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Interrupted Dynamic Tension

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Failure Modes for I-Section GFRP Beams

By Mamadou Konate & Zia Razzaq

Old Dominion University, United States

Abstract- This paper presents calculations for the failure modes for I-section Glass Fiber Reinforced Polymer (GFRP) beams with single mid-span web brace. Theoretical predictions are made using ASCE-LFRD Pre-Standard for FRP structures. For the member length considered, it is found that for small and medium I-sections the failure mode is governed by lateral-torsional buckling and for bigger I-sections the failure mode is governed by material rupture. The outcome of the predicted lateral-torsional buckling mode is compared with that observed experimentally.

Keywords: *failure modes, I-section GFRP ASCE-LFRD standard for FRP structures.*

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Failure Modes for I-Section GFRP Beams

Mamadou Konate^α & Zia Razzaq^σ

Abstract- This paper presents calculations for the failure modes for I-section Glass Fiber Reinforced Polymer (GFRP) beams with single mid-span web brace. Theoretical predictions are made using ASCE-LFRD Pre-Standard for FRP structures. For the member length considered, it is found that for small and medium I-sections the failure mode is governed by lateral-torsional buckling and for bigger I-sections the failure mode is governed by material rupture. The outcome of the predicted lateral-torsional buckling mode is compared with that observed experimentally.

Keywords: failure modes, I-section GFRP ASCE-LFRD pre-standard for FRP structures.

I. INTRODUCTION

Razzaq, Z, Prabhakaran, R., and Sirjani, M. B [1] have conducted an experimental and theoretical study of the flexural-torsional behavior of reinforced beams using LFRD approach. The same authors have also provided a load and resistance factor design (LFRD) approach for fiber-reinforced plastic (FRP) [2]. The paper presents the outcome of a study on failure modes for I-section GFRP beams.

II. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

A 93 inches long GFRP beam with a 8 x 4 x 0.5 in. is tested as shown in Figure 1.

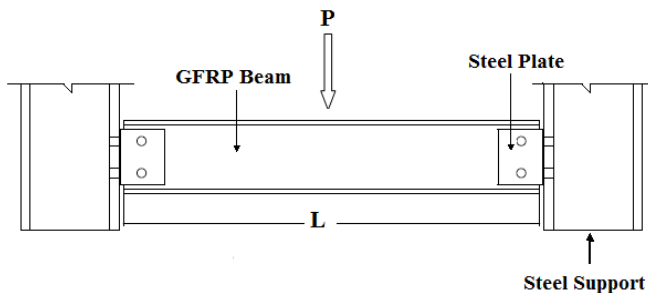


Fig. 1 : Schematic of I-Section GFRP beam

The test procedure involved applying the load, P, in small increments and recording the resulting deflections. Figure 2 shows the experimental test setup. In this figure, the ends have shear-type connections and a hydraulic jack of 50-kip capacity with load cell and a loading device are also shown.

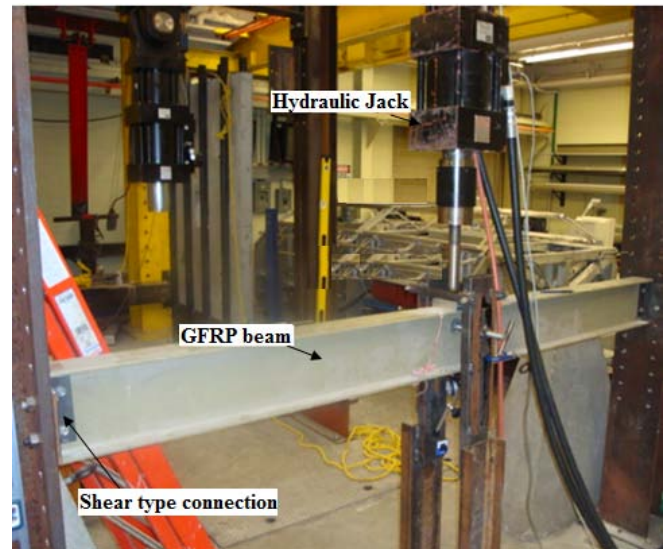


Fig. 2 : Test setup

Furthermore, bracing is provided at the mid-span on both sides of the web at 0.81 in. below the bottom surface of the top flange. It is observed that the tested GFRP beam first buckled and then cracked.

III. BASIS FOR PREDICTIONS

The critical stresses are based on following ASCE-LRFD Pre-Standard formulae given in Reference 3:

$$f_{fcr} = \frac{4}{\left(\frac{b_f}{t_f}\right)^2} \left(\frac{7}{12} \sqrt{\frac{E_{L,f} E_{T,f}}{1+4.1\xi}} + G_{LT} \right) \quad (1)$$

$$f_{wcr} = \frac{11.1\pi^2}{12\left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^2} \left(1.25\sqrt{E_{L,w} E_{T,w}} + E_{T,w} \nu_{LT} + 2G_{LT} \right) \quad (2)$$

In Equations 1 and 2, f_{fcr} is the critical stress for the compression flange local buckling; f_{wcr} is the critical stress for the web local buckling; and the other terms are defined as:

G_{LT} = characteristic in-plane shear modulus, ksi

ν_{LT} = characteristic longitudinal Poisson's ratio

b_f = Full width of the flange, in.

h = Full height of the member, in.

t_f = Thickness of the flange, in.

t_w = Thickness of the web, in.

ξ = Coefficient of restraint

k_r = Rotational spring constant, kip/rad

$E_{L,f}$ = Characteristic longitudinal modulus of the flange, ksi

Author ^α: Research Assistant, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Old Dominion University. e-mail: mkona002@odu.edu

Author ^σ: University Professor, Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, Old Dominion University. e-mail: zrazzaq@odu.edu

$E_{L,w}$ = Characteristic longitudinal modulus of the web, ksi
 $E_{T,f}$ = Characteristic transverse modulus of the flange, ksi
 $E_{T,w}$ = Characteristic transverse modulus of the web, ksi

There are four nominal moments that are calculated next using the following formulae given in Reference 3:

Lateral-Torsional Buckling:

$$M_{LB} = C_b \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 E_{L,f} I_y D_J}{L_b^2} + \frac{\pi^4 E_{L,f}^2 I_y C_w}{L_b^4}} \quad (3)$$

in which M_{LB} is the nominal flexural strength due to lateral-torsional buckling and the other terms are defined as follows:

C_b = Moment modification factor for unsupported spans with both ends braced

D_J = Torsional rigidity of an open section = $G_{LT} \sum \frac{1}{3} b_i t_i^3$, kip – in.²

C_w = Warping constant = $\frac{t_f h^2 b_f^3}{24}$, in.⁶

Herein, the resistance factor $\phi = 0.7$ is used.

Local Instability:

$$M_{fLT} = f_{fcr} \frac{E_{L,f} I_f + E_{L,w} I_w}{y E_{L,f}} \quad (4 a)$$

$$M_{wLT} = f_{wcr} \frac{E_{L,f} I_f + E_{L,w} I_w}{y E_{L,w}} \quad (4-b)$$

In these equations, M_{fLT} and M_{wLT} are the nominal flexural strengths due to local instability in the flanges and webs, respectively; the other terms are defined as follows:

I_f = Moment of inertia of the flange(s) about the axis of bending, in⁴.

I_w = Moment of Inertia of the web(s) about the axis of bending, in⁴.

y = Distance from the neutral axis to the extreme fiber of the member, in. The resistance factor $\phi = 0.80$ is used.

Material Rupture:

$$M_{cr} = \min \left(\frac{F_{L,f} (E_{L,f} I_f + E_{L,w} I_w)}{y_f E_{L,f}}, \frac{F_{L,w} (E_{L,f} I_f + E_{L,w} I_w)}{y_w E_{L,w}} \right) \quad (5)$$

in which M_{cr} is the nominal flexural strength due to material rupture and the other terms are defined as follows:

$F_{L,f}$ = characteristic longitudinal strength of the flange (in tension or compression),ksi

$F_{L,w}$ = characteristic longitudinal strength of the web (in tension or compression),ksi

I_f = Moment of inertia of the flange(s) about the axis of bending, in⁴.

I_w = Moment of inertia of the web(s) about the axis of bending, in⁴.

y_f = Distance from the neutral axis to the extreme fiber of the flange, in.

y_w = Distance from the neutral axis to the extreme fiber of the web, in. The resistance factor $\phi = 0.65$ is used.

Lastly, applying the formula of maximum moment for a simply supported beam with a point load as shown in Figure 1, the respective loads are obtained:

$$P_{LT} = \frac{4M_{LT}}{L} \quad (6)$$

$$P_{fLT} = \frac{4M_{fLT}}{L} \quad (7)$$

$$P_{wLT} = \frac{4M_{wLT}}{L} \quad (8)$$

$$P_{cr} = \frac{4M_{cr}}{L} \quad (9)$$

In Equations 6 through 9, P_{LT} , P_{fLT} , P_{wLT} , and P_{cr} are the load-carrying capacities due to lateral-torsional buckling, local instability in the flanges, local instability in the webs, and material rupture, respectively.

If $P_{LB} = P_{fLT} = P_{wLT} = P_{cr} = P_c$ is the load-carrying capacity of the member, a LFRD approach is proposed as follows:

$$P_c = \phi P_n \quad (10)$$

where P_n is the minimum of the values obtained in Equations 6-9. The resistance factor $\phi = 0.7, 0.8$, and 0.65 depending whether the failure is due to lateral torsional buckling, local instability in the flanges or webs, and rupture of the materials, respectively. The beam design load is expressed as:

$$P_u = 1.2P_D + 1.6P_L \quad (11)$$

in which P_D and P_L are the dead and live loads for the beam. The proposed LFRD approach criterion for the member can finally be written as:

$$P_u \leq P_c \quad (12)$$

where P_u and P_c are defined in Equations 10 and 11, respectively. Table 1 shows the maximum loads for the following I-beams: 3x1x0.25 in., 6x3x0.375 in., 8x4x0.5 in., 10x5x0.375 in., and 12x6x0.5 in.

Table 1: Maximum loads for failure modes.

I -Section in.	ϕP_{LB} lbs	ϕP_{fLB} lbs	ϕP_{wLB} lbs	ϕP_{cr} lbs
3x1.5x0.25	170	2526	35389	8867
6x3x0.375	2041	8506	162479	4980
8x4x0.50	8026	20162	385136	11804
10x5x0.375	13581	15522	279162	13890
12x6x0.5	37399	20220	592231	26635

For 8 x 4 x 0.5 in., the experimental lateral-torsional buckling load is found to be 4.70% higher than the predicted result. However, the experimental cracking

load is 27.60% lower than the predicted result. As seen in Table 1, for the first three I-sections namely 3x1x0.25, 6x3x0.375, 8x4x0.50, the failure mode is governed by lateral-torsional buckling. However, for the last two I-sections namely 10x5x0.375 and 12x6x0.5, the failure mode is governed by material rupture.

IV. CONCLUSION

A study on failure modes for I-section GFRP beams is presented. The predicted buckling load for the GFRP beam is in agreement with the experimental value. Based on the analysis for the member length considered, the failure mode is governed by lateral-torsional buckling for smaller and medium cross sections. However, the material rupture governs the failure mode for the bigger sections.

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Comprehensive Conventional Analysis of Southern Hemisphere Coal Chars of Different Ranks for Fixed Bed Gasification

By Andrew O. Odeh

North-West University, South Africa

Abstract- In this study, the physical and chemical changes accompanied in the coal to char transition were examined by conventional and Fourier Transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) techniques. Six coals (lignite to anthracite) of $\leq 75 \mu\text{m}$ were acid washed, and subjected to a slow heating rate of $20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ from 450 to $700 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ at atmospheric atmosphere. The chars were characterized by physical, chemical and petrographic evaluations. The coals were low rank C lignite (Rov = 0.31), low rank B sub-bituminous (Rov = 0.47), medium rank C bituminous (Rov = 0.73 for high volatile and Rov = 0.78 for low volatile), high rank C semi-anthracite (Rov = 2.48) and high rank B anthracite (Rov = 3.26) respectively. Char properties determined by conventional technique (proximate, ultimate and calorific value) and FTIR revealed correlations of the chemical structural changes during the coal to char transition. Unique relationships between the fuel ratio and other coal properties (H/C atomic ratio and aromaticity) were established. The fuel ratio was determined to be in the range of 1.9 – 21.0 for lignite; 3.4 – 20.3 for sub-bituminous; 5.5 – 24.0 for bituminous; 11.6 – 29.6 for semi-anthracite and 16.5 – 27.8 for anthracite.

Keywords: *southern hemisphere coal; char transition; pyrolysis; fuel ratio; rank parameter; FTIR.*

GJRE-E Classification : *FOR Code: 290899*



COMPREHENSIVE CONVENTIONAL ANALYSIS OF SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE COAL CHARS OF DIFFERENT RANKS FOR FIXED BED GASIFICATION

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Comprehensive Conventional Analysis of Southern Hemisphere Coal Chars of Different Ranks for Fixed Bed Gasification

Andrew O. Odeh

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It was possible to find a first-order relationship between the char aromaticity and atomic H/C.

Keywords: southern hemisphere coal; char transition; pyrolysis; fuel ratio; rank parameter; FTIR.

I. INTRODUCTION

Pyrolysis remains an important process for thermo-chemical coal conversion either as an individual process for char and tar/oil production or as a step in other coal conversion processes such as combustion, gasification, and liquefaction. During fixed bed gasification, coal passes through four distinct stages: drying, pyrolysis, reduction, and combustion [1]. In the pyrolysis stage, volatiles devolatilization occurs and the properties transformation from coal to char can be dramatic for some coals. The behavior of coal under pyrolysis can be linked to coal properties and process conditions such as coal rank, particle size, porosity, surface area, mineral content, petrographic composition, process temperature, process pressure, catalyst, and heating rate [2 – 13]. Thus, among other aspects the time-temperature histories will have an influence on the char reactivity and behavior. The

inorganic components are sometime responsible for poor and unstable performance of coal conversion processes [8, 14 - 17]. However, in other conversions, such as direct liquefaction the pyrite mineral is beneficial to the yield of the process [3, 12].

The atomic H/C, aromaticity, petrography, and fuel ratio (the ratio of fixed carbon to volatile matter content) influences on coal conversion processes have been investigated [18-33]. Char properties such atomic H/C ratio, aromaticity, morphology and fuel ratio has also received attention [8, 19, 25, 34 – 36]. However, a systematic evaluation for the transitions accompanying slow-heating rate using a temperature monitored process is limited [37-40]. Zhao et al. [37] examined the pyrolysis behaviour of vitrinite and inertinite extracts from a Chinese bituminous coal at temperatures of 400 to 650°C and heating rate of $10^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$ and reported that the atomic H/C ratio of both the vitrinite and inertinite char decreased with increasing temperature, and have similar atomic H/C ratio and structure characteristics at the final temperature. Guerrero et al. [38] performed combined reflectance analysis on heat-treated coal at temperatures of 400 , 450 , 550 , 750 , 1000°C and reported the effect of volatiles release on the optical properties of macerals from different ranks. The reflectance of coal macerals increases with increasing pyrolysis temperature, with temperature being the most relevant factor in determining the reflectance of inertinite macerals. The studies of Jimenez et al. [39] and Alonso et al. [40] both focused on the influence of process conditions on char optical texture and reactivity. They reported the influence of both pressure and temperature on the resultant chars. The coal char properties derived at 900°C and heating rate of $20^\circ\text{C}/\text{min}$, exhibited significant changes in reactivity in the pressure range 0.1 to 0.5 MPa, after which no significant changes were observed with pressure increment. Alonso et al. observed that the temperature of pyrolysis performed at temperatures of 1000 and 1300°C had a strong effect on char reactivity, which was attributed to inertinite maceral in high rank coals yielding both more reactive and less reactive materials depending on the process conditions. Tracing char structure evolution during coal conversion process allows an improved evaluation of the conversion mechanism [38]. Of the many rank

Author: Coal Research group, Unit of Energy Systems, School of Chemical and Minerals Engineering, North-West University, e-mail: odehandy@yahoo.com

indicators and char properties the fuel ratio (a commonly used factor in the design of unit operations for coal conversion processes and also a useful parameter in the selection of coals used in coal blending plant) has not commonly evaluated but may prove to be useful indicator in the coal to char conversion process [3, 7]. Most power plants utilized coals with fuel ratio in the range of 1.0 - 2.5 due to their combustion characteristics of calorific values, ignitability, and combustibility [4, 7, 33]. Fuel ratio is considered to give an indication of coal reactivity as coals with fuel < 1.5 are thought to combust more smoothly whereas coal with fuel ratio > 1.5 combust with difficulty [2, 4, 31]. Kurose et al. [4] examined the pulverized coal combustion characteristics of high-fuel-ratio coals with fuel ratio in the range of 1.46 to 7.10 and concluded that as the fuel ratio increases, nitrogen oxides (NO_x) emission reduces significantly and that the char's external surface area decreases with increase in the fuel ratio of the coal. Fuel ratio of acid washed and slow-heating coals are not readily available. Thus the fuel ratio is a somewhat forgotten rank parameter that may have utility in coal to char transitions.

Here the chemical and structural changes accompanying coal pyrolysis performed on a 75 μm size, at a heating rate of 20 °C/min from 450 to 700 °C at atmospheric pressure. The changes in the char structure were traced and relationship between char formation process indices and coal/char properties are established. The selected coals were acid washed to reduce mineral matter and ash influences.

II. EXPERIMENTAL

a) Sample Preparation

Six coals of varying rank were used: a lignite coal from Germany (LIG); a sub-bituminous coal from Nigeria (SUB); two South African bituminous coals (one is low volatile bituminous (BIT-LV) and the other, high volatile bituminous coal (BIT-HV); South African semi-anthracite (SA); and anthracite from South Africa (ANT). The coal samples were pulverized to coal particle size of ≤ 75 μm by employing a mechanical size reduction jaw crusher (Samuel Osborne (SA) LTD, model: 66YROLL) and a Fritsch P-14 rotary mill containing ceramic balls (Model number: 46 – 126). The required particle size of -75 μm was finally obtained from screening the particles from the rotary mill using a 75 μm screen. All the samples were stored under argon in sealed bags.

The prepared coal samples were acid washed by sequential leaching with hydrofluoric acid (HF) and hydrochloric acid (HCl) as detailed in Strydom et al. [17]. The HF (48%) and HCl (32%) were obtained from Associated Chemical Enterprise (ACE), South Africa.

b) Apparatus and procedure

The coal samples (40g) were placed in a ceramic boat in a horizontal tube furnace at atmospheric conditions initially. The samples were flushed with nitrogen (AFROX, ultra high purity grade) at atmospheric conditions, to remove oxygen from the oven for 15 min. at a flow rate of 1 litre/min. The furnace was then heated at 20 °C/min to the target temperature, and held isothermally for 60 minutes. The target temperature ranged from 450 to 700 °C, while keeping the samples under a nitrogen atmosphere. The char samples were stored in sealed bags.

The calorific value and conventional chemical analyses (proximate and ultimate analyses) of the untreated coal, acid treated and heat treated samples were performed according to the ISO 1928, ASTM 3172 and ASTM 3176 standards respectively at Advanced Coal Technology (ACT), Pretoria, South Africa. The surface areas of the various samples were determined using the carbon dioxide adsorption BET method on a Micromeritics ASAP2020 surface area analyser [41]. Prior to CO₂ adsorption, the samples (about 0.20 g) were degassed under vacuum (10.0 μmHg), for 48 hours at 25 and 380 °C for the coals and chars respectively. The evacuated sample was analysed at 0 °C in an ice bath. The results were processed using the Accelerated Surface Area and Porosimetry System (ASAP) 2020 software linked to the Surface Area Analyzer. The spectra used in obtaining the structural properties of both the coal and char were obtained from the Fourier-transform infrared spectrometer equipped with an attenuated total reflectance (FTIR-ATR), model Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 400. The procedure of FTIR-ATR as detailed by Li et al. was used [42]. Aromaticity (f_a) was obtained from the ratio of aromatic bands in the 900 – 700 cm⁻¹ region to the aliphatic and aromatic bands in the 3000 – 2815 cm⁻¹ region [43]. The vitrinite reflectance of the parent coal was obtained following the procedure and equipment at the coal and carbon laboratory, University of the Witwatersrand, South Africa as detailed in Malumbazo et al. [29].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chemical analysis for the parent coal are summarized in Table 1, where coals are listed by increasing rank (lignite to anthracite) as determined by vitrinite reflectance analysis [29]. The rank parameters follow the expected trend with increasing rank, a decrease in volatile matter, hydrogen content, oxygen content, atomic O/C ratio and atomic H/C ratio, and an increase in carbon content, fuel ratio, and aromaticity [8 – 9, 12 – 15, 18 – 22, 54 – 55]. The atomic ratio of hydrogen to carbon (H/C) increases as the coal rank decreases with lignite coal sample having the highest ratio of 1.12 and the anthracite coal has the lowest

value of 0.36. A similar trend was obtained for the atomic O/C ratio with the lignite coal having a value of 0.20 and the anthracite coal, 0.02. The values obtained in this study compare well with those of Ibarra et al. [18], who reported values ranging from 1.27 for peat to 0.17 for anthracite for the atomic H/C ratio and 0.43 for peat and 0.06 for anthracite. The aromaticity shows a trend of increasing values with increasing coal rank with the lignite coal having a value of 0.38 and the anthracite a value of 0.97 [17 – 18, 25]. A similar trend was obtained for the calorific value with the lignite having a value of 21.2 MJ/kg and the anthracite a value of 29.6 MJ/kg. Typically there is a slight drop in the calorific value between the low rank and high rank coals. The fuel ratio ranges from 0.6 for the lignite coal to 16 for the anthracite coal. There was good agreement with the aromaticity, calorific value, and fuel ratio of the bituminous coals (BIT-LV and BIT-HV) with those reported by Everson et al. for typical South African bituminous coals [25].

The lignite coal has a mean random vitrinite reflectance of 0.35 representing a low rank C coal (Table 1). The mean random vitrinite reflectance obtained for the sub-bituminous coal in this study was 0.47 characterised as low rank B coal; for the bituminous coals, the values determined are 0.73 and 0.78 for BIT-LV and BIT-HV characterised as medium rank C coals. The high rank coals SA and ANT have values of 2.48 and 3.26 thus high rank C and high rank B coals respectively [28 - 29].

The chemical analyses of the acid-washed coal are presented in Table 2. The differences observed between parent and acid washed coal was significant. A similar trend was observed for the acid washed coals as was with the parent coals. Observations of increased surface area with coal rank for acid cleaned were also reported by Kister et al. [12] The increased volatile matter as a result acid washing was expected to have increased the surface area and porosity of the coals due to the opening of pores, which were blocked by mineral impurities, but that was not the case with lower rank coals that experienced higher percentage increase in volatile matter content [12]. However, that was not observed for the low-rank coals where the surface area was reduced or unchanged. Mahajan and Walker [16] also observed a reduction in surface area for some coals, attributed to mineral precipitation or blocking of pores. This finding of insignificant change in aromaticity was reported by the work of Strydom et al. [17], who reported no change in the aromaticity of the demineralized coals when compared to the raw bituminous coals, and by the work of Ishihara et al. [33], who investigated the effect of demineralization on hydrogen transfer of coal with tritiated gaseous hydrogen. They revealed that demineralization does not affect the amounts of functional groups in the parent

coals of different ranks ranged from lignite to low volatile bituminous coal. Here, the atomic H/C was not significantly changed and the O/C was relatively constant after the acid wash. This is similar to the observations of Strydom et al. [17] and Kister et al. [12].

Table 3 shows the atomic H/C ratio decreases with increasing char formation temperature. At temperature of 700 °C, there was a convergence to the value of 0.13 which was also observed by Zhao et al. [37]. As can be seen in Table 3, the O/C atomic ratio decreases with increasing char formation temperature for all the coals apart from anthracite with constant value of 0.03 for the temperature range of 450 – 700 °C. The uniform value obtained for the anthracite can be explained by variation in petrographic composition (data not included in this paper). The anthracite may be considered as a typical South African high-inertinite content coal. The aromaticities show an increasing trend with increasing char formation temperature (Table 3). For instance, Everson et al. [25] had similar aromaticities and trends for raw and acid-washed chars heat treated in a similar range (550 to 850 °C).

The fuel ratio data is given in Table 3. The fuel ratio increases with increase in the char formation temperature process. Though slight differences can be observed in the values obtained for the parent coal and the acid washed coals, the impart is more significant in the heat treated coal and a convergence occur around 700 °C especially for the low and medium ranks (Table 3). During the char formation process in the temperature 450 – 700°C, devolatilization, aromatization, and arrangement of the basic structural units (BSUs) are likely to have occurred as there were significant transformational changes in aromaticity, fuel ratio, H/C and O/C obtained. The pattern of these transformations in aromaticity, fuel ratio and H/C was consistent for all coal chars: lignite to anthracite. The H/C values decreases with increase in the heating temperature while the aromaticity and fuel ratio increases with increase in heating temperature as seen in Figure 1. This is attributed to the chemical modification (devolatilization, removal of aliphatic groups and heteroatoms) that occurs during carbonization that results in the ordering of the internal structure of the samples [25, 43 – 45]. From these parameters it can be observed that coal increases its aromaticity and fuel ratio with increasing char formation temperature. Aromaticity and atomic H/C ratio are in use as reference indicators in coal conversion processes. It is suggested that fuel ratio has similar utility.

To establish a relationship between the determined aromaticity, fuel ratio and H/C ratio during the char formation temperatures of 450 – 700 °C; figures of the transitional relationships with

temperature, aromaticity with atomic H/C, fuel ratio versus aromaticity, fuel ratio versus H/C were constructed (Fig. 1 - 7). In Fig. 1, the changes in fuel ratio, aromaticity and atomic H/C of the parent coals are compared with the chars obtained at increasing char formation temperature. The fractional increase in the fuel ratio was more pronounced in the low and medium ranks with increasing char formation temperature as expected. The same trend was observed for the aromaticity, whereas, for the atomic H/C, fractional decrease was observed. Fig. 2 and 3 reveals the relationship between the aromaticity and atomic H/C ratio. The correlation between the aromaticity and H/C ratio gave a linear relationship (Fig.2), whereas for the coal char, the relationship obtained was dependent on the coal rank (Fig.3). These results are consistent with the general trends reported in previous studies for raw bituminous coal but the extension of these correlations to interpret the structural transformation of other coal rank remain a subject of controversy [46 -49]. Whereas the correlation obtained in this study is dependent on coal rank and could be used for the interpretation of the relationship between aromaticity and atomic H/C structural changes (Fig. 3). Fig.4 demonstrates the correlation between aromaticity and fuel ratio with increasing char formation temperature, which follows same trend for all coal ranks apart from the low rank coals with little degree of deviation from the trend. This deviation could be attributed to the higher percentage of oxygen and oxygen containing functional groups in the low rank coals (LIG and SUB). It is known the low-rank coals have limited thermoplastic ability and hence do not undergo as extensive an ordering as bituminous coals. The two low-rank coals do not align and coalesce to the same degree resulting in a lower aromaticity. These results of increasing aromaticity with increasing char formation temperature are consistent with the general

trend reported in previous charring studies on raw coal in respect of increasing aromaticity with decreasing coal reactivity [50]; increasing aromatic condensation [51]; less ordered material [52]; increasing reflectance [32]; and increasing optical texture [38]. Fig.5 presents the variation of fuel ratio with atomic H/C. With increasing fuel ratio with the char formation temperature, there is a corresponding decrease in the atomic H/C with a convergence to the same value of 0.13 at the final char formation temperature of 700 °C. The fuel ratio for the two low rank coals were close with similar devolatilization behavior, the two bituminous coals with close fuel ratio values have a similar devolatilization behavior, while the two high rank coals behave in like manners when subjected to heat treatment.

Table 3 also shows the surface area decreasing with increasing rank in the char formation process. Figs. 6 indicates the variation of the BET surface area with the atomic O/C (lignite coal is used as an example for illustration) and % change in BET surface area with % change in oxygen (daf). The variation in atomic O/C and % change in oxygen and compared to the raw coal is more pronounced in the low rank coals, due to higher oxygen content and of oxygen-containing functional groups such as carboxylic and phenolic [19, 53-54]. Coal particles undergo thermo-chemical decomposition with release of volatile will often increase in the porosity and surface area of the resultant char [52, 55-57]. The relationship in Fig. 6 showed that for every decrease in the atomic O/C, there is a corresponding increase in the surface area during the char formation process. It is generally known that the diffusion of oxygen to and within the char particle influences the rate of char burning and resulting transitions in char morphology (Fig.5.) [19, 40, 58-59].

Table 1: Proximate analysis, ultimate analysis, calorific values, aromaticity, BET surface area, vitrinite reflectance and calculated H/C and fuel ratio values for untreated coal

Coal	LIG	SUB	BIT-LV	BIT-HV	SA	ANT
Inherent moisture(air dried) wt.%	15.4	9.6	4.2	2.1	1.0	1.5
Ash (air-dried) wt.%	12.4	9.0	29.1	16.2	17.3	11.2
Volatile matter (air-dried) wt.%	45.7	37.6	21.4	26.7	7.6	5.3
Fixed carbon (air-dried) wt.%	26.4	43.8	45.3	55.0	74.1	82.0
Carbon (daf) wt.%	70.5	75.6	77.5	81.6	90.4	90.2
Hydrogen (daf) wt.%	6.6	5.2	4.5	4.6	3.5	2.7
Nitrogen (daf) wt.%	0.6	1.7	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.2
Oxygen (daf) wt.%	18.5	16.9	15.4	10.7	3.3	2.7
Sulphur (daf) wt.%	3.7	0.7	0.4	1.2	0.9	2.3
Gross calorific value (MJ/kg) (air-dried)	21.2	24.6	20.0	26.8	28.7	29.6
H/C (daf)	1.12	0.82	0.69	0.67	0.46	0.36
O/C (daf)	0.20	0.17	0.15	0.10	0.03	0.02
f _a	0.38	0.57	0.70	0.71	0.91	0.97
Fuel ratio	0.6	1.2	2.1	2.1	10	16
CO ₂ BET surface area (m ² /g)	74	104	95	84	108	122
Rank (mean random vitrinite reflectance %)	0.31	0.47	0.78	0.73	2.48	3.26

Table 2 : Proximate analysis, ultimate analysis, calorific values, aromaticity, BET surface area and calculated H/C and fuel ratio values for acid – washed coal

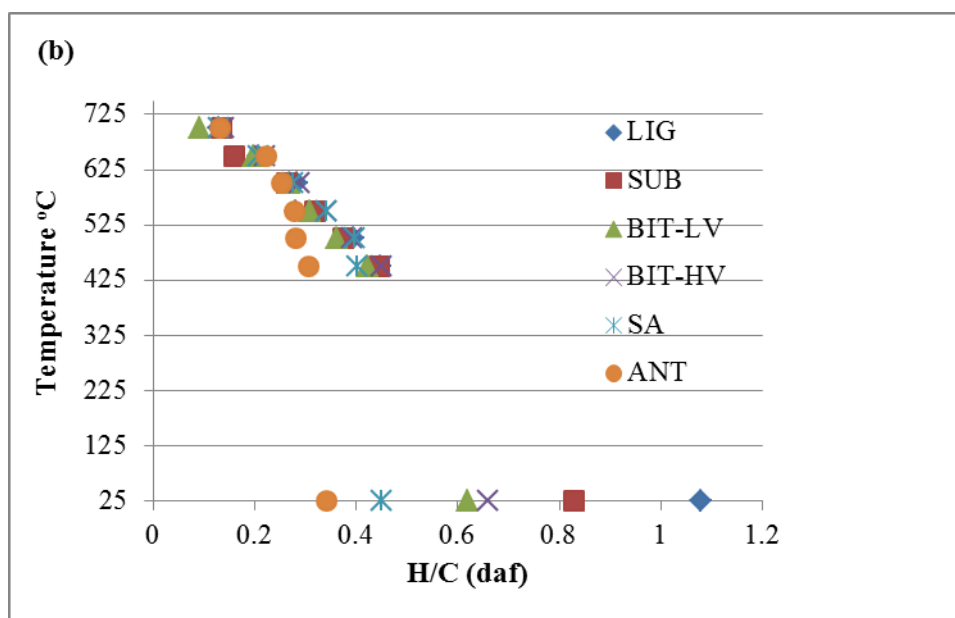
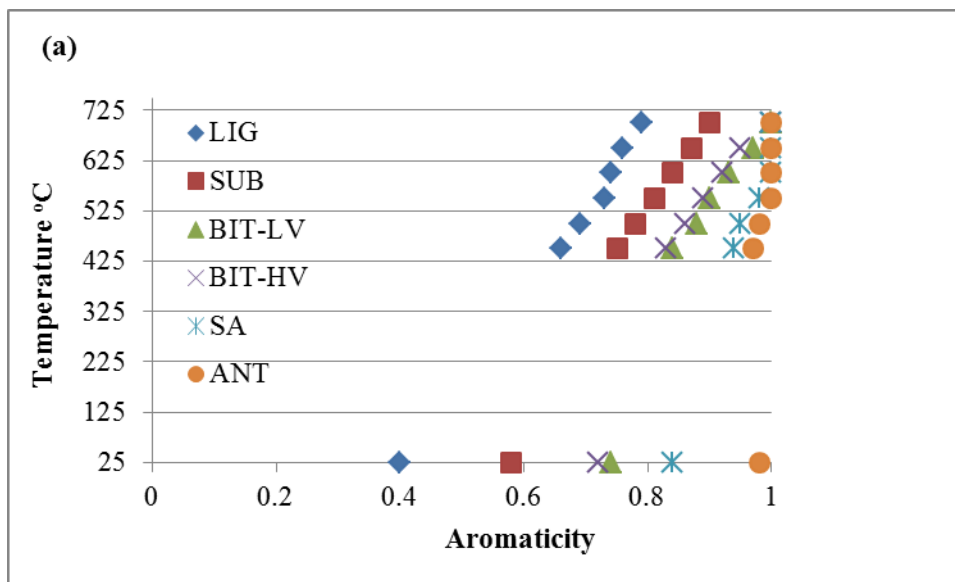
Coal	LIG	SUB	BIT-LV	BIT-HV	SA	ANT
Inherent moisture(air dried) wt.%	1.7	1.9	1.3	2.7	2.3	2.5
Ash (air-dried) wt.%	0.8	2.0	3.3	1.2	1.8	1.5
Volatile matter (air-dried) wt.%	60.3	43.2	25.0	27.2	9.6	6.8
Fixed carbon (air-dried) wt.%	37.3	53.0	70.4	68.9	86.3	89.2
Carbon (daf) wt.%	69.2	75.1	80.9	83.4	89.0	85.6
Hydrogen (daf) wt.%	6.2	5.2	4.2	4.6	3.3	2.4
Nitrogen (daf) wt.%	0.6	1.8	2.3	2.0	1.8	2.0
Oxygen (daf) wt.%	20.3	17.4	12.3	9.1	5.0	7.7
Sulphur (daf) wt.%	2.7	0.1	0.3	1.0	0.7	2.1
Gross calorific value (MJ/kg) (air-dried)	28.9	29.3	30.0	32.0	33.3	32.7
H/C (daf)	1.08	0.83	0.62	0.66	0.45	0.34
O/C (daf)	0.22	0.17	0.11	0.08	0.04	0.07
fa	0.40	0.58	0.74	0.72	0.84	0.98
Fuel ratio	0.6	1.2	2.8	2.5	9.0	13.0
CO2 BET surface area (m2/g)	74	94	111	95	125	138

Table 3: Proximate analysis, ultimate analysis, calorific values, aromaticity, BET surface area and calculated H/C and fuel ratio values for heat – treated coal

CHAR	Wt % (air dried)				Wt % (daf)					daf				m ² /g
	Mois.	Ash	V.M	F.C	C	H	N	O	S	O/C	H/C	f _a	FR	
LIG														
450	2.8	1.5	32.6	63.0	82.9	3.1	1.0	10.4	2.5	0.10	0.45	0.66	1.9	170
500	2.5	1.7	29.8	66.0	85.1	2.8	1.0	8.4	2.6	0.08	0.40	0.69	2.2	194
550	2.4	1.7	22.3	73.6	88.9	2.1	1.0	5.8	2.3	0.05	0.28	0.73	2.3	230
600	2.1	1.8	9.8	86.2	90.4	2.1	1.1	4.1	2.3	0.04	0.28	0.74	8.8	242
650	2.5	1.8	6.7	89.0	91.8	1.6	1.1	3.3	2.3	0.03	0.21	0.76	13.3	263
700	3.1	2.4	4.3	90.1	93.1	1.0	1.0	2.6	2.3	0.01	0.13	0.79	21.0	269
SUB														
450	3.2	2.7	24.2	69.9	84.9	3.2	2.2	9.2	0.5	0.08	0.45	0.75	2.9	156
500	3.1	2.3	22.5	72.1	87.3	2.7	2.3	7.2	0.5	0.06	0.38	0.78	3.2	183
550	3.0	1.9	21.7	73.3	89.7	2.4	2.3	5.1	0.5	0.05	0.32	0.81	3.4	184
600	3.2	2.4	13.3	81.1	91.3	2.0	2.3	4.1	0.5	0.04	0.26	0.84	6.1	234
650	3.6	2.5	8.8	85.1	92.0	1.5	2.2	3.9	0.5	0.03	0.16	0.87	9.7	238
700	4.0	2.5	4.4	89.1	93.1	1.0	2.0	3.4	0.5	0.03	0.13	0.90	20.3	240
BIT- LV														
450	1.5	3.6	14.6	80.3	88.1	3.1	2.1	6.4	0.4	0.06	0.42	0.84	5.5	137
500	1.3	3.7	12.5	82.5	89.7	2.7	2.2	5.1	0.3	0.05	0.36	0.88	6.6	154
550	1.0	3.6	9.5	85.9	89.7	2.3	2.1	5.5	0.3	0.05	0.31	0.90	9.0	199
600	0.8	3.6	7.7	87.9	89.6	2.0	2.1	5.5	0.3	0.05	0.27	0.93	11.4	200
650	0.8	4.1	5.5	89.6	91.7	1.5	2.1	4.3	0.3	0.04	0.20	0.97	16.3	215
700	1.0	4.2	3.8	91.0	92.6	0.7	2.3	4.1	0.3	0.03	0.09	1.00	24.0	224
BIT- HV														
450	0.9	1.3	13.9	84.0	88.1	3.3	2.1	5.7	0.8	0.05	0.45	0.83	6.0	130
500	1.1	1.1	11.4	86.4	89.0	2.9	2.1	5.4	0.7	0.04	0.39	0.86	7.6	159
550	0.9	0.9	8.6	89.6	91.3	2.6	2.2	3.4	0.5	0.03	0.34	0.89	10.2	184
600	0.9	1.1	7.3	90.7	92.1	2.2	2.1	3.1	0.5	0.03	0.29	0.92	12.4	206
650	0.9	1.2	5.0	92.9	93.1	1.7	2.1	2.5	0.6	0.02	0.22	0.95	18.6	215
700	0.9	1.1	3.9	94.1	95.5	1.1	2.0	0.9	0.6	0.01	0.14	1.00	24.1	225
SA														
450	0.6	1.5	7.8	90.1	89.5	3.0	1.9	4.8	0.8	0.04	0.40	0.94	11.6	138
500	0.7	1.6	6.6	91.1	90.8	3.0	1.8	7.9	0.8	0.07	0.40	0.95	13.8	148
550	0.5	1.2	5.7	92.6	91.4	2.6	2.0	3.2	0.8	0.03	0.34	0.98	16.2	170
600	0.5	1.0	4.8	93.7	91.4	2.1	1.9	3.8	0.8	0.03	0.28	1.00	19.5	187
650	1.2	1.3	3.7	93.8	92.5	1.6	1.9	3.1	0.8	0.03	0.21	1.00	25.4	195
700	0.9	1.3	3.2	94.6	92.9	1.0	1.9	3.4	0.8	0.03	0.13	1.00	29.6	197

ANT														
450	0.9	1.3	5.6	92.2	90.0	2.3	2.1	3.6	2.0	0.03	0.31	0.97	16.5	114
500	0.8	4.9	5.3	89.0	89.9	2.1	2.1	3.8	2.0	0.03	0.28	0.98	16.8	135
550	0.7	8.1	4.4	86.8	90.6	2.1	2.1	3.0	2.1	0.03	0.28	1.00	19.7	137
600	0.7	3.4	4.5	91.4	90.4	1.9	2.1	3.6	2.0	0.03	0.25	1.00	20.3	151
650	0.8	1.4	6.3	91.5	91.3	1.7	2.1	3.0	2.0	0.03	0.22	1.00	24.5	163
700	0.7	1.4	3.4	94.5	91.4	1.0	2.1	3.5	2.0	0.03	0.13	1.00	27.8	164

F.C fixed carbon; V.M. volatile matter; GCV gross calorific value; f_a aromaticity; FR fuel ratio; BET BET surface area.



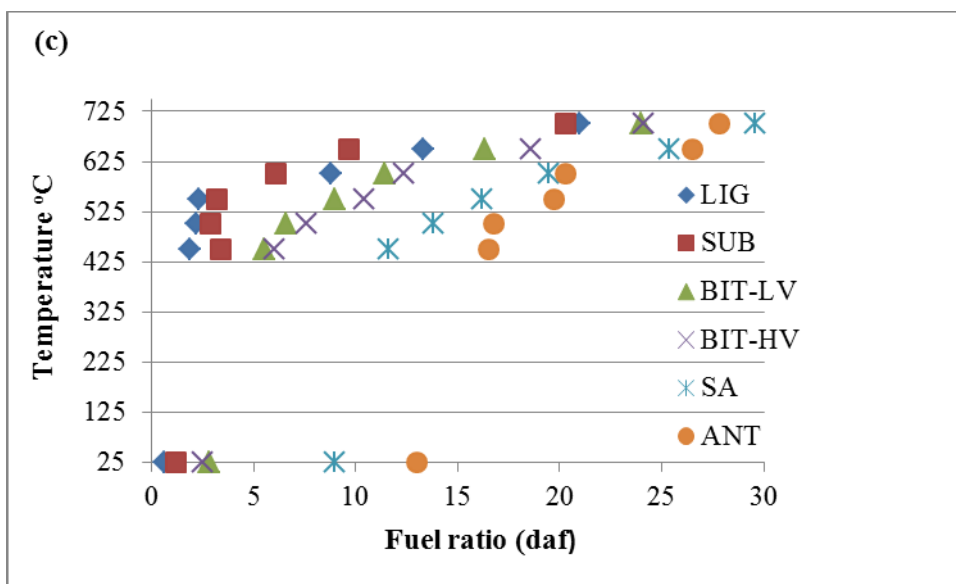


Fig. 1 : Transitional relationship between (a) Aromaticity; (b) H/C; (c) Fuel ratio with char formation temperature

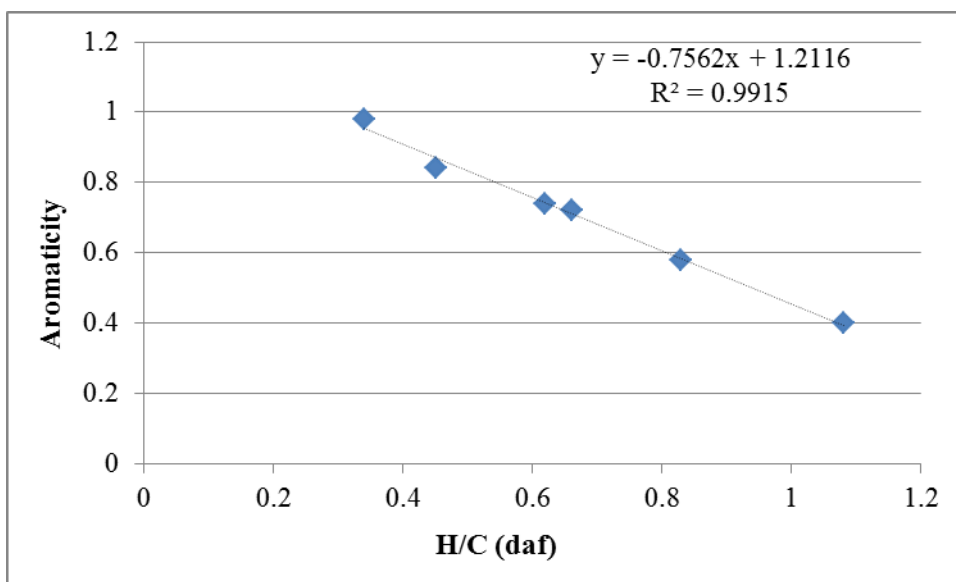


Fig. 2 : Relationship between the aromaticity and atomic H/C for the different coals

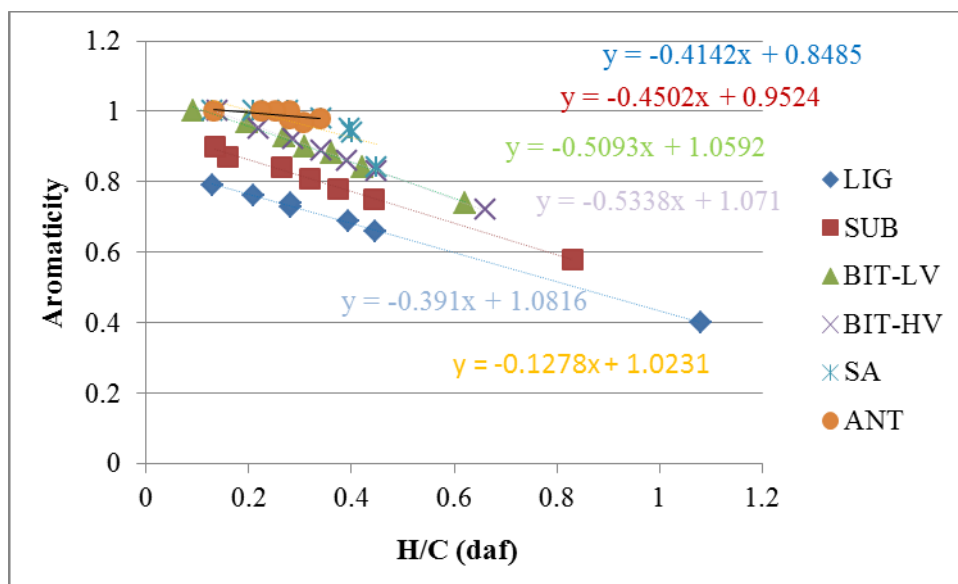


Fig. 3 : Relationship between the aromaticity and atomic H/C during pyrolysis

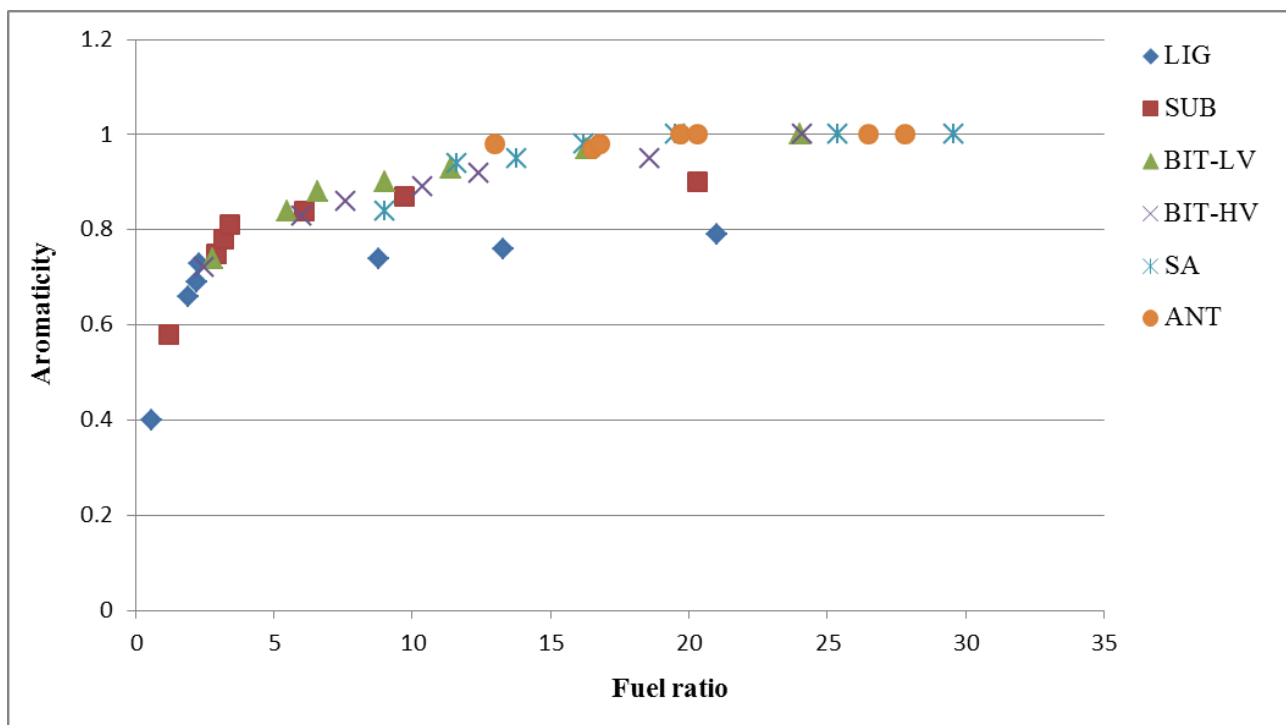


Fig. 4 : Transitional relationship between Aromaticity with Fuel ratio during pyrolysis

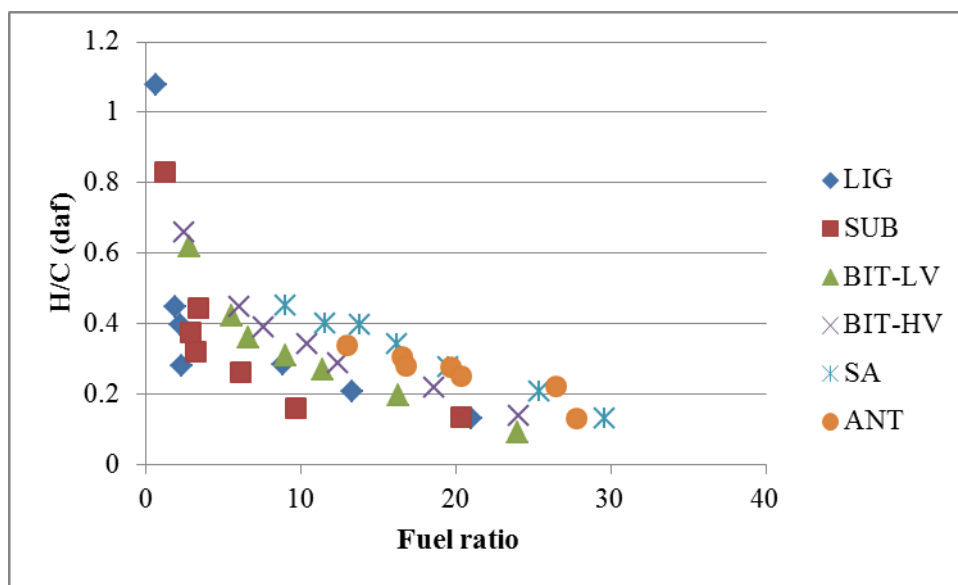


Fig. 5 : Transitional relationship between H/C and Fuel ratio during pyrolysis

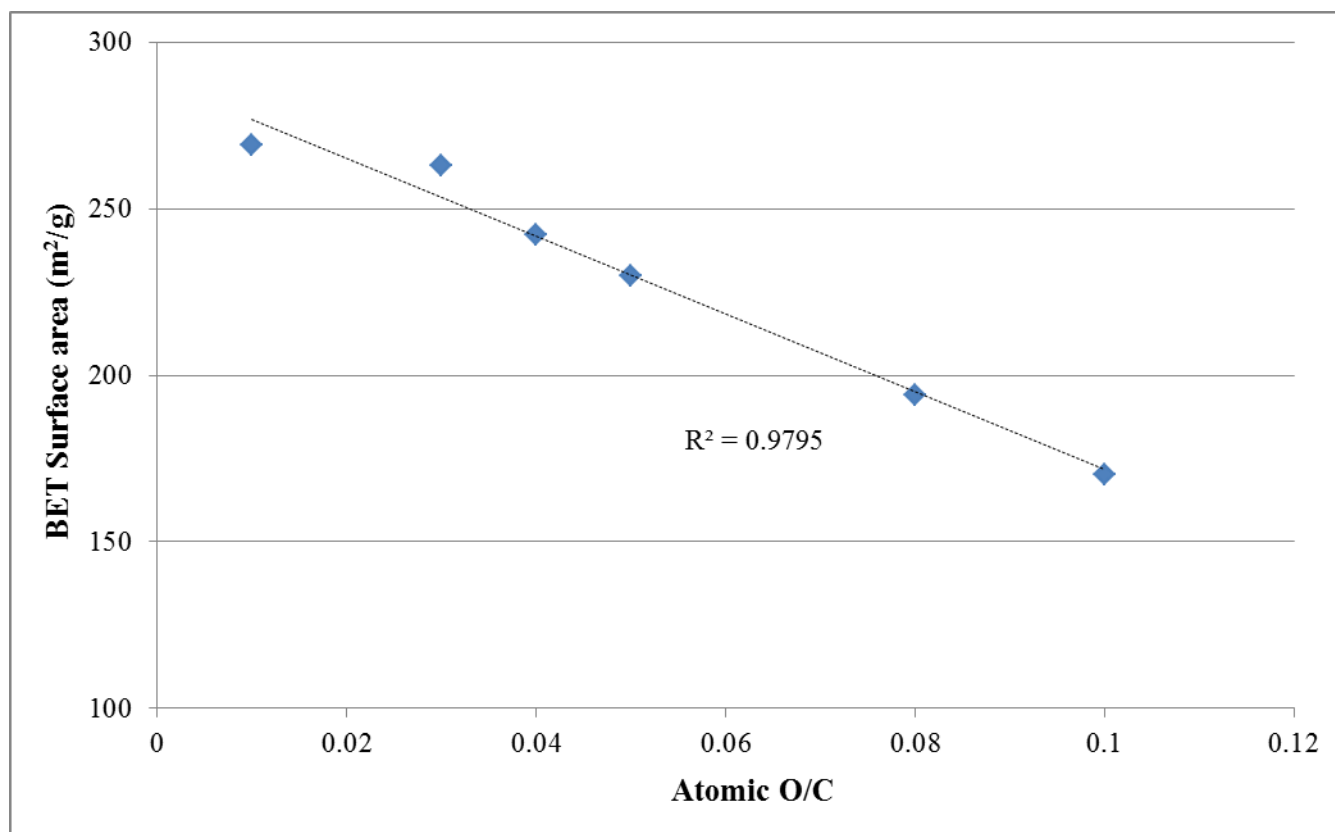


Fig. 6 : Variation of BET surface area with atomic O/C for the different acid-washed chars (450-700 °C)

IV. CONCLUSION

Though previous research have reported the characterization of coal and the subsequent chars, analysis on the transition stage with emphasis on the organic component only have not been adequately investigated. This study entailed the characterization of

coal and chars of different ranks using both conventional and FTIR technique. It can be concluded that all different rank of coals show a similar behaviour in char properties, when subjected to elevated temperatures. The volatile matter, hydrogen, oxygen, atomic O/C ratio and atomic H/C ratio, decrease with temperature, while the carbon, surface area, calorific

value, fuel ratio and aromaticity increase with charring temperature, with the low rank coals (LIG and SUB) showing larger fractional structural changes. The crystallite structure order here as measured by aromaticity for the acid washed coal chars increases slightly with increase in heat treatment temperature for the higher rank coals. Regardless of the rank, all the acid washed coal chars become increasingly similar in atomic H/C at 700°C. The same trend was revealed in the aromaticity for the medium to high rank coals at temperature of 700 °C. The data generated for the fuel ratio (1.9 – 21.0 for LIG; 2.9 – 20.3 for SUB; 5.5 – 24.0 for BIT-LV; 6.0 – 24.1 for BIT-HV; 11.6 – 29.6 for SA and 16.5 – 27.8 for ANT, respectively), may be considered as a useful resource in coal processing data base. Therefore, I suggest the fuel ratio as a somewhat forgotten rank parameter that has utility in char formation work to be reconsidered for this purpose. Finally, it was possible to find a linear relationship between the coal char aromaticity and atomic H/C.

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Influence of the Projectile's Length on Interrupted Dynamic Tension Experiment Results

By RA González-Lezcano & JM del Río

Universidad CEU San Pablo, Spain

Abstract- The main focus of this work is to discuss the influence of the projectile's length on the results of a Split Hopkinson Tension Bar (SHTB) experiment. By using the commercial software ABAQUS, finite element simulations of high-strain-rate tension experiments are accomplished on Aluminium 7017-T73 alloy specimens when varying the length of the projectile employed. The finite element analyses described herein are applied to simulate the effects of the variation of the projectile's length on the measurements obtained in the incident, reflected, and transmission bars. Different strain rates are obtained when varying the projectile's length always provided that its speed remains constant. The simulation results show that the projectile's length has a significant effect on the strain obtained in the specimen and also on the subsequent stress-strain curve of the specimen. In view of this research, it can be concluded that the projectile's length is a factor that can resolutely influence the interrupted dynamic tension experiment results since it has a significant effect on the strain obtained within the specimen. The simulations also provide complementary information to the experiments and an in-depth understanding of the specimen's behaviour.

Keywords: *tension experiment, high-strain-rate testing, stress-strain curve, finite element method, split hopkinson tension bar, mechanical characterization.*

GJRE-E Classification : FOR Code: 090599



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Influence of the Projectile's Length on Interrupted Dynamic Tension Experiment Results

RA González-Lezcano ^α & JM del Río ^σ

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I. INTRODUCTION

Several techniques have been widely implemented in characterizing the high-strain-rate mechanical behaviour of engineering materials in order to optimize their use. The most common method for determining such dynamic behaviour is the Split Hopkinson Bar, which can be used both in tension (SHTB) and compression (SHCB). The Split Hopkinson Bar is used to test materials at strain rates as high as 10^4 s^{-1} . Simultaneously, damage evaluation and safety assessment of the integrity of structural elements under dynamic loading have recently drawn the attention of researchers. In this field, material dynamic response and dynamic constitutive material models are still necessary. The dynamic behaviour of materials studies have become increasingly relevant to many technological applications, such as those of Aeronautics, in which

*Author α: Department of Architecture and Design, Escuela Politécnica Superior, Universidad CEU San Pablo, Urbanización Montepríncipe, 28668 Boadilla del Monte, Madrid (Spain).
e-mail: rgonzalezcano@ceu.es*

Author σ: Department of Architecture and Design, Escuela Politécnica Superior, Universidad CEU San Pablo, Spain.

structural elements may undergo impacts due to the vulnerability of satellites and spacecrafts to collisions with space debris. It is also crucial in the Transportation Industry, in which under the hardest working conditions there is insufficient time for stress equilibrium to be achieved within the materials employed. Finally, it is also relevant in Ballistics, where modeling of armour panels under projectile impacts must become accurate. Quasi-static loading is applied so slowly that materials deform at a very low strain rate and therefore the inertia forces can be ignored. On the contrary, in a dynamic loading, impact involves a load which is quickly applied over a short time duration and therefore the inertia forces must be definitely considered. Whereas a quasi-static test can be interrupted at any time to study the microstructure of the material under a determined strain level, interrupting a dynamic test becomes an arduous issue. Therefore, the main focus of this work is to study the behaviour of materials under high strain rates and develop a tool which permits the materials being tested to undergo different levels of strain and strain rates in a controlled manner. In order to meet such requirements, the below-referred setup relevant to the viability of a SHTB model has been accomplished:

1. Finite element simulation of high-strain-rate tension experiments using different strain rates and projectile's lengths.
2. Comparison of the stresses and strains obtained at a determined strain rate and study of the influence of the projectile's length on the interrupted dynamic tension experiment results.
3. Design of a SHTB model when using an Aluminium 7017-T73 alloy in which the effect of the projectile's length can be taken into account.

II. EXPERIMENTAL APPARATUS

The SHTB apparatus as installed in the Universidad Carlos III de Madrid Engineering Laboratory shown in figure 1 involves two bars called the incident and the transmission bars, and a specimen sandwiched between them made of the material being tested. The cylindrical bars are manufactured in a sole piece to facilitate the wave propagation study. Their dimensions are suitable for optimizing the experiments.



Figure 1: Split Hopkinson Tension Bar apparatus as installed in the Universidad Carlos III de Madrid Engineering Laboratory.

The yield strength of the material used to fabricate the bars must be high enough to withstand the strains reached during the experiment. Its remaining properties must be precisely determined in order to foster the most reliable results.

Two strain gauges mounted on the incident and transmission bars enable the stress waves to be measured, as shown in fig. 2. The information gathered by the strain gauges is sent to a data acquisition system that consists of a signal conditioner and an oscilloscope, where test data can be computed.

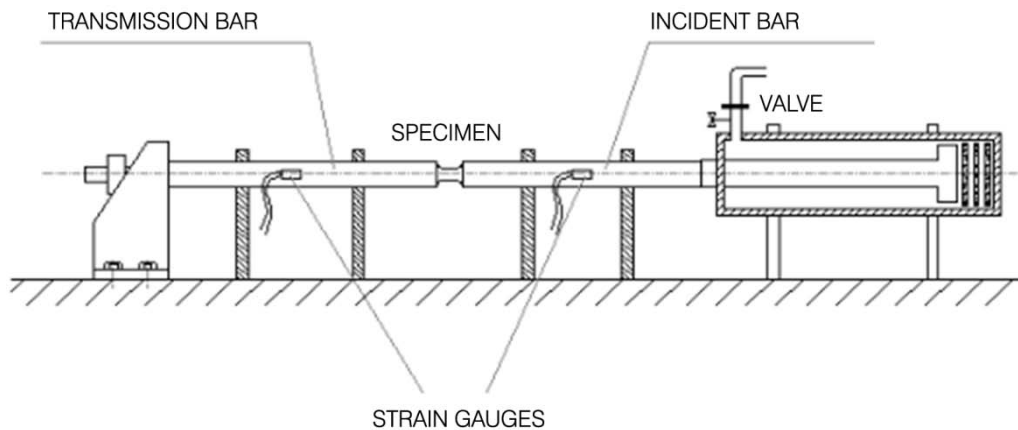


Figure 2 : Strain gauges mounted on the SHTB apparatus.

The specimen ends are screwed into both the incident and transmission bars. The incident bar, which is longer than the transmission bar, is impacted by the projectile.

The basic principle is to use a tubular projectile which impacts the flange of the incident bar to generate compression waves that will be converted to tensile waves by the flange. The projectile is a hollow cylinder that is launched using a chamber with compressed gas with a maximum pressure of 8 bar. The optimum pressure in every test for the required impact can be chosen using a control valve.

III. RESULTS

The primary assumptions of the SHTB analysis are the uniform deformation of the specimen and the absence of stresses in transverse direction. Other assumptions include a constant strain rate while testing and quick equilibration of stresses in the specimen. According to the one-dimensional wave theory and the assumption of a uniaxial and homogeneous stress and strain in the specimen, the stress, strain and strain rate can be therefore calculated. The one-dimensional elastic wave theory is valid only if wave dispersion due to three-dimensional effects (radial inertia of the bars)

can be neglected. Therefore, the difference in the inner and outer elements considered must be negligible in the FE model as well.

All data shown below are relevant to the centre of the specimen (i.e. the area in which stresses and strains in the specimen reach their maximum values). Four elements are selected both in the incident and

transmission bars at the strain gauge's height. They are replaced at a distance equal to 0, 4, 7.5, and 11 mm with respect to the centre of the bar.

The graphs depicted in figures 3 and 4 illustrate that there is no significant difference in the values obtained from the four elements considered.

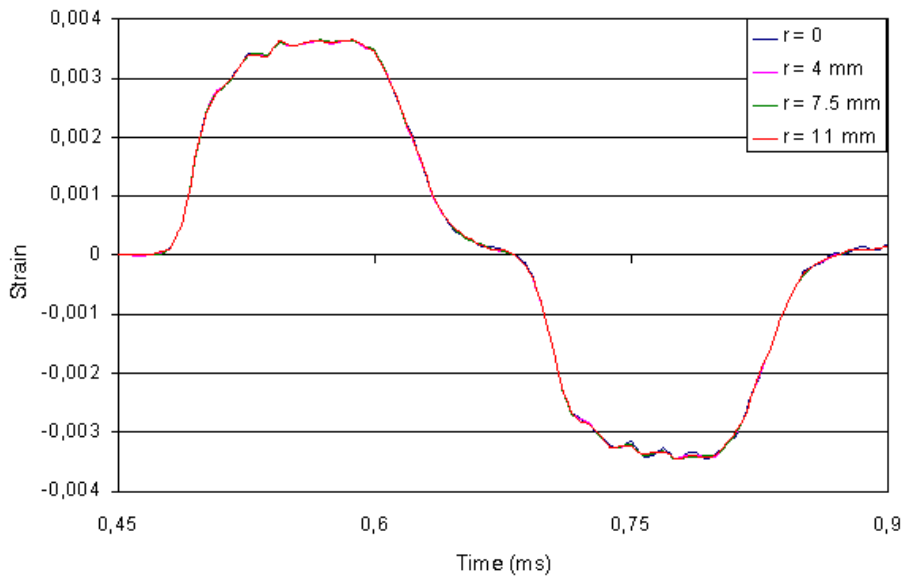


Figure 3 : Variation of strain with time as reached in four different elements of the incident bar placed at a distance equal to 0, 4, 7.5, and 11 mm.

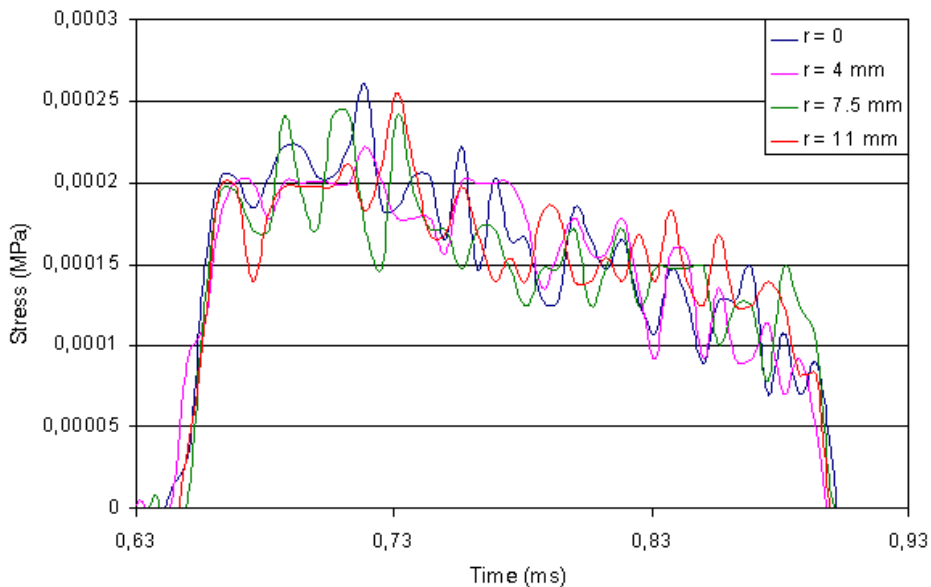


Figure 4 : Variation of strain with time as reached in four different elements of the transmission bar placed at a distance equal to 0, 4, 7.5, and 11 mm.

The one-dimensional wave theory is met for a strain rate equal to $1,300s^{-1}$ and a 33-cm long projectile. Other numerical simulations are accomplished to obtain

the stress, the strain, and the strain rate corresponding to 20-cm long, 40-cm long, and 55-cm long projectiles.

Figure 5 shows the influence of the projectile's length on the behaviour of the incident and reflected waves.

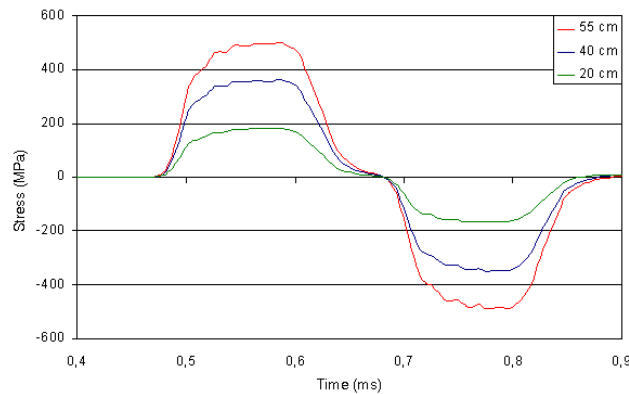


Figure 5 : Incident and reflected stress waves caused by the 20-cm long, 40-cm long, and 55-cm long projectiles.

The longest projectile produces a wave in which the stress values become the highest ones. On the contrary, the shortest projectile produces a wave in which the stress values happen to be the lowest ones. The incident wave caused by the 55-cm long projectile yields a maximum stress value equal to 480 MPa and the reflected wave relating to such projectile's length turns out a maximum stress value equal to 455 MPa. The incident wave caused by the 40-cm long projectile reaches a stress value of 350 MPa and the pertaining reflected wave yields 330 MPa. 175 MPa are reached by the incident wave and 155 MPa by the reflected wave when using the 20-cm long projectile. As shown in fig. 5, the incident wave is larger than the reflected one. This is due to the strike of the incident wave, which is partly reflected and partly transmitted to the specimen.

Every wave starts at 0.47 ms and there is a slight difference in time duration when comparing the time values obtained by each projectile. The highest duration corresponds to the longest projectile. Such difference is minimal, since the waves' speed is really high (close to 5,170 m/s).

Another significant difference can be noticed when switching over from the incident wave to the reflected one. In this case the wave relevant to the shortest projectile tends to become horizontal, whereas those of the other ones remain inclined along the same portion of the curve. It can also be observed that the wave pertaining to the longest projectile happens to be the most inclined one. This occurrence shows that the longer the projectile is, the longer the time duration of the wave.

The transmitted waves are taken from the transmission bar of the model. The measurements are also taken from the points in which the strain gauges are placed in a real experiment. Figure 6 illustrates the

influence of the projectile's length on the behaviour of the transmitted waves.

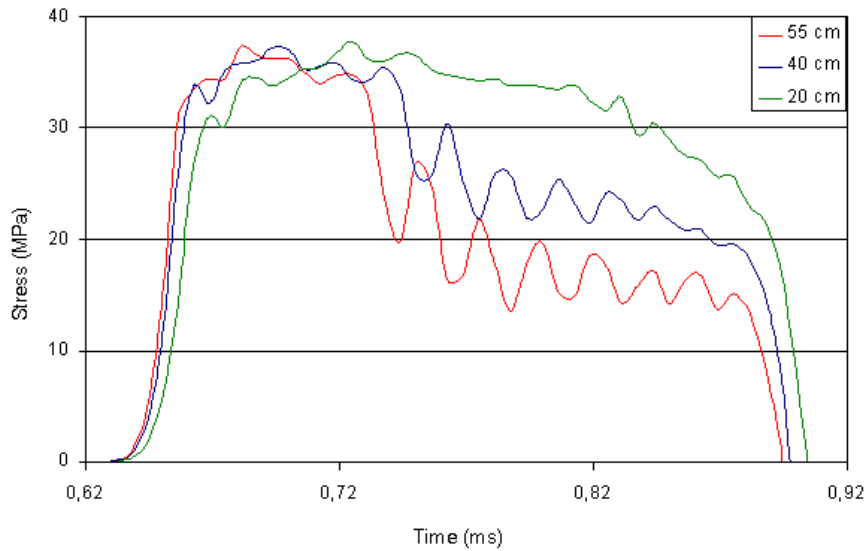


Figure 6 : Transmitted stress waves caused by the 20-cm long, 40-cm long, and 55-cm long projectiles.

Figure 6 shows that the maximum values of the waves transmitted by both the 55-cm long and the 40-cm long projectiles are alike. This occurrence is due to the high strains reached by the specimen, which are actually over its failure strain. Therefore, under such conditions the specimens would break after necking.

On the contrary, the specimen undergoes lower strain values when it is impacted by the 20-cm projectile. The specimen does not reach its ultimate tensile strength and therefore no necking effects are observed

in the specimen. Figure 7 shows the strain values caused in the midpoint of the specimen's gauge length resulting from the impacts of projectiles with different sizes. It can be observed that the highest strains turn out to occur when using the longest projectiles. The slope of the linear portions of each curve indicates the value of the strain rate. Since the steepest slope is that of the 55-cm long projectile, it can be inferred that the longest projectile causes a higher strain rate than the others.

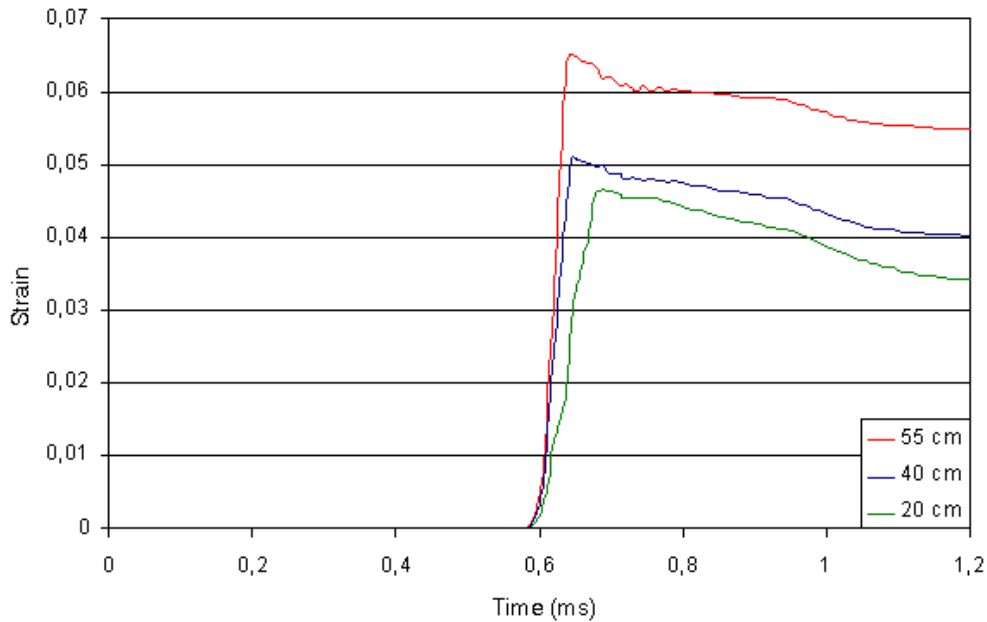


Figure 7: Variations of strain with time in the specimen caused by the 20-cm long, 40-cm long, and 55-cm long projectiles.

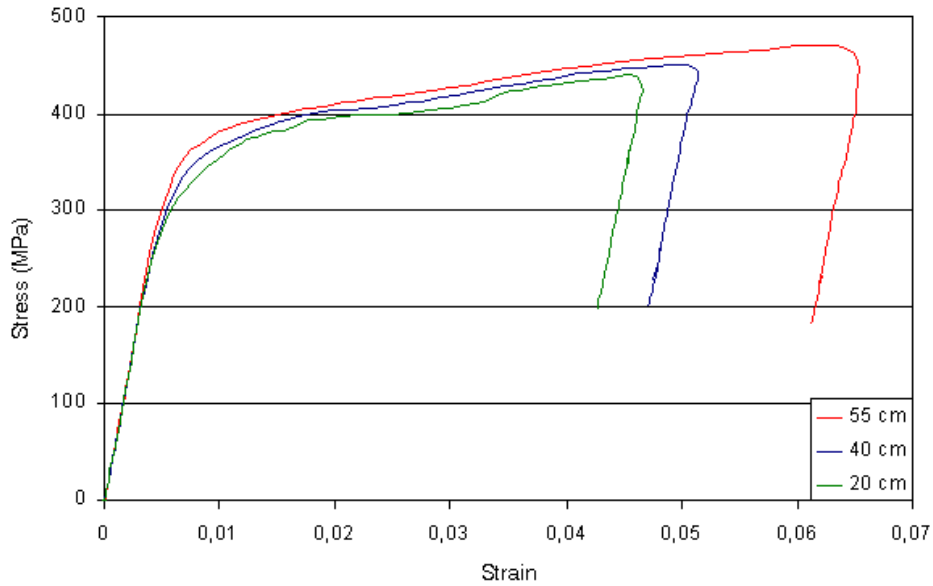


Figure 8 : Stress-strain curves in the specimen caused by the 20-cm long, 40-cm long, and 55-cm long projectiles.

The strain rate of the specimen is computed as the derivative of the variation of strain with time at the midpoint of the sample. Figure 9 shows the values of

strain rates obtained when using different lengths of the same projectile.

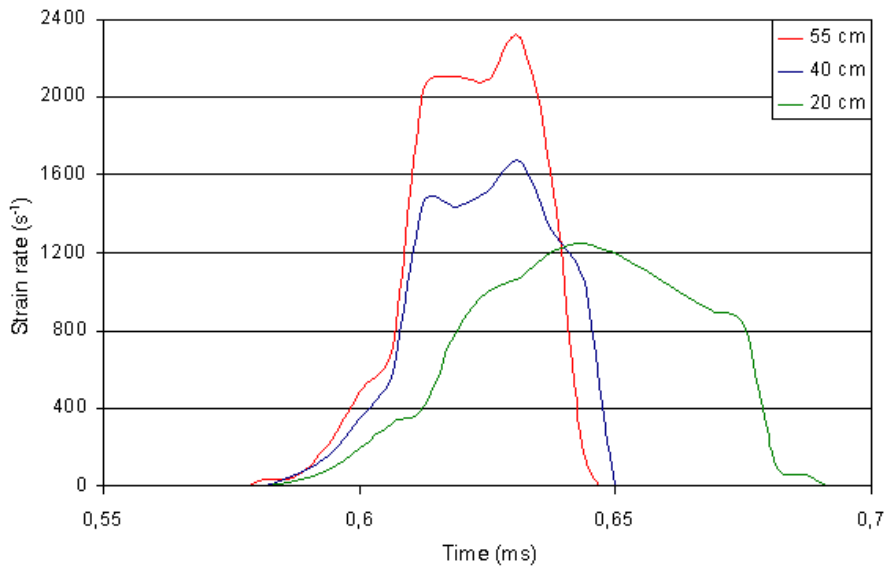


Figure 9 : Strain rates obtained when using the 20-cm long, 40-cm long, and 55-cm long projectiles.

It can be observed that the 55-cm long projectile impacts at a strain rate equal to $2100s^{-1}$ approximately, whereas the 40-cm long projectile reaches a maximum value of the strain rate which is in the region of $1500s^{-1}$. The 20-cm long projectile impacts around $1000s^{-1}$.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

A numerical analysis of the SHTB experiments was accomplished by using the FE method. Results of

numerical simulations of SHTB experiments were presented considering different projectile's lengths. Different strain rates were obtained when varying the projectile's length always provided that its speed remained constant. The simulation results show that the projectile's length has a significant effect on the strain obtained in the specimen. The 20-cm long projectile yields the highest time duration. It was observed that necking takes place in the portion of the gauge length which is closer to the incident bar. The maximum stress

values concentrate in such portion and therefore it undergoes the maximum strain values. The higher the strain rate is, the lower its time duration. The strains and strain rates obtained are higher when using the 50-cm long projectile. It can be deduced that if specimens with higher ultimate tensile strength are to be tested, the impact pressure in the incident bar must increase or otherwise longer projectiles must be used.

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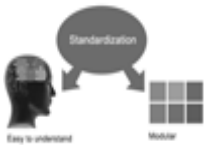
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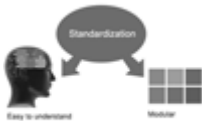
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