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Structural Motion Engineering

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Preface

Conventional structural design procedures are generally based on two requirements, namely safety and serviceability. Safety relates to extreme loadings, which have a very low probability of occurring, on the order of 2 %, during a structure's life, and is concerned with the collapse of the structure, major damage to the structure and its contents, and loss of life. Serviceability pertains to medium to large loadings, which may occur during the structure's lifetime. For service loadings, the structure should remain operational (i.e., the structure should suffer minimal damage and, furthermore, the motion experienced by the structure should not exceed specified comfort limits for humans and motion-sensitive equipment mounted on the structure). Typical occurrence probabilities for service loads range from 10 to 50 %.

Safety concerns are satisfied by requiring the resistance (i.e., strength) of the individual structural elements to be greater than the demand associated with the extreme loading. Once the structure is proportioned, the stiffness properties are derived and used to check the various serviceability constraints such as elastic behavior. Iteration is usually necessary for convergence to an acceptable structural design. This approach is referred to as strength-based design since the elements are proportioned initially according to strength requirements.

Applying a strength-based approach for preliminary design is appropriate when strength is the dominant design requirement. In the past, most structural design problems have fallen in this category. However, the following developments have occurred recently that have limited the effectiveness of the strength-based approach. First, the trend toward more flexible structures such as tall buildings and longer-span horizontal structures has resulted in more structural motion under service loading, thus shifting the emphasis from safety toward serviceability. Second, some of the new types of facilities such as space platforms and semiconductor manufacturing centers have more severe design constraints on motion than the typical civil structure. For example, in the case of micro-device manufacturing, the environment has to be essentially motion free. Third, recent advances in material science and engineering have resulted in significant increases in the strength of traditional civil engineering materials. However, the material stiffness has not increased at the same rate. The lag in material stiffness versus material strength has led to a problem with satisfying the requirements on the various motion parameters. Indeed, for very high-strength materials, the motion requirements control the design. Fourth, experience with recent earthquakes has shown that the cost of repairing the structural

and nonstructural damage due to the motion occurring during a seismic event is considerably greater than anticipated. This finding has resulted in more emphasis placed on limiting the structural response with various types of energy dissipation and absorption mechanisms.

Structural motion engineering is an alternate paradigm that addresses these issues. The approach takes as its primary objective the satisfaction of motion-related design requirements such as restrictions on displacement and acceleration and seeks the optimal deployment of material stiffness and motion control devices to achieve these design targets as well as satisfy the constraints on strength. Structural motion control is the enabling technology for motion engineering. This book presents a systematic treatment of the basic concepts and computational procedures for structural motion control. Numerous examples illustrating the application of motion control to a wide spectrum of buildings are included. Topics covered include optimal stiffness distributions for building-type structures, the role of damping in controlling motion, tuned mass dampers, base isolation systems, linear control, and nonlinear control. The targeted audience is practicing engineers and graduate students.

This work was motivated by the authors' interest in the design of structures for dynamic excitation and by members of the Structural Engineering Community who have been enthusiastic supporters of this design paradigm.

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Contents

1	Introduction	1
1.1	Source of Motion Problems	1
1.2	Structural Motion Engineering Methodology	3
1.3	Motion Versus Strength Issues: Static Loading	3
1.3.1	Building Type Structures	3
1.3.2	Bridge Type Structures	10
1.4	Motion-Induced Problems: Periodic Loading	12
1.4.1	Resonance-Related Problems	12
1.4.2	Response for Periodic Excitation	14
1.5	Motion Control Methodologies	21
1.5.1	Passive and Active Control	21
1.5.2	Desired Response	26
1.6	Scope of Text	26

Part I Passive Control

2	Optimal Stiffness Distribution: Static Loading	33
2.1	Introduction	33
2.2	Governing Equations: Transverse Bending of Planar Beams	34
2.2.1	Planar Deformation–Displacement Relations	34
2.2.2	Optimal Deformation and Displacement Profiles	35
2.2.3	Equilibrium Equations	37
2.2.4	Force–Deformation Relations	38
2.3	Stiffness Distribution for a Continuous Cantilever Beam Under Static Loading	43
2.4	Buildings Modeled as Shear Beams	48
2.4.1	Governing Equations for Buildings Modeled as Pseudo Shear Beams	48
2.4.2	Stiffness Distribution for a Discrete Shear Beam: Static Loading	52
2.5	Stiffness Distribution: Truss Under Static Loading	54
2.5.1	An Introductory Example	54
2.5.2	A General Procedure	62

3	Optimal Stiffness/Damping for Dynamic Loading	75
3.1	Introduction	75
3.2	Dynamic Response: MDOF	75
3.2.1	Modal Equations: MDOF System	76
3.2.2	General Solution: Convolution Integral	82
3.2.3	Periodic Excitation	83
3.2.4	Seismic Loading: Response Spectra	86
3.2.5	Selection of Modes	92
3.3	Stiffness Distribution for a Cantilever Beam: Dynamic Response	99
3.4	Stiffness Distribution for a Discrete Shear Beam: Dynamic Response	103
3.5	Stiffness Calibration: Fundamental Mode Response	105
3.5.1	Discrete Shear Beam	105
3.5.2	Continuous Beam	109
3.5.3	Periodic Excitation	113
3.5.4	Seismic Excitation	118
3.5.5	Construction of Spectral Displacement Response Spectra	119
3.5.6	Calibration Examples	127
3.6	Stiffness Modification for Seismic Excitation	131
3.6.1	Iterative Procedure	131
3.6.2	Multiple Mode Response	131
4	Optimal Passive Damping Distribution	141
4.1	Introduction	141
4.2	Viscous, Frictional, and Hysteretic Damping	146
4.2.1	Viscous Damping	146
4.2.2	Friction Damping	150
4.2.3	Hysteretic Damping	152
4.3	Viscoelastic Material Damping	156
4.4	Equivalent Viscous Damping	161
4.5	Damping Parameters: Discrete Shear Beam	168
4.5.1	Damping Systems	168
4.5.2	Rigid Structural Members: Linear Viscous Behavior	171
4.5.3	Rigid Structural Members: Linear Viscoelastic Behavior	173
4.5.4	Flexible Structural Members: Linear Viscoelastic Behavior	179
4.6	Damping Parameters: Truss Beam	183
4.6.1	Linear Viscous Behavior	184
4.6.2	Linear Viscoelastic Behavior	185
5	Tuned Mass Damper Systems	199
5.1	Introduction	199
5.2	An Introductory Example	200

5.3	Examples of Existing Tuned Mass Damper Systems	204
5.3.1	Translational Tuned Mass Dampers	204
5.3.2	Pendulum Tuned Mass Damper	208
5.4	Tuned Mass Damper Theory for SDOF Systems	214
5.4.1	Undamped Structure: Undamped TMD	214
5.4.2	Undamped Structure: Damped TMD	216
5.4.3	Damped Structure: Damped TMD	227
5.5	Case Studies: SDOF Systems	238
5.6	Tuned Mass Damper Theory for MDOF Systems	245
5.7	Tuned Liquid Column Dampers	260
5.7.1	Design Methodology for TLCD	269
6	Base Isolation Systems	279
6.1	Introduction	279
6.2	Isolation for SDOF Systems	280
6.2.1	SDOF Examples	280
6.2.2	Bearing Terminology	283
6.2.3	Modified SDOF Model	289
6.2.4	Periodic Excitation: Modified SDOF Model	290
6.2.5	Seismic Excitation: Modified SDOF Model	293
6.3	Design Issues for Structural Isolation Systems	296
6.3.1	Flexibility	296
6.3.2	Rigidity Under Low-Level Lateral Loads	297
6.3.3	Energy Dissipation/Absorption	300
6.3.4	Applicability of Base Isolation Systems	301
6.4	Modeling Strategies for Rubber Bearings	302
6.4.1	Modeling of a Natural Rubber Bearing	302
6.4.2	Modeling of a Lead Rubber Bearing	305
6.5	Examples of Existing Base Isolation Systems	308
6.5.1	USC University Hospital	308
6.5.2	Fire Department Command and Control Facility	308
6.5.3	Evans and Sutherland Manufacturing Facility	309
6.5.4	Salt Lake City Building	310
6.5.5	The Toushin 24 Ohmori Building	311
6.5.6	Bridgestone Toranamom Building	313
6.5.7	San Francisco City Hall	314
6.5.8	Long Beach V.A. Hospital	314
6.5.9	Mills-Peninsula Health Services New Hospital	314
6.5.10	Benicia-Martinez Bridge	316
6.5.11	The Cathedral of Christ the Light	316
6.6	Optimal Stiffness Distribution: Discrete Shear Beam	317
6.6.1	Scaled Stiffness Distribution	317
6.6.2	Stiffness Calibration for Seismic Isolation	322
6.7	Optimal Stiffness Distribution: Continuous Cantilever Beam	325
6.7.1	Stiffness Distribution: Undamped Response	325

6.7.2	Fundamental Mode Equilibrium Equation	332
6.7.3	Rigidity Calibration: Seismic Excitation	334

Part II Active and Semi-Active Control

7	Applications of Active Control	347
7.1	The Nature of Active and Semi-Active Control	347
7.1.1	Active Versus Passive Control	347
7.1.2	The Role of Feedback	350
7.1.3	Computational Requirements and Models for Active Control	351
7.1.4	An Introductory Example of Dynamic Feedback Control	352
7.2	Active and Semi-Active Device Technologies	358
7.2.1	Active Versus Semi-Active Devices	358
7.2.2	Force Application Schemes	359
7.2.3	Large-Scale Linear Actuators	363
7.2.4	Semi-Active Device Technologies	366
7.2.5	Smart Materials	376
7.2.6	Hybrid Systems	381
8	Structural Control Dynamics	387
8.1	Introduction	387
8.2	State-Space Formulation: Linear Time-Invariant SDOF Systems	387
8.2.1	Governing Equations	387
8.2.2	Free Vibration Uncontrolled Response	389
8.2.3	General Solution: Linear Time-Invariant Systems	391
8.2.4	Stability Criterion	393
8.2.5	Linear Negative Feedback	394
8.2.6	Effect of Time Delay on Feedback Control	396
8.2.7	Stability Analysis for Time Delay	399
8.3	Discrete Time Formulation: SDOF Systems	405
8.3.1	Governing Equation	405
8.3.2	Linear Negative Feedback Control	407
8.3.3	Stability Analysis for Time-Invariant Linear Feedback Control	407
8.4	State-Space Formulation for MDOF Systems	423
8.4.1	Notation and Governing Equations	423
8.4.2	Free Vibration Response: Time-Invariant Uncontrolled System	424
8.4.3	Orthogonality Properties of the State Eigenvectors	429
8.4.4	Determination of W and f_j	431
8.4.5	General Solution: Time-Invariant System	433
8.4.6	Modal State-Space Formulation: Uncoupled Damping ...	433

8.4.7	Modal State-Space Formulation: Arbitrary Damping.....	436
8.4.8	Stability Analysis: Discrete Modal Formulation	456
8.4.9	Controllability of a Particular Modal Response	474
8.4.10	Observability of a Particular Modal Response	477
9	Linear Control	483
9.1	Introduction.....	483
9.2	Optimal Linear Feedback: Time-Invariant SDOF Systems	483
9.2.1	Quadratic Performance Index	483
9.2.2	An Example: Linear Quadratic Regulator Control Algorithm	485
9.2.3	The Continuous Time Algebraic Riccati Equation.....	489
9.2.4	The Discrete Time Algebraic Riccati Equation	493
9.2.5	Finite Interval Discrete Time Algebraic Riccati Equation	502
9.2.6	Continuous Time Riccati Differential Equation.....	504
9.2.7	Variational Formulation of the Continuous Time Riccati Equation	505
9.3	LQR Control Algorithm: MDOF Time-Invariant Systems	514
9.3.1	Continuous Time Modal Formulation	514
9.3.2	Discrete Time Modal Formulation.....	516
9.3.3	Application Studies: LQR Control.....	518
10	Advanced Control Theory	545
10.1	Introduction	545
10.2	State Controllability	545
10.3	State Observability	547
10.4	State Observer	550
10.5	Input–Output Relations: H_2 and H_∞ Control	557
10.5.1	SDOF Input–Output Relations	557
10.5.2	Norm of Functions.....	561
10.5.3	Input–Output Relationships Revisited	562
10.5.4	MDOF Input–Output Relations	569
10.6	Introduction to Nonlinear Control	571
10.6.1	Lyapunov Stability Theory	572
10.6.2	Sliding Mode Control	575
10.7	Applications to Semi-Active and Hybrid Systems.....	581
10.7.1	Linear Controller for a Semi-Active TLCD	582
10.7.2	Variable Stiffness	586
10.7.3	Variable Fluids	594
	Bibliography	601
	Index	607

1.1 Source of Motion Problems

In general, a “designed” structure has to satisfy a set of requirements pertaining to *safety* and *serviceability*. Safety relates to extreme loadings that have a low probability of occurring during a structure’s life. The concerns here are the collapse of the structure, major damage to the structure and its contents, and loss of life. Serviceability pertains to moderate loadings that may occur several times during a structure’s lifetime. For service loadings, the structure should remain fully operational (i.e., the structure should suffer negligible damage and, furthermore, the motion experienced by the structure should not exceed specified *comfort limits* for humans and motion-sensitive equipment mounted on the structure). An example of a human comfort limit is the restriction on the acceleration; humans begin to feel uncomfortable when the acceleration reaches about 0.02 g. A comprehensive discussion of human comfort criteria is given by Bachmann and Ammann [9].

Safety concerns are satisfied by requiring the resistance (i.e., strength) of the individual structural elements to be greater than the demand associated with the extreme loading. The conventional structural design process proportions the structure based on strength requirements, establishes the corresponding stiffness properties, and then checks the various serviceability constraints such as elastic behavior. Iteration is usually necessary for convergence to an acceptable structural design. This approach is referred to as *strength-based design* since the elements are proportioned according to strength requirements.

Applying a strength-based approach for preliminary design is appropriate when strength is the dominant design requirement. In the past, most structural design problems have fallen in this category. However, a number of developments have occurred recently that have limited the effectiveness of the strength-based approach.

First, the trend toward more flexible structures such as tall buildings and longer span horizontal structures has resulted in more structural motion under service loading, thus shifting the emphasis from safety toward serviceability. For instance,

the wind-induced lateral deflection of the Empire State Building in New York City, one of the earliest tall buildings in the USA, is several inches, whereas the wind-induced lateral deflection of the former World Trade Center towers was several feet, an order of magnitude increase. This difference is due mainly to the increased height and slenderness of the former World Trade Center towers in comparison with the Empire State tower. Furthermore, satisfying the limitation on acceleration is a difficult design problem for tall, slender buildings.

Second, some of the new types of facilities such as space platforms and microstructure manufacturing centers have more severe design constraints on motion than the typical civil structure. In the case of micro-device manufacturing, the environment has to be essentially motion free. Space platforms used to support mirrors have to maintain a certain shape within a small tolerance in order for the mirror to properly function. The design strategy for *motion-sensitive structures* is to proportion the members based on the stiffness needed to satisfy the motion constraints, and then check if the strength requirements are satisfied.

Third, recent advances in material science and engineering have resulted in significant increases in the strength of traditional civil engineering materials such as steel and concrete, as well as a new generation of composite materials. Although the strength of structural steel has essentially doubled, its elastic modulus has remained constant. Also, there has been some percentage increase in the elastic modulus for concrete, but this improvement is still small in comparison to the increase in strength. The lag in material stiffness versus material strength has resulted in additional structural motion, shifting design constraints from strength to serviceability. Indeed, for very high strength materials, the serviceability requirements may dominate.

		Damage			
		Negligible	Minor	Moderate	Extreme
Earthquake Design Load	Small			Unacceptable Performance (for new constructions)	
	Medium				
	Large				
	Extreme				

Fig. 1.1 Performance-based design objective matrix for seismic excitation

Fourth, experience with recent earthquakes has shown that repairing the damages resulting from two motion-related effects, high floor acceleration and inelastic deformation, can be very expensive, often exceeding the initial cost of the structure. Therefore, the focus in Seismic Design is shifting toward dual objectives: preventing the loss of life; and minimizing the total cost of damage over the life of the structure.

The latter goal is associated with *performance-based design*. Figure 1.1 shows the objectives of this approach, which is rapidly gaining acceptance within the seismic design community.

1.2 Structural Motion Engineering Methodology

Structural motion engineering is an approach that is more effective for the motion-related design problems just described. This approach takes as its primary objective the satisfaction of motion requirements and views strength as a constraint, not as a primary requirement. Motion engineering employs structural motion control methods to deal with the broad range of issues associated with the motion of structural systems, such as the specification of motion requirements governed by human and equipment comfort and the use of energy storage, dissipation, and absorption devices to control the motion generated by design loadings. Structural motion control provides the conceptional framework for the design of structural systems where motion is the dominant design constraints. Generally, one seeks the optimal deployment of material and motion control mechanisms to achieve the design targets on motion as well as satisfy the constraints on strength.

In what follows, examples are presented that reinforce the need for an alternate paradigm having motion rather than strength as its primary focus. These examples deal with the issue of strength versus serviceability from a static perspective for building-type structures. The dynamic case is treated later in Chap. 2.

1.3 Motion Versus Strength Issues: Static Loading

1.3.1 Building Type Structures

Building configurations must simultaneously satisfy the requirements of site (location and geometry), building functionality (occupancy needs), appearance, and economics. These requirements significantly influence the choice of the structural system and the corresponding design loads. Buildings are subjected to two types of loadings: *gravity loads*, consisting of the actual weight of the structural system and the material, equipment, and people contained in the building; and *lateral loads*, consisting mainly of wind and earthquake loads. Both wind and earthquake loadings are dynamic in nature and produce significant amplification over their static counterpart. The relative importance of wind versus earthquake depends on the site location, building height, and structural makeup. For steel buildings, the transition from *earthquake dominant* to *wind dominant* loading for a seismically active region occurs when the building height reaches approximately 150 m. Concrete buildings, because of their larger mass, are controlled by earthquake loading up to at least a height of 250 m, since the additional gravity load increases the seismic forces.

In regions where the earthquake action is low (e.g., Chicago, Illinois), the transition occurs at a much lower height, and the design is governed primarily by wind loading.

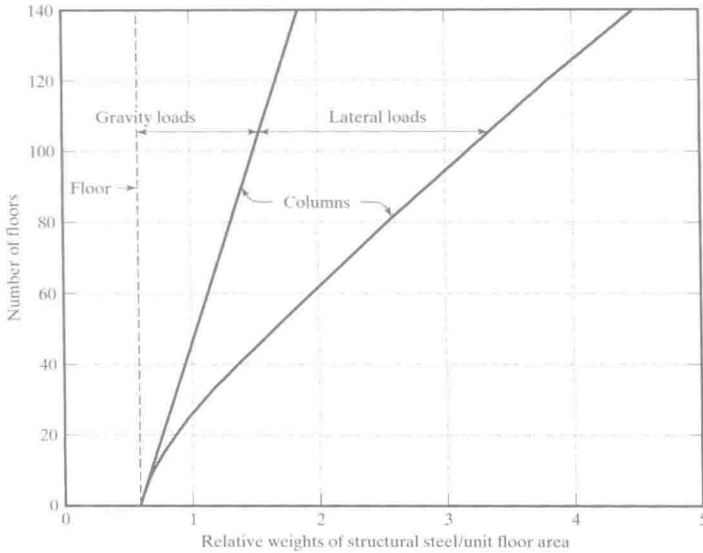


Fig. 1.2 Structural steel quantities for gravity and wind systems

When a low-rise building is designed for gravity loads, it is very likely that the underlying structure can carry most of the lateral loads. As the building height increases, the overturning moment and lateral deflection resulting from the lateral loads increase rapidly, requiring additional material over and above that needed for the gravity loads alone. Figure 1.2 illustrates how the unit weight of the structural steel required for the different loadings varies with the number of floors. There is a substantial structural weight cost associated with lateral loading for tall buildings [101].

To illustrate the dominance of motion over strength as the slenderness of the structure increases, the uniform cantilever beam shown in Fig. 1.3 is considered. A cantilever beam is a reasonable model for a rectangular building. The lateral load is taken as a concentrated force p applied to the tip of the beam and is assumed to be static. The limiting cases of a pure shear ($d/H \approx 1$) beam and a pure bending beam ($d/H \approx 0.1$) are examined.

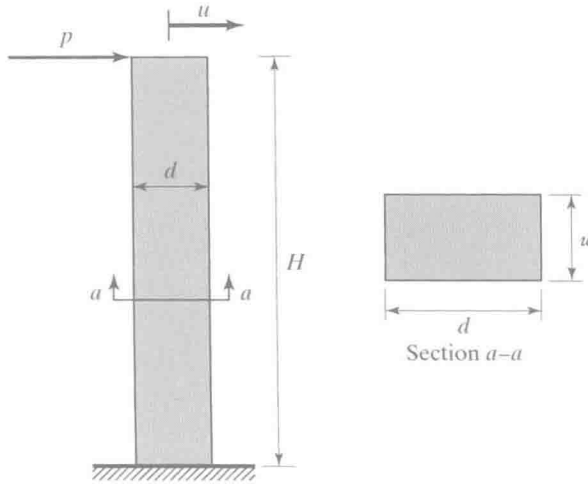


Fig. 1.3 Building modeled as a uniform cantilever beam

Example 1.1 (Cantilever Shear Beam). The shear stress τ is given by

$$\tau = \frac{p}{A_s} \quad (\text{E1.1.1})$$

where A_s is the cross-sectional area over which the shear stress can be considered to be constant. When the bending rigidity is very large, the displacement, u , at the tip of the beam is due mainly to shear deformation and can be estimated as

$$u = \frac{pH}{GA_s} \quad (\text{E1.1.2})$$

where G is the shear modulus and H is the height of the beam. This model is called a *shear beam*. The shear area needed to satisfy the strength requirement follows from Eq. (E1.1.1):

$$A_s|_{\text{strength}} \geq \frac{p}{\tau^*} \quad (\text{E1.1.3})$$

where τ^* is the allowable stress. Noting Eq. (E1.1.2), the shear area needed to satisfy the serviceability requirement on displacement is

$$A_s|_{\text{serviceability}} \geq \frac{p}{G} \cdot \frac{H}{u^*} \quad (\text{E1.1.4})$$

(continued)

(continued)

where u^* denotes the allowable displacement. The ratio of the area required to satisfy serviceability to the area required to satisfy strength provides an estimate of the relative importance of the motion design constraints versus the strength design constraints

$$r = \frac{A_s|_{\text{serviceability}}}{A_s|_{\text{strength}}} = \frac{\tau^*}{G} \cdot \frac{H}{u^*} \quad (\text{E1.1.5})$$

Figure E1.1a shows the variation of r with H/u^* . Increasing H/u^* places more emphasis on the motion constraint since it corresponds to a decrease in the allowable displacement, u^* . Furthermore, an increase in the allowable shear stress, τ^* , also increases the dominance of the displacement constraint.

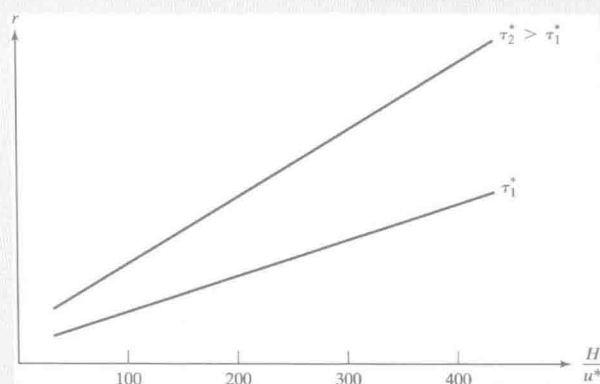


Fig. E1.1a Plot of r versus H/u^* for a pure shear beam

Example 1.2 (Cantilever Bending Beam). When the shear rigidity is very large, shear deformation is negligible, and the beam is called a “bending” beam. The maximum bending moment M in the structure occurs at the base and equals

$$M = pH \quad (\text{E1.2.1})$$

(continued)