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Pressure-impulse diagrams for elastoplastic beams subjected to pulse-pressure loading

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Abstract

Pressure-impulse (or p - I) diagrams are developed for fully-clamped elastic-plastic beams subjected to pulse-pressure loading with varying degree of negative phase. Unlike traditional p - I diagrams, the loading parameter space are instead divided into régimes, corresponding to the three modes of deformation (I, II and III) observed in blast experiments. The effects of pulse shape, beam aspect ratio and negative phase loading on the isodamage curves that delineate the different régimes are investigated. In addition, it is further demonstrated that contour lines of structural performance (maximum deflection, total work done, partitioned energy and saturated) can also be incorporated into the non-dimensionalised pressure-impulse space to provide further information for the design, and assessment, of elastic-plastic beams to blast loading.

Keywords: Pressure-impulse diagram, deformation régimes, negative phase, saturated impulse

1. Introduction

The pressure-impulse, or p - I for brevity, diagram is a useful design tool that allows quick assessment of the dynamic response of a structural component (typically its final state

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rather than the response history) to a specified load case. They are typically generated using a simplified single-degree-of-freedom (SDOF) model, whereupon once the maximum displacement (or permissible damage level) has been defined, the p - I space is divided into region(s), corresponding to different régimes, which gives the combinations of load and impulse that are safe or, would otherwise, cause failure (or a specific damage level). A large body of literature already exists on various aspects of constructing p - I diagrams and their features, the majority of which is based on a maximum structural deflection criterion, i.e. it assumes that a structure always deforms in mode I (Abrahamson and Lindberg, 1976; Li and Meng, 2002a,b; Dragos and Wu, 2013; Hamra et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2007; Tsai and Krauthammer, 2017). However, experiments by Menkes and Opat (1973) have showed that a fully clamped beam subjected to a blast load can develop three different modes of deformation: mode I - large inelastic deformation; mode II - tensile-tearing at the support; mode III - shear-band localisation. Unlike in mode I, failure (this is accompanied by complete detachment from the supports) occurs in modes II and III. Hitherto, no work has been done to incorporate information relating to modes II and III deformation in existing p - I diagrams.

Nomenclature

B	width of beam
D	damage variable
E	Young's modulus
E_S^b, E_S^m, E_S^s	bending, membrane, shear energy absorbed at the support
E^P	total work done
H	thickness of beam
I^+, I^-	positive and negative impulse
I^*	non-dimensional impulse
I_{sat}^*	non-dimensional saturated impulse
L	half length of beam
M	bending moment
M_0	fully plastic bending moment
N	membrane force
N_0	fully plastic membrane force
$p(t)$	overpressure time-history
p_c	fully plastic collapse force per unit length
p_0	peak overpressure
p^*	p_0/p_c
Q	transverse shear force
Q_0	fully plastic transverse shear force
t	time
t_d, t_d^-	positive and negative phase duration
t_1, t_2	time when plastic hinge form at support and mid-span of beam
t_3	time when beam motion ceases or damage occurs

w_i	generalised transverse displacements
W_B	mid-span deflection
W_0	maximum mid-span deflection
W_S	plastic shear sliding distance at support
α	decay coefficient
β	ratio of the plastic work absorbed through shearing deformation to the total plastic work done
β_c	critical value of β to separate mode II and III
ϵ_{eff}	effective strain
ϵ_d	effective strain at the onset of damage
ϵ_r	rupture strain
$\phi_i(x)$	admissible mode functions
ω_s	state variable for shear criterion
ρ	density of beam
σ_Y	static yield strength
ξ	position of the travelling plastic hinge

32

33 In this paper, we develop p - I diagrams, using the model of a fully-clamped ductile beam
 34 system by Yuan et al. (2016), to account for the three different modes of deformation and
 35 negative phase loading. In addition, we will demonstrate how contour lines of structural
 36 performance (maximum deflection, total work done, partitioned energy and saturated) can
 37 also be incorporated into the loading parameters space to provide further information for
 38 the design, and assessment, of elastic-plastic beams to blast loading.

39 The outline of this paper is as follows: Section 2 summarises key features of the ductile beam
 40 model in Yuan et al. (2016) and the generation of pulse-pressures with varying negative
 41 phase; p - I diagrams are generation in Section 3 and effects of negative phase loading on
 42 the isodamage curves discussed; and, finally Section 4 shows how contour lines of structural
 43 performance can be incorporated into the diagrams.

44 2. Method

45 A succinct summary of key features of the ductile beam model by Yuan et al. (2016) is given
 46 here. Its predictive capabilities had previously been successfully validated against results
 47 from blast experiments and three-dimensional finite element simulations. For completeness,
 48 we also review how pulse-pressures with both the positive and negative phases are generated;
 49 and, the selection criteria for the loading parameters to be represented in the new p - I
 50 diagrams.

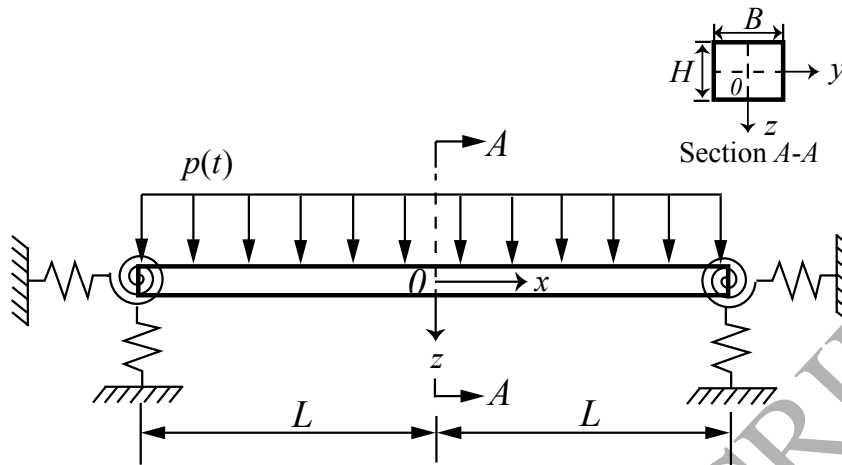


Figure 1: Schematic of the ductile beam system (Yuan et al., 2016).

51 2.1. Structural model - a summary

52 Figure 1 shows a schematic of the ductile beam system which comprises a slender beam
 53 (made of a rate-independent, elastic perfectly-plastic material) supported at each end by
 54 three springs, one rotational and two axials. The two torsional ‘elasto-plastic’ springs model
 55 the end rotation of the beam and the subsequent formation of plastic hinges. Both axial and
 56 vertical springs have ‘rigid-plastic’ characteristics to model plastic stretch and plastic shear
 57 sliding at the support, respectively. A pulse-pressure loading $p(t)$, see Section 2.2, impinges
 58 normally, and uniformly, over the full span of the beam regardless of its subsequent transverse
 59 ‘in-plane’ motion.

60 The deformation of the beam is divided into three phases - see Fig. 2 - according to the
 61 sequence of hinge formation: (a) Phase 1 ($0 < t \leq t_1$) - no plastic hinge forms anywhere along
 62 the beam; (b) Phase 2 ($t_1 < t \leq t_2$) - a stationary plastic hinge forms at the support on each
 63 end of the beam; (c) Phase 3 ($t_2 < t \leq t_3$) - plastic hinge A travels towards, and coalesce
 64 with, an existing stationary hinge at the mid-span, ending in a final three-hinge collapse
 65 configuration. In each phase, the transverse beam deflection is approximated as a sum of n
 66 generalised displacements $w_i(t)$ and admissible mode functions $\phi_i(x)$. Once the total strain
 67 energy V of each phase is derived, the governing equations of motions for the beam system
 68 are obtained by substituting the Lagrangian into the well-known Euler-Lagrange equation
 69 – details are given in Yuan et al. (2016). It must be emphasised that the analytical model
 70 does not consider the subsequent elastic rebound beyond the maximum mid-span deflection
 71 (at $t = t_3$) - the justification for this is provided in Section 2.3.

72 The structural model implements gradual softening of the non-dimensional bending moment
 73 \bar{M} , membrane force \bar{N} and transverse shear force \bar{Q} as a function of effective strain ϵ_{eff} .

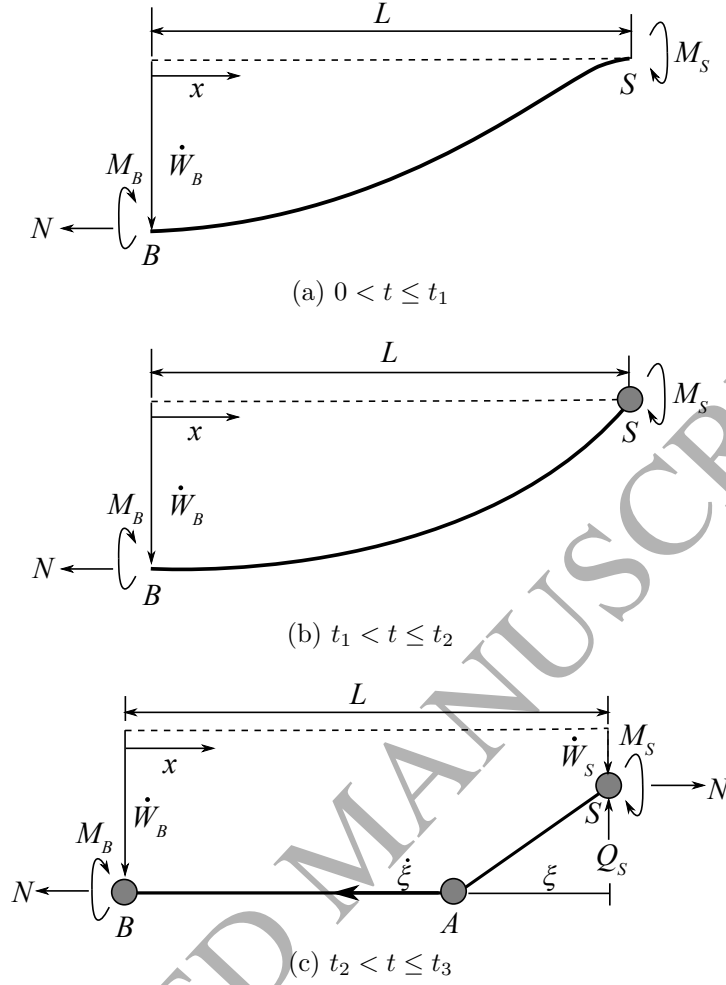


Figure 2: Schematic of the transverse displacement (W_B) profile for the right-half of the ductile beam system in Yuan et al. (2016). (a), (b) and (c) depicts Phases 1, 2 and 3 deformation, respectively. Subscripts S and B denote support and beam member, respectively; whilst, M , N and Q are generalised stresses.

74 The effective strain ϵ_{eff} can be expressed as follows

$$\epsilon_{\text{eff}} = \begin{cases} 2\left(\frac{W_B}{L}\right)^2\left(\frac{x}{L}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{W_B}{L}\right)\left(\frac{x}{L}\right)\left(\frac{H}{L}\right) & \text{if } 0 \leq x < L \\ \sqrt{\left[2\left(\frac{W_B}{L}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{W_B}{L}\right)\left(\frac{H}{L}\right)\right]^2 + \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{W_S}{H}\right)^2} & \text{if } x = L \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

75 where W_B and W_S are transverse displacement at the mid-span of the beam and plastic
76 shear sliding distance at the support, respectively; H is thickness and L is half length of the
77 beam.

78 Initiation of ductile damage follows a criterion given by

$$\omega_d = \frac{\epsilon_{\text{eff}}}{\epsilon_d} = 1 \quad (2)$$

79 where ω_d is a state variable that increases monotonically with effective strain ϵ_{eff} , and ϵ_d
 80 is the effective strain at damage initiation (or damage strain). Beyond this, progressive
 81 softening of the generalised stresses occur in accordance to the following evolution law:

$$|\bar{M}| = |\bar{M}^f|(1 - D), \quad \bar{N} = \bar{N}^f(1 - D) \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{Q} = \bar{Q}^f(1 - D) \quad (3)$$

82 where $\bar{M} = M/M_0$, $\bar{N} = N/N_0$ and $\bar{Q} = Q/Q_0$ are the non-dimensional fully plastic gener-
 83 alised stresses; $M_0 = \sigma_Y BH^2/4$, $N_0 = \sigma_Y BH$ and $Q_0 = 2\sigma_Y BH/3\sqrt{3}$ are the fully plastic
 84 bending moment, in-plane membrane force and transverse shear force, respectively; \bar{M}^f , \bar{N}^f
 85 and \bar{Q}^f are the non-dimensional generalised stresses at the onset of damage, respectively;
 86 σ_Y is the static yield strength; and, B is the width of the beam. The model assumes, for
 87 simplicity, a linear evolution of the damage variable D with effective strain ϵ_{eff} given by

$$D = \frac{\epsilon_{\text{eff}} - \epsilon_d}{\epsilon_r - \epsilon_d} \quad (4)$$

88 where ϵ_r is the rupture strain of the beam material. All the generalised stresses reduce to
 89 zero when $D = 1$ at which point *failure* (or complete severance from its supports) occurs. If
 90 the structural system fails before all its initial kinetic energy is expended, then the severed
 91 beam member would acquire a residual kinetic energy at the point of severance. Parts of this
 92 are absorbed through further plastic deformation as the beam continues to deform until it
 93 reaches a rigid permanent set whilst the remaining as translational kinetic energy. However,
 94 the current analytical model does not consider how this residual kinetic energy is expended
 95 beyond failure – it is not required for the purpose of this work.

The three distinct deformation régimes identified by [Menkes and Opat \(1973\)](#) are delineated according to the following criteria:

$$\text{Mode I : } D < 1, \quad \omega_s < 1 \quad (5a)$$

$$\text{Mode II : } D = 1, \quad \omega_s < 1 \quad (5b)$$

$$\text{Mode III : } D = 1, \quad \omega_s \geq 1 \quad (5c)$$

96 where the state variable ω_s is given by

$$\omega_s = \frac{\beta}{\beta_c}. \quad (6)$$

97 In Eq 6, β is the ratio of the plastic work absorbed through shearing deformation to the
 98 total plastic work done and $\beta_c (=0.45)$ is a critical value delineating the transition between
 99 modes II to III. Table 1 lists the material properties for the Aluminium 6061-T6 beams that
 100 were modelled; they are rate-insensitive.

101 It must be emphasised that we have adopted the term ‘deformation régimes (or modes)’ in
 102 place of the more widely-used ‘damage régimes (or modes)’ in conventional literature. This
 103 is to avoid unnecessary confusion associated with use of a damage variable D (Eq. 5) and
 104 the state variable ω_s (Eq. 6) as criteria to delineate different modes of deformation.

Table 1: Material properties of the Aluminium (6061-T6) beam (Menkes and Opat, 1973)

Density, ρ (kg/m ³)	Young's modulus, E (GPa)	Static yield strength, σ_Y (MPa)	Poisson's ratio	Damage strain, ϵ_d	Rupture strain, ϵ_r
2686	69	283	1/3	0.38	0.5

105 2.2. Generating pulse-pressures with varying negative phase

106 The ductile beam model of Yuan et al. (2016) is sufficiently general to accommodate different
107 pressure profiles $p(t)$ such as linearly-decaying, triangular, rectangular etc – it had also been
108 adapted to study fluid-structure interactions in underwater explosions (Yuan et al., 2017)
109 and air blasts (Yuan et al., 2018). Here, the ‘modified Friedlander equation’ (Friedlander,
110 1946; Baker, 1973) will be used to generate the pulse-pressure $p(t)$, allowing both positive
111 and negative phases of a blast pulse to be captured, as follows:

$$p(t) = p_0 \left(1 - \frac{t}{t_d}\right) e^{-\frac{\alpha t}{t_d}}, \quad 0 < t < \infty \quad (7)$$

112 where p_0 is peak value of the positive overpressure, t_d is duration of the positive phase and
113 α ($\alpha \geq 0$) is the decay coefficient that determines the pulse-shape. Note that $\alpha = 0$ gives a
114 linearly-decaying pressure pulse; whilst $\alpha > 0$ gives an exponentially decaying pressure-time
115 history with differing severity of its negative phase that depends on α .

116 Figure 3a plots the pressure time-history for different decay coefficient α ranging from 0 to
117 5. In every curve, the pressure decays monotonically to zero at time $t = t_d$ - this is known
118 as the positive phase of a blast pulse. It is then followed by a period of under-pressure
119 – ‘negative suction phase’ – before pressure recovery to zero at time $t = t_d + t_d^-$, with
120 the notable exception of $\alpha = 0$ where there is no negative phase, in other words, $t_d^- = 0$.
121 Integrating Eq. 7 with respect to time, gives the positive I^+ and negative I^- impulses as
122 follows:

$$I^+ = \int_0^{t_d} p(t) dt = \begin{cases} I_0/2 & \text{if } \alpha = 0 \\ I_0(e^{-\alpha} + \alpha - 1)/\alpha^2 & \text{if } \alpha > 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

123 and

$$I^- = \int_{t_d}^{\infty} p(t) dt = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \alpha = 0 \\ -I_0 e^{-\alpha}/\alpha^2 & \text{if } \alpha > 0 \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

124 where $I_0 = p_0 t_d$ is the reference impulse. α is a critical parameter that controls the proportion
125 of negative impulse (of the negative phase) to positive impulse (corresponding to the positive
126 phase) for a given $p(t)$ (Baker et al., 1983). Figure 3b shows how the impulses corresponding
127 to I^+ and I^- changes with α . Notice that the overall impulse $I^+ + I^-$ does not increase
128 monotonically with α because of how its corresponding I^+ and I^- changes. In this paper,

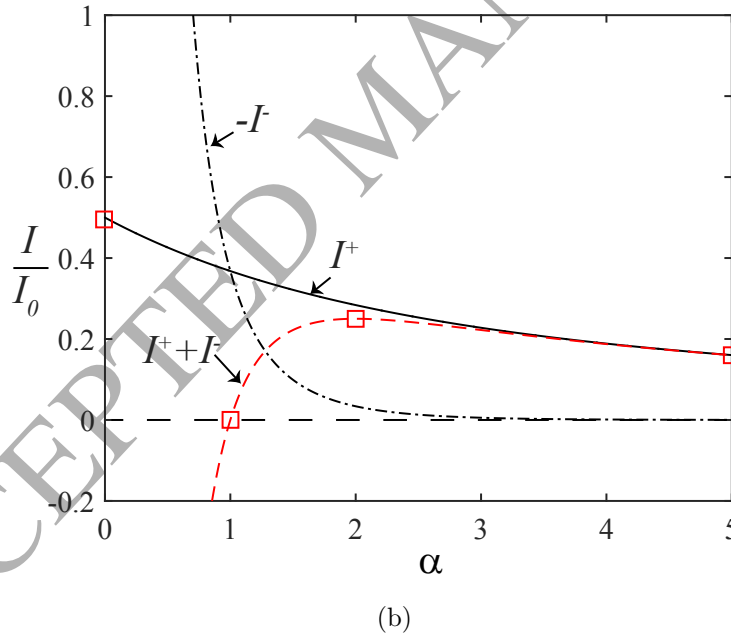
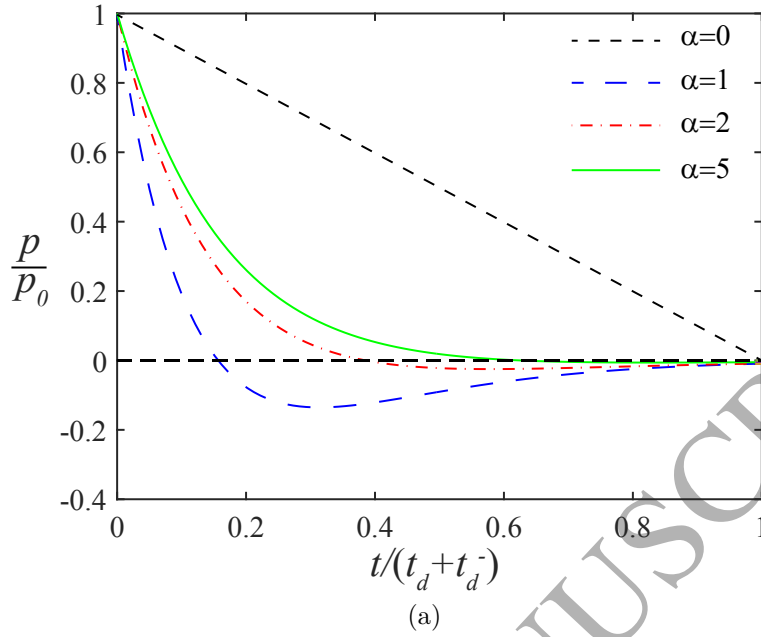


Figure 3: (a) Non-dimensional pressure time-history for different decay coefficients α ; (b) corresponding impulses of the positive and negative phases of each pressure-time history in (a). Time $t_d + t_d^-$ corresponds to the instant when the non-dimensional pressure in the negative suction phase reaches $p/p_0 = -10^{-3}$.

129 the values of $\alpha = 0, 1, 2, 5$ were chosen for the following reasons: $\alpha = 0$ corresponds to an
 130 extreme case of linear decaying profile; $\alpha = 1$ gives the most realistic pressure profile which
 131 is supported by experimental evidence (Jacinto et al., 2001); and, $\alpha = 2$ and 5 are included

132 for the purpose of comparison.

133 In general, the pulse-pressure generated in a blast can be crudely classified as either *impulsive*
 134 (i.e. $t_3 > t_d$) or *non-impulsive* (i.e. $t_3 \leq t_d$). This depends on whether the time $t = t_3$,
 135 corresponding to either cessation of beam motion (for mode I) or failure (in modes II or
 136 III deformation), occurs after (i.e. $t_3 > t_d$) or before (i.e. $t_3 \leq t_d$) the end of the positive
 137 phase. Intuitively, it is obvious that the negative phase should only affect the maximum
 138 transient deflection of a beam subjected to impulsive loading, and only for a finite duration
 139 of $t_3 - t_d$ according on the aforesaid criteria to delineate the two loading régimes. Therefore,
 140 it is unnecessary to incorporate the impulse corresponding to the entire negative phase (I^-)
 141 when constructing a pressure-impulse diagram. In light of this, it is reasonable to choose
 142 the positive peak overpressure p_0 and positive impulse I^+ as the parameters to define the
 143 loading parameters space, which can be non-dimensionalised as follows:

$$p^* = \frac{p_0}{p_c} \quad (10)$$

144 and

$$I^* = \frac{I^+}{H\sqrt{\sigma_Y\rho}} \quad (11)$$

145 where $p_c = 4M_0/L^2$ is the fully plastic collapse force per unit length (Jones, 2012). Even
 146 though the negative impulse I^- is omitted from the p^*-I^* diagram, it is instructive to note
 147 that it is easily deduced using the following ratio (by re-arranging Eqs. 8 and 9)

$$\frac{I^-}{I^+} = -\frac{e^{-\alpha}}{e^{-\alpha} + \alpha - 1}, \quad \text{for } \alpha > 0. \quad (12)$$

148 The extent to which negative phase loading affects the structural performance of a ductile
 149 beam in the impulsive régime of a $p-I$ diagram is to be discussed later in section 4.4.

150 2.3. Justifications of assumption

151 In this paper, we are concerned primarily with pulse-pressure loadings that are sufficiently
 152 intense to cause beam severance from its supports. If severance does not occur during
 153 the initial forward motion of a beam, then its subsequent temporal mid-point response,
 154 irrespective of whether negative phase loading is considered, would typically resembles that
 155 shown in Fig. 4 (see [- -] and [- -]), where the first peak corresponds to the maximum mid-
 156 span deflection and the first trough is a consequence of elastic rebound. This subsequent
 157 partial unloading and re-loading eventually dies out due to material damping. Results
 158 of three-dimensional FE simulations plotted in Fig. 4 were obtained, using an identical
 159 numerical set-up described in Yuan et al. (2016), for a beam with geometric and loading
 160 parameters given in the caption. Note that the vertical dashed red line [- -] denotes the end
 161 of the positive loading phase (at $t/t_d = 1$). The pressure pulses (with and without negative
 162 phase) were imposed on the structure without considering fluid-structure interactions (Yuan

163 et al., 2017, 2018) but this is not expected to alter the qualitative trend of the results shown
 164 here.

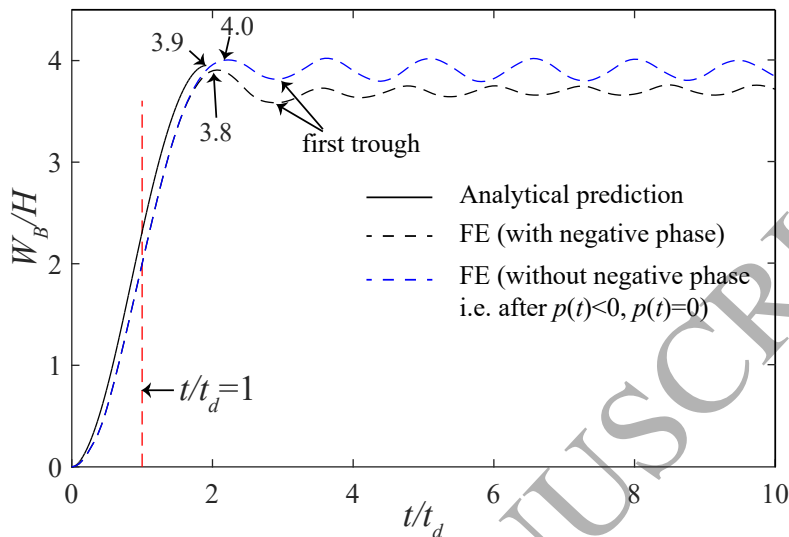


Figure 4: Comparison of analytical and FE predictions of the temporal mid-span deflection of a beam. The beam has dimensions of $0.203 (2L) \times 6.35 \times 10^{-3} (H) \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3} (B)$ m and is subjected to a pulse-pressure loading of $\alpha = 1$, $p^* = 20$ and $I^* = 0.37$.

165 Figure 4 shows that the analytical prediction [—] of the maximum mid-span deflection by
 166 Yuan et al. (2016) – a pulse-pressure with negative phase loading was imposed – is in good
 167 agreement with the results by FE ([- - -] and [- . -]). It is clear that the presence of negative
 168 phase loading has an effect of increasing the displacement of the first trough relative to the
 169 initial peak; however, this effect is relatively minor and it can reasonably be assumed that
 170 if a beam survives its initial forward motion without severance, then it is unlikely to fail
 171 in the subsequent reverse motion. Since the primary concern of this work is to construct
 172 régime boundaries, corresponding to modes I→II and II→III, that involves beam severance,
 173 the analytical model by Yuan et al. (2016) is applicable here even though it did not consider
 174 unloading and re-loading effects associated with elastic rebound.

175 3. Pressure-impulse diagrams

176 3.1. Key features of p^*-I^* diagram

177 Figure 5 presents a p^*-I^* diagram for a typical aluminium (6061-T6) beam tested by Menkes
 178 and Opat (1973). Here, as in Shen and Jones (1992) and Yuan et al. (2016), a linear-decaying
 179 pressure pulse with $\alpha = 0$ is used which considers only a positive phase. Two isodamage
 180 curves divide the p^*-I^* space into deformation régimes (mode I: large inelastic deformation;
 181 mode II: tensile-tearing at the support; mode III: shear-band localisation) that develop in

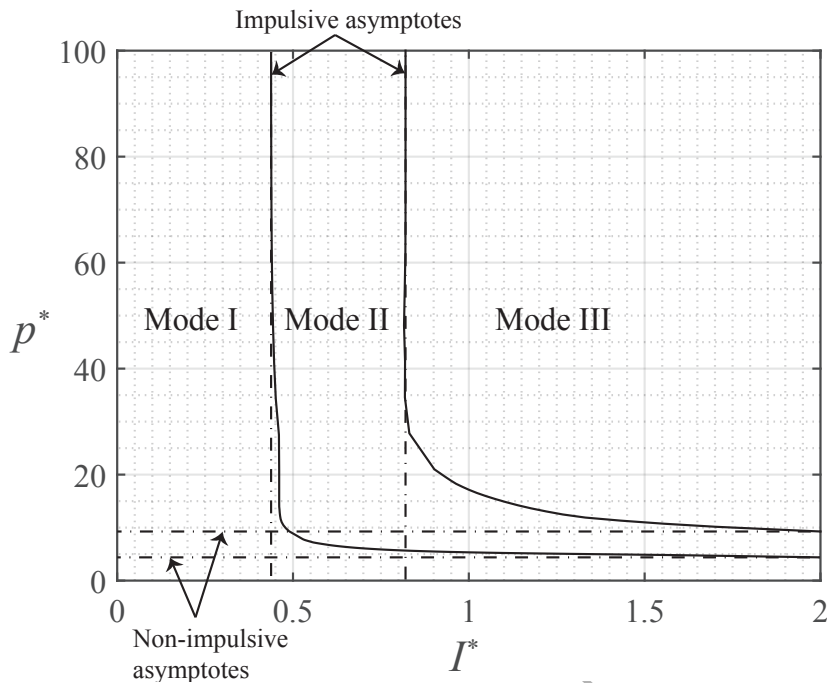


Figure 5: A p^*-I^* diagram that divides the loading parameters space into deformation régimes (modes I, II and III) for a typical aluminium beam ($0.203 (2L) \times 6.35 \times 10^{-3} (H) \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3} (B)$ m) tested in [Menkes and Opat \(1973\)](#). -.- indicates the impulsive and non-impulsive asymptotes.

ductile beams under blast loading. Each isodamage curve shares broadly similar features to existing $p-I$ diagrams in the literature which, unlike the present study, uses a simple maximum deflection criterion (SDOF model) to construct their boundaries ([Li and Meng, 2002a](#)) as follows: (1) there is a vertical and a horizontal asymptote that corresponds to an impulsive and a non-impulsive loading régime, respectively (they are often known as *impulsive* and *non-impulsive* asymptotes); and (2) between these two asymptotes, there is a one-to-one correspondence between p^* and I^* for any monotonically decaying pressure pulse. In addition, the predicted impulsive asymptotes correspond to the critical non-dimensional impulses for mode I→II and II→III transitions (0.44 and 0.82, respectively) and they agree well with existing experimental results (0.49 and 0.87, respectively) in [Menkes and Opat \(1973\)](#).

3.2. Effects of decay coefficient α

Figure 6 shows a typical non-dimensional p^*-I^* diagram for various decay coefficient α ranging from 0 to 5 for a beam of aspect ratio $L/H = 16$ (the beam has identical dimensions to the one in Fig. 5). Recall that $\alpha = 0$ corresponds to a linearly-decaying pressure pulse without a negative phase. It is instructive to note that the magnitude of the negative phase impulse I^- (using Eq. 12) is -1, -0.12 and -0.002 times its positive counterpart for $\alpha=1, 2$ and 5, respectively. In general, the presence of a negative phase leads to an expansion of the mode I régime space by shifting (or tilting) the impulsive asymptote (for mode I→II transition)

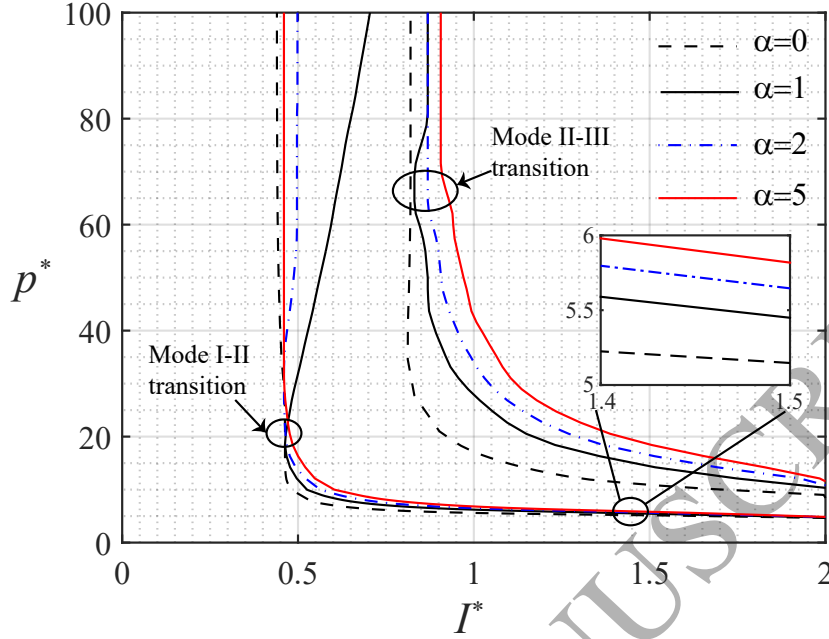


Figure 6: Non-dimensionalised p^* - I^* diagram for a beam subjected to a pulse-pressure with different values of α . The beam has dimensions of $0.203 (2L) \times 6.35 \times 10^{-3} (H) \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3} (B)$ m.

201 rightwards. This is because a negative loading phase decelerates the beam, leading to a
 202 lower maximum mid-span deflection compared to its linearly-decaying counterpart. Hence,
 203 the biggest shift in the mode I→II impulsive asymptote is observed for $\alpha=1$ by virtue of
 204 its corresponding I^- ; strictly speaking, they cannot now be regarded as an asymptote. On
 205 the other hand, increasing α leads to contraction of the mode III régime space caused by
 206 a shift (‘diagonally’ upwards) in the isodamage curve for II→III transition. Note that the
 207 two isodamage lines corresponding to $\alpha = 0$ define a lower bound for deformation régimes
 208 for all other pulse-pressures with a negative phase, i.e. $\alpha = 1, 2, 5$. It is worth emphasising
 209 that the negative impulse I^- is not reflected within the non-dimensionalised impulse p^* - I^*
 210 diagram but it is easily deduced using Eq. 12 once $\alpha (>0)$ is known.

211 Below are some observations regarding the sensitivity of the isodamage curve for mode I→II
 212 transition to α , as shown in Fig. 6:

213 (1) For $\alpha = 1$, the critical impulse I^* at mode I→II transition increases monotonically with
 214 p^* in the impulsive régime. By contrast, it remains an invariant if $\alpha = 0$ as shown in Fig.
 215 5. As a result, for certain values of I^* (say 0.6), increasing the non-dimensional pressure
 216 p^* , say, from 20 to 80 switches the deformation mode of the beam from II→I, making it
 217 ‘safer’ (by remaining in mode I) when subjected to a pulse-pressure with a considerable
 218 negative phase. This is easily rationalised by noting that a beam is inevitably subjected to
 219 a period of negative phase loading in the impulsive régime (i.e. $t_3 > t_d$) that causes it to
 220 decelerate. Increasing p^* for a given I^* would allow the beam to enter the negative phase
 221 earlier (reducing t_d) resulting in a somewhat lower maximum beam deflection (this will be

222 shown later in Fig. 8) and less overall impulse transmitted to the beam (this will be shown
 223 later in Fig. 12).

224 (2) Increasing α (excluding the case of $\alpha = 0$) tilts the isodamage curve for the impulsive
 225 loading régime towards to the right, leading to an expansion of the mode I régime space, for
 226 reasons already given above.

227 (3) In the non-impulsive régime, however, reducing α leads to a contraction of the mode I
 228 régime space, see figure inset. As noted previously, this is not a consequence of the negative
 229 phase since the maximum beam deflection is reached before the end of the positive phase
 230 in the non-impulsive régime. Instead, it is due to the effects of pulse-shape. Increasing α
 231 leads to a reduction in the positive phase duration t_d for a given I^* (see Fig. 3b), which
 232 leads inevitably to a higher maximum beam deflection in mode I, and this is consistent with
 233 previous findings by Yuan et al. (2016) and Xue and Hutchinson (2003).

234 In general, the decay coefficient α affects both the negative phase and shape of a pressure
 235 pulse and they, in turn, have a significant influence over a beam's structural response in the
 236 impulsive and non-impulsive régime of a p^* - I^* diagram, respectively.

237 3.3. Effects of aspect ratio L/H

238 Figures 7a and 7b show p^* - I^* diagrams for beams of different aspect ratio L/H (but with
 239 identical cross-sectional area) subjected to a linearly decaying ($\alpha = 0$) and an exponentially
 240 decaying ($\alpha = 1$) pulse-pressure with negative phase, respectively. In both cases, the shifts
 241 in their isodamage lines within the p^* - I^* space are largely similar depending on L/H . As the
 242 aspect ratio of a beam increases, its impulsive asymptote (corresponding to the transition
 243 from mode I→II) shifts leftward, whereas its non-impulsive counterpart shifts upward. The
 244 implication is that a longer beam would be 'safer' (remaining in mode I) when subjected to
 245 non-impulsive loading, but is more likely to lose its integrity at the support (in mode II)
 246 under impulsive loading. Reducing the aspect ratio of a beam tends to trigger an earlier
 247 onset of mode III deformation since transverse shear plays a dominant role in shorter beams
 248 whenever complete detachment occurs at its supports.

249 4. Design maps

250 In this section, we construct design maps that incorporate contour lines of structural per-
 251 formance (maximum deflection, total work done, partitioned energy and saturated impulse)
 252 into the non-dimensionalised pressure-impulse space. Any pair of p^* and I^* uniquely locates
 253 a point in the 2D space. From the map, one is able to determine the deformation régime
 254 in addition to information (by interpolation using two known values, if required) needed to
 255 assess structural performance. Alternatively, it enables a designer to determine the critical
 256 non-dimensional pressure p^* that delineates different deformation régimes, and the corre-
 257 sponding structural performance, for a given non-dimensional impulse I^* . These charts are
 258 potentially useful for the preliminary blast assessment of structures by designers. All results

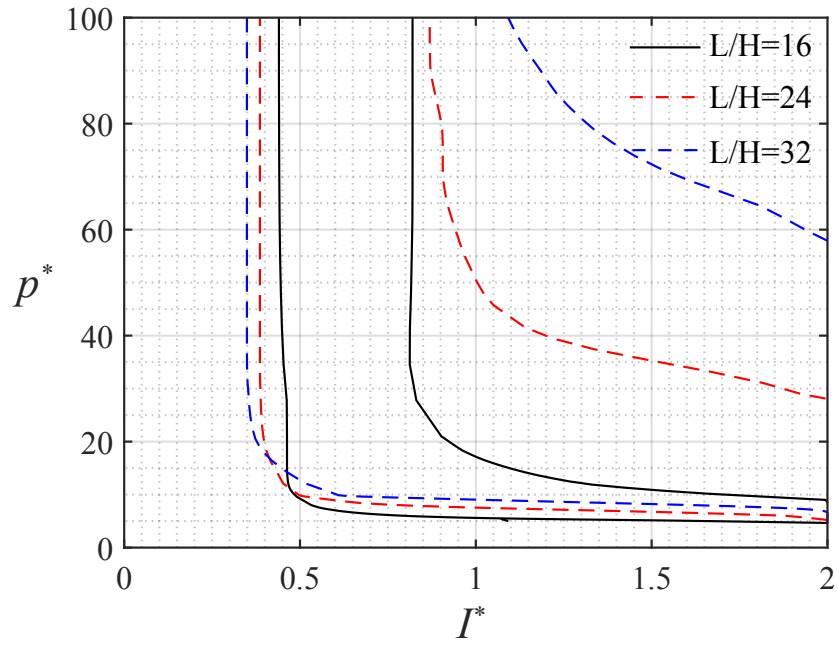
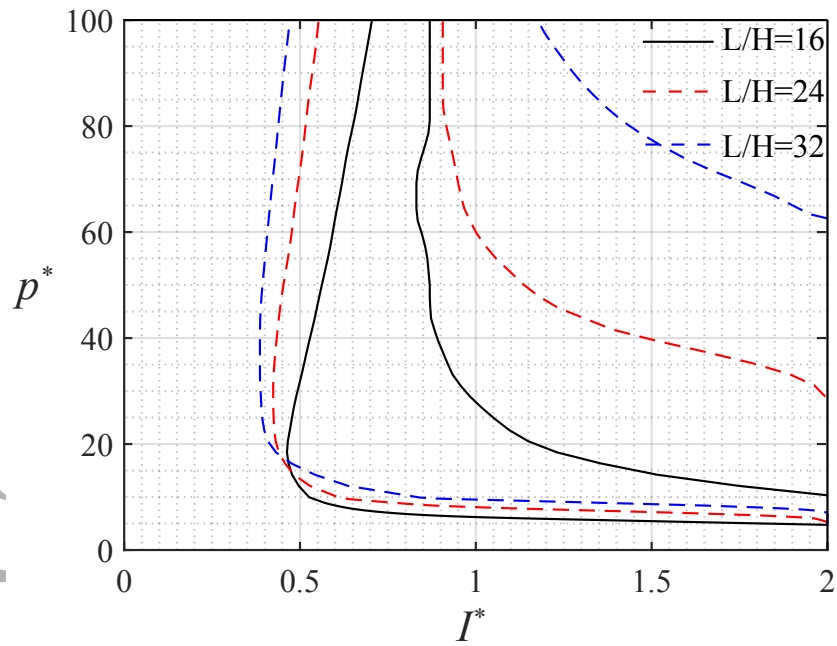
(a) $\alpha = 0$ (b) $\alpha = 1$

Figure 7: p^* - I^* diagrams for beams of different L/H but with identical cross-sectional area of 6.35×10^{-3} (H) m \times 25.4×10^{-3} (B) m.

259 shown are for beams of dimensions 0.203 ($2L$) \times 6.35×10^{-3} (H) \times 25.4×10^{-3} (B) m
 260 subjected to either a linearly-decaying ($\alpha = 0$) or an exponentially decaying pulse-pressure
 261 ($\alpha = 1$) pressure pulse.

262 4.1. Transverse mid-span deflection and plastic shear sliding distance

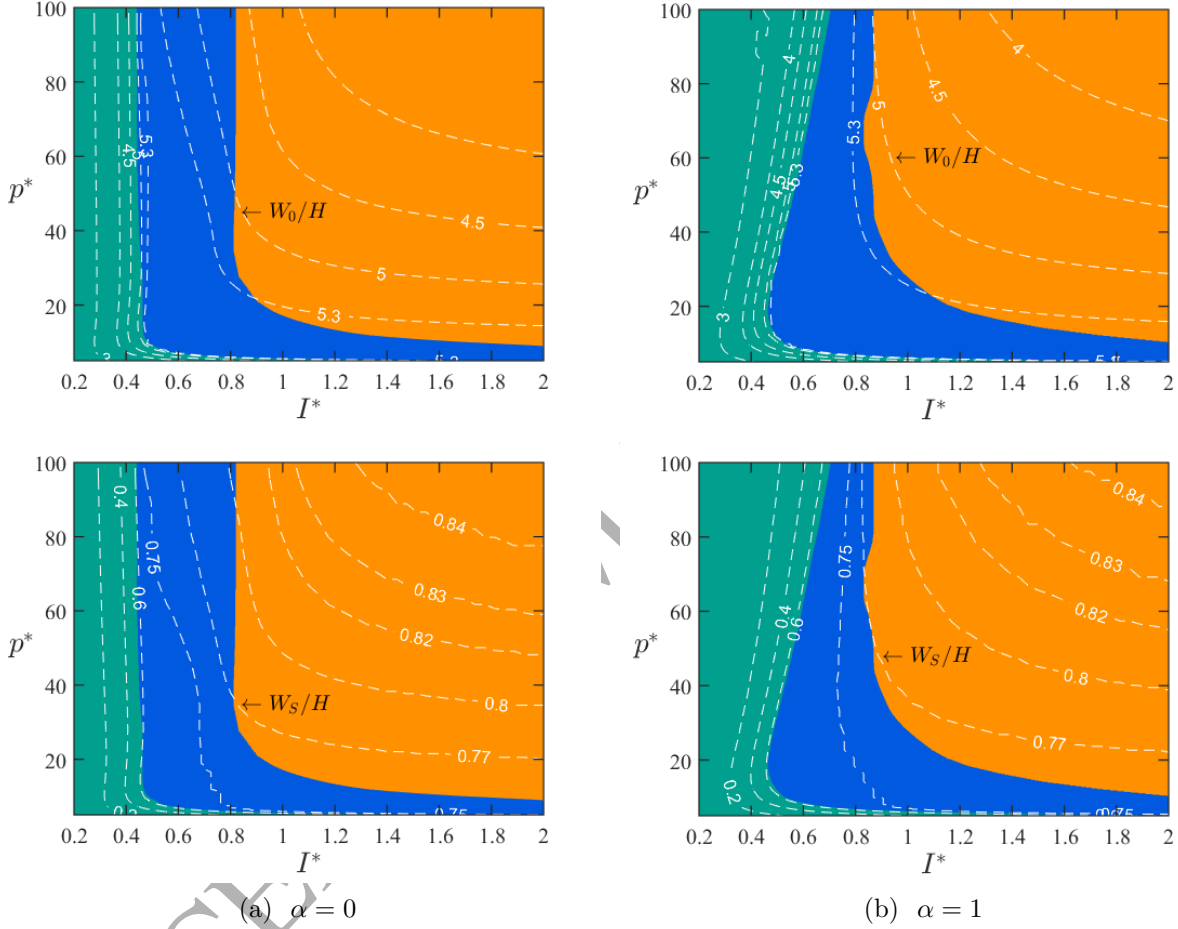


Figure 8: Contours of non-dimensional maximum deflection W_0/H and plastic shear sliding distance W_S/H superimposed on the loading parameters space for (a) $\alpha = 0$ and (b) $\alpha = 1$. ■ mode I; ■ mode II; ■ mode III.

263 Figures 8a and 8b show design maps that incorporates information on the non-dimensional
 264 transverse beam deflection – maximum mid-span deflection W_0/H and plastic shear sliding
 265 distance W_S/H at the support – within the p^*-I^* space for $\alpha = 0$ and $\alpha = 1$, respectively.
 266 In mode II and III régimes, increasing the non-dimensional pressure p^* (for a fixed I^*),
 267 or impulse I^* (for a fixed p^*), leads to a monotonic reduction of W_0/H and a monotonic
 268 increase of W_S/H . Furthermore, Fig. 8b shows that for certain I^* (say $I^* = 0.6$), reducing
 269 the non-dimensional pressure p^* from, say, 80 to 20 would have led to a higher mid-span

270 deflection of W_0/H and plastic shear sliding distance W_S/H . This explains the shift in
 271 deformation régime from mode I \rightarrow II alluded to earlier in Fig. 6 - see Section 3.2.

272 It is interesting to note that the contour corresponding to $W_0/H = 5.3$ in Figs. 8a and 8b
 273 is nearly coincident with the isodamage curve for mode I \rightarrow II transition. This is consistent
 274 with the findings of Yuan et al. (2016) and Shen and Jones (1992) where it had been shown
 275 that the maximum W_0/H is reached during the transition from mode I \rightarrow II. Therefore, a
 276 simple maximum displacement failure criterion (as is commonly employed in the literature)
 277 is equally capable of predicting the same isodamage curve for mode I \rightarrow II transition com-
 278 pared to the damage criterion (Eqs. 5b) used here. However, the maximum displacement
 279 failure criterion in existing literature cannot accurately predict W_0/H beyond its mode I \rightarrow II
 280 transition as the beam is considered to have failed at the same maximum displacement.

281 4.2. External work done

282 We introduce a non-dimensional transmitted energy from the pulse-pressure to the beam
 283 system – defined as the ratio of the external work done to the beam E^P to the reference
 284 energy E^+ – as follows:

$$\bar{E}^P = \frac{E^P \left(\triangleq \int_0^{t_3} p(t) \left[\int_0^L \dot{W}(x, t) dx \right] dt \right)}{E^+ \left(\triangleq (I^+)^2 / 2m \right)} \quad (13)$$

285 where time $t = t_3$ corresponds to either the cessation of beam motion or at the instant
 286 of failure (i.e. complete detachment from the supports). It is instructive to note that the
 287 ratio \bar{E}^P provides a measure of the ‘impulsiveness’ in a beam’s response, with $\bar{E}^P = 1$
 288 corresponding to the extreme case of a ‘zero-period’ impulsive loading where the structure
 289 may be assumed to acquire an instantaneous velocity. Contour plots of \bar{E}^P is incorporated
 290 into the loading parameters space, for $\alpha = 0$ and $\alpha = 1$, in Figs. 9a and 9b. It is evident
 291 that either increasing I^* or reducing p^* causes the beam to respond in an increasingly
 292 ‘non-impulsive’ manner and has a dramatic effect of reducing (monotonically) the energy
 293 transmitted to the beam by the pulse-pressure loading. In addition, for the same combination
 294 of p^* and I^* , \bar{E}^P is smaller for $\alpha = 1$ (Fig. 9b) compared to $\alpha = 0$ (Fig. 9a). This
 295 is unsurprising since negative phase loading in an exponentially decaying pressure pulse
 296 ($\alpha = 1$) produces ‘negative’ increment of work, leading to less external work done on the
 297 structure compared to its linearly-decaying counterpart.

298 4.3. Partitioning of energy

299 The components of plastic work absorbed at the *supports* through bending, membrane
 300 stretch and shear can be non-dimensionalised as follows:

$$\bar{E}_S^b = \frac{E_S^b}{E_S^s + E_S^b + E_S^m}, \quad \bar{E}_S^m = \frac{E_S^m}{E_S^s + E_S^b + E_S^m}, \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{E}_S^s = \beta = \frac{E_S^s}{E_S^s + E_S^b + E_S^m} \quad (14)$$

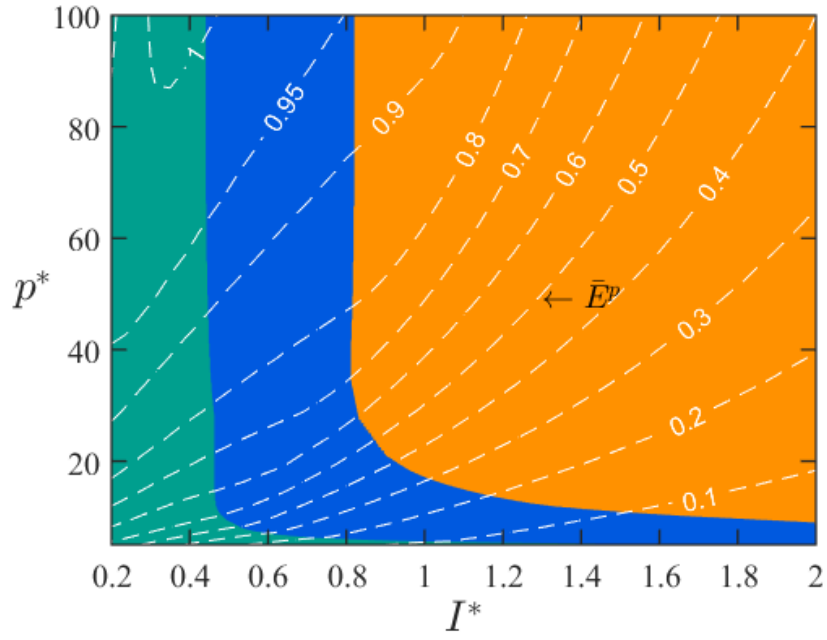
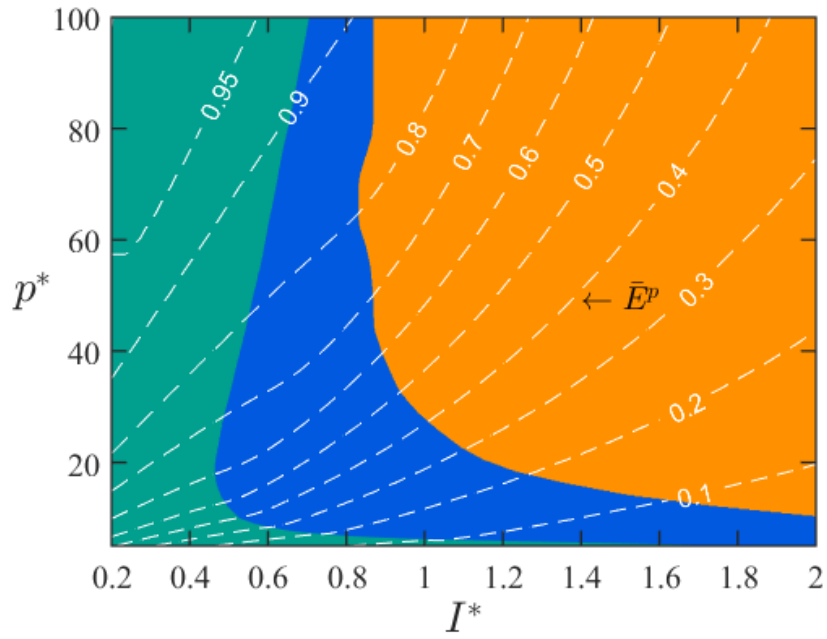
(a) $\alpha = 0$ (b) $\alpha = 1$

Figure 9: Contours of non-dimensional external work done \bar{E}^P super-imposed on the loading parameters space for (a) $\alpha = 0$ and (b) $\alpha = 1$. ■ mode I; ■ mode II; ■ mode III.

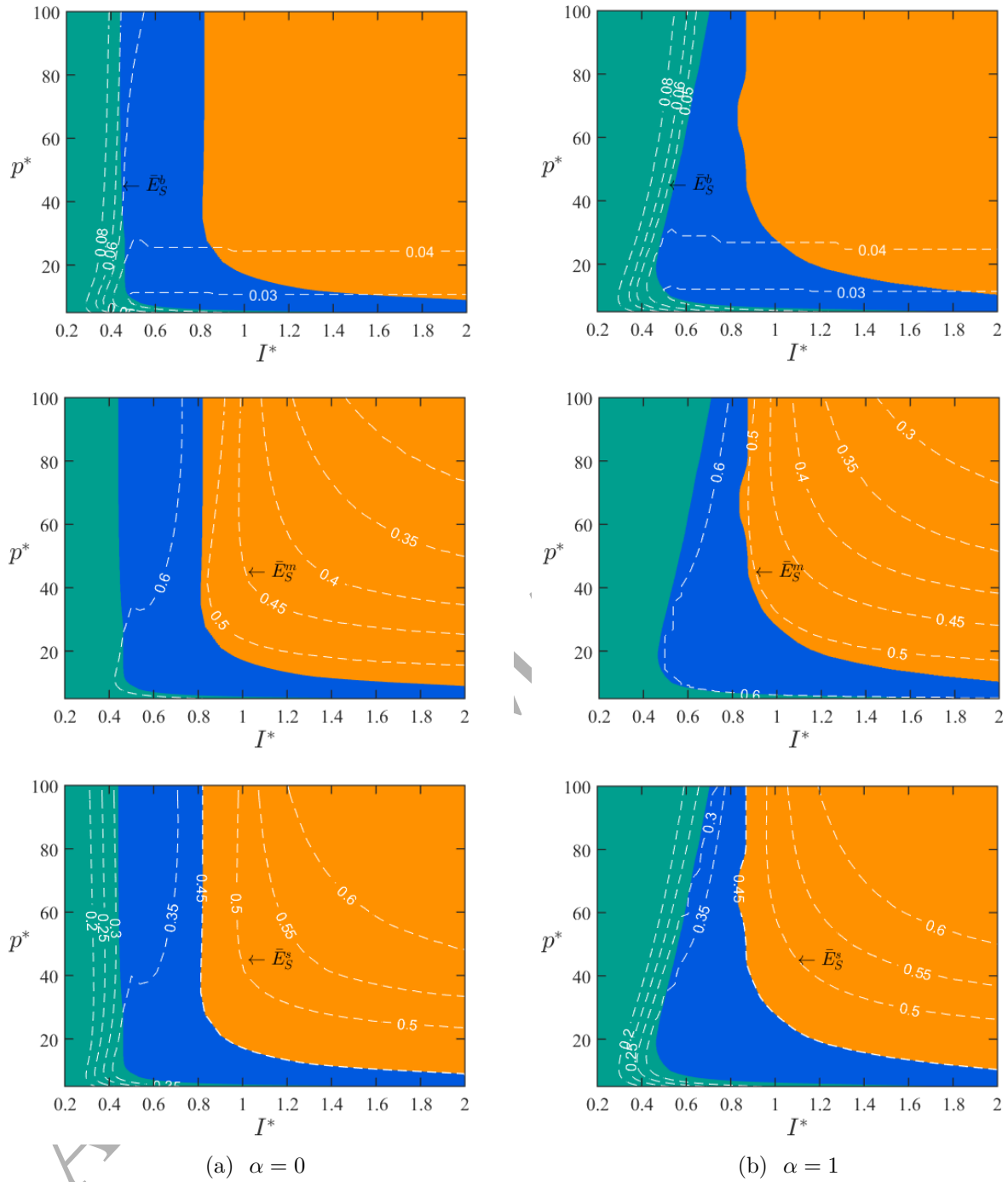


Figure 10: Contours of non-dimensional plastic energy absorbed at the support through bending \bar{E}_S^b , membrane stretch \bar{E}_S^m and transverse shear displacement \bar{E}_S^s superimposed on the loading parameters space. ■ mode I; ■ mode II; ■ mode III.

301 where E_S^s , E_S^b and E_S^m are, respectively, the shear, bending and membrane strain energies
 302 absorbed at the supports. Note that $\bar{E}_S^b + \bar{E}_S^m + \bar{E}_S^s = 1$. Figures 10a and 10b plot contours
 303 of the three components of plastic work at the supports for $\alpha = 0$ and $\alpha = 1$. It is evident
 304 from both figures that membrane stretch and transverse shear play key roles in inducing
 305 modes II and III deformation, with negligible contributions from bending - this is consistent
 306 with existing literature (Yuan et al., 2016; Yu and Chen, 2000; Li and Jones, 2000; Shen and
 307 Jones, 1992). In mode III, reducing either p^* or I^* (or both) causes a monotonic increase
 308 of \bar{E}_S^m ; the reverse occurs for \bar{E}_S^s . This is because a lower p^* or I^* would result in a higher
 309 mid-span deflection W_0/H and a lower plastic sliding distance W_S/H (as seen previously in
 310 Fig. 8), leading to a higher energy absorbed through membrane stretch and a lower energy
 311 dissipated through transverse shear, respectively.

312 4.4. Saturated impulse

313 Since the non-dimensional impulse in the p^*-I^* space is expressed as a function of the positive
 314 impulse I^+ in Eq 11, it does not provide a true measure of the actual impulse imparted
 315 to the beam. This is because any further loading after the cessation of beam motion, or
 316 beyond complete failure (detachment from supports), would not increase a beam's maximum
 317 transverse deflection. Hence, it can be misleading if one uses the peak overpressure p_0 and
 318 positive impulse I^+ in design since the actual impulse that affects permanent deformation
 319 could be less than the positive impulse I^+ . This is known as a 'saturation phenomenon'.
 320 The physical origin of this phenomenon was first investigated by Zhao et al. (1994) and
 321 Zhu and Yu (1997): since the load-carrying capacity of a beam or plate is greatly enhanced
 322 by the membrane forces induced by large deflection and if it is subjected to a pressure
 323 pulse with a sufficiently long duration, only an early part of the pulse contributes to its
 324 maximum deflection; the rest of the loading pulse causes no further increase. A series of
 325 papers – Zhao et al. (1994, 1995), Zhu and Yu (1997), Zhu et al. (2017), Bai et al. (2018)
 326 – have extensively documented this saturation phenomenon, including saturated deflection
 327 and saturated impulse, for various pulse shapes and different structural elements.

328 Here, we define the saturated impulse I_{sat} as the critical impulse beyond which the deflection
 329 of a beam would no longer increase under further loading given by

$$I_{\text{sat}} = \int_0^{t_3} p(t)dt \quad (15)$$

330 and this is the impulse imparted to the beam before it reaches maximum deflection. Again,
 331 it is worth emphasising that, at the point of severance (in modes II or III), a beam is
 332 assumed to have reached its maximum transverse deflection – this is a consequence of the
 333 model assumption. In reality, its transverse deflection could increase after severance if it
 334 had acquired sufficient residual kinetic energy. Here, however, we are only concerned with

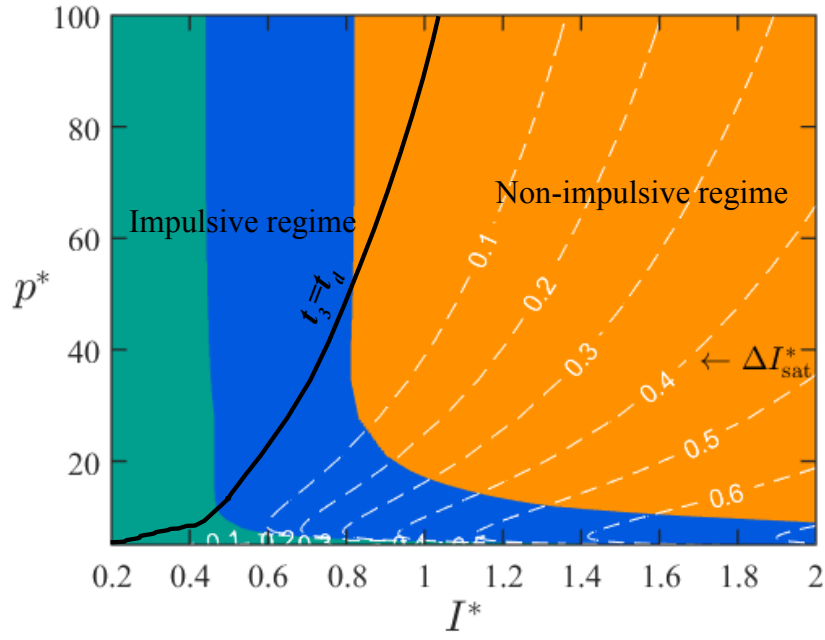
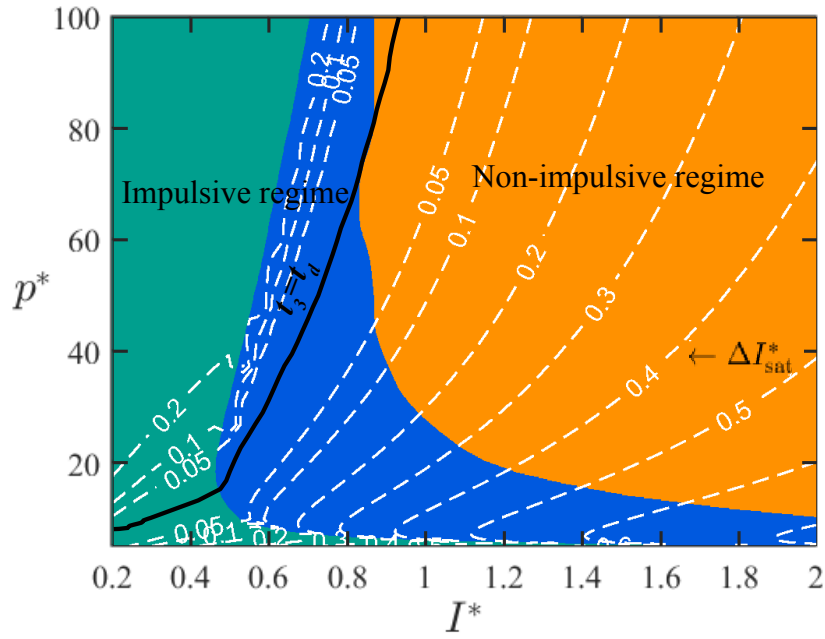
(a) $\alpha = 0$ (b) $\alpha = 1$

Figure 11: Contours on error (ΔI_{sat}^*) that would arise if saturation phenomenon is ignored. ■ mode I; ■ mode II; ■ mode III.

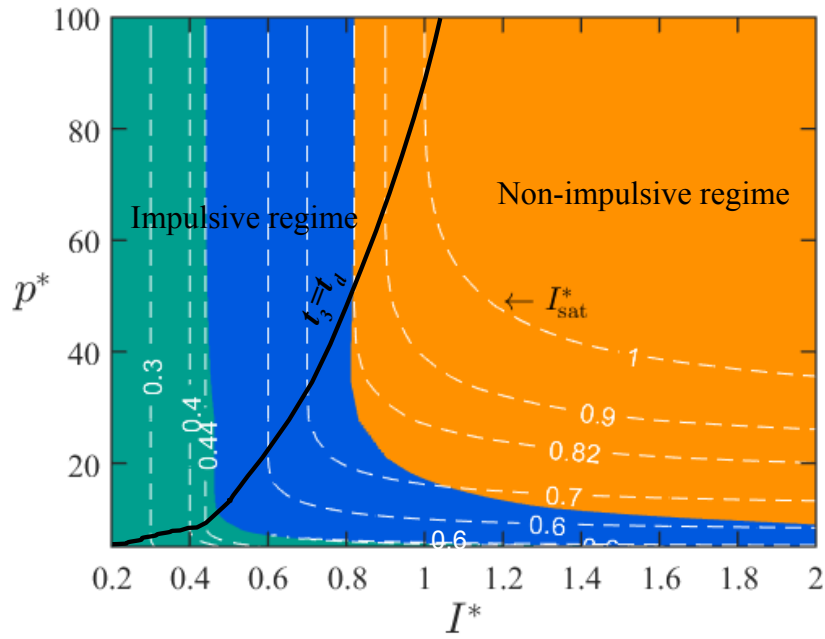
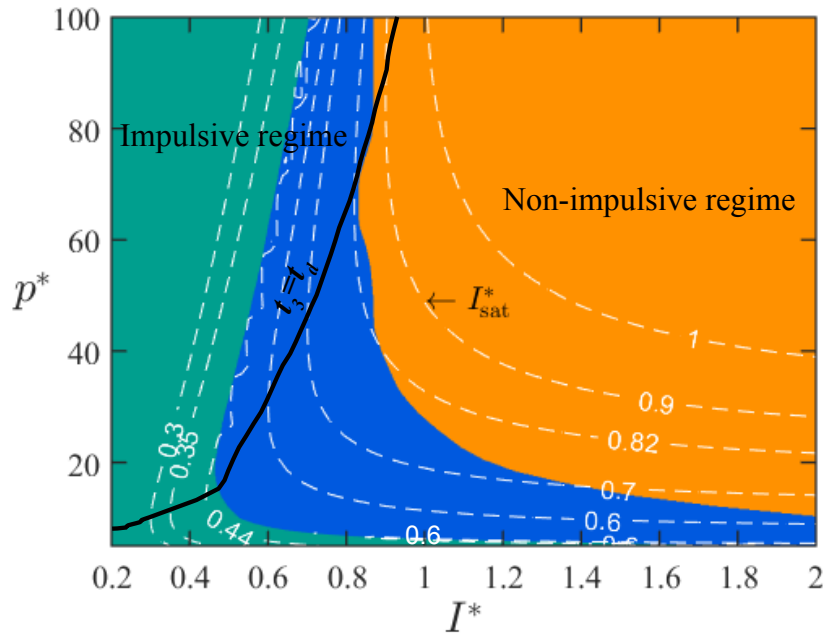
(a) $\alpha = 0$ (b) $\alpha = 1$

Figure 12: Contours of non-dimensional saturated impulse I_{sat}^* superimposed on the loading parameters space. ■ mode I; ■ mode II; ■ mode III.

335 the maximum deflection at the point of severance. The saturated impulse can be non-
336 dimensionalised as follows:

$$I_{\text{sat}}^* = \int_0^{t_3} \frac{p(t)}{H\sqrt{\sigma_Y\rho}} dt. \quad (16)$$

337 It is worth noting that a saturation phenomenon is only observed if $I^* > I_{\text{sat}}^*$; hence, it is
338 helpful to define a ratio

$$\Delta I_{\text{sat}}^* = \frac{I^* - I_{\text{sat}}^*}{I^*}, \quad (17)$$

339 as a measure of the error that would arise if saturation phenomenon is not considered when
340 calculating the maximum beam deflection. ΔI_{sat}^* must be greater than zero; otherwise,
341 impulse saturation does not occur.

342 Contours of ΔI_{sat}^* are embedded into the p^*-I^* space in Figs. 11a and 11b. Likewise, its
343 corresponding non-dimensional saturated impulse I_{sat}^* are shown in Figs. 12a and 12b. The
344 locus of points connecting $t_3 = t_d$ now divides the pressure-impulse space into an impulsive
345 ($t_3 > t_d$) and a non-impulsive ($t_3 \leq t_d$) régime. Notice that both régimes span all three
346 modes of deformation. It is evident from Figs. 11a and 11b that a saturation phenomenon
347 can only exist (since ΔI_{sat}^* needs to be greater than zero) in the non-impulsive régimes if
348 $\alpha = 0$ as expected; by contrast, it can occur in either régimes if $\alpha = 1$. It is instructive to
349 note that ΔI_{sat}^* in impulsive régime (see Fig 11b) provides a measure of the non-dimensional
350 negative impulse imparted to the beam, this causes it to decelerate, which result in a non-
351 vertical impulsive asymptote discussed earlier in Fig. 6. In general, the further a pair of
352 p^*-I^* is located from the locus of points connecting $t_3 = t_d$, the greater will be the error that
353 would arise if impulse saturation is not taken into account - this applies to both $\alpha = 0$ and
354 $\alpha = 1$.

355 Figures 12a and 12b reveal that the non-dimensional saturated impulse I_{sat}^* is discontinuous
356 across the boundary separating modes I and II. The critical I_{sat}^* is 0.44 in the impulsive régime
357 and 0.6 in the non-impulsive régime. Interestingly, both critical values are independent of
358 α , i.e. they are pulse-shape insensitive. The reason why the critical I_{sat}^* is higher in the
359 non-impulsive régime (0.6) compared to its impulsive counterpart (0.44) because, for a
360 given saturated impulse, a beam subjected to impulsive loading will always have a higher
361 maximum deflection compared to its non-impulsive counterpart (Xue and Hutchinson, 2003;
362 Yuan et al., 2016). Although the deflection W_0/H in mode III is, in general, less than in
363 mode II (comparing Figs. 8a and 8b), it necessitates a greater saturated impulse to induce
364 a mode III deformation; this is evident by comparing I_{sat}^* in mode III to that in mode II
365 régime).

5. Conclusions

Non-dimensional p^*-I^* diagrams were developed for a beam of $0.203 (2L) \times 6.35 \times 10^{-3} (H) \times 25.4 \times 10^{-3} (B)$ m, by using a more realistic structural model, that separates the loading parameter space in accordance to the modes of deformation observed in blast experiments. It was found that the isodamage curves, delineating the régimes, are sensitive to the decay coefficient α and aspect ratio L/H of the beam. The two isodamage curves corresponding to $\alpha = 0$ define a lower bound for deformation régimes for all other pulse-pressures with a negative phase. Reducing the decay coefficient α or aspect ratio L/H leads to greater margin of safety (i.e. the beam remains in mode I) under impulsive loading; while the reverse occurs for non-impulsive loading. Increasing α or L/H has the dramatic effect of shrinking the loading parameter space associated with mode III deformation régime. In addition, it was demonstrated that contour lines of structural performance (maximum deflection, total work done, partitioned energy and saturated) can also be incorporated into the non-dimensionalised pressure-impulse space to provide further information for the design, and assessment, of structures to blast loading.

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