

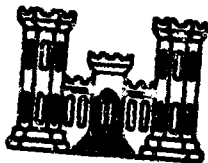
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TECHNICAL REPORT NO. 1-682

RESPONSE OF HORIZONTALLY ORIENTED BURIED CYLINDERS TO STATIC AND DYNAMIC LOADING

by

Albert F. Dorris

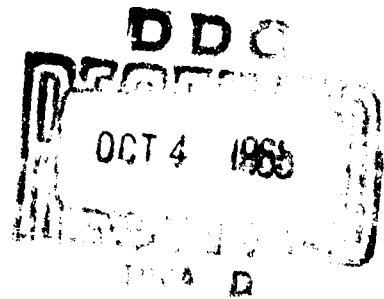


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ARMY-MRC VICKSBURG, MISS

FOREWORD

This report was prepared in the Nuclear Weapons Effects Division, U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station, under the sponsorship of the Defense Atomic Support Agency (DASA) as part of NWER Subtask 13.010, Response of Buried Structures to Ground Shock. The work was accomplished during the period February 1964 through May 1965. During this time, Mr. G. L. Arbuthnot, Jr., was Acting Chief of the Nuclear Weapons Effects Division, and Mr. W. J. Flathau was Acting Chief of the Protective Structures Branch.

This report was prepared by Captain Albert F. Dorris, CE, and is essentially a thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Civil Engineering to the University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

Directors of the Waterways Experiment Station during the period of this study were Colonel Alex G. Sutton, Jr., CE, and Colonel John R. Oswalt, Jr., CE. Mr. J. B. Tiffany was Technical Director.

SUMMARY

This was an experimental investigation into the response of small, shallow-buried (in dense, dry sand and stiff clay), aluminum cylinders to static (15-min rise time), rapid (13 msec), and dynamic (0.3 msec) plane-wave loading up to 500 psi. The cylinders had identical outside diameters of 3.5 in. and two thicknesses, 0.022 and 0.065 in. Hence, the cylinder stiffnesses, EI/R^3 , were 1.7 and 45 ($d/t = 159$ and 54), respectively.

In stiff clay, the overpressure required to cause collapse increased very slowly with increasing depth of burial from zero to the deepest burial, three-quarters of the diameter. The hydrostatic buckling equation, $P_{cr} = 3 EI/R^3$, was applicable for the cylinders tested.

In the dense sand, the overpressure required to cause collapse increased greatly with increasing depth of burial from zero to one-eighth of the diameter. Below this depth it was not possible to collapse even the most flexible cylinders under the available 500-psi pressure. The hoop compression theory was verified. A ductility factor of about 7 was found to be conservative for cylinders buried at depths greater than one-eighth their diameter in the dense sand.

The recorded strains were nonelastic in many cases and it was shown that large yielding does not necessarily define collapse. Stress and moment were found to be nonlinear functions of overpressure, whereas thrust was generally found to be a linear function of overpressure. The differences between static and rapid loading in the elastic response of the cylinder were found to be small.

Diameter changes recorded prior to collapse for the static tests were small, less than 5 percent of the diameter.

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

THE GRADUATE COLLEGE

May 11, 1965

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE THESIS PREPARED UNDER MY
SUPERVISION BY ALBERT FRANCIS DORRIS

ENTITLED RESPONSE OF HORIZONTALLY ORIENTED BURIED CYLINDERS

TO STATIC AND DYNAMIC LOADING

BE ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR

THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN CIVIL ENGINEERING

s/ N. M. Newmark

In Charge of Thesis

s/ N. M. Newmark

Head of Department

Recommendation concurred in†

s/ George K. Sinnamon

s/ John D. Haltiwanger

s/ W. J. Trjitzinsky

s/ M. T. Davisson

s/ William C. Schnobrich

Committee

on

Final Examination†

† Required for doctor's degree but not for master's.

**RESPONSE OF HORIZONTALLY ORIENTED BURIED
CYLINDERS TO STATIC AND DYNAMIC LOADING**

BY

ALBERT FRANCIS DORRIS
B.S., United States Military Academy, 1959
M.S., University of Illinois, 1963

THESIS

**Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Civil Engineering
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois, 1965**

Urbana, Illinois

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This thesis is based upon experimental studies conducted at the University of Illinois and the U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station (WES). The tests conducted at Illinois were sponsored by the Department of Civil Engineering.

These studies were conducted under the general direction of Dr. N. M. Newmark, Professor and Head of the Department of Civil Engineering, and under the direct supervision of Professor G. K. Sinnamon of the Department of Civil Engineering.

Acknowledgment is made to 1st Lt. A. J. Hendron, Jr., and Mr. W. J. Flathau for their comments and encouragement, and to Mr. W. H. Sadler, Jr., who assisted in all phases of the study at WES.

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NOTATION

- a Radius of the intrados of the cylinder
- A Area of the cross section perpendicular to the ring center line
- AR Arching ratio
- b Radius of the extrados of the cylinder
- C_u Uniformity coefficient, D_{60}/D_{10}
- d Outside diameter of cylinder
- D_r Relative density, $\frac{e_{\max} - e}{e_{\max} - e_{\min}}$
- D_{10} Soil grain diameter of which 10 percent of the soil weight is finer
- D_{60} Soil grain diameter of which 60 percent of the soil weight is finer
- e Void ratio, $\frac{V_v}{V_s}$
- e_{\max} Maximum void ratio
- e_{\min} Minimum void ratio
- e_o Initial void ratio
- E Modulus of elasticity of the cylinder, Young's modulus
- E' Modulus of soil reaction, equal to $k_s R$, psi
- E_s Modulus of elasticity of the soil
- g Acceleration of gravity
- G_s Specific gravity of the solids
- h Thickness of the cylinder wall
- I Moment of inertia of the cross section of the cylinder wall per unit length, $\text{in.}^4/\text{in.}$, I_y

- k Spring constant, load divided by deflection
 k_l Coefficient of elastic soil reaction, psi per strain
 k_m Coefficient of soil reaction ("subgrade modulus")
 k_s Modulus of passive resistance of the enveloping earth, psi per inch of deflection, lb/in.³
 k_z Radial elastic support
 K_o Coefficient of earth pressure at rest
 l Cylinder length
 M_c Bending moment at the cylinder crown, constrained soil modulus
 M_{cs} Constrained secant modulus of soil
 M_y Bending moment, M
 n Buckling mode number or order; number of half-waves
 N_y Thrust or normal force in the cylinder, lb/in.
 p Pressure, psi
 p_a Vertical pressure on a horizontal plane through the cylinder crown
 p_c, p_{cr} }
 p_f, p_h, p_l } Critical buckling pressure
 p_m, p_t }
 p_o Critical buckling pressure in lowest mode for a ring subjected to hydrostatic pressure.
 P Vertical force, lb
 p_{so} Overpressure on surface of soil, psi
 p_{sof} Overpressure on surface of soil when cylinder collapsed
 q Ratio of average horizontal force (or pressure) to average vertical force (or pressure) applied to the cylinder
 q_u Unconfined compressive strength
 Q Vertical shear force in soil between surface and cylinder crown

- Q' Vertical shear force in soil between cylinder crown and spring line
 Q'' Oblique shear force in soil between cylinder crown and spring line
 r Radius of a cylinder element
 R Radius of the cylinder middle surface
 S_r Degree of saturation
 S, S_1 Relative stiffness
 t Time
 T_c Period of vibration in the compressive mode
 T_f Period of vibration in the first flexural mode
 TD Typical descriptor of relative stiffness
 V Total volume of soil sample
 V_0 Initial volume
 V_s Volume of soil solids
 V_v Volume of voids
 w Radial displacement of the cylinder; water content
 x, y, z Cylinder coordinates, spatial coordinates
 Z Vertical distance from soil surface to cylinder crown
 γ Unit weight of soil, specific weight
 γ_d Dry unit weight
 Δ_h Horizontal deflection (increase in diameter)
 Δ_v Vertical deflection (decrease in diameter)
 ΔV Volume change
 ϵ Unit strain
 ϵ_e Strain on extrados of the cylinder
 ϵ_i Strain on intrados of the cylinder

- θ Circular angle
- ν Poisson's ratio of the cylinder
- ν_s Poisson's ratio of the soil
- σ Stress
- σ_y Stress in the y or tangential direction
- σ_{y1} Lower or first yield stress
- σ_{y2} Upper yield stress (result in 0.2 percent permanent strain)
- σ_1 Vertical stress
- σ_3 All-around confining stress
- ϕ Angle of internal friction

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RESPONSE OF HORIZONTALLY ORIENTED BURIED CYLINDERS
TO STATIC AND DYNAMIC LOADING

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The art of designing buried structures to resist nuclear blast loading is still (1965) in its infancy. A desirable way of augmenting the development and evaluation of particular protective structures designs is to conduct full-scale tests; however, the moratorium on full-scale surface tests in effect since 1 November 1958 eliminates this approach in studying the response of shallow-buried structures to overpressure-induced disturbances. Unfortunately, even if full-scale tests had been permitted since 1958, it is doubtful that sufficient data would be available from such tests alone to formulate economical and practical designs for most design situations. Laboratory and analytical studies still would have been needed to supplement such programs. Because of the limitations imposed by the moratorium, special emphasis has by necessity been placed on analytical studies and laboratory tests of small-scale structures for the purpose of developing usable design methods.

At the moment there is a lack of well-documented experimental data and field experience with which to compare current thought and analytical theory. The most advanced design manual, Principles and Practices for Design of Hardened Structures by Newmark and Haltiwanger (1962, under revision),* and the current source book of underground phenomena and effects of nuclear weapons, Nuclear Geoplosics by Stanford Research

* Authors and dates refer to list of references at end of text.

Institute (1964), point out a multitude of unknowns in the state of the art.

1.2 Problem Under Study

Buried cylindrical or ring configurations are ideal geometries to resist external loads effectively and are thus well suited to protect personnel and appurtenances for various facilities such as NIKE and ICBM hardened sites. They are also favored as entrances and escape routes for protective structures buried deep in rock. Additionally, almost all communication and utility conduits, existing and planned, are cylindrical in shape. Currently, these structures are being designed largely on the basis of engineering hypotheses supplemented by the field experience gained with buried conduits and tunnel liners subjected to static loading. There is virtually no experimental validation of the current dynamic design criteria. Because of the uncertainties, the current design procedures are only stop-gap measures which await the results of controlled experimental investigations for confirmation or refutation.

The problems of designing shallow-buried protective structures for overpressure-induced loading from large-yield weapons differ from those associated with other underground cylindrical structures in at least two major ways: (1) The live load is large compared with the dead load, and the structure must be designed primarily for the live load; (2) the criteria for failure, together with the factor of safety, must lead to the least expensive structure which couples cost and use to fulfill requirements. A factor of safety of 4 is common in culvert design as indicated by Armco Drainage and Metal Products, Inc. (1958, p 70). This factor is sufficiently large to take care of many unknowns. However, a factor this large is economically infeasible for the design of most protective structures.

1.3 Objective of the Study

The objective of this investigation was to study experimentally the phenomena associated with the failure of horizontally oriented, circular cylinders buried at various shallow depths in several soil media and subjected to either static or dynamic overpressures.

1.4 Scope of the Investigation

It would be desirable to study a wide range of cylinder types by varying such parameters as material properties of the cylinder, cylinder dimensions, soil media, depths of burial, overpressure characteristics, and combinations of instrumentation transducers. Experimentally, very little ultimate strength work has been done to study buried cylindrical structures in the collapse range.

An evaluation of all the parameters and combinations in detail would be far beyond the scope of any single investigation. The parameters selected for study are outlined below:

1. In order to examine the extreme range in soil media, two soils were selected: a dense, dry sand and a highly plastic clay placed at such a water content that the consistency ranged from stiff to very stiff as defined by Terzaghi and Peck (1948, p 31).
2. In order to examine the effect of depth of burial, five shallow depths, ranging from zero to $2\frac{5}{8}$ in. or $\frac{3}{4}$ diameter (d), were investigated.
3. In order to examine overpressure effects, three pressure-time signatures were used, ranging from a quasi-static rise time of 10 to 15 min, to a rapid

rise time of 13 msec, and up to a dynamic rise time of 0.3 msec.

4. In order to examine a range in structural stiffness, two circular cylinder geometries (two wall thicknesses and three nominal yield strengths) were employed. The outside diameter, length, and end conditions were kept constant.

Since underground cylindrical structures have long been used as tunnels, culverts, sewers, and pipes, a great deal of qualitative knowledge is available covering all aspects of the soil-structure system, e.g. arching, longitudinal beam action, live load distribution, ring loading, and ring response. Fig. 1.1 illustrates some of the concepts of load transfer from the soil surface to the underground structure.

This test program was planned to investigate ring response, and the emphasis was not on the associated phenomena such as arching. These will be discussed only as they contribute to an understanding of the ring response.

Forty-six cylinders were tested during the investigation. For each rapid or dynamic test (plane wave loading), a corresponding static test was performed for comparison. The entire program is summarized in Table 5.1.

The 30 cylinders designated as groups A, B, and C were tested under static and rapid loading in the blast-loading facility at the University of Illinois. The 16 cylinders in groups D and E were tested under static and dynamic loading at the U. S. Army Waterways Experiment Station (WES).

CHAPTER 2. DEVELOPMENT OF PRESENT STATE OF KNOWLEDGE

2.1 Culvert, Pipe, and Tunnel Contribution

It is not the writer's purpose to cite all of the potentially applicable work, but rather to categorize the development of current schools of thought and to summarize the more pertinent references describing the development of design and analysis procedures for buried cylinders.

2.1.1 Talbot, Cain, Marston

Talbot (1908) tested cast-iron, plain concrete, and reinforced concrete pipes to failure. He recognized both the beneficial effect of lateral confinement (p 22) and the ability of the concrete rings to retain their circular configuration until final failure occurred when the concrete crushed (p 65). The idealized load distribution which he considered is shown in Fig. 2.1a. In view of the fact that the load distribution was not uniform, that the actual value of q (the average horizontal pressure divided by the average vertical pressure) was not determinable, and that cracking would not be acceptable for permanent installations, Talbot recommended the use of the formula $M_c = 0.25p_a R^2$ for design, i.e. the maximum bending moment (at the crown), M_c , with $q = 0$ where p_a is the average pressure on a horizontal plane through the crown, and R the mean radius of the pipe. Any surplus strength offered by the side restraint would be "considered merely an additional margin of safety" (Talbot (1908)).

Braune, Cain, and Janda (1929) explored the possibility that the horizontal pressure was not distributed all the way to the top of the ring (Fig. 2.1b). Using the results of pressure cell measurements on the surface of relatively flexible rings, they (in Appendix II written by Cain)

tried to arrive at applicable values of θ , the circular angle, and q . Cain also discussed (p 173) the reasons why deflections determined by a uniform radial load theory would never agree with measured values. This theory treats the horizontal passive soil resistances as if they were active soil forces.

Marston (1930) summarized his own work on arching and gave some guidelines to define the differences between flexible and rigid conduits. He considered flexible conduits as having cross-sectional shapes that can be distorted sufficiently to change their vertical or horizontal dimensions more than 3 percent before causing materially injurious cracks; rigid conduits cannot sustain such distortions.

2.1.2 Spangler

Spangler (1938) used a friction tape technique to measure the pressure distribution on the outside of flexible metal pipes. He developed a hypothetical distribution of pressure, Fig. 2.1c, based on the maximum unit horizontal pressure being equal to the modulus of passive resistance, k_s , of the fill material multiplied by one-half the horizontal diameter change. Spangler used e for this, but for distinction within this report the term k_s shall be used. He stated that deflection of a flexible culvert is the phenomenon of primary interest "because failure of flexible pipes occurs by excessive deflection rather than excessive stress." Spangler's design formula (Iowa Formula) for good bedding, Fig. 2.1c, also shows the relative influence of the pipe parameter, EI , and the influence of the passive soil resistance parameter, $0.061 k_s R^4$, where E is the modulus of elasticity of the pipe, I is the moment of inertia of the pipe wall, and R is the mean radius of the cylinder.

Spangler (1948) reviewed the state of knowledge of underground conduits and pointed out the lack of knowledge concerning the modulus of passive resistance, k_s . He also indicated that the load distribution on a horizontal plane at the level of the cylinder crown, p_a , is approximately uniform over the breadth of the pipe. Spangler (1956, pp 1054-9) discussed the validity of assuming a condition of plane strain or plane stress for pipeline problems. He concluded that it is not possible to determine which most nearly applies, and used the somewhat simpler plane stress assumption which is not dependent upon Poisson's ratio, ν , of the cylinder. Spangler (1960, Chapter 25) further discussed the Iowa Formula and tentatively recommended that for flexible culverts the deflection should not exceed 5 percent of the diameter. Typical values for the modulus of passive resistance were mentioned. Spangler indicated that the modulus of passive resistance is strongly influenced by the size of the pipe and gave recommended values for design.

2.1.3 Watkins

Watkins and Spangler (1958) examined the Iowa Formula from a dimensional analysis or similitude point of view. It was concluded that the modulus of passive resistance is not a property of the soil alone; and, further, that the product of the modulus of passive resistance, k_s , times the pipe radius is a constant for a given soil. This quantity, $k_s R$, was termed the modulus of soil reaction, E' .

Watkins (1959) attempted to correlate the modulus of soil reaction to properties that are easily measured. His work indicated that the modulus was related to the compression index for a given soil. Watkins (1960) pointed to buckling of the pipe wall, before an excessive diameter

change has occurred, as a potential failure mechanism for buried conduit systems. Watkins (1963) suggested that the hydrostatic buckling equation, $p_o = \frac{3EI}{R^3}$ (where p_o is the critical buckling pressure in psi), be applied as a conservative estimate of the buckling failure phenomenon. This and the work of Brockenburgh (1963) influenced the U. S. Steel Corporation to produce a new corrugation profile for their flexible culverts. Watkins and Nielson (1964) developed a test apparatus, modpares device, to measure the modulus of soil reaction. It was found that this quantity is not a constant, but rather decreases with increasing conduit deflection.

Watkins (1964) again pointed out the importance of the soil in influencing structural response, and illustrated the possibility of buckling for a very flexible ring carefully embedded in a well-compacted, granular fill.

2.1.4 Schafer, Barnard, White

Schafer (1948) stated that an average safe maximum deflection for conduits is 20 percent of the vertical diameter. Application of a factor of safety of 4 to the deflection criterion leads to a design deflection of 5 percent. He developed an empirical deflection equation, examined the Iowa Formula, and concluded that it gave undue value to the side-support factor, k_g , for large-diameter structures.

Barnard (1957) pointed out that apparent bending stresses in steel pipe based on elastic theory are not of importance in themselves when the ductility of the material in the shell permits deformation without failure. Localized bending stresses which appear to pass the yield point of the material are not proper criteria for failure.

White and Layer (1960) proposed the ring compression theory,

Fig. 2.1d, as a rational design tool. They argued that the ring bending stiffness need only be sufficient (1) to prevent buckling, (2) to resist the uneven loads in minimum cover installations, and (3) to permit easy handling and erection. White (1961) described a 21-ft-diameter corrugated culvert designed by using the ring compression theory, and indicated that the primary factor for average corrugated metal conduits is compressive strength.

2.1.5 Meyerhof

Meyerhof and Baikie (1963) performed tests to failure on quarter sections of curved steel sheets bearing against dense sand backfill. They showed that for small values of the subgrade modulus and the flexural rigidity of the plates, the sheets would fail by buckling; but, for larger values of these parameters the sheets would fail by yielding of the section. The ring compression theory was supported. Their buckling theory, discussed in Chapter 3, indicates that the hydrostatic theory is overly conservative. Meyerhof and Fisher (1963) discussed several field experiences and concluded that failures due to excess deflection were a consequence of unsuitable backfill material or poorly compacted soil. They urged the use of competent backfill so that the ring compression theory could be applied.

2.1.6 Large Field Structures

Terzaghi (1943) observed experimental sections of the Chicago subway tunnels in clay, and concluded that a nearly uniform distribution of pressure should be assumed. Terzaghi (1942, p 207) further suggested that the bending moments would be insignificant even in a fairly thick shell because the deformation of the tube automatically reduces the moments.

Peck and Peck (1949) discussed observations made on large-diameter, flexible steel culverts. They concluded that if the soil is adequately compacted, a moderate deformation will establish a state of nearly uniform all-around pressure.

Lane (1960) described the observation made of tunnel test sections at Garrison Dam. In the flexible sections, the ratio of the horizontal to vertical load ranged from 0.8 to 1.1. However, higher bending moments were observed in the flexible ribs than could be explained by the small differences between the measured horizontal and vertical thrusts. Thus, the moment was apparently dependent on things other than the overall loading, such as the construction procedures.

2.2 Protective Structures Research

2.2.1 Dynamic Theory

A number of complex solutions have been generated for mathematical continuum models which are tractable within the classical theory of elasticity. Palmer and Lankford (1963) compared several solutions and recommended the approach taken by Yoshihara and others (1963) as being very promising. Albritton and others (1965) reported the results of an experimental pilot study of a stiff, buried cylinder and an extensive analysis of the mathematical and physical limitations of the currently available continuum theories.

Mow (1964) reviewed various dynamic analyses and concluded that "under the assumption of earth media being elastic, homogeneous and isotropic, the dynamic-stress concentration factors for all cylindrical-cavity cases, whether elastically lined or unlined, are all about 10 to 20 percent higher than those for their corresponding static cases." The verification

of this analytical prediction could reduce the problem (when a step pulse or instantaneously applied input assumption is applicable) to the simpler static case with an arbitrary 20 percent increase in design equations.

As a consequence of the work of Merritt and Newmark (1962) and Melin and Sutcliffe (1959), Newmark and Halmiwanger (1962) outlined the only theory known to the writer which takes into account the nonelastic behavior of the cylinder.

No directly applicable theory of dynamic buckling is known.

2.2.2 Static Theory

In addition to the mechanics' theories already mentioned in connection with culverts, Section 2.1, several possible elastic continuum theories exist. Palmer and others (1963) compared a number of these and suggested using the solution of Savin (1961) for a lined hole in an infinite plate. Other similar solutions can be found for the static case which evolve as limiting portions (longtime or steady state) of the dynamic analyses where they approach the static case.

2.2.3 Ultimate Strength Laboratory Tests

Bulson (1962) tested 56 thin tubes to failure under static loading up to 100 psi. Overpressure and dial deflections were the only measurements made, but these were sufficient to describe the failure mode as buckling. The failures at the deepest burial, $3/4d$, in the dense sand point to a failure mode heretofore unrecognized for fully buried cylinders. Bulson (1963, a and b, and 1965) extended the work to square cylinders and (1964) summarized all of his previous tests.

Donnellan (1964) conducted nondestructive tests on instrumented

cylinders and destructive tests on noninstrumented cylinders buried in dense, dry, 20-30 Ottawa sand. The loading was quasi-static up to a maximum of 160 psi. Only the overpressure was monitored during the ultimate strength tests.

Whitman and Luscher (1962) and Luscher (1963) statically tested small aluminum tubes surrounded by dense sand and symmetrically loaded in a triaxial type device. As a result, Luscher and Höeg (1964) concluded that the major contribution of the sand to the system was to force the cylinder to respond in higher buckling modes. Luscher and Höeg (1964) also conducted buried tube tests which yielded failure conditions similar to those of the fully symmetric situation.

2.2.4 Nondestructive Laboratory Tests

A number of tests have been conducted to verify elastic theories and to form a basis for predicting the ultimate strength of a cylinder.

Allgood and Gill (1964) made a series of static and dynamic tests up to a maximum of 25-psi overpressure on a 24-in.-diameter steel cylinder buried in dense sand. All response was in the elastic range of the cylinder material. They found that the form of the deflection, thrust, and moment distribution was much the same under both types of loading. Some differences were noted: The maximum thrust under dynamic loading was about 14 percent higher than for static loading; the crown deflection under dynamic loading was about twice that under static loading. Allgood (1965), in attempting to summarize the case of a thin metal cylinder buried at shallow depths in a uniform, noncohesive soil, concluded that the net arching (reduction in vertical load below that at the surface) across a thin metal cylinder is negligible.

Robinson (1962) presented the results of a series of static tests up to a maximum of 100-psi overpressure on 6-in.-diameter tubes buried in dense, dry Ottawa sand. Robinson (1964) extended the earlier tests by including more strain gages. Four test sections were used at a depth of burial of 15 in., 2-1/2d. The results were nonsymmetric in response and showed a great amount of scatter in the moments.

2.2.5 Full Scale Tests

Albright and others (1960) described the response of large-diameter, buried conduit sections located at the 100-psi pressure range of Shot Priscilla (1957) in Operation PLUMBBOB, a full-scale field test. The sections were selected by means of modified static design procedures, and all survived the blast loading.

Williamson and Huff (1961) described the response of 20-ft long, 7-ft diameter, 10-gauge structural-plate pipes buried at a 10-ft depth of cover and subjected to a pressure of 250 psi from Shot Smoky of Operation PLUMBBOB. Again the structures survived with very small deformations and virtually no damage.

McDonough (1959) described tests on drum-shaped structural models buried at depths of from 0 to 20 ft and subjected to the effects of air-induced pressures resulting from large detonations. The compressibility of the structure relative to the surrounding soil appeared to govern the amount of load that was transmitted to the structure.

2.3 Similitude Studies

The American Machine and Foundry Company (1962) and Murphy and Young (1962) examined the feasibility of modeling the soil-structure interaction problem, and developed similitude relations.

Murphy and others (1963) demonstrated the feasibility of using small-scale modeling for qualitative results. Young and Murphy (1964) tested their similitude requirements on stiff aluminum cylinders buried in dry Ottawa sand, and concluded that the requirements were satisfied within the range of parameters investigated.

Dowell (1964) continued the work with stiff cylinders, but experienced difficulty as a result of sidewall friction in the testing device.

2.4 Bibliographies and Design Manuals

Van Horn and Tener (1963) and Merkle (1963) prepared annotated bibliographies on the subject of soil-structure interaction. Each chapter of the five volume set of Nuclear Geoplosics by Stanford Research Institute (1964) contains an excellent bibliography. The Effects of Nuclear Weapons by U. S. Atomic Energy Commission (1964) covers the general field of nuclear weapons, and the Proceedings of the Symposium on Soil-Structure Interaction by University of Arizona (1964) presents the most up-to-date research.

Design manuals appeared in 1957 with the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers series EM 1110-345-413 to -421. American Society of Civil Engineers (1961) and Newmark and others (1961) developed design recommendations. Newmark and Haltiwanger (1962, under revision) outlined design procedures for hardened sites.

CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Various theoretical solutions and concepts are presented in this chapter and are compared with the test results in Chapter 6. The non-availability of a dynamic buckling theory together with the theoretical indication that the dynamic response for a step pulse is only 10 to 20 percent greater than the static response suggests that static theory may be applicable for the elastic case.

3.1 Definition of Failure

A protective structure fails when it can no longer perform the function for which it was designed. For the shell under consideration, Fig. 3.1, failure is an inability to keep the ring from collapsing. This could come about by (1) the vertical diameter decreasing to such an extent, say 20 percent, that the crown would reverse curvature and plunge to the invert, Fig. 3.2a; (2) a section of the wall becoming unstable before a large-diameter change has occurred (and buckling inward into the cavity with a large amplitude) as a consequence of the interaction between thrust and moment (a) before any fiber in the cross section has yielded, (b) after some fibers have yielded in bending but before the whole cross section has yielded in thrust, (c) at some time after the whole cross section has yielded in thrust (hoop compression). Fig. 3.2b, c, and d show some observed modes of failure.

Large, i.e. greater than 5 percent, changes in diameter will not occur (if the cylinder is emplaced in a competent backfill) before one of the failure mechanisms in (2) above has triggered the structural collapse. The backfilling around protective structures should be carefully

controlled; therefore, the tests of the present investigation were conducted in well-compacted and -controlled sand and clay specimens.

Because the cylinder tends to readjust itself under load, it may be assumed that the bending moments are negligible in the development of a buckling criterion. Hence, failures (2)(a) and (2)(b) mentioned previously can be considered one condition describing the elastic membrane response of the cross section.

As long as the wall acts as a ductile member, yielding will not constitute failure other than as it precipitates inelastic buckling.

3.2 Elastic Buckling

3.2.1 Soil Medium Approximated by Water

A first approximation to the problem of a uniform soil-surrounded cylinder can be made by the use of the equation for hydrostatic buckling of a ring, Fig. 3.3. Since this mathematical model assumes that the medium possesses no shear strength, it should serve as a lower bound for the buckling value for uniform radial loading. Seely and Smith (1952, p 612) arrived at the classical relation

$$p_h = (n^2 - 1) \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad n \geq 2 \quad 3.1$$

where p_h = uniform collapsing (critical) pressure (force per unit area)
for the ring section

n = buckling mode number, an integer

E = modulus of elasticity of the cylinder material

I = moment of inertia (per unit length) of the ring cross section

R = mean radius of the ring

The minimum value for p_h , other than zero, is

$$p_o = 3 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.2$$

Timoshenko and Gere (1961, p 292) indicated that the buckling forms of higher order can be obtained only by introducing certain additional constraints. For $n = 3$, $p_h = 8 \frac{EI}{R^3}$ or $2.7 p_o$. For $n = 4$, $p_h = 15 \frac{EI}{R^3}$ or $5 p_o$. Williamson and Huff (1961, p 42) used $15 \frac{EI}{R^3}$ as their buckling criterion.

The hydrostatic value for the critical buckling pressure is based on the external forces remaining normal to the surface of the ring when buckling occurs. Boreasi (1955, p 101) has shown that the coefficient on $\frac{EI}{R^3}$ in equation 3.2 is 4.5 for the fundamental buckling mode if the external forces are assumed to remain directed toward the original center of the ring instead of normal to the surface. Bodner (1958) showed that the coefficient is 4 for a constant-directional-pressure force system.

The foregoing observations indicate some of the potential weaknesses in the hydrostatic assumption. A slightly different assumption in the action of the surface traction could change the critical buckling pressure by 50 percent.

Anderson and Boreasi (1962) investigated a nonuniform load distribution of the form $p = p_a \sin^2 \theta$, Fig. 3.4, where p_a is the peak pressure at the crown. For centrally directed forces, p_{cr} (average) = $4.5 \frac{EI}{R^3}$, which was identical with the uniform load case where p_{cr} (average) is the total load divided by the circumference. This implies that the specific load distribution may not be overly critical in some cases.

For the test specimens of cylinder groups A, B, D, and E, $p_o = 135$ psi and for group C, $p_o = 5.1$ psi from equation 3.2 for the lowest mode.

Other investigators, e.g. Donnellan (1964), have tested cylindrical shells in which the longitudinal boundaries were supported and as a result the theoretical buckling equation became a function of the cylinder length, l . Timoshenko and Gere (1962, p 478) derived the expression for a simply supported shell, $w = \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} = 0$ where w is the deflection of the middle surface in the radial direction and x is the cylinder coordinate in the longitudinal direction, Fig. 3.1.

$$P_t = \frac{Eh}{R(n^2 - 1) \left(1 + \frac{n^2 l^2}{\pi^2 R^2}\right)} + \frac{EI}{(1 - \nu^2)R^3} \left(n^2 - 1 + \frac{2n^2 - 1 - \nu}{1 + \frac{n^2 l^2}{\pi^2 R^2}}\right) \quad 3.3$$

where P_t is the theoretical buckling pressure, and h is the wall thickness. The number of half-waves, n , into which the shell buckles increases as the length of the shell decreases and as the thickness of the shell decreases. Taking the limit of equation 3.3 as the length becomes long (approaches infinity) yields the equation for a long tube or structure

$$P_t = \frac{(n^2 - 1) EI}{(1 - \nu^2) R^3} \quad 3.4$$

where ν is Poisson's ratio of the cylinder material.

For a value of $\nu = 0.3$, equation 3.4 for a long cylindrical shell differs from equation 3.1 for a ring by only 10 percent.

Armenakas and Herrmann (1963) reanalyzed the shell case and presented convenient graphs to allow rapid assessment of the critical buckling number n corresponding to values of l/R .

3.2.2 Soil Medium Approximated by Elastic Support

Cheney (1963, p 41) derived an expression for the critical buckling pressure (p_c) of a ring with radial elastic support, Fig. 3.5.

$$p_c = (n^2 - 1) \frac{EI}{R^3} + \frac{k_z R}{n^2 - 1} \quad n \geq 2 \quad 3.5$$

in which

$$n_{cr} = \sqrt{1 + \sqrt{\frac{k_z R^4}{EI}}} \geq 2 \quad 3.6$$

This leads to a convenient approximation

$$p_c = 2 \sqrt{k_z \frac{EI}{R^2}} \quad 3.7$$

where k_z is the spring constant in psi per in. of radial deflection. Cheney (1964) pointed out that equation 3.7 underestimates the buckling load no more than by 10 percent for n greater than 5 and less than 1 percent for n greater than 10. For vanishing values of k_z and for n less than 5, the exact expression, equation 3.5, must be used because equation 3.7 is not suited to small values of the spring constant or n .

The great difficulty involved in applying this type of equation is the evaluation of an appropriate spring constant, k_z , for the soil. To facilitate comparison, equation 3.7 can be rewritten as

$$p_c = 2 \sqrt{k_z R^4} \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \quad 3.8$$

Meyerhof and Baikie (1963, p 13) arrived at an elastic buckling equation by modifying the theory of flat plates on an elastic foundation. Their equation may be written as

$$p_m = \frac{(n+1)^2 - 1}{1 - \nu^2} \frac{EI}{R^3} + \frac{(1 - \nu^2) k_m R}{(n+1)^2 - 1} \quad 3.9$$

where k_m is the coefficient of soil reaction ("subgrade modulus").

For large values of n this can be reduced to

$$p_m = 2 \sqrt{\frac{k_m EI}{(1 - \nu^2)R^2}} \quad 3.10$$

or

$$p_m = 2 \sqrt{\frac{k_m R}{(1 - \nu^2)}} \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \quad 3.11$$

Equation 3.11 differs from Cheney's equation, 3.8, only by the factor $(1 - \nu^2)$.

Luscher and Höeg (1964, p 35) used an approach of Hetényi (1946) to arrive at an equation for critical buckling pressure (p_ℓ).

$$p_\ell = 2 \left(\sqrt{\frac{k_\ell R^3}{EI} + 1} - 1 \right) \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.12$$

where

$$n_{cr} = \sqrt[4]{\frac{k_\ell R^3}{EI} + 1} \quad 3.13$$

These can be simplified for higher order buckling modes to

$$p_\ell = 2 \sqrt{k_\ell \frac{EI}{R^3}} = 2 \sqrt{k_\ell} \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \quad 3.14$$

and

$$n_{cr} = \sqrt[4]{k_\ell \frac{R^3}{EI}} \quad 3.15$$

where k_ℓ = coefficient of elastic soil reaction (having the units psi per strain). Luscher and Höeg (1964, p 143) expressed k_ℓ in terms of the constrained tangent modulus of the soil and the thickness of the soil support. For the Ottawa sand which they used, the equation was written as

$$p_\ell = 780 \left[\frac{EI}{R^3} f(R) \right]^{5/6} \quad 3.16$$

where $f(R)$ is a function of the depth of burial.

Newmark and Merritt (1963) considered a similar problem.

All of the above can be summarized by the following:

$$P_c = 2 \sqrt{k_z R} \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \geq \frac{3EI}{R^3} \quad 3.8$$

$$P_m = 2 \sqrt{\frac{k_m R}{(1 - \nu^2)}} \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \quad 3.11$$

$$P_l = 2 \sqrt{k_l} \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \quad 3.14$$

The application of this type of formula revolves around an ability to arrive at an appropriate value of the coefficient of soil reaction. This will be discussed in Chapter 6.

3.2.3 Soil Medium Approximated by an Elastic Medium

Forrestal and Herrmann (1964) derived a buckling equation for a long cylindrical shell subjected to uniform external pressure exerted by a surrounding elastic medium, Fig. 3.6. The solution for the unbonded case (shear stresses between the shell and the medium are absent) can be expressed as

$$P_f = \frac{(n^2 - 1) EI}{(1 - \nu^2) R^3} + \frac{E_s}{(1 + \nu_s)(1 - 2\nu_s)(n + 1) + n} \quad 3.17$$

where P_f is the critical buckling pressure, E_s is the Young's modulus of the medium, and ν_s is the Poisson's ratio of the medium. Solutions for the bonded case were also presented but were more complicated and did not give results which varied greatly from those for the unbonded case.

3.3 Inelastic Action

After the cross section has yielded in hoop compression, it can

continue to yield or strain for some time before structural collapse. It is hypothesized that such failure can be defined by the judicious choice of a ductility factor. Newmark and Hultiwanger (1962) defined this factor, μ , as the ratio of the maximum deflection to the deflection at yield. Ductility factors for compression members have been assumed to be in the range 1.3 to 1.5.

3.4 Characteristic Ring Parameter

In order to compare the results of various tests run by different investigators, it is necessary to have a parameter by which the ring can be adequately described. Various groupings have been used, e.g. radius to thickness ratio, diameter to thickness ratio, and these quantities weighted in some fashion by the modulus of elasticity.

The quantity $\frac{EI}{R^3}$ appears as a parameter in all of the aforementioned buckling equations and appears to be a convenient index for the elastic action of rings.

Stiffness can be defined as the force required to produce a unit deflection. For a large variety of loading configurations this is a function of $\frac{EI}{R^3}$. Fig. 3.7 illustrates a number of these loading conditions, many of which were investigated by Lane (1960, p 287).

Point load, P (Fig. 3.7a):

$$\frac{P}{\Delta_v} = 6.7 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.18$$

60° triangle (Fig. 3.7b):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 29 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.19$$

90° triangle (Fig. 3.7c):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 22 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.20$$

120° triangle (Fig. 3.7d):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 19 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.21$$

180° triangle (Fig. 3.7e):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 18 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.22$$

Parabolic (Fig. 3.7f):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 14 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.23$$

Uniform (Fig. 3.7g):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 12 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.24$$

Side support (Fig. 3.7h):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 12 (1 - q) \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 3.25$$

Uniform radial (Fig. 3.7i):

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_v} = 2 \frac{Eh}{R} \quad 3.26$$

where Δ_v is the decrease in vertical diameter, q is the ratio of the horizontal to the vertical pressure, and h is the ring wall thickness.

It also appears that the parameter $\frac{EI}{R^3}$ may provide a means for differentiating between so-called stiff and flexible buried cylinders. The Iowa Formula (Fig. 2.1c) can be rewritten as

$$\frac{P(2R)}{\Delta_h} = \frac{0.061(k_s R) + \frac{EI}{R^3}}{0.083} \quad 3.27$$

where Δ_h is the increase in horizontal diameter. If a flexible structure is defined as one whose stiffness, $\frac{EI}{R^3}$, has less than a 10 percent influence on elastic deformation relative to the influence of the soil, then, from equation 3.27, a stiff structure is one in which

$$\frac{EI}{R^3} > 0.61(k_s R) \quad 3.28$$

In a dense sand medium (with $k_s R = E' = 1000$ as suggested by Watkins and Nielson (1964, p 173)), a cylinder is stiff if $\frac{EI}{R^3} > 610$ psi from equation 3.28. In a clay (with $E' = 900$), it is stiff if $\frac{EI}{R^3} > 550$ psi. These stiffness values are greater than those required to prevent buckling for overpressures lower than 1500 psi.

Other approaches have been suggested to arrive at relative stiffness. Meyerhof and Baikie (1963) indicated that the relative stiffness, S , of a culvert with respect to the soil is

$$S = \sqrt[4]{\frac{EI}{(1 - \nu^2)k_m}} \quad 3.29$$

or

$$S = \sqrt[3]{\frac{2(1 - \nu_s^2)EI}{(1 - \nu^2)E_s}} \quad 3.30$$

where ν_s is Poisson's ratio of the soil. Davisson* suggested that relative stiffness, S_1 , could be expressed as

$$S_1 = \sqrt[3]{\frac{EI}{RE_s}} \quad 3.31$$

and that a typical descriptor, TD, would be

$$TD = \frac{R}{S_1} \quad 3.32$$

No numerical limits have been established to differentiate between stiff and flexible structures on the basis of these equations.

* Private communication with M. T. Davisson, Professor, Department of Civil Engineering, University of Illinois, June 1964.

Qualitatively, a flexible structure may be thought of as one which deforms (vertical change or volumetric change) more than the medium replaced would have. However, this concept has its greatest applicability in the assessment of overall arching.

Flexibility, in the structural sense that it will deform sufficiently to mobilize the passive resistance of the side-supporting soil, appears to be assured for a structure made of ductile material whose value of $\frac{EI}{R^3}$ is less than about 600 psi.

CHAPTER 4. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURE

4.1 Description of Cylinders4.1.1 Considerations in Selection of Design

A number of practical considerations were influential in the selection of the cylinder material and the geometric dimensions for the tests.

Aluminum was selected for the cylinder material because it, in general, is not strain-rate sensitive according to Steidel and Makerov (1960) and Smith (1963). It has a face-centered, cubic, crystalline, lattice structure and exhibits a continuous stress-strain curve with no sharp yielding zone. Steel was rejected because of its unpredictable yield strength under dynamic loading. Massard and Collins (1958) and Wright and Hall (1964) have proposed methods of taking this strain-rate effect into account, but it was considered best to avoid adding this parameter to the study. Plastics are made of long chain molecules which possess no ordered geometric pattern of structure, and hence are not only strain-rate sensitive but also experience a brittle failure under rapid loading as indicated by Dietz and McGarry (1956) and Hall (1958).

The relative size of the cylinders was dictated by the dimensions of the University of Illinois 2-ft-diameter, 500-psi, loading device. As a result, it can be assumed that for shallow burial no load was lost due to the effect of sidewall friction, and hence that the free-field vertical soil pressure immediately above the cylinder was equal to the surface overpressure. Measurements by Hanley (1963) have shown this to be a reasonable assumption.

The specific cross-sectional dimensions were determined by consideration of two factors. First, it was essential to have specimens that would fail under the maximum available pressure. In this regard, it was also desirable to take full advantage of the high pressure capability available by concentrating on specimens which would be too strong for ultimate strength studies in other facilities. Second, in view of the high cost of specimen preparation and the desirability of testing a large number of cylinders, commercially available tubing was sought.

The length was governed by the desire to have a somewhat realistic proportion between length and diameter, and by the need for enough length to smooth out any local disturbances caused by the presence of either the outside strain gages or end walls. Also, the length should be long enough to allow two-dimensional behavior and short enough to fit conveniently into the tank.

The closure plates (end caps) for the ends of the cylinder were designed so that no axial loading would be transferred to the cylinder, while at the same time retaining free radial motion.

4.1.2 Cylinder Material

Although all of the cylinders are made of aluminum, alloys with three different, nominal yield strengths were involved. The stress-strain properties of the materials were experimentally obtained and are discussed in Appendix A. The modulus of elasticity, E , was found to be a constant value, 10×10^6 psi. Two yield values were determined: a lower yield point, σ_{y1} (which is hard to define and probably no more accurate than ± 10 percent), corresponding to the first noticeable deviation from elastic behavior; and an upper yield point, σ_{y2} , corresponding to the

stress which would result in 0.2 percent permanent strain. These values are summarized in Table 4.1.

4.1.3 Cylinder Geometry

The outside diameter, d , for all cylinders was 3.5 in. Micrometer measurements of the horizontal and vertical diameters prior to each test indicated that the greatest deviation was ± 0.5 percent. The larger diameter was oriented vertically for the test. The length, l , was a constant 10.5 in., making the length-to-diameter ratio for all cases equal to 3. Two wall thicknesses were used, 0.065 in. and 0.022 in. No deviation in thickness was found to be greater than ± 0.001 in. A longitudinal section of a cylinder is shown in Fig. 4.1, and the geometric values are summarized in Table 4.1.

4.1.4 End Conditions

The conditions at the ends of the cylinder represent a free boundary. The end caps prevented the transfer of any axial load to the cylinder and the clearance of 0.05 in. at each end was sufficient to allow for radial motion. One layer of commercial, paper masking tape was used to hold the cylinder in place between the end caps during handling and placement in the soil.

4.1.5 Natural Period of Vibration

In dynamic problems it is sometimes necessary to know the natural period of vibration of the structure for all loading conditions except a step pulse. For circular, cylindrical structures buried underground the procedure for determining the period is not well established. However, a good approximation can be made by finding the period of a cylinder in air and making appropriate corrections to account for the soil.

The natural period of the pure radial vibration of a complete ring is given by Timoshenko and Young (1955, p 426) as

$$T_c = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{\gamma R^2}{Eg}} \quad 4.1$$

where

T_c = natural compressive period

γ = specific weight

R = radius of the center line of the ring

E = modulus of elasticity

g = acceleration due to gravity

For this study $\gamma = 169 \text{ lb/ft}^3$, $E = 10 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$, $g = 32.2 \text{ ft/sec}^2$, and $R = 1.72 \text{ in.}$ (groups A, B, D, E) or 1.74 in. (group C). The calculations yield for all cylinders

$$T_c = 0.06 \text{ msec} \quad 4.2$$

For comparison, consider the period of the fundamental mode of flexural vibration given by Timoshenko and Young (1955, p 429) as

$$T_f = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{5}{36} \frac{\gamma A R^4}{EgI}} \quad 4.3$$

where

T_f = natural flexural period

A = area of the cross section perpendicular to the ring
center line

I = moment of inertia of the cross section perpendicular to
the ring center line

This may be rewritten as

$$T_f = \frac{R}{h} \sqrt{\frac{5}{3}} 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{\gamma R^2}{Eg}} \quad 4.4$$

where h = thickness of the ring.

The substitution of equation 4.1 into equation 4.4 yields

$$T_f = \frac{R}{h} \sqrt{\frac{5}{3}} T_c \quad 4.5$$

For this study $h = 0.065$ in. (groups A, B, D, E) or 0.022 in. (group C).

The calculations yield

$$T_f = 1.9 \text{ msec, groups A, B, D, and E} \quad 4.6$$

$$T_f = 5.6 \text{ msec, group C} \quad 4.7$$

The soil acts in two ways to modify the foregoing expressions for the natural period. It tends to stiffen, and at the same time to add mass to the structure. The effect of the mass of soil, virtual mass, which must be accelerated along with the buried structural elements can be treated in the manner suggested by Merritt and Newmark (1964, p 23); but, the deflections observed in this study for the small cylinders were of such small magnitude that it is unlikely that any appreciable amount of additional mass should be included. The stiffening effect is even less susceptible to quantitative assessment.

4.2 Description of Soil

4.2.1 Considerations in Selection of Test Soils

Although considerable thought is being given to what soil parameters govern soil-structure interaction, no complete answer is presently available. Therefore, it was desirable to use soils at each end of the spectrum,* and at the same time soils whose shear strength and

* 1st Lt. A. J. Hendron, Jr., Ph.D., "A Short Technical Note on the Extremes in Soil Types in Regard to Dynamic Soil-Structure Interaction," Vicksburg, Miss., July 22, 1964.

stress-strain properties could be documented for future reference. A new soil environment was built for every cylinder; hence, the in-place properties of the soils used had to be reproducible. Dense, dry sand and a clay of high plasticity were selected. The sand was uniformly graded because a given density was thought to be more reproducible in a uniformly graded sand than in a well-graded sand.

4.2.2 Sangamon River and Cook's Bayou No. 1 Sands

The Sangamon River sand has been used extensively in tests at the University of Illinois. It was used in a dense ($D_r = 78\%$), dry condition as the soil environment for the testing of cylinder groups A, B, and C. The Cook's Bayou No. 1 sand ($D_r = 79\%$) has been used for several experiments at WES; extensive, dynamic one-dimensional and triaxial tests are planned in the near future to expand the knowledge of its properties. It was used for group E. The characteristics of both sands, together with the placement techniques employed, are outlined in Appendix B.

4.2.3 Buckshot Clay

This particular clay (CH) was selected for the group D cylinders because of the experience at WES in its use. However, even with this kind of knowledge available, great difficulty was experienced in developing placing methods adaptable to this study. The properties and placement techniques are discussed in Appendix C.

4.3 Loading Devices

Experimental work in this area has required the development of new testing machines.

4.3.1 Illinois

The equipment used in the first stage of this study was

originally developed by Egger (1957) and later modified to permit simulation of blast loading by Sinnamon and others (1961). Its capabilities are described by Sinnamon and Newmark (1961), and it has recently been used by Hanley (1963) to study the interaction between sand and vertically oriented cylinders.

The container is a vertical cylinder 26-3/4 in. high and 23-1/4 in. in diameter. A 1/32-in.-thick neoprene diaphragm is placed over the soil surface to prevent gas penetration. Then a spacer ring is positioned, followed by the static or dynamic loading head. The device is illustrated in Fig. 4.2. Both the static and dynamic loads are provided by a compressed gas system. Although the equipment is capable of producing rise times in the neighborhood of 3 msec by using helium gas, this study was conducted with nitrogen gas because it is less expensive and because the 3 msec rise time apparently offered little advantage over the 13 msec rise time (rapid) with nitrogen gas. A typical overpressure-time relation is shown in Fig. 4.3. No reflection of the incident wave on the bottom was noted.

4.3.2 WES

Cylinder groups D and E were tested in the Small Blast Load Generator (SBLG) facility at WES. This was the first extensive experimental program completed in the SBLG and hence a number of problems in technique had to be resolved during the course of the investigation. The dynamic overpressure is applied by the detonation of two parallel lines of PETN in the form of primacord. The effective overpressure-time relation (dynamic) is shown in Fig. 4.3. The early part of the curve was obtained by averaging the maximum and minimum points in adjacent oscillations.

Although the amplitude of the oscillations varied as much as +50 percent from the average, the impulse was so small (10,000 and 20,000 cps ringing) that the approximation in Fig. 4.3 is justified. The high-frequency signals were probably caused by the nonshock isolated gage mounts. The pressure distribution on the surface is within +10 percent of being a plane wave according to Kennedy and Sadler (1965).

The loader is a cylindrical ring device, 46-3/4 in. in diameter. For these tests an average soil replacement depth of 2 ft was used. The layout is shown in Fig. 4.4. The static tests of group D were run with a rigid concrete base (III). The static tests of group E along with the dynamic tests of both D and E were conducted with a pseudo-infinite base (II) to avoid the dynamic disadvantages of the rigid base.

The "infinite" base is a column of sand extending 9 ft below the floor level. This column had been previously loaded many times to 500 psi, and no further compaction was observed. Two feet of sand above floor level was replaced for each sand test. For the dynamic clay tests, a rubber diaphragm was inserted at floor level to separate the lower sand column from the upper 2 ft of clay.

The operation of the loading device has been outlined by Boynton Associates (1960), and the U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station (1963) and an evaluation study is being made by Kennedy and Sadler (1965).

4.4 Instrumentation

4.4.1 General

Metal film strain gages were used to measure hoop strain on the inside and outside of the cylinders (Fig. 4.1). Static deflection gages were made from brass shim stock and individually calibrated. The

transducers and techniques are discussed in Appendix D.

4.4.2 Illinois

The instrumentation used is pictured in Fig. 4.5. The active strain gage on the cylinder was one arm of a four-arm bridge. The dummy gages were mounted on isolated metal strips outside the test tank. Multi-conductor cable was used initially, but it was found that two-conductor shielded cable provided a better barrier to spurious noise in the system.

The eight hoop strain gages were hooked to a bank of Consolidated Electroynamics Corporation (CEC) carrier amplifiers, Type 1-127. A 12-channel CEC, direct-write, recording oscillograph Type 5-124 with available paper speeds of 0.5, 2, 8, 32, and 128 in./sec was used. The two deflection gages each formed two arms of a bridge and were fed through DANA d-c amplifiers to the oscillograph. For the static tests, the slowest paper speed was used. A timing trace of 2 cps and one reference (dead) trace completely utilized all of the available channels. The overpressure was read on an auxiliary Bourdon gage with the timing trace interrupted at predesignated pressure levels. Modifications were made for the rapid tests. The output of the strain gage amplifiers was split so that it was placed on both the oscillograph and a Honeywell 8100 tape recorder (as a back-up record). Additional DANA amplifiers were used to drive the tapes. The time base frequency was increased to 500 cps. The output of a Kistler Instrument Corporation, piezoelectric, pressure transducer, which was in series with a Kistler calibrator and charge amplifier, was used to record pressure. The recording paper was driven at the fastest speed possible, 128 in./sec.

The frequency response of the oscillograph system was limited to

that of the CEC 7-364 galvanometers, 500 cps. The tape system had a frequency response of at least 3000 cps and a few records reproduced directly from the tape indicated that no frequencies higher than 500 cps were present.

4.4.3 WES

The equipment used for group E (the first test series at WES) and the evaluation of the overpressure-time signature is shown in Fig. 4.6. The Wheatstone bridge was set up as in the Illinois tests. The Sensor Analog Module (SAM) amplifiers used are d-c, and hence the dynamic frequency response was again limited by the galvanometer capabilities, 2500 cps (CEC 7-362).

After the group E tests were completed, the SBLG facility instrumentation was moved to a separate area. The layout used for the group D tests is shown in Fig. 4.7. In this case, DANA amplifiers coupled with galvo drivers were used.

Overpressure was monitored by a pair of 1000-psi Norwood pressure transducers, Model 211C. Additional pressure transducers were used and their output recorded on tape to gain higher frequency response (20,000 cps) in order to describe adequately the high-frequency characteristics of the pressure-time signature.

4.4.4 Sources of Error

Potential sources of error are present throughout the system: (1) inexact strain gage placement ($\pm 2\%$); (2) variation in gage factor and resistance ($\pm 1\%$); (3) amplifier nonlinearity ($\pm 2\%$); (4) galvanometer nonlinearity ($\pm 1\%$); and (5) properties of the pressure transducers ($\pm 5\%$). These imply a confidence limit of no better than ± 11 percent in the instrumentation system.

CHAPTER 5. PRESENTATION OF EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

5.1 Method of Presentation5.1.1 Cylinder Coding

Table 5.1 outlines the overall testing program for the 46 specimens and identifies each cylinder with its respective soil environment, depth of burial, and type of loading. The notation used, e.g. A-3, to identify each cylinder (and thus each test) has general meaning. The alphabetic term, A, was used to identify the original 12-ft tube from which the test cylinder was cut and can be related to the stress-strain curves of Appendix A. Cylinders with a numerical designation 1 through 5 were tested statically, while those designated 6 through 10 were tested either rapidly or dynamically. In Tables 5.2 through 5.11 the tests are presented by group (A, B, C, D, E), static first, in the order of increasing depth of burial within the group.

5.1.2 Tables of Data

The digitized strain values were taken from the oscillograph records at points corresponding to specific values of the overpressure to obtain a cause-and-effect relation. In the dynamic tests, peak strain values were recorded. These experimental strain values, together with diameter-change values (for static tests only), are listed in Tables 5.2 to 5.11 with respect to overpressure.

Use of a dash instead of a number indicates that the results were lost due to instrumentation difficulties. The values of stress, thrust, and moment are also listed in the tables. The gage locations are identified in Fig. 4.1.

5.1.3 Data Plots

The values of strain were, in general, not plotted directly in Figs. 5.1 to 5.43 because an appropriate scale to show the large inelastic values would have masked the much smaller elastic strains. The stress to cause yield and the thrust to cause yield are shown by horizontal dotted lines in each figure. "First yield" (σ_{y1}) represents the stress at a point where the slope of the stress-strain curve departs from the initial elastic slope (E). The yield value corresponding to 0.2 percent permanent strain is the "0.2 percent offset yield" (σ_{y2}). The diagonal dotted line labeled "uniform radial load" represents the theoretical relation derived for a uniform radial load equivalent in magnitude to the overpressure, Fig. 2.1d.

Stress, thrust, moment, and diameter change (static tests only) are plotted as ordinates with respect to the surface overpressure as the abscissa.

The symbols used to identify a gage location are presented on each figure and are consistent throughout. The inside gages are represented by open symbols and the outside gages by closed symbols. The cross sections are identified by the applicable open symbol.

5.2 Computations

5.2.1 Moment and Thrust Computation

The moment and thrust at a cross section were calculated from

$$M_y = \int_{-h/2}^{h/2} \sigma_y z dz \quad 5.1$$

$$N_y = \int_{-h/2}^{h/2} \sigma_y dz \quad 5.2$$

where M_y is the moment in the y or tangential direction, Fig. 3.1, in units of pounds (inch-pounds per inch), and N_y is the thrust or in-plane force in the tangential direction in units of pounds per inch. For the elastic case these can be reduced to

$$M_y = (\epsilon_e - \epsilon_i) \frac{Eh^2}{12} \quad 5.3$$

$$N_y = (\epsilon_e + \epsilon_i) \frac{Eh}{2} \quad 5.4$$

where ϵ_e is the exterior strain, and ϵ_i is the interior strain at the cross section in inches per inch. Compressive strains and thrust are considered positive in the presentation. Moment tending to compress the external fibers is positive.

5.2.2 Computer Program

To reduce the large mass of strain data to applicable stress, thrust, and moment values, a program (13-G1-Z5010) was written in FORTRAN for the WES, GE 225 computer. The aluminum stress-strain curves of Appendix A were input in a discrete number of linear segments and a "table lookup" was utilized to compute the elastic and inelastic stress. The strain distribution was assumed to be linear across the section, Singer (1951, p 409), so that the expressions for moment and thrust, equations 5.1 and 5.2, could be numerically integrated for the nonelastic case. The program assumes that the material stress-strain properties are the same in both tension and compression and that any unloading takes place along the original load curve.

5.2.3 Computation of q

Values of q are listed in Tables 5.2 to 5.11. As used in this

context, q is not a coefficient of earth pressure, but merely defines the ratio of the average thrust at the crown and invert divided by the average thrust at the spring line. Values of q are plotted in Figs. 6.1 to 6.3.

5.3 Mode of Failure

All of the cylinders that failed, failed by a catastrophic snap-through (caving) of the crown. A noise was heard at the moment of failure and all of the strain gage traces were instantaneously driven off the oscillograph, either by being overranged or by shorting out electrically. The last recorded strains in the tables are those at the moment of failure.

The failed cylinders are shown in Figs. 5.44 and 5.45. The distorted cross section of two cylinders which did not fail are shown in Fig. 5.46 (the strain gage wires are evident in D-6), and the postfailure clay configuration is illustrated in Fig. 5.47. A plot of overpressure at failure versus depth of burial is shown in Fig. 5.48.

5.4 Stress, Moment, and Thrust

The cylinder groups are presented in the order A, B, C, E, and D because the first four groups were in a sand medium and the last in clay.

5.4.1 A Group

The static test data are presented in Table 5.2 and plotted in Figs. 5.1 through 5.6. An air line broke at 400 psi during test A-3. Fig. 5.4, test A-3A, presents the data up to that point. The line was repaired, the gages were rezeroed, and a second test, A-3B, Fig. 5.5, was run up to 500 psi. The values of stress, thrust, and moment listed for test A-3B were computed by the computer program on the assumption of no residual strain. Sample calculations based on the more realistic assumption of residual strains from test A-3A indicated that the listed

values are no more than about 10 percent low.

The deflection gages were not suitable for the rapid testing, and hence data from them do not appear in Table 5.3 nor in Figs. 5.7 through 5.11.

5.4.2 B Group

The static test data are presented in Table 5.4 and plotted in Figs. 5.12 through 5.17. The B group was the first group to be tested, and B-1 was the first cylinder. Test B-1A, Fig. 5.12, terminated at 300 psi because no higher pressure was attainable with the loading device. A subsequent modification in the O-ring configuration allowed the device to attain its 500-psi static capacity. Test B-1 was rerun, test B-1B, Fig. 5.13, and the cylinder failed at 315-psi overpressure.

The rapid test data are presented in Table 5.5 and plotted in Figs. 5.18 through 5.22.

5.4.3 C Group

The static test data are presented in Table 5.6 and plotted in Figs. 5.23 through 5.27. The rapid test data are presented in Table 5.7 and plotted in Figs. 5.28 through 5.32.

5.4.4 E Group

The static tests were run as duplicates to check the tests of the A group. Test data are presented in Table 5.8 and plotted in Figs. 5.33 through 5.35. The dynamic results (peak strain values) are presented in Table 5.9 and plotted in Figs. 5.36 and 5.37. The initial pressure rise of the dynamic pressure wave, Fig. 4.3, approximates a step pulse. For this region a strain-pressure relation is unmanageable. Therefore, the dynamic results are plotted with respect to the circular angle θ

(Fig. 4.1) for the various overpressures attained. No failures resulted from the maximum available, nominal overpressure of 250 psi.

5.4.5 D Group (Clay)

The static test data are presented in Table 5.10 and plotted in Figs. 5.38 through 5.42. The dynamic results are presented in Table 5.11 and plotted with respect to the circular angle θ in Fig. 5.43. The values of stress, thrust, and moment were computed by the computer program on the assumption of no initial strain. Sample calculations, which took into account the strains impressed during placement, indicated that the values listed in Tables 5.10 and 5.11 are no more than about 10 percent low.

CHAPTER 6. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF TEST RESULTS

Initially this discussion will concern Figs. 5.1 through 5.48; then other detailed comparisons of pertinent aspects of the data will be treated.

6.1 Overall Structural Response

6.1.1 A Group (Sangamon Sand)

Fig. 5.1, test A-1 ($Z = 0$ in.), depicts the structural response of a relatively stiff cylinder as it progresses toward failure under static loading. This is a typical case only for cylinders buried at depths approaching zero depth of burial. It is evident that the stress curves are not linear functions of the applied pressure even in the elastic range of the cylinder material; the lower stresses (those tending to tension) are the ones most susceptible to nonlinear behavior. The agreement of the stress levels for gages 2 and 4, and 2a and 4a indicates that the cylinder experienced generally symmetric response about the vertical axis. The crown and invert at this very shallow burial did not exhibit this agreement in response. The stress at many gage points was greater than the first yield stress of the cylinder material. Only the stress recorded for the outside gage at the crown, 1a, tended to pass the 0.2 percent offset yield stress of the material (at incipient failure).

Thrust is a more nearly linear function of overpressure than the stress at any gage point. The thrusts at the four cross sections are nearly equal below 150 psi; but at high pressures the thrust at the invert is considerably lower than the thrust at the crown or spring line for the case of shallow burial.

The decidedly nonlinear variation of moment with overpressure above 100 psi is the consequence of the cylinder readjusting itself under load and probably of the load distribution changing. It is important to note how the magnitude of the spring line moment decreases for input pressure greater than 200 psi. It is at this pressure that the stresses exceeded the first yield stress of the structural material. The change in sign of the crown moment is of concern. For the structure to assume an elliptical shape (with the major axis horizontal), it would seem that the crown moment would have to be positive throughout the loading. However, this is not the case for pressure levels below 210 psi. Coupled with this, the diameter changes are extremely small for the first 210 psi of loading. This type of reversal of curvature at the crown was not an isolated occurrence. It is shown in the results of test A-5 in Fig. 5.2 and in other cylinders which are very close to the surface boundary and susceptible to collapse. There are a number of possible explanations for this phenomenon.

1. The vertical axis was slightly greater than the horizontal axis, and this by itself may have influenced the sign of the moment prior to incipient failure. However, if this were significant it would have influenced the moments at deeper depths of burial.
2. The external strain gages and their respective protective covering could cause load concentrations away from the gage locations by activating local arching. But, this would not be the case with the depth of burial, Z , equal to zero.

3. Nonuniformity in the soil medium could cause uneven stress distribution. Again, this should be a random occurrence, while the phenomenon is systematic.
4. The tendency to buckle in a mode other than the lowest mode could cause local moment anomalies. Higher order buckling modes would have node points occurring in a random fashion even though collapse came by a full snap-through (caving) of the crown. But, here too the occurrence would be random.
5. The proximity of the crown to the surface boundary at very shallow burial, relative to the proximity of other points, is much more significant than at deeper depths of burial. The load at the crown is fixed, but local arching could have caused an uneven load distribution. At the deeper depths enough soil would be present to smooth out the local variations.

DaDeppo (1963, p 30) concluded that the magnitude of initial deformation in arches was important in controlling the flexural response. He was most concerned with variation in the initial shape induced by back-filling. However, the conclusion would apply regardless of how the variations in initial shape came about. Random deviations of the cylinder from circularity could result in random moment response. But, the moment response in the present investigation was systematic and repeatable.

Robinson (1964) recorded moments on a cylinder at every 45-degree point, and they were all of the same sign. He felt that this was due to local arching of the soil at the contact between the external strain gages

and the soil. However, the data were not reproducible.

It is the writer's opinion that the most plausible explanation of the negative moment is directly related to the proximity of the surface boundary causing local arching to neighboring elements of the cylinder. The buildup in pressure and subsequent nonuniform loading become less significant at the higher pressures. At depths greater than $1/4d$ ($d/4$) the crown moment is positive, Fig. 6.1. This indicates that the crown response is greatly influenced by the surface boundary at depths shallower than $d/4$. Overall arching can be applied to the crown at depth, but not at very shallow burial.

Test A-5 ($Z = 3/16$ in.), Fig. 5.2, agrees very well with test A-1 ($Z = 0$ in.), Fig. 5.1, both qualitatively and quantitatively, with two exceptions. First, the overpressure required to cause failure is higher for A-5. Second, the invert moment is negative in A-5 and positive in A-1. Again, for the elliptical geometry one would expect this moment always to be positive. However, it appears to be positive or negative in a random variation. This could be a result of geometric imperfections, incipient high buckling modes, or the character and nonuniformity of the soil bedding. The latter, nonuniformity of the soil bedding, appears to be the most reasonable explanation at pressure levels below 300 psi. In many tests, A-5 ($Z = 3/16$ in.), A-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.), etc., the moment at the invert changed from negative to positive at pressures greater than 300 psi. The significance of the initial bedding decreases as the pressure level increases. An exception is test A-4 ($Z = 1-3/4$ in.).

Also in test A-5 ($Z = 3/16$ in.) a vertical diameter increase was recorded at 50 and 100 psi. This is compatible with both the crown and

invert moments being negative at that pressure.

Donnellan (1964, p 29) recorded an outward displacement of the radius at the invert of one of his shallow-buried cylinders. The present study recorded only diameter changes, and it is not possible to tell if half a diameter (the radius) increased while the other half decreased.

Test A-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.), Fig. 5.3, follows the trends observed at the shallower depths except that no failure was experienced at the maximum machine loading capability of 500 psi. Additionally, the large positive bending moment at the crown observed just prior to failure in tests A-1 ($Z = 0$ in.) and A-5 ($Z = 3/16$ in.) was not encountered in this test. Also, the rate of change of moment with pressure decreased, indicating local arching.

Again at about 200 psi the rate of vertical diameter change begins to appear more rapid than below 200 psi. This is probably a result of the cylinder material reaching its yield value at several locations. The moments continue to decrease at overpressures above 200 psi.

Test A-3A ($Z = 7/8$ in.), Fig. 5.4, exhibits virtually identical thrust values at all four cross sections at pressure below 150 psi. However, at higher levels it establishes the generally observed trend of the spring line having the highest thrust, followed by the crown, with the invert experiencing the least amount of thrust. This is probably a consequence of the bedding providing a soil environment different from that around the crown.

The test (A-3A) was aborted at 400 psi by a broken gas line. The pressure went to zero, the line was repaired, the gages were zeroed on the oscillograph, and a second test, A-3B, was run without touching the cylinder or the soil. From Fig. 5.5 it can be seen that some aspects of the structural response changed as much as 100 percent as a result of this

cycling of the load. This gives a graphic illustration of how initial, geometric deformations (plastic set in this case) can affect moments. The crown moment is much larger on the second cycle, and the invert moment has changed character greatly.

Test A-4 ($Z = 1\text{-}3/4$ in.), Fig. 5.6, underwent similar response to that of test A-3A ($Z = 7/8$ in.) with the exception of the invert moment which continued to remain large throughout the test.

The only variable changed between the static tests, A-1 through A-5, and the rapid tests (7 msec rise time to 500 psi), A-6 through A-10, Figs. 5.7 through 5.11, was the rise time. The rapid tests in general verified the static tests, but several differences can be seen. First, the pressure necessary to cause collapse was somewhat higher in the rapid tests. This may have been due to a true increase in capacity or to the possibility that some creep mechanism was involved which resulted in failure appearing at a slightly higher pressure in the rapid tests. Second, the values of the thrust are about 20 percent higher in the rapid tests. This may have been due to inertial effects in the soil adding load to the structure. Third, the crown moment is initially positive up to about 100 psi in all rapid tests. For very shallow burial, the moment changed sign and was negative to about 250 psi; then it became positive again. Apparently, the pressure wave struck and depressed the crown, causing the initial positive moment. This occurred at about 3 msec which was slightly greater than the natural period of vibration in the first flexural mode, equation 4.6. This, of course, is much later than would be expected if equation 4.6 were directly applicable.

Although the symmetry around the vertical axis was good, test A-9

($Z = 3/16$ in.), Fig. 5.8, illustrates how the spring-line moments can differ by as much as 100 percent (at 150 psi) while the spring-line thrusts agree well. Also, it can be seen that the disparity is not constant during the whole loading cycle, but rather tends to decrease as the cylinder material yields. Also, the moment changes produce deformations which tend to reduce disparities. Test A-7 ($Z = 7/8$ in.), Fig. 5.10, is a good illustration of the general response.

It is of interest to plot various responses of the group together, as shown in Fig. 6.1. The average spring-line thrust was calculated (refer to Tables 5.2 and 5.3) and the results of all ten tests plotted. It can be seen that all of the test results fall close together and exhibit a linear increase with respect to pressure, and that the rapid test results lie slightly higher (for a given pressure level) than the static results. Data from those cylinders which failed fall right along with those from cylinders which did not fail, indicating that thrust by itself (without some link with depth of burial) will not be an adequate failure criterion for very shallow depths of burial.

The crown moment plot shows how closely the rapid and static tests agree at pressures above 100 psi. The crown moments are always positive at depths greater than $d/4$.

The average of the crown and invert thrusts was divided by the average spring-line thrust to form the ratio q . This is plotted in Fig. 6.1. After experiencing a large range in values at pressures below 200 psi, the ratio settles into a band between 0.6 and 0.8. The values are least accurate in the lower pressure regions and are most influenced by the initial conditions created by the soil placement. Disregarding the few very high values,

the trend is to start at about 0.4 (which is approximately equal to the coefficient of earth pressure at rest), increase to about 1.0 as the cylinder began to deform, and then decrease slightly and become relatively constant.

The vertical diameter changes in the static tests are also plotted together. There is a decrease in diameter change with depth of burial for a given overpressure that is noticeable at pressure levels above 250 psi. This reflects the stiffening effect of the soil as the depth of burial increases.

6.1.2 B Group (Sangamon Sand)

The B group differs from the A group only in the value of the yield stresses. The B group had about twice the yield value of the A group.

The pressure causing failure was consistently higher in the B group, Table 5.1, indicating that the yield stress probably had some influence on the collapse pressure. However, this influence does not appear to be large in these tests.

In tests B-1A and B-1B ($Z = 0$ in.), Figs. 5.12 and 5.13, the effect of cycling is again seen in the character and magnitude of the crown moment. It is also significant that the effect of the cycling is not very pronounced at other locations (which did not yield during first loading). Other studies, Dorris and Albritton (1965) and Albritton and others (1965), have also shown that cycling may not affect the reproducibility more than about 20 percent as long as the cylinder material remains elastic.

Test B-3 ($Z = 1-3/4$ in.), Fig. 5.16, and test B-4 ($Z = 2-5/8$ in.), Fig. 5.17, again show that the results are reproducible. They also indicate that moment increases at a decreasing rate (but remains large until the material begins to yield).

The rapid tests, Figs. 5.18 through 5.22, yielded much the same information as the static tests. Tests B-9 ($Z = 1\text{-}3/4$ in.) and B-10 ($Z = 2\text{-}5/8$ in.), Figs. 5.21 and 5.22, illustrate the smoothing out of response that can be expected with deeper depths of burial.

A summary of the B group response is plotted in Fig. 6.2. As with the A group, the spring-line thrust is generally linear with pressure up to a level equivalent to first yielding of the material. The values of rapid test thrusts are larger than those for the static case. The vertical diameter changes fall into a pattern with each other and are lower than those of the A group, Fig. 6.1, at pressures greater than 200 psi. The q values settle into a band between 0.5 and 0.8 for pressures greater than 300 psi.

6.1.3 C Group (Sangamon Sand)

The C group of cylinders was only one-twentieth ($1/20$) as stiff as the A and B groups. The yield stress was high enough that all of the cylinder strains recorded were below the level corresponding to 0.2 percent permanent strain. The pressures required to induce failure were lower than in the A and B groups by a factor of 2 or 3. But, again, at depths greater than one-eighth the diameter no failures occurred. The moments in the C group were substantially smaller, and the moment scale for plotting was changed by an order of magnitude from that used for the B group.

Test C-1 ($Z = 0$ in.), Fig. 5.23, experienced negative moments at all four cross sections and the vertical diameter increased at pressures above 25 psi. This was probably caused by the propensity for collapse in a high-order buckling mode.

The variability in moment response is even more evident in these

very flexible cylinders at shallow burial. Tests C-4 ($Z = 3/16$ in Fig. 5.24, and C-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.), Fig. 5.26, both experienced positive moments at the spring line and the horizontal diameter decreased in C-4. Donnellan (1964, p 26) also recorded inward movement at the spring line of some flexible cylinders. This may be another manifestation of a tendency toward a high-order buckling mode.

The crown thrust was larger than that at the spring line in most of the C group tests. But, q was still less than 1.0 in most cases, Fig. 6.3. The invert thrust was low and probably reflects a decrease in vertical pressure between the crown and invert. This also shows up in a lower arching ratio, Section 6.4.

Rapid tests C-6 through C-9, Figs. 5.28 through 5.31, exhibited the same type curvature changes at shallow burial as the A and B groups. The initial peak positive moment occurred at about 3.5 msec which is about half the natural flexural period given by equation 4.7. Test C-10 ($Z = 7/8$ in.), Fig. 5.32, is a good example to validate the argument for application of the ring compression theory to flexible cylinders which are not affected by the surface boundary.

Test C-9 ($Z = 7/16$ in.), Fig. 5.31, exhibited the largest applied pressure, 550 psi, encountered during this investigation. This was the only test in which the maximum pressure deviated from 500 psi. The response ended as usual when the pressure peaked, but the cylinder collapsed about a minute later as the pressure was about to be manually decayed. A stability problem is, of course, very sensitive to slight disturbance, but this also points to a possible creep effect reducing the resistance to buckling.

The average spring-line thrust values, Fig. 6.3, show more

scatter than the previous two groups, but the exclusion of test C-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.) reduces the spread considerably. Although no characteristics of the test indicated a difference, the results are not in line with the rest of the C group.

The values for the rapid tests are higher than those for the static. The q values for pressures greater than 300 psi lie in a band between about 0.7 and 1.0 with the exception of test C-2. In this test the q values are higher because the spring-line thrusts were lower than the rest of the C group.

6.1.4 E Group (Cook's Bayou Sand)

The cylinders used in the E group were identical with those of the A group except that they were cut from a different tube (same nominal material) and hence had a slightly different yield (Appendix A). The three static tests were run as a verification of the reproducibility of the A group results and for comparison with dynamic tests E-4, E-5, and E-6.

The thrust, moment, and diameter change results of E-3 ($Z = 0$ in.) are plotted together with companion values from test A-1 in Fig. 5.33. The values for thrust are comparable, but the spring-line thrusts of the E group are higher than those of the A group. The diameter change values also are higher and only the spring-line moments are compatible. E-3 failed at 205 psi, whereas A-1 failed at 270 psi. This is reasonably good agreement for such a buckling failure, but the thrust and diameter change trends suggest that the response was more unfavorable in the E test. Different sands were used in the two tests but they have about the same strength and deformation characteristics (Appendix B). If anything, the Cook's Bayou sand (E group) is slightly stiffer than the Sangamon sand

(A, B, and C groups). As a result, it is felt that the variation in response is a function of the two different methods of placing the sand around the cylinders. The Sangamon River sand was vibrated and rodded in, whereas the Cook's Bayou sand was sprinkled into place. This illustrates one of the difficulties inherent in comparing results from tests in which different placement techniques were used. Conservative conclusions must be drawn.

Test E-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.), Fig. 5.34, exhibits the same trends as E-1, and the similarity of the thrust with A-2 is evident. Also, at pressures above 300 psi the moments show closer agreement. It is interesting to note again how the large moments tend to decrease as the cylinder material yields and loading progresses.

Test E-1 ($Z = 7/8$ in.), Fig. 5.35, exhibits even better agreement with its A group counterpart. However, the large crown moment at pressures below 250 psi and the greater diameter changes of the E group indicate that sprinkling placement of the sand gave a lower density and less restraint.

The recorded values of peak strain on the intrados and extrados for E-5 ($Z = 7/16$ in.) and E-4 ($Z = 7/8$ in.), Fig. 5.36, are compared with the values recorded for the static tests at the same 250-psi level (maximum dynamic pressure available). A large amount of ductility is evident in the dynamic tests. Using the analysis outlined by Newmark and Maltivanger (1962) for a step pulse input of 250 psi and an equivalent elastoplastic resistance function for the cylinders, a theoretical ductility factor of 7 and a theoretical maximum strain of 5100 $\mu\text{in./in.}$ were calculated. This theoretical strain agrees well with the observed strains which ranged between 5000 and 6000 $\mu\text{in./in.}$

The moment and thrust values are shown in Fig. 5.37. The peak thrusts are uniform around the cylinders for all three dynamic tests at the 250-psi pressure level used. The thrust values for the static and rapid tests are also very consistent with each other, whereas the moment values are widely scattered at the crown and invert.

6.1.5 D Group (Buckshot Clay)

The D group cylinders were buried in clay, but were identical with those of the A and E groups in material and geometry with the exception of a slight change in yield points (Appendix A) resulting from use of different tubes.

The static tests, Figs. 5.38 through 5.42, indicate higher bending moments and larger diameter changes than occurred in sand. The thrust values follow about the same trend as in sand. Generally, symmetric response was recorded and hence opposite gages acted as a check on each other.

The thrusts recorded in several tests, e.g., D-4 ($Z = 1\text{-}3/4$ in.) and D-5 ($Z = 2\text{-}5/8$ in.), were higher at the 45-degree cross section than at the spring line. The instability may very well be concentrated between this level and the crown.

The moments are a highly nonlinear function of overpressure and tend to decrease as the material yielded at high pressure levels, Fig. 5.41.

Ultimate-strength dynamic testing with the WES type Heaviside input is essentially a "go-no go" process. The true failure pressure can only be bracketed between a known collapse and a known survival. A tight bracket would require many tests and be extremely expensive. At the same time it would not be truly reliable because of the inherent scatter in stability problems.

The experience with sand indicated that the rapid and dynamic failure pressures would be relatively close to the static values. This proved to be the case also in clay, and the static failure pressures served as the basis for estimating required dynamic overpressures. The overpressures obtained were not always close to those requested because of variabilities in the loading apparatus. However, a reasonable bracket was obtained for two representative depths of burial, $7/8$ in. and $1-3/4$ in.

The results obtained from those cylinders which survived are plotted in Fig. 5.43. Results from those cylinders which failed are also plotted to shed more light on what occurred. However, these data should be considered only as guides. They were obtained from the records at incipient failure. This was extremely hard to define for the dynamic tests in which the cylinders failed.

Some instrumentation difficulties were encountered and the data from half the strain gages, Table 5.11, in test D-10 ($Z = 7/8$ in.) were lost because an oscillograph malfunctioned. However, the thrust values of D-8 ($Z = 7/8$ in.) and D-6 ($Z = 1-3/4$ in.) are relatively uniform. The peak moments are at the crown and are positive in sign. The permanent deformations in D-6 and D-10 can be seen from the end views of Fig. 5.46. The strains far exceeded yield in most cases, both in tension and compression, and resulted in high bending moments.

6.2 Diameter Change

The diameter changes were small for all tests. In order to verify the validity of the diameter change gages, the cylinder diameters were measured to the nearest one-thousandth of an inch with outside micrometers, both before and after the test (when possible). These

results are plotted in Fig. 6.4 along with the peak diameter change indicated by the diameter change gages. Reasonable verification is evident.

A vertical Collins gage was included in test E-5, and its peak output substantiates the trends.

Several observations can be made based on Fig. 6.4. The horizontal deflection stiffness, P_{SO}/Δ_h , appears to be independent of the buckling stiffness, $\frac{EI}{R^3}$; but, it varies a great deal with the soil environment. The Sangamon River and Cook's Bayou sands differ by a factor of 2 for horizontal stiffness. The clay is less stiff by an order of magnitude.

Using these empirical values for horizontal stiffness, it is possible to calculate subgrade moduli from the Iowa Formula,

$$\Delta_h = \frac{0.166 p_a R^4}{EI + 0.061 k_s R^4} \quad 6.1$$

where

Δ_h = horizontal diameter increase, in.

p_a = vertical pressure on top of the cylinder, psi

R = cylinder radius, in.

E = modulus of elasticity of the cylinder, psi

I = moment of inertia of the cylinder cross section, in.⁴

k_s = modulus of passive resistance of the soil, lb/in.³

This can be solved for $k_s R$, E' , in terms of the other parameters where E' is called the modulus of soil reaction.

$$E' = \frac{1}{0.061} \left[(0.166 R) \frac{p_a}{\Delta_h} - \frac{EI}{R^3} \right]$$

Substituting $R = 1.75$ yields

$$E' = \frac{1}{0.061} \left(0.2905 \frac{P_a}{\Delta_h} - \frac{EI}{R^3} \right) \quad 6.2$$

Using the average values of $\frac{P_{so}}{\Delta_h}$ calculated from the results plotted in Fig. 6.4 as $\frac{P_a}{\Delta_h}$, values of E' can be calculated. This assumes no change with depth of burial and is essentially true within the scatter for the range of shallow depths investigated. A trend of increasing stiffness with depth is true of the vertical stiffness. A typical calculation follows.

$$\begin{aligned} E' \text{ for the A group} &= \frac{1}{0.061} \left[0.2905(32,900) - 45 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{0.061} (9550 - 45) = \frac{9505}{0.061} = 155,900 \text{ psi} \end{aligned} \quad 6.3$$

$$k_s \text{ for the A group} = \frac{E'}{R} = \frac{155,900}{1.75} = 89,100 \text{ lb/in.}^3 \quad 6.4$$

Also, from equation 6.2 one can compute

$$E' \text{ for the B group} = 125,100 \text{ psi}$$

$$k_s \text{ for the B group} = 71,600 \text{ lb/in.}^3$$

$$E' \text{ for the C group} = 127,100 \text{ psi}$$

$$k_s \text{ for the C group} = 72,600 \text{ lb/in.}^3$$

$$E' \text{ for the E group} = 57,300 \text{ psi}$$

$$k_s \text{ for the E group} = 32,700 \text{ lb/in.}^3$$

$$E' \text{ for the D group} = 6,500 \text{ psi}$$

$$k_s \text{ for the D group} = 3,700 \text{ lb/in.}^3$$

These calculations verify how little influence the buckling stiffness of the cylinders has on the deformations in competent soils such as these, under the assumptions of this mathematical model. The deformations are controlled by the stiffness of the soil. For example, in the

computations for equation 6.3 the cylinder buckling stiffness, $\frac{EI}{R^3}$, is a negligible term relative to the horizontal soil stiffness $\frac{p_a}{\Delta_h}$.

The calculated soil parameter, $k_s R$, is of the same order of magnitude as the moduli from the one-dimensional consolidation and triaxial tests at roughly the same pressures (Appendixes B and C).

Up to this point everything has been analyzed in terms of the overpressure, P_{so} , on the surface. Here it was assumed that the pressure, p_a , at the level of the cylinder crown was equal to the surface pressure. This is true by definition only when the cylinder is at zero depth of burial. However, the assumption is satisfactory within the limits discussed in Section 6.3.

6.3 Arching Ratio

Overall arching may be assessed by summing forces in the vertical direction above the cylinder. The thrust at the spring line represents a vertical force as does the surface pressure integrated over the area. The arching ratio, AR, is defined as the average spring-line thrust divided by the overpressure times the radius.

$$AR = \frac{N_y \text{ (avg)}}{P_{so} R} \quad 6.5$$

These ratios have been calculated from the results of the static tests and are plotted in Fig. 6.5.

The A and B groups verified one another well below 200 psi. At that pressure level the A group cylinders began to yield, the moments began to decrease, and hence the cylinders stiffened as a result of approaching more closely a compression mode. The arching ratio increased until such time as the whole cross section yielded, at about 300 psi.

After that, the arching ratio decreased.

It appears that the B group began to stiffen at 450 to 500 psi. The moments decreased and the arching ratio began to increase. If the trend were to continue at higher pressure, it would be compatible with the A group behavior.

The E group began with a higher arching ratio than the A group, but at pressures above 250 psi they are similar. These groups had the same buckling stiffness, $\frac{EI}{R^3} = 45$, but as has been pointed out the soil placement techniques differed. This indicates that initial soil differences (densities in the immediate vicinity of the cylinder, Appendix B) created by placement techniques may not be important after the soil-structure system has readjusted under 200-psi overpressure.

It is the writer's opinion that it is appropriate to express cylinder response in terms of the pressure, p_a , on a horizontal plane through the crown. As a consequence, a correction to P_{so} would be applicable only if the arching ratio at a given depth varied significantly from the arching ratio at zero depth. This does not occur for the cylinders tested as Fig. 6.5 indicates (although this indication is not conclusive because of the scatter in data for these shallow burials). Hence p_a and P_{so} were considered interchangeable.

This does not negate the facts that the arching ratios do differ from group to group at zero depth of burial, and that the arching ratio at zero depth is not necessarily 1.0. For any study of the arching ratio for real structures at depth, it would be necessary first to study the response of the structure at zero depth where a known loading exists. Apparently,

load can be dissipated between the level of the crown and the level of the spring line.

6.4 Ultimate Strength

The collapse pressure, P_{sof} , is plotted in Fig. 6.6 with respect to the stiffness parameter $\frac{EI}{R^3}$. The tests of the present investigation, Table 5.1, cover only a small part of the practical range of stiffness and pressure. In order to make the picture as complete as possible, results of other investigations in dense, dry sand are also indicated. The depth of burial is listed next to the symbol in terms of the cylinder diameter, d .

A dotted line indicates the yield value of a high-strength steel in hoop compression for a smooth cylinder. This establishes the upper bound limit of applicability of the elastic buckling theory and hence defines the area of concern for elastic buckling. Above this line the membrane response is inelastic and would be treated in terms of a ductility factor rather than stiffness.

In Figs. 6.7 through 6.10, the collapse pressure has been formed into a nondimensional parameter, $P_{sof} R^3 / EI$. The test results are plotted in this form with respect to $\frac{EI}{R^3}$. A different set of theoretical equations is shown in each of Figs. 6.7 through 6.10. It was mentioned in Chapter 3 that the theoretical equations all contain the cylinder stiffness parameter, $\frac{EI}{R^3}$, as an independent variable.

Open symbols in Figs. 6.6 through 6.10 refer to tests which did not result in failure. Although these tests do not indicate the pressure at which the cylinder would have failed, they are pertinent because they do document areas where failure did not occur.

The amount of data available with which to correlate the clay

results is very slight. Luscher and Höeg (1964, p 231) reported a series, $\frac{EI}{R^3} = 0.011$, that experienced failure very similar to their sand tests which were two orders of magnitude higher than the theoretical pressure predicted by the hydrostatic equation, $p_o = 3 \frac{EI}{R^3}$, Fig. 6.7. The results of the present investigation, $\frac{EI}{R^3} = 45$, indicate that the failure pressure for cylinders in clay increases very slowly with increasing depth of burial, Fig. 5.48. The hydrostatic equation is in reasonable agreement with these results, Fig. 6.7, and the results of a test on a stiffer cylinder, $\frac{EI}{R^3} = 82$, conducted by Dorris and Albritton (1965). On the basis of this, it appears that the hydrostatic buckling equation should be retained for claylike soil media until such time as more experimental evidence fills in the gap between the available data points.

Although far from complete, the data available from tests in dense, dry sand are more plentiful. The present investigation in dense sand showed considerable increase in failure pressure with increase in depth of burial down to $d/8$, Fig. 5.48. Below this depth failure could not be precipitated with the pressure available, 500 psi. Donnellan (1964, p 42) experienced failures at $d/8$ but none at $d/4$ at 160 psi. However, the conclusion that below some critical depth in dense sand, elastic buckling will not occur is precluded by the results of Bulson (1962) and Luscher and Höeg (1964). But, this conclusion may very well apply to cylinders which are stiffer than some critical stiffness.

The theoretical analysis developed by Luscher and Höeg (1964, p 143), equation 3.16, is plotted in Fig. 6.8 for several depths of burial. It takes into account the change in soil stiffness with depth and pressure, and predicts the possibility of elastic buckling at depths greater than

$d/4$ for very flexible structures. The equation fits the author's experimental data and that reported by Bulson (1962) fairly well. For depths greater than $d/4$, the equation indicates that buckling will not occur before yield of the material for the cylinders used in the present investigation. Hence, this appears to be potentially an adequate design equation for interpolation.

However, for extrapolation of the data a much more conservative approach is in order. A lower bound for these data at zero depth of burial is established by equation 3.8, Fig. 6.9. Substituting $k_z R = 400$ in equation 3.8,

$$P_c = 40 \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}}, \text{ psi} \quad 6.6$$

where E is in units of psi, I is in units of in.^3 and R is in units of in. Although the theoretical equation has the hydrostatic buckling value, $3 \frac{EI}{R^3}$, as a lower bound, it is not possible to say that this would be true for the actual conditions. For a stiff cylinder at very shallow burial, the soil could be a less desirable environment than water because of the nonuniform loading occurring through the soil.

Equation 3.8 with $k_z R = 1400$ fits the writer's data at $d/8$, Fig. 6.9, and is a lower bound to the data available for more flexible cylinders. Hence, it appears that

$$P_c = 75 \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}}, \text{ psi} \quad 6.7$$

would provide a more realistic lower bound to the buckling value than the hydrostatic equation used alone. The units are the same as in equation 6.6.

It is evident that the foregoing values of $k_z R$ are much smaller than those calculated for sand from the Iowa Formula in Section 6.2.

Equation 3.8 with $k_z R = 37,000$ fits the $d/8$ no-failure data of the flexible cylinders, and is also shown in Fig. 6.9. It is possible that this may be an appropriate equation for the high overpressure region. This value of $k_z R$ is still lower than those calculated from equation 6.2. If $k_z R = 37,000$ or higher, it is apparent that buckling will not occur before yield for many practical values of cylinder stiffness (greater than about 1.7) when the cylinder is buried at a depth below $d/8$. Hence, the theoretical variation of the dense sand properties with respect to pressure may be important only for design pressures below about 500 psi.

The theoretical equation, 3.17, which utilizes Poisson's ratio and Young's modulus of the soil is plotted in Fig. 6.10 for comparison. It follows the general trend of the available test data, but no definite conclusions can be drawn.

A comparison of the results of the A and B groups, Table 5.1, indicates that the cylinder strength may play a part in the buckling values. This is probably a reflection of the decrease in effective buckling stiffness which occurs when part of the cross section yields. However, the failure values between the groups did not differ by more than 25 percent although the yield values varied by a factor of 2.

The catastrophic manner in which the cylinders failed is probably a consequence of the large amount of strain energy in the cylinders at incipient collapse. Figs. 5.44 and 5.45 depict the failed cylinders. The irregularities in the postbuckling shapes were caused by the cylinder crowns striking the longitudinal rods (which connected the end caps) as they caved in. The postcollapse configuration in clay is shown in Fig. 5.47.

CHAPTER 7. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Summary

Forty-six, small, horizontally oriented cylinders were tested in two kinds of soil media: dense, dry sand and stiff clay. The applied overpressure, vertical, and horizontal diameter changes for the static tests and hoop strains were measured. The cylinders were all made of aluminum. Three alloys were involved having yield stress values of 7,500, 12,700, and 42,100 psi. The cylinders had identical outside diameters of 3.5 in. and two thicknesses, 0.022 and 0.065 in. Hence, the cylinder stiffnesses, $\frac{EI}{R^3}$, were 1.7 and 45 (d/h = 159 and 54), respectively.

The test structures were buried at depths ranging from zero to three-quarters of the outside diameter, 2-5/8 in. Three overpressure rise times were used: a static rise time (10 to 15 min), a rapid rise time (13 msec), and a dynamic rise time (0.3 msec).

The relations between stress, thrust, moment, and diameter change were plotted and analyzed with respect to the surface overpressure. The pressure necessary to cause collapse was established and compared with several theoretical solutions and with the results of other investigations. The horizontal and vertical stiffnesses as indicated by the diameter changes were analyzed and compared with theoretical concepts.

It was not possible to collapse cylinders of either stiffness when buried in sand at depths equal to or greater than one-eighth the diameter, 7/16 in., under the available 500-psi pressure. In stiff clay, however, it was possible to define collapse even at the deepest burial, three-quarters of the diameter or 2-5/8 in.

7.2 Conclusions

All of the conclusions are based on the assumption of the plane-wave loading which was used during this investigation.

7.2.1 Cylinders in Dense, Dry Sand

The difference between static and rapid loading in the elastic response of the cylinder is small (within 20 percent). The rapid loading was observed, Figs. 6.1 through 6.3, to cause larger thrusts.

Inelastic strains are much higher under dynamic loading than under static or rapid loading at the same pressure, Fig. 5.36. However, a cylinder buried at a depth greater than one-eighth its diameter can sustain large inelastic bending strains without experiencing structural failure or collapse.

Based on an equivalent elastoplastic resistance function for the cylinder and an approximate step-pulse loading, a ductility factor of about 7 was found to be conservative for the dynamic tests. No failures occurred, so it is not possible to say what the ductility factor to define failure would be.

Thrust is generally a linear function of surface overpressure. It is largest at the spring line, smaller at the crown, and smallest at the invert. For overpressures greater than 200 psi, the average value of the horizontal force divided by the vertical force on the cylinder is about 0.8. However, the hoop compression theory appears to be adequate for design.

Moment is generally a nonlinear function of surface overpressure. It tends to increase at a decreasing rate (probably governed by local arching from point to point around the circumference of the cylinder), until

the cylinder material begins to yield. Thereafter, the moments tend to decrease. The moments are larger in the stiffer cylinders. A depth of burial of one-eighth the diameter is a critical depth for the sign of the crown moment. At shallower depths the curvature increases, whereas for deeper depths the moment is positive and the curvature tends to decrease.

For zero depth of burial, the pressure to cause buckling failure can be defined by

$$p_{cr} = 40 \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}}, \text{ psi} \quad 7.1$$

where E is in units of psi, I is in units of in.^3 , and R is in units of in. This is an empirical fit of equation 3.8 to the test data with $k_2 R = 400$, Fig. 6.9. For depths of burial equal to or greater than one-eighth the diameter, the pressure to cause buckling failure can be bounded until more experimental data becomes available by

$$p_{cr} = 75 \sqrt{\frac{EI}{R^3}} \quad 7.2$$

where the units are the same as those in equation 7.1. This is equation 3.8 with $k_2 R = 1400$. Failure occurs (at the shallow burial) by a sudden snap-through of the crown. The result is a complete collapse. But, no collapse could be induced at depths greater than one-eighth the diameter for $\frac{EI}{R^3} \geq 1.7$ for pressures up to 500 psi.

Depths of burial greater than one-eighth the diameter probably have more significant effects (on elastic buckling) than indicated by the allowable pressures from equation 7.2. However, since the effects of the depths were not satisfactorily defined because no failures occurred, they can only be considered as an additional factor of safety. Equation 7.2 represents points where no failure occurred and does not define failure.

However, this is a more realistic equation than the hydrostatic prediction.

It is hypothesized that equation 7.2 is still overly conservative for values of $\frac{EI}{R^3}$ greater than about 1.7.

It is not possible at present to identify adequately the appropriate soil properties controlling cylinder collapse with soil properties obtained from standard laboratory tests.

The technique used to place the sand in the vicinity of the cylinder can affect the response of the cylinder and apparent deformation stiffness by as much as 50 percent. However, the pressure required to cause collapse differs by only +25 percent. Sprinkling in the vicinity of the cylinder is less effective than vibrating or rodding.

The arching ratio (defined as the average spring-line thrust divided by the overpressure times the radius) for cylinders buried with the crown tangent to the soil surface is not necessarily 1.0.

7.2.2 Cylinders in Stiff Clay

Collapse of the cylinder occurs by a sudden snap-through of the crown. Regardless of the depth of burial, this mode of failure occurs even at the maximum depth tested, three-quarters of the diameter.

Only a small increase in failure pressure results from an increase in depth of burial. The hydrostatic buckling equation

$$P_{cr} = 3 \frac{EI}{R^3} \quad 7.3$$

was appropriate for the cylinders used, Fig. 6.7, and should be slightly conservative for cylinders buried at depths greater than one-eighth the diameter. This equation implies a low value of $k_g R$.

Moments and deformations of the cylinder were much larger than

in sand at comparable pressures. They were both highly nonlinear functions of pressure.

7.3 Recommendations for Future Study

High pressure tests (500 psi or greater) should be conducted in dense sand with cylinder stiffnesses, $\frac{EI}{R^3}$, between 0.1 and 1.0 for the purpose of establishing failure pressures for depths of burial greater than one-eighth the cylinder diameter. Materials with high yield strengths, such as high-strength steel or aluminum, would best serve the purpose. Elastic buckling could be isolated relative to the buckling stiffness without consideration of the reduced stiffness due to yielding.

Some ultimate strength tests should be conducted with relatively large (2-ft-diameter) cylinders in the WES Large Blast Load Generator to investigate the possibility of size effects. These should have the same value of $\frac{EI}{R^3}$ as some smaller diameter cylinders discussed in the literature, or else small companion cylinders should be tested concurrently.

A cylinder with $\frac{EI}{R^3} = 220$ should be tested at zero depth of burial in dense sand at pressure greater than 500 psi to extend the range of knowledge of equation 7.1.

The work on elastic buckling should be done with static loading (but fast enough that longtime effects such as creep do not enter) to gain the most for the least cost. Selective dynamic testing should then be done to assure the applicability of the knowledge gained from the static tests.

Once the limits of the buckling problem are established, then dynamic studies should be conducted to determine an appropriate magnitude for the ductility factor to define collapse in the nonelastic region of

cylinder response. Since yielding is not a proper criterion for failure, it is doubtful that the studies of the elastic response of cylinders will shed much light on the ultimate strength except when buckling governs.

Once the dense, dry sand-cylinder interaction is fully understood, other soil environments such as medium density (relative density of 50 percent), and partially saturated sands should be investigated. It may then be possible to develop a single equation which can take into account the significant soil properties in a realistic manner.

Concurrent with the foregoing, an attempt should be made to determine the pressure distribution on the surface of the buried cylinder from the measured strains. The solution by Riley (1965) for WES which expresses the load in a Fourier series with undetermined coefficients could be used.

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Table 4.1

Geometric and Material Properties of Test Cylinders
 $E = 10 \times 10^6$ psi; $l = 10.5$ in.; $d = 3.5$ in.; $l/R = 6$

Group	Aluminum	σ_{y1} (psi)	σ_{y2} (psi)	h (in.)	R (in.)	I (10^{-8} in. ³)	$\frac{EI}{(lb-in.)}$	$\frac{EI}{R^3}$ (psi)	$\frac{d}{h}$
A	D6061-0	5000	7600	0.065	1.72	2289	228.9	45.0	54
D	D6061-0	3400	6100	0.065	1.72	2289	228.9	45.0	54
E	D6061-0	4500	7400	0.065	1.72	2289	228.9	45.0	54
B	D5052-0	11,000	12,700	0.065	1.72	2289	228.9	45.0	54
C	D6061-T6	37,500	42,100	0.022	1.74	89	8.9	1.7	159

Table 5.1
Overall Testing Program and Overpressure, P_{so} , at Failure

Group	Soil Loading	Depth of Burial													
		$Z = 0$ in.		$Z = 3/16$ in.		$Z = 5/16$ in.		$Z = 7/16$ in.		$Z = 7/8$ in.		$Z = 1-3/4$ in.		$Z = 2-5/8$ in.	
		Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi	Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi	Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi	Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi	Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi	Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi	Cyl- inder	P_{so} psi
A	Sand Static	A-1	270	A-5	325	A-2	500**	A-3	500**	A-4	500**	A-4	500**	A-4	500**
A	Sand Rapid	A-10	300	A-9	400	A-8	500**	A-7	500**	A-6	500**	A-6	500**	A-6	500**
B	Sand Static	B-1	315			B-5	500**	B-2	500**	B-3	500**	B-3	500**	B-4	500**
B	Sand Rapid	B-6	400			B-7	500**	B-8	500**	B-9	500**	B-9	500**	B-10	500**
C	Sand Static	C-1	95	C-4	195	C-2	500**	C-3	500**	C-3	500**	C-3	500**		
C	Sand Rapid	C-6	175	C-7	350	C-9	500	C-10	500**	C-10	500**	C-10	500**		
E	Sand Static	E-3	205			E-2	400**	E-1	440**	E-1	440**	E-1	440**		
E	Sand Dynamic	E-6	254**			E-5	262**	E-4	264**	E-4	264**	E-4	264**		
D	Clay Static	D-1	95			D-2	130	D-3	100	D-4	190	D-4	190	D-5	180
D	Clay Dynamic							D-10	97**	D-6	160**	D-6	160**		
								D-8	116**	D-7	180	D-7	180		
								D-9	148						

Note: Depths of burial, Z , of $7/16$ in. = $1/8d$; $7/8$ in. = $1/4d$; $1-3/4$ in. = $1/2d$; $2-5/8$ in. = $3/4d$ where d is outside diameter of the cylinder.

* Z = depth of burial.

** No failure.

Table 5.3 (Concluded)

Case	Measurement	Overpressure, psi									
		50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	450	500
Test A-7 (Z = 7/8 in.)											
1	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-155	103	415	675	766	831	1078	1389	1857	2338
	Stress, psi	-1550	1030	4150	6644	5804	5919	6353	6767	7139	7407
1a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	251	275	461	769	1271	1547	2268	2972	3839	4365
	Stress, psi	2510	2750	4610	5809	6673	6892	7369	7751	8184	8443
1-1a	Thrust, lb/in.	31	123	285	372	406	422	453	475	499	516
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	1.43	0.61	0.16	0.06	0.31	0.32	0.33	0.34	0.37	0.36
3	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-44	61	217	330	391	400	478	530	626	678
	Stress, psi	-440	610	2170	3300	3910	4000	4780	5133	5558	5649
3a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	185	245	277	305	376	425	528	659	861	1106
	Stress, psi	1850	2450	2770	3050	3760	4250	5125	5616	5971	6403
3-3a	Thrust, lb/in.	46	99	161	206	249	228	324	352	375	392
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.61	0.65	0.21	-0.03	-0.05	0.09	0.12	0.18	0.15	0.27
2	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	258	371	436	662	1551	2650	4088	5510	6916	8047
	Stress, psi	2580	3710	4360	5521	6895	7577	8307	8965	9645	10011
2a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	35	70	245	420	1348	2346	3799	5078	6426	7494
	Stress, psi	350	700	2450	4200	6734	7411	8164	8787	9343	9783
2-2a	Thrust, lb/in.	95	143	221	332	443	487	535	577	614	643
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.79	-1.06	-0.67	-0.49	-0.06	-0.06	-0.05	-0.06	-0.07	-0.08
4	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	282	459	689	1025	2510	3765	5410	7107	8991	10289
	Stress, psi	2820	4590	5669	6260	7501	8148	8924	9624	10400	10910
4a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-16	66	212	475	2047	2915	4488	6044	7518	8681
	Stress, psi	-160	560	2120	4750	7247	7720	8503	9185	9793	10272
4-4a	Thrust, lb/in.	86	171	279	372	479	516	567	611	656	689
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-1.05	-1.38	-1.33	-0.44	-0.09	-0.15	-0.15	-0.15	-0.21	-0.23
1-1a+3-3a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	39	111	223	289	328	345	389	414	437	454
2-2a+4-4a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	91	157	250	352	461	502	551	594	635	666
q		0.43	0.71	0.69	0.82	0.71	0.69	0.71	0.70	0.69	0.68
Test A-6 (Z = 1-3/4 in.)											
1	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-90	-26	167	370	619	683	812	1057	1354	1793
	Stress, psi	-900	-260	1670	3700	5529	5658	5885	6316	6739	7088
1a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	218	339	485	728	1059	1237	1480	1893	2321	2831
	Stress, psi	2180	3390	4850	5737	6320	6633	6839	7163	7398	7674
1-1a	Thrust, lb/in.	42	102	212	333	386	399	418	443	461	480
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	1.08	1.29	1.12	0.62	0.27	0.34	0.35	0.27	0.23	0.20
3	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	9	148	331	531	880	1159	1456	1937	2367	2875
	Stress, psi	90	1480	3310	5138	3005	6496	6820	7187	7423	7698
3a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	106	90	8	-98	-229	-327	-425	-532	-581	-606
	Stress, psi	1060	900	80	-980	-2290	-3270	-4250	-5142	-5360	-5471
3-3a	Thrust, lb/in.	37	77	110	140	183	201	2	239	264	292
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.34	-0.20	-1.14	-2.21	-3.17	-3.61	-3.98	-4.25	-4.25	-4.11
2	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	262	525	708	934	1389	2529	3592	5162	6144	7240
	Stress, psi	2620	5111	5702	6100	6767	7512	8063	8822	9227	9683
2a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-31	-41	123	260	743	1754	2774	4255	5215	6624
	Stress, psi	-310	-410	1230	2600	5764	7097	7644	8389	8844	9446
2-2a	Thrust, lb/in.	75	157	256	325	411	474	511	560	587	622
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-1.03	-1.99	-1.70	-1.16	-0.37	-0.15	-0.15	-0.15	-0.13	-0.08
4	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	199	399	487	612	1161	2288	3421	5113	6307	7890
	Stress, psi	1990	3990	4870	5498	6499	7380	7979	8802	9294	9951
4a	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	0	68	158	305	1028	2092	3019	4535	5496	6899
	Stress, psi	0	680	1580	3050	6265	7272	7776	8526	8959	9542
4-4a	Thrust, lb/in.	65	152	210	291	415	476	512	563	593	634
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.70	-1.17	-1.16	-0.90	-0.08	-0.04	-0.07	-0.10	-0.12	-0.14
1-1a+3-3a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	40	90	161	237	285	300	317	341	363	386
2-2a+4-4a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	70	155	233	308	413	475	512	562	590	628
q		0.57	0.58	0.69	0.77	0.69	0.63	0.62	0.61	0.62	0.61

Table 5.5 (Continued)

Run	Measurement	Compressive, psi									
		50	100	150	200	250	300	350	400	450	500
Test P-9 (L = 1-1/4 in.)											
1	Strain, in./in.	-89	14	107	140	189	192	284	249	289	253
	Stress, psi	-890	140	1070	1400	1890	1920	2840	2490	2890	2530
1a	Strain, in./in.	261	423	495	621	711	828	956	1082	1188	1287
	Stress, psi	2610	4230	4950	6210	7110	8280	9560	10820	11880	12870
1-1a	Thrust, lb/in.	36	142	196	295	292	331	377	426	476	492
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	1.23	1.44	1.37	1.61	1.84	2.24	2.51	2.86	3.10	3.41
3	Strain, in./in.	-69	-9	52	120	172	180	215	278	283	292
	Stress, psi	-690	-90	520	1200	1720	1800	2150	2780	2830	2920
3a	Strain, in./in.	208	330	380	466	531	617	696	789	890	980
	Stress, psi	2080	3300	3800	4660	5310	6170	6960	7890	8900	9800
3-3a	Thrust, lb/in.	45	104	140	190	228	259	296	340	381	413
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.98	1.19	1.15	1.22	1.26	1.54	1.69	1.87	2.14	2.42
2	Strain, in./in.	209	379	486	628	770	876	1021	1163	1328	1485
	Stress, psi	2090	3790	4860	6280	7700	8760	10210	11630	13280	14850
2a	Strain, in./in.	63	198	282	379	459	519	607	713	806	911
	Stress, psi	630	1980	2820	3790	4590	5190	6070	7130	8060	9110
2-2a	Thrust, lb/in.	88	188	270	357	399	453	552	608	670	717
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.51	-0.64	-0.72	-0.88	-1.09	-1.26	-1.70	-1.92	-1.89	-0.91
4	Strain, in./in.	211	384	497	648	776	885	1049	1163	1334	1436
	Stress, psi	2110	3840	4970	6480	7760	8850	10490	11630	13340	14360
4a	Strain, in./in.	41	149	235	307	397	461	551	623	723	799
	Stress, psi	410	1490	2350	3070	3970	4610	5510	6230	7230	7990
4-4a	Thrust, lb/in.	82	173	228	310	381	437	520	579	647	720
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.60	-0.83	-0.82	-1.20	-1.33	-1.49	-1.75	-1.85	-1.63	-0.74
1-1a+3a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	51	173	168	223	260	295	337	380	430	453
2-2a+4a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	85	181	239	319	390	445	536	594	699	719
q		0.60	0.68	0.70	0.70	0.67	0.66	0.63	0.57	0.65	0.63
Test P-10 (L = 2-1/2 in.)											
1	Strain, in./in.	-113	-87	35	89	116	134	148	189	184	177
	Stress, psi	-1130	-870	350	890	1160	1340	1480	1890	1840	1770
1a	Strain, in./in.	199	331	442	542	624	722	837	950	1028	1178
	Stress, psi	1990	3310	4420	5420	6240	7220	8370	9500	10280	11780
1-1a	Thrust, lb/in.	28	82	135	205	244	285	320	369	406	439
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	1.10	1.47	1.43	1.59	1.85	2.14	2.43	2.75	3.10	3.46
3	Strain, in./in.	-87	-86	-35	-4	22	30	37	56	67	82
	Stress, psi	-870	-860	-350	-40	220	300	370	560	670	820
3a	Strain, in./in.	166	344	397	490	541	622	708	814	889	1020
	Stress, psi	1660	3440	3970	4900	5410	6220	7080	8140	8890	10200
3-3a	Thrust, lb/in.	39	84	114	145	183	215	242	283	324	358
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.89	1.51	1.54	1.60	1.83	2.12	2.36	2.67	3.03	3.30
2	Strain, in./in.	214	411	546	614	764	913	1072	1200	1349	1488
	Stress, psi	2140	4110	5460	6140	7640	9130	10720	12000	13490	14880
2a	Strain, in./in.	4	114	212	290	376	467	577	689	719	890
	Stress, psi	40	1140	2120	2900	3760	4670	5770	6890	7190	8900
2-2a	Thrust, lb/in.	71	171	248	321	370	447	520	590	648	698
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.74	-1.03	-1.15	-1.22	-1.37	-1.59	-1.92	-1.89	-1.63	-1.24
4	Strain, in./in.	204	438	573	627	822	979	1084	1225	1412	1537
	Stress, psi	2040	4380	5730	6270	8220	9790	10840	12250	14120	15370
4a	Strain, in./in.	-15	34	138	198	274	314	410	480	570	633
	Stress, psi	-150	340	1380	1980	2740	3140	4100	4800	5700	6330
4-4a	Thrust, lb/in.	82	161	231	281	360	427	486	566	614	697
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.76	-1.34	-1.53	-1.63	-1.94	-2.26	-2.38	-2.32	-2.29	-2.01
1-1a+3a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	34	82	135	175	215	230	281	324	348	399
2-2a+4a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	67	164	240	281	348	437	503	573	622	698
q		0.51	0.53	0.54	0.50	0.54	0.57	0.54	0.56	0.58	0.59

Table 5.6 (Continued)

Case	Measurement	Overpressure, psi													
		25	50	75	95	100	150	195	200	250	300	350	400	450	500
<u>Test C-2 (Z = 7/16 in.)</u>															
1	Strain, in./in.	426				694	888		1034	1120	1180	1193	1217	1266	1290
	Stress, psi	4260				6940	8880		10340	11200	11800	11930	12170	12660	12900
1a	Strain, in./in.	14				98	265		460	711	1018	1408	1798	2245	2717
	Stress, psi	140				980	2650		4600	7110	10180	14080	17980	22450	27170
1-1a	Thrust, lb/in.	46				87	127		164	201	242	286	332	386	441
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.17				-0.24	-0.25		-0.23	-0.16	-0.07	0.09	0.23	0.39	0.58
3	Strain, in./in.	31				107	176		267	351	443	550	642	779	909
	Stress, psi	310				1070	1760		2670	3510	4430	5500	6420	7790	9090
3a	Strain, in./in.	302				480	647		801	964	1154	1369	1566	1811	2032
	Stress, psi	3020				4800	6470		8010	9640	11540	13690	15660	18110	20320
3-3a	Thrust, lb/in.	37				65	91		117	145	176	211	243	285	324
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.11				0.15	0.19		0.22	0.25	0.29	0.33	0.37	0.42	0.45
2	Strain, in./in.	83				158	253		372	515	669	847	1052	1332	1640
	Stress, psi	830				1580	2530		3720	5150	6690	8470	10520	13320	16400
2a	Strain, in./in.	75				133	195		270	373	489	616	763	922	1200
	Stress, psi	750				1330	1950		2700	3730	4890	6160	7630	9220	12000
2-2a	Thrust, lb/in.	17				32	49		71	98	127	161	200	255	312
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.0				-0.01	-0.02		-0.04	-0.06	-0.07	-0.09	-0.12	-0.14	-0.18
4	Strain, in./in.	100				177	269		380	507	645	799	971	1207	1444
	Stress, psi	1000				1770	2690		3800	5070	6450	7990	9710	12070	14440
4a	Strain, in./in.	118				243	390		544	726	909	1104	1312	1581	1840
	Stress, psi	1180				2430	3900		5440	7260	9090	11040	13120	15810	18400
4-4a	Thrust, lb/in.	24				46	72		102	136	171	209	251	307	361
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.01				0.03	0.05		0.07	0.09	0.11	0.12	0.14	0.15	0.16
DC1	Deflection, in.	0.002				0.003	0.006		0.011	0.015	0.021	0.027	0.031	0.037	0.044
DC2	Deflection, in.	0.001				0.001	0.001		0.003	0.005	0.007	0.010	0.011	0.013	0.015
1-1a13-3a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	42				76	109		141	173	209	249	288	336	383
2-2a4-4a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	21				39	61		87	117	149	185	226	281	337
q		2.00				2.00	1.79		1.62	1.48	1.40	1.35	1.27	1.20	1.14
<u>Test C-3 (Z = 7/8 in.)</u>															
1	Strain, in./in.	243				503	694		902	1058	1180	1388	1562	1701	1857
	Stress, psi	2430				5030	6940		9020	10580	11800	13880	15620	17010	18570
1a	Strain, in./in.	196				413	708		925	1181	1457	1873	1915	2209	2404
	Stress, psi	1960				4130	7080		9250	11810	14570	18730	19150	22090	24040
1-1a	Thrust, lb/in.	48				101	154		201	246	290	337	382	430	469
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.02				-0.04	0.01		0.01	0.05	0.11	0.11	0.14	0.20	0.22
3	Strain, in./in.	863				1654	2257		--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Stress, psi	8630				16540	22570		--	--	--	--	--	--	--
3a	Strain, in./in.	445				891	1270		-1644	-1987	-2317	--	--	--	--
	Stress, psi	4450				8910	12700		-16440	-19870	-23170	--	--	--	--
3-3a	Thrust, lb/in.	46				84	109		--	--	--	--	--	--	--
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.53				-1.03	-1.42		--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2	Strain, in./in.	223				416	616		820	1046	1292	1582	1839	--	--
	Stress, psi	2230				4160	6160		8200	10460	12920	15820	18390	--	--
2a	Strain, in./in.	57				128	352		524	733	949	1237	1479	1771	2034
	Stress, psi	570				1280	3520		5240	7330	9490	12370	14790	17710	20340
2-2a	Thrust, lb/in.	31				66	106		148	196	249	310	365	--	--
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.07				-0.09	-0.11		-0.12	-0.13	-0.13	-0.14	-0.15	--	--
4	Strain, in./in.	239				433	611		801	1019	1237	1493	1723	1976	2217
	Stress, psi	2390				4330	6110		8010	10190	12370	14930	17230	19760	22170
4a	Strain, in./in.	6				96	286		377	561	754	944	1150	1437	1667
	Stress, psi	40				960	2860		3770	5610	7540	9440	11900	14370	16670
4-4a	Thrust, lb/in.	27				58	92		130	174	219	278	320	375	427
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.09				-0.14	-0.16		-0.17	-0.18	-0.19	-0.21	-0.21	-0.22	-0.22
DC1	Deflection, in.	-0.003				-0.011	-0.016		-0.017	-0.019	-0.017	-0.025	-0.023	-0.020	-0.006
DC2	Deflection, in.	0.003				0.003	0.003		0.004	0.006	0.008	0.010	0.012	0.014	0.017
1-1a13-3a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	47				92	131		--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2-2a4-4a	Avg thrust, lb/in.	29				62	99		139	185	234	291	343	--	--
q		1.64				1.48	1.32		--	--	--	--	--	--	--

Table 5.8 (Concluded)

Case	Measurement	Overpressure, psi									
		50	100	150	175	200	250	300	350	400	450
Test E-2 (2 = 7/16 in.) (Continued)											
13	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-92	-12	161		528		1313	2788	433.	5668
	Stress, psi	-920	-120	1610		4678		6259	7409	8164	8741
14	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	327	480	716		1091		1905	3690	5249	6512
	Stress, psi	3270	4570	5496		6033		6955	7875	8538	9082
13-14	Thrust, lb/in.	76	152	254		352		429	497	543	579
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-1.48	-1.72	-1.28		-0.51		-0.24	-0.16	-0.13	-0.12
15	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	34	69	165		434		1220	2701	3821	5385
	Stress, psi	340	690	1650		4340		6164	7360	7940	8612
16	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	173	302	590		1138		2318	4306	6163	7953
	Stress, psi	1730	3020	4967		6081		7141	8159	8938	9680
15-16	Thrust, lb/in.	67	121	234		348		436	506	549	595
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.49	-0.82	-1.22		-0.61		-0.36	-0.28	-0.35	-0.38
DC1	Deflection, in.	0.017	0.026	0.035		0.043		0.055	0.070	0.086	0.105
DC2	Deflection, in.	0.017	0.022	0.027		0.031		0.035	0.037	0.039	0.041
1-2:9-10	Avg thrust	75	149	262		354		433	490	542	580
3-6:13-14	Avg thrust	75	149	262		354		433	490	542	580
q	q	0.55	0.60	0.67		0.65		0.72	0.77	0.80	0.83
Test E-1 (2 = 7/8 in.)											
1	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	365	635	917		1237		1626	1989	2530	3253
	Stress, psi	3650	4984	5723		6182		6579	6949	7262	7656
2	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-226	-272	-266		-214		-98	29	324	753
	Stress, psi	-2260	-2720	-2660		-2140		-980	290	3240	5293
1-2	Thrust, lb/in.	45	109	167		228		292	340	400	442
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	2.08	2.94	3.11		2.93		2.37	1.85	1.07	0.74
3	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	37	70	148		337		987	1821	2933	3828
	Stress, psi	370	700	1480		3870		5906	6777	7492	7944
4	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	151	307	531		937		1955	2899	4179	5528
	Stress, psi	1510	3070	4712		7775		6544	7472	8105	8672
3-4	Thrust, lb/in.	61	123	212		327		417	465	507	540
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.46	-0.83	-1.23		-0.56		-0.35	-0.23	-0.22	-0.25
5	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-57	24	190		538		1304	2129	3236	4429
	Stress, psi	-570	240	1900		4730		6250	7034	7648	8210
6	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	273	439	682		1054		2028	3369	4866	6176
	Stress, psi	2730	4390	5107		6033		6976	7714	8394	8943
5-6	Thrust, lb/in.	70	150	257		354		430	480	522	558
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-1.16	-1.46	-1.15		-0.49		-0.26	-0.24	-0.26	-0.26
7	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	304	456	609		913		1217	1522	2282	2891
	Stress, psi	3040	4516	4916		5712		6161	6472	7121	7468
8	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	26	75	178		387		837	1111	2202	3370
	Stress, psi	260	750	1780		3870		5487	6053	7075	7565
7-8	Thrust, lb/in.	107	173	242		225		384	407	461	489
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.98	1.34	1.17		0.54		0.23	0.15	0.02	-0.03
9	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	112	112	112		162		349	686	1129	1629
	Stress, psi	1120	1120	1120		1620		3490	5118	6072	6582
10	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	56	169	294		450		662	918	1238	1433
	Stress, psi	560	1690	2940		4500		5055	5725	6183	6362
9-10	Thrust, lb/in.	55	91	132		199		294	352	398	421
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.20	-0.20	-0.64		-1.01		-0.49	-0.21	-0.04	0.07
11	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	72	187	288		475		893	1339	2059	2808
	Stress, psi	720	1870	2880		4565		5660	6286	6994	7421
12	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	52	124	195		357		685	1047	1690	2390
	Stress, psi	520	1240	1950		3570		5115	5988	6644	7182
11-12	Thrust, lb/in.	40	101	157		269		350	399	444	475
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.07	0.22	0.33		0.38		0.19	0.10	0.13	0.08
13	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-33	49	262		687		2021	2781	4057	5464
	Stress, psi	-330	490	2620		5121		6972	7405	8054	8645
14	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	284	455	718		1201		2431	3674	5088	6501
	Stress, psi	2810	4513	5202		5445		7206	7867	8487	9078
13-14	Thrust, lb/in.	81	164	281		372		461	497	538	576
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-1.11	-1.43	-0.86		-0.38		-0.08	-0.16	-0.15	-0.15
15	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	28	69	152		388		1053	1953	2964	4141
	Stress, psi	280	690	1520		3880		5994	6912	7509	8089
16	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	156	341	611		1081		2048	3114	4573	5987
	Stress, psi	1560	3410	4922		6023		6987	7587	8273	8865
15-16	Thrust, lb/in.	60	133	234		339		423	472	514	551
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.45	-0.96	-1.28		-0.66		-0.36	-0.23	-0.27	-0.27
DC1	Deflection, in.	0.014	0.021	0.027		0.033		0.042	0.050	0.050	0.070
DC2	Deflection, in.	0.013	0.017	0.020		0.023		0.025	0.026	0.027	0.029
1-2:9-10	Avg thrust	50	100	150		214		293	346	399	431
3-6:13-14	Avg thrust	76	157	269		363		446	489	530	567
q	q	0.66	0.64	0.56		0.59		0.66	0.71	0.75	0.76

Table 5.9
Strain, Stress, Thrust, and Moment; Tests E-4, E-5, E-6

Gage	Measurement	Test E-6	Test E-5	Test E-4
		Z = 0 in. P _{so} = 254 psi	Z = 7/16 in. P _{sc} = 262 psi	Z = 7/8 in. P _{so} = 264 psi
1	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	5841	7899	5698
	Stress, psi	8803	9658	8743
2	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	8637	4881	3849
	Stress, psi	9933	8400	7955
1-2	Thrust, lb/in.	610	587	543
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.40	0.44	0.27
3	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	3207	3949	3326
	Stress, psi	7634	8004	7693
4	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	5131	6189	5344
	Stress, psi	8505	8948	8594
3-4	Thrust, lb/in.	526	551	531
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.30	-0.33	-0.31
5	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	4197	5582	4802
	Stress, psi	8113	8694	8367
6	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	4654	4946	5392
	Stress, psi	8305	8427	8615
5-6	Thrust, lb/in.	534	556	552
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.07	0.09	-0.09
7	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	5878	7562	6045
	Stress, psi	8819	9518	8889
8	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	3944	5904	4565
	Stress, psi	8002	8830	8267
7-8	Thrust, lb/in.	547	596	558
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.29	0.24	0.22
9	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	5098	6552	5300
	Stress, psi	8491	9099	8576
10	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	3622	4991	3653
	Stress, psi	7841	8446	7856
9-10	Thrust, lb/in.	532	570	535
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	0.23	0.23	0.25
11	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	4415	6537	4503
	Stress, psi	8204	9093	8241
12	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	5347	5148	4890
	Stress, psi	8596	8512	8404
11-12	Thrust, lb/in.	546	572	541
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.14	0.20	-0.06
13	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	3233	5350	3757
	Stress, psi	7647	8597	7909
14	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	3949	4969	4297
	Stress, psi	8004	8437	8155
13-14	Thrust, lb/in.	509	554	522
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.13	0.06	-0.09
15	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	2651	3581	3630
	Stress, psi	7331	7821	7845
16	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	4898	6172	5499
	Stress, psi	8407	8941	8660
15-16	Thrust, lb/in.	514	546	537
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-0.38	-0.39	-0.28
1-2:9-10	Avg thrust	571	579	539
5-6:13-14	Avg thrust	521	555	537
	q	1.10	1.04	1.00

Table 5.11

Strain, Stress, Thrust, and Moment; Tests D-6, D-7, D-8, D-9, D-10

Gage	Measurement	Test D-10	Test D-8	Test D-9	Test D-6	Test D-7
		Z = 7/8 in. P _{so} = 97* psi	Z = 7/8 in. P _{so} = 116* psi	Z = 7/8 in. P _{so} = 148 psi	Z = 1-3/4 in. P _{so} = 160* psi	Z = 1-3/4 in. P _{so} = 180 psi
1	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	3361	17296	13714	19059
	Stress, psi	--	6541	--	10421	--
2	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	-891	-15970	-5512	-10134
	Stress, psi	--	-4675	--	-7520	-9312
1-2	Thrust, lb/in.	--	218	--	251	--
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	--	3.90	--	7.16	--
3	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	343	-14665	-5063	-7055
	Stress, psi	--	3409	-1071.6	-7327	-8136
4	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	--	5836	14380	19105
	Stress, psi	--	--	7659	10628	--
3-4	Thrust, lb/in.	--	--	--	283	--
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	--	--	-7.30	-6.90	--
5	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	1174	9087	3881	5384
	Stress, psi	--	5.50	8918	6809	7465
6	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	550	17760	-665	-686
	Stress, psi	--	3973	--	-4210	-4253
5-6	Thrust, lb/in.	--	298	--	268	314
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	--	0.40	--	3.26	3.10
7	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	-53	1468	860	-2511
	Stress, psi	--	-530	5302	4612	-6067
8	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	--	1933	-411	591	6892
	Stress, psi	--	5702	-3609	4057	8073
7-8	Thrust, lb/in.	--	271	170	282	216
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	--	-1.68	3.14	0.20	-5.52
9	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	1551	3195	--	2865	-1910
	Stress, psi	5374	6459	--	6279	-5683
10	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-1306	-576	--	720	5327
	Stress, psi	-5163	-4027	--	4323	7441
9-10	Thrust, lb/in.	29	250	--	358	204
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	4.83	3.18	--	0.62	-5.10
11	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	349	-754	--	880	508
	Stress, psi	3426	-4393	--	4653	3886
12	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	0	3827	--	3477	295
	Stress, psi	0	6782	--	6603	2950
11-12	Thrust, lb/in.	113	255	--	377	231
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	1.23	-3.49	--	-0.64	0.28
13	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	517	665	--	2079	3998
	Stress, psi	3905	4210	--	5807	6869
14	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	0	480	--	1935	206
	Stress, psi	0	3811	--	5704	2060
13-14	Thrust, lb/in.	154	261	--	374	362
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	1.47	0.14	--	0.04	1.18
15	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	-2171	823	--	-768	-11447
	Stress, psi	-5863	4535	--	-4422	-9719
16	Strain, $\mu\text{in./in.}$	8019	1105	--	5976	22539
	Stress, psi	8507	4990	--	7720	--
15-16	Thrust, lb/in.	272	312	--	323	--
	Moment, in.-lb/in.	-5.06	-0.17	--	-3.21	--
1-2;9-10	Avg thrust	--	234	--	305	--
5-6;13-14	Avg thrust	--	280	--	321	338
	q	--	0.84	--	0.95	--

* No failure.

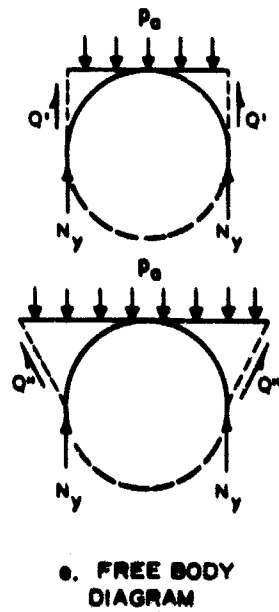
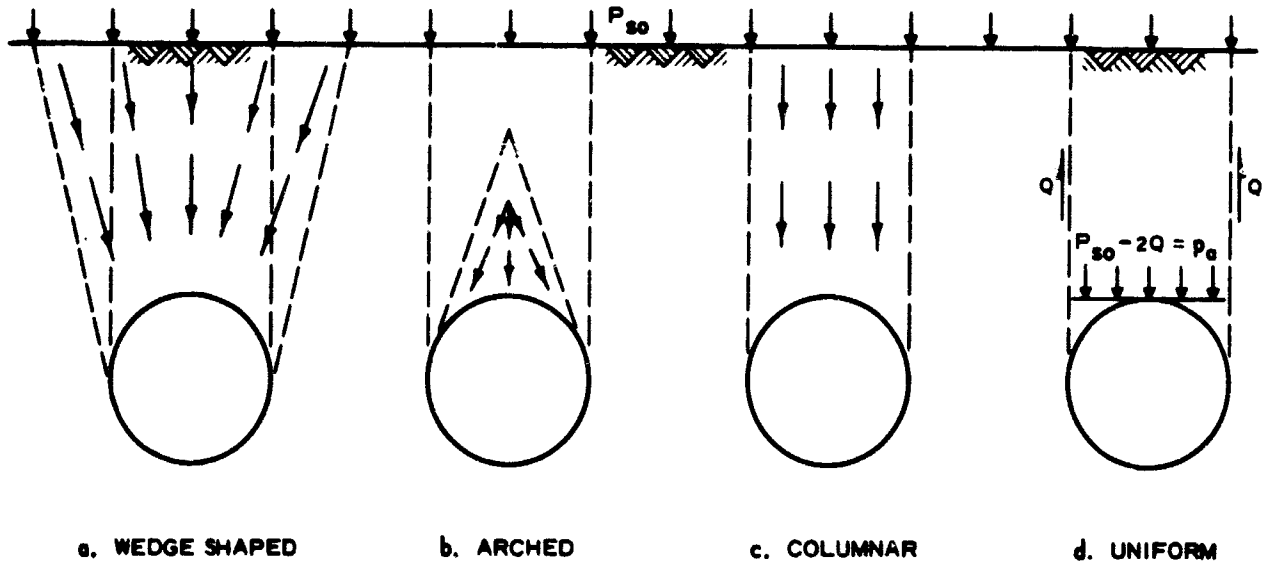
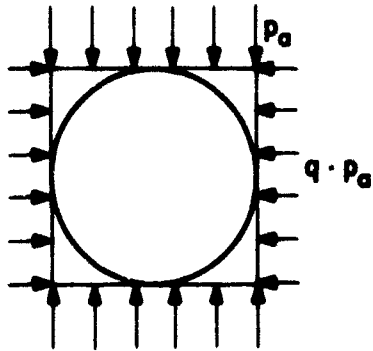
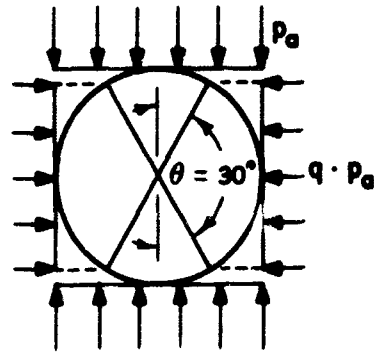


Fig. 1.1 Concepts of Load Transfer



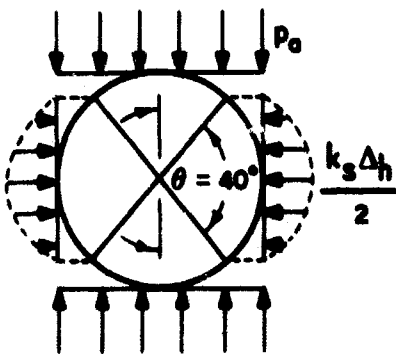
$$M_c = 0.25 p_0 R^2$$

a. TALBOT (1908)



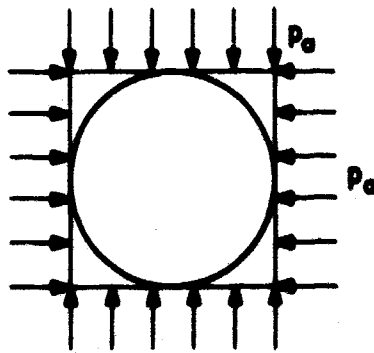
$$M_c = (0.257 - 0.242q) p_0 R^2$$

b. CAIN (1929)



$$\Delta_h = \frac{0.16 p_0 R^4}{EI + 0.061 k_s R^4}$$

c. SPANGLER (1938)



$$N_y = p_0 R$$

d. WHITE (1960)

Fig. 2.1 Concepts of Load Distribution

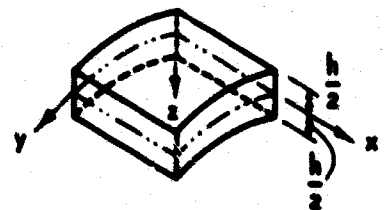
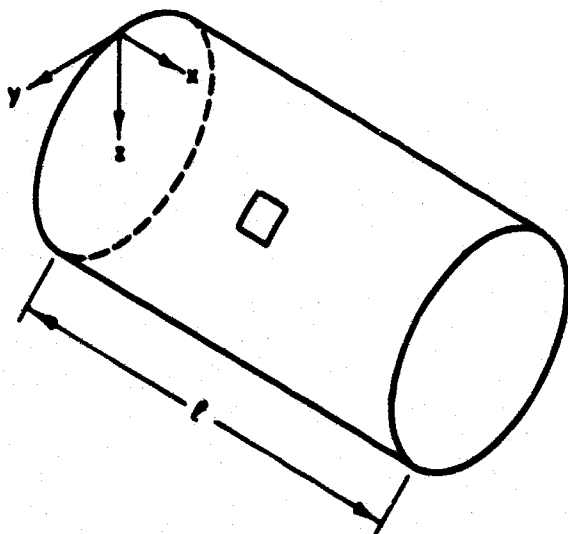
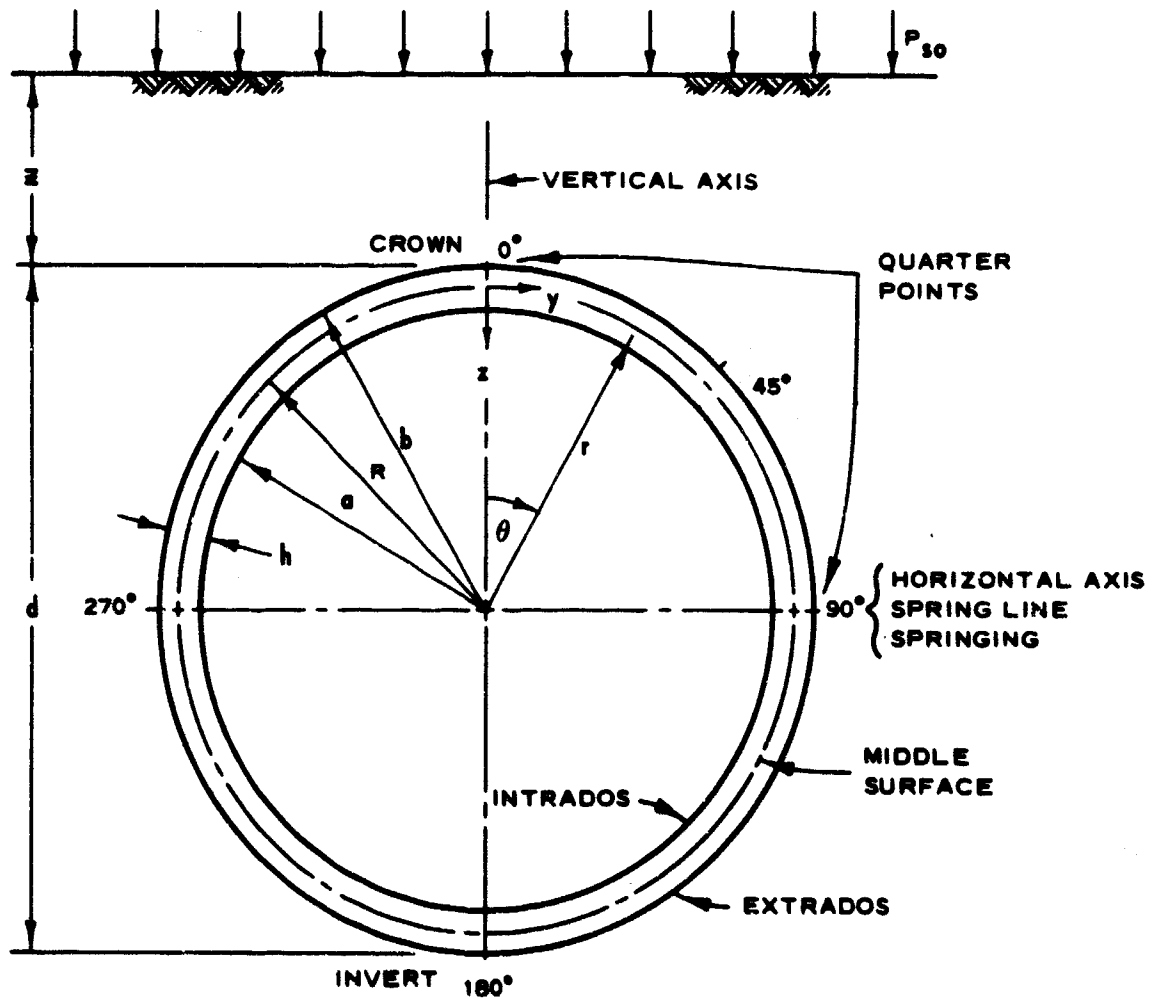


Fig. 3.1 Cylindrical Shell and Ring Notation

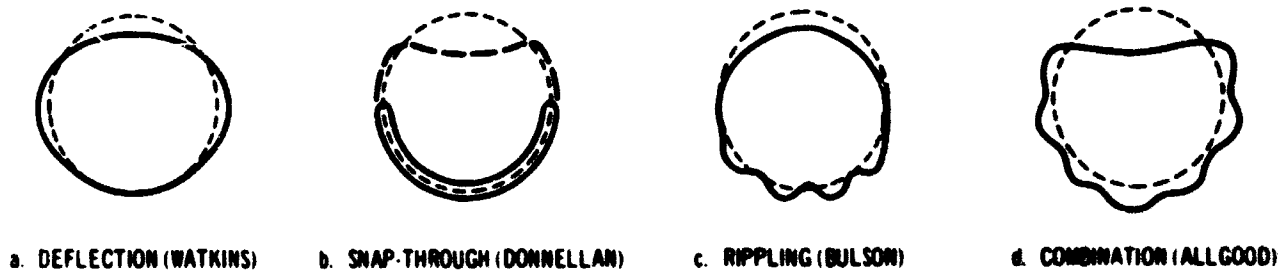


Fig. 3.2 Actual Modes of Failure

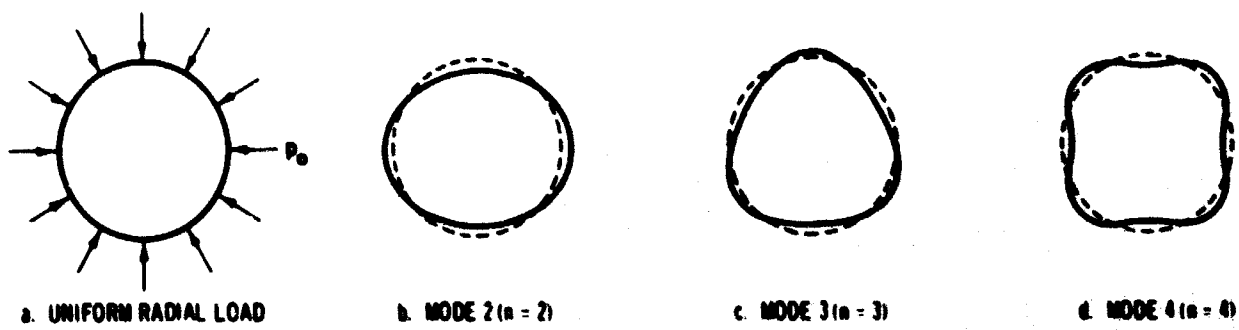


Fig. 3.3 Buckling Modes

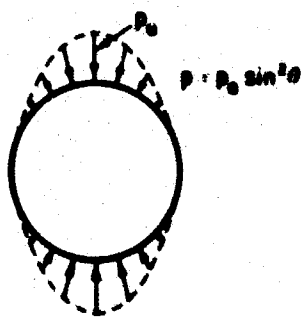


Fig. 3.4 Nonuniform Load

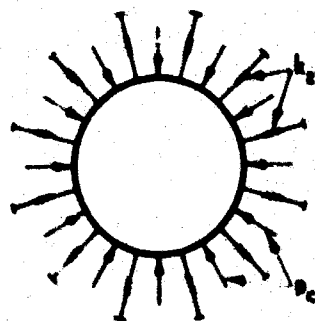


Fig. 3.5 Elastic Supports

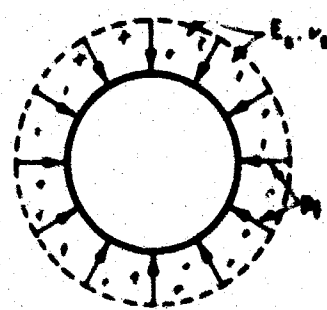


Fig. 3.6 Elastic Medium

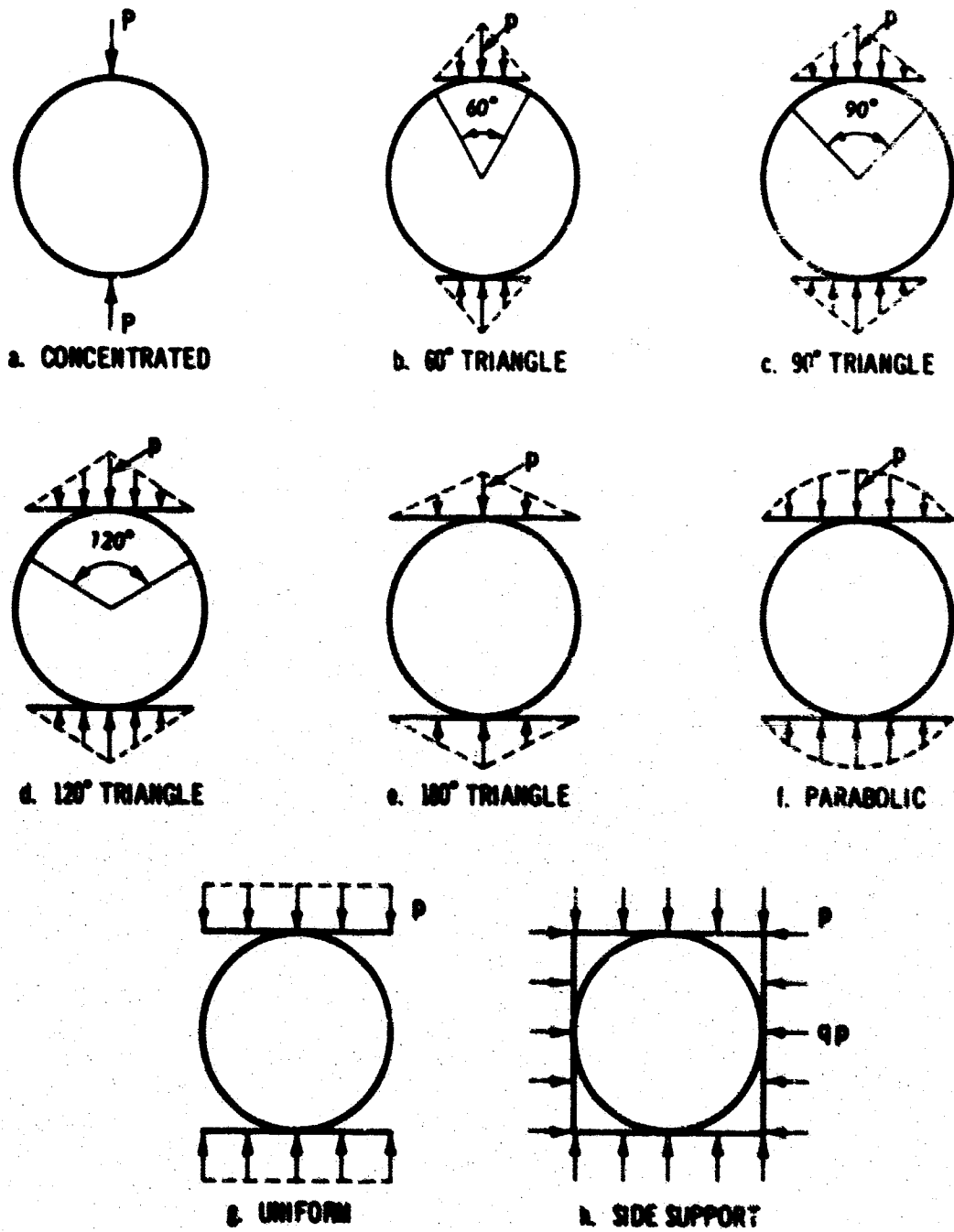


Fig. 3.7 Idealized Loading Configurations

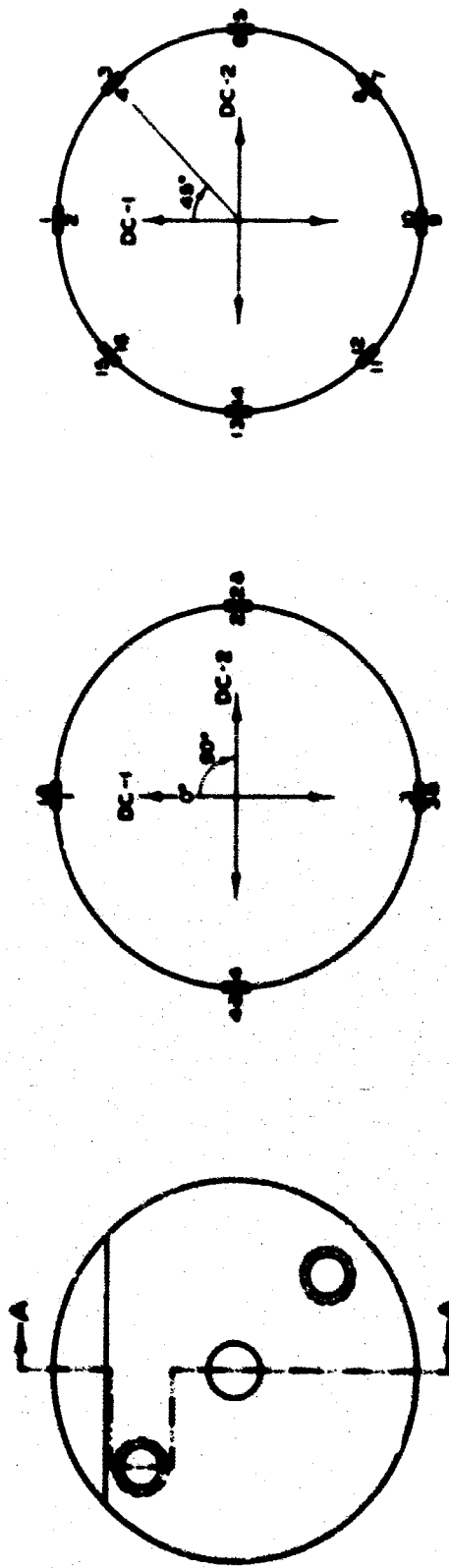
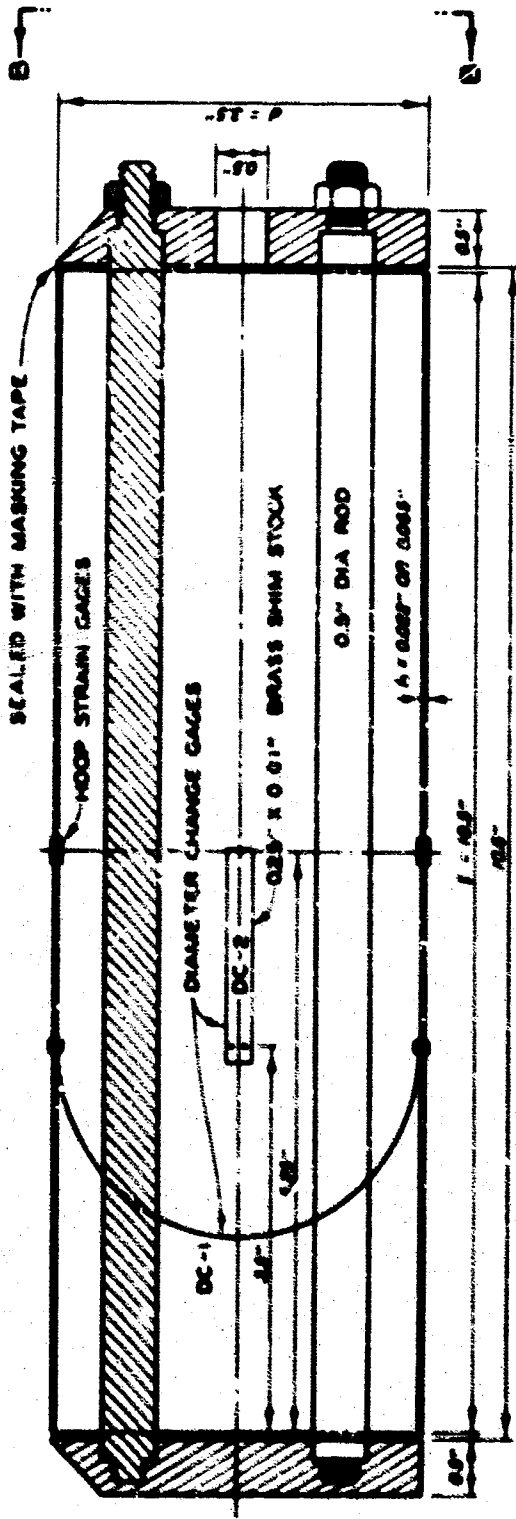
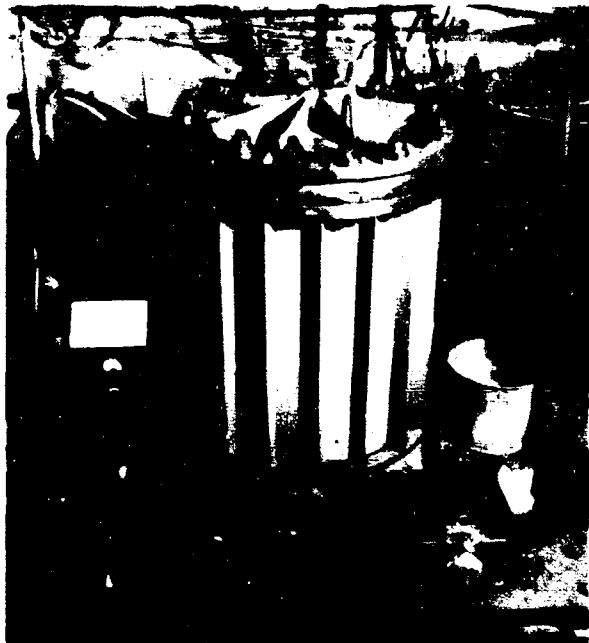
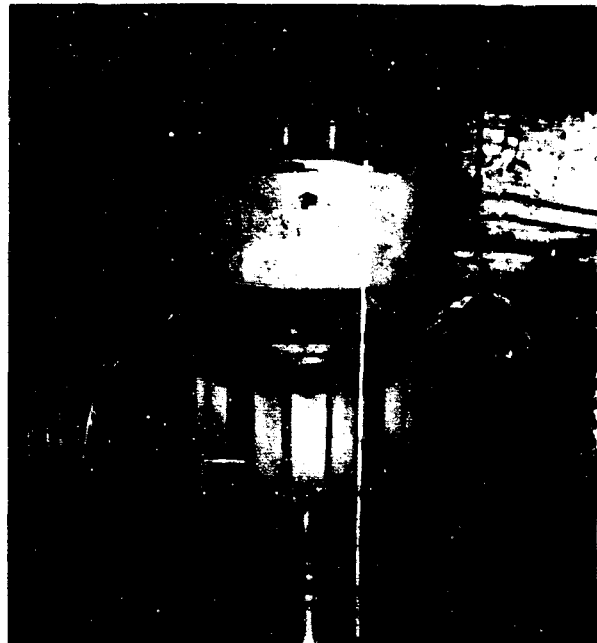


Fig. 4.1.1 Longitudinal Section of Cylinder and Gage Locations



a. Static Bonnet (2-ft Diameter, 500 psi)



b. Dynamic Bonnet



c. Spacer Ring and Posttest Diaphragm Configuration



d. Cylinder in Position

Fig. 4.2 University of Illinois Blast Load Generator

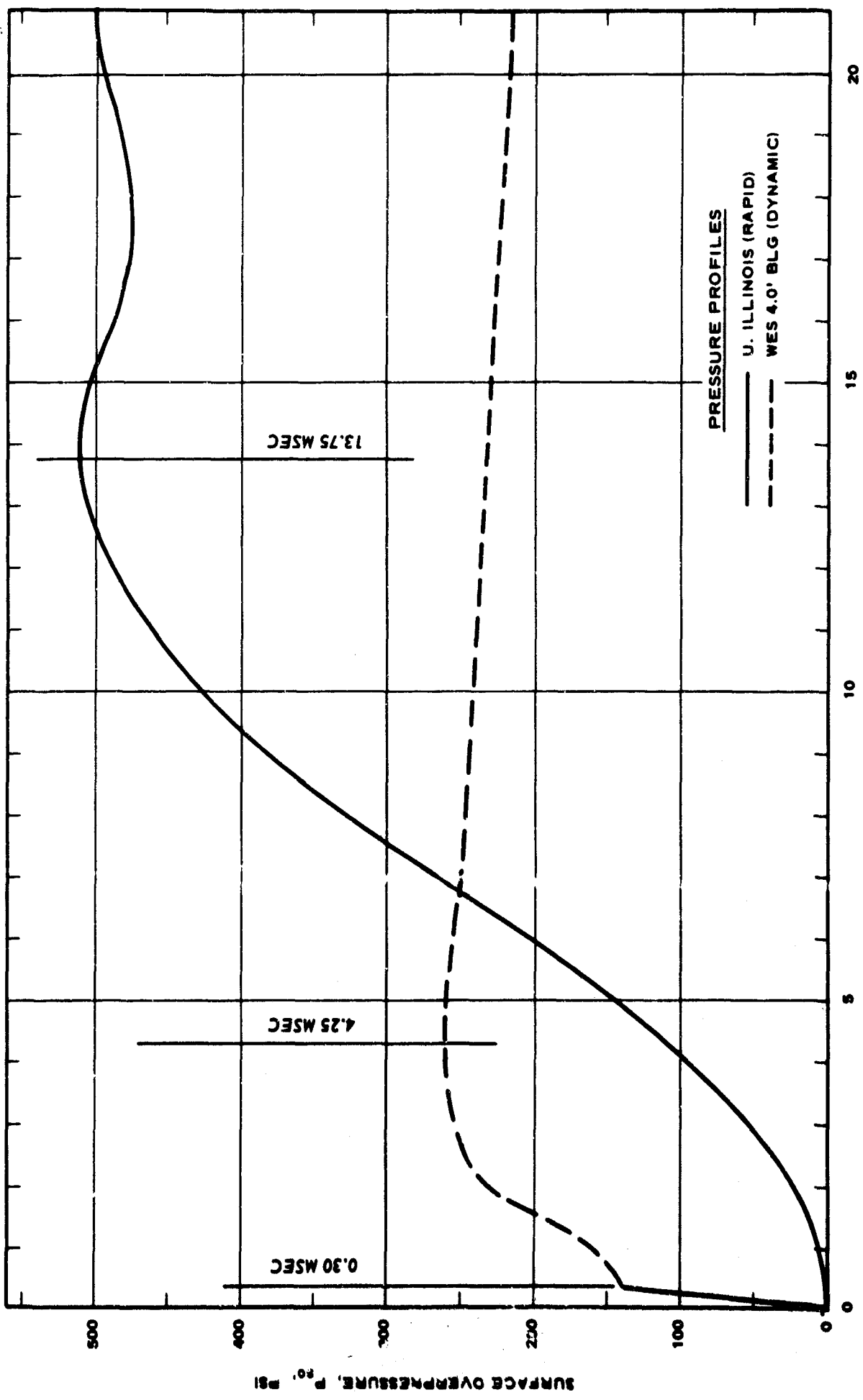


Fig. 4.3 Overpressure-Time Relation for Rapid and Dynamic Loading

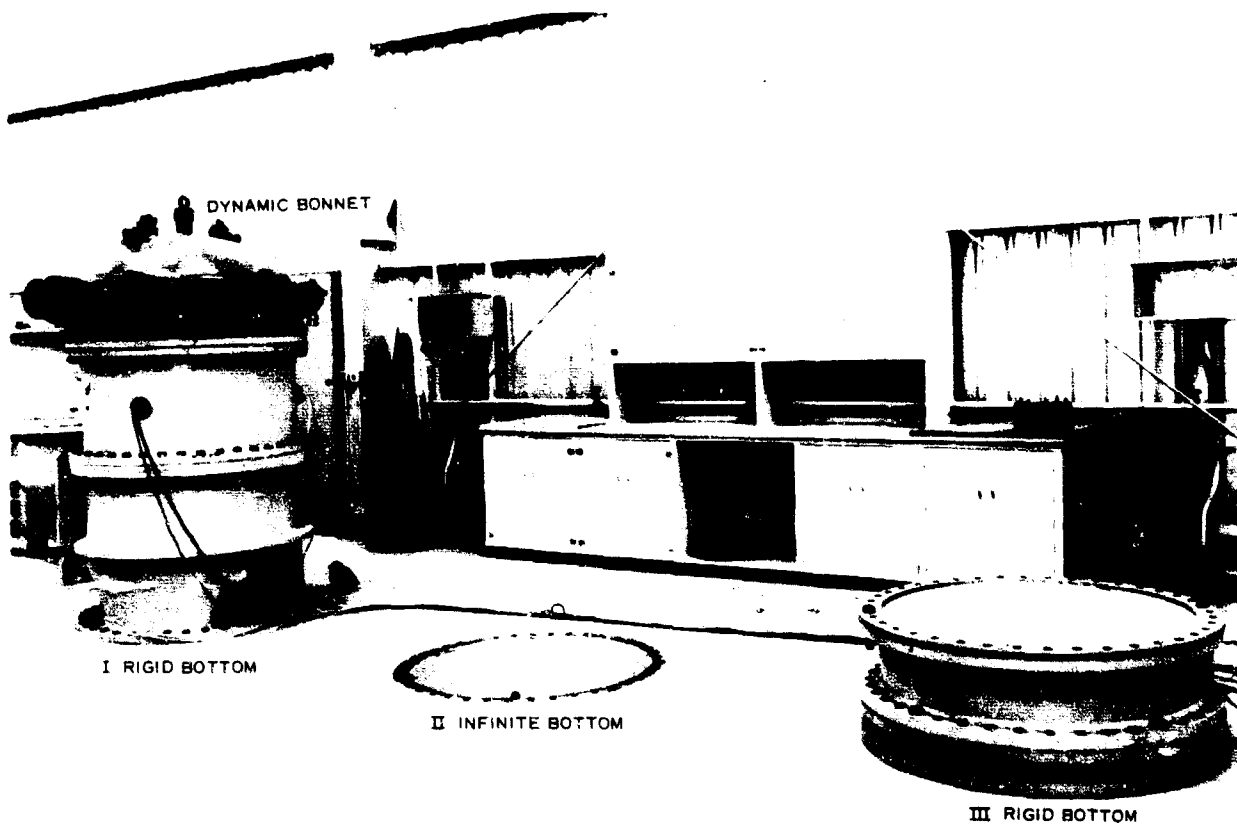


Fig. 4.4 WES Small Blast Load Generator (SBLG) Facility

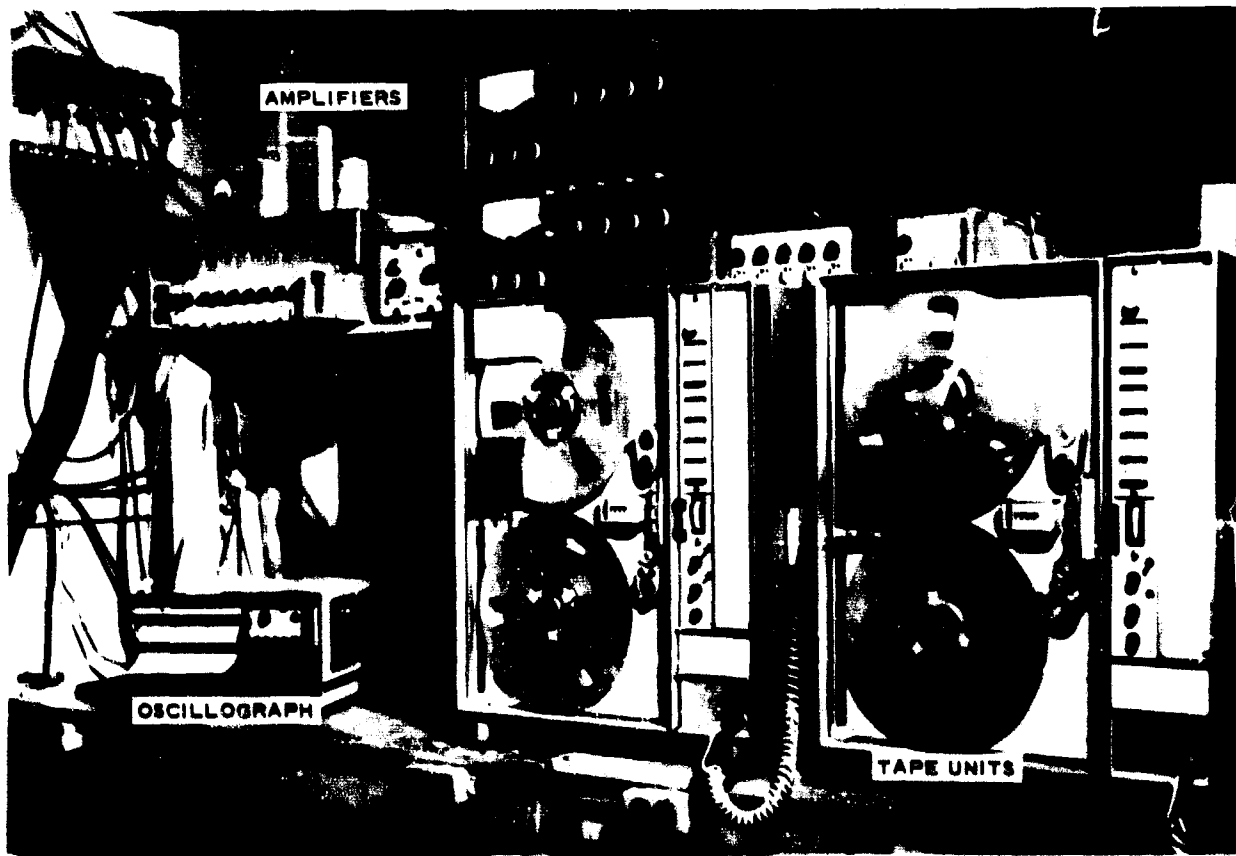


Fig. 4.5 Illinois Instrumentation Equipment

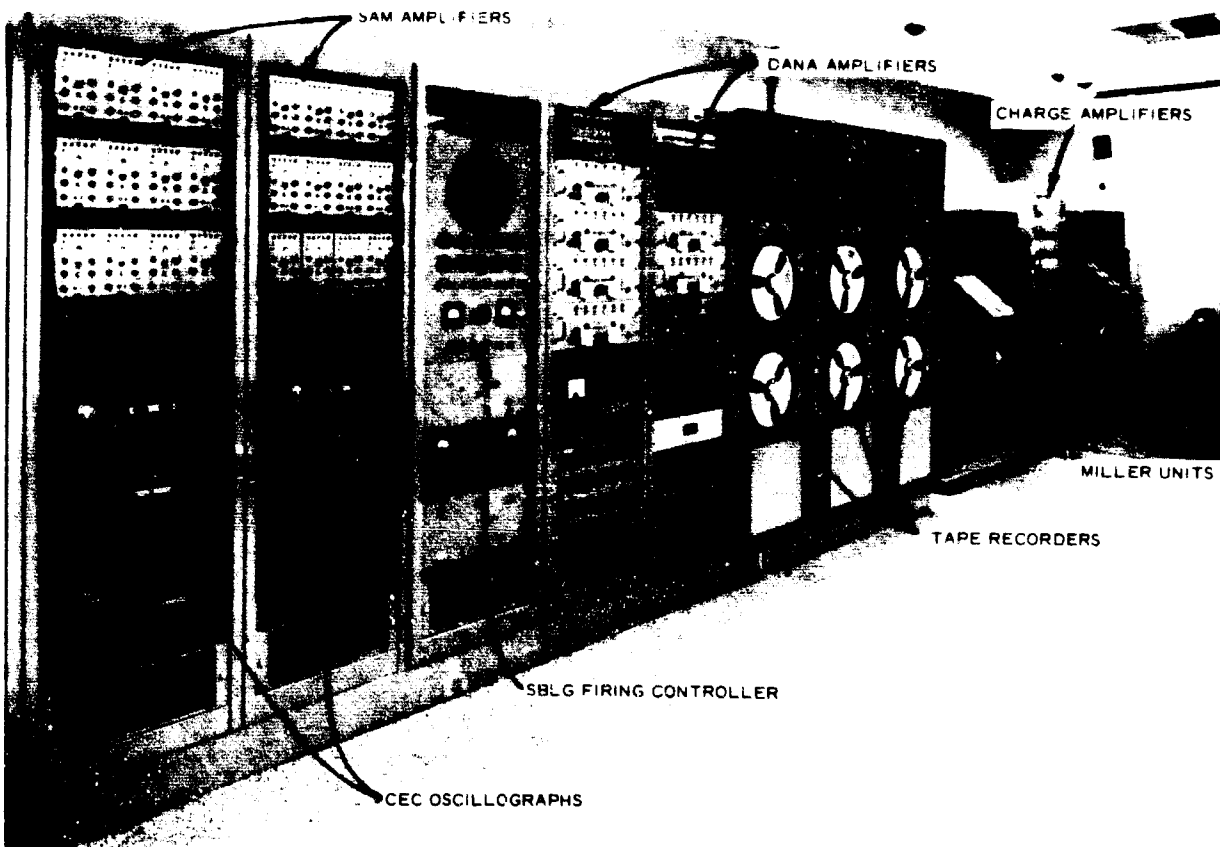


Fig. 4.6 WES Large Instrumentation Room

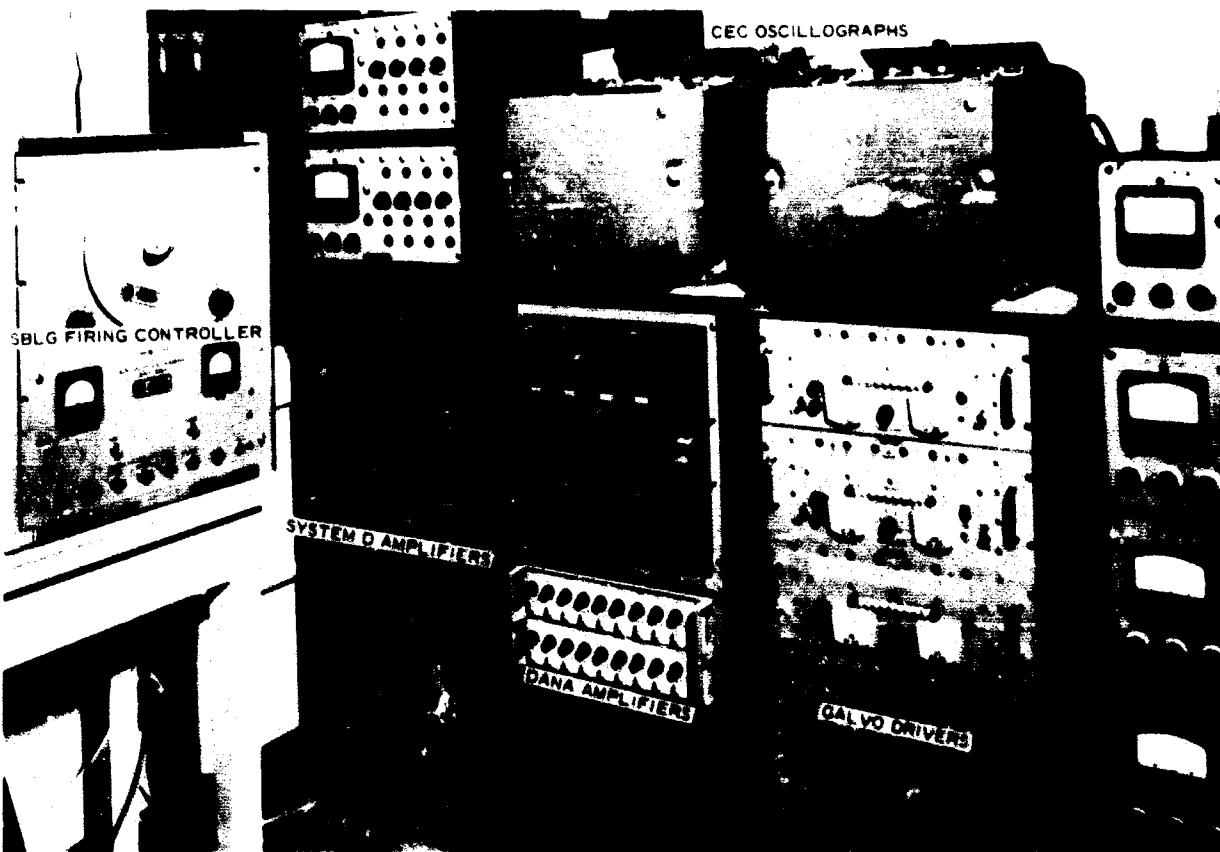


Fig. 4.7 WES Small Blast Load Generator (SBLG) Instrumentation

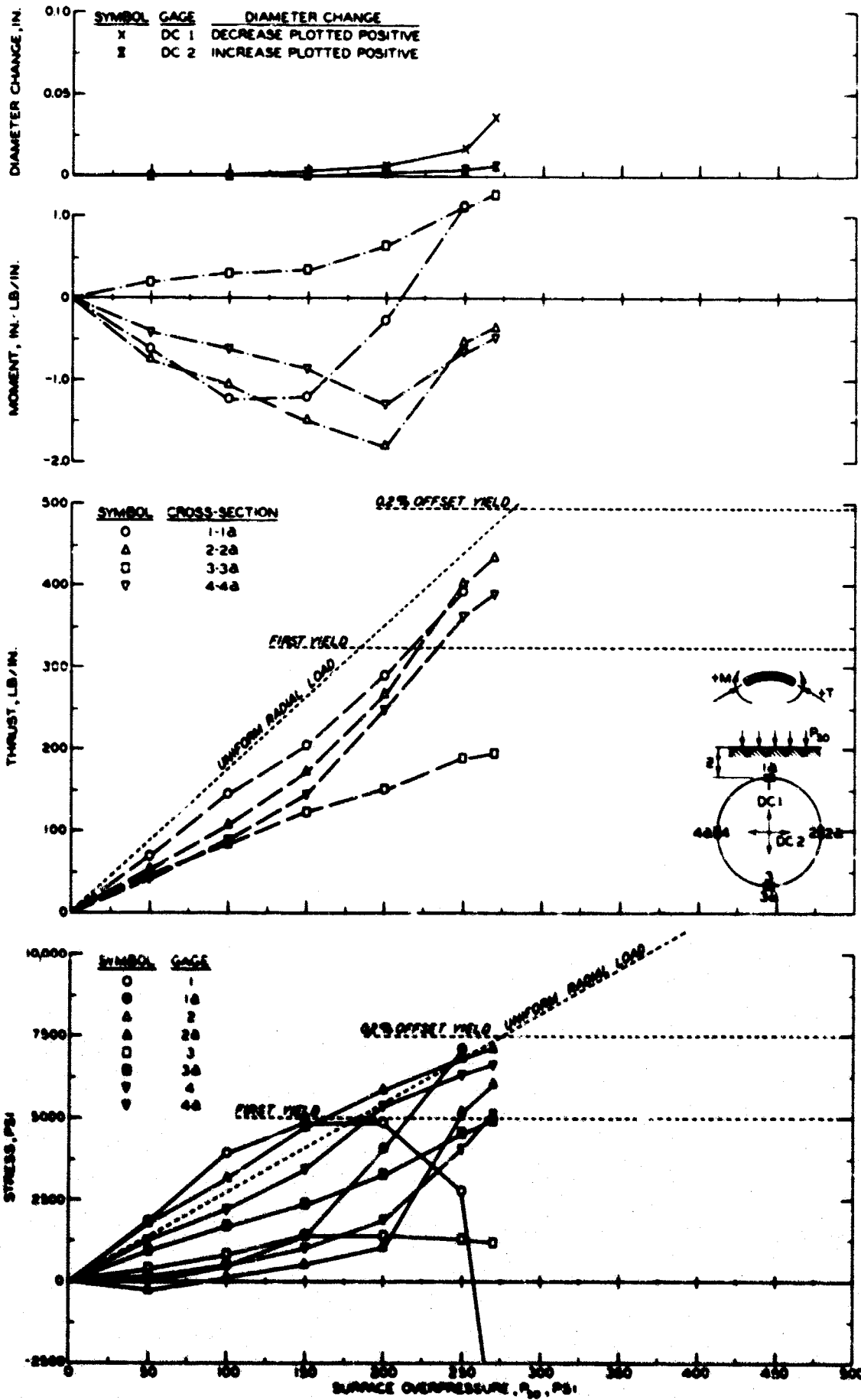


Fig. 5.1 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test A-1 ($Z = 0$ in.)

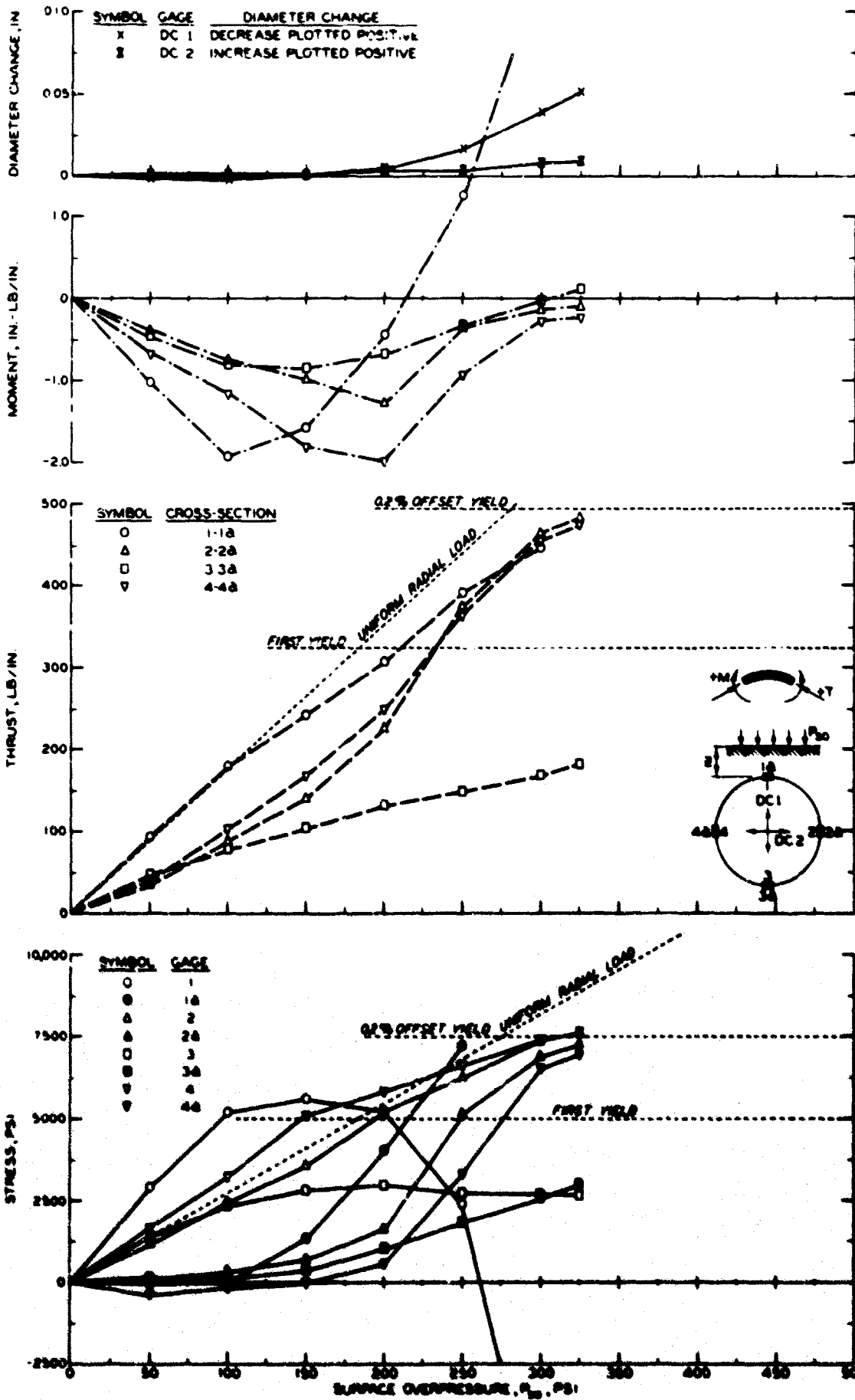


Fig. 5.2 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test A-5 ($Z = 3/16$ in.)

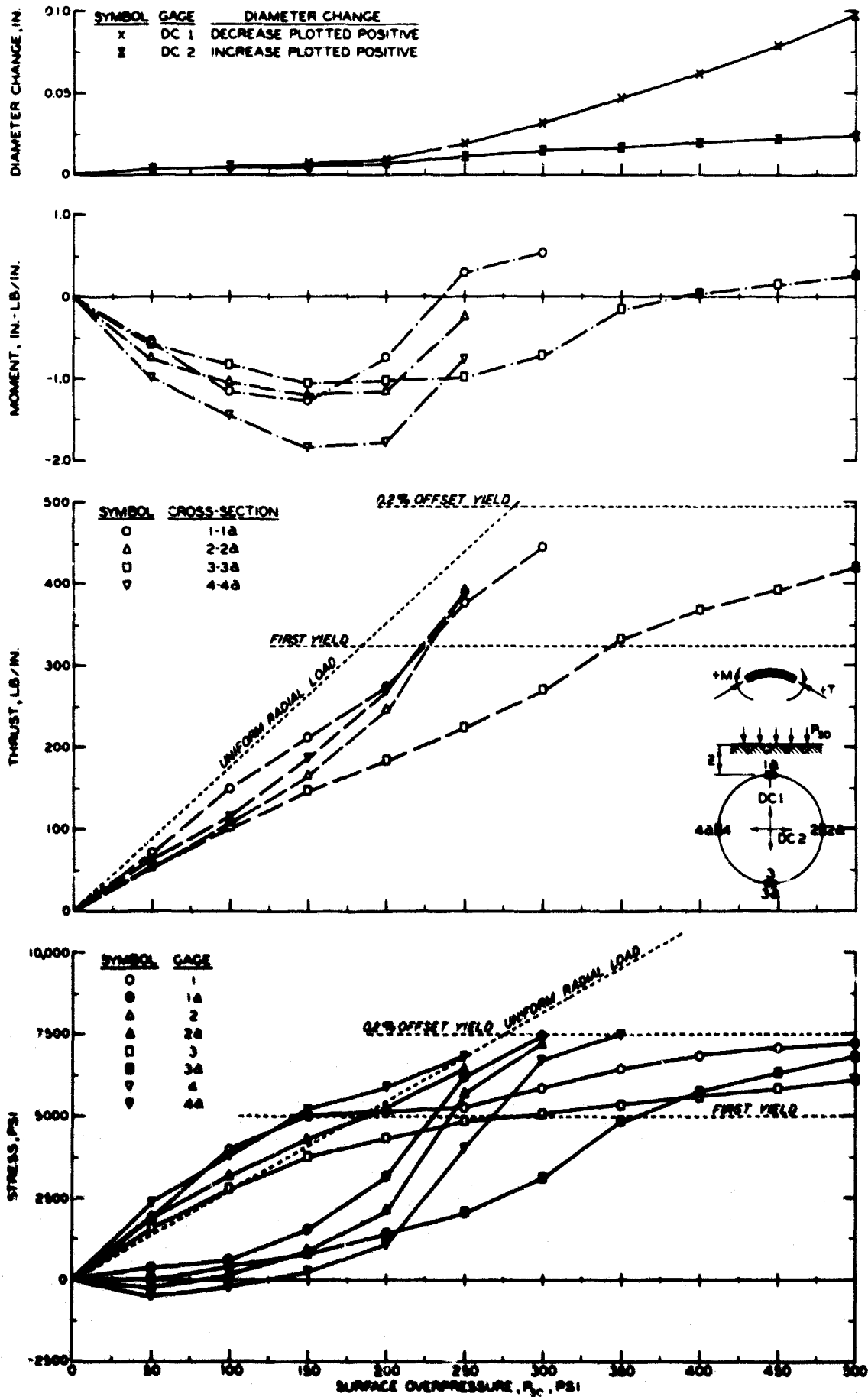


Fig. 5.3 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test A-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.)

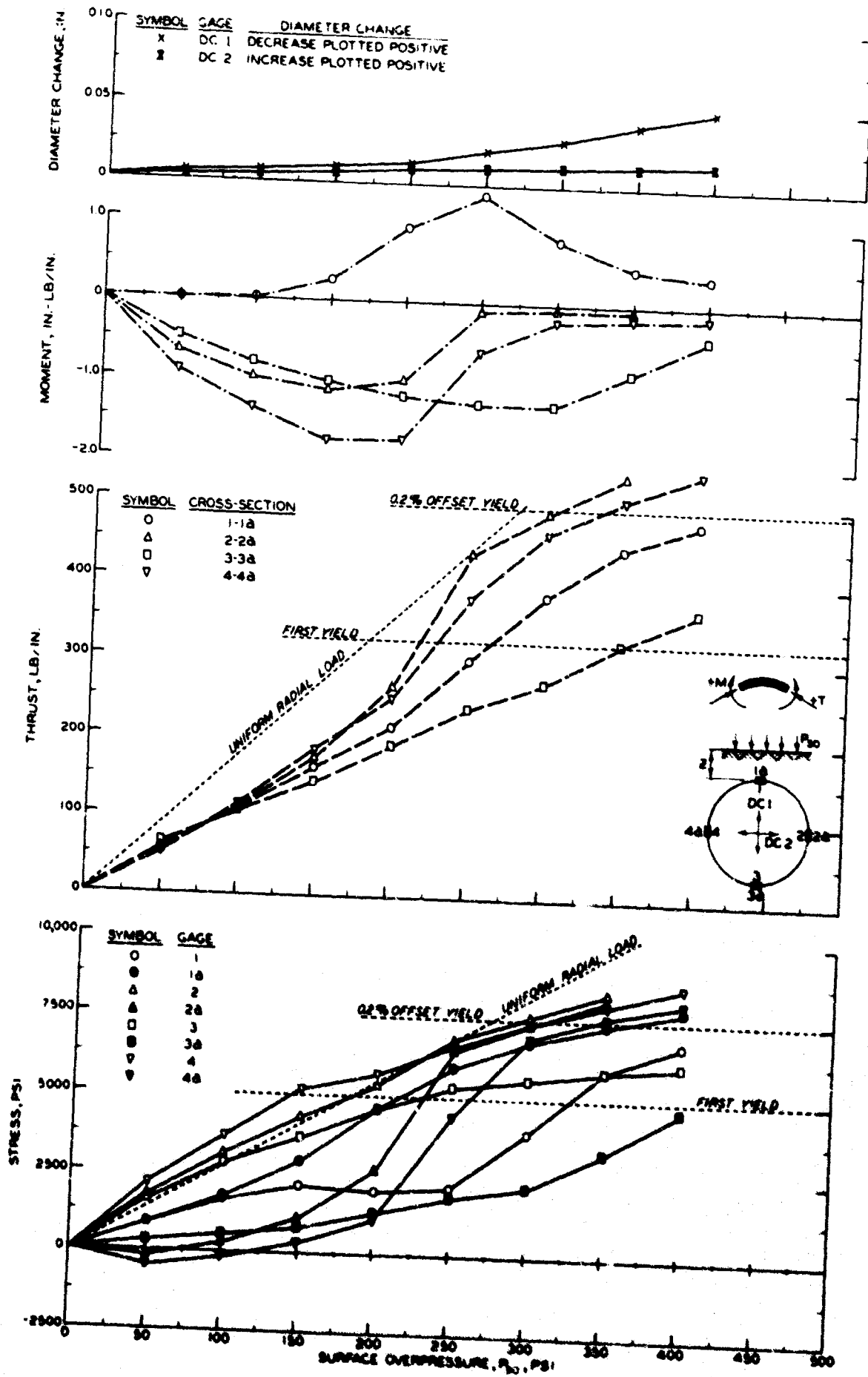


Fig. 5.4 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test A-3A ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

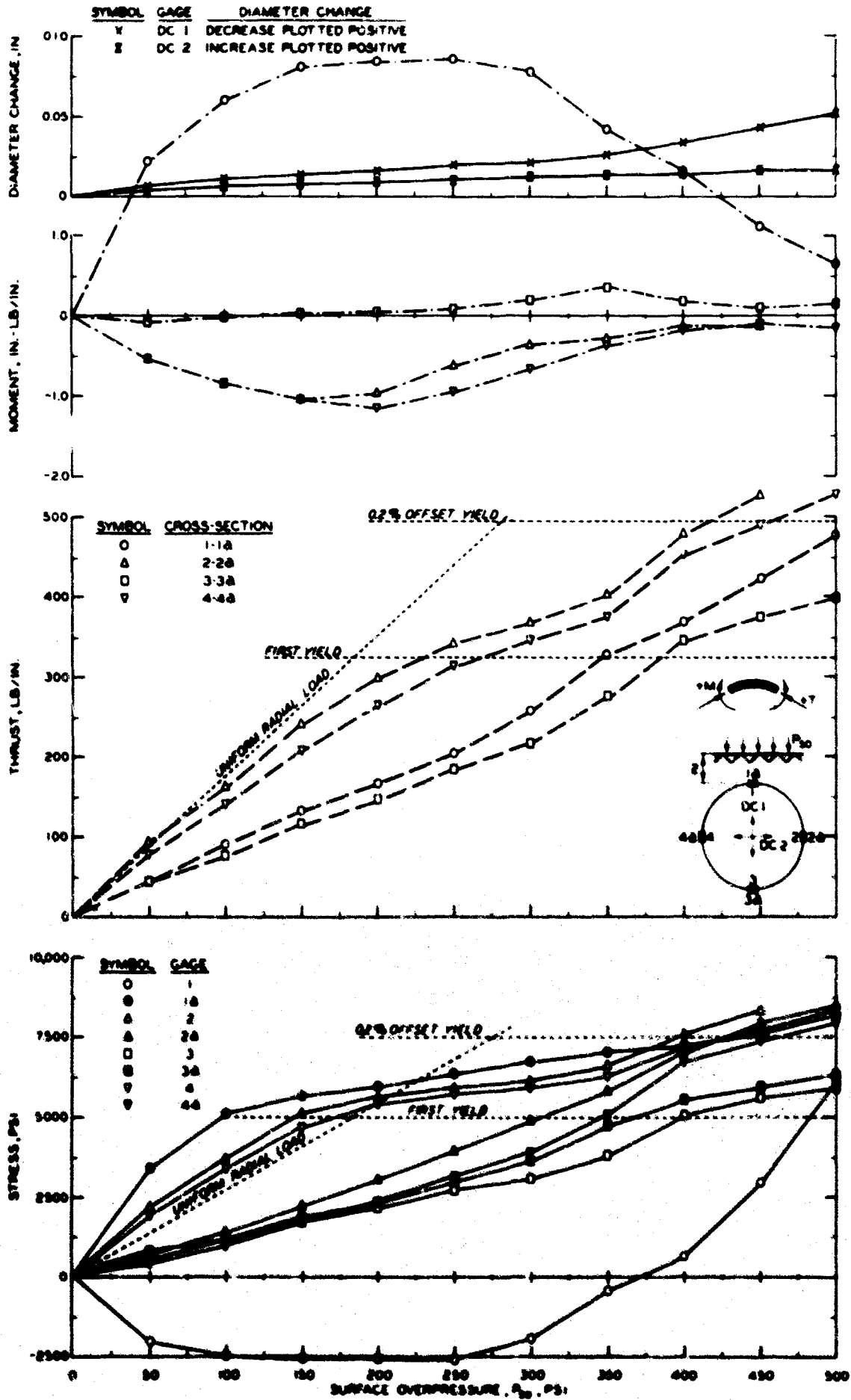


Fig. 5.5 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test A-3B ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

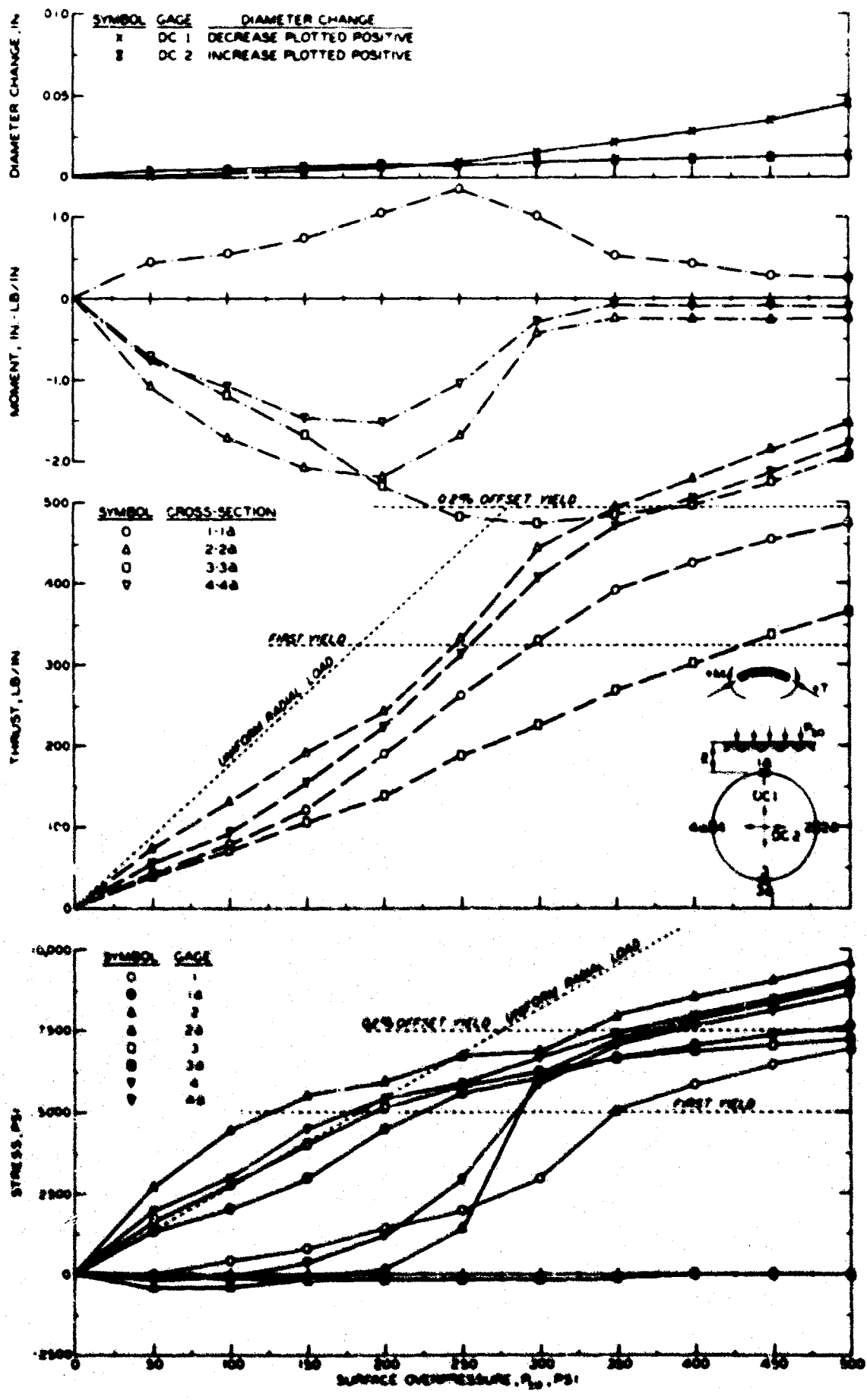


Fig. 5.6 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test A-4 (Z = 1-3/4 in.)

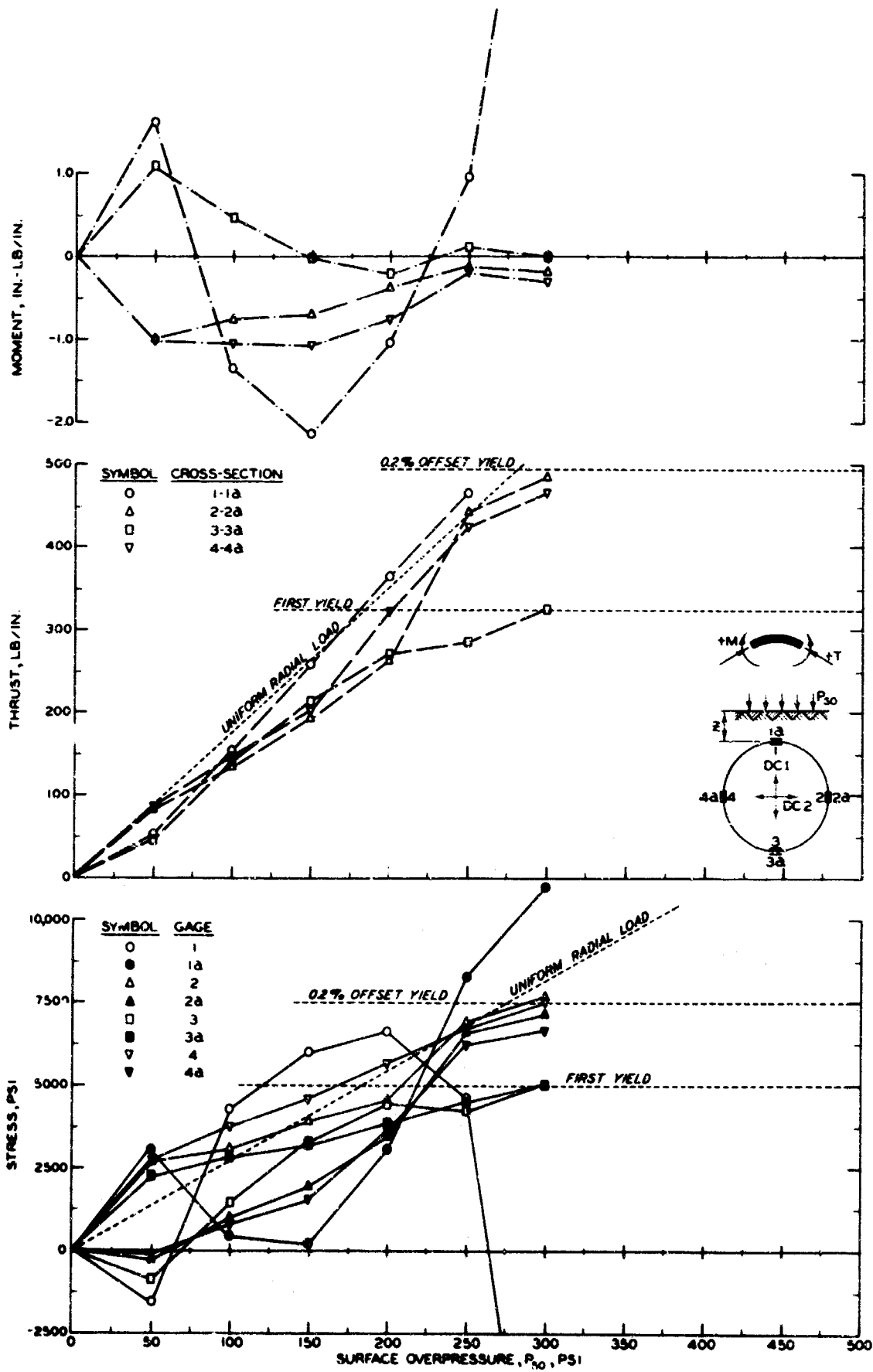


Fig. 5.7 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test A-10 ($Z = 0$ in.)

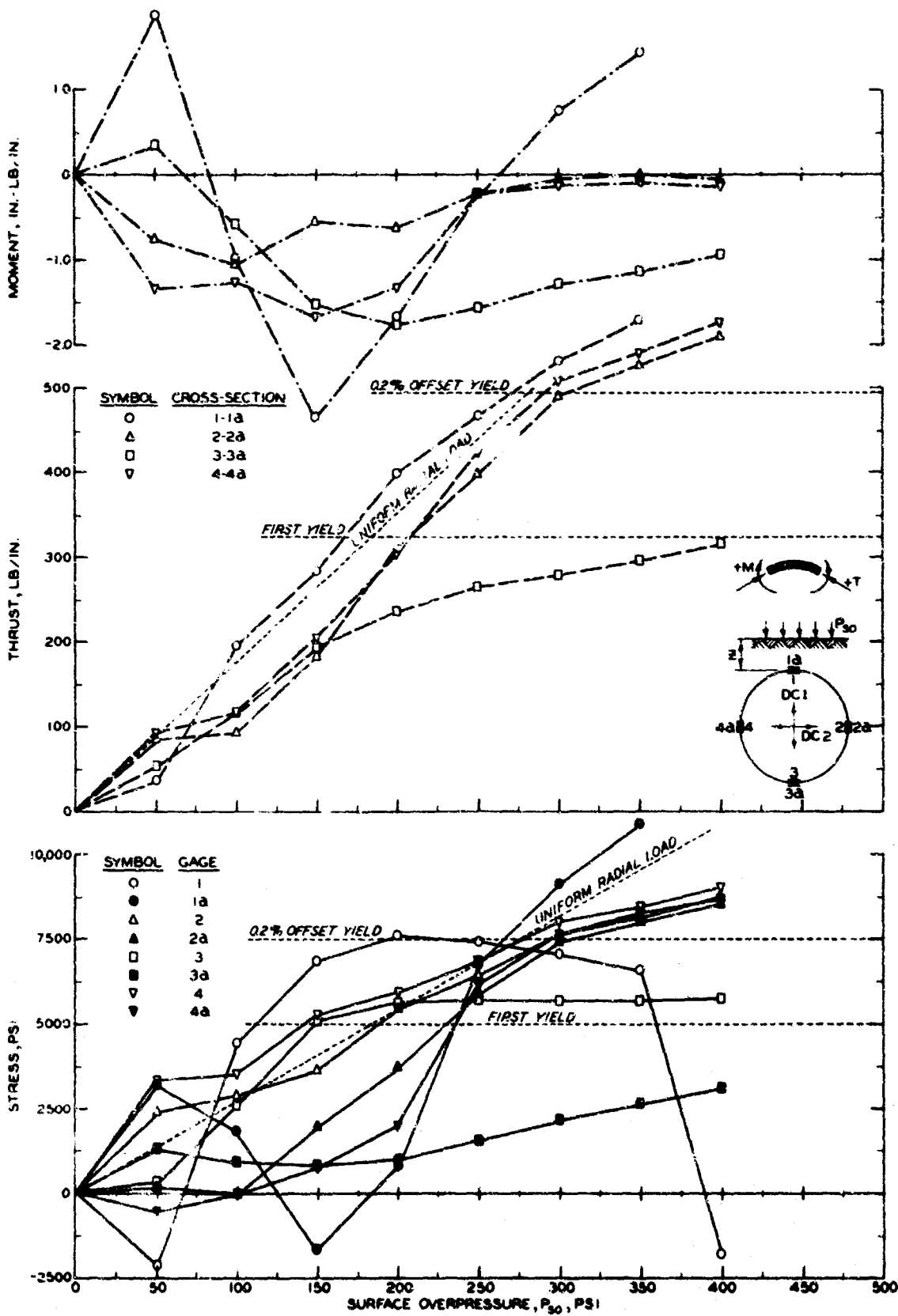


Fig. 5.8 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test A-9 (Z = 3/16 in.)

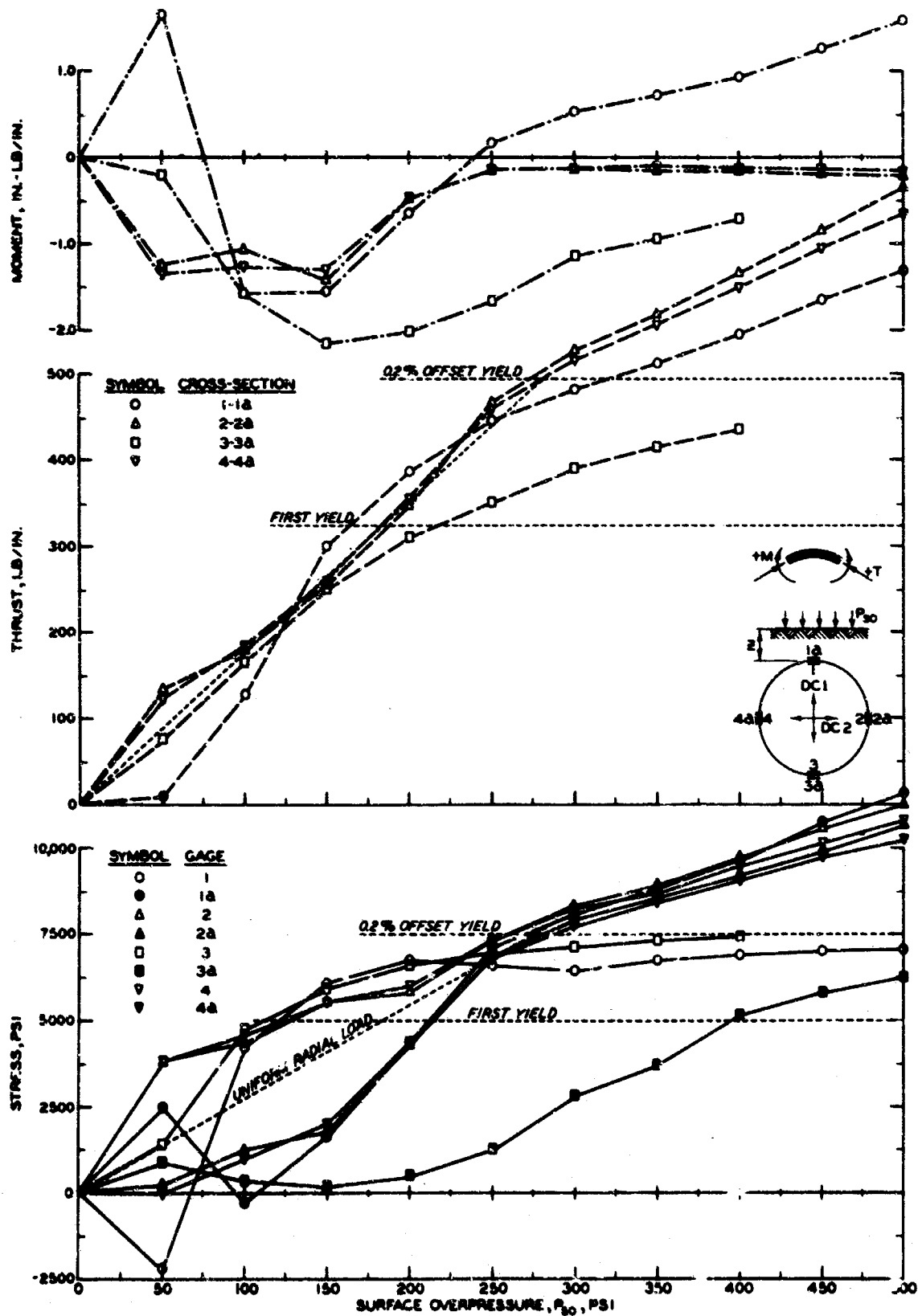


Fig. 5.9 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test A-8 ($Z = 1/16$ in.)

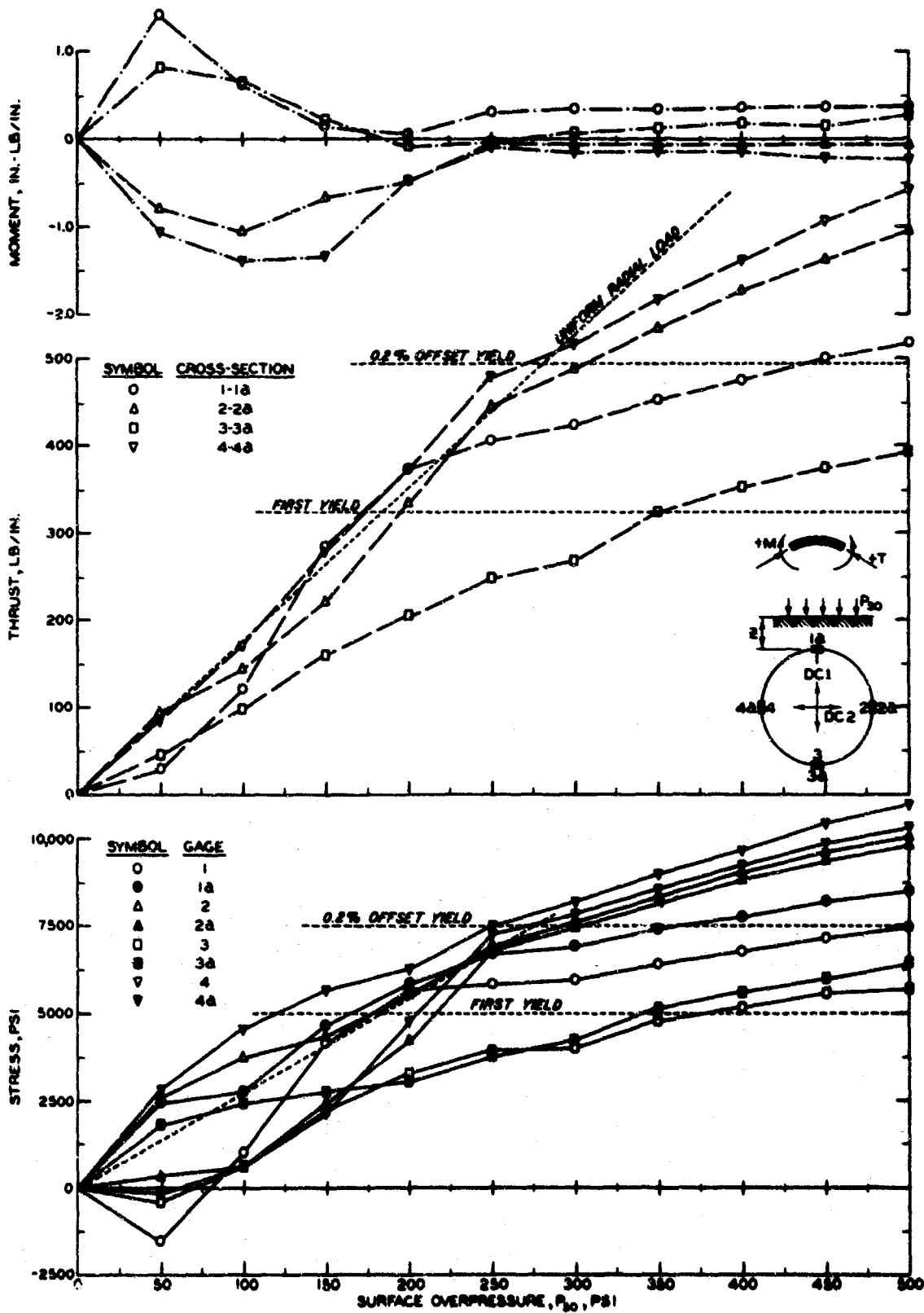


Fig. 5.10 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test A-7 ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

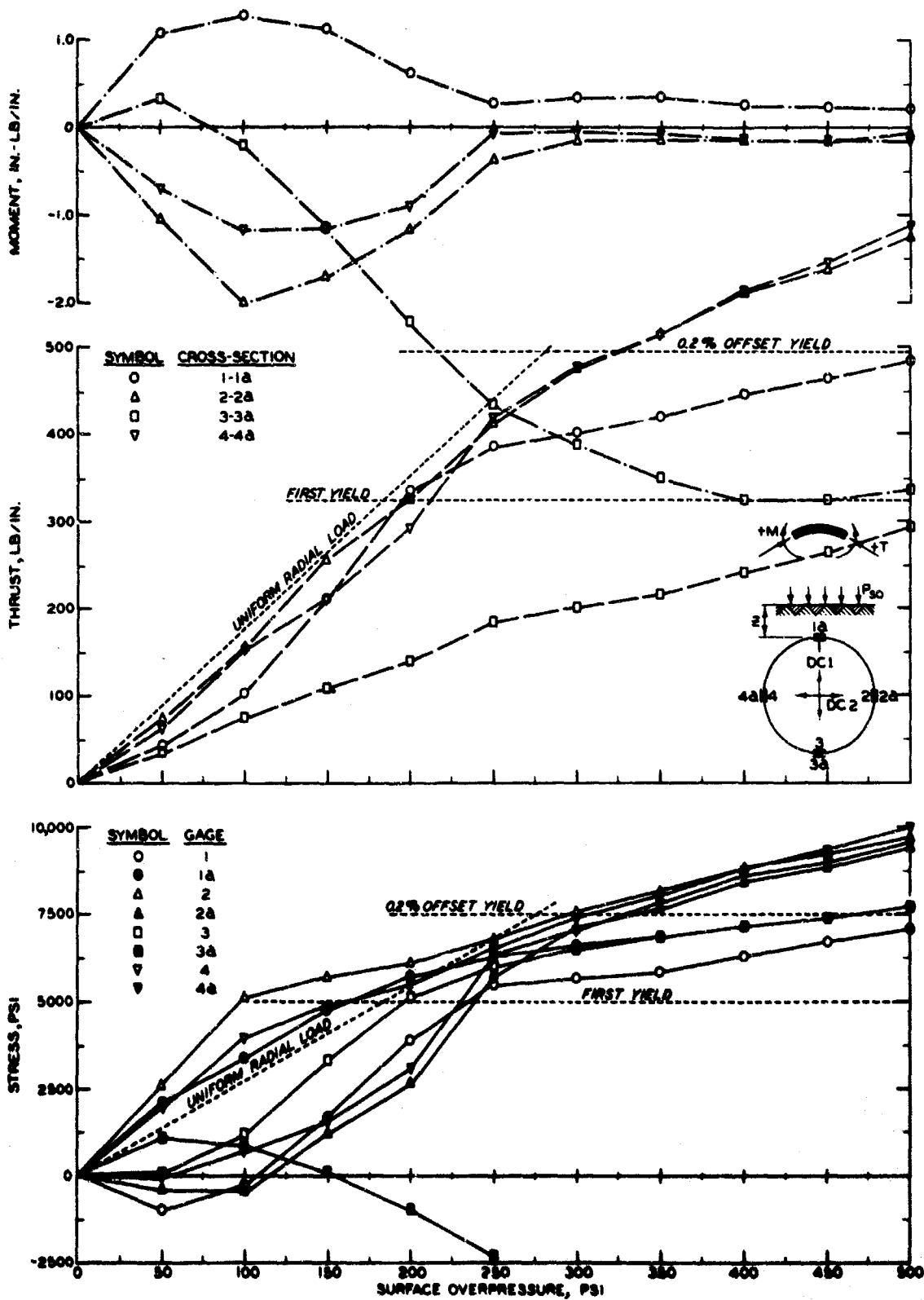


Fig. 5.11 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test A-6 ($Z = 1-3/4$ in.)

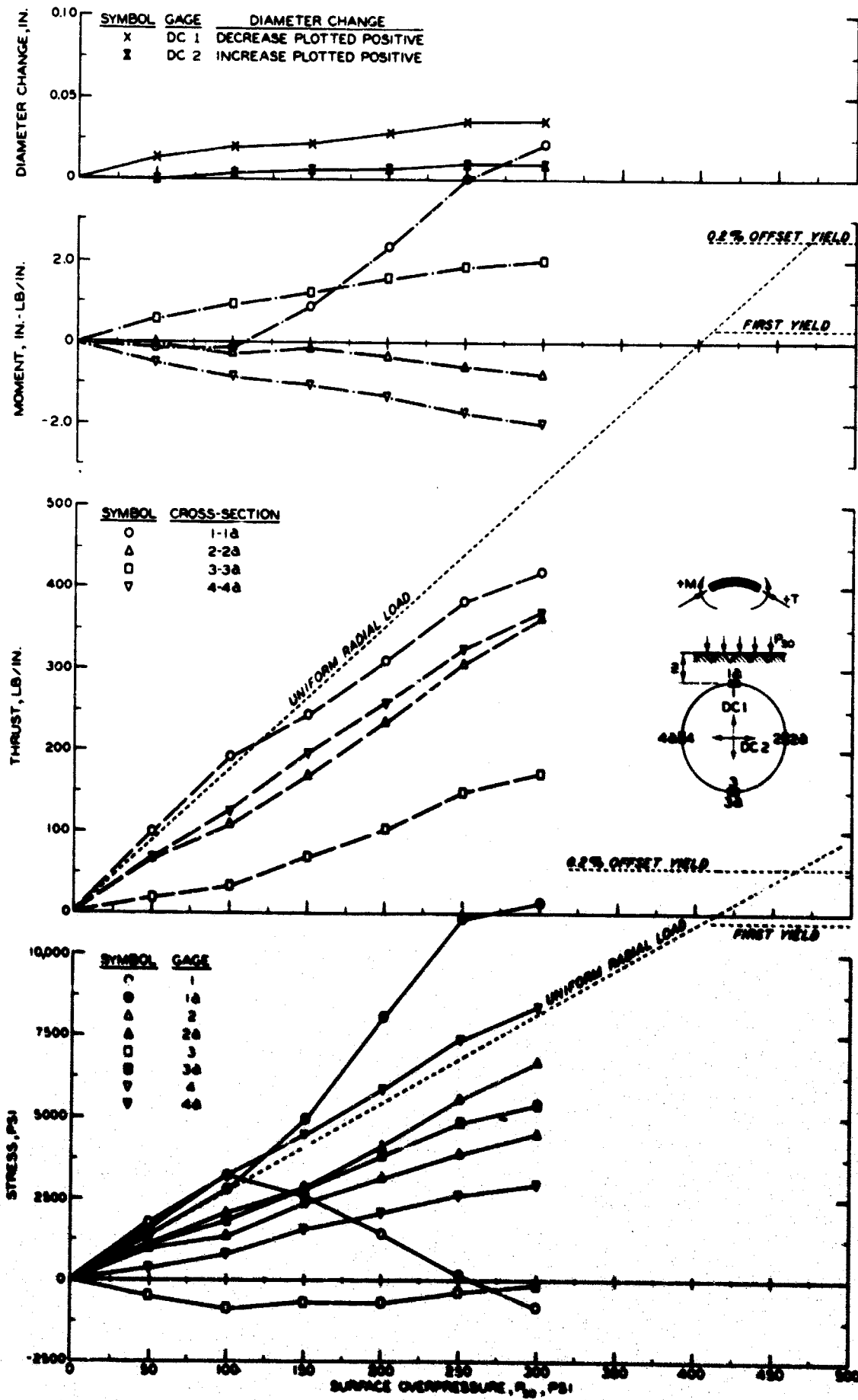


Fig. 5.12 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test B-1A ($Z = 0$ in.)

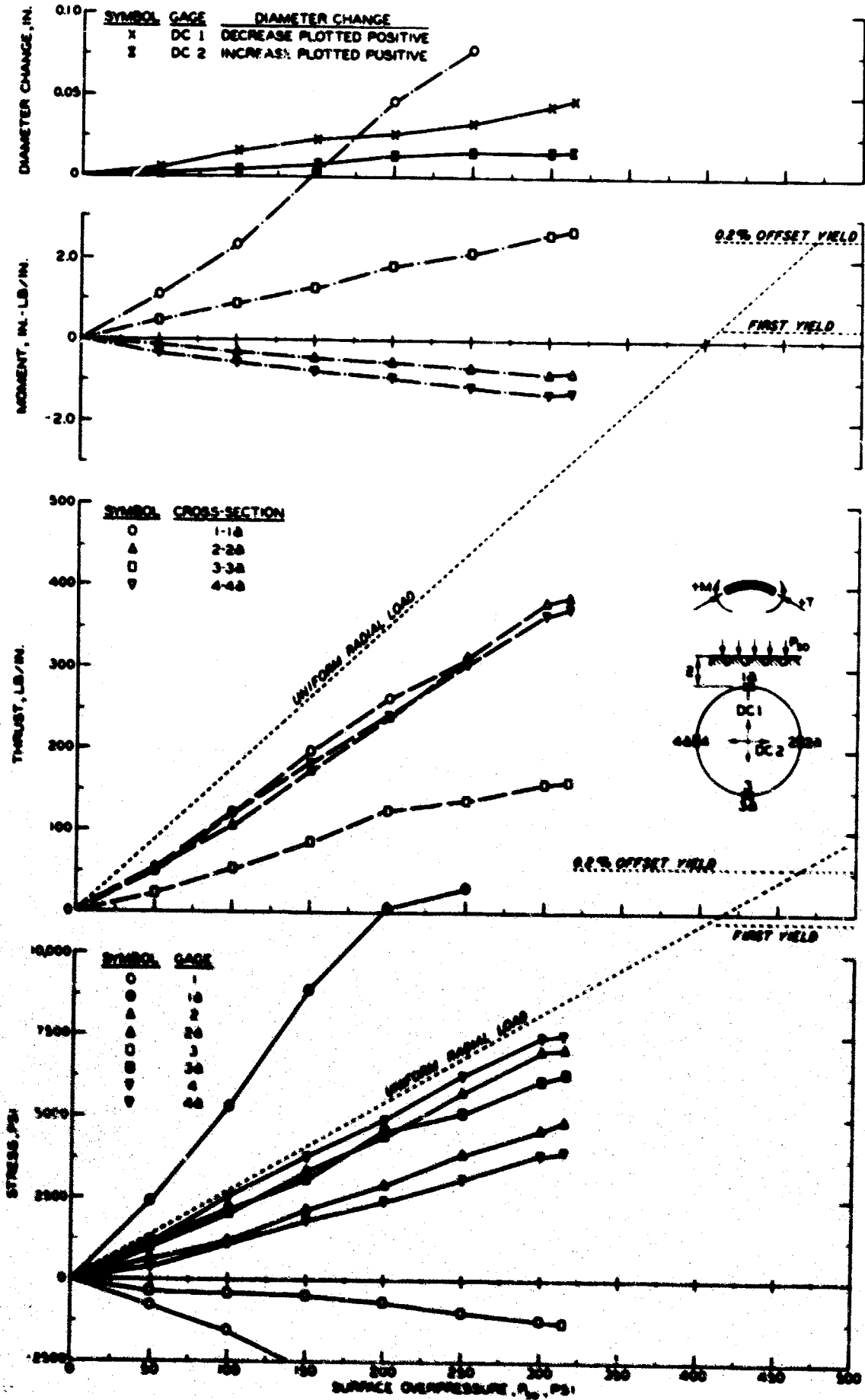


Fig. 5.13 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test B-1B (Z = 0 in.)

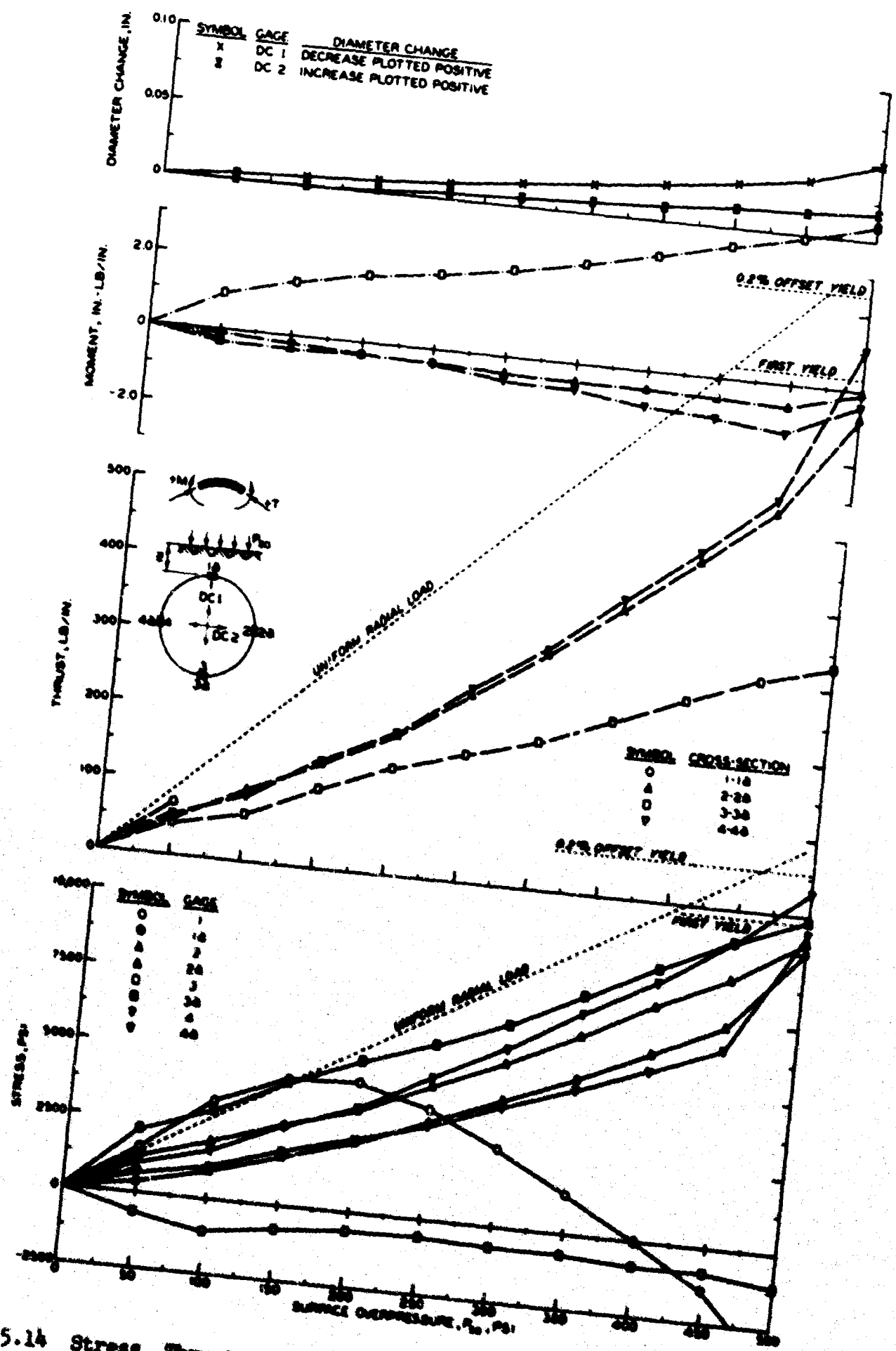


Fig. 5.14 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test B-5 ($Z = 7/16$ in.)

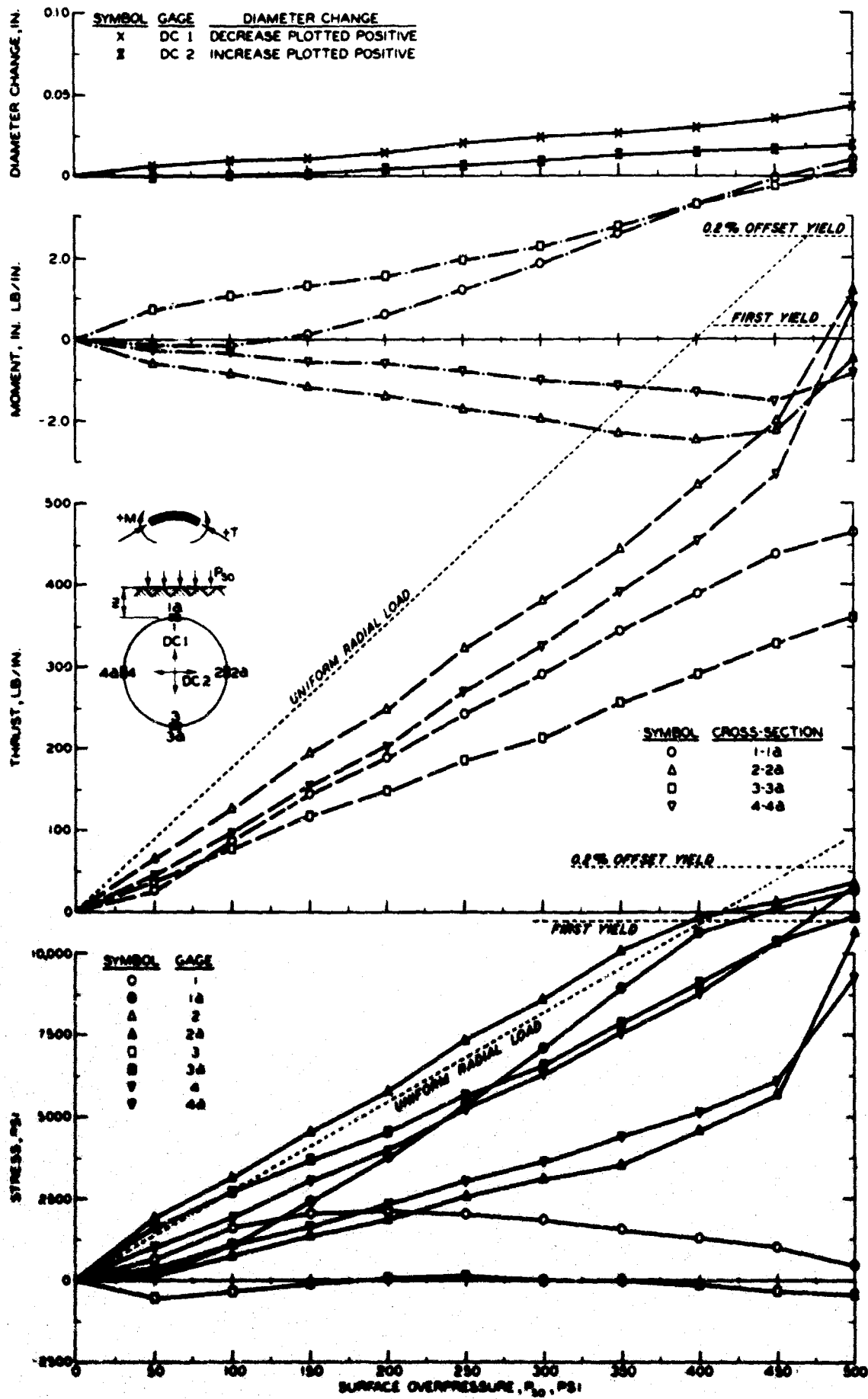


Fig. 5.15 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test B-2 ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

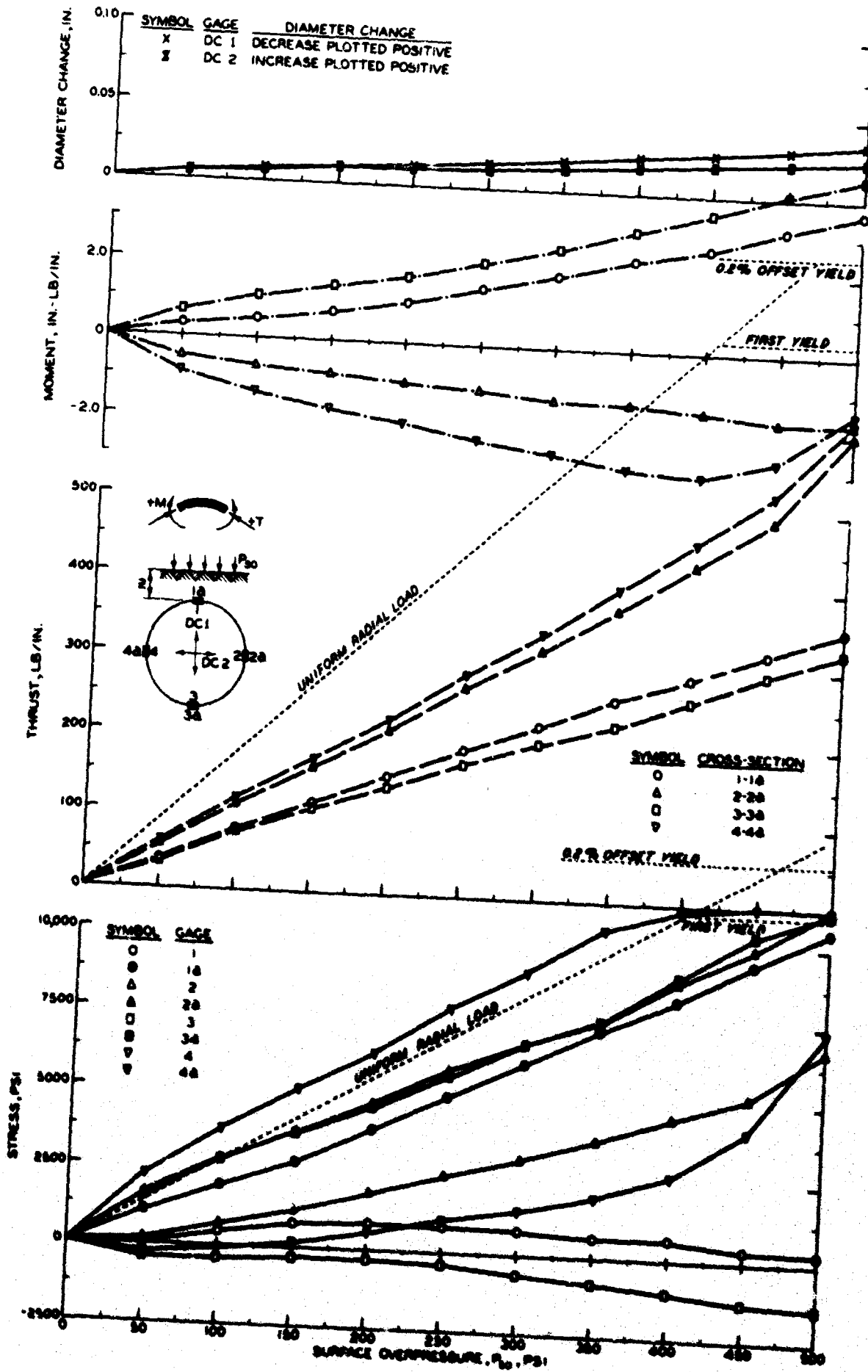


Fig. 5.16 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test B-3 (Z = 1-3/4 in.)

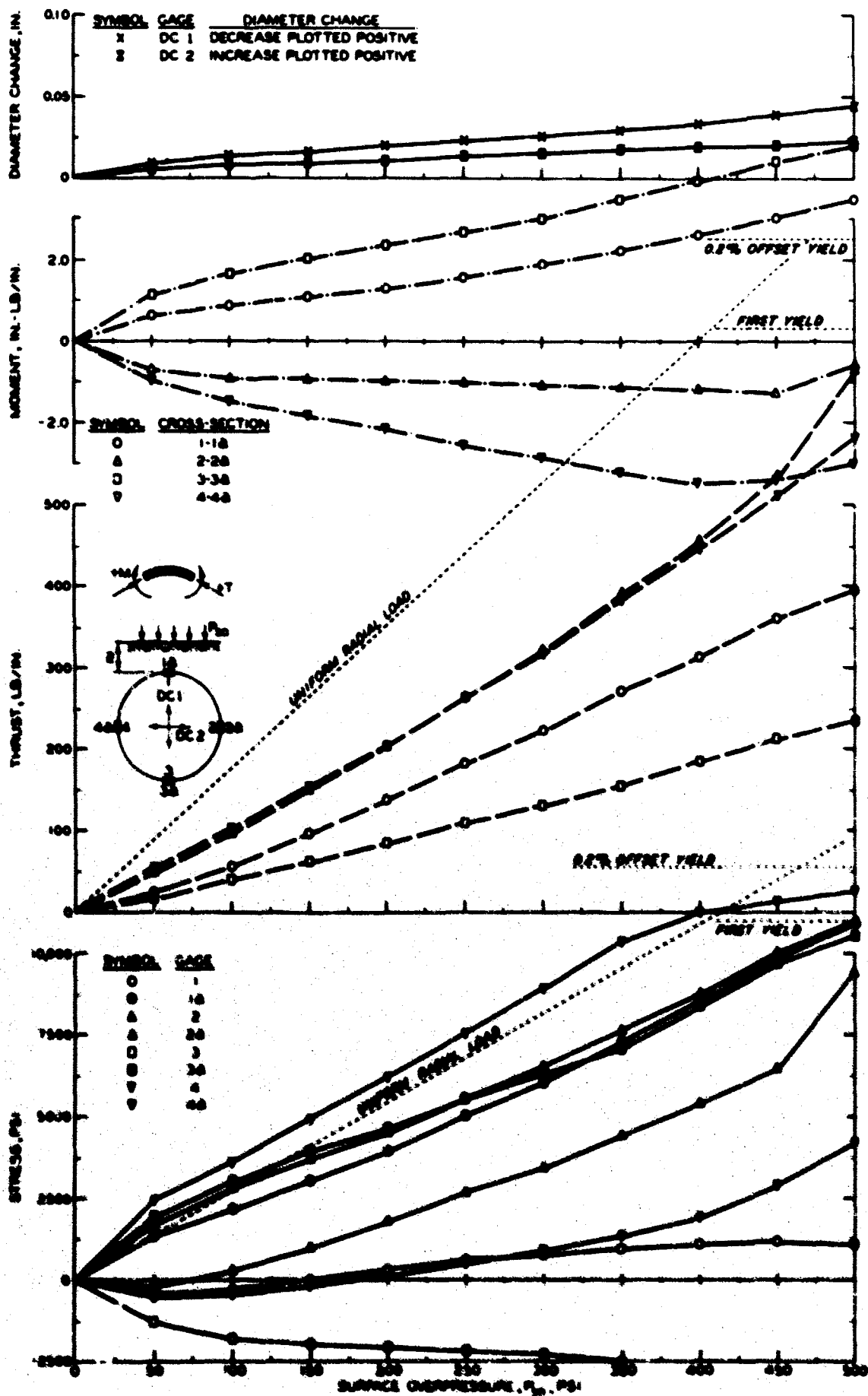


Fig. 5.17 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test B-4 ($Z = 2-5/8$ in.)

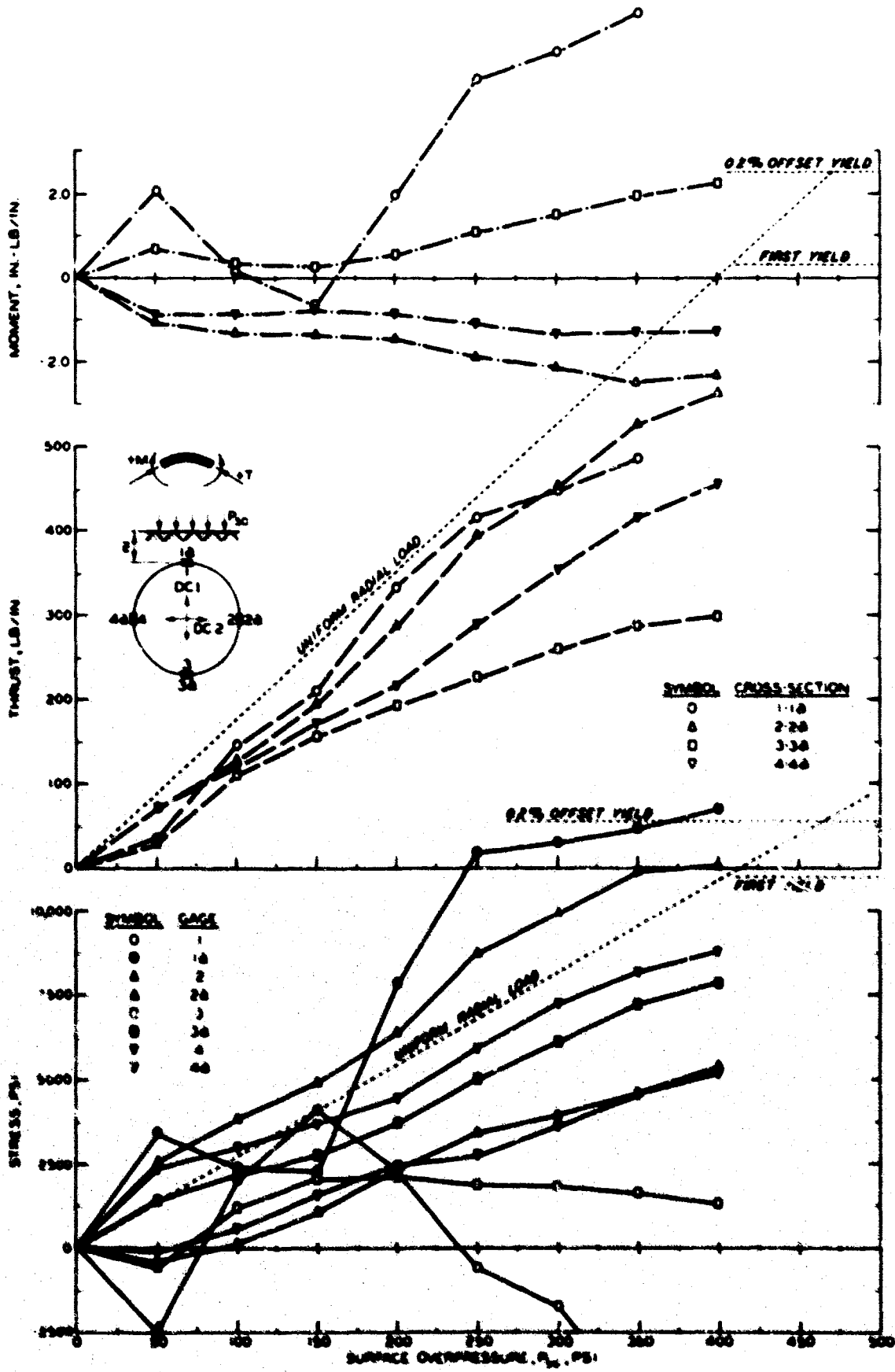


Fig. 5.18 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test B-6 ($Z = 0$ in.)

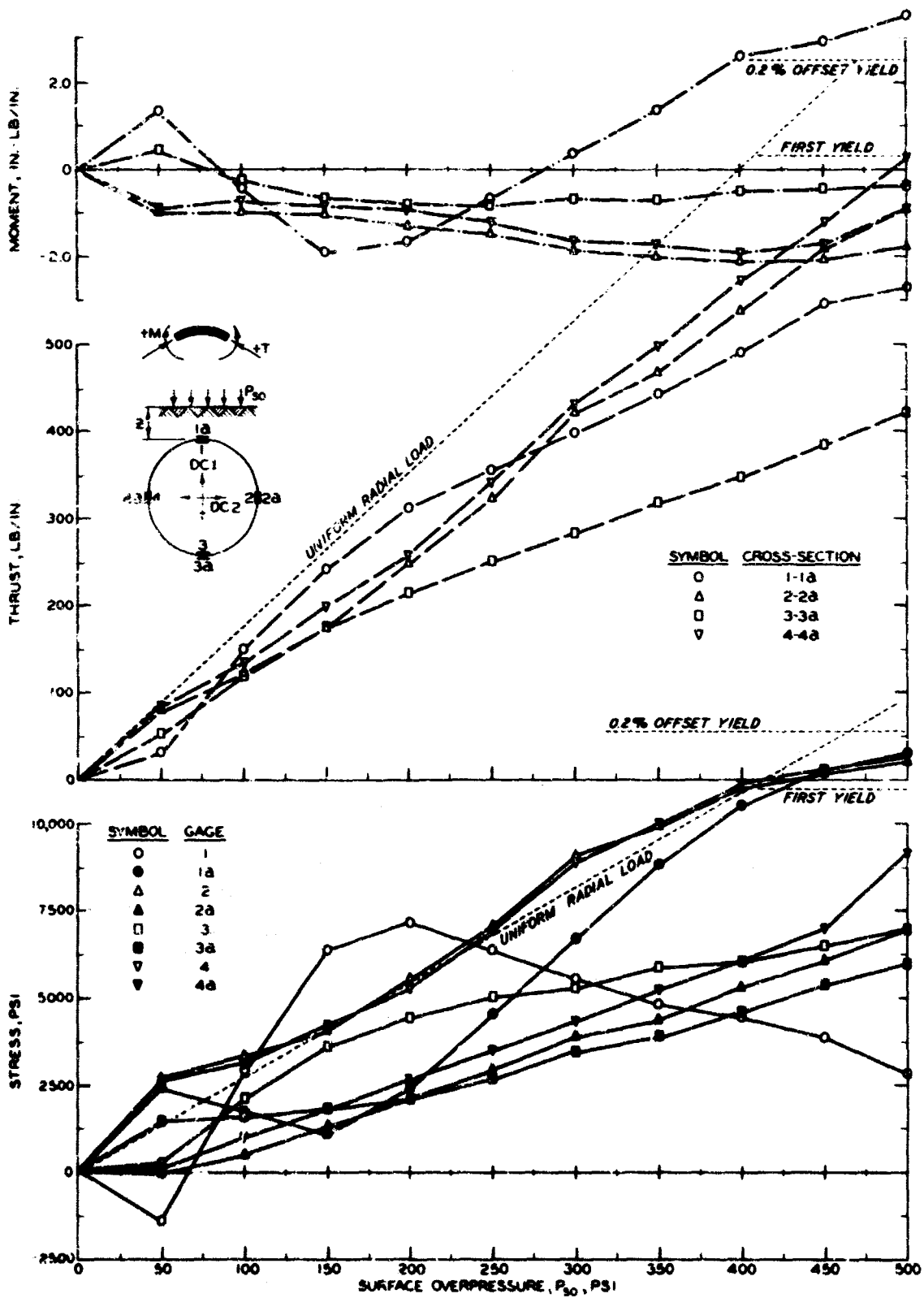


Fig. 5.19 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test B-7 ($Z = 7/16$ in.)

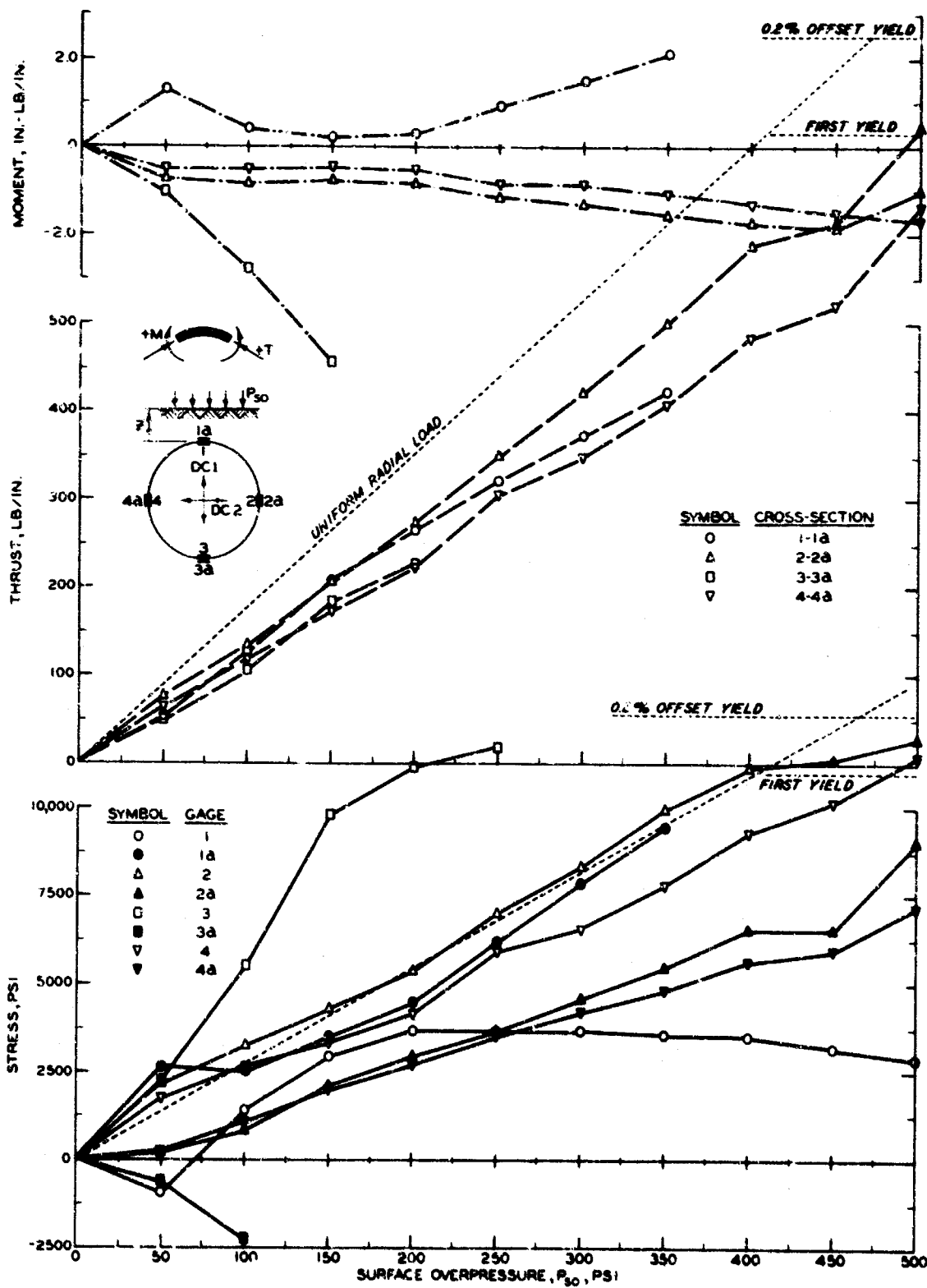


Fig. 5.20 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test B-8 ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

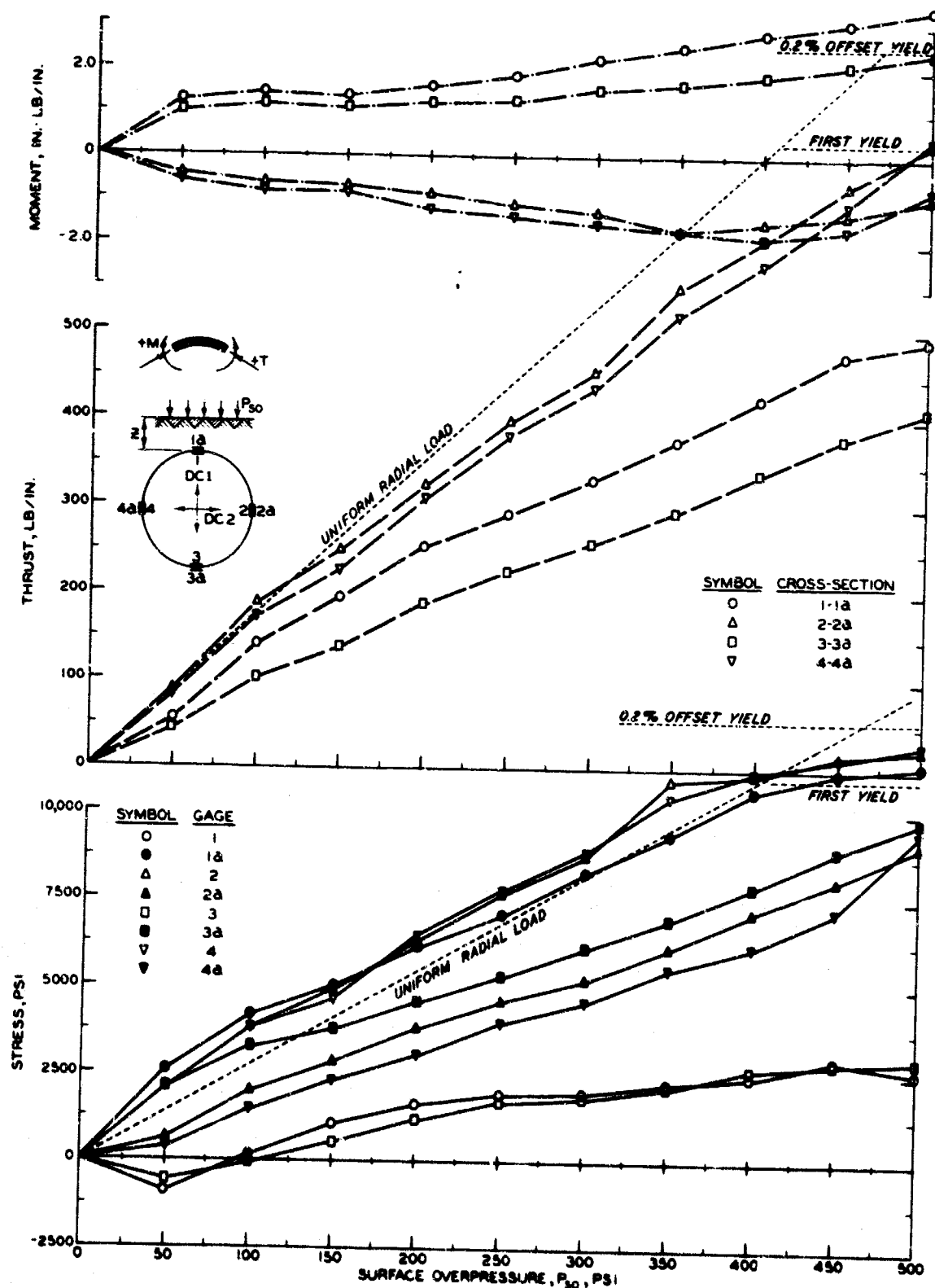


Fig. 5.21 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test B-9 ($Z = 1-3/4$ in.)

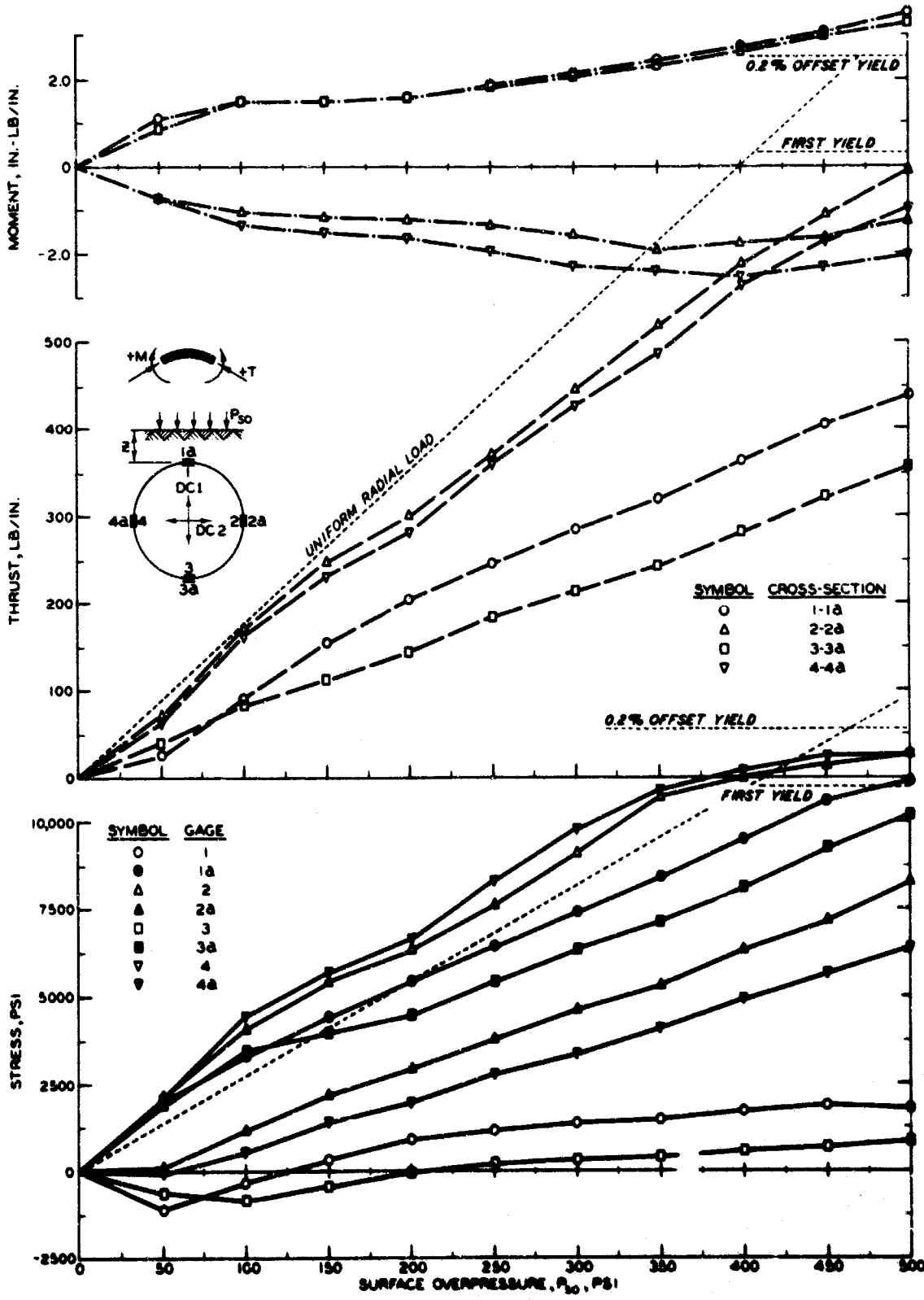


Fig. 5.22 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test B-10 ($Z = 2-5/8$ in.)

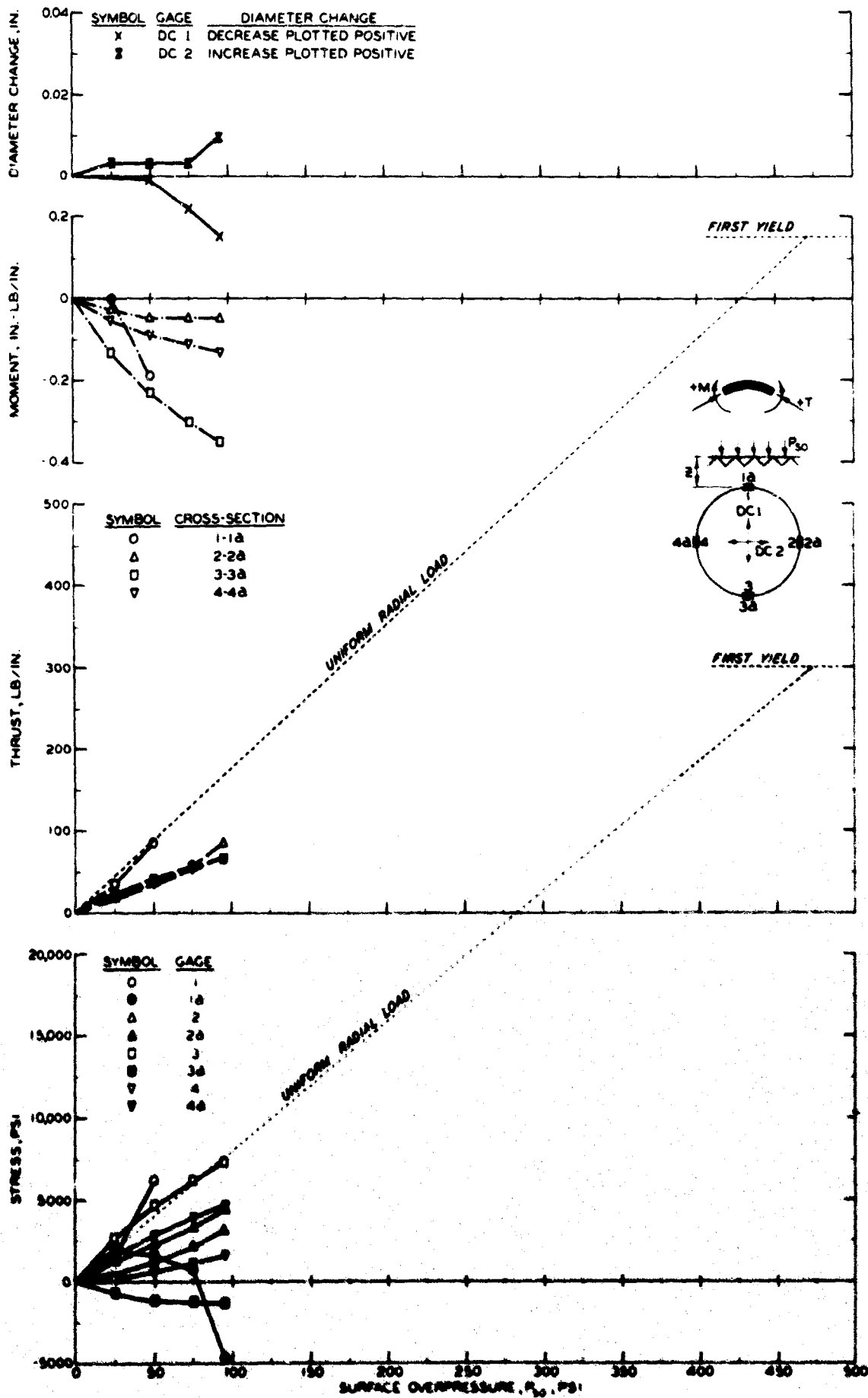


Fig. 5.23 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test C-1 ($Z = 0$ in.)

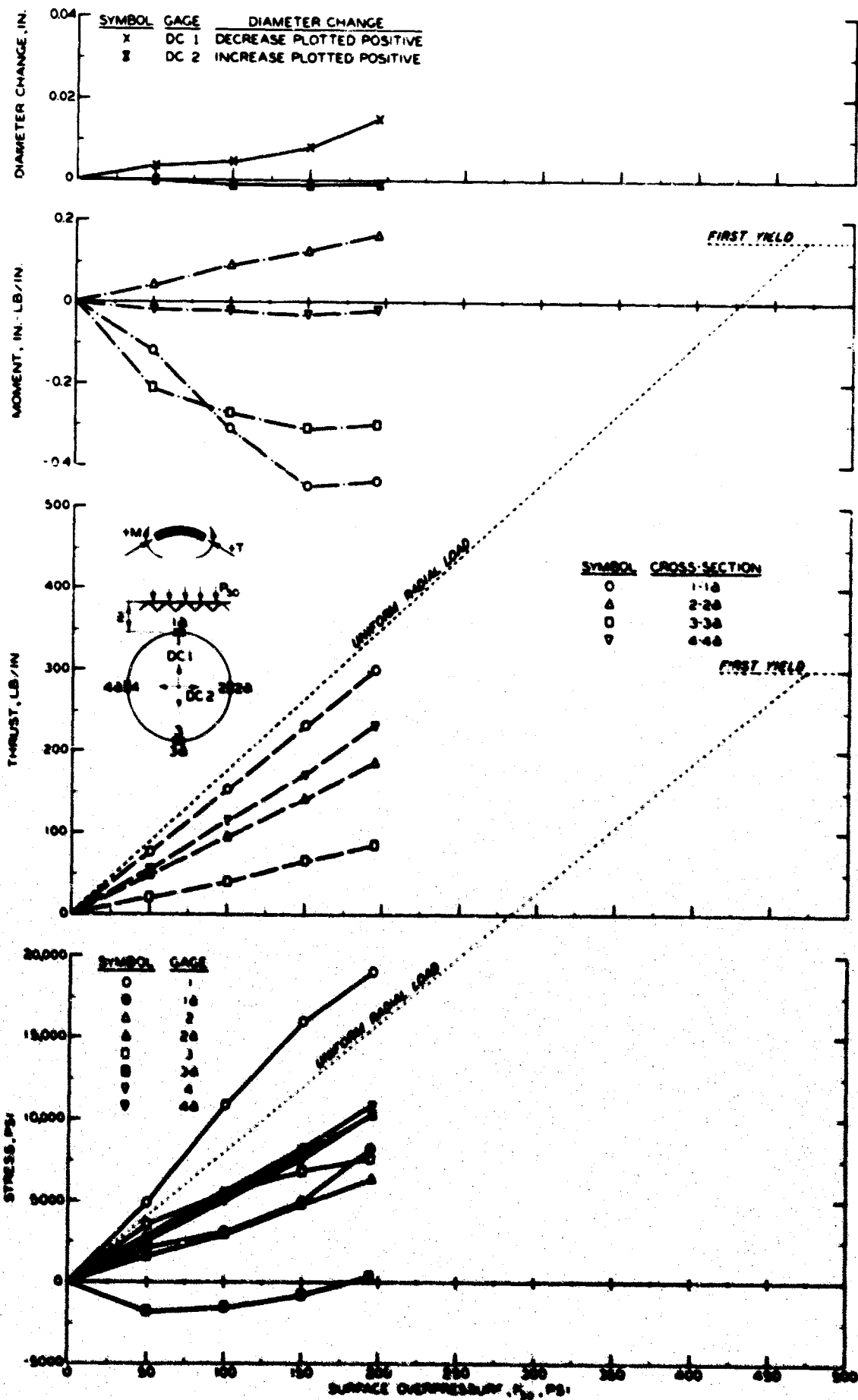


Fig. 5.24 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test C-4 ($Z = 3/16$ in.)

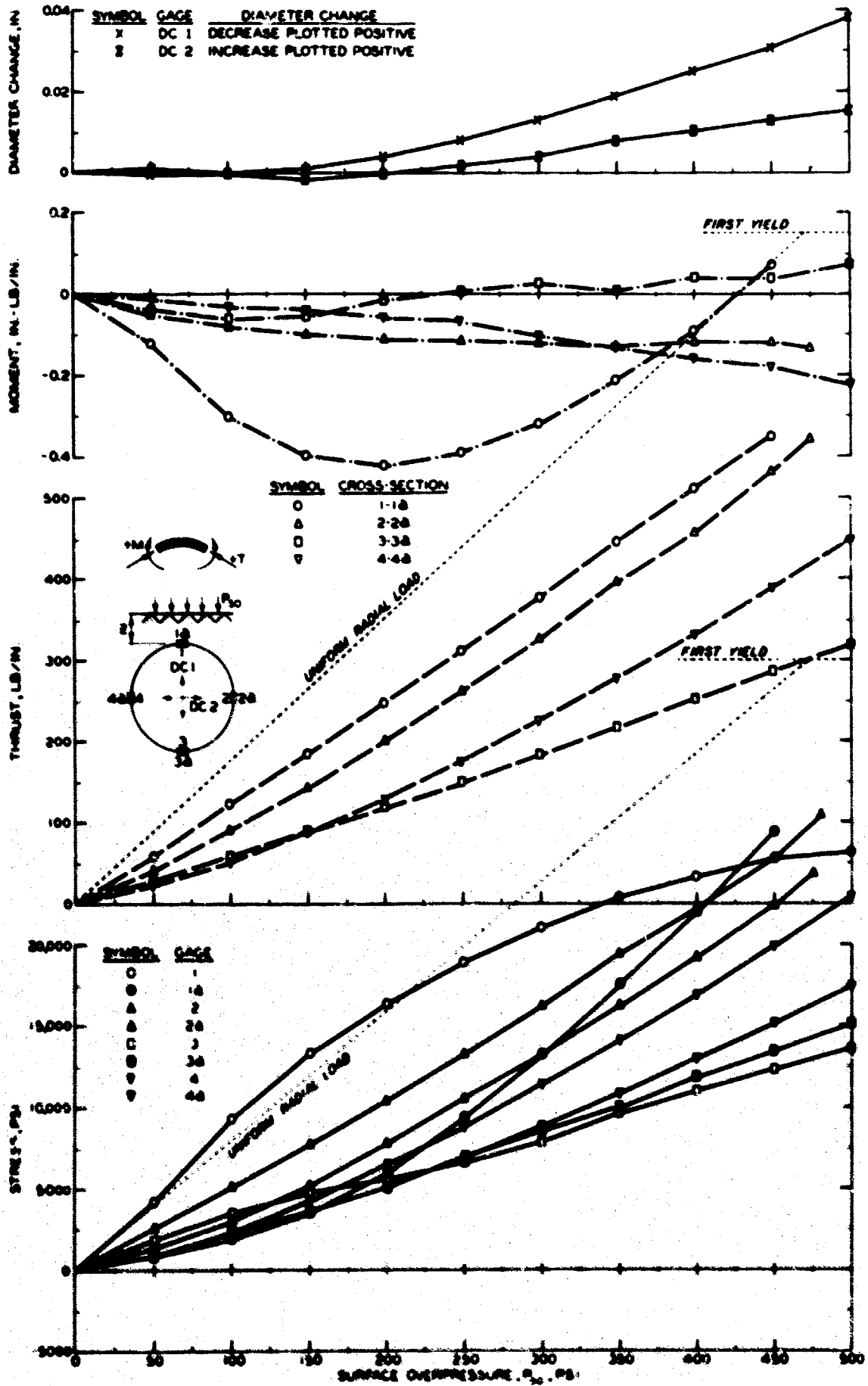


Fig. 5.25 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test C-5 (2 = 5/16 in.)

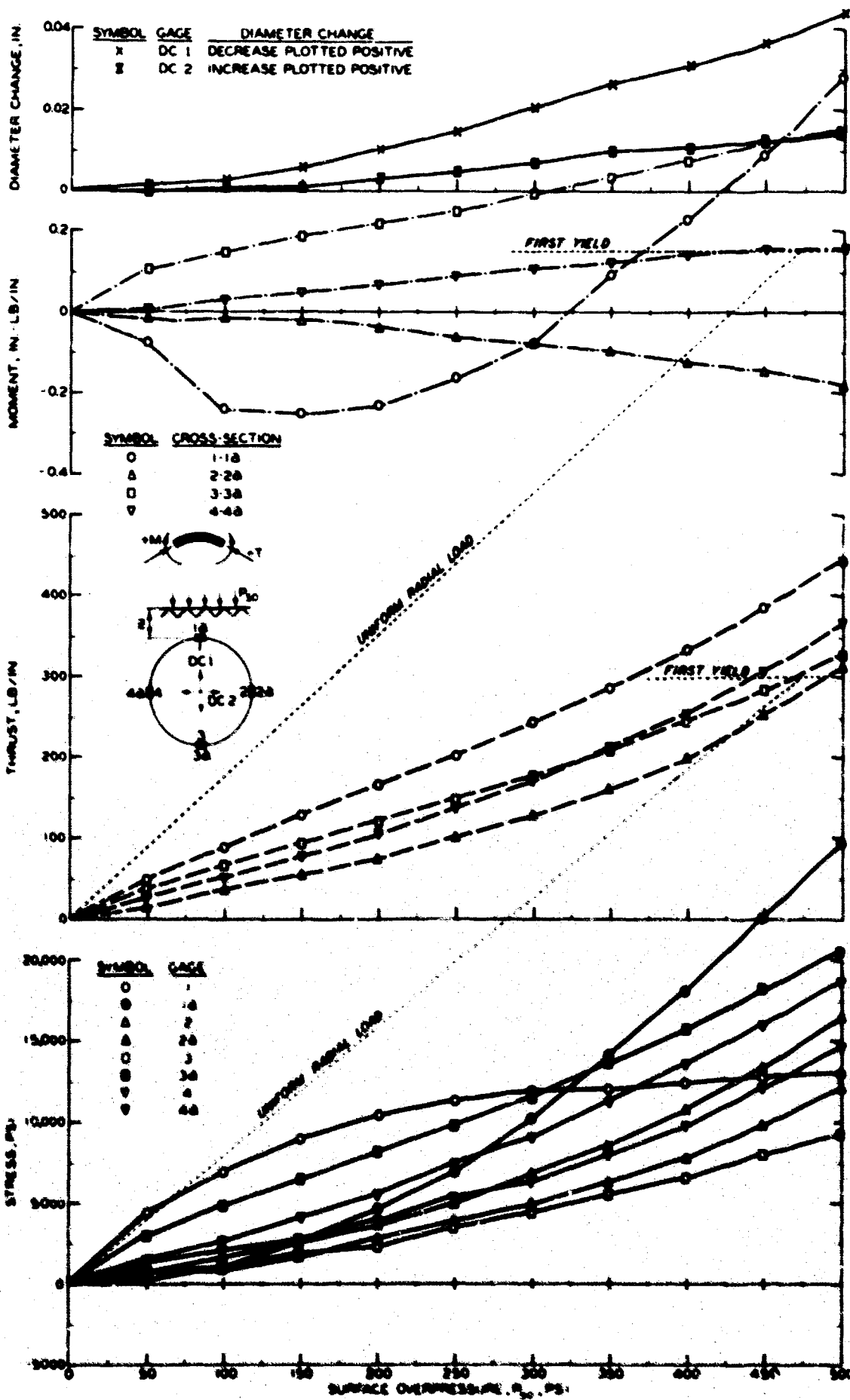


Fig. 5.26 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test C-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.)

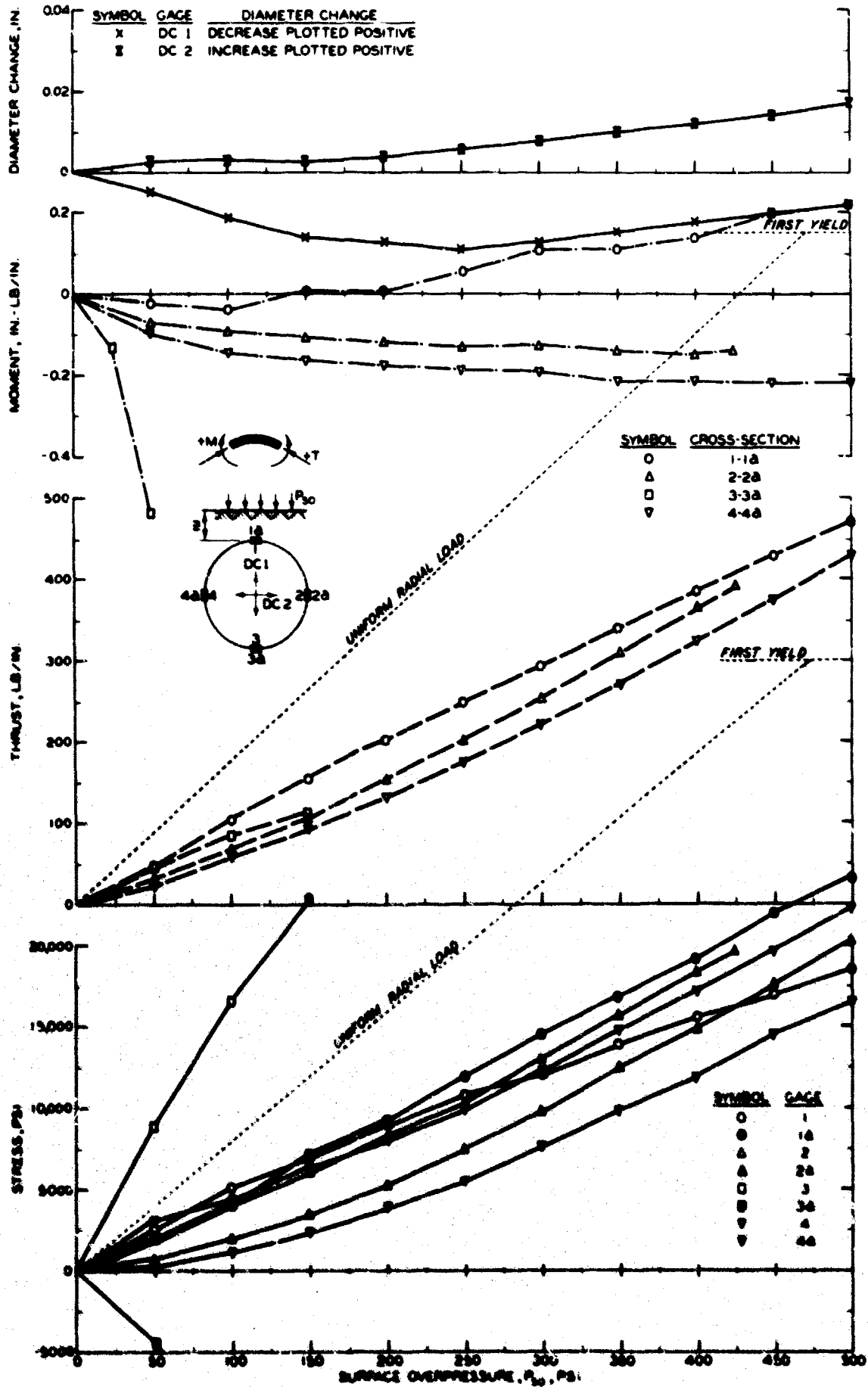


Fig. 5.27 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test C-3 ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

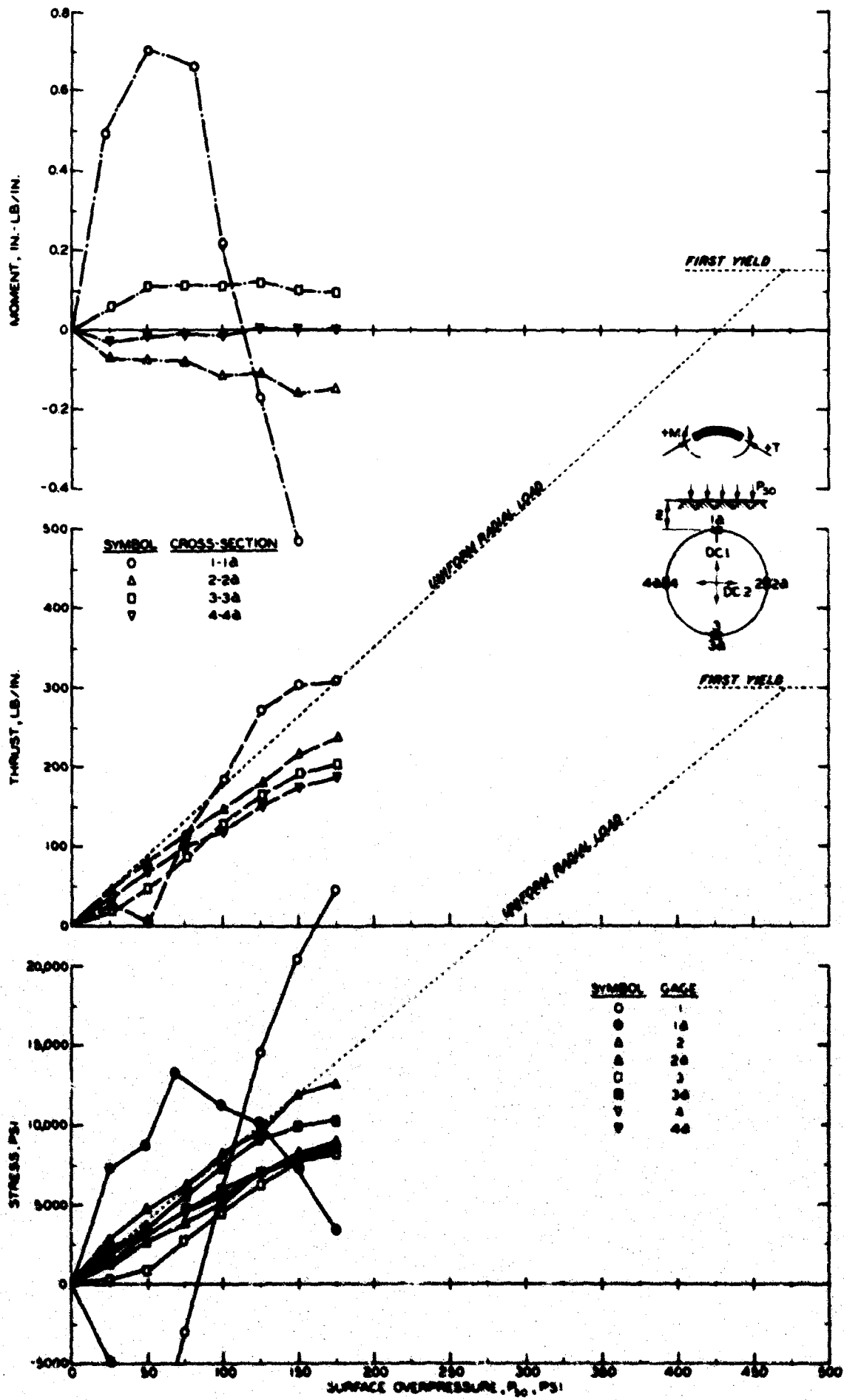


Fig. 5.28 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test C-6 ($Z = 0$ in.)

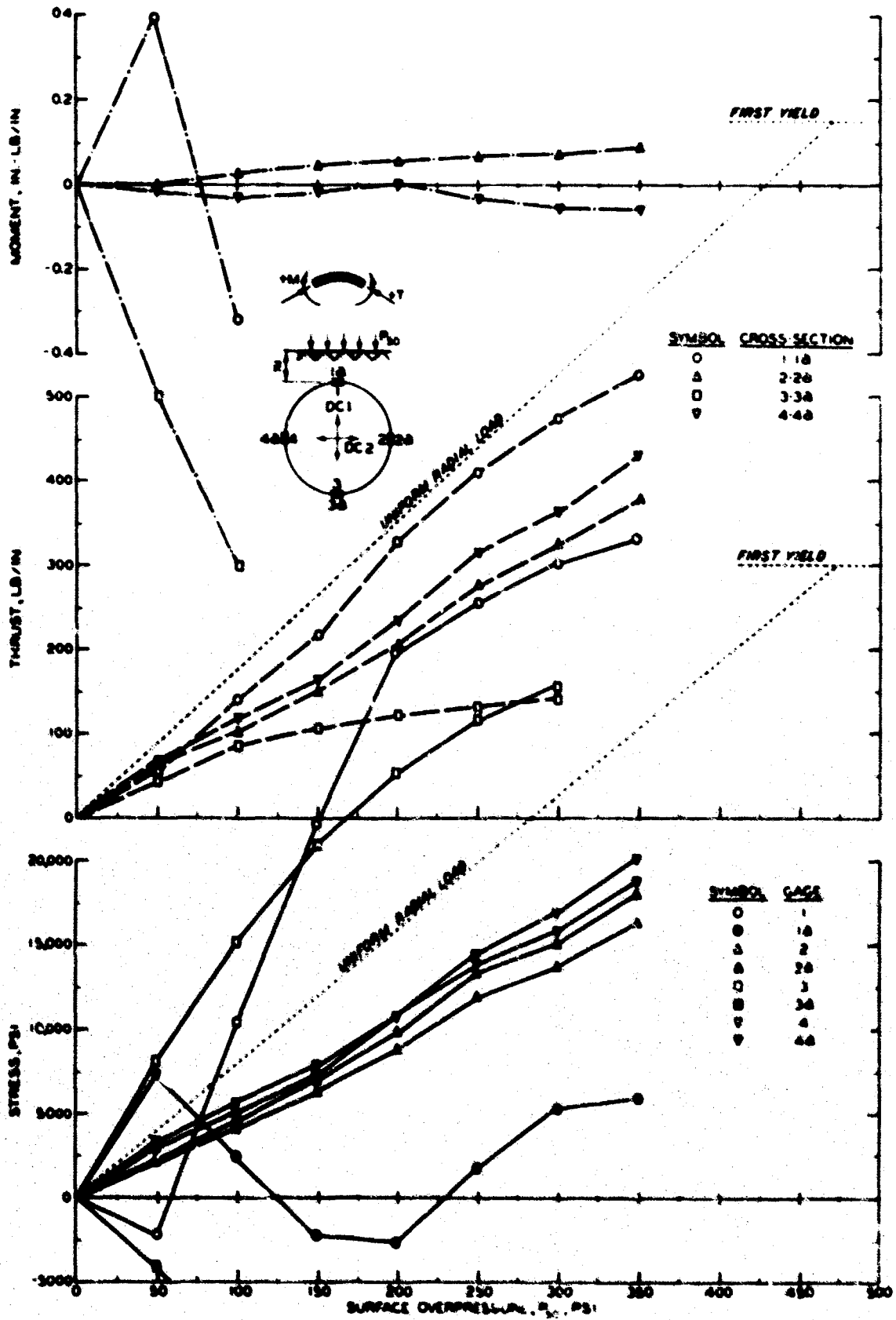


Fig. 5.29 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test C-7 ($Z = 3/16$ in.)

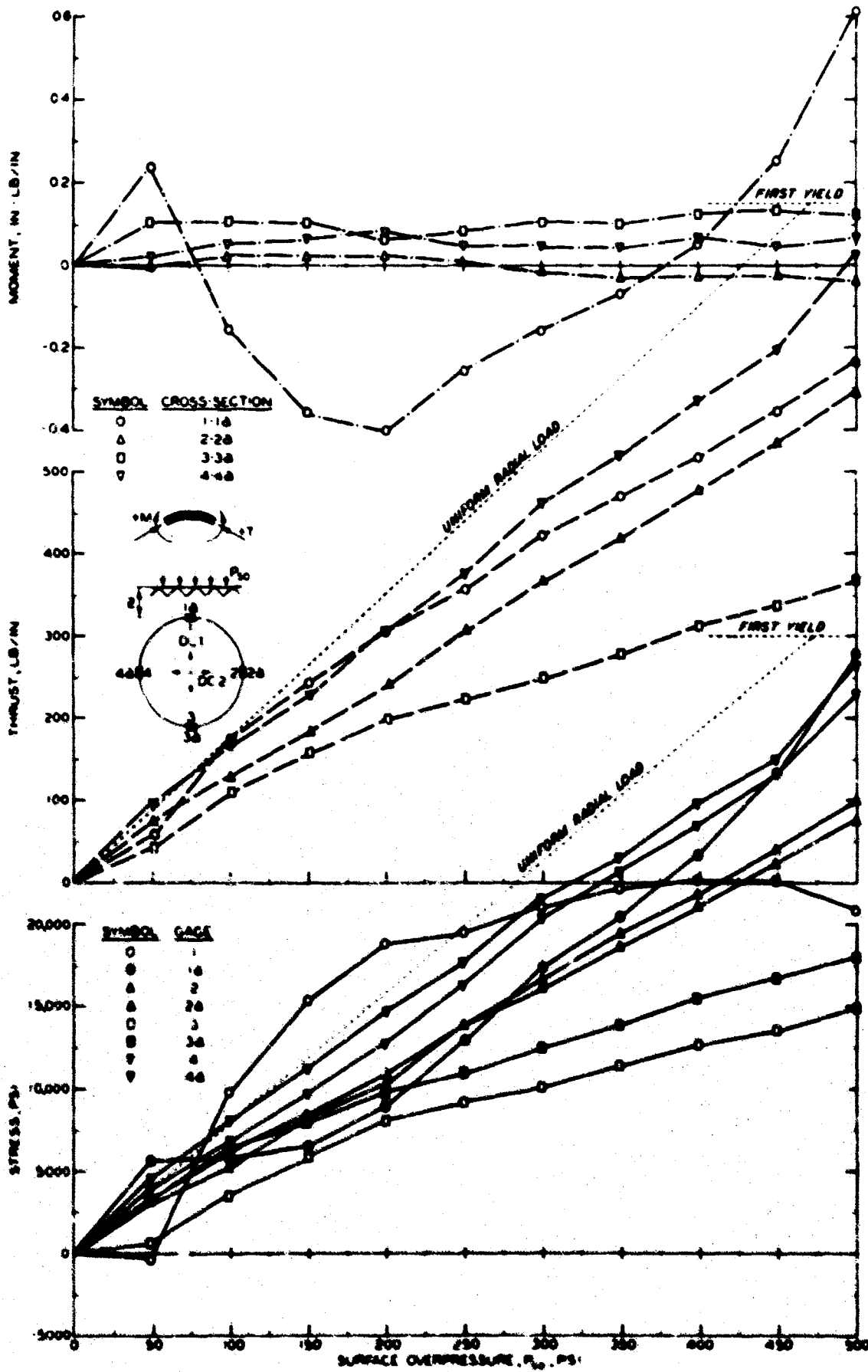


Fig. 5.30 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test C-8 (Z = 5/16 in.)

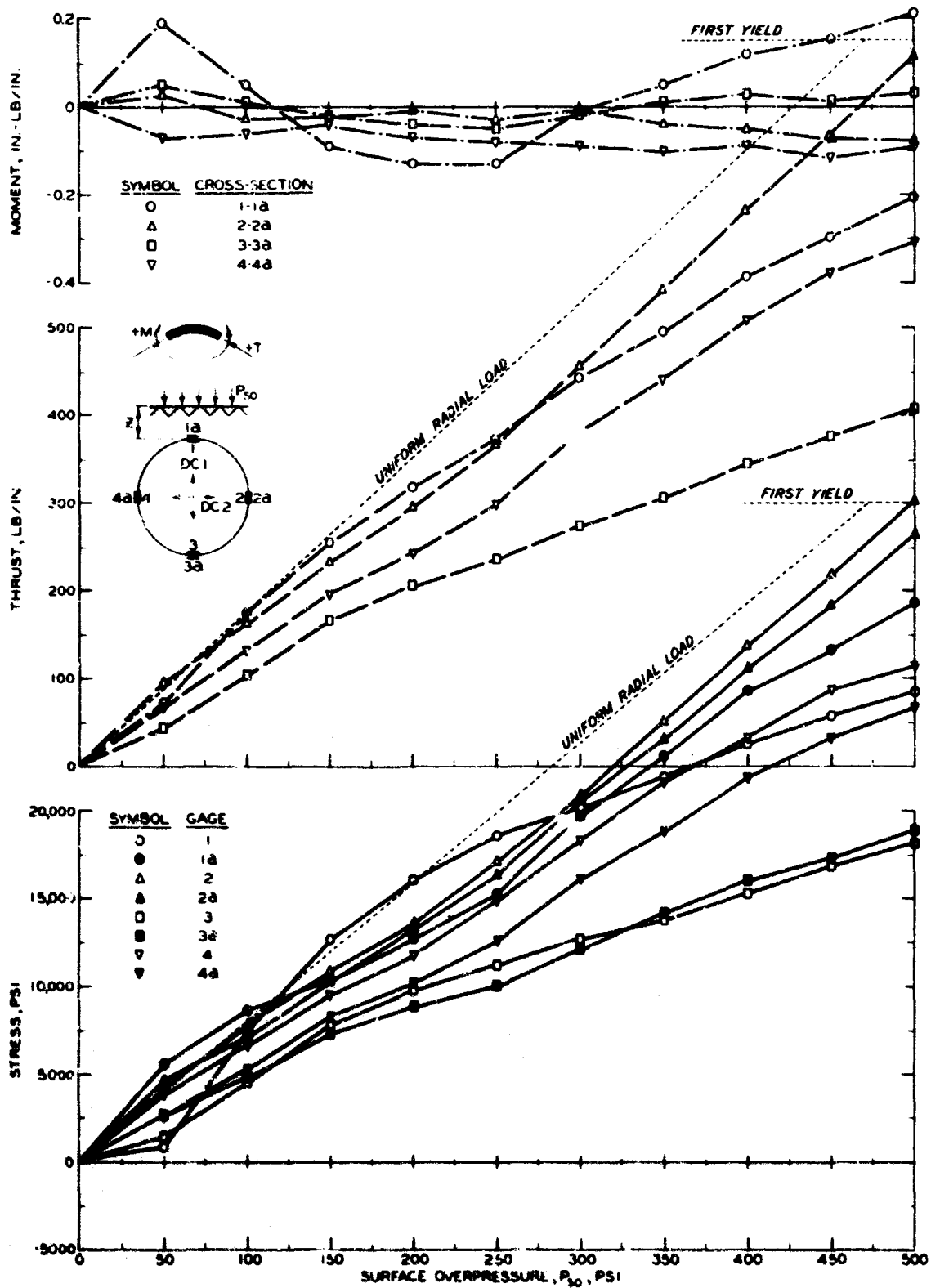


Fig. 5.31 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test C-9 ($Z = 7/16$ in.)

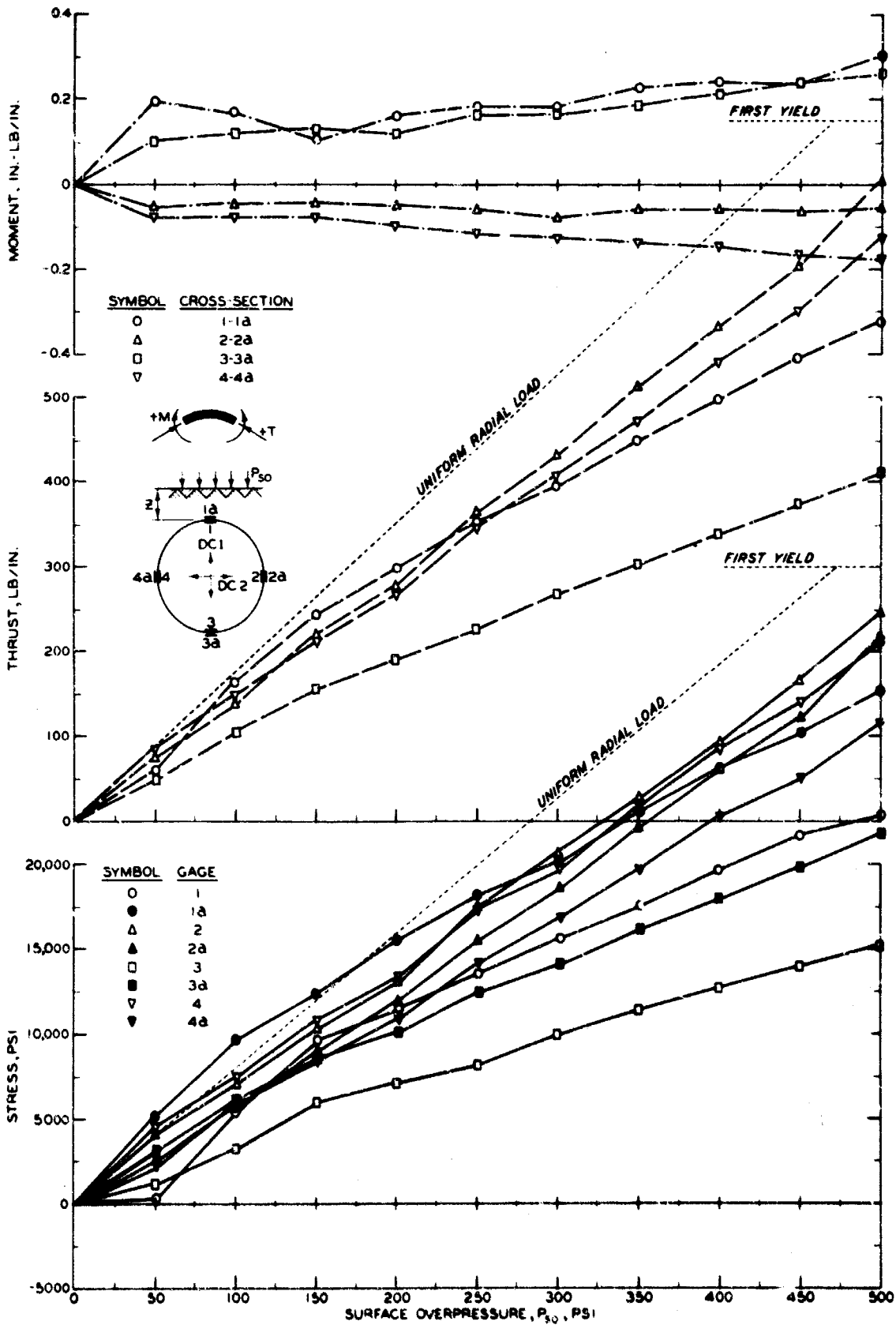
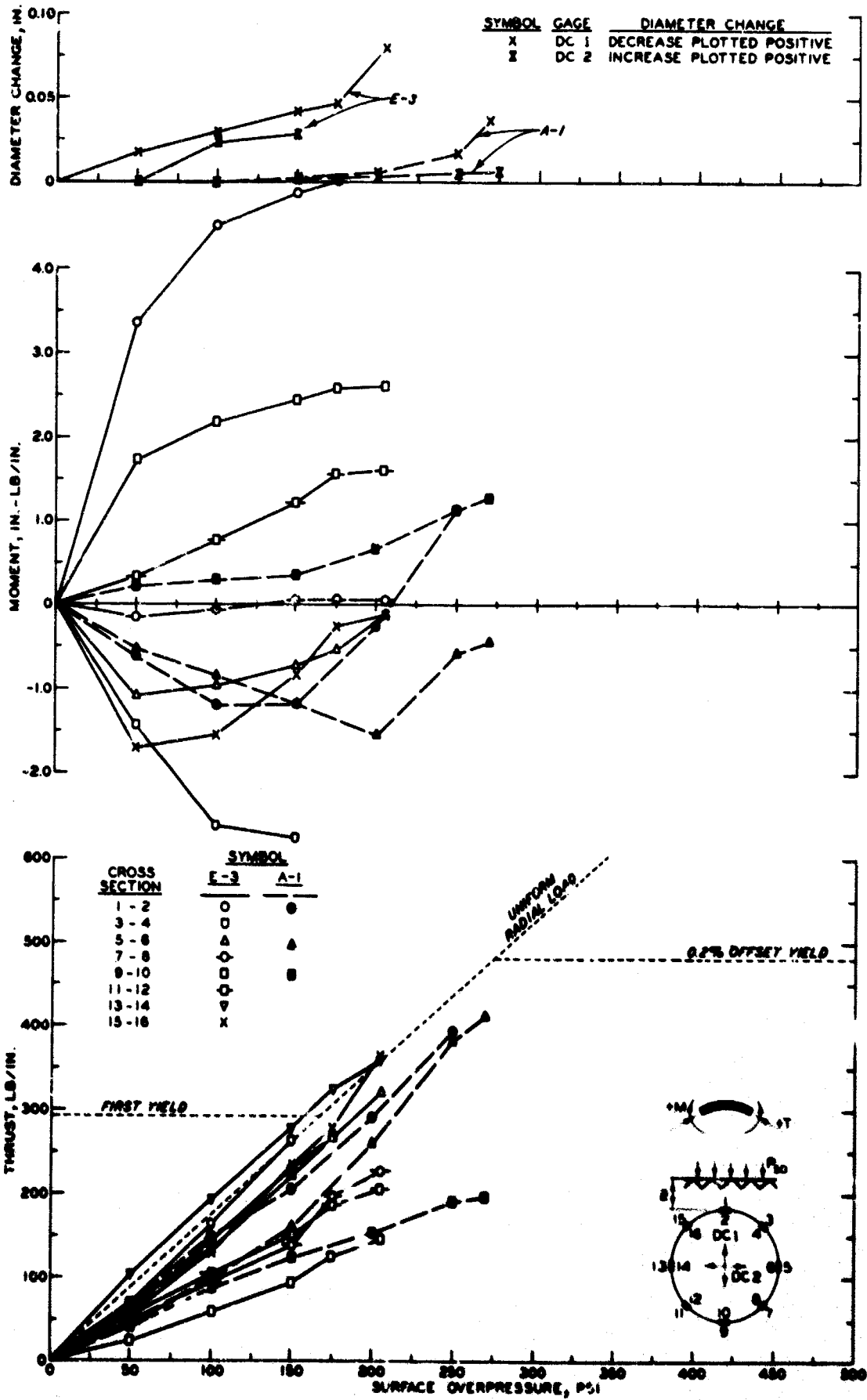


Fig. 5.32 Stress, Thrust, and Moment, Test C-10 ($Z = 7/8$ in.)



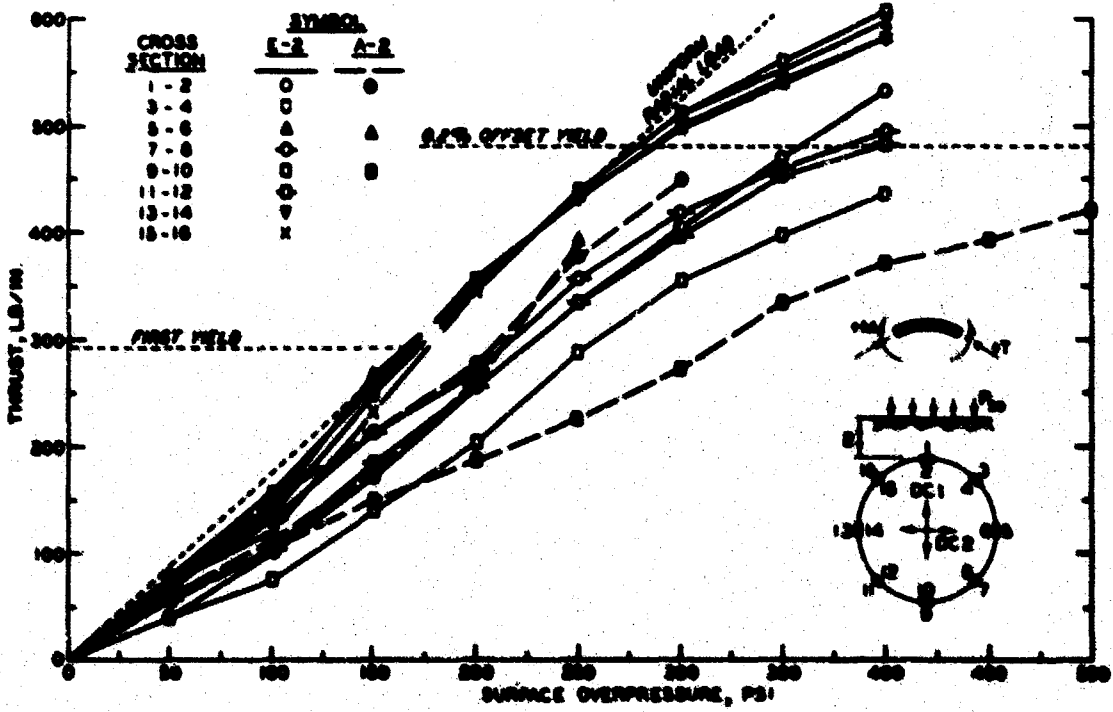
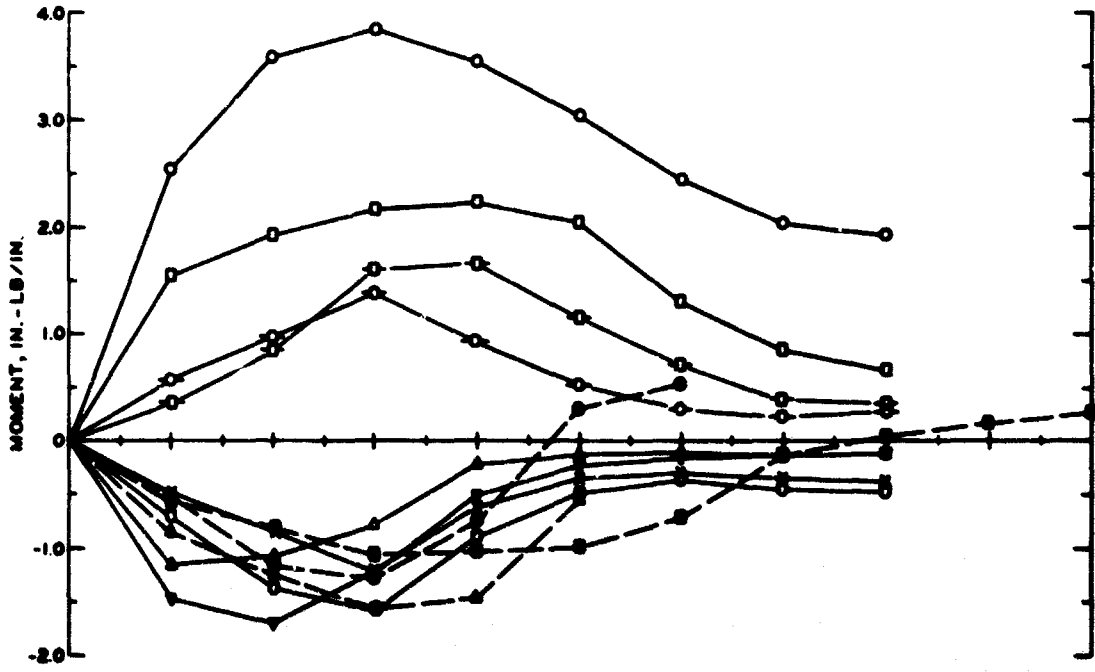
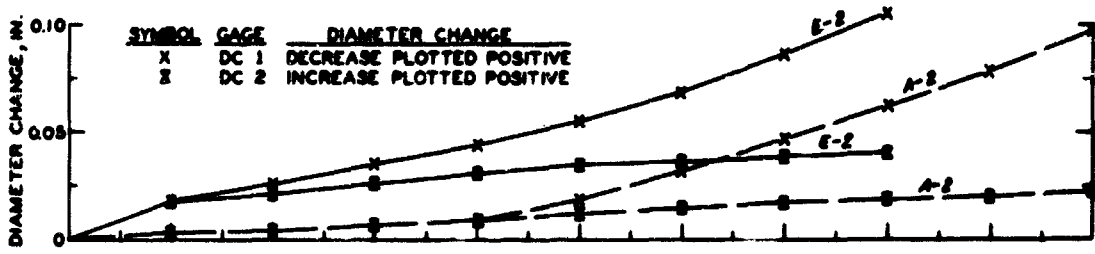


Fig. 5.34 Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test E-2 (Z = 7/16 in.)

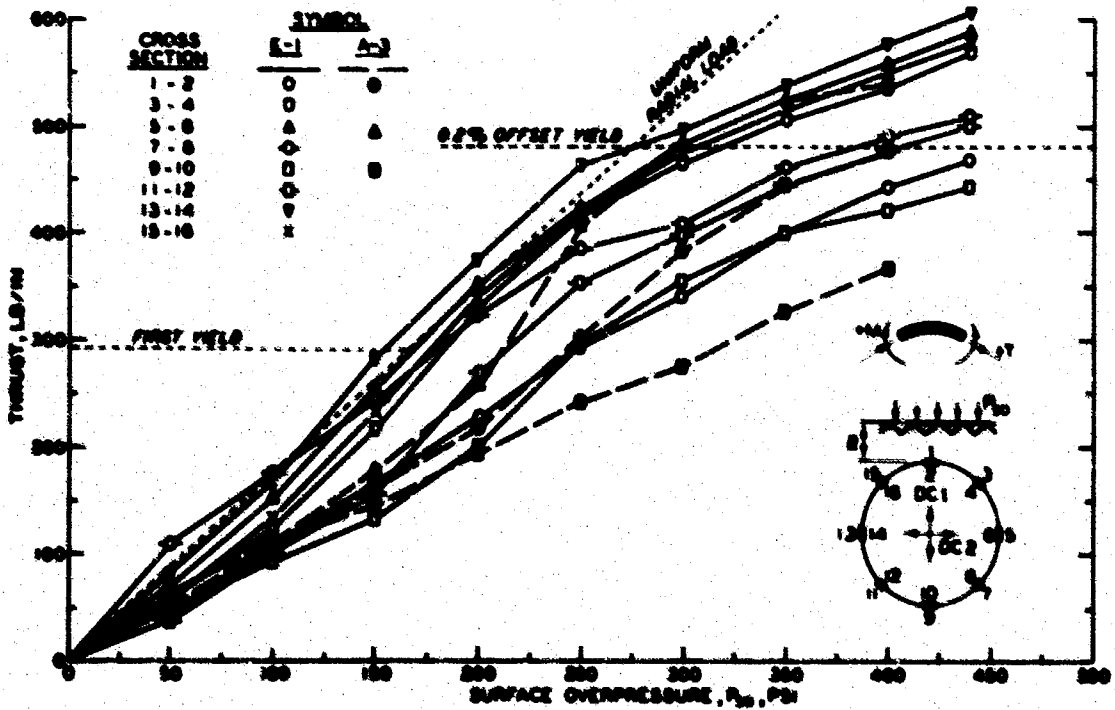
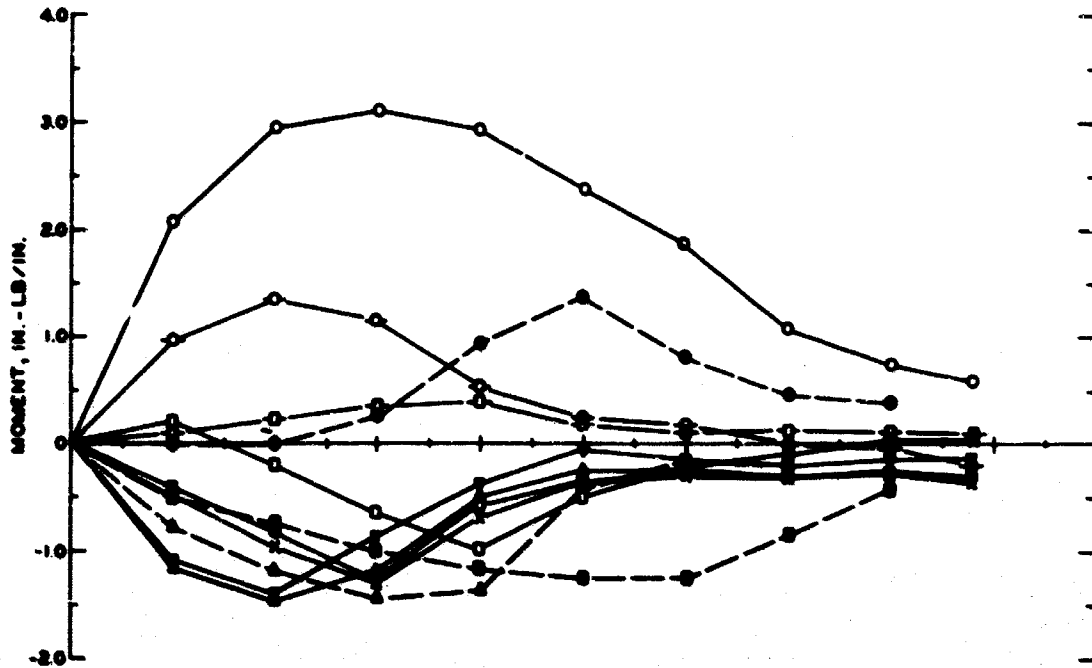
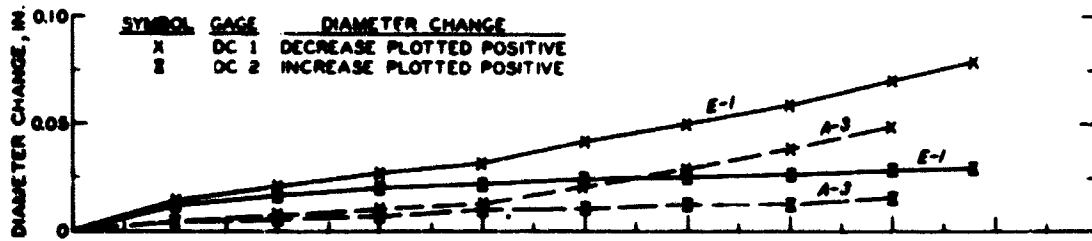


Fig. 5.35 Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test E-1 ($Z = 7/8$ in.)

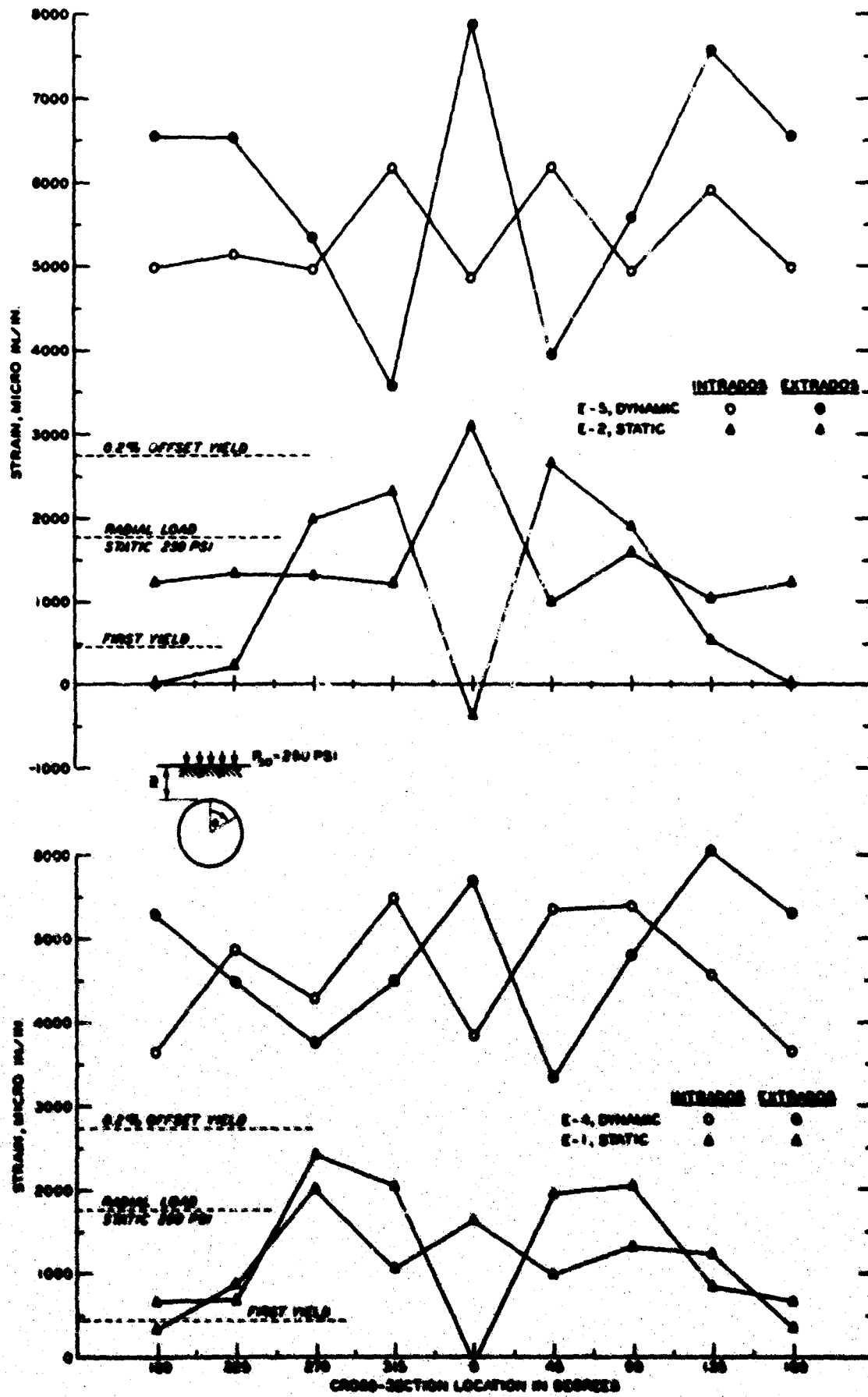


Fig. 5.36 Strain, Test E-5 (Z = 7/16 in.) and Test E-4 (Z = 7/8 in.); Surface Overpressure = 250 psi

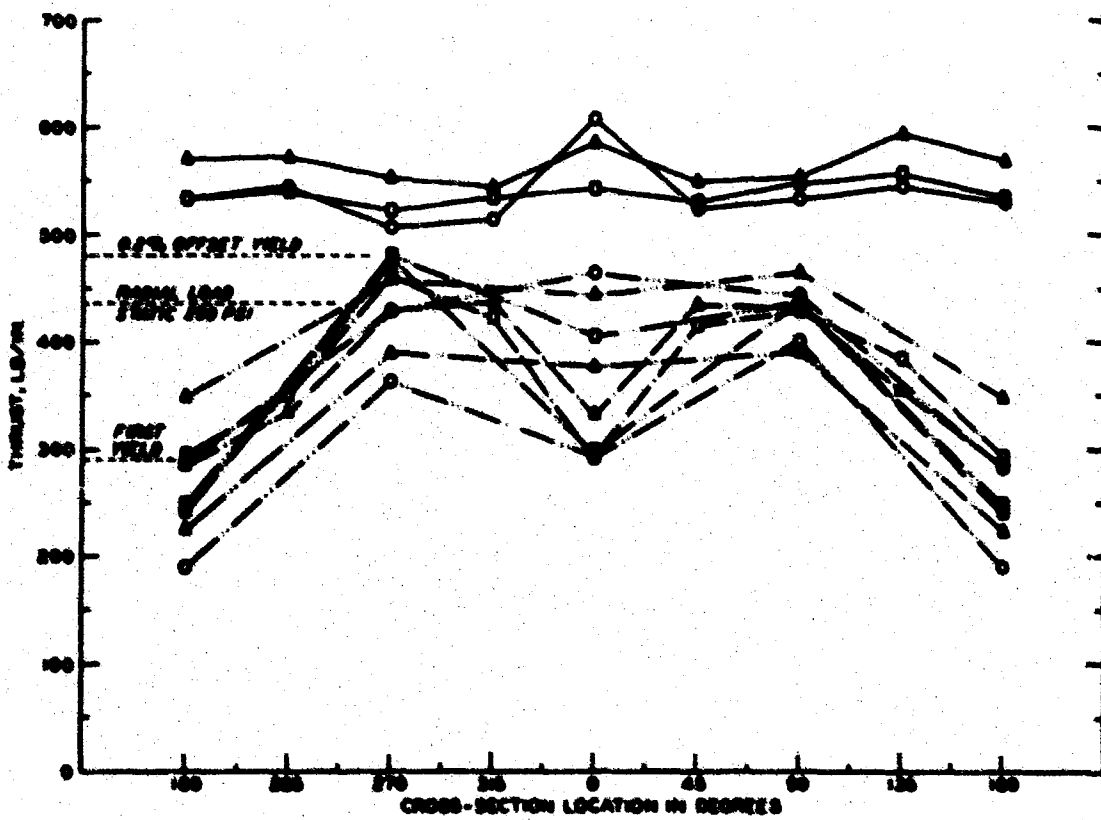
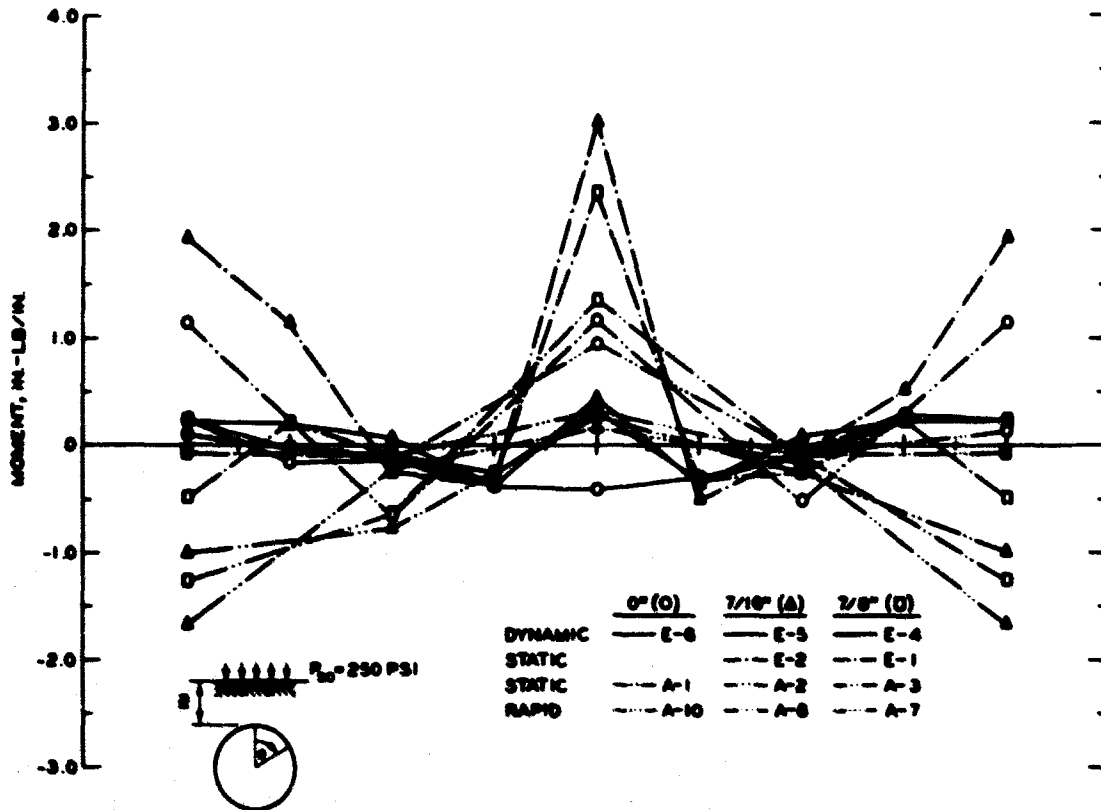


Fig. 5.37 Thrust and Moment, Tests E-6 ($Z = 0$ in.), E-5 ($Z = 7/16$ in.), and E-4 ($Z = 7/8$ in.); Surface Overpressure = 250 psi

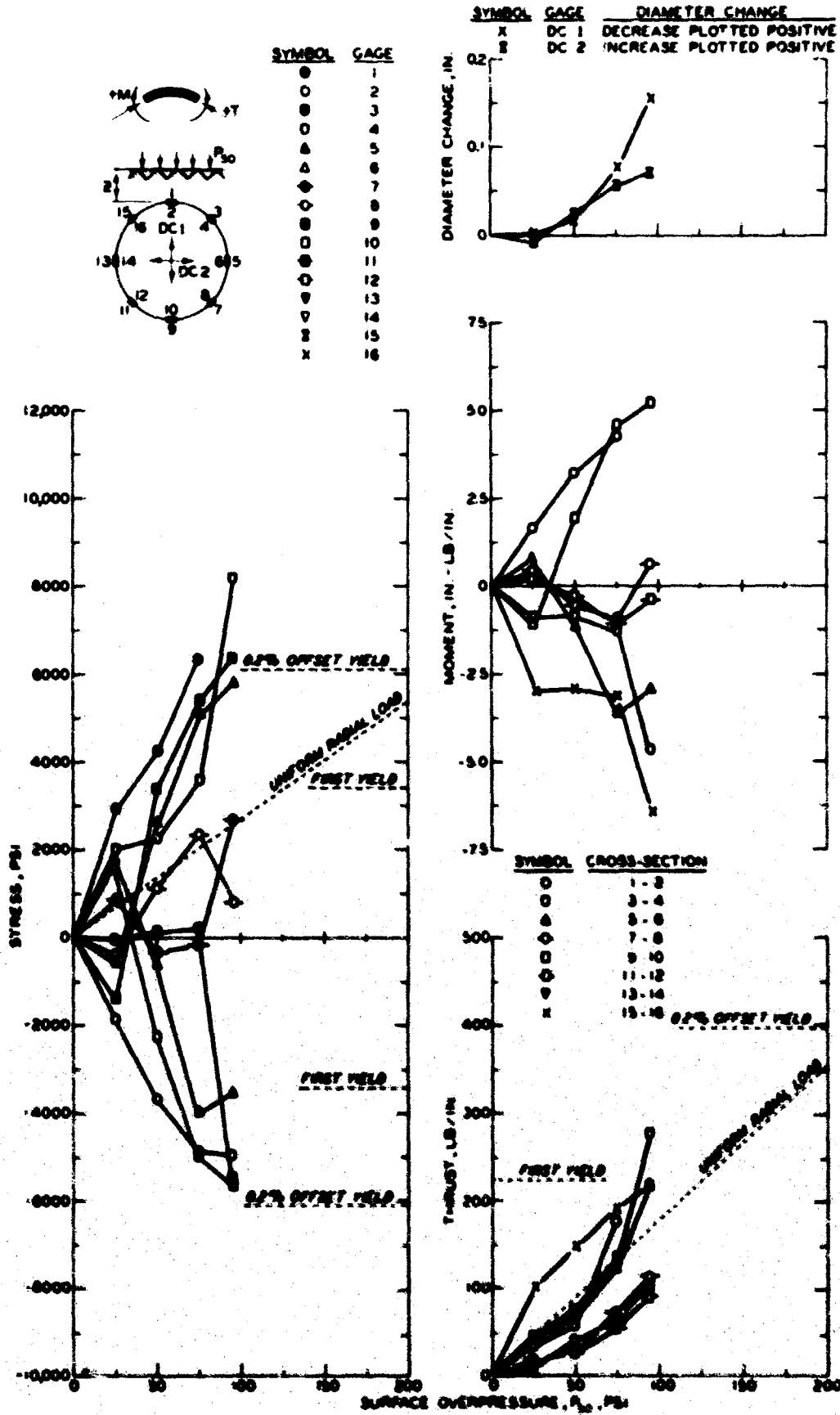


Fig. 5.38 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test D-1 (Z = 0 in.)

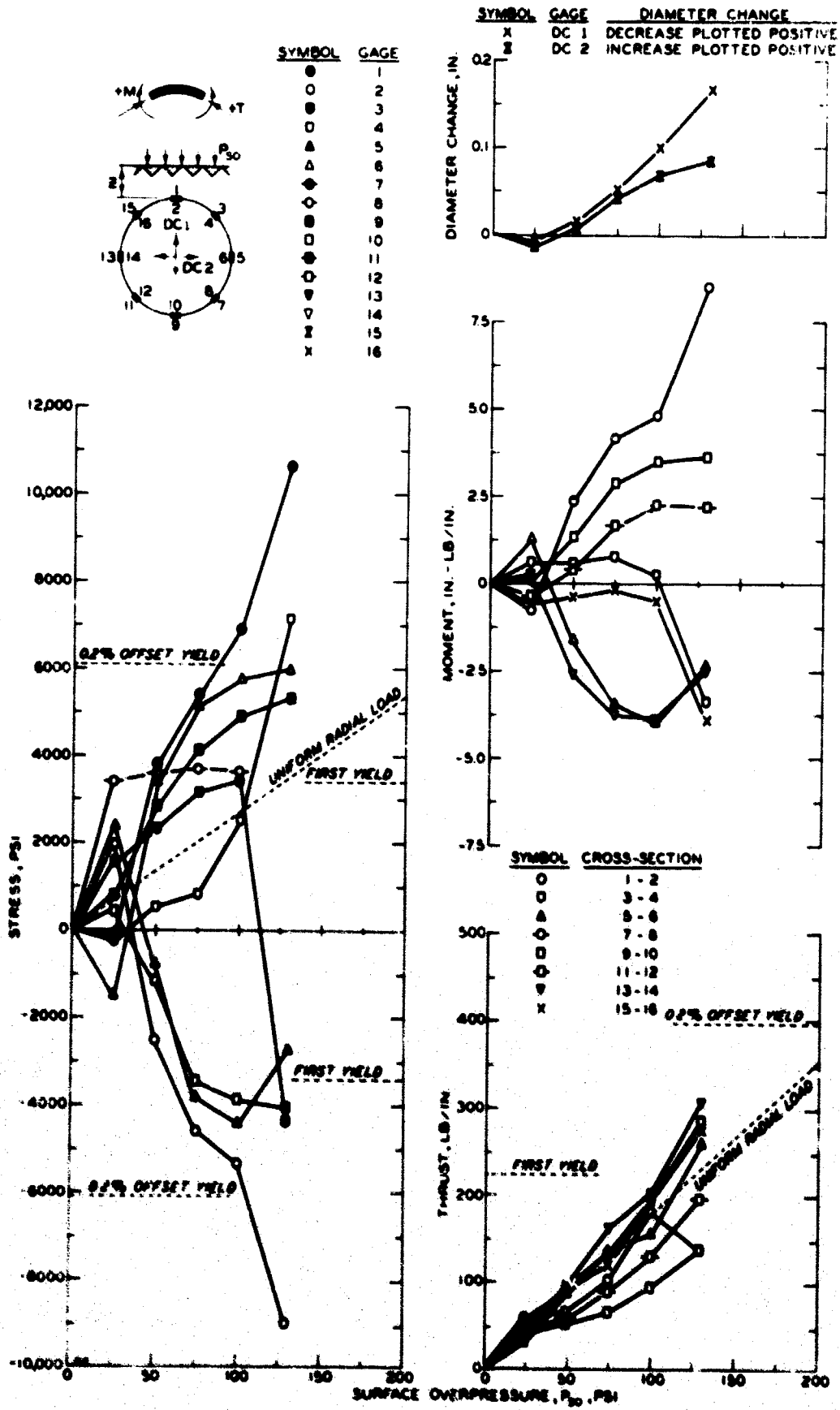


Fig. 5.39 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test D-2 ($Z = 7/16$ in.)

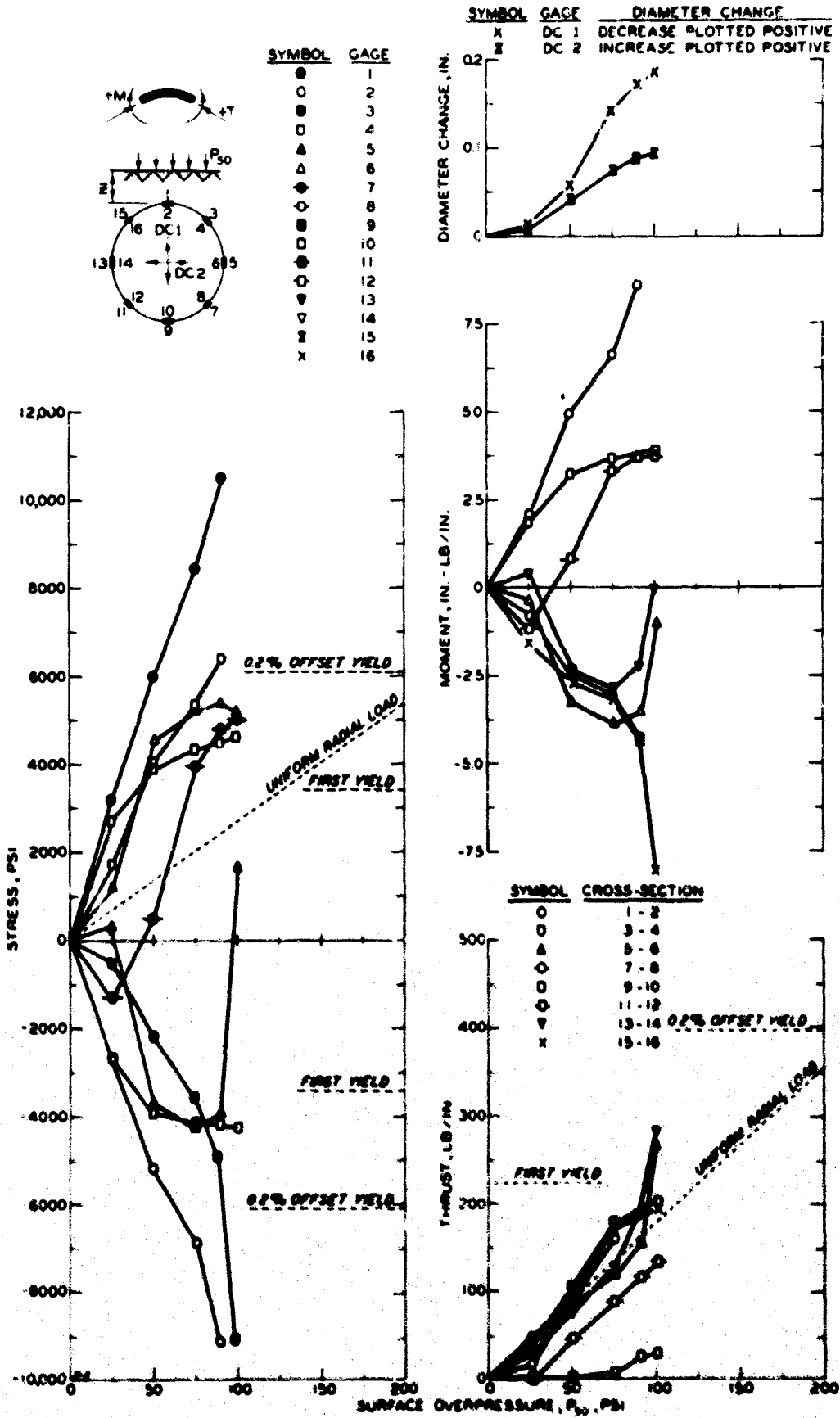


Fig. 5.40 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test D-3 (Z = 7/8 in.)

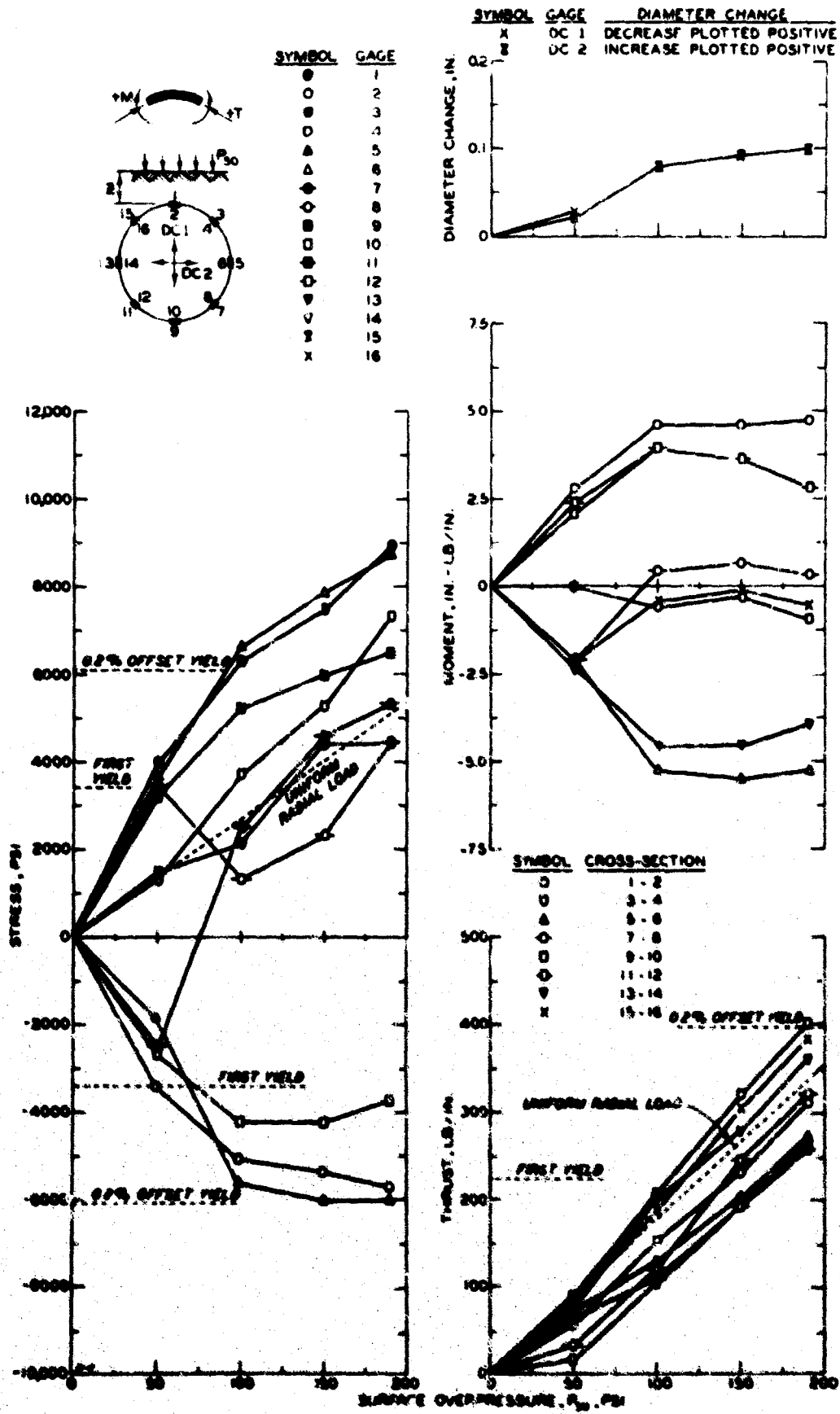


Fig. 5.41 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test D-4 ($Z = 1\text{-}3/4$ in.)

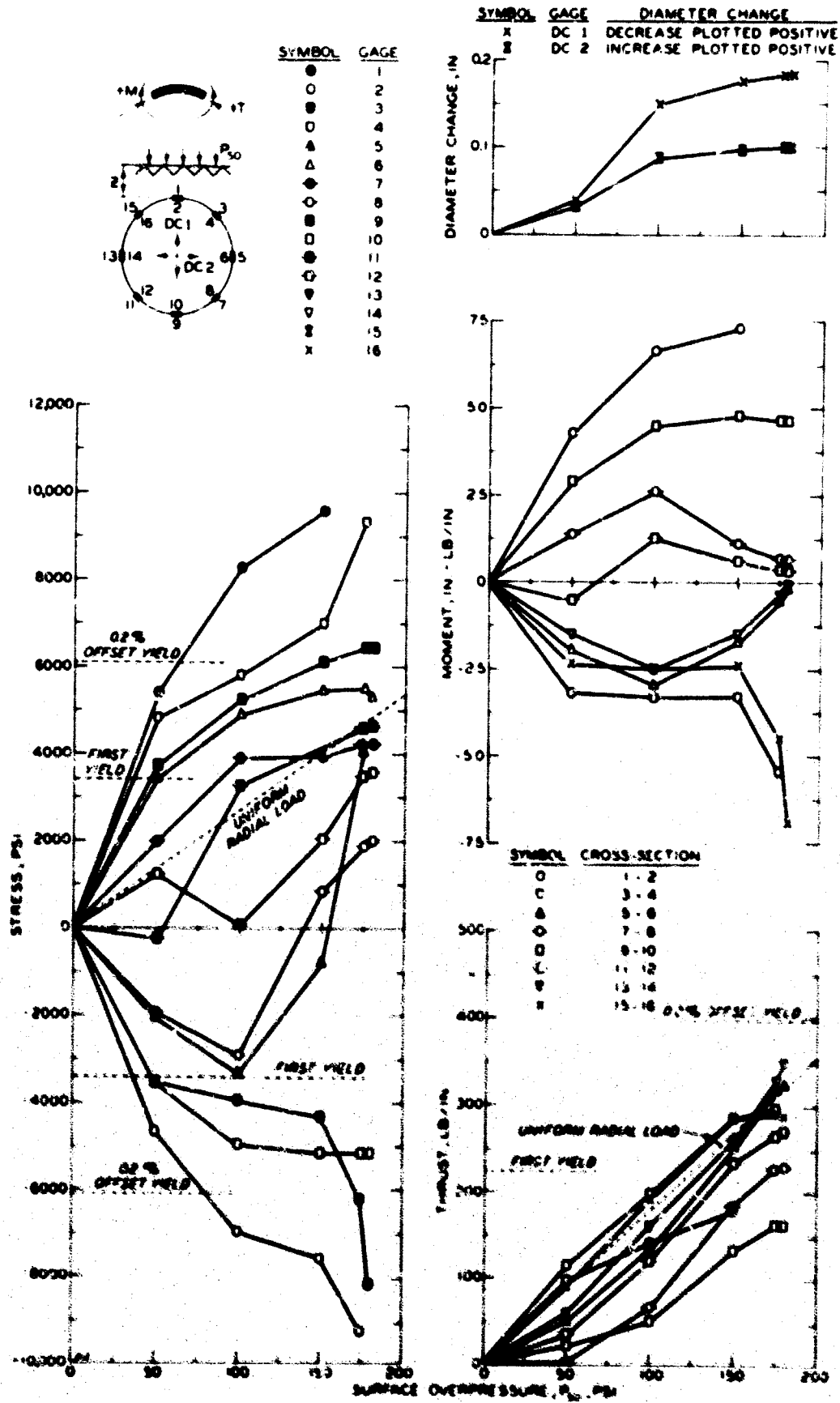


Fig. 5.42 Stress, Thrust, Moment, and Deflection, Test D-5 (Z = 2-5/8 in.)

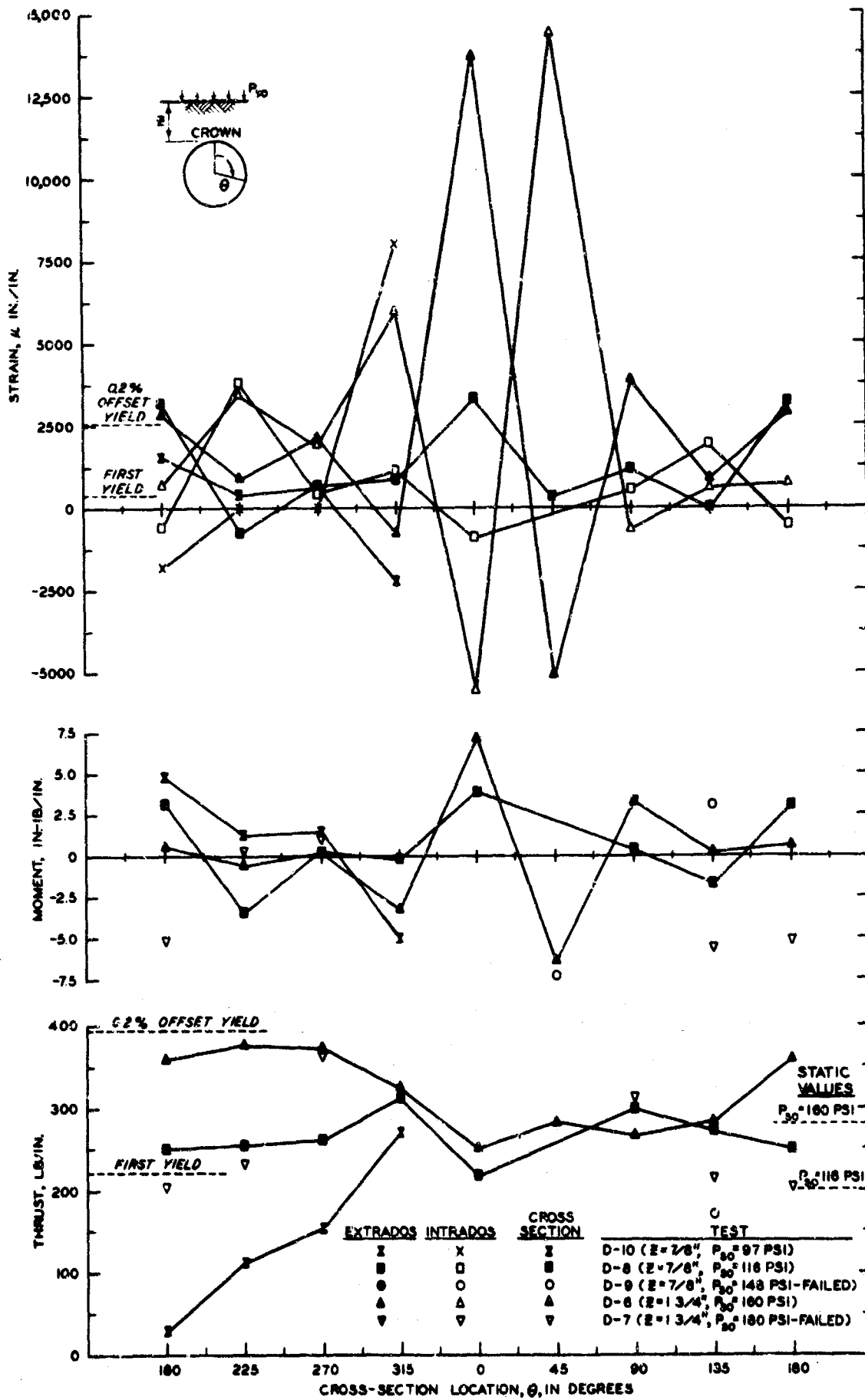


Fig. 5.43 Strain, Thrust, and Moment, Tests D-6 Through D-10

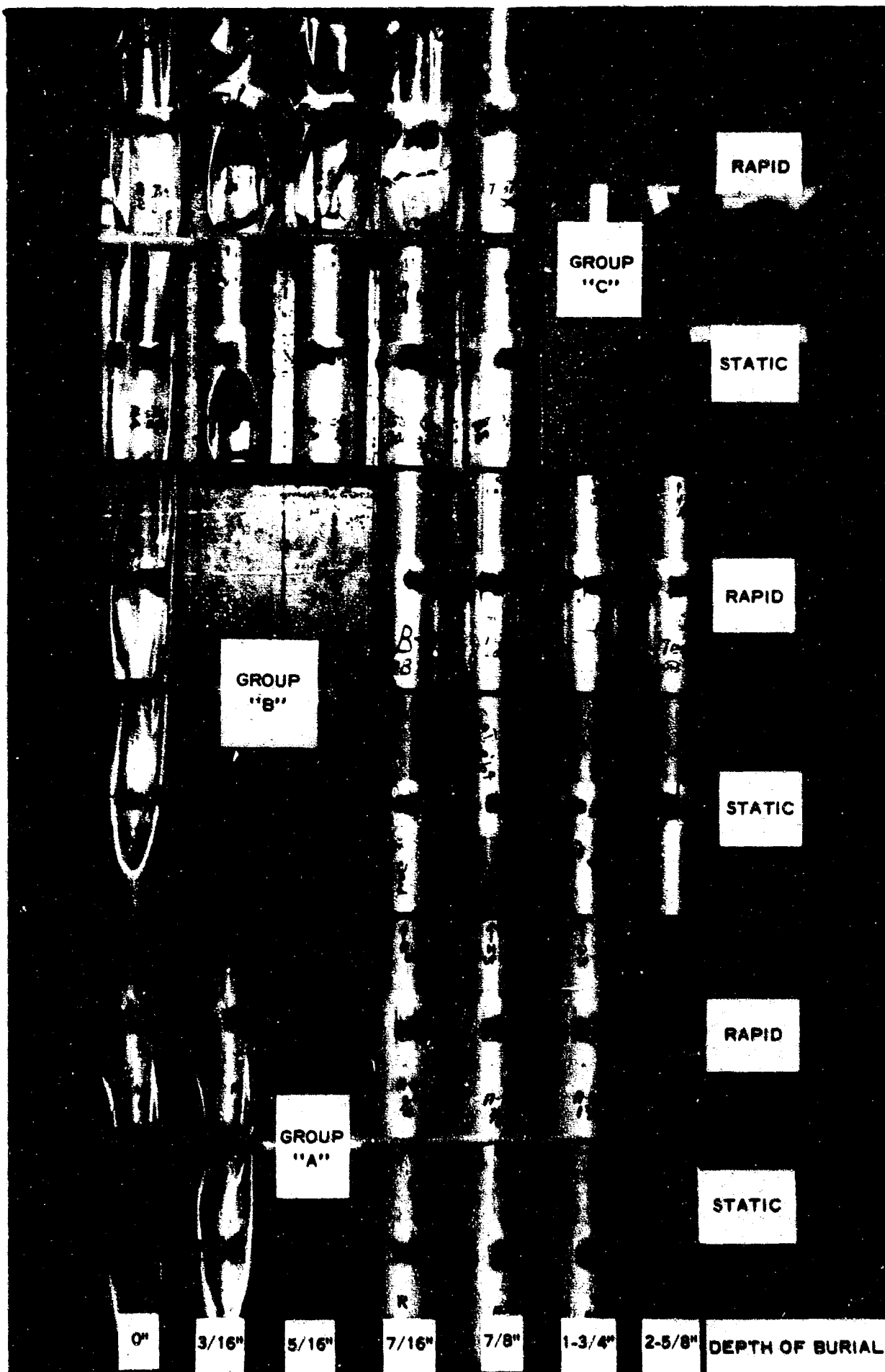


Fig. 5.44 Cylinders of Groups A, B, and C after Tests

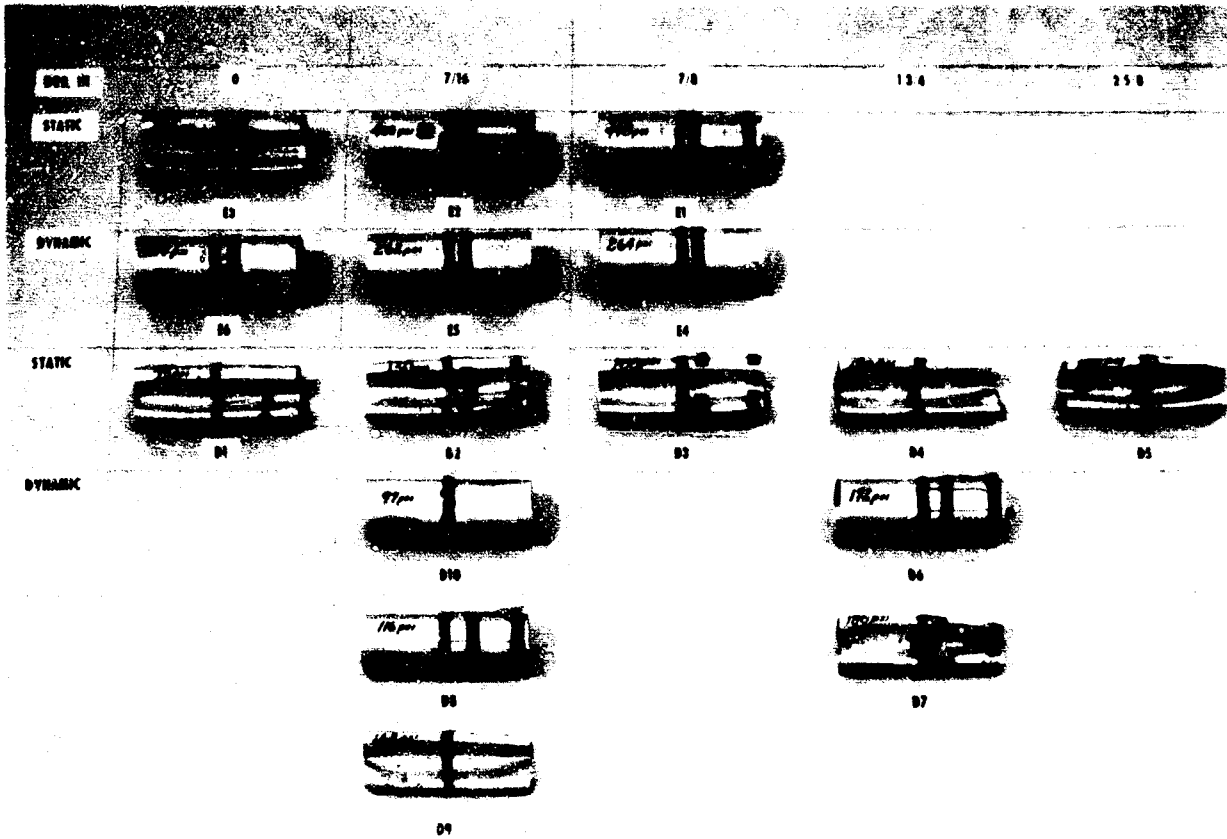


Fig. 5.45 Cylinders of Groups D and E after Tests

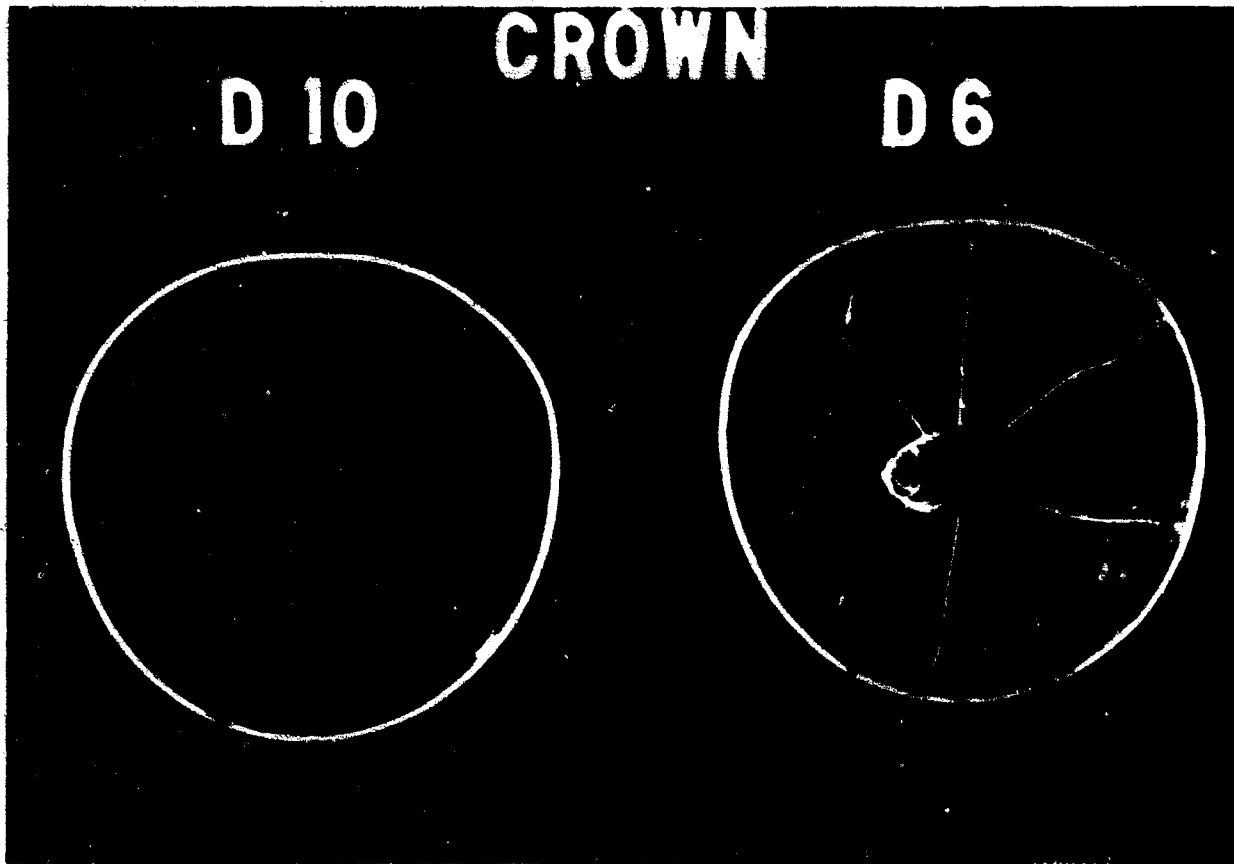
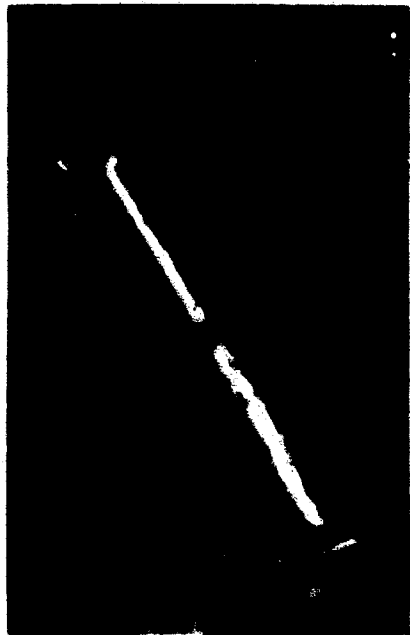


Fig. 5.46 Cylinders D-6 and D-10 after Test



a. Cylinder Failure (Z = 0 in.)



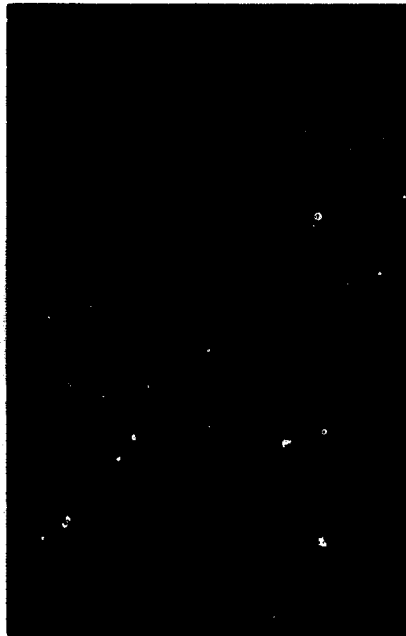
b. End View, Failed Cylinder (Z = 0 in.)



c. Surface after Cylinder Failure (Z = 2-5/8 in.)



d. End View with End Cap (Z = 2-5/8 in.)



e. End View, End Cap Removed (Z = 2-5/8 in.)



f. End View, Soil Cutback (Z = 2-5/8 in.)

Fig. 5.47 Posttest Cylinder Configuration in Clay

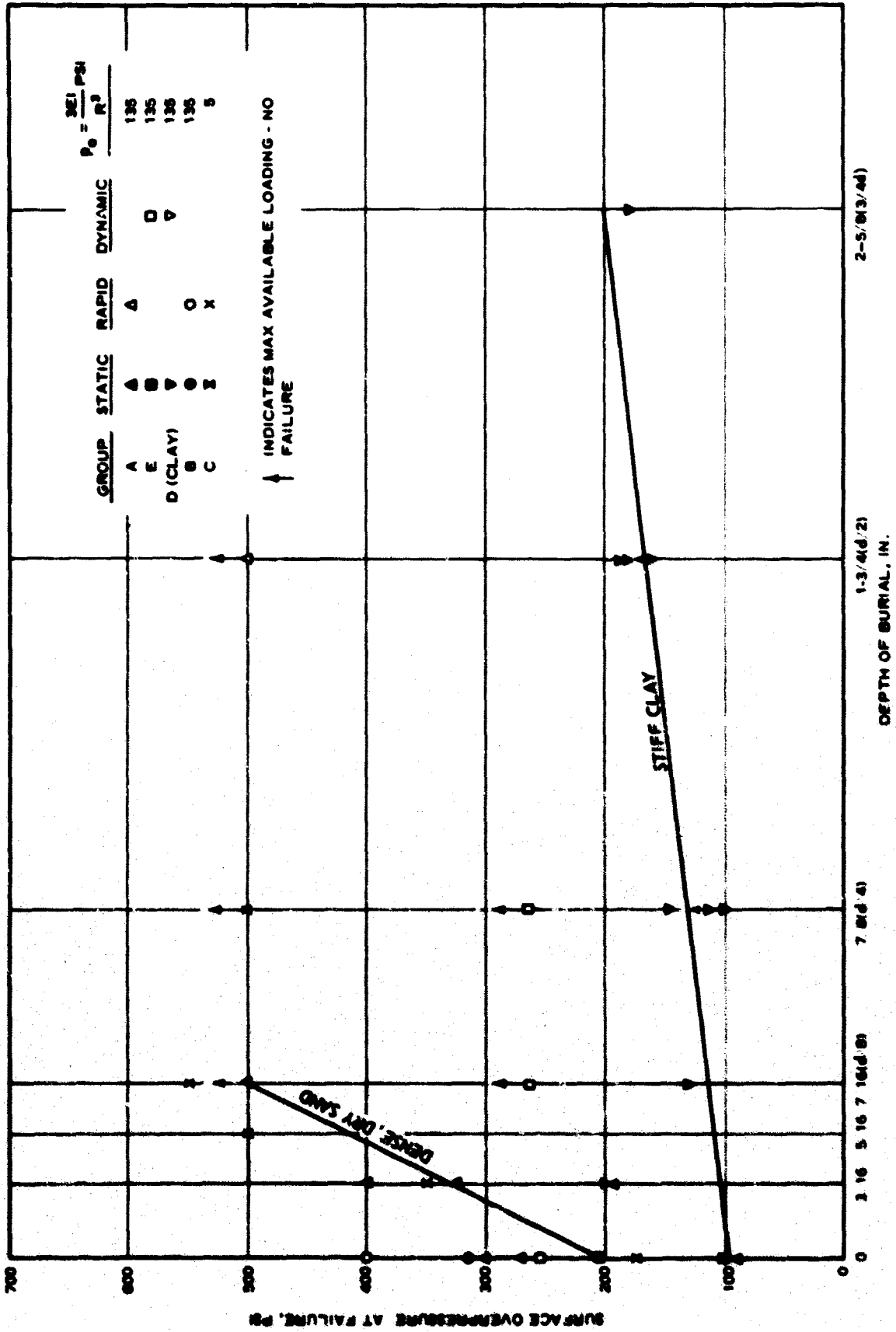


Fig. 5.48 Relation Between Failure Pressure and Depth of Burial

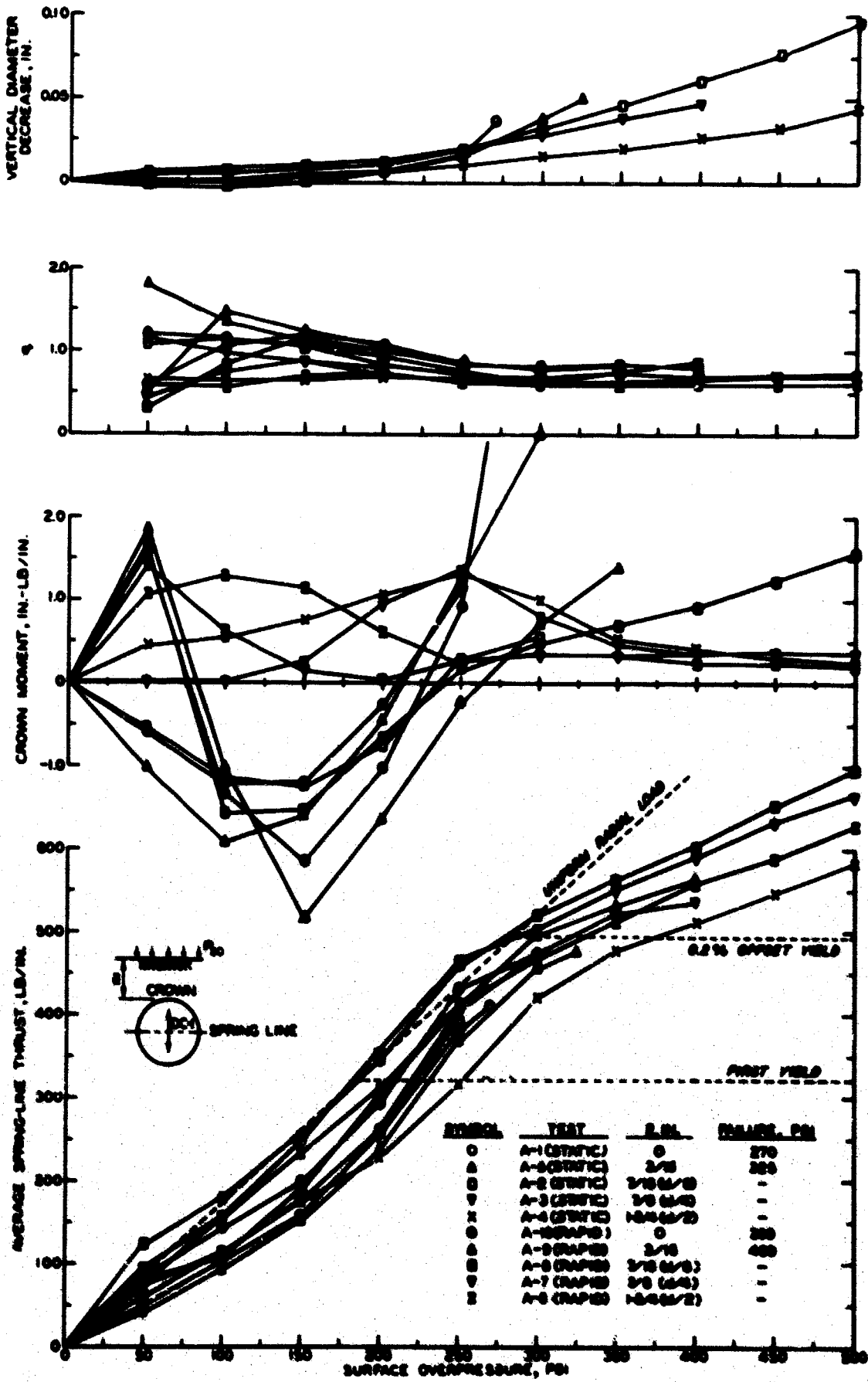


Fig. 6.1 A Group: Average Spring Line Thrusts, Crown Moments, Vertical Diameter Changes, and q Values

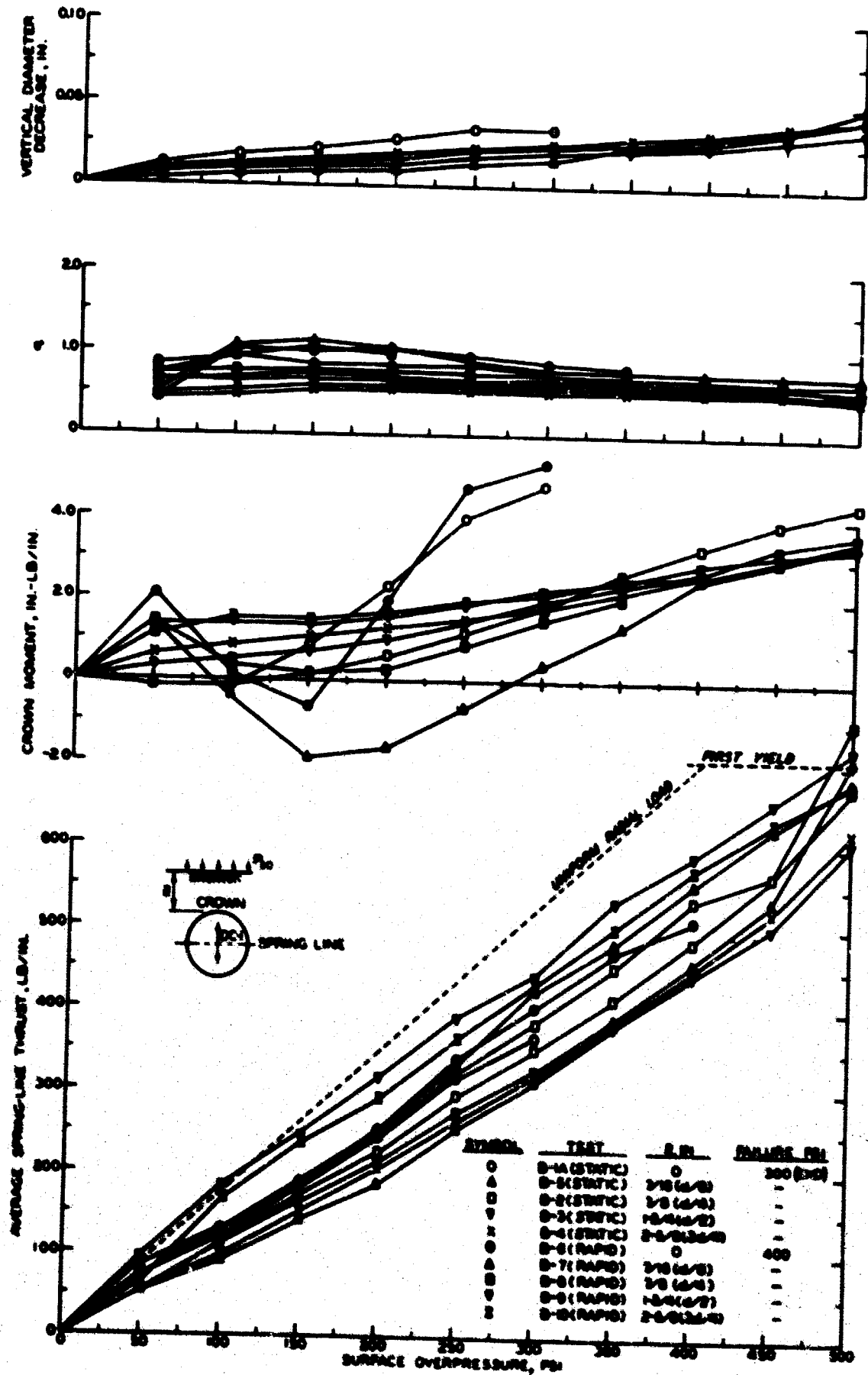


Fig. 6.2 B Group: Average Spring Line Thrusts, Crown Moments, Vertical Diameter Changes, and q Values

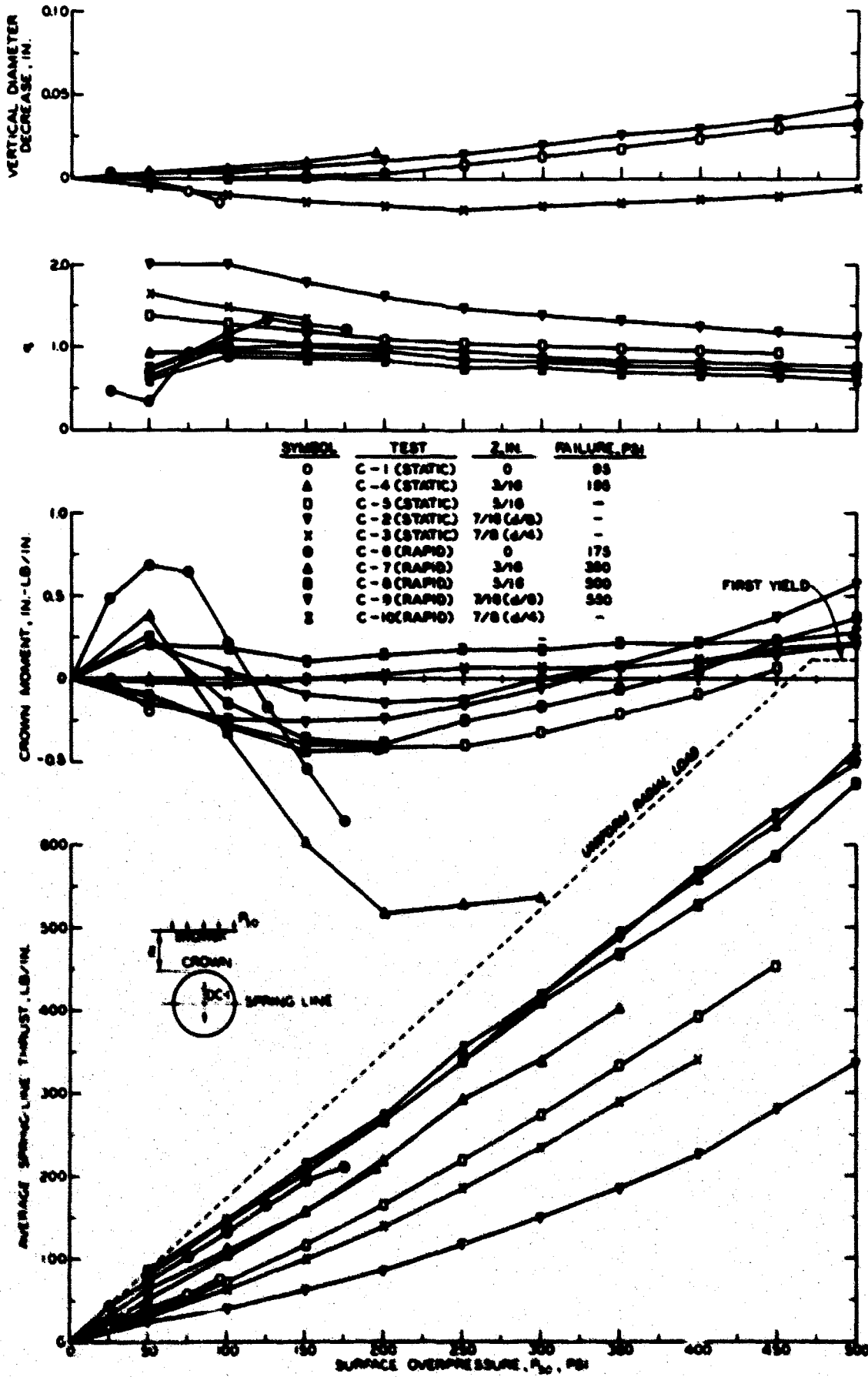


Fig. 6.3 C Group: Average Spring Line Thrusts, Crown Moments, Vertical Diameter Changes, and q Values

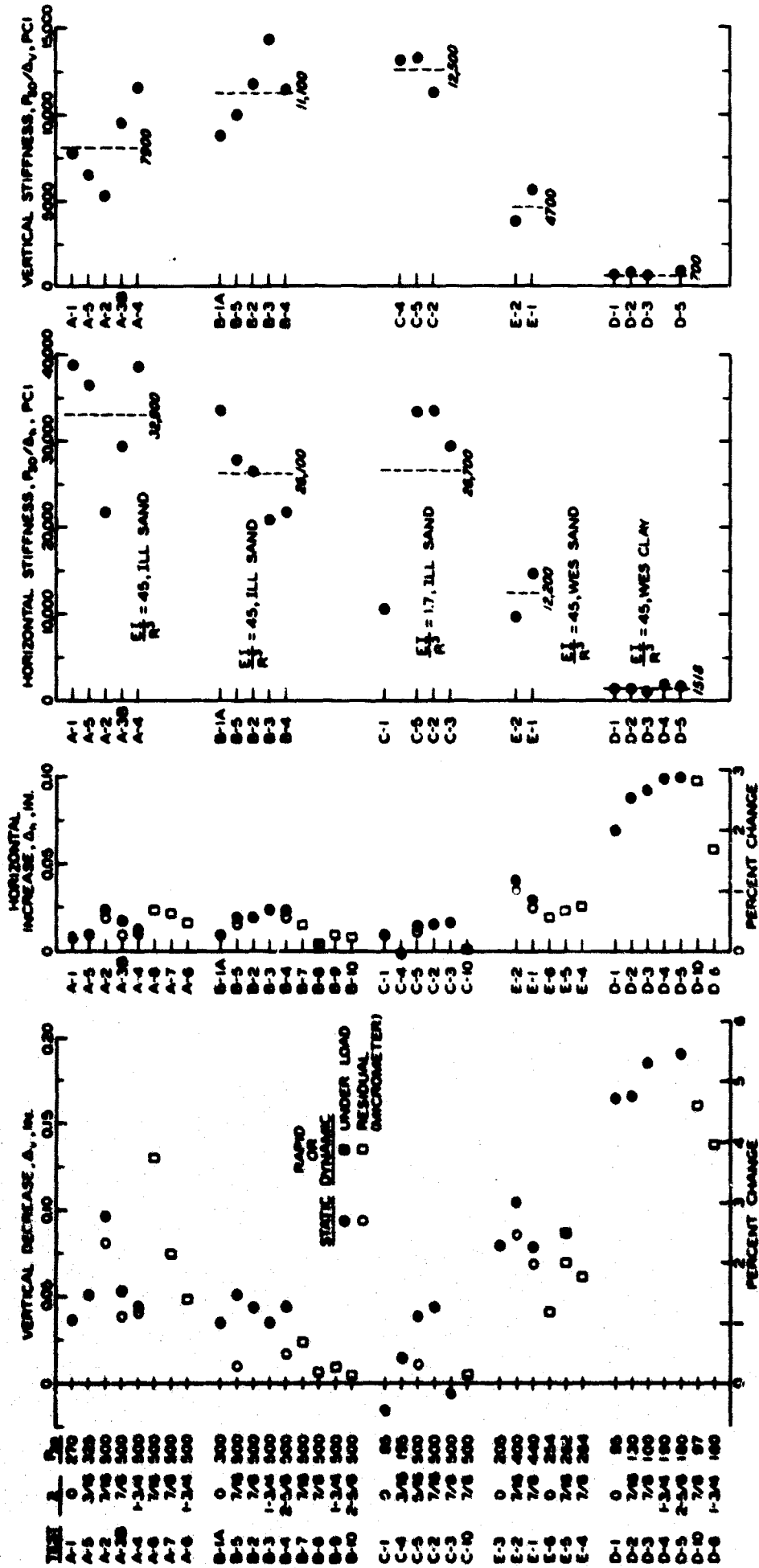


Fig. 6.4 Peak Diameter Changes and Deflection Stiffnesses

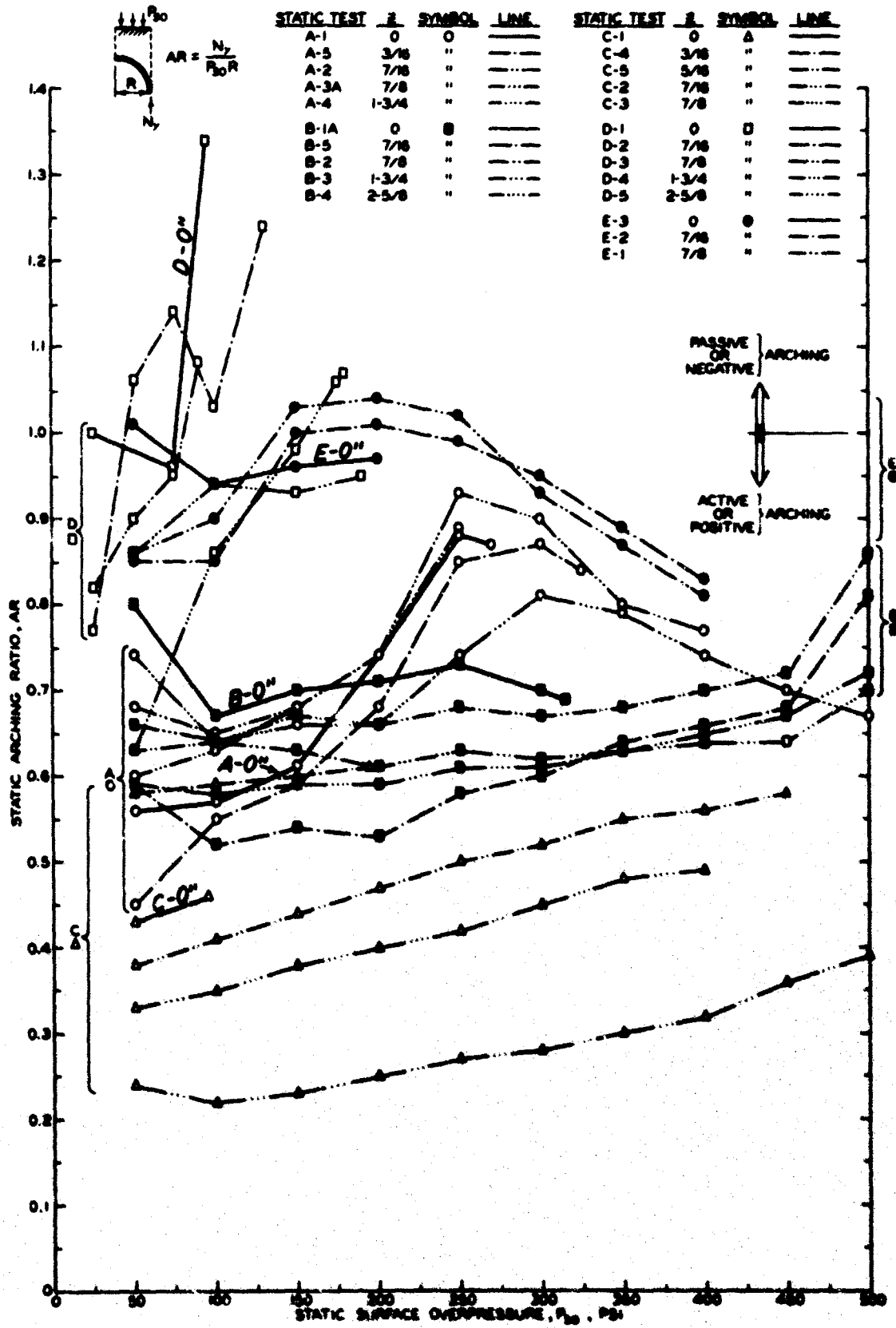


Fig. 6.5 Static Arching Ratio

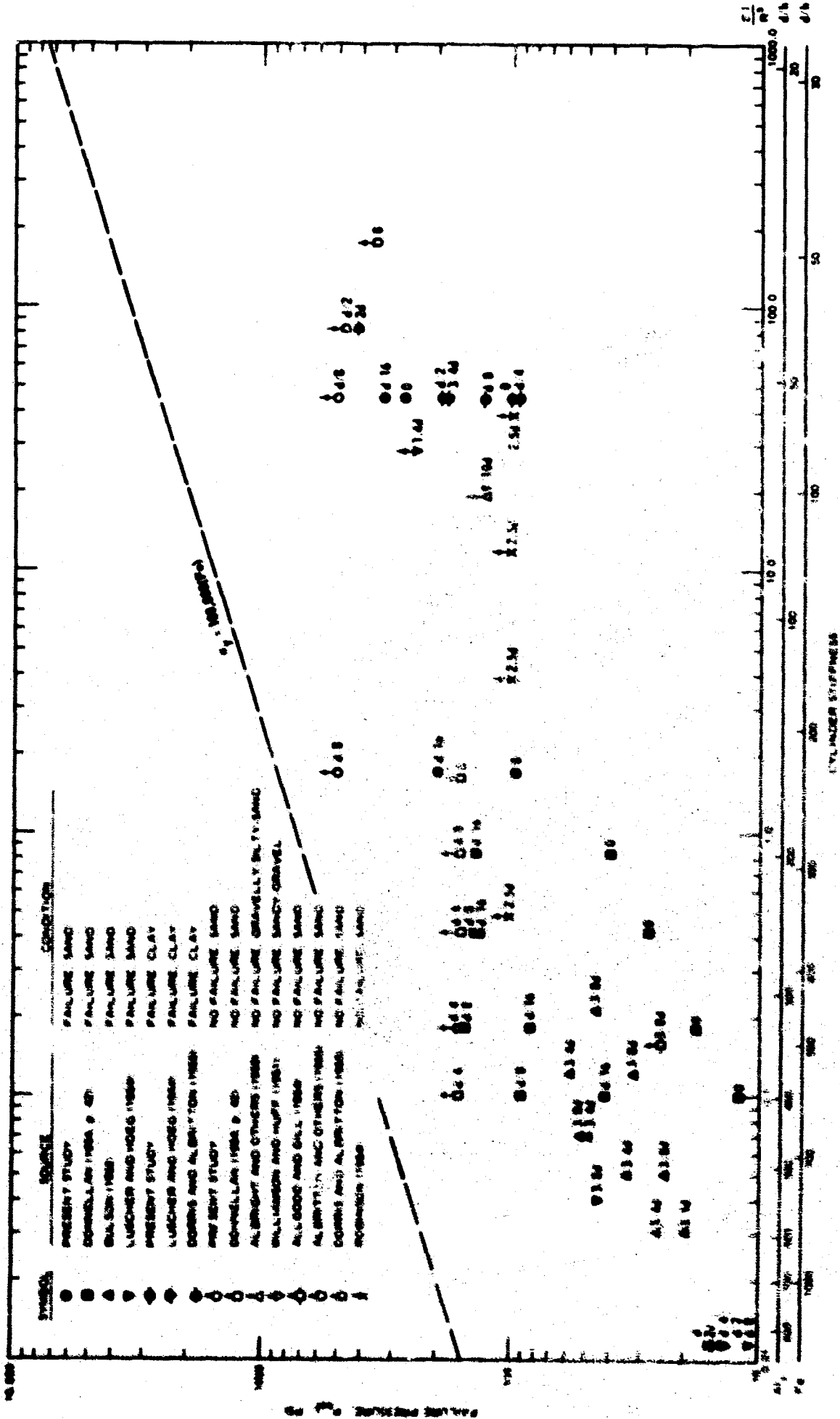


Fig. 6.6 Relation Between Failure Pressure and Cylinder Stiffness

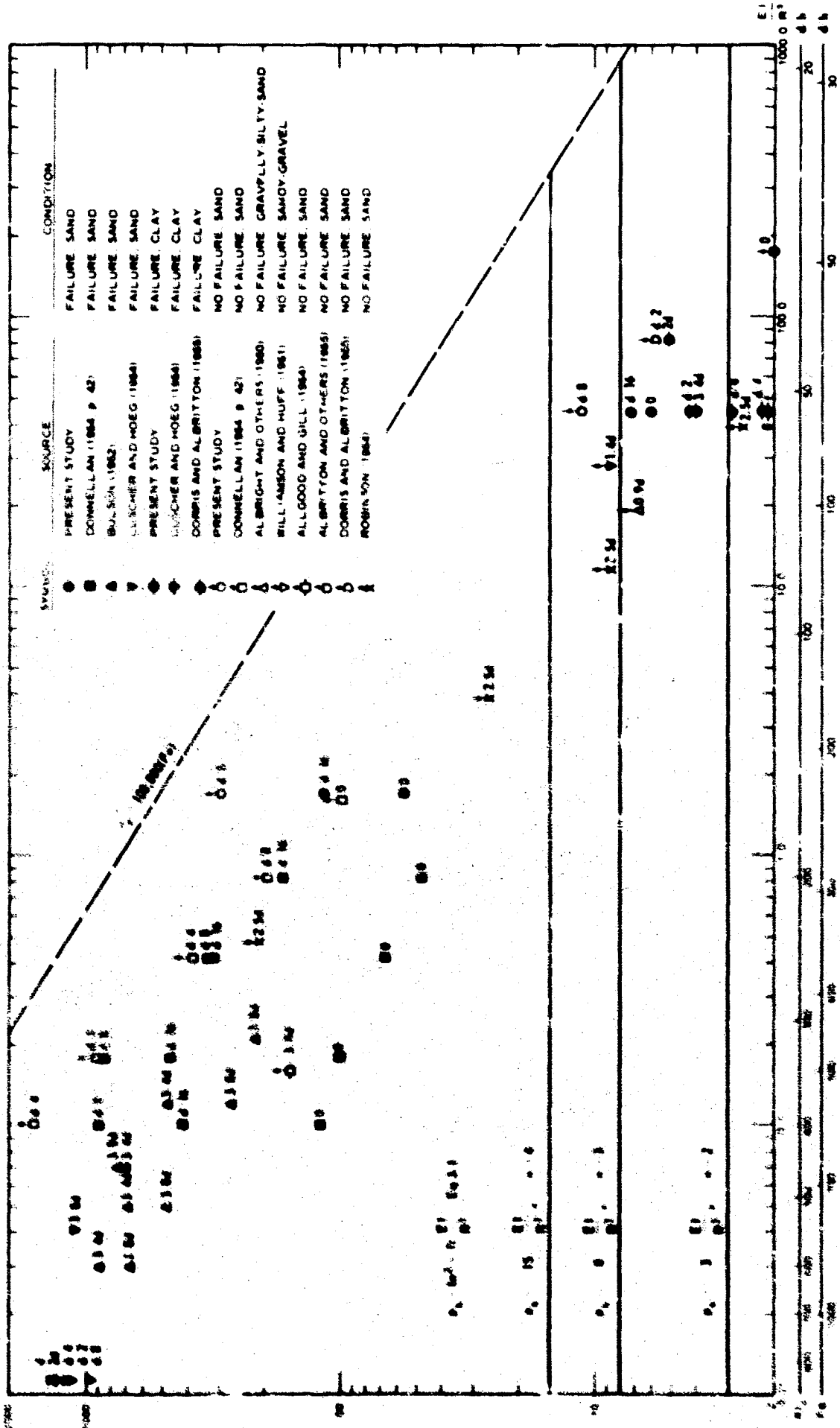


Fig. 6.7 Relation Between Horizontal Pressure and Equation 3.1

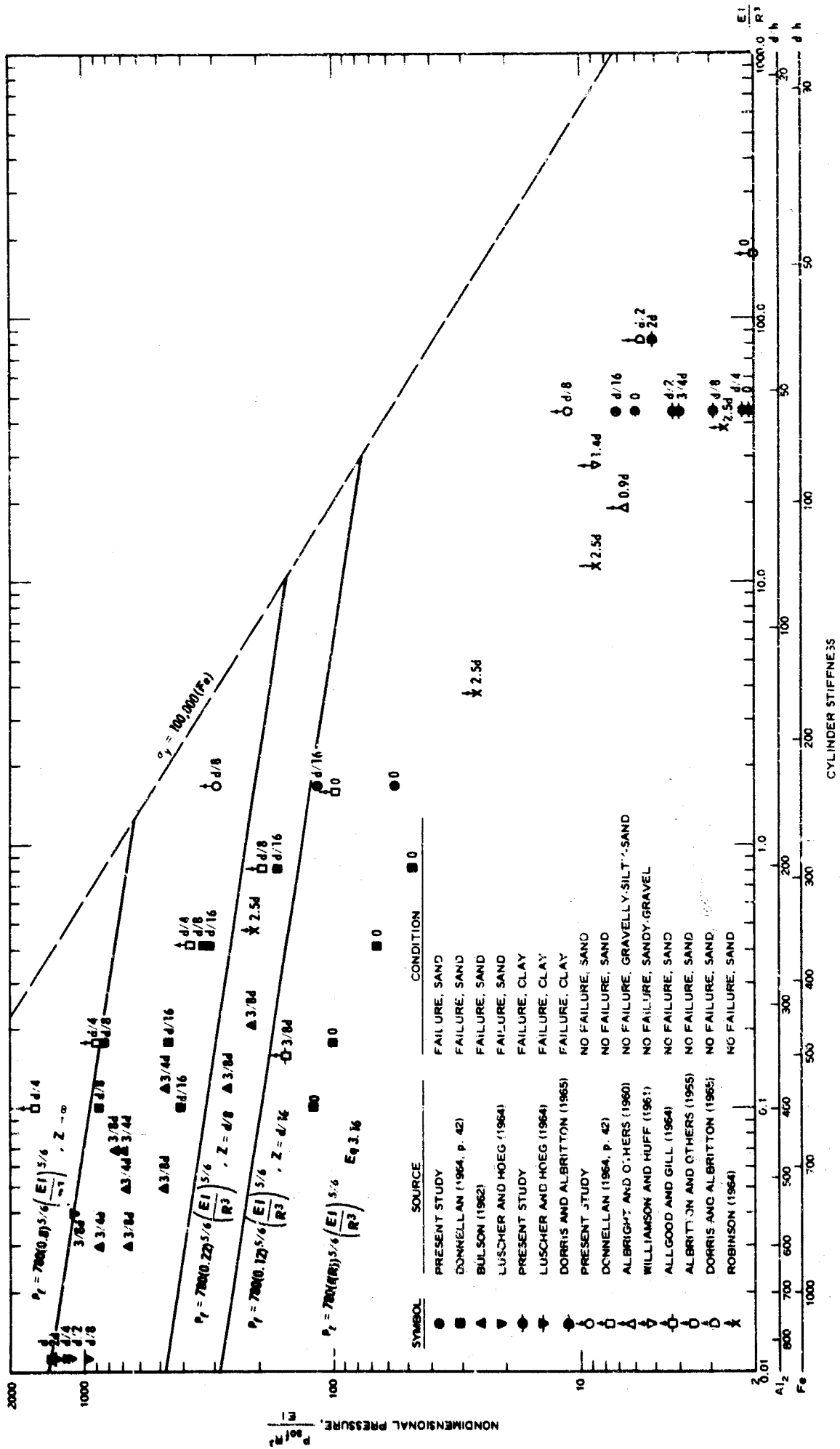


Fig. 6.8 Relation Between Nondimensional Pressure and Equation 3.16

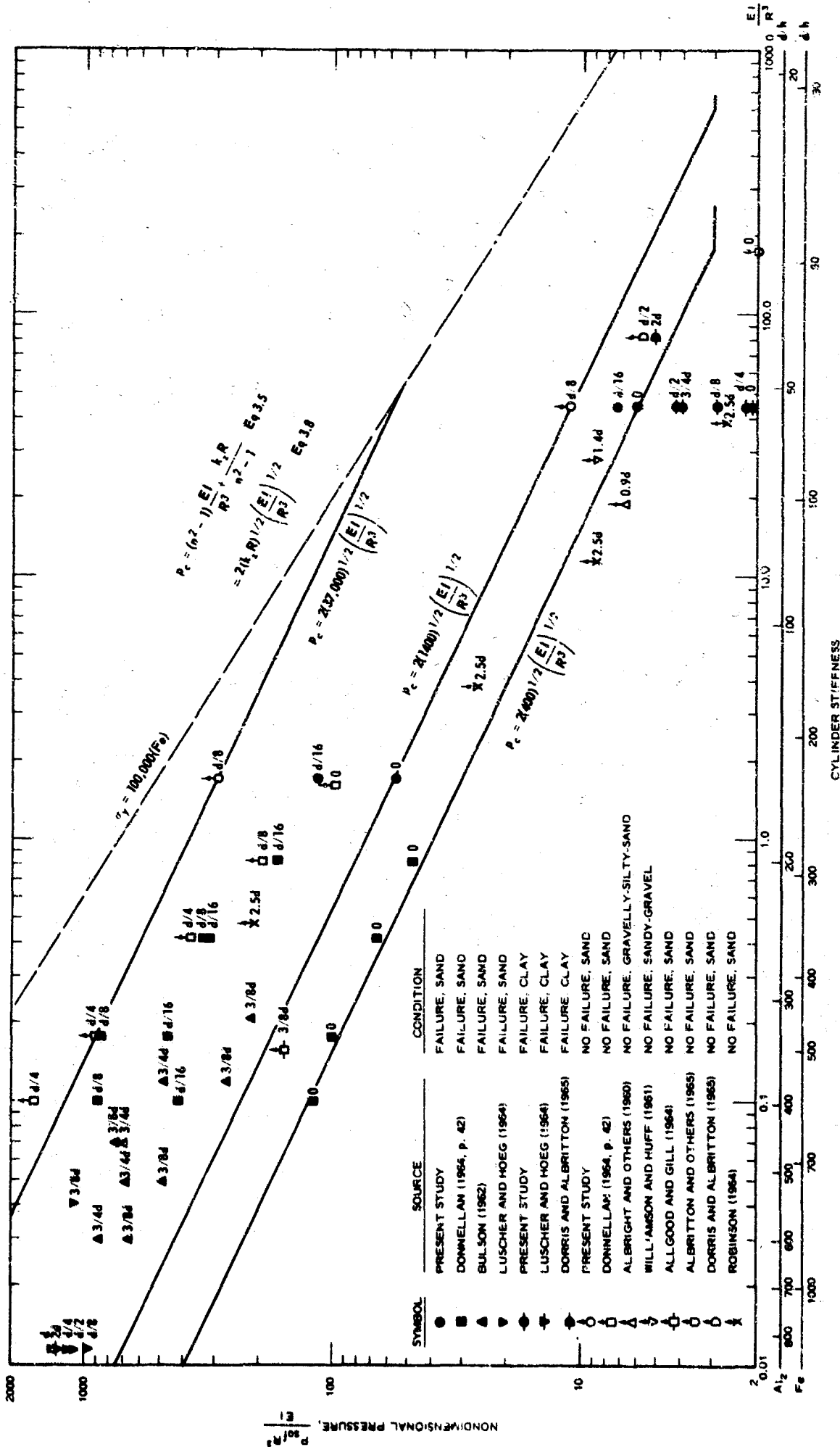


Fig. 6.9 Relation Between Nondimensional Pressure and Equation 3.8

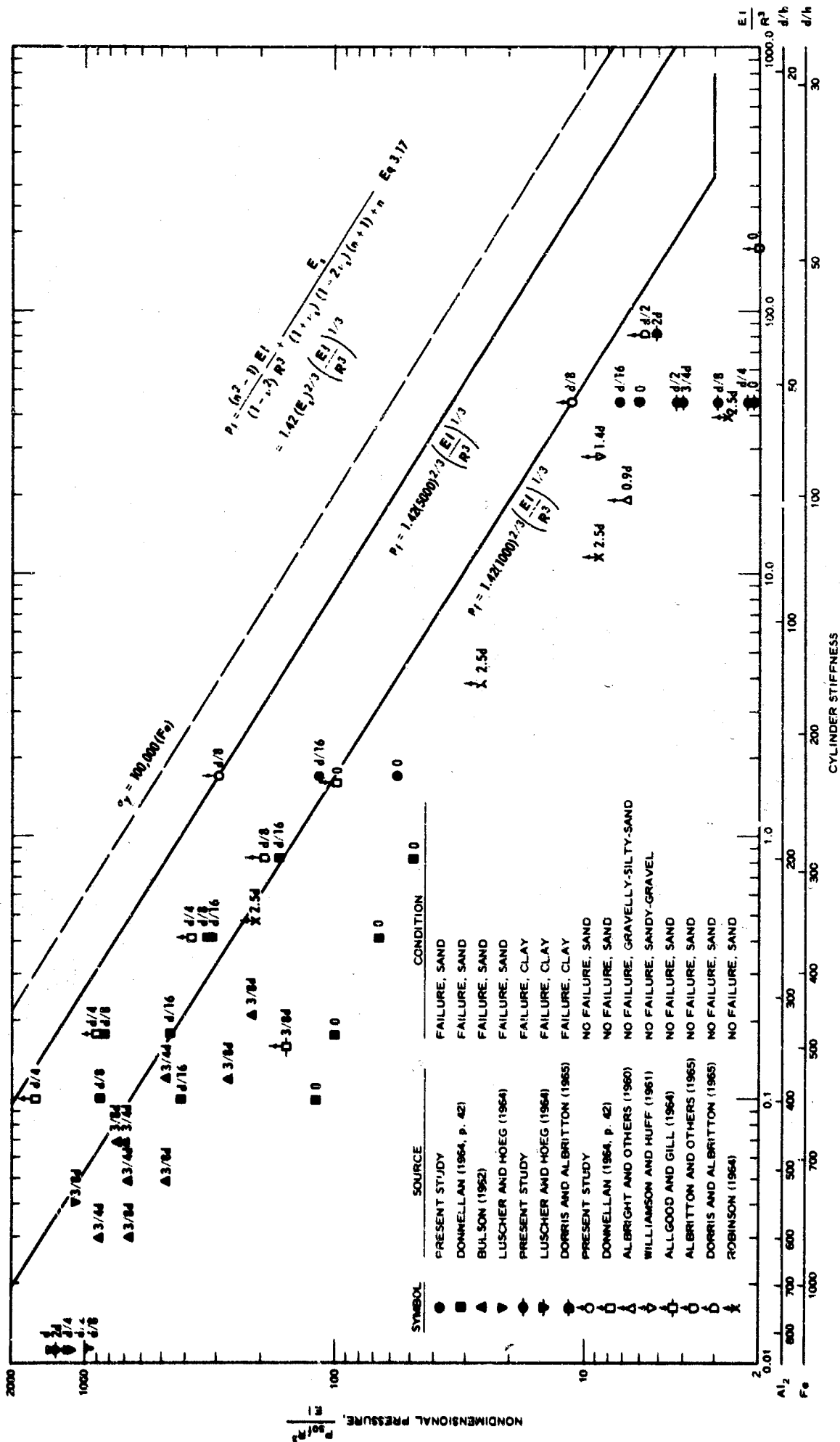


Fig. 6.10 Relation Between Nondimensional Pressure and Equation 3.17

APPENDIX A. PROPERTIES OF ALUMINUM TUBE MATERIAL

The cylindrical test specimens were cut from 12-ft lengths of Alcoa, drawn, aluminum tubing which was commercially available. Static, mechanical properties for the material are published in the manufacturer's literature, Aluminum Company of America (1960, p 59, and 1962, p 162). However, the values given are either minimum or average values, and hence do not adequately describe a given piece of tubing. Additionally, it was necessary to know the full stress-strain curve for the material up to the maximum strains experienced during the cylinder tests. In many cases, these strains far exceeded the indicated yield values.

Longitudinal tension test specimens were cut from each end and from the center section of the 12-ft lengths of tubing. The specimens averaged about 10 in. in length and were proportioned in accordance with ASTM Designation: E8-61T, ASTM STANDARDS 1961, Part 3 (pp 165-181).

The flat grips of the tension test machine proved unable to hold the slightly curved test specimen adequately once yielding commenced. Therefore, a special adapter was designed to accommodate the curvature of the specimen to the flat test grips.

Specimen from the tubes designated A, B, and C were all tested at the University of Illinois in a Tinius Olsen Testing Machine. It was used as a constant strain-rate device. An average crosshead speed of 0.05 in./min was used. It was first thought that the strain could be recorded adequately by monitoring with a manually operated Baldwin strain indicator. This proved satisfactory only for strains below first yield. The strain indicator operator was not able to keep a continuous balance

above yield due to the large strain changes. Hence, the system finally established utilized a Moseley X-Y plotter to record both load and strain simultaneously.

Specimens from the tubes designated D and E were tested at WES in a 30,000-lb, Riehle universal testing machine. An X-Y plotter was again employed.

Average stress-strain curves were developed for each 12-ft tube. They are plotted in Fig. A.1 and reduced to a finite number of digitized points in the tables shown on the figure. These points were used to describe the curve for the computer program.

The tension tests revealed no systematic variation in stress-strain characteristics along the length of the 12-ft tubes. The modulus of elasticity for the material, 10×10^6 psi ($\pm 5\%$), was verified by all of the tests. However, the inelastic stress-strain curves for the 6061-0 A, D, and E material varied from the average by ± 10 percent. The overall accuracy of the measurements, procedure, and reduction of data for the 6061-T6 and 5052-0 material was within ± 5 percent of the average.

Although tubes A, D, and E were made of the same material, 6061-0, the inelastic stress-strain properties were sufficiently different from tube to tube that separate stress-strain curves were utilized in the data reduction.

Handbook yield values taken from Aluminum Company of America (1960, p 59) point up the fact that all the tubing does, in fact, exceed the manufacturer's indicated strengths. The values are indicated in Fig. A.1.

The stress-strain properties in Fig. A.1 were used in the

computation of thrust and moment under both static and dynamic loading. It was assumed that the static stress-strain relation would be a good approximation of the dynamic stress-strain relation. Aluminum is not, in general, strain-rate sensitive according to Steidel and Makerov (1960) and Smith (1963).

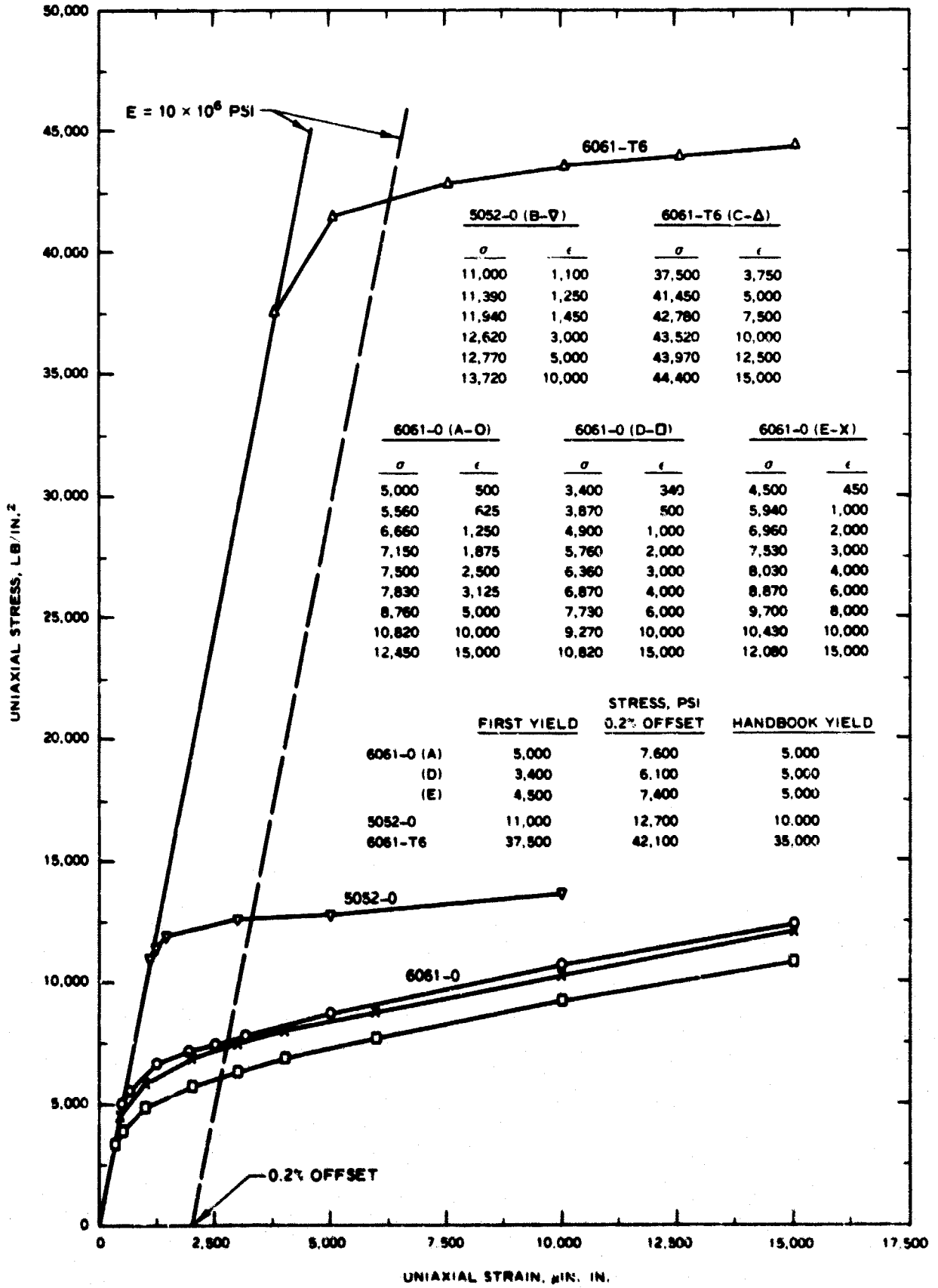


Fig. A.1 Aluminum Stress-Strain Properties

APPENDIX B. PROPERTIES OF SANGAMON RIVER
AND COOK'S BAYOU SANDS

B.1 Placement Techniques

Since special effort was made to place and control the quality of the soil medium, it is probably denser and more uniform than that which could be obtained in a field installation.

B.1.1 Sangamon River Sand

This sand was stored in closed 55-gal drums near the testing device. A 2-gal water bucket was filled with sand, weighed on Toledo scales (0.1-lb graduations), carried to the test device and sprinkled into place. The sand was placed in 6-in. lifts. After 6 in. of sand had been placed, the lift was vibrated with a probe-type, concrete vibrator (Viber Co., Model II). The probe was vibrated completely through the 6-in. lift and was positioned on 2-in. centers in an ever-decreasing spiral around the center. This process was repeated until the test device was filled (four lifts) and screeded off.

A trench was then scooped out of the center of the sand and the cylinder placed at its intended depth and leveled. The sand was backfilled in the vicinity of the cylinder in 3/4-in. lifts by sprinkling the lift in and then rodding with a small ruler and tamping with a piece of wood.

The weight of sand displaced by the cylinder placement and subsequent backfilling was measured for each test. By assuming an effective volume of soil to be disturbed during placement, it was possible to calculate the average density of the sand in the immediate vicinity of the cylinders. The calculations indicated an average density of 105.4 ± 1.5 pcf. The horizontal stiffness calculations in Section 6.2 also verify the

fact that the sand was very stiff. Penetration tests were not run because of the likelihood of disturbing the cylinder specimen. Additionally, recent research at WES* on the use of penetration tests in dense sand has indicated that inherent scatter in hand-operated penetration test data within a layer is so great that variations in density on the order of 1 or 2 pcf are effectively masked.

The overall density was established by dividing the measured weight of the sand placed by the known volume of the test device (less the cylinder volume). The overall density was very reproducible and averaged 104.0 pcf with a minimum of 103.5 pcf and a maximum of 104.5 pcf.

The strain gages were continuously monitored during the placement. The A and B groups of cylinders were insensitive to the placement, but great care had to be exercised in backfilling around the very thin C group. In all cases the tendency was for elongation of the vertical axis. However, impressed strains were kept below 50 $\mu\text{in./in.}$

B.1.2 Cook's Bayou Sand

This sand was stored in piles on the floor and shoveled into the hopper of a sprinkling (also known as raining or showering) device. The gross weight was measured by an electric load cell. The sprinkling device was placed over the SBLG base and maintained a known distance above the surface (24 in.); while the device was slowly turned at a constant rate, the sand dropped through the hoses, Fig. B.1. A density-height of fall study was made to determine an optimum turning rate and height of

* Private communication with J. G. Jackson, Jr., Chief of the Impulse Load Section, Soils Division, U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station, CE, Vicksburg, Miss., April 13, 1965.

fall.* The full merits of the sprinkling technique are discussed by Whitman and others (1962, Appendix B).

The sand was placed up to the proposed level of the bottom of the cylinder. The cylinder was then positioned and sand was sprinkled in a manner intended to duplicate the free-field placement to bed the lower portion (90 degrees to 270 degrees). A piece of cardboard was used to deflect the sand beneath the spring line. The sprinkler was then repositioned and the remainder of the sand placed. The excess was screeded from the top to form a flat surface. A study** to determine the effect of sprinkling sand around a small-scale buried structure has shown that the density in the vicinity of the structure can be about 2 pcf less than the average density in the free field.

The average density was 106.6 ± 1.0 pcf. There was more scatter in average density with the sprinkling technique than with the vibration technique used for the Sangamon River sand.

B.2 Soil Strength and Deformation Characteristics

B.2.1 Sangamon River Sand

This sand was obtained from the Pontiac Stone Company, Mahomet, Illinois. It was wet and not of desired gradation when received. A system outlined by Prakash (1962, p 223) was used to obtain a uniform sand comparable to that tested by Hendron (1963). The sand was spread on the floor of

* W. J. Turnbull, Chief, Soils Division, WES, "Soil Tests on Sprinkled Cook's Bayou No. 1 Sand Small Blast Load Generator Specimens," Memorandum for: Chief, Nuclear Weapons Effects Division, July 22, 1964.

** R. W. Cuny, Chief, Soil Dynamics Branch, Soils Division, WES, "The Effect of an 8-In.-Diameter Arch on the Density Produced by Showering Placement Method," Memorandum for: Chief, Nuclear Weapons Effects Division, December 1, 1964.

the Illinois civil engineering test track and dried. Then, 8-lb batches were subjected to 5 min of sieving on a Gilson shaker (Model CL-262) that was fitted with a No. 40 and No. 60 sieve. The material retained on the No. 60 sieve was utilized for this investigation. The grain size distribution is shown in Fig. B.2.

The static, stress-deformation characteristics in triaxial and consolidometer tests are presented in Fig. B.3. These tests were run on sand having a density as close as possible to the overall average density used during the cylinder tests. The relative density, D_r , is also listed in Fig. B.3. Standard procedures were used.* Moduli and shear strength data are presented in Fig. B.5.

B.2.2 Cook's Bayou Sand

This sand is commonly used in most of the WES blast load generator experiments, e.g. Tener (1964). It was procured locally and its characteristics were originally documented (then called Bayou Pierre Sand No. 1) in a WES Soils Division Memorandum for Record.** However, recent laboratory tests performed for this investigation, Figs. B.4 and B.5, indicate that the one-dimensional stress-strain curve and angle of internal friction for a density of 106 pcf in the memorandum were in error.

It is evident that the two sands used have nearly identical laboratory properties at the densities employed because they were placed at equal relative densities. Also, the differences in the techniques used

* Described in a laboratory manual prepared by the Waterways Experiment Station for the Office, Chief of Engineers, which will be issued as a Corps of Engineers Engineer Manual.

** P. F. Hadala, Impulse Load Section, Soils Division, WES, "Soils Laboratory Tests on Bayou Pierre Sand No. 1," Memorandum for Record, 1963.

to place the sand in the vicinity of the cylinder negate any refinements in explaining differences in laboratory soil properties. The sand around the cylinder in the Cook's Bayou sand tests may have been only of medium relative density.

B.3 Elastic Properties

Hendron (1963, p 84) concluded that the coefficient of earth pressure at rest, K_0 , varies inversely with the angle of internal friction, ϕ , as determined from drained triaxial tests.

$$K_0 = 1 - \sin \phi \quad \text{B.1}$$

For these sands, $\phi = 38^\circ$, Fig. B.5, and therefore

$$K_0 = 1 - \sin 38^\circ = 1 - 0.6 = 0.4 \quad \text{B.2}$$

If the soil were an elastic medium,

$$K_0 = \frac{v_s}{1 - v_s} \quad \text{B.3}$$

and hence

$$v_s = \frac{K_0}{1 + K_0} = \frac{0.4}{1.4} = 0.29 \quad \text{B.4}$$

where v_s is Poisson's ratio for the soil.

Young's modulus of elasticity for the soil, E_s , may be expressed in terms of the constrained modulus from the consolidation test, M_c , as

$$E_s = \frac{(1 + v_s)(1 - 2v_s)}{(1 - v_s)} M_c \quad \text{B.5}$$

$$= \frac{(1 + 0.29)(1 - 0.58)}{(1 - 0.29)} M_c$$

$$= \frac{(1.29)(0.42)}{0.71} M_c = 0.76 M_c \quad \text{B.6}$$

Variations of the constrained secant modulus, M_{cs} , with vertical pressure are plotted in Fig. B.5. One-dimensional properties obtained at

several relative densities for the Cook's Bayou No. 1 sand are reported by McNulty (1965).

Whitman and Healy (1962), discussing triaxial test results, and Davisson (1964), discussing one-dimensional test results, have indicated that essentially no dynamic strain-rate effects exist for dense, dry sands of the type used in this investigation.



Fig. B.1 Sand Placement in the SBLG

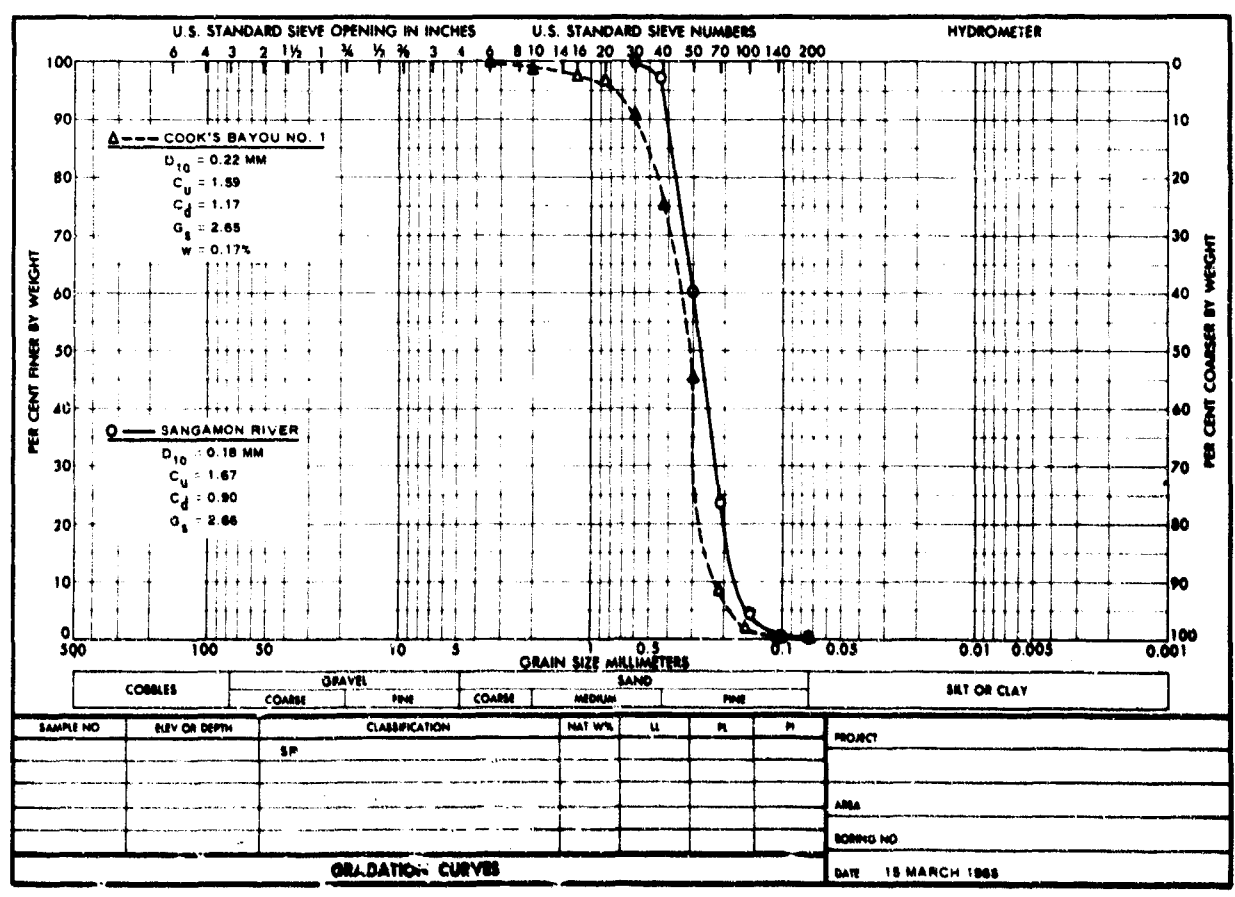


Fig. B.2 Gradation Curves for the Sands

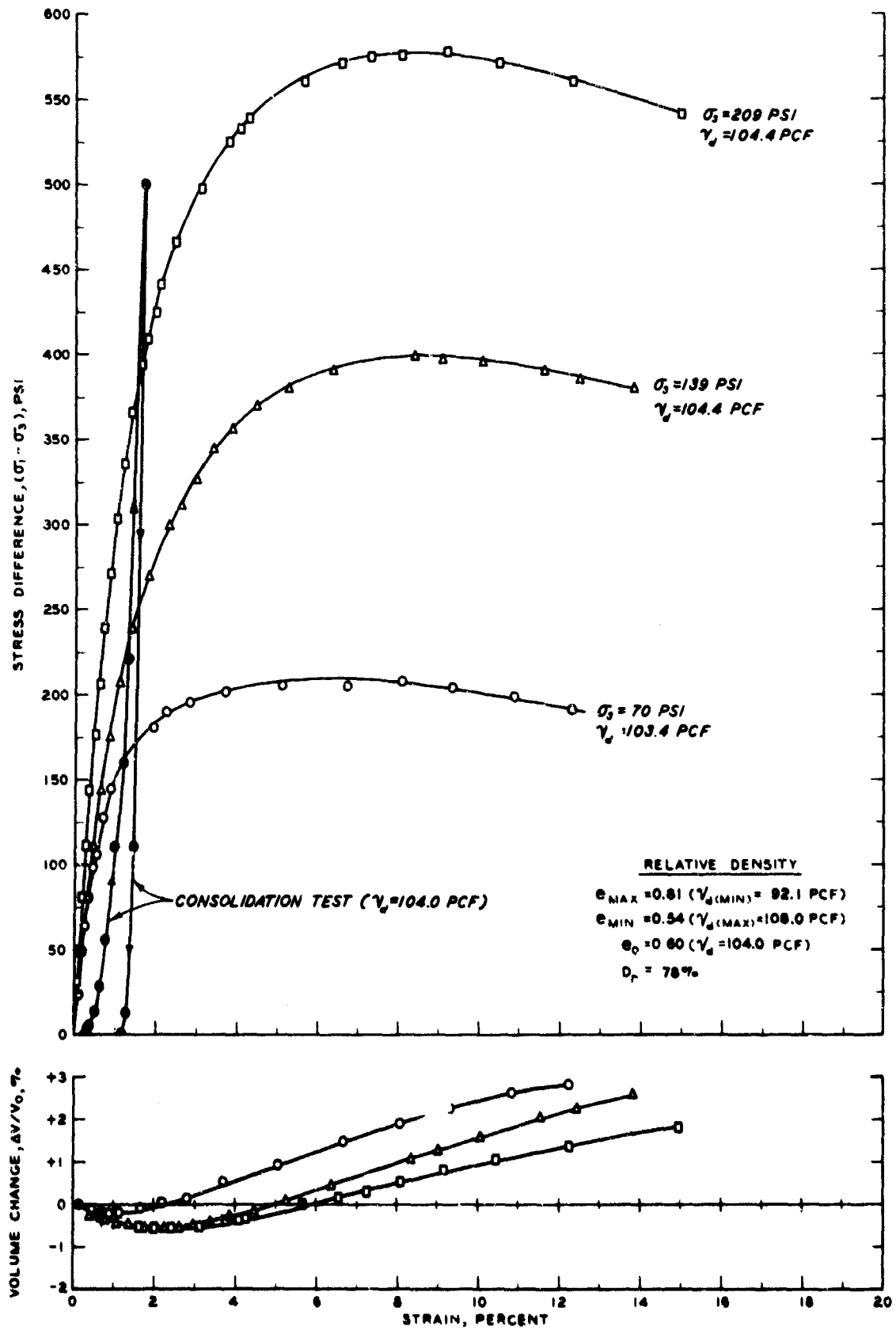


Fig. B.3 Stress-Strain Relations for Sangamon River Sand

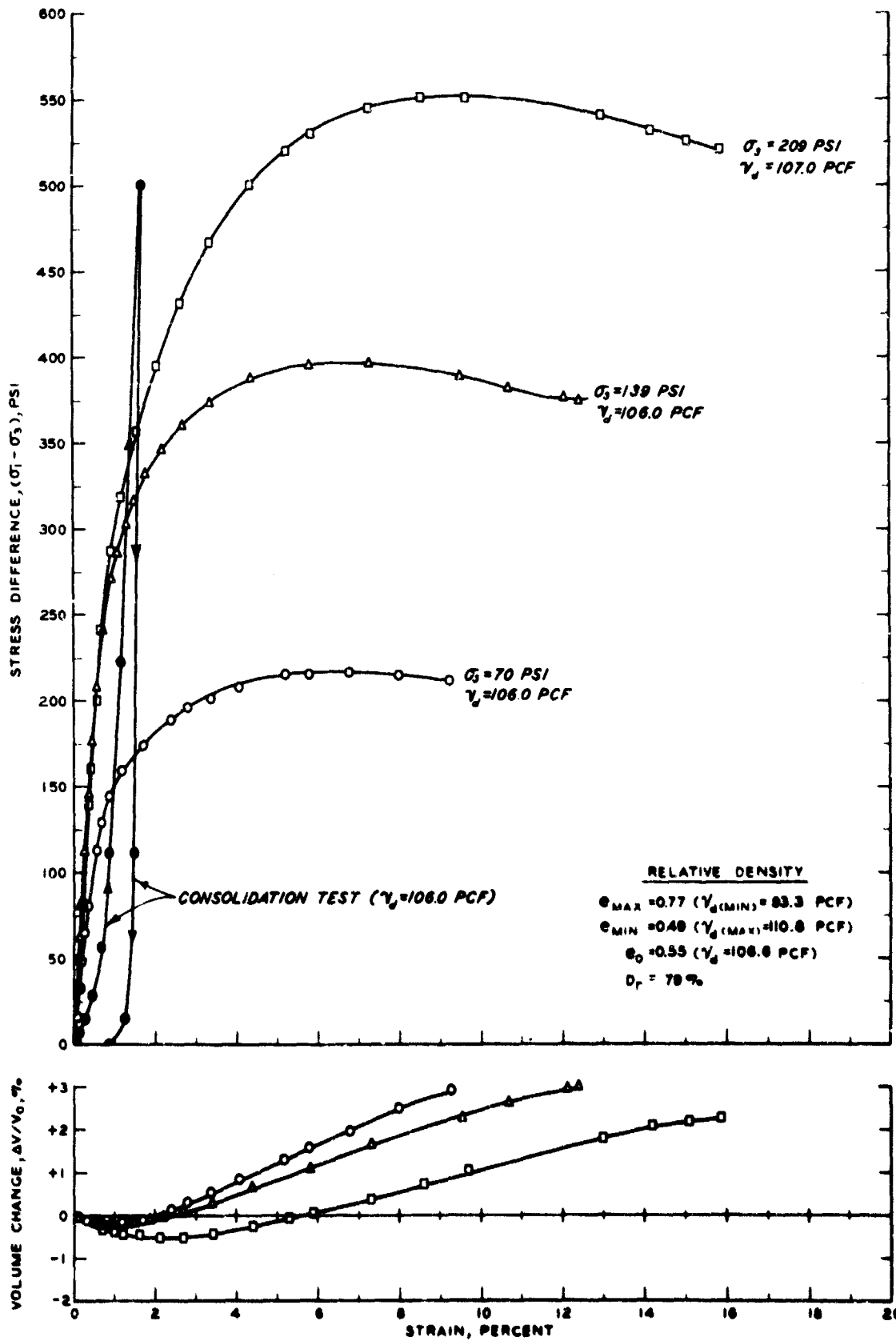
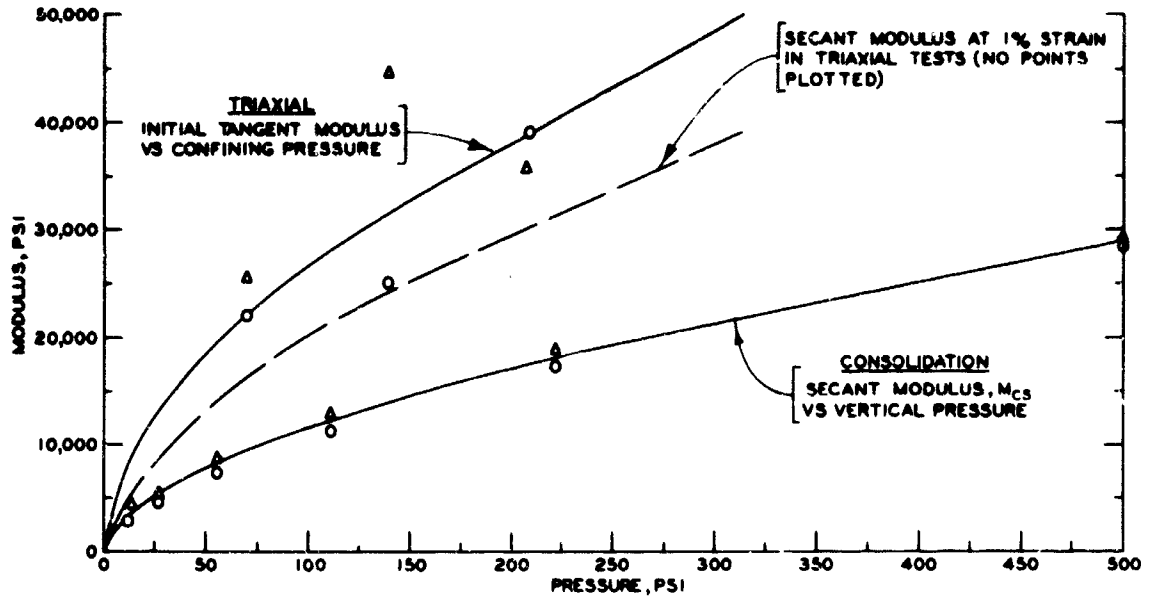
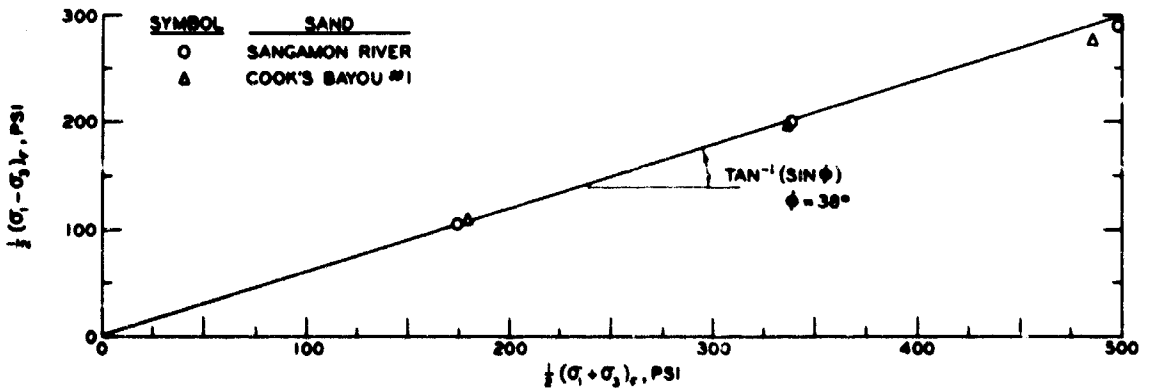


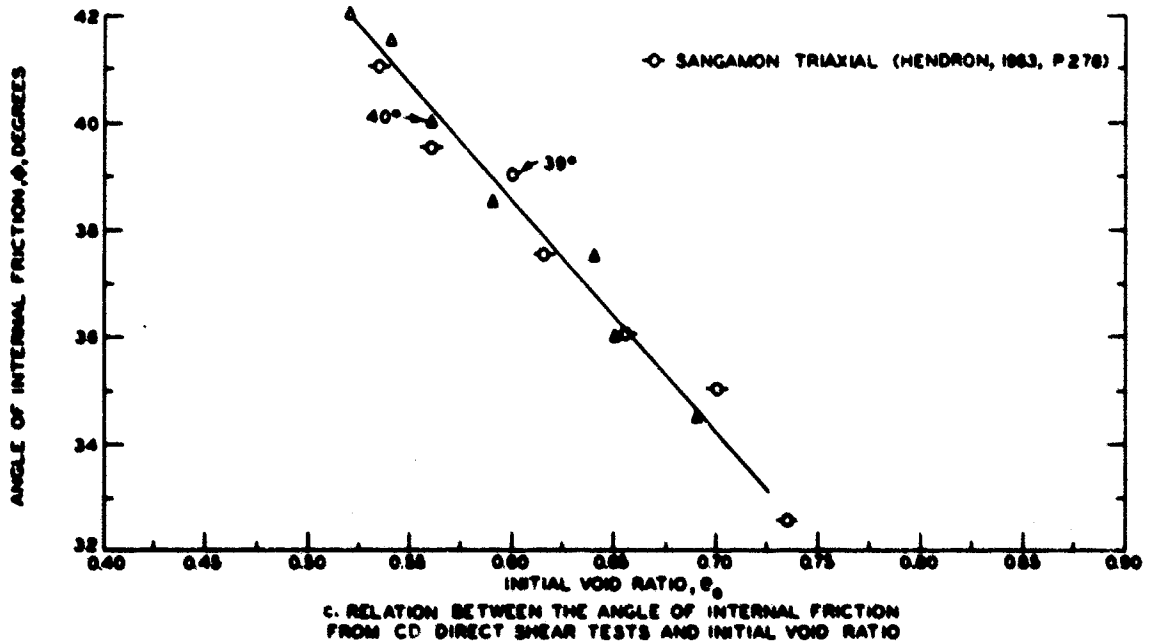
Fig. B.4 Stress-Strain Relations for Cook's Bayou No. 1 Sand



a. RELATION BETWEEN MODULUS AND PRESSURE



b. MODIFIED MOHR-COULOMB DIAGRAM



c. RELATION BETWEEN THE ANGLE OF INTERNAL FRICTION FROM CD DIRECT SHEAR TESTS AND INITIAL VOID RATIO

Fig. B.5 Moduli and Strength Characteristics for Sands

APPENDIX C. PROPERTIES OF BUCKSHOT CLAY

C.1 Placement Techniques

The placement of small-scale test structures in a clay soil is a new endeavor. Luscher and Höeg (1964, pp 219-225) pointed out some of the difficulties in soil control. Inherent in the WES test setup are two additional difficulties: (a) the cylinder ends are closed before burial so that strutting the diameters is impracticable; (b) the cylinder cannot be positioned vertically for soil placement and then positioned horizontally for loading because the test chamber is a complete ring and cannot be sectioned.

It was therefore decided to use a technique already developed for footing tests, Carroll (1963) and Jackson and Hadala (1964), to place and compact the clay to the top of the 2-ft-deep test device. The cylinder would then be placed in the medium by cutting out a trench of appropriate dimensions in the center of the clay specimens and carefully backfilling around the cylinder. The technique for accomplishing the latter task was determined and patterned after procedures described in a feasibility study.* Although adequate for the present investigation, the technique still has some drawbacks which will be discussed below.

The procedure followed in placing the 2-ft-thick clay specimen in the SBLG ring is shown in Fig. C.1. The clay was mixed in a pugmill and brought to the test area by truck, Fig. C.1a. When stored, the clay was kept continuously sealed in a polyethylene membrane (wrapper) except when

* R. W. Cunny, Chief, Soil Dynamics Branch, Soils Division, WES, "Tentative Placement Technique for Cylinders Buried in Clay Specimens," Memorandum for: Chief, Nuclear Weapons Effects Division, 1965 (in preparation).

soil was removed. The soil was processed on Fridays and allowed to cure over a weekend. The soil was weighed so that each loose lift, Fig. C.1b, would produce a 2-in. compacted lift. The loose soil was first hand-tamped, Fig. C.1c, and then compacted by three passes of a pneumatic tamper, Fig. C.1d. The soil surface was scarified, Fig. C.1e, between lifts. The quality of the placement was controlled and checked primarily through the use of density samples, Fig. C.1f. Vane-shear tests, Fig. C.1g, were made for certain specimens. Unconfined and confined compressive tests were performed on soil cubes that were taken from the top 8 in. of the specimen before and after each test. The pretest cube was taken at a distance of 1 ft from the cylinder and the hole was filled in a manner to duplicate the free-field placement. These results, as well as water content and density determinations, are given in Table C.1.

The cylinder was placed by cutting out an area in the center of the 2-ft-thick clay specimen, Fig. C.2a. The length and width of the cavity were the same for all tests and only the depth was varied. A template was used to size the excavation, Fig. C.2b, and it also served as a guide for the scooping operations, Fig. C.2c, which cut out a seat for the bottom half of the cylinder. The half-cylindrical cavity was formed exactly to the cylinder dimensions, and areas were carved out to accommodate the strain gages and end nuts, Fig. C.2d. The cylinder was then placed in the carved-out area, Fig. C.2e. The backfill was placed in loose, 3/4-in. lifts, Fig. C.2f, and compacted by three passes of a Harvard miniature compactor, Fig. C.2g. A lift is shown in place in Fig. C.2h. It is believed that very close contact was achieved between the clay and the cylinder.

All 16 hoop strain gages were monitored during the placement operation. Some strain was impressed into the cylinder during each phase of the placement. Although several remedial methods (such as imposing a small vertical load on the cylinder through a saddle adapter) were tried to eliminate the strains, it was only possible to minimize them. About 40 percent of the total strain caused by placement occurred during the first seating phase, Fig. C.2e. Much of the remainder came during the first and second backfilling lifts; very little disturbance was noted in the cylinder due to lifts placed after the crown was covered.

The strains were primarily bending in nature and were most severe at the quarter points. The strains indicated that the cylinders assumed a slight vertical-elliptical shape. They probably did not significantly influence the failure pressure or mode of failure.

The average impressed strain resulting from the placement is shown in Fig. C.3. It is apparent that this placement technique must be improved before it can be applied to more flexible cylinders. Dorris and Albritton (1965) had very satisfactory results with this technique on a stiffer cylinder ($EI/R^3 = 82$).

The placement technique was tedious and required a considerable amount of time. So much hand labor is involved that each of the ten tests required an average of one week in the testing device. Great care had to be taken to keep the clay sealed to avoid moisture loss. The water content determination from the cube tests indicates that this was successful (Table C.1).

The placement technique in the WES laboratory is probably better than that which could be achieved in a field installation.

C.2 Soil Strength and Deformation Characteristics

The gradation curve and specific gravity, G_s , are shown in Fig. C.4. The clay is classified as a CH, and the results of several Atterberg limits tests are shown in Fig. C.5. The static, unconfined compressive strengths, q_u , were determined in the laboratory from samples taken from 8-in. cubes cut from the in-place clay specimens (the hole was refilled to the same density). The results are plotted in Fig. C.6. Average values are listed for each test in Table C.1.

In order to establish the quality of the backfill, specimens of clay were compacted in a mold in as nearly the same manner as the backfill was compacted. Unconfined specimens were cut from the mold and tested. The results are plotted in Fig. C.6. Those, coupled with the information from the vane-shear tests, indicate that the backfill was about 25 percent weaker than the compacted soil in the free field. Some of the weaker mold specimens were honeycombed (visual inspection) and this resulted in the lower values plotted in Fig. C.6 and the lower density values plotted in Fig. C.9. These molds were made during the early weeks of the investigation, and they may not have been truly representative of the compacted backfill.

Static triaxial (UU) test results are plotted in Fig. C.7. The degree of saturation, S_r , was about 90 percent and an apparent friction angle, ϕ , equal to 1.7 degrees was deduced.

In order to establish an approximation to the one-dimensional stress-strain relation, three consolidation tests were run in which the vertical stress was applied and the deformation recorded as a function of time, Fig. C.7.

Moduli from the triaxial (UU) tests are plotted against confining pressure, σ_3 , in Fig. C.8. These moduli exhibited a negligible increase with confining pressure and a line representing the average value is shown. Also in Fig. C.8, the secant modulus from the consolidation test at 6 sec elapsed time (after load application) is plotted with respect to vertical pressure.

The dry density, γ_d , is shown in Fig. C.9 with respect to water content. It can be seen that the in-place soil is very similar to that used by Jackson and Hadala (1964).

Carroll (1963) conducted dynamic triaxial tests on buckshot clay ($w = 27.1\%$) and indicated that the clay is strain-rate sensitive. However, the dynamic cylinder tests of this investigation either masked the effect or did not benefit from it. Kane and others (1964) discussed the behavior of clay under rapid and dynamic loading.

Table C.1
Pretest Properties of Clay Specimens

Test	Ring	Order of Construction Date	Average Water Content, w, Percent			Cube Tests, Degree of Saturation, S _r %	Average Dry Unit Weights, pcf		Average UC		Average Posttest UC Compressive Strength tons/sq ft	Pressure Applied During Cyl. Test psi	Average Strength tons/sq ft	Average Field Backfill	Average Posttest UC Compressive Strength tons/sq ft		
			Requested from Pug Mill	At Pug Mill	In Truck		From Top 8 in. Density Samples	Top 8 in. of Ring 7d	Soil Cube Tests 7d	Soil Strength tons/sq ft						Soil Cube Mold	Soil Vane Strength tons/sq ft
D-1	1	11/16/64	26	25.2	24.9	24.9	25.2	89.9	96.3	96.0	2.90	1.65	3.97	--	300	3.8	
D-2	2	11/30/64	25	24.7	24.7	24.1	24.2	91.3	97.3	98.1	3.16	--	--	--	130	3.6	
D-3	3	12/7/64	25	24.7	24.7	23.8	23.9	87.2	97.8	96.9	2.83	--	--	--	100	4.8	
D-4	4	12/14/64	25	25.2	25.4	24.5	24.4	88.9	96.5	96.7	2.72	2.22	--	--	190	3.9	
D-5	5	12/21/64	25	25.2	25.4	24.3	24.3	90.2	96.6	97.5	3.38	1.89	--	--	180	4.4	
D-10	6	1/11/65	25	25.5	24.4	24.1	24.0	88.5	98.1	97.3	3.05	--	--	--	97	3.4	
D-9	7	1/18/65	25	25.5	24.4	23.7	23.7	89.1	8.6	98.1	3.35	1.91	5.28	4.22	148	3.6	
D-8	8	1/25/65	25	27.0	25.0	25.6	25.0	88.2	95.3	95.4	2.52	3.10	4.20	4.06	116	2.9	
D-7	9	2/1/65	25	27.0	25.0	26.1	26.7	90.7	95.0	93.8	1.50	2.18	--	--	180	2.1	
D-6	10	2/8/65	25	--	--	24.6	24.3	89.0	96.9	96.9	3.06	2.76	--	--	160	3.1	
						Average			24.6	89.3	96.7	2.89	2.24	4.48	4.14		

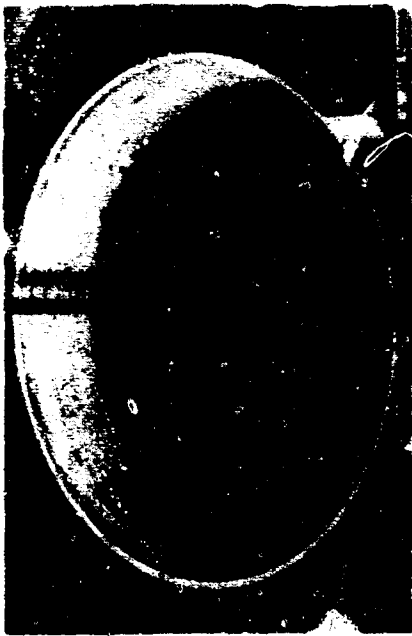


Fig. C.1 Placement of Buckshot Clay in WES Small Blast Load Generator

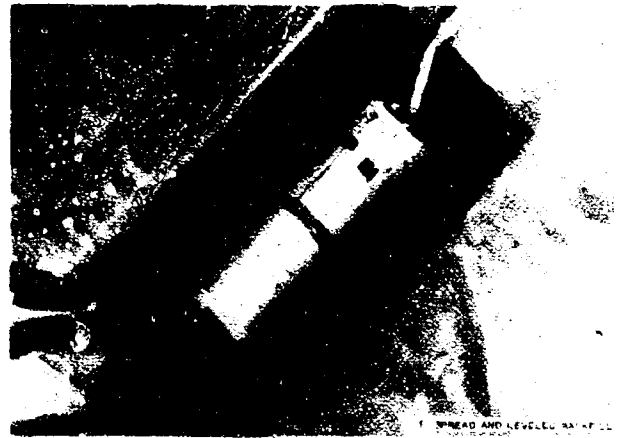
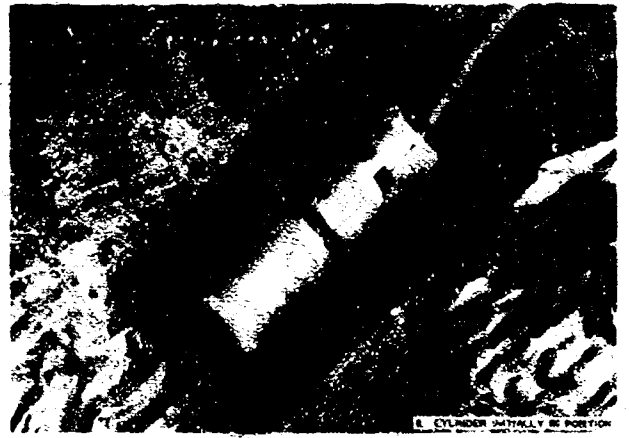
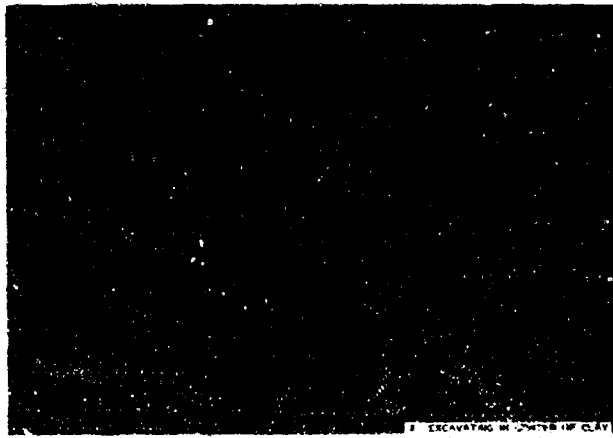


Fig. C.2 Placement of Cylinder in Buckshot Clay and Subsequent Backfilling

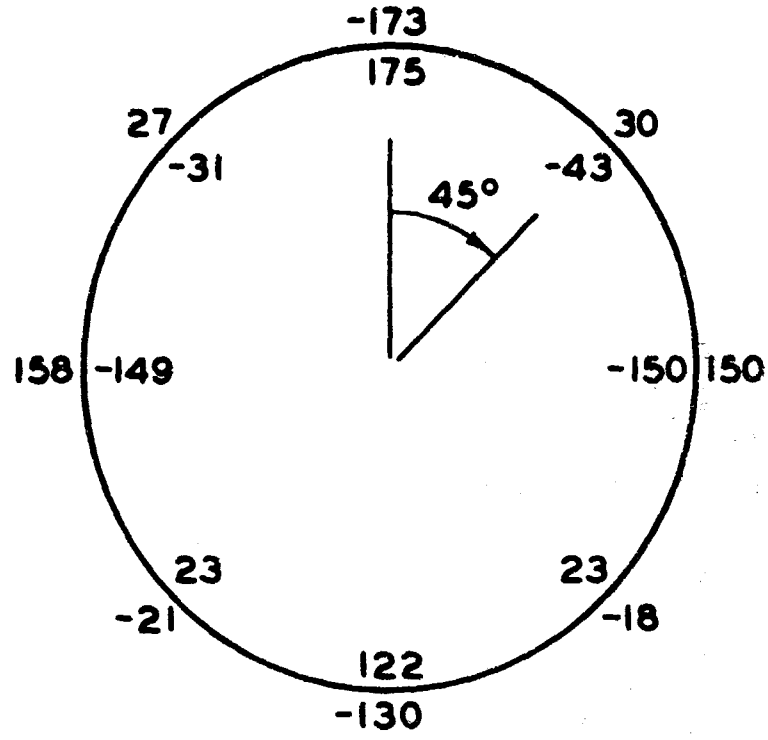


Fig. C.3 Average Placement Strains

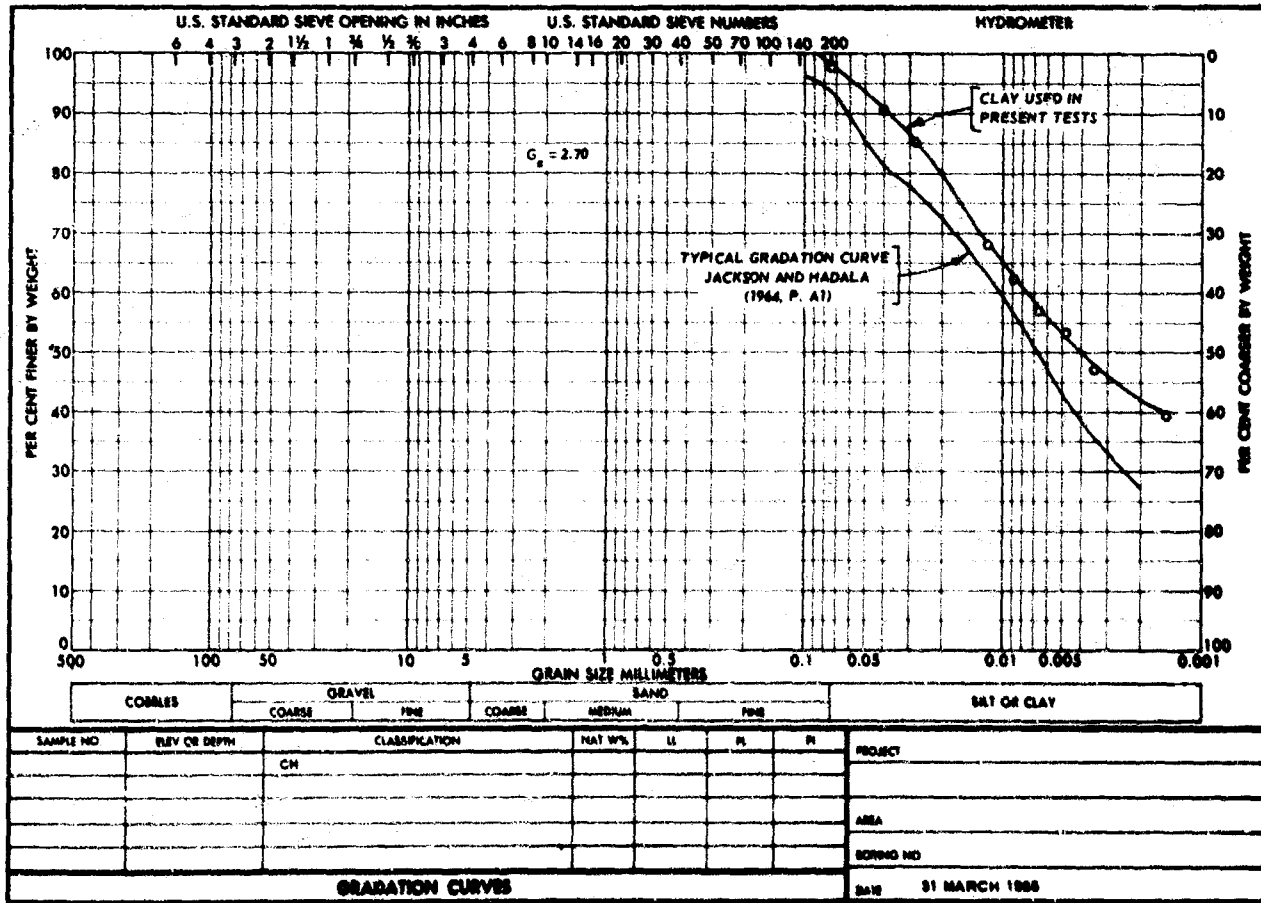


Fig. C.4 Gratation Curve for Buckshot Clay

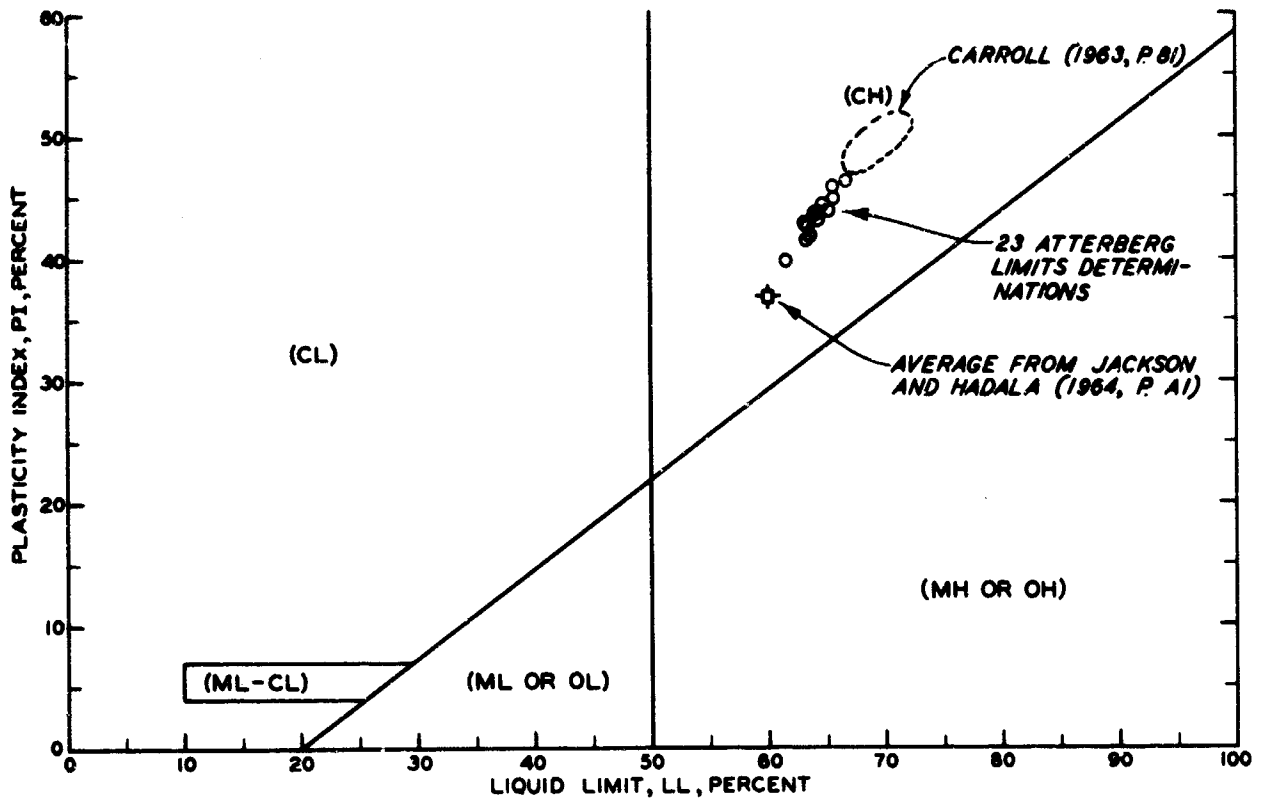


Fig. C.5 Atterberg Limits

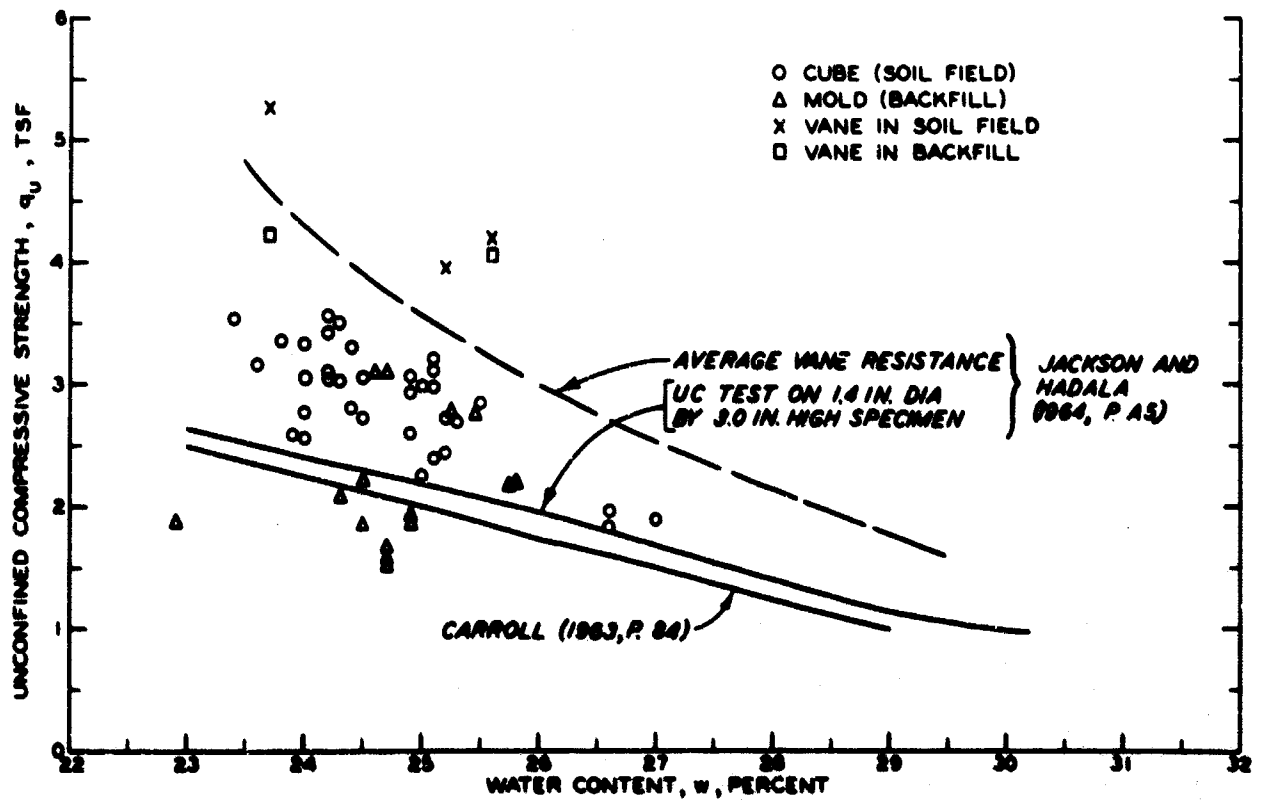


Fig. C.6 Unconfined Compressive Strength-Water Content Relation

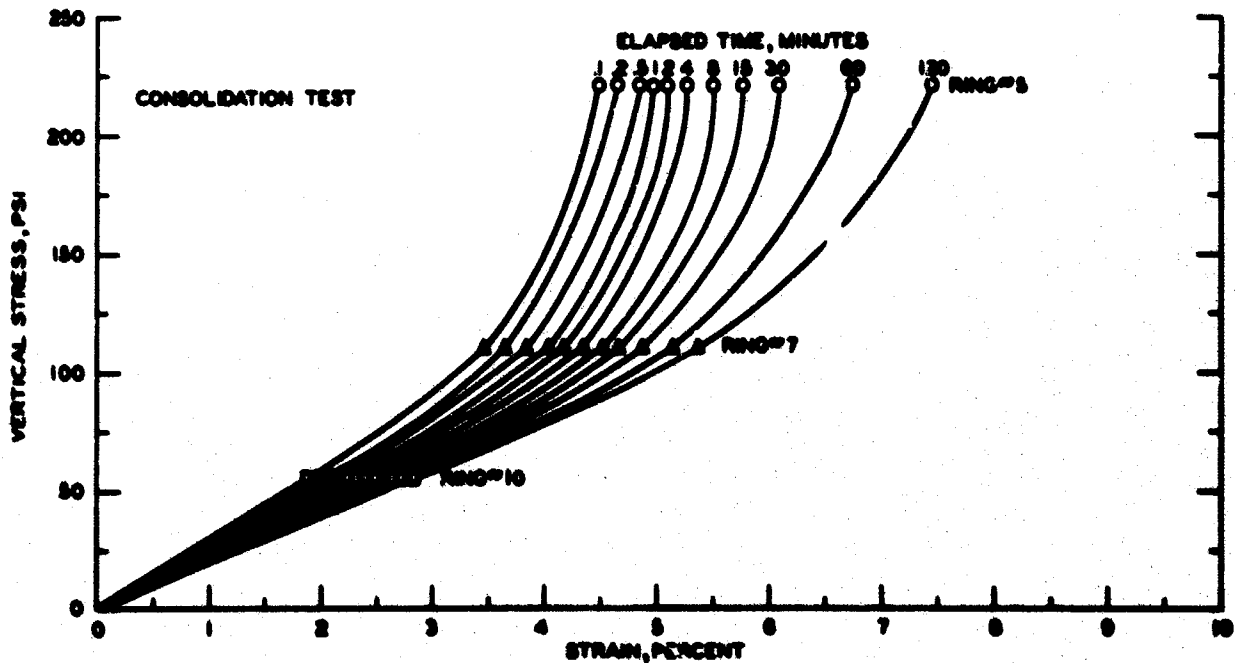
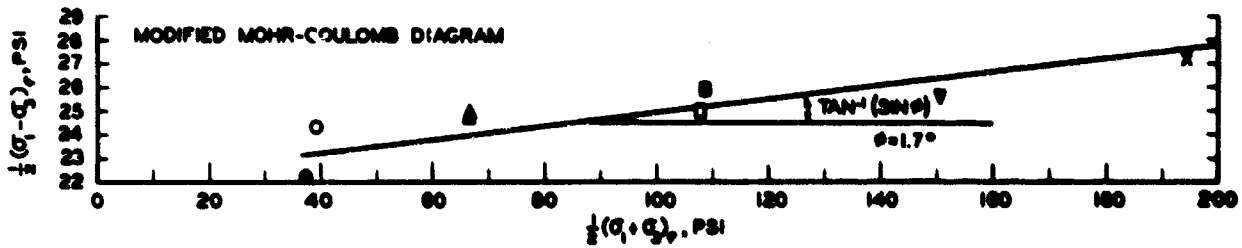
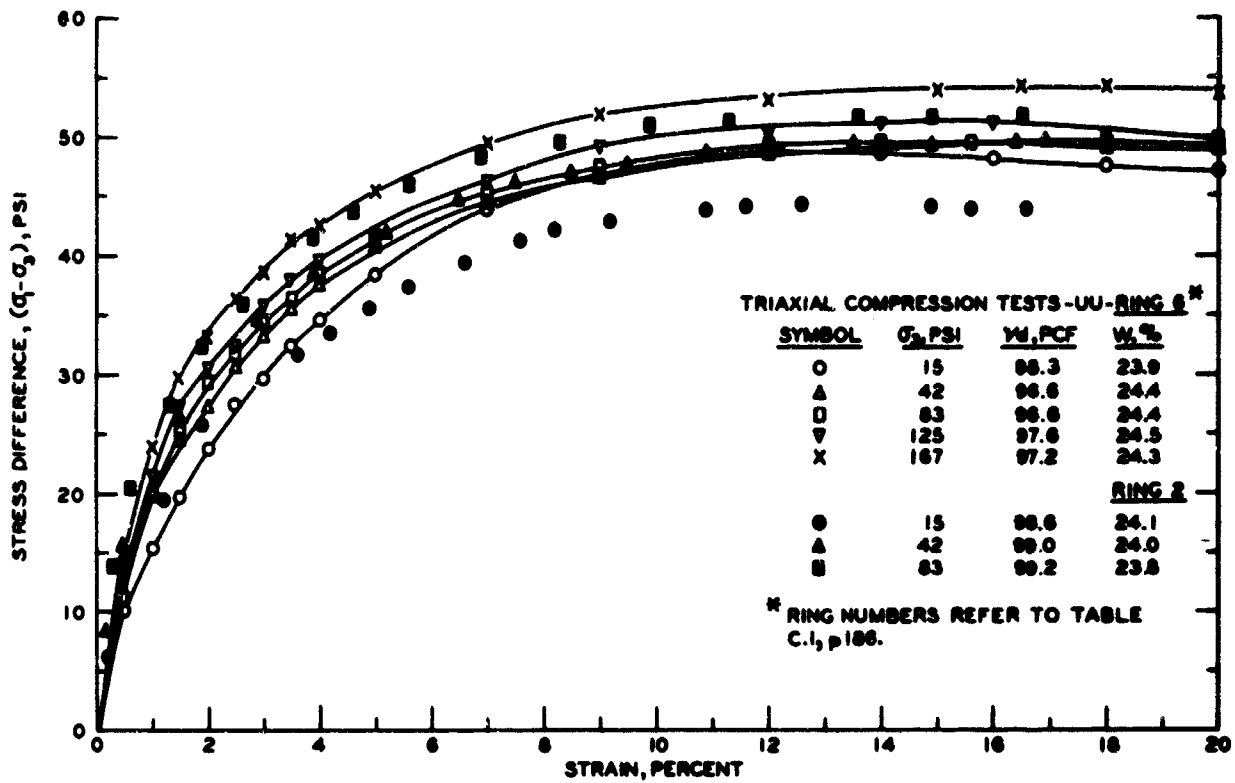


Fig. C.7 Stress-Strain Relations for Buckshot Clay

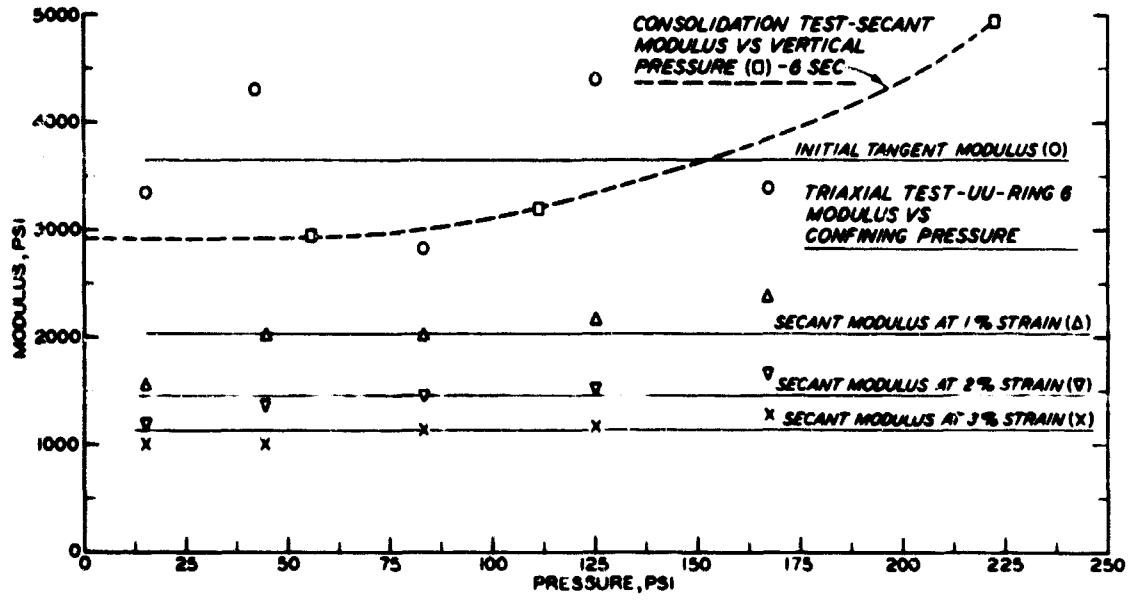


Fig. C.8 Relation Between Moduli and Pressure for Buckshot Clay

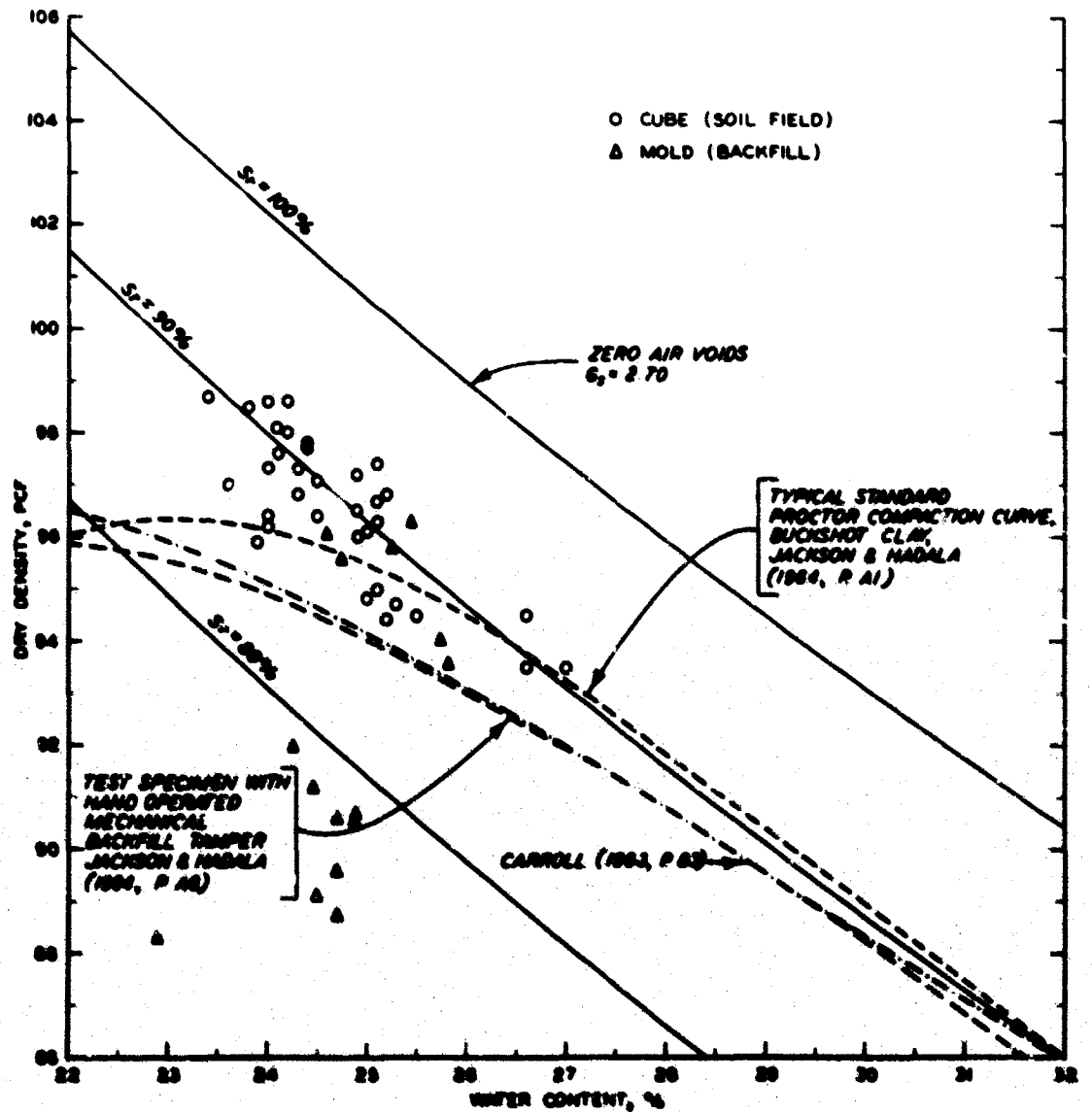


Fig. C.9 Density-Moisture Content Relation for Buckshot Clay

APPENDIX D. TRANSDUCERS

D.1 Strain Gages

Gages $3/8$ in. long were used because gages long enough to give reasonable average strains but short enough to eliminate the necessity of making curvature corrections were desired.

However, to initiate the investigation while the $3/8$ -in. gages were being procured, cylinders B-1 through B-5 were instrumented with $1/4$ -in.-long gages. They were Budd Metalfilm strain gages, Type Cl2 141B, $1/4$ in. by $1/8$ in. The remainder of the B group and all of the A and C groups were instrumented with Type Cl2 161. These gages were all temperature-compensated for aluminum. They are not classified as post-yield strain gages but are capable of measuring strains accurately to 4-5 percent, according to the manufacturer. The gages functioned satisfactorily on tension test specimens (Appendix A) in that they measured strains accurately to values greater than 2 percent, and appeared to perform satisfactorily for the cylinder measurements.

Procurement complications prevented the acquisition of identical gages for cylinder groups D and E. Instead, Baldwin-Lima-Hamilton gages, Type FA-37-12-S13, were used. These are also $3/8$ -in. gages which are temperature-compensated for aluminum. The manufacturer indicates that these are accurate to 2 percent strain and they performed satisfactorily on tension test specimens strained beyond $1-5/10$ percent.

Eastman 910 cement was tried as a gage adhesive on several tension test specimens, but was found to be unsatisfactory for strain levels beyond 0.5 percent. Armstrong adhesive C-2 was used to bond

all of the strain gages to the cylinders.

The inside gages were waterproofed by an application of Gagekote No. 1 (a solvent-thinned synthetic resin compound) while the outside gages were covered with Gagekote No. 5 (a two-compound, rubber-like epoxy resin) followed by Gagekote No. 2 (a solvent-thinned nitrile rubber) to isolate them further from the soil media.

A limited study was made to determine the potential influence of the soil pressure (acting as a normal force) on the outside strain gages. Four gages were mounted on a piece of 1/2-in.-thick aluminum plate and covered with various protective coatings, Fig. D.1. Gage 1 had a metal cover so that no soil pressure could reach the gage, and hence it served as a control on the response of the other three gages. All gages were waterproofed. Gage 2 was covered with a 0.015-in.-thick strip of fish-paper, gage 3 with Gagekote No. 5, and gage 4 with a piece of electrical, rubber tape. The plate was horizontally buried in sand and loaded statically to 300 psi. Negligible differences were noted in the response of the four gages, and the technique used for gage 3 was selected for its ease of use.

D.2 Diameter Change Gages

A diameter change gage was required which would be expendable since the cylinder collapse would destroy anything inside. The transducer used was recommended by Professor V. J. McDonald of the University of Illinois. It consisted of a curved strip of 0.01-in.-thick brass shim stock 1/4 in. by 6 in., Fig. D.2. Budd Metalfilm, Type C12 141B, strain gages were mounted on each side of the strip's center with Eastman 910 cement. The gages were joined electrically to indicate only the bending

strains. Two 1/32-in.-diameter holes were drilled in each end of the strip and in the cylinder. The same nut and bolt arrangement was used for mounting the strip in the cylinder, Fig. 4.1a, as was used in calibration.

Each diameter change gage was calibrated in extension and compression in a Pratt and Whitney Super Micrometer. The apparent strain gage output was a linear function of displacement, and amounted to 5 μ in./in. per 0.001 in. of diameter change.

The gage could not be used for rapid or dynamic testing because it experienced excessive ringing under these loadings. Gages were coated with petroelastic to dampen the spurious vibrations but no improvement resulted.

D.3 Overpressure Gages

For the tests conducted at the University of Illinois, Bourdon gages were used to measure the static overpressure. Their accuracy was verified relative to other available gages.

The rapid pressure tests were monitored by a Kistler piezoelectric pressure transducer Model 601. The transducer was calibrated prior to testing and its output was a linear function of overpressure, 0.41 picocoulombs per psi or about 125 psi per inch of paper deflection. The gage was checked after each test, and no calibration changes were required.

Both the static and dynamic tests at WES were monitored by Norwood pressure transducers Model 211. These were statically calibrated prior to each test, and exhibited a generally linear response. They were ranged for about 250 psi/in. of paper deflection statically, and 125 psi/in. of paper deflection dynamically.

At least two gages were used in each test and the measured pressure for the gages was within ± 5 percent of the average. A Bourdon gage was used to verify the peak static pressure and thereby made the static values more reliable; but the dynamic results probably varied either because of the use of a static calibration or because of the motions of the gage mounts. The gages were located between the firing tubes in the dynamic bonnet. A study by Kennedy and Sadler (1965) has shown that the surface pressure distribution is uniform within ± 10 percent.

Fig. D.1 Strain Gage Test

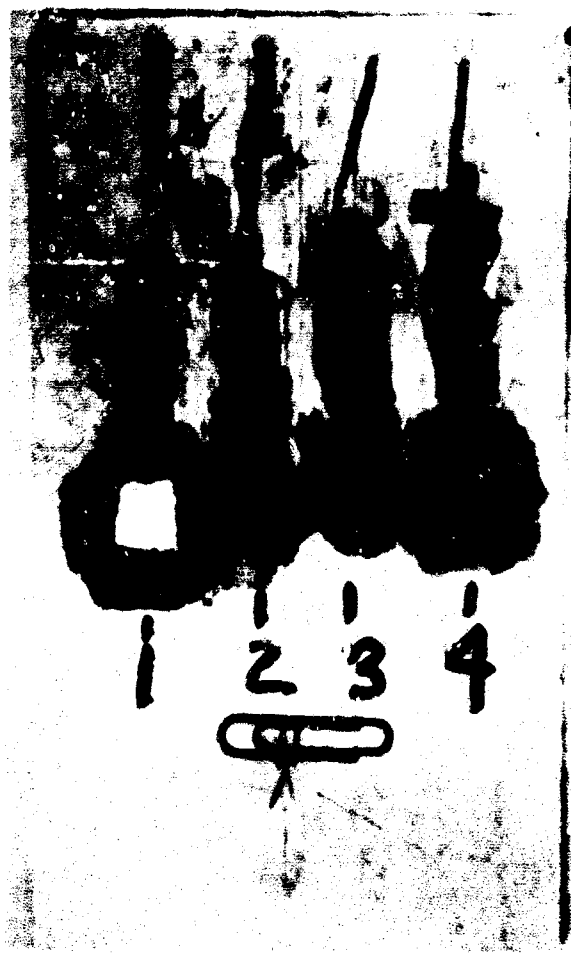


Fig. D.2 Diameter Change Gage

VITA

Albert Francis Dorris was born in Utica, New York, on October 25, 1936. Following graduation from Utica Free Academy in 1955, he entered the United States Military Academy. He was named to the 1957 All-American Track and Field Team. In his senior year, he was appointed a Cadet Captain. He received the Bachelor of Science Degree in June 1959 and stood 6th in graduation order of merit out of a class of 499. Upon graduation he was commissioned as a regular officer in the United States Army, Corps of Engineers. He attended the Engineer Officers' Basic Course at Fort Belvoir, Virginia, and the U. S. Army's Airborne and Ranger courses at Fort Benning, Georgia, enroute to his initial assignment in Korea. From June 1960 to June 1961 he was with the 547th Engineer Company (Float Bridge) in Korea as a Platoon Leader and Company Commander. In August 1961 he entered the Engineer Officers' Advanced Course at Fort Belvoir and subsequently worked for a brief period in the Office of the Chief of Engineers before entering graduate training in Civil Engineering at the University of Illinois in June 1962. He received the Master of Science Degree from Illinois in June 1963 and from June 1964 to June 1965 was assigned to the U. S. Army Engineer Waterways Experiment Station, Vicksburg, Mississippi, as a Project Engineer. He currently holds the rank of Captain in the Corps of Engineers and is a member of the American Society of Civil Engineers, the Society of American Military Engineers, and the Association of the United States Army. He is an Engineer-in-Training in the State of Illinois.