

THE PERMANENT DEFORMATION OF STEEL  
PORTAL FRAMES SUBJECTED TO IMPULSIVE LOADING

by

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To the memory of Vera

DECLARATION OF CANDIDATE

I, Davide Hanan, hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that it has not been submitted for a degree at another university.

Signed by candidate

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September 1977

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## ABSTRACT

The inelastic response of steel portal frames with a mass attached to the centre of the beam member and subjected to large dynamic loads is studied. The analysis is carried out using the mode approximation technique extended to include strain-rate sensitivity, finite deflections and pulse duration. Experimental results are presented which show good agreement with theoretical predictions. The use of the extended Hamilton's principle for mode form solutions is discussed.

## INTRODUCTION

The treatment of inelastic dynamic loading problems in structures has been achieved along two distinct lines: the numerical approach and the more traditional analytical approach.

Simple analytical methods are extremely useful for preliminary stages of design and may even be adequate for the final design in many cases. They further provide insight into the mechanics of the deformation process, covering a wide class of problems. In those cases where the external dynamic loads can be accurately determined, or when theoretical methods are not available, the numerical methods [1, 2] may be used. These are however long and complex, and it is desirable to have simple approximate methods.

Of interest here is the mode approximation technique developed by Martin and Symonds [3] for rigid-plastic structures loaded impulsively. This technique has been extended to more general inelastic behaviour. Symonds [4] used the technique as a starting point for an approximate theory including strain rate and strain hardening effects. Lee and Martin [5], Lee [6] and Symonds [7] discussed mode approximation concepts for viscous and rigid-viscoplastic materials. An analogous technique for the case of load pulses of finite duration was further developed by Augusti, Martin and O'Keefe [8]. Apart from simple beams, very few structures composed of straight bars have been studied.

It is the purpose of this thesis to investigate the mode approximation technique applied to the analysis of mild steel portal frames (rectangular and trapezoidal) subjected to impulse loading at the centre of the beam. This class of structures has many advantages as an object of study since they are widely used in engineering practice and are nevertheless sufficiently simple so that both analysis and experiments are fairly simple to carry out and compare. Most of the previous work on the analysis of portal frames was based on two degree of freedom models (Rawlings [9]) or on the mode solution where strain rate effects were included by correcting the yield moment (Perrone [10], Martin and Johnson [11]). Fully numerical methods have also been used by Johnson, Al-Hassani and Hashmi [1]. Symonds and Chon [25] have recently used a method similar to the one described here.

In the present analysis, the mode approximation technique is extended to include strain rate effects, geometry changes and pulse duration. Elastic effects are ignored. This assumption, as pointed out by Symonds [12] is only valid if the applied kinetic energy is considerably larger than the maximum amount of strain energy which can be absorbed in a wholly elastic manner. It is also important that the duration of loading be short compared to the natural period of elastic vibration.

An experimental program designed to test the validity of the analysis is reported. Results are presented which show reasonable agreement with theoretical predictions. The energy ratio for the test performed varied between 3 and 13. Transient responses were recorded with a velocity transducer.

The use of the extended Hamilton's principle [13] for mode form solutions is also discussed. It is shown that Martin and Lee's extremum principle [5] may be derived from it.

## PART I: ANALYTICAL STUDY

1. The constitutive equation

The dependence of the dynamic lower yield stress  $\sigma(\dot{\epsilon})$  on the plastic strain rate  $\dot{\epsilon}$  has been represented in numerical form [14] by

$$\frac{\sigma(\dot{\epsilon})}{\sigma_0} = 1 + \left( \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad \text{for } |\sigma| \geq \sigma_0, \quad (1.1)$$

where  $\sigma_0$  is the yield stress, as derived from tests at various strain rates rather than the usual static test;  $\dot{\epsilon}_0$  and  $n$  are material constants. This formula (with  $n = 5$ ,  $\dot{\epsilon}_0 = 40\text{sec}^{-1}$ ) represents satisfactorily the tension impact tests of Manjoine [15] and the tests in pure bending of Aspden and Campbell [16]. It implies that the material is of rigid-viscoplastic type: no deformation occurs if  $|\sigma| < \sigma_0$ .

The inhomogeneity of this constitutive relation makes for major difficulties in the analysis of dynamic problems.

The mode approximation technique is substantially simplified if the constitutive equation is homogeneous; permanent mode solutions then exist, for example. For that purpose, Symonds [7] made use of the concept of a 'matched viscous' representation, in which equation (1.1) is replaced by

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sigma'_0} = \left( \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n'}} \quad (1.2)$$

Since microscopic models of slip dynamics, as well as modern developments in constitutive laws define plastic strain rate as occurring at all stress levels, the homogeneous viscous representation which has this property may be regarded as no less suitable for plastic structural dynamics than the customary rigid-viscoplastic representation [7].

If the rigid-viscoplastic type of law (1.1) is regarded as correct, it is possible to match equation (1.2) to it in various ways. Symonds [7] chose  $\sigma'_0$  and  $n'$  in terms of  $\sigma_0$  and  $n$  in such a way that the error remained conservative in the sense that the actual material is replaced by a weaker one. He ensured this by making the curve  $\sigma = \sigma(\dot{\epsilon})$  of equation (1.2) touch that of equation (1.1) with a common tangent at a particular strain rate  $\dot{\epsilon}^*$ . This implies that different curves are used for different problems or the same problem with varied loading conditions. It is felt here that this is not necessary in view of the fact that equation (1.1) is itself an approximation. It is thus proposed to match (1.2) to (1.1) by a single curve, using the least square error method.

Figure 1.1 shows the rigid-viscoplastic and viscous curves.

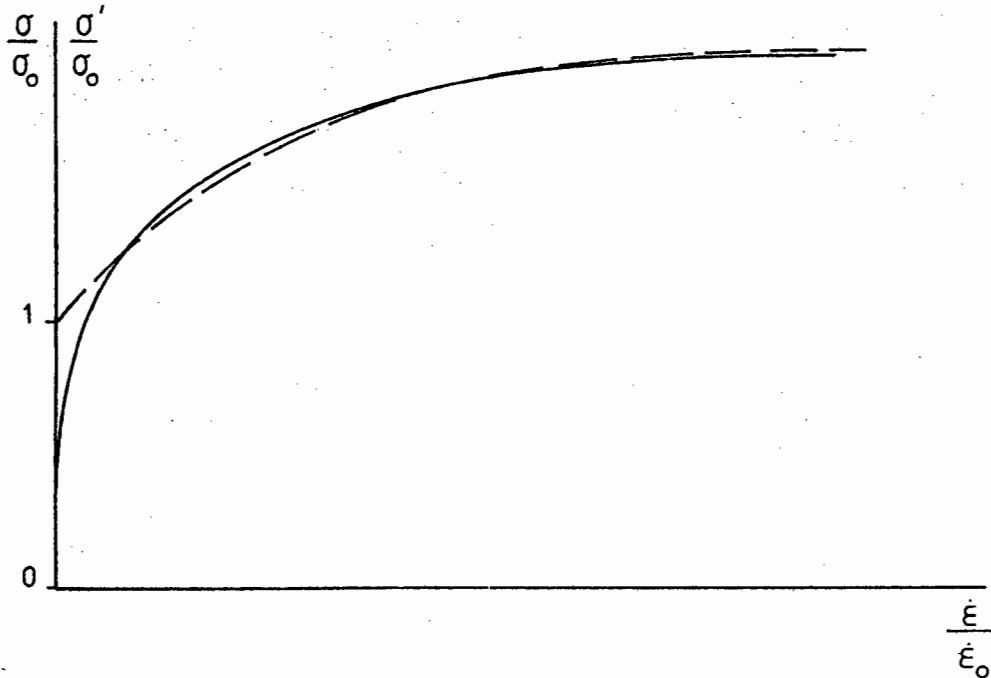


Figure 1.1

From (1.1) and (1.2) we have

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} = 1 + \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{5}},$$

$$\frac{\sigma'}{\sigma_0} = \mu \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{\alpha},$$

where  $\mu = \frac{\sigma'}{\sigma_0}$  and  $\alpha = \frac{1}{n'}$ .

The error at any value of  $\frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0}$  is given by

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} - \frac{\sigma'}{\sigma_0} = 1 + \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{5}} - \mu \left( \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon_0} \right)^{\alpha}.$$

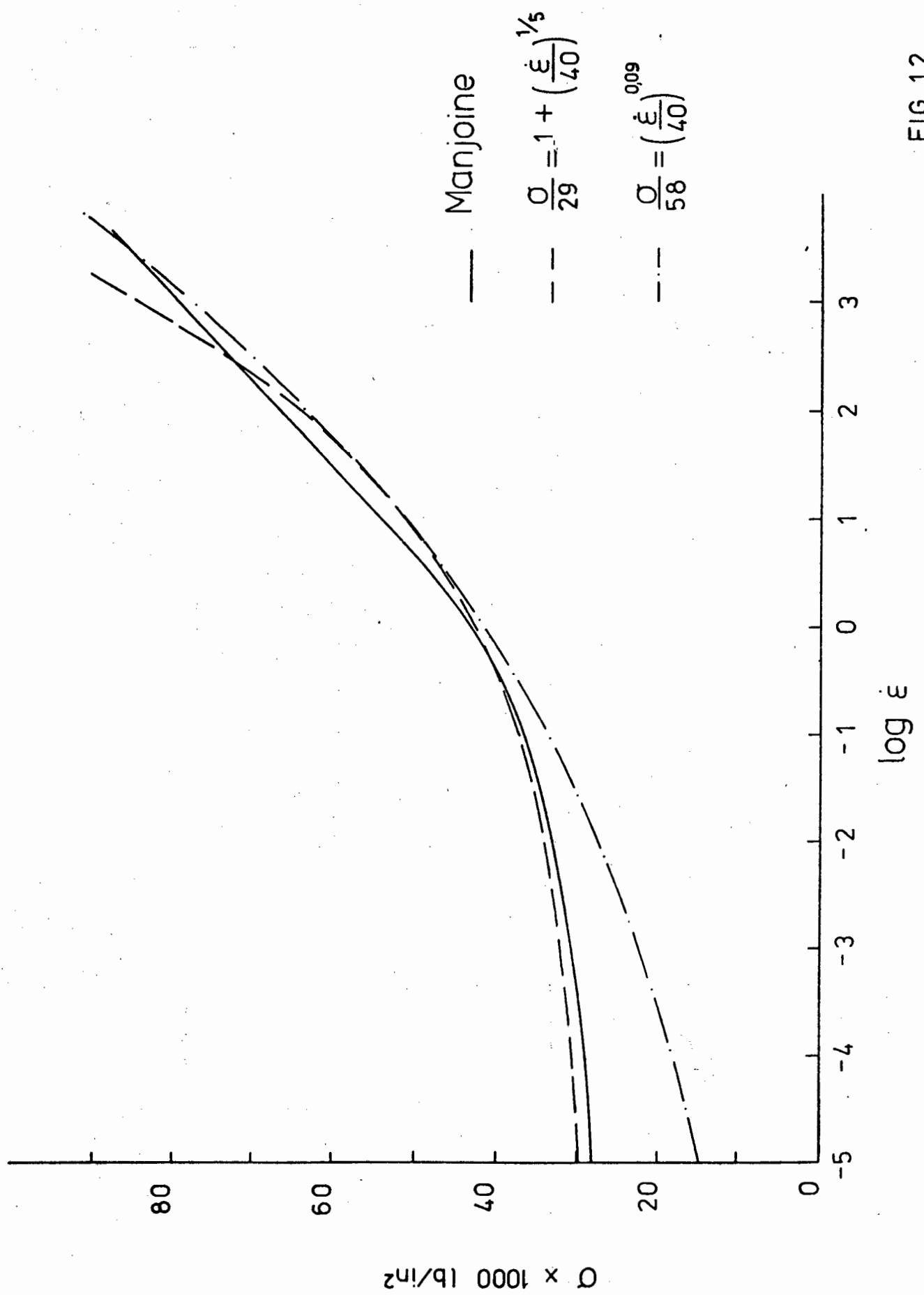


FIG. 1.2

This is squared and integrated over the interval  $0 \leq \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \leq A$ :

$$S = \int_0^A \left( \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} - \frac{\sigma'}{\sigma_0} \right)^2 d \left( \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right) = A + \frac{5A^{\frac{6}{5}}}{3} - \frac{2\mu A^{(\alpha+1)}}{\alpha+1} + \frac{5A^{\frac{7}{5}}}{7} \\ + \frac{\mu^2 A^{(2\alpha+1)}}{2\alpha+1} - \frac{2\mu A^{(\alpha+\frac{6}{5})}}{\alpha+\frac{6}{5}}$$

S is then minimized. For  $A = 2$  (range of interest in this study - see Part II), we get  $\mu = 2$  and  $\alpha = 0,09$  i.e. (1.2) becomes

$$\frac{\sigma}{2\sigma_0} = \left( \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{0,09} = \left( \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{\dot{\epsilon}_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{11,111}} \quad (1.3)$$

Figure 1.2 shows a comparison between the rigid-viscoplastic curve, the viscous curve and Manjoine's experimental curve for which  $\sigma_0 = 29$  kip,  $\dot{\epsilon}_0 = 40$  and  $n = 5$ . It can be seen that the viscous curve is everywhere below Manjoine's curve for rates less than  $10^3$  and the error induced is thus still conservative.

## 2. The use of Hamilton's principle for mode form solutions

A number of variational principles have been formulated to obtain mode solutions of a structure deforming plastically as a result of dynamic loading (see for example Lee and Martin [5]; Lee [6]; Martin [17]; Symonds and Wierzbicki [18]). Taya and Mura [13] have recently used an extended Hamilton's principle to analyse rigid-plastic structures. We shall here further extend

Hamilton's principle to include viscous materials and show how Lee and Martin's minimum principle may be derived from it.

For this purpose we treat bar structures composed of viscous material where the bending moment  $M$  and the curvature rate  $\dot{\kappa}$  are the only generalized stress and strain. The constitutive relation is thus

$$\frac{M}{M_0} = \left( \frac{\dot{\kappa}}{\dot{\kappa}_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}}, \quad (2.1)$$

where  $M_0$  and  $\dot{\kappa}_0$  are constants.

The structure occupies a domain  $S$ ; loads  $p(s,t)$  are specified on part  $S_T$ , while velocities  $\dot{u} = 0$  everywhere on  $S_u$ . The displacement and acceleration are represented by  $u$  and  $\ddot{u}$  respectively. Consider the identity

$$\frac{d}{dt} \dot{u} \delta u = \ddot{u} \delta u + \dot{u} \delta \dot{u}. \quad (2.2)$$

Multiply both sides by  $m$  and integrate over the domain  $S$ :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_S m \dot{u} \delta u ds = \int_S m \ddot{u} \delta u ds + \int_S m \dot{u} \delta \dot{u} ds. \quad (2.3)$$

The principle of virtual work gives

$$\int_S P \delta u ds - \int_S M \delta \kappa ds = \int_S m \ddot{u} \delta u ds \quad (2.4)$$

From (2.3) and (2.4) we get

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_S m \dot{u} ds = \int_S P \delta u ds - \int_S M \delta \kappa ds + \int_S m \dot{u} \dot{u} ds \quad (2.5)$$

Integrate both sides over the time interval  $[t_1, t_2]$ :

$$\int_S m \dot{u} ds \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2} = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left( \int_S P \delta u ds - \int_S M \delta \kappa ds + \int_S m \dot{u} \dot{u} ds \right) dt. \quad (2.6)$$

If we select  $\delta u(t_1) = \delta u(t_2) = 0$ , (2.6) becomes

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left( \int_S P \delta u ds - \int_S M \delta \kappa ds + \int_S m \dot{u} \dot{u} ds \right) dt = 0 \quad (2.7)$$

$$\text{Let } T = \text{kinetic energy} = \int_S \frac{1}{2} m \dot{u}^2 ds,$$

$$W = \text{potential of external loads} = \int_S P u ds.$$

Then

$$\delta T = \int_S m \dot{u} \delta \dot{u} ds,$$

and

$$\delta W = \int_S P \delta u ds.$$

Equation (2.7) becomes

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\delta W + \delta T) dt = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \int_S M \delta k ds dt. \quad (2.8)$$

This is in fact Hamilton's principle (see for example [26]) from which the equation of motion may be derived. Equation (2.7) may be written as

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \int_S (m \ddot{u} \delta u + P \delta u - M \delta u_{xx}) ds dt = 0 \quad (2.9)$$

We wish to find an expression dependant on  $\delta u$  only. The first and third terms of (2.9) may be integrated by parts:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \int_S m \ddot{u} \delta u ds dt &= \int_S m \delta u ds \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2} - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \int_S m \dot{u} \delta \dot{u} ds dt, \\ &= - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \int_S m \ddot{u} \delta u ds dt, \end{aligned} \quad (2.10)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_S M \delta u_{xx} ds &= M \delta u_x \Big|_S - \int_S M_x \delta u_x ds, \\ &= M \delta u_x \Big|_S - M_x \delta u \Big|_S + \int_S M_{xx} \delta u ds, \\ &= \int_S M_{xx} \delta u ds. \end{aligned} \quad (2.11)$$

The first two terms disappear since the varied path must satisfy the boundary conditions at any instant.

Substituting (2.10) and (2.11) in (2.9):

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \int_S \left( -m\ddot{u} - \frac{d^2M}{dx^2} + P \right) \delta u ds dt = 0, \quad (2.12)$$

i.e.

$$\frac{d^2M}{dx^2} + m\ddot{u} = P, \quad (2.13)$$

which is the differential equation governing the motion of a beam element.

When the moment  $M$  is constant, as in the rigid-plastic case, equation (2.8) may be written as

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\delta W + \delta T) dt = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \delta E dt,$$

where

$$E = \int_S M \kappa ds$$

This is the extended Hamilton's principle as proposed by Taya and Mura [13], in which  $E$  is the dissipated energy.

For viscous materials,  $M$  is not a constant and (2.14) does not hold. A similar equation may however be derived if we define  $\dot{u}$  to be of mode form:

$$\dot{u} = v^* \phi(x) T(t). \quad (2.15)$$

i.e.

$$\dot{\kappa} = v^* \phi_{xx}(x)T(t), \quad (2.16)$$

$$\kappa = v^* \phi_{xx} \int T dt = v^* \phi_{xx} T^*. \quad (2.17)$$

(2.1) becomes

$$M = \frac{M_0}{\dot{\kappa}_0^{1/n}} \left( \frac{T}{T^*} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \kappa^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (2.18)$$

The first variation of E is now

$$\begin{aligned} \delta E &= \int_S \frac{\partial(M\kappa)}{\partial \kappa} \delta \kappa ds, \\ &= \int_S \left\{ \kappa \frac{\partial M}{\partial \kappa} + M \right\} \delta \kappa ds. \end{aligned}$$

Using (2.18), this gives

$$\delta E = \frac{n+1}{n} \int_S M \delta \kappa ds \quad (2.19)$$

Equation (2.7) now reduces to

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\delta W + \delta T) dt = \frac{n}{n+1} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \delta E dt. \quad (2.20)$$

where  $E = \int_S M \dot{\kappa} ds$ . It must be noted that this is not the

dissipated energy.

We shall now show that Martin and Lee's minimum principle [5] can be derived from (2.20). This minimum principle applies to the impulse loading problem:  $p(s,t) = 0$ . Equation (2.20) becomes:

$$\delta \int_0^{t_f} \int_S \left( \frac{1}{2} m \dot{u}^2 - \frac{n}{n+1} M \kappa \right) ds dt = 0 \quad (2.21)$$

We seek mode solutions. Substituting (2.15) and (2.17) in (2.20)

$$\delta \left\{ \frac{m v^*{}^2}{2} \int_0^{t_f} T^2 dt \int_S \phi^2 ds - \frac{M_0 v^*{}^{\frac{n+1}{n}}}{\frac{1}{n} k_0} \frac{n+1}{n} \int_0^{t_f} T^{\frac{1}{n}} T^* dt \int_S \phi_{xx}^{\frac{n+1}{n}} ds \right\} = 0 \quad (2.22)$$

Let

$$A = \int_0^{t_f} T^2 dt,$$

$$B = - \frac{n+1}{n} \int_0^{t_f} T^{\frac{1}{n}} T^* dt.$$

Then,

$$\delta \left\{ A \frac{mv^{*2}}{2} \int_S \phi^2 dx + B \frac{M_0 v^{*n}}{k_0} \int_S \phi \frac{\partial^n}{\partial x^n} ds \right\} = 0,$$

i.e.

$$\delta \left\{ A \int_S \frac{1}{2} m \dot{u}^2 ds + B \int_S M \dot{u} ds \right\} = 0,$$

where

$$\dot{u} = v^* \phi(x),$$

$$\text{i.e. } \delta \left\{ \int_S M \dot{u} ds + \frac{B}{A} \int_S \frac{1}{2} m \dot{u}^2 ds \right\} = 0. \quad (2.23)$$

If  $\frac{B}{A}$  is treated as a Lagrangian multiplier, equation (2.22) means that the mode solution  $\dot{u}$  makes

$$\int_S M \dot{u} ds$$

stationary subject to the condition

$$\int_S \frac{1}{2} m \dot{u}^2 ds = \text{constant}$$

This is the extremum principle formulated by Lee and Martin [5].

### 3. Impulsively loaded portal frames

Consider the portal frame shown in Figure 3.1: a trapezoidal frame is treated here for generality; very minor changes are required for rectangular frames.

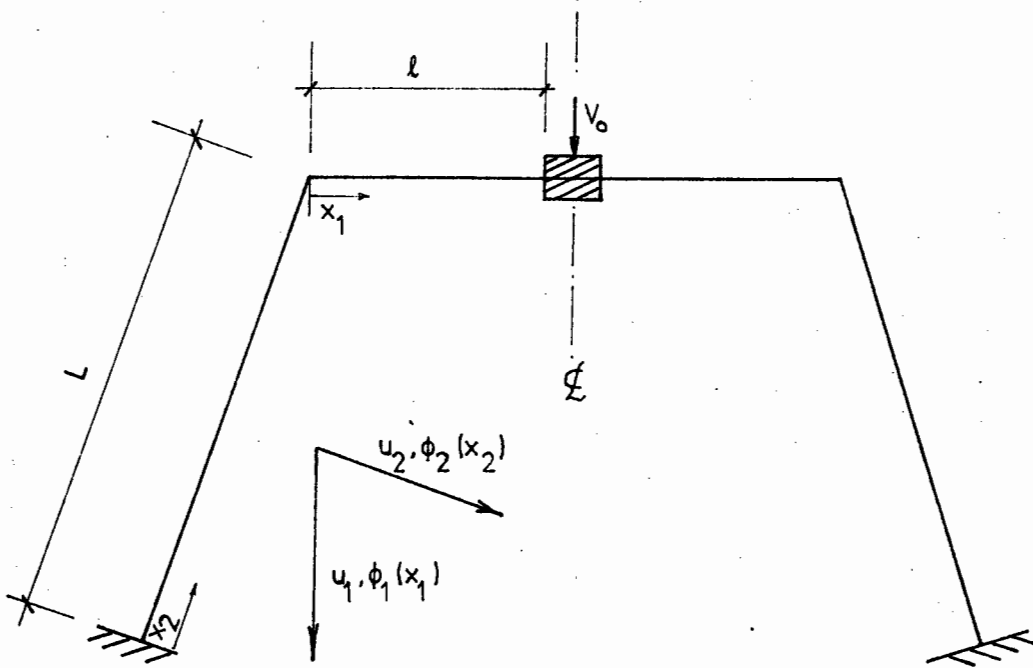


Figure 3.1

The frame is of rectangular cross-section (width  $b$ , thickness  $h$ ), mass  $m$  per unit length. A mass  $G$  is attached at mid-span, and (treated as a particle) is subjected to an impulse so that its velocity at time  $t = 0$  is  $V_0$ . Let  $\dot{u}(x_1, t)$ ,  $\dot{u}_2(x_2, t)$  represent the velocities at time  $t$  of a point  $x_i$  of the beam and column members respectively. The bending moment  $M$  and the curvature rate  $\dot{\kappa}$  are considered as the only generalized stress and strain. The constitutive equation is thus

$$\frac{M}{M_0} = \left( \frac{\dot{\kappa}}{\dot{\kappa}_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} \quad (3.1)$$

where  $M_0 = (\mu\sigma_0 bh^2)/4$  is the yield moment;

$\dot{\kappa}_0 = \frac{2\dot{\epsilon}_0}{h} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2n}\right)^n$  is the material rate sensitivity constant for bending curvature rate [5].

Because of the geometrical and loading symmetry, only half of the frame is analysed.

### 3.1 Small deflection analysis

We seek a mode form approximate solution and write this as

$$\dot{u}_i(x_i, t) = v^* \phi_i(x_i) T(t), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (3.2)$$

where the shape function  $\phi_1(x_1)$  is normalised so that  $\phi_1(\ell) = 1$ , and the time function  $T(t)$  is defined so that  $T(0) = 1$  and  $T(t) = 0$ . Thus  $v^*$  is the initial velocity at  $x_1 = \ell$ . The boundary conditions to be satisfied by the mode functions are

$$\dot{u}_1(0, t) = \dot{u}_2(0, t) = \dot{u}_{1x}(\ell, t) = \dot{u}_{2x}(0, t),$$

$$M_1(0, t) = M_2(L, t), \quad (3.3)$$

$$\left. \frac{dM_1}{dx_1} \right|_{x_1=\ell} = \frac{G}{2} \frac{d\dot{u}_1}{dt}.$$

$v^*$  may be found as suggested by Martin and Symonds [3] by minimizing  $\Delta_o(v^*)$  where

$$\Delta_o(v^*) = \frac{1}{2} \int_S m(\dot{u}_i^o - v^* \phi_i(x_i))^2 ds + \frac{1}{2} \frac{G}{2} (V_o - v^*)^2,$$

i.e.

$$v^* = \frac{G/2 V_o}{\int_S m \phi_i^2 ds + \frac{G}{2}} \quad (3.4)$$

The equation of motion is from (2.13)

$$\frac{d^2 M_i}{dx_i^2} + m \frac{du_i}{dt} = 0 \quad (3.5)$$

Substituting equations (3.1) and (3.2) in (3.5):

$$\frac{M_o v^{*\frac{1}{n}}}{\dot{k}_o} T^{\frac{1}{n}} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \phi_{ixx}^{\frac{1}{n}} = - m v^* \phi_i \dot{T}.$$

This equation is separable and gives

$$- \dot{T} T^{\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{M_o v^{*\frac{1}{n}}}{\dot{k}_o m v^* \phi_i} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \phi_{ixx}^{\frac{1}{n}} = A, \quad (3.6)$$

where A is a constant.

$T(t)$  may then be found by integration. Taking into account the conditions  $T(0) = 1$  and  $T(t_f) = 0$  we get

$$T = \left( 1 - \frac{t}{t_f} \right)^{\frac{n}{n-1}}, \quad (3.7)$$

where  $t_f = \frac{n}{A(n-1)}$ .

The shape functions  $\phi_i(x_i)$  are governed by the differential equation

$$\frac{d^2}{dx_i^2} \phi_i^{\frac{1}{n}} = m\Lambda\phi_i, \quad (3.8)$$

where  $\Lambda = \frac{Av^*k_0^{\frac{1}{n}}}{M_0v^*}$

and must satisfy the boundary conditions

$$\phi_1(0) = \phi_2(0) = \phi_{1x}(l) = \phi_{2x}(0) = 0,$$

$$\phi_{1xx}(0) = \phi_{2xx}(L), \quad (3.9)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \phi_{1xx}^{\frac{1}{n}} \Big|_{x_1=l} = -\frac{G}{2} \Lambda,$$

obtained by substituting (3.1) and (3.2) into (3.3).

Using the equations for rate of energy dissipation,  
it can be shown that

$$\Lambda = \frac{\int_S \phi_{ixx}^{\frac{n+1}{n}} ds}{\int_S m\phi_i^2 ds + \frac{G}{2}} \quad (3.10)$$

The iterative procedure adopted by Lee and Martin [5] and by Symonds [7] may be used to determine the shape functions  $\phi_i(x_i)$  and hence the mode solution:

- (i) Functions  $\phi_i^{(0)}(x_i)$  which satisfy equations (3.9) and the normalizing condition  $\phi_1(\ell) = 1$  are chosen;

$$\phi_1^{(0)}(x_1) = -\frac{x_1^2}{\ell^2} + \frac{2x_1}{\ell},$$

$$\phi_2^{(0)}(x_2) = -\frac{x_2^3}{2\ell^2L} + \frac{x_2^2}{2\ell^2}.$$

- (ii)  $\Lambda$  is determined using (3.10)

- (iii) Writing  $m\Lambda\phi_i(x)$  as the right-hand side of (3.8), the resulting equation is numerically integrated to give  $\phi_i^{(1)}(x_i)$ . This procedure is described in detail in Appendix A.

- (iv) The generated function  $\phi^{(1)}$  is normalized so that  $\phi_1^{(1)}(\ell) = 1$  and is now used to calculate  $\Lambda$  and  $m\Lambda\phi_i$ . The cycle is repeated till  $\Lambda$  remains constant.
- (v)  $v^*, t_f$  are calculated and the mode shape is thus fully determined.

The convergence of this procedure was not investigated but was found to be rapid.

### 3.2 Large deflection analysis

For the large deflection analysis, the total response is split into several intermediate stages to each of which the small deflection analysis is applied. The configuration at the end of each stage is used as the initial configuration of the next stage.

The mode solution is written as

$$\dot{u}_i = v^* \phi_i^{(t)}(x_i) T(t), \quad (3.11)$$

where  $\phi_i^{(t)}(x_i)$  is the instantaneous mode at the current deflections.

The initial configuration of the frame is shown in Figure 3.2.

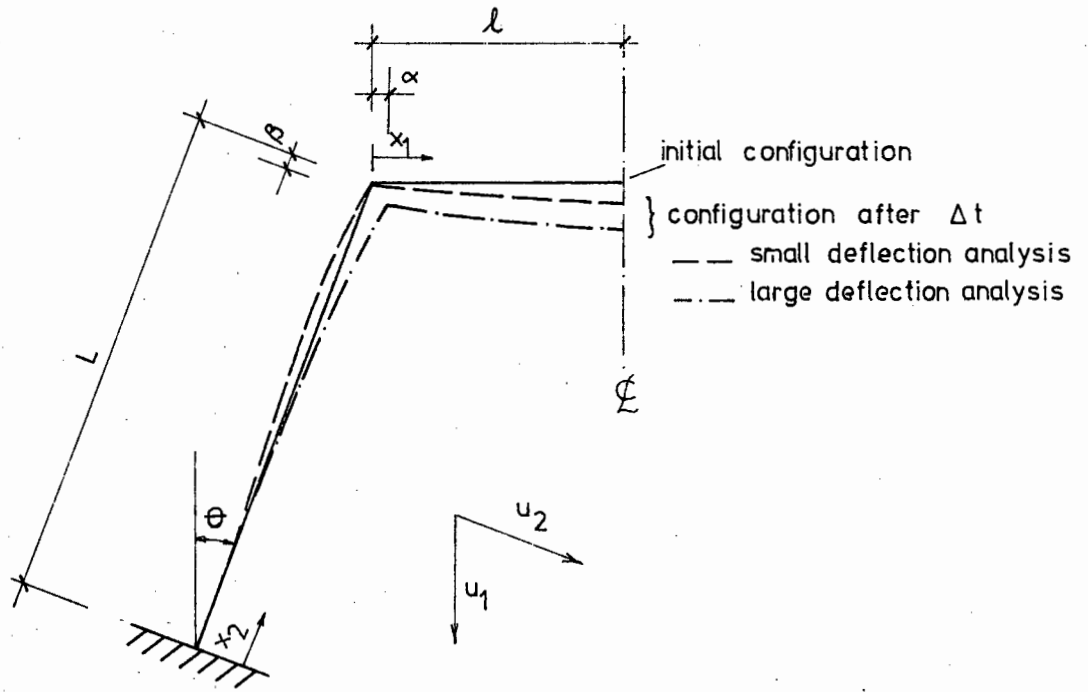


Figure 3.2

The initial mode shape is determined and assumed to govern the motion for a small period of time  $\Delta t$  after which the displacement shape of the frame is as shown in Figure 3.2. The small deflection analysis ignores geometry changes and assumes the corner point displacements to be zero. This is however not correct: the deflection of the beam member causes an inward displacement of the corner point

$$\alpha \approx \int_0^l \frac{1}{2}(u_{1x})^2 ds. \quad (3.12)$$

The column displacement is then corrected using equation (3.13):

$$\bar{u}_2(x_2) = u_2(x_2) + \frac{4\alpha}{L^3} \left( \frac{x_2^4}{12L} + \frac{x_2^3}{6} \right) \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \quad (3.13)$$

The second term of equation (3.13) is an arbitrarily chosen interpolation function.

The axial shortening  $\beta$  due to the column deflection is then given by

$$\beta = \int_0^L \frac{1}{2} (u_{2x})^2 dx \quad (3.14)$$

The beam displacement must thus be corrected:

$$\bar{u}_1(x_1) = u_1(x_1) + \beta \cos \theta \quad (3.15)$$

The new configuration is thus determined and a new mode shape is calculated. The process is repeated till the frame comes to rest.

It must be noted that equation (3.13) only applies to the first time interval  $\Delta t$ . In the next stages,  $u_2(L) \neq 0$  and  $u_2(x_2)$  is simply multiplied by the correction factor

$$\frac{\alpha}{u_2(L)} \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \quad (3.16)$$

to satisfy the continuity requirements.

For the rectangular frames,  $\theta = 0$  and  $\cos \theta$  is thus 1. The analysis remains otherwise the same.

#### 4. Pulse loaded portal frames

Consider the portal frame described in the previous section. The frame is stationary at time  $t = 0$  and the mass  $G$  (treated as a particle) is subjected to a load  $P$  given by

$$\begin{aligned} P &= P(t) & \text{for } 0 \leq t \leq t_0, \\ P &= 0 & \text{for } t > t_0. \end{aligned} \quad (4.1)$$

A mode form solution is sought:

$$\dot{u}_i(x_i, t) = v^* \phi_i^{(t)}(x_i) T(t), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (4.2)$$

where the mode function  $\phi_1^{(t)}(x_1)$  is defined so that  $\phi_1(\ell) = 1$ , and the time function  $T(t)$  so that  $T(0) = 0$ ,  $T(t_0) = 1$  and  $T(t_f) = 0$ .

The boundary conditions to be satisfied are the same as those given in (3.3) for  $t > t_0$ . However, for  $t < t_0$

$$\left. \frac{dM_1}{dx_1} \right|_{x_1=\ell} = \frac{G}{2} \frac{du_1}{dt} - \frac{P}{2}. \quad (4.3)$$

The equation of motion is again

$$\frac{d^2 M_1}{dx_1^2} + m \frac{du_1}{dt} = 0 \quad (4.4)$$

For  $t > t_0$ , the solution procedure will thus be the same as for the impulse case, large deflection analysis. For  $t \leq t_0$ ,

equation (3.6) is still valid i.e. the differential equation governing the shape function  $\phi_i^{(t)}(x_i)$  is

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \phi_{ixx}^{\frac{1}{n}} = -\phi_i \frac{mv^* \kappa_o^{\frac{1}{n}} \dot{T}}{M_o v^* \frac{1}{h} T \frac{1}{h}} \quad (4.5)$$

and the equation governing the time function  $T(t)$  is

$$-\dot{T} T^{\frac{1}{n}} = A. \quad (4.6)$$

Integrating (4.6) and taking into account the conditions

$$T(0) = 0, T(t_o) = 1:$$

$$T = \left( \frac{t}{t_o} \right)^{\frac{n}{n-1}} \quad (4.7)$$

Equation (4.5) becomes then

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \phi_{ixx}^{\frac{1}{n}} = \phi_i \frac{mv^* \kappa_o^{\frac{1}{n}} n}{M_o v^* \frac{1}{h} t_o (1-n)} \quad (4.8)$$

Substituting (3.1), (4.2) and (4.7) in (4.3), the boundary condition at  $x_1 = \ell$  becomes

$$\left. \frac{d}{dx_1} \phi_{1xx}^{\frac{1}{n}} \right|_{x_1=\ell} = \frac{Gv^* \kappa_o^{\frac{1}{n}} n}{2M_o v^* \frac{1}{h} t_o (1-n)} - \frac{P \kappa_o^{\frac{1}{n}}}{2M_o v^* \frac{1}{h}} \left( \frac{t_o}{t} \right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}} \quad (4.9)$$

In pulse loaded structures where the initial velocities are zero,  $v^*$  cannot be determined by minimizing  $\Delta_0(v^*)$ .

Using the work rate equation

$$\int_S \frac{P}{2} \dot{u}_i ds - \int_S m \ddot{u}_i \dot{u}_i ds = \int_S M_i \dot{k}_i ds, \quad (4.1)$$

integrating both sides over the time interval  $[0, t_0]$  and introducing (3.1), (4.2) and (4.7) we get

$$\frac{I}{2} - v^* \left[ \int_S m \phi_i^2 ds + \frac{G}{2} \right] = \frac{M_0 v^{*\frac{1}{n}} t_0^{(n-1)}}{k_0^{\frac{1}{n}} n} \int_S \phi_{ixx}^n ds, \quad (4.11)$$

where  $I = \int_0^{t_0} P dt = \text{impulse}$ .

If  $\phi_i(x_i)$  is known,  $v^*$  may be determined by (4.11).

It is clear from (4.9) that mode solutions do not exist. It will however be assumed here that  $\phi_i(x_i)$  may be approximated by the initial mode shape of the impulse loading case. The following procedure may then be used for the analysis:

- (i) The initial mode shape is determined as in the impulse loading case. This is used to calculate  $v^*$ . The configuration of the frame at time  $t_0$  is given by

$$\dot{u}_i = v^* \phi_i(x_i) \left( \frac{t}{t_0} \right)^{\frac{n}{n-1}}. \quad (4.12)$$

- (ii) This is then used as the initial configuration for the next phases which are treated as in the large deflection impulse loading case.

A series of frames was studied using the methods described here; the results are given in Part II, section 3.

## PART II: EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

Two series of experiments were conducted to test the validity of the mode form solution applied to portal frames: the first on rectangular frames, the second on trapezoidal frames.

1. The Specimens1.1 Specimen material

The frames were made from commercial mild steel (carbon content < 0,15 %). The finished test specimens were heat-treated in a barium salt bath for 1 hour at 700° C. Tensile specimens - as specified in ASTM E8 [24] - were tested at four speeds up to a maximum of 0,05 sec<sup>-1</sup> strain rate. Tables 1 and 2 show the results of these tests: the  $\sigma_0$  values were obtained by putting the measured dynamic yield stress into the formula

$$\frac{\sigma_y}{\sigma_0} = \left( 1 + \left[ \frac{\dot{\epsilon}}{40} \right]^{\frac{1}{5}} \right)^{\frac{1}{5}}$$

All theoretical calculations were done with the average  $\sigma_0$  at the highest strain rate (0,05 sec<sup>-1</sup>). For the rectangular frames,  $\sigma_0 = 238,350$  MPa. For the trapezoidal frames,  $\sigma_0 = 216,533$  MPa. Other material properties are:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \text{mass density} = 7\,724,359 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ for the rectangular frames} \\ &= 7\,888,889 \text{ kg/m}^3 \text{ for the trapezoidal frames} \end{aligned}$$

$$E = \text{Young's modulus} = 200 \text{ GPa}$$

Specimen Number	$\dot{\epsilon}$ (sec <sup>-1</sup> )	$\sigma_y$ (MPa)	$\sigma_o$ (MPa)	Average $\sigma_o$
8	$4,704 \cdot 10^{-5}$	233,502	219,215	
13		238,298	223,717	
16		239,340	224,695	224,725 ±
2		246,345	231,272	4,975
15	$4,704 \cdot 10^{-4}$	246,637	223,546	
1		261,245	236,786	
18		251,831	228,253	231,476 ±
14		261,833	237,319	6,723
3	$4,704 \cdot 10^{-3}$	277,284	238,275	
21		279,485	240,167	
10		281,544	241,936	239,633 ±
5		277,284	238,275	1,758
20	$4,704 \cdot 10^{-2}$	296,256	235,223	
9		305,013	242,176	
11		309,391	245,652	
4		299,175	237,541	
12		297,137	235,923	238,350 ±
6		294,195	233,587	4,625

Overall average:  $\sigma_o = 234,087 \pm 7,426$  MPa

TABLE 1

Tensile tests for rectangular portal frames

Specimen Number	$\dot{\epsilon}$ ( $\text{sec}^{-1}$ )	$\sigma_y$ (MPa)	$\sigma_o$ (MPa)	Average $\sigma_o$
7	$4,98 \cdot 10^{-5}$	187,432	175,840	
2		183,143	171,816	
5*		274,714	257,724	175,177 $\pm$
1		189,602	177,876	3,084
8	$4,98 \cdot 10^{-4}$	221,200	200,275	196,752 $\pm$
12		213,417	193,228	4,983
9	$4,98 \cdot 10^{-3}$	237,514	203,771	204,996 $\pm$
3		240,370	206,221	1,732
4	$4,98 \cdot 10^{-2}$	273,606	216,727	
11		276,497	219,017	
10		270,424	214,206	216,533 $\pm$
6		272,917	216,181	1,979

Overall average: 199,560  $\pm$  17,519 MPa

TABLE 2

Tensile tests for trapezoidal frames

\* Disregarded

## 1.2 The Frames

The frames were made from mild steel strips. These were surface ground on four faces and then bent to the required dimensions. Three types of frames were tested: typical dimensions are given in Figures 1 and 2. Steel blocks (weighing less than 3 g) were silver braised at the corners to ensure that plastic hinges did not form at the corners where the cross-section is not uniform. These blocks have been neglected in the theoretical calculations.

The frames were then heat-treated as described earlier. A total of 30 specimens were designed, 18 of which were rectangular frames and 12 of which were trapezoidal frames. Of the rectangular frames, 9 had a height of 129 mm, and 9 had a height of 180 mm, the span remaining constant. These will be referred to as the small and large rectangular frames respectively. Steel blocks were bolted to the beam members at mid span. The blocks attached to the rectangular frames weighed 108,9 g; those attached to the trapezoidal frames weighed 104,3 g.

## 2. Experimental Details

The loads were applied by fitting commercial electric detonators enclosed in steel containing cylinders. The cylinders were fixed to the centre mass with plasticine so that they disengaged from the attached mass at the instant of firing i.e. they did not contribute to the attached mass. Different loading conditions were obtained by varying the dimensions of

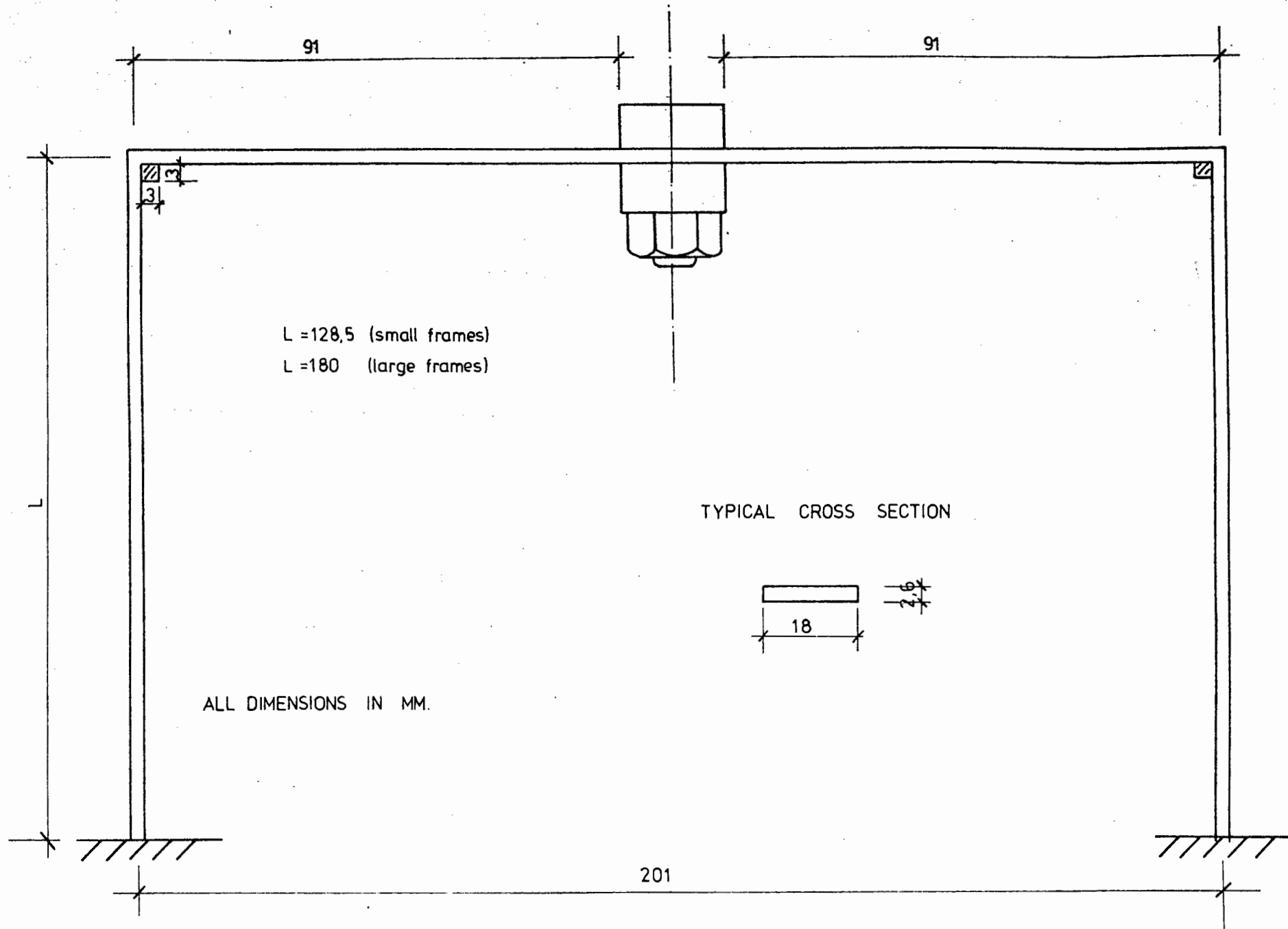


FIG. 1

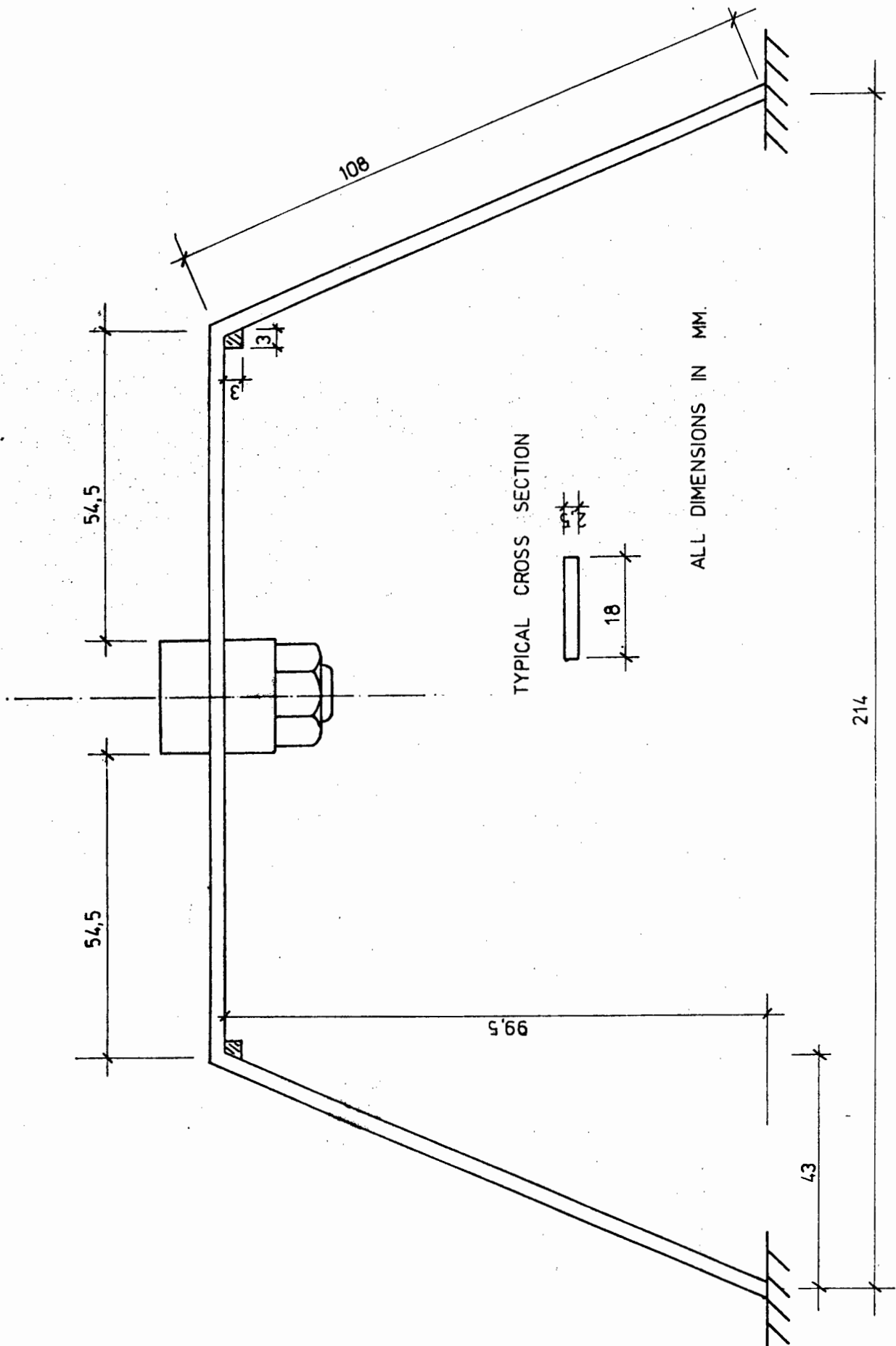


FIG. 2

the containing cylinders and the number of detonators. The loading time was very short (less than 0,6 msec) and the load could thus be treated as an impulse.

The requirements of the testing apparatus were to provide a means of measuring

- i) the impulse produced by the detonators, and
- ii) the transient velocity time response of the centre mass.

This was achieved by attaching the frame specimens to a ballistic pendulum and fixing a velocity transducer onto the centre mass.

Figure 3 illustrates the experimental arrangement employed.

## 2.1 The ballistic pendulum

The ballistic pendulum was used to measure the impulse applied by the detonator. The impulse is directly related to the amplitude of oscillation of the pendulum through the conservation of momentum equation. This experimental technique has been used in several laboratories [19, 20, 21] with apparent success. Two important assumptions underlie the method:

- i) gas pressures from the explosion only act on the centre mass i.e. no external impulses are applied to the pendulum other than those exerted by the specimen through its support reactions and
- ii) the amplitude of oscillation of the pendulum is not affected by the finite duration of the impulse.

'Blast shields' have been used in certain laboratories [20, 21] to shield the pendulum from unwanted pressures. It was felt here that these would not be necessary since the detonators were enclosed in steel cylinders so that the blast pressures were confined to the attached mass only.

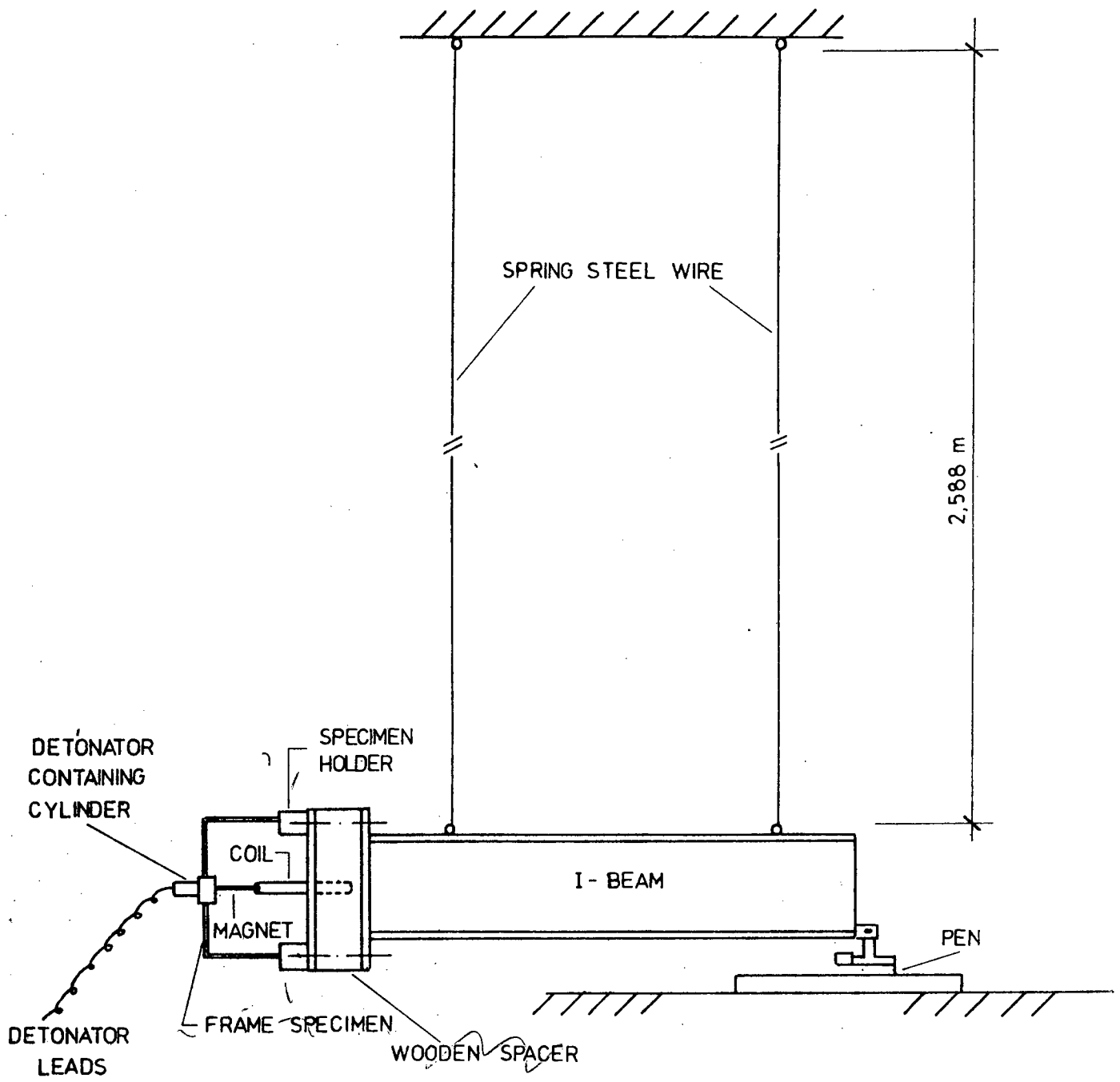


FIG. 3

The second assumption was validated on the basis of the following two degree of freedom model. The frame-pendulum system is idealised as shown in Figure 4.

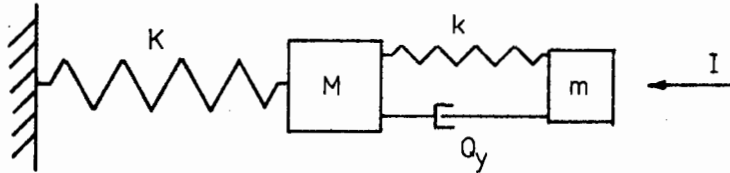


Figure 4

The pendulum of mass  $M$  is attached to a massless elastic spring of stiffness  $K = 4\pi^2M/T^2$ . The attached mass  $m$  is connected to  $M$  through an elastic plastic spring of elastic slope  $k$  and yield stress  $Q_y$  where  $k$  and  $Q_y$  correspond to the elastic stiffness and collapse load of the frame respectively. The mass  $m$  is slightly modified to include the weight of the frame. An impulse  $I = P \cdot t_0$  is applied on  $m$  ( $P$  is a rectangular load pulse such that  $P = P_0$  for  $t < t_0$ ;  $P = 0$  for  $t > t_0$ ). This model was analysed keeping  $I$  constant but varying  $t_0$  from 0 to 1 msec. It was found that the amplitude of oscillation of the mass  $M$  varied by less than 0,3 mm for  $I = 3$  Nsec (typical impulse used in the experiments).

2.1.1 Relation between the impulse I and the amplitude of oscillation of the pendulum  $\Delta$

The pendulum is shown diagrammatically in Figure 5.

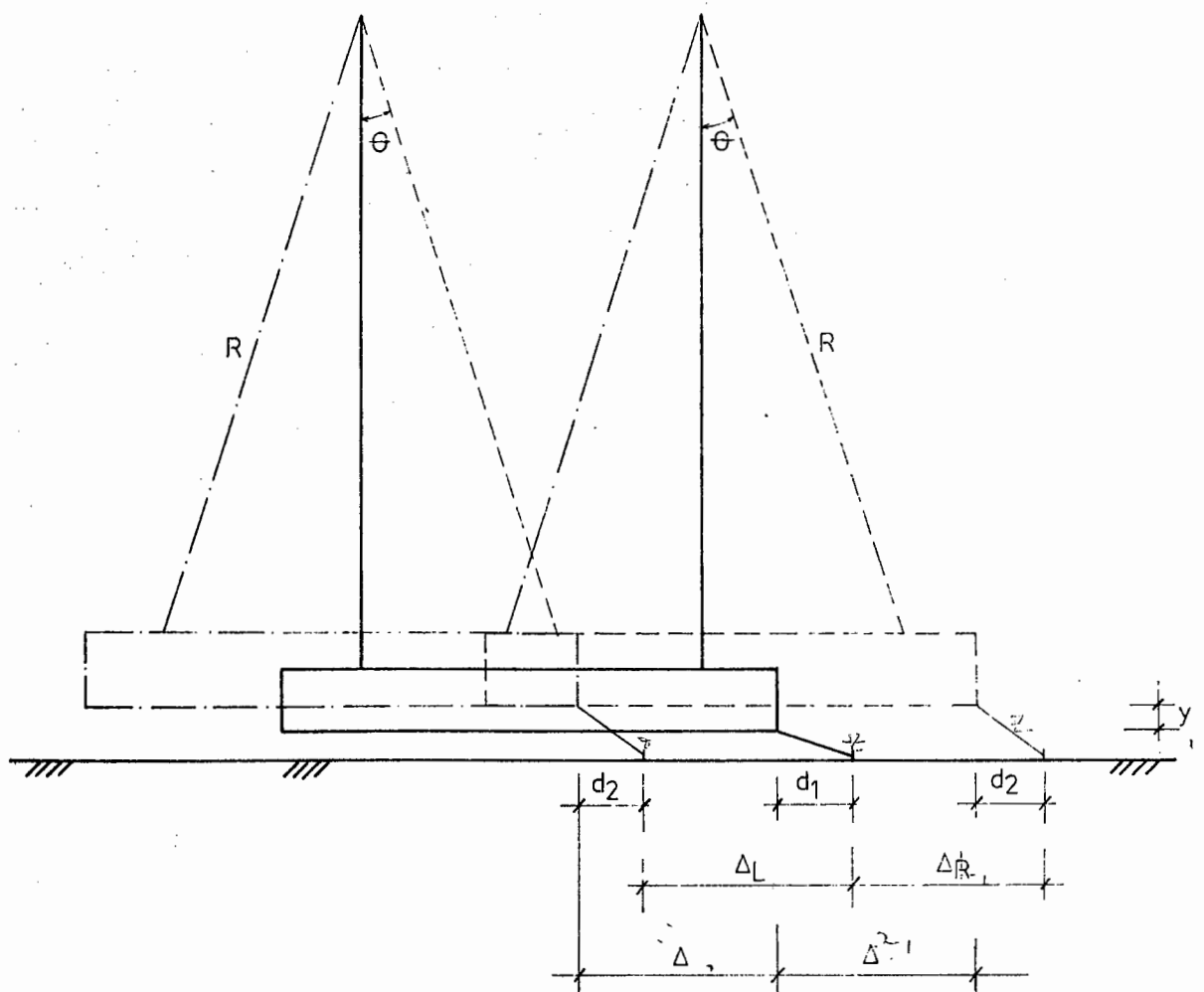


Figure 5

Let  $M$  be the mass of the pendulum and frame,  
 $m$  the mass of the attached mass,  
 $v_0$  the instantaneous velocity of the attached mass,  
 $v$  the velocity of the pendulum after impulse.

If the impulse duration is neglected, the initial momentum of the system is that of the attached mass  $mv_0$ , and the momentum of the system just after the impulse is  $(m + M)v$  so that

$$mv_0 = (m + M)v. \quad (1)$$

The pendulum then swings to a maximum height  $y$ . Using the conservation of mechanical energy for this part of the motion:

$$\frac{1}{2}(m + M)v^2 = (m + M)gy. \quad (2)$$

From (1) and (2) we get

$$v_0 = \frac{m + M}{m} \sqrt{2gy}. \quad (3)$$

It is now necessary to relate  $y$  to the horizontal displacement of the pendulum  $\Delta$ :

$$\Delta \approx R\theta,$$

$$y \approx \frac{R\theta^2}{2} = \frac{\Delta^2}{2R}. \quad (4)$$

(3) and (4) give

$$v_o = \frac{\Delta}{R} \frac{(m + M)}{m} \sqrt{gR} . \quad (5)$$

It can be seen in Figure 5 that the displacement of the pendulum to the right ( $\Delta_R$ ) and left ( $\Delta_L$ ) of the equilibrium position are not the same and are different to the horizontal displacement of the pendulum. However, since

$$\Delta_R = \Delta + d_2 - d_1$$

and  $\Delta_L = \Delta - d_2 + d_1 , \quad (6)$

we get  $\Delta = \frac{\Delta_L + \Delta_R}{2}$

The impulse may then be determined:

$$I = mv_o$$

### 2.1.2 Evaluation of the friction in the system

All the above equations are valid provided the system is frictionless and stable. Stability was ensured by designing the apparatus so that the impulse would be applied at a point about the same level as the centre of gravity of the suspended mass. To reduce the friction of the pendulum, its weight was counter-balanced as shown in Figure 6.

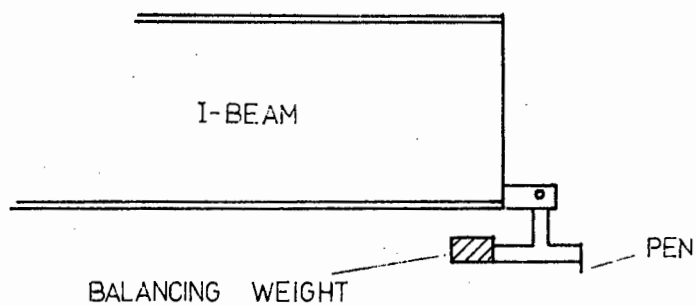


Figure 6

The amount of friction in the system was assessed in the following way. If a viscous damping force is assumed, the equation of motion of the pendulum is

$$M \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + c \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{M}{R} gx = 0, \quad (7)$$

where  $c$  is the damping coefficient.

Letting  $\beta = \frac{c}{2M}$  and  $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{g}{R}}$ , (7) becomes

$$\frac{d^2x}{dt^2} + 2\beta \frac{dx}{dt} + \omega^2 x = 0. \quad (8)$$

The solution of this equation is given by

$$x = e^{-\beta t} \frac{\dot{x}_0}{\omega_d} \sin \omega_d t, \quad (9)$$

where  $\omega_d^2 = \omega^2 - \beta^2$ .

The displacement is maximum when

$$\dot{x} = x(\omega_d \cot \omega_d t - \beta) = 0,$$

$$\text{i.e. } x_{\max} = e^{-\frac{\beta \alpha}{\omega_d}} \frac{\dot{x}_0}{\omega_d} \sin \alpha, \quad (10)$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = \arctan \frac{\omega_d}{\beta}.$$

The initial velocity of the pendulum is then

$$v_0 = x_{\max} \frac{e^{\frac{\beta \alpha}{\omega_d}}}{\sin \alpha} \omega_d. \quad (11)$$

If the system was frictionless, we would have

$$v_0^* = x_{\max} \omega, \quad (12)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{v_0^*}{v_0} = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\frac{\beta \alpha}{\omega_d}} \cdot \frac{\omega}{\omega_d}. \quad (13)$$

To determine  $\beta$ , the pendulum was allowed to swing freely over a number of cycles with different initial amplitudes. It was observed that the loss in amplitude of the swing per quarter cycle was less than 0,5 % i.e.

$$c \approx \frac{\ln \delta}{\pi} M \sqrt{\frac{g}{R}} = 0,085,$$

where  $\delta$  is the logarithmic decrement.

This gives  $\frac{v_0^*}{v_0} = 0,999$  and the friction was thus ignored herein.

## 2.2 The velocity transducer

In some preliminary tests, a piezo-electric accelerometer was attached to the centre mass to record the acceleration during the test. The presence of high frequency elastic vibrations made the record very difficult to interpret, and the accelerometer was discarded in favour of a velocity transducer (Rawlings [9] has reported the same problem with an accelerometer). The transducer is shown diagrammatically in Figure 7.

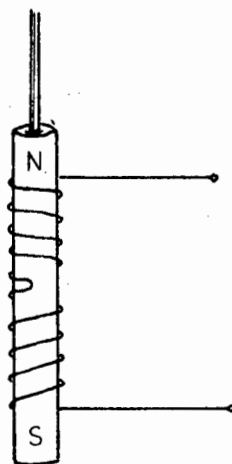


Figure 7

A permanent magnet core moves inside a form wound with two coils and generates a voltage

$$E = Blv,$$

where  $B$  is the flux density,

$l$  is the length of the coil,

$v$  is the relative velocity of coil and magnet.

To calibrate the transducer, a small motor with eccentric shaft was used to drive the magnet core. A sinusoidal velocity of known maximum amplitude was thus generated. The calibration curve is shown in Figure 8. The linear range was found to be limited to 20 mm. For deformations greater than 30 mm, the transducer was only used to record the pulse duration and the time to maximum deformation. The calibration was checked at the beginning of each series of experiments to make sure that the flux density had not been affected during the previous experiments.

All calibrations were however done at low velocities (0,283 m/s). No means could be found to calibrate the transducer at higher velocities (typically 15 to 20 m/s in experiments) and it was assumed that the same calibration curve applied at higher velocities.

Table 1 gives a comparison between maximum velocities from the transducer and the pendulum (in which case pulse duration is ignored).

Frame	Pendulum	Transducer
8R*	14,29 m/s	13,85 m/s
16R	14,94	14,62
9R	14,12	13,85
15R	15,09	14,62
11R	14,57	12,31
5T*	15,32	14,30
11T	15,45	15,40
9T	17,15	15,20
6T	17,57	15,50

\* R : Rectangular frame

T : Trapezoidal frame

TABLE 1

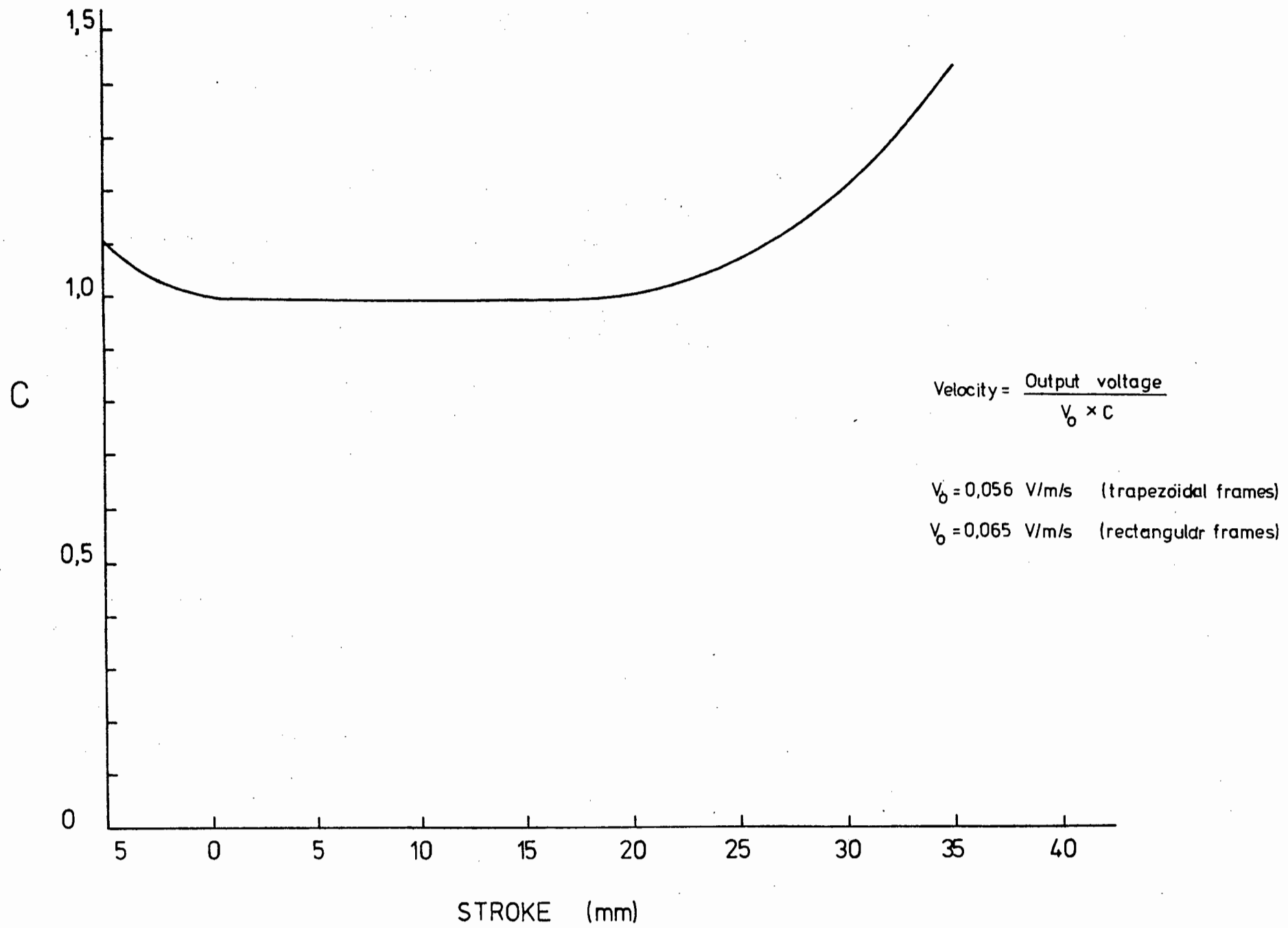


FIG. 8

Table 1 only compares velocities which are less than  $\pm 17$  m/s. It can be seen that the pendulum and transducer readings compare very well. However, for velocities greater than  $\pm 17$  m/s, the discrepancies become larger (up to 20% at  $\pm 22$  m/s). It must be noted that the transducer was then well into its non-linear range. The arrangement shown in Figure 8 was used to record the transducer output voltage.

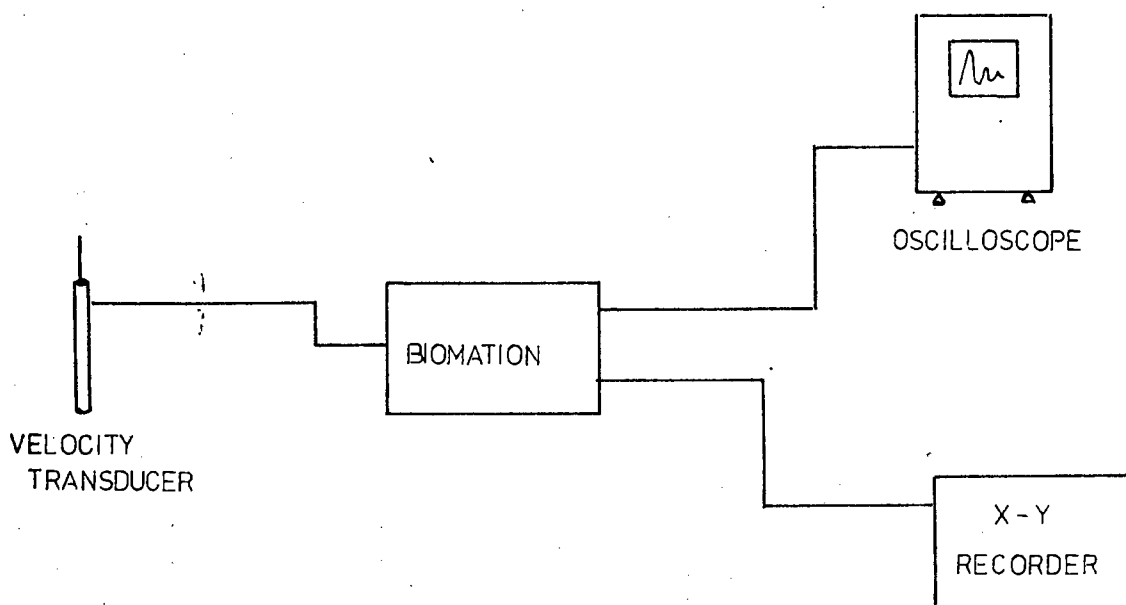


Figure 8

The output voltage is recorded in the biomation as a function of time. The amplitude versus time information is stored in it in digital form. A reconstructed analog signal is then provided by the biomation for viewing on the oscilloscope or making a permanent record on the chart recorder.

### 3. Results

The following figures and tables summarize the test results. These will be further discussed in the next section. All theoretical calculations were done using the techniques described in Part I.

In the following pages, experimental and theoretical results are compared. Figures 9, 10 and 11 show the deflection profiles of the frames. Figures 12, 13, 14 and 15 show the transient response of the attached mass. Figures 17 and 18 give the final deflection of the centre mass as a function of the applied impulse. Figures 19 and 20 give the final inward displacement at the corner point as a function of the applied impulse. Figures 20 and 21 compare the observed time to maximum deformation with computed deformation times. Tables 2, 3 and 4 give a full summary of the experimental and theoretical results.

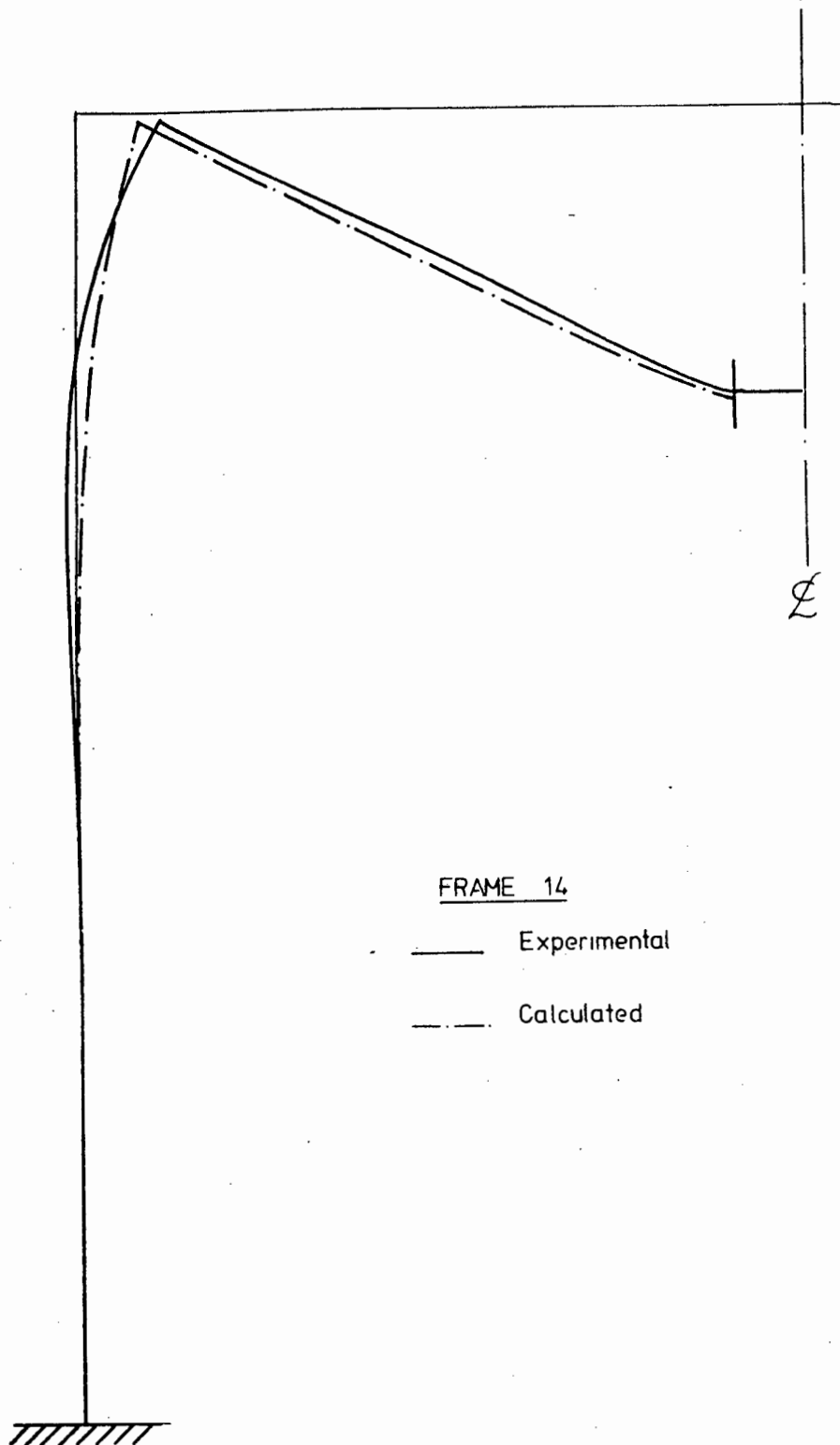


Figure 9

Full scale deflection profiles of a large rectangular frame as observed and as calculated (including pulse duration). The difference between observed and calculated curves are as would be expected since the assumptions in the theoretical calculations are all conservative (the calculations also omit the initial phase of the response).

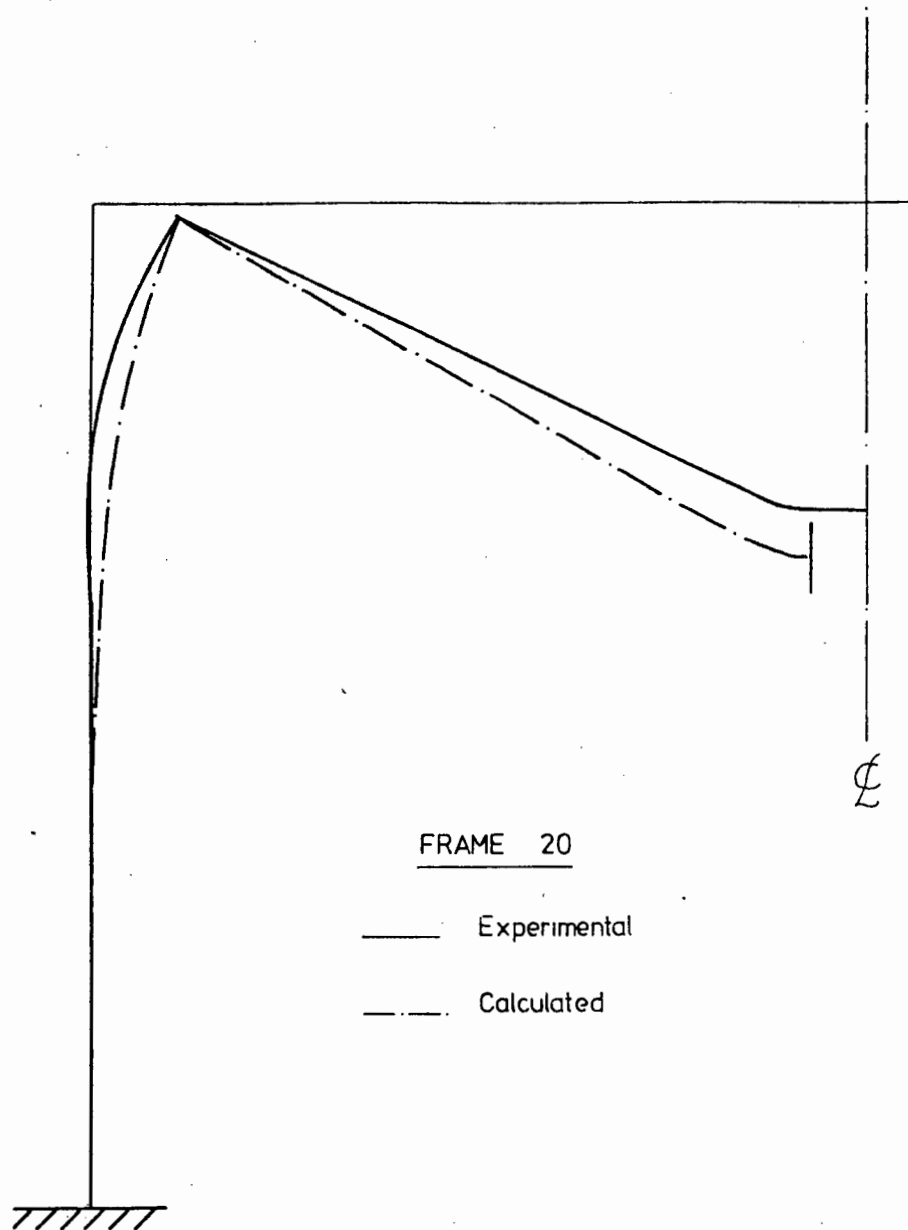


Figure 10 Full scale deflection profiles of a small rectangular frame as observed and as calculated (ignoring the pulse duration). The difference between theory and experiment is larger here since ignoring the pulse duration makes the calculations even more conservative.

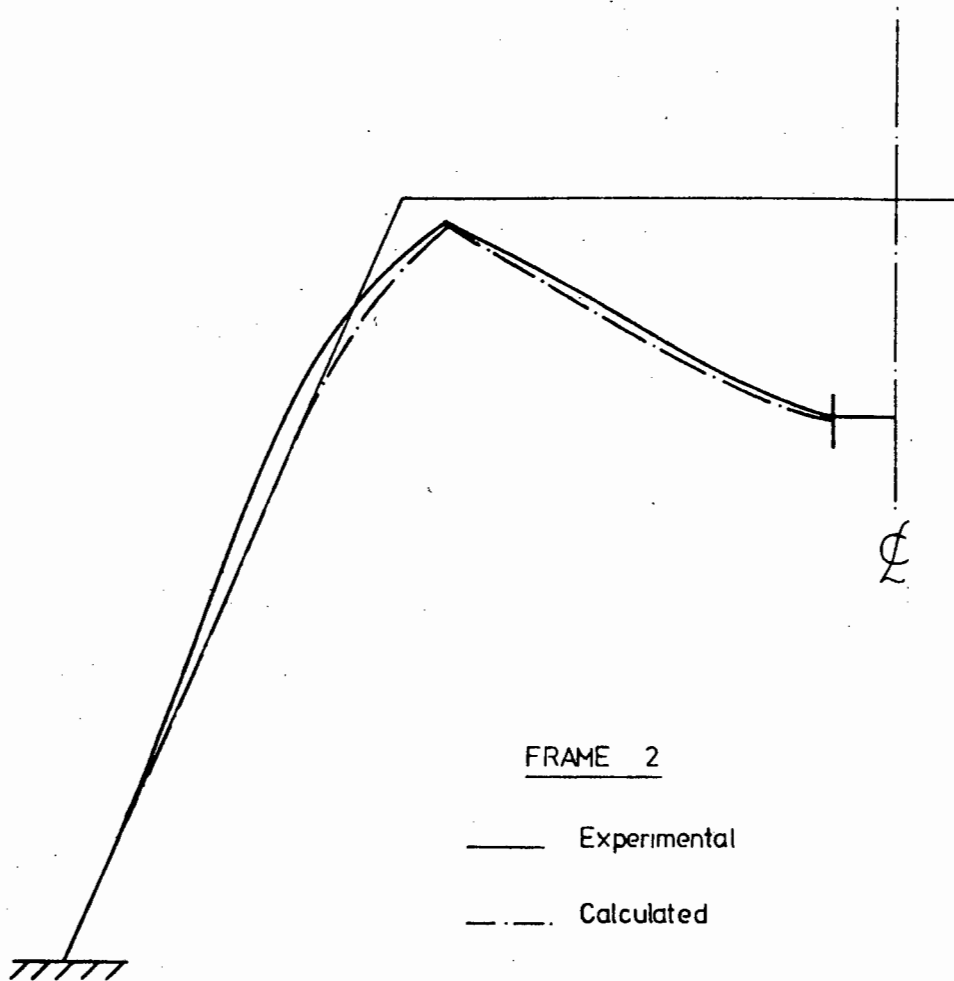


Figure 11

Full scale deflection profiles of a trapezoidal frame as observed and as calculated (including pulse duration).

RECTANGULAR FRAME (11)

$$R_E = 4,3$$

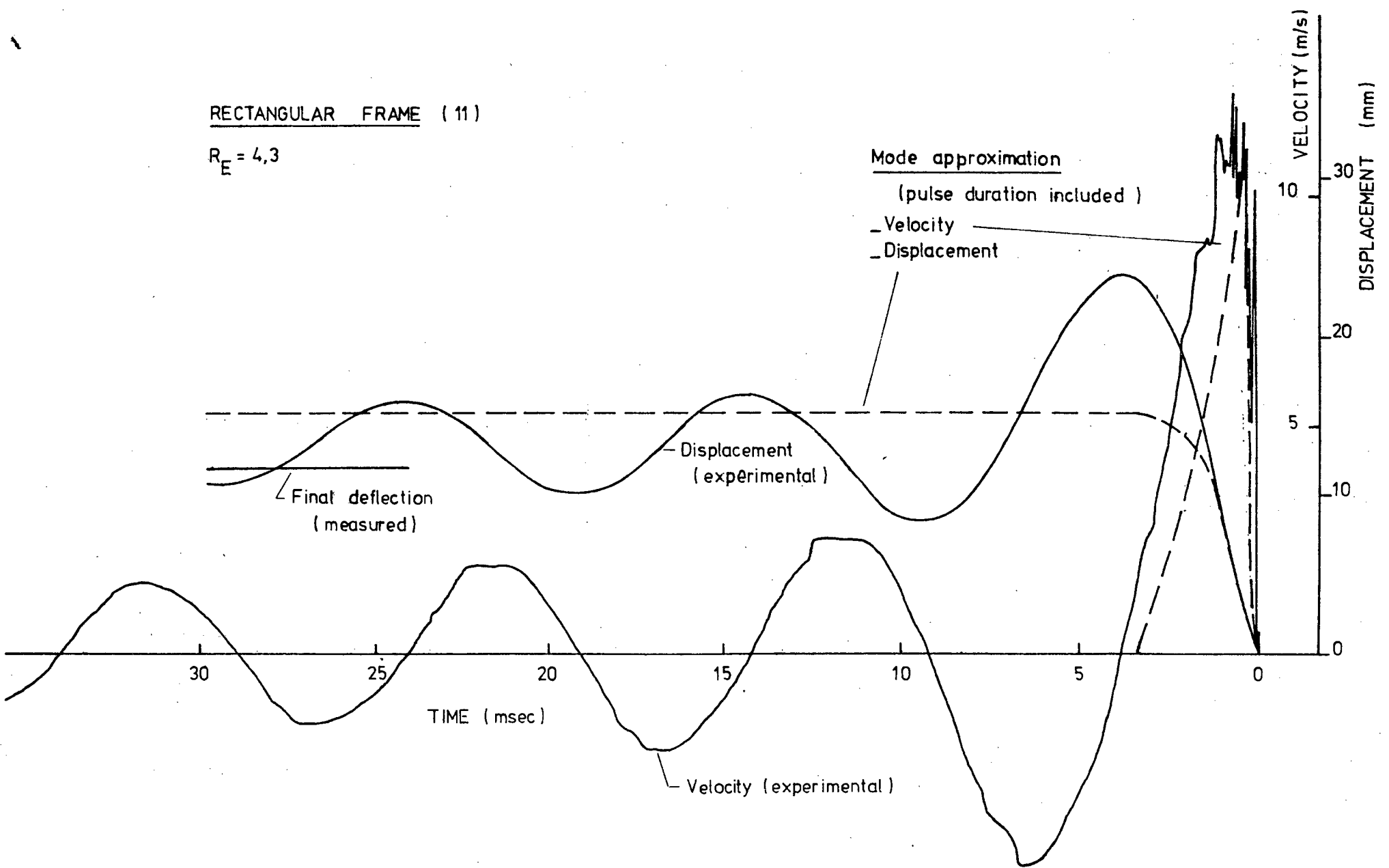


Figure 12

Transient response of the attached mass (mid-point) of beam member.  
Note the high frequency response of the initial phase of the motion.  
The experimental displacement curve was obtained by numerically integrating the velocity curve.

RECTANGULAR FRAME (15)

$R_E = 3,7$

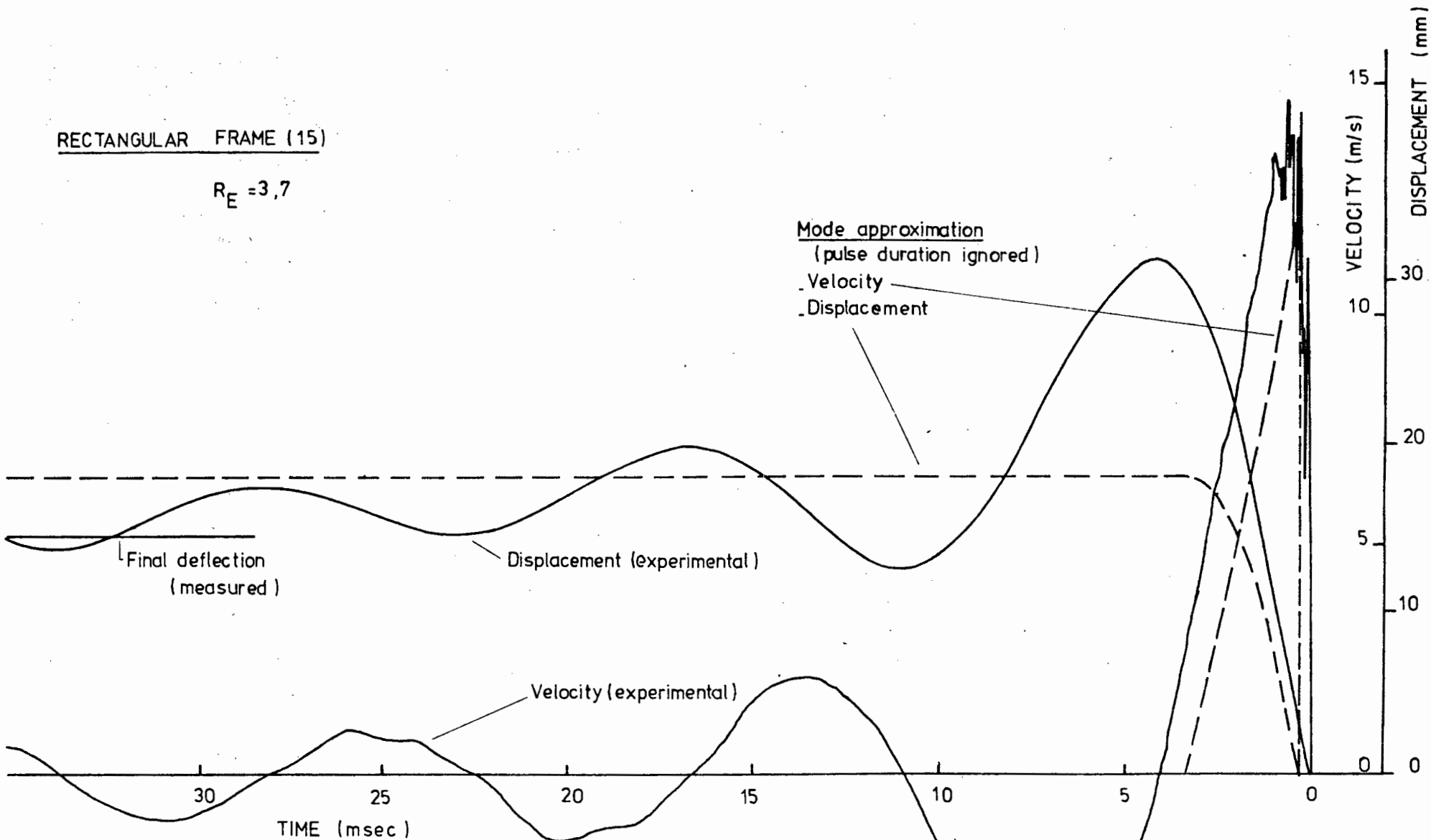


Figure 13

Transient response of the attached mass-small rectangular frame. The close agreement between the measured final displacement and the one obtained from the displacement curve shows that the velocity transducer calibration curve is valid at these velocities.

TRAPEZOIDAL FRAME (1)

$R_E = 8,1$

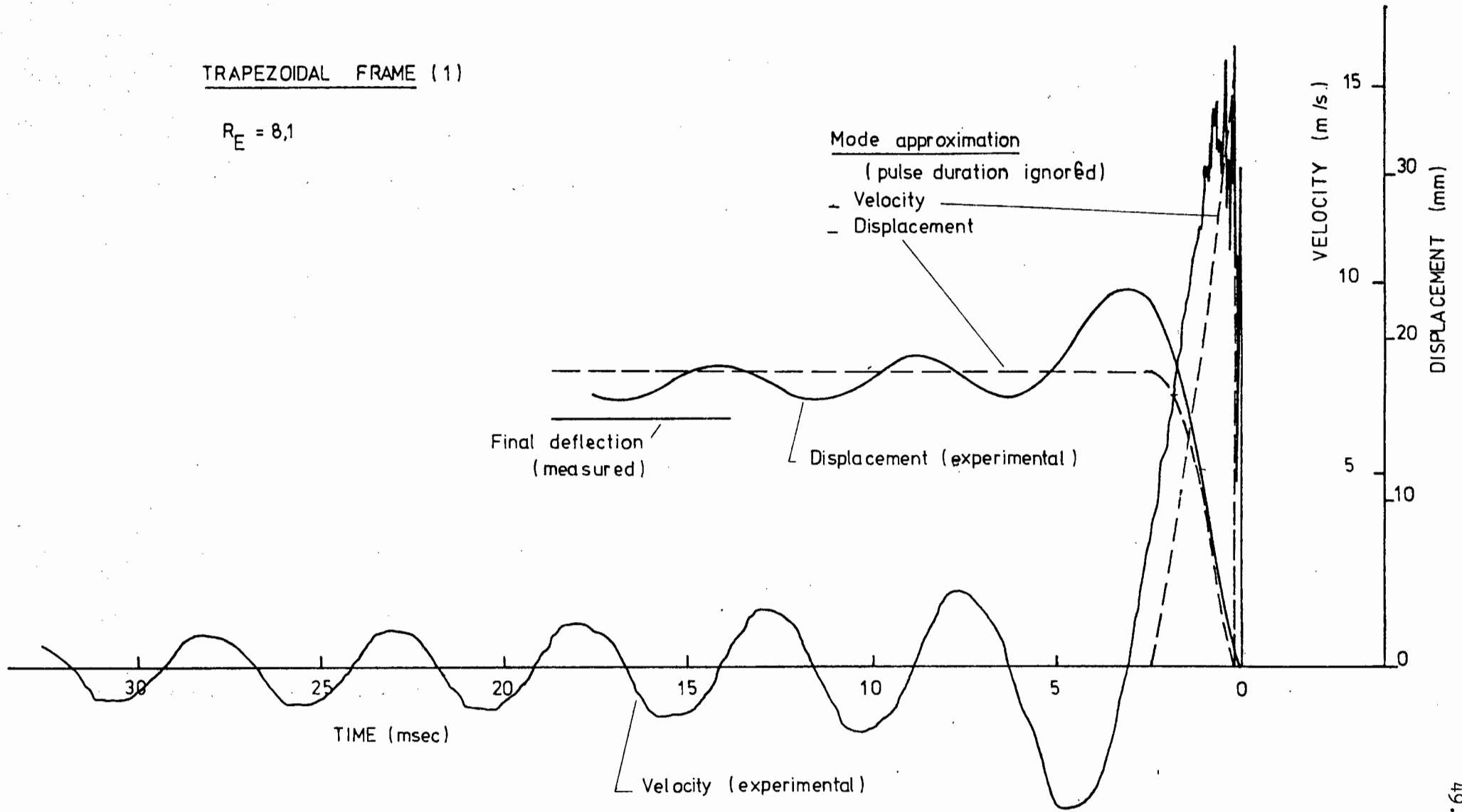


Figure 14 Transient response of the attached mass-trapezoidal frames.

TRAPEZOIDAL FRAME (9)

$R_E = 7,8$

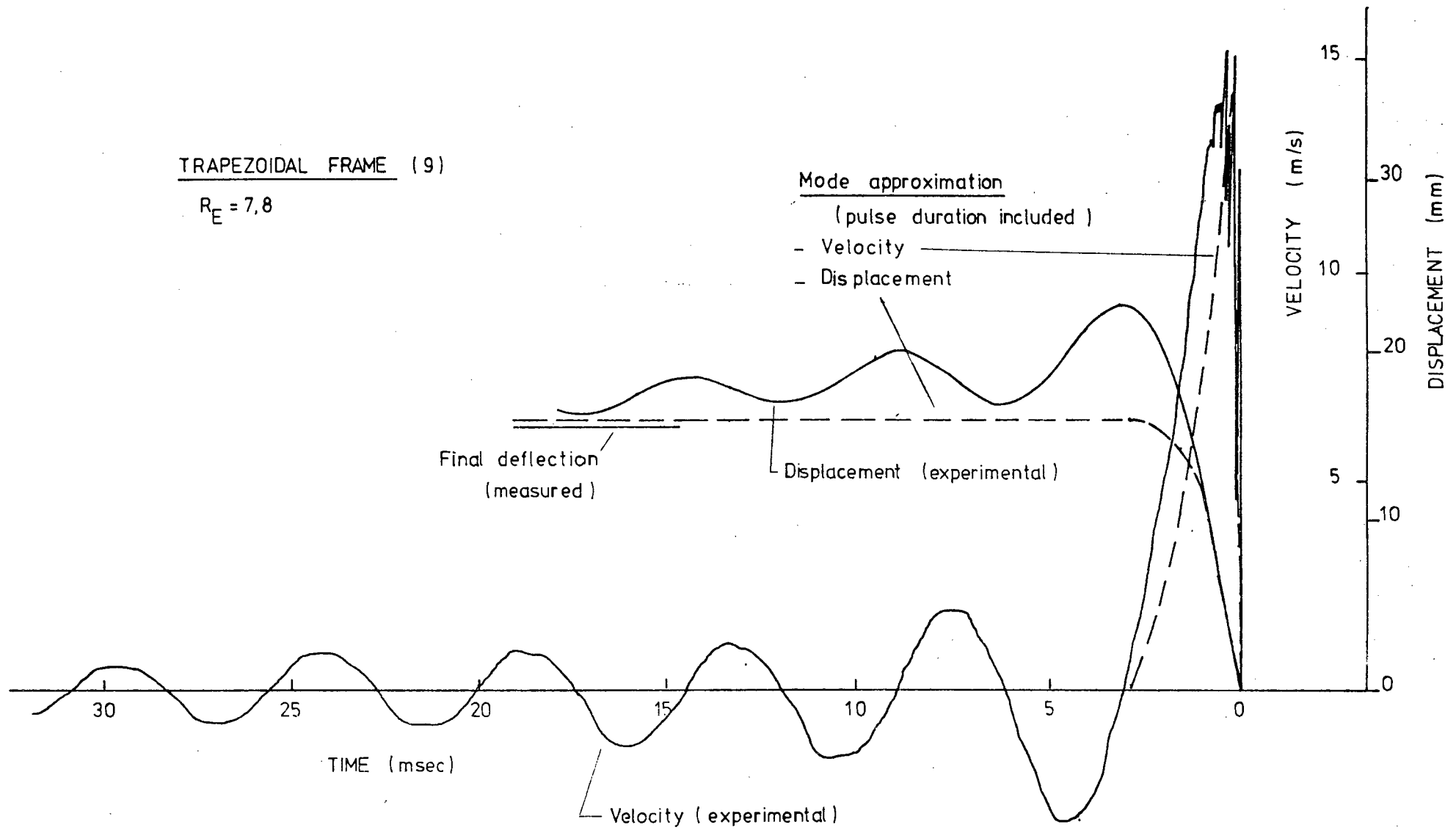


Figure 15 Transient response of the attached mass-trapezoidal frames.

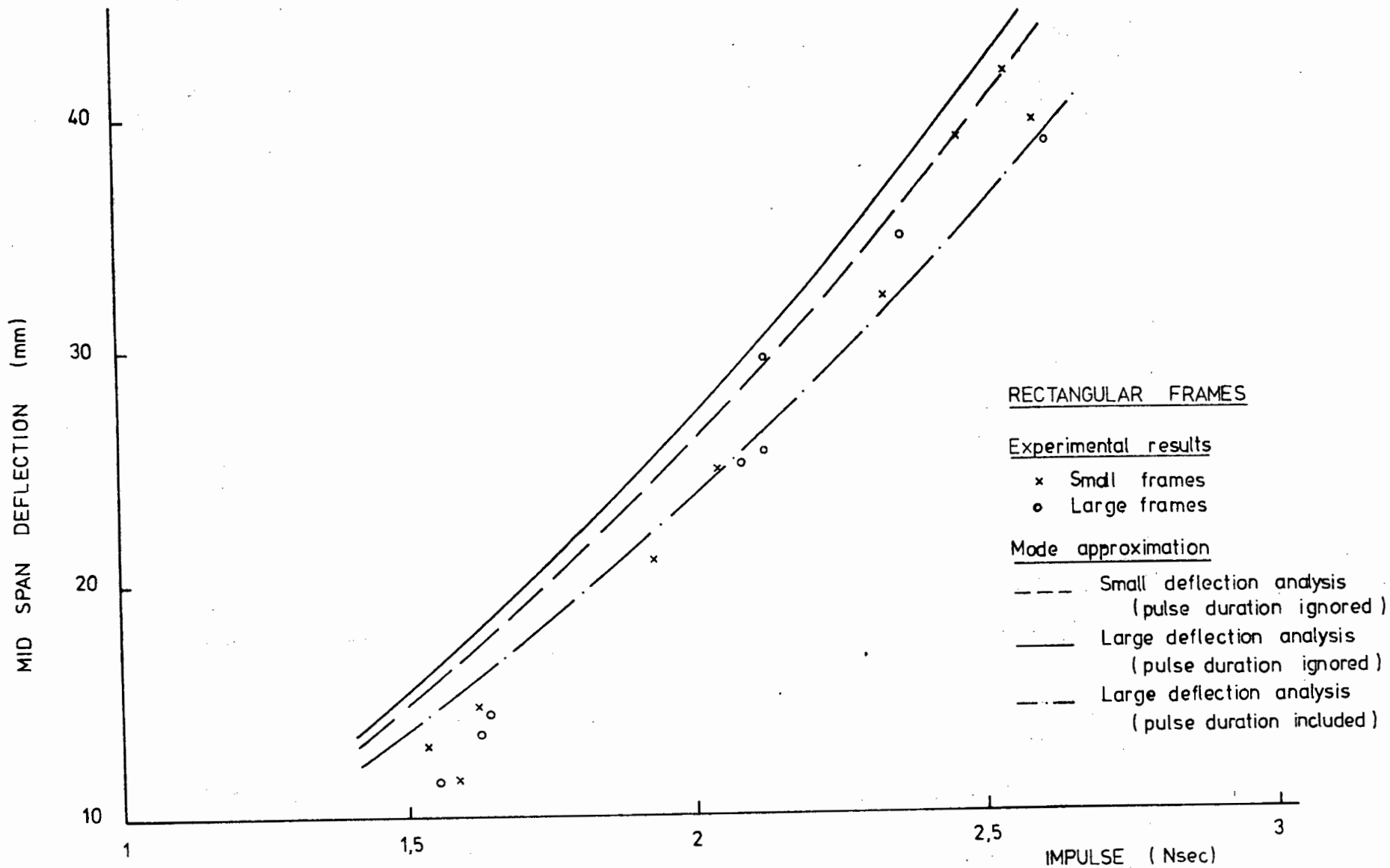


Figure 16

Summary of tests on the rectangular frames showing the final deflection of the centre mass as a function of the applied impulse. A single curve characterizes the calculated deflections of both the large and small frames. This shows that beam deformations are insensitive to the column member height (within this range). Calculations according to small and large deflection analysis are compared: it is seen that the inclusion of finite deflections does not greatly affect the finite deformation of this type of structure.

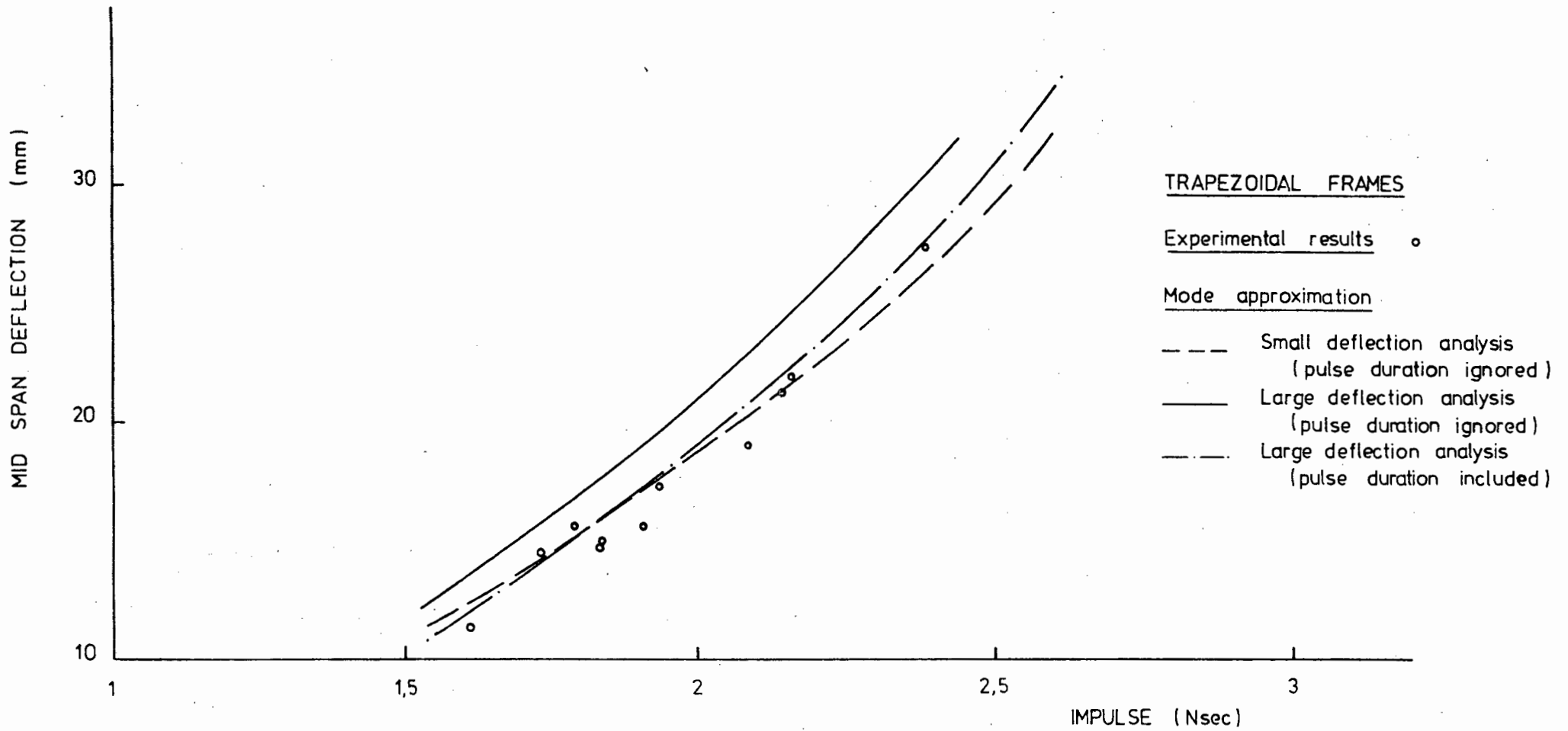


Figure 17

Summary of tests on the trapezoidal frames showing the final deflection of the centre mass as a function of the applied impulse. As would be expected, this kind of structure is more sensitive to finite deformations.

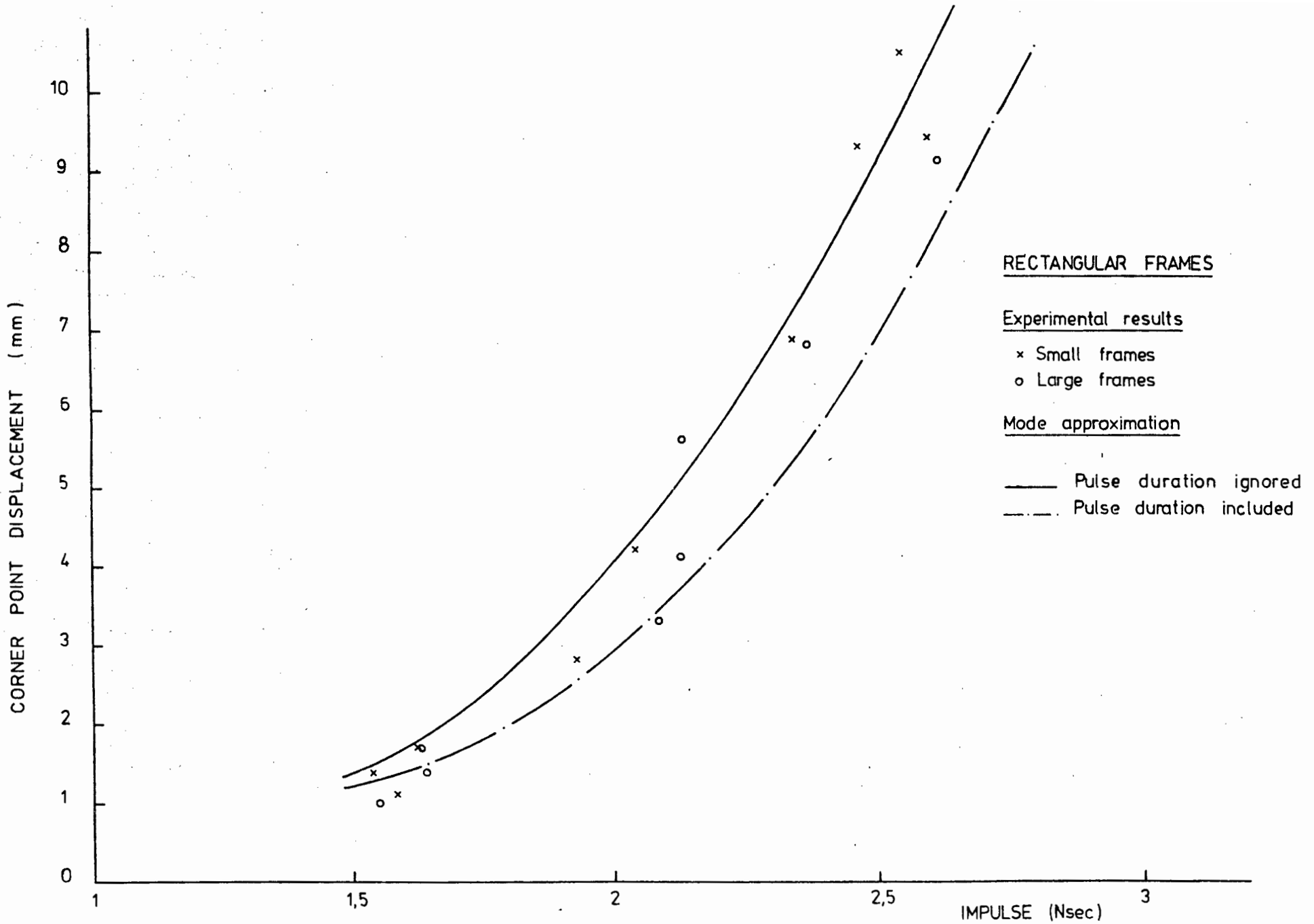


Figure 18

Summary of tests on the rectangular frames showing the final inward displacement at the corner point as a function of the applied impulse. This displacement is zero in the small deflection analysis.

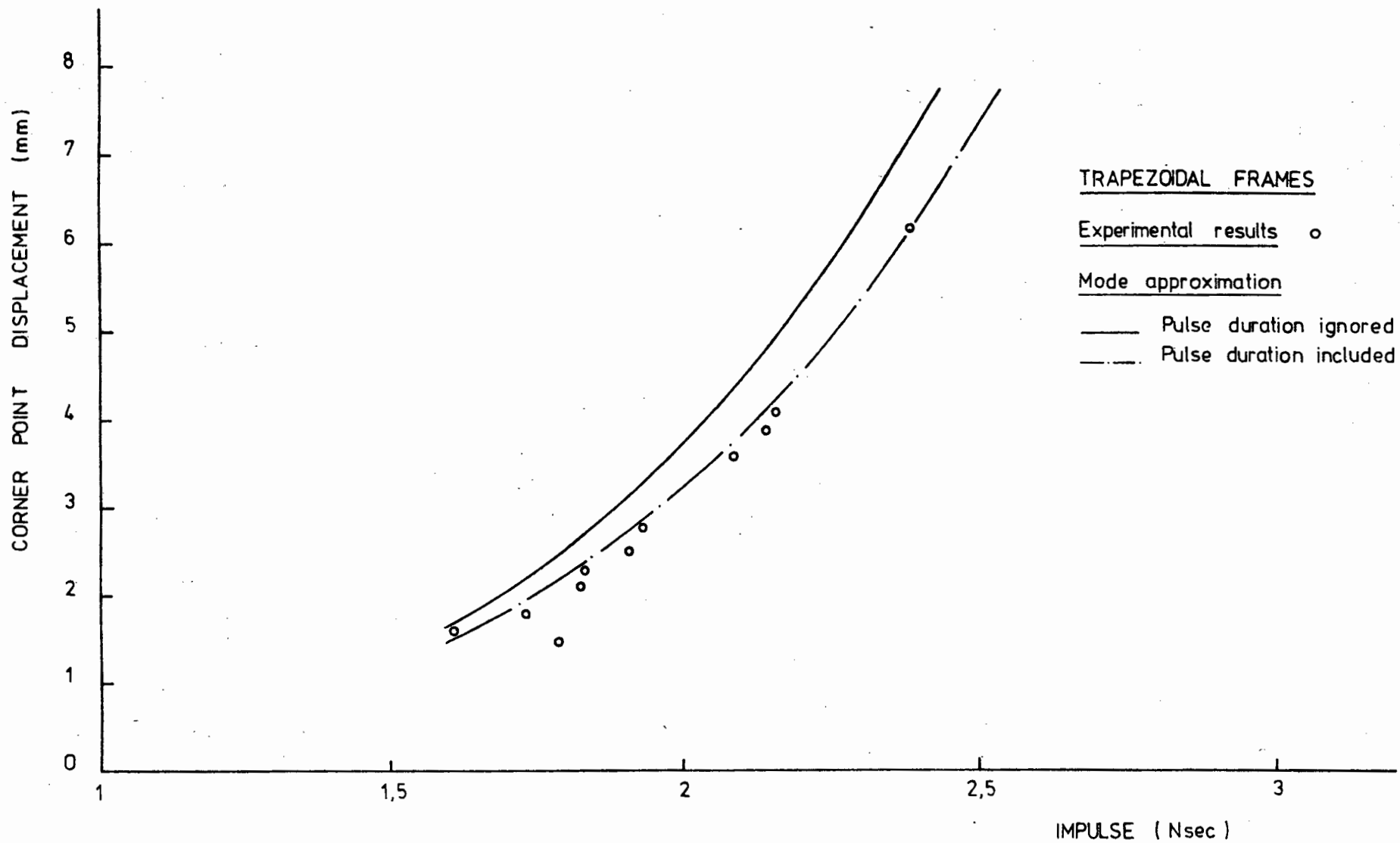


Figure 19

Summary of tests on the trapezoidal frames showing the final inward displacement at the corner point as a function of the applied impulse.

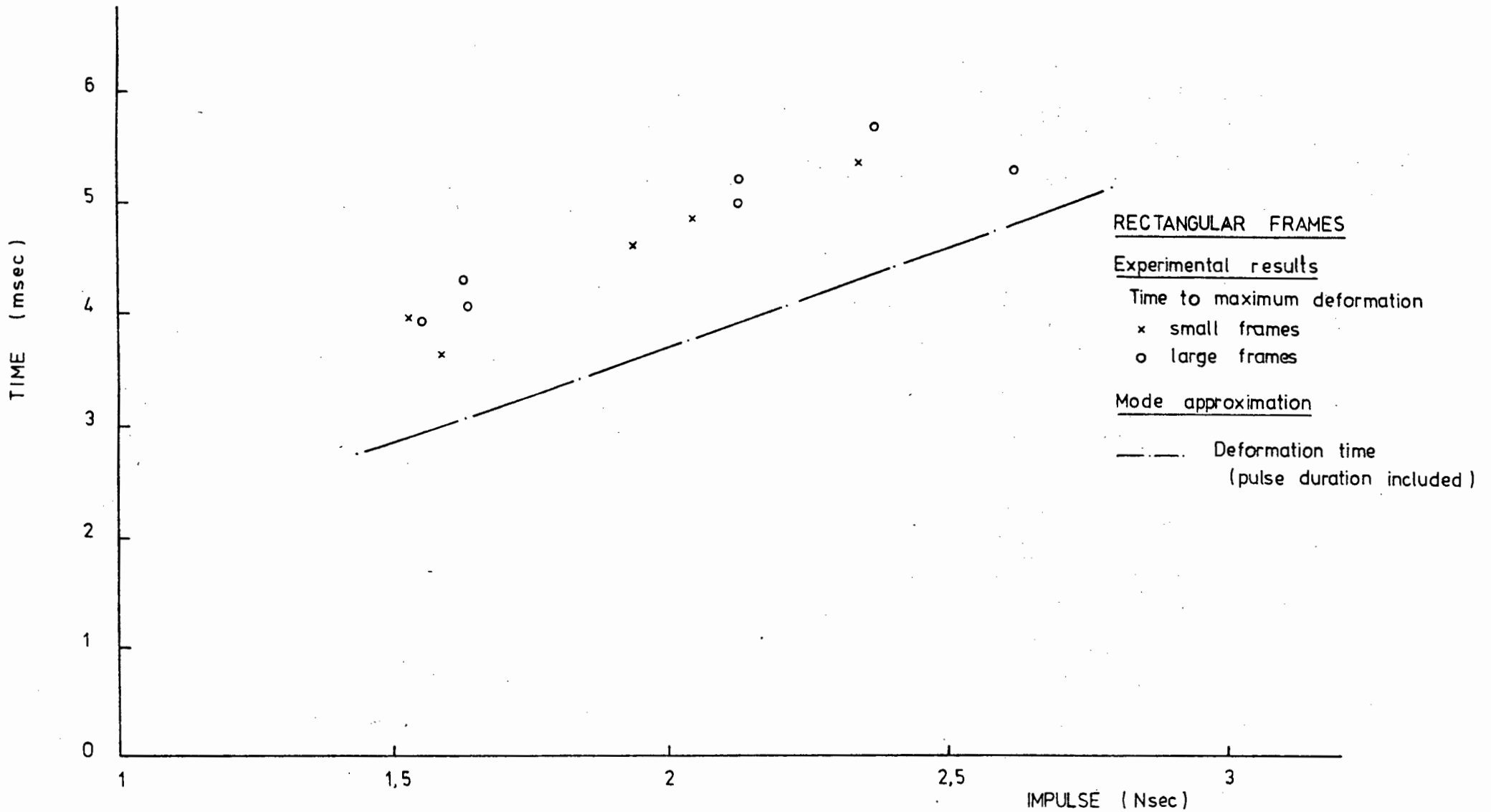


Figure 20

Comparison of observed times to maximum deflection with computed deformation times - trapezoidal frames.

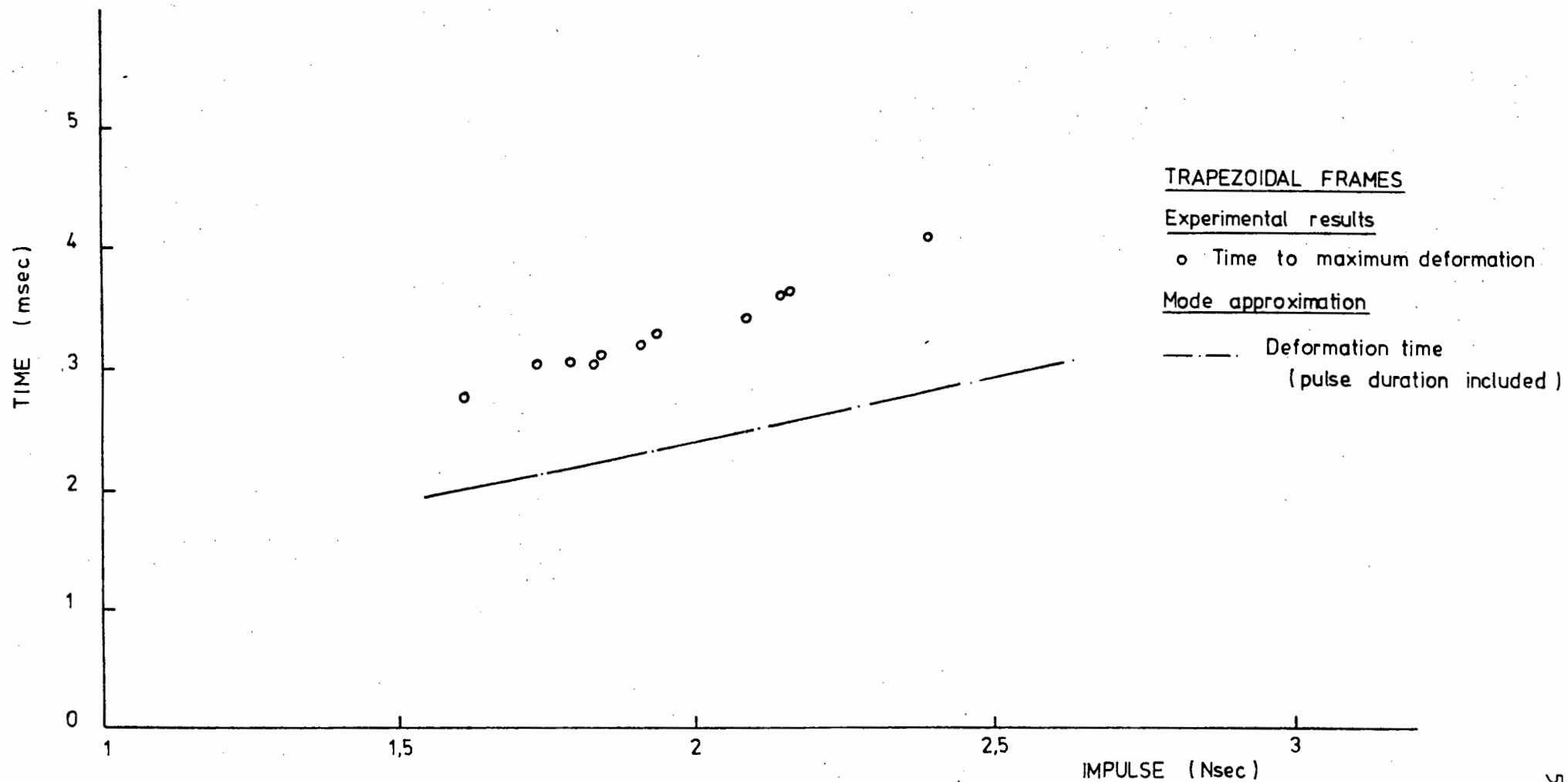


Figure 21 Comparison of observed times to maximum deflection with computed deformation times - trapezoidal frames.

Frame Number	Impulse (N sec)	Pulse duration (m sec)	Energy Ratio **	Mid-span deflection (mm)				Corner point displacement (mm)			Deformation time (m sec)			
				M*	S*	L*	P*	M	L	P	M	S	L	P
<u>SMALL FRAMES</u>														
9	1,538	0,112	4,0	13,1	15,8	16,3	15,3	1,4	1,5	1,3	3,992	2,854	2,972	2,936
11	1,587	0,299	4,3	11,6	16,7	17,3	15,2	1,1	1,7	1,3	3,656	2,937	3,060	3,036
10	1,625	-	4,5	14,8	17,5	18,1	-	1,7	1,8	-	-	3,001	3,128	-
13	1,936	0,523	6,1	20,9	24,5	25,5	21,4	2,8	3,6	2,5	4,626	3,520	3,666	3,662
18	2,045	0,410	6,9	24,7	27,2	28,4	24,8	4,2	4,4	3,3	4,887	3,700	3,847	3,835
1	2,343	0,596	8,7	32,3	35,2	36,9	31,2	6,9	7,2	5,2	5,362	4,188	4,314	4,334
5	2,471	-	9,6	39,0	39,0	40,8	-	9,3	8,7	-	-	4,394	4,500	-
2	2,552	-	10,2	41,8	41,5	43,4	-	10,5	9,7	-	-	4,526	4,615	-
20	2,601	-	10,6	39,4	43,0	45,0	-	9,4	10,4	-	-	4,604	4,681	-

TABLE 2

Summary of experimental and analytical results of the small rectangular frame tests.

- \* M = experimental
- S = mode approximation - small deflection )
- L = " " - large deflection ) pulse duration ignored
- P = " " - large deflection including pulse duration

\*\* The energy ratio is defined in the next section

Frame Number	Impulse (N sec)	Pulse duration (m sec)	Energy Ratio **	Mid-span deflection (mm)				Corner point displacement (mm)			Deformation time (m sec)			
				M*	S*	L*	P*	M	L	P	M	S	L	P
<u>LARGE FRAMES</u>														
8	1,556	0,224	3,4	11,3	16,3	16,7	15,1	1,0	1,6	1,3	3,954	2,914	3,007	2,979
16	1,627	0,299	3,6	13,5	17,7	18,2	16,1	1,7	1,8	1,4	4,335	3,034	3,133	3,111
15	1,643	0,298	3,7	14,4	18,0	18,6	16,4	1,4	1,9	1,5	4,103	3,062	3,162	3,136
21	2,091	-	5,8	25,0	28,6	29,6	-	3,3	4,7	-	-	3,813	3,923	-
6	2,129	0,384	6,0	29,5	29,6	30,7	26,7	5,6	5,1	3,8	5,212	3,876	3,984	3,981
7	2,132	0,460	6,0	25,5	29,7	30,8	27,3	4,1	5,1	4,0	4,982	3,881	3,990	3,976
4	2,371	0,597	7,3	34,6	36,3	37,7	32,1	6,8	7,5	5,5	5,670	4,274	4,359	4,381
14	2,621	0,597	8,7	38,6	44,0	45,7	39,5	9,1	10,7	8,1	5,297	4,683	4,719	4,756

TABLE 3

Summary of experimental and analytical results of the large rectangular frame tests.

Frame Number	Impulse (N sec)	Pulse duration (m sec)	Energy Ratio **	Mid-span deflection (mm)				Corner point displacement (mm)			Deflormation time (m sec)			
				M*	S*	L*	P*	M	L	P	M	S	L	P
11	1,611	0,224	6,4	11,3	12,6	13,7	12,2	1,6	1,7	1,4	2,761	1,938	2,008	2,026
3	1,735	0,224	7,2	14,9	14,5	15,9	14,3	1,8	2,2	1,8	3,059	2,072	2,146	2,166
9	1,789	0,149	7,8	15,5	15,4	16,9	15,9	1,5	2,5	2,2	3,059	2,131	2,205	2,219
6	1,833	0,149	8,1	14,3	16,1	17,8	16,8	2,1	2,7	2,4	3,059	2,179	2,252	2,267
1	1,836	0,297	8,1	14,9	16,1	17,8	15,6	2,3	2,8	2,1	3,122	2,182	2,256	2,285
7	1,907	0,149	8,7	15,5	17,3	19,3	18,3	1,9	3,2	2,8	3,208	2,259	2,331	2,347
12	1,934	0,297	9,0	17,2	17,8	19,9	17,5	2,8	3,4	2,6	3,271	2,288	2,360	2,391
8	2,089	0,224	10,3	19,1	20,7	23,3	21,4	3,6	4,4	3,8	3,432	2,455	2,518	2,546
4	2,146	0,372	10,8	21,1	21,8	24,6	21,2	3,9	4,9	3,7	3,643	2,516	2,575	2,623
10	2,158	0,224	10,9	21,8	22,0	24,9	23,0	4,1	5,0	4,3	3,656	2,528	2,586	2,616
2	2,390	0,223	13,2	27,4	26,7	30,7	28,7	6,2	7,2	6,3	4,103	2,774	2,800	2,838

TABLE 4

Summary of experimental and analytical results of the trapezoidal frame tests.

## PART III: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The comparisons between theoretical calculations and test results are given in the previous section. Figures 9, 10 and 11 compare deflection profiles, while Figures 16 and 17 compare the final deformation of the centre mass. Figures 20 and 21 look at the corner point deflections. Deformation times are given in Figures 20 and 21. It can be seen that in general, the agreement between the mode form solution and the test results is very satisfactory.

The source of possible experimental errors has been discussed in detail in the previous section. Turning to the theory, let us summarize the main approximations made:

- i) mode form solution,
- ii) viscous constitutive relation,
- iii) neglect of strain hardening,
- iv) neglect of elastic deformations.

These are all idealizations of conservative type, i.e. they should weaken the structure and deflections should thus be over-estimated. This is generally so, as can be seen in Figures 16 to 19. The calculations are made even more conservative when pulse durations are ignored.

The use of a viscous constitutive law has already been discussed (see also Symonds [7]). The experimental results

which have been obtained over the years do not appear to offer any conclusive evidence concerning the importance of strain hardening [22]. This tends to lend credence to the belief that its influence is rather small. Of more importance is the neglect of elastic deformations. The use of the rigid plastic theory is valid in general when permanent deformations greatly exceed the elastic deformations. A practical rule is that the initial energy should be considerably larger than the maximum amount of elastic strain energy.

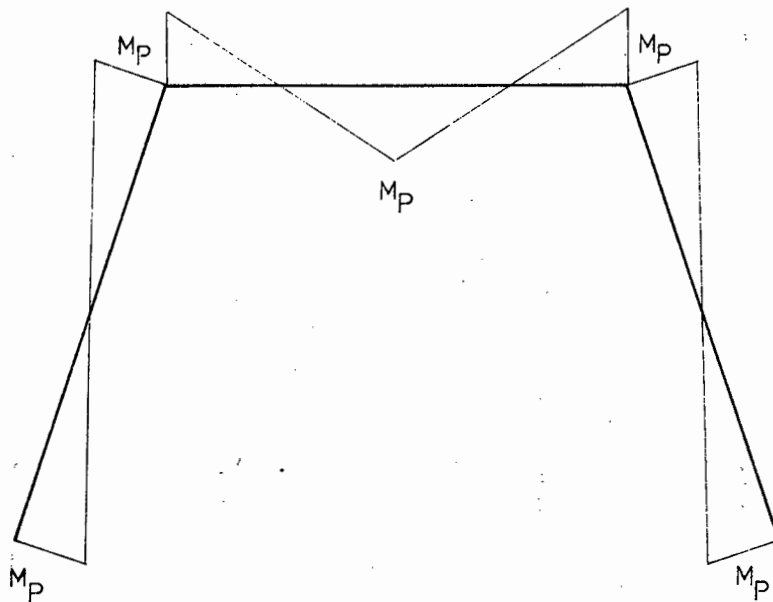
The initial kinetic energy may be expressed as

$$\frac{1}{2} m v_0^2 ,$$

where  $m$  is the attached mass,  $v_0$  the initial impulsive velocity.

The maximum strain energy is estimated as follows:

the static collapse mode is assumed, giving the bending moment diagram shown below.



The total strain energy is then

$$E_p = \frac{M_p^2 L}{6EI},$$

where  $L$  is the sum of the lengths of the frame members,

$EI$  is the bending stiffness of the members,

$M_p$  is the yield moment given by

$$\frac{M_p}{M_o} = \mu \left( \frac{\dot{k}}{\dot{k}_o} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}},$$

where  $\dot{k}$  is the maximum rate of change of curvature determined from the viscoplastic small deflection analysis.

The energy ratio is then given by

$$R_E = \frac{\frac{1}{2} m v_o^2}{\frac{M_p^2 L}{6EI}}$$

The energy ratios for the tests performed are given in Tables 2 and 3 of the previous section. The effect of the energy ratio can be seen by comparing final deformations in rectangular frames and trapezoidal frames. The trapezoidal frames have higher energy ratios and show more consistent results than the rectangular frames (compare Figures 16 and 17 for example). The importance of the elastic deformations is illustrated in Figures 12 to 15 where the transient response of the centre mass is shown. Although, on the average, energy ratios for

these tests are low, the agreement between experiment and theory is good. Symonds and Chon [25] obtained very similar results for low energy ratios. A possible reason for this close agreement is that the elastic deflection in the first phase of the motion is fairly closely compensated by the elastic recovery after the plastic deformation has occurred (see Figures 12 to 15). It is also possible that mutually cancelling errors are occurring. It is clear that at low energy ratios, small factors like unsymmetrical damping (see Figure 12 for example) play an important role in the final deformations. The relative importance of such factors, however decreases as the energy ratio increases and the present method of analysis should become increasingly valid as this ratio increases.

Another factor of importance is the pulse duration. Symonds [12] showed that rigid-plastic analysis predicts meaningful results provided the pulse duration is significantly smaller than the period of natural elastic vibration. The pulse duration in the tests were all small: less than 0,6 msec. Jones [23] showed that for a given value of impulse, there is a small difference between the predictions due to an impulsive velocity (pulse duration ignored) and those due to a rectangular pulse with a peak pressure greater than about five times the corresponding static collapse pressure. This is confirmed here in Figures 16 and 17.

In conclusion, the mode form solution modified to take into account strain rate sensitivity, large deflections and pulse duration provides satisfactory agreement with the results

of tests on steel frames, even at low energy ratios. This technique seems thus promising as an efficient approach to practical problems.

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## APPENDIX A

The solution of the differential equation  $\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \phi_{\bar{n}} = m\Lambda\phi$

This equation is solved using the iterative procedure described in section I.3.

The numerical integration is done in two steps:  $\phi_{\bar{n}}$  is first determined and then  $\phi$  using the following integration formulae.

If we define  $\psi = \phi_{\bar{n}}$ , then

$$\psi_1(x_1) = \int_{x_1}^{\ell} (\xi - x_1) \psi_{1xx}(\xi) d\xi + a + \frac{G}{2}\Lambda (\ell - x_1) \quad (\text{A.1})$$

This takes care of the boundary conditions

$$\psi_{1x}(\ell) = -\frac{G}{2}\Lambda,$$

$$\psi_1(\ell) = a$$

Also

$$m_1 = -\frac{\delta}{l} x_1 + \delta \quad \text{for } 0 < x_1 < l$$

$$m_1 = +\frac{d}{L} x_2 - d + \delta \quad \text{for } 0 < x_2 < L$$

By the principle of virtual work

$$\int_S m_j \phi_{xx} dx = 0 \quad j = 1, 2 \quad (\text{A.3})$$

If  $\psi_1$  and  $\psi_2$  are written as (see A.1 and A.2)

$$\psi_1 = f(x_1) + a,$$

$$\psi_2 = g(x_2) + a - (L - x_2)b,$$

(A.3) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & - \int_0^L (d - \delta - \frac{d}{L} x_2) [g(x_2) + a - (L - x_2)b]^n dx_2 \\ & + \int_0^l \delta (1 - \frac{x_1}{l}) [f(x_1) + a]^n dx_1 = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

$$\int_0^L [g(x_2) + a - (L - x_2)b]^n dx_2 + \int_0^l [f(x_1) + a]^n dx_1 = 0 \quad (\text{A.5})$$

We thus have a system of two non-linear equations in two unknowns.  $a$  and  $b$  may thus be solved using the Newton-Raphson iterative procedure.

$\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  may then be obtained using the following formulae:

$$\phi_1(x_1) = \int_0^L x_1 \phi_{2xx}(\xi) d\xi + \int_0^{x_1} (x_1 - \xi) \phi_{1xx}(\xi) d\xi, \quad (\text{A.6})$$

in which the boundary conditions

$$\phi_{2x}(0) = 0,$$

$$\phi_1(0) = 0,$$

$$\phi_{2x}(L) = \phi_{1x}(0),$$

are taken into account.

$$\phi_2(x_2) = \int_0^{x_2} (x_2 - \xi) \phi_{2xx}(\xi) d\xi, \quad (\text{A.7})$$

which takes care of the conditions

$$\phi_{2x}(0) = 0,$$

$$\phi_2(0) = 0.$$

All of the above integrals may be evaluated using Simpson's quadrature formulae.

## APPENDIX B

Computer program: Documentation and listing

1. General specifications

This program was written to analyse steel portal frames. (rectangular or trapezoidal) subjected to an impulse load applied at mid-span of the beam member.

Three different cases are considered:

- i) small deflection analysis with pulse duration neglected,
- ii) large deflection analysis with pulse duration ignored,
- iii) large deflection analysis, including pulse duration

In its present form, the program cannot handle distributed loading. It is further limited to loadings causing deformations symmetrical about the beam centre line. Very minor amendments would be necessary if distributed loading causing symmetrical deformations were considered. Major amendments would be needed in the case of unsymmetrical loading.

The program could also be used for the analysis of frames of any other strain rate sensitive material (e.g. titanium) where the constitutive equation is of the form

$$\frac{M}{M_0} = \mu \left( \frac{\dot{k}}{\dot{k}_0} \right)^{\frac{1}{n}} .$$

## 2. User specifications

The program is written in FORTRAN V. The execution time is about 7 seconds.

### 2.1 Input data

The data must be supplied on three cards, in free format

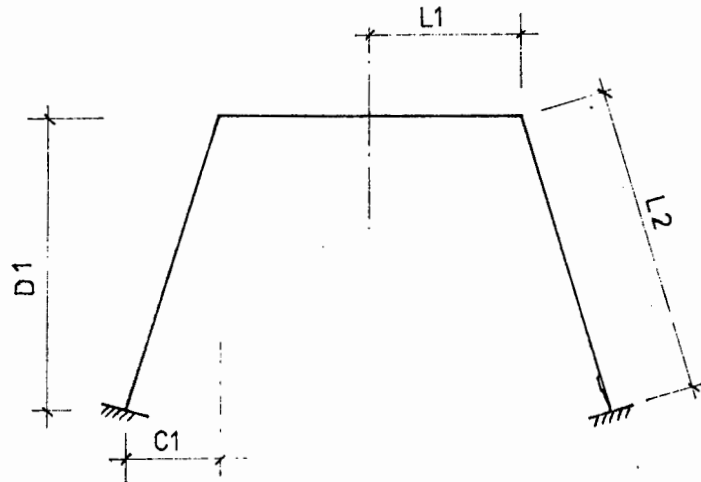
Card 1: IMP,TO,D1,C1.

IMP (Real) : impulse =  $\int Pdt.$

TO (R) : pulse duration.

D1 (R) : described below.

C1 (R) : described below.



Card 2: L1,L2,M,LOAD,N.

L1 (R) : [ described above

L2 (R) : ]

M (R) : mass/unit length of frame

LOAD (R) : mass of centre block

N (R) : value of n in constitutive equation

Card 3: VO,MU,KAPPA,IIFLAG.

VO (R) : instantaneous velocity of centre block.  
 MU (R) : value of  $\mu$  in constitutive equation.  
 MO (R) : static yield moment.  
 KAPPA (R) : value of  $k_0$  in constitutive equation.  
 IIFLAG (Integer) : indicator of the type of analysis required.  
 Can have 3 values.

1. small deflection analysis, pulse duration ignored,
2. small and large deflection analysis, pulse duration ignored,
3. large deflection analysis, including pulse duration

## 2.2 Output

A typical output printout is shown in the next page.

The deflections given are the deflections of 6 equidistant points of the beam and column members respectively. V1 and U1 refer to the velocity and the deflection of the centre point of the beam member. U2 refers to the corner point displacement.

## 3. Method

The method has been described in Part I and Appendix A.

Only half of the frame is analysed because of symmetry.

SMALL DEFLECTION ANALYSIS

\*\*\*\*\*

RESPONSE TIME      VSTAR  
 .002182            15.52

DEFLECTIONS

.0000	.0032	.0066	.0101	.0135	.0161
.0000	-.0002	-.0004	-.0006	-.0009	-.0000

LARGE DEFLECTION ANALYSIS

\*\*\*\*\*

TIME	V1	U1	U2
000312	13.10	.0045	.0002
000634	10.72	.0086	.0007
000961	8.39	.0120	.0013
001286	6.12	.0146	.0019
001611	3.92	.0165	.0024
001934	1.83	.0175	.0027
002256	.00	.0178	.0028

DEFLECTIONS

.0012	.0046	.0081	.0116	.0151	.0178
.0000	-.0000	-.0001	-.0001	.0003	.0028

Typical Output Printout

```
*****
*
*   MAIN PROGRAM   *
*
*****
```

INITIALISE AND DIMENSION THE VARIABLES

\*\*\*\*\*

```

10 REAL L,L1,L2,LOAD,M,N,MU,MO,KAPPA,LOLD,IMP
11 DIMENSION SS(21),Q(21),R(21),S(21),T(21),U(21)
12 DIMENSION V(21),VV(21),QA(21),RA(21),W(21),Z(21)
13 DIMENSION F1(21),F2(21),PXX1(21),PXX2(21),G1(21)
14 DIMENSION G11(21),G2(21),G22(21),G(21),F11(21)
15 DIMENSION SA(21),SAA(21),TA(21),TAA(21),F(21)
16 DIMENSION FIL(21),F2L(21),F1LL(21),F2LL(21),FA1(21)
17 DIMENSION DIS1(21),DIS2(21),FIXOLD(21),F2XOLD(21)
18 DIMENSION FIX(21),F2X(21),TPRIME(21),FA(21),FB(21)
19 READ(R,2000)IMP,TU,CI,DI
20 READ(R,2000)L1,L2,M,LOAD,N
21 READ(R,2000)VO,MO,MO,KAPPA,IIFLAG
22 2000 FORMAT(
```

```

23 C
24 AL1=L1
25 AL2=L2
26 DELTA1=L1/20.
27 DELTA2=L2/20.
28 X1=-DELTA1
29 X2=-DELTA2
30 DO 10 I=1,21
31 X1=X1+DELTA1
32 F1(I)=-X1*X1/(L1*L1)+2.*X1/L1
33 X2=X2+DELTA2
34 F2(I)=+(X2**3.)/(2.*L1*L1*L2)-X2*X2/(2.*L1*L1)
35 10 CONTINUE
```

```

36 C
37 ICOUNT=1
38 C=0.
39 D=D1
40 AO=0.
41 BO=0.
42 TIME=0.
43 DO 260 I=1,21
44 FIXOLD(I)=0.
45 F2XOLD(I)=0.
46 260 CONTINUE
47 L=(L1*(2./(L1*L1))**((1.+1./N)+(N/(2.*N+1.))*L1*L1+L2/3.
48 ,*((2./(L1*L1))**((2.+1./N)+(1./(L1*L1))**((2.+1./N))))/
49 ,(8.*N*L1/15.+*L2*5./(420.*(L1**4.))+LOAD/2.)
```

SOLVE THE DIFFERENTIAL EQUATION

\*\*\*\*\*

```

54 5 DO 20 I=1,21
55 PXX1(I)=F1(I)*L*M
56 PXX2(I)=F2(I)*L*N
57 20 CONTINUE
```

FIRST INTEGRATION: (1) G(X)

```

50 C -----
61 DO 30 I=1,20
62 X2=(I-1)*DELTA2
63 DO 40 J=1,22-I
64 40 G1(J)=(J-1)*DELTA2*PXX2(I+J-1)
65 NP=22-I
66 CALL SIMPS(G1,X2,L2,NP,DELTA2,VALUE)
67 G11(I)=VALUE
68 30 CONTINUE
69 G11(21)=0.
70 DO 50 I=1,21
71 X2=(I-1)*DELTA2
72 DO 70 JA=1,21
73 70 G2(JA)=(L2-X2+(JA-1)*DELTA1)*PXX1(JA)
74 CALL SIMPS(G2,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,VALUE)
75 G22(I)=VALUE
76 G(I)=G11(I)+G22(I)+(L2-X2)*LOAD/2.*L+LOAD/2.*L*L1
77 50 CONTINUE
78 C
79 C (2) F(X)
80 C -----
81 DO 430 I=1,20
82 X1=(I-1)*DELTA1
83 DO 110 J=1,22-I
84 110 FA1(J)=(J-1)*DELTA1*PXX1(I+J-1)
85 CONTINUE
86 NP=22-I
87 CALL SIMPS(FA1,X1,L1,NP,DELTA1,VALUE)
88 F11(I)=VALUE
89 F(I)=F11(I)+(L1-X1)*L*LOAD/2.
90 430 CONTINUE
91 F(21)=0.
92 C
93 C DETERMINE THE CONSTANTS A & B
94 C -----
95 AOLD=0.
96 BOLD=0.
97 IFLAG=0
98 99 IFLAG=IFLAG+1
99 X1=-1.*DELTA1
100 X2=-1.*DELTA2
101 DDD=DIS1(21)
102 DO 140 I=1,21
103 SIGNUM=1.
104 SIG=1.
105 X1=X1+1.*DELTA1
106 X2=X2+1.*DELTA2
107 Q(I)=S(I)+A0-(L2-X2)*B0
108 IF(Q(I).LT.0.)SIGNUM=-1.
109 Q(I)=ABS(Q(I))
110 IF(Q(I).LT.0.003)Q(I)=0.
111 R(I)=F(I)+A0
112 IF(R(I).LT.0.)SIG=-1.
113 R(I)=ABS(R(I))
114 IF(R(I).LT.0.003)R(I)=0.
115 S(I)=SIGNUM*(D-DDD-D/L2*X2)*Q(I)**N
116 SS(I)=SIG*DDD*(1.-X1/L1)*R(I)**N
117 T(I)=SIGNUM*Q(I)**N
118 U(I)=SIG*R(I)**N
119 V(I)=- (D-DDD-D/L2*X2)*N*Q(I)**(N-1.)

```

```

120 VV(I)=DDD*(1.-X1/L1)*N*R(I)**(N-1.)
121 W(I)=- (L2-X2)*V(I)
122 Z(I)=N*Q(I)**(N-1.)
123 QA(I)=N*R(I)**(N-1.)
124 RA(I)=- (L2-X2)*Z(I)
125
140 CONTINUE
126 CALL SIMPS(S,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,A1)
127 CALL SIMPS(SS,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,A2)
128 A=-A1+A2
129 CALL SIMPS(T,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,B1)
130 CALL SIMPS(U,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,B2)
131 B=D1+B2
132 CALL SIMPS(V,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,DADA1)
133 CALL SIMPS(VV,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,DADA2)
134 DADA=DADA1+DADA2
135 CALL SIMPS(W,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,DBDA1)
136 CALL SIMPS(Z,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,DBDA2)
137 CALL SIMPS(QA,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,DBDA2)
138 DBDA=DBDA1+DBDA2
139 CALL SIMPS(RA,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,DBDB)
140
C
141 AO=AO-((A*DBDB-B*DADB)/(DADA*DBDB-DBDA*DADB))
142 BO=BO-((B*DADA-A*DBDA)/(DADA*DBDB-DBDA*DADB))
143 IF(IFLAG.EQ.250)WRITL(5,2000)A,B
144 IF(IFLAG.EQ.250)GO TO 2
145 IF(ABS(AOLD-A).LT..00001.AND.ABS(BOLD-B).LT..00001)GO TO 7
146 AOLD=A
147 BOLD=B
148 IF(ABS(A).GT..00001.OR.ABS(B).GT..00001)GO TO 99
149
C
150 C SECOND INTEGRATION: (1) F12(X)
151 C -----
152 7 DO 150 I=2,21
153 X2=(I-1)*DELTA2
154 DO 160 J=1,1
155 SA(J)=(I-J)*DELTA2*T(J)
156 160 CONTINUE
157 CALL SIMPS(SA,0.,X2,1,DELTA2,VALUE)
158 F2(I)=VALUE
159
C
160 C (2) F11(X)
161 C -----
162 X1=(I-1)*DELTA1
163 DO 170 J=1,1
164 SAA(J)=(I-J)*DELTA1*U(J)
165 170 CONTINUE
166 CALL SIMPS(SAA,0.,X1,1,DELTA1,VALUE)
167 TA(I)=VALUE
168 DO 180 J=1,21
169 TAA(J)=X1*T(J)
170 180 CONTINUE
171 CALL SIMPS(TAA,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,VALUE)
172 F1(I)=TA(I)+VALUE
173 150 CONTINUE
174 F2(I)=0.
175 F1(I)=0.
176
C
177
178 C NORMALIZE THE SOLUTION
179 C *****

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```

180 ANORM=F1(21)
181 DO 190 I=1,21
182 F1(I)=F1(I)/ANORM
183 F2(I)=F2(I)/ANORM
184 IF(ABS(F1(I)).LT.10.E-10)F1(I)=0.
185 IF(ABS(F2(I)).LT.10.E-10)F2(I)=0.
186 190 CONTINUE
187 C
188 DO 210 I=1,21
189 U(I)=U(I)/ANORM
190 T(I)=T(I)/ANORM
191 210 CONTINUE
192 C
193 C DETERMINE LAMDA
194 C *****
195 DO 200 I=1,21
196 F1L(I)=(ABS(U(I)))**((N+1.)/N)
197 F2L(I)=(ABS(T(I)))**((N+1.)/N)
198 F1LL(I)=F1(I)*F1(I)*N
199 F2LL(I)=F2(I)*F2(I)*N
200 200 CONTINUE
201 CALL SIMPS(F1L,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,VALUE1)
202 CALL SIMPS(F2L,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,VALUE2)
203 CALL SIMPS(F1LL,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,VALUE3)
204 CALL SIMPS(F2LL,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,VALUE4)
205 LOLD=L
206 VAL=VALUE3+VALUE4+LOAD/2.
207 L=(VALUE1+VALUE2)/VAL
208 IF(ABS(L-LOLD).GT.1)GO TO 5
209 5000 FORMAT(1H0,X,6F11.4)
210 C
211 C
212 C SMALL DEFLECTION ANALYSIS SOLUTION
213 C *****
214 IF(ICOUNT.GT.1)GO TO 11
215 V1STAR=LOAD*V0/(2.*VAL)
216 CONST=(L*MU*MG*V1STAR**((1./N)))/(V1STAR*KAPPA**((1./N))
217 TF=1./(CONST*(1.-1./N))
218 TINT=V1STAR*(N-1.)/(2.*N-1.)*TF
219 DO 310 I=1,21
220 DIS1(I)=F1(I)*TINT
221 DIS2(I)=F2(I)*TINT
222 310 CONTINUE
223 WRITE(5,6000)
224 6000 FORMAT(1H1,3X,'SMALL DEFLECTION ANALYSIS!')
225 WRITE(5,15000)
226 15000 FORMAT(1H ,3X,'*****')
227 WRITE(5,8000)
228 8000 FORMAT(1H0,/,10X,'RESPONSE TIME',6X,'VSTAR')
229 WRITE(5,9000)TF,V1STAR
230 9000 FORMAT(1H ,12X,F8.6,F12.2)
231 WRITE(5,7000)
232 7000 FORMAT(1H0,/,10X,'DEFLECTIONS')
233 WRITE(5,5000)(DIS1(I),I=1,21,4)
234 WRITE(5,5000)(DIS2(I),I=1,21,4)
235 DO 420 I=1,21
236 DIS1(I)=0.
237 DIS2(I)=0.
238 420 CONTINUE
239 IF(IIFLAG.EQ.1)GO TO 2

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```

240 WRITE(5,11000)
241 11000 FORMAT(1H0,//////,5X,'LARGE DEFLECTION ANALYSIS')
242 WRITE(5,15000)
243 WRITE(5,14000)
244 14000 FORMAT(1H0,4X,'TIME',5X,' /1 ',7X,'01',7X,'02')
245 C
246 C
247 C
248 C DETERMINE THE 1ST DERIVATIVE OF THE MODE SHAPE FUNCTIONS
249 C -----
250 11 DO 370 I=2,21
251 X2=(I-1)*DELTA2
252 CALL SIMPS(T,0.,X2,1,DELTA2,VALUE)
253 F2X(I)=VALUE
254 370 CONTINUE
255 F2X(1)=0.
256 DO 230 I=1,20
257 X1=(I-1)*DELTA1
258 NA=0
259 DO 240 J=I,21
260 NA=NA+1
261 TPRIME(NA)=U(I)
262 240 CONTINUE
263 CALL SIMPS(TPRIME,X1,L1,NA,DELTA1,VALUE)
264 FIX(I)=-VALUE
265 230 CONTINUE
266 FIX(21)=0.
267 C
268 C
269 C LARGE DEFLECTION ANALYSIS SOLUTION
270 C *****
271 IF(IIFLAG.EQ.2)GO TO 12
272 IF(ICOUNT.NE.1)GO TO 12
273 XX=VAL
274 YY=(VALUE1+VALUE2)*TO*(N-1.)*NU*DO/(N*KAPPA**((1./N)))
275 18 VO1=VO-(YY*VO**((1./N))+XX*VO-IMP/2.)/
276 (YY*(1./N)*VO**((1.-N)/N)+XX)
277 IF(ABS(VO-VO1).LT.01)GO TO 19
278 VO=VO1
279 GO TO 18
280 19 WRITE(5,2000)VO
281 TINT=VO1*(N-1.)*TO/(2.*N-1.)
282 TT=TO
283 VISTAR=VO1
284 GO TO 15
285 12 CONST=(L*NU*ND*VISTAR**((1./N)))/(VISTAR*KAPPA**((1./N)))
286 TF=1./(CONST*(1.-1./N))
287 TT=TF/(8-ICOUNT)
288 TINT=VISTAR*TF*(1.-N)/(2.*N-1.)*(1.-TT/TF)**((2.*N-1.)/(N-1.))
289 TINT=TINT+VISTAR*(N-1.)/(2.*N-1.)*TF
290 15 DO 250 I=1,21
291 DIS1(I)=DIS1(I)+F1(I)*TINT
292 FIX(I)=FIX(I)+TINT
293 FIXOLD(I)=FIXOLD(I)+FIX(I)
294 FA(I)=(FIXOLD(I)*FIXOLD(I))/2.
295 250 CONTINUE
296 CALL SIMPS(FA,0.,L1,21,DELTA1,ALPHA)
297 IF(ICOUNT.EQ.1)AAA=ALPHA*L2/D
298 IF(ICOUNT.EQ.1) GO TO 5
299 AAA=(ALPHA-C)*(L2/D)/F2(21)

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```

300      6      ICOUNT=ICOUNT+1
301      TIME=TIME+TT
302      C
303      C DETERMINE THE NEW GEOMETRIC CONFIGURATION
304      C -----
305      IF(ICOUNT.GT.2)GO TO 16
306      DO 270 I=1,21
307      X2=(I-1)*DELTA2
308      DIS2(I)=4.*AAA/L2**3.*(X2**4./(12.*L2)
309      +X2**3./6.)+F2(I)*TINT
310      F2X(I)=+4.*AAA/L2**3.*(X2**3./(3.*L2)+X2**2./2.)+F2X(I)*TINT
311      FB(I)=(F2X(I)*F2X(I))/2.
312      270 CONTINUE
313      GO TO 17
314      16 DO 410 I=1,21
315      DIS2(I)=DIS2(I)+F2(I)*AAA
316      F2XOLD(I)=F2XOLD(I)+F2X(I)*AAA
317      FB(I)=(F2XOLD(I)*F2XOLD(I))/2.
318      410 CONTINUE
319      17 CALL SIMPS(FB,0.,L2,21,DELTA2,BETA)
320      IF(ICOUNT.NE.2)GO TO 13
321      DO 330 I=1,21
322      F2(I)=DIS2(I)/TINT
323      330 CONTINUE
324      C
325      C
326      13 C=ALPHA
327      IF(C1.EQ.0.)D=D1-BETA
328      IF(C1.NE.0.)D=D1-BETA*D/L2
329      L1=AL1-C
330      L2=AL2-BETA
331      DELTA1=L1/20.
332      DELTA2=L2/20.
333      D21=DIS1(21)+BETA*D/L2+C*C1/D
334      IF(CIFLAG.EQ.3.AND.ICOUNT.LT.3)GO TO 31
335      IF(ICOUNT.LT.2)V1STAR=V1STAR*(1.-TT/TF)**(N/(N-1.))
336      IF(ICOUNT.EQ.4)V1STAR=0.
337      31 WRITE(5,12000)TIME,V1STAR,D21,DIS2(21)
338      12000 FORMAT(1H ,F3.6,3X,F7.2,3X,F8.4,3X,F8.4)
339      IF(ICOUNT.LT.5)GO TO 5
340      DO 440 I=1,21
341      DIS1(I)=DIS1(I)+BETA*D/L2+C*C1/D
342      440 CONTINUE
343      WRITE(5,7000)
344      WRITE(5,5000)(DIS1(I),I=1,21,4)
345      WRITE(5,5000)(DIS2(I),I=1,21,4)
346      2 STOP
347      END

```

```

1      C  NUMERICAL INTEGRATION BY SIMPSON'S RULE
2      C  *****
3      C
4      SUBROUTINE SIMPS(AX, XA, XB, NP, STEP, VALUE)
5      DIMENSION AX(101)
6      IF(NP.EQ.2) VALUE=(AX(1)+AX(2))*(XB-XA)/2.
7      IF(NP.EQ.2) GO TO 2
8      NP1=NP/2
9      NP2=2*NP1
10     IF(NP2.NE.NP) GO TO 1
11     VALUE=3.*STEP/8.*(AX(1)+3.*AX(2)+3.*AX(3)+AX(4))
12     IF(NP.EQ.4) GO TO 2
13     S1=0.
14     S2=0.
15     IF(NP.EQ.6) S1=AX(5)
16     IF(NP.EQ.6) GO TO 4
17     DO 30 I=5, NP-1, 2
18     30   S1=S1+AX(I)
19     DO 40 I=6, NP-2, 2
20     40   S2=S2+AX(I)
21     4   VALUE=VALUE+(AX(4)+AX(NP)+4.*S1+2.*S2)*STEP/3.
22     GO TO 2
23     1   S1=0.
24     S2=0.
25     IF(NP.EQ.3) S1=AX(2)
26     IF(NP.EQ.3) GO TO 3
27     DO 10 I=2, NP-1, 2
28     10   S1=S1+AX(I)
29     DO 20 I=3, NP-2, 2
30     20   S2=S2+AX(I)
31     3   VALUE=STEP/3.*(AX(1)+AX(NP)+4.*S1+2.*S2)
32     2   RETURN
33     END

```