S**TUDY OF **F**ATIGUE **F**AILURE



## 10.1 Visual Observation of Fatigue Damage

Specimens were observed during fatigue tests for any visual indications of damage or any signs of imminent failure. In general only two types of damage were observed, longitudinal cracks on the tensile face and compression creases. The sequence of damage observed on sliced Khaya at  $R=0.1$  was as follows.

- (a) Small compression creases were usually the first signs observed. They occasionally occur above the loading points despite the polyethylene pads. A crease can be seen above the left roller in figure (10.1).
- (b) Towards the later half of the specimen's life, a small crack would appear on the tensile surface. For specimens with a short fatigue life ( $<1,000$  cycles), being subjected to a high load, the crack often appears very late and it very quickly develops within a few cycles to failure. Also cracks are very small at low loads but much larger at high loads.
- (c) Once the crack is formed it grows along the length of the specimen to form a large splinter. Occasionally, an initial crack might form very early on at the top edge of



Figure (10.1) Photo of tensile cracks of a sliced Khaya specimen at 3 million cycles.

the specimen but does not prove serious and another crack forms instead and grows. Figure (10.1), taken at 3 million cycles, shows a tensile crack which developed at around 2 million cycle.

(d) There is normally very little indication that failure is imminent. A substantial crack may be present for over a third of the life of the specimen before failure is catastrophic.

Sitka spruce shows a similar behavior although the crack appears to form preferentially along the latewood/earlywood interface. Where an interface is present at the tensile surface, cracks would initiate there. These cracks also do not appear to have a significant effect on the modulus of the specimen if the load level is <70% of the ultimate strength. Compression creases also appear to be more extensive with Sitka specimens compared with slice Khaya.

With stress reversals, the cracks formed in the specimens are very different from those of the unreversed specimens. There is usually a blunt tip to the splinters indicating tensile failures had occurred where compression creases had formed earlier. Also, the formation of a crack rapidly leads to other cracks forming on both sides of the specimen leading to failure.

## **10.2 Electron Microscopy**

The electron microscope has been extensively used by Dobraszcyk (1983) to examine the fracture surfaces of fatigued specimens of Douglas fir. Boatright (1977) studied fatigue crack propagation in the RL and TL planes. Most of the fracture types found were similar to that found with static fracture. A brief study was also made in this work on Sitka spruce and sliced Khaya.

Figure (10.2) to (10.4) shows the fatigue fracture surface from the middle of a Sitka spruce specimen. Figure (10.2) examines the failure surface covering the earlywood and latewood sections. The earlywood with its thin cell walls appears to have failed cleanly in a brittle fashion. The latewood has a more fibrous surface but is

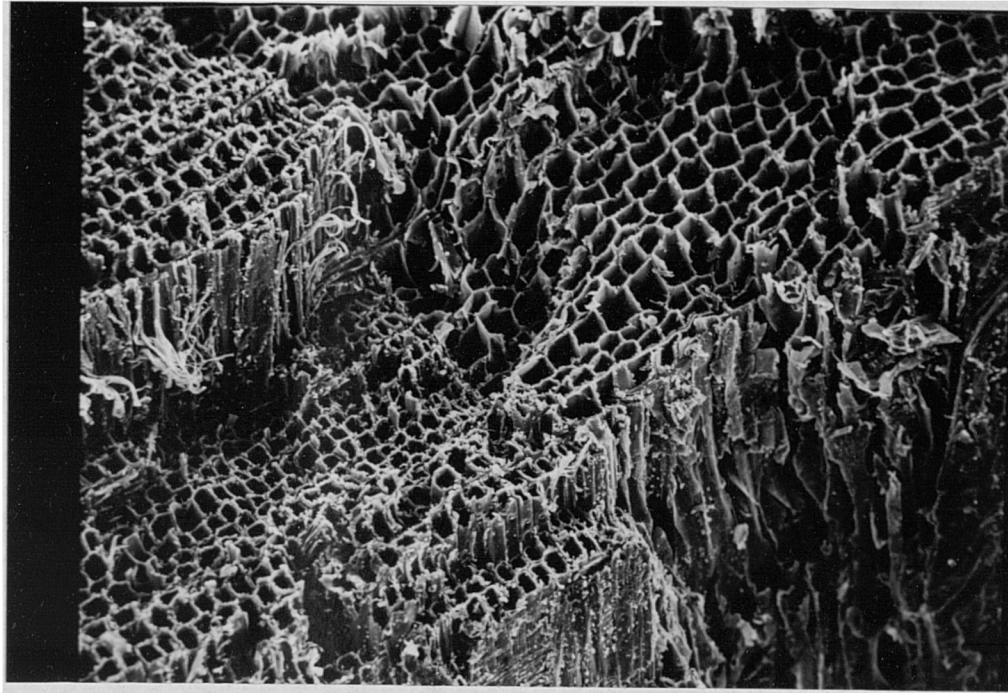


Figure (10.2) Flexural fatigue fracture surface of a Sitka spruce specimen.

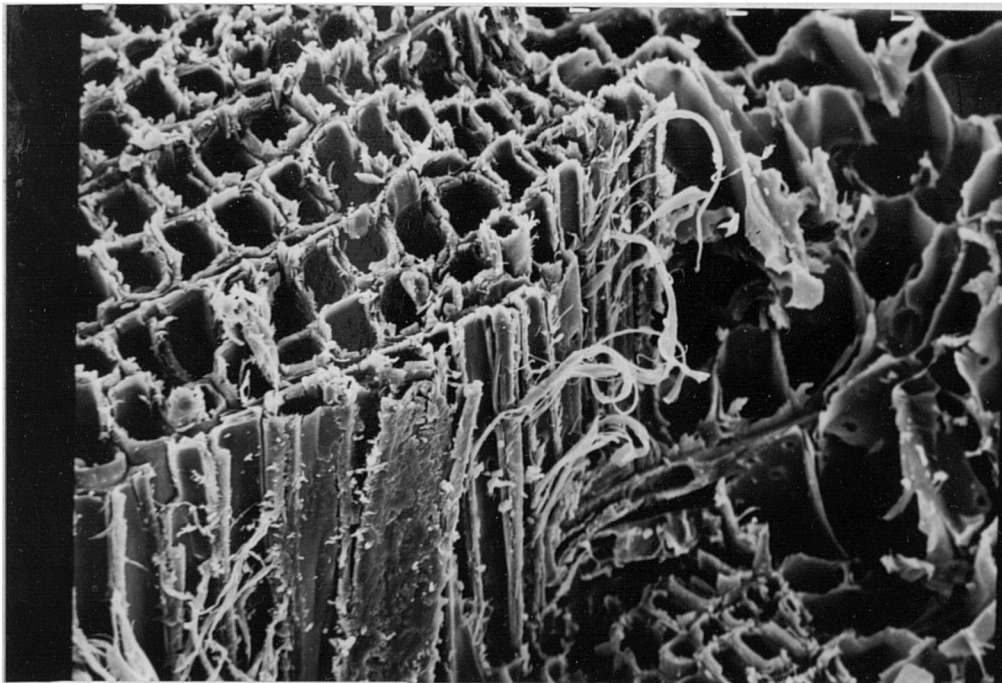


Figure (10.3) Flexural fatigue fracture surface of a Sitka spruce specimen.

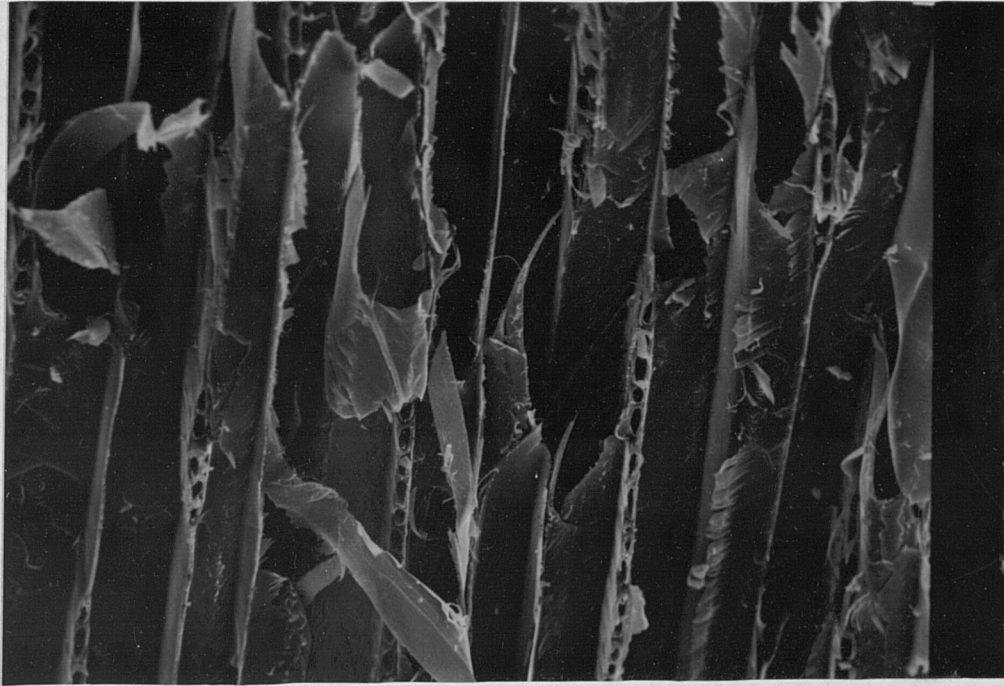


Figure (10.4) LT flexural fatigue fracture surface of Sitka spruce.

still brittle in character indicating that compression failure had probably occurred prior to tensile fracture. Another feature is seen in the fracture surface in the LT plane in Sitka spruce. In the latewood side, failure occurred at the middle lamella while in earlywood, failure was through the cell walls. A higher magnification view of the latewood fracture surface is shown in figure (10.3). Some lateral cell crushing also appears to have occurred with pullout of clumps of microfibrils. This could have occurred during the last few cycles prior to failure, from transverse or impact forces which arise due to the opening and closing of a crack. Figure (10.4) shows a LT section. There is a substantial amount of distortion and separation of the cell wall layers. Delamination of the S3 layer can also be seen on the bottom right of the figure. This appears to be quite common and extensive in fatigue compared with ramp loaded specimens although no quantitative comparison was made.

Figures (10.5) to (10.8) are micrographs of the fracture surface from the tension and compression sides of a specimen tested in fatigue. The microstructure of sliced

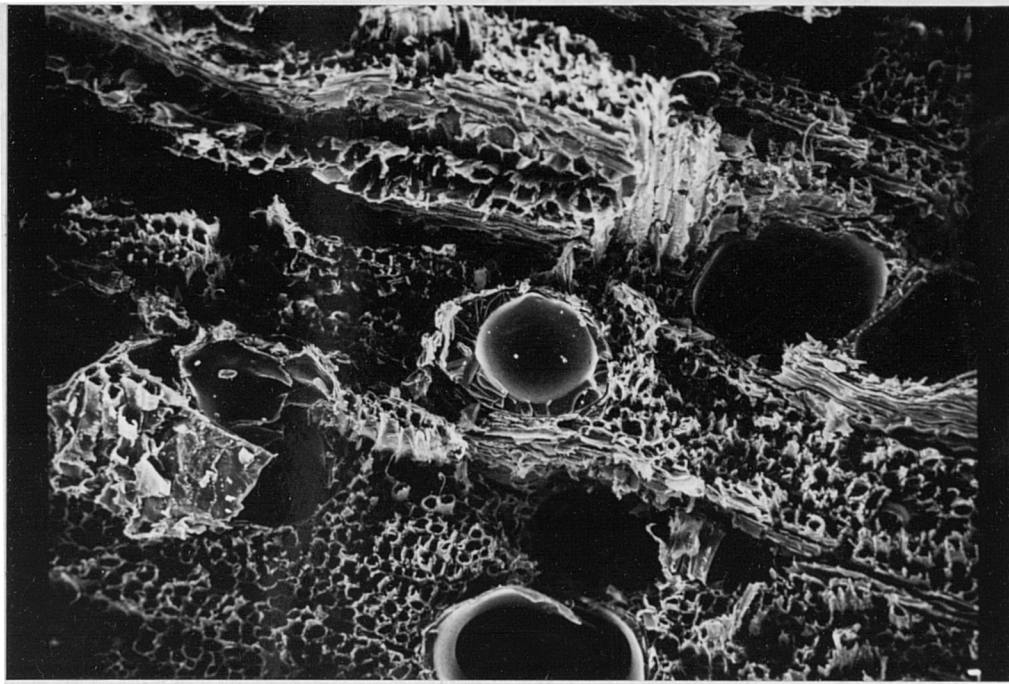


Figure (10.5) Fatigue fracture from the tension side of a sliced Khaya specimen.

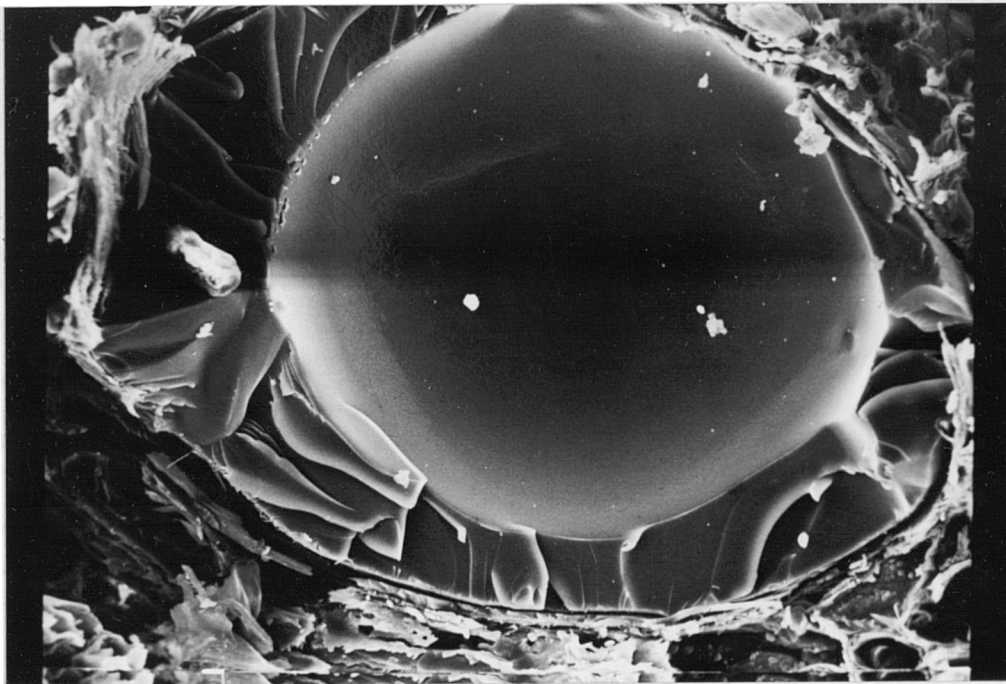


Figure (10.6) Low cycle fatigue fracture of a resin filled vessel.

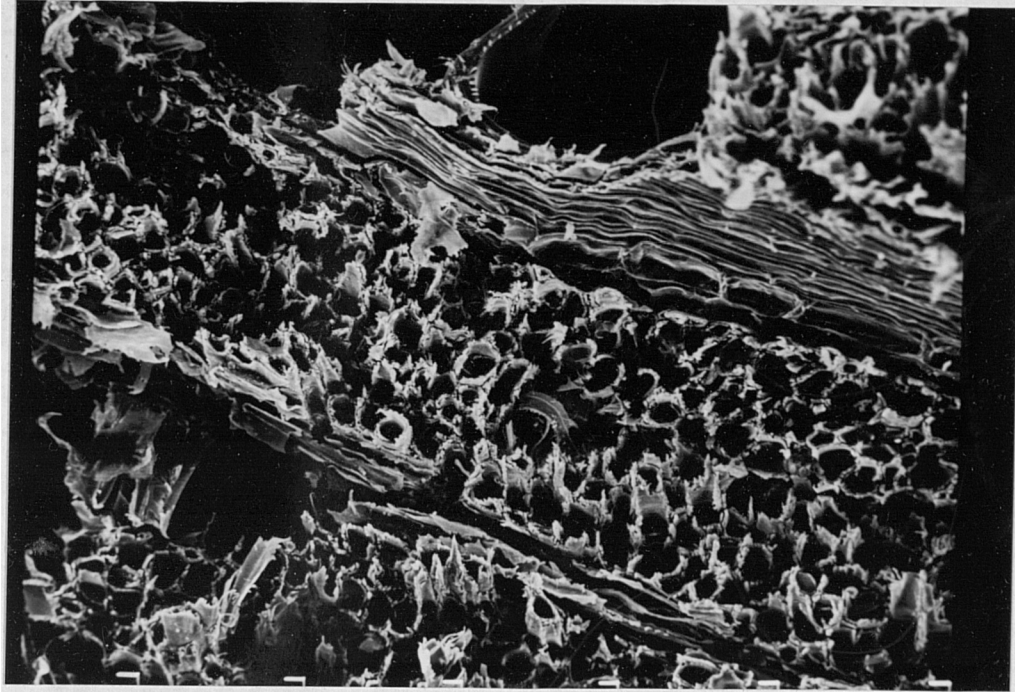


Figure (10.7) Fracture surface from the tension side of a fatigued sliced Khaya specimen.

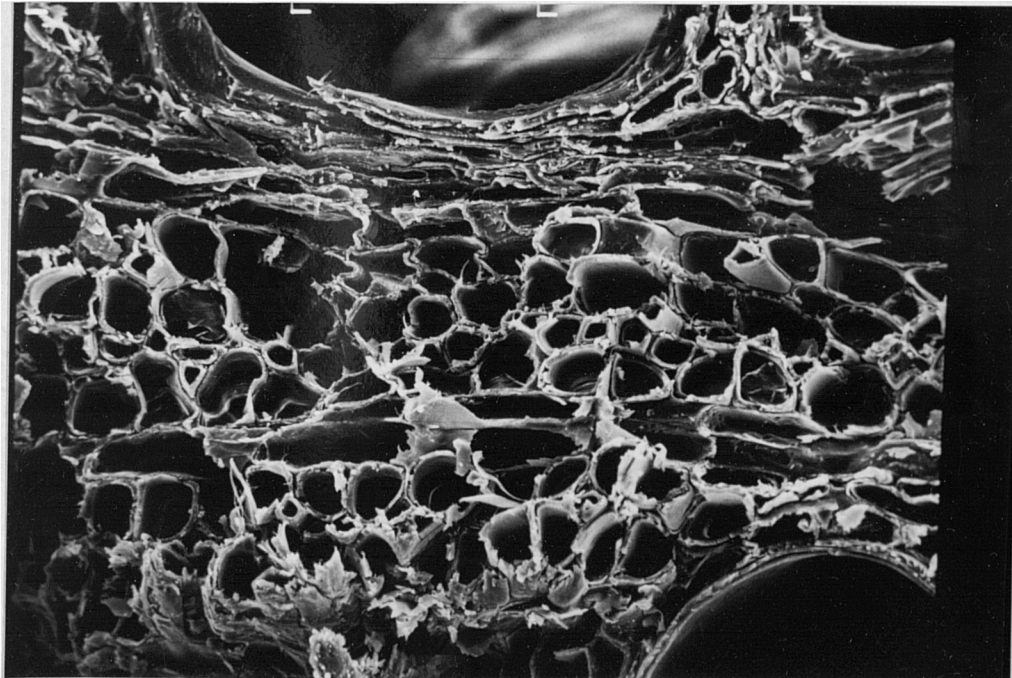


Figure (10.8) Fracture surface from the compression side of a fatigued sliced Khaya specimen.



Khaya, being a hardwood, is not as simple as Sitka with large vessels which when laminated are sometimes filled with resin. Figure (10.5) shows the low cycle fatigue fracture, on the tension side of specimen, of one such vessel filled with resin. A higher magnification view of the resin fracture is seen in figure (10.6). The initiation site appears to be on the lower right propagating around the edge before final fracture. Comparing the fracture surface of the tension side of the specimen as seen in figures (10.7) with the fracture surface on the compression side, seen in figure (10.8), a similarity with the fatigue fracture of Sitka specimens, figures (10.2) and (10.3), can be discerned. The fibrous fracture surface is seen from the tension side but a relatively brittle fracture surface is found from the compression side.

### **10.3 Study of Damage Accumulation by Optical Microscopy.**

Sitka spruce specimens were fatigued at 75% of flexural strength and at  $R = 0.1$  for  $10^2$ , 500,  $10^3$ ,  $10^4$  and  $10^5$  cycles. Changes in the microstructure on the compression side of the specimen was observed using polarized light optical microscopy of microtomed sections. Sitka spruce was chosen for this study because of its simple microscopic structure.

Although at 75% of flexural strength, the fatigue life of Sitka is estimated (by log-linear regression analysis) to be in excess of  $10^7$  cycles, damage was observed as early as 500 cycles. Figure (10.9) shows a line of compression kinks or slip lines in the cell walls. This is similar to the type of damage observed in compression tested specimens of Dinwoodie (1968) and Keith and Cote (1968). A higher magnification view of the kinks can be seen in figure (10.10). The "X-shaped" kinks appear consistent with the type of deformation described by Wardrop and Dadswell (1947 (see Section 2.4.2).

At higher fatigue cycles, there is a clear trend in the development of these compression kinks. Figures (10.11) to (10.13) show the development of these kinks to a gross macroscopic crease at  $10^3$ ,  $10^4$  and  $10^5$  cycles. The kinks grows both in depth, towards the centre of the specimen, and also in length along the length of the cell wall.

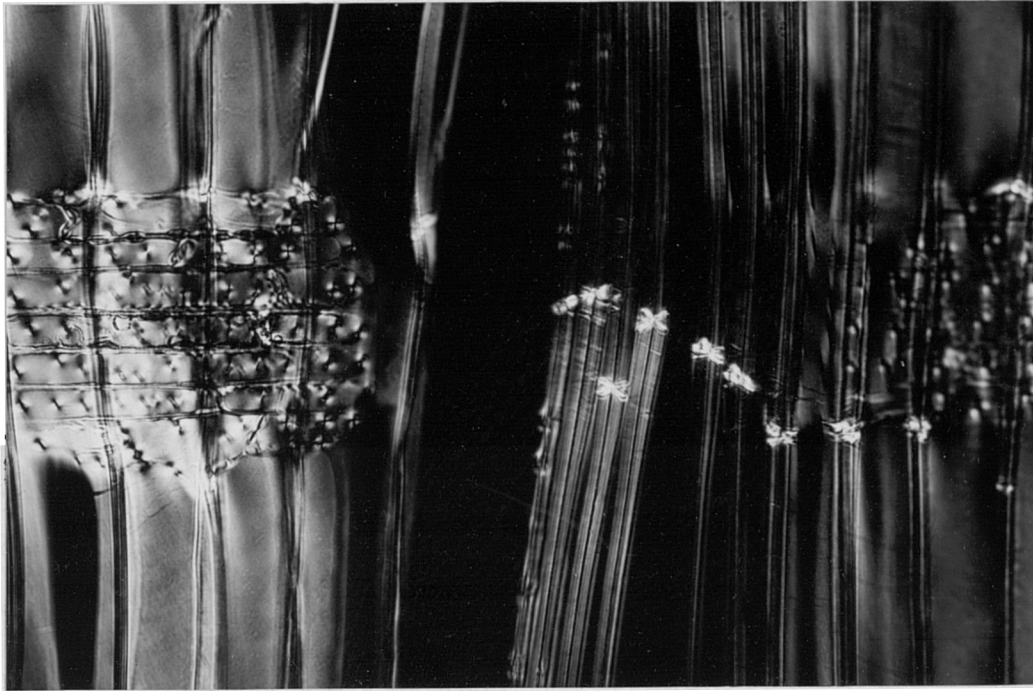


Figure (10.9) Compression kinks on a radial-longitudinal section of Sitka spruce after 500 cycles at 75% of ultimate flexural strength.



Figure (10.10) Higher magnification view of the compression failures from the central portion of figure (10.9).



This suggests progressive lateral damage occurring. Compression failure of one cell wall results in local stress transfer which causes adjacent cells to fail. As kink spreading develops, a crease is eventually formed which may be considered as analogous to a crack. There would be stress concentrations at the tip of the crease causing more cells to fail. At the same time within the crease, damage builds up along the length of the cells as the kinks themselves are compressed. The growth of the crease occurs despite the fact that the average stress towards the centre of the specimen is very low and at the neutral axis, zero. This suggests that the neutral axis is in fact moving from the

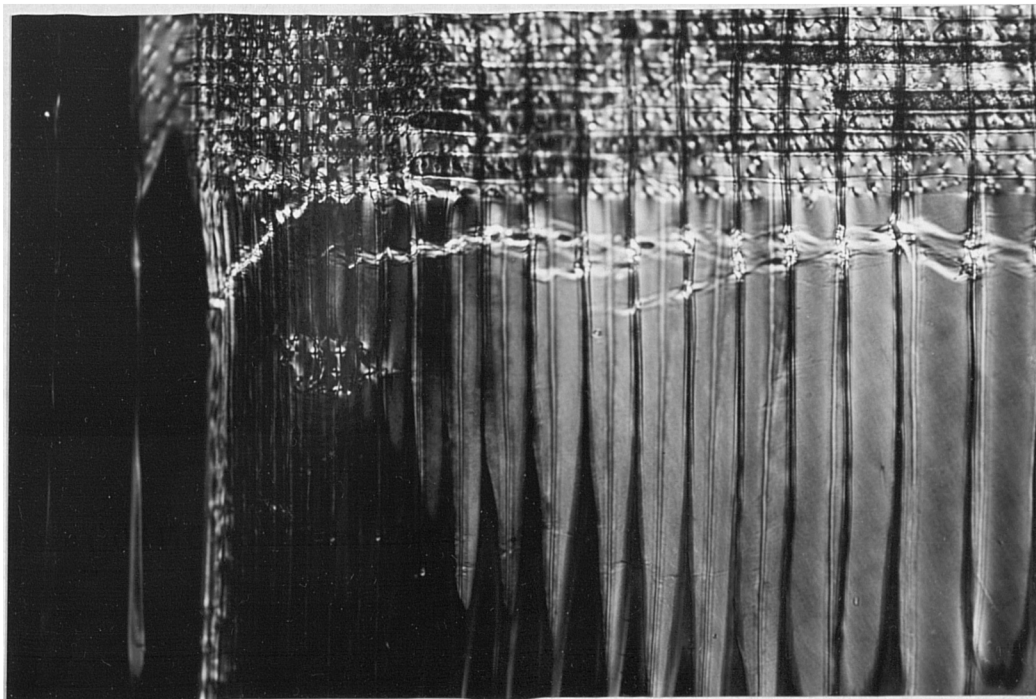


Figure (10.11) Crease formed after 1000 cycles.

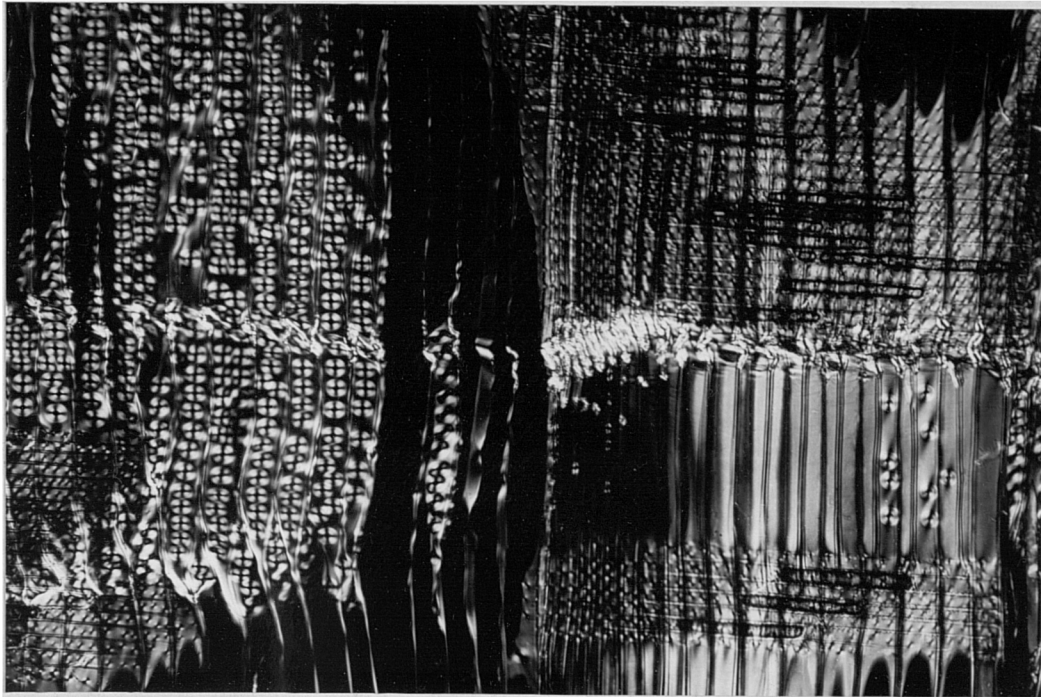


Figure (10.12) Crease formed after 10,000 cycles

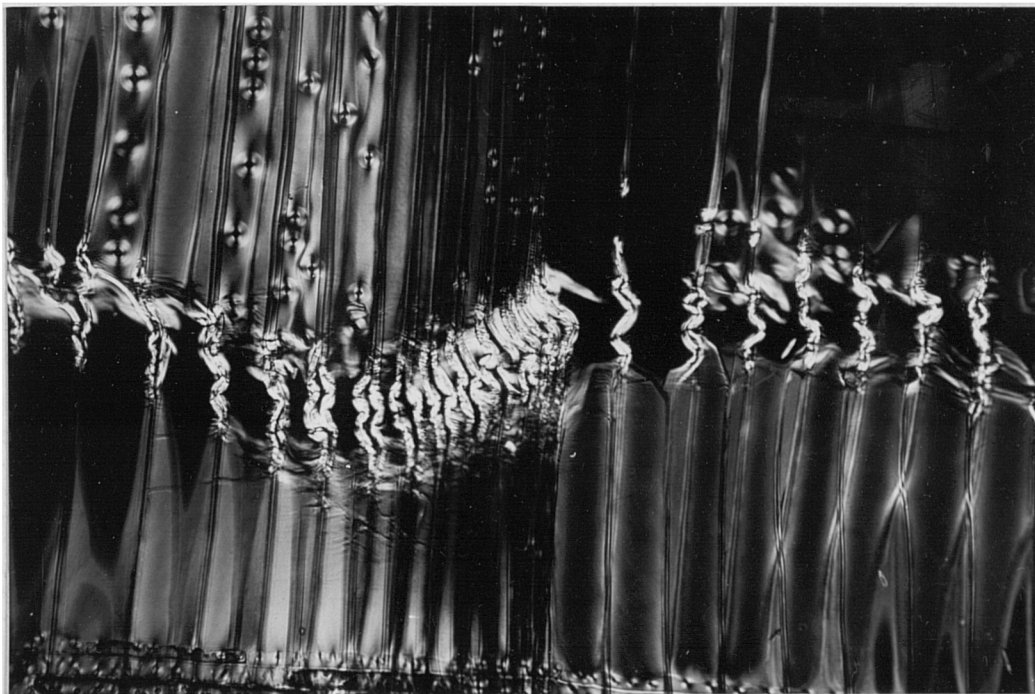


Figure (10.13) Crease, which is visible by naked eye, after 100,000 cycles.

centroidal axis of the specimen towards the tensile face. This increases the area under compression to sustain the compressive stresses as the cellular structure weakens. This results in a stress distribution across the depth of the specimen similar to that seen in figure (2.12).

The progress of the crease is also affected by latewood. In the earlywood, the line of damage progresses perpendicular to the cell walls, but in the latewood, where the cell walls are thicker and closer together, the line forms at an angle of about 30°. This suggests that the dominant type of stress changes from an axial stress on the cell wall to a shear stress. This is not surprising since in the earlywood, the wide separation between the cell walls would result in them acting more independently as columns.

# CHAPTER 11

## DISCUSSION

## 11.1 Fatigue Mechanisms in Wood

There are many possible mechanisms which may operate and cause fatigue failure. In this discussion, a general description is made following the mechanisms at two levels: changes which occur to the cell wall material at the ultrastructural level and changes at the microscopic and macroscopic level. In general, the first would be more speculative as evidence of such mechanisms are difficult to obtain and in fact would be based on extension of current damage models in static and creep tests. The evidence for structural damage to the cell wall with fatigue cycles is much stronger. However, this discussion hopes to lay the foundation for relating mechanisms to the experimental evidence from this and previous work.

At the ultrastructural level, there are two possibilities: chain scission or chain slippage. Chain scission is related to ideas from tensile failure of wood. As discussed briefly in Section 2.4.1, the idea of chain scission as a failure mechanism is better than chain slippage but the stresses to initiate this remain very high. Only during the final failure process where shear stresses cause the separation of the cell wall layers can there be cell wall fracture with chain scission. This must imply therefore, that it is an unlikely process prior to the final stages of fatigue failure. From macroscopic observations of flexural fatigue, figure (10.1) where cracks may form on the tensile surface, this might be visualized as the initiation of cracks followed by crack growth. It is not a pure tensile type failure where the classical chain scission or chain slippage concepts would apply across the specimen, but rather the concepts from fracture mechanics apply with, in particular, slow crack growth along the longitudinal planes. Thus it is more likely that chain scission is not occurring at the ultrastructural level during fatigue.

Environmental factors such as moisture and temperature will affect the basic nature of the cell wall material. Moisture diffusion will inevitably result in the making and breaking of hydrogen bond. The Barkas effect, (moisture adsorption during tension and desorption during compression) would suggest that there is a high number of active hydrogen bonds. Temperature would affect the kinetics of this bond breaking and

formation. Therefore, like creep, viscous flow through chain slippage would occur. It is conceivable that the microfibrillar orientation in the cell wall layers could change as a consequence of this type of mechanism. This would contribute to the fatigue strains measured with tests at  $R=0.1$  and also the increase in modulus found during fatigue at low stresses. If such a mechanism is occurring, there would be a greater degree of chain slippage at higher moisture contents particularly in tension fatigue. Unfortunately no results are available to prove or disprove this. Visual observations of fatigue tests at 98% RH do suggest a much greater fatigue strain.

The work of Chow (1973), in examining the molecular motion of carbohydrates and lignin during creep, suggest that some molecular movement must be occurring during fatigue. On the other hand, while molecular motion may account for reversible strains, it does not constitute damage and its role is probably secondary to the fatigue process.

Changes during fatigue at the microscopic and macroscopic level are more easily observed and they provide a more consistent picture of fatigue damage mechanisms. Most clear is the development of damage in compression. As the study using optical microscopy has shown, compression damage is progressive and develops from microscopic kinks or slip lines to gross macroscopic creases. In flexure, this might not directly result in failure of the specimen but in axial compression fatigue, the kinks will form the weak points which can develop to catastrophic failure in shear. If as Dinwoodie (1968) suggests, compression kinks form at as low a stress as 25% of ultimate compression strength, then compression fatigue would have a very low fatigue limit if any. The formation of compression kinks would occur during the primary and secondary stages of fatigue strain and likewise the decrease in modulus found at higher load levels.

In tension, the fatigue mechanisms are more difficult to ascertain. The possibilities include slippage between and within the cell wall layers, cracking in secondary wall layers, and longitudinal splitting along the grain. These mechanisms are

based on the fact that these are the regions of weakness in the wood structure. Classical theories on tensile wood failure already suggest that the weakness in the cellular structure is in shear. Cracking in the secondary walls has been observed in fatigue fracture surfaces using the electron microscope although it is possible that these occurred during the final failure stage. Since wood is weakest transverse to the grain direction, longitudinal splitting can easily occur. The latewood/earlywood interface would be the likely interface where such failure would occur. This has been observed in Sitka specimens where cracks almost always initiate at the interface. It is unclear however, whether cracks will form, as compression kinks do, in many parts of a specimen or initiate simply at one or a few locations and propagate. Clearly tensile fatigue tests are necessary to investigate the possible mechanisms.

Where stress reversals occur, the combined tension and compression stresses create a situation where both tension and compression fatigue mechanisms operate together. Since the compressive strength of wood is only about a third of tensile strength, damage associated with compression must dominate unless the compressive stress is very low in proportion to the tensile stress. Imayama and Matsumoto (1970) has observed microcracks in fully reversed fatigue tests of specimens starting at 60% of fatigue life. These could conceivably be formed from the opening of compression kinks in the cell walls. Compression creases are also known to greatly reduce tensile strengths hence fatigue with stress reversals will be the most damaging and a definite reduction in residual strength must occur through all stages of the fatigue life. This is in contrast to unreversed fatigue mechanisms where they do not necessarily affect residual strength except towards the final tertiary stage.

### **11.2 Flexural Fatigue Failure**

The unique condition of tensile and compressive stresses on a flexural test specimen combined with timber having a compressive strength of about a third of its tensile strength, results in a particular type of fatigue failure mechanism. Firstly,

compression failures will not, unlike an axial compression test, result in catastrophic compression failure. Failure will be tensile in nature. With unreversed flexural fatigue, the neutral axis shifts towards the tensile face, similar to static flexural tests, but the shift is greater and progressive. With reversed bending, the compression failures have a weakening effect on the strength in tension and lead to failure. The following is a detailed description of the progress of flexural fatigue as seen from the results on fatigue deflections and changes in dynamic modulus.

### **Unreversed Flexural Fatigue**

A knee or transition is found in the results for fatigue deflections and dynamic modulus at around 65% to 75% of flexural strength (see figures (9.6), (9.7), (9.13) and (9.14)). This transition point must relate to the point where the neutral axis begins to shift significantly from the centroid of the specimen towards the tensile face. Although compression strengths are only approximately 50% of the flexural strengths, the transition at 65% to 75% is reasonable since the stress distribution through the section of a flexural specimen is not uniform. The stresses decrease linearly from the outer faces to the neutral axis. The results also suggest a small shift in the transition towards a lower load level with increased fatigue cycles. This is consistent and would be as expected since the fatigue cycles will increase the compression damage. Also, any small movement in the neutral axis will increase both the stress level at the compression side and the cross sectional area in compression. The stress level on the specimen is therefore effectively moved up to a higher level beyond the transition. The movement in transition is also small for every decade increase in fatigue cycles. This therefore implies that the fatigue strength will not be linearly related to the logarithm of cycles as the linear regression on the S-N curves suggest. It may be suggested that the fatigue life is asymptotic towards infinite life at below 50% of the flexural strength.

With the presence of the transition or knee, it is convenient to consider the development of fatigue for stresses below the transition or at low stresses and for stresses above the transition or high stresses. In the primary stage where the fatigue deflections are increasing rapidly for low stresses, only the weakest links in the cellular



structure fail on the compression side of the specimen. At high stresses, similar compression kinks will also form. The difference between damage accumulation at the low and high stress levels will not just be in its extent, but also in its progressive nature. At high stresses, the stress redistribution which follows when one cell wall fails will immediately affect its neighboring cells causing more failures in a domino effect. This will progress from a few scattered compression kinks to kink bands and finally a macroscopic crease. Since the formation of compression kinks is an energy absorbing event with an energy barrier involved, it is a rate governed process which will be cycle dependent rather than time dependent with each cycle showing a small input of energy into the system.

The increase in modulus seen at low stresses was unexpected but may be due to three possible mechanisms. The first and most straight forward is as suggested earlier, due to chain slippage with resulting change in the microfibrillar angle of the cell wall layers. This can happen in compression or in tension although on the tension side this will cause increase stiffness. A second possibility may be due to the compression kinks formed and the fact that at low stresses these kinks are isolated throughout the structure. Neighboring cell will be more highly stressed. This situation will develop as the stress is increasing, but as the stress level decrease, the kink does not necessarily "unkink". To do so requires energy. Therefore, the structure does not return to its original state but the kink will be in tension exerting a residual compression stress on the neighbors. In energy terms, the "unkinking" process will require more energy than the relaxation process of undamaged cells. This must imply that the minimum strain peak will show an increased residual and consequently, the strain range of subsequent fatigue cycles would decrease resulting in an increased modulus. If the kinks formed are adjacent to one another, as in a kink band, such an effect cannot occur and the modulus of the kinks, which is much lower than the unkinked cells, will dominate.

The third possibility would be one peculiar to the flexural fatigue test. It has been thus far assumed that the neutral axis is static either at the centroid of the specimen or once moved is located at the new position. This is in fact unlikely to be the case. It is

more likely for the neutral axis to move towards the tension face as the stress increases, but when the stress is decreased, it will move back towards the centroidal axis but not totally. If the structure recovers more slowly in compression than in tension (which is likely to be the case), there would be a hindrance to the return of the neutral axis to its original position. As a consequence, the movement of the neutral axis would gradually be reduced. This would create residual stresses within the specimen and prevent the specimen from returning to its original minimum strain peak. The change in the minimum strain peak would therefore be greater than the maximum giving an apparent increase in modulus.

During the secondary stage, the events of the primary stage may stabilize and develop progressively but at low stresses, it is likely that modulus increases will show a limit and subsequently decrease when the conditions necessary for the higher modulus begin to break down. It is possible that no decrease will occur hence implying an infinite fatigue life. This must be accompanied also by no further change in fatigue strains. At a high stress, the secondary stage is characterized by a linear decrease in modulus and a linear increase in fatigue strain. The gradual shift in the neutral axis will result in the first signs of failure when, due to weaknesses and stress concentrations on the tension face, cracks begin to initiate. There is a natural Mode 1 or crack opening condition created when the specimen bends. The crack will therefore grow along the length of the specimen in the direction of the grain. This would be crack growth on the LT and LR planes which is a low fracture toughness plane.

The weakening that comes from crack formation and growth must inevitably lead to the tertiary stage where the gradual breakup of the specimen results in a greatly reduced modulus and large fatigue strains. Only with the cracks formed on the tension face would there be seen any reduction in residual strength. As a consequence, it is not surprising that the results of Kommers (1943) and Dobraszcyk (1983) show no decrease in residual strengths. The tertiary stage is usually very short in comparison with the life of the specimen and it would be very unlikely to stop a test for residual

strength evaluation within this stage to measure a fall in strength.

### **Reversed Flexural Fatigue**

At an R-ratio of -1, the neutral axis is unlikely to move and become the dominant factor in fatigue damage. But clearly, the low compression strength of wood has a strong effect. Unlike unreversed bending fatigue, the complete opening of compression kinks would occur equally on both sides of the specimen and unless there is an imbalance of properties, both sides will suffer equal damage and the neutral axis will remain static. Kink bands formed during the compression part of the fatigue cycles will become the lines of weakness where tensile cracks can form. This would be the likely source of the microcracks observed by Imayama and Matsumoto (1970).

This damage process implies that no increase in modulus will occur but rather a consistent decrease, as was found in the tests. It might also be anticipated that a transition or knee in the reduction of modulus with load level characteristic might be present at or below 50% of flexural strength corresponding to the compression strength of wood. This transition however was not found and the reduction in modulus appeared to linearly decrease with load for different cycle levels as seen in figure (9.18). This suggests that the compression kinks had formed in the specimen even at very low load levels and that the extension of the kinks when stresses are reversed made their development progressive. This would reinforce the view suggested by Dinwoodie (1968) (see section 2.4.2) that compression kinks form from very low stresses, even as low as 25% of compression strength or 12% of flexural strength.

### **11.3 Implications of Results to WEC Blades Design**

The work had a weakness in its applicability to WEC blade design in that the tests were conducted in flexure whereas the design of WEC blades requires axial fatigue data and in particular, compression fatigue data. This however does not mean that the research has had little benefit. The results in fact have seen use in some of the earlier blade designs before axial results became available. The first contribution of the results was to provide a body of data on the R-ratio effect.

As discussed in section 5.1, the many sources of fatigue loadings on the blade create a wide range of loading conditions. Without an appropriate model for the summation of fatigue cycles, two design approaches were possible. The first is to select an extreme load condition (such as loads due to a one in fifty year high velocity wind gust) and to design so that the blade does not fail in such an event. Such a design is a static design and must be part of the total design procedure. The second approach is to use a modified form of the Goodman Diagram to  $10^7$  cycles shown in figure (8.27). The modified diagram is based on a parallel Goodman line to that obtained but factoring the data according to the ratio between the compression strength to the flexural strength. This new line is shown in figure (11.1). This line is therefore taken to be the 50% failure probability level upon which a further safety factor needs to be applied. The design stress level can therefore be obtained from the diagram to apply for blade design to withstand the dominant operating fatigue loads.

The two design approaches, especially when applied together, provide a basis for design of WEC blades. However, the work has also revealed the strengths and

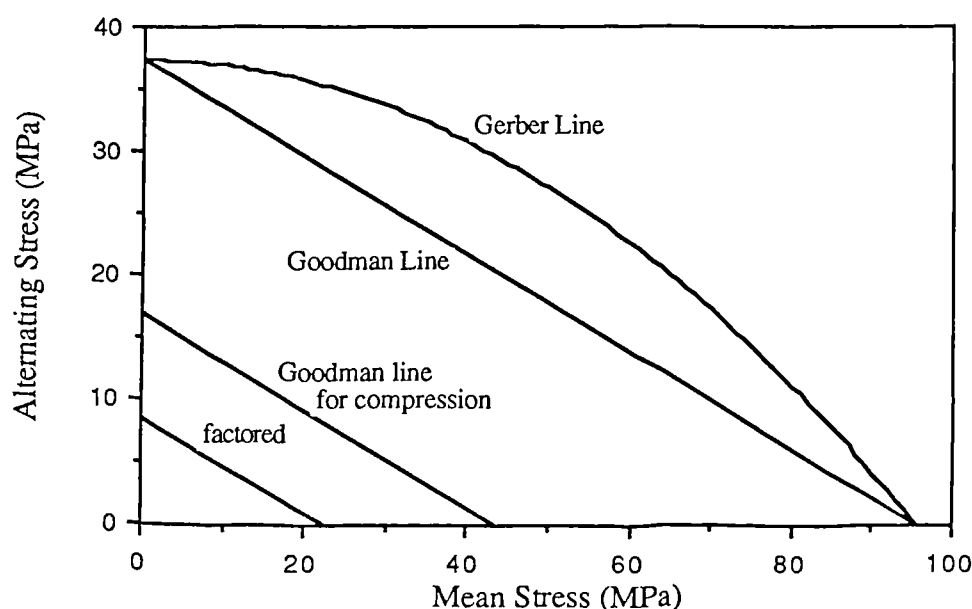


Figure (11.1) Constant life diagram for sliced Khaya showing the modified Goodman lines for fatigue design. The factored line has an arbitrary safety factor applied.

weaknesses in these two approaches. There are many advantages in these approaches. Firstly, both approaches are conservative in assessing the damaging effect of fatigue and have large safety factors. Also, whereas previous fatigue data is largely from reversed or unreversed fatigue tests at constant deflection, the data from the tests provides a spectrum of fatigue life data over a complete range of R-ratios at constant load. Another advantage is that the tests are based on laminated *Khaya ivorensis*, which is the species used in the blades. Fatigue tests on sliced and rotary cut veneers have also shown that the rotary cut material has a greater fatigue strength. Stiffness is also a very important consideration in design. Reductions in stiffness would endanger the blade integrity and the results confirm that at the relatively low fatigue load levels of the blade stiffness changes need not be of significant concern.

The results have however shown some great limitations in the design approaches for wood in fatigue. The discussions above have emphasized the weakness of wood in compression. The situation is especially severe when load reversals occur. While the range of R-ratios provided by the modified Goodman line gives design guidelines for stress reversals, they do not quantify the damage from sequence effects. The results in section 8.5 suggest that sequence effects are likely. Indeed, a simplistic consideration of Kommers' (1943) results shown in figure (4.2) also imply that sequence are present. The figure suggest that 5000 cycles at, for example, 80% of the static strength would, when the stress is reversed, result in a residual strength of only 30% of the static strength. It should be noted that 5000 cycles at 80% represent only about one tenth of the anticipated fatigue life and reversed bending fatigue at 30% should have a fatigue life of  $>10^6$  cycles. The most dangerous sequences are therefore likely to be compression fatigue followed by tension or reversed fatigue stresses. Investigating sequence effects is probably the next area for further research. Another important gap in the understanding of wood fatigue is the interaction between fluctuations in moisture content with fatigue damage accumulation. The effect of moisture has been assessed and shown to greatly affect the fatigue strength of wood. WEC blades being operated in the outdoor environment will see not just high humidities

but also seasonal fluctuating humidities. Although the wood is sealed in resin impregnated glass fabric, this will only reduce the rate and extremes of the fluctuating moisture content of the wood. No consideration of this is being made in the design.

# CHAPTER 12

## CONCLUSIONS

The problems in utilizing wood as a material for Wind Energy Converter blades have been considered in this study. The conclusions from this research may be listed as follows:

- (a) A range of flexural fatigue tests under load control have been carried out on Sitka spruce, laminated sliced and rotary cut *Khaya ivorensis*, and unidirectional and 0/90 compressed Beech laminates.
- (b) Fatigue life is largely species independent when normalized by its static strength. This is similar to the normalising effect density has on static strengths. Only where the wood structure is significantly changed as for the compressed beech laminates are fatigue lives affected.
- (c) Moisture has a detrimental effect on fatigue life. Its effect is not only in reducing the static strength but also accelerates the fatigue damage process.
- (d) The R-ratio tests show that the lower the R-ratio, the lower the fatigue life. In the Constant Life Diagram for sliced *Khaya* laminates constituted from S-N curves at each R ratio, the Gerber or parabolic function best relates the mean to alternating stress. It shows the especially damaging effect of stress reversals.
- (e) Block loading tests have been carried out which suggests that the sequence of the load blocks can affect fatigue life. More work however is necessary to confirm this and to consider other combinations of R-ratios and load levels for sequence effects.
- (f) SArGen, a computer control and data acquisition system has been developed for use in fatigue tests.
- (g) The system can automatically correct for fluctuations in load levels and be programmed for block fatigue tests. Using the system, modulus and fatigue strains have been monitored during the test.
- (h) With unreversed fatigue tests the changes in the minimum and maximum deflection peaks show three identifiable stages similar to creep tests. A transition has been found at around 65% of static flexural strength. Above the transition, fatigue deflections increase rapidly with cycle but below it, fatigue deflections remain relatively small. The



rapid increase above the transition is believed to be associated with the movement of the neutral axis.

(i) With stress reversals, the minimum and maximum deflection peaks changes in opposite directions. This is due to the opening and closing of compression failures and the results clearly indicate the destructive nature of this mode of fatigue.

(j) The modulus changes in parallel with the deflections but at low stresses and without stress reversals, the modulus was found to initially increase with a transition at about 70% of the static strength above which a rapid decrease in modulus occurred. Three possible mechanisms have been proposed to explain this behavior. With stress reversals, the modulus decreased even at stresses as low 20% of the static strength.

(k) A study of fatigue fracture surfaces have been carried out on the electron microscope. Optical microscopy has also been used to study the development of compression creases with cycles. Sitka specimens fatigued at 70% of the static strength showed compression kinks developing after as few as 500 cycles, developing into macroscopic creases after 100,000 cycles.

(l) Possible fatigue mechanisms have been discussed and proposed. A complete description of flexural fatigue damage mechanisms has been proposed from the experimental evidence obtained.

(m) It is proposed that a probability based approach to fatigue design should be the direction for the future in developing a reliable WEC blade. This approach has been reviewed and it is concluded that much remains unknown especially in fatigue life prediction. A factored approach remains the only currently feasible design method but many limitations and uncertainties exists relating to sequence effects.

## REFERENCES

Armstrong, L.D. and Christensen, G.N. (1961). Influence of Moisture Change on deformation of Wood under Stress. *Nature*, **191**, pp 869-870.

American Institute of Timber Construction (1974). Timber Construction Manual. 2nd. Edition, John Wiley & Sons.

Ang, A.H.S. and Cornell, C.A. (1974). Reliability Basis of Structural Safety and Design. *Proc. of ASCE, Journ. of Struct. Div.*, Vol 100, No. ST9, pp 1755-1769.

Ansell, M P and Tsai, K T. (1984). Fatigue Testing of Wood Comp. for Aerogenerator Rotor Blades. *Proc. of the 6th BWEA Wind Energy Conf.*, (Musgrove, P, ed), pp. 239-255. Cambridge University Press.

American Society for Testing and Materials. *Standard Methods of Salt Spray (Fog) Testing*. ASTM Designation B117-73.

American Society for Testing and Materials. *Standard Methods of Testing Small Clear Specimens of Timber*. ASTM Designation D143-52 (72).

American Society for Testing and Materials. *Standard Methods of Static Test of Timber in Structural Sizes*. ASTM Designation D198-76.

Aplin, E N and Keenan, I J (1977). Limit-States Design in Wood : A Canadian Perspective. *For. Prod. Journ.* **27**(7), pp 14-18.

Atack, D, May, W D , Morris, E L and Sproule, R N (1961). The Energy of Tensile and Cleavage Fracture of Black Spruce. *Tappi*, **44**, pp 555-567.

- Bach, L. (1973). Reiner-Weisenberg's Theory Applied to Time Dependent Fracture of Wood Subjected to Various Modes of Mechanical Loading. *Wood Science*, 5:3 pp 161-171.
- Barker, D and Smith, P (1983). A micro-processor controller for a servo-hydraulic Fatigue Machine. *Proc. of SEECO 83: Digital techniques in fatigue*, pp 277-290.
- Barrett, J D and Foshi, R O (1978). On the Application of Brittle Fracture Theory, Fracture Mechanics, and creep rupture Models for the prediction of the Reliability of Wood Structural Elements. *Nat. Science Foundation Workshop. On. Conductive Rel. for Wood and Wood-based Mat.*, Minnowbrook N.Y.
- British Standards Institute. *Methods of Testing Small Clear Specimens of Timber*. BS 373:1957.
- Boatright, J.W.S. (1977). Studies on the Fracture and Fatigue of Wood. M.Sc. thesis, University of Cape Town, Pretoria, South Africa.
- Bodig, J. and Jayne, B.A. (1982). *Mechanics of Wood and Wood Composites*. New York, USA: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company Inc.
- Chow, S (1973). Molecular Rheology of Coniferous Wood Tissues. *Trans. Soc. Rheology* 17:1 pp 109-128.
- Craig, T M.(1978). The use of digital computer in a fatigue testing facility. *Proc. of SEECO '78, Applications of Computers in Fatigue.*, pp 4.1-4.17.
- Dietz, A.G.H. and Grinsfelder, H (1943). Behaviour of Plywood Under Repeated Stresses. *Trans. ASME*, April 1943, pp 187-191.

Dinwoodie, J.M. (1966). Induction of Cell Wall Dislocations (slip Planes) during the Preparation of Microscope Sections of Wood. *Nature*, Vol.212, pp 525-527.

Dinwoodie, J M. (1968). Failure in Timber Part 1: Microscopic Changes in Cell-Wall Structure Associated with Compression Failure. *Journal of the Inst. of Wood Science*, No. 21, pp 37-53.

Dinwoodie, J.M. (1974). Failure in Timber Part 2: The Angle of Shear through Cell Wall during Longitudinal Compression Stressing. *Wood Science & Tech.*, Vol. 8, pp 56-67.

Dinwoodie, J M. (1978). Failure in Timber Part 3: The Effect of Longitudinal Compression on Some Mechanical Properties. *Wood Science & Tech.*, Vol 12, pp 271-285.

Dinwoodie, J.M. (1981). *Timber, its Nature and Behavior*. New York, USA: Van Nostrand Reinhold Company Inc.

Dobroszczyk, B.(1983). An Investigation into the Fracture and Fatigue Behaviour of Wood. Phd thesis, University of Bath, U.K.

Fleck, N.A. and Hooley, T. (1983). Development of Low Cost Computer Control. *Proc of SEECO '83, Digital Techniques in Fatigue.*, pp 309-316.

Foshi, R.O. and Barrett, J.D. (1982). Load Duration Effects in Western Hemlock Lumber. *Proc. of the ASCE, Journ. of Struct. Div.*, 108:ST7, pp 1494-1510.

Freas, A. and Warren, F. (1959). Effect of Repeated Loading and Salt-water Immersion of Flexural Properties of Laminated White Oak. *For. Prod. Journ.*, 9:2, pp 100-103.

- Fuller, F.B. and Oberg, T.T. (1943). Fatigue Characteristics of Natural and Resin-Impregnated, Compressed, Laminated Woods. *J. Aeronautical Sciences*, March 1943, pp 81-85.
- Gerhards, C.C. (1979). Time related Effects of Loading in Wood Strength: A linear Cumulative Damage Theory. *Wood Science*, **11**:3, pp 139-144.
- Gerharz, J.J. (1982). Prediction of Fatigue failure. *AGARD lecture Series No. 124. Prac. Consideration of Design, Fabrication & Tests for Composite Materials.*, pp. 8.1-8.22.
- Gillwald, W. (1961). On the Determination of the Deformation of Wood under Oscillating Load. *Holz Als Roh Und Werkstoff*, **19**:3, pp. 86-92.
- Griffiths, J.R.(1983). Fatsys. A computer controlled system for fatigue crack growth data collection using an Ausler Vibrophone. *Int. J. Fatigue*, **5**:4, pp.193-197.
- Grossman P.U.A., Armstrong L.D. and Kingston R.S.T. (1969). An assesment of Research in Wood Rheology. *Wood Science & Tech.*, **3**, pp. 324-328.
- Grossman, P.U.A. (1976) Requirements for Model that exhibits Mechano-Sorptive Behaviour. *Wood Science & Tech.*, **10**, pp. 163-168.
- Goodman, J.R. (1981). Code Comparison of Factor Design for Wood. *Proc. of the ASCE, Journal of the Structural Div.*, **107**: 518 pp. 1511-1527
- Hearman, R.F.S. (1948). Elasticity of Wood and Plywood. *Special Report on Forest Products Research, London*, No 7, pp 87.

- Hearman, R.F.S. and Paton, J.M. (1975). Moisture Content Changes and Creep of Wood. *For. Prod. Jour.*, 14(8) pp. 357-359.
- Hoyle R.J., Griffith M.C. and Itani R.Y. (1985). Primary Creep in Douglas-fir Beams of Commercial Size and Quality. *Wood and Fiber Science*, 17:3, pp 300-314.
- Ibuki Y., Sasaki H., Kawamoto M. and Maku T. (1962). On the Endurance of Glued-Laminated Wood, (The plane bending fatigue strength of glued-laminated wood). *J. Jap. Soc. Test. Mater.*, 11:101, pp.103-109.
- Ibuki Y., Sasaki H., Kawamoto M. and Maku T. (1963). The Plane Bending Fatigue Strength of Glued Laminated Wood. *Mokuza Kenkyu*, No. 31 pp.11-22.
- Imayama, N. and Matsumoto, T. (1970). Studies on the Fatigue of Wood I. *J. Jap Wood Res. Soc.*, 16:7, pp. 319-325.
- Imayama, N. and Matsumoto, T. (1974). Studies of the Fatigue of Wood II. *J. Jap Wood Res. Soc.*, 20:2, pp. 53-62.
- Jablonski, D.A. and Lee, B.H. (1983) Automated Fatigue Crack growth Rate Testing using a Computerised Test System. *Proc of SEECO '83, Original Techniques in Fatigue.*, pp. 291-308.
- Jamieson, P. and McLeish, D. (1983). The HWP 300 Wind Turbine. *IEE Proc.*, Vol. 130 Pt.A. No.9 pp. 550-554.
- Jenkins, G. (1962). Coupon Fatigue Tests on Plywood. *Bristol Aircraft Ltd., Struct.and Mats. Lab. Rep. No. 171-76B - 3040.*

Keith, C.T. and Cote, W.A. (1968). Microscopic Characterisation of Slip Lines and Compression Failures in Wood Cell Walls. *For Prod. Journ.*, **18**: 3. pp. 67-74.

Keith, C.T. (1971). The Anatomy of Compression Failure in Relation to Creep-Inducing Stresses. *Wood Science*, **4**:2, pp. 71-82.

Keith, C.T. (1972). The Mechanical Behaviour of Wood in Longitudinal Compression. *Wood Science*, **4**:4, pp. 234-244,

Keith, C.T. (1974). Longitudinal Compressive Creep and Failure Development in White Spruce Compression Wood. *Wood Science*, **7**:1, pp. 1-12.

Kellogg, R.M. (1958). Strain Behaviour of Wood Subjected to Repetitive Stressing in Tension Parallel to the Grain. *For. Prod. Journ.*, **8**:10, pp. 301-307.

Kellogg, R.M. (1960). Effect of Repeated Loading on Tensile Properties of Wood. *For. Prod. Journ.*, **10**:11, pp. 586-594.

Kollman, F. and Schmidt, E. (1962). Structural Derangement and Loss in Strength of Permanently Stressed Coniferous Wood. *Holz als Roh Und Werkstoff*, **20**:9, pp 333-338.

Kommers, W.J. (1943). Effect of 1000 Cycles of Repeated Bending Stress on 5-ply Sitka Spruce Plywood. *U.S. Forest Prod. Lab. Rep.No. 1305*.

Kommers, W.J. (1943). Effect of Ten Repetitions of Stress on the Bending and Compressive Strengths of Sitka Spruce and Douglas Fir. *U.S. Forest Prod. Lab. Rep.No. 1320*.



Kommers, W.J. (1943). The Fatigue Behaviour of Wood and Plywood subjected to Repeated and Reversed Bending Stresses. *U.S. Forest Prod. Lab. Rep.No. 1327*.

Lancioffi, A. (1983). A Method for Improving the Performance of Fatigue Machines in Variable Amplitude Loading Tests. *Int. J. Fatigue*, 5:4.

Lark, R.F. (1983). Construction of Low-cost, MOD-0A Wood Composite Wind Turbine Blades. *Proc. 28th Nat. Soc. for the Advancement of Mat. and Process Eng.* pp 1277-1291.

Lavers, G.M. (1969). The Strength Properties of Timber. *Bulletin 50, Forest Products Res. Lab. (2nd Edn.)*, HMSO.

Lewis, W.C. (1946). Fatigue of Wood and Glued-Wood Constructions. *Proc. ASTM* 46, pp. 814-835.

Lewis, W.C., (1951). Fatigue of Wood and Glued Joints used in Laminated Constructions. *Proc. U.S. Forest Prod. Res. Soc.*, 5, pp. 221-229.

Lewis, W.C. (1960). Design Considerations for Fatigue in Timber Structures. *J. of the Struct. Div. Proc. of ASCE.*, pp. 15-23.

Lewis, W.C. (1962). Fatigue Resistance of Quarter-Scale Bridge Stringers in Flexure and Shear. *U.S. For. Prod. Lab. Rep.No. 2236*.

Liska, J.A. (1950). Effect of Rapid Loading on the Compressive and Flexural Strength of Wood. *For. Prod. Lab. Rep. No. R 1767*.

- Madsen, B. (1978). Time-Strength Relationships for Lumber. *Proc. Ist. Int. Conf. on Wood Fracture*, Canada. pp 111-128.
- Maku, T. and Sasaki, H. (1963). The Rotating Bending Fatigue Strength of Glued Laminated Wood. *Mokuzai Kenkyu*, No. 31 pp 1-10.
- Maku, T. and Sasaki, H. (1963). The Plane Bending Fatigue Test of Glued Laminated Wood Cantilever. *Mokuza Kenkyu*, No. 31 pp. 23-40.
- Malhotra, S.K. and Bazan, I.M.M. (1980). Ultimate Bending Strength Theory for Timber Beams. *Wood Science*, 13:1. pp.50-63.
- Mark, R.E. (1967). *Cell Wall Mechanics of Trachieds*. Yale Univ. Press, New Haven.
- McLain, T.E. and Woeste, F.E. (1986). Rate of loading adjustment for proof testing of lumber in tension. *For. Prod. Journ.*, 36:9, pp 51-54.
- McNatts, J.D. (1978). Linear Requesions of Fatigue Data. *Wood Science*, 11:1, pp.39-41.
- Meyer, K.H. (1950). *Natural and Synthetic High Polymers*. High Polymer Series Vol. IV., Interscience, New York.
- Mindness S., Madsen B. and Barrett J.D. (1978). Rate of Loading and Duration of Load Tests on Douglas-fir in Tension Perpendicular to the Grain. *Proc. Ist. Int. Conf. on Wood Fracture*, Canada. pp 143-159.

Nadeau, J.S., Bennet, R. and Fuller, E.R. (1982). An Explanation for the Rate of Loading and Duration of Load Effects in Wood in Terms and Fracture Mechanics. *J. Mat. Sci.*, **17**, pp. 2831-2840.

Nakai, T., and Grossman, P.U.A. (1983). Deflection of Wood Under Intermittent Loading, Part 1: Fortnightly Cycles. *Wood Science & Tech.*, **17**:1, pp 55-67.

Noak, D. and Stockmann, V. (1969). Studies on the Dynamic Fatigue Behaviour of Wood under Alternating Tension Load - Part II : Dynamic Fatigue Behaviour of Beechwood under Constant Conditions of Temperature and Moisture Content. *Holz. als Roh und Wenstoff*, **27**:12, pp. 464-472.

Nowack H., Hamchamann D, Baumhoff N. and Jocoby G. (1979). Developments in Hardware and software for Computer Controlled Servohydraulic Fatigue Testing Systems. *Int. J. Fatigue*, **1**:2, pp.93-102.

Nowack, H. (1981). Fatigue Test Machines. *AGARD Lecture Series No.118, Fatigue Test Methodology.*, pp 3.1-3.23.

Osgood, C.C. (1982). *Fatigue Design*. Pergamon Press, 2nd Edn.

Ota, M. and Tsubota, Y. (1966). Studies on the Fatigue of 2-Ply Laminated Wood I. *Journ. Japan Wood Res. Soc.*, **12**:1, pp. 26-29.

Ota, M. and Tsubota, Y. (1966). Studies on the Fatigue of 2-Ply Laminated Wood II. *Journ. Japan. Wood Res. Soc.*, **12**:2, pp. 90-95.

Ota, M. and Tsubota, Y. (1966). Studies on the Fatigue of 2-Ply Laminated Wood III. *Journ. Japan. Wood Res. Soc.*, **12**:5, pp. 210-214.

Ota, M. and Tsubota, Y. (1967). Studies on the Fatigue of 2-Ply Laminated Wood IV. *Journ. Japan Wood Res. Soc.*, 13:4, pp. 131-137.

Panshin, A.J. and Zecuw, C D. (1970). *Textbook of Wood Technology VI. Structure, Identification, User and Properties of Commercial Woods of the United States and Canada*. McGraw-Hill Book Co. 3rd Ed.

Pearson, R.G. (1972). The effect of duration of load on the bending strength of wood. *Holzforschung*, 26:4, pp 153-158.

Pretlove, A.J. and Worthington, P.J. (1983). A review of Aero-generator Fatigue Problems. *Int. J. Fatigue*, 5:1, pp. 15-22

Rose, G. (1971). The Mechanical Behaviour of Pinewood Under Dynamic Fatigue : Stress Depending on Kind and Amount of Load, Moisture Content and Temperature. *Canada Forest Prod. Lab. Trans. No. 198*. From: *Holz als Roh und Werkstoff*, 23, pp. 271-284

Sato K., Noguchi M. and Fushitani M. (1983). The Characteristics of Acoustic Emissions of Wood Generated during Several Types of Loading. *Journ. of the Japan Wood Res.*, 29:6, pp 409-414.

Schijve, J. (1972). The Accumulation of Fatigue Damage in Aircraft Materials and Structures. *AGARD AG157*.

Schniewind, A.P. (1968). Recent Progress in the Study of the Rheology of Wood. *Wood Science & Tech.*, 2, pp 188-206.

Sekhar, A.C., Sukla, N.K. and Gupta, V.K.(1963). A Note on Fatigue Properties of Timber : Effect of Torsional Stress and Moisture Content. *J. Natn. Bldgs. Org.*, 8:4, pp. 36-40.

Sekhar, A.C., Sukla, N.K. and Gupta, V.K. (1964). Effect of Torsional Stress and Moisture Content on the Fatigue Prop. of Timber. *Holz. Als. Roh. und Werkstoff*, 22:7, pp. 264-266.

Sekhar, A.C. and Sukla, N.K. (1979). Some Studies on the Influence of Specific Gravity on Fatigue Strength of Indian Timbers. *Journ. of the Indian Academy of Wood Sci.*, 10:1, pp. 1-5.

Schutz, D. (1981). Variable Amplitude Fatigue Testing. *AGARD Lecture Series, No. 118, Fatigue Testing Methodology*, pp 4.1-4.31.

Schutz, D. and Gerharz, J.J. (1977). Fatigue Strength of a Fibre-Reinforced Material, *Composites*, Oct. 1977, pp 245-250.

Sieminski, R.(1960). Fatigue Strength of Pinewood (*Pinus Silvestris*). *Holz. Ab Roh und Werkstoff*, 18:10, pp. 369-377. *Trans NTC-68 10252-11L*.

Sims, G.D. and Gladman, D.G. (1978). Effect of test Conditions on the Fatigue Strength of Glass-Fabric Laminate : Part A-Frequency. *Plastics and Rubber : Materials and Application*, pp.41-48.

Smith, M. (1984). Private communication, James Howden Ltd.

Smith, R.F. and Abbot, K.R. (1985). Microcomputer Control System for Mechanical Testing Machines. *J. of Inst. of Mat.: Metals and Materials*. 1:10, pp 615-618.

- Spencer, R. (1978) Rate of Loading Effect in Bending for Douglas Fir Lumber. *Proc. of 1st Int. Conf. on Wood Fracture*, Canada. pp 259-280.
- Sterr, R. (1963). Investigation on the Fatigue Strength of Laminated Wood Beams. *Holz. als Roh und Werkstoff*, **21**:2, pp. 47-61, (Trans. No. 171. Canada. Dept. of For. For Prod. Res. Branch).
- Strickler, M.D. and Pellerin, R.F. (1973). Rate of Loading Effect on Tensile Strength of Wood Parallel to Grain. *For. Prod. Journ.*, **23**:10, pp 34-36.
- Styles, D D. (1978). Microcomputer Control of Fatigue Crack-Growth Experiments. *Proc. of SEECO 78*, pp.16.1-16.13.
- Sugiyama, H. (1967). On the Effect of the Loading Time on the Strength Properties of Wood. *Wood Science & Tech.*, **1**:4, pp 289-303.
- Ugulev, B.N. (1976). General Laws of Wood Deformation and Rheological Properties of Hardwood. *Wood Sci. & Tech.*, **10**, pp 169-181.
- Urrey, S.A. (1953). *Solutions of Problems in Strength of Materials*. Pitman Press, Bath.
- Westlund, R. (1976). A Qualitive Evaluation of Phenomenological Creep Rupture Theories. *Journ. Mech. Eng. Sci.*, **18**:4, pp 175-178.
- Wood, L.W. (1951). Relation of strength of Wood to Duration of Load. *Forest Products Laboratory (Madison) Report No. 1916*.

Wyatt, L.M. Lenel, U.R. and Moore, MA., (1983). Survey of Materials Suitable for use in MW Sized Aerogenerators. *Proc. of 5th BWEA Wind Energy Conf.*, pp. 235-244.

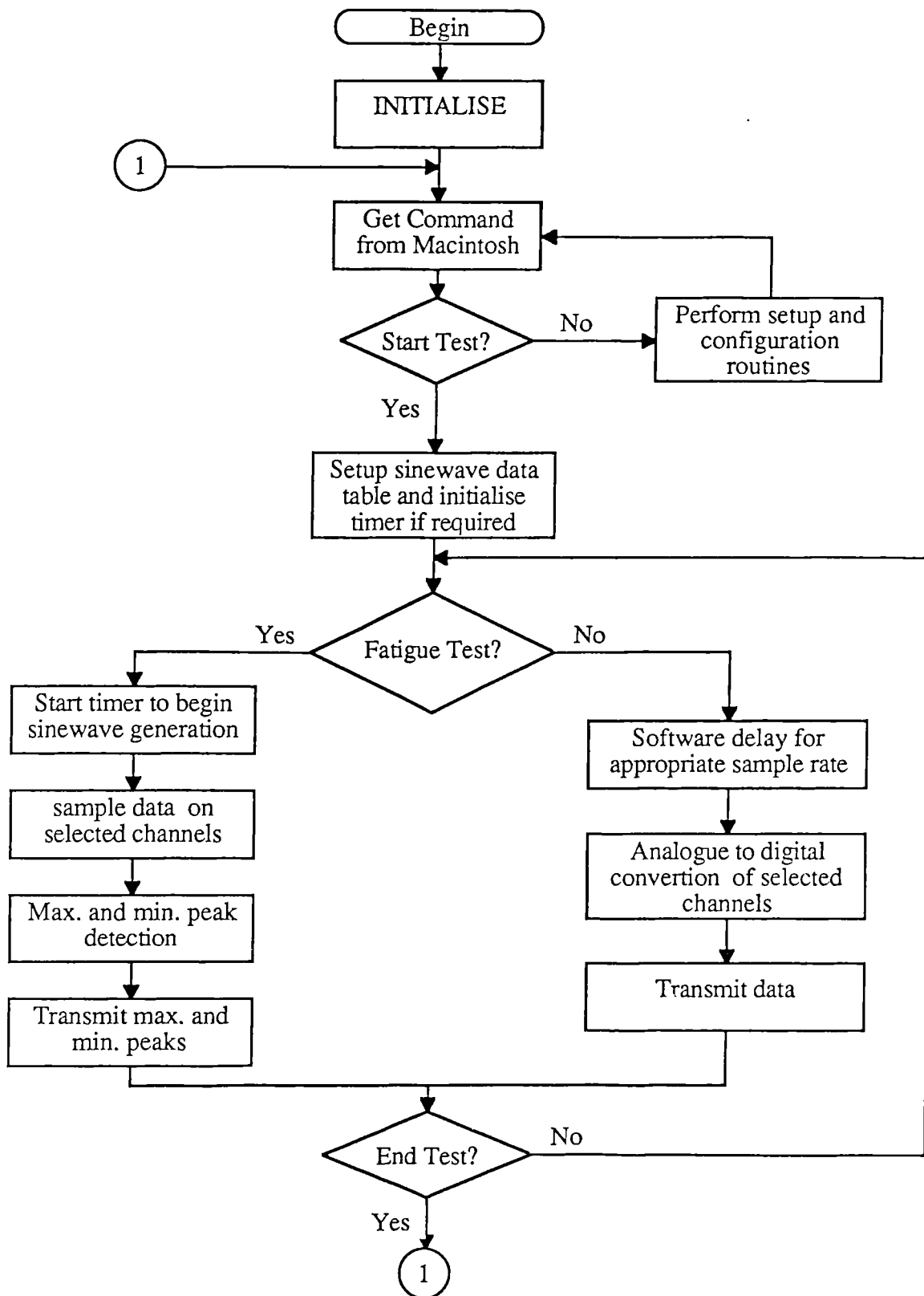
Zahn, J.J. (1977). Reliability-Based Design Procedures for Wood Structures. *For. Prod. Journ.*, 27:3, pp. 21-28.

Zuteck, M.D. (1981). The Development and manufacture of Wood Composite Wind Turbine Rotors. *DOE/NASA Horizontal Axis Wind Turbine Workshop July 27, 1981.*

# APPENDIX A

## FLOW CHART FOR SArGen SOFTWARE

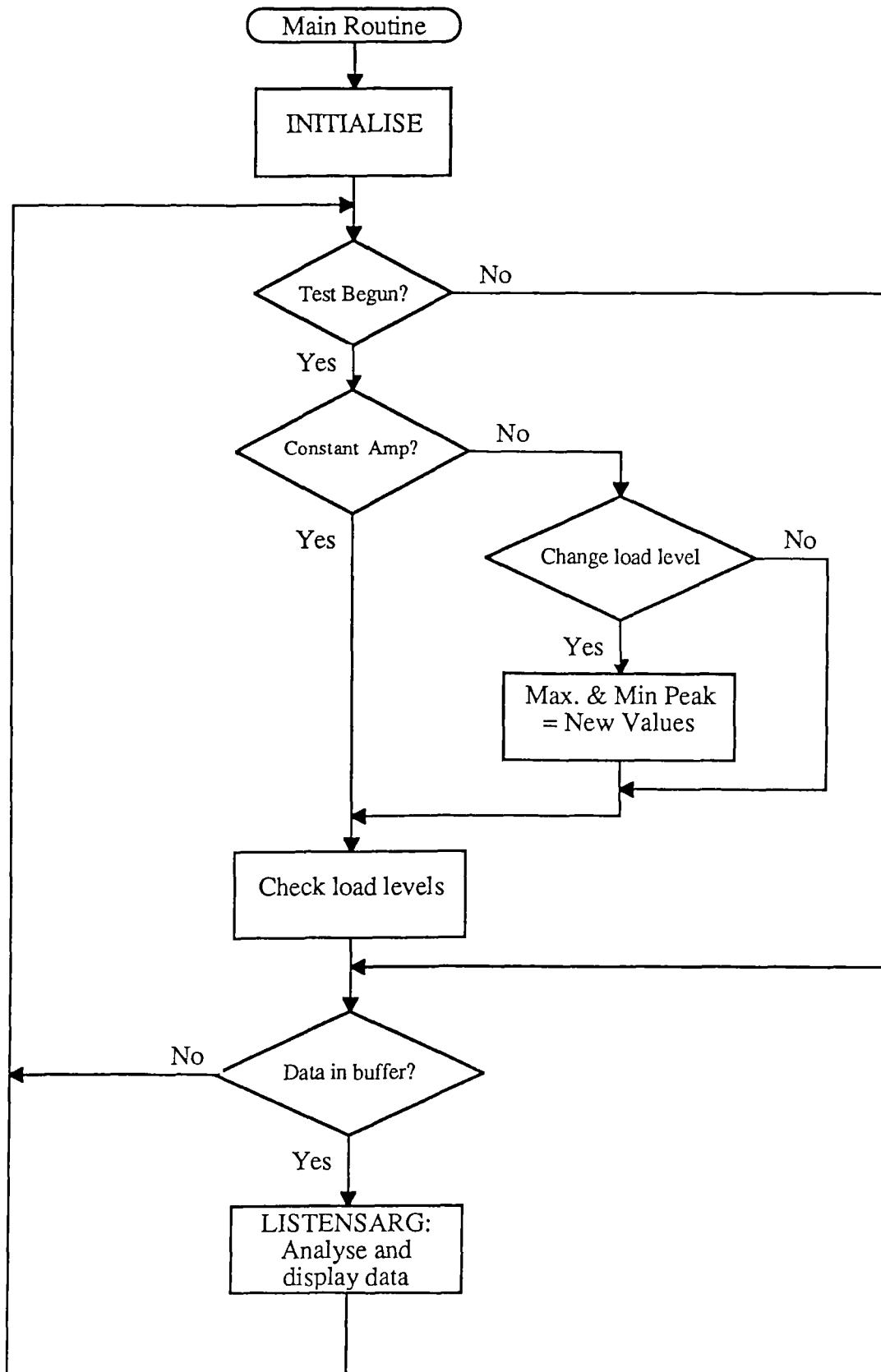


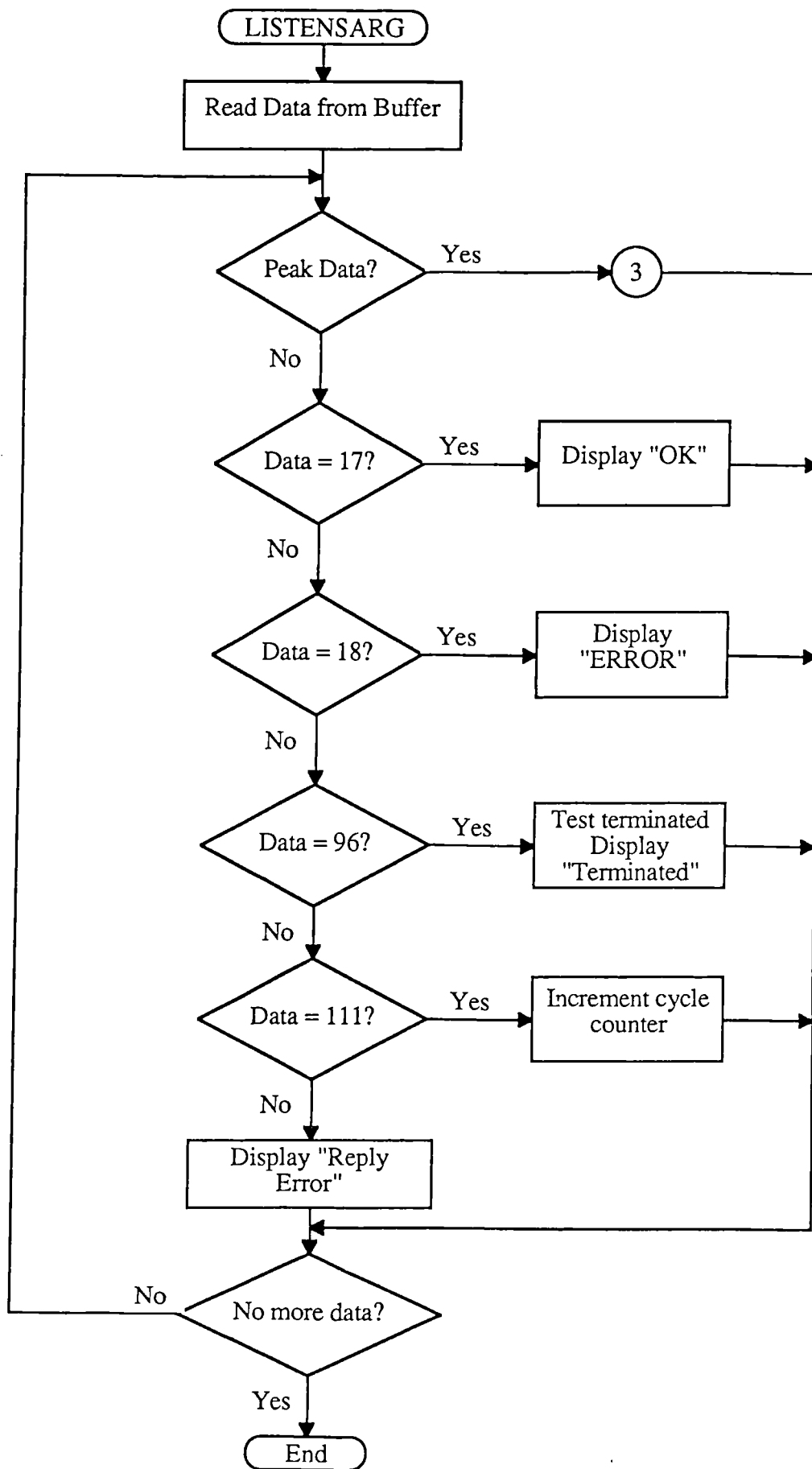


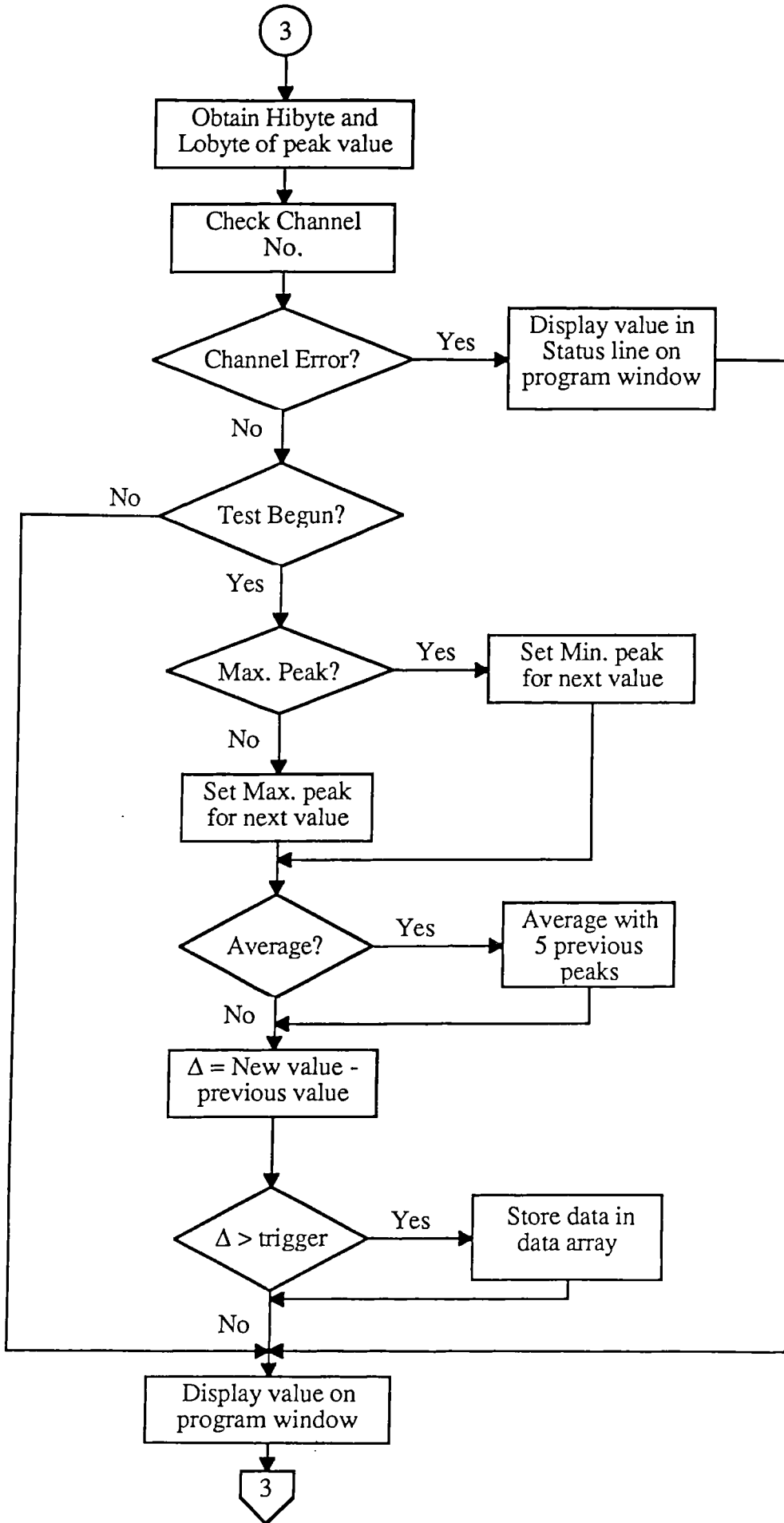
Flow chart showing structure of software in SARGen

## APPENDIX B

# FLOW CHART FOR Macintosh SOFTWARE







# APPENDIX C

## SArGen SOFTWARE

00001	C000	ACIACR	EQU	#C000
00002	C000	ACIASR	EQU	#C000
00003	C001	ACIATR	EQU	#C001
00004	C001	ACIARR	EQU	#C001
00005	C400	ADPIAORA	EQU	#C400
00006	C400	ADPIADDA	EQU	#C400
00007	C401	ADPIACRA	EQU	#C401
00008	C402	ADPIAORB	EQU	#C402
00009	C402	ADPIADDB	EQU	#C402
00010	C403	ADPIACRB	EQU	#C403
00011	C800	PTMCR1	EQU	#C800
00012	C800	PTMCR3	EQU	#C800
00013	C801	PTMCR2	EQU	#C801
00014	C802	PTMMB1	EQU	#C802
00015	C803	PTMTL1	EQU	#C803
00016	C804	PTMMB2	EQU	#C804
00017	C805	PTMTL2	EQU	#C805
00018	C806	PTMMB3	EQU	#C806
00019	C807	PTMTL3	EQU	#C807
00020	C801	PTMSR	EQU	#C801
00021	C802	PTMTC1	EQU	#C802
00022	C803	PTMLB1	EQU	#C803
00023	C804	PTMTC2	EQU	#C804
00024	C805	PTMLB2	EQU	#C805
00025	C806	PTMTC3	EQU	#C806
00026	C807	PTMLB3	EQU	#C807
00027	CC00	DAPIAORA	EQU	#CC00
00028	CC00	DAPIADDA	EQU	#CC00
00029	CC01	DAPIACRA	EQU	#CC01
00030	CC02	DAPIAORB	EQU	#CC02
00031	CC02	DAPIADDB	EQU	#CC02
00032	CC03	DAPIACRB	EQU	#CC03
00033	D000	SGA1	EQU	#D000
00034	D001	SGA2	EQU	#D001
00035	D002	SGA3	EQU	#D002
00036	0000	TOPMEM	EQU	\$0000
00037	0000	ADM0DE	EQU	TOPMEM
00038	0001	DAM0DE	EQU	TOPMEM+1
00039	0002	NUMCYC	EQU	TOPMEM+2
00040	0004	CYCCOUNT	EQU	TOPMEM+4
00041	0008	BUFSIZE	EQU	TOPMEM+8
00042	000A	BUFIN	EQU	TOPMEM+10
00043	000C	BUFOUT	EQU	TOPMEM+12
00044	000E	CHANNEL	EQU	TOPMEM+14
00045	000F	XONOFF	EQU	TOPMEM+15
00046	0010	ADRATE	EQU	TOPMEM+16
00047	0012	MAXPK1	EQU	TOPMEM+18
00048	0014	MINPK1	EQU	TOPMEM+20
00049	0016	MAXPK2	EQU	MINPK1+2
00050	0018	MINPK2	EQU	MAXPK2+2
00051	001A	MAXPK3	EQU	MINPK2+2
00052	001C	MINPK3	EQU	MAXPK3+2
00053	001E	MAXPK4	EQU	MINPK3+2
00054	0020	MINPK4	EQU	MAXPK4+2
00055	0022	CRANGE	EQU	MINPK4+2
00056	0024	CMEAN	EQU	CRANGE+2
00057	0026	DRAWADJ	EQU	CMEAN+2

00058	0027	TRANSCK	EQU	DANAVADJ+1
00059	0028	MAX1MIN	EQU	TRANSCK+1
00060	0029	MAX2MIN	EQU	MAX1MIN+1
00061	002A	MAX3MIN	EQU	MAX2MIN+1
00062	002B	MAX4MIN	EQU	MAX3MIN+1
00063	002C	CMAX	EQU	MAX4MIN+1
00064	002E	CMIN	EQU	CMAX+2
00065	0030	WAVEADR	EQU	CMIN+2
00066	0032	TBLCOUNT	EQU	WAVEADR+2
00067	0034	INCDEC	EQU	TBLCOUNT+2
00068	0035	VAMPSIZE	EQU	INCDEC+1
00069	0037	TRIPPED	EQU	VAMPSIZE+2
00070	0038	NUMCHAN	EQU	TRIPPED+1
00071	0039	PROGLEN	EQU	NUMCHAN+1
00072	BE00	WTBLINC1	EQU	\$BE00
00073	BE04	WTBLINC2	EQU	\$BE04
00074	BD00	WTBLDEC1	EQU	\$BD00
00075	BD00	WTBLDEC2	EQU	\$BD00
00076	BE5A	INCMIDD	EQU	\$BE5A
00077	BD58	DECMIDD	EQU	\$BD58
00078	1000	BUFPTR1	EQU	\$1000
00079	3000	WAVETBL	EQU	\$3000
00080	003B	RATECT	EQU	PROGLEN+2
00081	003D	USERANGE	EQU	RATECT+2
00082	003F	WAVELVL	EQU	USERANGE+2
00083	0041	RESULT	EQU	WAVELVL+2
00084	0043	VARIAB	EQU	RESULT+2
00085	0045	WCOUNTER	EQU	VARIAB+2
00086	0046	PTR1	EQU	WCOUNTER+1
00087	0048	PTR2	EQU	PTR1+2
00088	004A	PTR3	EQU	PTR2+2
00089	004C	TRIGLVL	EQU	PTR3+2
00090	004E	CYCKCK	EQU	TRIGLVL+2
00091	004F	SGAVAL	EQU	CYCKCK+1
00092	0050	SGACUR	EQU	SGAVAL+1
00093	F000		ORG	\$F000
00094	F000 86 03		LDA#	#03
00095	F002 B7 C000		STA#	ACIACR
00096	F005 86 10		LDA#	#200011000
00097	F007 B7 C000		STA#	ACIACR
00098	F00A 86 20		LDA#	#200101000
00099	F00C B7 C401		STA#	ADPIACRA
00100	F00F C6 00		LDAB	#00
00101	F011 F7 C400		STAB	ADPIADDA
00102	F014 8A 04		ORAA	#04
00103	F016 B7 C401		STA#	ADPIACRA
00104	F019 86 30		LDA#	#200110000
00105	F01B B7 C403		STA#	ADPIACRB
00106	F01E C6 F0		LDAB	#%11110000
00107	F020 F7 C402		STAB	ADPIADDE
00108	F023 8A 04		ORAA	#04
00109	F025 B7 C403		STA#	ADPIACRB
00110	F028 B6 C402		LDA#	ADPIAORB
00111	F02B 84 0F		ANDA	#\$0F
00112	F02D B7 C402		STA#	ADPIAORB
00113	F030 86 00		LDA#	#%00000000
00114	F032 B7 CC01		STA#	ADPIACRA



00115	F035	C6	FF		LDAB	##FF
00116	F037	F7	CC00		STAB	DAPIADDA
00117	F03A	8A	04		ORAA	#04
00118	F03C	B7	CC01		STAA	DAPIACRA
00119	F03F	F7	CC00		STAB	DAPIACRA
00120	F042	86	28		LDA	#200101000
00121	F044	B7	CC03		STAA	DAPIACRB
00122	F047	C6	FF		LDAB	##FF
00123	F049	F7	CC02		STAB	DAPIADDB
00124	F04C	8A	04		ORAA	#04
00125	F04E	B7	CC03		STAA	DAPIACRB
00126	F051	C6	F7		LDAB	##F7
00127	F053	F7	CC02		STAB	DAPIAORB
00128	F056	8E	BFFF		LDS	##BFFF
00129	F059	7E	F072		JMP	FATPROG
00130	F05C	B6	C000	RECEIVE	LDA	ACIASR
00131	F05F	84	01		ANDA	#01
00132	F061	27	F9		BEQ	RECEIVE
00133	F063	B6	C001		LDA	ACIARR
00134	F066	39			RTS	
00135	F067	B6	C000	SEND	LDA	ACIASR
00136	F06A	84	02		ANDA	#02
00137	F06C	27	F9		BEQ	SEND
00138	F06E	F7	C001		STAB	ACIATR
00139	F071	39			RTS	
00140	F072	CE	1000	FATPROG	LIX	#BUFPTR1
00141	F075	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00142	F077	DF	0C		STX	BUFOUT
00143	F079	CE	1000		LIX	#1000
00144	F07C	DF	08		STX	BUFSIZE
00145	F07E	CE	3000		LIX	#WAVETBL
00146	F081	DF	30		STX	WAVADR
00147	F083	CE	0000		LIX	##0000
00148	F086	DF	00		STX	ADMDE
00149	F088	DF	02		STX	NUMCYC
00150	F08A	DF	04		STX	CYCCOUNT
00151	F08C	DF	06		STX	CYCCOUNT+2
00152	F08E	DF	0E		STX	CHANNEL
00153	F090	DF	10		STX	ADRATE
00154	F092	DF	14		STX	MINPK1
00155	F094	DF	18		STX	MINPK2
00156	F096	DF	1C		STX	MINPK3
00157	F098	DF	20		STX	MINPK4
00158	F09A	DF	22		STX	CRANGE
00159	F09C	DF	24		STX	CMEAN
00160	F09E	DF	26		STX	DAMAVADJ
00161	F0A0	DF	28		STX	MAX1MIN
00162	F0A2	DF	2A		STX	MAX3MIN
00163	F0A4	DF	37		STX	TRIPPED
00164	F0A6	DF	4E		STX	CYCK
00165	F0A8	CE	FFFF		LIX	##FFFF
00166	F0AB	DF	12		STX	MAXPK1
00167	F0AD	DF	16		STX	MAXPK2
00168	F0AF	DF	1A		STX	MAXPK3
00169	F0B1	DF	1E		STX	MAXPK4
00170	F0B3	86	60		LDA	##60
00171	F0B5	97	4C		STAA	TRIGLVL

00172	F0B7	BD	F05C	CONFLOOP	JSR	RECEIVE
00173	F0BA	81	01		CMPA	##01
00174	F0BC	26	03		BNE	OTHER
00175	F0BE	7E	F382		JMP	PROCST
00176	F0C1	BD	F0C7	OTHER	JSR	WHATOP
00177	F0C4	7E	F0B7		JMP	CONFLOOP
00178	F0C7	81	11	WHATOP	CMPA	##11
00179	F0C9	26	06		BNE	C1
00180	F0CB	BD	F378		JSR	XONRCV
00181	F0CE	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00182	F0D1	81	12	C1	CMPA	##12
00183	F0D3	26	06		BNE	C2
00184	F0D5	BD	F37D		JSR	XOFFRCV
00185	F0D8	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00186	F0DB	81	0A	C2	CMPA	##0A
00187	F0DD	26	06		BNE	C3
00188	F0DF	BD	F1DA		JSR	ADTRANS
00189	F0E2	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00190	F0E5	81	0B	C3	CMPA	##0B
00191	F0E7	26	06		BNE	C4
00192	F0E9	BD	F1E9		JSR	ADPKPK
00193	F0EC	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00194	F0EF	81	13	C4	CMPA	##13
00195	F0F1	26	06		BNE	C5
00196	F0F3	BD	F1CF		JSR	SAVAIL
00197	F0F6	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00198	F0F9	81	0D	C5	CMPA	##0D
00199	F0FB	26	06		BNE	C6
00200	F0FD	BD	F1F3		JSR	DAAMPTEL
00201	F100	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00202	F103	81	0E	C6	CMPA	##0E
00203	F105	26	06		BNE	C7
00204	F107	BD	F211		JSR	DACONST
00205	F10A	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00206	F10D	81	0F	C7	CMPA	##0F
00207	F10F	26	06		BNE	C8
00208	F111	BD	F1D5		JSR	DAOFF
00209	F114	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00210	F117	81	08	C8	CMPA	##08
00211	F119	26	06		BNE	C9
00212	F11B	BD	F244		JSR	DASETUP
00213	F11E	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00214	F121	81	0C	C9	CMPA	##0C
00215	F123	26	06		BNE	C10
00216	F125	BD	F23A		JSR	ADOFF
00217	F128	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00218	F12B	16		C10	TAB	
00219	F12C	C4	F0		ANDB	##F0
00220	F12E	C1	70		CMPE	##70
00221	F130	26	03		BNE	C11
00222	F132	BD	F23F		JSR	CHSELECT
00223	F135	81	21	C11	CMPA	##21
00224	F137	26	06		BNE	C12
00225	F139	BD	E000		JSR	\$E000
00226	F13C	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00227	F13F	81	22	C12	CMPA	##22
00228	F141	26	06		BNE	C13

00229	F143	BD	E002		JSR	\$E002
00230	F146	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00231	F149	81	23	C13	CMPA	##23
00232	F14B	26	06		BNE	C14
00233	F14D	BD	E005		JSR	\$E005
00234	F150	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00235	F153	81	24	C14	CMPA	##24
00236	F155	26	06		BNE	C15
00237	F157	BD	E008		JSR	\$E008
00238	F15A	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00239	F15D	81	25	C15	CMPA	##25
00240	F15F	26	06		BNE	C16
00241	F161	BD	E00B		JSR	\$E00B
00242	F164	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00243	F167	81	26	C16	CMPA	##26
00244	F169	26	06		BNE	C17
00245	F16B	BD	E00E		JSR	\$E00E
00246	F16E	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00247	F171	81	27	C17	CMPA	##27
00248	F173	26	06		BNE	C18
00249	F175	BD	E011		JSR	\$E011
00250	F178	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00251	F17B	81	28	C18	CMPA	##28
00252	F17D	26	06		BNE	C19
00253	F17F	BD	E014		JSR	\$E014
00254	F182	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00255	F185	81	29	C19	CMPA	##29
00256	F187	26	06		BNE	C20
00257	F189	BD	E017		JSR	\$E017
00258	F18C	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00259	F18F	81	2A	C20	CMPA	##2A
00260	F191	26	06		BNE	C21
00261	F193	BD	E01A		JSR	\$E01A
00262	F196	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00263	F199	81	10	C21	CMPA	##10
00264	F19B	26	06		BNE	C22
00265	F19D	BD	F1B5		JSR	LOADPROG
00266	F1A0	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00267	F1A3	81	14	C22	CMPA	##14
00268	F1A5	26	06		BNE	C23
00269	F1A7	BD	0100		JSR	\$0100
00270	F1AA	7E	F1B4		JMP	WHATFIN
00271	F1AD	81	15	C23	CMPA	##15
00272	F1AF	26	03		BNE	WHATFIN
00273	F1B1	BD	F2A9		JSR	SGASET
00274	F1B4	39		WHATFIN	RTS	
00275	F1B5	BD	F05C	LOADPROG	JSR	RECEIVE
00276	F1B8	8B	01		ADDA	##01
00277	F1BA	97	39		STAA	PROGLEN
00278	F1BC	BD	F05C		JSR	RECEIVE
00279	F1BF	97	3A		STAA	PROGLEN+1
00280	F1C1	CE	0100		LDX	##0100
00281	F1C4	BD	F05C	GETPROG	JSR	RECEIVE
00282	F1C7	A7	00		STAA	0,X
00283	F1C9	08			INX	
00284	F1CA	9C	39		CPX	PROGLEN
00285	F1CC	26	F6		BNE	GETPROG

```

00286 F10E 39          RTS
00287 F10F C6 11     SAVAIL  LDAB  #11
00288 F1D1 BD F067   JSR   SEND
00289 F1D4 39          RTS
00290 F1D5 C6 00     DAOFF   LDAB  #00
00291 F1D7 D7 01     STAB  DAMODE
00292 F1D9 39          RTS
00293 F1DA BD F05C   ADTRANS JSR   RECEIVE
00294 F1DD 97 10     STAA  ADRATE
00295 F1DF BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00296 F1E2 97 11     STAA  ADRATE+1
00297 F1E4 C6 0F     LDAB  #0F
00298 F1E6 D7 00     STAB  ADMODE
00299 F1E8 39          RTS
00300 F1E9 BD F05C   ADPKPK JSR   RECEIVE
00301 F1EC 97 4C     STAA  TRIGLWL
00302 F1EE C6 F0     LDAB  #F0
00303 F1F0 D7 00     STAB  ADMODE
00304 F1F2 39          RTS
00305 F1F3 BD F05C   DAAMPTBL JSR  RECEIVE
00306 F1F6 88 30     ADDA  #30
00307 F1F8 97 35     STAA  VAMPSIZE
00308 F1FA BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00309 F1FD 97 36     STAA  VAMPSIZE+1
00310 F1FF CE 2FFE   LDX   #WAVETBL-2
00311 F202 BD F05C   GETDATBL JSR  RECEIVE
00312 F205 A7 00     STAA  0,X
00313 F207 08          INX
00314 F208 9C 35     CPX   VAMPSIZE
00315 F20A 26 F6     BNE   GETDATBL
00316 F20C C6 0F     LDAB  #0F
00317 F20E D7 01     STAB  DAMODE
00318 F210 39          RTS
00319 F211 BD F05C   DACONST JSR  RECEIVE
00320 F214 B7 3000   STAA  WAVETBL
00321 F217 BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00322 F21A B7 3001   STAA  WAVETBL+1
00323 F21D BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00324 F220 B7 3002   STAA  WAVETBL+2
00325 F223 BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00326 F226 B7 3003   STAA  WAVETBL+3
00327 F229 BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00328 F22C B7 2FFE   STAA  WAVETBL-2
00329 F22F BD F05C   JSR   RECEIVE
00330 F232 B7 2FFF   STAA  WAVETBL-1
00331 F235 C6 F0     LDAB  #F0
00332 F237 D7 01     STAB  DAMODE
00333 F239 39          RTS
00334 F23A C6 00     ADOFF LDAB  #00
00335 F23C D7 00     STAB  ADMODE
00336 F23E 39          RTS
00337 F23F 84 0F     CHSELECT ANDA  #0F
00338 F241 97 0E     STAA  CHANNEL
00339 F243 39          RTS
00340 F244 B6 C403   IASETUP LDAA  ADPIACRB
00341 F247 84 F7     ANDA  #F7      ! SAMPLE
00342 F249 B7 C403   STAA  ADPIACRB

```

00343	F24C	CE	2000		LDX	##2000
00344	F24F	B6	C000	DALOOB	LDA	ACIASR
00345	F252	84	01		AND	#01
00346	F254	27	10		BEQ	DAS3
00347	F256	F6	C001		LDAB	ACIARR
00348	F259	BD	F05C		JSR	RECEIVE
00349	F25C	81	50		CMPA	##50
00350	F25E	27	44		BEQ	DAS1
00351	F260	B7	C000	DAS2	STAA	ADPIAORA
00352	F263	F7	C002		STAB	ADPIAORB
00353	F266	09		DAS3	DEX	
00354	F267	26	E6		BNE	DALOOB
00355	F269	B6	C403		LDA	ADPIACRB
00356	F26C	8A	08		OR	##08 ! HOLD
00357	F26E	B7	C403		STAA	ADPIACRB
00358	F271	B6	C402		LDA	ADPIAORB
00359	F274	84	0F		AND	##0F
00360	F276	B7	C402		STAA	ADPIAORB
00361	F279	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00362	F27C	C6	88		LDAB	##88
00363	F27E	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00364	F281	CE	0050	WAIT	LDX	##0000
00365	F284	09		W25	DEX	
00366	F285	26	FD		BNE	W25
00367	F287	CE	0004		LDX	##04
00368	F28A	F6	C402	D04CH	LDAB	ADPIAORB
00369	F28D	CB	10		ADDB	##10
00370	F28F	F7	C402		STAB	ADPIAORB
00371	F292	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00372	F295	36			PSHA	
00373	F296	C0	10		SUBB	##10
00374	F298	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00375	F29B	33			PULB	
00376	F29C	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00377	F29F	09			DEX	
00378	F2A0	26	E8		BNE	D04CH
00379	F2A2	20	A0		BRA	DASETUP
00380	F2A4	C1	50	DAS1	CMPB	##50
00381	F2A6	26	B8		BNE	DAS2
00382	F2A8	39			RTS	
00383	F2A9	BD	F05C	SGASET	JSR	RECEIVE
00384	F2AC	97	4F		STAA	SGAVAL
00385	F2AE	7F	0050		CLR	SGACUR
00386	F2B1	D6	50	SGASET1	LDAB	SGACUR
00387	F2B3	F7	D000		STAB	SGA1
00388	F2B6	F6	C403		LDAB	ADPIACRB
00389	F2B9	C4	F7		ANDB	##F7
00390	F2BB	F7	C403		STAB	ADPIACRB
00391	F2BE	CE	00FF		LDX	##00FF
00392	F2C1	09		SGAW1	DEX	
00393	F2C2	26	FD		BNE	SGAW1
00394	F2C4	F6	C403		LDAB	ADPIACRB
00395	F2C7	CA	08		OR	##08
00396	F2C9	F7	C403		STAB	ADPIACRB
00397	F2CC	C6	1F		LDAB	##1F
00398	F2CE	F7	C402		STAB	ADPIAORB
00399	F2D1	F6	C400		LDAB	ADPIAORA

00400	F2D4	CE	00FF		LIX	##00FF
00401	F2D7	09		SGAW2	DEX	
00402	F2D8	26	FD		BNE	SGAW2
00403	F2DA	F6	C402		LDAB	ADPIAORB
00404	F2DD	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00405	F2E0	57			ASRB	
00406	F2E1	46			RORA	
00407	F2E2	57			ASRB	
00408	F2E3	46			RORA	
00409	F2E4	57			ASRB	
00410	F2E5	46			RORA	
00411	F2E6	57			ASRB	
00412	F2E7	46			RORA	
00413	F2E8	91	4F		CMPA	SGAVAL
00414	F2EA	23	05		BLS	SSET2
00415	F2EC	7C	0050		INC	SGACUR
00416	F2EF	26	C0		BNE	SGASET1
00417	F2F1	7F	0050	SSET2	CLR	SGACUR
00418	F2F4	D6	50	SGASET2	LDAB	SGACUR
00419	F2F6	F7	D001		STAB	SGA2
00420	F2F9	F6	C403		LDAB	ADPIACRB
00421	F2FC	C4	F7		ANDB	##F7
00422	F2FE	F7	C403		STAB	ADPIACRB
00423	F301	CE	00FF		LIX	##00FF
00424	F304	09		SGAW3	DEX	
00425	F305	26	FD		BNE	SGAW3
00426	F307	F6	C403		LDAB	ADPIACRB
00427	F30A	CA	08		ORAB	##08
00428	F30C	F7	C403		STAB	ADPIACRB
00429	F30F	C6	2F		LDAB	##2F
00430	F311	F7	C402		STAB	ADPIAORB
00431	F314	F6	C400		LDAB	ADPIAORA
00432	F317	CE	00FF		LIX	##00FF
00433	F31A	09		SGAW4	DEX	
00434	F31B	26	FD		BNE	SGAW4
00435	F31D	F6	C402		LDAB	ADPIAORB
00436	F320	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00437	F323	57			ASRB	
00438	F324	46			RORA	
00439	F325	57			ASRB	
00440	F326	46			RORA	
00441	F327	57			ASRB	
00442	F328	46			RORA	
00443	F329	57			ASRB	
00444	F32A	46			RORA	
00445	F32B	91	4F		CMPA	SGAVAL
00446	F32D	23	05		BLS	SSET3
00447	F32F	7C	0050		INC	SGACUR
00448	F332	26	C0		BNE	SGASET2
00449	F334	7F	0050	SSET3	CLR	SGACUR
00450	F337	D6	50	SGASET3	LDAB	SGACUR
00451	F339	F7	D002		STAB	SGA3
00452	F33C	F6	C403		LDAB	ADPIACRB
00453	F33F	C4	F7		ANDB	##F7
00454	F341	F7	C403		STAB	ADPIACRB
00455	F344	CE	00FF		LIX	##00FF
00456	F347	09		SGAW5	DEX	

00457	F348	26	FD		BNE	SGAW5	
00458	F34A	F6	C403		LDAB	ADPIACRB	
00459	F34D	CA	08		ORAB	##08	
00460	F34F	F7	C403		STAB	ADPIACRB	
00461	F352	C6	3F		LDAB	##3F	
00462	F354	F7	C402		STAB	ADPIAORB	
00463	F357	F6	C400		LDAB	ADPIAORA	
00464	F35A	CE	00FF		LDX	##00FF	
00465	F35D	09		SGAW6	DEX		
00466	F35E	26	FD		BNE	SGAW6	
00467	F360	F6	C402		LDAB	ADPIAORB	
00468	F363	B6	C400		LDAA	ADPIAORA	
00469	F366	57			ASRB		
00470	F367	46			RORA		
00471	F368	57			ASRB		
00472	F369	46			RORA		
00473	F36A	57			ASRB		
00474	F36B	46			RORA		
00475	F36C	57			ASRB		
00476	F36D	46			RORA		
00477	F36E	91	4F		CMFA	SGAVAL	
00478	F370	23	05		BLS	SGAFIN	
00479	F372	7C	0050		INC	SGACUR	
00480	F375	26	C0		BNE	SGASET3	
00481	F377	39		SGAFIN	RTS		
00482	F378	C6	00	XONRCV	LDAB	##00	
00483	F37A	D7	0F		STAB	XONOFF	
00484	F37C	39			RTS		
00485	F37D	C6	FF	XOFFRCV	LDAB	##FF	
00486	F37F	D7	0F		STAB	XONOFF	
00487	F381	39			RTS		
00488	F382	96	01	PROCST	LDAA	DAMODE	
00489	F384	81	00		CMFA	##00	
00490	F386	26	03		BNE	SETPTM	
00491	F388	7E	F450		JMP	ADCHECK	
00492	F38B	C6	43	SETPTM	LDAB	##43	
00493	F38D	F7	C801		STAB	PTMCR2	! SETUP CON'
00494	F390	BD	F39B		JSR	DAINIT	
00495	F393	86	00		LDAA	#0	
00496	F395	B7	C800		STAR	PTMCR1	
00497	F398	7E	F450		JMP	ADCHECK	
00498	F39B	FE	2FFE	DAINIT	LDX	WAVETBL-2	
00499	F39E	FF	C804		STX	PTMMB2	
00500	F3A1	86	FF		LDAA	##FF	
00501	F3A3	97	26		STAR	DANAVADJ	
00502	F3A5	FE	3000		LDX	WAVETBL	
00503	F3A8	DF	2C		STX	CMAK	
00504	F3AA	FE	3002		LDX	WAVETBL+2	
00505	F3AD	DF	2E		STX	CMIN	
00506	F3AF	BD	F75A		JSR	DANEW	
00507	F3B2	DE	24		LDX	CMEAN	
00508	F3B4	8C	07FF		CPX	##07FF	
00509	F3B7	2E	0D		BGT	STDEC	
00510	F3B9	7F	0034		CLR	INCDEC	
00511	F3BC	7F	0028		CLR	MAX1MIN	
00512	F3BF	CE	BE00		LDX	#WTBLINC1	
00513	F3C2	DF	32		STX	TBLCOUNT	

00514	F3C4	20	0B		BRA	STCONT
00515	F3C6	86	FF	STDEC	LDA	#\$FF
00516	F3C8	97	34		STAA	INCDEC
00517	F3CA	97	28		STAA	MAX1MIN
00518	F3CC	CE	BDE0		LIX	#WTBLDEC2
00519	F3CF	DF	32		STX	TBLCOUNT
00520	F3D1	86	0F	STCONT	LDA	#\$0F
00521	F3D3	97	26		STAA	DAWAVADJ
00522	F3D5	96	01		LDA	DAMODE
00523	F3D7	81	F0		CMPA	#\$F0
00524	F3D9	27	1E		BEQ	ITSCONST
00525	F3DB	FE	3004		LIX	WAVETBL+4
00526	F3DE	27	05		BEQ	CSHALF
00527	F3E0	09			DEX	
00528	F3E1	DF	02		STX	NUMCYC
00529	F3E3	20	14		BRA	ITSCONST
00530	F3E5	DE	30	CSHALF	LIX	WAVEADR
00531	F3E7	08			INX	
00532	F3E8	08			INX	
00533	F3E9	08			INX	
00534	F3EA	08			INX	
00535	F3EB	08			INX	
00536	F3EC	08			INX	
00537	F3ED	DF	30		STX	WAVEADR
00538	F3EF	FE	3008		LIX	WAVETBL+8
00539	F3F2	DF	2E		STX	CMIN
00540	F3F4	FE	300A		LIX	WAVETBL+10
00541	F3F7	DF	02		STX	NUMCYC
00542	F3F9	BD	F75A	ITSCONST	JSR	DANEW
00543	F3FC	0E			CLI	
00544	F3FD	39			RTS	
00545	F3FE	B6	C000	LISTEN	LDA	ACIASR
00546	F401	84	01		AND	#01
00547	F403	27	49		BEQ	LISFIN
00548	F405	B6	C001		LDA	ACIARR
00549	F408	81	0D		CMPA	#\$0D
00550	F40A	26	09		BNE	P3
00551	F40C	0F			SEI	
00552	F40D	BD	F1F3		JSR	DAAMPTEL
00553	F410	BD	F39B		JSR	DAINIT
00554	F413	20	39		BRA	LISFIN
00555	F415	81	0E	P3	CMPA	#\$0E
00556	F417	26	29		BNE	P4
00557	F419	7F	0037		CLR	TRIPPED
00558	F41C	BD	F211		JSR	DACONST
00559	F41F	FE	3000		LIX	WAVETBL
00560	F422	DF	2C		STX	CMAX
00561	F424	FE	3002		LIX	WAVETBL+2
00562	F427	DF	2E		STX	CMIN
00563	F429	86	FF		LDA	#\$FF
00564	F42B	97	26		STAA	DAWAVADJ
00565	F42D	BD	F75A		JSR	DANEW
00566	F430	86	0F		LDA	#\$0F
00567	F432	97	26		STAA	DAWAVADJ
00568	F434	BD	F75A		JSR	DANEW
00569	F437	FE	2FFE		LIX	WAVETBL-2
00570	F43A	FF	C804		STX	PTMMB2



00571	F43D	7F	0037		CLR	TRIPPED
00572	F440	20	00		BRA	LISFIN
00573	F442	81	60	P4	CMPA	#\$60
00574	F444	26	05		BNE	P5
00575	F446	31			INS	
00576	F447	31			INS	
00577	F448	7E	F83F		JMP	TERMITE
00578	F44B	BD	F0C7	P5	JSR	WHATOP
00579	F44E	39		LISFIN	RTS	
00580	F44F	01			NOP	
00581	F450	BD	F3FE	ADCHECK	JSR	LISTEN
00582	F453	96	00		LDA	ADMODE
00583	F455	81	F0		CMPA	#\$F0
00584	F457	27	07		BEQ	ADSTPK
00585	F459	81	0F		CMPA	#\$0F
00586	F45B	26	F3		BNE	ADCHECK
00587	F45D	7E	F6A5		JMP	ADSTRN
00588	F460	BD	F3FE	ADSTPK	JSR	LISTEN
00589	F463	B6	C403		LDA	ADPIACRB
00590	F466	84	F7		AND	#\$F7
00591	F468	B7	C403		STA	ADPIACRB
00592	F46B	7D	004E		TST	CYCRCK
00593	F46E	27	11		BEQ	DANOCYC
00594	F470	C6	6F		LDA	#\$6F
00595	F472	B6	C000	CYSEND	LDA	ACIASR
00596	F475	84	02		AND	#02
00597	F477	27	F9		BEQ	CYSEND
00598	F479	F7	C001		STA	ACIATR
00599	F47C	7A	004E		DEC	CYCRCK
00600	F47F	26	F1		BNE	CYSEND
00601	F481	B6	C403	DANOCYC	LDA	ADPIACRB
00602	F484	8A	08		ORA	#\$08 ! HOLD
00603	F486	B7	C403		STA	ADPIACRB
00604	F489	B6	C402		LDA	ADPIACRB
00605	F48C	84	0F		AND	#\$0F
00606	F48E	B7	C402		STA	ADPIACRB
00607	F491	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00608	F494	86	05		LDA	#\$05
00609	F496	4A		WAITLP	DECA	
00610	F497	26	FD		BNE	WAITLP
00611	F499	D6	0E		LDA	CHANNEL
00612	F49B	54			LSR	
00613	F49C	8B	10	NEXTCH	ADD	#\$10
00614	F49E	81	40		CMPA	#\$40
00615	F4A0	26	14		BNE	CONT1
00616	F4A2	F6	C402		LDA	ADPIACRB
00617	F4A5	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00618	F4A8	BD	F4D0		JSR	CHECKPK
00619	F4AB	96	0B		LDA	BUFIN+1
00620	F4AD	81	01		CMPA	#\$01
00621	F4AF	23	AF		BLS	ADSTPK
00622	F4B1	BD	F72B		JSR	CLEARBUF
00623	F4B4	20	AA		BRA	ADSTPK
00624	F4B6	54		CONT1	LSR	
00625	F4B7	24	E3		BCC	NEXTCH
00626	F4B9	36			PSHA	
00627	F4BA	37			PSHB	

00628	F4BB	F6	C402		LDAB	ADPIAORB
00629	F4BE	37			PSHB	
00630	F4BF	C4	0F		ANDB	##0F
00631	F4C1	1B			ABA	
00632	F4C2	B7	C402		STAA	ADPIAORB
00633	F4C5	33			PULB	
00634	F4C6	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00635	F4C9	BD	F4D0		JSR	CHECKPK
00636	F4CC	33			PULB	
00637	F4CD	32			PULA	
00638	F4CE	20	CC		BRA	NEXTCH
00639	F4D0	C1	0F	CHECKPK	CMPB	##0F
00640	F4D2	23	16		BLS	ADCH1
00641	F4D4	C1	1F		CMPB	##1F
00642	F4D6	2E	03		BGT	CK3
00643	F4D8	7E	F55B		JMP	ADCH2
00644	F4DB	C1	2F	CK3	CMPB	##2F
00645	F4DD	2E	03		BGT	CK4
00646	F4DF	7E	F5C9		JMP	ADCH3
00647	F4E2	C1	3F	CK4	CMPB	##3F
00648	F4E4	2E	03		BGT	FINISH
00649	F4E6	7E	F637		JMP	ADCH4
00650	F4E9	39		FINISH	RTS	
00651	F4EA	7D	0020	ADCH1	TST	MAX1MIN
00652	F4ED	27	35		BEQ	DO1MAX
00653	F4EF	D1	14		CMPB	MINPK1
00654	F4F1	2E	08		BGT	REMINPK1
00655	F4F3	2D	0E		BLT	CK1TRIG
00656	F4F5	91	15		CMPA	MINPK1+1
00657	F4F7	22	02		BHI	REMINPK1
00658	F4F9	20	08		BRA	CK1TRIG
00659	F4FB	97	15	REMINPK1	STAA	MINPK1+1
00660	F4FD	D7	14		STAB	MINPK1
00661	F4FF	39			RTS	
00662	F500	01			NOP	
00663	F501	01			NOP	
00664	F502	01			NOP	
00665	F503	9B	4C	CK1TRIG	ADDA	TRIGLVL
00666	F505	C9	00		ADCB	#0
00667	F507	90	15		SUBA	MINPK1+1
00668	F509	D2	14		SBCB	MINPK1
00669	F50B	2A	16		BPL	MIN1FIN
00670	F50D	D6	14	SET1TRIG	LDAB	MINPK1
00671	F50F	DE	0A		LIX	BUFIN
00672	F511	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00673	F513	08			INX	
00674	F514	D6	15		LDAB	MINPK1+1
00675	F516	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00676	F518	08			INX	
00677	F519	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00678	F51B	7F	0020		CLR	MAX1MIN
00679	F51E	CE	0000		LIX	##0000
00680	F521	DF	14		STX	MINPK1
00681	F523	39		MIN1FIN	RTS	
00682	F524	D1	12	DO1MAX	CMPB	MAXPK1
00683	F526	2D	06		BLT	REMAXPK1
00684	F528	2E	0C		BGT	CK1TMAX

00685	F52A	91	13		CMPA	MAXPK1+1
00686	F52C	22	08		BHI	CK1TMAX
00687	F52E	97	13	REMAXPK1	STAA	MAXPK1+1
00688	F530	D7	12		STAB	MAXPK1
00689	F532	39			RTS	
00690	F533	01			NOP	
00691	F534	01			NOP	
00692	F535	01			NOP	
00693	F536	90	4C	CK1TMAX	SUBA	TRIGLVL
00694	F538	C2	00		SBCB	#0
00695	F53A	90	13		SUBA	MAXPK1+1
00696	F53C	92	12		SBCA	MAXPK1
00697	F53E	2B	1A		BMI	MAX1FIN
00698	F540	D6	12	SET1XTG	LDAB	MAXPK1
00699	F542	DE	0A		LDX	BUFIN
00700	F544	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00701	F546	08			INX	
00702	F547	D6	13		LDAB	MAXPK1+1
00703	F549	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00704	F54B	08			INX	
00705	F54C	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00706	F54E	7F	0037		CLR	TRIPPED
00707	F551	CE	7FFF		LDX	##7FFF
00708	F554	DF	12		STX	MAXPK1
00709	F556	C6	FF		LDAB	##FF
00710	F558	D7	28		STAB	MAX1MIN
00711	F55A	39		MAX1FIN	RTS	
00712	F55B	7D	0029	ADCH2	TST	MAX2MIN
00713	F55E	27	35		BEQ	DO2MAX
00714	F560	D1	18		CMPB	MINPK2
00715	F562	2E	08		BGT	REMINPK2
00716	F564	2D	0E		BLT	CK2TRIG
00717	F566	91	19		CMPA	MINPK2+1
00718	F568	22	02		BHI	REMINPK2
00719	F56A	20	08		BRA	CK2TRIG
00720	F56C	97	13	REMINPK2	STAA	MINPK2+1
00721	F56E	D7	18		STAB	MINPK2
00722	F570	39			RTS	
00723	F571	01			NOP	
00724	F572	01			NOP	
00725	F573	01			NOP	
00726	F574	9B	4C	CK2TRIG	ADDA	TRIGLVL
00727	F576	C9	00		ADCB	#0
00728	F578	90	19		SUBA	MINPK2+1
00729	F57A	D2	18		SBCB	MINPK2
00730	F57C	2A	16		BPL	MIN2FIN
00731	F57E	D6	18	SET2TRIG	LDAB	MINPK2
00732	F580	DE	0A		LDX	BUFIN
00733	F582	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00734	F584	08			INX	
00735	F585	D6	19		LDAB	MINPK2+1
00736	F587	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00737	F589	08			INX	
00738	F58A	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00739	F58C	7F	0029		CLR	MAX2MIN
00740	F58F	CE	0000		LDX	##0000
00741	F592	DF	18		STX	MINPK2

00742	F594	39	MIN2FIN	RTS
00743	F595	D1 16	DD2MAX	CMPB MAXPK2
00744	F597	2D 06		BLT REMAXPK2
00745	F599	2E 0C		BGT CK2TMAX
00746	F59B	91 17		CMPA MAXPK2+1
00747	F59D	22 08		BHI CK2TMAX
00748	F59F	97 17	REMAXPK2	STAA MAXPK2+1
00749	F5A1	D7 16		STAB MAXPK2
00750	F5A3	39		RTS
00751	F5A4	01		NOP
00752	F5A5	01		NOP
00753	F5A6	01		NOP
00754	F5A7	90 4C	CK2TMAX	SUBA TRIGLVL
00755	F5A9	C2 00		SBCB #0
00756	F5AB	90 17		SUBA MAXPK2+1
00757	F5AD	D2 16		SBCB MAXPK2
00758	F5AF	2B 17		BMI MAX2FIN
00759	F5B1	D6 16	SET2XTG	LDAB MAXPK2
00760	F5B3	DE 0A		LDX BUFIN
00761	F5B5	E7 00		STAB 0.X
00762	F5B7	08		INX
00763	F5B8	D6 17		LDAB MAXPK2+1
00764	F5BA	E7 00		STAB 0.X
00765	F5BC	08		INX
00766	F5BD	DF 0A		STX BUFIN
00767	F5BF	C6 FF		LDAB #FF
00768	F5C1	D7 29		STAB MAX2MIN
00769	F5C3	CE 7FFF		LDX #7FFF
00770	F5C5	DF 16		STX MAXPK2
00771	F5C8	39	MAX2FIN	RTS
00772	F5C9	7D 002A	ADCH3	TST MAX3MIN
00773	F5CC	27 35		BEQ DD3MAX
00774	F5CE	D1 1C		CMPB MINPK3
00775	F5D0	2E 08		BGT REMINPK3
00776	F5D2	2D 0E		BLT CK3TRIG
00777	F5D4	91 1D		CMPA MINPK3+1
00778	F5D6	22 02		BHI REMINPK3
00779	F5D8	20 08		BRA CK3TRIG
00780	F5DA	97 1D	REMINPK3	STAA MINPK3+1
00781	F5DC	D7 1C		STAB MINPK3
00782	F5DE	39		RTS
00783	F5DF	01		NOP
00784	F5E0	01		NOP
00785	F5E1	01		NOP
00786	F5E2	9B 4C	CK3TRIG	ADDA TRIGLVL
00787	F5E4	C9 00		ADCB #0
00788	F5E6	90 1D		SUBA MINPK3+1
00789	F5E8	D2 1C		SBCB MINPK3
00790	F5EA	2A 16		BPL MIN3FIN
00791	F5EC	D6 1C	SET3TRIG	LDAB MINPK3
00792	F5EE	DE 0A		LDX BUFIN
00793	F5F0	E7 00		STAB 0.X
00794	F5F2	08		INX
00795	F5F3	D6 1D		LDAB MINPK3+1
00796	F5F5	E7 00		STAB 0.X
00797	F5F7	08		INX
00798	F5F8	DF 0A		STX BUFIN

00799	F5FA	7F	002A		CLR	MAX3MIN
00800	F5FD	CE	0000		LDX	##0000
00801	F600	DF	1C		STX	MINPK3
00802	F602	39		MINSFIN	RTS	
00803	F603	D1	1A	DOSMAX	CMPE	MAXPK3
00804	F605	2D	06		BLT	REMAXPK3
00805	F607	2E	0C		BGT	CK3TMAX
00806	F609	91	1B		CMPE	MAXPK3+1
00807	F60B	22	08		BHI	CK3TMAX
00808	F60D	97	1B	REMAXPK3	STAB	MAXPK3+1
00809	F60F	D7	1A		STAB	MAXPK3
00810	F611	39			RTS	
00811	F612	01			NOP	
00812	F613	01			NOP	
00813	F614	01			NOP	
00814	F615	90	4C	CK3TMAX	SUBA	TRIGLVL
00815	F617	C2	00		SBCB	#0
00816	F619	90	1B		SUBA	MAXPK3+1
00817	F61B	D2	1A		SBCB	MAXPK3
00818	F61D	2B	17		BMI	MAX3FIN
00819	F61F	D6	1A	SET3XTG	LDAB	MAXPK3
00820	F621	DE	0A		LDX	BUFIN
00821	F623	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00822	F625	08			INX	
00823	F626	D6	1B		LDAB	MAXPK3+1
00824	F628	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00825	F62A	08			INX	
00826	F62B	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00827	F62D	C6	FF		LDAB	##FF
00828	F62F	D7	2A		STAB	MAX3MIN
00829	F631	CE	7FFF		LDX	##7FFF
00830	F634	DF	1A		STX	MAXPK3
00831	F636	39		MAX3FIN	RTS	
00832	F637	7D	002B	ADCH4	TST	MAX4MIN
00833	F63A	27	35		BEQ	DO4MAX
00834	F63C	D1	20		CMPE	MINPK4
00835	F63E	2E	08		BGT	REMINPK4
00836	F640	2D	0E		BLT	CK4TRIG
00837	F642	91	21		CMPE	MINPK4+1
00838	F644	22	02		BHI	REMINPK4
00839	F646	20	08		BRA	CK4TRIG
00840	F648	97	21	REMINPK4	STAB	MINPK4+1
00841	F64A	D7	20		STAB	MINPK4
00842	F64C	39			RTS	
00843	F64D	01			NOP	
00844	F64E	01			NOP	
00845	F64F	01			NOP	
00846	F650	9B	4C	CK4TRIG	ADDA	TRIGLVL
00847	F652	C9	00		ADCB	#0
00848	F654	90	21		SUBA	MINPK4+1
00849	F656	D2	20		SBCB	MINPK4
00850	F658	2A	16		BPL	MIN4FIN
00851	F65A	D6	20	SET4TRIG	LDAB	MINPK4
00852	F65C	DE	0A		LDX	BUFIN
00853	F65E	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00854	F660	08			INX	
00855	F661	D6	21		LDAB	MINPK4+1

00856	F663	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00857	F665	08			INX	
00858	F666	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00859	F668	7F	002B		CLR	MAX4MIN
00860	F66B	CE	0000		LDX	##0000
00861	F66E	DF	20		STX	MINPK4
00862	F670	39		MIN4FIN	RTS	
00863	F671	D1	1E	DO4MAX	CMFB	MAXPK4
00864	F673	2D	06		BLT	REMAXPK4
00865	F675	2E	0C		BGT	CK4TMAX
00866	F677	91	1F		CMFA	MAXPK4+1
00867	F679	22	08		BHI	CK4TMAX
00868	F67B	97	1F	REMAXPK4	STAA	MAXPK4+1
00869	F67D	D7	1E		STAB	MAXPK4
00870	F67F	39			RTS	
00871	F680	01			NOP	
00872	F681	01			NOP	
00873	F682	01			NOP	
00874	F683	90	4C	CK4TMAX	SUBA	TRIGLVL
00875	F685	C2	00		SBCB	#0
00876	F687	90	1F		SUBA	MAXPK4+1
00877	F689	D2	1E		SBCB	MAXPK4
00878	F68B	2B	17		BMI	MAX4FIN
00879	F68D	D6	1E	SET4XTG	LDAB	MAXPK4
00880	F68F	DE	0A		LDX	BUFIN
00881	F691	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00882	F693	08			INX	
00883	F694	D6	1F		LDAB	MAXPK4+1
00884	F696	E7	00		STAB	0,X
00885	F698	08			INX	
00886	F699	DF	0A		STX	BUFIN
00887	F69B	C6	FF		LDAB	##FF
00888	F69D	D7	2B		STAB	MAX4MIN
00889	F69F	CE	7FFF		LDX	##7FFF
00890	F6A2	DF	1E		STX	MAXPK4
00891	F6A4	39		MAX4FIN	RTS	
00892	F6A5	C6	00	ADSTTRN	LDAB	#0
00893	F6A7	CE	0004		LDX	#4
00894	F6AA	96	0E		LDAA	CHANNEL
00895	F6AC	44		TRNCH1	LSRA	
00896	F6AD	24	02		BCC	TRNCH2
00897	F6AF	CB	02		ADDB	##02
00898	F6B1	09		TRNCH2	DEX	
00899	F6B2	26	F8		BNE	TRNCH1
00900	F6B4	CA	80		ORAB	##80
00901	F6B6	D7	38		STAB	NUMCHAN
00902	F6B8	B6	C403	ADTRNLP	LDAA	ADPIACRB
00903	F6BB	84	F7		ANDA	##F7
00904	F6BD	B7	C403		STAA	ADPIACRB
00905	F6C0	DE	10		LDX	ADRATE
00906	F6C2	DF	3B	CKTRN	STX	RATECT
00907	F6C4	BD	F3FE		JSR	LISTEN
00908	F6C7	DE	3B		LDX	RATECT
00909	F6C9	09			DEX	
00910	F6CA	26	F6		BNE	CKTRN
00911	F6CC	B6	C403	ADS3	LDAA	ADPIACRB
00912	F6CF	8A	08		ORAA	##08

00913	F6D1	B7	C403		STAA	ADPIACRB
00914	F6D4	B6	C402		LDA	ADPIAORB
00915	F6D7	84	0F		ANDA	#\$0F
00916	F6D9	B7	C402		STAA	ADPIAORB
00917	F6DC	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00918	F6DF	D6	38		LDAB	NUMCHAN
00919	F6E1	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00920	F6E4	CE	000A		LIX	#10
00921	F6E7	89		W2	DEX	
00922	F6E8	26	FD		BNE	W2
00923	F6EA	CE	0004		LIX	#\$04
00924	F6ED	86	00		LDA	#0
00925	F6EF	D6	0E		LDAB	CHANNEL
00926	F6F1	54			LSRB	
00927	F6F2	8B	10	AD4CH	ADDA	##10
00928	F6F4	54			LSRB	
00929	F6F5	24	1A		BCC	TRN3
00930	F6F7	36			PSHA	
00931	F6F8	37			PSHB	
00932	F6F9	F6	C402		LDAB	ADPIAORB
00933	F6FC	37			PSHB	
00934	F6FD	C4	0F		ANDB	#\$0F
00935	F6FF	1B			ABA	
00936	F700	B7	C402		STAA	ADPIAORB
00937	F703	33			PULB	
00938	F704	B6	C400		LDA	ADPIAORA
00939	F707	36			PSHA	
00940	F708	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00941	F70B	33			PULB	
00942	F70C	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00943	F70F	33			PULB	
00944	F710	32			PULA	
00945	F711	89		TRN3	DEX	
00946	F712	26	DE		BNE	AD4CH
00947	F714	F6	C402		LDAB	ADPIAORB
00948	F717	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00949	F71A	F6	C400		LDAB	ADPIAORA
00950	F71D	BD	F067		JSR	SEND
00951	F720	B6	C403		LDA	ADPIACRB
00952	F723	84	F7		ANDA	#\$F7
00953	F725	B7	C403		STAA	ADPIACRB
00954	F728	7E	F6B8		JMP	ADTRNLP
00955	F72B	7D	000F	CLEARBUF	TST	XONOFF
00956	F72E	26	29		BNE	CBFIN
00957	F730	90	0D		SUBA	BUFOUT+1
00958	F732	97	27		STAA	TRANSCK
00959	F734	8A	80		ORAA	#\$80
00960	F736	B7	C001		STAA	ACIATR
00961	F739	DE	0C		LIX	BUFOUT
00962	F73B	86	70		LDA	##70
00963	F73D	4A		CB2	DECA	
00964	F73E	26	FD		BNE	CB2
00965	F740	A6	00		LDA	0.%
00966	F742	F6	C000	CB1	LDAB	ACIASR
00967	F745	C4	02		ANDB	##02
00968	F747	27	F9		BEQ	CB1
00969	F749	B7	C001		STAA	ACIATR

00970	F74C	08		INX
00971	F74D	A6	00	LDAA 0,X
00972	F74F	7A	0027	DEC TRANSCK
00973	F752	26	EE	BNE CB1
00974	F754	CE	1000	LDX #BUFPTR1
00975	F757	DF	0A	STX BUFIN
00976	F759	39	CBFIN	RTS
00977	F75A	96	DAHEW	LDAA CMIN+1
00978	F75C	D6	2E	LDAB CMIN
00979	F75E	90	2D	SUBA CMAX+1
00980	F760	D2	2C	SBCB CMAX
00981	F762	54		LSRB
00982	F763	46		RORA
00983	F764	97	3E	STAA USERANGE+1
00984	F766	D7	3D	STAB USERANGE
00985	F768	9B	2D	ADDA CMAX+1
00986	F76A	D9	2C	ADCB CMAX
00987	F76C	97	25	STAA CMEAN+1
00988	F76E	D7	24	STAB CMEAN
00989	F770	96	3E	LDAA USERANGE+1
00990	F772	D6	3D	LDAB USERANGE
00991	F774	48		ASLA
00992	F775	59		ROLB
00993	F776	48		ASLA
00994	F777	59		ROLB
00995	F778	48		ASLA
00996	F779	59		ROLB
00997	F77A	44		LSRA
00998	F77B	44		LSRA
00999	F77C	44		LSRA
01000	F77D	97	3E	STAA USERANGE+1
01001	F77F	97	23	STAA CRANGE+1
01002	F781	D7	3D	STAB USERANGE
01003	F783	D7	22	STAB CRANGE
01004	F785	CE	FC56	LDX #QUARTERW+86
01005	F788	DF	46	STX PTR1
01006	F78A	86	2C	LDAA #44
01007	F78C	97	45	STAA WCOUNT
01008	F78E	96	26	LDAA DAWAVADJ
01009	F790	81	0F	CMFA #0F
01010	F792	27	25	BEQ RSIEC
01011	F794	CE	BE00	LDX #WTBLINC1
01012	F797	96	2F	LDAA CMIN+1
01013	F799	A7	01	STAA 1,X
01014	F79B	D6	2E	LDAB CMIN
01015	F79D	E7	00	STAB 0,X
01016	F79F	08		INX
01017	F7A0	08		INX
01018	F7A1	DF	4A	STX PTR3
01019	F7A3	CE	BEB4	LDX #WTBLINC2
01020	F7A6	96	2D	LDAA CMAX+1
01021	F7A8	A7	01	STAA 1,X
01022	F7AA	D6	2C	LDAB CMAX
01023	F7AC	E7	00	STAB 0,X
01024	F7AE	09		DEX
01025	F7AF	09		DEX
01026	F7B0	DF	48	STX PTR2



01027	F7B2	DE	24		LDX	CMEAN
01028	F7B4	FF	BE5A		STX	INCMIDD
01029	F7B7	20	0F		BR	WAVESET
01030	F7B9	CE	BD00	RSDEC	LDX	#WTBLDEC1
01031	F7BC	DF	4A		STX	PTR3
01032	F7BE	CE	BD00		LDX	#WTBLDEC2
01033	F7C1	DF	48		STX	PTR2
01034	F7C3	DE	24		LDX	CMEAN
01035	F7C5	FF	BD58		STX	DECMIDD
01036	F7C8	DE	22	WAVESET	LDX	CRANGE
01037	F7CA	DF	3D		STX	USERANGE
01038	F7CC	DE	46		LDX	PTR1
01039	F7CE	E6	01		LDAB	1,X
01040	F7D0	D7	40		STAB	WAVELVL+1
01041	F7D2	E6	00		LDAB	0,X
01042	F7D4	09			DEX	
01043	F7D5	09			DEX	
01044	F7D6	DF	46		STX	PTR1
01045	F7D8	CE	0005		LDX	#5
01046	F7DB	4F			CLRA	
01047	F7DC	7F	0043		CLR	VARIAB
01048	F7DF	20	04		BR	MULST
01049	F7E1	78	0040	MULLP1	ASL	WAVELVL+1
01050	F7E4	59			ROLB	
01051	F7E5	76	003E	MULST	ROR	USERANGE+1
01052	F7E8	24	01		BCC	MULLP2
01053	F7EA	18			ABA	
01054	F7EB	09		MULLP2	DEX	
01055	F7EC	26	F3		BNE	MULLP1
01056	F7EE	D7	44		STAB	VARIAB+1
01057	F7F0	5F			CLRB	
01058	F7F1	CE	0006		LDX	#6
01059	F7F4	78	0040	MULLP3	ASL	WAVELVL+1
01060	F7F7	79	0044		ROL	VARIAB+1
01061	F7FA	79	0043		ROL	VARIAB
01062	F7FD	76	003D		ROR	USERANGE
01063	F800	24	04		BCC	MULLP4
01064	F802	9B	44		ADDA	VARIAB+1
01065	F804	D9	43		ADCB	VARIAB
01066	F806	09		MULLP4	DEX	
01067	F807	26	EB		BNE	MULLP3
01068	F809	54			LSRB	
01069	F80A	46			RORA	
01070	F80B	54			LSRB	
01071	F80C	46			RORA	
01072	F80D	54			LSRB	
01073	F80E	46			RORA	
01074	F80F	97	42		STAA	RESULT+1
01075	F811	D7	41		STAB	RESULT
01076	F813	9B	25		ADDA	CMEAN+1
01077	F815	D9	24		ADCB	CMEAN
01078	F817	DE	4A		LDX	PTR3
01079	F819	A7	01		STAA	1,X
01080	F81B	E7	00		STAB	0,X
01081	F81D	08			INX	
01082	F81E	08			INX	
01083	F81F	DF	4A		STX	PTR3

01084	F821	96	25		LDAA CMEAN+1
01085	F823	D6	24		LDAB CMEAN
01086	F825	90	42		SUBA RESULT+1
01087	F827	D2	41		SBCB RESULT
01088	F829	DE	48		LDX PTR2
01089	F82B	A7	01		STAA 1,X
01090	F82D	E7	00		STAB 0,X
01091	F82F	09			DEX
01092	F830	09			DEX
01093	F831	DF	48		STX PTR2
01094	F833	7A	0045		DEC WCOUNT
01095	F836	27	03		BEQ DANFIN
01096	F838	7E	F7C8		JMP WAVESET
01097	F83B	7F	0026	DANFIN	CLR DAWAYADJ
01098	F83E	39			RTS
01099	F83F	86	01	TERMITE	LDAA #01
01100	F841	B7	C800		STAA PTMCR1
01101	F844	0F			SEI
01102	F845	86	FF		LDAA #FF
01103	F847	B7	CC00		STAA DAPIAORA
01104	F84A	86	F7		LDAA #F7
01105	F84C	B7	CC02		STAA DAPIAORB
01106	F84F	DE	0A		LDX BUFIN
01107	F851	8C	1000		CPX #BUFPTR1
01108	F854	27	05		BEQ TERM1
01109	F856	96	0B		LDAA BUFIN+1
01110	F858	BD	F72B		JSR CLEARBUF
01111	F85B	7D	0001	TERM1	TST DAMODE
01112	F85E	27	05		BEQ THATSIT
01113	F860	C6	60		LDAB #60
01114	F862	BD	F067		JSR SEND
01115	F865	7E	F0B7	THATSIT	JMP CONFLOOP
01116	F868	CE	0070	DELAY	LDX #70
01117	F86B	09		DEL1	DEX
01118	F86C	26	FD		BNE DEL1
01119	F86E	39			RTS
01120	FA00				ORG \$FA00
01121	FA00	7E	F000		JMP \$F000
01122	FA03	B6	C801		LDAA PTMSR
01123	FA06	B6	C804		LDAA PTMTC2
01124	FA09	7D	0034		TST INCDEC
01125	FA0C	27	59		BEQ WINC
01126	FA0E	DE	32	WDEC	LDX TBLCOUNT
01127	FA10	A6	01		LDAA 1,X
01128	FA12	E6	00		LDAB 0,X
01129	FA14	B7	CC00		STAA DAPIAORA
01130	FA17	F7	CC02		STAB DAPIAORB
01131	FA1A	09			DEX
01132	FA1B	09			DEX
01133	FA1C	DF	32		STX TBLCOUNT
01134	FA1E	8C	BD00		CPX #WTBLDEC1
01135	FA21	26	43		BNE IRQDFIN
01136	FA23	CE	BE00		LDX #WTBLINC1
01137	FA26	DF	32		STX TBLCOUNT
01138	FA28	86	00		LDAA #00
01139	FA2A	97	34		STAA INCDEC
01140	FA2C	7C	004E		INC CYCACK

01141	FA2F	96	01	IRQCONT2	LDAA	DAMODE
01142	FA31	81	F0		CMPA	##F0
01143	FA33	27	31		BEQ	IRQDFIN
01144	FA35	DE	02		LDX	NUMCYC
01145	FA37	27	04		BEQ	CWHALF
01146	FA39	09			DEX	
01147	FA3A	DF	02		STX	NUMCYC
01148	FA3C	3B			RTI	
01149	FA3D	DE	30	CWHALF	LDX	WAVEADR
01150	FA3F	08			INX	
01151	FA40	08			INX	
01152	FA41	08			INX	
01153	FA42	08			INX	
01154	FA43	08			INX	
01155	FA44	08			INX	
01156	FA45	9C	35		CPX	VAMPSIZE
01157	FA47	22	04		BHI	TBLTOP
01158	FA49	DF	30		STX	WAVEADR
01159	FA4B	20	05		BRA	IRQCONT1
01160	FA4D	CE	3000	TBLTOP	LDX	#WAVETBL
01161	FA50	DF	30		STX	WAVEADR
01162	FA52	A6	03	IRQCONT1	LDAA	3,X
01163	FA54	E6	02		LDAB	2,X
01164	FA56	97	2F		STAA	CMIN+1
01165	FA58	D7	2E		STAB	CMIN
01166	FA5A	A6	05		LDAA	5,X
01167	FA5C	E6	04		LDAB	4,X
01168	FA5E	97	03		STAA	NUMCYC+1
01169	FA60	D7	02		STAB	NUMCYC
01170	FA62	86	0F		LDAA	##0F
01171	FA64	97	26		STAA	DANAVADJ
01172	FA66	3B		IRQDFIN	RTI	
01173	FA67	DE	32	WINC	LDX	TBLCOUNT
01174	FA69	A6	01		LDAA	1,X
01175	FA6B	E6	00		LDAB	0,X
01176	FA6D	B7	CC00		STAA	DAPIAORA
01177	FA70	F7	CC02		STAB	DAPIAORB
01178	FA73	08			INX	
01179	FA74	08			INX	
01180	FA75	DF	32		STX	TBLCOUNT
01181	FA77	8C	BEB6		CPX	#WTBLINC2+2
01182	FA7A	26	2F		BNE	IRQFIN
01183	FA7C	CE	BDB0		LDX	#WTBLDEC2
01184	FA7F	DF	32		STX	TBLCOUNT
01185	FA81	86	FF		LDAA	##FF
01186	FA83	37	34		STAA	INCDEC
01187	FA85	91	37		CMPA	TRIPPED
01188	FA87	26	08		BNE	NOTTRIP
01189	FA89	7D	0000		TST	ADMODE
01190	FA8C	27	03		BEQ	NOTTRIP
01191	FA8E	7E	F8CF		JMP	TERMITE
01192	FA91	97	37	NOTTRIP	STAA	TRIPPED
01193	FA93	96	01		LDAA	DAMODE
01194	FA95	81	F0		CMPA	##F0
01195	FA97	27	12		BEQ	IRQFIN
01196	FA99	DE	02		LDX	NUMCYC
01197	FA9B	26	0E		BNE	IRQFIN

01198	FA9D	DE 30		LIX	WAVEADR
01199	FA9F	A6 01		LDAA	1,X
01200	FAA1	E6 00		LDAB	0,X
01201	FAA3	97 2D		STAA	CMAX+1
01202	FAA5	D7 2C		STAB	CMAX
01203	FAA7	86 FF		LDAA	#\$FF
01204	FAA9	97 26		STAA	DAWAVADJ
01205	FAAB	3B	IRQFIN	RTI	
01206	FC00			ORG	\$FC00
01207	FC00	0047	QUARTERW	FDB	\$0047
01208	FC02	008F		FDB	\$008F
01209	FC04	00D6		FDB	\$00D6
01210	FC06	011D		FDB	\$011D
01211	FC08	0164		FDB	\$0164
01212	FC0A	01AA		FDB	\$01AA
01213	FC0C	01EF		FDB	\$01EF
01214	FC0E	0234		FDB	\$0234
01215	FC10	0279		FDB	\$0279
01216	FC12	02BC		FDB	\$02BC
01217	FC14	02FF		FDB	\$02FF
01218	FC16	0341		FDB	\$0341
01219	FC18	0382		FDB	\$0382
01220	FC1A	03C1		FDB	\$03C1
01221	FC1C	0400		FDB	\$0400
01222	FC1E	043D		FDB	\$043D
01223	FC20	0479		FDB	\$0479
01224	FC22	04B4		FDB	\$04B4
01225	FC24	04ED		FDB	\$04ED
01226	FC26	0524		FDB	\$0524
01227	FC28	055A		FDB	\$055A
01228	FC2A	058F		FDB	\$058F
01229	FC2C	05C1		FDB	\$05C1
01230	FC2E	05F2		FDB	\$05F2
01231	FC30	0621		FDB	\$0621
01232	FC32	064E		FDB	\$064E
01233	FC34	0679		FDB	\$0679
01234	FC36	06A2		FDB	\$06A2
01235	FC38	06C9		FDB	\$06C9
01236	FC3A	06ED		FDB	\$06ED
01237	FC3C	0710		FDB	\$0710
01238	FC3E	0731		FDB	\$0731
01239	FC40	074F		FDB	\$074F
01240	FC42	076B		FDB	\$076B
01241	FC44	0784		FDB	\$0784
01242	FC46	079C		FDB	\$079C
01243	FC48	07B1		FDB	\$07B1
01244	FC4A	07C3		FDB	\$07C3
01245	FC4C	07D3		FDB	\$07D3
01246	FC4E	07E1		FDB	\$07E1
01247	FC50	07EC		FDB	\$07EC
01248	FC52	07F5		FDB	\$07F5
01249	FC54	07FB		FDB	\$07FB
01250	FC56	07FF		FDB	\$07FF
01251	FFF8			ORG	\$\$\$F8
01252	FFF8	FA03		FDB	\$\$\$A03
01253	FFFA	FA00		FDB	\$\$\$A00
01254	FFFC	F000		FDB	\$\$\$F000
01255	FFFE	F000		FDB	\$\$\$F000
01256				END	

APPENDIX D  
FATIGUE TESTING

PROGRAM FatigueTesting;

USES {\$U-}

  {\$U OBJ/Memtypes } Memtypes,  
  {\$U OBJ/QuickDraw } QuickDraw,  
  {\$U OBJ/OSintf } OSintf,  
  {\$U OBJ/PackIntf } PackIntf,  
  {\$U OBJ/SaneLib } Sane,  
  {\$U Sargen/drvrimpl } drvrimpl,  
  {\$U OBJ/TOOLintf } TOOLintf;

CONST

  lastMenu = 4;                { number of menus }  
  appleMenu = 1;               { menu ID for desk accessory menu }  
  genmenu = 2;                 { menu ID for general menu }  
  Sendmenu = 3;  
  Smoothmenu = 4;

TYPE

  GenRecord = Record  
    GSArG     : SArG;  
    fname     : STR255;  
    dataFname : STR255;  
    vrefnum   : INTEGER;  
    channel    : INTEGER;  
    StoreData : BOOLEAN;  
    SArGAvail : BOOLEAN;  
    progX     : BOOLEAN;  
    PReady    : BOOLEAN;  
    Start     : BOOLEAN;  
    Quit      : BOOLEAN;  
  END;

  cycdat = PACKED Array [0..1000] OF Longint;  
  cycptr = ^cycdat;  
  cychdl = ^cycptr;

  PkStc = Record  
    Maxpk : Integer;  
    Minpk : Integer;  
  End;

  PkData = PACKED Array [0..1000] OF PkStc;  
  pkptr = ^Pkdata;  
  pkhdl = ^pkptr;

```

AmpliRec = Record
    VMaxpk      : Integer;
    VMinpk      : Integer;
    VRate       : Integer;
    Ncycle      : LongInt;
End;
AmpliDat = Packed Array [1..200] OF AmpliRec;

```

```

VAR
myMenus      : ARRAY [1..lastMenu] OF MenuHandle;
progRec      : GenRecord;
mainWindow,
tempwindow   : WindowPtr;
myEvent      : EventRecord;
rn           : OSErr;
DAMode,
genint,
refnum,
code        : Integer;
genlong,
numbytes    : LongInt;
dragrect    : Rect;
genrect     : Rect;
genstr      : STR255;
DALevelCtl  : ControlHandle;
rate,
Maxpk,
MinPk,
CurMaxpk,
CurMinpk   : Integer;
Lnumcyc     : LongInt;
cyodata     : LongInt;
D1Str       : Str255;
DVal        : ARRAY [1..9] OF Integer;
DBool       : ARRAY [1..10] OF BOOLEAN;
chselected  : ARRAY [1..4] OF BOOLEAN;
StorData    : ARRAY [1..4] OF BOOLEAN;
DataMax     : ARRAY [1..4] OF BOOLEAN;
DataCount   : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
LMax        : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
LMin        : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
SMax        : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
SMin        : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
ChMinaver   : ARRAY [1..4,1..5] OF Integer;
ChMaxaver   : ARRAY [1..4,1..5] OF Integer;
avMinpt     : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;

```

```

avMaxpt      : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
NumMinpt     : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
NumMaxpt     : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
Maxtotal,
Mintotal     : ARRAY [1..4] OF Integer;
Avselected   : ARRAY [1..4] OF BOOLEAN;
pth          : ARRAY [1..8] OF INTEGER;
ptv          : ARRAY [1..8] OF INTEGER;
checklev     : Integer;
Cyc1datHdl   : cychdl;
pk1dathdl    : pkHdl;
Cyc2datHdl   : cychdl;
pk2dathdl    : pkHdl;
Cyc3datHdl   : cychdl;
pk3dathdl    : pkHdl;
Cyc4datHdl   : cychdl;
pk4dathdl    : pkHdl;
VANumlev     : Integer;
VACurlev     : Integer;
VALastcyc    : LongInt;
VAmpTbl      : AmpliDat;
genchar      : CHAR;
InLevCtl,
DumClr,
dumBool      : BOOLEAN;
dataConst    : EXTENDED;
Data1F       : DecForm;
triglev      : Integer;

```

```

Procedure Anyerr(rn: Integer);
VAR  astr: STR255;
      resA: Integer;

```

```

Begin
  NumtoString(rn,astr);
  paramtext(astr,"","");
  resA:=Alert(10,NIL);
End;

```

```

Procedure SargJack;
VAR  Hival,
      theval: INTEGER;

```

```

Begin
  theval:=GetCtlVAlue(DALevelCtl);
  Hival:=theval div 256;

```



```

    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(Hival));
    theval:=theval - Hival*256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(theval));
End;

```

```

Procedure GoCheck;
VAR   val1   : Integer;
      val2   : Integer;

```

```

Begin
    checklev:=0;
    val1:=Maxpk-lmax[1];
    val2:=Minpk-lmin[1];
    IF (val1<-2) OR (val1>2) OR (val2<-2) OR (val2>2) Then
    Begin
        IF (val1>20) OR (val1<-20) Then val1:=(val1*7) div 8;
        IF (val2>20) OR (val2<-20) Then val2:=(val2*7) div 8;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(14));
        curmaxpk:=curmaxpk+val1;
        curminpk:=curminpk+val2;
        IF (curmaxpk<1) Then curmaxpk:=1
        ELSE IF (curmaxpk>4095) Then curmaxpk:=4095;
        IF (curminpk>4096) Then curminpk:=4095
        ELSE IF (curminpk<1) Then curminpk:=1;
        val1:=curmaxpk div 256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val1));
        val2:=curmaxpk-val1*256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val2));
        val1:=curminpk div 256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val1));
        val2:=curminpk-val1*256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val2));
        val1:=rate div 256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val1));
        val2:=rate-val1*256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val2));
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(17));
    End;
End;

```

```

PROCEDURE TrackScroll(theControl: ControlHandle; partCode: INTEGER);
Var   amount, StartValue : INTEGER;
      up : BOOLEAN;
      tickdel,
      delend,
      therefcon : LongInt;

```

```

BEGIN
  up := partcode IN [inUpButton, inPageUp];
  StartValue := GetCtlValue (theControl);
  IF up THEN amount := -1 ELSE amount := 1;
  IF partCode IN [inPageUp, inPageDown] THEN amount:=amount*10;
  StartValue:=StartValue+amount;
  IF startValue<0 Then startValue:=0
  ELSE IF startvalue>GetCtlMax(thecontrol) Then startvalue:=GetCtlMax(thecontrol);
  SetCtlValue(theControl, StartValue);
  tickdel:=5;
  Delay(tickdel,delend);
  SargJack;
END; {of TrackScroll}

```

```

Procedure DiskRErr (io : INTEGER; FName : STR255);

```

```

Var str: str255;

```

```

  readfromstr, loadedstr, str1: Str255;

```

```

  dummy: INTEGER;

```

```

BEGIN

```

```

  GetIndString (readfromstr, 256, 9); {this says 'reading from'}

```

```

  GetIndString (loadedstr ,256, 11); {this says 'loaded'}

```

```

  IF io = IOErr

```

```

  THEN GetIndString (str, 256, 21) {this says 'IO error'}

```

```

  ELSE

```

```

  BEGIN

```

```

    NumToString (io, str1);

```

```

    GetIndString (str, 256, 22); {this is the generic 'ID ='}

```

```

    str := Concat (str, str1)

```

```

  END;

```

```

  Paramtext (readfromstr, FName, loadedstr, str);

```

```

  dummy := StopAlert (256, NIL); {dscribe error to user in generic way.}

```

```

END;

```

```

PROCEDURE DiskWErr (io : INTEGER; fname:STR255);

```

```

Var str:str255;

```

```

  writetostr, savedstr, str1: Str255;

```

```

  dummy, errstr: INTEGER;

```

```

BEGIN

```

```

  GetIndString (writetostr,256,10);{read resource for writeto}

```

```

  GetIndString (savedstr,256,12);{read resource for saved}

```

```

  errstr := 0;

```

```

  Case io of

```

```

    DskFulErr : errstr := 17;

```

```

    DirFulErr : errstr := 18;

```

```

    FLckdErr : errstr := 19;

```

```

    VLckdErr, WPrErr : errstr := 20;
    IOErr : errstr := 21;
    OTHERWISE
    BEGIN
        NumToString (io, str);
        GetIndString (str1,256,22);
        str := Concat (str1,str)
    END
END;
IF errstr <> 0 THEN GetIndString (str,256,errstr);
Paramtext (writetostr,FName,savedstr,str);
dummy := StopAlert (256, NIL);
END;

Procedure DrawChData;
VAR  direct: Rect;
     arect: RECT;
     loop,
     dataval2: Integer;
     dataExt: EXTENDED;
     ExStr: DecStr;
     DStr: Str255;

Begin
    SetPort(mainwindow);
    IF DBool[1] Then
    Begin
        dataval2:=2047-dval[1];
        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
        Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
        DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
        setRect(direct,pth[1],ptv[1],pth[1]+63,ptv[1]+23);
        EraseRect(direct);
        MoveTo(pth[1]+4,ptv[1]+19);
        DrawString(DStr);
    End;
    IF DBool[2] Then
    Begin
        dataval2:=2047-dval[2];
        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
        Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
        DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
        setRect(direct,pth[2],ptv[2],pth[2]+63,ptv[2]+23);
        EraseRect(direct);
        MoveTo(pth[2]+4,ptv[2]+19);
        DrawString(DStr);
    End;

```

```

End;
IF DBool[3] Then
Begin
    dataval2:=2047-dval[3];
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
    DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    setRect(direct,pth[3],ptv[3],pth[3]+63,ptv[3]+23);
    EraseRect(direct);
    MoveTo(pth[3]+4,ptv[3]+19);
    DrawString(DStr);
End;
IF DBool[4] Then
Begin
    dataval2:=2047-dval[4];
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
    DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    setRect(direct,pth[4],ptv[4],pth[4]+63,ptv[4]+23);
    EraseRect(direct);
    MoveTo(pth[4]+4,ptv[4]+19);
    DrawString(DStr);
End;
IF DBool[5] Then
Begin
    dataval2:=2047-dval[5];
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
    DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    setRect(direct,pth[5],ptv[5],pth[5]+63,ptv[5]+23);
    EraseRect(direct);
    MoveTo(pth[5]+4,ptv[5]+19);
    DrawString(DStr);
End;
IF DBool[6] Then
Begin
    dataval2:=2047-dval[6];
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
    DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    setRect(direct,pth[6],ptv[6],pth[6]+63,ptv[6]+23);
    EraseRect(direct);
    MoveTo(pth[6]+4,ptv[6]+19);
    DrawString(DStr);
End;
IF DBool[7] Then

```

```

Begin
  dataval2:=2047-dval[7];
  DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
  Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
  DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
  setRect(direct,pth[7],ptv[7],pth[7]+63,ptv[7]+23);
  EraseRect(direct);
  MoveTo(pth[7]+4,ptv[7]+19);
  DrawString(DStr);
End;
IF DBool[8] Then
Begin
  dataval2:=2047-dval[8];
  DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
  Num2Str(Data1F,DataExt,Exstr);
  DStr:=STR255(Exstr);
  setRect(direct,pth[8],ptv[8],pth[8]+63,ptv[8]+23);
  EraseRect(direct);
  MoveTo(pth[8]+4,ptv[8]+19);
  DrawString(DStr);
End;
IF DBool[9] Then
Begin
  SetRect(arect,151,40,254,58);
  EraseRect(arect);
  MoveTo(155,55);
  DrawString(D1Str);
End;
IF Lnumcyc<>cycdata Then
Begin
  Setrect(arect,151,21,254,39);EraseRect(arect);
  Lnumcyc:=cycdata;
  numtostring(Lnumcyc,Dstr);
  MoveTo(155,36);DrawString(Dstr);
End;
End;

Procedure VarSet;
VAR   valint,
      val1,
      val2:   Integer;

Begin
  VACurlev:=1;
  VALastcyc:=0;
  Maxpk:=VAmpTbl[1].VMaxpk;
  Minpk:=VAmpTbl[1].VMinpk;

```

```

valint:=(minpk-maxpk) div 32;
Lmax[1]:=MaxPk;
Lmin[1]:=MinPk;
rate:=VAmpTbl[1].VRate;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(14));
curmaxpk:=maxpk+valint;
IF (curmaxpk<0) Then curmaxpk:=0
ELSE IF (curmaxpk>4095) Then curmaxpk:=4095;
curminpk:=minpk-valint;
IF (curminpk>4095) Then curminpk:=4095
ELSE IF (curminpk<1) Then curminpk:=1;
val1:=curmaxpk div 256;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val1));
val2:=curmaxpk-val1*256;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val2));
val1:=curminpk div 256;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val1));
val2:=curminpk-val1*256;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val2));
val1:=rate div 256;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val1));
val2:=rate-val1*256;
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val2));
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(17));

```

End;

```

Procedure ReadVAmp(VRefNo: Integer; name: STR255);
TYPE chrarray= PACKED ARRAY[1..2000] OF CHAR;
   ChrAPtr= ^chrarray;

```

```

VAR   refnum:   Integer;
      LogEOF:   LongInt;
      aptr:    Ptr;
      ahdl:    Handle;
      ACAPtr:  chrAPtr;
      io:      OSErr;
      loop2,
      loop:    LONGINT;
      num:     LongInt;
      chrval:  Integer;
      dummy:   BOOLEAN;

```

Begin

```

io:=FSOpen(name,vrefno,refnum);
IF io <> 0 THEN DiskRErr (io,name);
io := GetEOF (RefNum, logEOF);

```

```

IF io <> 0 THEN DiskRErr (io,name);
ahdl:=NewHandle(SizeOf(ChrArray));
HLock(ahdl);
aptr:=ahdl^;
ACAPtr:=ChrAPtr(aptr);
io := FSRead (refNum, logEOF, aptr);
IF io <> 0 THEN DiskRErr (io,name);
io:=FSClose(refnum);
IF io <> 0 THEN DiskRErr (io,name);
num:=0;dummy:=FALSE;loop2:=1;
Repeat
  Chrval:=ord(ACAPtr^[loop2]);
  IF (Chrval>=$30) AND (Chrval<=$39) Then num:=num*10+(Chrval-48)
  ELSE dummy:=TRUE;
  loop2:=loop2+1;
Until dummy;
VANumlev:=num;
FOR loop:= 1 TO VANumlev DO
Begin
  num:=0;dummy:=FALSE;
  Repeat
    Chrval:=ord(ACAPtr^[loop2]);
    IF (Chrval>=$30) AND (Chrval<=$39) Then num:=num*10+(Chrval-48)
    ELSE dummy:=TRUE;
    loop2:=loop2+1;
  Until dummy;
  VAmpTbl[loop].VMaxpk:=num;

  num:=0;dummy:=FALSE;
  Repeat
    Chrval:=ord(ACAPtr^[loop2]);
    IF (Chrval>=$30) AND (Chrval<=$39) Then num:=num*10+(Chrval-48)
    ELSE dummy:=TRUE;
    loop2:=loop2+1;
  Until dummy;
  VAmpTbl[loop].VMinpk:=num;

  num:=0;dummy:=FALSE;
  Repeat
    Chrval:=ord(ACAPtr^[loop2]);
    IF (Chrval>=$30) AND (Chrval<=$39) Then num:=num*10+(Chrval-48)
    ELSE dummy:=TRUE;
    loop2:=loop2+1;
  Until dummy;
  VAmpTbl[loop].VRate:=num;

  num:=0;dummy:=FALSE;

```

```

Repeat
  Chrval:=ord(ACAPtr^[loop2]);
  IF (Chrval>=$30) AND (Chrval<=$39) Then num:=num*10+(Chrval-48)
  ELSE dummy:=TRUE;
  loop2:=loop2+1;
Until dummy;
VAmpTbl[loop].Ncycle:=num;
End;
VarSet;
DisposHandle(ahdl);
End;

```

```

Procedure Sendch;
VAR  val : Integer;
Begin
  val:=112;
  IF chselected[1] THEN val:=Val+1;
  IF chselected[2] THEN val:=Val+2;
  IF chselected[3] THEN val:=Val+4;
  IF chselected[4] THEN val:=Val+8;
  SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
End;

```

```

Procedure SaveData;
TYPE  ChrPtr = ^Byte;
VAR   refNum,
      loop,
      loop2,
      acount,
      dataval2,
      io : INTEGER;
      gennum1,
      gennum2,
      dataval: LongInt;
      acptr: ChrPtr;
      dataExt: EXTENDED;
      DataF: DecForm;
      ExStr: DecStr;
      Astr: STR255;
      genptr,
      dStrPtr: Ptr;
      Nextch: BOOLEAN;

```

```

Begin
  EnableItem(myMenus[1],0);
  EnableItem(myMenus[2],3);

```



```

EnableItem(myMenus[2],10);
EnableItem(myMenus[3],9);
io := FSOpen(progrec.dataFName, progrec.VRefNum, refNum);
acptr:=chrptr(Newptr(sizeof(Byte)));
acptr^:=42;gennum1:=1;
genptr:=pointer(ord(acptr)+1);
io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);

acptr^:=13;gennum1:=1;
genptr:=pointer(ord(acptr)+1);
io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);

acptr^:=9;gennum1:=1;
genptr:=pointer(ord(acptr)+1);
IF datacount[1]>0 Then
Begin
    aStr:='Cycles (1)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Max. (1)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Min. (1)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
End;
IF datacount[2]>0 Then
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Cycles (2)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Max. (2)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Min. (2)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
End;
IF datacount[3]>0 Then
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);

```

```

    aStr:='Cycles (3)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Max. (3)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Min. (3)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
End;
IF datacount[4]>0 Then
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Cycles (4)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Max. (4)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    aStr:='Min. (4)';gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
End;
DataF.style:=FixedDecimal;
DataF.digits:=2;
acptr^:=13;gennum1:=1;
genptr:=pointer(ord(acptr)+1);
io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
acount:=datacount[1]-1;
IF acount<datacount[2] Then acount:=datacount[2]-1;
IF acount<datacount[3] Then acount:=datacount[3]-1;
IF acount<datacount[4] Then acount:=datacount[4]-1;
FOR loop:= 0 TO acount DO
Begin
    acptr^:=9;gennum1:=1;
    genptr:=pointer(ord(acptr)+1);
    IF datacount[1]>0 Then
    Begin
        IF loop<datacount[1] Then
        Begin
            dataval:=cyc1dathdl^[loop];
            numtostring(dataval,astr);

```

```

    gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
    dataval:=pk1dathdl^[loop].Maxpk;
    dataval2:=2048-dataval;
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
    aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
    dataval:=pk1dathdl^[loop].Minpk;
    dataval2:=2048-dataval;
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
    aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
End
ELSE
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
End;
End;
IF datacount[2]>0 Then
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF loop<datacount[2] Then
    Begin
        dataval:=cyc2dathdl^[loop];
        numtostring(dataval,astr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
        dataval:=pk2dathdl^[loop].Maxpk;
        dataval2:=2048-dataval;
        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;

```

```

    Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
    aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
    dataval:=pk2dathdl^[loop].Minpk;
    dataval2:=2048-dataval;
    DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
    Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
    aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
    gennum2:=length(astr);
    dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
    IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
End
ELSE
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
End;
End;
IF datacount[3]>0 Then
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF loop<datacount[3] Then
    Begin
        dataval:=cyc3dathdl^[loop];
        numtostring(dataval,astr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
        dataval:=pk3dathdl^[loop].Maxpk;
        dataval2:=2048-dataval;
        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
        Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
        aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
        dataval:=pk3dathdl^[loop].Minpk;
        dataval2:=2048-dataval;

```

```

        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
        Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
        aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
    End
ELSE
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
End;
End;
IF datacount[4]>0 Then
Begin
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF loop<datacount[4] Then
    Begin
        dataval:=cyc4dathdl^[loop];
        numtostring(dataval,astr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
        dataval:=pk4dathdl^[loop].Maxpk;
        dataval2:=2048-dataval;
        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
        Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
        aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
        dataval:=pk4dathdl^[loop].Minpk;
        dataval2:=2048-dataval;
        DataExt:=dataval2*DataConst;
        Num2Str(DataF,DataExt,Exstr);
        aStr:=STR255(Exstr);
        gennum2:=length(astr);
        dstrptr:=pointer(ord(@astr)+1);
        io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum2, dstrptr);
        IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
    End

```

```

        ELSE
        Begin
            io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
            io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
        End;
    End;
    acptr^:=13;gennum1:=1;
    genptr:=pointer(ord(acptr)+1);
    io := FSWrite (refNum, gennum1, genptr);
    IF io <> 0 THEN DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
End;
io := GetFPos(refNum, gennum1);
IF io<>0 Then DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
io := SetEOF (refNum, gennum1);
IF io<>0 Then DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
io := FSClose(refnum);
IF io<>0 Then DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
io := Flushvol(NIL,progrec.vrefnum);
IF io<>0 Then DiskWErr(io,progrec.dataFName);
End;

```

```

Procedure DoMenuCommand(mResult: LongInt);

```

```

VAR  refnum,
      theItem,
      theitm,
      tp,
      loop2,
      loop,
      theMenu: INTEGER;
      numcode: Longint;
      Adialg: Dialogptr;
      edthdl: Handle;
      arect: Rect;
      astr,
      astr1,
      astr2,
      astr3,
      name: STR255;
      val: LongInt;
      err: OSErr;
      achr: Char;
      pcode: integer;
      numDec: Extended;
      io : INTEGER;
      aptr: Ptr;
      wher: Point;

```

```
SFTList:  SFTypelist;
Preply:   SFReply;
ioOK:    BOOLEAN;
```

```
BEGIN
```

```
theMenu := HiWord(mResult);
theItem := LoWord(mResult);
CASE theMenu OF
```

```
appleMenu:
```

```
  BEGIN
```

```
    GetItem(myMenus[1],theItem,name);
```

```
    refNum := OpenDeskAcc(name);
```

```
  END;
```

```
GenMenu:
```

```
CASE theItem OF
```

```
1: Begin
```

```
  D1Str:='';
```

```
  SetPort(mainwindow);
```

```
  setRect(arect,151,81,214,104);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  setRect(arect,151,106,214,129);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  setRect(arect,151,131,214,154);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  setRect(arect,151,156,214,179);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  SetRect(arect,231,81,294,104);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  SetRect(arect,231,106,294,129);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  SetRect(arect,231,131,294,154);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  SetRect(arect,231,156,294,179);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  SetRect(arect,151,40,254,58);
```

```
  EraseRect(arect);
```

```
  For loop:=1 TO 9 DO DBool[loop]:=FALSE;
```

```
End;
```

```
2: Begin
```

```
  FOR loop:=1 TO 4 DO
```

```
    Begin
```

```
      StorData[loop]:=FALSE;
```

```
      SMax[loop]:=0;
```

```
      SMin[loop]:=0;
```

```

    LMax[loop]:=0;
    LMin[loop]:=0;
    avMinpt[loop]:=1;
    avMaxpt[loop]:=1;
    NumMinpt[loop]:=0;
    NumMaxpt[loop]:=0;
    MinTotal[loop]:=0;
    MaxTotal[loop]:=0;
    FOR loop2:=1 TO 5 DO
    Begin
        ChMinaver[loop,loop2]:=0;
        ChMaxaver[loop,loop2]:=0;
    End;
    DataCount[loop]:=0;
End;
DisposHandle(Handle(cyc1dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(pk1dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(cyc2dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(pk2dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(cyc3dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(pk3dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(cyc4dathdl));
DisposHandle(Handle(pk4dathdl));
Lnumcyc:=0;numbytes:=0;cycdata:=0;
cyc1dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk1dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
cyc2dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk2dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
cyc3dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk3dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
cyc4dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk4dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
Setrect(arect,151,21,254,39);EraseRect(arect);
IF DAMode=3 Then VarSet;
DisableItem(myMenus[2],3);
End;
3: Begin
    wher.h:=100;
    wher.v:=100;
    sfPutFile(wher,'Save data in file:',ProgRec.datafname,NIL,PReply);
    With PReply DO
    IF good Then
    Begin
        Progrec.datafname:=Fname;
        progrec.vrefnum:=vrefnum;
        io := FSOpen(FName, VRefNum, refNum);

```



```

        IF io = {file not found Err} -43 THEN
        BEGIN
            io := Create (FName,VRefNum,'CGRF','CGTX');
            io := FSOpen(FName, VRefNum, refNum);
        END; {Create}
        val:=0;
        io := SetEOF(refnum,val);
        io := FSClose (refNum);
        io := FlushVol (NIL, VrefNum);
        SaveData;
    End;
End;
5: Begin
    IF chselected[1] Then
    Begin
        chselected[1]:=FALSE;
        checkitem(mymenus[2],5,FALSE);
    End
    ELSE
    Begin
        chselected[1]:=TRUE;
        checkitem(mymenus[2],5,TRUE);
    End;
    SendCh;
End;
6: Begin
    IF chselected[2] Then
    Begin
        chselected[2]:=FALSE;
        checkitem(mymenus[2],6,FALSE);
    End
    ELSE
    Begin
        chselected[2]:=TRUE;
        checkitem(mymenus[2],6,TRUE);
    End;
    SendCh;
End;
7: Begin
    IF chselected[3] Then
    Begin
        chselected[3]:=FALSE;
        checkitem(mymenus[2],7,FALSE);
    End
    ELSE
    Begin
        chselected[3]:=TRUE;

```

```

        checkitem(mymenus[2],7,TRUE);
    End;
    SendCh;
End;
8: Begin
    IF chselected[4] Then
        Begin
            chselected[4]:=FALSE;
            checkitem(mymenus[2],8,FALSE);
        End
    ELSE
        Begin
            chselected[4]:=TRUE;
            checkitem(mymenus[2],8,TRUE);
        End;
        SendCh;
    End;
10: ProgRec.Quit:=TRUE;
End;
Sendmenu:
CASE theItem OF
1: SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(17));
2: SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(18));
3: SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(19));
4: Begin
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(15));
        DAMode:=1;
    End;
5: Begin
        Adialg:=GetNewDialog(13 ,NIL,Pointer(-1));
        ModalDialog(NIL,theitm);
        GetDItem(Adialg,2,tp,edthdl,arect);
        Getltext(edthdl,astr1);
        GetDItem(Adialg,4,tp,edthdl,arect);
        Getltext(edthdl,astr2);
        GetDItem(Adialg,6,tp,edthdl,arect);
        Getltext(edthdl,astr3);
        DisposDialog(Adialg);
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(17));
        numDec:=Str2Num(DecStr(astr1));
        numDec:=2047-numDec*2048/100;
        Maxpk:=Num2Integer(numDec);
        numDec:=Str2Num(DecStr(astr2));
        numDec:=2047-numDec*2048/100;
        Minpk:=Num2Integer(numDec);
        pcode:=(minpk-maxpk) div 32;val:=(minpk+maxpk) div 2;

```

```

    curmaxpk:=val-15*PCODE;
    curminpk:=val+15*PCODE;
    numDec:=Str2Num(DecStr(astr3));
    numDec:=2000000/(numDec*180);
    rate:=Num2Integer(numDec);
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(14));
    Lmax[1]:=Maxpk;
    Lmin[1]:=Minpk;
    IF (curmaxpk<0) Then curmaxpk:=0;
    IF (curminpk>4096) Then curminpk:=4095;
    val:=curmaxpk div 256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    val:=curmaxpk-val*256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    val:=curminpk div 256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    val:=curminpk-val*256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    val:=rate div 256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    val:=rate-val*256;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    DAMode:=2;
End;
6: Begin
    wher.h:=100;
    wher.v:=100;
    SFTList[0]:='TEXT';
    SFGGetFile(wher,"",NIL,1,SFTList,NIL,PReply);
    With PReply DO
    IF good Then
    Begin
        ReadVAmp(vrefnum,fname);
        DAMode:=3;
    End;
End;
7: Begin
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(21));
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(128));
End;
9: Begin
    IF InLevCtl=FALSE Then
    Begin
        ShowControl(DAlevelCtl);
        InLevCtl:=TRUE;
        DisableItem(myMenus[1],0);
    End;
End;

```

```

        DisableItem(myMenus[2],0);
        DisableItem(myMenus[4],0);
        FOR loop:=1 TO 12 DO DisableItem(myMenus[3],loop);
        astr:='End Jack Control';
        SetItem(myMenus[3],9,astr);
        EnableItem(myMenus[3],9);
        TextFont(Geneva);
        MoveTo(5,203);
        DrawString('Tension');
        MoveTo(226,203);
        DrawString('Compression');
        TextFont(SystemFont);
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(8));
    End
ELSE
Begin
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(80));
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(80));
    InLevCtl:=FALSE;
    EnableItem(myMenus[1],0);
    EnableItem(myMenus[2],0);
    EnableItem(myMenus[4],0);
    FOR loop:=1 TO 12 DO EnableItem(myMenus[3],loop);
    astr:='Jack Control';
    SetItem(myMenus[3],9,astr);
    HideControl(DAlevelCtl);
    SetRect(arect,4,190,305,210);EraseRect(arect);
    DisableItem(myMenus[2],3);
    DisableItem(myMenus[2],4);
    DisableItem(myMenus[3],8);
End;
End;
10: Begin
    IF ProgRec.StoreData Then
    Begin
        checklev:=0;
        wher.h:=100;
        wher.v:=100;
        sfPutFile(wher,'Save data in file:',ProgRec.datafname,NIL,PReply);
        With PReply DO
        IF good Then
        Begin
            Progrec.datafname:=Fname;
            progrec.vrefnum:=vrefnum;
            io := FSOpen(FName, VRefNum, refNum);
            IF io = {file not found Err} -43 THEN
            BEGIN

```

```

        io := Create (FName,VRefNum,'CGRF','CGTX');
        io := FSOpen(FName, VRefNum, refNum);
    END; {Create}
    val:=0;
    io := SetEOF(refnum,val);
    io := FSClose (refNum);
    io := FlushVol (NIL, VrefNum);
    End;
    Adialg:=GetNewDialog(14 ,NIL,Pointer(-1));
    ModalDialog(NIL,theitm);
    GetDItem(Adialg,2,tp,edthdl,arect);
    GetIttext(edthdl,astr);
    DisposDialog(Adialg);
    StringToNum(astr,val);
    triglev:=val;
    End;
    DisableItem(myMenus[2],10);
    DisableItem(myMenus[1],0);
    DisableItem(myMenus[3],9);
    progrec.start:=TRUE;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(17));
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(1));
    End;
11: Begin
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(96));
    End;
12: Begin
    Adialg:=GetNewDialog(12 ,NIL,Pointer(-1));
    ModalDialog(NIL,theitm);
    GetDItem(Adialg,2,tp,edthdl,arect);
    GetIttext(edthdl,astr);
    DisposDialog(Adialg);
    StringToNum(astr,val);
    IF val>255 Then
    Begin
        tp:=val div 256;
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(tp));
        val:=val-tp*256;
    End;
    SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(val));
    End;
    End;
Smoothmenu:
Begin
    IF theItem<5 then
    Begin

```

```

        IF avselected[theItem] Then
        Begin
            avselected[theItem]:=FALSE;
            checkitem(myMenus[4],theItem,FALSE);
        End
        ELSE
        Begin
            avselected[theItem]:=TRUE;
            checkitem(myMenus[4],theItem,TRUE);
        End;
    End
    ELSE IF theItem=6 Then
    Begin
        progrec.storeData:=TRUE;
        checkitem(myMenus[4],6,TRUE);
        checkitem(myMenus[4],7,FALSE);
    End
    ELSE IF theItem=7 Then
    Begin
        progrec.storeData:=FALSE;
        checkitem(myMenus[4],7,TRUE);
        checkitem(myMenus[4],6,FALSE);
    End;
End;
End;
HiliteMenu(0);
End;

```

```

PROCEDURE STestWind;
VAR  arect: Rect;
      loop: Integer;
Begin
    TextFont(systemFont);
    SetRect(arect,150,20,255,40);FrameRect(arect);
    MoveTo(40,36);DrawString('Cycle counter');
    SetRect(arect,150,39,255,59);FrameRect(arect);
    MoveTo(40,55);
    DrawString('SArGen Status');
    MoveTo(150,76);
    DrawString('Max Peak');
    MoveTo(230,76);
    DrawString('Min Peak');
    SetRect(arect,150,80,215,180);FrameRect(arect);
    MoveTo(150,105);LineTo(214,105);
    MoveTo(150,130);LineTo(214,130);
    MoveTo(150,155);LineTo(214,155);

```

```

    SetRect(arect,230,80,295,180);FrameRect(arect);
    MoveTo(230,105);LineTo(294,105);
    MoveTo(230,130);LineTo(294,130);
    MoveTo(230,155);LineTo(294,155);
    MoveTo(20,100);DrawString('CHANNEL 1');
    MoveTo(20,125);DrawString('CHANNEL 2');
    MoveTo(20,150);DrawString('CHANNEL 3');
    MoveTo(20,175);DrawString('CHANNEL 4');
End;

Procedure Initialise;
VAR   arect: Rect;
      loop2,
      loop: Integer;
      DSize: Size;

PROCEDURE SetUpMenus;           { Once-only initialization for menus }
VAR   i : INTEGER;
      appleTitle:  STRING[1];   { This is set to the Apple character }

BEGIN
    InitMenus;
    appleTitle := ' ';
    appleTitle[1] := CHR(20);
    myMenus[1] := NewMenu(appleMenu,appleTitle);
    AddResMenu(myMenus[1],'DRVR');
    FOR i:=2 TO lastMenu DO mymenus[i] := GetMenu(i);
    FOR i:=1 TO lastMenu DO InsertMenu(myMenus[i],0);
    DrawMenuBar;
END;  { of SetUpMenus }

BEGIN
    InitGraf(@thePort);
    InitFonts;

    FlushEvents(everyEvent,0);
    InitCursor;

    InitWindows;
    mainwindow:=GetNewWindow(128,NIL,pointer(-1));

    TEInit;
    SetPort(mainwindow);
    tempwindow:=mainwindow;
    STestWind;
    SetRect(arect,5,205,305,225);

```

```

DALevelCtl:=NewControl(mainwindow,arect,",FALSE,2047,0,4095,scrollbarproc,2);
InitDialogs(NIL);
InitCursor;
SetUpMenus;
InitSArG;
ProgRec.GSArG:= NewSArG;
OpenSArG(Progrec.GSArG, SPortB);
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(11));
SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(80));
With ProgRec DO
Begin
    SarGAvail := TRUE;
    channel   := 1;
    fname    := "";
    datafname := "";
    Vrefnum  := 0;
    StoreData := TRUE;
    progX    := FALSE;
    PReady   := FALSE;
    Start    := FALSE;
    Quit     := FALSE;
End;
FOR loop:=1 TO 9 DO
Begin
    DBool[loop]:=FALSE;
    DVal[loop]:=2047;
End;
D1 Str:="";
FOR loop:=1 TO 4 DO
Begin
    datacount[loop]:=0;
    StorData[loop]:=FALSE;
    DataMax[loop]:=TRUE;
    SMax[loop]:=0;
    SMin[loop]:=0;
    LMax[loop]:=0;
    LMin[loop]:=0;
    avMinpt[loop]:=1;
    avMaxpt[loop]:=1;
    NumMinpt[loop]:=0;
    NumMaxpt[loop]:=0;
    MinTotal[loop]:=0;
    MaxTotal[loop]:=0;
    FOR loop2:=1 TO 5 DO
    Begin
        ChMinaver[loop,loop2]:=0;
    End;
    End;

```



```

        ChMaxaver[loop,loop2]:=0;
    End;
End;
cyc1dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk1dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
cyc2dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk2dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
cyc3dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk3dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
cyc4dathdl:=cychdl(NewHandle(sizeof(cycdat)));
pk4dathdl:=pkhdl(Newhandle(sizeof(pkData)));
Lnumcyc:=0;numbytes:=0;cycdata:=0;DAMode:=0;
InlevCtl:=FALSE;
chselected[1]:=TRUE;
chselected[2]:=TRUE;
chselected[3]:=FALSE;
chselected[4]:=FALSE;
Sendch;
FOR loop:=1 TO 4 DO
Begin
    pth[loop]:=151;
    pth[loop+4]:=231;
End;
ptv[1]:=81;ptv[2]:=106;ptv[3]:=131;ptv[4]:=156;
ptv[5]:=81;ptv[6]:=106;ptv[7]:=131;ptv[8]:=156;
Data1F.style:=FixedDecimal;
Data1F.digits:=2;
DataConst:=100/2048;
avselected[2]:=TRUE;
avselected[1]:=FALSE;
avselected[3]:=FALSE;
avselected[4]:=FALSE;
checkitem(mymenus[4],2,TRUE);
checkitem(mymenus[2],6,TRUE);
checkitem(mymenus[2],5,TRUE);
checkitem(mymenus[4],6,TRUE);
END;

Procedure ProcContent(whwindow:WindowPtr; theEvent:EventRecord);
VAR    ptlocal : point;
        code,dummy: Integer;
        wcontrol: ControlHandle;
        therefcon: LongInt;

Begin
    ptlocal:=theEvent.where;
    GlobalToLocal(ptlocal);

```

```

code:=FindControl(ptlocal,whwindow,wcontrol);
IF wControl<>NIL Then
Begin
  IF code = inThumb THEN
  BEGIN
    dummy := TrackControl (wcontrol, ptlocal, NIL);
    SargJack;
  END
  ELSE dummy := TrackControl (wcontrol, ptlocal, @TrackScroll);
End;
End;

```

```

Procedure KeyInput(theevt: EventRecord);
VAR  keych,spch : CHAR;
      hexspace,
      keyval: integer;
      themess:Longint;

```

```

Begin
  themess:=theevt.message;
  keyval:=themess mod 256;
End;

```

```

Procedure Checkbytes(VAR thebytes:Longint);
VAR  err:  OSErr;
      apr:  Ptr;
      nbptr: ^LongInt;

```

```

BEGIN
  err:=Status(-20,2,aptr);
  IF err<>noerr Then anyerr(err);
  nbptr:=pointer(ord(aptr));
  thebytes:=nbptr^;
END;

```

```

PROCEDURE ToUpDWindow(TheEvent: EventRecord);
VAR  tempport: GrafPtr;
      whichwindow: WindowPtr;

```

```

Begin
  whichwindow:=Pointer(theEvent.message);
  BeginUpDate(whichwindow);
  GetPort(tempPort);
  SetPort(whichWindow);
  STestWind;
  IF InLevCtl Then Drawcontrol(whichwindow);

```

```

DrawChData;
SetPort(TempPort);
EndUpDate(whichwindow);
End;

```

```

Procedure ListenSArG(Lisbytes:Longint);

```

```

VAR  err:      OSErr;
     aprt:     Ptr;
     io:       OSErr;
     Horzshift,
     loop,
     loop2,
     avval,
     avtot,
     dataval,
     dataval2,
     dataval3: Integer;
     dataval1: Integer;
     Lisbuf:   PACKED ARRAY [0..3000] OF CHAR;
     AlertRpy: BOOLEAN;

```

```

Begin .

```

```

    aprt:=@Lisbuf;
    err:=FSRead(-20,Lisbytes,aprt);
    IF err<>noerr Then Anyerr(err);
    loop:=0;
    While loop<Lisbytes DO
    Begin
        dataval:=ord(Lisbuf[loop]);
        IF dataval>=$80 Then
        Begin
            loop:=loop+1;
            IF loop<Lisbytes Then
            Begin
                dataval2:=ord(Lisbuf[loop]);
                loop:=loop+1;
                IF loop<Lisbytes Then
                Begin
                    dataval1:=dataval2*256+ord(Lisbuf[loop]);
                    IF dataval=$80 Then horzshift:=1
                    ELSE IF dataval=$90 Then horzshift:=2
                    ELSE IF dataval=$A0 Then horzshift:=3
                    ELSE IF dataval=$B0 Then horzshift:=4
                    ELSE horzshift:=9;
                    IF horzshift<5 Then
                    Begin
                        IF progrec.start=TRUE Then

```

```

Begin
  IF datamax[horzshift]=TRUE Then
  Begin
    datamax[horzshift]:=FALSE;
    dataval3:=dataval1-Smax[horzshift];
    IF avselected[horzshift] Then
    Begin
      IF (ProgRec.StoreData) AND
        ((dataval3<-25) OR (dataval3>25)) Then
      Begin
        avMaxpt[horzshift]:=1;NumMaxpt[horzshift]:=0;
        Maxtotal[horzshift]:=0;
      End
      ELSE
      Begin
        avval:=avmaxpt[horzshift];
        avtot:=MaxTotal[horzshift];
        IF NumMaxpt[horzshift]<3 Then
        Begin
          chmaxaver[horzshift,avval]:=dataval1;
          avtot:=avtot+dataval1;
          dataval1:=avtot div avval;
          avval:=avval+1;
          IF avval>3 Then avval:=1;
          NumMaxpt[horzshift]:=NumMaxpt[horzshift]+1;
        End
        ELSE
        Begin
          avtot:=avtot-chmaxaver[horzshift,avval];
          chmaxaver[horzshift,avval]:=dataval1;
          avval:=avval+1;
          IF avval>3 Then avval:=1;
          avtot:=avtot+dataval1;
          dataval1:=avtot div 3;
        End;
        avmaxpt[horzshift]:=avval;
        Maxtotal[horzshift]:=avtot;
      End;
    End;
  IF ProgRec.StoreData Then
  IF (dataval3<-triglev) OR (dataval3>triglev) Then
  Begin
    StorData[horzshift]:=TRUE;
    SMax[horzshift]:=dataval1;
  End;
  Lmax[horzshift]:=dataval1;

```

```

End
ELSE
Begin
    dataval3:=dataval1-Smin[horzshift];
    IF avselected[horzshift] Then
    Begin
        IF (ProgRec.StoreData) AND
            ((dataval3<-25) OR (dataval3>25)) Then
        Begin
            StorData[horzshift]:=TRUE;
            avMinpt[horzshift]:=1;NumMinpt[horzshift]:=0;
            Mintotal[horzshift]:=0;
        End
    End
    ELSE
    Begin
        avval:=avMinpt[horzshift];
        avtot:=Mintotal[horzshift];
        IF NumMinpt[horzshift]<3 Then
        Begin
            chminaver[horzshift,avval]:=dataval1;
            avtot:=avtot+dataval1;
            dataval1:=avtot div avval;
            avval:=avval+1;
            IF avval>3 Then avval:=1;
            NumMinpt[horzshift]:=NumMinpt[horzshift]+1;
        End
    End
    ELSE
    Begin
        avtot:=avtot-chminaver[horzshift,avval];
        chminaver[horzshift,avval]:=dataval1;
        avval:=avval+1;
        IF avval>3 Then avval:=1;
        avtot:=avtot+dataval1;
        dataval1:=avtot div 3;
    End;
        avminpt[horzshift]:=avval;
        MinTotal[horzshift]:=avtot;
    End;
End;
IF ProgRec.StoreData Then
IF (dataval3<-triglev) OR (dataval3>triglev) Then
Begin
    StorData[horzshift]:=TRUE;
    SMin[horzshift]:=dataval1;
End;
lmin[horzshift]:=dataval1;

```

```

IF lmax[horzshift]<dataval1 Then datamax[horzshift]:=TRUE
ELSE
Begin
    datamax[horzshift]:=FALSE;
    lmin[horzshift]:=lmax[horzshift];
    lmax[horzshift]:=dataval1;
End;
IF StorData[horzshift]=TRUE Then
Begin
    CASE horzshift OF
    1: Begin
        pk1dathdl^[datacount[1]].maxpk:=Lmax[1];
        pk1dathdl^[datacount[1]].Minpk:=Lmin[1];
        cyc1dathdl^[datacount[1]]:=cycdata;
        datacount[1]:=datacount[1]+1;
    End;
    2: Begin
        pk2dathdl^[datacount[2]].maxpk:=Lmax[2];
        pk2dathdl^[datacount[2]].Minpk:=Lmin[2];
        cyc2dathdl^[datacount[2]]:=cycdata;
        datacount[2]:=datacount[2]+1;
    End;
    3: Begin
        pk3dathdl^[datacount[3]].maxpk:=Lmax[3];
        pk3dathdl^[datacount[3]].Minpk:=Lmin[3];
        cyc3dathdl^[datacount[3]]:=cycdata;
        datacount[3]:=datacount[3]+1;
    End;
    4: Begin
        pk4dathdl^[datacount[4]].maxpk:=Lmax[4];
        pk4dathdl^[datacount[4]].Minpk:=Lmin[4];
        cyc4dathdl^[datacount[4]]:=cycdata;
        datacount[4]:=datacount[4]+1;
    End;
    End;
    StorData[horzshift]:=FALSE;
    IF datacount[horzshift]>990 Then
    Begin
        SendAChar(ProgRec.GSArG,chr(96));
    End;
    End;
    horzshift:=horzshift+4;
End;
End;
DVal[horzshift]:=dataval1;
End
ELSE numtostring(dataval1,D1Str);

```

```

                DBool[horzshift]:=TRUE;
                loop:=loop+1;
            End;
        End;
    End
ELSE
Begin
    IF dataval=$11 Then D1Str:='OK'
    ELSE IF dataval=$12 Then D1Str:='ERROR'
    ELSE IF dataval=$60 Then
        Begin
            Progrec.start:=FALSE;
            D1Str:='Terminated';
            IF ProgRec.StoreData Then SaveData;
        End
    ELSE IF Dataval=$6F Then
        Begin
            cycdata:=cycdata+1;
            checklev:=checklev+1;
        End
    ELSE D1Str:='Reply Error';
    DBool[9]:=TRUE;
    loop:=loop+1;
End;
End;
End;

BEGIN { main routine }
    Initialise;
    REPEAT                { Main event loop
    }
        SystemTask;
        IF progrec.start Then
        Begin
            IF (DAMode=2) Then
            Begin
                IF (cycdata<50) AND (checklev>4) Then Gocheck
                ELSE IF checklev>100 Then Gocheck;
            End
            ELSE IF DAMode=3 Then
            Begin
                genlong:=cycdata-VALastcyc;
                IF genlong>=VAmpTbl[VACurLev].Ncycle Then
                Begin
                    VALastcyc:=VALastcyc+VAmpTbl[VACurLev].Ncycle;
                End
            End
        End
    End

```

```

        VACurLev:=VACurLev+1;
        IF VACurLev>VAnumLev Then VACurLev:=1;
        Maxpk:=VAmpTbl[VACurLev].VMaxPk;
        Minpk:=VAmpTbl[VACurLev].VMinPk;
        Rate:=VAmpTbl[VACurLev].VRate;
        GoCheck;
    End
    ELSE IF (genlong<40) AND (checklev>4) Then Gocheck
    ELSE IF checklev>49 Then GOCheck;
END;
End;
Checkbytes(numbytes);
IF numbytes<>0 Then
Begin
    ListenSArG(numbytes);
    DrawChData;
End;
dumBool:=GetNextEvent(EveryEvent,myEvent);
CASE myEvent.what OF
mouseDown :
    Begin
        code := FindWindow(myEvent.where,tempWindow);
        CASE code OF
            inMenuBar:    Begin
                            genlong:=MenuSelect(myEvent.where);
                            DoMenuCommand(genlong);
                        End;
            inSysWindow: SystemClick(MyEvent,tempWindow);
            inDrag:       Begin
                            Setrect(Dragrect,0,0,364,720);
                            DragWindow(tempWindow,myEvent.where,dragrect);
                        End;
            inContent:   IF tempWindow<>FrontWindow Then
SelectWindow(tempwindow)
                        ELSE ProcContent(tempWindow,myevent);
        End;
    End;
UpDateEvt :
    Begin
        ToUpDWindow(MyEvent);
    End;
keyDown :
    Begin
        genlong:=myEvent.modifiers div 256;
        genlong:=genlong mod 2;
        IF genlong=1 Then
        Begin

```



```
        code:=myEvent.message mod 256;
        genchar:=chr(code);
        genlong:=menukey(genchar);
        DoMenuCommand(genlong);
    End
    ELSE keyInput(myEvent);
End;
END;
UNTIL ProgRec.Quit;
END.
```

Sargen/Fatigue.Rsrc

Type TSAI = STR

,0 (32)

Fatigue test, by K T TSAI Version 1.0 June 20, 1986

Type MENU

,2

General

Clear Replies/R

Clear Data

(Save Data

( -

Channel 1

Channel 2

Channel 3

Channel 4

( -

Quit/Q

,3

SArGen

XON/1

XOFF/2

Calling Sargen/3

DA OFF/4

DA Constant Amp Wave/5

DA Variable Amp Wave/6

Zero SGA/7

( -

Jack Control/J

Begin Test/B

Stop Test/S

Send Integer/I

,4

Data

Smooth Channel 1

Smooth Channel 2

Smooth Channel 3

Smooth Channel 4

( -

Sample and Save

Sample only

**Type WIND**

,128

SARGen Fatigue Testing

70 101 300 411

Visible NoGoAway

0

0

**Type DLOG**

,12

40 100 75 370

Visible 1 NoGoAway 0

110

,13

40 120 135 370

Visible 1 NoGoAway 0

111

,14

40 100 75 370

Visible 1 NoGoAway 0

112

**Type ALRT**

,10

100 120 200 390

100

F765

\* a stop alert - an error occurred while reading or writing the disk

,256 (32)

80 81 180 431

105

5555

**Type DITL**

,110

2

StatText Disabled

10 10 30 210

Enter decimal value of Char :

EditText Disabled

10 210 26 255

,105

3

BtnItem Enabled

90 267 110 337

OK

StatText Disabled

10 60 70 350

An error occured while ^0 the disk. The file '^1' was not ^2.

StatText Disabled

70 60 90 350

Err Number ^3

,100

3

StatText Disabled

20 55 40 240

SArGen is not responding

StatText Disabled

50 70 70 200

Err Number ^0

BtnItem Enabled

65 10 85 50

OK

,111

6

StatText Disabled

10 10 30 190

Maximum Peak(% of FS) :

EditText Disabled

10 190 26 235

StatText Disabled

40 10 60 190

Minimum Peak(% of FS) :

EditText Disabled

40 190 56 235

StatText Disabled  
70 10 90 190  
Frequency(Hz) :

EditText Disabled  
70 190 86 235

,112  
2

StatText Disabled  
10 10 30 220  
Trigger level for data storage :

EditText Disabled  
10 220 26 255  
4

**Type STR#**  
,256 (36)  
Untitled  
Save this document as:  
This example was written to demonstrate the Macintosh User Interface.  
Show Clipboard  
Hide Clipboard  
- 6  
- 7  
before quitting  
reading from  
writing to  
loaded  
saved  
- 13  
Print...  
Stop Printing  
Copy of\20  
This disk is full.  
The disk directory is full.  
This file  
The disk is locked.  
The disk is unreadable.  
ID =\20

**Type DRVR**

SArgen/Drvrl.BSarGD,19 (16)

Type CODE  
SArgen/Fatiguel,0

# APPENDIX E

## SERIAL INTERFACE DRIVER

{Copyright 1985 by K. T. Tsai}

{\$R-}

{\$X-}

Unit DrvrImpl;

Interface

Uses {\$U-}

  {\$U Obj/Memtypes } Memtypes,  
  {\$U Obj/QuickDraw } QuickDraw,  
  {\$U Obj/OSIntf } OSIntf,  
  {\$U Obj/PackIntf } PackIntf,  
  {\$U Obj/ToolIntf } ToolIntf;

Type

  SParity = (SParNone, SParOdd, SPar, SParEven);  
  SWidth = (SWid5, SWid7, SWid6, SWid8);  
  SSTop = (SStp, SStp1, SStp1andHalf, SStp2);  
  SArG = ^SArGRec;  
  SArGRec = Record  
    port: SPortSel;  
    chn: Integer;  
    spd: Integer;  
    par: SParity;  
    wid: SWidth;  
    stp: SSTop;  
    xon: Char;  
    xoff: Char;  
    fXOn: Boolean;  
    fCTS: Boolean;  
    fEvBrk: Boolean;  
    fEvCTS: Boolean;  
  End;

Procedure InitSArG;  
Function NewSArG: SArG;  
Procedure OpenSArG(VAR s: SArG; port: SPortSel);  
Procedure SendAChar(s: SArG; thech: char);  
Procedure CloseSArG(s: SArG);  
Procedure EndSArG;

Implementation



Const

```
controlErr = -17;  
statuserr = -18;  
badunitErr = -21;  
unitEmptyErr = -22;  
openerr = -23;  
dInstErr = -26;  
notOpenErr = -28;
```

Type

```
SDirSel = (SDirRcv, SDirSnd);
```

Var

```
ASHandle: Handle;  
ASLoaded: Boolean;  
ASInstalled: Array [SPortSel] Of Boolean;
```

Procedure SArGError(s:sarg; err:OSErr);

Var

```
thestr : STR255;  
astr,  
a2str : str255;  
Arect : Rect;  
anevent : eventrecord;  
replied : Boolean;  
windptr : Windowptr;  
theev : Boolean;
```

Begin

```
setrect(arect,10,40,500,90);  
a2str:= "";  
astr:= "";  
CASE err OF  
noErr :  
Begin  
theStr := ' no Error in Sargen communication';  
numtostring(err,a2str);numtostring(s^.chrn, astr);  
End;  
badunitErr :  
begin  
thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : Bad Reference number ';  
numtostring(s^.chrn, astr);
```

```

End;
dlnstErr :
Begin
    thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : Could not find Driver';
    a2str:= 'in Resource file';
End;
openErr:
Begin
    thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : Driver cannot perform';
    a2str:= 'the requested reading or writing';astr:="";
End;
unitEmptyErr:
Begin
    thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : unitEmptyErr ';
    numtostring(s^.chrn, astr);
End;
notOpenErr :
    thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : Driver not open    ';
controlErr :
    thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : Invalid control call ';
statuserr :
    thestr := 'Error in Sargen communication : Invalid status call  ';
END;
windptr:=Newwindow(NIL,arect,"TRUE,dboxproc,POINTER(-1),TRUE,10);
IF thestr=" Then numtostring(err,thestr);
MoveTo(15,60);
Drawstring(thestr);
MoveTo(15,80);Drawstring(a2str);
MoveTo(200,80);Drawstring(astr);
replied:=FALSE;
Repeat
    theev:=Getnextevent(EveryEvent,anEvent);
    If anevent.what=mousedown THEN replied:=TRUE;
Until replied;
disposeWindow(windptr);
End;

{$SSIInit}
Procedure SetSArGConfig(s: SArG);
Var
    err:      OSErr;
    config:   Integer;

```

Begin

```
config := 0;
config := BitAnd(Ord(s^.stp), 3);
config := BitShift(config, 2);
config := BitOr(config, BitAnd(Ord(s^.par), 3));
config := BitShift(config, 2);
config := BitOr(config, BitAnd(Ord(s^.wid), 3));
config := BitShift(config, 10);
config := BitOr(config, BitAnd(94, 1023));

err := Control(s^.chnr,8,@config);
If err<>noErr Then SARGError(s,err);      { ** Report error using Dialog ** }
End;
```

Procedure SetHandshake(s: SARG);

Type

```
flgs = record
    fXOn : Byte;
    fCTS : Byte;
    flnX : Byte;
    xon  : Char;
    xoff : Char;
    errs : Byte;
    evts : Integer;
End;
theflgs = ^flgs;
```

Var

```
aflgs:   theflgs;
theparm: ptr;
err:     OSErr;
eventFlags: Integer;
```

Begin

```
eventFlags := 0;
If s^.fEvCTS Then eventFlags := 32;          { 2**5 }
If s^.fEvBrk Then eventFlags := 128 + eventFlags; { 2**7 + eventFlags }
With aflgs^ Do
Begin
    fXOn    := 255;
    fCTS    := 0;
    flnX    := 255;
    xon     := s^.xon;
    xoff    := s^.xoff;
```

```

        errs      := 0;
        evts      := eventFlags;
    End;
    theparm:=pointer(ord(aflgs));
    err := Control(s^.chrn,10,theparm);
    IF err<>noErr Then SArGError(s,err);      { ** Report error using Dialog ** }
End;

{          InitSArG; }
Procedure      InitSArG;
Const
    SArGDriver = 19;

Begin
    ASHandle := Nil;
    ASLoaded := False;
    ASInstalled[SPortA] := False;
    ASInstalled[SPortB] := False;

    ASHandle := GetResource('DRVR', SArGDriver);
    DetachResource(ASHandle);
    HNoPurge(ASHandle);
    HLock(ASHandle);
    ASLoaded := True;
End;

Procedure DisposNPtr(p: Ptr);
Begin
    If p <> Nil Then
        DisposPtr(p);
End;

{          NewSArG: SArG; }
Function      NewSArG;
Var
    p:        Ptr;
    s:        SArG;

Begin
    p := NewPtr(SizeOf(SArGRec));
    If (p = Nil) Then
        Begin
            DisposNPtr(p);

```

```

    s := Nil;
End
Else
Begin
    s := Pointer(Ord(p));
    With s^ Do
        Begin
            port := SPortA;
            chrn := -20;
            spd := 94;          { redundant since running on ext. clock}
            par := SParEven;
            wid := SWid8;
            stp := SStp1;
            xon := Chr(17);    { Default XOn character }
            xoff := Chr(18);  { Default XOff character }
            fXOn := False;
            fCTS := False;    { Can't have CTS on *** }
            fEvBrk := False;
            fEvCTS := False;
        End;
    End;
    NewSArG := s;
End;

```

```

{          OpenSArG(VAR s: SArG; port: SPortSel); }
Procedure  OpenSArG;

```

Var

```

    rn: OSErr;
    drvrrfnum: Integer;
    name: Str255;

```

Begin

```

    s^.port := port;
    rn := CloseDriver(-20);
    IF port=SPortA Then name:='.ASArGD'
    ELSE IF port=SPortB Then name:='.BSArGD';
    rn := OpenDriver(name,s^.chnr);
    IF rn<>noerr Then SArGError(s,rn);

```

```

SetSarGConfig(s);
SetHandshake(s);

```

```

End;

{          SendAChar(s: SArG; thech: Char ); }
Procedure  SendAChar;
Var
    abufptr: ptr;
    err:     OSErr;
Begin
    abufptr := @thech;
    err := Control(-20,11,abufptr);
    If err <> 0 Then SArGError(s,err);      { ** Report error using Dialog ** }
End;

{          CloseSArG(s: SArG); }
Procedure  CloseSArG;
Var
    rn : OsErr;
Begin
    rn:=CloseDriver(-20);
End;

{          EndSArG; }
Procedure  EndSArG;
Begin
    If ASHandle <> Nil Then
        Begin
            HPurge(ASHandle);
            HUnLock(ASHandle);
            DisposHandle(ASHandle);
            ASHandle := Nil;
            ASLoaded := False;
        End;
End;

End.

```

```

;-----
;
; SCC Async Driver for Macintosh - SarGen Communication
;
; written by Kuo Tsing Tsai
;
; Copyright (c) 1985 by University of Bath
;-----

```

```

.NoList
.INCLUDE tiasm/SysEqu.Text ; general system equates
.INCLUDE tiasm/SysErr.Text
.INCLUDE tiasm/SysTraps.Text
.List

```

```

.PROC          SarGdvr,0
.DEF  SarGB

```

```

PortBVars .EQU    $2D0          ; serial port B variables and buffer
BlndCE    .EQU    PortBVars+4  ; Device Control Entry ptr for input

```

; next come variable offsets within the user's local variable buffer

```

OutDCE     .EQU    0              ;(4) long DCE pointer for output driver
SCCOffset  .EQU    4              ;(2) word of SCC offset . . .

InBufPtr   .EQU    6              ;(4) pointer to local input buffer
BufSize     .EQU    10
            ;(2) size of local input buffer
BufLow      .EQU    12
            ;(2) low buf byte count to send XOn
BufHigh     .EQU    14            ;(2) bytes from end of buffer to send XOff

SWHS       .EQU    16            ;(1) software handshake enable
HWHS       .EQU    17            ;(1) hardware handshake enable
XONChar    .EQU    18            ;(1) input char which stops output (SWHS)
XOFFChar   .EQU    19            ;(1) input char which continues output

Options     .EQU    20            ;(1) bit 4 = abort on parity error
            ; bit 5 = abort on overrun
            ; bit 6 = abort on framing error
PostOptions .EQU    21            ;(1) bit 7=1 enables posting break changes

```

```

; bit 5=1 enables posting handshake changes
InSWHS      .EQU      22      ;(1) input XOn/XOff flow control enable
SendXOnff   .EQU      23      ;(1) flag to xmit logic to send XOn/XOff

AsyncErr    .EQU      24      ;(1) error indications (cumulative)
SoftOR      .EQU      0       ; bit 0 = soft overrun
; bit 4 = parity error
; bit 5 = overrun error
; bit 6 = framing error

FlowOff     .EQU      25      ;(1) 80 = input flow shut off
ReadCmd     .EQU      26      ;(1) FF = read command pending
WriteCmd    .EQU      27      ;(1) FF = write command pending
CTSFlag     .EQU      28      ;(1) FF = CTS asserted
XOFFflag    .EQU      29      ;(1) FF = XOFF pending
ContData    .EQU      30      ;(1) FF = continous data input
BufOutIn    .EQU      31      ;(1) FF = BufOut>BufIn

SCCReset    .EQU      32      ;(1) WR9 value for reset
StopBits    .EQU      33      ;(1) stop bits/parity option (WR4 value)
WR1AVal     .EQU      34      ;(1) first WR1 value to write
WR3AVal     .EQU      35      ;(1) first WR3 value to write
WR5AVal     .EQU      36      ;(1) first WR5 value to write
BaudLoCnst .EQU      37      ;(2) 2 byte baud rate constant (WR12-13)
BaudHiCnst .EQU      38
RcvrBits    .EQU      39      ;(1) 1 byte receiver bits/char (WR3 value)
XmitBits    .EQU      40      ;(1) 1 byte xmitter bits/char (WR5 value)
WReqPin     .EQU      41      ;(1) w/req pin state (WR1 value)
lastSetup   .EQU      42      ;(2) last SCC init values

BufIndex    .EQU      44      ;(2) index into local buffer (insert)
BufOutdex   .EQU      46      ;(2) index into local buffer (remove)
LocalBuf    .EQU      48      ;(64) local buffer for input chars

LclBufSize  .EQU      1024    ; default input buffer size = 1024 bytes
LclVarSize  .EQU      LocalBuf+LclBufSize+5 ; output driver storage size

SarGB
        .WORD $4F00          ; read, write, control, status, lock
        .WORD 0,0           ; not an ornament
        .WORD 0             ; no menu

        .WORD BOpen-SarGB   ; Initialization routine

```



```

.WORD BPrime-SarGB      ; input Prime routine
.WORD BControl-SarGB   ; shared Control routine
.WORD BStatus-SarGB    ; shared Status routine
.WORD BClose-SarGB     ; Close routine

```

```

.BYTE 7
; channel A input driver
.ASCII 'BSarGD'

```

```

;-----
;
; Routine:   Open routines
;
; Arguments:  A1 (input)  -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:   These are the Open routines for the SCC async-mode drivers;
;             local variables are initialized, buffer storage allocated,
;             interrupt vectors installed, and the SCC initialized. For
;             input drivers only the Device Control Entry pointer is noted:
;             SCC initialization is done for output drivers only.
;
;             An 'Open' of the RefNum associated with an output port will install
;             interrupt receivers and enable interrupts for both input and
;             output; two 'Open's need to be done for a port to configure input
;             and output DCEs; the Open for the input driver can be done
;             before or after the Open for the output driver.
;
;             Channel A is treated special: the wait/req pin (chan A and B pins
;             are tied together) is programmed so that it is an output which
;             goes low whenever channel A has input data available. This
;             output can be read via the 6522 and is used by the disk driver
;             to poll for data during disk routines. If any data is accumulated,
;             it is passed to the special "poll-process" routine of this
;             driver.
;-----

```

BOpen

```

        MOVE.L   A1,BInDCE      ; note the DCE pointer
        MOVEQ    #0,D0          ; get secondary dispatch table offset
        LEA      PortBVars,A2
; local variables address
        LEA      ExtBIntHnd,A4

```

```

; routines
    LEA    RBIntHnd,A5
    LEA    SCBIntHnd,A6
    MOVEQ  #0,D1          ; SCC read/write offsets
    MOVEQ  #09,D2        ; WR1 value - w/req (for Rx & SC Int only)
    MOVEQ  #64,D3        ; reset channel B ($40)
    MOVE.W SPPortB,D4

; D0 = ExtIntDT offset          A0 = open parameter block ptr (not used)
; D1 = SCC read/write offset
    A1 = DCE address
; D2 = WR1 value;Int on 1st char    A2 = local variables pointer location
; D3 = channel reset data
    A3 = transmitter interrupt(no more!!)
; D4 = clk param init values
    A4 = External/Status interrupt handler
;
;                               A5 = receiver interrupt handler
;                               A6 = special-receiver condition rupt handler

OpenInstall  LEA    ExtStsDT,A0      ; install secondary and primary
             MOVE.L A4,0(A0,D0)

; interrupt handlers
    LEA    Lvl2DT,A0          ; get dispatch table address
    ADD    D0,D0             ; offset is 2x smaller table offset
    MOVEM.L A5-A6,8(A0,D0)

    MOVE.W #LcIVarSize,D0
    _NewHandle ,SYS,CLEAR    ; get local storage on system heap
                             ; clear errors, error options
                             ; read, write, XOFF and CTS flags
                             ; index, outdex, inSWHS
                             ; HWHS, SWHS, XONChar, XOFFChar

    BSET   #Lock,(A0)        ; lock it down
    MOVE.L A0,DCtlStorage(A1) ; save handle in our storage pointer
    MOVE.L (A0),(A2)         ; save pointer in lo-mem
    MOVE.L (A0),A2           ; and get the pointer

    MOVE.L A2,A3             ; locals pointer
    MOVE.L A1,(A3)+          ; output DCE pointer
    MOVE.W D1,(A3)+         ; SCC channel address offset

    BSR   InstllBuf         ; install our local buffer

    ST    HWHS(A2)          ; HWHS defaults on

```

```

ST      Options(A2)      ; abort input on errors also defaults on
MOVE.B  D3,SCCReset(A2)  ; channel reset data
MOVE.B  D2,WReqPin(A2)   ; WR1 value for SCC initialization

```

ToInitSCC

```

MOVE.W  D4,lastSetup(A2) ; remember this config
LEA     StopBits(A2),A3
LEA     InitDefs,A4      ; process clock data
MOVEQ   #7,D0            ; expand into 8 bytes variable data
BSET    #12,D4           ; parity enable
BSET    #14,D4           ; 1 stop bit
BCLR    #15,D4
BCLR    #13,D4           ; even parity

```

```

@1      MOVE.B  (A4)+,D1   ; rotate left count
        MOVE.W  D4,D3     ; clock pram data
        ROL.W   D1,D3     ; get appropriate bits into low byte
        AND.B   (A4)+,D3  ; only keep relevant bits
        OR.B    (A4)+,D3  ; add in constant bits
        MOVE.B  D3,(A3)+  ; store processed data
        DBRA   D0,@1     ; do all 8 bytes

        MOVEQ   #$64,D1   ; get WR1A mask
        AND.B   (A3),D1   ; form value
        MOVE.B  D1,WR1AVal(A2) ; and store

        BSR.S   InitSCC   ; initialize SCC channel
        MOVEQ   #0,D0     ; no errors
        RTS

```

```

;-----
; D4 = [V][V][W][W][X][X][Y][Y] [Z][Z][Z][Z][Z][Z][Z][Z]
;
; VV = 1,2,3, for 1,1.5,2 stop bits (00 for AppleBus)
; WW = 0,1,2,3 for no,odd,no,even parity
; XX = 0,1,2,3, for 5,7,6,8 data bits
; YY = high byte of baud rate constant, low 2 bits
; ZZZZZZZZ = low byte of baud rate constant
;-----

```

```

InitDefs  .BYTE   4,$0F,$00   ;(WR4) rotate left 4, leave 4 low bits, add $40
          .BYTE   0,$00,$00   ;(WR4) (dummy entry-WR1AVal will go here)
          .BYTE   12,$C0,$00  ; (WR3) WR3 - first write

```

```

        .BYTE    11,$60,$02    ; (WR5)  WR5 - first write
        .BYTE    0,$FF,$00    ; (WR12) baud constant, low byte
        .BYTE    8,$03,$00    ; (WR13) baud constant, hi byte
        .BYTE    12,$C0,$01   ; (WR3)  WR3 - final value
        .BYTE    11,$60,$0A   ; (WR5)  WR5 - final value

```

```

;-----
;

```

```

;Routine:    SCC Initialize Routine

```

```

; Arguments:    A2 (input) -- pointer to local variables for this port

```

```

; Function:    This routine initializes one port of the SCC for asynchronous
;              communication; the baud rate, data bits, stop bits, and parity
;              options are set according to local variable values. The channel
;              is reset before options are configured. The baud-rate generator
;              output is used for both transmitter and receiver clocks, and
;              interrupts are enabled: only DCD and Break external
;              interrupts are enabled; all transmitter and receiver interrupts
;              are enabled. Parity errors are configured to generate special
;              condition vectors.

```

```

; Other:    Registers A0-A3 are used.

```

```

;-----
;
;-----
;
; initialization data for SCC: RS-232 async communication:

```

```

;   FORMAT: data,register# - for immediate data

```

```

;           register#,$FF - for variable data
;-----

```

```

InitData    .BYTE    9,$FF        ; reset SCC channel
            .BYTE    4,$FF
            ; x1 clk, stop bits, parity options
            .BYTE    1,$FF        ; WR1 reg, first write
            .BYTE    $00,2
            ; zero interrupt vector
            .BYTE    3,$FF        ; bits/char option rcvr
            .BYTE    5,$FF        ; bits/char option xmitter
            .BYTE    $02,9        ; status in low bits
            .BYTE    $AD,11       ; rcvr,xmitter to TRxC pin
            .BYTE    12,$FF       ; set baud rate low byte

```

```

        .BYTE    13,$FF        ; set baud rate high byte

        .BYTE    3,$FF        ; enable rcvr
        .BYTE    5,$FF        ; enable xmitter
        .BYTE    $00,14       ; disb baud rate generator from RTxC pin

        .BYTE    $08,15       ; Break, DCD external interrupts
        .BYTE    $10,0        ; reset ext/status twice
        .BYTE    $10,0
        .BYTE    1,$FF        ; w/req pin configuration
        .BYTE    $0A,9        ; enable interrupts, status in low bits
InitLth .EQU    *-InitData

InitSCC LEA      InitData,A3    ; get pointer to init data
        MOVEQ   #InitLth,D1    ; and init length

InitSCC1 MOVE    SR,-(SP)      ; save interrupt state
        MOVEM.L A0-A2,-(SP)

        MOVE.W  SCCOffset(A2),D2; get SCC offset
        MOVEM.L SCCRd,A0-A1    ; and get SCC addresses
        ADD.W   D2,A0          ; add in offset
        ADD.W   D2,A1

        ORI    #$0300,SR      ; disable all but debug interrupts
        MOVE.B (A0),D2        ; read to make sure SCC is sync'ed up
        LEA    SCCReset(A2),A2 ; point to data we will need

NextReg MOVE.W  (A3)+,D0      ; get next init data, reg
        TST.B  D0
        BPL.S  @1            ; bit 7=1 means get variable init data
        MOVE.B (A2)+,D0      ; get variable data
        ROR.W  #8,D0         ; adjust to [data][ptr] format

@1      MOVE.B  D0,(A1)       ; write register pointer
        ROR.W  #8,D0
        MOVE.L (SP),(SP)     ; delay
        MOVE.B D0,(A1)       ; write register
        SUBQ.W #2,D1
        BGT.S  NextReg

        MOVE.B  (A0),D2      ; read SCC register 1
        LSL.B  #2,D2         ; use this data to set CTS flag

```

```

MOVEM.L (SP)+,A0-A2
SMI     CTSFlag(A2)

```

```

RTE           ; restore interrupt state and return

```

```

;-----
;
; Routine:   Close routines
;
; Arguments:  A1 (input)  -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:  These are the Close routines for the SCC async-mode drivers;
;            the SCC channel is reset and configured for only external/status
;            DCD interrupts and interrupt vectors are replaced with
;            the default RTE vector.  Input drivers simply RTS.
;
;            The master interrupt enable register should not have to be
;            written with $0A again since only the channel is reset (not
;            the entire SCC).
;-----

```

```

ResetData  .BYTE    9,$FF           ; reset SCC channel
           .BYTE    $08,15         ; only DCD (mouse) ext/sts interrupts
           .BYTE    $10,0          ; reset ext/status twice
           .BYTE    $10,0
           .BYTE    $01,1          ; only external/status interrupts
           .BYTE    $45,4          ; x16, parity even
           .BYTE    $50,11         ; br gen clk to rcvr, xmitter
           .BYTE    $01,14         ; enable baud rate generator
           .BYTE    $0A,9          ; enable interrupts, status in low bits
ResetLth   .EQU     *-ResetData

BClose     LEA      Lvl2DT,A4       ; get dispatch table address
           LEA      ExtStsDT,A5    ; and secondary dispatch table
           MOVE.L   PortBVars,A2   ; local variables address

ABClose    ; should have a wait here for last character to clear the buffer
           ; except that close is not really used in the normal course of
           ; operation . . .

           LEA      ResetData,A3
           MOVEQ    #ResetLth,D1
           BSR.S    InitSCC1

```

```

        LEA      BInClose,A3
        MOVE.L   A3,(A5)          ; and reinstall default interrupt
        ADDQ.L   #8,A4           ; receivers (just RTS)
        MOVE.L   A3,(A4)+
        MOVE.L   A3,(A4)

        MOVE.L   DCtlStorage(A1),A0; get storage handle
        _DisposHandle      ; get rid of it
        CLR.L    DCtlStorage(A1) ; without a trace
        CLR.L    (A2)
BInClose    RTS

```

```

;-----
;
; Routine:      Status routines
;
; Arguments:    A0 (input) -- pointer to Status parameter block:
;              (0) Header
;              (12) Completion routine
;              (16) IOResult code
;              (24) RefNum
;              (26) Opcode
;              (28) Parameters
;              A1 (input) -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:     For operation code 8, 3 words of status information are
;              returned:
;              (28) cumulative errors:
;                  bit 0 = soft overrun (local buffer overflow)
;                  bit 4 = parity error
;                  bit 5 = hard overrun error
;                  bit 6 = framing error
;              (29) 80 = input flow shut off
;              (30) read command pending flag
;              (31) write command pending flag
;              (32) XOFF flag
;              (33) CTS flag
;
;              For operation code 2, 1 longword of status information is
;              returned:
;              (28) buffered bytes available
;

```

; Other opcodes are not implemented.

;

;

---

BStatus MOVE.L PortBVars,A2 ; local variables address

Status LEA CSCCode(A0),A0 ; get pointer to return parameters  
MOVEQ #StatusErr,D0 ; assume unimplemented code error  
MOVEQ #2,D1  
SUB.W (A0)+,D1 ; opcode 2?  
BNE.S @1 ; br if not

; opcode 2 is a standard system code used to return a longword count of  
; available bytes in the driver buffer (if any)

BSR GetBufRegs

BSR GetBufCnt

CLR.W (A0)+ ; high word is zero . . .

MOVE.W D0,(A0) ; load bytes-in-buffer parameter

BRA.S @2 ; exit with 0 result code

@1 ADDQ.W #6,D1 ; opcode 8?

BNE.S StsExit ; exit with error if not

MOVE.W AsyncErr(A2),(A0)+ ; get errors, flow off flag

CLR.B AsyncErr(A2) ; and reset indicators

MOVE.L ReadCmd(A2),(A0)+ ; read, write, CTS, XOFF flags

@2 MOVEQ #0,D0 ; set zero error code

StsExit

toIODone MOVE.L JIODone,-(SP) ; go to IODone (A1 must point  
RTS ; to the DCE and D0 = IOResult)

---

;

;

; Routine: Control routines

;

; Arguments: A0 (input) -- pointer to Control parameter block:

; (0) Header

; (12) Completion routine

; (16) IOResult code

; (24) RefNum

; (26) Opcode



```

;           (28) Parameters
;           A1 (input) -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:   These are the Control routines for the SCC async-mode drivers.
;
;           Operation code 1 is the standard KillIO call: pending read
;           and write requests are reset and any buffered bytes discarded.
;
;           For operation code 8, the appropriate SCC channel is reset and
;           reinitialized according to the new defaults. If a parameter
;           is zero, the current corresponding value will not be changed:
;
;           (26) [$0008]
;           (28) [V][V][W][W][X][X][Y][Y] [Z][Z][Z][Z][Z][Z][Z][Z]
;
;           VV = 1,2,3, for 1,1.5,2 stop bits
;           WW = 0,1,2,3 for no,odd,no,even parity
;           XX = 0,1,2,3, for 5,7,6,8 data bits
;           YY = high byte of baud rate constant, low 2 bits
;           ZZZZZZZZ = low byte of baud rate constant
;
;           Opcode 9 is used to install a new buffer for input buffering (this control
;           command may be given to either the input or output driver):
;           a pointer to the buffer and the buffer length are passed. The
;           async driver uses this buffer to store input characters when
;           no input user request is pending:
;
;           (26) [$0009]
;           (28) [pointer to buffer]
;           (32) [buffer length] - 2 bytes
;
;           Opcode 10 is used to specify handshake options and other
;           miscellaneous controls:
;
;           (26) [$000A]
;           (28) enable XON/XOFF output flow control if non-zero
;           (29) enable CTS output handshake if non-zero
;           (30) XON char for software handshake
;           (31) XOFF char for software handshake
;           (32) errors which cause abort of input requests (1 for abort):
;               bit 4 = abort on parity error
;               bit 5 = abort on overrun error
;               bit 6 = abort on framing error

```

```

;      (33) status changes which cause events to be posted
;      bit 7 = post event on break status change
;      bit 5 = post event on CTS change
;      (34) enable XON/XOFF input flow control if non-zero
;
;      Opcode 11 is used to transmit a control character
;
;      (26) [$000A]
;      (28) the character
;-----

```

```

BControl      MOVE.L   PortBVars,A2      ; local variables address

Control       LEA      CSCCode(A0),A0    ; get parameters
              MOVE.W  (A0)+,D1          ; get opcode
              SUBQ.W  #1,D1              ; opcode 1?
              BNE.S   CtlConfig          ; branch if not
              CLR.W   ReadCmd(A2)        ; clear ReadCmd and WriteCmd flags
              CLR     BufOutIn(A2)       ; InDex>Outdex
              CLR.B   ContData(A2)       ; clear continuous data input
              CLR.L   BufIndex(A2)       ; get rid of any buffered bytes
              RTS

CtlConfig     SUBQ.W  #7,D1              ; opcode 8?
              BNE.S   CtlBuffer          ; branch if not
              MOVE.W  (A0)+,D4          ; get word of configuration data
              CMP.W   lastSetup(A2),D4   ; same setup?
              BEQ.S   CtlGood            ; then just exit
              BSR     ToInitSCC          ; go initialize

CtlGood       MOVEQ   #0,D0              ; IOResult=0 for success
CtlExit       BRA.S   toIODone           ; and go to IODone (A1 must point
; to the DCE and D0 = IOResult)

CtlBuffer     SUBQ.W  #1,D1              ; opcode 9?
              BNE.S   NewOptions         ; br if not
              PEA     CtlGood            ; end up here
              CLR.L   BufIndex(A2)       ; clear in and out indices

              MOVE.L  (A0)+,A4
              MOVE.W  (A0),D1            ; if zero, revert to our own buffer
              BNE.S   InstllABuf         ; otherwise, ring in a new one . . .

InstllABuf   LEA     LocalBuf(A2),A4    ; use our meager local buffer for now

```

```

        MOVE.W  #LclBufSize,D1

InstllABuf  LEA      InBufPtr(A2),A3
            MOVE.L  A4,(A3)+
            MOVE.W  D1,(A3)+
            LSR.W   #2,D1           ; set new bufmin and bufmax values
            MOVE.W  D1,(A3)+       ; BufLow
            MOVE.W  D1,(A3)+       ; BufHigh
            CLR.B   BufOutln(A2)   ; InDex>Outdex
            RTS

NewOptions  SUBQ.W  #1,D1           ; opcode 10?
            BNE.S   SendChar       ; br if not
            ADD     #SWHS,A2        ; point to options
            MOVE.L  (A0)+,(A2)+     ; set new SWHS, HWHS, XON/XOFF chars
            MOVE.W  (A0)+,(A2)+     ; errors which cause aborts (Options), and
            ; status changes on which to post events
            MOVE.B  (A0)+,(A2)      ; set new InSWHS
            BRA.S   CtlGood         ; exit ok

SendChar    SUBQ.W  #1,D1           ; opcode 11?
            BNE.S   CtrlErr         ; br if not
            MOVE.W  (A0)+,D0        ; Set character to send
@1          BSR     WrSetUp         ; set up A3, see if xmit Buffer is empty
            BEQ.S   @1              ; exit if transmit buffer is full
            ADD.L   #SCCWrite,A3    ; form SCC base write address
            MOVE.B  D0,SCCData(A3) ; start it out
            BRA.S   CtlGood         ; exit ok

CtrlErr     MOVEQ   #ControlErr,D0
            BRA.S   CtlExit         ; go IODone

;-----
;
; Routine:      Prime routines
;
; Arguments:    A0 (input) -- pointer to Control parameter block:
;              (0) Header
;              (12) Completion routine
;              (16) IOResult code
;              (24) RefNum
;              (26) Opcode

```

```

;           (28) Parameters
;           A1 (input) -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:  The function call is deciphered here: aRdCmd for Input
;           aWrCmd for Output
;
; Other:
;
-----

```

```

BPrime      MOVE.W   ioTrap(A0),D0    ; Get trap
            CMPI.B   #aRdCmd,D0      ; Is it a Read?
            BEQ      BInPrime         ; Branch to Input Routine
            CMPI.B   #aWrCmd,D0      ; Is it a Write?
            BEQ      BOutPrime        ; Branch to Output Routine
            RTS

```

```

;
;
; Routine:   Output Prime routines
;
; Arguments: A0 (input) -- pointer to Prime parameter block:
;
;           A1 (input) -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:  The first character is loaded into the SCC.
;
; Other:
;
-----

```

```

BOutPrime   MOVE.L   SCCRd,A2         ; get SCC read address
            MOVE.L   A2,A3
            ADD.L    #SCCWrite,A3    ; form SCC base write address

FetchNext   MOVE.L   JFetch,A0
            JSR      (A0)             ; get it from user buffer

Wrlp        BTST     #TXBE,(A2)      ; check for TBE
            BEQ.S    Wrlp            ; exit if transmit buffer is still full

            MOVE.B   D0,SCCData(A3) ; start it out
            TST.W    D0              ; only one?
            BMI.S    resetWrCmd      ; if so, we've had a good finish
            BRA      FetchNext

```

```

resetWrCmd  MOVE.L  PortBVars,A2    ; local variables address
            CLR.B   WriteCmd(A2)   ; no more pending output

GoodFinish  MOVEQ   #0,D0          ; IOResult=0 for success
            BRA.S   toIODone       ; and go to IODone (A1 must point
            ; to the DCE and D0 = IOResult)

WrSetUp     MOVE.L  SCCRd,A3       ; get SCC read address
            ADD    SCCOffset(A2),A3
            BTST   #TXBE,(A3)     ; check for TBE
@1          RTS

SendNextChar
            MOVE.L  OutDCE(A2),A1  ; get DCE pointer for Fetch
            MOVE.W  SR,-(SP)       ; fake out prime routine
            BRA.S   FetchNext

ContOut     CLR.B   XOFFlag(A2)    ; come here if we got an XON
ContOut1    TST.B   WriteCmd(A2)   ; come here for XON or CTS high
            BNE.S   SendNextChar  ; if no output request, just exit
OutputRTS   RTS                  ; otherwise, wait for the interrupt

```

```

;-----
;
; Routine:    Input Prime routines
;
; Arguments:  A0 (input) -- pointer to Prime parameter block:
;             A1 (input) -- DCE pointer for this driver
;
; Function:   Get characters from local buffer, if any (satisfy request
;             possibly). Note the input request.
;             Separates the sargen channel info from data.
;             Checks if Sargen has sent terminated. Returns -10 as result
;             code if has.
;-----

```

```

BlInPrime   MOVEM.L A2-A3,-(SP)
            MOVE.L  PortBVars,A2    ; local variables address

InPrime     BSR    GetBufRegs       ; load D1, D2, D3, and A3

```

```

FeedBufLoop  CMP      D1,D2          ; indices equal means we're through
              BEQ.S   InFinish
              MOVE.B  0(A3,D2.W),D0 ; get the next byte
              ADDQ   #1,D2          ; bump outdex
              CMP    D3,D2          ; wrap it if we're at buffer limit
              BNE.S  @1
              MOVEQ  #0,D2

@1           BSR.S   toStash        ; stash into user's buffer
              TST.W  D0             ; done with request?
              BPL.S  FeedBufLoop    ; go again if we're not done

InFinish     MOVE    D2,BufOutdex(A2); update out index
              MOVEQ  #0,D0          ; 0 for Good finish
              MOVEM.L (SP)+,A2-A3
              MOVE.L JIODone,-(SP) ; go to IODone (A1 must point
              RTS                    ; to the DCE and D0 = IOResult)

toStash      MOVE.L  JStash,-(SP)   ; push the vector
              RTS

GetBufRegs   MOVE.L  InBufPtr(A2),A3
              MOVE.W  BufSize(A2),D3
              MOVEM.W BufIndex(A2),D1-D2 ; get BufIndex and BufOutdex
              RTS

GetBufCnt    MOVE.W  D1,D0          ; BufIndex
              SUB.W  D2,D0          ; minus BufOutdex
              BHS.S  @1             ; br if positive value
              ADD.W  D3,D0          ; add BufSize to make it positive

@1           RTS

```

```

;-----
;
; Routine:   RXIntHnd
;
; Arguments:  A0 (input) -- port A/B control read address
;            A1 (input) -- port A/B control write address
;
; Function:  This routine handles SCC receiver interrupts for
;            both ports; the data is read and stashed, IODone called
;            if necessary. This is done by first identifying what is the
;            first input character:

```

```

;      $11   XON character
;      $12   XOFF character
;      $03   Data recieving - 128 bytes
;      $04   Data recieving - 256 bytes
;      $05   Data recieving - 512 bytes
;      $06   Data recieving - 1024 bytes
;      $80-$FF Data recieving - 1-128 bytes
;      $07   Continous data input
;      $60   Sargen terminate processing (twice)
;
;-----

```

```

RBIntHnd   MOVEM.L  A0-A3,-(SP)
           MOVE.L   PortBVars,A2      ; get pointer to local variables

RXIntHnd   MOVE.B   SCCData(A0),D0    ; get the data byte

           BCLR     #7,D0              ; Char between $80-FF - <= 127 bytes?
           BNE.S    IData              ; if yes, branch to collect data

           CMP.B    #$03,D0            ; 128 bytes to input?
           BNE.S    @2                 ; if not, branch
           MOVE.W   #$80,D0            ; set register to 128
           BRA.S    IData              ; branch to collect data

@2         CMP.B    #$04,D0            ; 256 bytes to input?
           BNE.S    @3                 ; if not, branch
           MOVE.W   #$0100,D0          ; set register to 255
           BRA.S    IData              ; branch to collect data

@3         CMP.B    #$05,D0            ; 512 bytes to input?
           BNE.S    @4                 ; if not, branch
           MOVE.W   #$0200,D0          ; set register to 512
           BRA.S    IData              ; branch to collect data

@4         CMP.B    #$06,D0            ; 1024 bytes to input?
           BNE     NotData              ; if not, branch
           MOVE.W   #$0400,D0          ; set register to 1024

IData     MOVE.L   InBufPtr(A2),A3    ; Get buffer pointers
           MOVE.W   D4,-(SP)           ; preserve these registers
           MOVE.W   Bufsize(A2),D4
           MOVE.W   BufIndex(A2),D1   ; get BufIndex and BufOutdex

```

```

InLoop      BTST      #RXBF,(A0)      ; Rx char available?
            BEQ.S      InLoop      ; delay if not

            MOVE.B     SCCData(A0),D3 ; get the byte
            MOVE.B     D3,D2
            ANDI.B     #$F0,D3      ; rotate in channel data
            ORI.B      #$80,D3      ; set upper bits
            MOVE.B     D3,0(A3,D1.W) ; stash the byte

            ADDQ.W     #1,D1        ; update BufIndex
            CMP.W      D4,D1
            BNE.S      @20          ; br if not at the end
            MOVEQ      #0,D1        ; otherwise, reset to 0

@20         ANDI.B     #$0F,D2
            MOVE.B     D2,0(A3,D1.W) ; stash the byte

            ADDQ.W     #1,D1        ; update BufIndex
            CMP.W      D4,D1
            BNE.S      @15          ; br if not at the end
            MOVEQ      #0,D1        ; otherwise, reset to 0

@15         BTST      #RXBF,(A0)      ; Rx char available?
            BEQ.S      @15          ; delay if not

            MOVE.B     SCCData(A0),0(A3,D1.W); stash the low byte

            ADDQ.W     #1,D1        ; update BufIndex
            CMP.W      D4,D1
            BNE.S      @16          ; br if not at the end
            MOVEQ      #0,D1        ; otherwise, reset to 0

@16         SUBQ.W     #2,D0        ; Decrement counter
            BNE.S      InLoop      ; branch if not zero

@10         MOVE.W     D1,BufIndex(A2) ; update index
            MOVE.W     (SP)+,D4
            BRA        FinInput     ; and exit

NotData     CMP.B      #$6F,D0      ; cycle counter data to input?
            BNE.S      @6           ; if not, branch
            BSR        StashByte     ; Stash to inform Pascal
            BRA        FinInput     ; and exit

```



```

@6      CMP.B    #$60,D0      ; A Sargen terminated character?
        BNE.S    @1          ; if not, branch
        BSR     StashByte    ; Stash to inform Pascal
        BRA     FinInput     ; and exit

@1      CMP.B    #18,D0      ; how about an XOFF?
        BNE.S    @7          ; if not, branch
        ST      XOFFlag(A2)  ; if so, then note it
        BSR     StashByte    ; Stash to inform Pascal
        BRA     FinInput     ; and exit

@7      CMP.B    #17,D0      ; how about an XON?
        BNE.S    FinInput    ; if not terminate
        BSR     StashByte    ; Stash to inform Pascal
        BRA     FinInput     ; and exit

StashByte  MOVE.L   InBufPtr(A2),A3 ; Get buffer pointers
           MOVE.W   BufSize(A2),D3
           MOVEM.W  BufIndex(A2),D1-D2 ; get BufIndex and BufOutdex

SBData    MOVE.B   D0,0(A3,D1.W) ; stash the byte

           ADDQ.W   #1,D1      ; update BufIndex
           CMP.W   D3,D1
           BNE.S   @12        ; br if not at the end
           MOVEQ   #0,D1      ; otherwise, reset to 0

@12      CMP.W   D2,D1      ; hit the output index?
           BNE.S   @13        ; br if not
           BSET   #SoftOR,AsyncErr(A2) ; note the soft overrun
           SUBQ.W   #1,D1      ; reset Index

@13      MOVE.W   D1,BufIndex(A2) ; update index
           RTS

FinInput  MOVE.B   #$20,(A1)
           MOVEM.L (SP)+,A0-A3
           RTS

;-----
;
; Routine:  SCIntHnd
;

```

```

; Arguments:   A0 (input)  -- port A/B control read address
;             A1 (input)  -- port A/B control write address
;
; Function:   This routine handles SCC special condition interrupts:
;             these occur when an input character is received that has
;             a parity error, framing error, or causes an overrun.
;             If the option is set to abort on the error, the character
;             is discarded and the input request (if any) aborted; otherwise,
;             the error is noted and the character buffered as usual.
;
;
;-----

```

```

SCBIntHnd      LEA   PortBVars,A3
               ; get appropriate variables (port A)

```

```

SCIntHnd      MOVE.B  #1,(A1)           ; point to error reg
               MOVE.L  (A3)+,A2        ; get local variables pointer
               MOVE.L  (A3),A3         ; and DCE pointer (delay, too)
               MOVE.B  (A0),D1         ; read the error condition

               MOVEQ   #$70,D3         ; form $70 mask
               AND.B   D3,D1           ; isolate error bits
               OR.B    D1,AsyncErr(A2); accumulate errors (delay, too)
               MOVE.B  SCCData(A0),D0 ; get the data byte

               MOVE.B  Options(A2),D2 ; get abort options
               MOVE.B  #$30,(A1)      ; reset the error flag
               AND.B   D1,D2          ; check abort options
               BEQ.S   InputRTS       ; then just discard the character

               TST.B   ReadCmd(A2)    ; if we have no pending read command
               BEQ.S   InputRTS       ; then just discard the character

               MOVEQ   #RcvrErr,D0    ; otherwise, note the error

RdReqDone     MOVE.L  A3,A1            ; DCE pointer
               CLR.B   ReadCmd(A2)    ; no longer a read request pending
               BRA     toIODone        ; and go to IODone (A1 must point
               ; to the DCE and D0 = IOResult)

InputRTS      RTS

```

```

;-----
;
; Routine:   ExtIntHnd

```

```

;
; Arguments:   A0 (input)  -- port A/B control read address
;             A1 (input)  -- port A/B control write address
;             D0 (input)  -- SCC read reg 0 value
;             D1 (input)  -- SCC read reg 0 changed bits
;
; Function:   This routine handles SCC external/status interrupts for
;             both ports; mouse (DCD) interrupts are passed along to the
;             mouse interrupt handler in CrsrCore. Only Break/Abort and CTS
;             external interrupts are enabled (besides DCD).
;
;             Note that CTS low in read reg 0 currently means that the
;             hardware handshake line is asserted which means 'ok to transmit'.
;
;-----

```

```

ExtBIntHnd  LEA      PortBVars,A3      ; get appropriate variables - port A

ExtIntHnd   MOVE.L   (A3)+,A2          ; get pointer to local variables
            MOVE.L   (A3),A3          ; and DCE ptr in case of break abort

            MOVE.B   D1,D2            ; changed bits
            AND.B    postOptions(A2),D2; post this change?
            BEQ.S    @0               ; br if not

            MOVEM.L  D0/A0,-(SP)      ; preserve these registers
            MOVE.W   #IODrvrEvt,A0
            ASL.W    #8,D0            ; make room for 'changed' values
            MOVE.B   D1,D0
            SWAP     D0                ; make room for driver refnum
            MOVE.W   DCtlRefnum(A3),D0
            _PostEvent                ; and post the event
            MOVEM.L  (SP)+,D0/A0

@0          TST.B    D1                ; see if it's a change in break status
            BMI.S    @1                ; branch if it was a break interrupt
            LSL.B    #2,D0            ; must be CTS change
            SMI      CTSFlag(A2)      ; set flags according to CTS
            BPL      ContOut1         ; if freshly asserted, continue output
            RTS                          ; if not, exit for now

@1          TST.B    D0                ; check break level
            BMI.S    @2                ; if it's asserted, terminate any input
            MOVE.B   SCCData(A0),D0

```

```

; otherwise (end of break), discard null
        RTS                ; and return

@2      MOVEQ    #BreakRecd,D0 ; note the break
        TST.B   ReadCmd(A2)   ; read request pending?
        BNE.S   RdReqDone     ; if there is one, jump to IODone
ExtIntRTS RTS                ; otherwise, just return

        .END

@1      TST.B   D0             ; check break level
        BMI.S   @2            ; if it's asserted, terminate any input
        MOVE.B  SCCData(A0),D0 ; otherwise (end of break), discard null
        RTS                ; and return

@2      MOVEQ    #BreakRecd,D0 ; note the break
        TST.B   ReadCmd(A2)   ; read request pending?
        BNE.S   RdReqDone     ; if there is one, jump to IODone
ExtIntRTS RTS                ; otherwise, just return

        .END

```