CIVIL ENGINEERING STUDIES

STRUCTURAL RESEARCH SERIES NO. 243



INVESTIGATION OF RESISTANCE AND BEHAVIOR OF REINFORCED CONCRETE MEMBERS SUBJECTED TO DYNAMIC LOADING PART III

Metz Reference Room Civil Engineering Department BlO6 C. E. Building University of Illinois Urbana, Illinois 61801

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by A. Feldman W. A. Keenan C. P. Siess

A Technical Report to THE OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF ENGINEERS DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY Contract DA 49-129-Eng-344

This Research was Sponsored by the DEFENSE ATOMIC SUPPORT AGENCY

1 FEBRUARY 1962 UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS URBANA, ILLINOIS

INVESTIGATION OF RESISTANCE AND BEHAVIOR OF REINFORCED CONCRETE MEMBERS SUBJECTED TO DYNAMIC LOADING PART III

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l February 1962 University of Illinois Urbana, Illinois

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A77	3b2, Blow 2	298	A89	6b2, Blow l	310
A78	3b2, Blow 3	299	A90	6b2, Blow 2	311
A79	4al	300	A91	7a2, Blow 1	312
A80	4a2, Blow 1	301	A92	7a2, Blow 2	313
A81	4c2, Blow 1	302	A93	7a2, Blow 3	314
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Al07	3b2, Blow 3	328	A126	7a2, Blow 1	347
Alo8	3b3	329	A127	7a2, Blow 2	348
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AllO	4a2, Blow 1	331	A129	7a2, Blow 4	350
Alll	4a2, Blow 2	332	A130	7a2, Blow 5	351
All2	473	333	A131	7a3, Blow 1	352
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Ally	4c2, Blow 2	335	A133	7a3, Blow 3	354

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I INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Remarks

The behavior of structures subjected to dynamic forces has been a topic of importance in engineering for many years. Before the advent of atomic weapons the dynamic forces to be considered were those arising primarily from wind, earthquakes, moving loads, and dynamite explosions. The first three categories are characterized by loads whose rate of application is relatively slow compared with that of the last. Also, the loading produced by a dynamite explosion is relatively short and of small magnitude compared with that produced by an atomic explosion (1)*. Therefore, in the case of atomic explosions, there must be considered a dynamic loading of magnitude and speed of application far removed from engineering experience previous to the development of atomic weapons. This blast loading represents a complicated problem in the analysis of structures involving among other things the fact that the material properties of the structure are affected by the rate of loading (2,3,4). Of especial interest is the behavior of reinforced concrete members subjected to blast loading, since reinforced concrete, by reason of its flexibility of shape, is suitable for use in a wide variety of structures whose primary purpose is the protection of their contents from the effects of nuclear detonation.

Tests have been made by various investigators using small scale reinforced concrete beams subjected to various types of rapid loading (5, 6, 7, 8). In all of these tests, the scale of the specimens was limited by the approximately 10,000-lb capacity of the testing machines used. Little other work has been done in connection with the testing of reinforced concrete members or structures subjected to blast where the environmental conditions permit

^{*} Numbers in parentheses refer to items in the Bibliography.

the type of test control possible in a laboratory. A dynamic testing machine with a capacity of 60,000-lb is available in the Structural Research Laboratory at the University of Illinois, and it was deemed desirable to make use of it to test larger scale reinforced concrete beams under rapid loading.

It is a well known characteristic of metals, particularly low carbon steels, that the dynamic yield strength increases with increasing strain rates. This is of practical importance because materials such as concrete reinforcing bars in structural concrete members can be subjected to considerably higher stresses than the static yield stress before yielding when dynamically loaded. In under-reinforced concrete beams, the strength increase exhibited by the reinforcing will increase the load-carrying capacity of the member.

The dependence of yield strength on strain rate and the mechanism of yielding in low carbon steels has been discussed by several investigators (9). However, most of these investigations have been carried out on standard test specimens conforming to ASTM Specification E8-54T. In reviewing the literature concerning this behavior, it has been found that little attention, if any, has been given to the effect of rapid strain rates on the tensile properties of unmachined specimens of deformed reinforcing bars. Therefore, this report is also concerned with the time sensitive stress-strain characteristics of intermediate grade deformed reinforcing bars subjected to rapidly applied loads.

1.2 Object

The ultimate objectives of the investigation, of which the data reported herein are a part, was to obtain, by means of tests, information which will contribute to a better understanding and more accurate prediction of the strength and behavior of reinforced concrete structures subjected to dynamic loading.

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The immediate objective of the work at hand was the determination of the resistance and behavior of simple-span reinforced concrete beams subjected to impulsive loading. To accomplish this objective, tests of beams and of reinforcing bar coupons have been made and the resulting data analyzed. It was also the purpose of this work to check the practicability of an existing method of computing the resistance of dynamically loaded reinforced concrete beams. To this end, comparisons have been made between the test results and the predictions of the method of analysis.

1.3 Acknowledgment

This investigation was conducted in the Structural Research Laboratory of the Engineering Experiment Station at the University of Illinois, under the sponsorship of the Office of the Chief of Engineers, Department of the Army, Contract DA-49-129-eng-344 and the Department of the Air Force, Contract No. AF 29(601)-468.

Work on this project was under the general direction of Dr. N. M. Newmark, Professor and Head, Department of Civil Engineering, and Dr. C. P. Siess, Professor of Civil Engineering, and was under the immediate supervision of A. Feldman, Assistant Professor of Civil Engineering. W. A. Keenan, Research Assistant in Civil Engineering, was primarily responsible for the investigation of the dynamic strength of reinforcing bars. Appreciation is . expressed to H. S. Hamada, Research Assistant, for his aid in fabricating and testing. Appreciation is also expressed to V. J. McDonald, Associate Professor of Civil Engineering, and his staff, for their help with instrumentation and the conduct of the tests, the mechanical reduction of data, and the development of the circuits for the analog computer used in the analysis, and to W. E. McKenzie and E. Crawford, Junior Laboratory Mechanics, for their aid in the experimental phases of the project.

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This report is based on dissertations by A. Feldman and W. A. Keenan submitted to the Graduate College of the University of Illinois in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degrees of Doctor of Philosophy and Master of Science, respectively (10,11).

1.4 Notation

	T	he following notation has been used in this report. Reference is
made t	to Fig	. 1 for those terms relating to the dynamic bar tests.
a	-	distance from support to nearest load point, divided by L
A	=	area of cross-section of an ideal laterally vibrating bar
A _o	=	nominal cross-sectional area of the bar specimen given by
		ASTM Specification A15-58T
A _s		area of tension reinforcement
A 's	=	area of compression reinforcement
Ъ	-1995) 1996 - 1	width of beam
С		coefficient of damping, or analog computer symbol for capacitance
C _e	=	coefficient of damping of equivalent SDF system
Ccre	=	critical coefficient of damping of equivalent SDF system
đ	25	distance from top of beam to centroid of tension reinforcement
ď	=	distance between centroids of the compression and tension reinforcement
е		analog computer symbol for voltage
Е	=	modulus of elasticity of ideal homogeneous beam
Ec	=	initial static tangent modulus of concrete determined from tests
		of 6 by 12-in. control cylinders
Ed		dynamic modulus of elasticity of the bar specimen
Es		static modulus of elasticity of the bar specimen corresponding
		to an average strain rate of 2 to 2.5 x 10^{-5} in./in./sec, also
		static modulus of elasticity of reinforcement, in general

f	=	static compressive strength of concrete determined from 6 by
		12-in. control cylinders
f [°] cd	=	dynamic compressive strength of concrete
f _e	=	frequency of vibration of equivalent SDF system
f f	=	fundamental frequency of lateral vibration of a bar in the
		"free-free" condition
fr	=	static modulus of rupture of concrete determined from 6 by 6 by
		20-in. control beams under third-point loading on an 18 -in. span
fs	=	fundamental frequency of lateral vibration of a bar on simple
		supports
f _w	=	static yield strength of stirrups
fy	=	static yield strength of tension reinforcement
f; y	H	static yield strength of compression reinforcement (obtained
		from tests in tension)
fyd	=	dynamic yield strength of tension reinforcement
fyd	=	dynamic yield strength of compression reinforcement
g	a	acceleration of gravity
h		beam height
н	H	constant relating deflection and curvature, defined by ${\rm H}={{\Delta_c}/({\Phi_c L}^2)}$
I	8	moment of inertia of ideal homogeneous beam
Ia	I	average moment of inertia
Ig	H	gross moment of inertia
I _t	=	transformed moment of inertia
ľy	=	transformed moment of inertia at yield
j	=	distance between tension force and center of compression of the
		concrete in compression on the cross-section of a reinforced
		concrete beam, divided by d and equal to (1 - $k^{2}/3$)

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k'	=	depth of neutral axis, divided by d (straight-line theory)
k"	=	aº/a
^k e	-	elastic slope of resistance function of equivalent SDF system
k_l	=	slope of elastic portion of static resistance function
^k ld	=	slope of elastic portion of dynamic resistance function
^k 2d	=	slope of inelastic portion of dynamic resistance function
^k l ^k 3	=	ratio of average compressive concrete stress in beam at failure to f $^\circ$ c
ĸ	=	load factor for SDF analysis, equal to P_e/P_e
K _{LM}	=	load-mass factor for SDF analysis, equal to $K_{M}^{}/K_{L}^{}$
К _М	=	mass factor for SDF analysis, equal to M_{e}/mL
ĸ _Q	=	resistance factor for SDF analysis, equal to k_{e}/k_{l}
L	=	longitudinal distance measured along beam
L	E	length of beam span
m	11	distributed mass of beam
М	=	applied moment due to P, or general symbol for mass
Me	=	equivalent mass concentrated at midspan
M m	=	maximum applied beam moment
M me	=	modified equivalent mass for SDF analysis, equal to $K_{LM}(mL)$
MP	=	dynamic plastic resisting moment
M Y	=	static yield moment capacity
n	=	E _s /E _s modular ratio
P	=	A _s /bd
P '	=	A_{s}^{2}/bd
Ρ	=	magnitude of applied load
P(t)	=	tensile load in the bar specimen at any time t
P _{dy}	=	dynamic yield load of the bar specimen, equal to $P(t)$ at $t = t$
P	N	force applied to equivalent SDF system

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P _{sy}	18	static yield load of the bar specimen corresponding to an
		average strain rate of 2 to 2.5 x 10^{-5} in./in./sec
đ	Ħ	pf _y /f _c
đ	=	(pf _y - p'f')/f _c
Q,		general symbol for dynamic resistance
^q cr	H	$k_{13} \epsilon_{u} / (\epsilon_{u} + \epsilon_{y})$, static critical reinforcement parameter
^q crd	=	dynamic critical reinforcement parameter, equal to $102/(120 + f_{yd})$
Q _e	=	yield resistance level of equivalent SDF system
Q _y	H	static yield resistance level
Q. yd	=	dynamic yield resistance level
r	=	percent of web reinforcing
R	Ξ;	dynamic reaction, also analog computer symbol for electrical
		resistance
ទារាជ	_	single_degree_of-freedom
5D1		
T	_	natural period of vibration
T t _d		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay time to yield$
T t d t _o		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s =$ delay time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens
T t d t o t s		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s =$ delay time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to
T t d t o t s		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay$ time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $P(t) = P_{sy}^*$
T t d t s t y		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay$ time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $P(t) = P_{sy}^*$ time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to
T ta to ts		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay$ time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $P(t) = P_{sy}^*$ time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $\frac{P(t)}{A_o \in (t)} = 20 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}^*$
T t d t c t s t y		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay$ time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $P(t) = P_{sy} *$ time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $\frac{P(t)}{A_o \in (t)} = 20 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}*$ time of ending of load on beam specimens
T t d t o t s t y t y t		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay$ time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $P(t) = P_{sy} *$ time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $\frac{P(t)}{A_o - \epsilon(t)} = 20 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}*$ time of ending of load on beam specimens nominal shear stress
T ta to ts ty tl v V		natural period of vibration $t_y - t_s = delay$ time to yield time of beginning of load on beam specimens time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $P(t) = P_{sy} *$ time elapsed from beginning of load on bar specimens to $\frac{P(t)}{A_o - \epsilon(t)} = 20 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}*$ time of ending of load on beam specimens nominal shear stress shearing force

^{*} In Tables 1a, 1b, and 1c the values of t and t listed correspond to the slashes on the figures in the Appendix. ^SHowever, some of the time axes in these figures were shifted so as not to obscure the initial portions of the plots. See, for example, Fig. Al9.

W	Ξ	unit weight of concrete
We	=	work done on equivalent SDF system
Z	=	Δ_{ℓ}/Δ_{c}
Za	=	Δ_{a}/Δ_{c}
β	=	ratio of damping coefficient to critical damping coefficient
β _e	=	damping factor of equivalent SDF system, equal to $C_{e}^{}/C_{cre}^{}$
γ	ш	density of an ideal laterally vibrating bar
\bigtriangleup	==	general symbol for deflection, displacement, or response
\triangle_{a}	н	deflection at a load point distance aL from a support
∆ _c	=	deflection at midspan
ے د	=	velocity at midspan
ے د	=	acceleration at midspan
∆ _a	=	damped maximum displacement
$\triangle_{\underline{\ell}}$	=	deflection at point 1
$\Delta_{\rm m}$	=	static maximum midspan deflection
$\triangle_{\mathrm{md.}}$	=	dynamic maximum midspan deflection
∆ _u	=	undamped maximum displacement
∆ _y	=	static midspan yield deflection
∆ _{yd}		dynamic midspan yield deflection
$\epsilon(t)$	=	strain in the bar specimen at any time t
ec	=	strain in tension reinforcement at midspan
е́е	=	strain rate at midspan
е́е	=	equivalent average strain rate corresponding to a constant
		loading rate, equal to $\left(\frac{P_{dy} - P_{sy}}{A_{o}t_{d}}\right)/E_{d}$
€u	=	concrete compressive crushing strain
ey	=	static yield strain in tension reinforcement
€ yd	=	dynamic yield strain in tension reinforcement

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equivalent average stress rate, equal to $\frac{P_{dy} - P_{sy}}{A_{o}t_{d}}$ σ_e = static ultimate stress ັ_{ຣນ} = static yield stress Jsy = curvature at midspan Φ c Ξ curvature at crushing, at midspan $\Phi_{\rm m}$ = Φy curvature at yield, at midspan =

The No. 6, No. 7, and some of the No. 9 bar specimens are designated by a combination of two numbers such as 6-16. The first number, 6, is the bar size, and the second number, 16, is the serial number of the particular length of bar from which the specimen was cut. Some of the No. 9 specimens are designated by a combination of three numbers such as 9-69-4. The third number, 4, is used to identify the particular specimen cut from a given length of bar.

PART A TESTS OF REINFORCING BAR COUPONS

II SCOPE

A total of thirty-four two-foot specimens, consisting of ten No. 6 bars, fourteen No. 7 bars, and ten No. 9 bars, were tested at room temperature under uniaxial tension. The deformations on all the bar specimens were of the Hi-Bond type manufactured by Inland Steel Company. All specimens met the requirements of ASTM Specification Al5-58T. The static yield strength of all specimens, based on an average strain rate of 2 to 2.5 x 10^{-5} in./in./sec, ranged between 40,500 psi and 48,900 psi.

The main variables were the static yield strength, the size of the bar specimen, the maximum applied stress level, and the duration of the load pulse. The tensile stress in the specimen was developed by the 60-kip capacity pneumatic loading machine described in Section 3.1. In most of the tests the maximum load level was applied in 6 milliseconds and then held nearly constant at this maximum until the yielding process had been completed. The mean value of the maximum load level ranged between 102 and 149 percent of the static yield strength. On six specimens the load was rapidly applied to a nearly constant value and after an arbitrary time interval the load level was suddenly increased to a higher value. The lower mean load level ranged between 83 and 102 percent of the static yield strength. The second load level was maintained nearly constant until the yielding process had been completed. The purpose of these double load pulse tests was to determine if the stress-time history had any effect on the dynamic yield strength and the delay-time to yield.

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III EQUIPMENT AND INSTRUMENTATION

3.1 Loading Equipment

A schematic diagram of the 60-kip capacity pneumatic loading machine (12) used to apply a tensile stress to the bar specimen is shown in Fig. 2. A photograph of the machine with top external chamber in place is contained in Fig. 21. Basically, the machine is a piston loading device which may be operated as an explosion machine, as an implosion machine, or as an explosion-implosion machine.

Most of the specimens were stressed by using the loading unit as an explosion machine. When used as an explosion machine, the load is applied and removed by the sudden release (explosion) of compressed gas to the atmosphere. Before a test, the trigger mechanism is set and the top and bottom orifices are closed by hydraulic jacking of the slide valves. Equal forces, corresponding to the maximum desired stress level to be developed by the specimen, are then applied to each side of the main piston by the introduction of compressed nitrogen gas into the main chambers. The pressures in the two main chambers are adjusted so that no load is applied to the specimen through the main shaft. The top auxiliary lift system which provides the force necessary to move the slide valve away from the orifices is then pressurized. A photograph of the control panel of the pressurizing system is shown in Fig. 3. Energizing the top solenoid then releases the top trigger. This causes the slide valve restraining link to be pushed aside and moves the top slide valve away from the orifices at the desired time. As the slide valve clears the orifices, there is a sudden release of pressure from the top main chamber to the atmosphere. This causes a differential pressure on the main piston which loads the test specimen. After the test is completed, the specimen is unloaded by opening a bleeder valve on the control panel which is connected to the bottom main chamber.

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When the pneumatic loading unit is used as an implosion machine, use is made of the external storage chamber or manifold surrounding the bottom slide valve orifices. All gas movements are confined within the machine (implosion). Again, the orifices are closed and the trigger mechanism is set. Now the external storage chamber (manifold) is pressurized. At the desired time the lower solenoid is energized, releasing the lower trigger which causes the lower slide valve to move. As the orifices open, the bottom main chamber is suddenly pressurized and the unbalanced force on the piston loads the specimen. Only six specimens were loaded by using the pneumatic loading unit as an implosion machine because of the large oscillations in the load it applied to the specimen.

It is possible to apply a double load pulse to the specimen by using the pneumatic loading unit as an explosion-implosion machine. First, the orifices are closed and the triggers set. Next, the top and bottom main chamber and the external storage chamber are pressurized. The top solenoid is then energized, releasing the top trigger. As the orifices on the top main chamber open, the pressure on the bottom side of the piston loads the specimen. At a predetermined time interval after the top solenoid has been energized, a sequence control device energizes the bottom solenoid. This trips the bottom trigger causing the gas in the manifold to be imploded into the bottom main chamber resulting in a sudden increase in the level of the load on the specimen.

The pneumatic loading unit permits the application of a loading pulse that may begin from a static level ranging from 60 kips tension to 60 kips compression, to undergo a rapid change of plus or minus 60 kips maximum (with the restriction that the prepulse load plus the dynamic change in load cannot exceed the limits of plus or minus 60 kips), and

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then return rapidly to zero load. The rise time of the load is approximately 6 milliseconds and is practically independent of the load level. The duration of the peak load level may be varied from a few milliseconds to several hours. When the device is used to apply a double load pulse, the time interval between the application of the first load and the start of the second load level can be varied from 18 milliseconds, minimum, to several hours.

3.2 Measuring Equipment

3.2.1 General

For all the tests included in Part A of this report, the following measurements were recorded with time as the independent variable:

(1) The output of an $SR^{-\frac{1}{4}}$ gage load cell which recorded the tensile resisting force developed at one end of the bar specimen due to a rapidly applied load at the other end.

(2) The average of the outputs from two SR_{-1} , Type Al2-2, strain gages mounted diametrically opposite one another on the ribs of the specimen midway between the ends of the bar.

On specimens 7-2, 7-10, 7-15, 7-18, 7-24, 9-51-2, and 9-69-4, (see notations, Section 1.4) the individual output was recorded from two additional SR-4, Type Al2-2, strain gages mounted in the same fashion on the lower half of the specimen, 2 1/2 in., center to center, below the two gages already described. The purpose of these two strain gages was to determine the rate at which the plastic yield front propagated across the specimen and the magnitude of the bending strains due to possible nonalignment of the specimen in the grips. Further, this series of tests gave some indication of the error in assuming that general yielding had initiated under the gages of those specimens which had only two strain gages and thus some indication of the error in the computed delay-time.

On specimens 6-14, 7-2, and 9-69-4, the output was also recorded from a Hathaway Type AMS-20A Electric Accelerometer Head placed at the midspan of the reaction beam. These measured accelerations were later used to determine their effect on the recorded load cell output of apparent resisting stress developed in the bar specimen.

The signal output from all the measuring devices was recorded on film by a Hathaway Type S-14 magnetic oscillograph shown in Fig. 4. A circuit diagram of the load cell and strain bridges is shown in Fig. 5. A typical oscillogram of the load and strain obtained during a rapid tension test is shown in Fig. 6. The period of the timing trace is two milliseconds per cycle.

3.2.2 Load

The resisting force developed at the lower end of the bar specimen was measured with a Wheatstone Bridge circuit of SR-4 strain gages mounted on an aluminum load cell. There were two bridge circuits, each consisting of four SR-4, Type AD-7, strain gages. The strain output for each circuit was increased approximately 2.6 times and the effect of eccentric loading compensated for by the arrangement of the gages. One circuit was a "static" bridge and the other was a "dynamic" bridge. A circuit diagram of the "dynamic" bridge is shown in Fig. 5. The "static" bridge was used to calibrate the "dynamic" bridge and to measure any pre-load during the pressurization of the pneumatic loading unit. The "dynamic" bridge was used to measure the transient tension in the bar specimen during a rapid test. A hollow aluminum cylinder was used in order to increase the sensitivity of the load

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cell and to minimize the inertia forces developed by any vibrations of the load cell. The approximate sensitivity of this load cell is 20 kips per 1000 microin./in. of indicated strain.

The lower end of the load cell was enlarged and threaded onto a turnbuckle which was directly attached to a reaction beam. The upper end of the load cell was solid and threaded. It was threaded directly to a steel cone which encased the babbitt grip for the specimen. A photograph of the load cell connected to the turnbuckle is shown in Fig. 7.

3.2.3 Strain

Strains in the bar specimen were measured with SR-4, Type A12-2, strain gages. The longitudinal rib on the bar specimen provided ample area for mounting the A12-2 gages since the grid pattern of the filament consists of a single strand of wire. The effective gage length of these gages is 1.0 in. Two gages were placed diametrically opposite one another on the ribs midway between the ends of the specimen and connected together in series to form one arm of the bridge. Three additional dummy gages (Type A?) made up one Wheatstone Bridge circuit. For seven specimens, two additional SR-4, Type A12-2, strain gages were mounted diametrically opposite one another on the lower half of the specimen. These gages were 2 1/2 in., center to center, from the gages at the midpoint of the specimen. Each of these two strain gages was part of an individual Wheatstone Bridge circuit together with three dummy gages of the same type. The circuit diagram for these strain bridges is shown in Fig. 5.

3.2.4 Calibration of Load and Strain

The following procedure was used to calibrate the load cell which measured the resistance developed by the specimen. The load cell was first placed in a 120,000-lb capacity Baldwin Universal Testing Machine and an SR-4 strain indicator was connected to the "static" bridge. All electrical

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leads and connections were such that they could be exactly duplicated later. Load was applied to the cell and the strain output from the "static" bridge was recorded by an SR-4 strain indicator as a function of the axial load. The load cell was then fastened to the turnbuckle in the test setup. A No. 9 bar, strong enough to be strained only within its elastic range under the capacity of the machine, was then cast in babbitt grips and the steel cone sleeves were screwed onto the main piston shaft above, and onto the supporting load cell below. Care was taken to assure that the wiring between the "dynamic" bridge and recording oscillograph was exactly the same as that used in a bar test. Load was then slowly applied to the bar in distinct increments by gradually bleeding gas into the lower main chamber of the loading machine. Simultaneously, the signal output from the "dynamic" bridge was recorded on film by the oscillograph while the signal output from the "static" bridge was read from an SR-4 strain indicator. Along with the signals due to the actual load, those signals resulting from placing shunt resistors across a vertical arm of the "dynamic" Wheatstone Bridge circuit were recorded. It was then possible to obtain an equivalent load for each of the resistors, later to be used in establishing the scale of the load record obtained during a test. These calibrating resistors were switched into the "dynamic" bridge circuit of the load cell and their effect recorded on film by the oscillograph at the beginning of each test.

The standard calibration resistances for the strain bridges were the same as those used for the load cell, except that their equivalent values were now expressed in strain units of microinches per inch. These equivalent values were obtained by shunting the resistors across the appropriate arm of each strain bridge circuit and recording the equivalent strain by an

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SR-4 strain indicator. All leads, connections, and switching units were the same as those used in a test. As with the load cell, any reactive unbalance due to long leads was compensated for by placing a variable capacitance in the appropriate arm of each bridge before calibrating or testing. Again, these calibrating resistors were switched into each strain bridge circuit to be calibrated and their effect was recorded on film by the oscillograph at the beginning of each test. These calibration marks on the film were later used in establishing the scale of the strain records obtained during a test.

3.2.5 Acceleration

In some of the tests the acceleration of the midspan of the reaction beam was measured with a Hathaway Type AMS-20A Electric Accelerometer Head. It is capable of measuring accelerations up to 500 g. It was placed on the reaction beam, directly in front of the base plate. The mounted accelerometer can be seen in Fig. 7.

Before the test, the accelerometer was given a simple "2g calibration." This was accomplished by first holding the accelerometer in the upright position and recording the signal output on the oscillograph. The accelerometer was then rotated through 180 deg. and again the signal output was recorded on the oscillograph. This provided calibration marks on the film paper corresponding to +1.0g and -1.0g, later to be used in establishing the scale of the records obtained during a test.

3.2.6 Recording Equipment

The signal output from the "dynamic" bridge of the load cell, the steel strain bridges of the bar specimen, and the accelerometer were recorded on film with a Hathaway Type S-l⁴c magnetic oscillograph operating with an MRS-18 carrier amplifying system. This system is essentially flat in response up to 450 cycles per second. The timing trace was marked on the film of the oscillograph with the 500 cps output of an electronic oscillator. A block diagram of the Hathaway equipment is shown in Fig. 5. A typical oscillogram of the load and strain obtained during a rapid tension test is shown in Fig. 6. The period of the timing trace was two milliseconds per cycle.

IV DESCRIPTION OF TEST SPECIMENS AND TEST PROCEDURE

4.1 Physical and Geometric Properties

All specimens used in this investigation were cut from deformed reinforcing bars of intermediate grade steel meeting the requirements of ASTM Specification Al5-58T. Three different bar sizes were used, Nos. 6, 7, and 9. The total length of each specimen, including grip length, was 2^{14} in. The specimens tested statically in a 120,000-1b Baldwin Universal Testing Machine, at an average strain rate of 2 to 2.5 x 10^{-5} in./in./sec, had yield stresses ranging from 40,500 psi to 48,900 psi. The yield strength, ultimate strength, and modulus of elasticity (for some bars) for each specimen are listed in Tables 1a, 1b, and 1c.

The surface deformations on all bars were of the Hi-Bond type manufactured by Inland Steel Company and were left intact on all test specimens. Photographs of typical No. 6, 7, and 9 bars are shown in Fig. 8. The geometric properties of the No. 6, 7, and 9 bars were determined from five bars of each size selected at random. The average spacing, height, and gap of the deformations were measured by the procedures recommended by ASTM Specification A305-56T. Each bar was also weighed and the average crosssectional area was determined. The average spacing, height, and gap of the deformations and the cross-sectional area for each bar size are listed in Table 2. The geometric properties listed in Table 2 are not necessarily typical for all the bars tested since all bars used in the investigation were not contained in the same shipping order.

4.2 Method of Gripping

The manner of gripping the specimen was very important because high stress concentrations had to be avoided and slipping of the specimen

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in the gripping device minimized. The method of attachment eventually adopted consisted of molding the ends of the bar specimen in babbitt metal. This method was effective and there was no tendency for the specimens to fracture at a reduced strength at the grips. With reference to Fig. 9a, the steel cone (A) and then the cone plug (B) were slipped over each end of the bar specimen. Finally, the casting rig (C) was screwed onto each end of the specimen and securely fastened to the steel cone by two set pins. The casting rig aligned the cone with the bar, thus reducing the possibility of eccentrically loading the specimen during a test. The steel cone served as a mold for the babbitt. With the steel cones in position, the total distance between the ends of the two cones was 10 in. The barcone arrangement was then held in a vertical position, and the cone was heated with a torch to drive off any moisture and prevent popping of the babbitt. The babbitt was then poured into the cone up to within 3 3/4 in. of the end of the specimen. A pyrometer applied to the bar between the ends of the two cones showed that the temperature of the bar due to heat transfer from the hot babbitt never exceeded 200 deg. F. After the babbitt had cooled, the casting rig was removed from each end of the specimen and a nut and a washer were screwed onto each end. The babbitt was a Hoo-Hoo brand with a high grade tin base. It had a pouring temperature of 810 deg. F. At 68 deg. F. it had an elastic limit of 2,900 psi, a yield strength of 5,750 psi, and an ultimate compressive strength of 13,875 psi. Figure 9b shows the specimen after the babbitt grips had been cast. The specimen was cooled at room temperature. The bar specimen was now ready to be tested dynamically. The total distance between the near ends of the grips was measured before and after several tests. The maximum recorded relative movement of the bar with respect to the cone grips was 3/16 in.

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4.3 Preparation of Specimens

Two adjacent 2^{4} -in. test specimens were cut from each 2^{4} ft length of bar stock in order that the specimen material for the static and dynamic tests would be as similar as practicable. One specimen from each pair was then tested statically without further preparation.

The specimens tested under rapid loading were prepared as follows: First, the ends of each specimen were threaded to take a nut and washer (see Fig. 10). The nut and washer arrangement was part of a safety measure to prevent the specimen from failing by bond in the babbitt grip. The threaded ends also served as a means of connecting the casting rig to the specimen. After the ends of the bar had been threaded, the longitudinal ribs of the specimen were prepared for mounting the strain gages. At each gage location the longitudinal rib was draw filed and then hand sanded to a final finish with emery paper for a length of about 3 in. Care was taken to remove a minimum amount of material. This rib width provided ample area for mounting Type Al2-2 strain gages since the grid pattern of the filament consists of a single strand of wire. These gages have a l-in. effective gage length. The surface at each gage location was cleaned and the strain gages were mounted with Duco cement. The test specimens were then oven-dried at 170 deg. F. On all specimens tested under rapid loading, two strain gages were mounted diametrically opposite one another on the longitudinal ribs, midway between the ends of the specimen. On specimens 7-2, 7-10, 7-15, 7-18, 7-24, 9-51-2, and 0-60-4, two additional strain gages were mounted in a similar fashion 2 1/2 in. center to center from the midpoint gages. A typical test specimen before pouring the babbitt grips is shown in Fig. 11. After the ends of the specimen had been threaded and all gages mounted, the ends of the specimen were ready to be placed in steel cones and molded in babbitt grips.

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4.4 Slow Tests

For each specimen tested under rapid loading, a static test was made on a 24-in. specimen cut from the same bar. For those No. 9 bars in which four specimens were cut from the same length of bar, only one static test was made. All slow tests were conducted in a 120,000-1b Baldwin Universal Testing Machine. Standard wedge grips provided a satisfactory method of gripping the specimen. The average distance between grips for each test was 10 in. This distance corresponded to the distance between the near ends of the cone grips used in the dynamic tests. The testing machine was equipped with a pacing device for the measurement and control of the rate of straining. Each specimen was tested at an average strain rate of 2 to 2.5 x 10^{-5} in./in./sec. This rate is within the limits specified by ASTM Specification Al5-58T. On some specimens, an 8-in. extensometer connected to an autographic recording device was used. After a strain of 3 to 4 percent was recorded, the extensometer was removed and the test carried to failure. Typical stressstrain diagrams for No. 6, 7, and 9 bar specimens are shown in Figs. 12, 13 and 14, respectively. The results of the static tests are given in Tables la, lb, and lc. The resulting tensile properties of all specimens conformed to the requirements of ASTM Specification A15-58T.

4.5 Rapid Tests

The test setup is shown in Fig. 15. A horizontal wide flange steel member spanning between columns provided the reaction for the applied load. The four tie rods connecting the stop plate to the reaction beam were a safety measure to prevent damage to the machine if the specimen fractured. The height of the stop plate could be adjusted to limit the piston travel, and thus the elongation of the specimen, to any desired amount.

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After the strain gages were mounted and the babbitt grips had been poured and cooled to room temperature, each end of the specimen was fitted with a nut and washer. The nut and washer prevented the bar from failing by bond in the babbitt grips. The threaded steel cone at one end of the specimen was screwed onto the main piston shaft and the other cone was screwed onto the load cell. The leads from the strain bridges were then soldered to the strain gages on the bar. The specimen was now ready to be tested dynamically.

First, the gain of each amplifier was set so that the calibrating step representing the largest trace deflection (which in turn represented a value of strain or load greater than that applied in a test) would remain on the film of the oscillograph. Next, the appropriate chambers of the pneumatic loading machine were pressurized to a pressure corresponding to the maximum desired load level. As the chambers were pressurized, the load in the specimen was monitored with an SR-4 strain indicator connected to the static bridge of the load cell. Thus, it was possible to ensure that there was no load on the specimen prior to the dynamic test. The auxiliary chambers were then pressurized to activate the slide valve when the triggers were tripped by the solenoid. Immediately before the test, the calibrating resistors were switched into the Wheatstone Bridge circuit of each measuring device and their effect recorded on film by the oscillograph. In order to assure that the specimen was aligned with respect to the loading axis of the machine and to remove any slack from the system, a very small preload or initial tension was applied. However, this load was negligible relative to the static yield load of the specimen. After the specimen had finished yielding under the rapidly applied load, the load was removed by bleeding the bottom main chamber.

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In most of the rapid tests the load was applied rapidly to a nearly constant stress level. The load was then maintained at this stress level until the yielding process had been completed. In six tests the load was applied rapidly to a nearly constant load level and, before sufficient time had elapsed to allow general yielding, the load level was rapidly increased to a higher load level. The load was then maintained nearly constant at this second load level until the yielding process had been completed. In one test the area of the orifices in the machine was reduced in an effort to apply a stress to the specimen that increased at a constant rate throughout the stress history of the bar.

4.6 Machine Vibration Tests

During the initial stages of load application, particularly under high load levels, the load cell recorded fluctuations in the apparent resistance developed by the specimen. These vibrations damped out very quickly and uniform measurements of the tension in the bar were always possible after an elapsed time of approximately 25 milliseconds. These oscillations in resistance could have been the result of variations in the load applied to the specimen by the machine or could have been produced by the inertia of the load cell and the bottom grip. If these oscillations were due to the latter, it meant that the load cell was not giving an exact measurement of the varying tension in the specimen. Therefore, an investigation was made to determine if the inertia of the load cell and the bottom grip was giving rise to forces large enough to affect significantly the load cell output.

In order to determine the magnitude of the inertia forces, an accelerometer was placed at the midspan of the reaction beam as shown in Fig. 7. The

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recorded accelerations as a function of time during the initial stages of the loading for tests 6-14, 7-2, and 9-69-4, are shown in Fig. 16. The peak accelerations recorded by the accelerometer were +8g and -11g. Assuming that the deformations in the turnbuckle, load cell, and bottom bar grip during a test are negligible, thus making the acceleration of the reaction beam and the load cell the same, the maximum computed inertia force was 0.45 kips. This was based on the mass of one-half of the bar specimen, the bottom grip, and the portion of the load cell above the section at which the tension in the cell was being recorded. Since this is within the accuracy of the recording equipment, the load cell output was considered an accurate enough measurement of the varying tension in the test specimen.

The oscillations of the tension in the specimen were attributed to the vibration of the testing apparatus. Although the accelerations were not large enough to affect the accuracy of the load cell, the amplitude of the vibrations was large enough to cause large fluctuations in the applied load. Any small oscillations of the recorded tension in the bar were probably due to the pulsating gases in the machine.

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V TEST RESULTS

5.l Definition of Terms

5.1.1 Yield Criterion

It is evident from the results of the tests presented in this report that the time at which general yielding was initiated was not a well defined point. As illustrated in Fig. 1, after the maximum load level in the bar had been reached, a certain amount of inelastic "microstrain"* developed in the specimen. The rate at which this strain increased with time gradually increased, at a nearly constant load level, until general yielding was initiated. Because there was no distinct time corresponding to a sudden change in the rate of strain, and thus the beginning of general yielding, the time t_y at which general yielding began was arbitrarily defined as the time at which the ratio of nominal stress to strain $\left[\frac{P(t)}{A_0} \in (t)\right]$ decreased to a value of 20 x 10⁶ psi. This yield criterion is that which has been suggested by other investigators (13).

5.1.2 Delay-Time

As illustrated in Fig. 1, the stress under rapid loading exceeds the static yield point before general yielding is initiated. Thus, a delaytime elapses between the attainment of the static yield stress and general yielding, irrespective of the definition used to define the time when general yielding occurs. This delay-time to yield, t_d , for any loading pattern, P(t), was arbitrarily defined as the interval between the time t_s when the stress first reached the static yield stress, and the time t_y when the ratio of nominal stress to strain decreased to 20 x 10⁶ psi. Delay-time, so

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^{*} In this report the term microstrain is defined as all inelastic straining preceding the development of the general yielding condition.

defined, has engineering significance because it is related at one end to a stress level which would result in yielding under static loading and at the other end to general yielding.

5.1.3 Dynamic Yield Stress

Owing to the characteristics of the testing apparatus, the load in the bar tended to oscillate for several milliseconds after the maximum load level was reached. Because of these oscillations in the load, the mean value of the maximum load level was usually slightly higher or lower than the instantaneous load level in the bar when general yielding occurred. Any large initial elastic oscillations in the load could have caused the mean stress level at the time of general yielding to be significantly different from the instantaneous load level. Therefore, in the interest of consistency, the dynamic yield stress, $P_{\rm dy}$, was arbitrarily defined as the instantaneous stress in the bar when the ratio of nominal stress to strain decreased to 20 x 10⁶ psi, as illustrated in Fig. 1.

5.2 Experimental Results

The results of the dynamic tension tests are presented in both curves and tables. The results of the tests are plotted in Figs. Al-A3⁴. Figures Al-A27 show the results of the first series of tests in which the load was rapidly applied to a nearly constant load level and maintained at this load level until yielding had been completed. Figures A28-A33 show the results of the double load-pulse tests. Figure A3⁴ shows the results of an effort to apply a load which increased at a constant rate throughout the stress-time history of the bar. In each figure, the measured strain, $\epsilon(t)$, and the corresponding tension in the specimen, P(t), are plotted as a function of time for each specimen tested under rapid loading. The strain-time traces labeled "A" represent the output from the SR-4 strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen. The traces labeled "B" represent the output from the SR-4 strain gages mounted 2 1/2 in., center to center, below the "A" gages. The resulting dynamic load-strain curves are also shown. The load-strain curves are based on the strains recorded midway between the ends of the specimen. The varying tension in the specimen, P(t), was recorded as a function of time until yielding under the applied load level was completed. However, the plots of load vs. time have been terminated when the strain in the bar exceeded the capacity of the strain gages or the strain trace went off the edge of the film record. The slash marks on the plots correspond to the values of load and time listed in the tables described below. (See footnote to t_s and t_y in Section 1.4, Notation).

The time to reach the static yield load, t_s ; the time to initiate general yielding, t_y , (as defined in Section 5.1.1); the delay-time to yield, t_d , (as defined in Section 5.1.2); the dynamic yield stress, P_{dy} , (as defined in Section 5.1.3); and the dynamic modulus of elasticity, E_d , were taken from the figures and are presented in Tables la, lb, and lc. The static yield stress, static ultimate stress, and static modulus of elasticity (for some bars) are also listed in Tables la, lb, and lc. It is important to note that these static properties are based on an average strain rate of 2 to 2.5×10^{-5} in./in./sec.

VI DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 General

Because of the limitations of the strain gages, this investigation was confined to the tensile properties of each specimen up to approximately one percent strain. The initial rate at which tensile stress was applied to each specimen ranged between 5×10^6 and 10×10^6 psi/sec. As the load on the specimen was rapidly increased, there was a proportionate increase in the strain. After the load exceeded the static yield load, the specimen continued to behave elastically. When the maximum load level was reached, usually in 5 to 10 milliseconds, the load started to oscillate. An explanation of these oscillations is given below. In this stage of behavior, any measured change of tension in the bar produced a corresponding increase or decrease in the strain, regardless of the load level. The mean level about which the load oscillated was then maintained at a nearly constant value throughout the remainder of the test. At this load level a definite time elapsed during which no straining took place. Just before general yielding was initiated, some inelastic straining (microstrain) occurred. Once this non-recoverable strain had started, the rate at which strain changed with time gradually increased, until general yielding began. The time required to initiate general yielding increased as the relative dynamic to static yield load decreased. In every test, the maximum load level applied to the specimen was less than the static ultimate load. No specimen fractured under the applied load.

Immediately after the maximum load level had been reached, the tensile stress in the bar tended to oscillate during the initial stages of the loading. The major cause of this has been attributed to the vibrations

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of the testing apparatus. It was explained in Section 4.6 that the accelerations produced by these vibrations did not introduce significant error in the load cell output measuring tensile load in the bar, but that the amplitude of the vibrations was large enough to cause large oscillations in the applied load. However, these large vibrations of the load generally damped out very quickly relative to the delay-time. Any remaining small oscillations of the recorded tension in the bar were probably due to the vibration of the gases in the machine caused by the sudden change in volume, resulting in an erratic differential load on the main piston.

In every test in which two sets of strain gages were used, the strain-time records indicated that general yielding was initiated toward one end of the specimen. For those tests in which the dynamic load level was only slightly above the static yield load (e.g. Fig. A27) the strain gages showed that the time required for the onset of general yielding at a point 2 1/2 in. below the midpoint of the specimen was approximately half the time required at the center of the specimen. This difference in time to yield increased as the relative dynamic to static yield stress decreased. This indicates that for only slight increases in the dynamic yield level, the velocity at which the yield front propagates across the length of the specimen is relatively slow. For very high dynamic yield levels, the velocity of the plastic yield front is so great that uniform yielding over the length of the specimen appears to have occurred, at least within the sensitivity of the recording apparatus used. This phenomenon was also observed by Taylor (14) in an investigation concerning the non-uniform yield in a mild steel under dynamic straining. Taylor found that yield was initiated at one end of the specimen and the amplitude of the permanent

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strain increased at this point of initiation until a critical value was reached and a definite yield front then progressed along the gage length.

6.2 Dynamic Load-Strain Diagram

For each specimen tested under rapid loading there was a pronounced "spike" in the load-strain diagram as shown in Fig. 17b. The magnitude of this "spike" was a function of the magnitude of the oscillations in load immediately after the maximum load level was reached. This behavior can best be explained by reference to Fig. 17. After the load on the specimen reached point A, the load oscillated for several cycles between points A and B. Since the specimen was still acting elastically, there was a proportionate oscillation in the strain between points a and b. On the load-strain diagram, this corresponded to an oscillation along the elastic slope between A, a and B, b. After the oscillations in the load had damped out at point C, the load and strain in the specimen were represented by point C, c until a time corresponding to point D was reached. At this time, the strain in the specimen began to increase at a nearly constant load level along line de. This behavior is clearly illustrated by tests 6-22 and 9-69-2 shown in Fig. Alo and Fig. A26, respectively. Therefore, the point corresponding to point A: a in the load-strain diagrams of Figs. Al-A34 should not be interpreted as the dynamic upper yield point.

It is interesting to note in Tables La, Lb, and Lc that the modulus of elasticity was always less under rapid loading than under static loading. Freudenthal (15) suggests that this phenomenon is due to the thermal softening of the material by the energy dissipated in inelastic deformation and not carried away. However, this difference between the

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static and dynamic moduli may be due to the distinctly different procedures used to measure load and strain in the static and dynamic tests and the inherent inaccuracies in each.

6.3 Delayed-Yield Effect

With reference to Fig. 1, the specimen did not yield in the rapidload tests when the tension in the bar reached the static yield load. As the tension in the bar continued to increase, the specimen continued to behave elastically and a finite time, the delay-time, elapsed before the onset of general yielding. The delay-time to yield (as defined in Section 5.1.2) for each test is listed in Tables 1a, 1b, and 1c. This delay-time to yield was found to be a function of the amount by which the maximum load level exceeded the static yield load. The percentage by which the dynamic yield load, P_{dy} exceeded the static yield load for each test is listed in Col. 1 of Tables 3a, 3b, and 3c. In Fig. 18 the percentage increase in the yield stress is plotted against the delay-time to yield. There are only a few points corresponding to $t_d < \frac{1}{4}$ milliseconds because of the limited load capacity of the testing machine and the limited loading rate imposed by the structural flexibility of the testing apparatus. Figure 18 confirms the results of other investigators (9), that the delay-time to yield decreases with increasing yield strength.

The scatter in Fig. 18 may be attributed to the following factors:

(1) The static yield strength of each specimen was different. Uzhik and Voloshenko-Klimovitsky (16) found that the dynamic yield strength is dependent not only upon the loading pattern, which influences the delaytime, but also upon the value of the static yield strength. Their tests confirmed that, for a given loading rate, the ratio of dynamic to static

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yield strength increases as the static yield strength decreases. It was impossible to determine the magnitude of the effect of the static yield stress on the dynamic yield strength of the bar specimens because the loading pattern on each specimen prior to general yielding was different.

(2) The measured delay-time is based on the assumption that first yielding in the specimen occurred at the location of the strain gages. This is not necessarily true. Therefore, the delay-time for a given increase in yield stress may have been less than that indicated by the strain gages. The tests in which the strain, $\epsilon(t)$, was recorded at two different points on the specimen indicate that this error decreases as the relative dynamic to static yield stress increases.

6.4 Effect of Stress-Time History on Behavior

An investigation was made to determine if the stress-time history on the bar prior to the time t_s had any effect on the delay-time to yield and the dynamic yield stress. This was accomplished by applying two different loading patterns to the specimens. Each pattern had a different stresstime history prior to the time t_s and a similar stress-time history after time t_s . For the first pattern of loading (Figs. Al-A27) a stress greater than the static yield stress was rapidly applied to the specimen in 5 to 10 milliseconds and then maintained at a nearly constant stress level until yielding had been completed. The stress-time histories of each specimen of this series were very similar prior to the time t_s when the dynamic stress exceeded the static yield stress. The second pattern of loading (Figs. A28-A33) was applied to six specimens. Each was subjected to a stress which increased to a maximum stress level less than the static yield stress in 5 to 10 milliseconds and was then held nearly constant.

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After an arbitrary time interval had elapsed at this stress level, the stress was rapidly increased to a higher level and maintained nearly constant until yielding under this higher stress level had been completed. The lower mean stress level ranged between 83 and 102 percent of the static yield stress. The measured delay-time, t_d , and the computed increase in the yield stress are plotted in Fig. 18. The results of these tests showed that the stress-time history on the specimen prior to the time t_s when the dynamic stress, P(t), exceeded the static yield load, had no noticeable effect on the delay-time to yield (at least within the limits of the investigation, $t_s < 108$ milliseconds). This would imply that the increased strength exhibited by a specimen under rapid loading depends only on the stress history during the elapsed delay-time.

6.5 Equivalent Average Stress Rate

In the literature (9,14), the phenomenon of increase in yield point under rapid loading is usually related to a time parameter such as delay-time to yield, t_d , or time to reach yield, t_y . Although this method of presenting experimental data on increased yield point is convenient, it is of little practical value in the analysis of reinforced concrete beam tests. In the reinforced concrete beam tests of this investigation, records of strain as a function of time for both the tension and compression steel do not show finite times during which no straining takes place. (See Figs. A73-A95). The strains, and thus the stresses, generally tend to increase continuously with time. Thus, relating the increase in yield stress to either a stress rate or strain rate has practical value in the analysis of reinforced concrete beam tests. It has been shown in Section 6.3 that the delay-time to yield can be fairly well correlated with the percent increase

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in yield stress. If the delay-time to yield can now be related to an equivalent average stress or strain rate, then each can in turn be related to the percent increase in yield stress. Thus, the following method of relating the experimental values of delay-time to yield to an equivalent average stress rate is presented.

With reference to Fig. 1, the equivalent average stress rate, $\dot{\sigma}_{e}$, in time t_d , is equal to $(P_{dy}-P_{sy})/t_d A_c$. The computed equivalent average stress rate, $\dot{\sigma}_{e}$, for each specimen is listed in Col. 2 of Tables 3a, 3b, and 3c. In Fig. 19, the percent increase in the yield stress is plotted against the equivalent average stress rate for each specimen. The curve shown in this figure is drawn as a lower bound to the experimental points because the delay-time to yield for a given increase in yield stress may have been less than the time indicated by the strain gages (see Section 6.3).

This method of relating the experimental values of delay-time corresponding to a load which is rapidly applied and then held at a constant stress level, to an equivalent average stress rate is based on the following assumption: For a particular metal, the delay-time to yield is a unique quantity in that it depends only on the total change in the magnitude of the load level during the elapsed delay-time to yield. This assumption could not be validated by tests on this project because of the limitations of the testing apparatus. In fact, the results of an experimental investigation by Vigness, Krafft, and Smith (9) indicates that this assumption is not completely valid. Vigness, et al., found that for the same steel stock, the delay-time for a load rapidly applied and then held constant is less than the delay-time for a load which increases linearly with time. It is suggested (9) that this difference in delay-time to yield for the two loading patterns is due to the lower average stress during the elapsed delay-time

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for the constant rate of loading. This difference in the delay-time for the two loading patterns suggests that the computed equivalent average stress rate corresponding to the points shown in Fig. 19 may be approximately 12 percent larger than would be expected if the bars were actually loaded at a constant loading rate during the elapsed delay-time. Thus, for a given stress rate the corresponding increase in yield stress may be greater than that indicated by Fig. 19.

The above discussion concerning the test results reported by Vigness, et al., assumes that the delay-time is independent of the stress-time history of the specimen prior to the time t_s . It has already been shown in Section 6.2 that within the scope of these tests, the stress-time history prior to the time t_s appeared to have no influence on the delay-time to yield.

6.6 Equivalent Average Strain Rate

For the reasons stated in Section 6.5, it would be of practical value if the increase in yield stress under rapid loading could also be related to an equivalent average strain rate. The equivalent average strain rate, \dot{e}_{e} , is defined as the equivalent average stress rate, $\dot{\sigma}_{e}$ (explained in Section 6.5), divided by the dynamic modulus of elasticity, E_{d} , listed in Tables 1a, 1b, and 1c. The equivalent average strain rate for each specimen is listed in Col. 3 of Tables 3a, 3b and 3c. The percent increase in the yield stress is plotted against the equivalent average strain rate in Fig. 20. The curve shown in this figure is drawn as a lower bound to the experimental points because the delay-time to yield for a given increase in yield stress may have been less than the time indicated by the strain gages (see Section 6.3). For the same reasons stated in Section 7.5, for a given equivalent average

strain rate, the corresponding increase in yield stress may be greater than that indicated by Fig. 20. For purposes of comparison, the experimental curve obtained by Manjoine (17, 18) in which test specimens were subjected to a nearly constant strain rate is also shown in Fig. 20. As shown, the two curves agree fairly well. However, one should not expect the two curves to be the same since the physical properties of the specimens used by Manjoine were different. Manjoine's tests were performed at room temperature on 0.2-in. diameter specimens machined from a commercial low carbon open hearth steel. The yield point of this steel was 28,400 psi, when tested at a strain rate of 10^{-5} in./in./sec.

This method of relating the experimental values of delay-time corresponding to a load which is rapidly applied and then held at a nearly constant stress level, to an equivalent average strain rate is based on the same assumption presented in Section 6.5. In addition, it assumes that no inelastic microstraining occurs prior to the time when general yielding is initiated.

VII SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS - PART A

The behavior of intermediate grade deformed reinforcing bars at room temperature under rapid rates of loading to a constant stress level has been determined experimentally and the following conclusions are drawn.

(1) The yield strength of intermediate grade reinforcing steel is much greater under rapid rates of loading to a constant stress level than under ordinary static loadings. The yield strength may be expected to increase as much as 50 percent under dynamic loadings of the types used in this investigation.

(2) There appears to be a relationship between the delay-time to yield and the dynamic yield stress in excess of the static yield stress as shown in Fig. 18. The delay-time to yield decreases with increasing yield strength of intermediate grade reinforcing steel. Load levels which correspond to very little increase in the yield strength generally result in delay-times greater than about 2 seconds. Load levels corresponding to increases in yield strength of as much as $\frac{1}{2}5$ percent generally result in delay-times of 1 to 3 milliseconds.

(3) Within the scope of the investigation, the stress-time history prior to the time t_s has no apparent influence on the delay-time to yield. This would imply that the increased strength exhibited by the bars under rapid loading depends primarily on the stress-time history during the elapsed delay-time.

(4) The yield strength of intermediate grade reinforcing steel increases with increasing equivalent average stress rate as shown in Fig. 19. At at equivalent average stress rate of 10^7 lb/in.²/sec, the yield strength of the material may be expected to be $\frac{1}{45}$ percent greater than under static rates of loading.

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(5) The yield strength of intermediate grade reinforcing steel increases with increasing equivalent average strain rate as shown in Fig. 20. At an equivalent average strain rate of l in./in./sec, the yield strength of the material may be expected to be 45 to 50 percent greater than under static rates of straining.

PART B - TEST OF REINFORCED CONCRETE BEAMS

VIII SCOPE AND OUTLINE OF TESTS

8.1 Scope

The objectives set forth in Section 1.2 were pursued through a program of testing reinforced concrete beams and coupons of reinforcing bars. In all, ten beams were tested under loads applied at midspan, and 33 beams were tested under two-point loading. The tests of the first ten beams were reported in Ref. 19 and the tests of the reinforcing bars were presented in Part A of this report. Part B is concerned with the 33 tests of beams under two-point loading.

The beams were approximately half-scale models, being 6 by 12 in. in cross-section with an effective depth of 10 in. The spans were 9 ft and 12 ft-8 in. The loads were placed 18 in. each side of midspan, resulting in shear span-to-depth ratios of 3.6 and 5.8. Two percentages of tension reinforcement were employed using intermediate grade steel. Some beams also had compression and/or shear reinforcement. Concrete strength, beam width and depth, and yield strength of reinforcement were essentially constant.

Eight of the two-point loaded beams were tested statically, requiring from about two to six minutes each to reach collapse deflection. In the dynamic tests of the other 25 beams, loads were applied in from O.l to 0.8 times the natural period of vibration. Some of the dynamic loads were of "infinite" duration, while others were terminated at from one-half to three times the beam period. The load levels varied from less than static yield capacity to more than dynamic ultimate capacity.

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The analysis of the test results consisted of determining the dynamic resistance characteristics of the test beams. This was accomplished by considering the beam to be a single-degree-of-freedom system and analyzing its behavior on an analog computer. The measured load pulse was fed into the computer along with an arbitrary resistance function for the beam. This resistance function was then changed until its response matched the response measured in the test. Dynamic resistance functions were also determined using the strain rates measured in some of the tests together with the results of the reinforcing bar tests and information from Ref. 2. The resistance functions addetermined with the analog computer are compared with those computed functions and with the static resistance deflection characteristics.

The test results and the resistance functions determined with the analog computer are also compared with the results of computations based on the procedures and formulas of the Manual of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army, entitled, "Design of Structures to Resist the Effects of Atomic Weapons" (20).

8.2 Outline of Tests

The beam properties and configurations tabulated in Table 4 were chosen to satisfy certain considerations. The 6 by 12 in. crosssection and 9 ft span coincide with the size of beams previously tested statically on another project in Talbot Laboratory at the University of Illinois (Ref. 21). The Series 4 beams represent a somewhat typical design which might be arrived at using the American Concrete Institute Building Code. The Series 3 beams were an attempt to increase the strength of the beams while maintaining the ductility. This required the addition

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of compression reinforcement. Series 2 beams were designed to have the same strength as the Series 3 beams but the compression reinforcement was left out to determine its effect under dynamic loading. The beams of Series 5, 6, and 7 were essentially a duplication of those in Series 2, 3, and 4 but with a longer span. This provided variations in the ratio of moment to shear and the ratio of rise-time-of-load to period of the beam. Within each series, variations in web reinforcing were provided to study its effect on the mode of failure. Within Series 3, there was also variation in the configuration of the ties that hold the compression reinforcement in place.

It was felt that at least one static test in each series would be desirable for comparison with dynamic behavior. Variations in the scheme for operating the loading device were also introduced in an attempt to vary the rise time and further extend the ratio of rise time to period. This attempt was unsuccessful. In order to keep the program within manageable limits, it was decided to maintain concrete strength, steel yield strength, and beam width, height, and depth constant.

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IX EQUIPMENT AND INSTRUMENTATION

9.1 Loading Equipment

The pneumatic loading device and its associated pressurizing and control equipment are rather completely described in Reference 12 and in Chapter III of this report.

Some of the beams were tested using an arrangement of gas movement described as "explosion" though most were tested using an arrangement described as "implosion." (See Chapter III.) It was hoped that the implosion procedure would give faster rise times of loading but this did not prove to be the case; there was no significant difference in rise times between the two procedures. In addition, the implosion procedure introduced an oscillation into the load trace with a frequency of about four milliseconds that was considerably more pronounced than any oscillations appearing in the traces of the beams tested using the explosion procedure. Attempts were made to eliminate these oscillations by inserting specially designed vibration absorbing rubber pads in various parts of the test setup. All such arrangements, however, appeared to have no appreciable effect. Nevertheless, the implosion procedure was quieter, safer, and easier to use.

The load from the pneumatic device was transferred to the beam through a steel distributing beam which applied the load at two points 18 in. each side of midspan. This beam can be seen in Fig. 21. For dynamic testing, the natural period of the distributing beam should be small compared to the natural period of the test beam. The computed period of the distributing beam was approximately one millisecond, while the computed period of the test beams was generally greater than 18 milliseconds. The

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distributing beam was equipped with a load measuring cell at each load point to measure directly the pulse applied to the test specimen. The sum of the outputs of these two cells was considered to be the load applied to all beams tested dynamically. In the static tests, the load was taken as the output of the load cell located between the distributing beam and the pneumatic loading device.

9.2 Measuring Equipment

9.2.1 Load

The load applied to the distributing beam by the pneumatic device was measured with the load cell described in Section 3.2.2. There were two bridge circuits on this cell. One circuit was a "static bridge," and the other was a "dynamic bridge." The static bridge was used to calibrate the dynamic bridge, the load cells on the distributing beam, and those built into the reactions; to monitor the slow or static tests; and to measure any preload during the pressurization of the pneumatic unit. The dynamic bridge was used to measure the load applied to the distributing beam during a dynamic test. One end was threaded directly onto the piston shaft of the pneumatic loading device and the other end was fitted into the swivel cap mounted on the top of the distributing beam.

The load applied by the distributing beam to the test beam was measured at each load point by a hollow cylindrical load cell of T-l steel. The cells were rigidly mounted to the distributing beam and were threaded at the bottom into half-rounds of mild steel, which in turn rested on bearing plates attached to the top surface of the test beams. The cells were designed to resist as much load laterally as axially without yielding. This design criterion was dictated by the manner in which the load cells

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were wedged between the distributing beam and the test beam as the test beam deflected and the top surface shortened. Each cell was instrumented with four SR-4 Type AD-7 strain gages mounted and connected in the same manner as those on the aluminum load cell. The approximate sensitivity of these cells in the axial direction was 30 kips per 1000 microin./in. of strain.

9.2.2 Reactions

The reactions at each end of a beam specimen were measured in terms of the strain in load cell groups built into the roller support assemblies. The entire assembly is visible in Fig. 21. These load cell groups each consisted of three hollow aluminum cylinders with enlarged ends firmly attached at each end to 2-in. thick steel plates. Four $SR^{-\frac{1}{4}}$ Type A-7 strain gages were mounted in a symmetrical pattern on the outside of each cylinder, two parallel to the axis of the cylinder and two circumferential. The section of the cylinders where strains were measured has an outside diameter of 1.3 in. and an inside diameter of 0.9 in. The three cylinders were arranged symmetrically around the center points of the end plates to which they were attached. One Wheatstone Bridge circuit was made up from all twelve gages in each cylinder group. Each leg of the bridge contained a gage from each cylinder. This arrangement eliminated the effect of any eccentricity of load and resulted in a signal output from the bridge equal to 2.6 times the average of the vertical gages. The approximate sensitivity of these groups was 10 kips per 1000 microin./in. of strain.

9.2.3 Calibration of Load and Reaction Cells

In order to insure that mechanical and electrical conditions during calibration of the load and reaction cells were the same as during

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a test, the following procedure was followed for calibrating these devices. The aluminum load cell was placed in a 120,000-1b capacity Baldwin Universal Testing Machine and a relation was obtained for axial compressive load vs. static strain bridge output as read with an SR^{-1} indicator. All leads and connections were such that they could be duplicated exactly in subsequent tests. This load cell was then threaded on the main shaft of the pneumatic loading device and the distributing beam attached to it. A steel beam, strong enough to be strained only within its elastic range under the capacity of the machine, was then placed under the distributing beam and its associated load cells and supported on the reaction-measuring supports. Load monitored by the static bridge on the aluminum cell and read with an SR-4 indicator was applied slowly to the beam in distinct increments by gradually bleeding gas into the loading machine. Simultaneously, the signals from the dynamic bridge, the distributing beam cells, and the reaction cells were recorded on film by the oscillographs later to be used in the dynamic tests. The wiring between load cells and the recording oscillographs was exactly the same as that used in the beam tests. Along with the signals due to actual load, those signals resulting from placing shunt resistors across a vertical gage leg of the Wheatstone Bridge in each measuring device in turn were also recorded. It was then possible to obtain equivalent load and reaction values for each of the resistors, later to be used in establishing the scale of the records obtained during a test. These resistors were switched into each circuit to be calibrated and their effect recorded at the beginning of each test.

9.2.4 Deflection

Deflection of the beam specimens was measured by slide-wire deflection gages. Each gage consisted of a 22-in. length of nickel-chromium

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alloy (nichrome) wire mounted in a frame of aluminum plates and thin wall conduit. A plastic block was connected to the beam at mid-height by a length of conduit. This block contained the sliding contact which was a thick strip of copper. At the bottom end of the conduit was a ball and socket joint which had a threaded bolt on the ball side of the joint. This bolt was attached to an angle-shaped bracket by two nuts, the bracket in turn being attached to the test beam by a bolt threading into a lead cinch anchor. The maximum possible travel was 18 in.

Each gage was connected to the test frame by a separate truss. In Fig. 21 are photographs showing gages and trusses. As the beam deflected, the sliding contact moved with it and changed the lengths of nichrome wire in adjacent legs of the deflection gage circuit. A rod mounted on the gage frame parallel to the nichrome wire contained pegs at a given spacing and was used to set the deflection gage at any given deflection. Thus, the deflection gages were calibrated before each test by setting the gage at various deflections and recording the signal output. A set of calibration resistances was used to set the range of the oscillograph for each deflection gage.

9.2.5 Strain

Strains in the tension and compression reinforcement were measured with SR-4 Type A-7 gages. Strains in the concrete on the top surface of the beam were measured with SR-4 Type A-1 gages. Each strain gage was part of an individual Wheatstone Bridge circuit together with three dummy gages of the same type. The standard calibration resistance for the strain bridges were the same as those used for the load and reaction bridges, except that their equivalent values were now expressed in strain units of microinches

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per inch. These equivalent values were obtained by shunting the resistors across actual gage installations on a beam and noting the equivalent strain on an SR-4 indicator. All leads, connections, and switching units were the same as those used in a test. Again, these resistors were switched into each bridge circuit to be calibrated and their effect recorded at the beginning of each test.

9.3 Recording Equipment

The signals from the load, reaction, and strain bridges were recorded on film with Hathaway S-14 magnetic oscillographs operating with an MRS-18 carrier amplifying system. This system is essentially flat in response up to 450 cycles per second. The timing trace was marked on the records of these oscillographs with a timing trace generator employing a Hewlett-Packard 200C audio oscillator.

The signals from the deflection gages were recorded with Hathaway S-14 OC 2 Group 23 galvanometers, also with a flat response up to 450 cps. The time trace was established by the same instrument as above. There was a gang switch through which the time trace circuits of the Hathaway equipment passed. A break in the traces achieved by suddenly opening and closing this switch provided a means of positively tying together, with respect to time, the records from the various oscillographs.

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X TESTS OF REINFORCED CONCRETE BEAMS

10.1 Description of Test Beams

10.1.1 Configuration

The 33 specimens tested were reinforced concrete beams 6 by 12 in. in cross-section with a span of 108 or 152 in., loaded symmetrically at two points 18 in. each side of midspan. They were cast in lengths of 120 or 164 in. and were variously reinforced in tension, compression, and shear. Tables 4, 5, and 6 and Figs. 22 and 23 contain all the pertinent data regarding beam properties, configuration, and gage location. Several points should be emphasized. The shear reinforcement given for Beams 6bl and 6b2 consisted only of the ties which were required to contain the compression steel. Since these ties were required throughout the length of the beam, they probably contributed, though slightly, to the shear resistance in the end regions. The values given for f and f are the average values for ythe two bars used in each case. The values given for $f_{\ensuremath{\mathcal{C}}}^{\,\circ}$ and E_ were determined from standard 6 by 12-in. cylinders and are those associated with the batch of concrete placed in the upper half of the beam. The values of f_r were determined from a 6 by 6 by 20-in. beam loaded at the third-points on an 18-in. span and are those for the concrete placed in the lower half of the beam. In Tables 4 and 6, stirrups refer to vertical steel placed in the end regions of the beam and intended primarily to resist inclined tension stresses. Of course, these stirrups also served to confine the compression steel if there was any present. Ties, on the other hand, were placed in the middle region with the primary purpose of confining the compression steel. Since, in Beams 6bl and 6b2, no stirrups were used, it was necessary to place ties in the end spans, where they also served as shear reinforcement.

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10.1.2 Materials

Marquette or Alpha brand Type I cement was used in all beams. The aggregate was Wabash River sand with a fineness modulus of 3.0 to 3.2 and Wabash River gravel with a maximum size of 1 in. The concrete mix was 1:3.8:5.5 by weight, with a water-cement ratio of from 8 to 9 gallons per sack, depending on the moisture content of the aggregates. All reinforcing steel was intermediate grade Inland Hi-Bond deformed bars except for the No. 2 bars which were plain round. The bars were received in 24-ft lengths and a sufficient amount was cut from each length to provide coupons for both static and dynamic testing. All static testing of the coupons was completed before the bars were used in the beams; thus, it was possible to match bars on the basis of their static yield strengths.

10.1.3 Attachment of Strain Gages

The first step in the fabrication of a test beam was the preparation of the reinforcing bars for the attachment of SR-4 strain gages. The location of the gages was determined and the mill scale was brushed off for a distance of several inches each side of this location. One longitudinal rib and parts of the connecting transverse lugs were ground off only enough to provide a smooth surface just slightly wider than the gage for a length of about 1 1/2 in. at each gage location. The gages used on the reinforcement were Type A-7 with an effective gage length of 1/4 in. and an overall width of 5/16 in. The ground area was then filed and sanded with No. 120 emery cloth. The gages were mounted and allowed to dry. Drying was accelerated by the use of infra-red lamps. After drying, the gages were covered with electrical tape and the leads soldered to them. The bars were then heated and entirely covered in the vicinity of the gages with Petrolastic, and asphaltic waterproofing compound. (This waterproofing

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procedure destroys the bond between the steel and the concrete over a distance of about 2 1/2 in. at each gage location.) The bars were then immersed in water overnight and the gages were checked for leakage resistance. Gages with leakage resistance less than 5000 megohms were replaced. (This, however, was no guarantee against loss of gages due to mechanical damage during casting.) The bars were then assembled into a reinforcement cage and placed in the form.

10.1.4 Casting and Curing of Beams

All beams were cast right side up in a steel form with a movable side plate to facilitate their removal. The reinforcing cage was held in position by three chairs made of 1/4-in. mild steel bars. Two hooks of 1/4-in. mild steel bars were embedded in the top of the beams near the ends to facilitate handling.

All concrete was mixed from three to eight minutes in a non-tilting drum-type mixer of 6 cu ft capacity. Each beam was cast from two batches of concrete of approximately the same proportions. The first batch was placed along the bottom of the beam and the second batch was evenly distributed over it. Three 6 by 12-in. control cylinders and one 6 by 6 by 20-in. flexure beam were cast from each batch. The concrete was placed in the forms and cylinder molds with the aid of a high-frequency internal vibrator.

Several hours after casting, the top surface of the beam was troweled smooth and all cylinders were capped with neat cement paste. The specimens were removed from the forms the day after they were cast and stored under moist conditions for an additional six days. They were then stored in the air of the laboratory until tested.

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10.1.5 Beam Preparation

The preparation of the beam for testing was the same whether the test was to be made dynamically or statically. The beam was marked to indicate the positions of the SR-4 gages for measuring concrete strains, the deflection targets, and the reactions. Shortly before the initial set of the concrete occurred, the top surface of the beam had been struck smooth with a finishing trowel. When this surface was later ground and polished with a portable grinder, it was suitable for mounting SR-4 gages. Type A-1 gages with an effective gage length of 1 in. were used on the concrete. Only the small area necessary for the gage was ground. A thin layer of Duco Cement was applied and allowed to dry before placing the gages. The gages were then attached with Ducc Cement and light weights were placed on the felt-covered gages while the cement dried. Heat was not used to hasten the drying since it could be detrimental to the concrete. To protect the gages, a coating of wax was applied after the cement was thoroughly dry. The leakage resistance provided with this procedure was generally greater than 50 megohms.

The deflection brackets and load bearing plates were attached to the beam with bolts threaded into cinch anchors. Holes to receive the cinch anchors were formed in the beams at the time of casting.

After the test beam was placed under the distributing beam, the reaction measuring supports were moved to the correct positions under the beam and the beam was lowered and clamped to them. The slide rods of the deflection gages were then connected to the deflection brackets and the electrical leads for the SR-4 gages were soldered to the gages. Next, all the electrical connections required for recording and calibrating the various measuring devices were made, and the distributing beam was brought to bear

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by bleeding a small amount of gas into the loading device. A beam ready for testing is shown in Fig. 21.

10.2 Test Procedure

Up to the point of actually applying the load, the test procedure used to test a beam statically was the same as that used to test beams dynamically. The zero value of each measuring device was read with an SR-4 indicator by disconnecting the proper cable leading to the instrument room and plugging in the indicator in its place. After the zero readings were taken, all of the cables were replaced.

At this point, the natural frequency of vibration of some of the specimens was determined. For this purpose, the distributing beam was temporarily raised. The procedure for determining the natural period involved the mounting at midspan of a very sensitive velocity pickup made from a headphone. The output of this pickup was observed on an oscilloscope. The beam was excited either by a single blow at midspan with the fist or an electromagnetic linear driver. When a single exciting pulse was used the oscilloscope face was photographed. The driver was merely rested on the top surface of the beam. The frequency of driving was variable and was changed until the pickup revealed that resonance was obtained. The deflection corresponding to this resonant condition was of the order of 0.01 in. The results of these determinations are presented and discussed in Appendix C.

In a static test, the calibrating traces for each measuring device were then put on the records. The gain of each amplifier was first set so that the calibrating step representing the greatest trace deflection--which in turn represented a value of strain, load, or deflection greater

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than that expected in the test--would remain on the record. The load was monitored with an SR-4 indicator connected to the static bridge of the main load cell while gas was gradually bled into the chamber above the loading piston. At several times during the progress of the test a switch was thrown which simultaneously marked all the records. For each such mark, the time from the beginning of the test was noted as well as the strain in the main load cell and the pressure in the loading device. This procedure tied all the records together and provided a check on the load. Once loading had been started, it was not stopped until the maximum resistance of the beam had been overcome and its downward travel was stopped either by wood blocks placed under the midspan of the beam or safety catches placed under the wings of the distributing beam. After the beam hit bottom, the pressure was bled off and the piston raised. The zero value of each measuring device was read again except for those gages which may have been destroyed in the test.

In a dynamic test, the loading device was pressurized before the calibration traces were put on the records. For an explosion test, pressure was applied to both faces of the loading piston at the same time, care being taken to keep the forces balanced by monitoring the procedure with an SR-4 indicator connected to the main load cell. When the pressure in the top chamber had reached the desired amount, determined from the area of the piston face (78.54 sq. in.) and the desired value of maximum load, the inlet values to the loading chamber were closed. For an implosion test, the external storage chambers were pressurized to pre-determined values based on previous performance of the machine. Calibration traces were then put on the records and pressure was bled into the chambers controlling the

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action of the loading and unloading slide valves. The oscillographs were then started and load was applied by throwing a switch which activated the trigger on one side of the machine. If the load were to have a finite duration, unloading was automatically accomplished through the use of an audio oscillator, successive pulses from the output of which tripped the loading and unloading triggers. Then the records were stopped, the loading beam was raised, and zero readings were taken on the load and reaction bridges.

10.3 Results of Static Tests

10.3.1 Presentation of Results

Static tests were made for three purposes. Eight beams were tested statically to destruction to provide a comparison with similar beams tested dynamically. Four beams were loaded statically only to the point where sufficient cracking developed to produce what was felt would be a significant difference in dynamic behavior compared with those beams tested uncracked. Eight beams were tested statically to determine their residual strength after having been loaded one or more times dynamically. The first two cases will be treated here. The latter case will be treated under the discussion of the results of the dynamic tests, Section 10.5.

While the tests to collapse were essentially "static" in nature, the rate of loading was more rapid than in the usual slow test. This rate varied from approximately 5 kips/min for Beams 4cl and 7al to 11 kips/min for Beam 3al.

The most illuminating description of the behavior of a reinforced concrete beam under static test is contained in a graph of load vs. deflection. Figure 2⁴ contains plots of load vs. deflection for the beams

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tested statically to collapse. Also shown in Fig. 24 are straight line elasto-plastic approximations to the load-deflection curves. The plastic level was chosen to have zero slope and fitted by eye as an "average" value. The slope of the elastic portion was also chosen by eye to be the best representation possible of the measured elastic region. An attempt was made to keep the area under the measured and approximate curves the same.

The results of the static tests to collapse are tabulated in Table 7. The yield level and deflections presented correspond to the elaso-plastic approximations shown in Fig. 24. The initial slope, k_{l} , was computed as the plastic resistance level, Q_{v} , divided by the yield deflection, Δ_{v} .

In Fig. 25 are plotted the initial resistance characteristics of the four beams which were cracked statically before being tested dynamically. In each case, the static loading was carried to the point where the flexural cracks extended to one-third to one-half the height of the beam.

Photographs of the beams tested statically to collapse are included in Figs. 27-32. The vertical arrows drawn on the sides of the beams near midspan indicate the original positions of the loads. The cracks were marked with ink for better photographic contrast.

10.3.2 Discussion of Results

There was nothing out of the ordinary in the static behavior of these beams. At first, the beams exhibited what can be considered elastic behavior with small deflections that increased proportionally with load. Although, in general a small change in the initial slope is expected somewhere in the "elastic" range due to cracking of the concrete, this change cannot be assigned to a distinct point in any of the plots shown in Figs. 2⁴ or 25 because of small uncertainties in the measurement of deflection inherent in the system used, for which the accuracy was limited to 0.05 in.

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In the tests of Beams 4cl and 5bl, the elastic behavior continued to collapse which was triggered by the development of extensive inclined tension cracking in the shear spans of the beams. In the other tests, except for Beam 2bl, yielding of the tension reinforcing initiated a region of inelastic, or plastic behavior, and collapse occurred when the concrete in the compression zone crushed. In the test of Beam 2bl, it appears that yielding of the steel and crushing of the concrete occurred at nearly the same time.

The great degree of destruction evident in the photographs of the beams tested statically to collapse (Figs. 27-32) is due to the fact that for static tests a pneumatic loading device is essentially a "dead-load" machine. Therefore, the beams were forced down, after having achieved their maximum load and deformation resistance, until either they hit the bed of the testing frame or the loading piston was mechanically stopped.

With regard to Series 3 and Series 6 beams, the effectiveness of compression reinforcement, with its associated ties, in holding together a reinforced concrete beam and providing additional ductility is evident in Fig. 24 and in Figs. 27, 28, 30a, 31a and 32a. The effectiveness of stirrups in providing resistance to diagonal tension cracking and splitting along the reinforcement is evident in Figs. 30a, 31a and 32a. Both of these effects are normally expected.

Some of the cracks in the photographs are secondary effects of the test setup. For example, the diagonal crack in Beam ⁴cl in the middle region (Fig. 29a) was probably due to the beam striking the wooden block at midspan subsequent to collapse. The vertical crack at the south end of Beam 5bl (Fig. 30b) was probably a flexure crack resulting from the plain

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concrete above the reinforcing bar being loaded upward by the debris at midspan as a cantilever while the reaction continued to rotate counterclockwise due to its inertia. The crack in the compression zone at the south end of Beam 2bl, (Fig. 27a), is believed to be due to the south reaction roller assembly being clamped too tightly or being jammed. During the progress of the test of Beam 2bl, distinct jumps in the various measurement traces were recorded on the oscillographs and there were repeated sounds of something "giving."

Additional reference will be made to Figs. 27-32 in Section 10.5.

10.4 Presentation of Results of Dynamic Tests

The results of the dynamic tests are presented in the form of graphs, tables, and photographs. Figures A35-A72 contain plots of the measured load vs. time, indicated by P, taken as the sum of the outputs of the load cells mounted on the distributing beam, for all tests in which records were obtained. Owing to malfunctioning of the recording equipment, no records were obtained during the tests of Beams 4b2 and 5b2. The load records are plotted only to the point where the load was removed, the beam collapsed, or the load achieved a relatively constant value. In some instances, the load graph does not start at zero load; for example, Beam 2b3 in Fig. A38. The reason for this is that the pressure which was used to bring the distributing beam to bear against the test specimen before the test began, and which was usually quite small, was in these cases large enough to affect the output of the load cells.

Also shown in Figs. A35-A72 are plots of the measured midspan response, indicated by \triangle , the response computed as described in Section 11.1.4, indicated by ACR (analog computer response) and the response computed

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as described in Section 13.1, indicated by OCE. These plots are carried beyond the point of maximum displacement or collapse, as the case may be. In those tests where a beam was subjected to more than one blow, the responses shown for blow other than the first have been adjusted by subtracting any permanent deflection remaining from the first blow. (If it is the third blow that is under consideration then the permanent deflection from the second blow was subtracted, and so on.) For the same reason that the load trace does not start at zero, as explained above, the deflection trace does not start at zero in the case of Beam 4c2, Blow 1 (Fig. A52).

The point of collapse, where appropriate, was determined approximately for the purpose of establishing the range of these plots by noting the time at which the load experienced a considerably drop-off if this drop-off occurred prior to the time when the load was deliverately removed. In other cases the collapse point was determined approximately from inspection of drop-off in the reaction records or in the strain records. This point is indicated in Figs. A35-A72 by a short slash and the notation C. Yield deflection and collapse deflection as determined in Sections ll.l.⁴ and 13.1 are also shown in Figs. A35-A72 by short slashes and the notation Y and ACC (analog computer collapse), respectively.

Several of the figures merit special attention. In Fig. A47 (Beam 3b3) it is noticed that the deflection continues to increase. It was intended to remove the load after 20 milliseconds. However, an error in wiring the triggers allowed the load to remain. Although it was immediately apparent to the investigating team that the load had not been removed, it was not apparent that the beam was still moving after the dynamic test.

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Therefore the recording equipment was stopped. However, the beam collapsed after about 30 seconds of slowly increasing deflection. In Fig. A72 it is seen that Beam 7a3 under the third blow may still have been deflecting beyond the confines of the graph. Actually a small amount of recovery occurred. However, the beam had already failed, for all practical purposes. This is evident from the residual static strength shown in Fig. 26. The response beyond 80 milliseconds, therefore, is not of immediate interest.

In some instances it appears that load remained even after the beam collapsed; for example, Figs. A48 and A50. In these cases, the distributing beam followed the collapsed test beam downward and continued pushing it against the bed of the testing frame even after failure. This phenomenon did not occur after stops had been installed to catch the distributing beam in the event of specimen collapse.

Two marks, indicating what is considered to be the beginning (t_0) and ending (t_1) of the load pulse, are to be found on the time scale of Figs. A35-A72. The mark for the beginning of loading was established by projecting the primary initial slope of the load pulse backward. The second mark was established in those instances where collapse occurred by projecting the primary final slope of the load pulse forward. When collapse did not occur, the end of the pulse was taken as the time at which the load returned to zero.

Figures A73-A95 contain plots of measured strain vs. time for all tests where records were obtained. In some of the cases where more than one blow was applied to a beam, the strains for other than the first blow may not be reported since the gages were often damaged under the first or second blow.

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The strain plots in Figs. A73-A95 are not carried beyond the point in time where the gages were destroyed, the beam collapsed, maximum deflection was passed, or the strain trace loses significance. A short vertical line at the end of a curve indicates that the trace disappeared from the paper. This is indicative of destruction of the gage or its connections. An arrow at the end of a curve indicates the trace went off the edge of the recording paper. This is generally also indicative of gage destruction since the ranges of calibration were such as to keep any meaningful output signal on the oscillograph paper. A plus sign shown with a trace designation indicates that the normal direction of strain was tensile and a minus sign indicates compressive strains.

Figures A96-A133 contain plots of the sum of the measured reactions, indicated by R, vs. the measured midspan deflection for all tests in which records were obtained. These plots are carried to the point where the reactions approached zero, the beam collapsed, or the reactions achieved a relatively constant value. Also shown in these figures are plots of the resistance, indicated by Q, determined as described in Section 11.1.4, and plots of the static load-deflection characteristics, indicated by S, computed as explained in Section 11.2. In some of these figures plots of the dynamic resistance (OCE-Q) and sum of reactions (OCE-R), computed as described in Chapter XIII, are given. These figures will be discussed in subsequent chapters.

Static load-deflection curves, obtained after the dynamic tests, are shown in Fig. 26 for all the beams which did not experience total collapse under dynamic loading. The graphs start at the value of permanent set exhibited by the various beams under the dynamic loading and continue to collapse as indicated by the short vertical line.

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Photographs of typical failures of beams which collapsed under dynamic loading are included in Figs. 27-32. The photographs will be discussed in Section 10.5.

Tables 8 and 9 contain those data which were readily tabulated. In Table 8, the response characteristics, characteristics of the applied load, and mode of failure are indicated. As a part of the response characteristics are included the deflections under static loading which may have been applied prior to the dynamic test to crack the specimen, or subsequently to determine its residual static strength. The cumulative maximum deflection in each case equals the incremental deflection plus whatever permanent deformation may have resulted from a previous loading. When the cumulative maximum deflection represents collapse it is an estimate made as indicated in the beginning of this section and corresponds to the "estimated collapse" deflections shown in Figs. A35-A72.

The load characteristics given in Table 8 are presented only as a guide to the magnitude and duration of the loading applied. The duration corresponds to the two marks on the time scale described above. The magnitude is the maximum value recorded. These quantities have no computational value in themselves since it is the variation of load with time that is important.

The mode of failure given in Table 8 was determined from visual inspection of the manner of collapse. When the collapse was accompanied by severe inclined cracking in the end regions and a general lack of crushing in the middle region, indicating an overriding influence of shear forces, the failure was termed shear. On the other hand, when collapse was accompanied by considerable crushing in the middle region and less cracking in the end spans, indicating that flexural deformation was the dominant factor, it was termed flexure. This is in general accord with the practice

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in the field of reinforced concrete research (22). With regard to the indication of detected crushing it should be noted that this refers especially to those instances when crushing occurred but was not accompanied by collapse. Collapse, on the other hand, was always accompanied by crushing for the flexural failures.

In Table 9 the rates of strain deemed critical for the analyses in Chapters XI and XII are presented. Where the rate shown was determined from the output of only one gage, the gage used is indicated. The steel strain rates were chosen from that region of the strain-time plots just beyond the static yield strain value, taken as the yield strength given in Table 4 divided by 30,000,000 psi. This region was chosen because the analysis presented in Part A of this report indicates that the strain rate in this region may be the most significant for determining the increased yield strength of the reinforcing steel. The value of strain rate for the compression steel for the third blow on Beam 3b2 is indicated by a question mark because the strain-time relation shown in Fig. A78 cannot at present be explained by the writers.

The research on the effect of strain rate on concrete strength summarized in Ref. 2 generally involved testing under constant rates of strain. Since the strain rates measured in the tests herein reported could hardly be considered constant, it was assumed that the rate just prior to what was felt to be crushing would probably have the most influence on what the crushing strength would be. If the concrete did not crush under a particular blow, then the rate of strain had no significance for the purpose of determining increases in crushing strength. In several instances, indicated by (d) in Table 9, a visual inspection of the test beam revealed some crushing. However, the strain gages were not so located that it was

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recorded. Paradoxically, in the case of Beam 7a2 no crushing was recorded by gage CC yet the gage was destroyed by the first blow.

Crushing at midspan was detected visually after the second blow on Beam 3b2. However, the concrete strains in Fig. A77 do not lead themselves to a readily acceptable determination of strain rate just prior to crushing. This uncertainty is reflected in the question mark shown for this case and for the third blow in Table 9. It can be seen in Table 9 that two values are given in the concrete column for Beam 7a2. The reason is that, though it would appear from Fig. A94 that the concrete at the location of gage CB crushed under the fourth blow, gage CB seems to have maintained its integrity even for the fifth blow. Since it was not known which case would be significant for the analysis of this beam both values are given.

Also presented in Table 9 are values of maximum recorded concrete strain for beams when crushing was detected, either visually or by the gages. The choice of these values and their significance are discussed in Section 10.5.3.

10.5 Discussion of Results of Dynamic Tests

This section is concerned with qualitative aspects of the behavior of the beams tested. A detailed quantitative analysis is presented in Chapter XI.

10.5.1 Details of Individual Tests

Before discussing the general patterns of behavior of the test beams and making comparisons of gross results, it is necessary to point out some considerations which help to evaluate those results more objectively. Before and after each test, notes were taken on details of the test

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procedure, beam behavior, instrumentation behavior, etc., that were at the time thought to be pertinent to a proper evaluation of the test. Some of these notes were incorporated into the presentation of results in Section 10.4. The others of importance are presented below.

After the dynamic tests of Beam 3a⁴, it was noticed that the bracket holding the deflection gage slide rod to the test beam had twisted. This twisting was probably due to the inertia of the rod when the beam started to recover from the maximum dynamic deflection. The bracket was straightened and tightened before the static test to collapse. Nevertheless, some doubt is cast on the response for Beam 3a⁴ shown in Fig. A⁴1.

After the first blow on Beam 3b2, it was noticed that the "L" shaped fingers used to calibrate the deflection traces were not turned out. A careful examination of the top of Fig. 21b will reveal this device mounted on the bottom of the plastic slide block. In Fig. 21b, it is shown in the position employed to engage protrusions on the calibrating rod, which is just visible. Normally, just before a test this finger is turned away so as to clear the protrusions. However, this was overlooked before the test of Beam 3b2 and on all five gages this finger probably dragged along the calibrating rod, perhaps causing some slip in the slide rod-slide block connection or some twisting of the block out of the horizontal plane. In any case there is some question as to the validity of the response shown in Fig. A^{lu}.

As with the test of Beam 3a4, the midspan deflection gage bracket twisted during the first blow on Beam 5b4 casting doubt on the accuracy of the response given in Fig. A59. Also, the response as recorded on the oscillograph was very "hashy," probably due to poor contact between the

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slide wire and sliding contact. The curve given in Fig. A59 represents a "faired-in" and smoothed estimate of the response as recorded.

In Fig. 31d a crack can be seen in the middle region of Beam 6b2 that extends throughout the depth of the beam. This crack should be shown also in Fig. 31c, but it was not noticed until after the photograph was taken. It represents the effect of rebound, the action of the beam recovering more than the downward deflection. This behavior is produced, of course, by the elastic nature of the material and the inertia possessed by the beam when it reaches the position of zero deflection during recovery. It is possible only if the load has been removed or greatly reduced. The crack is caused by the tensile stresses produced in the top regions of the beam by the upward deflection. This cracking was also observed after the first blow on Beams 5b4 and 7a2. These cracks did not always occur at midspan. One can be seen in Fig. 32b just north of the north load position.

It may be noted in Table 8 that collapse is indicated for Beam 4b3 at two values of deflection, approximately 2.07 in. and 3.26 in. It may also be noted that collapse is indicated for this beam in Fig. A51, but that a curve of residual static capacity is shown in Fig. 26. The explanation lies in the fact that the dynamic load was removed from the beam just as collapse was occurring. The phenomenon of collapse appears to require several milliseconds at least to take place. If the load does not follow the beam down, it might not complete the collapse action, in which case there is required some finite reapplication of static load to complete the destruction of the beam. This argument applies also to the behavior of Beam 7a3 (Figs. 32c and d). It is felt that this sequence of events could be made to involve several stages of imminent collapse if one were able to

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remove the load at just the right time at each stage, in essence coaxing the beam downward.

10.5.2 Dynamic Modes of Failure

The photographs in Figs. 27-32 are arranged to permit convenient comparisons of, among other things, the appearance after failure of similar beams loaded statically and dynamically. The general impression is that the type of loading did not affect the configuration of the beams after collapse. In Figs. 27a, b, and 28c, d, the areas of destruction and manner of concrete breakup are quite similar for the short span beams without compression reinforcement under the two types of loading. In Figs. 27c, d, and 28a, b, the short span beams with compression reinforcement exhibited the same characteristic buckling of the top steel and well-confined crushing of the concrete away from the buckling zone. In Figs. 29a, b, the inclined cracking and horizontal splitting generally associated with failure in shear is evident in both tests. The primary difference between the tests is the lack of flexural cracking in Beam 4cl. The shear failures illustrated in Figs. 30a, b, and c again exhibit similar configurations, especially with regard to the location of the inclined cracks and the splitting along the reinforcing steel. The configuration of Beam 5b2 shown in Fig. 30d is somewhat different in that there are two major inclined cracks at each end. Though still classified as a shear failure, the mechanism of collapse may not have been quite the same as that undergone by Beams 5bl and 5b4. A detailed discussion of the distinctions associated with various modes of shear and flexural failure is presented in Ref. 22. As in the case of the Series 3 beams, the Series 6 beams shown in Figs. 31a, b exhibit similar behavior under static and dynamic loading. The Series 7 beams under static and dynamic loading also exhibited

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comparable collapse configurations as shown in Figs. 32a, b. The failure of Beam 7a3 shown in Figs. 32c, d lacks the splitting along the reinforcing bars experienced by Beams 7al and 7a2. This may have been due to the fact that the depth of crushing was greater just before Beam 7a3 collapsed, thus permitting a greater concentration of rotation at midspan.

There are two notable exceptions to the impression that the manner of loading did not affect the mode or manner of collapse. These exceptions are Beams 4c2 and 6b2. Beam 4c2, Fig. 29, failed in flexure while the companion specimens, Beams 4cl and 4c3, failed in shear. There was little difference in properties of the beams, as can be seen from Table 4, except that Beam 4c2 had a slightly higher concrete strength than either of the other beams and a lower yield strength of steel than Beam 4c3. Both of these factors would tend to favor a flexural failure. There was some tendency for Beam 4c2 to fail in shear as can be seen from the well developed inclined crack in Fig. 29e. It can only be concluded that the shear and flexural strengths were very nearly the same.

Beam 6b2 failed in shear under dynamic loading while the companion specimen, Beam 6bl, failed in flexure under static loading (Fig. 31). The relative strength of the materials, Table 4, would favor a flexural failure for Beam 6b2. It is possible, as in the case of the Series 4c beams, that these beams were nearly balanced in their shear and flexural capacities. One cannot draw the conclusion, however, that such a balanced beam will fail in shear under a dynamic loading if it failed in flexure statically; at least not on the basis of this one test result.

In several instances, the test beams were subjected to additional blows or to a static test after crushing had already occurred in the compression zone. In the Series 3 and Series 6 beams this was made possible

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by the presence of the compression reinforcement which carried the major portion of the compressive forces. In the other instances, if crushing was not extensive a redistribution of stress in the beams accompanied by a lowering of the neutral axis made possible the extra loadings. In other words, the occurrence of a small amount of crushing did not necessarily lead to immediate collapse. Crushing had to be extensive and, in the case of the compression reinforced beams, accompanied by buckling of the compression reinforcement. The time-dependent characteristics of the loading and the collapse phenomenon are, of course, important considerations here. As explained in Section 10.5.1, the load had to be maintained long enough for the collapse if the load were diminished or removed at just the right time.

10.5.3 Value of Crushing Strain in Concrete

The values of maximum recorded concrete strain in Table 9 require some explanation. They are presented only for those blows for which crushing was detected since this is the only instance in which they may have some significance regarding the value of crushing strain for concrete loaded dynamically. First, it must be recognized that the strains were measured only at distinct points on the top surface of the beam. Second, when crushing occurs at one point, there is generally a relieving of the compressive strain in adjacent regions. Third, although the strain in the midspan region should theoretically be constant, since the moment is constant under two point loading, it is evident from the concrete strain traces that this was not the case. With these considerations in mind, returning to Table 9, the values followed by a question mark are presented as not being even representative of crushing strain values. In the case of

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Beam 3b2, the decreasing values of maximum strain under successive loadings is believed to be a result of the second consideration above. With regard to the questioned values for the first three blows on Beam 7a2, the crushing resulting in the destruction of gage CC and detected visually was so localized as to have practically no effect on the strains in the remainder of the midspan region or on the response.

It is maintained that the remaining values in Table 9 are generally the minimum values at which the concrete crushed in each case. Assuming that the concrete was of uniform quality in the midspan region it probably did not crush at a location where there was no gage at a value less than that recorded by the gages, since it would have crushed at the gage location first when this location reached the hypothesized lesser value. Moreover, if the gage output drops off, indicating a relief of strain, but the gage was not destroyed, it is likely that the strain at the location of crushing was greater than that recorded by the gage. The average of the unquestioned values in Table 9 is 4071 microin./in. This is in good agreement with values of Ref. 23, which is a report of work having as a main objective the evaluation of the crushing strain for static test conditions. Reference 23 also contains a compilation of important previous work in this area. The scatter of the results reported in Reference 23, within which the results given in Table 9 fall, is believed to justify the conclusion that the rate of loading does not have a definite influence on the crushing strain.

10.5.4 Effect of Reinforcement Configuration on Dynamic Behavior

In Table 10 are retabulated various data presented in previous tables but combined here for convenience. The symbols have the same meaning as before.

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Considering first the effect of compression reinforcement on ductility, comparisons of the collapse deflections in Series 2 and Series 3, and in Series 5 and Series 6, provide dramatic evidence of the increased deformation before collapse made available by the use of compression reinforcement. This effect, of course, is to be expected. The degree to which compression reinforcement is useful for increased ductility is dependent somewhat on the spacing and configuration of the ties which hold it in place. These ties generally act to confine the compression reinforcement and prevent it from buckling. The persistence with which the tie maintains the possible buckling length depends on the manner in which it is formed. If, for some reason, a tie should open up, the possible buckling length would be increased and the tendency to buckle would be increased, perhaps decreasing the beam ductility.

Based on the above reasoning, it was felt that welded ties should develop the maximum potential ductility for a given spacing. Furthermore, ties hooked in the tension region of the beam (around the bottom steel) should provide more beam ductility than ties hooked in the compression region (around the top steel) for a given tie spacing. However, the data of Table 10 do not necessarily bear this out. Although Beam 3a3 has a smaller collapse deflection than Beam 3a⁴, which in turn is smaller than that for Beam 3a2, the result is reversed in the Series 3b beams. Also, the slightly wider spacing in Beam 3a5, (though it is admitted a heavier bar was used for the ties) did not decrease the ductility. It is felt that perhaps other factors, such as rate of collapse, degree of concrete crushing, and time-dependent characteristics of the load may have an influence on collapse deflection that obscures the effect of ties configuration and small differences in tie spacing.

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Figure 33 contains photographs of Beams 3a2, 3a3, and 3a4 in the region of compression steel buckling. The opening of the tie in Beam 3a3 and the resulting increase in possible buckling length is evident. The ability of ties hooked around the bottom steel to confine the compression steel as well as the welded ties did is also evident. Nevertheless, it can be seen in Fig. 33d that Beam 3b3 had a higher collapse deflection in spite of the tie opening up.

One other variation in the reinforcing details to be considered is the percentage of web reinforcement and its effect on the mode of failure. The questions of capacity in shear and minimum amount of web reinforcement necessary to prevent shear failure are still in a state of flux in the field of reinforced concrete research. However, several general ideas are fairly well established. Shear failure is more likely with increased values of q and q², decreased values of moment/shear or span/depth ratios, and decreased percentages of web reinforcement, or its absence. None of these trends is refuted by the data in Table 10, but boundary values or general relations for dynamically loaded beams cannot be established from these meager data.

10.5.5 Collapse Deflection

Returning to Table 10, a close examination of the values of collapse deflection indicates a small but consistent increase in collapse deflection under dynamic loading. This holds as well for the shear failures as for the flexural failures. Compare 2b2 and 2b3 with 2b1, 3a2 with 3a1, 3b2 with 3b1, 4b3 with 4b1, 4c3 with 4c1, 5b3 and 5b4 with 5b1, and 7a2 and 7a3 with 7a1. There does not seem to be a consistent variation with concrete strength although in most of the cases the concrete strength of the statically loaded

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beam was higher. Concrete strains were not measured on the statically loaded beams to permit a direct comparison of collapse strains. However, in Section 10.5.3, this question was discussed and the conclusion that the collapse strains under dynamic loading were not higher than those under static loading is still felt to be valid. The increase in collapse deflection under dynamic loading may be due to an upward shift in the neutral axis. This would require the tensile steel strains at collapse to be greater under dynamic loading than under static loading. There is no direct way to check this possibility on the basis of the tests in this program since the strain gages on the tension reinforcement were generally rendered useless before collapse occurred.

10.5.6 Reactions

The sum of the measured reactions, indicated by R, is presented in Figs. A96-A133 plotted as a function of measured midspan deflection. Several details are to be noted. It is believed that the oscillations in the reactions are due to oscillating accelerations in the testing apparatus. These accelerations manifested themselves with little attenuation in all of the force measuring devices employed in the setup, since force is directly proportional to acceleration. The oscillations do not appear as pronounced in the measured deflections since deflection is proportional to the double integral of acceleration and the integrating process is inherently "smoothing." (This explanation applies with equal validity to the loads plotted in Figs. A35-A72).

It will be noticed that in any case where collapse occurred the deflection continues to increase as the reactions drop off. On the other hand, if a beam did not collapse under the load in question then the deflection decreases as the reactions drop off. The previous statements can

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be used as criteria to determine whether collapse occurred under a particular loading.

For those beams which were subjected to more than one blow, the plot for a given blow starts at the deflection corresponding to the cumulative permanent set from previous blows.

XI ANALYSIS OF TEST RESULTS

11.1 Computation of Dynamic Resistance

11.1.1 Introduction

When a prismatic beam is subjected to a rapid load it will generally vibrate as a system with an infinite number of degrees of freedom. The analysis of such a system, however, is too complicated to be used in design. This difficulty is increased when the inelastic behavior of the member is to be considered. Therefore, in this study the beam is approximated as a single-degree-of-freedom (SDF) system and the dynamic response of the system is computed.

The behavior of a reinforced concrete beam when subjected to a slow rate of loading can be defined by its load-deflection characteristics which are represented by a resistance diagram. The shape of this resistance diagram depends on such properties as yield strength of steel, concrete strength, and percentage of reinforcement. When a reinforced concrete member is subjected to rapid loading, both the concrete compressive strength and the yield point of the reinforcing steel are increased. As a result, the resistance diagram of the member under rapid loading is different from that corresponding to static loading. In addition, the resistance diagram is not represented by a plot of load vs. deflection, as in the static loading case, because the accelerations involved result in substantial inertia forces in the initial stages of loading.

11.1.2 Equivalent Single-Degree-of-Freedom System

As stated above, the exact analysis of a flexible beam with distributed mass subjected to impulsive loadings is too complicated for use as a design tool, especially when inelastic as well as elastic behavior is to

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be considered. Therefore, it is desirable to modify the system to one to which a simplified analysis can be applied. To accomplish this it is assumed that at any one time the beam vibrates in some definite deflection configuration. This assumption, in effect, reduces the system to a SDF system, since only a single value is needed to define its position at any one time. As a result, if the motion of any one point is known, the motion of any other point can be found by simple proportion. It is convenient to consider only the motion of a point at the midspan of the beam.

A SDF replacement for the original beam may be represented as shown in Fig. 34. The mass and all forces are concentrated at midspan. It is required that this equivalent system exhibit the same behavior at midspan with respect to time as the original beam. The equation of motion of the equivalent system is

$$M_{e_{c}}^{\tilde{\Box}} + C_{e_{c}}^{\tilde{\Box}} + k_{e_{c}}^{\tilde{\Box}} = P_{e}$$
(1)

where the dot indicates a derivative with respect to time. Equation 1 can be rewritten

$$\mathring{\Delta}_{c}^{\circ} + \frac{C}{M_{e}} \mathring{\Delta}_{c}^{\circ} + \frac{k_{e}}{M_{e}} \Delta_{c}^{\circ} = \frac{P_{e}}{M_{e}}$$
(2)

Letting $\beta_e = \frac{C_e}{C_{cre}}$, where C_{cre} is the critical coefficient of damping for the equivalent system

$$\dot{\Delta}_{c}^{c} + \beta_{e} \frac{C_{cre}}{M_{e}} \dot{\Delta}_{c}^{c} + \frac{k_{e}}{M_{e}} \Delta_{c}^{c} = \frac{P_{e}}{M_{e}}$$
(3)

But $C_{cre} = 2f_e M_e$, where $f_e = \sqrt{k_e/M_e}$ (24). So

$$\dot{\Delta}_{c} + 2\beta_{e}f_{e}\dot{\Delta}_{c} + \frac{k_{e}}{M_{e}}\Delta_{c} = \frac{P_{e}}{M_{e}}$$
(4)

As stated above, it is desired to have the behavior in terms of the deflection, velocity, acceleration, frequency or vibration, f, and

percentage of critical damping, β , the same for the equivalent system and the beam. To achieve this correspondence it is necessary to relate by factors the equivalent quantities in Eq. 4 (those with subscripts e) to the parameters associated with the beam.

11.1.3 Computation of Equivalent Factors

ll.1.3.1 <u>Mass</u>. The generally accepted procedure for computing the equivalent mass is to equate the kinetic energies of the original and equivalent systems (24). This equivalent mass is a function of the deflection configuration the original beam is assumed to have at any one time. The shape assumed herein is the static deflection curve of a beam loaded at two points symmetrically placed with respect to midspan (Fig. 34). Then denoting by Δ_c the displacement at midspan during vibration, the relative displacement of any element md ℓ of the beam, distance ℓ from the support, will be

$$\frac{\Delta_{\ell}}{\Delta_{c}} = Z \tag{5}$$

For $l \leq a L$

$$Z = \frac{4\ell (3L^2 a - 3a^2 L^2 - \ell^2)}{aL^3 (3 - 4a^2)}$$
(6)

For al $\leq l \leq L/2$

$$Z = \frac{\frac{4}{L^2} (3lL - 3l^2 - a^2L^2)}{(3 - 4a^2)}$$
(7)

If it is assumed that the shape of the deflection curve is constant throughout the cycle of vibration, then the velocity varies along the beam as the deflection, and Eqs. 6 and 7 for Z are also valid for the velocity at l. The kinetic energy of the beam itself will be

$$K \cdot E \cdot_{\text{beam}} = 2 \int_{O}^{L/2} \frac{1}{2} m \left(\mathring{\Delta}_{\ell} \right)^2 d\ell = 2 \int_{O}^{L/2} \frac{1}{2} m \left(Z \mathring{\Delta}_{C} \right)^2 d\ell$$
(8)

The kinetic energy of the equivalent SDF system is

$$K \cdot E_{e} = \frac{1}{2} M_{e} \left(\dot{\Delta}_{c} \right)^{2}$$
(9)

Equating Eqs. 8 and 9

$$\frac{1}{2} M_{e} \left(\mathring{\Delta}_{c}\right)^{2} = m \left(\mathring{\Delta}_{c}\right)^{2} \int_{O}^{L/2} Z^{2} d\ell \qquad (10)$$

and letting

$$K_{M} = \frac{M_{e}}{mL}$$
(11)

then

$$K_{\rm M} = \frac{2}{L} \int_{0}^{L/2} Z^2 dt \qquad (12)$$

Evaluating the integral,

$$K_{M} = \frac{2}{L} \left[\frac{4L \left(-64a^{5} + 112a^{4} - 70a^{2} + 21 \right)}{35 \left(3 - 4a^{2} \right)^{2}} \right]$$
(13)

The two loadings used on this program are a = 1/3 and a = 29/76.

For
$$a = 1/3$$
, $K_{M} = \frac{2570}{11109} = 0.5019$
and for $a = 29/76$, $K_{M} = 0.4953$ (14)

For the beams of this program using 150 lb per cu. ft for the unit weight of concrete, and taking only the mass between the supports, one obtains for a = 1/3 and L = 9 ft,

$$M_{e} = 0.5019 \text{ w L/g} = 0.5019 \text{ x} \frac{150 \text{ x} 9}{2} \text{ x} \frac{1}{386.4} = 0.8768 \text{ lb-sec}^2/\text{in.},$$

and for a = 29/76 and L = 12 2/3 ft,

$$M_{e} = 0.4953 \text{ w L/g} = 0.4953 \text{ x} \frac{150 \text{ x} 12 2/3}{2} \text{ x} \frac{1}{386.4} = 1.218 \text{ lb-sec}^2/\text{in}.$$

11.1.3.2 Load. The procedure for computing the equivalent load is to equate the work done by the applied loads on the original beam to the work done by the applied loads on the SDF System (25). The shape of the assumed deflection curve of the beam during vibration also influences

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this computation. It is taken the same as before for the computation of the equivalent mass. Evaluating Eqs. 6 and 7 for l = aL

$$Z_{a} = \frac{\Delta_{a}}{\Delta_{c}} = \frac{4a(3 - 4a)}{(3 - 4a^{2})}$$
(15)

The work done by the loads on the beam is

$$W_{\text{beam}} = 2 \times \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{P}{2} \times \Delta_a = P\Delta_a/2 = PZ_a\Delta_c/2 \qquad (16)$$

The work done on the equivalent system is

$$W_{e} = \frac{1}{2} P_{e} \Delta_{c} \tag{17}$$

Equating, and letting

$$K_{\rm L} = \frac{r_{\rm e}}{P} \tag{18}$$

one obtains

$$K_{\rm L} = Z_{\rm a} \tag{19}$$

For a = 1/3,

$$K_{L} = \frac{20}{23} = 0.8696$$

and for a = 29/76, (20) $K_{L} = \frac{3248}{3491} = 0.9304$

11.1.3.3 <u>Stiffness</u>. The procedure for computing the equivalent stiffness is to equate the strain energy of the original beam to the strain energy of the equivalent system (25). Again, the assumed deflection shape influences the result and it is taken the same as for the mass computation. The strain energy of the actual beam for symmetrical loading is

$$S.E._{beam} = 2 \int_{O}^{L/2} \frac{M^2}{2EI} d\ell$$
 (21)

Since

$$M = - \frac{\text{EId}^2 \Delta_{\ell}}{d\ell^2}$$

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$$S.E._{beam} = EI \int_{0}^{L/2} \left[\frac{d^2 \Delta_{l}}{dl^2} \right]^2 dl$$
 (22)

The spring constant in terms of the midspan deflection, that is, the static load at location (aL) required to cause unit deflection at midspan, for the deflection configuration under consideration, is

$$k_{ld} = \frac{48EI}{a L^3(3 - 4a^2)}$$
 (23)

Substituting for EI in Eq. 22

$$S.E._{beam} = \frac{k_{ld}aL^{3}(3 - 4a^{2})}{48} \int_{0}^{L/2} \left[\frac{d^{2}\Delta_{\boldsymbol{\ell}}}{d\boldsymbol{\ell}^{2}}\right]^{2} d\boldsymbol{\ell}$$
(24)

The strain energy of the equivalent system is

$$\text{S.E.}_{e} = \frac{1}{2} Q_{e} \Delta_{c} = \frac{1}{2} k_{e} (\Delta_{c})^{2}$$
 (25)

Equating Eqs. 24 and 25, and letting

$$K_{Q} = \frac{k_{e}}{k_{ld}}$$
(26)

then

$$K_{Q} = \frac{a L^{3}(3 - 4a^{2})}{24 (\Delta_{c})^{2}} \int_{0}^{L/2} \left[\frac{d^{2}\Delta_{l}}{dl^{2}}\right]^{2} dl \qquad (27)$$

$$K_{Q} = \frac{a L^{3}(3 - 4a^{2})}{24} \int_{0}^{L/2} \left[\frac{d^{2}Z}{dl^{2}}\right]^{2} dl$$

$$K_{Q} = \frac{a L^{3}(3 - 4a^{2})}{24} \left[\frac{4 \times 24 (3 - 4a)}{L^{3}(3 - 4a^{2})^{2}}\right]$$

$$K_{Q} = \frac{4a (3 - 4a)}{(3 - 4a^{2})} \qquad (28)$$

But Eq. 28 is equal to Z_a (Eq. 15) and Z_a is equal to K_L (Eq. 19). Therefore,

$$K_{Q} = K_{L}$$
(29)

ll.1.3.4 <u>Damping</u>. The factor of interest with regard to damping is β , the percent of critical damping. Both the actual damping and the critical damping would have to be related between the original and equivalent systems by some factor if their absolute values were desired. However, since both terms would involve the same factor, as they are measures of the same phenomena, their ratio would be dimensionless and without a factor. Therefore, the β of the equivalent system can be taken as the β of the original beam without modification.

11.1.3.5 Modified Equivalent Mass. Using the relations of Eqs. 11, 18, 26, and 29, Eq. 4 can now be rewritten as

$$\ddot{\Delta}_{c} + 2\beta f_{e} \dot{\Delta}_{c} + \frac{K_{L} k_{ld}}{K_{M}(mL)} = \frac{K_{L} P}{K_{M}(mL)}$$
(30)

Equation 30 defines a system with midspan deflection characteristics equivalent to those of the original beam, with stiffness equal to that of the original beam, with load as applied to the original beam, and with a mass of $K_{\rm M}({\rm mL})/{\rm K_{\rm L}}$. In other words, it is possible to apply all of the factors to the mass and to use all other quantities as they are for the original beam. Terming the combined factor the load-mass factor and designating it as $K_{\rm LM}$, then

$$M_{me} = \frac{K_{M}}{K_{L}} (mL) = K_{LM} (mL)$$
(31)

where M is the modified equivalent mass. Using the values of relations 14 and 20

for a = 1/3,

 $K_{LM} = \frac{0.5019}{0.8696} = 0.577$

and for a = 29/76,

$$K_{\rm LM} = \frac{0.4953}{0.9304} = 0.532$$

For the beams tested on this program the values of M are, for a = 1/3and L = 9 ft,

$$M_{\rm me} = \frac{0.8768}{0.8696} = 1.008 \, \text{lb-sec}^2/\text{in}.$$

and for a = 29/76 and L = 12 2/3 ft,

$$M_{\rm me} = \frac{1.218}{0.9304} = 1.309 \ \rm lb-sec^2/in.$$

The computations for the frequency and period are then made according to the following relations:

$$f_{e} = \sqrt{k_{e}/M_{e}} = \sqrt{k_{ld}/M_{me}}$$
(34)

 $T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{M_m}{M_m}/k_{ld}}$

and

All of the factors of equivalence derived above are based on elastic behavior and the two-point-load deflection configuration. As a reinforced concrete beam deflects, it cracks and the steel reinforcement yields; the deflection configuration changes continuously and all of the above factors change. However, for the purposes of this program, the factors are assumed to remain constant throughout the range of behavior of the test beams. As an indication of the magnitude of the effect of this assumption it can be shown that for the extreme plastic case, considering the deflection configuration to be a triangle, the value of the equivalent mass is 1/3 that of the total mass instead of approximately 1/2 as obtained above. Also, in the plastic range, if the resistance is constant with

(32)

(33)

(35)

increasing deflection, the value of the stiffness factor is of no importance. Since, generally, the inertia forces in the plastic range are small, the change in equivalent mass is also felt not to be of primary importance.

11.1.4 Determination of Dynamic Resistance of Test Beams

As illustrated in Fig. 24 the static behavior of the beams falling in flexure are represented by an elasto-plastic resistance diagram. The shear failures are represented completely by an elastic curve. This same type of representation was desired for the dynamic resistance curves since it would make comparison with static behavior a simpler matter. Consequently, the equation defining the behavior of the equivalent system, Eq. 4, defines this behavior in two distinct ranges. In the elastic range, Eq. 4 is simply the equation of a SDF system for which solutions for the response, Δ , as a function of time are available for regular load pulses, such as sinusoidal, rectangular, triangular, etc. (26). In the plastic range, the system is non-oscillating, unless it is specified that any decrease in deflection be along the elastic stiffness curve. Solutions for this case are also available for regular load pulses (26).

If the load pulse is irregular and difficult or impossible to represent by an algebraic function, it becomes necessary to use some numerical procedure to solve for the deflection. Several such procedures are available and require knowledge of the load and the resistance as functions of time or displacement (25). The problem at hand, however, is not the determination of the response. The load and the response were measured in the tests. Rather, the problem is to determine the resistance, and it can only be attacked, with any expectation of success, by assuming a resistance, subjecting it to the measured load, determining the response, and comparing this computed response with the measured response. If the

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responses match, then the assumed dynamic resistance diagram is considered to belong to a system, which, under the same condition of loading will give a response identical to that of the beam actually tested. If the responses do not match, then the resistance is changed and the problem run through again until a response having the desired degree of agreement with the measured response is achieved.

To follow such a procedure is very time-consuming even using a desk calculator. The problem has been coded for the ILLIAC, the digital computer at the University of Illinois, but even so, the effects of changing various parameters associated with the resistance are not immediately apparent. It is desirable to solve the problem in such a way that trial solutions can be made quickly. An electronic analog computer is ideally suited to this task.

Analog computers have been used before to solve this type of problem (27, 28). The computer used on this program was a Heathkit Electronic Analog Computer Model ES 400. A photograph of the equipment is shown in Fig. 35. An explanation of the various components and the utility of certain interconnections is given in Appendix A. The load function was supplied to the computer by a Moseley "Autograf" Two-Axis Recorder Model No. 3 modified as a curve follower. The load-time relation was plotted by hand, then covered with a thin wire held to the graph paper by wax. When a current was passed through the wire it attracted a magnetic follower whose position determined the voltage output from the follower. Thus the voltage varied with time in the same manner as the load although the time scale for the computer solution was about 300 times that of the actual beam. Where a test took 1/20 sec to run, a computer solution took about 15 sec.

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The response of the system in the computer was plotted on another Moseley plotter. The voltage output from the location in the circuit representing deflection was fed to the Y-axis of the plotter. The X-axis, the time scale, was locked in step with the curve follower, each being driven by the same linear time generator.

A method of operation was used which made it unnecessary to read any quantities or values from the computer dials or meter. Instead, a stiffness for a given beam was assumed and a step pulse of known magnitude was fed to the computer, the computer being set to behave as an entirely elastic system. The various knobs controlling time, mass, stiffness, etc., were adjusted until the sinusoidal output agreed in magnitude and period to that computed previously for the step pulse load and stiffness assumed. Generally, the step pulse put in was that which would yield a response of one inch for the assumed stiffness. This, in effect, placed the proper value of equivalent mass into the computer, and calibrated the computer in terms of the scales used on the graph paper in the curve follower and plotter. It was then possible to change the stiffness setting, if necessary to obtain a match with measured response, and have the period and magnitude of response automatically change correspondingly. When a match with measured response was obtained, the measured response having been plotted on the paper in the plotter beforehand, the characteristics of the system in the computer were determined by again applying a step pulse to the elastic portion of the system. This time the step pulse was varied in magnitude until a given magnitude, generally one inch, of sinusoidal response was obtained. From the value of the pulse necessary, it was possible to compute the initial stiffness of the system in the computer. The period

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could be read directly from the graph paper. These values of stiffness and period were then used to compute the mass. If the mass agreed with the assumed equivalent mass (Section 11.1.3) then the solution was acceptable. If the mass was more than five percent off, indicating serious drift in the computer elements during the course of the trial solutions, the problem was rerun.

There was also a provision in the equipment connections permitting the resistance, Q, to be plotted on the X-axis of the plotter against deflection on the Y-axis. Thus, when the measured response had been matched, the resistance diagram producing that match could be directly plotted, and the yield deflection read from the graph. Having the yield deflection, Δ_{yd} , thus determined, and the stiffness, k_{1d} , obtained as described in the preceding paragraph, the dynamic plastic level was computed as $Q_{yd} = k_{1d}\Delta_{yd}$. If it was necessary to include a point of collapse in the computer solution, because the beam collapsed during the test under consideration, the deflection at which this occurred was also read directly from the plot of Δ vs. Q.

In some instances, it was necessary to introduce some damping into the computer system in order to obtain a match of responses. The amount of damping introduced was determined in the following manner. After a match of satisfactory correspondence was secured, the feedback circuit introducing damping was disconnected. The stiffness of the undamped elastic portion of the solution was determined as above. Then the damping was re-introduced and the response to the step pulse used on the undamped system was plotted. By comparing the maximum deflection of the damped and undamped responses, the percent of critical damping could be determined.

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The relation is as follows:

$$\log_{e} \left[\frac{2\Delta_{d}}{\Delta_{u}} - 1 \right] = - \frac{\beta \pi}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^{2}}}$$
(36)

where

Δ_a = damped maximum displacement

 Δ_{u} = undamped maximum displacement, equal to twice the static displacement

An attempt was made to obtain a match for each response with the percent damping equal to zero and the slope of the inelastic region equal to zero. This attempt was successful in most instances, as reflected by the discussion in the next section.

11.1.5 Presentation of Computed Resistance Functions

The resistance functions computed by trial as explained in the preceding section are presented in Table 11 and plotted vs. deflection in Figs. A96-A133. The parameters relating to the resistance function are defined in Fig. 36. The responses which were taken to be the best obtainable matches are shown along with the measured responses in Figs. A35-A72. It is emphasized that these solutions are unique only in the sense that they are the best matches obtainable with an inelastic portion of zero slope and, generally, $\beta = 0$. It was possible to obtain as good a match in many cases with positive values of inelastic slope, or with damping. Of course, this required correspondingly different values of initial slope and yield deflection.

Several remarks are in order concerning the preciseness of fit between the measured and computed responses. In many of the cases, such as the beams of Series 2, the match is excellent up to and even beyond collapse. However, a different situation is encountered with Beam 3a2 (Fig. A39). The curves labeled A and B represent responses due to the measured load and resistance function which differed so slightly that the difference was indistinguishable when the resistance diagram was plotted by the Moseley plotter. This uncertainty with regard to maximum deflection is a function of the system rather than the computer as can be seen from several of the charts in Ref. 26. It may be noted in Table 11 that the plastic range of the resistance function for Beam 3a2 has a slightly negative slope. However, the uncertainty with regard to maximum deflection was apparent even when the plastic slope was zero, if it was necessary to enter the plastic region very far in order to obtain a match. In a number of instances therefore, the computed response is presented as two responses, labeled A and B, bracketing the measured response, but corresponding to negligibly different resistance functions.

In Fig. A40, Beam 3a3, it is seen that the computed response deviates from the measured response after maximum. Although an attempt was made to match this portion also, the range up to maximum was of primary importance and failure to fit the curve beyond that point did not cause undue concern. In Fig. A41, Beam 3a4, the lack of fit in the region just before maximum is not necessarily the fault of the computer solution. As explained in Section 10.5.1 there is some doubt about the accuracy of the measured response for this beam. In Fig. A42, Beam 3a5, Blow 1, the computed responses shown bracket fairly well the measured response and result from resistance diagrams that were indistinguishably different. The measured response does not exhibit the recovery at 35 milliseconds which is shown for the computer responses. No explanation can be offered.

For Beam 4c3, Fig. A55, it was not possible to tell from the load pulse where collapse probably occurred, although from the appearance of

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the response of other beams that collapsed, it was assumed to be before 42 msec. Therefore, when a match was obtained to this point, the problem was considered solved. Beam 5b3, Fig. A58, failed in shear and it was felt that the midspan deflection was no longer representative of the behavior of a SDF system when the beam lost its characteristic sinusoidal shape. Therefore, an attempt was made to match the response only up to 35 msec. Beam 6b2, Blow 2, (Fig. A64) also failed in shear and again the response was matched for only part of the way. In order to obtain a response exhibiting the very slow recovery of the measured response, it would appear to be necessary to introduce a great deal of damping at about 30 msec, corresponding to the formation of inclined cracks. Similarly, in Fig. A72, although Beam 7a3 failed in flexure, it was so near complete collapse that the crushed nature of the concrete and presence of extensive cracking again probably introduced a great deal of damping. It was not possible to introduce damping into the computer solution at an intermediate time in such a manner that the results could be interpreted. Repeated attempts to achieve matches to the responses for the first blow on Beam 3b2 and for Beam 3b3 were unsuccessful. The measured response for Beam 3b2 (Fig. A44) under the first blow was questionable as explained in Section 10.5.1. Though the measured response for Beam 3b3 (Fig. A47) is believed to be correct there were other peculiarities associated with the behavior of Beam 3b3 as explained in Section 10.4 which may have caused an atypical response.

The values in Table 11 are generally self-explanatory. The resistance functions given are for the blow under consideration. To obtain the total yield or collapse deflections under a second or third blow, the deflection obtained from the given resistance function must be added to the

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value of permanent set for the previous blow. In those cases where it was possible to obtain a match for the measured response without the use of an inelastic portion of the resistance diagram, the values of Δ_{yd} and Q_{yd} are preceded by a "greater than" symbol. The values listed correspond to the maximum deflection reached under the blow being considered and were still in the elastic range. For both blows on Beam 5b4, the values of Δ_{yd} and Q_{yd} are the maximum values attained under the dynamic loading. The values of time to reach yield are measured from the first mark (t₀) on the time axes in Figs. A35-A72.

It is noted in Table 11 that only five problems required the introduction of damping. Of these, it is felt that additional effort may have produced acceptable solutions for Beam 3a⁴ (Fig. A50) and Beam 7a2, Blow 4, (Fig. A68) without damping. However, the relative constancy of values for the three blows on Beam 4c2 (Figs. A52, A53, A54) suggest that there may have been some aspect of the test set-up producing the damping in this particular test. One such condition could have been reaction assemblies that were overly tight.

The values of velocity at yield given in Table 11 are not, strictly speaking, part of the computer solution. These values were taken from the plots of measured response in Figs. A35-A72. The slope in the region of yielding was determined by eye. What constituted the region of yielding was determined from the computer solution.

11.2 Comparison of Dynamic with Static Resistance

As explained in Section 10.3.1, several beams were tested statically to provide a basis of comparison with the dynamic tests. These comparisons cannot be made directly, however, because there are some differences in the yield strength of the steel and the compressive strength of the concrete within each series. The differences in compressive strength of the concrete can generally be ignored since concrete strength has little effect on the resistance at yield. The yield resistance, however, is directly dependent on the yield strength of the tension reinforcement as reflected in the following expression for the moment capacity at yield (21).

$$M_{y} = A_{s}f_{y}jd$$
(37)

The static capacity of a particular dynamically loaded beam was determined, therefore, by multiplying the capacity of a similar beam tested statically by the ratio of the respective static yield strengths of the tension reinforcement. The computed static capacities for the beams tested dynamically are given in Table 12 and shown in Figs. A96-A133. Equation 37 holds for beams reinforced only in tension; and for beams reinforced in both tension and compression, if the center of compression in the concrete is taken at the level of the compression steel, a not unreasonable assumption. In the latter case, jd represents the distance between the centers of gravity of the tension and compression reinforcement. Since there was no static test on which to base the computation for Beams 5al and 5a2 the capacity was determined from the equations in Ref. 21. These computations are presented in Appendix B. For the purpose of determining the static yield deflection, it was assumed that all beams of a given series would have the same stiffness since their cross-sectional properties were the same.

For Beams 4c3, 5b2, 5b3, and 5b4, which failed in shear, yield level and yield deflection have no particular meaning. Similar failures were exhibited by Beams 4c1 and 5b1, the statically tested beams used as a base. The values given in Table 12 are those for Beams 4c1 and 5b1 at failure

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in shear, modified by the ratio of the square roots of the concrete strengths. No account was taken of the differences in steel yield strength. The justification for this procedure lies in the formulas for shear strength presented in Ref. 22. Although Beam 6b2 eventually failed in shear in the dynamic test, yield values are given for it because the statically-tested beam used as a basis for the computation, Beam 6b1, failed in flexure and this information was available.

Since the materials exhibit strengths under dynamic loading which are somewhat greater than those exhibited under static loading, as previously pointed out in Section 11.1, it is to be expected that the dynamic resistance function will be different from the static load-deflection relation for a given beam. The difference would be expected to manifest itself in terms of an increased yield resistance, Q_{yd} , and an increased stiffness, k_{ld} , in the elastic range of behavior. The yield deflection, being dependent on both Q_{vd} and k_{ld} , could either increase or decrease.

The percentage changes in the parameters of the resistance diagrams due to dynamic loading are tabulated in Table 13. The values were computed by subtracting the static values in Table 12 from the dynamic values in Table 11 and dividing the difference by the static values. A negative value indicates a decrease in the property due to dynamic loading. In almost every instance the resistance level was increased under dynamic loading, as expected. The yield deflections and elastic slopes usually increased but in a few cases decreased. Generally, it will be noted that a large increase in yield deflection is accompanied by a decrease in slope and vice versa. Also the decreases in slope are associated with second and third blows on a beam while the greatest increases in slope are associated with first blows.

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The effects of dynamic loading on yield resistance, stiffness, and yield deflection have been presented above. One parameter defining the resistance function remains to be examined, namely collapse deflection. The pertinent data are gathered in Table 14. The values of collapse deflection, Δ_m , listed under the column headed "static" were measured in static tests. They are given for beams tested statically to collapse and for beams tested dynamically which did not collapse and were subsequently tested statically to collapse.

Before proceeding to the dynamic values, it is worthwhile to examine the values in Col. 1. Comparisons can be made to determine the effect of dynamic damage on static collapse capacity in Series 3 and Series 6. (Series 4 and Series 7 are not considered because of the negligible static capacity of Beams 4b3 and 7a3). In Series 3, the beams damaged dynamically, Beams 3a2, 3a3, and 3a4, exhibit collapse capacities under subsequent static loading that range above and below the values for beams tested only statically. Any effect of dynamic damage is obscured by the possible effects of reinforcement configuration, as discussed in Section 10.5.4. The values for Beams 6al and 6bl are almost identical. (Beam 6b2 failed in shear.) It can be concluded, then, that prior dynamic damage neither enhanced nor diminished the collapse capacity associated with static behavior.

Proceeding now to the collapse deflection exhibited by beams tested dynamically to collapse, the values of Col. 2 are those used in the computer analysis to obtain matches for the measured response, as explained in Section 11.1.4. In general, there appears to be a small increase in collapse deflection under dynamic loading. In Series 2, the average collapse deflection of the beams tested dynamically is approximately 1.04 in. while Beam 2bl under a static load collapsed at 0.95 in. In

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Series 3a, the value of 4.47 in. for Beam 3a5 is to be compared with the value of 4.05 in. for Beam 3al. In Series 3b, the average of the values for Beams 3b2 and 3b3 is approximately 4.55 in. while Beam 3bl collapsed at 3.93 in. In Series 4, the average of the collapse deflections of the beams tested dynamically (excluding Beam 4c3 which failed in shear) is 2.32 in. while Beam 4bl collapsed at 1.98 in. No conclusions can be drawn from Series 5 as the beams tested statically failed in shear. In Series 6, none of the beams collapsed under dynamic loading. The remaining beams which afford a comparison, Beams 7al and 7a2, appear to indicate a considerable increase in collapse deflection under dynamic loading. In this instance, however, there may be some question regarding the collapse value for Beam 7al. From information presented in Fig. A-5 of Ref. 29 the collapse deflection of Beam 7al should be about 2.75 in. With regard to the collapse value for Beam 7a2 the coaxing effect of successive loadings on collapse, as discussed in Sections 10.5.1 and 10.5.2, may have had some influence. It can be concluded, therefore, that there appears to be an increase in collapse deflection of approximately ten percent due to dynamic loading for beams failing in flexure. However, so many factors can influence the collapse deflection, such as the reinforcement configuration as discussed in Section 10.5.1, that it appears unwise to depend on this increased deformation capacity for the purpose of design.

While considering the factors influencing collapse deflection, another worthwhile comparison can be made of the values in Cols. 1 and 2 of Table 14. It is noted that there are marked differences between the collapse deflections for various series of beams. This is due to the difference in q value associated with each series. As pointed out in Ref. 29,

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the value of $q = pf_y/f_c'$ (or $q' = [pf_y - p'f_y']/f_c'$ for beams reinforced in both tension and compression) has a profound influence on the collapse deflection of a reinforced concrete beam. A high value of q (or q') corresponds to a beam of brittle nature, that is, one having a relatively low collapse deflection. A low value of q, on the other hand, corresponds to a beam of ductile nature, that is, one having a relatively large collapse deflection. This dependence of collapse deflection on q is well illustrated in Table 14 by both the beams that were tested statically and those that were tested dynamically. Referring at the same time to Table 5, where values of q and q' based on the static strengths of the materials are tabulated, the correspondence of q (or q') and collapse deflection is evident and requires no further comment.

The concept of ductility, defined as the ratio of collapse deflection to yield deflection, is often used in dynamic design procedures (25). Consequently, the ductility exhibited by the beams herein discussed deserves some attention and the additional data are also presented in Table 14. The values of yield deflection in Col. 3 are those measured in the static tests. The values in Col. 4 are those determined as part of the analog computer solutions to which have been added any permanent set possibly suffered by the beam due to static preloading. Ratios of collapse to yield deflection are given in Cols. 5 and 6 only for those cases where yield and collapse occurred under the same loading condition, that is static or dynamic. The cases where a dynamic test was followed by static loading to collapse are not considered to be amenable to meaningful interpretation.

Examining the values in Cols. 5 and 6 series by series, it is noted that there is no significant difference between the ductility exhibited

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under static loading and that under dynamic loading. In Series 2, the average of the dynamic values is 1.62 while the static value is 1.73. In Series 3, the values to be compared are 6.98 for the dynamic ductility and 8.43 for the static ductility. In Series 4, the considerably higher value for Beam 4c2 is computed using a value of yield deflection associated with a damped computer solution. If damping were not used, it is probable that a higher yield deflection would have been necessary to provide a match of measured and computed responses, thus decreasing the value of ductility. In fact, it must be kept in mind that the computation of ductility as the ratio of collapse to yield deflection places great weight on small changes in the yield value, especially if the yield value is small. Since one can hardly be expected to know the yield deflection any closer than a few hundredths of an inch, it seems unreasonable to ascribe any apparent increases in ductility under dynamic loading to anything but chance.

11.3 Effect of Damage on Initial Slope

It is to be expected that a beam which has undergone some damage in the form of cracking of the tension concrete, yielding of the reinforcement, or slight crushing of the concrete in compression, would exhibit a reduced value of initial slope of the resistance diagram upon subsequent loadings. The pertinent data for those beams which were subjected to more than one loading and exhibited an inelastic region of behavior are presented in Table 15.

Since a reinforced concrete beam that has only been cracked but has not yielded is generally considered to be relatively undamaged, it was decided to measure the damage produced by a given loading by the amount of inelastic deformation experienced. However, the inelastic deformation

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capacity depends on many factors, including percentage of reinforcement. In order to compare the several tests, therefore, the criterion of damage chosen was the cumulative inelastic deformation for a particular blow divided by the total inelastic deformation capacity. This ratio is defined as the damage ratio.

Column 1 in Table 15 contains values of the maximum deflection obtained under a particular blow. These values were taken from Table 8. Column 2 contains the yield deflection for the first blow as determined by the analog computer and given in Table 11. Any permanent set due to static cracking prior to Blow 1 has been included in the values of ${\boldsymbol{\Delta}}_{_{\mathbf{V}\mathbf{d}}}$ given in Table 15. By subtracting the values in Col. 2 from those in Col. 1 one obtains the cumulative inelastic deflection experienced by the beam under a particular blow. In Col. $\frac{1}{4}$, the collapse deflection is given for each beam. (If the beam collapsed under a dynamic load, the value in Col. 4 is that determined by the analog computer. If the beam collapsed under a static load applied subsequent to dynamic loading, the value given is that recorded in the static test.) By subtracting the values in Col. 2 from those in Col. 4 one obtains the values in Col. 5 which represent the total possible inelastic deformation. The ratio of the cumulative inelastic deflection (Col. 3) to the total possible inelastic deflection (Col. 5) is the damage ratio as defined above and the values are given in Col. 6.

The values of the elastic slope of the resistance diagram for each blow under consideration are given in Col. 7 of Table 15. These are taken from Table 11 and represent the values determined by the analog computer. The ratio of the elastic slope exhibited under subsequent blows to that exhibited under the first blow is given for each such subsequent blow as a

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percentage in Col. 8. The values to be compared, then, are the damage ratio for a particular blow and the percentage of Blow 1 slope for the next subsequent blow. These values are plotted in Fig. 37. Except for the erratic relation for the damage under Blow 1 for Beam 7a2, the trend is unmistakable and verifies the original expectation. One is cautioned, however, against developing any relation from Fig. 37 which may later be inadvertently extrapolated below an elastic slope value of 0.4. It is believed that even if the damage ratio experienced by a beam under a particular blow is as high as 0.9, the elastic slope under the next blow would probably not be less than about 40 percent of the elastic slope for the undamaged beam. This belief is evoked by the plots in Fig. 26 which represent the static tests to collapse of beams which had previously suffered considerable damage under dynamic loading. Ignoring Beams 4b3 and 7a3, which were destroyed under the dynamic loading for all practical purposes, the least slope is that for Beam 6b2 the value of which is approximately 16.5 kips/in. and is 38 percent of the slope of the undamaged beam, which was 43.6 kips/in.

11.4 Comparison of Dynamic Resistance with Measured Reactions

If the inertia forces generated by the dynamic loading of a beam are ignored, then the determination of the sum of the reactions in the beam supports is reduced to a problem of statics; that is, the sum of the reactions is equal to the load which, in turn, is equal to the resistance of the beam. Recognizing that this is a crude approximation if the inertia forces have any significance whatever, the sum of the reactions as measured in the tests, R, and the dynamic resistance as determined on the analog computer, Q, (Section 11.1.4) are compared in Figs. A96-A133. In these

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figures the sum of the measured reactions is represented as a solid line and the analog computer solution for resistance by alternating dots and dashes.

Several qualitative generalizations can be drawn regarding the relative shapes of the R and Q curves in Figs. A96-A133. For the short span beams, Series 2, 3 and $\frac{1}{4}$, in the initial phase of the response the R curves exhibit a steeper slope than the Q curves, then break over and are less steep than the Q curves, as though something akin to cracking had occurred. Cracking is not the explanation, however, since the phenomenon appears for the cracked cases and secondary blows as well as for blows on uncracked beams. The second portion of the initial phase then rises to a peak from which it drops sharply, then descends gradually through the inelastic region until either collapse occurred or the load was removed. The peaks are most pronounced in the Series 3 beams, relatively small in the Series 4 beams and difficult to distinguish in the Series 2 beams, being obscured by the close proximity of collapse. Since the Q curves were deliberately programmed as elasto-plastic, they do not exhibit the broken initial slope, the peak, or a descending inelastic region (except for Beam 3a2). In general, within the inelastic region the constant values of the Q curves are equal to or greater than the fluctuating values of the R curves.

For the long span beams, Series 5, 6 and 7, careful examination of the R and Q curves fails to reveal the general qualities described above for the short span beams. Rather, the occurrence of a break in the initial portion of the R curves and the following peak do not appear with consistency. Furthermore, because of several obscuring factors such as lack of an inelastic region due to low ductility, failure in shear, or failure to initiate yielding on a particular blow, it is difficult to ascertain whether there is a tendency for the measured reactions to gradually decrease in the

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inelastic region of behavior. However, one characteristic does appear with some consistency. Within the inelastic region, the measured reactions are generally greater than the computed resistance.

No attempt has been made to relate the qualities of the measured reactions discussed above to any beam parameters. Whether such an attempt is warranted is open to question in the light of the recommendations for the computation of reaction presented in Section 15.5.

11.5 Effect of Various Parameters on Dynamic Resistance and Behavior

The results of the dynamic tests presented in this report have been rather completely described and discussed in Sections 10.4, 10.5, 11.2, 11.3, and 11.4. In Sections 10.5, 11.2, and 11.3, the effects of several of the variables in the tests, such as tie reinforcement and q', were discussed in connection with the particular topics of interest. However, there are many other parameters which affect the strength and behavior of a reinforced concrete beam subjected to rapid loading which deserve attention.

Although the beam width and depth were not varied in this program there is no reason to believe that the effects of these dimensions on the strength of the beam would be different under dynamic loading than under static loading. It can be seen in Table 11 that the effects of A_s and A'_s on the strength are also the same for dynamic as for static loading. For example, the beams of Series 2 and Series 3 with the same amounts of tension reinforcement, have yield strengths of the same magnitude, whereas the yield strengths for Series 4 are reduced almost in direct proportion to the reduction in steel areas. This substantiates the fact that the strength of an under-reinforced beam is directly related to the amount of tensile reinforcement, while the compressive reinforcement primarily provides ductility

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as explained in Section 10.5.4. It is not as easy to discern the effect of r, the percent of web reinforcement. As pointed out in Section 10.5.4 it can be seen in several instances that the presence of web reinforcement prevented failure in shear. However, the minimum percentage required to assure failure in flexure is not definitely known for reinforced concrete beams under static loading, and the tests of this program can only hint at the amount required for dynamic loading. The effect of increasing the span length was, of course, to decrease the load carrying capacity, and, since the shear forces consequently drop with respect to moments, to decrease the likelihood of shear failure, as can be seen by comparing the failure modes of Series 4c and 7.

The effect of the strength of the constituent materials, f_y , f'_y , f'_c , f_r , and E_c , on the beam behavior is somewhat obscured by the effects of dynamic loading on the materials themselves. The combined effects of dynamic loading on material strength, and the resultant effect of material strength on beam strength are treated in Chapter XII. The effects of the material strengths combined into the parameter q' has already been considered with regard to collapse deflection and will be treated quantitatively in Chapter XII.

The phenomenon responsible for the differences in behavior of reinforced concrete beams under static and dynamic loads is, of course, the time-dependent character and impulsive nature of the dynamic load. The effect that dynamic loading has on beam response depends on the characteristics of the load and their relation to the characteristics of the beam. The effect of load characteristics on the response of a beam which can be represented by a single-degree-of-freedom system with a given or known resistance function has been studied extensively for several cases of

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loadings having regular time dependent variations, that is, load-time relations that can be readily expressed by a small number of characteristic parameters (26). For the irregular loadings applied in these tests, an attempt was made to correlate some measures of the magnitude and time characteristics of the load with various measures of the resistance and response of the beams tested. However, these attempts were unsuccessful because it was not possible to adequately describe the applied loads except by considering the entire load-time function.

The discussion above is concerned with the relation between a dynamic load and a known resistance function. However, for a given reinforced concrete beam, the resistance is itself a function of the load characteristics. The primary effect of load on resistance is that on the strength and stiffness of the beam materials due to the rapid application of the load and the resulting rapid strain rates. For the beams in this investigation the most pronounced effect of rapid loading on resistance appeared to be the increase in the yield strength of the tension reinforcing steel.

In Chapter XII, the measured strain rates are used to determine the increased yield strengths of the reinforcement and, in turn, the dynamic resistance functions of some of the beams tested, from which their behavior can be inferred by comparison with the resistances determined with the analog computer.

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XII COMPUTED RESISTANCE BASED ON STRAIN RATE

12.1 Method of Computation

Since strain rates were determined from some of the tests, and since information was available on the change in strength of steel (Part A) and concrete (2) as a function of strain rate, it was deemed worthwhile to attempt to predict the dynamic resistance of the beams tested by means of procedures already available for predicting static resistances, but using strengths of the materials corrected for the rapid rates of strain involved.

12.1.1 Resistance Level

In order to compute the dynamic resistance level it was again assumed that Eq. 37 was valid for beams reinforced in tension only or in tension and compression. Thus it was necessary only to determine the dynamic yield strength of the tension steel. For this purpose, the measured strain rates from Table 9 were used in conjunction with the steel curve in Fig. 38 which is taken from Fig. 20. The steel used for the tests reported in Part A comprised coupons cut from the bars used in the beams described herein. The dynamic yield level was then computed as the static level multiplied by the increase in steel strength,

$$Q_{yd} = Q_y \frac{f_{yd}}{f_y}$$
(38)

where the values of Q_y used were those listed in Table 12. The strain rates, increased yield strength of reinforcement, and dynamic resistance levels thus computed are given in Table 16.

12.1.2 Yield Deflection

The determination of yield deflection is essentially a computation of elastic deflection. The deflection at midspan of a beam loaded symmetrically at two points by loads P/2 is

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$$\Delta_{\rm c} = \frac{{\rm PaL}^3(3 - 4a^2)}{48 \, {\rm EI}} \tag{39}$$

where aL is the distance from a reaction to the nearest load point. The moment at midspan is

$$M = \frac{PaL}{2}$$
(40)

and the curvature at midspan is

$$\Phi_{c} = \frac{M}{EI}$$
(41)

Therefore

$$\Delta_{\rm c} = \frac{\Phi_{\rm c} {\rm L}^2}{24} \left(3 - 4{\rm a}^2\right) \tag{42}$$

For a = 1/3,

$$\Delta_{\rm c} = \frac{23}{216} \Phi_{\rm c} {\rm L}^2 = 0.1063 \Phi_{\rm c} {\rm L}^2 \tag{43}$$

For $a = \frac{29}{76^3}$

$$\Delta_{c} = \frac{3491}{34656} \Phi_{c} L^{2} = 0.1007 \Phi_{c} L^{2}$$
(44)

If it is assumed that strain through the cross-section of the beam varies linearly with depth, then, at yielding

$$\Phi_{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\epsilon_{\mathbf{y}}}{(1-k^{\dagger})a}$$
(45)

where ϵ_y is the yield strain of the tension reinforcement and k'd is the depth to the neutral axis. If the modulus of elasticity of the steel is taken as 30,000,000 psi, then

$$\Phi_{y} = \frac{f_{y}}{30 \times 10^{6} (1-k^{\circ})d}$$
(46)

The expression used to determine k' is

$$k' = \sqrt{2 [np + (l-k'')(n-l)p'] + [(n-l)p' + np]^2} - [(n-l)p' + np]$$
(47)

where

$$k'' = d'/d$$

n = 30 x 10⁶/E_c

This formula reduces to

$$k^{2} = \sqrt{2pn + (pn)^{2}} - pn$$
 (48)

for beams reinforced in tension only, and is based on a linear distribution of strain.

The midspan deflection at yield can then be computed from Eqs. 43 and 44 with $\Phi_c = \Phi_y$ as given by Eq. 46. The value of f_y in Eq. 46 is replaced by f_{yd} from Table 16. The value of k' in Eq. 46 is obtained from Eq. 47 or 48 using values of E_c given in Table 4. Values of Δ_{yd} thus computed are given in Table 16.

It may be noted that the above procedure for computing deflections yields results identical to those obtained from the conventional expressions for deflection of a beam of constant cross-section involving the use of a moment of inertia for the transformed section with no tension in the concrete and corresponding values of E_c . The two procedures are based on identical assumptions.

12.1.3 Ductility

In Ref. 29 the following formula (A34) is advanced as a reasonable approximation to the ductility developed by two-point loaded beams.

$$\frac{\Delta_{\rm m}}{\Delta_{\rm y}} = \frac{q_{\rm cr}}{0.75 \, q^{\rm r}} \tag{49}$$

where $\boldsymbol{\Delta}_{\!\!\!m}$ is the collapse deflection, and

$$q_{cr} = \frac{k_{1}k_{3}\epsilon_{u}}{\epsilon_{u} + \epsilon_{y}}$$
(50)

$$q' = \frac{pf_{y} - p'f'_{y}}{f'_{c}}$$
(51)

The quantity ϵ_u is the crushing strain in the concrete, and $k_1 k_3$ relates the compressive strength of the concrete in the beam to that measured by the control cylinders. Assuming $\epsilon_u = 0.004$, $k_1 k_3 = 0.85$, and $\epsilon_y = f_y/30 \times 10^3$,

$$q_{cr} = \frac{102}{120 + f_{v}}$$
 (52)

where f_y is in ksi.

If it is assumed further that the gain in strength under dynamic loading is the same for the concrete and for the steel, then the values of q^{2} (Eq. 51) would be the same for both static and dynamic loadings.

The values of q_{cr} , computed according to Eq. 52 and using f_{yd} in place of f_y , are listed in Table 16 and designated q_{crd} . In the next column of this table, the ductility factor computed according to Eq. 49 is given. The collapse deflection, designated Δ_{md} , is the dynamic yield deflection multiplied by the ductility factor. The slope of the initial portion of the curve, $k_{ld} = Q_{yd}/\Delta_{yd}$, is given in the last column of Table 16.

12.1.4 Direct Computation of Collapse Deflection

Instead of computing collapse deflection as the product of yield deflection and ductility, as is done in Section 12.1.3, it is possible and perhaps more desirable to make the computation directly, utilizing fundamental properties of the beams. From the equations in the Appendix of Ref. 29 it can be shown that

$$\Phi_{\rm m} = \frac{k_{\rm l} k_{\rm j} \varepsilon_{\rm u}}{q' d} \tag{53}$$

where $\Phi_{\rm m}$ is the curvature at midspan at crushing of the concrete. If it is again assumed, as in Section 12.1.2, that curvature varies as the moment, then substituting $\Phi_{\rm m}$ for $\Phi_{\rm c}$ and $\Delta_{\rm m}$ for $\Delta_{\rm c}$ into Eqs. 43 and 44 yields, for a = 1/3,

$$\Delta_{\rm m} = 0.1063 \, \Phi_{\rm m} {\rm L}^2$$
 (54)

and for a = 29/76,

$$\Delta_{\rm m} = 0.1007 \, \Phi_{\rm m} {\rm L}^2 \tag{55}$$

Replacing $\Phi_{\rm m}$ in Eqs. 54 and 55 by the expression in Eq. 53 one obtains for a = 1/3,

$$\Delta_{\rm m} = \frac{0.1063 \, k_1 k_3 \epsilon_u \, {\rm L}^2}{q^{\rm *d}} \tag{56}$$

and for a = 29/76,

$$\Delta_{\rm m} = \frac{0.1007 \, k_{\rm l} k_{\rm z} \epsilon_{\rm u} \, {\rm L}^2}{q^{\,\rm i} {\rm d}} \tag{57}$$

It is probable that the values of the terms k_1k_2 , ϵ_u , and q' are all influenced by rapid loading. However, the scatter in the values of the terms k_1k_2 and ϵ_u for static loading only, presented in the literature of research in reinforced concrete (23), hardly warrants an attempt to differentiate between static and dynamic values of these parameters. With regard to q' it may again be assumed, as in Section 12.1.3, that the values would be the same for both static and dynamic loadings. In view of the discussion in Section 11.2 regarding the unimportant differences between measured static and dynamic collapse deflections it does not appear to be unreasonable to use Eqs. 56 and 57 for both static and dynamic loading conditions. Further simplification can be achieved by substituting 0.1 for the values 0.1063 and 0.1007 in Eqs. 56 and 57. Then, assuming $k_{13} = 0.85$ and $\epsilon_{u} = 0.004$, Eqs. 56 and 57 reduce to

$$\Delta_{\rm m} = \frac{3.4}{10^4} \frac{{\rm L}^2}{{\rm q}^{\,\rm i}{\rm d}} \tag{58}$$

The values of $\Delta_{\rm m}$ computed by Eq. 58, using values of q' from Table 5, are given in Table 17 for all the beams tested. It must be remembered, however, that Eq. 58 is valid only for flexural failures. (These computed values of $\Delta_{\rm m}$ are different from those in Table 16 because Eq. 58 does not involve the effect of strain rate on the strength of the materials in the beams.) Also given in Table 17 are the measured values of $\Delta_{\rm m}$ and the ratio of computed to measured values. These ratios will be discussed in Section 12.2. Other information is repeated in Table 17 for convenience.

12.2 Comparison with Analog Computer Solutions

In Table 18 the values of the resistance parameters obtained using the analog computer (A.C.) and those computed from strain rates (Str.) according to Section 12.1 are listed in adjacent columns. Also given are the ratios of the computed values to those obtained from the analog computer analysis.

With regard to the dynamic yield level, Q_{yd} , the value based on strain rate is always higher than the value from the analog solution. This consistent error could be due to a misinterpretation of the strain-time curves, a misapplication of the curve in Fig. 38, neglect of the influence of the concrete strength on the yield capacity, neglect of a possible shift in the neutral axis at yielding due to dynamic loading, and perhaps to other unknown factors. In any case, the scheme used in Section 12.1 to compute Q_{vd} is slightly but consistently on the unsafe side. Probably the easiest way to correc this discrepancy is to shift the curve shown in Fig. 38 so that it yields values of dynamic yield strength of steel about ten percent smaller.

The yield deflections determined from strain rates are in general agreement with those determined with the analog computer except for Beams 4al and 5a2, although they are consistently too low for the short beams. In Ref. 21, the static yield deflections are given for beams having the same span and overall dimensions as those of Series 2, 3 and 4 and loaded at the third-points. Computations for the yield deflections of these beams using the procedure described in Section 12.1.2, which is identical with the procedure of Ref. 21, gave values that averaged 22 percent below the measured values for the beams of Ref. 21 reinforced only in tension, and 29 percent below the measured values for the beams reinforced in both tension and compression. The range of error was 4 to 56 percent. The average of the errors 9 percent. However, if the values of f_{vd} used in the computation are actually 10 percent too high, as is indicated above for the computation of Q_{vd} , then the error in Δ_{vd} due to the method of computation, disregarding the influence of material strengths, is actually of the order of 20 percent, which is in agreement with the results of Ref. 18. No explanation can be offered for this discrepancy, especially since the computation assumes a fully cracked section throughout the length of the beam, which should result, it would seem, in the highest values of \bigtriangleup_{v} computable using a "straight-line" procedure.

Gaston (Ref. 21) attempts to explain this discrepancy by questioning the use of his measured values of E_c , which were what might be called initial tangent moduli, and questioning the measured value of yield deflection. He

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explains that the load was applied in distinct increments and the yield deflection could have been consistently over-estimated since deflection readings were taken at the end of an increment while yielding may have occurred during the load increment.

Regarding the use of the initial tangent value of E_{c} , if one inspects Eq. 39 in Section 12.1.2 it appears that E has a direct effect on Δ . However, this is true only for homogeneous cross-sections. It can be shown that the computation of the transformed moment of inertia of reinforced concrete beams also involves the use of the value of E_c , as does the computed value of yield capacity. These effects tend to cancel each other. A more direct method of determining the effect of E_c on the value of the yield deflection is to consider Eqs. 43, 45, and 47. In these equations it can be seen that E_c is involved only in the computation of k' and cannot possibly have enough influence to change the values of Φ_y by 15-20 percent. Changes in E_c of as much as 500,000 psi change k' by only 0.02. The explanation regarding the use of load increments and the influence of this procedure on the measured values of yield deflection may be valid. The data of the tests herein described were continuously recorded, and the errors in computed values appear to be of a somewhat smaller magnitude.

The fact that the computed values of yield deflection for the longer beams are in slightly better agreement with "measured" values (those determined from the analog computer solution) suggests some effect of span length or load distribution. This could take the form of shear deflection, which would be more important in the short span beams; distribution of yield strain in the tension reinforcement, which extends over a relatively greater portion of the span in the short beams; and other unknown factors.

Examining the expression for \triangle_c , Eq. 43, and that for Φ_y , Eq. 45, it is seen that \triangle_c could be increased if, for the short beams, the constant

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0.1063 were increased, ϵ_y were increased, or k' were increased. However, it is not expected, in general, that k' will vary a great deal. In fact, it is quite close to 0.4 for a range of normal values of p, p', and E_c . In addition, any increase in ϵ_y is a correction in the wrong direction so far as Q_{yd} is concerned, as explained above. The only quantity remaining is the constant 0.1063. A change in this value can be justified on the grounds that the distribution of curvature in a reinforced concrete beam does not vary as the moment, as was assumed in deriving Eq. 42. The value of the constant would have to be approximately 0.125 to give computed values of Δ_{yd} in general agreement with the measured values if ϵ_y were decreased the amount necessary to provide agreement also between measured and computed values of Q_{yd} .

The next values compared in Table 18 are those of $\Delta_{\rm md}/\Delta_{\rm yd}$, the dynamic ductility. Only four comparisons are made because collapse occurred in only these four instances, as noted in Table 18. In the other cases, a static test or other dynamic blows followed those reported. No computations are shown in Table 18 for these additional tests because the strain gages were destroyed.

Except for Beam 2b2, the computed values of ductility based on strain rates are too high. One probable cause is the use of too high a value of ϵ_u in the computation of q_{crd} . If $\epsilon_u = 0.003$ were used instead of 0.004, the value of q_{crd} , and therefore Δ_{md}/Δ_{yd} , would be reduced 12 percent for $f_{yd} = 60$ ksi. Another possible source of error is the use of the static value of q° (or q) which may be too low. It may be that the increase in strength of the concrete is not as great as that of the reinforcement, in which case the value of q should be increased. At least, the curves in Fig. 38 indicate that for the same strain rate the concrete does not increase in strength as much as the steel. By a combination of the errors discussed in this section for the computed values of \triangle_{yd} and $\triangle_{md} / \triangle_{yd}$, the computed values of \triangle_{md} compare remarkably well with the measured values given in Table 18. This is a fortuitous circumstance and is not to be taken as confirmation of the procedure for computing \triangle_{md} as the product of \triangle_{yd} and the ductility factor.

In Table 17, values are given for measured and computed collapse deflection where the computed values were determined according to Section 12.1.4. Comparisons are made only for beams which failed in flexure. In general, the computed values are too low, sometimes strikingly so. The primary reason is that Eq. 58 assumes collapse to occur when the concrete crushes. It has been pointed out in various places in Sections 10.4 and 10.5 that this was often not the case. In many instances crushing was detected visually and by the strain gages before collapse occurred. This was especially true of the beams of Series 3 which had compression reinforcement. Nevertheless, in spite of the apparently better agreement between measured and computed values of \triangle_{md} achieved by multiplying the yield deflection by the ductility, it is believed that the additional deformation capacity which may be available after crushing of the concrete should not be relied on injdesign and that a conservative approach to the computation of collapse indicates the use of the procedure of Section 12.1.4; that is, a direct computation of Δ_{md} based on the assumption that collapse occurs when the concrete crushes.

Since k_{ld} was computed from Q_{yd}/Δ_{yd} , any errors in these latter terms will be reflected in the former. In general, the computed values of k_{ld} are too high. This is simply a result of too high values of Q_{yd} in combination with too low values of Δ_{yd} . Of course, the use of too high a value of k_{ld} is unsafe since it would yield too low a value of computed response, but it is felt that greater effort should be expended toward the

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development of more accurate methods of computing Q_{yd} and Δ_{yd} , if possible, and that the value of k_{1d} should then be allowed to fall where it may.

Several of the comparisons made in Tables 17 and 18 are shown graphically in Fig. 39. The resistance function from the analog computer solution has been taken as the "measured" resistance. The measured values of Q and \triangle have been expressed as proportions of the measured values of ${\tt Q}_{vd}$ and ${\scriptstyle \bigtriangleup_{vd}}$. This results in a single "measured" resistance function up to yield, having coordinates $Q_{yd} = 1$ and $\Delta_{yd} = 1$. In the inelastic range, the values of collapse deflection $\Delta_{\rm md},$ are also expressed as ratios of the value at yield, Δ_{vd} ; thus the abscissas of the points representing collapse correspond to the "measured" ductility. The ordinates are of course constant at Q = 1. Using this representation of the measured values as a base, the resistance functions computed from strain rates are shown in Fig. 39 as dashed lines. These curves were also obtained by expressing the computed resistance as a proportion of the measured value of ${\rm Q}_{\rm yd}$ and the computed deflections both at yield, ${\boldsymbol{\Delta}}_{vd},$ and at collapse, ${\boldsymbol{\Delta}}_{md},$ as proportions of the measured value of Δ_{vd} . The four comparisons made are for those beams listed in Table 18 which experienced collapse under the first blow and which, incidentally, generally represent the widest range of variation between computed and measured values.

12.3 Discussion of Usefulness

A question may be raised regarding the usefulness in design of the information presented in Sections 12.1 and 12.2, since the strain rates are not known prior to a test or at the design stage. However, with the use of an analog computer or a numerical method of computation such as the Newmark β Method (30), it is possible to compute the response of a beam to

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an applied impulsive load. It is then necessary only to relate this response to the strain rate.

From Section 12.1.2 it is seen that the deflection at midspan is

$$\Delta_{c} = H\Phi_{c}L^{2}$$
(59)

where H is a constant depending on the loading. For third-point loading, H = 0.1063; for two-point loading with a = 29/76, H = 0.1007; for midspan loading, H = 0.0833; for uniform loading, H = 0.1042. Substituting,

$$\Phi_{\rm c} = \frac{\epsilon_{\rm c}}{(1-k^{\,\prime})d} \tag{60}$$

Eq. 59 becomes

$$\Delta_{c} = HL^{2} \epsilon_{c} / (1-k^{2}) d$$
(61)

Taking the derivative with respect to time of both sides of Eq. 61

$$\dot{\Delta}_{c} = HL^{2} \dot{\epsilon}_{c} / (1-k') d \qquad (62)$$

where $\dot{\Delta}_{c}$ is the deflection rate, or velocity; and rearranging,

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{c} = \dot{\Delta}_{c} (1-k^{\circ})d/HL^{2}$$
(63)

Values of Δ_c , taken from the measured responses in Figs. A35-A72 at the point at which yielding occurred as determined by the analog computer for those beams for which $\dot{\epsilon}_c$ was measured, are given in Table 19. The values of $\dot{\epsilon}_c$, computed from Eq. 63 using the value of k¹ computed as in Section 12.1.2 and the appropriate values of H and L², are also given. In the next column the values of $\dot{\epsilon}$ taken from the strain vs. time plots are given. There are some glaring differences between measured and computed values. However, the important consideration is the effect of strain rate on the

yield strength of the steel. In the last two columns of Table 19, the increases in yield strength as determined from Fig. 38 are given for both the measured and computed values of $\dot{\epsilon}_c$. In only one case, Beam 7a2, Blow 4, is the difference more than five percent. It can be concluded, therefore, that the use of strain rate determinations is feasible as one step in the design and analysis of beams subjected to blast loadings. In summary, the design procedure might follow these steps:

(1) Select a beam cross-section. This would be the result of experience, judgment, previous designs, etc.

(2) Assume an increase in yield strength due to dynamic loading and compute the pertinent properties of the beam, such as Q_{yd} , Δ_{yd} , k_{ld} , Δ_{md} , T, etc.

(3) Compute the response to a predetermined dynamic loading, using some iterative procedure, or an analog computer.

(4) Scale off the velocity at yield.

(5) Compute the strain rate in the tension reinforcement.

(6) Check the value of f_y/f_y assumed in Step 2 using a relation such as that shown in Fig. 38.

(7) If the assumed and computed values of f_{yd}/f_y do not check, then return to Step 2 with the new value of f_{yd}/f_y . If they do check, then it must be decided whether the maximum response of the selected cross-section is acceptable. If so, the problem is finished. If not, then the crosssection assumed in Step 1 must be changed and the process gone through again.

This is not presented as the only way to accomplish a design of reinforced concrete under impulsive loads, nor is it necessarily the most efficient way. Of course, the errors between measured and computed values discussed in Section 12.2 must be handled in some manner, perhaps by arbitrary

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coefficients applied to the dynamic yield strength as previously suggested. Also, it must be realized that the process of computing strain rates from velocity involves the assumption that the strain varies directly as the moment. This can be far from the truth in a cracked reinforced concrete beam, and the only saving factor is the relatively small, though important, change in influence that strain rate has on f_{yd}/f_{y} within the range of rates that occurred in these tests. It is felt that this will also cause the trial and error process of Steps 2-6 to converge to compatible values of ϵ_{c}^{c} and f_{yd}/f_{y} rather quickly.

XIII PREDICTED BEHAVIOR USING PRESENT O.C.E. METHOD

13.1 Method of Calculation

The current edition of <u>Design of Structures to Resist the Effects</u> of Atomic Weapons, (20) contains information and examples regarding the behavior and design of reinforced concrete beams subjected to rapid loading. Several equations and methods presented therein have been used to predict the resistance, response, reactions and mode of failure of some of the beams described in this report. Only those beams are considered which had strain gages on the steel permitting strain rates to be determined, which in turn defined the dynamic properties of the materials.

13.1.1 Material Properties

Before considering the particular methods and equations it is necessary to define the procedures used to determine the properties of the steel and concrete which are required by the equations.

It is explained in Section 12.1.1 how the dynamic yield strength of the tension steel was determined. These yield strengths are retabulated in Col. 1 of Table 20 for convenience. The yield strengths of the compression steel were similarly computed, which assumes that the compressive strength of the steel is affected by dynamic loading in the same manner as the tensile strength. The values are tabulated in Col. 2 of Table 20. For Beams 3b2 and 6al, where the strain gages indicated that yielding did not take place, the values tabulated are the maximum measured strains multiplied by 30,000 ksi. Since no measurements were made of strains in the web reinforcing, the static yield strengths given in Table 4 will be used. The pertinent quantities are retabulated in Col. 3 of Table 20.

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The values of dynamic concrete strength to be used were determined on the basis of the strain rates tabulated in Table 9. These strain rates were used with Fig. 38 to determine the percent increase in concrete strength. The strain rates and percent increase, expresses as a ratio of dynamic to static strength, are tabulated in Cols. 4 and 5 of Table 20. In several instances there are values in Table 20 where there were none in Table 9 because no crushing was detected. In these cases the concrete strain rate values in Table 20 represents an estimate of the strain rate exhibited by the major portion of the concrete strain versus time curves. The corresponding dynamic strengths are tabulated in Col. 6. For Beams 2al, 4al, and 4a2, where there were no gages on the concrete to record strain, the increase in compressive strength of the concrete was estimated by comparison of the behavior of the beams in question with that of similar beams, namely Beams 2b2 and 4c2. The estimate was arrived at by increasing the values of the ratio of f'_{cd}/f'_c for Beams 2al, 4al, and 4a2 over the values for Beams 2b2 and 4c2 as much as the values of f_{vd}/f_v were greater for Beams 2al, 4al, and 4a2 than for Beams 2b2 and 4c2. The other property of the concrete required by the equations is the modulus of elasticity. The values used are those tabulated in Table $\frac{1}{4}$ which were determined from tests of 6 x 12-in. cylinders and represent the tangent modulus. The pertinent values are repeated in Table 20 for convenience.

13.1.2 Equations for Capacity

In Ref. 20 the following equation is given as the plastic resisting moment, in bending only, under dynamic loading (Eq. 4-18), Equation 64 assumes

$$M_{\rm P} = A_{\rm s}^{\,\prime} f_{\rm yd}^{\,} d^{\,\prime} + (A_{\rm s}^{\,}-A_{\rm s}^{\,\prime}) f_{\rm yd}^{\,} d \left[1 - \frac{(A_{\rm s}^{\,}-A_{\rm s}^{\,\prime}) f_{\rm yd}^{\,}}{1.7 f_{\rm cd}^{\,\prime} b d} \right]$$
(64)

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that the dynamic yield strengths of the tension and compression reinforcing are the same. In order to consider different values for these strengths Eq. 64 was modified as follows,

$$M_{P} = A_{s}^{i} f_{yd}^{i} d^{i} + (A_{s} f_{yd}^{-}A_{s}^{i} f_{yd}^{i}) d \left[1 - \frac{(A_{s} f_{yd}^{-}A_{s}^{i} f_{yd}^{i})}{1.7 f_{cd}^{i} b d} \right]$$
(65)

For $A_s^{?} = 0$, Eq. 65 reduces to

$$M_{\mathbf{P}} = A_{\mathbf{s}} \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{yd}} \mathbf{d} \left[1 - \frac{A_{\mathbf{s}} \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{yd}}}{1.7 \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{cd}}^{\dagger} \mathbf{bd}} \right]$$
(66)

For the purposes of comparison with measured values is it more convenient to express the resistance in terms of a force. Thus, the following conversion must be made:

For the short beams (shear span = 36 in.)

$$Q_{yd} = M_{P}/18$$
 (67a)

For the long beams (shear span = 58 in.)

$$Q_{yd} = M_{P}/29 \tag{67b}$$

The computed yield capacities of the test beams according to Eqs. 65 and 67, using the material properties of Table 20, are tabulated in Col. 1 of Table 21.

In Ref. 20 the following statement is made in regard to shear, ".... beams should be designed so that the nominal shear stress calculated by equation (4.23) does not exceed the values obtained by equations (4.24a) and (4.24b)." With some minor changes in notation, the equations are:

$$v = \frac{8v}{7bd}$$
 (4.23) (68)

For beams with web reinforcement:

$$v_{y} = 0.04 f_{c}^{\circ} + 5000 p + rf_{w}$$
 (4.24a) (69a)

For beams with no web reinforcement:

$$v_y = 0.04 f_c^{\dagger} + 5000 p$$
 (4.24b) (69b)

In Col. 2 of Table 21 the values of \underline{v} according to Eq. 68 are tabulated using $Q_{yd}/2 = V$. In Col. 3 of Table 21 the values of v_y according to Eq. 69 are tabulated using the static concrete strength for f_c^{i} , as recommended in Ref. 20. In Col. 4 of Table 21, the symbol "S" represents the cases for which $v > v_y$; that is, for which shear governed the design. The symbol "F" corresponds to $v < v_y$; that is, flexure governs the design.

13.1.3 Equations for Deformation

In Ref. 20 it is recommended that the deflection at yield be computed using an elastic method involving the "theoretical load causing plastic deflection," (Q_{yd}), the initial tangent modulus for the concrete, (E_c), and a moment of inertia, I_a , equal to the average of the gross (I_g) and transformed (I_+) values (Eq. 4.25). Thus, from Eq. 39,

$$\Delta_{yd} = \frac{Q_{yd} = L^3 (3 - 4a^2)}{48 E_c I}$$
(70)

where

$$I_{a} = \frac{I_{g} + I_{t}}{2}$$
 (4.25) (71)

For a rectangular section, $I_g = bh^3/12$. For the beams of this program $I_g = 864 \text{ in.}^4$. The transformed moment of inertia depends on the properties of the cross-section and is given by

$$I_{t} = b (k'd)^{3}/3 + pn bd^{3}(1-k')^{2} + p'(n-1)bd^{3} (k'+k''-1)^{2}$$
(72)

(See Ref. 21, Eq. 34). The value of k° is given by Eq. 47 of this report. The values of Δ_{yd} determined from Eqs. 70, 71, 72, and 47, and using values of E_ from Table 20, are given in Col. 5 of Table 21.

In Ref. 20 it is explained that the ductility can be estimated, with some changes in notation, as

$$\frac{\Delta_{\text{md}}}{\Delta_{\text{vd}}} = \frac{0.1}{p-p}, \quad (4.17) \quad (73)$$

The values of $\Delta_{\rm md}$ determined from Eq. 73 are tabulated in Col. 6 of Table 21, using the values of $\Delta_{\rm vd}$ from Col. 5.

Also tabulated in Table 21 are the computed initial slope, k_{ld} , equal to Q_{yd}/Δ_{yd} , and the computed period, T, from Eq. 35. These values are needed in the computation of the response, discussed below.

13.1.4 Computation of Response

The quantities Q_{yd} , Δ_{yd} , and Δ_{md} , as given in Table 21, define the dynamic resistance of the beams being considered, according to Ref. 20. These quantities are plotted in certain of Figs. A96-A133 as a series of crosses and are identified as OCE-Q. The small circle which appears on the initial slope in several of the plots (See Fig. A105) represents the point where $v = v_y$, and, thus, where failure in shear could be expected if the methods of determining v and v_y were without error.

These resistance diagrams were subjected to the actual measured load pulses and the response determined on an analog computer. The equipment used was the same as that described in Section 11.1.4. The procedure was

straight-forward since a resistance was now given and the response could be determined in one run on the computer. The responses thus determined are plotted as dashes in certain of Figs. A35-A72 and identified as OCE. The plots are terminated at the measured collapse deflection in those cases where collapse occurred in the test.

13.1.5 Computation of Reactions

In Table 6.1A of Ref. 20, two equations are given, depending on the range of behavior, for the computation of the dynamic reactions for a simply-supported beam loaded at the third-points. These equations are, with some modification of notation:

In the elastic range,

$$R = 0.62 Q - 0.12 P$$
 (74a)

and in the plastic range,

$$R = 0.75 Q_{vd} - 0.25 P$$
 (74b)

The sum of the two reactions for a simply-supported beam would then be: In the elastic range,

$$\Sigma R = 1.24 Q = 0.24 P$$
 (75a)

and in the plastic range,

$$ER = 1.50 Q_{vd} - 0.50 P$$
 (75b)

In Figs. A96-All6the sum of the reactions computed according to Eq. 75, for the short-span beams, are plotted as dashed lines and identified as OCE-R. The actual values of load were used for P at each point of time. The resistance functions used for Q were those determined on the analog computer (See Section 11.1) and identified as Q in Figs. A96-All6. The resistance functions determined above in this chapter were not used because it was felt that those determined on the computer better represented the behavior of the beams tested. There were no determinations of ΣR made for the long-span beams as they were not loaded at the third-points and, consequently, Eq. 75 would not be valid.

13.2 Comparison of Measured and Computed Resistance and Behavior

13.2.1 Resistance and Mode of Failure

Table 22 contains values of the resistance parameters and an indication of the mode of failure as determined directly from the tests or on the analog computer (measured) and as determined above in Section 13.1 (computed). Several of the comparisons to be discussed are graphically illustrated by the pertinent figures among Figs. A96-A133.

First considering the dynamic yield level, Q_{vd} , the values computed according to Section 13.1 are generally somewhat higher than those determined with the analog computer, though the discrepancy here is not as great as that noted in Section 12.2 where the analog computer values are compared with those determined from measured strain rates. Several possible reasons are given in Section 12.2 for the high computed values of Q_{vd} as well as a method of correcting for this tendency. It is noted that the OCE values of Δ_{vd} given in Table 22 are always less than those determined by the computer. This should be expected since Δ_{vd} was determined by dividing the yield load by k_{ld} . Because k_{ld} is nonlinear, the OCE manual evaluates it by deflection equations using the average of the gross and cracked section moments of inertia. Better results will be obtained by the OCE method if the average moment of inertia is used for design purposes where beams are subjected to loads that vary with time, since k_{ld} is large prior to cracking but decreases rapidly after crack formation. However, it appears that, if desired, the actual value Δ_{vd} could be more accurately predicted when k is determined by use of the moment of inertia of the cracked section. This is compatible with relationships shown in Fig. 421, EM 1110-345-414.

In Table 22 the tabulated values of measured \triangle_{md} are actual test values. Comparing them with the computed values indicates that the computed values are low in most cases and high in others. (No values are shown for

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Beam 5b⁴ as $\Delta_{\rm md}$ has no meaning for a beam failing in shear. However, a value is shown for Beam 6b2 as the failure in this case was nearly balanced between shear and flexure and the analog computer determination of the resistance has an inelastic portion.) Since $\Delta_{\rm md}$ as computed in Section 13.1 involves the computation of $\Delta_{\rm yd}$ it is difficult to tell whether the discrepancy between measured and computed values of $\Delta_{\rm md}$ is due to errors in the calculation of $\Delta_{\rm yd}$ or to some mistake in Eq. 73. The results of using measured values of $\Delta_{\rm yd}$ in Eq. 73 in order to compute $\Delta_{\rm md}$ are also shown in Table 22. There does not seem to be any improvement in the ratio of computed to measured values; in fact, the computed values are now generally unsafe.

In several instances the design by the OCE method was governed by shear whereas failure actually occurred in flexure. This is desirable and would be expected if the method used provides a higher factor of safety in shear than in flexure, as it presumably does. However, in one case, Beam 6b2, shear did not govern the design by the OCE method although failure actually occurred in shear. This is unexpected and deserves further scrutiny. First, though the predicted capacity of Beam 6b2 for failure in shear computed from Eq. 68 with $v = v_v$, is 44.0 kips, using the concrete strength from Table 4, inspection of Fig. 31 leads to the observation that distress in bond and initiation of inclined tension cracking occurred in the lower half of the beam. The strength of the concrete in this section of the beam was 2.32 ksi (not reported elsewhere). Recomputing the capacity in shear using this value of f_c^{i} , instead of 4.44 ksi as given in Table 4, yields a value for v of 334 psi. Comparing this value with the value of v given in Table 20 for this beam, the conclusion would be that failure could have occurred in either flexure or shear. Second, the behavior of Beam 6b2 under the dynamic loading was such that the resistance diagram used with the analog computer had to have an inelastic

portion in order to match the measured response. Thus, though the crack pattern for this beam is unmistakeably that for a shear failure, the beam did exhibit considerably more ductility than is normally associated with such behavior. It is felt therefore, that one may safely conclude that the error on the part of the OCE method in predicting the governing design condition for this case is not serious.

13.2.2 Response

The measured responses indicated by Δ , and the responses computed. using the OCE resistances, indicated by OCE, may be compared by inspecting the pertinent figures among Figs. A35-A72. The differences between the measured and computed curves may be related in every instance to differences in the measured (by the analog computer) and computed resistance diagrams. Where the computed response is too small the computed values of Q and/or k_{ld} are vd too large. A comparatively small computed response with a period similar to that of the measured response is associated with a too high computed value of Q, whereas a too high value of k_{ld}, resulting from low computed values of $riangle_{
m vd}$, is associated with both a small response and a comparatively small period. The differences in the times of initiation between measured and computed response are unimportant as they are due to differences in establishing zero times on the test records. For example, the OCE curve in Fig. A59 may be shifted 5 msec. to the right to give a better comparison between measured and computed curves. This shift had already been taken into account in the curve plotted by the computer (ACR).

13.2.3 Reactions

The measured and computed reactions can best be compared by referring to Figs. A96-All6. In eight of the nineteen cases where comparisons can be made the computed curves exhibit strong peaks or dips in a direction opposite

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to that exhibited by the measured curves. In nine of the cases the computed curves are much too high in the inelastic range of behavior, while in eight of the cases the computed curves tend to increase in value in the inelastic range of behavior while the measured curves generally decrease in value in this range. In only three cases can the computed curves be said to approximate the measured curves reasonably well.

XIV SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS - PART B

The object of this investigation was to obtain information on the strength and behavior of reinforced concrete beams subjected to rapid loading. To this end, 33 beams of various strengths, 6 by 12-in. in cross-section and 9 ft or 12 ft-8 in. in span, were tested under static and dynamic loads, using a pneumatic loading device. The results are presented in the form of graphs, tables, and photographs and are interpreted by means of comparisons between static and dynamic properties, and in terms of the effects of several of the variables on the behavior of the test beams. An analytical procedure for the determination of the dynamic resistance of reinforced concrete beams is proposed which involves the use of deflection rates at yield and their correlation with changes in material strengths.

As a consequence of the study, interpretation, and analysis of the test results presented in this report, several conclusions can be drawn regarding the resistance and behavior of reinforced concrete beams subjected to rapid loading. Before enumerating these conclusions the limited scope of the tests should be brought to mind. Limitations on the scope include: the use of only one grade of reinforcement with one type of deformation pattern; one value each of width and depth of beam cross-section; one type of concrete aggregate; one general form of load-time relation; one type of load distribution; only two span lengths; only two percentages of tension reinforcement; and only one percentage of compression reinforcement; limited variation in percentage of web reinforcement; and only ten beams where computed and "measure" values could be compared. Within the bounds of these limitations, the conclusions and findings presented below are relieved to be valid.

With regard to the dynamic resistance of reinforced concrete beams, the level of yield resistance was increased over the static level in direct

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proportion to the increase in strength of the tensile reinforcement. In most cases, the yield deflection and elastic slope also increased with respect to the values for beams loaded statically. Generally, a large increase in yield deflection was accompanied by a decrease in elastic slope, and vice versa. The dynamic resistance level could be maintained through successive dynamic loadings; however, a decrease in elastic slope was generally exhibited with each successive loading. A small increase in capacity between the yield and collapse stages of reinforced concrete beams under two point loading, and the existence of damping, were recognized; nevertheless, it was possible to match the measured response of the beams tested using resistance diagrams with zero slope in the region beyond yield and neglecting damping. The computations involved the assumption that the behavior of the test beams could be adequately represented by a single-degree-of-freedom system, and the results of the analysis support the conclusion that this assumption is reasonable.

With regard to the collapse behavior of the beams tested, it was noted that crushing of the concrete in compression did not necessarily cause collapse. Values of collapse deflection computed for the assumption that crushing and collapse were coincident, were generally too low as compared to measured values, especially for beams reinforced in compression. Measured values of crushing strain in the concrete under dynamic loading were generally the same as those reported by others for static loading. However, a small but consistent increase in collapse deflection under dynamic loading was noted. The effects of the parameter q and of compression reinforcement on collapse deflection were the same under dynamic loading as under static loading; that is, the collapse deflection increased with the use of compression reinforcement and with lower values of q. The effect of tie configuration, however, was obscured by other factors. It appeared that successive blows had a tendency to increase the

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final collapse deflection of a beam tested statically to collapse. The appearance of comparable beams after collapse was generally the same whether they had been tested statically or dynamically, if the modes of failure were the same. No distinctive visual characteristic could be associated with a beam tested dynamically. The general effect of stirrups was to prevent shear failure, although no limiting value of web reinforcement was established.

An analytical procedure for determining the dynamic resistance of a reinforced concrete beam, based on the rate of deflection at yield, appears feasible. However, certain adjustments must be made in available data on the relation between strain rate and yield strength of reinforcing steel and in the method of computing yield deflection based on the "straight-line" theory. The analytical procedure requires the computation of the entire response curve of a beam subjected to dynamic loading, a task for which an analog computer has been found to be ideally suited.

The test results and the resistance functions determined with the analog computer are also compared with the results of computations based on the procedures and formulas of the Manual of the Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army, entitled "Design of Structures to Resist the Effects of Atomic Weapons" (20). In general, the computation for dynamic resistance level yielded adequate results, and the prediction of the mode of failure was quite accurate. However, computations for the yield deflection resulted in values that were too small, computations for the maximum deflection resulted in values that were too large, and computations for the reactions resulted in curves at wide variance with the measured curves.

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PART C RECOMMENDATIONS

XV RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DESIGN AND ANALYSIS

15.1 Introduction

In Parts A and B of this report tests of reinforcing bar coupons and reinforced concrete beams under dynamic loading have been described and interpreted. This material will be used below to support recommendations for the determination of the dynamic resistance of a reinforced concrete beam under two point (or uniform) load, for computing reactions, for estimating the effectiveness of web reinforcement in preventing shear failures under dynamic loading, and for determining the size and spacing of compression reinforcement ties. In those instances where the recommended equation or procedure has not already been compared with the test results reported in Parts A and B, such comparisons will be made below, provided they are feasible.

15.2 Dynamic Resistance

In Section 12.3 a design procedure is suggested for reinforced concrete beams under dynamic loading. This procedure will be repeated here with some changes reflecting the differences between some of the equations below and those considered previous to Section 12.3.

(1) Select a beam cross-section, based on judgment, experience, previous designs, etc.

(2) Assume an increase in yield strength of the longitudinal reinforcing steel and compute the pertinent properties of the beams, such as Q_{vd} , Δ_{vd} , Δ_{md} , k_{ld} , T, etc., according to the equations below.

(3) Compute the response to a predetermined dynamic loading, using some iterative procedure, or an analog computer.

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(4) Scale off the velocity at yield.

(5) Compute the strain rate in the tension reinforcement.

(6) Determine the increase in yield strength from Fig. 20 and check against the value assumed in Step 2.

(7) If the assumed and computed values of the increase in yield strength do not check, then return to Step 2 with the new value from Step 6. If they do check, then it must be decided whether the maximum response of the selected cross-section is acceptable. If so, the problem is finished. If not, then the cross-section assumed in Step 1 must be changed and the process gone through again.

15.2.1 Resistance Level

In order to compute the resistance level, Q_{yd} , called for in Step 2, it is necessary to compute the resisting moment. The value of Q is then a linear function of the moment, the function depending on the arrangement of loading. For the purpose of computing the dynamic resisting moment, the equation given as Eq. 4-18 in Ref. 20 is recommended, with the change that the static concrete strength be used. Equation 4-18 then becomes

$$M_{P} = A_{s}^{i} f_{yd} d^{i} + (A_{s} - A_{s}^{i}) f_{yd} d \left[1 - \frac{(A_{s} - A_{s}^{i})f_{yd}}{1.7 f_{c}^{i} b d} \right]$$
(76)

The effect of the concrete strength on the capacity of a reinforced concrete member is of secondary importance if the member is designed to fail by yielding of the steel. It seems unnecessary, therefore, to consider the possible slight increase in beam strength resulting from the effect of the dynamic loading on the plain concrete, especially since this effect is not well defined.

Table 23 contains the values of Q_{yd} computed using Eq. 76, in conjunction with the appropriate parts of Eq. 67, and the measured values

from Table 11, for those beams where valid comparisons could be made. (The values in Col. 1 were computed taking into consideration the difference in the yield strengths of the tension and compression reinforcement. However, for design purposes it is recommended that these strengths be considered the same.)

15.2.2 Yield Deflection

The following equation is recommended for the computation of dynamic yield deflection,

$$\Delta_{\rm yd} = \frac{\rm L^2}{\rm d} \, \frac{\epsilon_{\rm yd}}{\rm 5} \tag{77}$$

Equation 77 was derived by starting with Eq. 61 for the deflection at midspan,

$$\Delta_{c} = HL^{2} \epsilon_{c} / (1-k^{2})d$$
 (61)

and substituting H = 0.1, k' = 0.5 and $\epsilon_c = \epsilon_{yd}$. The substitution of 0.1 for H is quite reasonable in the light of the theoretical values given for this quantity in Section 12.3. The value of 0.5 for k' is an average between the straight line design "balanced" value of 0.4 and the value of 0.6 which is approximately the dividing point between compression and tension failures in flexure for materials of ordinary strength. The dynamic yield deflections computed according to Eq. 77, with $\epsilon_{yd} = f_{yd}/30 \times 10^6$ psi, and f_{yd} taken from computed strain rates based on the measured velocity at yield (Table 19), are compared with the measured values in Cols. 4, 5 and 6 of Table 23. The computed strain rates were used to evaluate f_{yd} instead of the rates taken from measured strains in order to follow more closely the suggested procedure at the beginning of this section. The strain rate is computed from the velocity by the use of Eq. 63, which is

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{c} = \dot{\Delta}_{c} (1-k') d/HL^{2}$$
(63)

It is recommended that Eq. 63 be simplified by substituting H = 0.1 and $k^2 = 0.5$, yielding

$$\dot{\epsilon}_{c} = 5\dot{\Delta}_{c} d/L^{2}$$
(78)

15.2.3 Maximum Deflection and Ductility Factor

It is recommended that the maximum deflection capacity be computed directly from the properties of the beam under consideration utilizing Eq. 58;

$$\Delta_{\rm md} = \Delta_{\rm m} = \frac{3.^{\rm l} \cdot {\rm L}^2}{10^4 \, {\rm q}^{\,\rm r} {\rm d}} \tag{58}$$

Note that the value of q' for use in Eq. 58 is computed using static strength values for both concrete and steel. Pertinent values from Table 17 where measured and computed maximum deflections are compared, are repeated in Table 23.

Though it is not recommended that the ductility factor be used as a design parameter, an expression for it can be obtained from the above expressions for $\Delta_{\rm vd}$ and $\Delta_{\rm md}$;

$$\frac{\Delta_{\text{md}}}{\Delta_{\text{yd}}} = \frac{3.4 \text{ L}^2}{10^4 \text{ q'd}} \frac{1}{\text{ L}^2} \frac{5}{\epsilon_{\text{yd}}} = \frac{17}{10^4 \text{ q'}\epsilon_{\text{yd}}}$$
(79)

15.3 Reactions

In fourteen of the nineteen cases illustrated by Figs. A96-All6 where comparisons can be drawn, the resistance of the beams tested, as determined with the analog computer, represents a better approximation of the sum of the measured reactions than does the computed sum of reactions according to Eq. 75. In the other five cases there is no decided preference. It is therefore recommended that the sum of the reactions be taken equal to the beam resistance, i.e.,

$$\Sigma R = Q_{vd}$$
(80)

or

$$R = Q_{yd}/2$$
 (81)

Equations 80 and 81 neglect the initial peak often exhibited by the reactions. Since the forces in the supports of a beam under dynamic loading are the loadings on the supports it is necessary to substantiate the safety of ignoring the initial peak. The effect of such a peak in the load-time function on the behavior of a dynamic system is investigated in Ref. 26, in which the peak is represented by a concentrated impulse. On the basis of the material contained therein, it is maintained that peaks of the magnitude of those measured in this program, in relation to the total magnitude of the reactions, will not have a significant effect on the behavior of the supporting structures.

15.4 Shear Reinforcement and Compression Reinforcement Ties

As illustrated in Table 22 and discussed in Section 13.2.1, the present procedure for determining the effect of web reinforcing given in Ref. 20 appears adequate. It is recommended that this procedure and the accompanying equations be retained pending further investigation and publication of results of shear failures in dynamically loaded beams of normal proportions. The spacings of the ties used in the beams reported in Part B were designed to comply with Section 706a of the 1956 Building Code of the American Concrete Institute (31). In none of the tests can premature collapse or loss of ductility be attributed to the failure of these tests to hold the compression steel in place. Lacking further evidence, it is therefore recommended that tie spacing be designed in compliance with Section 706a of Ref. 31 with the additional stipulation that the hooks for the ties be made in the tension zone of the beam.

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APPENDIX A

ANALOG COMPUTER CIRCUIT

The analog computer used on this program was a Heathkit Model ES 400, in conjunction with two Moseley Autograf Model 3 Two-axis Recorders, one modified as a curve follower. A schematic diagram of the computer connections is shown in Fig. 40.

The equation of the system under consideration can be written in words as

Inertia Force + Damping Force + Resistance = Applied Force or algebraically as

$$M\overset{\sim}{\bigtriangleup} + C\overset{\wedge}{\bigtriangleup} + Q(\bigtriangleup) = P \tag{A-1}$$

Rearranging,

$$M\mathring{\Delta} = P - C\mathring{\Delta} - Q(\Delta) \tag{A-2}$$

The computer elements shown in Fig. 40 can perform the following functions:



In other words, the triangular elements, symbols for operational amplifiers, can sum and/or integrate depending on whether the signal is fed back through a condenser or a resistor. The value of the "gain" for each input, shown as A and B, depends on the relative values of the input resistors and the feedback element. An operational amplifier will always change the sign of the signal in this model computer. The circular symbols are potentiometers, used to multiply the signal by a constant value less than one. The switches shown across each integrating amplifier in Fig. 40 are relay contacts, simultaneously activated, to discharge the condensers after each run of a problem. The diodes are used to pass a signal in one direction only. The abbreviation IC stands for "initial condition" and AUX POT stands for "auxiliary potentiometer."

Assuming, for the moment, that the output of amplifier 1 is the inertia, then potentiometer 3A is set for 1/M and its output is the acceleration. By integrating with amplifier 3, $-\Delta$ is obtained. Amplifier 4 changes the sign. Integrating again with amplifier 5, $-\Delta$ is obtained. Amplifier 6 is used to sum the various signals making up the resistance, thus its output is Q. This is fed back into amplifier 1.

Amplifier 2 is fed by the curve follower, which follows the load trace, and a constant signal, (the power supply IC 3), which cancels any output from amplifier 2 when the curve follower is set at zero load position on the graph. The output of amplifier 2 is then -P.

The output of amplifier 4 is also fed through potentiometer 9A back into amplifier 1 and, being proportional to the velocity, represents damping. The sum of the inputs into amplifier 1 represents the inertia. This completes the elastic system. Amplifiers 13, 8 and 11 introduce a change in slope into the resistance diagram while amplifier 10 introduces collapse. Both of these effects are achieved by feeding delayed voltages into amplifier 6 of a sign opposite to that coming from amplifier 5.

Amplifier 14 generates a signal varying linearly with time, and therefore represents time on the horizontal axes of the curve follower and plotter. Amplifiers 7 and 15 introduce sign changes so that oscilloscope display and plotting can be done in conventional directions. A connection from amplifier 2 to the plotter makes the curve follower and plotter in to a "master-slave" unit and it is thus possible to determine how well the load trace is tracked; imperfect tracking can be improved with a slower time base (control l4A decreased). Relay B permits plotting Q instead of time on the X-axis. With \triangle on the Y-axis resistance can be plotted immediately.

An oscilloscope is used for convenience in seeing any function at any time, or any function at any Q. The connections to the X-axis are from amplifiers 15 or 6. The Y-axis is connected to a switch on the computer allowing any amplifier output to be shown.

For detailed information on analog computer components and use, see Ref. 32.

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APPENDIX B

STATIC CAPACITY OF BEAMS 5al AND 5a2

There was no static test of a beam of the same configuration as Beams 5al and 5a2 which would permit the computation of the static resistance for these beams by the same procedure used for the other beams tested dynamically. Therefore, the static capacity of these beams was computed as follows.

The maximum moment resistance of a beam reinforced only in tension can be written

$$\frac{M_{m}}{bd^{2}f_{c}^{*}} = q(1 - \frac{1}{2}q) \qquad (B-1)$$

if the beam fails by yielding of the tension reinforcement. Whether the beam fails by yielding or experiences crushing of the concrete before yielding depends on the parameter q_{cr} which is derived in Section 12.1.3.

$$q_{\rm cr} = \frac{102}{120 + f_{\rm v}}$$
 (52)

where f_y is in ksi. If $q = pf_y/f_c^\circ < q_{cr}$ then the beam will yield first. If $q > q_{cr}$, the beam will experience crushing first. The capacity in the latter case can be estimated by substituting q_{cr} for q in Eq. B-1.

For Beam 5al:

$$p = 3.33\%, f_{y} = \frac{49.4}{2} \text{ ksi}, f_{c}^{\circ} = 2.30 \text{ ksi}, pf_{y}/f_{c}^{\circ} = 0.715, q_{cr} = 0.602$$

Therefore, $\frac{M_{m}}{bd^{2}f_{c}^{\circ}} = 0.602 (1 - 0.5 \times 0.602) = 0.421$
 $M_{m} = 0.421 \times 600 \times 2.30 = 581 \text{ in.-kips}$
 $M_{m}/29 \text{ in.} = 20.0 \text{ kips}$

Using the same initial slope as measured for Beam 5bl ($k_1 = 29.9 \text{ kips/in.}$)

$$\Delta_{y} = 20.0/29.9 = 0.67$$
 in.

For Beam 5a2: p = 3.33%, $f_y = 49.4$ ksi, $f'_c = 2.81$ ksi, $pf_y/f'_c = 0.585$, $q_{cr} = 0.602$ Therefore, $\frac{M_m}{bd^2 f'_c} = 0.585 (1 - 0.5 \times 0.585) = 0.414$ $M_m = 0.414 \times 600 \times 2.81 = 698$ in.-kips $M_m/29$ in. = 24.1 kips $\Delta_y = 24.1/29.9 = 0.81$ in.

APPENDIX C

NATURAL FREQUENCY FOR SMALL AMPLITUDES

In Section 10.2 it was explained that the natural frequencies of vibration of some of the beams were determined prior to testing. The results of these determinations are presented in Table 24. The term "simple support" refers to the beam in the frame and clamped to the reaction roller assemblies on a 9 ft span, center to center of reactions. The "free-free" condition refers to a scheme not mentioned in Section 10.2; that of having the beam outside the frame, supported at two points on the corners of pieces of 4-in. steel angle. The positions of support corresponded to the theoretical node points for an elastic bar vibrating in the first mode with free-free end conditions. These positions were determined from Ref. 33 and are 0.224 of the total length of the beam in from each end. For the short beams this was 26.9 in. and for the long beams 36.7 in. The notation "in frame" for Beam 3al means that this determination was made with the pieces of steel angle supported on the base rails of the testing frame rather than on the concrete floor as for the other determinations. The terms under "method" refer to the two procedures for inducing vibration described in Section 10.2.

Several things are to be noted in Table 24. Beam 2a2, which was preloaded before dynamic testing to the point where cracks reached the midheight of the beam, exhibited no difference in behavior under small amplitudes of vibration in the cracked and uncracked states. It is felt that the deflections associated with the period determination would have had to be perhaps 10 to 25 times greater before a difference would have been noticed.

Another interesting observation is the agreement of values for a particular span regardless of material characteristics, reinforcing arrangement, etc. In other words, it appears as though the beams behaved as solid

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masses of concrete irrespective of the reinforcing and that the major variable is the span, since all of these beams had the same height and width.

From Ref. 24, the fundamental frequency of an elastic, homogeneous bar vibrating laterally with simple supports is,

$$f_{s} = \frac{\pi}{2L^{2}} \sqrt{\frac{EIg}{A\gamma}}$$
(C-1)

and with free-free-supports,

$$f_{f} = \frac{22.37}{2\pi L^2} \sqrt{\frac{EIg}{A\gamma}}$$
(C-2)

where L = span E = modulus of elasticity I = moment of inertia g = acceleration of gravity A = area of cross-section of bar \gamma = density of material

Assuming $\frac{\text{EIg}}{\text{A }\gamma}$ constant for these beams, the ratio of frequencies for the two support conditions can be computed as follows:

For the short beams,

$$f_{s} = \frac{\pi}{2 \times (108)^{2}} \sqrt{EIg/A\gamma} = 1.348 \times 10^{-4} \sqrt{EIg/A\gamma}$$

$$f_{f} = \frac{22.37}{2\pi \times (120)^{2}} \sqrt{EIg/A\gamma} = 2.472 \times 10^{-4} \sqrt{EIg/A\gamma}$$

$$\frac{f_{s}}{f_{f}} = \frac{1.348}{2.472} = 0.545 \qquad (C-3)$$

For the long beams, using a simply supported span of 152 in. and a free-free span of 164 in., the ratio is

$$\frac{f}{f_{f}} = 0.514 \qquad (C-4)$$

For the short beams, the average frequency in the free-free condition was about 130 cps. This value multiplied by the ratio 0.545 is 71 cps which is somewhat higher than the values obtained using the simple support condition. For the long beams, the ratio 0.514 times the average free-free frequency of 67 cps yields 34.5 cps which agrees rather well with the average of the values obtained with simple supports.

The usefulness of these values of natural frequency obtained for very small amplitudes of vibration is open to question. It is felt that the importance of knowing the period of vibration of a beam lies in its relation to the stiffness of the beam, and stiffness is of interest only where it is considered over the entire elastic region of behavior, elastic here meaning range up to yielding.

Thus, stiffness can be measured only for larger deflections than those employed in these tests for natural frequency, and must surely be affected by the amount, strength, and arrangement of the steel reinforcement.

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TABLE la

SUMMARY OF UNIAXIAL STRESS TESTS AND RESULTS

NO. 6 BARS

Specimen	\$	Static :	Propert	ties			Dynami	c Proj	perties	
	σ _{sy}	P _{sy}	σ su	Es	Gages*	ts	ty	td	Ed	P _{dy}
and an and a state state and a state of the	ksi	kips	ksi	<u>ksi x 10</u>	3	mil	lisecond	.s	ksi x 10	kips
6-9	40.7	17.9	68.2	29.8	A	4.8	12.8	8.0	27.4	26.7
6-11	40.5	17.8	71.6		А	5.8	9.1	3.7	25.0	24.2
6-12	47.5	20.9	83.2		А	6	107	101	28.6	23.2
6-14	39.5	17.4	69.5		А	5.1	9.1	4.0	27.8	24.4
6-15	41.6	18.3	72.7		А	4.2	10.4	6.2	25.8	24.0
6-16	44.3	19.5	80.5	31.9	А	4 . 1	5.3	1.2	25.6	26.8
6-18	43.0	18.9	74.3		А	6.0	22.0	16.0	26.9	23.6
6-19	43.0	18.9	75.7	33.8	А	5.0	17.5	12.5	26.6	24.1
6-20	43.4	19.1	81.1		А	¥.l	5.5	1.4	26.4	27.2
6-22	43.8	19.3	77.5	35.6	А	12	77	65	25.8	20.0

All stresses are based on the nominal bar area, A .

* A = SR-4 strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen. B = SR-4 strain gages mounted 2 1/2 in. below the "A" gages.

TABLE 1b

SUMMARY OF UNIAXIAL STRESS TESTS AND RESULTS

NO. 7 BARS

Specimen		Static]	Proper	ties		concurrence.	Dynam	ic Prop	erties	
	σ _{sy}	P _{sy}	o su	Es	Gages*	ts	ty	t _a	E	P _{dy}
@#Dest@#editesControlmentaria	ksi	kips	ksi	ksi x l(₂ 3	mi	llisecon	nds k	si x 10 ³	kips
7-2	¥7.0	28.2	78.7		A B	17 17	454 354	437 337	27.9	30.0 30.2
<u>7-4</u>	48.1	28.8	81.0	29.4	А	15	620	605	29.2	30.6
7-6	48.9	29.3	81.8		А	5.6	22.6	17.0	28.3	37.4
7 - 9**	47.8	28.7	78.5		А	14.5	35.3	20.8	27.9	38.0
7-10**	48.3	29.0	80.3	30.5	A B	63.5 63.5	98.5 89.5	35 26	27.1	35.1 34.8
7-12	48.4	29.0	81.2		А	5.5	16.0	10.5	28.8	39.5
7-13	47.5	28.5	78.2	29.2	А	8	82	7 <u>1</u> 4	28.4	34.4
7-14	47.9	28.7	81.8		A	10.5	93.5	83	27.9	32.2
7-15	47.6	28.6	80.8		A B	6.5 6.5	44.5 39.5	38 33	28.4	35.0 35.0
7-17	¥7.5	28.5	82.2		A	8	85	77	28.0	33.5
7-18 **	46.8	28.1	81.2	30.8	A B	96 96	131 117	35 21	26.5	34.9 34.9
7-23**	47.2	28.3	80.0	32.6	A	99.0	107.5	8.5	27.1	37.7
7-24	47.3	28.4	83.2		A B	1013 1013	8179 2679	9166 3666	28.3	28.6 28.6
7-25	47.2	28.3	78 . 5		А	10.5	35.5	25.0	27.4	36.4

All stresses are based on the nominal bar area, A_0 .

* A = SR-4 strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen. B = SR-4 strain gages mounted 2 1/2 in. on centers below the "A" gages.

**Double load pulse test.

TABLE lc

SUMMARY OF UNIAXIAL STRESS TESTS AND RESULTS

NO. 9 BARS

Specimen	£	Static 1	Proper	ties	2 0	Constitutionaria	Dynam	ic Pro	perties	
	ďsy	P _{sy}	σ _{su}	Es	Gages*	ts	ty	t d	E _d	P _{dy}
6714520024++504000***Data79+494424000***	ksi	kips	ksi	ksi x l(2 ³	mi	lliseco:	nds	<u>ksi x 10³</u>	ksi
9-48	52.4	52 . 4	86.3		A	15	253	238	27.0	57.6
9-51-1					А	63	2146	2083	30.0	55.6
9-51-2	5 ⁴ .6	54.6	87.9		A B	31 31	777 227	746 196	29.8	55.9 55.8
9-51-3					А	19	349	330	29.0	57.8
9-51- ¹					А	5.2	8.5	3.3	26.2	66.3
9-61	44.5	44.5	75.5		A	16.5	43.5	27	28.5	58.2
9-69-1**					A	22.8	45.8	23	28.2	58.8
9-69-2	44.0	<u>ب</u> بر	78.9		A	13	75	62	27.5	50.1
9-69 - 3**					A.	24.5	58	33.5	28.5	56.0
9 - 69-4					A B	11 11	6393 3093	6382 3082	29.8	45.0 45.0

All stresses are based on the nominal bar area, A_0 .

* A = SR-4 strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen. B = SR-4 strain gages mounted 2 1/2 in. on centers below the "A" gages.

** Double load pulse tests.

GEOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF REINFORCING BARS*

Bar	Area,	sq. in.		Defe	ormations,	in.	
Size			* Spacing	*	Height		*** Gap
Closed Street Street Street	Nominal	Measured	Average	Minimum	Average	Maximum	Average
No.6	O • <u>)†</u> }†	0.51	0.33	.048	•050	•053	0.122
No. 7	0.60	0.60	0.37	.058	.061	•065	0.146
No. 9	1.00	0.99	0.54	.061	.062	.063	0 . 09 ¹

* Geometric properties are based on five bars of each size selected at random.

** The maximum and minimum varied within + .001 in.

*** The maximum and minimum varied within \pm .00⁴ in.

TABLE 3a

NO. 6 BARS

Specimen No.	Gage*	(1) P_dy-P P	(2) _{°e}	(3) ^ê e
etten 2010-tetten 1940-tette - state on tetter and state tetter tetter tetter tetter tetter tetter tetter tette	ور می ورد. مرابع از این	'sy percent	lb/in. ² /sec	in./in./sec
6-9	А	49.1	2.5 x 10 ⁶	9.2 x 10 ⁻²
6-11	А	35.8	3.9 x 10 ⁶	1.6 x 10 ⁻¹
6-12	А	11.0	5.2 x 10 ⁴	1.8 x 10 ⁻³
6-14	А	40.2	4.0 x 10 ⁶	1. ¹ x 10 ⁻¹
6-15	А	31.1	2.1 x 10 ⁶	8.1 x 10 ⁻²
6-16	A	37.4	1.4×10^{7}	5.4 x 10 ⁻¹
6-18	А	24.8	6.7 x 10 ⁵	2.5 x 10 ⁻²
6-19	A	27.5	9.5 x 10 ⁵	3.6 x 10 ⁻²
6-20	Α	¹ 42°4	1.3 x 10 ⁷	5.0 x 10 ⁻¹
6-22	A	3.6	2.5×10^{4}	9.4 x 10 ⁻¹⁴

* A = SR-4 strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen.

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS

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TABLE 3D

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS

NO. 7 BARS

Gran gran generation of Second generation and a second second generation of the second s	an ya ya an ya na kata kata an ya maja maja maja na ya	(1)	(2)	(3)
Specimen No.	Gage*	Pdy-Psy P	°e	e e
energiji o Danas		sy percent	lb/in. ² /sec	in./in./sec
7-2	A B	6.5 7.1	6.9 x 10 ³ 9.9 x 10 ³	2.5×10^{-4} 3.5 x 10 ⁻⁴
7-4	А	6.3	5.0×10^3	1.7 x 10 ⁻⁴
7-6	A	27.6	7.9 x 10 ⁵	2.8 x 10 ⁻²
7-9**	А	32.5	7.5 x 10 ⁵	2.7×10^{-2}
7-10**	A B	21.0 20.0	2.9 x 10 ⁵ 3.7 x 10 ⁵	1.1 x 10 ⁻² 1.4 x 10 ⁻²
7-12	А	36.2	1.7 x 10 ⁶	5.8 x 10 ⁻²
7-13	А	20.7	1.3 x 10 ⁵	4.7×10^{-3}
7-14	А	12.2	7.0×10^{4}	2.5 x 10 ⁻³
7-15	A B	22. ¹ 4 22. ¹ 4	2.8 x 10 ⁵ 3.2 x 10 ⁵	9.9 x 10 ⁻³ 1.1 x 10 ⁻²
7-17	А	17.5	1.1 x 10 ⁵	3.9 x 10 ⁻³
7-18**	A B	24.0 24.0	3.2 x 10 ⁵ 5.4 x 10 ⁵	1.2 x 10 ⁻² 2.0 x 10 ⁻²
7 - 23**	А	33.0	1.8 x 10 ⁶	6.8 x 10 ⁻²
7-24	A B	1.0 1.0	4.1 x 10 ¹ 1.3 x 10 ²	1.4×10^{-6} 4.4×10^{-6}
7-25	А	28.5	5.4 x 10 ⁵	2.0 x 10 ⁻²

* A = SR-4 strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen. B = SR-4 strain gages mounted 2 1/2 in. on centers below "A" gages.

** Double load pulse test.

TABLE 3c

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS

NO. 9 BARS

Specimen No.	Gages*	(1) Pdy-Psy	(2) ở _e	(3) ^é e
		'sy percent	lb/in. ² /sec	in./in./sec
9-48	А	10.0	2.2 x 10 ⁴	8.1 x 10 ⁻¹⁴
9-51-1	А	1.8	4.8×10^2	1.6 x 10 ⁻⁵
9-51-2	A B	2.4 2.2	1.7×10^{3} 6.1 x 10 ³	5.8 x 10 ⁻⁵ 2.1 x 10
9-51-3	А	6.0	9.7×10^3	3.3×10^{-4}
9-51-4	А	21.5	3.5 x 10 ⁶	l. ⁴ x 10 ⁻¹
9-61	А	30.5	5.1 x 10 ⁵	1.8 x 10 ⁻²
9-69-1**	А	33.5	6.4 x 10 ⁵	2.3 x 10 ⁻²
9-69-2	А	1 ⁾ .0	9.8 x 10 ⁴	3.6 x 10 ⁻³
9-69-3**	А	27.0	3.6 x 10 ⁵	1.3 x 10 ⁻²
9-69-4	A B	2.0 2.0	1.6 x 10 ¹ 3.3 x 10 ²	5.3 x 10 ⁻⁶ 1.1 x 10 ⁻⁵

* $A = SR^{-1}$ strain gages mounted midway between the ends of the specimen. $B = SR^{-1}$ strain gages mounted 2 1/2 in. on centers below the "A" gages.

** Double load pulse test.

PROPERTIES OF TWO-POINT LOADED BEAMS

All Beams: b = 6 in., h = 12 in., d = 10 in., d' = 8.5 in., Reinforcing steel - Intermediate Grade Load points - 18 in. each side of midspan Span: Series 2, 3, 4 - 108 in.; Series 5, 6, 7 - 152 in.

D		Reinfo	rcement		£	£١	£	£١	ъ	f	Туре	No. of	Age
Beam	Tens.	Comp.	Shear	Ties	Ţ.	ту Гу	[⊥] ₩	¹ c.	¹ C	¹ r	of	Blows	Days
					KSI	KS1	KSI	KSI	psi	psr	Test		
Cambrant Deserved and Cambra		auantaman an a	₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩₩		******			a magana gamagan agamagan gamagan ga			(1)	(2)	(ARC (WATHER AND THE COLUMN TO A
2al	2- # 9	C104 C94	#3@3 •75	65 67	49.1	C208 (845)	55.1	4.14	3.58	665	D	1 I	119
2a2	2- # 9	CANE CHO	#3@3°75	640 CH2	47.8	C0 46	50.2	3340	3.33	590	D*	1 I	38
2bl	2-#9	Cust and	#2@5.5	817 (763	49.0	647 (263	48.2	4.04	3.49	865	ន	640 CH3	108
2ъ2	2-#9	643 659	#2@5.5	102 440	47.9	00.00	44.4	3.06	3.30	- 385	D	lI	32
2b3	2-#9	€T.B (mg	#2@5.5	GB(132)	48.3	50 an)	49.8	3.60	3.33	560	D	lI	50
3al.	2-#9	2-#7	#3@4.25	#2@12	46.5	46.8	51.6	4.27	4.21	715	S	53 en	95
3a2	2-#9	2-#7	#304.25		46.5	47.2	52.4	3.25	3.82	790	DS	1 I	111
Jaz	2-#9	2-#7	#3@4.25	<i>#</i> 2@12	46.8	47.2	44.l	3.70	4.35	660	DS	1 I	76
3a4	2-#9	2-#7	#3@4.25	#2@12	46.1	47.3	44.1	3.31	3.86	560	DS*	l I	92
3a5	2-#9	2 -# 7	#3@4.25	#3@14	45.2	47.5	45.6	3.02	3.76	61.5	D	2**	86
3bl	2-#9	2-#7	#2@4.25	#2@12	41.0	47.0	43.6	4.09	4.44	540	S	(20) MIN	112
3b2	2-#9	2-#7	#2@4.25	#2@12	43.7	47.9	43.6	3.26	3.74	740	D	3 E	205
3b3	2-#9	2-#7	#2@4.25	#2@12	42.3	47.6	44.4	3.13	4.54	615	D	lÌ	98
4al	2#6	90 CD	#3@10	945 em	44.3	CERT ENG	55.1	4.28	4.04	725	D	lI	80
4a2	2-#6	640 100	#3@10	272 040	47.5	ca no	55.1	3.85	3.67	665	D	2 I	78
4b1	2~#6	649 OC	#2@10	63 96	48.5	503 ext	47.0	4.50	3.68	535	S	1327 646	71
4b2	2 <i>₌</i> #6	ent Dio	#2 @ 10	CAD CAD	49.4	CHC 6340	48.0	4.12	3.40	575	D	lI	70
4b3	2 <i>~#</i> 6	Carb sert	#2@ 10	ee an	52.3	cas cas	49.6	3.43	3.38	450	DS	lI	36
4c1	2-#6	000 ED	Cura Cura	001 041	43.4	(H) 613	and c40	2.83	3.17	525	S	80 85	42
4c2	2 <i></i> #6	Come cana	CAS 600	out ct1	43.4	000 sm3	885 090	3.26	3.49	490	D	3 I	38
4c3	2-#6	60 (14)	C20 641	cta ees	43.8	(13) 640	840 (245	3.08	3.42	515	D	<u> 1 I</u>	40

(1) S-static, D-dynamic to collapse, DS-dynamic followed by static test to collapse.

(2) E-explosion, I-implosion.

Cracked statically. Any beam subjected to more than one blow was, of course, cracked for the subsequent blows. This refers to beams deliberately cracked statically before the first blow.
 Blow 1-explosion, Blow 2-implosion.

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Beam	Tens.	Reinfor Comp.	rcement Shear	Ties	f y ksi	f' y ksi	f w ksi	fċ ksi	E _c psi x10 ⁶	f r psi	Type of Test (1)	No. of Blows (2)	Age Days
5al 5a2 5b1 5b2 5b3 5b4	2-#9 2-#9 2-#9 2-#9 2-#9 2-#9	ୟ ଟେ ଟାରେ ଭାର ଭାର ଅନ୍ତ	#3@3.75 #3@3.75	000, 000 001, 001 000, 002 000, 002 000, 000	49.4 49.4 51.6 51.6 54.6 52.3	63 US 75 GR 76 GR 76 GR 76 GR 76 GR	53.0 53.7 	2.30 2.81 3.60 3.57 2.72 3.82	2.92 3.71 4.65 4.06 2.96 3.06	440 510 583 550 540 535	D D* S D DS D	1 I 1 I 1 I 2 I	24 42 102 105 97 49
6al 6bl 6b2	2∞#9 2-#9 2-#9	2-#7 2-#7 2-#7	#3@4.25 #2@12 #2@12	#2@12 #2@12 #2@12	43.6 44.5 44.0	47.6 48.6 48.2	53.6 53.4 53.4	3.76 2.98 4.44	3.69 4.00 4.00	465 385 375	DS S DS	2 E 2 E	72 73 75
7a1 7a2 7a3	2∞#6 2 ~# 6 2 ~# 6	63 69 63 80	943 (34) (44) 943 (54) 153	62 G8	40.8 41.5 43.0	- C23 860 C23 860	50 A6 C16 C4 C13 #0	2.79 2.73 3.27	3.25 3.83 2.78	565 410 590	S D* DS	5 I 3 E	41 39 75

-12h-

TABLE 4 (Cont.)

(1) S-static, D-dynamic to collapse, DS-dynamic followed by static test to collapse.

(2) E-explosion, I-implosion.

* Cracked statically. Any beam subjected to more than one blow was, of course, cracked for the subsequent blows. This refers to beams deliberately cracked statically before the first blow.

** Blow 1-explosion, Blow 2-implosion.

DERIVED B	EAM	PARAMETERS
-----------	-----	------------

Beam	р. %	D M	ri teo	đ	đ
2al 2a2 2bl 2b2 2b3	3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33		0.98 0.98 0.31 0.31 0.31	0.395 0.468 0.404 0.521 0.447	******Q900~~~~
3al 3a2 3a3 3a4 3a5 3b1 3b2 3b3	3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.3	2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00 2.00	0.86 0.86 0.86 0.86 0.86 0.39 0.39 0.39	0.362 0.476 0.421 0.464 0.498 0.334 0.446 0.450	0.143 0.186 0.166 0.178 0.184 0.104 0.152 0.146
4al 4a2 4b1 4b2 4b3 4c1 4c2 4c3	1.47 1.47 1.47 1.47 1.47 1.47 1.47 1.47		0.37 0.37 0.17 0.17 0.17	0.152 0.181 0.158 0.176 0.22 ¹ 4 0.225 0.196 0.209	
5al 5a2 5b1 5b2 5b3 5b4	3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33 3.33		0.98 0.98	0.715 0.585 0.477 0.481 0.668 0.456	
6a1 6b1 6b2	3.33 3.33 3.33	2.00 2.00 2.00	C.86 O.1 ^j 4 O.1 ^j 4	0.386 0.497 0.330	0.133 0.171 0.113
7al 7a2 7a3	1.47 1.47 1.47 1.47			0.215 0.223 0.193	

LOCATION OF STRAIN GAGES; NUMBER OF DEFLECTION GAGES; STIRRUP AND TIE CONFIGURATION

(See Fig. 23 for explanation of symbols)

Beam	Strai Ste	n Gage Loca	tion Conc.	Deflection Gages	Stirrups	Ties
for this case of the state of t	Tens.	Comp.	Comp.			
2a1	f	650	220	1 *	a	6 0
2a2	80	840	640	5 **	a,	680
2bl	f	82		3***	a	80
2b2	f	88	j	5	a	6 53
2Ъ3	a 2	940 1	с са	5	a	38
3al	80	840	20	5	ď	ď
3a2	f	h	k	5	С	C
3a3	60	80	an	1	С	đ
3a4	82)		20	1.	C	е
3a5	ges.	ang	as	1	C	е
3b1	and	œ	63	5	c	C
- 3b2	f	i	k	5	с	С
3b3	000	cant	a	1	С	đ
4al	f	æ	æ	1	a	30
4a2	f	a u	æ	1	a.	ciit)
4bl	f	80	L	5	a	
4b2	f	80	2	5	a	80
473	640		un	5	a,	
4cl	80	080	œ	1	20	20
4c2	f	(as)	m	5		æ
4e3		(188)	æ	5	۵	ວະບ
5al		æ	C 1	5	a	æ
5a2	f	a 5	n	5	a	30
501			من	5	80	80
5Ъ2	f	æ	k	5		œ
503	35	920 (22)	a c	5	a 2	מונו
5 <u>b</u> 4	g	ano	n	5	æ	080
Gal	f	h	0	5	ъ	ъ
6bl	-	20	æ	5	Ъ	ъ
6ъ2	f	h	0	5	ď	Ъ
7al	693	යා	20	5	040	85
7 a 2	f	an 0	n	5	Caro L	ano
7a3	80	680	cu ,	5		8

Gage at midspan only.
Gage at each location shown in Fig. 22.

*** Gages at locations 2, 3, and 4 only as shown in Fig. 22.

RESULTS OF STATIC TESTS TO COLLAPSE

Beam	Approximate Loading	Q _y	∆_y y	$\Delta_{\rm m}$	k l	$\Delta_{\rm m}/\Delta_{\rm y}$	Mode of Failure	፹ **
(02)III(111/0410	kips/min	kips	in.	in.	kips/in.	Qanton wanton construction dans dans dans dans dans dans dans dan	CHCHW7HC-H2HCHCHCHCHCHW9HCHW9HCHCHCHCHCHCHCHCHCHCHC	msec.
2b1	9	45.5	0.55	0.95	82.7	1.73	Flexure - "Balanced"	21.9
3al	11	45.5	0.48	4.05	94.8	8.43	Flexure - Tension	20.3
3bl	7	41.0	0.54*	3.93*	76.0	7.28	Flexure - Tension	22.9
4 Ъ1	7	23.1	0.50*	1.98*	46.2	3.96	Flexure - Tension	29.3
4cl	5	19.4	00	0.38	51.1	040	Shear	27.9
5bl	8	20.9		0.70	29.9		Shear	41.4
6b1	7	26.9	0.85*	4.98*	31.6	5.86	Flexure - Tension	40.3
7al	5	11.3	0.60	2.24	18.8	3.74	Flexure - Tension	52.3

(PROPERTIES OF ELASTO-PLASTIC APPROXIMATIONS)

* Corrected for difference in deflection at zero load due to making elasto-plastic approximation.

** Computed from $T = 2\pi$ Mme/k_l.

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RESULTS OF DYNAMIC TESTS

(APPLIED LOADS AND DEFLECTION RESPONSE CHARACTERISTICS)

Beam	Blow	, ,	Resp	onse Character	onse Characteristics-inches			cteristics	Mode
		permanent set		max	imum	permanent	duration	maximum	of
		from static	from previous	incremental	cumulative	set			Failure
Carefornionaconac		preload	blow	399-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-01-	34+C4++C7497,41+C34(20)924+C3++C3++C4++C4++C4++C4++C4++C4++C4++C4		msec	kips	(1)
2al				1.05	1.05*		œ	64.6	Ŧ
2a2		0.19		1.02	1.21*		64	54.3	F
2b2				0.98	0,98*		67	57.5	F
2b3				1.06	1.06*		20	58.2	F
3a2				3.86	3.86	2.98	66	59.6	x
3a2	s ⁺		2.98	1.32	4.30*			43.5	\mathbf{F}
3a3				2.90	2.90	2.12	39	64.1	x
3a3	S		2.12	1.03	3.15*			45.7	F
3a4		0.08		3.00	3.08	2.40	56	70.1	x
3a4	S		2.40	1.30	3.70*		-	39.6	F
3a5	1			1.22	1.22	0.55	46	56.2	
3a5	2		0.55	4.18	4.73*		61	59.9	F
3b2	1			1.20	1.20	0.81	42	57.8	x
3b2	2		0.81	1.86	2.67	1.92	42	56.1	x
3b2	3		1.92	2.18	4.10*		32	61.6	F
3b3	-			≈5.00	~5.00*		00	63.1	Ţ
4a1				2.06-2.21	2.06-2.21*		61	29.7	F
4a2	1			1.23	1.23	1.18	00	29.0	
4a2	2		1.18	1.42-1.53	2.60-2.71*		8	30.3	F
4b2	No Records								\mathbf{F}
4b3				2.04-2.09	2.04-2.09**	2.78	62	28.7	x
4b3	S		2.78	0.48	3.26 * *	•		6.0	F
4c2	1	0.06	e	0.34	0.40	0.13	00	18.6	
4c2	2		0.13	0.54	0.67	0.36	00	23.5	
4c2	3		0.36	2.11-2.37	2.47-2.73**		~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~	29.5	F
4c3	15		er	0.70-1.00	0.70-1.00*		59	27.2	S

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Beam	Blow	Response Characteristics-inches				Load Chara	cteristics	tics Mode	
		permane	ent set	max	imum	permanent	duration	maximum	of
		from	from	incremental	cumulative	set			Failure
		static	previous						
	2347237774777477747774777477747774777477	preload	blow			100mm/2007/000/2007/00/2007/2007/2007/200	msec	kips	(1)
5al				1.40	1.40*		32	25.1	F
5a2		0.20		1.25	1.45*		33	28.5	F
5b2	No Records								S
5b3				1.05	1.05*		35	19.2	S
5b4	l			1.04	1.04	0.35	49	20.4	
5ъ4	2		0.35	1.05-1.20	1.40-1.55*		30	26.1	S
6al	l			1.87	1.87	0.75	54	32.5	
6al	2		0.75	3.16	3.91	2.75	64	32.9	x
6a1	S		2.75	2.15	4.90*			27.2	F
6ъ2	l		. /	1.56	1.56	0.55	52	30.6	
6b2	2		0.55	2.25	2.80	1.68	70	29.6	х
6b2	S		1.68	1.32	3.00*			16.0	S
7a2	l	0.16		0.64	0.80	0.65	54	10.8	x
7a2	2		0.65	0.71	1.36	0.84	62	9.3	x
7a2	3		0.84	1.04	1.88	1.24	66	12.1	x
7a2	4		1.24	1.37	2.61	1.96	68	12.5	х
7a2	5		1.96	2.25-2.90	4.21-4.68*		50	14.3	F
7a3	1		- *	1.23	1.23	0.62	53	12.4	
7a3	2		0.62	1.80	2.42	1.64	66	14.2	x
7a3	3		1.64	3.42	5.06	4.90	~57	13. 4	x
7a3	S		4.90	0.48	5 . 38*			3.2	F

S-static test to collapse after dynamic test. ÷

Approximately. ~

* Collapse.

** See explanation in text for two values of collapse deflection.
(1) F-flexure, S-shear, x-crushing detected.

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RESULTS OF DYNAMIC TESTS-CONTINUED

(STRAIN RESPONSE)

Beam	Blow	Critical	Strain RatesIn	ch/inch/second*	Maximum	
		St	eel	Concrete	Recorded	
		Tension	Compression	Compression	Concrete Strain**	
					microin./in.	
2al		SA-0.32	ail) and and	Ъ		
262		0.24	990 899 901	CC-0.72	3760	
3a2		SA-0.22	SD -0.29	СВ-0.76	5560	
3ъ2	l	S B-0.25	1470 (1)	CB-0.42	3980	
3Ъ2	2	a	SD-0.39	?	3040?	
3b2	3	a	?	?	1540?	
4al		0.32	900 990 BO	Ъ		
4a2	l	SB-0.31	and this eso	Ъ		
4a2	2	a	ang 940 ang	Ъ		
4c2	1	0.11	eng 646 ang	с		
4c2	2	0.18	**** CRD CHC)	с		
4c2	3	a	and made and	d.	2780	
5a2		0.12	ent can can	CB-0.16	3380	
5D4	1	0.08	පළට සංක කත	с		
5ъ4	2	SB-0.12	DEL GIO CIPI	c		
6a.1	1	0.27	1520 (1)	с		
6al	2	a	SD-0.33	CA-0.18	3700	
6b2	1	0.10	SC-0.15	C		
6ъ2	2	8,	SC-0.10	d.	2270	
7a2	l	S B-0.07	and end and	d ***	1340?	
7a2	2	SA-0.06	CIED 646 CIED	đ	1360?	
7a2	3	SA-0.10	Q40 9300 UND	d	2140?	
7a2	4	S B-0.55	and day ond	CB-0.14	4820	
7a2	5	a	enti Casi gazy	CB-0.12	6390	
-	-		Average of u	inquestioned value	s 4071	
*	Determined	from Figs.	A73-A95 Rates fo	or steel chosen in	region just	

beyond static yield level. Rates for concrete chosen in region just prior to crushing.

** Only tabulated for blows when crushing was detected.

*** Gage CC destroyed.

(1) Maximum strain in microin./in., no yielding.

(a) Gage circuit destroyed on previous blow.

(b) No gages.

(c) No crushing detected, visually or with strain gages.

(d) Crushing detected visually but not recorded.

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TABLE 10

RESULTS OF DYNAMIC TESTS - CONTINUED

(EFFECT OF REINFORCEMENT CONFIGURATION)

Beam	Type of Test (1)	Compression Reinforcemen	Ties	r %	Mode of Failure (1)	Collapse Deflection in.
2al 2a2 2bl 2b2 2b3	D D S D D	No No No No No		0.98 0.98 0.31 0.31 0.31	부 귀 귀 귀 귀	1.05 1.21 0.95 0.98 1.06
3al 3a2 3a3 3a4 3a5 3b1 3b2	S DS DS DS D S D S D	Yes Yes Yes Yes Yes Yes	#2 @12 - welded #2 @12 - welded #2 @12 - hooked at top #2 @12 - hooked at bot #3 @14 - hooked at bot #2 @12 - welded #2 @12 - welded	0.86 0.86 tom 0.86 tom 0.86 0.39 0.39	F F F F F F F F F F	4.05 4.30 3.15 3.70 4.73 3.93 4.10
202 4al 4a2 4bl 4b2 4b2 4b3 4c2 4c2 4c3	D D S D S S D D D D	Yes No No No No No No	#2 @12 - nooked at top - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	0.37 0.37 0.17 0.17 0.17 0.17 0 0 0	f 또 또 된 단 도 고 고	-5.00 2.06-2.21 2.60-2.71 1.98 ? 2.04-3.26 0.38 2.47-2.73 0.70-1.00
5al 5a2 5bl 5b2 5b3 5b4	D D S D DS D	No No No No No	- - - -	0.98 0.98 0 0 0	F F S S S S	1.40 1.45 0.70 ? 1.05 1.40-1.55
6al 6b1 6b2	DS S DS	Yes Yes Yes	#2 @12 - welded #2 @12 - welded #2 @12 - welded	0.86 0.14 0.14	F F S	4.90 4.98 3.00
7al 7a2 7a3	S D DS	No No No		0 0 0	म म म	2.24 4.21-4.68 5.38

(1) S-static, D-dynamic, DS-dynamic followed by static test to collapse. (2) F-flexure, S-shear.

Beam	Blow	^k ld	∆ _{yd}	$\triangle_{\rm md}$	Qyd	β	T	Time to Reach	Velocity at
		kip s/i n.	in.	in.	kips	%	(l) msec.	Yield msec.	Yield in./sec
2al 2a2 2b2 2b3	-	93.0 82.0 94.6 84.6	0.67 0.63 0.64 0.62	1.06 1.02 0.95 1.12	62.4 51.6 60.5 52.5		20.4 22.2 20.6 22.0	10 12 11 8	110 100 79 100
(2) 3a2 3a3 3a4 3a5 3b2 3b2 3b2 3b2 3b2 3b2	- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -	111.4 89.6 103.0 95.8 80.0 69.0 47.2	0.55 0.63 0.59 0.64 0.76 0.88 1.44	- - 3.92 No So - 2.19 No So	61.4 56.5 60.7 61.3 60.8 lution 60.6 68.0 lution	- 4.0 -	18.7 21.4 19.7 20.3 22.5 23.8 29.2	8 10 10 11 10 12 20	138 134 135 106 151 104 143
4al 4a2 4a2 4b3 4c2 4c2 4c2 4c2	- 1 2 1 2 3 -	49.8 61.4 58.4 61.2 57.0 59.0 56.4	0.57 0.47 0.62 0.48 >0.34 0.41 0.41 0.43	2.00 _ 1.40 2.00 _ _ 2.30 0.80	28.4 28.9 28.8 28.0 20.8 23.4 24.2 24.2	- - 12.2 13.0 10.2	28.5 25.5 29.0 26.3 25.5 26.7 26.0 26.3	12 11 14 11 - 15 10 12	86 60 79 74 40 58 53
5al 5a2 5b3 5b4 5b4	- 1 2	33.2 31.6 34.7 29.9 29.9	0.72 0.83 0.63 1.03	1.38 1.24 3) _ 3) _	23.9 26.2 21.9(3) 30.8(3) 29.9 ⁽³⁾		39.5 40.6 38.5 41.4 41.4	14 17 18 -	76 83 49
6al 6al 6b2 6b2	1 2 1 2	41.3 31.6 43.6 30.2	0.82 1.01 0.80 1.08		33.9 31.9 34.9 32.6	80 68 60	35.4 40.3 34.1 41.5	17 18 16 18	91 109 88 114
7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2 7a3 7a3 7a3	1 2 3 4 5 1 2 3	24.7 17.2 18.8 18.2 18.8 22.0 20.6 17.8	>0.64 0.66 0.74 0.68 0.69 0.60 0.70 0.60	- - 2.17 	>15.8 11.4 13.9 12.4 13.0 13.2 14.4 10.7		45.8 54.0 52.3 52.5 52.3 47.7 49.9 53.0	- 24 22 17 18 20 19	- 21 36 48 74 50 61 50

SUMMARY OF ANALOG COMPUTER SOLUTIONS FOR DYNAMIC RESISTANCE

Undamped.
 Slope of inelastic portion, k_{2d} = -2.0 kips/in..
 Maximum value attained.

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TABLE 12

Beam	S	tatic Properti	es	Statically Tested		
	Qy kips	∆ y in.	kl kips/in.	Beam Used as Base		
2al	45.6	0.55	82.7	2bl		
2a2	44.4	0.54	82.7	2bl		
2b2	44.5	0.54	82.7	2bl		
2b3	44.8	0.54	82.7	2bl		
3a2	45.5	0.48	94.8	Jal		
3a3	45.8	0.48	94.8	Jal		
3a4	45.1	0.47	94.8	Jal		
3a5	44.2	0.46	94.8	Jal		
362	43.7	0.58	76.0	3bl		
363	42.3	0.56	76.0	3bl		
4a1	21.2	0.46	46.2	4ъ1		
4a2	22.7	0.49	46.2	4ъ1		
4b2	23.6	0.51	46.2	4ъ1		
4b3	25.0	0.54	46.2	4ъ1		
4c2	20.8	0.45	46.2	401		
4c3*	20.3	0.40	51.1	401		
5al	20.0	0.67	29.9	Appendix B		
5a2	24.1	0.81	29.9	Appendix B		
572*	20.8	0.70	29.9	501		
573*	18.2	0.61	29.9	501		
574*	21.5	0.72	29.9	501		
6al	26.4	0.83	31.6	6b1		
6b2	26.6	0.84	31.6	6b1		
7a2	11.5	0.61	18.8	7al		
7a3	11.9	0.63	18.8	7al		

DERIVED STATIC CAPACITY FOR BEAMS TESTED DYNAMICALLY

* Shear failures, no inelastic range in static tests. Values of Q and \bigtriangleup correspond to those at failure in shear and do not represent values at ^y yield for these beams.
| Beam | Blow | Yield Level
(Q _{yd} -Q _y)/Q _y
% | Yield Deflection
$(\triangle_{yd} - \triangle_{y}) / \triangle_{y}$ | Elastic Slope
(k _{ld} -k _l)/k _l
% |
|---|--------------------------------------|---|--|---|
| 2a1
2a2
2b2
2b3 | | 36.8
16.2
36.0
17.2 | 21.8
16.7
18.5
14.8 | 12.4
-0.9**
14.4
2.3 |
| 3a2
3a3
3a4
3a5
3b2
3b2
3b2
3b2
3b3 | -
-
1
2
1
2
3
- | 34.9
23.4
34.6
38.7
37.6
-
38.7
55.6 | 14.6
31.2
25.5
39.1
65.2
-
51.8
148.3 | 17.5
-5.5
8.6**
1.1
-15.6
-
-9.2
-37.9 |
| 4a1
4a2
4b3
4c2
4c2
4c2
4c2
4c2 | -
2
1
2
3 | 34.0
27.3
26.9
12.0
>0.0
12.5
16.3
19.2 | 23.9
-4.1
26.5
-11.1
>-24.4
-8.9
-8.9
7.5 | 7.8
32.9
0.4
26.4
32.5
23.4
27.7
10.4 |
| 5al
5a2
5b3*
5b4
5b4* | -
-
1
2 | 19.5
10.9
20.3
43.3
39.1 | 7.5
2.5
3.3
43.0
38.9 | 11.0
5.7*
16.0
0.0
0.0 |
| 6al
6al
6b2
6b2* | 1
2
1
2 | 28.4
20.8
31.2
22.6 | -1.2
22.9
-4.8
28.6 | 30.7
0.0
38.0
-4.4 |
| 7a2
7a2
7a2
7a2
7a2
7a3
7a3
7a3 | 1
2
3
4
5
1
2
3 | >37.4
-0.9
20.9
7.8
13.0
10.9
21.0
-10.1 | >4.9
8.2
21.3
11.5
13.1
-4.8
11.1
-4.8 | 31.4**
-8.5
0.0
-3.2
0.0
17.0
9.6
-5.3 |

PERCENT CHANGE IN RESISTANCE PARAMETERS DUE TO DYNAMIC LOADING

* Shear failures

** Cracked statically

STATIC AND DYNAMIC COLLAPSE DEFLECTION AND DUCTILITY

Type		4	² m	2000-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00	∆ _y	$\Delta_{m'}$	/A _y
Beam	of Test	Static	Dynamic ⁽¹⁾	Static	Dynamic ⁽²⁾	Static	Dynamic
	*	in.	in.	in.	in.		
entroposition adjuty gammaga		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
2al 2a2 2bl	D D	0.05	1.06 1.02	0.55	0.67 0.63	1 73	1.58 1.62
201 202 203	D D	0.9)	0.95 1.12	0.))	0.64 0.62	1.0	1.48 1.81
3al 3a2	S DS	4.05 4.30	ц <u>, тр.н.фиярто</u> т ^и льйство обра	0.48	0.55	8.43	Υ ^π αλαβάτατα στα έξετα ματά στα ματά ματά ματά ματά ματά ματά ματά μα
Jaj 3a4 3a5 3b1 3b2 3b3	DS DS D S D D	3.70 3.93	4.47 4.11 ~5.00	0.54	0.59 0.64 (5)	7.28	6.98
4al 4a2	D D		2.00 2.58	mingan e para desa dela tipo e da cada e e bandida	0.57 0.47		3.51 5.49
4bl 4b2 4b3	S D DS	1.98 3.26 ₍₄₎	(3) 2.04	0.50	(3) 0.48	3.96	 4.25
4c1 4c2 4c3	D D	0.90. /	2.66 0.80 ⁽⁴⁾	(6)	0.41 0.43	(6)	6.49 1.86
5al 5a2	D D S	0.70 ⁽⁴⁾	1.38 1.24	(6)	0.72 0.83	(6)	1.92 1.49
572 573 5704	ם ם ם	1.05 ⁽⁴⁾	(3) 1.35 ⁽⁴⁾	(0)	(3) 0.63 (6)	(0)	1.67
6al 6bl	DS S	4.90 4.98(4)	<u>,</u>	0.85	0.82	5.86	GOVER THE REAL AND A CONTRACT OF THE REAL
6b2 	DS	3.00	gunsensint Congogud makangetessing on the con	ڗڗؾٷ؋ ؞؞ڲڸڣڹڗٳۼڋڗڲڡڡٮؽٷڿڗؿڴڡڹٮڲڸڡڹۅڴؠۮڲڟڹ	0.80	97511111154975114961154951141111111111111111111111111	Standartectore to a state of the
7al 7a2 7a3	S D DS	2.24 5.38	4.13	0.60	0.66 0.60	3.74	6.26

* S-static, D-dynamic, DS-dynamic followed by static to collapse.

(1) From analog computer solution, to which is added any previous permanent set. (2) From analog computer solution.

(3) No records.(4) Shear failure.

(5) No analog solution.

(6) No inelastic region.

Beam	Blow	Maximum Cumulative Deflection	∆ yd	Maximum Cumulative Inelastic	∆ _{md.}	Total Possible Inelastic	Damage Ratio	^k ld	Percent of Blow 1 Slope
		in.	in.	in.	in.	in.		kips/in.	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
3a5	1 2	1.22	0.64	0.58	4.47	3.83	0.151	95.8 80.0	83.5
4a2	1 2	1.23	0.47	0.76	2.58	2.11	0.360	61.4 46.4	75.6
4c2	1 2 3	0.40 0.67	** 0.47	0.00	2.66	2.19	0.000 0.091	61.2 57.0 59.0	93.1 96.4
6a1	1 2	1.87	0.82	1.05	4.90	4.08	0.257	41.3 31.6	76.5
6b2	1 2	1.56	0.80	0.76	3.00	2.20	0.345	43.6 30.2	69.3
7a2	1 2 3 4 5	0.80 1.36 1.88 2.61	** 0.82 0.82 0.82	0.00 0.54 1.06 1.79	4.13	3.31	0.000 0.163 0.320 0.541	24.7 17.2 18.8 18.2 18.8	69.6 76.1 73.7 76.1
7a3	1 2 3	1.23 2.42	0.60 0.60	0.63 1.82	5.38	4.78	0.132 0.381	22.0 20.6 17.8	93.6 80.9

EFFECT OF DAMAGE ON ELASTIC SLOPE

* Includes any permanent set due to static cracking prior to Blow 1.
** Yielding did not occur in analog computer solution.

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COMPUTED DYNAMIC RESISTANCE BASED

ON MEASURED STRAIN RATES

(and) were present from the system of the s		Strain	f	f	q	Δ_{md}	k'		Dynam	ic Resi	stance
Beam	Blow	Rate	f_{v}	yu	Cru	$\Delta_{\rm vd}$		Qyd	$^{\Delta}_{yd}$	$\triangle_{\rm md}$	^k ld
		in./in./sec.	J	ksi		ya	Calved	kips	in.	in.	kips/in.
2al 2b2		0.32 0.24	1.40 1.38	68.7 66.1	0.540 0.548	1.82 1.40	0.52 0.53	63.8 61.4	0.59 0.58	1.07 0.81	108.1 105.9
3a2 3d2	1	0.22 0.25	1.38 1.39	64.2 60.7	0.554 0.564	3.97 4.95	0.45 0.45	62.8 60.8	0.48 0.46	1.91* 2.28*	130.8 132.2
4a1 4a2 4c2 4c2	1 1 2	0.32 0.31 0.11 0.18	1.40 1.40 1.33 1.36	62.0 66.5 57.7 59.0	0.560 0.547 0.570	4.91 4.03 3.88	0.37 0.39 0.39 0.39	29.7 31.8 27.7 28.3	0.41 0.44 0.39 0.40	2.01 1.77* 1.55*	72.4 72.3 71.0 70.8
5a2		0.12	1.34	66.2	0.548	1.25	0.51	32.3	1.05	1.31	30.8
6a1 6b2	1 1	0.27 0.10	1.39 1.32	60.6 58.1	0.565 0.573	5.65 6.76	0.46 0.45	36.7 35.1	0.87 0.82	4.92* 5.54*	42.2 42.8
7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2	1 2 3 4	0.07 0.06 0.10 0.55	1.30 1.29 1.32 1.45	54.0 53.5 54.8 60.2	 0.566	 3.38	0.38 0.38 0.38 0.38	14.9 14.8 15.2 16.7	0.68 0.69 0.67 0.75	2.54*	21.9 22.0 22.1 22.3

(1) Tension reinforcement.

* Beam did not collapse under this blow in the test.

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TABLE 17

europeantere Queenterre operationenterre	-24 <u>-29-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-20-</u>	йрностаблабочко-токоторысска (окабластат)	ĊĸĸţĸĸĊĸĸŎĸĸĊŦĸĊĸĸĊĸĸĊĸĸĊĸĸĊĸĸŎĸĿŎĬţŧŊſĸĸŧĿĸ	Office and a margin of the first state of the first	
Beam	Type of Test	Mode of Failure	△ m Comp.(l) in.	∆ _m Meas. in.	<u>Comp.</u> Meas.
2al 2a2 2bl 2b2 2b3	D D S D D	F F F F F	1.00 0.85 0.98 0.76 0.89	1.06 1.02 0.95 0.95 1.12	0.94 0.83 1.03 0.80 0.80
3al 3a2 3a3 3a4 3a5 3b1 3b2 3b3	D DS DS D S D D D D	F F F F F F F	2.77 2.13 2.39 2.22 2.15 3.81 2.61 2.71	4.05 4.30 3.15 3.70 4.47 3.93 4.11 ~5.00	0.68 0.49 0.76 0.60 0.48 0.97 0.63 ~0.54
4al 4a2 4b1 4b2 4b3 4c1 4c2 4c3	D D S D D S S D D D	FFFFSFS	2.61 2.19 2.51 2.25 1.77 1.76 2.02 1.90	2.00 2.58 1.98 2.04 0.38 2.66 0.80	1.30 0.85 0.87 0.76
5al 5a2 5b1 5b2 5b3 5b4	D D S D D D	F F S S S S	1.10 1.3 ⁴ 1.64 1.63 1.18 1.72	1.38 1.24 0.70 1.05 1.35	0.80 1.08
6al 6b1 6b2	DS D DS	F F S	5.90 4.60 6.95	4.90 4.98 3.00	1.20 0.92
7al 7a2 7a3	S D DS	म म म	3.66 3.52 4.06	2.24 4.13 5.38	1.63 0.85 0.75

COMPUTED COLLAPSE DEFLECTIONS

(1) Computed by Eq. 58.

Child Capacity of Sector Constant	3000		Qyd)++++(++++(++++)+++(++++)++++(++++)++++(++++)++++(+++++)++++(+++++)++++(+++++)++++(+++++)++++(+++++)++++)++++(+++++)++++(++++++		∆ _{yd}		Δ	/∆ md ∕∆yd		9000 DM 7,0000 DM 6 2000 DM	$\triangle_{\rm md}$	3448344C3444C3444C3444C3444C	9999-9999-9999-9999-9999-9999-9999-9999-9999	k _{ld}	
Beam	Blow	A.C.	Str.	$\frac{\text{Str.}}{\text{A.C.}}$	A.C.	Str.	Str. A.C.	A.C.	Str.	$\frac{\text{Str.}}{\text{A.C.}}$	A.C.	Str.	Str. A.C.	A.C.	Str.	$\frac{\text{Str.}}{\text{A.C.}}$
		(l) kips	(2) kips		in.	in.				CatCom McCom 100000	in.	in.		k/in.	k/in.	
2al 2b2		62.4 60.5	63.8 61.4	1.02 1.01	0.67 0.64	0.59 0.58	0.88 0.91	1.58 1.48	1.82 1.40	1.15 0.95	1.06 0.95	1.07 0.81	1.01 0.85	93.0 94.6	108.1 105.9	1.16 1.12
3a2 3b2	1	61.4	62.8 60.8	1.02	0.55	0.48 0.46	0.87				(3) (3)			111.4 	130.8 132.2	1.17
4a1 4a2 4c2 4c2	1 1 2	28.4 28.9 >20.8* 23.4*	29.7 31.8 27.7 28.3	1.05 1.10 1.21	0.57 0.47 >0.34* 0.41*	0.41 0.44 0.39 0.40	0.72 0.94 0.98	3.51	4.91	1.40	2.00 (3) (3) (3)	2.01	1.01	49.8 61.4 61.2* 57.0*	72.4 72.3 71.0 70.8	1.45 1.18 1.16 1.24
5a2		26.2	32 . 3	1.23	0.83	1.05	1.27	1.25	1.49	1.19	1.24	1.31	1.06	31.6	30.8	0.97
6al 6b2	1 1	33.9 34.9	36.7 35.1	1.08 1.01	0.82 0.80	0.87 0.82	1.06 1.02				(3) (3)			41.3 43.6	42.2 42.8	1.02 0.98
7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2	1 2 3 4	>15.8 11.4 13.9 12.4*	14.9 14.8 15.2 16.7	1.30 1.09 1.35	>0.64 0.66 0.74 0.68*	0.68 0.69 0.67 0.75	1.05 0.90 1.10				(3) (3) (3) (3)			24.7 17.2 18.8 18.2*	21.9 22.0 22.1 22.3	0.89 1.28 1.18 1.22

COMPARISON OF COMPUTED DYNAMIC RESISTANCES

A.C. = Analog computer results.
 Str. = Results from strain rate determinations.

(3) Beam did not collapse under this blow.
* Damping introduced into solution.

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TABLE 19

and a second		Velocity	Strain	Rate, é _c	f _{yd} /f _y		
Beam	RTOM	at Yield	Comp.	Meas.	from Comp.	from Meas.	
مەرىمىنىن يەر يېرىنى ئۇلغۇ	nian 10 yr ganai yr 70 yr 10 yn 10 yn 10 yn 10	in./sec.	in./in./sec.	in./in./sec.	ُ	е _с	
2al 2b2		110 79	0.43 0.30	0.32 0.24	1.43 1.40	1.40 1.38	
3a2 3b2	1*	138	0.61	0.22 0.25	1.45 	1.38 1.39	
4a1 4a2 4c2 4c2	1 1** 2	86 60 40	0.44 0.30 0.20	0.32 0.31 0.11 1.18	1.43 1.40 1.37	1.40 1.40 1.33 1.36	
5a2		83	0.18	0.12	1.36	1.34	
6al 6b2	l l	91 88	0.21 0.21	0.27 0.10	1.37 1. <u>3</u> 7	1.39 1.32	
7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2	1 ** 2 3 4	21 36 48	0.06 0.10 0.13	0.07 0.06 0.10 0.55	1.29 1.32 1.34	1.30 1.29 1.32 1.45	

MEASURED AND COMPUTED STRAIN RATES

* No computer solution.** No yield point in computer solution.

CONTRACTOR OF CONTRACTOR	ŦġġĸĸġġġġĸġġġġĸĸĊĬĬĸĸĸĬŎĸĸĸĸŶŎŦŦĬĊĬĸĬĸĬĊĬŔŎŦĔŎŎĹ		Steel	alere einen Bild Bereichen Bereichen einen Bere	ىمىڭ بىرۇپ ئۇرى بىرى بىرى بىرى بىرى بىرى بىرى بىرى ب	Concret	e	
Beam	Blow	fyd	f'yd	f w	Strain Rate	$\frac{f'_{cd}}{f'_{c}}$	f' cd	E c psi/
		ksi	ksi	ksi	in./in./sec		ksi	x 10 ⁶
•		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
2al 2b2	00) 60 00 10	68.7 66.1	1003 000 4138 002	55.l 44.4	0.72	1.46 1.44	6.04 4.41	3.58 3.30
3a2 3b2	 1	64.2 60.7	65.6 44.1	52.4 43.6	0.76 0.42	1.44 1.40	4.68 4.56	3.82 3.74
4a1 4a2 4c2 4c2	1 1 2	62.0 66.5 57.7 59.0	60 60 60 60 60 60	55.1 55.1 	0.06 0.10	1.33 1.33 1.26 1.30	5.69 5.12 4.11 4.24	4.04 3.67 3.49 3.49
5a2 5b4 5b4	1 2	66.2 68.5 70.1	65 64 65 69	53.7	0.16 0.07 0.10	1.33 1.27 1.30	3.74 4.86 4.97	3.71 3.06 3.06
6al 6b2	l l	60.6 58.1	45.6 65.1	53.6 53.4	0.28 0.11	1.37 1.30	5.15 5.78	3.69 4.00
7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2	1 2 3 4	54.0 53.5 54.8 60.2	400 600 	600 600 200 600 600 600	0.04 0.05 0.07 0.14	1.24 1.25 1.27 1.32	3.38 3.41 3.47 3.60	3.83 3.83 3.83 3.83

MATERIAL PROPERTIES USED IN COMPUTING O.C.E. PREDICTED BEHAVIOR

.

Beam	Blow	Q _{yd} kips	v psi	vy psi	Governing Condition	∆ _{yd} in.	∆ _{md} in.	^k ld kips/in.	T msec.
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
2al 2b2	. 033 650 863 660	59.3 51.8	565 493	872 426	F S	0.46 0.44	1.38 1.32	128.4 118.3	17.6 18.3
3a2 3b2	1	61.9 57.4	590 547	747 467	F S	0.41 0.39	3.08 2.92	150.6 147.2	16.3 16.4
4a1 4a2 4c2 4c2	1 1 2	27.5 28.8 24.8 25.4	262 274 236 242	449 431 204 204	F F S S	0.23 0.27 0.24 0.25	1.56 1.84 1.63 1.70	118.5 107.5 102.5 102.5	18.3 19.2 19.7 19.7
5a2 5b4 5b4	1 2	29.8 34.2 35.0	284 326 333	804 319 319	ፑ S	0.68 0.94 0.96	2.04 2.82 2.88	44.0 36.3 36.3	34.3 37.7 37.7
6al 6b2	1 1	36.0 35.2	343 335	778 419	F F	0.75 0.67	5.62 5.02	. 48.1 52.2	32.8 31.5
7a2 7a2 7a2 7a2	1 2 3 4	14.1 14.0 14.3 15.6	134 133 136 148	183 183 183 183	ਸ ਸ ਸੁ	0.38 0.38 0.39 0.42	2.58 2.58 2.65 2.86	37.0 37.0 37.0 37.0	37° ₇ 37° ₇ 37° ₇ 32° ₇

PREDICTED BEHAVIOR OF BEAMS ACCORDING TO O.C.E

COMPARISON OF MEASURED AND COMPUTED RESISTANCE AND MODE OF FAILURE

		"yd			∆ yd.			^K ld			$\Delta_{\rm md}$		Δ	md.	Mode of	Failure
Beam Blow	Meas.	Comp.	Comp. Meas.	Meas.	Comp.	Comp. Meas.	Meas.	Comp.	Comp. Meas.	Meas(1)	Comp.	Comp. Meas.	Comp. from Eq.73 and meas.	Comp. Meas.	Meas.	Comp.
	kips	kips	agene gan activati (2000) water water	in.	in.		kips in.	<u>kips</u> in.		in.	in.	20007-00-0000-0000-000000	∆ yd in	Card and Card		OTTO THE DESCRIPTION OF T
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	62.4 60.5 61.4 (2) 28.4 28.9 20.8 23.4 26.2 30.8(2) 29.9(2)	59.3 51.8 61.9 57.4 27.5 28.8 24.8 25.4 29.8 3) 33.5(5) 36.0	0.95 0.86 1.01 0.97 1.00 1.08 1.14 5)1.09 5)1.12	0.67 0.64 0.55 (2) 0.57 0.47 >0.34 0.41 0.83 1.03(3 1.00(3)	0.46 0.41 0.39 0.23 0.27 0.24 0.25 0.68 3)0.92(5	0.69 0.69 0.74 0.40 0.57 0.61 0.82 5)0.89 5)0.92	93.0 94.6 111.4 (2) 49.8 61.4 61.2 57.0 31.6 29.9 29.9	128.4 118.3 150.6 147.2 118.5 107.5 102.5 102.5 102.5 44.0 36.3 36.3	1.38 1.25 1.35 2.38 1.75 1.68 1.80 1.39 1.21 1.21	1.06 0.95 4.30(4 4.11(4 2.00 2.58(4 2.66(4 2.66(4 1.24	1.38 1.32)3.08)2.92 1.56)1.84)1.63)1.70 1.04	1.30 1.39 0.72 0.71 0.78 0.71 0.61 0.64 1.64	2.01 1.92 4.13 3.88 3.20 2.79 2.49 	1.90 2.02 0.96 1.94 1.24 1.05 2.01	F F F F F F F F S F	F S F S F F S S F S S F
6b2 1 7a2 1 7a2 2 7a2 3 7a2 4 Ave. of fl	34.9 >15.8 11.4 13.9 12.4 exural 1	50.0 35.2 14.1 14.0 14.3 15.6	1.00 1.01 1.23 1.03 1.26	0.80 >0.64 0.66 0.74 0.68	0.67 0.38 0.38 0.39 0.42	0.58 0.53 0.62	43.6 24.7 17.2 18.8 18.2	52.2 37.0 37.0 37.0 37.0	1.20 1.50 2.15 1.97 2.03	3.00(4 4.13(4 4.13(4 4.13(4 4.13(4 4.13(4)2.58)2.58)2.58)2.65)2.86	1.68 0.62 0.62 0.64 0.69	6.00 4.49 5.13 4.62	1.08 1.08 1.24 1.12	r S F	r F F F F F

(1)From Table 17

(2) (3) (4)

From Table 1 No computer solution Maximum value attained Under final loading Values for v = v y

(5)

-175-

COMPARISON OF MEASURED RESISTANCE WITH RESISTANCE COMPUTED ACCORDING TO CHAPTER XV

Ome Development			Q _{yd}	-Decomonations (and one on		∆ _{yd}			\triangle_{md}	Anno Canado and Casado
Beam	Blow	Meas.	Comp.	Comp. Meas.	Meas.	Comp.	Comp. Meas.	Meas.	Comp.	Comp. Meas.
		kips	kips		in.	in.		in.	in.	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
2al 2b2	enti (HC	62.4 60.5	51.5 42.3	0.83 0.70	0.67 0.6 <u>4</u>	0.55 0.53	0.82 0.83	1.06 0.95	1.00 0.76	0.94 0.80
3a2	880	61.4	60.6	0.99	0.55	0.52	0°ðji	¥.30	2.13	0.49
4a1 4a2 4c2	- 1 2	28.4 28.9 23.4	26.6 27.7 24.3	0.94 0.96 1.04	0.57 0.47 0.41	0.49 0.52 0.46	0.86 1.10 1.12	2.00 2.58 2.66	2.61 2.19 2.02	1.30 0.85 0.76
5a2	-	26.2	2 ^j 4.6	0.94	0.83	1.03	1.24	1.24	1.34	1.08
6a1 6b2	l l	33.9 34.9	35.0 35.0	1.03 1.00	0.82 0.80	0.92 0.93	1.12 0.97	4.90 Final	5.90 failure	1.20 in shear
7a2 7a2 7a2	2 3 4	11.4 13.9 12.4	13.5 13.7 14.8	1.18 0.98 1.19	0.66 0.7½ 0.68	0.82 0.8 <u>4</u> 0.86	1.24 1.14 1.26	4.13	3.52	0.85
constituentica esta a c		Selection (Constitution Constitution)	Ave. =	0.98	1900) Harris Canado and David Canado	Ave. =	1.05	ອອດວິຈາກເວົາຈະຫລັງແຜ່ລາຍແລ້ວຍຸ່ມແລ້ວ	Ave. =	0.92

-175-

TABLE 24

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Beam	Frequency cycles/sec.	Period millisec.	Method	Place
GHƏnin hiş rəhməri Sarən mənə şərəkərdə mədəri yaşında də sə		Simple Support		na general en antilizado de la construcción a distructura de servición de la construcción de la construcción de
2al 2a2-Uncracked 2a2-Cracked 2bl	56 59 59 56	17.9 16.9 16.9 18.0	Single blow Resonance Resonance Single blow	In frame In frame In frame In frame
Jal	60	16.7	Resonance	In frame
4a2 4c2 4c2	59 55 54	16.9 18.2 18.5	Single blow Single blow Resonance	In frame In frame In frame
5a2 5b1	35.4 34.0	28.2 29.4	Resonance Resonance	In f ra me In f ra me
671	35.4	28.2	Resonance	In frame
7a2	32.6	30.6	Resonance	In frame
	Fre	ee-Free Support	5	
Jal Jal	132 144	7.6 6.9	Resonance Resonance	Outside frame In frame
4c2	128.5	7.8	Resonance	Outside frame
5a2 5bl	66.5 68.0	15.0 14.7	Resonance Resonance	Outside frame Outside frame
661	68.8	14.5	Resonance	Outside frame
7 a 2	65.2	15.3	Resonance	Outside frame

NATURAL FREQUENCY FOR SMALL AMPLITUDES







FIG. 3 VIEW OF CONTROL PANEL FOR PRESSURIZATION SYSTEM



FIG. 4 VIEW OF OSCILLOGRAPHS AND TIMING DEVICE



FIG. 5 CIRCUIT DIAGRAM OF LOAD CELL AND STRAIN BRIDGES







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FIG. 19 PERCENT INCREASE IN YIELD STRESS VS. EQUIVALENT AVERAGE STRESS RATE



100

 $P_{dy} = P_{sy}_x$

Stress,

Yield

in

Percent Increase

FIG. 20 PERCENT INCREASE IN YIELD STRESS VS. EQUIVALENT AVERAGE STRAIN RATE



(a) Rapid Load Machine



(b) Deflection Gage



(c) Test Setup






· . .

50 3a1 ₩ 2b1 - Collapse 40 3b1 measured elasto-plastic approximation Static Resistance, kips 30 6b1 1 195-=14b1 5b1 4c1 20 IA 7al 10 1.00 in. Midspan Deflection, inches FIG. 24 RESISTANCE-DEFLECTION RELATIONS FOR STATIC TESTS TO COLLAPSE













, ,



CONFIGURATIONS, BEAMS 6b1, 6a1, 6b2







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1.0 • 2nd blow × 3rd, 4th, or 5th blow 0.9 Elastic Slope Ratio 3 ď 0.8 3 5 0.7 ۵ 0.6L 0 0.1 0.3 0.4 0.5 0.6 0.2 Damage Ratio

FIG. 37 EFFECT OF DAMAGE ON ELASTIC SLOPE

-208-



-209-



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-211-

APPENDIX FIGURES


















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-233-









-237-









-241-



-242-



-243-





-245-











FIG. A32a LOAD AND STRAIN VO. THEN SPECIMEN 9-69-1

-250-

A-3 X



-251-




-253-





-255-



Midspan Deflection, in.

-256-



FIG. A36 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 2a2

-257-



-258-.



Midspan Deflection, in.

-259-



-260-







FIG. A42 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 385, BLOW 1

-263-





FIG. A⁴3 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 3a5, BLOW

S



-265-



-266-



-267-



-268-



FIG. A48 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 4a1

-269-



-270-



-271-



FIG: A51 LOAD AND RESPONSE, REAM 4b3



FIG. A52 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 4c2, BLOW 1





C)



FIG. A54 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 4c2, BLOW 3

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-275-



FIG. (A55 IOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 4e3

-972-



FIG. A56 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 5al



FIG. A57 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 5a2

Midspan Deflection, in.

-278-



FIG. A58 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 5b3

-279-





Midspan Deflection, in.

N

LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 5b4, BLOW

PIG. A60



FIG. A61 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 6al, BLOW 1

-282-



FIG. A62 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 6al, BLOW 2

-283-



2

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Midspan Deflection, in.

0



-284-









FIG. A65 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 1

-286-



FIG. A66 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 2

-287-



Midspan Deflection, in.

-288-


FIG. A68 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 4

Midspan Deflection, in.

FIG. A69 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 5



.ni (noitosIlection, in.

-290-



FIG. A70 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 7a3, BLOW 1

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-291-





-292-



FIG. A72 LOAD AND RESPONSE, BEAM 7a3, BLOW 3

-293-



FIG. A73 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 2al



Time, msec.

FIG. A74 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 2b2



FIG. A75 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 3a2

-296-

500 400 CB(-) 300 Concrete (CC not recorded) 200 CA(-) 100 Strain x 10⁵ SA(+) SB(+) 300 200 SD(-) Steel 100 sc(-) 20 Time, msec. 40 50 10 0 30

FIG. A76 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 3b2, BLOW 1

-297-



-298-

FIG. A77 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 3b2, BLOW 2



FIG. A78 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 3b2, BLOW 3

-299-



FIG- A79 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 4al

-300-



Time, msec.

FIG. ASO STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 4a2, BLOW 1

-301-

300 Concrete 200 (CB not recorded) -) DD 100 CA(-CD(-CE(-) 0 400 300 SA(+ 200 Steel 100 0 60 Ø 10 20 30 40 50

Time, msec.

FIG. AB1 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 4c2, BLOW 1

Strain x 10⁵

Stre



FIG. A82 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 4c2, BLOW 2

-303-

Strain x 10⁵



Time, msec.

EIG. A83 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 4c2, BLOW 3

-304-



FIG. A84 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 5a2



Time, msec.

FIG. A85 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 504, BLOW 1

-306-



FIG. A86 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 5b4, BLOW 2



Time, msec.

FIG. A87 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 6al, BLOW 1



FIG. A88 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 6al, BLOW 2

-309-



FIG. A89 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 6b2, BLOW 1

-310-



Time, msec.

FIG. A90 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 6b2, BLOW 2

-311-



Time, msec.

FIG. A91 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 1

-312-



FIG. A92 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 2

-313-



FIG. A93 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 3

-314-



Strain x 10⁵

-315-



Time, msec.

FIG. A95 STRAIN VS. TIME, BEAM 7a2, BLOW 5

-316-





-317-





FIG. A97 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 2a2

-318-



BEAM 2b2

-319-



FIG. A99 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 2b3

-320-



BFAM 3a2

-321-



BEAM 3a3



BEAM 3a4

-323-



FIG. ALO3 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 3a5, BLOW 1




FIG. A105 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 3b2, BLOW 1



FIG. A106 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 3b2, BLOW 2



FIG. A107 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 3b2, BLOW 3

-328-



BEAM 3D3

-329-



FIG. A109 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 4al

-330-



FIG. AllO RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 4a2, BLOW 1

-331-





FIG. All: RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 4a2, BLOW 2

-332-





-333-



FIG. All3 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 4c2, BLOW 1

-334-



FIG. All4 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 4c2, BLOW 2

-335-



FIG. All5 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 4c2, BLOW 3

-336-



-337-

-338-



FIG. All7 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 5al





FIG. All8 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 5a2

-339-



FIG. Al19 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 5b3

-340-



FIG. A120 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 504, BLOW 1

-341-





-342-



BEAM Gal, BLOW 1

-343-





-344-



FIG. A124 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 6b2, BLOW 1

-345-



FIG. A125 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 6b2, BLOW 2

-346-



FIG.A126 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 7a2, BLOW 1





-348-



FIG. A128 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 7a2, BLOW 5

-349-



FIG. A129 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 7s2, BLOW 4

-350-



FIG. A130 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 7a2, BLOW 5

-351-



FIG. A131 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 7a3, BLOW 1

-352-



FIG. A132 RESISTANCE AND REACTION VS. DEFLECTION BEAM 7a3, BLOW 2





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