University of Alberta Department of Civil Engineering

Structural Engineering Report No. 54

A Monte Carlo Study of the Strength Variability of Reinforced Concrete Columns

by

THESITY OF

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January, 1976

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

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NAME OF AUTHOR Leon Hadsley Grant TITLE OF THESIS A MONTE CARLO STUDY OF THE STRENGTH VARIABILITY OF RECTANGULAR TIED REINFORCED CONCRETE COLUMNS DEGREE FOR WHICH THESIS WAS PRESENTED M. Sc. YEAR THIS DEGREE GRANTED 1976

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1

A MONTE CARLO STUDY OF THE STRENGTH VARIABILITY OF RECTANGULAR TIED REINFORCED CONCRETE COLUMNS

by

Leon Hadsley Grant

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

SPRING, 1976

ABSTRACT

The safety provisions proposed for use in Canada for limit states design involve load factors to account for possible overloads and resistance or performance factors to account for possible understrength of structural members. The purpose of this study was to evaluate the understrength or ϕ factor applicable to rectangular tied reinforced column cross sections based on a probabilistic analysis of the results of a Monte Carlo Study.

Probability models were described for the major variables affecting the cross sectional strength. A Monte Carlo procedure was used to develop a sample of cross section strengths from which the understrength factor was calculated. This study showed that the concrete strength variability and the steel strength variability were the major contributing factors to the variability in cross sectional strength.

The understrength factors calculated from the results of this study were found to be in close agreement with the understrength factors used in the ACI 318-71 Building Code.

iv

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This investigation was made possible by a grant provided by the National Research Council of Canada (Grant A1673).

The author wishes to express his sincere appreciation to Dr. J.G. MacGregor under whose direction this study was performed.

The assistance of Dr. S. Ali Mirza in describing the variability of steel strength as contained in Appendix A is gratefully acknowledged.

V

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 General	. 1
1.2 The Monte Carlo Technique	3
1.3 Development of the Understrength Factor ϕ	5
II THEORETICAL BEHAVIOUR OF REINFORCED CONCRET	E
SECTIONS	9
2.1 The Basic Assumptions for Analysis	9
2.2 The Stress-Strain Relationship for Concrete	10
2.3 The Stress-Strain Relationship for Steel	19
2.4 Numerical Method for Developing th	е
Interaction Diagram	1 9
III COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR ANALYSIS	27
3.1 Description of The Monte Carlo Technique	27
3.2 Description of The Computer Program	28
3.3 Comparison of Theory With Test Results	43
IV PROBABILITY MODELS OF VARIABLES AFFECTING SECTIO	N
STRENGTH	48
4.1 Concrete Variability	48
4.1.1 Introduction	48
4.1.2 Distribution of Concrete Strength	50
4.1.3 Statistical Description of Concret	e
Strength Variation	53
4.1.4 Cylinder Strength vs. Design Strength	56
4.1.5 In-situ Strength of Concrete	58

TABLE OF CONTENTS CONTINUED

C	HAPTER		PAGE
		4.1.6 Probability Model for Concrete	
		Strength	61
	4.2	Reinforcing Steel Variability	62
	4.3	Cross Section Dimensional Variability	62
		4.3.1 Introduction	62
•		4.3.2 Probability Model for Cross Section	
		Dimensions	63
	4.4	Reinforcing Steel Placement Variability	67
	V THE	MONTE CARLO STUDY	71
	5.1	Size of Columns and Reinforcement Studied	71
	5.2	Size of Sample Studied	77
	5.3	Results of The Monte Carlo Simulation	87
		5.3.1 General	87
		5.3.2 The Effect of Steel Strength	
	· · ·	Distribution Used	87
•	•	5.3.3 The Effect of the Concrete Strength	
		Variation	93
		5.3.4 The Effect of the Variables Studied	97
	5.4	Cross Section Strength	100
•	5.5	Calculation of ϕ Factors	110
•		5.5.1 Based on 1 in 100 Understrength	110
		5.5.2 Based on Cornell-Lind Procedure	114
	VI SUMM	ARY AND CONCLUSIONS	118
1	REFERENC	ES	120

TABLE OF CONTENTS CONTINUED

CHAPTER		PAGE
APPENDIX A V	VARIABILITY IN REINFORCING STEEL	127
APPENDIX B C	COLUMNS STUDIED	145
APPENDIX C E	LOW DIAGRAMS OF THE MONTE CAPLO PROGRAM	150
APPENDIX D I	LISTING OF THE MONTE CARLO PROGRAM	185
APPENDIX E I	DESCRIPTION OF INPUT DATA	204
APPENDIX F N	NOMENCLATURE	207

LIST OF TABLES

Tabl	Le Description	
,		Page
3.1	Comparison of Ptest/Ptheory With the Value of k_3	45
3.2	Theory Comparison With Hognestad's Tests II	46
3.3	Theory Comparison With Hognestad's Tests III	47
4.1	Concrete Strength Variability	52
4.2	Concrete Strength in Structures vs. Cylinder	
	Strength	60
5.1	Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio	
	Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and	
	1000	83
5.2	Comparison of the Coefficient of Variation of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500	
	and 1000	84
5.3	Comparison of the Coefficient of Skewness of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500	
	and 1000	85
5.4	Comparison of the Measure of Kurtosis of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500	
• •	and 1000	86
5.5	Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio	00
	Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified Log-	
	normal Steel Strength Distribution	
5 6		89
5.6	Comparison of the Coefficient of Variation of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified	
	Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution	90

LIST OF TABLES CONTINUED

Tab	Description	Page
5.7	Comparison of the Coefficient of Skewness of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified	
	Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution	91
5.8	Comparison of the Measure of Kurtosis of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified	
	Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution	92
5.9	Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio	
	Ptheory/PACI for Concrete Cylinder Strength	
	Coefficients of Variation of 10%, 15% and 20%	94
5.1	O Comparison of the Coefficient of Variation of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Concrete Cylinder Strength	
	Coefficients of Variation of 10%, 15% and 20%	95
5.1	1 Comparison of the Coefficient of Skewness of the	
	Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Concrete Cylinder Strength	
	Coefficients of Variation of 10%, 15% and 20%	96
5.1	2 Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio	
	Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. and 24 in. Columns	109
5.1	3 The Understrength Factor for the 12 in. by 12 in.	
	Column Based on a Probability of Understrength of	
	1 in 100	111.
5.1	4 The Understrength Factor for the 24 in. by 24 in.	
	Column Based on a Probability of Understrength of	
	1 in 100	112
5.1	5 The Understrength Factor for the 12 in. by 12 in.	

x

LIST OF TABLES CONTINUED

Table	e Description	Page
	Column Based on $\phi = \gamma_R e^{-\beta \alpha V_R}$	116
5.16	The Understrength Factor for the 24 in. by 24 in.	
	Column Based on $\phi = \gamma_R e^{-\beta \alpha V_R}$	117
A- 1	Summary of Selected Studies on Steel Strength	130
B- 1	Properties of the 12 in. Column Assumed in the	
	Calculations	146
B-2	Properties of the 24 in. Column Assumed in the	
·	Calculations	147

LIST OF FIGURES

Figu	re Description	Page
2.1	Compression Block Parameters	11
2.2	Some Suggested Stress-Strain Curves for Confined	
	Concrete	13
2.3	The Kent and Park Stress-Strain Curve for	
	Concrete	15
2.4	The Stress-Strain Curve for Concrete Used in This	
· · · .	Study	20
2.5	The Stress-Strain Curve for Steel Used in This	
	Study	21
2.6	Typical Moment Curvature Diagram	23
2.7	Basic Notation Used in the Flexural Analysis of	
	Reinforced Concrete Sections	24
3,11	The Monte Carlo Technique	29
3.2	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Monte Carlo Program	31
3.3	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutines ACI and	
•	ASTEEL	33
3.4	The ACI Interaction Diagram	34
3.5	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine CURVE	36
3.6	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine THMEAN	37
3.7	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine THEORY	39
3.8	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine AXIAL	40
3.9	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine FSTEEL	41
3.10	Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine STAT	42
4.1	Relationship Between Standard Deviation and Mean	

xii

LIST OF FIGURES CONTINUED

£

i i

 $\left(\right)$

ſ

Figu	nre Description	Page
2	Strength of Concrete	54
4.2	Histogram of Cross Section Dimensional Variation	
	Reported by Tso and Zelman	64
4.3	Histograms of Cross Section Dimensional Variation	
	Reported by Hernandez and Martinez	66
4.4	Histogram of Variation in Concrete Cover Reported	
•	by Hernandez and Martinez	70
.5.1	Histogram of the Frequency of Column Sizes vs.	
	Column Size	72
5.2	Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel	
	in All Columns	73
5.3	Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel	
•	in Columns Less Than 16 in.	74
5.4	Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel	
	in Columns 16 in. to 24 in.	75
5.5	Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel	
· '	in Columns 24 in. to 36 in.	76
5.6	Final Column Cross sections Studied	78
5.7	Mean Value of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for	
	Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000 for a 12 in.	
	Square Column and Modified Log-normal Steel	
	Strength Distribution	80
5.8	Coefficient of Variation of the Ratio	
· .	Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for Sample Sizes of 200, 500	

xiii

LIST OF FIGURES CONTINUED

ſ

Figure Description	Page
and 1000 for a 12 in. Square Column and Modified	
Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution	81
5.9 Coefficient of Skewness of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI	
vs. e/h for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000 for	
a 12 in. Square Column and Modified Log-normal	
 Steel Strength Distribution	82
5.10 Standard Deviation Squared of the Ratio	
Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for the Variables Affecting	
Column Strength for a 12 in. Square Column and	• . •
Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution	99
5.11 Dispersion of Strengths of an Eccentrically	
Loaded 12 in. Square Column	101
5.12 Dispersion of Strengths of an Eccentrically	
Loaded 24 in. Square Column	102
5.13 Normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio	
Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. Column, $e/h = 0.10$	105
5.14 Log-normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio	
Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. Column, $e/h = 0.10$	106
5.15 Normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio	
Ptheory/PACI for the 24 in. Column, Pure Moment	107
5.16 Log-normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio	
Ptheory/PACI for the 24 in. Column, Pure Moment	108
5.17 The Understrength Factor ϕ vs. e/h Based on a	
Probability of Understrength of 1 in 100 for the	

xiv

LIST OF FIGURES CONTINUED

.

ſ

Figu	re Description	Page
	12 in. and 24 in. Columns	113
A-1	Steel Strength Distribution for Grade 40	
	Reinforcing Bars	132
A-2	Probability Density Function for Grade 40 Bars	134
A-3	Steel Strength Distribution for Grade 60	
	Reinforcing Bars	135
A-4	Probability Density Function for Grade 60 Bars	136
A-5	Effect of Bar Diameter on Steel Strength, Grade	
	40	140
A-6	Effect of Bar Diameter on Steel Strength, Grade	
	60	141
B - 1	Nominal or Designer's Properties of the 12 in.	
	and 24 in. Columns	148
B-2	Mean Values of the Properties of the 12 in. and	
•	24 in. Columns	149

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General

It is generally recognized that there is some degree of uncertainty in the design equations used to calculate the resistance of a reinforced concrete section. The strength of a reinforced concrete section is calculated by the designer as a constant nominal value but it is recognized that the ultimate strength of a reinforced column is affected by variations in:

> Concrete strength Steel strength Cross section dimensions Location of steel reinforcement Eccentricity of load Rate of loading Amount of creep and plastic flow

The three most common approaches that have been used to estimate the variability of the ultimate strength of a reinforced concrete section are:

The technique of error statistics or regression analysis applied to the results of full scale or laboratory tests.

1

Direct statistical evaluation of means and

standard deviations from the means and standard deviations of the individual parameters involved.

The Monte Carlo Technique in which the variables affecting the cross section strength are treated as random variables and are randomly chosen and used to calculate a population of ultimate strengths based on structural theory.

The method of error statistics has been applied to sets of test results in various fields and has been accepted as a method of analyzing test data. This method of using test data has the disadvantage of requiring many tests to produce reliable results. More important, however, the sample may never be representative of the population due to testing procedures and systematic errors. Construction tolerances may not be adequately modeled, for example.

When the cross sectional strength can be calculated with relatively simple analytical expressions, standard statistical techniques can be used to calculate the mean error and coefficient of variation of the cross sectional strength based on the descriptions of the distributions of the individual variables. This procedure becomes awkward if the strength expressions become complex.

The Monte Carlo Technique has been used to model a population of values in various fields. This method has the disadvantage of requiring a statistical description of each

2

individual variable which affects the final variable being studied. The Monte Carlo Technique has the advantage of being able to generate a large size sample using computer simulations rather than actual test data.

Since the error statistics method of predicting strength has been considered insufficient and too costly for developing probability models of cross section strength and the equations used to calculate the strength of reinforced concrete cross sections are relatively complex, the Monte Carlo Technique has become popular.

1.2 The Monte Carlo Technique

The Monte Carlo Technique is a method of obtaining information about the total system performance from the individual component characteristics. It consists of generating many total systems from the component data and analyzing the sample of total systems.

This procedure has been used by various researchers to model the variability of structure strength and loading conditions. Housner and Jennings³⁰ have used this procedure to develop "Artificial Earthquakes" from which the various effects of earthquakes could be measured. Using the data generated with the Monte Carlo Technique close agreement was found with actual measured values.

Warner and Kabalia⁷² have described a method of

3

developing the strength and serviceability of a real structure using the Monte Carlo Technique. The strength of an idealized axially loaded reinforced concrete column was calculated including the effects of variations in the material and geometric properties.

Allen⁵ has presented a probability distribution of the ultimate moment and ductility ratio for reinforced concrete in bending. The ultimate moment and ductility ratio were obtained using prediction equations and probability distributions of the parameters. The computations were based on the method of using the Monte Carlo Technique described by Warner and Kabalia⁷². The results showed that the probability distributions of the ultimate moment and ductility ratio are affected by material properties, loading, steel percentage and geometric duration of properties.

In this study the Monte Carlo Technique was used to develop a probability model of the strength of a rectangular tied reinforced concrete column. The actual probability distribution developed was that for the ratio of the theoretical load capacity to that computed in accordance with the ACI design equations, Ptheory/PACI, for specific values of e/h or eccentricity of axial load. This study shows the effect of variations in the concrete strength, steel strength, cross section dimensions, location of reinforcing steel and steel percentage on the probability distribution of the strength of a reinforced concrete section under axial load and bending moment.

1.3 Development of the Understrength Factor ϕ

The ACI 318-71 Building Code Requirements for Reinforced Concrete³ requires that the design equation follow the format of:

$$\phi R \geq \gamma_{\mathbf{D}} D + \gamma_{\mathbf{I}} L$$
 (1.1)

Where ϕ is an understrength factor, R is the nominal calculated resistance or strength, L and D are the live and dead loads respectively and γ_L and γ_D are the load factors to account for uncertainties in the loads.

Generally the procedure used for determining the values of ϕ , γ_L , and γ_D has been to rely on "common sense and experience" along with a semi-mathematical approach. These factors may also be determined using a logical mathematical approach using the probabilistic concepts.

The first consistent proposal for design based on the concept of probability appears to have been made by Torroja⁶⁸. This proposal was based on the concept of limit states in which the design loads and resistance have a specified probability of being exceeded.

Basler¹⁰ has suggested that the coefficient of **variation** may be used as a probabilistic but distribution

that:

$$M(R-S) \stackrel{\geq}{=} {}^{\beta} \sigma(R-S)$$
(1.2)

Lind³⁹ has extended Cornell's approach to code formats of higher order and demonstrated a method of calibrating a partial safety factor format to Cornell's as well as Ang and Amin's format. Since it is possible to choose β by calibrating probabilistic code formats to existing codes, the parameters may be adjusted to yield designs comparable to existing code designs. This leads to a more acceptable implementation of probabilistic code concepts initially.

Siu et al.⁶³ have presented a method of code calibration which may be used to calibrate probabilistic code formats with existing code formats as well as to compare various probabilistic code formats.

In this study understrength factors for rectangular tied reinforced concrete columns were calculated directly from the distribution of column strength and a probability of understrength of 1 in 100 and have been compared with the understrength factors calculated on the basis of the first order second moment format.

The form of the second moment format used was that developed by Cornell, Lind and ACI Committee 348:

=
$$\gamma_R e^{-\beta \alpha V_R}$$
 (1.3)

The derivation of this equation has been reviewed by Mac Gregor*0.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BEHAVIOUR OF REINFORCED CONCRETE SECTIONS

2.1 The Basic Assumptions for Analysis

If an analytical expression is to be used to determine the ultimate strength of a reinforced concrete cross section a number of assumptions must first be made. The following basic assumptions were made for the analysis:

(a) Plane sections remain plane, that is, the strain in the concrete or steel is directly proportional to the distance from the fibre to the neutral axis.

(b) The concrete stress is a function of the strain as expressed by the modified Kent and Park stress strain curve for concrete for the theoretical calculations.

(C) The steel stress is a function of the strain as expressed by an elastic plastic stress strain curve.

(d) There is no slip between the concrete and steel reinforcing.

(e) Bending in one plane is assumed and biaxial bending is neglected.

(f) Stability failure of the member is not included.

(g) The stiffness in bending of the individual layers of steel reinforcement is neglected.

9

(h) The effect of duration of loading is neglected.

2.2 The Stress-Strain Relationship for Concrete

The properties of the compressive stress block of a concrete flexural member may be defined by the parameters k_1 , k_2 , and k_3 as shown in Figure 2.1. These parameters depend on the shape of the stress-strain curve for concrete.

In North America the most widely accepted stress-strain curve for concrete is that proposed by Hognestad²⁹ which consists of a second order parabola up to a maximum stress $f_{C}^{"}$ at a strain ε_{o} and then a linear falling branch. Hognestad's²⁸ curve was obtained from results of tests on eccentrically loaded short columns in which he found that $f_{C}^{"}=0.85f_{C}^{"}$.

There is controversy as to whether the shape of the stress-strain curve for concrete is affected by a strain gradient. Sturman, Shah and Winter⁶⁷ concluded that the peak occured at a 20% higher stress and a 50% higher strain for eccentrically loaded prisms compared to concentrically loaded prisms. In Hognestad's tests this was not observed. There may be no significant effect of the presence of a strain gradient but its presence, if anything, will improve the properties of the compression block. There is no doubt, however, that the presence of a strain gradient delays the appearance of longitudinal cracking in the compression zone.



Figure 2.1 Compression Block Parameters

In columns the concrete is confined by the ties to some extent, depending on the type of ties used. The confinement due to the ties does not affect the concrete strength until there has been some yielding of the concrete to cause a load in the ties. At low levels of stress the ties will not be stressed and therefore the concrete will act as unconfined concrete. Tests have shown that when the stress in the concrete approaches the maxinum uniaxial strength, deterioration of the concrete causes an outward expansion perpendicular to the load causing a stress in the ties which turn causes a confining pressure. In this case spiral in ties are more effective than rectangular ties since the spiral is able to exert pressure for its entire length whereas the rectangular ties tend to exert pressure at the corners and not along their entire length. This is due to the relatively flexible bar between the corner points. As a result the concrete is confined at the corners and in the centroidal core of the member. Even though the rectangular ties are not as effective as the spiral ties, they do produce a significant increase in ductility of the core as a whole.

Some stress-strain curves proposed for concrete confined by rectangular ties are shown in Figure 2.2. In Chan's¹⁷ trilinear curve the range OAB approximates the curve for unconfined concrete and the slope BC depends on the lateral confinement. Soliman and Yu's⁶⁴ curve consists



Some Suggested Stress-Strain Curves for Confined Concrete

of a parabola and two straight lines. Values for the critical points are related to the properties found from tests on eccentrically loaded prisms. Roy and Sozen⁵⁷ conducted tests on axially loaded prisms and suggested that the descending branch of the stress-strain curve could be replaced by a straight line. The strain at 50% of the maximum stress on the falling branch ε_{5oc} was related to the volumetric ratio of the transverse steel.

Roy and Sozen⁵⁷ concluded that rectangular hoops did not increase the concrete strength. Other investigators such as Chan¹⁷, Soliman and Yu⁶⁴, Bertero and Felippa¹¹, and Rusch and Stockl⁵⁹ have observed an increase in strength due to closely spaced rectangular ties.

Kent and Park³⁶, on the basis of experimental evidence have proposed the stress-strain curve shown in Figure 2.3 for confined and unconfined concrete. This curve combines many of the features of the previously described curves. The ascending region AB is represented by a second order parabola in common with the Hognestad²⁹ curve. The confining steel is assumed to have no effect on the stress strain relationship before the maximum stress. Kent and Park³⁵ used a maximum stress in bending equal to f^t_C, that is, k₃=1.0 in Figure 2.1. Sturman, Shah and Winter's⁶⁷ work suggests that the value of k₃=1.0 is conservative where there is a strain gradient. Kent and Park³⁶ assume the strain, ϵ_0 , at maximum stress to be 0.002 which is in the range commonly accepted

14



Figure 2.3 The Kent and Park Stress-Strain Curve for Concrete

for unconfined concrete. Confinement may increase the maximum strain but this will occur after the maximum stress is reached. Region AB for the Kent and Park³⁶ curve is expressed using:

$$\mathbf{f}_{c} = \mathbf{f}_{c}' \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2\varepsilon_{c}}{\varepsilon_{o}} - \left(\frac{\varepsilon_{c}}{\varepsilon_{o}}\right)^{2} \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.1)

In this study the value for k_3 was taken as 0.85 based on comparison with Hognestad's²⁹ test results, (See Section 3.3). To allow compatibility between the ACI equation for modulus of elasticity and the strain at about 0.4f^{*}_c, the strain ε_0 at a maximum stress of $k_3f^*_c$, was taken as:

$$E_{0} = \frac{1.8 f'_{c}}{E_{c}}$$
 (2.2)

The region of the curve after the maximum stress is linear from ε_0 and f_{CMax} and is described by the strain in the concrete at 50% of the maximum stress as suggested by Roy and Sozen. The slope of the falling branch increases rapidly with an increase in concrete strength. This suggests that ε_{5ou} is dependent on f_c^* . This can easily be observed by the fact that high strength concrete is more brittle than low strength concrete. For concrete that is not laterally restrained, Kent and Park suggest that the strain ε_{5ou} at 50% of f_c^* is:

$$\varepsilon_{50u} = \frac{3.0 + 0.002 f'_c}{f'_c - 1000}$$
(2.3)

For concrete confined by rectangular ties the slope of

the falling branch is reduced. This is due mainly to the restraint supplied by the ties. Kent and Park³⁵ expressed this in terms of the ratio of the volume of the ties to the volume of the concrete core within the ties. Kent and Park³⁶ expressed the volumetric ratio as:

$$b'' = \frac{2.0 \ (b''+d'') \ A''_{s}}{b''d''s}$$
(2.4)

Corley¹⁸ suggested that the compression steel should be included in the volumetric ratio. In this study the compression steel was included in the volumetric ratio which was expressed as:

$$b'' = \frac{2.0 \ (b''+d'') \ A''_{s} + A'_{s} \ S}{b''d''s}$$
(2.5)

The descending branch of Kent and Park's³⁶ curve for confined concrete may be described by:

$$\mathbf{f}_{c} = \mathbf{f}'_{c} \left[1.0 - Z \left(\varepsilon_{c} - \varepsilon_{o} \right) \right]$$
(2.6)

where:

$$Z = \frac{0.5}{\varepsilon_{50h} + \varepsilon_{50u} - \varepsilon_{o}}$$
(2.7)

and:

$$e_{50h} = 3/4 \rho'' \sqrt{\frac{b''}{s}}$$
 (2.8)

Kent and Park³⁶ assumed that confined concrete could sustain a stress of $0.20f_{C}^{\circ}$ at an infinite strain as shown by the dashed line in Figure 2.3. In this study the descending region was assumed to continue to zero.

The tensile strength of concrete is usually neglected most flexural theories as well as codes of practice. It in is reasoned that it may be unsafe to take into account the tensile strength of the concrete since the concrete may be cracked due to shrinkage or other reasons even before any load is applied. While the tensile strength of concrete is small compared to its compressive strength it has a sizeable effect on the resistance and deformation of the uncracked section. After the appearance of the first cracks this influence becomes smaller and smaller as the load increases. This is due to the fact that with the advancement of cracking the tensile block becomes closer to the neutral axis resulting in a smaller lever arm and a negligible addition to the moment capacity.

In view of the above it was assumed that for the purposes of this study an elastic brittle stress-strain relationship can represent fairly well the behaviour of concrete in tension. An elastic brittle stress-strain relationship can be expressed as follows:

$$\sigma_{t} = E_{ct} \varepsilon_{t} \quad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon_{t} \leq \varepsilon_{tr}$$
 (2.9)

and:

$$\sigma_{t} = 0 \qquad \text{for} \quad \varepsilon_{t} > \varepsilon_{tr} \qquad (2.10)$$

The modulus of elasticity of concrete in tension was

taken as the accepted value in compression:

$$E_{c} = 57000 \sqrt{f_{c}^{\dagger}}$$
 (2.11)

The modulus of rupture was taken as the accepted value:

$$\sigma_{\rm tr} = 7.5 \sqrt{f_{\rm c}}$$
 (2.12)

The complete stress-strain curve for concrete used in this study is shown in Figure 2.4.

2.3 The Stress-Strain Relationship for Steel

In this study an elastic purely plastic stress-strain relationship was assumed for steel as shown in Figure 2.5. The modulus of elasticity of steel was taken as 29,000 ksi. in tension as well as in compression. The steel stress was assumed to increase to the yield point and remain at the yield stress for any further strain. This is a conservative representation of the steel strength since the effect of strain hardening is neglected.

2.4 Numerical Method for Developing the Interaction Diagram

The inter-relationship between the effects of the axial load and applied moment on a reinforced concrete section are best shown by an interaction diagram. These diagrams are a graphical representation of the envelope of the maximum capacities of a reinforced concrete section under various



Figure 2.4 The Stress-Strain Curve for Concrete Used in This Study



Figure 2.5 The Stress-Strain Curve for Steel Used in This Study

axial load and moment combinations.

Using strain compatibility, the moment curvature relationships were derived for the section for a number of axial load levels using the procedure described in the next few paragraphs. The moment curvature relationship developed is similar to that shown in Figure 2.6. The maximum moment in the moment curvature diagram was taken as the ultimate moment for that given load. The various values of load and ultimate moment were plotted as an interaction diagram.

The calculation of the moment curvature diagram Was started by assuming a strain distribution across the cross section and determining the location of the neutral axis and the point at which the tensile strains exceeded ε_{tr} . The compression region was then divided into sections with equal widths measured perpendicular to the neutral axis, (See Figure 2.7). Using the concept of linear strains in the cross section the strain at the centroid of each section may be determined. By assuming the strain is constant over each section the resulting stress and total force over the area was determined with the aid of the stress-strain curve for concrete. The total compressive force supplied by the concrete may be expressed as:

$$F_{c} = \sum_{i=i}^{ns} f_{ci}^{bdx}$$
(2.13)

Assuming the maximum tensile stress in concrete occurs at a strain of ϵ_{tr} and assuming a linear stress-strain curve


CURVATURE ϕ h



Figure 2.7 Basic Notation Used in the Flexural Analysis of Reinforced Concrete Sections

for concrete in tension, the total tensile force may be calculated using a triangular stress block. The total concrete tensile force may be expressed as:

$$F_{t} = \sigma_{t} \frac{b}{2} \frac{dt}{2}$$
(2.14)

From the strain distribution the strain in each steel bar may be determined. Using the stress-strain curve for steel the stress in each bar may be calculated. The total steel force may be expressed as:

$$F_{st} = \sum_{i=i}^{nb} f_{si} A_i$$
(2.15)

The total axial force resisted by the cross section is the algebraic sum of the concrete compressive force, the concrete tensile force and the steel force. The total moment that the section is subjected to may be determined by summing the moments of the above forces about the centroidal axis. The moment may be expressed as:

$$h = \sum_{i=i}^{ns} F_{ci} x_{i} + \sum_{i=i}^{nb} F_{st} x_{si} + F_{t} x_{t} - P_{c}$$
(2.16)

where c = the distance from the tension steel to the centroid of the cross section.

The first three terms are the moments of the internal forces about the tension steel and the last term, Pc, is to convert the moment to a moment about the centroid of the cross section.

The required points on the axial load-moment interaction curve were developed by selecting specific axial load levels at which the ultimate moment was calculated. At each axial load level an initial strain at the extreme compression fibre and initial curvature was assumed. For the initial curvature the edge strain was incremented until the sum of the internal forces and the external specified load were balanced within a specified tolerance. After balancing the axial loads the moment required to provide equilibrium Was calculated. The curvature was then incremented and the axial load again balanced and the moment calculated. This procedure was repeated until the maximum moment on the moment curvature curve was calculated.

The subroutine THEORY and flow diagram in Section 3.2 gives a further description of the above procedure. The accuracy of this procedure is discussed in Section 3.3.

CHAPTER III

COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR ANALYSIS

3.1 Description of The Monte Carlo Technique

The Monte Carlo Technique is a method for obtaining information about system performance from the performance data of the individual components. This method may be called a synthetic or empirical method of sampling. It consists of simulating many systems by computer calculation and then evaluating the performance of the overall system by evaluating the performance of the population of synthesized systems.

If a system consists of many components each with а number of values, a number of systems could be built to measure the performance of the system using each component value. Although this would give an indication of the variability of the system, it would generally be impractical or uneconomical. If there is a relationship between the total system performance and each component variable, a measurement of the total system performance mav be calculated without actually building the system. By knowing the statistical properties of the distribution of each variable and drawing a value from this distribution rather than using measured values, it is possible to calculate the performance of a specified number of synthetic systems to get the variability of the system.

This procedure is called the Monte Carlo Technique and is shown graphically in the form of a flow diagram in Figure 3.1. The availability of high speed computers has led to the popularity of this technique.

In this study the Monte Carlo Technique was used to generate a family of theoretical axial load-moment curves for rectangular column cross sections interaction using random values of the variables affecting the cross section strength. The random value of each variable was based on the statistical properties of each individual variable. Each theoretical curve was then compared to the ACI axial load-moment interaction curve to obtain a sample of ratios of the random theoretical capacity to that based on the ACI Code, Ptheory/PACI. These ratios were eventually used to calculate ϕ or understrength factors for rectangular tied column cross sections.

3.2 Description of The Computer Program

The computer program used in this study is capable of developing the axial load-moment interaction diagram for rectangular tied column cross sections with the longitudinal steel at any location in the cross section. The program is capable of developing the interaction diagram using the ACI method and assumptions as well as the theoretical interaction diagram using a theoretical calculation of strength based on material and cross section properties.



Figure 3.1 The Monte Carlo Technique

Figure 3.2 is a condensed flow diagram of the Monte Carlo program. The main program consists of the subroutines PROP, ACI, CURVE, THMEAN, RANDOM, THEORY and STAT. A complete listing of the program with its subroutines may be Appendix D. Detailed flow found in diagrams of the subroutines are given in Appendix C.

The subroutine PROP is used to read and write the nominal cross section properties. The statistical properties of the variables are read and written in the main program. A complete description and format of input data is given in Appendix E.

The subroutine ACI is used to calculate the ACI axial load-moment interaction diagram using the nominal or designer's values of section and material properties. The subroutine ACI uses the subroutine ASTEEL to calculate the forces in the steel reinforcement in the cross section. The capacity under pure axial load, balanced conditions and pure moment are first calculated. Using the concept of linear strain across the cross section the axial load and associated calculated for various strain moment are distributions using equations based on Sections 10.2.1 to 10.2.5 and 10.2.7 of ACI 318-713. Tension or compression failures are classified by comparing the axial load with the axial load at balanced conditions. The value of e/h for each load level considered is calculated for use in fitting a to the interaction diagram. Finally the ACI axial curve



Figure 3.2

Condensed Flow Diagram of the Monte Carlo Program

load-moment interaction diagram is written. A condensed flow diagram of the subroutines ACI and ASTEEL is shown in Figure 3.3.

The subroutine CURVE is called a number of times to fit a polynomial curve to the interaction diagram developed. The interaction diagram is transformed into a curve of axial load vs. e/h for axial loads above the balance point or compression failures and a curve of moment vs. h/e for axial loads below the balance point or tension failures. The two part curve fit was used to achieve greater accuracy in fitting the curve near the balance point. The use of moment rather than the axial load was used for the tension region to achieve greater accuracy since e/h approaches infinity as P approaches zero. There was no attempt made to force the two curves to coincide at the balance point but the last point used for fitting the curve above the balance point was used as the first point for fitting the curve below the balance point. By using the same point in both curve fits a close agreement was achieved at the balance point. When the subroutine CURVE is used to fit a polynomial to the interaction diagram the calculated points with an associated value of e/h greater than 3.0 are eliminated from the curve fit since these points may cause large errors. Figure 3.4 is a plot of the ACI interaction diagram plotted from the ACI calculated values and the ACI interaction diagram plotted from values from the curve fit. Figure 3.4 is the transformed diagram with axial load vs. e/h and moment vs.



ACI

Figure 3.3

Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutines ACI and ASTEEL





Figure 3.4 The ACI Interaction Diagram

h/e plotted.

The curve fit used for the interaction diagram required a minimum of two points above the balance point and a minimum of two points between the balance point and an e/h value of 3.0. This resulted in a curve fit for three points above and below the balance point. It was determined that a curve fit using a minimum of six points resulted in a curve fit with virtually no error above the balance point and a maximum error of about 2.5% below the balance point with the general error below the balance point in the range of 1% or less. On this basis twenty points on the interaction diagram were considered sufficient to achieve a satisfactory curve fit.

The subroutine CURVE uses the IBM subroutines GDATA, ORDER, MINV and the modified IBM subroutine MULTR to TMULTR. These subroutines are described in Reference 31. A condensed flow diagram of the subroutine CURVE is shown in Figure 3.5.

The subroutine THMEAN uses the subroutine THEORY to calculate the theoretical axial load-moment interaction diagram using the mean value of the individual variables. This subroutine also writes the interaction diagram calculated. A condensed flow diagram of the subroutine THMEAN is shown in Figure 3.6.

The subroutine RANDOM is a subroutine which combines the IBM subroutine GAUSS and RANDU to calculate random



Figure 3.5

Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine CURVE



Figure 3.6 Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine THMEAN

values of each variable based on the statistical properties of each variable. These IBM subroutines are also described in Reference 31.

The subroutine THEORY was developed to calculate the theoretical axial load-moment interaction diagram using the subroutines AXIAL and FSTEEL. A specific axial load level is chosen in THEORY which in turn calls AXIAL. Using the axial load level selected, a strain distribution is determined at given curvature for which the external load and internal a forces balance. For this curvature the moment required to develop the curvature is determined. The above procedure is repeated with increasing curvature until the moment capacity is determined at each load level. This method produces а moment curvature diagram similar to the one shown in Figure 2.6. The subroutine FSTEEL is used by AXIAL to calculate the forces in the reinforcing steel. Figures 3.7 through 3.10 are condensed flow diagrams of the subroutines THEORY, AXIAL and FSTEEL. The theoretical interaction diagram was obtained the locus of the values of $M_{\rm H}$ for each value of P for as which a moment curvature diagram had been computed as explained in Section 2.4. All comparisons of the theoretical strength with the ACI strength or Hognestad's tests were done using values of the theoretical strength after the interaction diagram was subjected to a curve fit.

The subroutine STAT is a subroutine used to perform a statistical analysis on the ratio Ptheory/PACI for the



Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine AXIAL



Figure 3.9

.9 Condensed Flow Diagram of the Subroutine FSTEEL





various values of e/h specified. The output from the subroutine STAT includes the mean, standard deviation, coefficient of variation, coefficient of skewness, kurtosis, minimum and maximum value, median and cumulative frequency table of the ratio Ptheory/PACI. A condensed flow diagram of the subroutine STAT is shown in Figure 3.10.

3.3 Comparison of Theory With Test Results

The subroutine used to calculate the theoretical axial load-moment interaction diagram was compared with the results of tests on rectangular tied columns reported by Hognestad. Using Hognestad's column properties and the total eccentricity of the reported failure loads the mean ratio of Ptest/Ptheory was calculated to be 1.0068 with a standard deviation of 0.064 when k_3 used to define the maximum compressive stress, $k_3 f_c^{\prime}$, was taken equal to 0.85. Table 3.1 is a summary of the values of the ratio Ptest/Ptheory and standard deviation for various values of k_3 . Tables 3.2 and 3.3 are the results of a comparison of the theoretical calculations with Hognestad's²⁹ test results using a value of $k_3 = 0.85$. Although the lowest standard deviation was obtained for $k_3 = 0.87$, any increased accuracy did not warrant abandoning the traditional value of $k_3 = 0.85$.

In this study the compression block was divided into ten equal segments between the extreme compressive fibre and the neutral axis with the strain averaged over the segment

depth. A comparison of the analysis with an analysis using twenty segments showed no significant difference in the ratio of Ptest/Ptheory. The mean value of Ptest/Ptheory for ten segments was 1.0068 compared with 1.005 for calculations using twenty segments.

In view of the above the calculations in the subroutine THEORY were based on ten segments with a value of $k_3 = 0.85$ resulting in a mean value of Ptest/Ptheory of 1.0068 with a standard deviation of 0.064. Any inaccuracies due to the use of the curve fitting subroutine CURVE are included in these statistics.

TA	BLE	3.	1
_	and the second s	-	

Comparison of Ptest/Ptheory with the value of k_3

k ₃	Ptest/Ptheory	Std. Deviation		
0.70	1.0810	0.080		
0.80	1.0300	0.066		
0.85	1.0068	0.064		
0.86	1.0020	0.062		
0.87	0.9980	0,060		
0.90	0.9850	0.062		
1.00	0.9470	0.067		

Table 3.2

.

Concrete Strength Psi.	e/h	Ptest Kips	Ptheory Kips	Ptest/Ptheory
•	0.276 0.540 0.534 0.344 0.789 1.275 1.278 0.787 0.785 0.535 1.279 0.782 0.532 1.278 0.007 0.275 0.006 0.274 1.285 0.010 0.278 0.788	284.0 152.0 162.0 274.0 91.2 44.0 46.1 89.0 94.0 156.0 44.0 89.5 146.0 43.5 456.0 256.0 420.0 248.0 44.5 225.0 141.0 73.0	290.1 167.7 166.6 233.0 93.7 45.9 45.9 93.7 91.7 159.8 45.0 90.9 150.6 44.8 427.6 227.8 429.8 227.9 42.9 263.8 143.0 73.2	$\begin{array}{c} 0.978\\ 0.906\\ 0.972\\ 1.176\\ 0.973\\ 0.959\\ 1.004\\ 0.950\\ 1.025\\ 0.977\\ 0.977\\ 0.977\\ 0.977\\ 0.985\\ 0.970\\ 0.971\\ 1.066\\ 1.124\\ 0.977\\ 1.088\\ 1.038\\ 0.853\\ 0.981\\ 0.998\end{array}$
1820 1820 1770 1730 1520 1520	0.532 0.539 1.288 0.785 0.018 0.277	99.0 99.0 45.0 65.5 202.0 126.8	99.7 98.9 42.0 71.7 221.5 130.5	0.993 1.001 1.071 0.914 0.912 0.971

Theory Comparison With Hognestad's Tests II

Concrete Strength Psi.	e/h	Ptest Kips	Ptheory Kips	Ptest/Ptheory
5350 5350 5100 5100 5100 5050 4850 4850 4850 4850 4430 4430 4430 4430 4300 4290 4150 4070 3870 3880 3580 2300 2200 2070 2070 2070	0.536 0.787 1.292 0.793 0.272 0.534 1.285 1.292 0.272 0.534 0.270 0.010 0.276 0.008 1.291 0.535 0.789 0.272 0.533 0.272 0.000 0.528 0.787	220.0 142.0 88.0 153.0 326.0 210.0 79.0 84.5 303.0 206.0 315.0 485.0 284.0 500.0 74.0 180.0 138.8 252.0 151.0 230.0 353.0 137.0 104.0	$\begin{array}{c} 218.1\\ 151.0\\ 79.7\\ 147.2\\ 325.6\\ 208.2\\ 79.8\\ 78.0\\ 293.8\\ 194.3\\ 287.7\\ 514.5\\ 279.8\\ 501.7\\ 77.9\\ 179.8\\ 135.0\\ 215.3\\ 145.5\\ 217.9\\ 376.8\\ 141.4\\ 112.0 \end{array}$	1.009 0.940 1.105 1.040 1.001 1.008 0.991 1.083 1.031 1.060 1.095 0.943 1.015 0.997 0.950 1.001 1.028 1.171 1.038 1.055 0.937 0.969 0.928
2070 1950 1950	1.291 1.289 0.784	74.5 72.5 115.5	72.0 69.0 107.1	1.035 1.051 1.078

Theory Comparison With Hognestad's Tests III

 $\frac{17}{5} = \frac{1.012}{0.082}$ V = 0.082

CHAPTER IV

PROBABILITY MODELS OF VARIABLES AFFECTING SECTION STRENGTH

4.1 Concrete Variability

4.1.1 Introduction

Concrete, like all other construction materials, is variable. This variability is influenced by design, production and testing procedures. Research data shows that under current design and construction techniques concrete which differs from the specified strength is placed ìn These structures have performed satisfactorily structures. due to redistribution of stresses, mixing of the under strength concrete with over strength concrete within the forms, and the fact that the concrete strength increases with age after the time at which tests are made. In some cases experience has lead to design equations which result in conservative designs even though the assumptions used are not entirely correct.

The two broad causes of variations in concrete strength are variations in material properties and variations in the testing procedures. Since concrete is a heterogeneous mixture of cement, water, coarse and fine aggregate, entrained air, and in some cases admixtures, variations in the final concrete strength are inevitable. Variations in any one of the ingredients or a combination of variations in

more than one ingredient will result in a variation in the final concrete strength. Variation in the water-cement ratio will cause significant strength variation. The water-cement ratio may be altered due to poor control of water content, variation in moisture content or nonuniformity of the aggregate. Variations in the properties or proportioning of any of the materials will cause strength variation. The methods of transporting, placing and curing will also affect the final concrete strength.

Variations in the testing methods will lead to apparent variations in the concrete strength. Variations in testing may be due to inconsistent sampling, nonuniform fabrication of test samples or poor handling and care of fresh samples and variations in temperature and moisture conditions. Also the preparation of the samples for testing and the procedure used in testing may cause variations in the test strength.

The control strength is affected by material properties and test procedures whereas the structure concrete strength will be affected by the material properties and placing procedures. This results in different concrete strengths in the test specimen and in the structure. The concrete strength will differ from place to place in the structure due to different placing procedures, curing conditions, and the location in the structure.

4.1.2 Distribution of Concrete Strength

Generally the distribution of concrete strength has been assumed to be a Gaussian or normal distribution. ACI Committee 214² found that for practical concrete control the normal distribution adequately describes the variation in concrete strength. Rusch and Rackwitz have presented data from an international study of cube and cylinder tests which also follows a normal distribution in most cases.

In establishing understrength factors for members to reflect the probability of the material strength being lower than the specified strength, the low strength tail ends of the curve are important. Because little data is available for these tail areas, the tail of the curve must be extrapolated from the central area of the curve. The normal distribution fits the data very well for the majority of the data in the central portion of the curve. Some researchers have shown however, that the normal curve does not always give the best fit in the tail areas.

Freudenthal²*, Julian³³, and Shalon and Reintz⁶¹ have shown that the log-normal distribution gives a better fit for concrete strength in which the control is poorer than average and should be used where extreme values are important. Shalon and Reintz⁶¹ have shown that the normal curve as a general assumption is valid but in almost every case a skew towards the higher strengths was observed, especially for cases of high coefficient of variation. Using

the x^2 test as a measure of discrepancy, a discrepancy was observed between the actual distribution and the normal distribution at the 5% level of significance for а coefficient of variation of 23% whereas for a coefficient of of 14.2% practically no skew was observed. variation Freudenthal²⁴ suggests the use of the log-normal or the distribution to better describe the tail area but extreme the extreme distribution has the disadvantage of mathematical complexity.

Table 4.1 is a collection of data from a number of statistical studies of concrete strength. The majority of researchers have used a normal distribution due to its simplicity and the fact that in concrete control it is the central area of the curve that is important. Due to this, studies in concrete control are generally not concerned with the tail areas of the distribution.

For concrete strengths with a coefficient of variation of 15% or lower the normal curve describes the variation in the concrete strength as well as any other distribution. For cases where the coefficient of variation is greater than 15% a skewed distribution is observed for which a log-normal transformation becomes valid to increase the accuracy in the tail areas of the curve.

Table 4.1

Concrete Strength Variability

Source	·······	Te	st	Type of	Coefficient of
 	· · ·	Туре	No.	Distribution	Variation %
Julian	1950	cyl.	861	Normal	10.4
Cummings	1953	cyl.	208	Normal	9.3
Shalon	1955	cube		Normal	14.2
	- 11 - 1	cube		Log-normal	23.6
Bloem	1955	cyl.	1429	Normal	11.4
1	11	cyl.	1 354	Normal	16.4
Wagner	1955	cyl.	613	Normal	11.8
Erntroy	1960	cube	4000		20.0
Malhotra	1962	cyl.	68		13.5
Wagner	1963	cyl.	688	Normal	12.4
1 1 1	." 1	cyl.	688	Normal	15.2
BPR	1963	cyl.	9 7 5	Normal	12.4
	1964	cyl.	200	Normal	10.9
 Virginia	1965	cyl.	210	Normal	7.2
Hwy.					
 Soroka	1968	cyl.	68	Normal	15.2
 Riley	1971	cyl.	50,000	Normal	13.6
L <u></u>				ا 	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

4.1.3 Statistical Description of Concrete Strength Variation

The average strength and variation in strength of concrete cylinder tests may be described by the mean, standard deviation and coefficient of variation. The coefficient of variation has become the accepted measure of concrete strength variation.

Depending on the control of the concrete operations the coefficient of variation may range from 5% for laboratory conditions to as high as 30% for uncontrolled conditions. value is unacceptable under present construction The 30% techniques and the 5% value is not practical for field conditions. On the Skylon Tower³⁷ at Niagara Falls, Ontario coefficients of variation ranging from 6.8% to 9.8% were achieved using exceptional control methods. This suggests a minimum value for site conditions. The Bureau of Reclamation² consistently achieves a coefficient of variation of about 15% which suggests a value for better than average control or good control. Table 4.1 indicates that the coefficient of variation in many cases is between 15% and 20% which suggests that 20% is a reasonable maximum value.

An ASTM² task force working on the question of concrete strength suggested a coefficient of variation of 20% when no control data is available for the average job. Figure 4.1 illustrates that the coefficient of variation varies but, on



Figure 4.1

Relationship Between Standard Deviation and Mean Strength of Concrete

the average, is less than 20%. In this study the levels of control were divided into three classes with corresponding coefficients of variation as follows:

Excellent Control	10%
Average Control	15%
Poor Control	20%

The total variation in concrete strength must include the variation in concrete strength within a single batch. This in batch test variation may be considered as a **variation** in testing procedures or a variation in the actual concrete strength. The variation in concrete strength in a batch will include the effects of single mixer inefficiencies. Comparison of samples taken from different locations in the mixer may be used to evaluate the variation within a single batch. In this study the levels of control for within batch tests were divided into three classes with corresponding coefficients of variation as follows:

Excellent Control	4%
Average Control	5%
Poor Control	6%

Figure 4.1 illustrates that the standard deviation and the coefficient of variation are not a constant for different strength levels. Due to this the mean strength along with the coefficient of variation is required to adequately describe the strength variation. The relationship between the mean strength and the standard deviation shown in Figure 4.1 was developed using the data from several continents. The relationships shown by Murdock, Erntroy and Rusch*7 indicate that above a certain value of mean strength the standard deviation remains constant while below this value the coefficient of variation remains constant. The ACI data indicates a constant standard deviation for all strength levels.

The differences in values reported by the different sources may be partially explained by the type of data used. The specimens of Erntroy and Murdock⁴⁷ were 6 in. cubes while the ACI specimens were standard cylinders. The data reported by Rusch⁴⁷ contains test specimens of both types. Neville⁴⁶ notes that cube tests tend to be more variable than cylinder tests. The relationship reported by Erntroy and Murdock were based on individual test values whereas the ACI values were based on two specimens per test. The Rusch data again contains both types of data.

On the basis of test data available and reported it appears that the standard deviation remains constant for concrete strengths above a value of 3500 to 4000 psi. and the coefficient of variation is constant for strength levels below 3500 psi.

4.1.4 Cylinder Strength vs. Design Strength

The average concrete strength required by the ACI

Building Code³ must exceed the value of the design strength, f_C^* , by at least:

400 psi. if the standard deviation is ≤300 psi.
550 psi. if the standard deviation is 300 to 400 psi.
700 psi. if the standard deviation is 400 to 500 psi.
900 psi. if the standard deviation is 500 to 600 psi.

If the standard deviation of the test cylinders exceeds 600 psi. or if a suitable record of test results is not available proportions shall be used which provide an average strength 1200 psi. greater than the design strength. After test data becomes available the amount by which the average must exceed the design strength may be reduced such that the probability of a test being 500 psi. below the design strength is 1 in 100 and the probability of the average of three consecutive tests being below the design strength is 1 in 100.

The amounts by which the average strength must exceed the design strength in the ACI Code are based on the following criteria:

1. The probability of less than 1 in 10 that a random individual strength test will be below fr.

$$f_{cr} = f'_{c} + 1.282\sigma$$
 (4.1)

2. The probability of 1 in 100 that an average of three consecutive strength tests will be below f_C^1 .

$$f_{cr} = f'_{c} + 1.343\sigma$$
 (4.2)

3. The probability of 1 in 100 that an individual strength test will be more than 500 psi. below f_c^* .

$$f_{\rm cr} = f_{\rm c}' + 2.326\sigma -500$$
 (4.3)

where:

 f_C^1 = the design concrete strength

f_{cr} = the average cylinder strength

 σ = the standard deviation individual tests

4.1.5 In-situ Strength of Concrete

The concrete strength in a structure is not clearly defined as some specific multiple of the standard cured cylinder strength. Most researchers agree that the strength of the concrete in the structure is somewhat lower than the standard test cylinder strength.

Tests by Petersons⁴⁸ on columns under well controlled laboratory conditions suggest that the strength of the concrete in the structure ranges from 90% to 70% of the standard cylinder strength. Bloem¹² suggests the strength of the concrete in columns is 80% of the standard cylinder strength for all but the top 10 in. of the column. Allen's⁵ study of beams failing in flexure suggests the strength of concrete in the cases of compression failure to be 90% of the cylinder strength. Table 4.2 gives the average ratios of core strengths to cylinder strengths from various researchers.

Petersons*6 reviewed the data available on core strength as compared to standard cylinder strength and concluded that the three most important factors affecting the strength of the concrete in the structure are:

1. The strength level of the concrete- The ratio between the strength of the concrete in the structure and the standard cylinder strength decreases as the strength level increases.

2. The curing of the concrete- The difference between the minimum curing acceptable and good curing can be approximated by a factor of 0.9.

3. The location of the concrete in the structure- Tests by several researchers have indicated that the concrete in the top foot of columns is weaker than the concrete in the remainder of the column. This may be explained by the increased water cement ratio at the top due to water migration after the concrete is placed. The reduction in strength is of the order of 15% of the strength of the remainder of the column.
| Table 4 | • | 2 |
|---------|---|---|
|---------|---|---|

 Dotio	Core Strength
Ratio	Cylinder Strength
	0.74
1	0.96
	0.90
	0.90
1	0.88
	0.83
1	0.87
	Ratio

Concrete Strength in Structure vs. Cylinder Strength

The reduction in the concrete strength in the structure is partially offset by the requirement that the average cylinder strength must be from 700 to 900 psi. greater than the design strength to meet existing design codes. Based on

this observation and on the equations from Allen and Bloem⁴⁰ the mean strength for minimum acceptable curing may be expressed as:

$$f_{c(structure)} = (0.675f'_{c} + 1.1) ksi$$
 (4.4)

4.1.6 Probability Model for Concrete Strength

The variation in concrete strength was described with a normal distribution and a mean value of:

$$\bar{f}_{c} = \left(\frac{0.78f'_{c} + 670}{f'_{c}}\right) \left(\frac{f'_{c} \text{ real}}{f'_{c} \text{ test}}\right) \left(f'_{cyl}\right)$$
(4.5)

with a coefficient of variation:

$$V = \sqrt{V_1^2 - V_2^2 + V_3^2}$$
(4.6)

where:

 v_1 = the variation in test cylinder strengths

v₂ = the variation between real strength of cylinders and measured cylinder strengths, "in-test variation"

The basic cylinder strength variation was taken as 0.15 with a basic in-test variation of 0.04 and a variation of 0.10 for differences between in-situ and test cylinder strengths. Checks were also made with test cylinder variation of 0.10 and 0.20.

<u>4.2 Reinforcing Steel Variability</u>

The variability of the strength of the reinforcing steel was described with a normal distribution as well as a modified log-normal distribution. The complete discription of the reinforcing steel strength distribution used is given in Appendix A.

4.3 Cross Section Dimensional Variability

4.3.1 Introduction

Geometric imperfections are the variations in the dimensions, shape, lines, grades and surfaces of as-built structures compared to the specified values. Variations in section CLOSS dimensions, verticality of columns, misalignment and intial curvature of columns are inevitable in structures. Geometric imperfections arrise during each phase of the construction process. Variations in the size and shape are particularly dependent on the size, shape and quality of the forms used for manufacture. Setting out and assembly affect the geometry of the overall structure and

are dependent on construction techniques and construction and inspection personnel.

Data from field measurements of imperfections is needed for various purposes such as for the evaluation of specified tolerances, construction performance and theoretical probability models. It is important that data be collected which is complete and uniform. Unfortunately at present there is not a uniform method of collecting and reporting this data. Without some degree of standardization it is difficult to compare the results of measurements made by various investigators with any degree of reliability.

4.3.2 Probability Model for Cross Section Dimensions

The variation in column cross section dimensions has reported by Tso and Zelman⁶⁹. Their results been are summarized in the histogram in Figure 4.2. The dimensional measurements were made to the nearest 1/4 in. in conjunction with a study of the strength variation in concrete. The data columns from 8 buildings. The nominal is based on 299 dimensions ranged from 12 in. to 30 in.. Usually two measurements were made at each of five levels over the storey height of the column. The mean variation was found to be + 0.06 in., that is, the width or thickness averaged 0.06 in. larger than the specified value with a standard deviation of 0.28 in.. Tso and Zelman's⁶⁹ measurements indicate the distribution of dimensional variations to be



 $\{ \cdot \}$

Figure 4.2 Histogram of Cross Section Dimensional Variation Reported by Tso and Zelman normal.

variation in the dimensions of one size of column The has been reported by Hernandez and Martinez²⁸. Their results The summarized in the histogram in Figure 4.3. are measurements were made at five levels over the storey height the column. At each level the width and thickness were of measured at each face and at the centre line of the column. seventeen columns were studied with a nominal cross section of 11.811 in. (30 cm.) by 19.685 in. (50 cm.). A mean variation was found to be + 0.15 in., that is, the width or thickness averaged 0.15 in. larger than the specified value deviation of 0.157 in.. A normal standard with а distribution also describes the variation in column dimensions reported by Hernandez and Martinez²⁸.

Fiorato²³ has reported a mean deviation of 0.0118 in. (0.3 mm.) to 0.276 in. (7.0 mm.) with a standard deviation ranging from 0.063 in. (1.6 mm.) to 0.154 in. (3.9 mm.) for precast beams and columns ranging in size from 7.87 in. (200 mm.) to 23.62 in. (600 mm.). These values are based on a collection and comparison of published data from field measurements, primarily from Sweden. These values may not be considered comprehensive but do give an indication of the variations which may occur in prefabricated structures.

As stated earlier, due to inconsistencies in measuring and reporting techniques, comparison of data on column dimensions from various researchers is difficult. The



Figure 4.3

Histograms of Cross Section Dimensional Variation Reported by Hernandez and Martinez majority of researchers are interested in actual construction tolerances in which a maximum and minimum tolerance is reported rather than a mean value and its standard deviation.

In this study a normal distribution was used to describe the variation in column dimensions with a mean value of + 0.06 in. and a standard deviation of 0.28 in.. Tso and Zelman's⁶⁹ results were used since they are based on North American data and are based on a larger sample size than that obtained by Hernandez and Martinez²⁸.

4.4 Reinforcing Steel Placement Variability

Redkop⁵³ has developed models describing the error in placing reinforcing steel in rectangular tied columns based on test data from measurements on several columns in several buildings. He describes the variation in steel placement with respect to the specified cover for the steel in the exterior layers and the specified position for the interior steel. The error in steel placement may be described by the normal probability distribution. Redkop⁵³ observed that the placement error was a function of the column size as well as construction practices. Since statistical data available does not suggest a complicated relationship, a linear relationship between column size and placement error was assumed with a normal distribution of scatter.

Based on Redkop's⁵³ data the error in placement of the

interior steel may be described with:

$$e_n = 0.04$$
 in.
 $\sigma = 0.2035 + 0.0329$ h (4.7)

The placement of the steel in the exterior layers may be described with:

$$C_a = C_{sp} + 0.250 + 0.0039 h$$
 (4.8)
 $\sigma = 0.166$

where:

e_n = placement error of interior steel in inches.
 σ = standard deviation in inches.
 h = column dimension perpendicular to the neutral axis.

 $c_a = actual cover of exterior steel in inches.$

c_{sp} = specified cover of exterior steel in inches.

Based on Redkop's⁵³ data the mean variation in concrete cover of the exterior steel is + 0.315 in., that is, the actual cover on the average is 0.315 in. larger than the specified cover, with a standard deviation of 0.166 in.. Hernandez and Martinez report a mean variaton of + 0.473 in. with a standard deviation of 0.13 in.. The smaller standard deviation of the Mexican data is due to measurements being taken only from one size of column whereas the measurements reported by Redkop⁵³ were taken from various sizes of columns. Figure 4.4 is a histogram summarizing the results of concrete cover reported by Hernandez and Martinez¹⁷. The normal distribution may be used to describe the variation in the concrete cover for both sets of measurements.

In this study the error in steel placement was described by Equations 4.7 and 4.8 with a normal distribution. Negative cover is not a problem since with 1 1/2 in. nominal cover negative cover does not occur before the value of cover is the mean value minus 10.54 standard deviations. The probability of the value of cover being the mean value minus eight standard deviations is approximately 6.22×10^{-6} .



Figure 4.4

Histogram of Variation in Concrete Cover Reported by Hernandez and Martinez

CHAPTER V

THE MONTE CARLO STUDY

5.1 Size of Columns and Reinforcement Studied

For this study the size of columns and reinforcement selected was based on a limited study of columns in existing structures. A column take-off was done on five buildings including a high rise office building, a parking garage, a university building, a hospital and an industrial type building.

Figure 5.1 is a histogram of the frequency of column size vs. column size. This histogram indicates that the majority of columns are 24 in. or smaller. The high percentage of columns in the 52 in. to 56 in. range is due to the small number of buildings studied in which one was a high rise with large columns throughout. From the histogram of column sizes the 12 in. column and the 24 in. column were taken as representative of the smaller and larger sizes of columns.

Representative reinforcing steel percentages were chosen in the same manner as the column sizes. Figure 5.2 is a histogram of the reinforcing steel percentage used in all columns. Figures 5.3 through 5.5 are histograms of steel percentages used in the various sizes of columns. From these histograms it can be seen that the most commonly used steel percentage ranges from 1% to 3%. Based on these histograms a



Histogram of the Frequency of Column Sizes vs. Column Size



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Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel in All Columns



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Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel in Columns Less Than 16 in.



Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel in Columns 16 in. to 24 in.



Histogram of the Percentage of Reinforcing Steel in Columns 24 in. to 36 in.

steel percentage of 1% was chosen for a lower limit and a steel percentage of 3% was chosen for an upper limit.

The final column cross sections chosen are shown in Figure 5.6. The basic column was 12 in. by 12 in. with a nominal steel percentage of 1%. A 24 in. by 24 in. column was chosen to have a low variability of strength with a nominal steel percentage of 3%. The nominal or designer's concrete and steel strengths were 3000 psi. and 40000 psi. respectively. These strengths and properties were chosen to get an estimate of the upper and lower bounds of the variabilities.

Interaction diagrams for the two sections are presented in Figures 5.11 and 5.12 and will be dicussed more fully in Section 5.4. The balanced eccentricity, e_b/h , was 0.4 for the 12 in. column and 0.5 for the 24 in. column. The columns are fully described in Appendix B with their nominal properties and the mean values and standard deviations of the variables affecting column strength.

5.2 Size of Sample Studied

For this study a sample size was required which would give reasonable results compared to a large sample size without using an excessive amount of computer time. Sample sizes of 1000, 500 and 200 were used to determine the smallest practical sample size.





Figure 5.7 is a plot of the mean value of Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for each sample size. The mean value is practically independent of the sample size so that any of the sample sizes could be used to determine the mean value of Ptheory/PACI.

Figure 5.8 is a plot of coefficient of variation of the ratio Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for the three sample sizes. The coefficient of variation for the sample size of 500 is practically the same as the coefficient of variation for a sample size of 1000 over the range of e/h less than 1.0. Since a good correlation was found between the sample size of 500 and the sample size of 1000 below an e/h value of 1.0 the sample size of 500 was acceptable when the mean and coefficient of variation were needed as output.

Figure 5.9 is a plot of the coefficient of skewness of the ratio of Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for the three sample sizes. The coefficient of skewness for a sample size of 500 is not significantly different from the coefficient of skewness for a sample size of 1000.

Tables 5.1 through 5.4 are tables of comparison of the mean values, coefficients of variation, coefficients of skewness and kurtosis of the ratio of Ptheory/PACI for sample sizes of 200, 500 and 1000.

All the tables and graphs of comparison indicate no meaningful increase in accuracy in using a sample size of



Figure 5.7

Mean Value of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000 for a 12 in. Square Column and Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution



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Coefficient of Variation of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000 for a 12 in. Square Column and Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution



Figure 5.9

Coefficient of Skewness of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000 for a 12 in. Square Column and Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution

Table 5.1

Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000

Sample Size e/h	200	500	1000
0.0	1.22535	1.22497	1.22010
0.05	1.17705	1.17698	1.17245
0.10	1.15581	1.15575	1.15143
0.15	1.13981	1.13985	1.13559
0.20	1.12921	1.12937	1.12505
0.30	1.12255	1.12239	1.11790
0.40	1.12228	1.12039	1.11645
0.50	1.06353	1.06030	1.05756
0.60	1.04519	1.04139	1.03926
0.70	1.03560	1.03100	1.02921
0.80	1.03162	1.02598	1.02434
0.90	1.03116	1.02439	1.02278
1.00	1.03285	1.02498	1.02334
1.50	1.05147	1.03976	1.03766
\sim	1.02563	1.01598	1.01551

Table 5.2

Comparison of the Coefficient of Variation of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000

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Sample Size e/h	200	500	1000
0.0	0.15521	0.15491	0.15549
0.05	0.15230	0.15159	0.15234
0.10	0.14802	0.14802	0.14871
0.15	0.14625	0.14549	0.14619
0.20	0.14394	0.14352	0.14428
0.30	0.13696	0.13693	0.13798
0.40	0.11955	0.11908	0.12018
0.50	0.10186	0.10190	0.10117
0.60	0.09741	0.09705	0.09620
0.70	0.0.840	0.0.733	0.09661
0.80	0.10085	0.09929	0.09889
0.90	0.10313	0.10127	0.10124
1.00	0.10470	0.10266	0.10295
1.50	0.10497	0.10241	0.10396
~~~~	0.10744	0.10590	0.10441

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Comparison of the Coefficient of Skewness of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000

Sample Size	200	500	1000
0.0	0.24511	0.10136	0.04325
0.05	0.22741	0.08661	0.02044
0.10	0.20932	0.06424	-0.00657
0.15	0.19112	0.04905	-0.01670
0.20	0.17406	0.03912	-0.01357
0.30	0.13074	-0.00716	-0.03286
0.40	0.14910	-0.02379	-0.06445
0.50	0.12192	-0.00978	0.05817
0.60	0.33447	0.18334	0.30627
0.70	0.53488	0.36 <b>7</b> 08	0.51101
0.80	0.65065	0.49013	0.64057
0.90	0.70518	0.55422	0.71160
1.00	0.72474	0.57855	0.74623
1.50	0.65006	0.50968	0.72784
$\sim$	0.82210	0.68282	0.81786

Normal and log-normal distributions have coefficients of skewness of 0.0 and 0.5 to 1.5 respectively.

	Тa	ble	5.	4
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Comparison of the Measure of Kurtosis of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Sample Sizes of 200, 500 and 1000

   Sample			
Size	200	500	
0.0	3.43756	3.09968	3.05566
0.05	3.49080 3.49196	3.11334 3.11702	3.07339 3.08846
0.15	3.46624	3.10238	3.08172
0.20	3.42402 3.41098	3.07604 3.03726	3.05890 3.03096
0.40	3.39169	3.13717	3.16894
0.50	3.45578 3.28053	3.18934 3.10547	3.30727 3.50337
0.70	3.15174 3.10245	3.11376	3.72044 3.88468
0.90	3.09217	3.16791	3.99297
1.00	3.09422 3.07980	3.15747 2.96226	4.06460
~~~	3.19293	3.09842	4.08547

A normal distribution has a Kurtosis of 3.0.

1000 over a sample size of 500. On this basis sample size of 500 was used for all subsequent calculations.

5.3 Results of The Monte Carlo Simulation

5.3.1 General

In this Monte Carlo study the relationship between the theoretical axial load-moment interaction diagram and the ACI axial load-moment interaction diagram was determined. This relationship was calculated using the Monte Carlo Technique to give the mean ratio of the theoretical strength divided by the ACI strength along with its standard deviation at various e/h values. From the mean ratio, the standard deviation and the type of distribution an understrength or ϕ factor was calculated.

To aid in the development of an understrength factor the effect of the variation in concrete strength, steel strength, cross section dimensions and location of the reinforcing steel was studied. In addition the effect of the type of distribution of steel strength used was studied using a normal distribution and a modified log-normal distribution.

5.3.2. The Effect of Steel Strength Distribution Used The effect on the strength of the column cross section

of the type of distribution of steel strength was studied normal and a usino a log-normal distribution of steel strength. Both types of distribution can be fitted to the data on steel strength as shown in Appendix A. Tables 5.5 through 5.8 are tables of comparison of the mean values, coefficients of variation, coefficients of skewness and measure of kurtosis of the ratio Ptheory/PACI for calculations based on steel strength normally distributed and steel strength which follows a modified log-normal distribution.

The distribution assumed for the variation in the steel strength did not significantly affect the mean ratio of the theoretical strength to the ACI strength as shown in Table 5.5 but did affect the distribution of the ratio in the tension failure region of the interaction diagram. When the modified log-normal steel strength distribution was used, the distribution of the ratio of theoretical strength to the ACI strength approached a log-normal distribution for values of axial loads below the balance point. If a normal distribution of the steel strength were used, this ratio was normally distributed. This is shown by the coefficient of skewness given in Table 5.7. For normally distributed steel yield strengths the coefficient of skewness remained close to zero throughout corresponding to a normal distribution. log-normal assumption the coefficient of skewness With the approaches 1.0 for tension failures corresponding to a 10gnormal distribution, (See also Figure 5.9). The use of the

Table 5.5	Т	a	b	1	e	5	•	5
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Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution

Distribution Type e/h	Normal	Mod. Log-normal
0.0	1.22495	1.22497
0.05	1.17712	1.17698
0.10	1.15605	1.15575
0.15	1.14012	1.13985
0.20	1.12946	1.12937
0.30	1.12212	1.12239
0.40	1.12012	1.12039
0.50	1.05996	1.06030
0.60	1.04163	1.04139
0.70	1.03157	1.03100
0.80	1.02663	1.02598
0.90	1.02495	1.02439
1.00	1.02535	1.02498
1.50	1.03889	1.03976
\sim	1.01677	1.01598

Comparison of the Coefficient of Variation of the Patio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution

Distribution Type e/h	Normal	Mod. Log-normal
0.0	0.15464	0.15441
0.05	0.15189	0.15159
0.10	0.14831	0.14802
0.15	0.14576	0.14549
0.20	0.14378	0.14352
0.30	0.13729	0.13693
0.40	0.12078	0.11908
0.50	0.10391	0.10190
0.60	0.10051	0.09705
0.70	0.10183	0.09733
0.80	0.10437	0.09929
0.90	0.10658	0.10127
1.00	0.10798	0.10266
1.50	0.10689	0.10241
\sim	0.10807	0.10590

Table 5.7

Comparison of the Coefficient of Skewness of the Patio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution

Distribution Type e/h	Normal	Mod. Log-normal
0.0	0.09843	0.10136
0.05	0.08254	0.08661
0.10	0.05519	0.06424
0.15	0.03722	0.04905
0.20	0.02797	0.03912
0.30	-0.00223	-0.00716
0.40	-0.04916	-0.02379
0.50	-0.10565	0.00978
0.60	-0.08048	0.18334
0.70	-0.03075	0.36708
0.80	0.00709	0.49013
0.90	0.02321	0.55422
1.00	0.02142	0.57855
1.50	-0.03508	0.50968
~~~	0.04325	0.68282

Table 5.8

Comparison of the Measure of Kurtosis of the Fatio Ptheory/PACI for a Normal and a Modified Log-normal Distribution of Steel Strength

Distribution Type e/h	Normal	Mod. Log-normal
0.0	3.10221	3.09968
0.05	3.11561	3.11334
0.10	3.12425	3.11702
0.15	3.10326	3.10238
0.20	3.06481	3.07604
0.30	3.04098	3.03726
0.40	3.13422	2.13717
0.50	3.18301	3.18934
0.60	2.95718	3.10547
0.70	2.81651	3.11376
0.80	2.76677	3.15105
0.90	2 <b>.7</b> 4429	3.16791
1.00	2.72148	3.15747
1.50	2.65068	2.96226
~~~	2.69439	3.09842

modified log-normal steel strength distribution resulted in a larger ϕ factor at the 1% level of probability of failure than that for the normal distribution of steel strength in the tension region of the interaction diagram. The calculation of this term is discussed in Section 5.5.

The type of steel strength distribution used did not significantly affect the calculated value of the ϕ factor at the 1% level of probability of failure in the compression failure region of the interaction diagram. The distribution of the ratio of the theoretical strength to the ACI strength in the compression failure region followed a normal distribution for both types of steel strength distribution. This may be explained by the failure in the compression region being dependent on the concrete strength rather than the steel strength.

5.3.3 The Effect of The Concrete Strength Variation

The effect of the coefficient of variation of the concrete cylinder strength was studied by keeping all other variables at their mean values and using a cylinder strength variation of 10%, 15% and 20%. The overall coefficients of variation of in-situ strength were 13.6%, 17.6% and 22% as computed per Eqn. 4.6 in Section 4.1.6. Tables 5.9 through 5.11 are tables of comparison the mean values, coefficients of variation and skewness of the ratio Ptheory/PACI for various values of e/h and cylinder strength coefficients of

Table 5.9

Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for Concrete Cylinder Strength Coefficients of Variation of 10%, 15% and 20%

· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	T	T	Τ
Coefficient of	1		
Variation	10%	15%	20%
e/h	1		
	 -	! ╃───────	{ {{
0.0	1 1.18146	1.22622	 1.28386
0.05	1.13652	1.17774	1.23088
0.10	1.11642	1.15546	1.20598
0.15	1.10207	1.14005	1.18897
0.20	1.09345	1.13111	1.17910
0.30	1.09010	1.12616	1.17157
0.40	1.08946	1.11784	1.15384
0.50	1.04264	1.06022	1.08408
0.60	1.03276	1.04554	1.06304
0.70	1.02775	1.03794	1.05140
0.80	1.02602	1.03474	1.04549
0.90	1.02646	1.03426	1.04316
1.00	1.02829	1.03544	1.04310
1.50	1.04443	1.04915	1.05515
\sim	1.01756	1.02138	1.02887
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Table 5.10

Comparison of the Coefficient of Variation of the Ratio of Ptheory/PACI for Concrete Cylinder Strength Coefficients of Variation of 10%, 15% and 20%

Coefficient of Variation e/h	1	1 15% 	20%
0.0	0.11363	0.14790	0.18607
0.05	0.11066	0.14377	0.18100
0.10	0.10804	0.14022	0.17669
0.15	0.10695	0.13842	0.17369
0.20	0.10667	0.13762	0.17215
0.30	0.10229	0.13189	0.16487
0.40	0.08303	0.10936	0.13953
0.50	0.05665	0.07589	0.10000
0.60	0.04427	0.05873	0.07803
0.70	0.03672	0.04840	0.06355
0.80	0.03191	0.04191	0.05381
0.90	0.02881	0.03789	0.04742
1.00	0.02679	0.03551	0.04337
1.50	0.02844	0.03400	0.03872
~	0.02689	0.03184	0.03738
Table 5.11

Comparison of the Coefficient of Skewness of the Ratio of Ptheory/PACI for Concrete Cylinder Strength Coefficients of Variation of 10%, 15% and 20%

Coefficient of	• 		l I
Variation	10%	1 15%	
e/h		[] [
0.0	0.02523	0.02478	0.02786
0.05	-0.01578	-0.01428	0.00366
0.10	-0.04927	-0.03626	-0.00627
0.15	-0.05004	-0.04489	-0.02282
0.20	-0.02722	-0.04231	-0.04249
0.30	-0.01351	-0.05370	-0.07949
0.40	-0.17206	-0.15911	-0.17109
0.50	-0.21277	-0.22505	-0.23879
0.60	-0.38463	-0.30449	-0.35791
0.70	-0.50581	-0.38219	-0.50237
0.80	-0.56889	-0.43285	-0.62403
0.90	-0.55617	-0.41673	-0.67631
1.00	-0.47411	-0.32853	-0.65730
1.50	0.09033	-0.05914	-0.51679
~	0.26793	0.41395	0.39448

variation.

The mean value of the ratio Ptheory/PACI increased in the compression failure region of the interaction diagram with increasing cylinder strength coefficient of variation. This increase may be explained by the increased mean concrete strength required by ACI 318-71 Section 4.2 to account for the increased coefficient of variation. There was no significant increase in the theoretical strength in the tension region due to the increased mean concrete strength. Again this may be explained by the compression failures depending on the steel strength.

As the coefficient of variation of the concrete cylinder strength was increased the overall coefficient of variation of the ratio Ptheory/PACI increased. Again the increase in overall coefficient of variation was greater in the compression region of the interaction diagram where the concrete strength has more effect on the cross section strength than in the tension failure region.

5.3.4 The Effect of The Variables Studied

The effect of the variation in concrete strength, steel strength, cross section dimensions and location of the reinforcing steel was determined for the 12 in. by 12 in. cross section with a nominal steel percentage of 1%. A

coefficient of variation of concrete cylinder strength of 15% was used for this study. Each variables effect was studied with all other variables at their mean value.

Figure 5.10 gives a graphical representation of the overall variation in cross section strength for various e/h values for each of the variables and for all the variables combined. The plot of standard deviation squared vs. e/h indicates the major component causing variation in cross section strength in the compression region of the interaction diagram is the variability in the concrete strength. The effect of the variability in the concrete strength becomes minimal in the tension failure region. This may be explained by the fact that the full strength of the concrete is not utilized in the tension failure region such that the high concrete strengths have no effect on the variability of the cross section strength.

The effect of the variability in the steel strength on the overall cross section strength variability is greater in the tension region where the steel strength controls the cross section capacity. The effect of the steel strength variability in the compression failure region is again minimal due to the concrete strength being the controling factor.

The effect of the variability of the concrete strength and the steel strength are about the same at the balance point. This is to be expected since the failures in a



Figure 5.10 Standard Deviation Squared of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI vs. e/h for the Variables Affecting Column Strength for a 12 in. Square Column and Modified Log-normal Steel Strength Distribution

randomly selected sample would depend on the concrete and steel strength equally at the balance point.

The effect of the variability in the cross section dimensions and the location of the steel was very small for both compression and tension failures. The most significant effect occured for the cases of pure axial load and pure moment.

The total variability in the cross section strength may be closely approximated by the expression:

$$V_t^2 = V_{tc}^2 + V_{ts}^2 + V_{td}^2$$
 (5.1)

where V_t may be the total standard deviation or coefficient of variation and V_{tc} , V_{ts} and V_{td} are the standard deviation or coefficient of variation of the cross sectional strength if only the concrete strength, steel strength or the dimensions are varied separately.

5.4 Cross Section Strength

Figures 5.11 and 5.12 are plots of the interaction curves for the 12 in. and 24 in. columns based on a modified log-normal distribution of steel strength. The mean strength indicated is the mean strength calculated from a sample size of 500 using the Monte Carlo Technique and the theoretical calculation of cross section strength. The maximum and minimum strength curves are also calculated from the Monte Carlo calculations. The ACI ultimate strength is the cross



Figure 5.11

Dispersion of Strengths of an Eccentrically Loaded 12 in. Square Column



Figure 5.12

Dispersion of Strengths of an Eccentrically Loaded 24 in. Square Column

section capacity calculated using the ACI 318-71 Building Code. The ACI factored strength is the ACI ultimate strength divided by 1.4/0.7 corresponding to the lowest possible load factor. The ACI factored strength corresponds to the normal service load conditions. The discrepancy in the mean strength of the 24 in. column immediately above the balance point is due to the reinforcing steel placement in the column cross section. As a result of the reinforcing steel at the centre of the cross section shifting from compression tension steel the capacity of the section appears to to increase to a second balance point but the first downturn of the curve is not a true representation of the capacity of the cross section.

The dispersion of cross section strength is plotted at selected values of e/h. In each case the dispersion of thecross section strength is a normal distribution for the compression failure region and a log-normal distribution for the tension failure region. At the balance point the dispersion of cross section strength may be represented equally well with either a normal or log-normal distribution.

Table 5.12 is a comparison of the mean value and coefficient of variation of Ptheory/PACI for a sample size of 500 for the cross sections of 12 in. by 12 in. with 1% steel and 24 in. by 24 in. with 3% steel.

In the compression failure region the variation in the

strength of the 12 in. and the 24 in. columns are similar but the mean value of Ptheory/PACI is larger for the 12 in. column. This is due to the higher dependence on the concrete strength. Since the ratio of the mean concrete strength to the nominal concrete strength is higher than the ratio of the mean steel strength to the nominal steel strength the capacity in the compression region increases for decreasing steel percentages relative to the ACI capacity.

The variability of the theoretical strength of the 24 in. by 24 in. column is greater than that of the 12 in. by 12 in. column in the tension region. This may be due to the increase in steel percentage from 1% to 3%. Also the mean value of the ratio Ptheory/PACI is larger in the 24 in. column in the tension region due to the increased steel percentage.

Figures 5.13 through 5.16 are cumulative frequency plots of the ratio Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. and 24 in. columns at selected e/h values. A comparison of these and similar cumulative frequency plots for a normal and a lognormal dispersion of the ratio Ptheory/PACI and the data in 5.1 to 5.4 and 5.9 to 5.11 suggest that for Tables compression failures the dispersion may be represented by distribution and for tension the normal failures the dispersion may be represented with а log-normal distribution.



Figure 5.13 Normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. Column, e/h = 0.10



Figure 5.14 Log-normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. Column, e/h = 0.10



Figure 5.15 Normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for the 24 in. Column, Pure Moment



Figure 5.16 Log-normal Cumulative Frequency Plot of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for the 24 in. Column, Pure Moment

Table 5.12

Comparison of the Mean Value of the Ratio Ptheory/PACI for the 12 in. and 24 in. Columns

	12 in. x 12	in. Column	24 in. x 2	4 in. Column 1
e/h	Mean Value	C.O.V.	 Mean Value 	C.O.V.
0.0	1.22497	0.15441	1.17160	0.13031
0.05	1.17698	0.15159	1.11903	0.13367
0.10	1.15575	0.14802	1.08382	0.14170
0.15	1.13985	0.14549	1.06790	0.14099
0.20	1.12937	0.14352	1.07079	0.13601
0.30	1.12239	0.13693	1.12003	0.11802
0.40	1.12039	0.11908	1.17984	0.11500
0.50	1.06030	0.10190	1.19744	0.10429
0.60	1.04139	0.09705	1.13196	0.10118
0.70	1.03100	0.09733	1.07567	0.10021
0.80	1.02598	0.09929	1.07338	0.09812
0.90	1.02439	0.10127	1.06804	0.09731
1.00	1.02498	0.10266	1.06246	0.09703
1.50	1.03976	0.10241	1.04738	0.09961
\sim	1.01598	0.10590	1.04568	0.10978

5.5 Calculation of ϕ Factors

5.5.1 Based on 1 in 100 Understrength

Tables 5.13 and 5.14 are tables of the calculated ϕ factor based on a probability of understrength of 1 in 100 and a normal dispersion of cross section strength in the compression failure region and a log-normal dispersion of cross section strength in the tension failure region. Figure 5.17 is a plot of the ϕ factor for the 12 in. and the 24 in. columns vs. e/h based on a probability of understrength of 1 in 100. The ϕ factors in the ACI Code are related to a probability of understrength of 1 in 100*0.

Table !	5.1	3
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The Understrength Factor for the 12 in. by 12 in. Column Based on a Probability of Understrength of 1 in 100

e/h	Mean Value	Std. Dev.	¢ Factor
0.0	1.22497	0.18915	0.78
0.05	1.17698	0.17842	0.76
0.10	1.15575	0.17108	0.76
0.15	1.13985	0.16583	0.75
0.20	1.12937	0.16208	0.75
0.30	1.12239	0.15369	0.76
0.40	1.12039	0.13342	0.81
0.50	1.06030	0.10804	0.83
0.60	1.04139	0.10107	0.83
0.70	1.03100	0.10035	0.82
0.80	1.02598	0.10187	0.81
0.90	1.02439	0.10374	0.81
1.00	1.02498	0.10522	0.80
1.50	1.03976	0.10649	0.82
\sim	1.01598	0.10759	0.79
·i		<u> </u>	ו 11

Table 5.14

The Understrength Factor for the 24 in. by 24 in. Column Based on a Probability of Understrength of 1 in 100

e/h	Mean Value	 Std. Dev.	∮ Factor
0.0	1.17160	0.15267	0.82
0.05	1.11903	0.14958	0.77
0.10	1.08382	0.15358	0.73
0.15	1.06790	0.15057	0.72
0.20	1.07079	0.14564	0.73
0.30	1.12003	0.13218	0.81
0.40	1.17984	0.13568	0.86
0.50	1.19744	0.12489	0.91
0.60	1.13196	0.11453	0.87
0.70	1.07567	0.10779	0.85
0.80	1.07338	0.10532	0.85
0.90	1.06804	0.10393	0.85
1.00	1.06246	0.10309	0.84
1.50	1.04738	0.10433	0.83
∞	1.04568	0.11479	0.82



Figure 5.17 The Understrength Factor ϕ vs. e/h Based on a Probability of Understrength of 1 in 100 for the 12 in. and 24 in. Columns

5.5.2 Based on Cornell-Lind Procedure

It has been proposed that future code revisions have factors based on the equation:

$$R \gamma_R e^{-\beta \alpha V} R \ge U \gamma_u e^{\beta \alpha V} u$$
 (5.2)

or:

 $\phi R > \lambda U$

where:

$$\phi = \gamma_R e^{-\beta \alpha V_R}$$

= the understrength factor

 $\lambda = \gamma_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{e}^{\beta \alpha \mathbf{V}} \mathbf{u}$

= the overload factor

 $\gamma_{R} = Ptheory/PACI$

 β = safety index

= 3.5 for probability of failure of 1.1 x 10 $^{-4}$ = 4.0 for probability of failure of 3.2 x 10 $^{-5}$ V_R = the variability of the strength or resistance V_u = the variability of the loads

 $\alpha = 0.75$

The α value is used to allow the separation of the effects of the variability of the member strength and the variability of the member loading.

Tables 5.15 and 5.16 are tables of the ϕ factor for the 12 in. and 24 in. columns based on the above equation. In these tables the ϕ factors are based on values of β of 4.0 for compression failures and 3.5 for tension failures. The lower probability was used for the compression failures due to the sudden brittle mode of failure.

The 12 in. square column cross section was chosen to display a large variability. For this column, ϕ was 0.78±0.03 throughout the entire range of e/h studied. The 24 in. column was chosen to have a low variability. For this column, ϕ was 0.79±0.09. The large variability in the 24 in. column was due to the discrepancy in the theoretical strength discussed in Section 5.4.

Table	5.	15
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The	Understrength	Factor	for	the 12 in.	by 12	2 in.	Column
Base	d on $\phi = \gamma_{R} e^{-\beta \alpha V}$	R					

	والمتحد والمحاجب والمحاجب والمتحاج والمحاجب والمحاج والمحاج والمحاج والمحاج والمحاج والمحاج والمحاج والمحاج وال		
e/h	Mean	C.O.V.	<pre>\$ Factor</pre>
0.0	1.22497	0.15441	0.77
0.05	1.17698	0.15159	0.75
0.10	1.15575	0.14802	0.74
0.15	1.13985	0.14549	0.74
0.20	1.12937	0.14352	0.78
0.30	1.12239	0.13693	0.78
0.40	1.12039	0.11908	0.78
0.50	1.06030	0.10190	0.81
0.60	1.04139	0.09705	0.81
0.70	1.03100	0.09733	0.80
0.80	1.02598	0.09929	0.79
0.90	1.02439	0.10127	0.79
1.00	1.02498	0.10266	0.78
1.50	1.03976	0.10241	0.80
	1.01598	0.10590	0.77
l [1

Avg = 0.779

The	Indonethoneth	Bachan	fam	4 1 -	24	. .	•	24	•	~ 1
Ine	Understrength	ractor	TOL	τne	24	ın.	ру	24	ln.	Column

Based on $\phi = \gamma_R e^{-\beta \alpha V_R}$

ſ

e/h	l I Mean	C.O.V.	 ¢ Factor
0.0	1.17160	0.13031	0.79
0.05	1.11903	0.13367	0.75
0.10	1.08382	0.14170	0.71
0.15	1.06790	0.14099	0.70
0.20	1.07079	0.13601	0.71
0.30	1.12003	0.11802	0.79
0.40	1.17984	0.11500	0.84
0.50	1.19744	0.10429	0.88
0.60	1.13196	0.10118	0.84
0.70	1.07567	0.10021	0.83
0.80	1.07338	0.09812	0.83
0.90	1.06804	0.09731	C.83
1.00	1.06246	0.09703	0.82
1.50	1.04738	0.09961	0.81
8	1.04568	0.10978	0.78

Avg = 0.794

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In this study probability models were developed to describe the variability of the major variables affecting the strength of a reinforced concrete section. Based on data from a literature search the concrete strength, cross sectional dimensions and location of reinforcing steel were described with a normal distribution as described in Chapter IV. The steel was described with a normal and modified lognormal distribution of yield strength as discussed in Appendix A.

A Monte Carlo study was performed using the probability models developed to determine the variability in the cross sectional strength of a 12 in. square and a 24 in. square tied reinforced concrete column. The results of this study show that the variability of the concrete strength is the contributing factor to cross sectional strength major variability in the compression failure region and the variability in the steel strength is the major contributing factor to cross sectional strength variability in the tension failure region. The effect on the overall strength variability of the dimensional variability and the variability in the location of the steel strength were found minor compared to the effects of the concrete and to be steel strength variability. The type of distribution assumed

for the steel strength variability was found to significantly affect the overall strength variability in the tension failure region only.

The ϕ or understrength factors were calculated based on a probability of understrength of 1 in 100 and based on the first order second moment procedure developed by Cornell and Lind. The calculated values of ϕ were in close agreement with those used in the ACI 318-71 Code for column cross sections but significantly different for the case of pure bending. This suggests that the ϕ factors used in the ACI Code are adequate and may be conservative for rectangular tied column cross sections but seem to be unconservative for bending tension failures.

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APPENDIX A

VARIABILITY IN REINFORCING STEEL

Introduction

The three main sources of variation in steel strength are:

- (1) variation in the strength of material,
- (2) variation in area of the cross-section of the bar, and
- (3) variation in the rate of loading.

The variability of yield strength depends on the source and the nature of the population. The variation in strength within a single bar is relatively small, while the in-batch variations are slightly larger. However, variability of samples derived from different batches and sources may be high. This is expected since rolling practices and quality measures different vary for countries. different manufacturers and different bar sizes. Furthermore, the cross-sectional areas vary due to differences in the setting of the rolls, and this adds to the variation. Mill tests are generally carried out at a rapid rate of loading (ASTM corresponds to 1040 micro-in/in/sec) and have the tendency of reporting the unstable high yield point rather than the stable low yield point. Since the strains in the structure induced at a much lower rate than the mill tests, mill are tests tend to overestimate the strength of reinforcement,

hence another source of variation.

An examination of the test data revealed that the bars of large diameter tended to develop less strength (4, 24, 55) than #3 to #11 bars. Thus, for the purpose of statistical evaluation, the #14 and #18 bars were studied separately from the other sizes. Also the #2 bars were not included in this study because of their rare use for structural concrete.

In this study the terms Grade 40, Grade 50 and Grade 60 refer to reinforcing bars with minimum specified yield strength of 40, 50 and 60 ksi, respectively, even though the bars in question may not have been produced according to ASTM or CSA specifications. Only data for deformed bars has been included. In some cases data for cold-worked bars has been considered but most of the data is for hot-rolled bars.

Variation in Steel Strength

Different values for the yield strength of steel may be obtained depending on how it is defined. The static yield strength based on nominal area seems to be desireable because the strain rate is similar to what is expected in a structure and designers use the nominal areas in their calculations. Most mill tests, however, are conducted with a rapid rate of loading, and the strength is generally referred to actual areas. For these reasons the yield strength corresponding to rapid strain rate and measured area is discussed in this section, the effects on this strength of variations in cross-sectional area and rate of loading are dealt with in the succeeding sections.

A review of literature on steel strength showed that the coefficient of variation was in general in the order of 1% to 4% for individual bar sizes and 4% to 7% overall for data derived from any one source. When data was taken from many sources the coefficient of variation increased to 5% to 8% for individual sizes and 10% to 12% overall. A summary of selected studies from literature (4,8,9,33,43) is shown in Table A-1.

The data reported by Allen⁴ and Julian³³ on Grade 40 and 60 steel bars showed close agreement with a normal distribution (with respective mean and standard deviation) in the range approximately 5 to 95 percentile but differ from the normal distribution outside this range. Some authors have suggested other types of distributions such as skewed distribution (9,54), truncated normal (31) and Beta distribution (20). These suggestions were, however, based on a particular set of data and only approximated the distribution of the population from which the data was drawn. Nonetheless, they suggest that the yield strength is that can be described by a particular phenomenon a theortical distribution with certain limitations. The normal distribution seems to correlate very well in the vicinity of the mean values for different populations of yield strength,

Table A-1

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Summary of Selected Studies on Steel Strength

Reported	en en ian ayanaswamy ayanaswamy nister er	Overall Mean C.o.v. (ksi) (%) (ksi) (%) (%) (ksi) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%) (%)
acturing ry	nada nada nada dia gland gland gland gland gland gland gland gland gland	Bar Sizes
Testing Tmanuf House Count		
Number of Sources	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	
Total - T Number of Samples	r m r m m r r m m r	ength v. Thean a.0 51.2 (ksi) 4 (ksi) 4 (ks
	to t t t + + + + + + + + + + + + + + + +	Imal Bar Sizes 1 1 1 54.0 58.4 58.4 69.1 56.2 68.2 5.1 5.1
Grade		Individival 1
Study Number		

but it is a crude approximation at low and high levels of probability where the steel strength distribution curves tend to have certain minimum and maximum values rather than following the theoretical tails. This is expected since there are always some quality controls that are used to attain a certain minimum yield strength with the result that the manufacturing of steel is not truly a random process. Furthermore, certain data indicated a positive skewness, particularly when derived from different sources and mixed together. Theoretically a log-normal distribution should be better fit for this case than a normal distribution since а it takes into account the skew nature of the data. However logarithmically distributed values of yield strength at the low and high levels of probability did not show a significant improvement over normally distributed values of available data. Therefore, it was decided to empirically establish a "modified" log-normal distribution that would yield correlate with the North American data on vield strength.

Values of $(f_y-34ksi)$ are plotted on log-normal probability paper in Figure A-1 for the data from Julian³³ and Allen⁴ for Grade 40 reinforcing bars grouped together. The values were found to be in good agreement with a lognormal distribution in the range from the 0.01 percentile to the 99th percentile. The modification constant of 34 ksi was established by trial and error. The corresponding frequency curve, the histogram of the grouped data and the



Figure A-1

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Steel Strength Distribution for Grade 40 Reinforcing Bars
corresponding normal frequency distribution curve are shown in Figure A-2 for the purpose of comparison. The mean value of the data was found to be 48.8 ksi with a maximum value of 66 ksi and a coefficient of variation of 10.7%.

Similarly, values of $(f_y - 55ksi)$ for Grade 60 reinforcing bars from mill tests reported by Allen⁴ were found to be log-normally distributed in the range from the 0.01 percentile to the 99th percentile as shown in Figure A-3. The frequency curves and histogram for Grade 60 steel are shown in Figure A-4. The mean value for the data was 71.5 ksi with a maximum value of 90 ksi and a coefficient of variation of 7.7%.

In both cases the modified log-normal curve is a better approximation at the lower end of the curve while the normal curve is better at the high end of the curve.

Variation in Steel Cross-Sectional Area

The actual areas of reinforcing bars tends to deviate from the nominal areas due to the rolling process. The designers do not have this information readily available to them, and hence use the nominal areas in their calculations. For this reason this variation should be incorporated in the strength of steel.

This variation in the ratio of measured to nominal areas (A_e/A_n) was studied as a measure of the variation in



Figure A-2 Probability Density Function for Grade 40 Bars



Figure A-3

Steel Strength Distribution for Grade 60 Reinforcing Bars



X = fy ksi

Figure A-4 Probability Density Function for Grade 60 Bars

the cross-sectional area of reinforcing bars. The values of A_e/A_n are reproduced from available literature (4, 8, 43) in Table A-1. Table A-1 indicates that the data reported by Baker⁸ for Grade 60 steel demonstrates high mean value and coefficient of variation. Such values cannot be explained in definite terms. It is possible that the collected data contained a good percentage of values from mills with old rolls that increased the mean and coefficient of variation. Furthermore, British rolling practice may differ from Canadian practice. For these reasons, these values were not included in the analysis.

The ratios of A_e/A_n from tests on Grade 40 and 60 reinforcing bars, manufactured in Canada (Study No. 1 and 3 Table A-1), were plotted on normal probability paper. in These values exhibited close agreement in the range from the 5th to the 95th percentile for Grade 40 steel and from the 2nd to the 98th percentile for Grade 60 bars with a normal distribution. When the values for both studies were combined they resulted in a normal distribution in the range between the 4th and 99th percentile with a mean value of 0.988 and a coefficient of variation of 2.4%. The effect of such a small coefficient of variation is not large enough to have any significant effect on the coefficient of variation of $A_s f_y$. For this reason a single value for A_p/A_p seems to be more appropriate. Allen⁴ has suggested a value of 0.97 for A_e/A_n . This seems to be a conservative estimate of the average values of A_e/A_n shown in Table A-1, and close to ASTM

rolling tolerances that allow an average ratio as low as 0.965 and a minimum single value up to 0.940.

Effect of Rate of Loading

The apparent yield strength of a test specimen increases as the strain rate or the rate of loading increases. Since mill tests on steel specimens are generally carried out at much greater strain rates (approximately 1040 micro-in/in/sec) than encountered in a structure, they tend to overestimate the yield strength. A strain rate of 1 in/in/sec may increase the yield strength of Grade 40 steel as much as 50% over the static yield strength (34).

Tests conducted on steel coupons of A36, A441 and A514 steel (51) demonstrated a yield strength reduction more or less of the same value for all types of steel with decrease rate of strain. The equation developed by Fao51 on in the the basis of these tests gives values of static yield strength that are 4.8 ksi and 3.4 ksi less than the yield strengths obtained at cross-head speed of 1000 and 200 micro-in/in/sec respectively. NRC tests on Grade 40 bars (4) showed a reduction of approximately 3 ksi in the mean yield strength when speed of the testing machine was dropped from 208 micro-in/in/sec to static. This value correlates well with the one obtained from Rao's equation. Similarly, for 40 bars, it has been shown at the University of Grade Illinois (34) that the difference between the yield strength

at a strain rate of 1040 micro-in/in/sec and the strength at a strain rate of 20 micro-in/in/sec is about 9% or 4 ksi. ETH tests (36) for high strength reinforcement demonstrated a reduction of 3 ksi for static conditions.

For evaluation of the static yield strength from mill tests, Allen⁴ has suggested a decrease of 4 ksi. This value seems to be a reasonable estimate for the available test data.

<u>Effect of Bar Diameter</u>

The strength of steel tends to vary across the crosssection of a reinforcing bar with the highest strength near outside of the bar. This is probably due to the coldthè working of circumferential sections of bars during the rolling process. Thus the mean yield strength is expected to decrease with increasing diameter. The variation of the mean yield strength with size is plotted in Figures A-5 and A-6. The data shown in the figures were taken from several test series for Grade 40 and Grade 60 reinforcement (4,44,8,9,24). For bars with relatively small diameter the this variation is effect of small and not clearly established. For large diameter bars such as #14 and #18 this effect becomes more significant. In addition, the ASTM specifications allow the use of small specimens machined from samples of large diameter bars for testing purposes. A specimen machined to a smaller diameter from a quarter-piece



Figure A-5

Effect of Bar Diameter on Steel Strength, Grade 40



Figure A-6

Effect of Bar Diameter on Steel Strength, Grade 60

of a full size bar tends to show higher yield strength than the bar itself (24). Since some manufacturers may use these tests as a measure of quality control, the #14 and #18 bars tend towards a higher probability of passing through quality controls without developing the required strength.

extremely limited amount of data is available for An #14 and #18 bars. Tests on Grade 40, #14 bars carried out by Allen* showed that the mean yield strength of #14 bars was 44 ksi, a 15% decrease from the strength of #3 to #11 bars produced by the same manufacturer. Some data has been reported by Gamble²⁴ for #14 and #18 bars of Grade 60 steel. The mean yield strengths were 60 ksi for #14 and 55 ksi for #18 bars. These strengths were referred to the nominal areas. Using the mean yield strength of Grade 60, #3 to #11 bars as 71.5 ksi (as per Study No. 3 in Table A-1) and a 3% adjustment for the deviation from the nominal area, the reduction in strength is approximately 13% for #14 bars and for #18 bars. This comparison is, however, not truly 21% justified since the data for both studies was not drawn from the same source. Nonetheless, it strongly indicates the understrength of #14 and #18 bars. Until more data is available, it seems reasonable that the yield strength of and #18 bars should be reduced at least 15% below the #14 yield strength of reinforcing bars with smaller diameter.

Summary

The modified log-normal distribution curves shown in Figures A-1 through A-4 seem to correlate well, particularly near the lower tails of the curves, with the available North American data for Grade 40 and Grade 60 reinforcing bars. The Probability Density Function for these curves can be calculated using the following equation:

PDF =
$$\frac{c}{y\sigma_{x}\sqrt{2\Pi}}$$
 · exp $\left[-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\bar{x}}{\sigma_{x}}\right)^{2}\right]$

where:

c = 0.43429 y = $f_y - 34$ ksi for Grade 40 bars y = $f_y - 55$ ksi for Grade 60 bars x = $\log_{10} y$ \overline{x} = 1.14482 for Grade 40 bars \overline{x} = 1.19456 for Grade 60 bars

 $\sigma_{\mathbf{x}} = 0.14866$ for Grade 40 bars

 $\sigma_{r} = 0.14112$ for Grade 60 bars

The mean yield strength of the selected data was found to be 48.8 ksi (c.o.v. = 10.7%) for Grade 40 bars and 71.5ksi (c.o.v. = 7.7%) for Grade 60 bars. The modification constants were empirically established and found to be 34 ksi and 55 ksi for Grade 40 and Grade 60 steel respectively.

A value of 0.97 for the ratio A_e/A_n seems to be reasonable to account for deviations from the nominal areas. Similarly, for the evaluation of the static yield strength, at least 4 ksi should be deducted from the yield strength obtained in mill tests or at high strain rates allowed by ASTM specifications.

When calculating the yield strength of #14 and #18 reinforcing bars from the strength of bars of smaller sizes at least a 15% reduction should be used to account for the effect of the large diameter.

APPENDIX B

COLUMNS STUDIED

This appendix contains the details of the two major columns studied. Tables B-1 and B-2 are tables of the properties of the 12 in. and 24 in. columns respectively. Figures B-1 and B-2 are diagrams of each column showing the designer's properties and the mean values of the column properties used in the Monte Carlo calculations. Properties of the 12 in. Column Assumed in the Calculations Specified Mean In- σ C.O.V. situ <u>Material Strengths</u>

Concrete Strength	3000 psi.	3712 psi.	•••• 0 .17 6
Steel Yield Strength	40 ksi.	48.8 ksi.	1.41 ksi

Dimensions

b, h	12.00	in.	12.06	in.	0.280 in.	400 400 400
đ	9.75	in.	9.51	in.	0.166 in.	100 403 400 J
d •	2.25	in.	2.55	in.	0.166 in.	
^A s	1.76	sg.in.	.	· .		
A's	0.88	sg.in.			ණ හා කා	at) 60 m
5 S	12.00	in.	12.00	in.		
b", d"	9.00	in.	8.47	in.	0.166 in.	1800 1800 igo
A "	0.11	sg.in.	0.11	sq.in.	417 673 623	€043 €0

Individual	<u>Longitudinal</u>	<u>Steel</u>	<u>Bars</u>
------------	---------------------	--------------	-------------

ASB(1) to ASB(4)	0.44 sq.in. 0.44 sq.in	
DS(1), DS(2)	2.25 in. 2.55 in. 0.166 in.	100 600 (E)
DS(3), DS(4)	9.75 in. 9.51 in. 0.166 in.	# & G

Table B-2

Properties of the 24 in. Column Assumed in the CalculationsSpecified Mean In-σc.o.v.situMaterial StrenghtsConcrete Strength3000 psi.3000 psi.3712 psi.Steel Yield Strength40 ksi.40 ksi.48.8 ksi1.41 ksi.

Dimensions

1

ſ

b, h	24.00 in. 24.06 in.	0.280 in
đ	21.30 in. 21.01 in.	0.166 in
d•	2.70 in. 3.05 in.	0.166 in
^A s	18.72 sq.in	මා බො හා මා මො මො
A's	7.80 sq.in	
S	12.00 in. 12.00 in.	
b", d"	20.50 in. 19.87 in.	0.166 in
A "S	0.20 sq.in. 0.20 sq.in	9

Individual Longitudinal Steel Bars

ASB(1) to ASB(12)	1.56 sq.in. 1.56 sq.in	අප මම පො
DS(1) to DS(5)	2.70 in. 3.05 in. 0.166 i	n
DS(6), DS(7)	12.00 in. 12.07 in. 0.993 i	n
DS(8) to DS(12)	21.30 in. 21.01 in. 0.166 i	n



1

 $f_y = 40,000 \text{ psi}$ $f_c' = 3,000 \text{ psi}$ $A_s - 2\# 6 \text{ bars}$ $A_s' - 2\# 6 \text{ bars}$ $A_s'' - 2\# 6 \text{ bars}$ $A_s'' - \# 3 @ 12 \text{ in}$

12 in. x 12 in. COLUMN



 $f_{y} = 40,000$ $f_{y} = 40,000 \text{ psi}$ $f_{c}' = 3,000 \text{ psi}$ $A_{s} - 7\# 11 \text{ bars}$ $A_{s}' - 5\# 11 \text{ bars}$ $A_{s}'' - \#4 @ 12 \text{ in.}$ in sets of 3

24 in. x 24 in. COLUMN

Figure B-1

Nominal or Designer's Properties of the 12 in. and 24 in Columns



 $\vec{f}_{y} = 48,800 \text{ psi}$ $\vec{f}_{c} = 3712 \text{ psi}$ $A_{s} - 2\# 6 \text{ bars}$ $A'_{s} - 2\# 6 \text{ bars}$ $A''_{s} - \# 3 @ 12 \text{ in}$

12 in. x 12 in. COLUMN



24 in. x 24 in. COLUMN

Figure B-2

Mean Values of the Properties of the 12 in. and 24 in Columns

APPENDIX C

FLOW DIAGRAMS OF THE MONTE CARLO PROGRAM

This appendix contains detailed flow diagrams of the complete Monte Carlo Program including:

The Main Program Subroutine PROP Subroutine ACI Subroutine ASTEEL Subroutine CURVE Subroutine THMEAN Subroutine THEORY Subroutine AXIAL Subroutine FSTEEL Subroutine RANDOM











SUBROUTINE PROP









SUBROUTINE ASTEEL



















SUBROUTINE THMEAN


SUBROUTINE THEORY







SUBROUTINE AXIAL











SUBROUTINE F STEEL



SUBROUTINE RANDOM



SUBROUTINE STAT













APPENDIX D

LISTING OF THE MONTE CARLO PROGRAM

This appendix contains a complete listing of the Monte Carlo Program. The modified IBM Subroutine MULT to MULTR is also listed. The listing includes:

> The Main Program Subroutine THMEAN Subroutine ACI Subroutine ASTEEL Subroutine PROP Subroutine CURVE Subroutine RANDOM Subroutine THEORY Subroutine AXIAL Subroutine FSTEEL Subroutine STAT

\$LIST P2 ON *PRINT* C### COMMON N, EOH1 (13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC (20), ASC, EOH (40), FCONST (25) COMMON X (16000), EC (20), B (20), P (40), BMM (1000), BM (40), FCS (20) DIMENSION PACI (15), PTH (15, 2000), FSS (20), SBM (20) DIMENSION RMFAN (25), STDV (25), ITYPE (25) C BEAD QUANTITIES NEEDED FOR MONTE CARLO SIMULATIONS READ (5, 500) NV, NS, FY1 COMMON N, EOH1 (13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS a Q DUD FORMAT (210,F3.2) READ (5,511) RNEAN1, RMEAN2, IY, NRU 511 FORMAT (2F15.5, 2I10) C READ NOMINAL PROPERTIES CALL PROP (NS) C BEAD STATISTICAL DEODEDTIES OF VARIAN READ STATISTICAL PROPERTIES OF VARIABLES READ (5,510) RMEAN (I), STDV (I), FCONST (I), ITYPE (I) 510 FOFMAT (3F15.5,I5) C WRITE STATISTICAL PROPERTIES OF VARIABLES WRITE STATISTICAL PROPERTIES OF VARIABLES WRITE (6,512) 512 FORMAT ('1',/////27X,'DISTRIBUTION PROPERTIES OF VARIABLES') WRITE (6,519) NS, NRU 519 FORMAT (31X,'(',14,'SIM',15,')'//) SUPTOP (6.513) WRITE (6,513) 513 FORMAT (16X, MEAN-VALUE STD-DEVIATION DO 1000 I=1, NV DU TUUU 1=1,NV 1000 WRITE (6,514) RMEAN (I), STDV(I), FCONST(I), ITYPE(I) 514 PORMAT (16X, 3F15.5,I5) WRITE (6,515) 515 PORMAT (////2CX,' PC(MEAN-VALUE) FY(MEAN-VALUE)'/ FCONSTANT TYPE '/) 515 FORMAT (////20X, ' FC (MEAN-VALUE) FY (MEAN-VALUE) '/) WRITE (6,516) RMEAN1, RMEAN2 516 FORMAT (20X, 2F15.5) 516 PORMAT (201,2713.3) WRITE (6,522) PY1 522 FORMAT (///21X,'PY LIMIT=',F9.2) WRITE (6,520) IY S20 FORMAT (///21X,'ISEED=',I10) CALCULATE THE ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM CALL ACT (NS) С FIT A POLYNOMINAL TO THE ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM С WRITE THE ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM AFTER THE CURVE FIT С WRITE THE ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM AFTER THE CURVE FIT WRITE (6,100) 100 PORMAT ('1',/////23X,'****ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM****') WRITE (6,519) NS,NRU WRITE (6,517) 517 FORMAT (30X,'(AFTER CURVE PIT)'//) 517 FORMAT (30X,'(AFTER CURVE PIT)'//) WRITE (6,103) 103 FORMAT (19X,'P(J) LBS',6X,'M(J) LB-IN',7X,'EOH(J)') D0 6 J=1,13 6 WRITE (6,104) F(J), BM(J), EOH1(J) 104 FORMAT (/16x, 3E15.7)

56 PACI (15) = BMO 57 DO 1 I=1,13 58 1 PACI (I+1) = P (I) C CALCULATE MEAN THEORY INTEPACTION DIAGRAM CALL THMEAN (RMEAN, RMEAN1, RMEAN2, NS) 59 60 FIT & POLYNCHINAL TO THE THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM 61 62 WRITE MEAN THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM AFTER CURVE FIT 63 С WRITE MEAN THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM***** WRITE (6,101) 101 FORMAT (*1*,/////19X,****MEAN THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM*****) WRITE (6,519) NS,NRU WRITE (6,517) WRITE (6,103) DO 3 J=1.13 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 3 WRITE (6,104) P(J), BM(J), EOH1(J) PTH(1,1)=PO PTH (15, 1) = BMO DO 15 I=1, 13 72 73 74 15 PTH (I+1, 1) =P (I) WRITE (6,105) 105 FORMAT (//18X, MFANTH/ACI',2X, SOH') CALCULATE AND WRITE RATIO MEAN THEORY/ACI 75 76 77 C DO 17 I=1,15 IF (I.EQ.1) EOH2=0.0 IF (I.GT.1) EOH2=EOH1(I-1) IF (I.EQ.15) EOH2=99.99 78 79 80 81 RP(I,1)=FTH(I,1)/PACI(I) 17 WRITE (6,106) RP(I,1),E0H2 106 FORMAT (16X,2F10.5) MONTE CARLO CALCULATION OF THEORETICAL STRENGTH 82 83 84 85 С 86 DO 4 JJ=1, NS DO 10 I=1, NV 87 88 SD=STDV(I) 89 RM=RMEAN (1) 90 CONST=FCONST (I) 91 ITP=ITYPE(I) 92 CALL RANDOM (IY, SD, RM, CONST, ITP, V) 93 94 10 CONTINUE 95 IF (X(1).LE. (RMEAN(1)-3.3*STDV(1))) X(1)=RMEAN(1)-3.3*STDV(1) 96 97 IF (X (2).GT.FY1) X (2) = FY1 98 FY= (X (2)-4000.0) +0.97 99 BB=X (3) 100 H=X (4) 101 B11=X (5) 102 D11=X (6) 103 DC=X (7) 104 DD=X (8) DO 2 I=1,NB 105 106 NI=1+8 107 2 DS (I) = X (NI) 108 CALCULATE THEORETICAL INTERACTION DIAGRAM С 109 CALL THEORY 110 FIT A POLYNOMINAL TO THE THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM С PTH (1, JJ) = PO PTH (15, JJ) = BMO DO 9 I=1,13 9 PTH (I+1,JJ) = P(I)

111 112

113

114

176	L=L+1
177	7 X (L) = RP (I, JJ)
178	$\lambda = L$
179	CALL STAT (RM, SD, COV, COS, COK, RMIN, RMAX, UM2, UM3, UM4, IMAX, IMIN, RMED,
180	1CLASS, CFREQ, NGROSS)
181	DO 11 I=1,15
182	IHAX=IHAX-NS
183	IF (IMAX.LE.0) GO TO 12
184	11 CONTINUE
185	12 IMAX=IMAX+NS
186	DO 13 I=1,15
187	IMIN=IMIN-NS
188	IF (IMIN.LE.C) GO TO 14
189	13 CONTINUE
190	14 IMIN=IMIN+NS
191	WRITE (6,21)
192 193	21 PORMAT ('1',/////26X,'<*> TOTAL STATISTICAL EVALUATION <*>')
193	WRITE (6,519) NS,NRU
195	WRITE (6,20)
196	WRITE (6,25) RM,SD,COV,COS,COK WRITE (6,30)
197	WRITE (6,35) RMIN,IMIN,RMAX,IMAX,RMED
198	WRITE (6,36)
199	WRITE (6,37)
200	WRITE (6,38) UM2, UM3, UM4
201	WRITE (6,39)
202	WRITE (6,40)
203	DO 55 I=1,31
204	55 WRITE (6,50) I, CLASS (I), CFREQ (I), NGROSS (I)
205	1600 CONTINUE
206	WRITE (6,1900) JJ
207	1900 FORMAT ("1",/20X,"***",I5,"***")
208	STOP
209	END
210	C*************************************
211	C
212	C*************************************
213 214	SUBROUTINE THMEAN (RMEAN, RMEAN1, RMEAN2, NS)
215	COMMON N, EOH1 (13), PO, BNO, DCS, DTS
216	COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU
217	COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC (20), ASC, EOH (40), FCONST (25)
218	COMMON X (16000), EC (20), B (20), P (40), BMM (1000), BM (40), FCS (20) COMMON FST, E (20), NB, DS (20), ASB (20), FSS (20), SBM (20)
219	DIMENSION RMEAN (25)
220	C SET EACH VARIABLE EQUAL TO ITS MEAN VALUE
221	FC=RMEAN1
222	FY= (RMEAN 2-4000.0) *0.97
223	BB=RMEAN (3)
224	H=RMEAN(4)
225	B11=RMEAN (5)
226	D11=RMEAN(6)
227	DC=RMEAN (7)
228	DD=RMEAN (8)
229	DO 2 I=1,NB
230	NI=I+8
231	2 DS(I) = RMEAN(NI)
232	C CALCULATE THEORETICAL INTERACTION DIAGRAM
233	CALL THEORY
234	C WRITE MEAN THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM
235	WRITE (6,100)

235 100 FORMAT ('1',/////19X, '****MEAN THEORY INTERACTION DIAGRAM*****) WRITE (6,519) NS,NRU 519 FORMAT (31X, '(',14, 'SIM',15, ')'//) 237 238 WRITE (6,101) 101 FORMAT (//19X,'P(J) LBS',6X,'M(J) LB-IN',7X,'EOH(J)') 239 240 241 DO 4 J=1,N WRITE (6,102) P(J), BM(J), EOH(J) 102 FORMAT (/16X, 3E15.7) 242 243 244 4 CONTINUE 245 WEITE (6,103) 103 FORMAT (//20X,'PO LBS',7X,'BMO LB-IN') WRITE (6,104) PO,BMO 104 FORMAT (16X,2E15.7) 246 247 248 249 RETURN 250 END 251 ********** C**** 252 С 253 C** ******* 254 SUBROUTINE ACI (NS) 255 C 256 THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM С 257 С 258 COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS 259 COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NEU COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC (20), ASC, FOH (40), FCONST (25) 260 COMMON X (16000), EC (20), B (20), P (40), BMM (1000), BM (40), FCS (20) 261 COMMON FST, E (20) , NB, DS (20) , ASB (20) , FSS (20) , SBM (20) 262 IF (FC.LE.4000.0) GO TO 1 B1=0.85-0.05*(FC-4000.0)/1000.0 263 264 265 IF (B1.LE.0.65) B1=0.65 GO TO 4 266 267 1 B1=0.85 268 4 E4=0.003 C CALCULATE PURE AXIAL LOAD CAPACITY 269 PO=0.85*FC* (BB*H-AS) +AS*FY 270 CALCULATE AXIAL LOAD CAPACITY AT BALANCED CONDITIONS PB=0.85*E1*FC*BB*DTS*(0.003/(FY/ES+0.003)) 271 С 272 C CALCULATE PURE MOMENT CAPACITY 273 274 AST=AS-ASC 275 AA=BB*FC*B1*0.85 276 AB=0.003*ASC*ES-AST*FY 277 AC=-0.003*ASC*ES*DCS 278 RA=SQRT (AB**2-4.0*AA*AC) / (2.0*AA) C1 = (-AB/(2.0*AA)) - RAIF (C1.LE.0.0) C1=RA-(AB/(2.0*AA)) ES2=0.003*(C1-DCS)/C1 279 280 281 282 IF (ES2.GE. (FY/ES)) GO TO 9 283 BMO=ASC*ES2*ES* (DTS-DCS) + (AST*FY-ASC*ES2*ES) * (DTS-B1*C1/2.0) 284 GO TO 8 285 9 BHC=ASC*FY* (DTS-DCS) + ((AST-ASC) *FY) * (DTS- (AST-ASC) *FY/(1.7*FC*BB)) 286 C INITIALIZE STRAIN IN TENSION STEEL 287 8 E1=0.0019 288 J=0 289 2 J=J+1 290 IF (J.EQ.1) GO TO 5 MODIFY TENSION STEEL STRAIN 291 С 292 IF (E1.GT.-0.001) E1=E1-0.0005 293 IF (E1.LE.-0.001) E1=E1-0.001 294 C CALCULATE NEUTRAL AXIS DEPTH 295 C=E4*DD/(E4-E1)

```
296
                    PHI=E4/C
  297
                CALCULATE FORCES IN STEEL BARS
            С
  298
                    CALL ASTEEL (E4)
  299
                CALCULATE CONCRETE COMPRESSIVE BLOCK FORCE
            С
  300
                    IF (C.GE. (H/B1)) C=H/B1
  301
                    FCCONC=0.85*FC*B1*BB*C
              CALCULATE AXIAL LOAD LEVEL
  302
            С
  303
                    P(J) = FCCONC+PST
  304
                CALCULATE BENDING MOMENT DUE TO CONCRETE COMPRESSIVE FORCE
           С
                    COMPM=FCCONC* (DD-B1*C/2.0)
  305
  306
                    SM=0.0
  307
           C CALCULATE BENDING MOMENT DUE TO STEEL FORCES
  308
                   DO 3 I=1, NP
 309
                   SBM (I) = (FSS (I) - FCS (I) * ASB (I) ) * (DD-DS (I) )
           3 SM=SM+SBM(I)
C CALCULATE TOTAL BENDING MOMENT CAPACITY
 310
 311
 312
                   BM (J) = COMPM+SM-P (J) * (DD-H/2.0)
 313
                   GO TO 6
 314
                 5 P(J) =0.85*FC* ((BB*H)-AS) +AS*FY
 315
                   BH(J)=0.0
           C CALCULATE ECCENTRICITY E/H

6 EOH (J] = BM (J) / (P (J) *H)

IF (J.GE.20) GO TO 7

IF (EOH (J).LT.2.0) GO TO 2
 316
 317
 318
 319
 320
                7 N=J
 321
           C WRITE THE ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM
             WRITE (6,100)

100 FORMAT ('1',/////23X,'****ACI INTERACTION DIAGRAM****')

WRITE (6,519) NS,NRU

519 FORMAT (31X,'(',I4,'SIM',I5,')'//)
 322
 323
 324
 325
 326
                   WRITE (6,101)
             101 FORMAT (//19X,'P(0) LBS',7X,'P(B) LBS',6X,'M(0) LB-IN')
WRITE (6,102) PO,PB,BMO
102 FORMAT (/16X,3E15.7)
 327
 328
 329
330
             WRITE (6,103)
103 FORMAT (//19X,'P(J) LBS',6X,'M(J) LB-IN',7X,'EOH(J)')
331
332
                  DO 20 J=1,N
333
             WRITE (6,104) P(J), BM(J), EOH(J)
104 PORMAT (/16X,3E15.7)
334
335
              20 CONTINUE
336
                  RETURN
337
                  END
338
          C*
339
          C
340
          C*:
                                                *****
341
                  SUBROUTINE ASTEEL (E4)
342
          С
343
              THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE ACI PORCES IN THE STEEL
          С
344
          C
345
                  COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS
346
                  COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU
347
                  COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC (20) , ASC, EOH (40) , FCONST (25)
348
                  COMMON X(16000), EC(20), B(20), P(40), BMM (1000), BM(40), FCS(20)
COMMON FST, E(20), NB, DS(20), ASB(20), FSS(20), SBM(20)
349
350
                  EY=FY/ES
351
                  FST=0.0
352
                  DO 4 I=1,NF
353
                  E (1) = E4-PHI*DS (1)
354
                  IF (DS(I).GE.C) GO TO 5
355
                  FCS (1) =0.85*FC
```

105 FORMAT (/16X, 1F6. 1, 5X, 1F7. 1, 4X, 1F10. 1) 416 WRITE (6, 106) 106 FORMAT (//16X,'B(IN)',5X,'H(IN)',5X,'D(IN)',4X,'DC(IN)' 417 418 1 ,4X,'AS (SQIN)', 3X,'ASC (SQIN)') WRITE (6,1C7) BB,H,DD,DC,AS,ASC 107 FORMAT (/12X,6F10.2) 419 420 421 WRITE (6,108) 108 FORMAT (//16X,'DCS (IN)',2X,'DTS (IN)',4X,'S (IN)',4X,'B11(IN)', 14X,'D11(IN)',2X,'AS11(SQIN)') WRITE (6,109) DCS,DTS,S,B11,D11,AS11 109 FORMAT (/12X,6F10.2) 422 423 424 425 426 427 109 FORMAT {/12X,6F10.2} WRITE (6,112) 112 FORMAT (//16X,'NB',4X,'ASB(I)',5X,'DS(I)') D0 114 I=1,NF WRITE (6,113) NB,ASB(I),DS(I) 113 FORMAT (15X,1I3,2F10.2) 114 CONTINUE 428 429 430 431 432 RETURN 433 434 END 435 C* 436 437 C****** 438 439 SUBROUTINE CURVE С THIS SUBROUTINE FITS A POLYNOMIAL TO THE INTERACTION 440 С DIAGRAM 441 С 442 С COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS 443 COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS COMMON PC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC(20), ASC, EOH(40), FCONST(25) COMMON X(16000), EC(20), B(20), P(40), BMM(1000), BM(40), FCS(20) COMMON FST, E(20), NB, DS(20), ASB(20), FSS(20), SEM(20) DIMENSION DI(400), D(70), SB(10), T(10), COE(11) DIMENSION XBAR(11), STD(11), SUMSQ(11), ISAVE(11), ANS(10) DIMENSION XBAR(500) EFE(10) 444 445 446 447 448 449 DIMENSION XX (500), BBB (10), EE (10) 450 451 M=10 452 EOH1 (1) =0.05 EOH1(2)=0.10 EOH1(3)=0.15 453 454 455 EOH1 (4) =0.20 EOH1 (5) =C.30 456 457 EOH1 (6) =0.40 EOH1 (7) =0.50 458 459 EOH1 (8) =0.60 450 EOH1 (9) =0.70 EOH1(10)=0.80 EOH1(11)=0.90 461 462 463 EOH1(12)=1.00 464 EOH1 (13) = 1.50 465 N=N-1 466 DO 2 J=1,N 467 P(J) = P(J+1)468 BM (J) = BM (J+1) 469 2 EOH (J) = EOH (J+1) 470 DO 100 I=1,N 471 DIPM=BM (I+1) - BM (I) 472 IF (DIFM) 105,100,100 473 100 CONTINUE 474 105 NP=I 475 EOHE=ECH(I)

ì

476 61=6 477 IF (M.GE. (NP-1)) M=NP-2 478 L=NP*M 479 DO 110 I=1, NP 480 J=L+I 481 XX(I)=EOH(I) 482 110 XX (J) = P (I) LL=L+NP 483 484 CALL GDATA (NP, M, XX, XBAR, STD, D, SUMSQ) 485 MM=M+1 486 SUM=0.0 487 DO 200 I=1,M ISAVE(I)=I 488 ISAVE(1)=1 CALL ORDER (MM,D,MM,I,ISAVE,DI,EE) CALL MINV (DI,I,DET,BBB,T) CALL TMULTR (NP,I,XBAR,STD,SUMSQ,DI,EE,ISAVE,BBB,SB,T,ANS) IF (ANS(7)) 220,130,130 130 SUMIP=ANS(4)-SUM TF (SUMTD) 220,220,150 489 490 491 492 493 IF (SUMIP) 220,220,150 150 SUM=ANS(4) 494 495 COE (1) =ANS (1) DO 160 J=1,I 496 497 498 160 COE (J+1) = BBB (J) 499 II=I+1 500 JJ=1+1 501 200 CONTINUE 502 220 NN=13 503 DO 240 II=1, NN 504 EOH2=EOH1 (II) 505 IF (EOH2.GT.EOHB) GO TO 250 506 P(II)=0.0 507 DO 245 I=1,JJ 508 245 P(II)=P(II)+COE(I)*(EOH1(II)**(I-1)) 509 240 CONTINUE 510 250 NNN=II 511 DO 101 I=NP, N 512 DIFE=3.0-EOH(I) IF (DIFE) 102,101,101 513 514 101 CONTINUE 515 GO TO 103 516 102 N=I-1 517 103 NM=N-NP+1 518 M=M1 519 IF (M.GE. (NM-1)) M=NM-2 520 L=NM*M 521 DO 310 I=1, NM 522 J=L+I 523 XX (I) =1.0/EOH (I+NP-1) 524 310 XX (J) = BM (I+NP-1) 525 CALL GDATA (NM, M, XX, XBAR, STD, D, SUMSQ) 526 MM=M+1 527 SUM=0.0 528 DO 300 I=1,M 529 ISAVE (I) =I 530 CALL ORDER (MM, D, MM, I, ISAVE, DI, EE) CALL MINV (DI,I,DET,BEB,T) CALL MINV (DI,I,DET,BEB,T) CALL TMULTR (NM,I,XBAR,STD,SUMSQ,DI,EE,ISAVE,BEB,SB,T,ANS) IF (ANS(7)) 320,330,330 330 SUMIP=ANS(4)-SUM TF (SUMTE) 320,320,350 531 532 533 534 535 IF (SUMIP) 320,320,350

```
536
              350 SUM=ANS(4)
  537
                   COE (1) = ANS (1)
  538
                   DO 360 J=1,I
  539
              360 COE (J+1) = BBB (J)
  540
                   JJ=1+1
  541
              300 CONTINUE
  542
              320 DO 340 II=NNN, NN
  543
                   BM (II) =0.0
 544
                   DO 345 I=1,JJ
              345 BH (II) = BH (II) + COE (I) * ((1.0/EOH1(II)) ** (I-1))
P (II) = BH (II) / (H*EOH1(II))
 545
 546
 547
              340 CONTINUE
 548
                   N4 = NNN - 1
 549
                   DO 370 I=1,N4
 550
             370 BM (I) = P (I) *H*EOH1 (I)
 551
                   RETURN
 552
                   END
 553
           554
555
           С
           C*4
                  556
                  SUBROUTINE RANDOM (IY, SD, RM, CONST, ITP, V)
 557
           С
 558
              THIS SUBROUTINE GENERATES VALUE OF THE VARIABLES WITH
          С
 559
          С
              THE MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, AND DISTRIBUTION GIVEN
 560
          C
 561
                  COMMON N, EOH1 (13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS
                  COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU
 562
                  COMMON PHI, E0, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC (20), ASC, E0H (40), FCONST (25)
COMMON X (16000), EC (20), B (20), P (40), BMM (1000), BM (40), FCS (20)
 563
 564
 565
                  COMMON FST, E (20) , NB, DS (20) , ASB (20) , FSS (20) , SBM (20)
 566
                  λ=0.0
567
                  DO 50 I=1,12
568
                  IY=IY*65539
569
                  IF (IY.LT.0) IY=IY+2147483647+1
570
                  Y=IY*0.4656613E-9
571
              50 A=A+Y
572
                  A=A-6.0
573
                  V=A*SD+RM
                  IF (ITP.EQ.1) V=10.0**V
IF (ITP.EQ.2) V=10.0**V+CONST
574
575
576
                  RETURN
577
                  END
578
          C*
579
          C
580
          C*:
                   *****
581
                 SUBROUTINE THEORY
582
          С
583
          C THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE THEORETICAL P-M DIAGRAM
584
          С
585
                 COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS
586
                 COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU
                 COMMON PHI,EO,J,Z,ECC,EY,PCONCC (20),ASC,EOH (40),FCONST (25)
COMMON X (16000), EC (20),B (20),P (40),BMM (1000),BM (40),FCS (20)
COMMON FST,E (20),NB,DS (20),ASB (20),FSS (20),SBM (20)
587
588
589
590
                 FC=FC*0.85
591
                 IF (FC.EQ.1000.0) FC=1000.1
ECC=57000.0*SQRT(FC)
592
593
                 EO=1.8*FC/ECC
594
                 EY=FY/ES
595
         C CALCULATE PUPE AXIAL LOAD CAPACITY
```

596 PO=FC*BB*H+AS*FY-AS*FC 597 J=0 598 1 J=J+1 599 С SET AXIAL LOAD LEVEL 600 IF (J.EQ. 1) GO TO 5 601 IF (J.EQ.21) P(J)=0.0 IF (J, EQ, 2) P(J) = 0.0IF (P(J-1), LE, (0, 6*PO)) P(J) = P(J-1) - 0.034*POIF (P(J-1), LE, (0, 1*PO)) P(J) = P(J-1) - 0.04*POIF (P(J-1), GT, (0, 6*PO)) P(J) = P(J-1) - 0.16*POIF (P(J), LE, 0.0) P(J) = 0.0IF (J, EQ, 2) P(J) = P(J-1) - 0.08*POCULATE MOMENT CAPACITY AT SPECIFIED AVIAL LOP 602 503 604 605 606 C CALCULATE MOMENT CAPACITY AT SPECIFIED AXIAL LOAD 607 608 CALL AXIAL IF (P(J) . EQ. 0.0) BMO=BM(J) IF (P(J) . EQ. 0.0) GO TO 7 609 610 611 GO TO 6 612 5 P(J)=PO 613 BM (J) =0.0 614 6 EOH (J) =BM (J) / (P (J) *H) 615 GO TO 1 616 7 N=J-1 C ELIMINATE ERRATIC POINTS ON THE INTERACTION CURVE 617 618 M = N 619 NJ=N-1 DO 8 IJ=3,NJ 620 IF (BM (IJ).GE.BM (IJ-1)) GO TO 8 IF (BM (IJ+1).LE.BM (IJ-1)) GO TO 8 621 622 623 M=M-1 DO 9 JJJ=IJ,NJ 624 625 P(JJJ) = P(JJJ+1)626 BM (JJJ) = BM (JJJ+1)9 EOH (JJJ) = EOH (JJJ+1) ó27 628 8 CONTINUE 629 N = M 630 RETURN 631 END 632 C* 633 С 634 C× 635 SUBROUTINE AXIAL 636 С 637 THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE MOMENT AFTER BALANCING P С 638 С 639 COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS 640 COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS 11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, FCONCC (20), ASC, EOH (40), FCONST (25) COMMON X (16000), EC (20), B (20), P (40), BMM (1000), BM (40), FCS (20) 641 642 643 COMMON PST, E (20), NB, DS (20), ASB (20), FSS (20), SBM (20) 644 PHI=0.0000001 645 PHIH=PHI*H 646 II=1 647 14 E4=0.002 648 EINCR=0.002 649 33 E4=E4+EINCR 650 EINCR=EINCP/2.0 651 32 E4=E4+EINCR 652 FCCONC=0.0 653 C=E4/PHI 654 ECO= (C-H) *PHI 655 IF (C.GE.H) C=H

		• •
656		IF (C.LT.H) ECO=0.0
657		ASC=0.0
658		DO 34 I=1,NB
659		IF (DS(I).LE.C) ASC=ASC+ASB(I)
660		34 CONTINUE
661	С	CALCULATE PARAMETERS OF THE CONCRETE STRESS STRAIN CURVE
662		P11= (2.0* (B11+D11) *AS11+ASC*S) / (B11+D11*S)
663		E5CH=0.75*P11*SQRT (B11/S)
664		E50U= (3.0+0.002*FC) / (FC-1000.0)
665		IF (E50U.LE.O.O) E50U=0.06
666		Z=C.5/(E50H+E50U-E0)
667		ZZ=0.5/(E50U-E0)
668		EU=2.0*(E50H+E50U)-E0
669		DX=C/10
670	с	CALCULATE THE CONCRETE COMPRESSION BLOCK FORCE
671		DO 23 I=1,10
672		AI=I
673		X(I) = C - AI + DX + DX/2
674		EC (I) = PHI * X (I) + ECO
675		B(I) = BB
676	C	MAXIMUM STRAIN FOR UNCONFINED COMPRESSION 0.004
677		IF (EC(I).LE.EO) GO TO 3
678		IF (EC(I).GE.0.004) GO TO 21
679		IF (EC(I).GT.EO) GO TO 4
680		3 FCC=FC* (2.0*EC (I) /EO- (EC (I) /EO) **2)
681		GO TO 22
682		4 FCC=FC*(1.0-2*(EC(I)-EO))
683		FCU=FC*(1.0-ZZ*(EC(I)-EO))
684		IF (PCC.LE.0.0) FCC=0.0
685		IF (FCU.LE.0.0) FCU=0.0
686		FCONCC (I) = FCC*DX*B11+FCU*DX* (B(I)+B11)
687		GO TO 23
688		21 B(I)=B11
689		FCC=FC*(1.0-Z*(EC(I)-E0))
690		IF (FCC.LE.0.0) FCC=0.0
691		IF (X(I).GE.(C-DC)) FCC=0.0
692		22 FCONCC (I) =FCC*DX*B (I)
693		23 FCCONC=FCCONC+FCONCC(I)
694	C	CALCULATE THE CONCRETE TENSION BLOCK FORCE
695		IF (C.GE.H) GO TO 25
696		SFC=SQRT (FC)
697		ET=7.5*SFC/ECC
698		TC=ET/PHI
699		TCA=H-C
700		RTC=TCA/TC
701		IF (TC.GT.TCA) TC=TCA
702		IP (TC.LE.TCA) RTC=1.0
703		PCONCT=-RTC*7.5*SFC*TC/2.0*BB
704		GO TO 18
705		25 PCONCT=0.0
706	-	18 CALL FSTEEL (E4)
707	С	CHECK FORCE COMPATIBILITY
708		PAXIAL=FCCONC+FCONCT+FST
709		TOLA = P(J) * 0.02
710		IP $(P(J), EQ, 0, 0)$ TOLA=0.001*PO
711		TOL=P(J) - PAXIAL
712		IF (TOL.LTTOLA) GO TO 33
713		IF (TOL.GT.TOLA) GO TO 35
714		GO TO 36
715		35 JF (E4.GE.EU) GO TO 44

```
716
                IF(EINCR.GE.0.0000001) GO TO 32
7 17
             36 COMPM=0.0
718
         C CALCULATE THE MOMENT DUE TO THE CONCRETE COMPRESSION FORCE
719
                DO 24 I=1,10
720
             24 COMPM=COMPM+FCONCC(I)*(DD-C+X(I))
721
                SM=0.0
722
         C CALCULATE THE MOMENT DUE TO THE STEEL FORCES
723
                DO 13 I=1,NB
724
                SBM (I) = (FSS (I) - FCS (I) * ASB (I) ) * (DD-DS (I) )
725
             13 SM=SM+SBM (I)
726
                IF (FCONCT.EQ.0.0) TC=0.0
727
         C SUM THE MOMENTS ABOUT THE TENSION STEEL
728
                BMM (II) = COMPM+SM+FCONCT* (DD- (C+2.0*TC/3.0)) - P (J) * (DD-H/2.0)
729
                IF (II.EQ.1) GO TO 17
730
                TOLBMA=ABS (BMM (II-1) *0.01)
731
                BMTOL=BMM (II) - BMM (II-1)
732
                IF (BMM(II).LE.0.0) GO TO 42
733
                   (BMTOL.GE. (0.5*TOLBMA)) GO TO 41
                IF
734
                IF (BMTOL.LE.-TOLBMA) GO TO 42
735
                GO TO 16
736
            17 PHINCR=0.001
737
                GO TO 41
738
            44 E4=0.001
739
                PHIH=PHIH-PHINCR
740
                PHINCR=PHINCR/5.0
741
                PHIH=PHIH+PHINCR
742
                PHI=PHIH/H
743
                EINCR=EINCR/2.0
744
                GO TO 32
745
            42 PHIH=PHIH-PHINCR
746
                PHINCR=PHINCR/5.0
747
            41 PHIH=PHIH+PHINCR
                PHI=PHIH/H
748
749
                II=II+1
750
                GO TO 14
751
            16 BM (J) = BMM (II-1)
752
               CONTINUE
753
                RETURN
754
                END
755
756
757
         C****
         С
        C*4
               ******
758
               SUBROUTINE FSTEEL (E4)
759
        C
760
            THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE THEORY FORCES IN THE STEEL
        С
761
        С
762
               COMMON N, EOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS
763
               COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU
764
               COMMON PHI, EO, J, Z, ECC, EY, PCONCC (20), ASC, EOH (40), PCONST (25)
765
               CONMON X (16000), EC (20), B (20), P (40), BMM (1000), BM (40), FCS (20)
766
               COMMON FST, E (20), NB, DS (20), ASB (20), FSS (20), SBM (20)
767
               FST=0.0
768
               DO 4 I=1,NB
769
               E(I) = E4-PHI*DS(I)
770
               IF (DS(I).GE.C) GO TO 5
IF (E(I).GT.EO) GO TO 6
771
772
               FCS (I) =FC* (2.0*E(I) /EO- (E(I) /EO) **2)
773
               GO TO 7
774
             6 FCS(I)=FC*(1.0-2*(E(I)-E0))
775
               IF (FCS(I).LE.0.0) FCS(I)=0.0
```

776	7 FSC=-FCS(I) *ASB(I)
777	GO TO 8
778	5 FSC=0.0
779	FCS (I) =0.0
780	8 E(I) = -E(I)
782	IF (E(I).GE.EY) GO TO 2
783	IF (E(I).LEEY) GO TO 1 GO TO 3
784	1 FSS (I) =FY*ASB (I)
785	GO TO 4
786	$2 \operatorname{PSS}(I) = - \operatorname{FY*ASB}(I)$
787	GO TO 4
788	3 $FSS(I) = -E(I) * ES * ASB(I)$
789	4 FST=FST+FSS(I)+FSC
790	RETURN
791 792	END
793	C*************************************
794	
795	C*************************************
796	SUPPOUTINE STAT (RM,STDV,COV,COS,COK,RMIN,FMAX,UM2,UM3,UM4,IMAX,IM 1IN,RMED,CLASS,CFREQ,NGROSS)
797	C
798	C THIS SUBROUTINE CALCULATES THE MEAN, COEFFICIENT OF
799	C TANIADINA CULERE OF SEPANDSS CONDUCTION OF
800	C REALOUIDIAND COROLATIVE FREQUENCY TABLE
801 802	C C
803	COMMON N, FOH1(13), PO, BMO, DCS, DTS
804	COMMON PC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS 11, B11, D11, S, C, ZZ, NRU COMMON PHT FO L Z FOR THE FORMER AND A STATEMENT OF THE
805	\mathcal{L}
806	\mathbf{v}
807	COMMON FST, E (20), NB, DS (20), ASB (20), FSS (20), SBM (20) DIMENSION CLASS (31), CFREQ (31)
808	DIMENSION Y (8002), DIF (16000), NGROSS (31)
809	SUM=0.0
810	DO 10 I=1,N
811	10 SUM=SUM+X (I)
812 813	RH=SUM/N
814	SUM=0.0
815	DO 20 I=1,N 20 SUK=SUM+(X(I)-RM)**2
816	0M2=SUM/N
817	STDV = SQRT (SUM/(N-1))
818	COV=STDV/RM
819	SUM=C.O
-820	DO 30 I=1,N
821 822	30 SUM=SUM+ (X (I) - RM) **3
823	0M3=SUA/N
824	COS=SUM/(N*(STDV**3))
825	SUM=0.0 Do 40 I=1,N
826	40 SUM=SUM+ (X (I) - RM) **4
827	UM4 = SUM/N
828	COK=SUM/(N* (STDV**4))
829	RMAX=X (1)
830	IMAX=1
831	DO 50 I=2,N
832 833	IF (RMAX.LT.X(I)) IMAX=I
834	50 RMAX=X (IMAX)
835	RMIN=X(1) IMIN=1

.

836		DO 60 I=2,N
837		IF (RMIN.GT.X(I)) IMIN=I
838	6 (O RMIN=X(IMIN)
839		CINT=0.05
840 841		CLASS (1) = 0.50
842	7/	DO 70 I=2,30
843		CLASS(I) = CLASS(I-1) + CINT
844		CLASS(31)=2.0 DO 90 II=1,31
845		NPOINT=0
846		DO 80 I=1,N
847	80) IF (CLASS(II).GT.X(I)) NPOINT=NPOINT+1
848		NGROSS(II) = NPOINT
849	90	CFREQ (II) = (100.0*NPOINT) /N
850		DO 100 I=1,31
851	100	CLASS (I) = CLASS (I) - 0.00001
852		Y (1) = R HIN
853		N 1=N/2+2
854		DO 66 II=2,N1
855		NPOINT=1
856 857		DIF(1) = X(1) - Y(II - 1)
858		DO 65 I=2,N
859		IP (X (I).EQ.0.0) GO TO 65
860		DIF(I) = X(I) - Y(II - 1)
861	65	IF (DIF(I).LT.DIF(NPOINT)) NPOINT=I CONTINUE
862	•5	Y(II) = X(NPOINT)
863		X (NPOINT) = 0. C
864	66	IF (NPOINT.EQ.1) X(NPOINT) =RMAX+1.0
865		$N1 \pm N1 - 1$
866		DO 67 $I=1, N1$
867	67	Y(I) = Y(I+1)
868		RMED = (Y (N 1-1) + Y (N 1)) / 2.0
869		RN = (N/2.0) - (N/2)
870 871		IF (RN.GT.0.1) RMED=Y (N1)
872		RETURN
873	C****	END
874	Ċ	**************************************
875		\$\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$#\$##########
877 .	c	****
878	č	PURPOSE
879	С	PERFORM A MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR A
880	с	DEPENDENT VASTABLE AND A CEM OF THEREPRESENT AND A SECOND
881	C	SUBROUTINE IS NORMALLY USED IN THE PERFORMANCE OF MULTIPLE
882	С	AND POLYNOMIAL REGRESSION ANALYSES.
883	Ċ	
884	С	USAGE
885	с	CALL HULTR (N,K,XBAR,STD,D,RX,RY,ISAVE,B,SB,T,ANS)
886	c	
887 888	C	DESCRIPTION OF PARAMETERS
889	с с	N - NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS.
890		K - NUMBER OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES IN THIS REGRESSION.
891	с с	ADAR - INPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH M CONTAINING MEANS OF ALL
892	c	VARIABLES. M IS NUMBER OF VARIARIES IN OBSERVATIONS
893	c	SID - INPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH M CONTAINING STANDARD DEVI-
894	c	ATIONS OF ALL VARIABLES.
895	č	- ANTOL IDOLOG OF LENGIN IN CONTAINING THE DIACONNE OF
896	č	THE MATRIX OF SUMS OF CROSS-PRODUCTS OF DEVIATIONS
	-	PROM MEANS FOR ALL VARIABLES.

. .

897	с	RX - INPUT MATELY (K Y K) CONTINUE THE ANDROP OF
898	č	
899	c	INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG INDEPENDENT VAFIABLES.
900	С	
901	С	TIONS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES WITH DEFENDENT VARIABLE.
902	Ċ	ISIVE - INDIA VECTOR OF IRVERY FIL COMPLETION
903	С	ISAVE - INPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH K+1 CONTAINING SUBSCRIPTS OF
904	C	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES IN ASCENDING ORDER. THE
905	C	SUBSCRIPT OF THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE IS STORED IN THE LAST, K+1, POSITION.
906	С	B = OUTPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH K CONTRIBUTION
907	Ċ	B - OUTPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH K CONTAINING REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS.
908	Ċ	SB - OUTPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH K CONTAINING STANDARD
909	С	DEVICT TECTOR OF DESTRICT & CONTAINING STANDARD
910	Ċ	DEVIATIONS OF REGRESSION COEPFICIENTS. T - OUTPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH & CONMINING THE
911	с	
912	С	ANS - OUTPUT VECTOR OF LENGTH 10 CONTAINING THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION
913	с	ANS(1) INTERCEPT
914	Ċ	
915	C	
916	Ċ	
917	c	ANS (4) SUM OF SQUARES ATTRIBUTABLE TO REGRES- SION (SSAR)
918	Ċ	
919	Ċ	I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I
920	Ċ	
921	c	ANS(7) SUM OF SQUARES OF DEVIATIONS FROM REGRES- SION (SSDR)
922	С	
923	Ċ	ANS(8) DEGREES OF FREEDOM ASSOCIATED WITH SSDR ANS(9) MEAN SQUARE OF SSDR
924	С	ANS(10) F-VALUE
926	С	REMARKS
927	C	N MUST BE GREATER THAN K+1.
928	C	a sol 22 Charlan Than RVI.
929	С	SUBROUTIMES AND FUNCTION SUBPROGRAMS REQUIRED
930	Ç	NONE
931	C	
932	С	METHOD
933	С	THE GAUSS-JORDAN METHOD IS USED IN THE SOLUTION OF THE
934	C	NURBAL EQUATIONS. REFER TO W. W. CONTRY AND D. D. LOUNDO
935	· C	"NULTIVARIATE PROCEDURES FOR THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES.
936	С	JOHN WILEY AND SONS, 1962, CHAPTER 3, AND B. OSTLE,
937	С	STATISTICS IN RESEARCH', THE IOWA STATE COLLEGE PRESS,
938	С	1954, CHAPTER 8.
939	С	
940	С	•••••••••
941	С	
941.1		SUBROUTINE THULTR (NPN, K, XBAR, STD, D, PX, RY, ISAVE, BBB, SB, T, ANS)
942		
943		COMMON FC, FY, ES, BB, H, DC, DD, AS, AS11, B11, D11, S, C, 77, NEU
944		COMMON PHILEO, J. Z. ECC. EY. FCONCC (20) ASC. FOH (10) FCONST (25)
945		$CONDUM A (10000) EC (20) B (20) P (40) BMM (1000) BM(\mu0) FC (20)$
946		CONDON IST, E (20), N5, DS (20), ASB (20), FSS (20), SBM (20)
947		DIERNSION XBAR (11), STD (11), D(11), RX (400), RY (10)
948	~	DIMENSION ISAVE (11), BBB (10), SB (10), T(10), ANS (10)
950	c	•••••••••••••••
951	C	
952	C	IF A DOUBLE PRECISION VERSION OF THIS ROUTINE IS DESIRED, THE
953 954	C	C IN COLUMN I SHOULD BE REMOVED FROM THE DOUBLE PRECISION
954 955	C	STATEMENT WHICH FOLLOWS.
955 956	C	
950 957	c	DOUBLE PRECISION XEAR, STD, D, RX, RY, B, SB, T, ANS, RM, BO, SSAR, SSDR, SY,
331	С	1 FN, PK, SSARM, SSDRM, F

958 С 959 С THE C MUST ALSO BE REMOVED FROM DOUBLE PRECISION STATEMENTS 960 С APPFARING IN OTHER ROUTINES USED IN CONJUNCTION WITH THIS 961 С ROUTINE. 962 С 963 С THE DOUBLE PRECISION VERSION OF THIS SUBFOUTINE MUST ALSO CONTAIN DOUBLE PRECISION FORTRAN FUNCTIONS. SORT AND ABS IN STATEMENTS 122, 125, AND 135 MUST BE CHANGED TO DSORT AND DABS. 964 С 965 С 967 С 968 Ċ 969 MM=K+1 971 С BETA WEIGHTS 972 С DO 100 J=1,K 100 BBB(J)=0.0 973 974 975 DO 110 J=1,K 976 L1=K* (J-1) 977 DO 110 I=1.K 978 L=1.1+1 979 110 BBE (J) = BBB (J) + RY (I) * RX (L) 980 RM=0.0 961 BO=0.0 982 L1=ISAVE (MM) 983 С 984 C COEFFICIENT OF DETERMINATION 985 С 986 DO 120 I=1,K 987 RM=RM+BBB(I) *RY(I) 988 С 989 С **REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS** 990 C 991 L=ISAVE(I) 992 BBB (I) = BBB (I) * (STD (L1) / STD (L)) . 993 С 994 C INTERCEPT 995 С 996 120 BC=BO+BBB (I) *XBAR (L) 997 BO=XBAR (L1) - BO 998 С 999 SUM OF SQUARES ATTRIBUTABLE TO REGRESSION ¢ 1000 С 1001 SSAR=RM*D(L1) 1002 С 1003 С MULTIPLE COPRELATION COEFFICIENT 1004 С 1005 122 RM= SQRT (ABS (RM)) 1006 С 1007 SUM OF SQUARES OF DEVIATIONS FROM REGRESSION С 1008 С 1009 SSDR=D(L1)-SSAR 1010 IF (SSDR.EQ.0.0) SSDR=0.1 1011 С 1012 С VARIANCE OF ESTIMATE 1013 С 1014 FN=NPN-K-11015 SY=SSDR/FN 1016 С 1017 STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS С 1018 С 1019 DO 130 J=1,K

1020			L1=K* (J-1) +J
1021			L=ISAVE (J)
1022		125	SB(J) = SQRT(ABS((RX(L1)/D(L))*SY))
1023	С		55(6) = 50x1(x55((xx(L1)/D(L))*S1))
1024	č		CONPUTED T-VALUES
1025	č		CONTOIED 1-VALUES
1026	÷	130	W/11 - P. P. C. T. C. C. T.
1028	с	150	T(J) = BBB(J) / SB(J)
1030		125	STANDARD ERROR OF ESTIMATE
1032	с	155	SY= SQRT (ABS (SY))
1034	C		F VALUE FK=K
1035			
1036			SSARM=SSAR/FK
1037			SSDRM=SSDR/FN
1039			P=SSARM/SSDRM
1040			ANS(1) = BO
1041			ANS(2) = RM
1042			ANS(3) = SY
			ANS(4) = SSAR
1043			ANS(5) = FK
1044			ANS (6) =SSARM
1045			ANS (7) =SSDR
1046			ANS (8) =FN
1047			ANS (9) = SSDRM
1048			ANS (10) =F
1049			RETURN
1050			END
END OF FILE	5		
\$SIGNOFF			

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APPENDIX E

•	DATA INPUT FOR THE MONTE CARLO PROGRAM	
Note:	All units are in inches and pounds.	
Card	Columns Data Description	Format
1	1- 5 Number of Variables (NV)	I5
· .	6-10 Number of Simulations (NS)	I5
	11-19 Limiting Steel Strength (FY1)	F9.2
Note:	The limiting steel strength is a maximum	value of
	steel strength which could reasonably be	expected.
	This is required so that extremely high w	values of

calculations.

2	1-15	Mean Concrete Strength (RMEAN1)	F15.5
	15-30	Mean Steel Strength (RMEAN2)	F15.5
	31-40	Initial Seed (IY)	I 10
	41-50	Number of Run (NRU)	I10

steel strength are not used for the theoretical

Note: The initial seed is any integer. This number is required to initiate the random number generating subroutine. The number of run is any identifying number for the specific run.

3	1- 5	Width of Column (BB)	F5.2
	6-10	Depth of Column (H)	F5.2
	11-15	Distance From the Compression Face to	
		Longitudinal Steel Closest to the	
		Tension Face (DD)	F5.2
	16- 20	Distance From Compression Face to	
		Nearest Longitudinal Steel (DC)	F5.2

DATA INPUT CONTINUED

1

Card	Columns	Data Description	Format
	2 1- 25	Total Longitudinal Steel Area (AS)	F5.2
	26-30	Longitudinal Compression Steel Area	
•		(ASC)	F5.2
4	1-10	Concrete Design Strength (FC)	F10.0
·	11-20	Steel Yield Strength (FY)	F10.0
	21-30	Steel Modulus of Elasticity (ES)	F10.0
5	1- 5	Depth From Compression Face to the	
		Centroid of Compression Steel (DCS)	F5.2
•	6-10	Depth From Compression Face to the	
		Centroid of Tension Steel (DTS)	F5.2
	11 - 15	Spacing of Steel Ties (S)	F5.2
	16-20	Width of Ties (B11)	F5.2
	2 1- 25	Depth of Ties (D11)	F5.2
	26-30	Area of Steel Tie (AS11)	F5.2
6	1- 3	Number of Longitudinal Bars (NB)	I3
7	1- 5	Area of Individual Steel Bars (ASB(I))	F5.2
	6-11	Distance From Compression Face to the	
		Individual Steel Bars (DS(I))	F5.2
Note:	This car	d is repeated for each longitudinal bar	•
8	1-15	Variable Mean Value (RMEAN(I))	F15.5
T4 Va	riable Sta	andard Deviation (STDV(I))	F15.5
	31-45	Variable Constant (FCONST(I))	F15.5
	46-50	Variable Distribution Type (ITYPE(I))	15

Note: This card is repeated for each variable. In this

DATA INPUT CONTINUED

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Card	Columns	Data Description	Format
	program	the order of variables is as follows:	
		Concrete Strength	
		Steel Strength	· .
		Cross Section Width	
	· ·	Cross Section Depth	
		Core Width	
		Core Depth	
		Distance From Compression Face to Nea	rest
		Longitudinal Steel	
		Distance From Compression Face to the	
		Longitudinal Steel Furthest From the	
		Compression Face	
	•	Distance From the Compression Face to	· ·
		Each Longitudinal Bar	

APPENDIX F

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NOMENCLATURE

A"S	Cross sectional area of tie steel, one side of
	column
р.	Width of column core
ca	Actual cover of exterior steel layers
c _{sp}	Specified cover of exterior steel layers
đ#	Depth of column core
D	Dead load
e/h	Eccentricity of axial load divided by the column
	dimension perpendicular to the neutral axis
en	Error in placement of interior steel layers
^E c	Modulus of elasticity of concrete in compression
Ect	Modulus of elasticity of concrete in tension
Es	Modulus of elasticity of steel
f _c	Concrete stress
f'c	Concrete design strength
₫ _C	Mean in-situ concrete strength
fcr	Average concrete cylinder strength
h	Depth of cross section
L	Live load
M(R-S)	Mean value of (R-S)
PACI	ACI calculated axial load
Ptheory	Axial load calculated from Subroutine theory
Ptest	Axial load from Hognestad's tests
R	Nominal resistance or strength
S	Spacing of ties

NOMENCLATURE CONTINUED

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V _R	Coefficient of variation of Y_R
a	Separation function, 0.75
ß	Safety index
Υ _D	Dead load factor
۲ _L	Live load factor
ε c	Concrete strain
[£] 50h	Increase in strain at 50% of maximum stress due to
	confinement of concrete by tie steel
е О	Concrete strain at maximum stress
εt	Concrete tensile strain
εtr	Concrete strain at rupture in tension
ະ ບ	Crushing strain of unconfined concrete
^e 5ou	Concrete strain at 50% of maximum stress of
	unconfined concrete
ρ	Steel percentage
P ^{II}	Tie steel volumetric ratio
σ	Standard deviation
σ (R-S)	Standard deviation of (R-S)
σ _t	Stress in tension
^d tr	Rupture strength of concrete
φ .	Understrength factor