

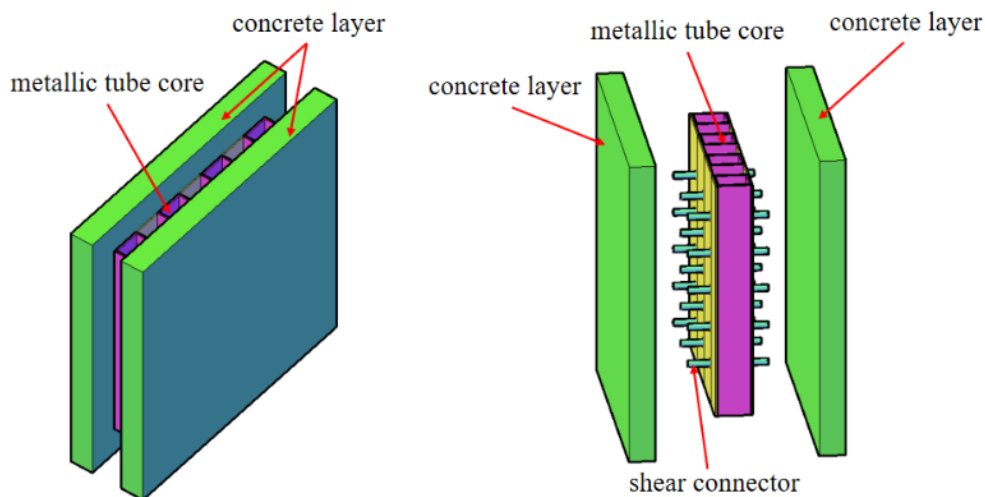
28 worldwide attention in the recent years. As a typical protective structure, a solid anti-
29 blast wall is generally designed to provide a reliable protection of the structures against
30 the blast loading. However, a majority of the solid anti-blast walls are endowed with
31 significant volume and mass to provide the blast resistance, which makes the fabrication
32 and installation challenging. Thus, it is vital to develop the novel anti-blast walls with
33 lightweight structure and superior strength.

34 A number of studies have been conducted to explore the anti-blast walls, such as the
35 concrete masonry [2], concrete [3], steel-sandstone-steel [4], reinforced soil [5],
36 temporary soil-filled [6] and wood-sand-wood [7] walls. Wang *et al.* [8] investigated
37 the dynamic response of the polymer-retrofitted masonry walls subjected to a contact
38 explosion. The authors reported that the polyurea layer effectively reduced the
39 fragmentation of the walls. Alsayed *et al.* [9] evaluated the performance of the glass
40 fiber-reinforced polymer strengthened infill unreinforced masonry walls against the
41 blast loading. It was reported that the walls provided a low to moderate level resistance
42 against the blast loading. Chen *et al.* [10] explored the blast mitigation mechanism of
43 the water barriers under blast loading. It was demonstrated that the water barriers
44 effectively provided an optimal blast wave mitigation effect. Hussein *et al.* [7]
45 performed the open-space explosion tests on the wood-sand-wood wall, which was
46 observed to effectively mitigate the blast wave energy. However, the solid anti-blast
47 walls have been generally designed to be either very heavy or bulky to minimize the
48 structural damage caused by the blast loading, thus, preventing their use in the urban
49 areas with the constrained living spaces.

50 On the other hand, the composite material retrofitting techniques have been employed
51 to enhance the blast resistance of the RC slabs [11-13]. The composite material
52 retrofitted RC slabs have been reported to demonstrate a superior blast resistance. In
53 addition, the steel-concrete composite slabs composed of the steel plates and concrete
54 have been widely employed for protecting the structures. A number of studies have
55 investigated the dynamic response of the steel-concrete composite slabs subject to the

56 impact/blast loading [14-16]. The slabs were reported to exhibit superior blast and
57 impact resistance as well as energy absorption capacity [15, 17, 18]. As compared to
58 the RC slabs, the steel-concrete composite slabs could be designed to be thinner, thus,
59 reducing the weight and volume of the protective members to a certain extent. Hence,
60 the steel-concrete composite structures exhibit the advantages of the lightweight
61 structure and superior blast resistance, which are more suitable for the urban areas.

62 In contrast with the steel-concrete composite structure, novel sandwich walls composed
63 of two concrete layers separated by a metallic tube core (MTC) have been reported in
64 this study (0). MTC consisted of two steel plates and metallic tubes connected by using
65 the epoxy resin adhesive and blind rivets. The MTC and concrete layer were connected
66 by using shear connectors. Conventional concrete is not considered in the present
67 composite design. Brittle nature of the conventional concrete leads to massive cratering
68 under severe blast loads in the contact detonation. The manufacturing of the
69 conventional concrete also consumes significant natural resources and generates high
70 carbon dioxide emissions [19]. New construction materials with low environmental
71 pollution and high mechanical properties are deemed necessary to enhance the blast-
72 resistant capacity of the engineering structures and protect the natural environment.



73

74

Fig. 1. Schematic of the sandwich wall

75 As the third-generation concrete [20], the geopolymer concrete (GPC) can reduce 40%-
76 60% carbon dioxide emission as compared to the Portland cement concrete [21]. A
77 number of studies have investigated the mix proportion and mechanical properties of
78 GPC [22-25]. It has been commonly reported that GPC possesses high mechanical
79 properties [26], good durability [27] and excellent fire resistance [28]. Therefore, GPC
80 was selected in this study to fabricate the proposed sandwich walls.

81 Similar to the conventional concrete, pristine GPC exhibits brittle characteristics under
82 the static and dynamic loads [29]. To improve the toughness of GPC, the fibrous
83 materials are usually incorporated in GPC [30, 31]. Meng *et al.* [32] studied the flexural
84 and compressive strength of the steel fibre reinforced GPC material. As compared with
85 the pristine GPC material, the flexural strength of the steel fibre reinforced GPC was
86 significantly improved from 4.24 MPa to 15.06 MPa, and the compressive strength was
87 also enhanced. Khan *et al.* [33] reported that 2% volumetric ratio of the steel fibres
88 could enhance the compressive strength of GPC by 18%. The steel wire mesh (SWM)
89 reinforcement also represents an effective approach to enhance the concrete ductility.
90 SWM has been reported to effectively mitigate the perforation and spalling of concrete
91 under blast loading [26]. Li *et al.* [34, 35] investigated the performance of the SWM
92 reinforced concrete slabs under blast loading. It was observed that the SWM
93 reinforcement effectively enhanced the blast resistance of the concrete slabs through
94 bridging effect and localized membrane effect. Therefore, SWM was incorporated in
95 GPC in this study to enhance its toughness as well as to further improve the blast
96 resistance of the structural members.

97 In this study, the blast resistance and failure modes of G-HPC sandwich walls with
98 MTC interlayer were analyzed against the contact explosions, and comparison was
99 made against a normal strength concrete slab. The spalling and crater areas of the
100 walls/slab were quantitatively analyzed and compared. The damaged sandwich walls
101 were cut to observe the deformation of the metallic tube core. The feasibility of utilizing
102 the literature reported analytical and empirical methods to predict the sandwich wall

103 damage under blast loading was also evaluated. The findings obtained in this study
104 provide a reference for the protective design of such type of walls under contact
105 explosions.

106 **2. Design of G-HPC sandwich walls**

107 The anti-blast concrete walls have been generally designed to be either heavy or bulky
108 to minimize the structural damage caused by the blast loading, thus, it has the
109 disadvantages of inconvenient construction and limited use area. In order to surmount
110 the disadvantages of the anti-blast concrete walls and improve its blast resistance, a
111 novel lightweight sandwich wall was designed. As illustrated in Fig. 2, the sandwich
112 wall composed of two SWM referenced G-HPC layers separated by a metallic tube core
113 (MTC). MTC consisted of two steel plates and metallic tubes connected by using the
114 epoxy resin adhesive and blind rivets. The MTC and concrete layer were connected by
115 using shear connectors. When subjected to contact explosion, an intense blast wave
116 directly impacted on the top G-HPC layer. The top G-HPC layer with high compressive
117 strength was designed to resist the intense blast wave and dissipate partial blast wave
118 energy. After that, the blast wave reached the MTC layer and further dissipate partial
119 blast wave energy owing to the large deformation of the MTC layer. At the same time,
120 numerous fragments generated by the top G-HPC layer were intercepted by the MTC
121 layer with high ductility and strength, thus, mitigating the damages to the occupants
122 and equipment owing to the high-speed fragments. The SWM reinforced G-HPC on the
123 bottom layer was designed to further absorb the blast wave energy, and utilizing the
124 SWM to mitigate the high-speed fragments. Meanwhile, the bottom G-HPC layer can
125 provide resistance for the deformation of MTC layer.

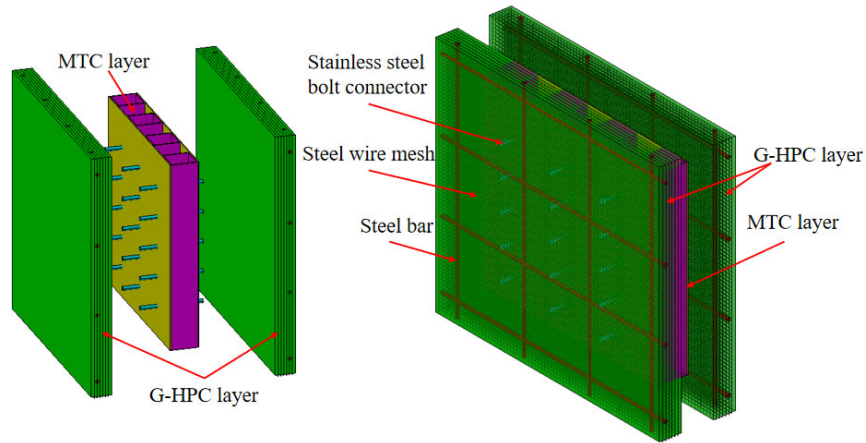


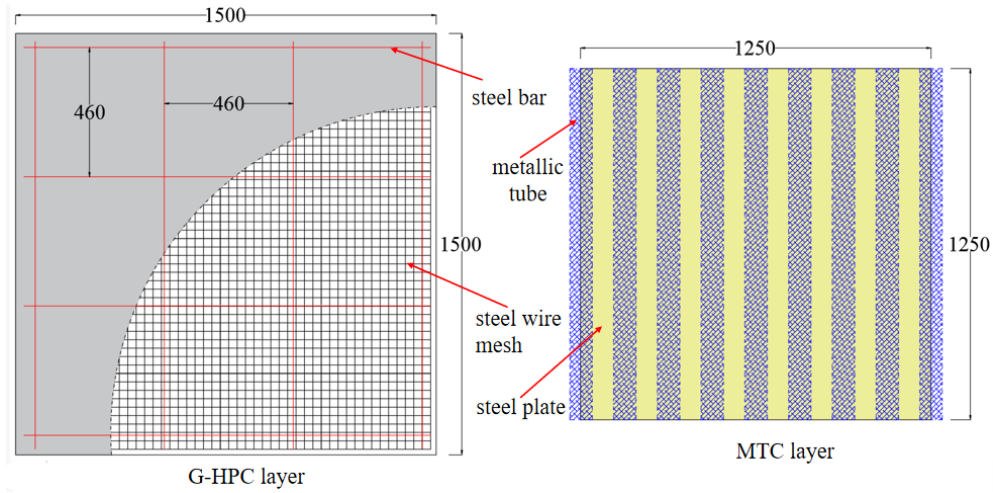
Fig. 2. 3-D view of the sandwich walls

126 Three G-HPC sandwich walls containing different MTCs (named as SPS-1, SPS-2 and
 127 SPSA-2, respectively) were prepared. The SPS-1 and SPS-2 walls were designed with
 128 the rectangular and circular steel tubes, respectively, whereas the SPSA-2 wall was
 129 designed with the circular aluminum alloy tubes. All sandwich walls were of cuboid
 130 shape with dimensions 1500 mm × 1500 mm × 200 mm. The details are shown in Fig.
 131 3.

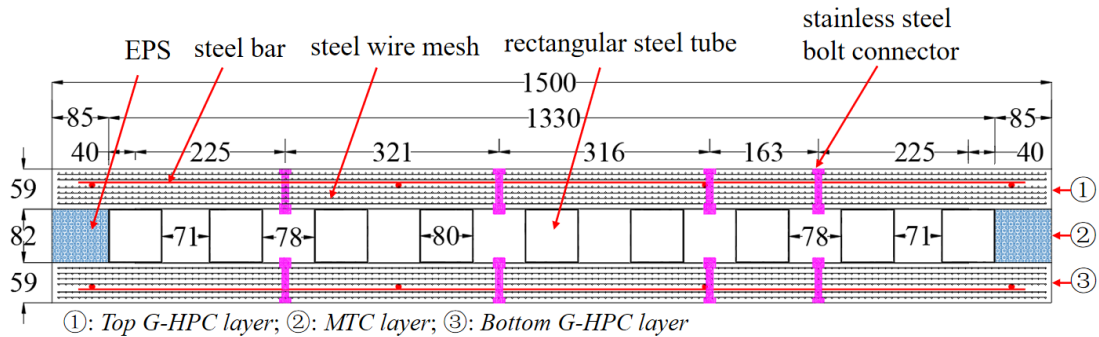
132 For the SWM reinforced G-HPC layers, the dimensions and construction of the SWM
 133 reinforced G-HPC layers of three sandwich walls are the same. The steel bars with 8
 134 mm diameter were placed 460 mm apart on the G-HPC layers. And six layers of SWM
 135 with dimensions 1400 mm × 1400 mm (length and width) were also reinforced in the
 136 G-HPC layers. The concrete cover of the steel bar of the G-HPC layers was 20 mm,
 137 and two layers of SWM were placed on the concrete cover. Correspondingly, the
 138 remaining four layers of SWM were evenly placed on the G-HPC.

139 For the MTC layer, MTC contained two steel plates, nine metallic tubes and thirty
 140 stainless-steel bolt connectors. The dimensions of steel plate were 1250 mm × 1250
 141 mm × 1 mm, whereas the metallic tubes had dimensions 1250 mm × 80 mm × 1.2 mm
 142 (length × outside diameter × thickness). The stainless-steel bolt connectors were fixed
 143 on the steel plates, retaining the integration between MTC and G-HPC layer.
 144 Subsequently, the bottom/top steel plate and nine metallic tubes were bonded together

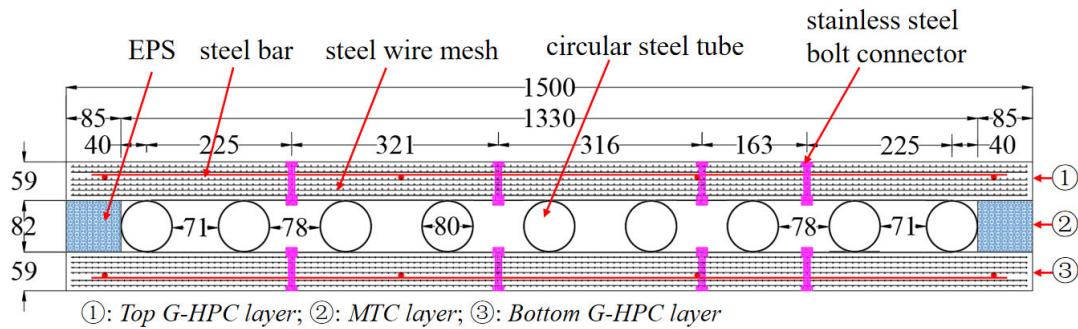
145 using the epoxy resin adhesive. The blind rivets with 3.2 mm diameter (GB/T 12618.1-
 146 2006) [39] were employed to further strengthen the connection between the steel plates
 147 and metallic tubes. Expanded polystyrene (EPS) was used around MTC to separate the
 148 top and bottom G-HPC layers, as the dimensions of MTC were smaller than the G-HPC
 149 layers.



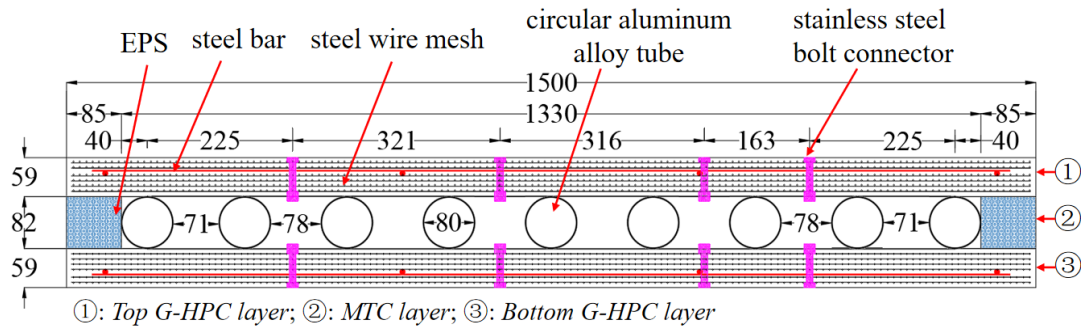
(a) The plan views of the sandwich walls



(b) The cross-section of the SPS-1 wall



(c) The cross-section of the SPS-2 wall



(d) The cross-section of the SPSA-2 wall

Fig. 3. The details of the sandwich walls (Unit: mm).

150 3. Experimental Setup

151 3.1 Test design

152 In order to investigate the blast resistance and failure modes of the G-HPC sandwich
153 walls with MTC interlayer against the contact explosions, three G-HPC sandwich
154 walls containing different MTCs was designed and fabricated. The SPS-1 and SPS-2 walls
155 were designed to explore the effect of steel tube shape on blast resistance of the
156 sandwich walls. Thus, the rectangular and circular steel tubes were employed for SPS-
157 1 and SPS-2 walls, respectively. To compare the influence of different metallic tubes
158 materials on the blast resistance of the sandwich walls, the SPSA-2 wall was designed
159 with the circular aluminum alloy tubes to compare the blast resistance with SPS-2 wall.
160 In addition, the RC slab was designed as a reference to illustrate the blast resistance of
161 the sandwich walls, which has the same dimensions (1500 mm × 1500 mm × 200 mm)
162 as the sandwich walls. The RC slab was reinforced in two major directions with 16 mm
163 rebar at a spacing of 200 mm (1.35% reinforcement ratio). The details of the RC slab
164 are shown in Fig. 4, and the test design is presented in Table 1.

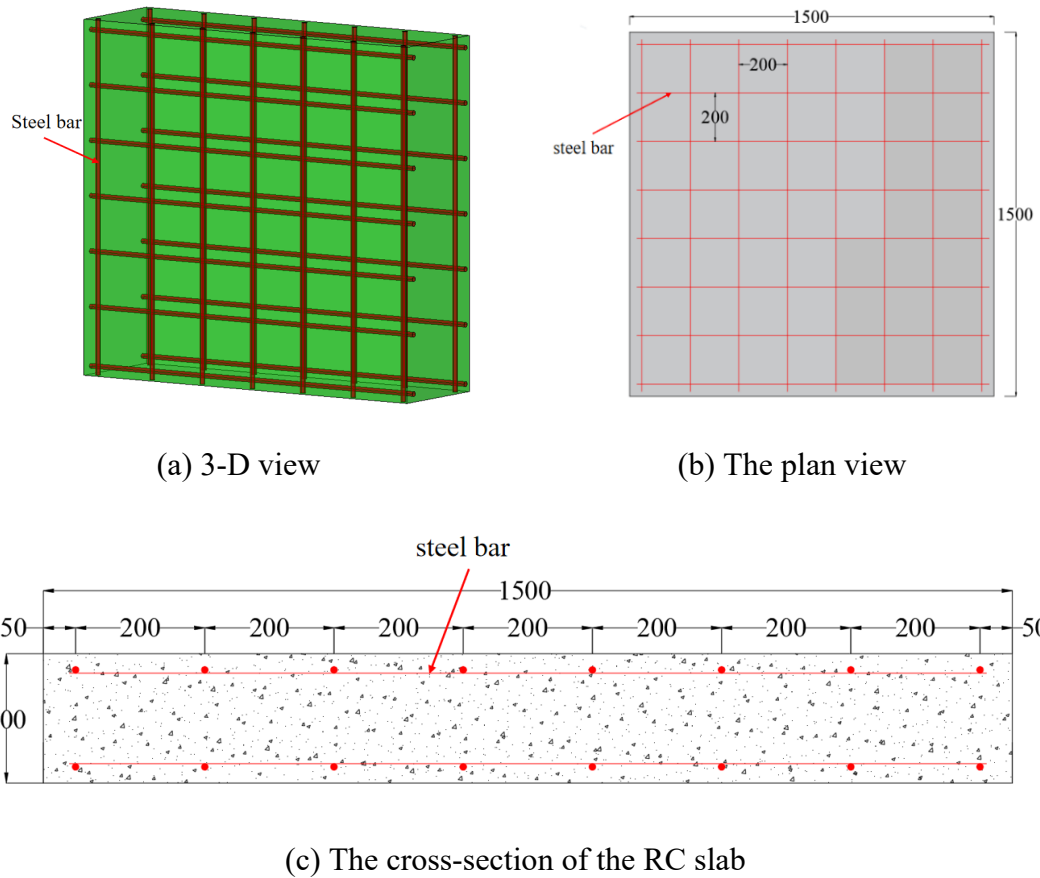


Fig. 4. The details of the RC slab (Unit: mm).

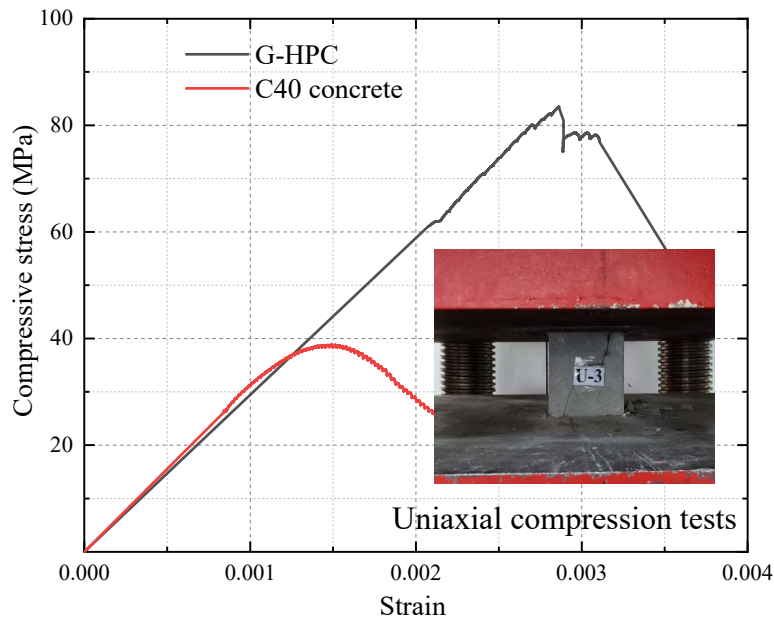
165 **Table 1** The test matrix

Slab	T_t (mm)	T_f (mm)	T_c (mm)	T_r (mm)	M_e (kg)
RC	200	NA	NA	NA	1.0
SPS-1	200	59	82	59	1.0
SPS-2	200	59	82	59	1.0
SPSA-2	200	59	82	59	1.0

166 *Note: T_t is the total thickness; T_f is the top G-HPC layer thickness; T_c is the MTC thickness; T_r is the
 167 bottom G-HPC layer thickness; and M_e is the TNT explosive charge.

168 **3.2 Materials**

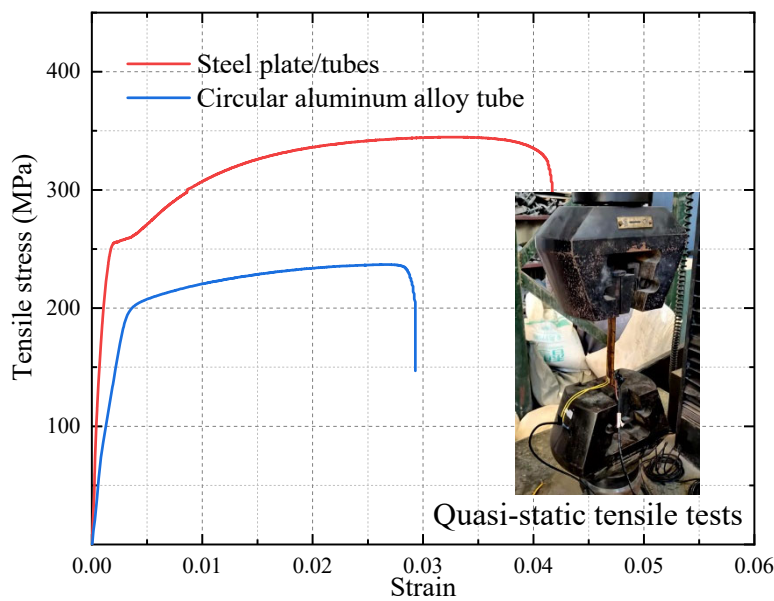
169 Three cubic G-HPC specimens with dimensions 100 mm × 100 mm × 100 mm and
170 three cubic C40 concrete specimens with dimensions 150 mm × 150 mm × 150 mm
171 were tested for uniaxial compression. The Chinese Standard GB/T 50081-2002 was
172 employed to test the mechanical properties of G-HPC and C40 specimens. The typical
173 stress-strain curves are shown in Fig. 5. The average compressive strength values of G-
174 HPC and C40 concrete were determined to be 83 MPa and 38 MPa, respectively.



175

176

Fig. 5. The stress-strain curves of G-HPC and C40 concrete



177

178

Fig. 6. The tensile stress-strain curves

179 HRB 400 steel bars with 8 mm and 16 mm diameters were utilized in this study. The
 180 diameter of SWM was 1 mm, and the mesh grid size was 10 mm × 10 mm. The steel
 181 plates and tubes of MTC were made of Q235B (GBT3091-2015) [36]. The circular
 182 aluminum alloy tubes comprised of 6063 T5 aluminum alloy (GB/T6892-2015) [37].
 183 The Chinese Standard GB/T228.1-2010 was employed to test the tensile stress of the
 184 metallic materials. Fig. 6 presents the tensile stress vs. strain curves of the metallic
 185 materials. The M10 stainless-steel bolt connectors (GB/T 3098.6-2014) [38] in MTC
 186 had a 10 mm diameter and were made of 304 steel. The properties of the metallic
 187 materials are presented in Table 2.

188 **Table 2** The properties of the metallic materials

Parameters	Grade	ρ (kg/m ³)	E (MPa)	f_y (MPa)	f_t (MPa)
Steel bar	HRB 400	7800	2.08×10^5	428.3	615.8
Steel plate/tubes	Q235	7800	2.05×10^5	255	344
Circular aluminum alloy tube	6063 T5	2700	6.90×10^4	193	236
SWM	--	7800	2.05×10^5	600	1200
Stainless-steel bolt connectors	304	7900	1.99×10^5	310	740

189 **Note: ρ is the density; E is the elastic modulus; f_y is the yield strength; and f_t is tensile*
 190 *strength.*

191 3.3 Specimen preparation

192 Fig. 7 shows the fabrication process of the RC slab, which included: (1) binding
 193 reinforcement with steel wires; (2) placement of the reinforcement; (3) casting the

194 concrete; (4) curing the slab with the cover of coatings at a constant ambient
195 temperature of 20 ± 5 °C for seven days.

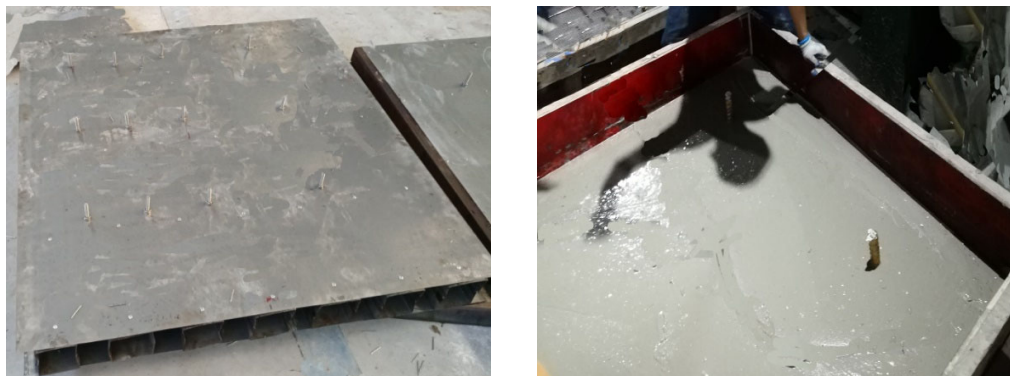


(a) Fabrication of reinforcement

(b) Casting the concrete

Fig. 7. The fabrication of the RC slab

196 The fabrication process of the SPS-1, SPS-2 and SPSA-2 walls was identical ([Fig. 8](#)),
197 which included: (1) fabrication of MTC; (2) casting of the bottom G-HPC layers
198 reinforced with six tiers of SWM and one-layer steel bar to attain a thickness of 59 mm
199 (predicted); (3) placement of the metallic steel tube core; and (4) repeating (2) to
200 fabricate the top G-HPC layer; (5) curing the walls with the cover of coatings at a
201 constant ambient temperature of 25 ± 5 °C for 24 h, then steam curing at a high
202 temperature of 90 ± 5 °C for 48 h.



(a) Fabrication of MTC

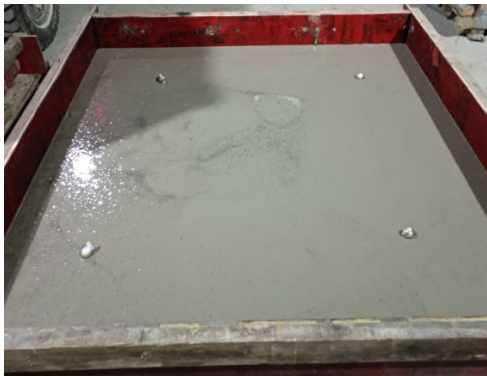
(b) Casting the bottom G-HPC layer



(c) Installation of EPS



(d) Installation of SWM and steel bar



(e) Casting the top G-HPC layer



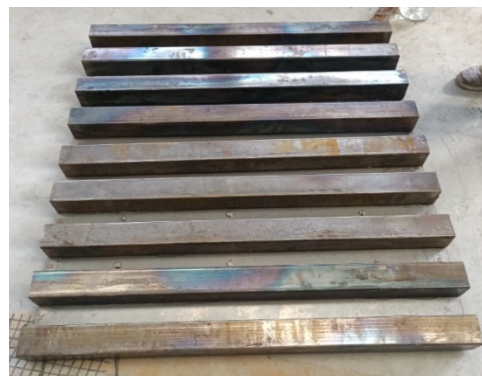
(f) Wall formation

Fig. 8. The fabrication of the sandwich walls

203 **Fig. 9** shows the fabrication process of MTC, which included: (1) fixing the stainless-
 204 steel bolt connectors on the steel plates; (2) gluing the metallic tubes on the steel plates;
 205 and (3) strengthening MTC with blind rivets.



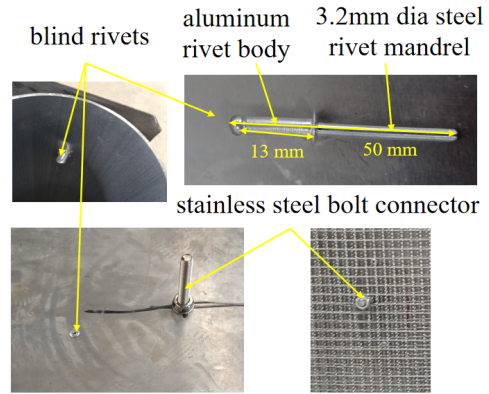
(a) Fixing the stainless-steel bolt connectors



(b) Gluing the metallic tubes



(c) Forming MTC



(d) The details of the blind rivets

Fig. 9. The fabrication of MTC

206 **3.4 Test setup**

207 **Fig. 10** presents the setup of the contact explosive tests. Four prismatic concrete piers
 208 of the same height were stamped on the ground. A square steel frame with a side length
 209 of 1500 mm was welded on the top of the concrete piers to provide a simple support to
 210 the slab. 1 kg TNT explosive (consisting of five 100 mm × 50 mm × 25 mm rectangular
 211 charges each with a mass of 0.2 kg TNT) was detonated at the center of the top surface
 212 of the wall. An electric detonator was inserted in the top rectangular charge to detonate
 213 the explosive.



214

215

Fig. 10. Test setup

216 4. Results

217 4.1 Summary of the Results

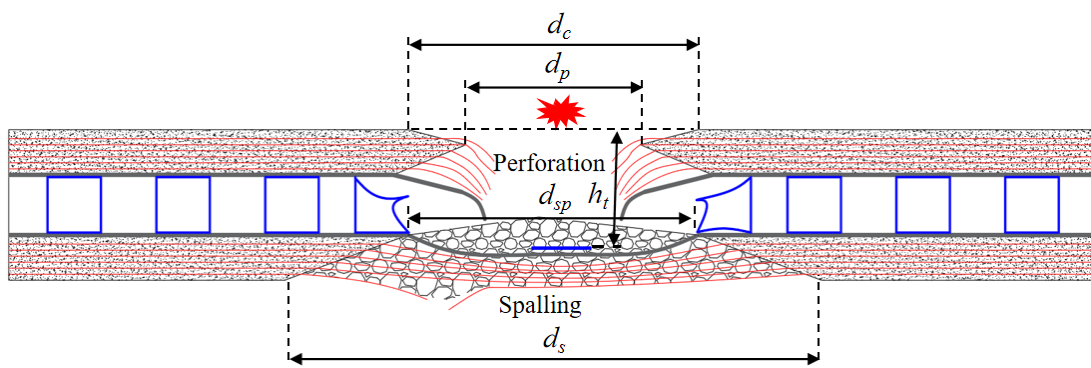
218 The damage to the concrete slabs under contact explosions is typically classified into
219 three categories: crater, spalling and breach. As reported by Dua *et al.* [40], the breach
220 failure further includes the perforation and punching failure modes. In this study, the
221 perforation failure was further divided into three categories: perforation-spalling,
222 perforation-critical and complete perforation (Fig. 11).

223 Fig. 11 (a) and (b) present the perforation-spalling mode where the top G-HPC layer
224 presented a perforation, whereas a spalling failure was observed on the bottom G-HPC
225 layer. Numerous G-HPC fragments were trapped by SWMs on the bottom G-HPC layer.
226 Moreover, Fig. 11 (a) presents the MTC structure with a rectangular steel tube, whereas
227 Fig. 11 (b) presents the MTC structure with a circular steel tube. Fig. 11 (c) shows the
228 perforation-critical mode where a perforation was developed in the top G-HPC layer,
229 with a critical perforation at the bottom G-HPC layer. The critical perforation observed
230 on the bottom G-HPC layer referred to the minor fracture appearing on the bottom steel
231 plate. In addition, SWMs were noted to be ruptured, and a number of fragments ejected
232 from the bottom G-HPC layer. Fig. 11 (d) presents the complete perforation mode
233 where an obvious hole was formed owing to the intersection of the crater and spalling.
234 Fig. 11 also presents the quantitative values of the measurement parameters, including
235 crater diameter and depth as well as perforation and spalling diameter. Here, “ d_c ” refers
236 to the crater diameter; “ d_p ” denotes the perforation diameter of the RC slab as well as
237 the perforation diameter of the top G-HPC layer for the sandwich walls; “ d_s ” represents
238 the spalling diameter; “ d_{sp} ” refers to the depressed deformation region diameter of the
239 bottom steel plate; and “ h_i ” denotes the depth from the top surface to the metallic tube
240 for the sandwich wall. “--” represented the missing data. The detailed test results are
241 presented in Table 3.

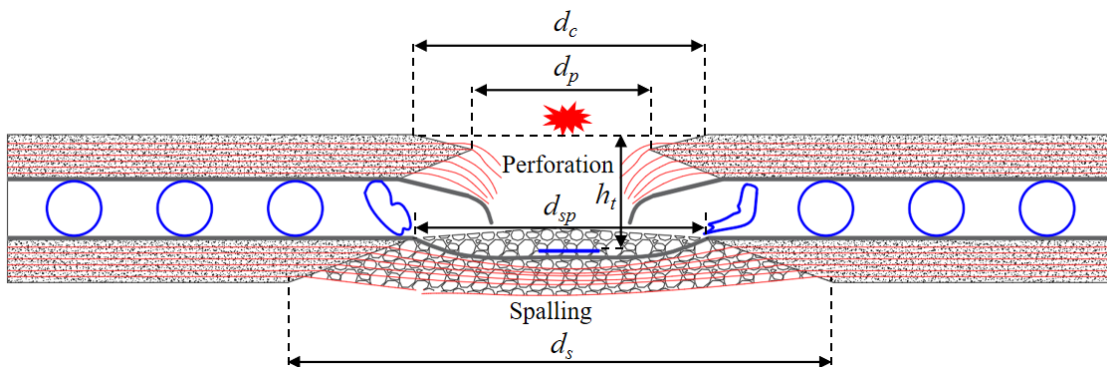
242 **Table 3** The experimental results

Specimen	d_c (mm)	d_p (mm)	d_s (mm)	d_{sp} (mm)	h_t (mm)	Failure mode
RC	551.5	255.0	745.0	0	0	Complete perforation
SPS-1	395.0	240.0	597.5	385.0	185	Perforation-spalling
SPS-2	431.5	300.0	608.0	400.0	170	Perforation-spalling
SPSA-2	406.5	305.0	572.5	380.0	--	Perforation-critical

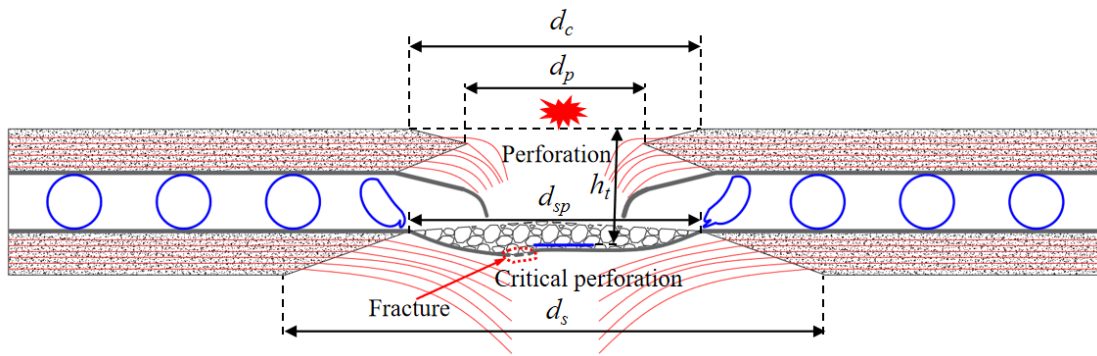
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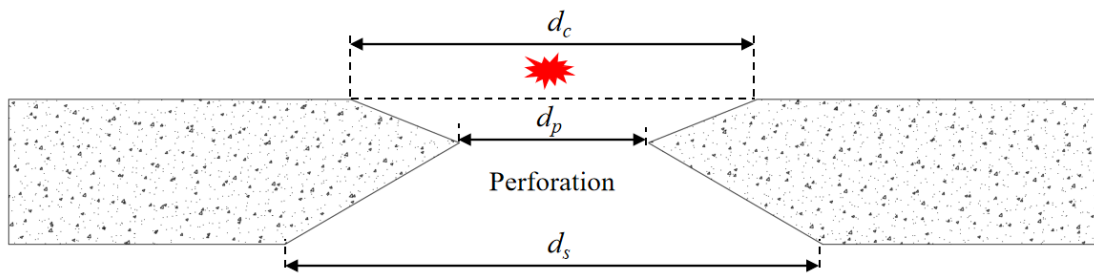
(a) The perforation-spalling mode of rectangular steel tube core



(b) The perforation-spalling mode of circular steel tube core



(c) The perforation-critical mode



(d) The complete perforation mode

Fig. 11. The failure modes

244 **4.2 Experimental observations**

245 **4.2.1 RC slab**

246 **Fig. 12** (a) and (b) present the typical perforation failure of the RC slab. The crater,
 247 perforation and spalling diameters were measured to be 551.5 mm, 255 mm and 745
 248 mm, respectively. Correspondingly, the depths of the crater and spalling were 50 mm
 249 and 150 mm, respectively. The central steel bars exhibited deformation, and minor
 250 vertical cracks were observed on the side surface (**Fig. 12** (c)).

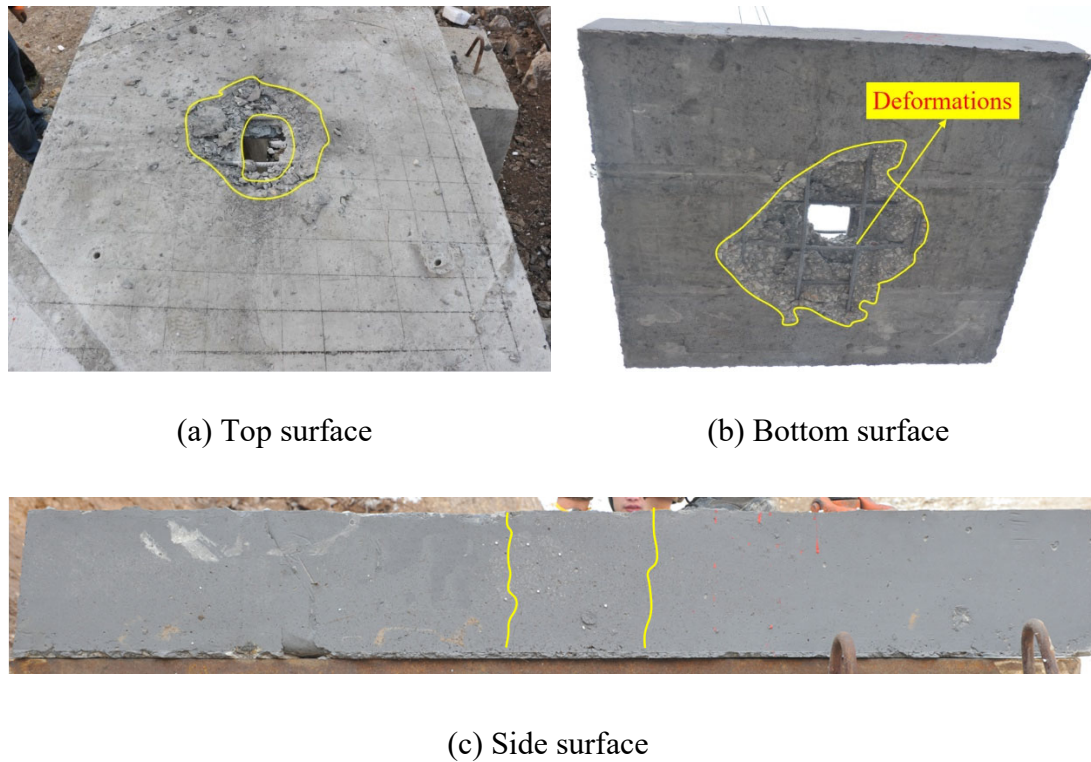


Fig. 12. The RC slab

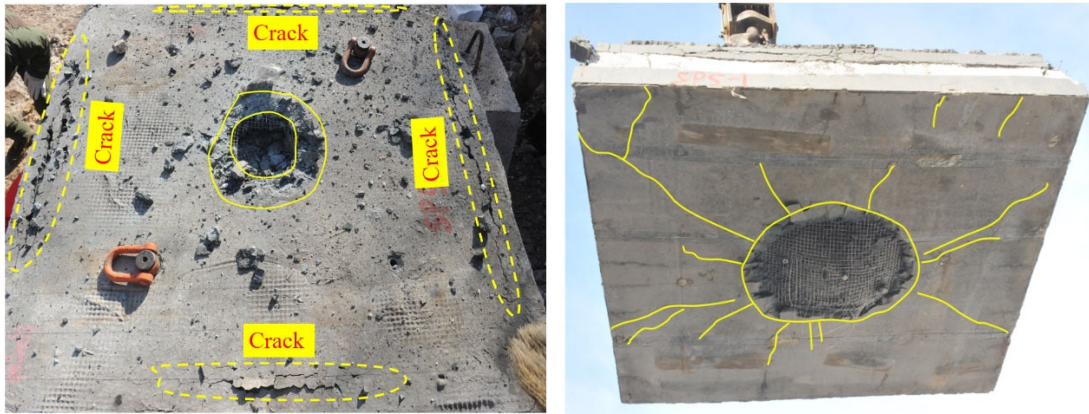
251 4.2.2 SPS-1 wall

252 Under 1.0 kg TNT (consisting of five 100 mm × 50 mm × 25 mm rectangular charges
 253 each with a mass of 0.2 kg TNT) contact explosion, an intense blast wave directly
 254 impacted on the top G-HPC layer of the SPS-1 wall, thus, the typical perforation failure
 255 was observed on the top G-HPC layer (Fig. 13 (a)). The crater and perforation diameter
 256 of the top G-HPC layer were determined to be 395 mm and 240 mm, respectively,
 257 whereas the corresponding depth from the top surface to the metallic tube was 185 mm.
 258 Furthermore, SWMs were noted to be ruptured and rolled inwards, with severe cracks
 259 observed along the edges of the top G-HPC layer. This may be owing to the following
 260 three reasons: (1) G-HPC near the edge of the top layer was not reinforced with SWMs
 261 (SWM dimensions were 1400 mm × 1400 mm), thus, reducing the ductility of G-HPC
 262 without SWMs reinforcement relative to the G-HPC layer. (2) The MTC layer (MTC
 263 dimensions were 1330 mm × 1330 mm) was enhanced the blast resistance of the top G-
 264 HPC layer than that without the MTC layer. (3) The blast waves propagating through
 265 the top G-HPC layer to the side surface and reflected as a tensile wave exceeded the

266 dynamic tensile strength of G-HPC, hence cracking the top G-HPC layer. In addition,
267 severe vertical cracks together with concrete spalling were observed on the side surface
268 (Fig. 13 (c)).

269 For the blast wave propagating through MTC, the high compressive stress wave tore
270 the top steel plate, along with flattening the fifth steel tube. Both fourth and sixth steel
271 tubes were observed to slip and baroclinic deformation, which was caused by the
272 diffusion of the blast waves. No obvious deformation was observed for the other steel
273 tubes. As the compression stress wave continued to propagate downwards, the bottom
274 steel plate and central G-HPC region on the bottom G-HPC layer produced large
275 deformations, thus, leading to the generation of cracks in the central G-HPC region.
276 The depressed deformation region diameter of the bottom steel plate was determined to
277 be 385 mm (Fig. 13 (d)). In addition, a number of fragments from the top G-HPC layer
278 were noted to be trapped through the bottom steel plate. From the middle cross-section
279 (Fig. 13 (d)), the top surface of the bottom G-HPC layer benefitted from the strength
280 and ductility of the bottom steel plate in resisting the blast wave, thus, preventing its
281 surface from being crushed.

282 Once the blast wave reached the bottom surface, it was reflected and subsequently
283 transformed into the tensile stress wave. After superposition of the reflected tensile and
284 compression stress waves, the spalling damage was observed on the bottom G-HPC
285 layer with a diameter of 597.5 mm, and the fragments of the concrete cover ejected
286 from the wall. The central area of the G-HPC layer was noted to be severely crumbed.
287 Numerous fragments were intercepted by SWMs, thus, mitigating the damages to the
288 occupants and surroundings owing to the high-speed fragments. Several steel wires of
289 the outermost SWM were also observed to be ruptured. In addition, the cracks on the
290 bottom surface were also observed owing to the large tensile stresses, as shown in Fig.
291 13 (b).

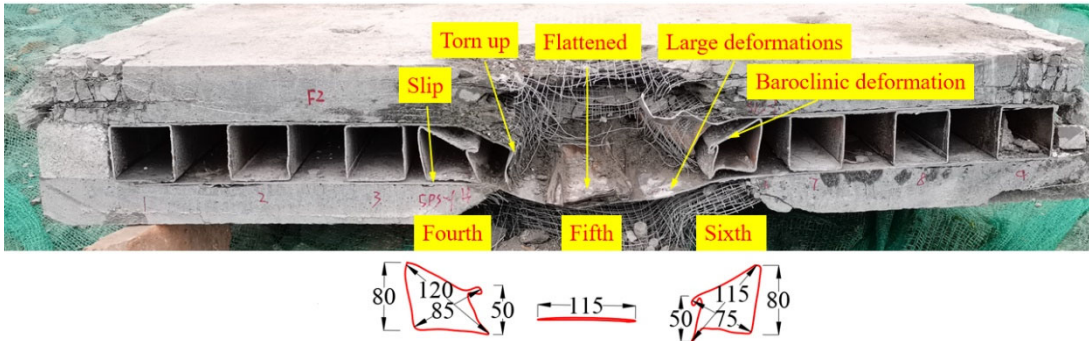


(a) Top surface

(b) Bottom surface



(c) Side surface



(d) Middle cross-section (mm)

Fig. 13. The SPS-1 wall

292 **4.2.3 SPS-2 wall**

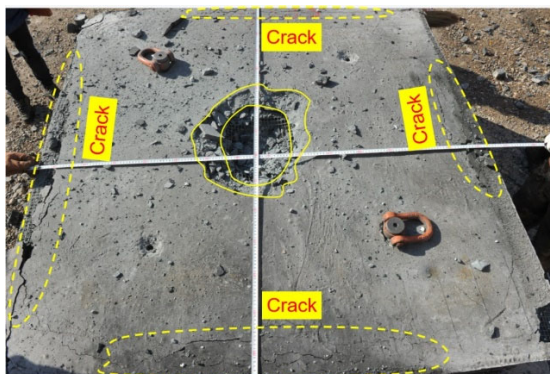
293 The failure mode of the top G-HPC layer of the SPS-2 wall was similar to that of the
 294 SPS-1 wall. The crater and perforation diameters in the top G-HPC layer were measured
 295 to be 431.5 mm and 300 mm, respectively. The depth from the top surface to the
 296 metallic tube was 170 mm (Fig. 14 (a)). A small number of vertical cracks were

297 observed on the side surface (Fig. 14 (c)), however, severe spalling was noted on the
298 bottom G-HPC layer (Fig. 14 (b)).

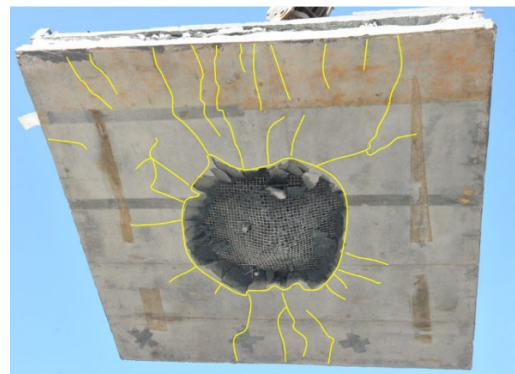
299 The top steel plate of MTC was torn, however, the bottom steel plate demonstrated a
300 large deformation without any tearing. The diameter of the depressed deformation
301 region in the bottom steel plate was determined to be 400 mm. Further, a large number
302 of fragments generated from the top G-HPC layer were prevented from ejection by the
303 bottom steel plate.

304 Under the blast loading, the fifth tube was observed to be completely compacted with
305 a width of 119 mm. The fourth and sixth tubes close to the detonation point experienced
306 large elliptical deformations, with slips observed on both tubes. The other tubes
307 exhibited no obvious deformation (Fig. 14 (d)).

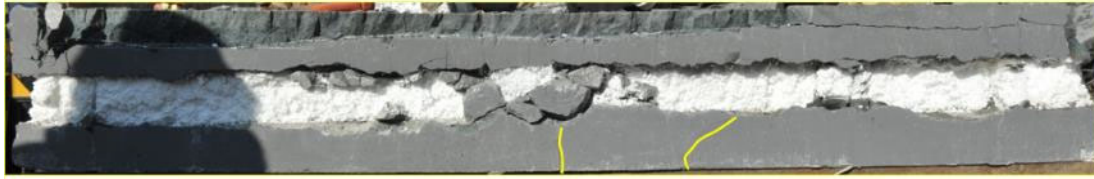
308 The bottom G-HPC layer exhibited the spalling damage to the concrete cover with a
309 diameter of 608 mm, whereas its central area crumbed severely (Fig. 14 (d)). Numerous
310 fragments were observed to be trapped in SWMs, and several steel wires of the
311 outermost SWM were fractured. Thus, SWMs were conducive in preventing the
312 secondary injuries generated from the high velocity fragments. In addition, the radial
313 cracks were observed at the bottom surface (Fig. 14 (b)).



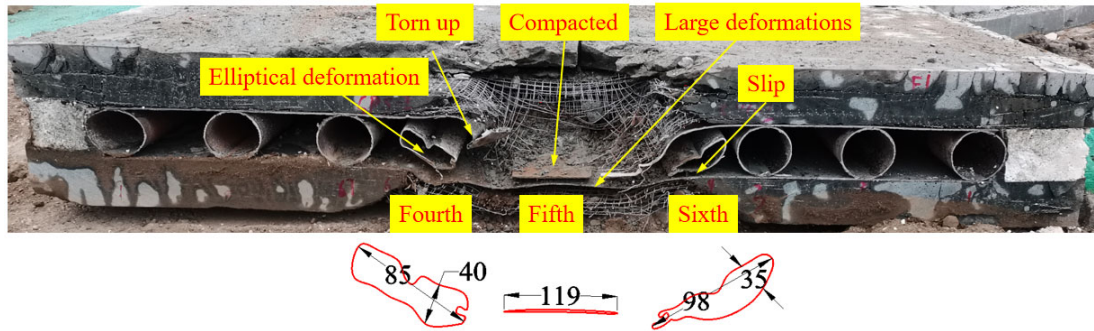
(a) Top surface



(b) Bottom surface



(c) Side surface



(d) Middle cross-section (mm)

Fig. 14. The SPS-2 wall

314 4.2.4 SPSA-2 wall

315 The failure mode (perforation failure and serious cracks along the edges) observed on
 316 the top G-HPC layer of the SPSA-2 wall is shown in Fig. 15 (a). The crater and
 317 perforation diameters of the top G-HPC layer were determined to be 406.5 mm and 305
 318 mm, respectively. However, the depth from the top surface to the metallic tube was not
 319 measured as a small strip-shaped hole appeared on the bottom steel plate, and the
 320 critical penetration failure occurred at the bottom G-HPC layer. A few vertical cracks
 321 were also observed on the side surface (Fig. 15 (c)), and a small extent of spalling
 322 appeared on the top G-HPC layer as compared to the SPS-2 wall.

323 The top steel plate of MTC was observed to be torn. In contrast with the SPS-2 wall, a
 324 minor fracture occurred at the bottom steel plate, accompanied with a small strip-shaped
 325 hole. The depressed deformation region of the bottom steel plate was measured to be
 326 380 mm. A few fragments from the top G-HPC layer were trapped by the bottom steel
 327 plate. The baroclinic deformation was observed between the sixth and fourth tubes.
 328 Further, a compaction appeared near the explosion side, and the slips were also

329 observed in both tubes. The compaction and rupture occurred on the fifth tube, and the
 330 width of the compaction was determined to be 125 mm. Likewise, no obvious
 331 deformation was noted for the other tubes (Fig. 15 (d)).

332 The critical perforation failure of the bottom G-HPC layer was observed to take place,
 333 and the spalling diameter was 572.5 mm. The rupture was also noted to occur on SWMs.
 334 A large number of ejecting concrete fragments were produced, which represent
 335 significant danger for the occupants and surroundings. Additionally, the bottom surface
 336 exhibited numerous short radial cracks (Fig. 15 (b)).

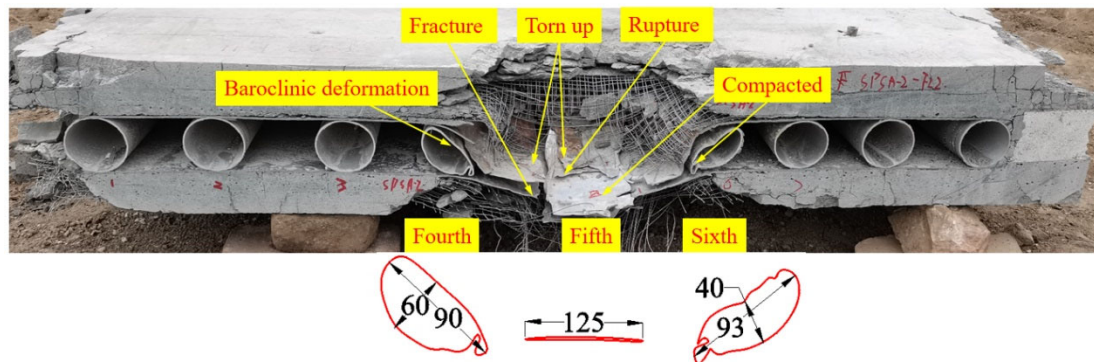


(a) Top surface

(b) Bottom surface



(c) Side surface



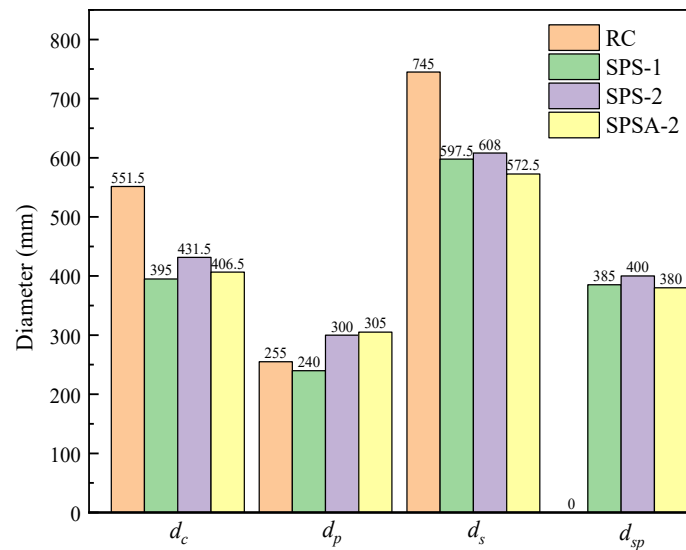
(d) Middle cross-section (mm)

Fig. 15. The SPSA-2 wall

337 **4.3. Discussion**

338 **4.3.1 Diameters**

339 The diameters of the crater (d_c), perforation (d_p), spalling (d_s) and depressed
340 deformation regions of the bottom steel plates (d_{sp}) in the walls/slabs are shown in Fig.
341 16. The crater and spalling diameters of the RC slab were smaller than those of the
342 sandwich walls, exhibiting a reduction up to 39.6% and 30.1%, respectively. The
343 perforation diameter of the SPS-1 wall was smaller than that of the RC slab, whereas
344 the perforation diameter of the SPS-2 and SPSA-2 walls increased by 17.6% and 19.6%,
345 respectively. A minor difference was also observed in the diameters of the depressed
346 deformation regions of the bottom steel plates of the sandwich walls.



347

Fig. 16. The damage diameters

349 **4.3.2 Failure mode analysis**

350 Under 1.0 kg TNT (consisting of five 100 mm × 50 mm × 25 mm rectangular charges
351 each with a mass of 0.2 kg TNT) contact explosion, the sandwich walls exhibited a
352 superior blast resistance as compared to the RC slab. The damage of the sandwich walls
353 was noted to be smaller than that of the RC slab owing to the sandwich walls absorbing

354 more blast energy due to the deformation of MTC. The bottom steel plate of MTC could
355 be utilized to resist the high-speed fragments generated from the top G-HPC layer. In
356 addition, the weight of the sandwich wall was also reduced by 39% as compared to the
357 RC slab. Comparing with the SPS-2 wall, the crater and spalling diameters of the SPS-
358 1 wall decreased from 431.5 mm and 608 mm to 395 mm and 597.5 mm, respectively,
359 thus, indicating that the sandwich wall with the rectangular steel tube core demonstrated
360 a superior blast resistance than the wall with the circular steel tube core. The
361 experimental results revealed that the fifth steel tube significantly affected the blast
362 resistance. The reason for the observed phenomenon might be attributed to the fifth
363 rectangular steel tube absorbing more blast energy than the fifth circular steel tube (Fig.
364 17 and Fig. 18 (a) and (b)). It is worth noting that the crater (431.5 mm) and spalling
365 (608 mm) diameters of the SPS-2 wall were larger than the crater (406.5 mm) and
366 spalling (572.5 mm) diameters of the SPSA-2 wall. This might be due to the resistance
367 resulting from MTC of the SPSA-2 wall was inferior than that from the SPS-2 wall.
368 The strong shock wave propagated downwards, thus, severely damaging the bottom G-
369 HPC layer of the SPSA-2 wall. Such a severe damage consumed more blast energy and
370 reduced its propagation, thus, leading to smaller crater and spalling diameters of the
371 SPSA-2 wall as compared to the SPS-2 wall. The spalling damage was observed at the
372 bottom G-HPC layer of the SPS-2 pane, while the bottom G-HPC layer of the SPSA-2
373 wall demonstrated the critical perforation failure, with the fracture failure appearing on
374 the fifth aluminum alloy tube and bottom steel plate. The observed phenomena
375 indicated that the sandwich wall with the circular steel tube core exhibited a superior
376 blast resistance than the wall with the circular aluminum alloy tube core. This might be
377 due to the reason that the circular steel tube absorbed more blast wave energy owing to
378 its higher stiffness and strength as compared to the aluminum alloy tube. The
379 deformations in the middle cross-section of the fifth circular steel tube and aluminum
380 alloy tube are shown in Fig. 17 and Fig. 18 (b) and (c). Moreover, the fragments from
381 the G-HPC layer were trapped by SWMs in the SPS-1 and SPS-2 walls, thus, indicating

382 that SWM positively affected the resistance against the high-speed fragments under
 383 contact explosions.

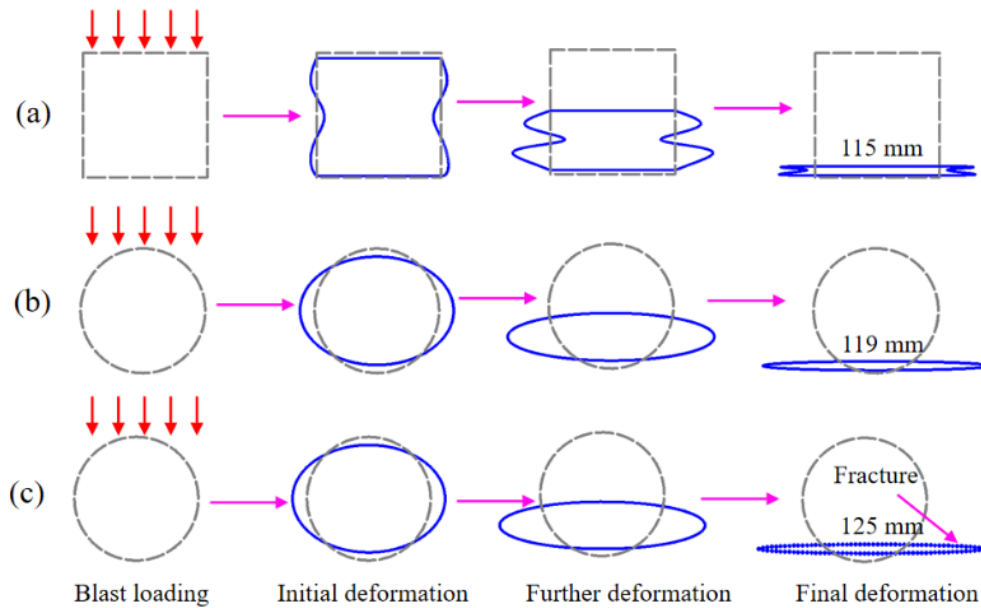
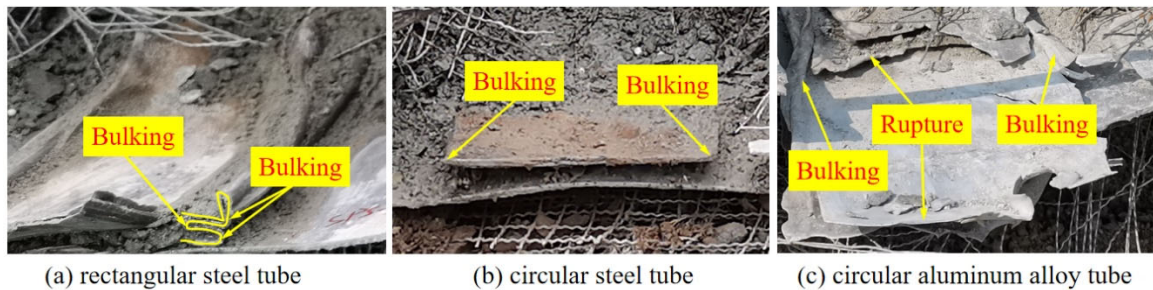


Fig. 17. The deformation schematic of the fifth metallic tube in the middle cross-section (a) rectangular steel tube, (b) circular steel tube, (c) aluminum alloy tube



384 (a) rectangular steel tube (b) circular steel tube (c) circular aluminum alloy tube

Fig. 18. The deformation of the fifth metallic tube in the middle cross-section

386 To further illustrate that the energy absorption of the rectangular metallic tubes was
 387 superior than that of the circular metallic tubes, the lateral compression tests of the
 388 rectangular and circular steel tubes were performed. The steel tubes had a length of 80
 389 mm. The metallic tubes were affixed on the universal testing machine and loaded at a
 390 constant velocity of 5 mm/min. The test setup and results are presented in Fig. 19 and
 391 Fig. 20, whereas the force–displacement curves are demonstrated in Fig. 21.



Fig. 19. The deformation of the rectangular steel tube

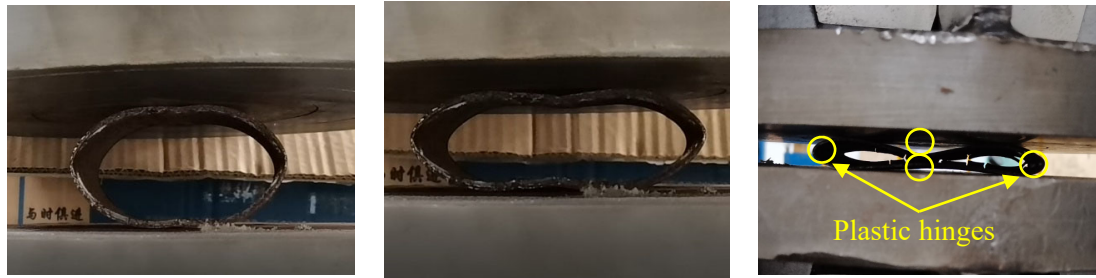
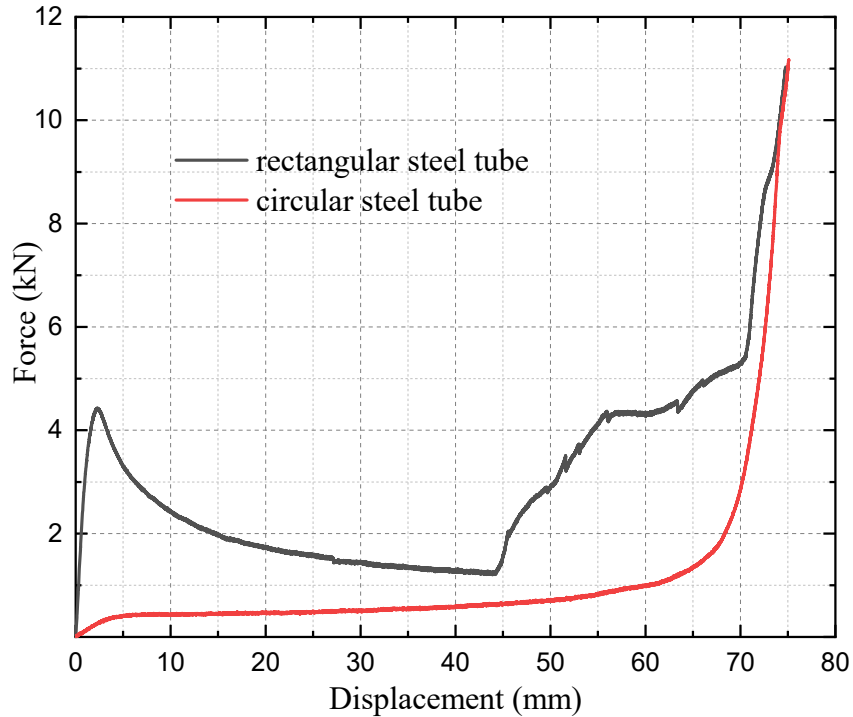


Fig. 20. The deformation of the circular steel tube

392 A comparison of Fig. 17 (a) and Fig. 19 indicated that the deformation of the rectangular
 393 steel tube under the quasi-static load was different from that of the sandwich wall. The
 394 observed phenomenon may be caused by the geometric imperfection and eccentric
 395 loading of the rectangular steel tube. However, the deformation of the circular steel tube
 396 under the quasi-static load was similar to that of the sandwich wall under blast loading
 397 (Fig. 17 (b) and Fig. 20). This might be due to the reason that the cross-section of the
 398 circular steel tube was much smoother as compared to the rectangular steel tube, and
 399 the influence of the geometric imperfection and eccentric loading was minimal. A
 400 comparison of Fig. 19 and Fig. 20 revealed that the rectangular steel tube could absorb
 401 more energy as compared to the circular tube, as the rectangular tube produced more
 402 plastic hinges than that of the circular steel tube. Likewise, the lateral compression force
 403 of the rectangular steel tube was larger than that of the circular steel tube, thus, further
 404 indicating that the energy absorption of the rectangular metallic tube was superior than
 405 the circular metallic tube (Fig. 21).



406

407

Fig. 21. The force-displacement curves of the rectangular and circular tubes

408

5. Failure prediction using existing methods

409

5.1 Analytical prediction methods

410

The analytical analysis of the spall damage of concrete is complex. It is affected by the shape and weight of explosives, propagation process of the stress wave, dynamic characteristics of the concrete materials, etc. In addition, there are many unknown parameters, such as the stress variation during the propagation of the blast stress wave under various working conditions. Based on different assumptions and simplifications, Kot *et al.* [41, 42] proposed an analytical analysis method for analyzing the concrete spall damage, which was suitable for the light and moderate spall damages. Remennikov *et al.* [43] proposed an analytical method to determine the breach parameters of the concrete slabs subject to contact charges. The method was used to predict the breach parameters of the high strength concrete panels, however, the applied charge mass and panel thickness limited the analysis [44].

420

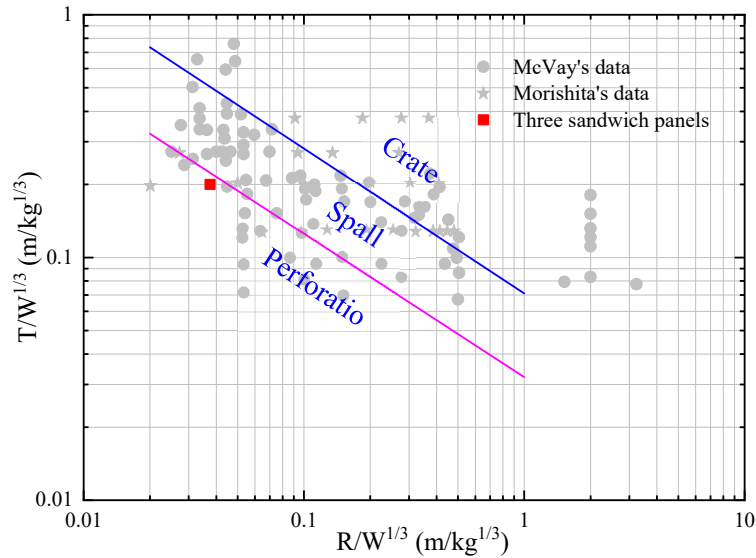
421 **5.2 Empirical prediction methods**

422 In order to evaluate the failure mode of the concrete components under blast loading,
423 many empirical methods have also been proposed in the past decades. However, the
424 empirical methods often adopt assumptions and simplifications owing to a large
425 number of unknown parameters, such as the variations during the construction of the
426 concrete slabs, geometry and wave dispersion. Therefore, the available empirical
427 methods were used to evaluate the damage in the sandwich walls subjected to blast
428 loading, followed by the comparison of the obtained results with the experimental
429 findings in this study. The accuracy of the empirical methods was subsequently
430 discussed.

431 McVay *et al.* [45] and Morishita *et al.* [46, 47] developed an empirical formula for
432 predicting the failure mode of the concrete slabs, which has been implemented in a
433 number of studies [48, 49]. UFC 3-340-02 [50] provides another empirical formula for
434 predicting the failure mode of the concrete slabs subjected to contact blast loading. In
435 another study, Zhang *et al.* [51] proposed the spalling damage coefficient for
436 representing the degree of damage in the concrete slabs. Wang *et al.*[52] used the
437 empirical formula to verify its suitability for estimating the damage in the
438 polyisocyanate-oxazodone coated square reinforced concrete slab. Thus, these
439 empirical formulae were also used in this study to verify their suitability for predicting
440 the damage in the sandwich walls.

441 McVay *et al.* [45] derived an empirical formula to evaluate the failure mode of the
442 concrete slabs subjected to close-in blast loading based on the analysis of the 334 field
443 test data. The scale slab thickness $T/W^{1/3}$ and scale standoff distance $R/W^{1/3}$ were
444 proposed for predicting the damage in the concrete slab. Here, T represents the slab
445 thickness, R is the stand-off distance, and W is the equivalent TNT mass. The threshold
446 curves of the spalling and perforation damage proposed by McVay are plotted in Fig.
447 22. The sandwich walls were classified as perforation as per the damage classification
448 system developed by McVay. The failure mode of the SPSA-2 wall was close to the

449 McVay's damage prediction, however, the damage evaluated by using the McVay
 450 relation was different from the damage observed for the SPS-1 and SPS-2 walls.



451

452

Fig. 22. The empirical evaluation proposed by McVay

453 Table 4 lists the empirical formulas proposed by Morishita *et al.* [46, 47], UFC 3-340-
 454 02 [50] and Zhang *et al.* [51] to predict the failure mode of the concrete slabs subjected
 455 to contact explosion. The damage prediction using the Morishita, UFC 3-340-02 and
 456 and Zhang formulae are illustrated in Fig. 24 and Fig. 24.

457

Table 4 Empirical formulas proposed by Morishita, UFC 3-340-02 and Zhang

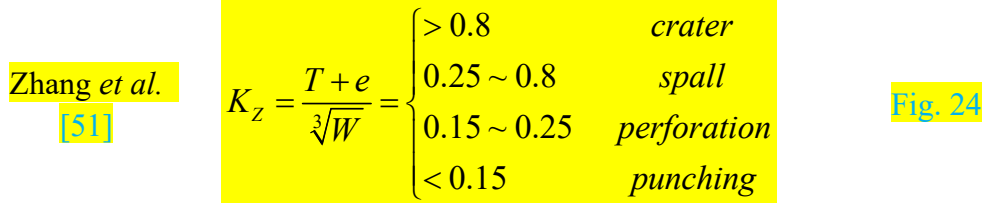
Researchers	Empirical formulas	Damage prediction
	Limit of crater: $T/W^{1/3} > 0.36$	
Morishita <i>et al.</i> [46, 47]	Limit of crater and spalling: $0.2 < T/W^{1/3} \leq 0.36$	Fig. 24
	Limit of perforation: $T/W^{1/3} \leq 0.2$	
UFC 3-340-02 [50]	The spall threshold curve: $T/r = (a + b\psi^{2.5} + c\psi^{0.5})^{-1}$	Fig. 24

The breach threshold curve:

$$T / r = (a + b\psi + c\psi^2)^{-1}$$

The spall parameter (ψ) for the contact charges:

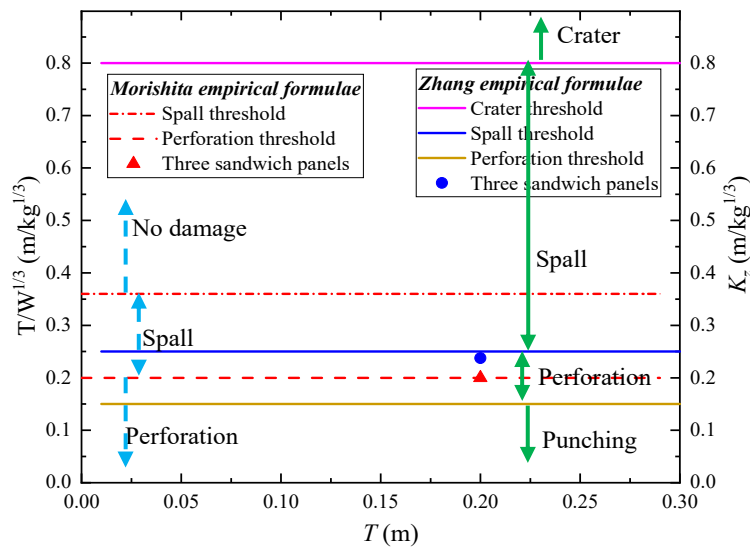
$$\psi = 0.527 r^{0.972} f_c^{0.308} W_{adj}^{-0.341}$$



458 Note: in this table, T is the concrete thickness (ft), r is the range from the slab face to the charge center
 459 of gravity (ft), ψ is the spall parameter, and the values of the coefficients a , b and c are listed in Table 5,
 460 f_c is the compressive strength of concrete (psi), W_{adj} is the adjusted charge weight (lb), e is the height of
 461 the charge center (m).

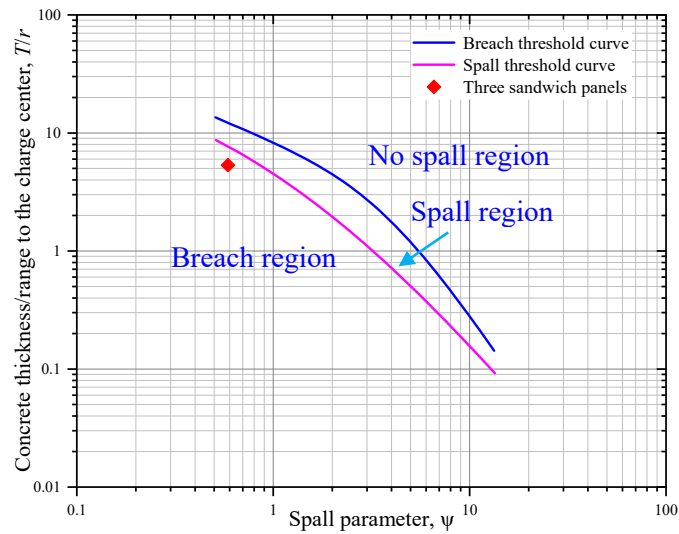
462 **Table 5** The coefficients of spall and breach threshold curves [50]

Coefficient	a	b	c
Spall threshold curve	-0.02511	0.01004	0.13613
Breach threshold curve	0.028205	0.144308	0.049265



463

464 **Fig. 23.** The empirical evaluations proposed by Morishita [46, 47] and Zhang [51]



465

466 **Fig. 24.** The evaluation based on the UFC 3-340-02 formula

467 It can be seen from Fig. 24 and Fig. 24 that these formulas proposed by Morishita *et al.*
468 [46, 47], UFC 3-340-02 [50] and Zhang *et al.* [51] could evaluate the damage of the RC
469 slab, and they can also effectively evaluate the blast resistance of the SPSA-2 wall as
470 the damage in the SPSA-2 wall exhibits the perforation-critical mode. However, these
471 failed to accurately predict the failure mode of the SPS-1 and SPS-2 walls under contact
472 explosions. This might be due to the reason that these formulae only considered slab
473 thickness and the mass and height of TNT, however, the influence of MTC was not
474 considered in the prediction. Thus, the damage prediction is not suitable for the SPS-1
475 and SPS-2 walls. In addition, as the aluminum alloy tube has inferior rigidity and
476 strength than the steel tube, the MTC layer with the aluminum alloy tube has a smaller
477 impact on the blast resistance capacity of the sandwich wall than the steel tube. Hence,
478 these formulas can effectively evaluate the blast resistance of the SPSA-2 wall.

479 In future, more parametric studies should be carried out using the numerical tools to
480 further analyze the damage in the sandwich walls under contact explosions. An
481 empirical formula should be proposed to predict the failure mode of the sandwich walls
482 by considering various factors, such as the thickness, strength and reinforcement of the

483 top and bottom G-HPC layers as well as the height, number, type and thickness of the
484 tubes.

485 **6. Conclusions**

486 In this study, the novel G-HPC sandwich walls with a metallic tube core (MTC) were
487 developed and subsequently subjected to the 1 kg TNT contact explosions. The C40
488 concrete (RC) slab was also used for comparison. Based on the experimental results,
489 the following conclusions can be drawn:

4901. As compared to the RC slab, the sandwich walls exhibited a superior blast resistance,
491 and their weight was reduced by up to 39%. MTC could be utilized to resist the high-
492 speed fragments generated from the top G-HPC layer and absorb more blast energy
493 owing to a large deformation.

4942. The blast resistance of the sandwich wall with the rectangular steel tube core was
495 superior than the wall with the circular steel tube core. The sandwich slab with the
496 circular steel tube exhibited a superior blast resistance as compared with the wall with
497 the circular aluminum alloy tube core.

4983. The existing empirical models were unsuitable for accurately predicting the damage in
499 the sandwich walls. This could be attributed to the absence of any consideration of the
500 influence of MTC in these models.

5014. SWM effectively mitigated the high-speed fragments, thereby reducing their secondary
502 damage to the occupants in the surroundings.

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