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Statistical and Mechanistic Fragility Analysis of Concrete Bridges

by M. Shinozuka, Swagata Banerjee and Sang-Hoon Kim

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Preface

The Multidisciplinary Center for Earthquake Engineering Research (MCEER) is a national center of excellence in advanced technology applications that is dedicated to the reduction of earthquake losses nationwide. Headquartered at the University at Buffalo, State University of New York, the Center was originally established by the National Science Foundation in 1986, as the National Center for Earthquake Engineering Research (NCEER).

Comprising a consortium of researchers from numerous disciplines and institutions throughout the United States, the Center's mission is to reduce earthquake losses through research and the application of advanced technologies that improve engineering, pre-earthquake planning and post-earthquake recovery strategies. Toward this end, the Center coordinates a nationwide program of multidisciplinary team research, education and outreach activities.

MCEER's research is conducted under the sponsorship of two major federal agencies, the National Science Foundation (NSF) and the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA), and the State of New York. Significant support is also derived from the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA), other state governments, academic institutions, foreign governments and private industry.

The Center's Highway Project develops improved seismic design, evaluation, and retrofit methodologies and strategies for new and existing bridges and other highway structures, and for assessing the seismic performance of highway systems. The FHWA has sponsored three major contracts with MCEER under the Highway Project, two of which were initiated in 1992 and the third in 1998.

Of the two 1992 studies, one performed a series of tasks intended to improve seismic design practices for new highway bridges, tunnels, and retaining structures (MCEER Project 112). The other study focused on methodologies and approaches for assessing and improving the seismic performance of existing "typical" highway bridges and other highway system components including tunnels, retaining structures, slopes, culverts, and pavements (MCEER Project 106). These studies were conducted to:

- assess the seismic vulnerability of highway systems, structures, and components;
- develop concepts for retrofitting vulnerable highway structures and components;
- develop improved design and analysis methodologies for bridges, tunnels, and retaining structures, which include consideration of soil-structure interaction mechanisms and their influence on structural response; and
- develop, update, and recommend improved seismic design and performance criteria for new highway systems and structures.

The 1998 study, "Seismic Vulnerability of the Highway System" (FHWA Contract DTFH61-98-C-00094; known as MCEER Project 094), was initiated with the objective of performing studies to improve the seismic performance of bridge types not covered under Projects 106 or 112, and to provide extensions to system performance assessments for highway systems. Specific subjects covered under Project 094 include:

- development of formal loss estimation technologies and methodologies for highway systems;
- analysis, design, detailing, and retrofitting technologies for special bridges, including those with flexible superstructures (e.g., trusses), those supported by steel tower substructures, and cable-supported bridges (e.g., suspension and cable-stayed bridges);
- seismic response modification device technologies (e.g., hysteretic dampers, isolation bearings); and
- soil behavior, foundation behavior, and ground motion studies for large bridges.

In addition, Project 094 includes a series of special studies, addressing topics that range from non-destructive assessment of retrofitted bridge components to supporting studies intended to assist in educating the bridge engineering profession on the implementation of new seismic design and retrofitting strategies.

This report elaborates on the seismic performance of reinforced concrete bridges subjected to earthquake ground motion by integrating probabilistic, statistical and mechanistic aspects of bridge damageability in the form of two-parameter lognormal fragility curves. To simulate general patterns of the progressive nature of bridge damage and failure mechanisms, the study performs nonlinear time history analyses of typical California RC bridges by finite element method (FEM). The analyses demonstrate that under normal conditions, the most prominent bridge damage that is first observed after a significant earthquake is the formation of plastic hinges at the ends of bridge columns. Therefore, damage due to pounding of girders at expansion joints, unseating of bridge decks and shear failure of bridge columns are considered but not as governing failure modes in this study. Another purpose of these FEM analyses is to simulate the enhancement of bridge fragility characteristics due to seismic retrofit, primarily because neither empirical nor experimental results are available to evaluate such enhancements. In addition, these FEM analyses develop fragility curves with and without retrofit. In fact, the main purpose of these FEM analyses is to develop analytical fragility curves without retrofit that can be calibrated with empirical fragility curves. In the process of calibration, intervals of rotational ductility values that represent states of bridge damage are adjusted to form contiguous intervals over the onedimensional space of rotational ductility. If the rotational ductility is between upper and lower bounds in one of the intervals, the bridge is assumed to have suffered from the state of damage corresponding to the rotational ductility specified by that interval. This calibration is made for each bridge separately, although it is envisioned to perform combined calibration to derive common damage states for all types of bridges. In addition to time history analysis, nonlinear static procedure is performed to assess seismic vulnerability of the bridge and results from these two methods are in good agreement. Furthermore, the effect of ground motion directionality on bridge fragility characteristics is demonstrated, which indicates that directionality may significantly influence bridge seismic damageability.

ABSTRACT

In highway transportation system, bridges are one of the most seismically vulnerable structures. Development of fragility curves that incorporates various sources of uncertainty related to seismic hazard, bridge characteristics, site conditions etc., is an appropriate way to express the seismic vulnerability associated with various damage states of bridges. It gives a physical understanding of the structural reliability under an earthquake ground motion having certain intensity level. Thus construction of fragility curve is a widely accepted and well populated approach to express seismic vulnerability information.

This report represents dynamic progressive failure modes that are defined and used for interpreting fragility characteristics of typical Caltrans' bridges of various dimensions and configurations. To investigate the effect of ground motion intensity on the variation of bridge response behavior, a model bridge is analyzed under ground acceleration time histories at different levels of annual exceedance probability. The bridge is analyzed as a system with the aid of finite element method integrating appropriate nonlinear elements to represent plastic hinge formation at the column ends, pounding at the expansion joints and restrainer failures. The analysis shows that the dynamic progressive failure represents important progression of bridge failures.

The effect of seismic retrofitting is analytically investigated by means of steel jacketing of bridge columns and restrainers at expansion joints in order to strengthen the existing bridges. Two parameter lognormal distribution functions are used to develop fragility curves as a function of PGA. The improvement in the fragility characteristics of bridges after retrofit is examined by comparing two fragility curves before and after retrofit. The fragility enhancement is quantified by computing the change in the median values of the fragility curves before and after retrofit.

This study also mechanistically defines and quantifies the damage states of bridges in calibration with damage data of bridges under past earthquakes to the extent that these damage states can be used for fragility curve construction by nonlinear dynamic analysis. This makes the fragility curves, developed analytically, more consistent with the empirical curves developed from past earthquake damage data.

This study also deals with the directionality effect of earthquake ground motion. As we know, earthquake ground motion has two horizontal and one vertical components. In the practice of seismic response analysis, it is almost impossible to identify the principal direction of these orthogonal horizontal components, and let alone that of all the three components. The assessment of this directionality effect on structure will not be mathematically feasible to model for the purpose of fragility curve development. In this report, a more practice-oriented concept and design criteria are developed on the basis that the structure must resist an earthquake ground motion from all possible directions. Furthermore, exploratory research is performed to construct fragility curves of bridges utilizing pushover method, in conjunction with performance-based structural design currently used in profession. To check the reliability of this procedure, developed fragility curves are compared with those obtained from time history analysis.

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SECTION 1 INTRODUCTION

Representation of seismic vulnerability of highway bridges in terms of fragility curves is a modern, well accepted and appropriate way for a meaningful risk assessment, not only the bridges but also for ensuing assessment of performance of transportation networks in which bridges are important components. A fragility curve represents structural reliability in the form of a probability distribution function, which is again a function of the ground motion intensity. The measures such as PGA, SA and SI are often deployed to represent such intensity.

Several recent destructive earthquakes, particularly the 1989 Loma Prieta and 1994 Northridge earthquakes in California, and the 1995 Hanshin-Awaji (Kobe) earthquake in Japan, caused significant damage to a large number of highway structures that were seismically deficient (Basoz and Kiremidjian 1998, Buckle 1994). In addition to this, Roberts (2005) documented different types of failure modes of reinforced concrete bridges in most recent earthquake events around the world. The investigation of these negative consequences brought forward the discussions about seismic design deficiency, probable failure modes, possible ways to upgrade the performance by retrofitting of the existing bridges and the seismic design of new bridges. In this respect, a comparative study on response analysis of a bridge as a system tracing the dynamic progressive failure will provide a better understanding and insight for the global performance of the bridge to seismic ground motion. In addition, the analysis identifies and prioritizes locations of retrofit for the enhancement of its capability to future strong earthquakes. Indeed, the present research focuses on comparative study of different types of bridge failures and collapse and their individual time of occurrences to demonstrate a progressive failure mechanism of bridge as a system in response to a specific earthquake ground motion. Obviously, specific bridge models reflect their unique structural characteristics. It is envisioned, however, that a class of bridges of similar configuration, materials, and size will have correspondingly similar failure mechanism that applies to that class. However, difference in the number of spans, skewness and site soil conditions are the parameters that substantially influence the seismic fragility of bridges (Shinozuka et al. 2003a). Accordingly, the calibrations of analytical fragility curves and damage state quantification are carried out simultaneously with empirical ones for a specific combination of these parameters in Section 5.

Two-parameter lognormal distribution is traditional way to construct fragility curves. This study develops the fragility curves of five (5) reinforced concrete bridges for different damage states. For that, nonlinear time history analyses of these bridges are carried out for sixty (60) ground motion time histories. Both longitudinal and transverse analysis is performed to construct fragility curves in both directions of bridges. This study also provides an approach for the seismic performance assessment of older bridges retrofitted by steel jacketing of bridge columns. Result shows a considerable improvement in the seismic performance of existing bridges. Therefore, using this approach to estimate the enhancement in fragility characteristics, it is now possible to evaluate the improvement of seismic performance of a highway network after retrofitting the bridges associated with that system.

The damage report of Caltrans' bridges under the Northridge earthquake documented five damage states of bridges as 'almost no', 'minor', 'moderate', 'major' (extensive) damage and 'collapse' as often used for fragility analysis. Effort has been given, however, for developing mechanistic model of bridge damage in calibration with Caltrans' damage data to the extent that the models can be used for fragility curve construction by nonlinear dynamic analysis. The damage models are developed to specify mechanistically the range of physical damage (upper and/or lower bounds) for each damage state. In this respect, the damage observation as reported by Caltrans serves as invaluable field experiments the nature provided according to which mechanistic calibration of damage model is achieved. Analytical fragility curves of Caltrans bridges at different damage states are calibrated with the empirical result reported by Shinozuka et al. (2003b) for bridges with similar geometric configuration and site condition.

This study also develops nonlinear static procedure involving Capacity Spectrum Method for construction of fragility curves consistent with current professional design and vulnerability assessment procedure incorporating performance-based engineering concept. This method provides a graphical representation of the force-displacement capacity curve of the bridge and develops inelastic demand spectrum of earthquake ground motion from its elastic demand spectrum through an interaction with capacity curve of the bridge. Thereafter, performance displacements are obtained from the intersection of the inelastic demand spectra and capacity spectrum and used to generate fragility curves at different damage levels. Comparison of thus developed fragility curves with that developed in time history analysis indicates well consistency that proves the reliability of this analytical procedure.

Most analytical investigations of nonlinear response of structural systems to seismic excitation in the past have considered one component of ground motion. Although in reality, the reliability of any important structure depends on its capability of resisting the ground motion coming from any possible horizontal direction. Also, a recorded ground motion may have two horizontal orthogonal components, N-S and E-W. In the practice of seismic response analysis, it is almost impossible to identify the principal directions of these orthogonal components and position of the structure relative to them. Although it is possible to model the ground motion acceleration time history as a 2D or 3D vector random process (Shinozuka, et al., 1996), the model results in time varying principal axis of the process and becomes too complex for our purposes. This report provides a practice-oriented concept and analytical procedure to address the issue of directional effect of earthquake ground motion on bridges. Fragility curves are developed considering that the ground motions are approaching to the bridge such a way that they will have maximum effect on structural response. It is believed that this theoretical concept will provide a basis to estimate the effect of directionality of earthquake ground motion on seismic performance of structures.

SECTION 2

NONLINEAR BRIDGE MODELS AND RETROFIT OF REINFORCED CONCRETE COLUMNS

To examine the performance of bridges under seismic ground motions, finite element modeling of five (5) typical reinforced concrete bridges with various dimensions, configurations and site conditions in California is done and analyzed using commercially available structural analysis computer code. Bridge dynamic characteristics are simulated numerically so that obtained response can be utilized to develop analytical fragility curves. The following sections described the procedure in detail.

2.1 Bridge Description

A short description of the five (5) sample bridges used for analysis is given in table 2-1. Bridge 1 is a three span bridge having overall length of 34 m. The superstructure consists of a longitudinally reinforced concrete deck slab of 10 m width. The bridge is supported on two pairs of three circular columns of 0.8 m diameter and an abutment at each end. Bridge 2 has an overall length of 242 m and an expansion joint. This bridge is supported on four 21 m high identical circular columns of diameter 2.4 m. The deck has a 3-cell concrete box girder (13 m x 2 m). Bridge 3 has an overall length of 226 m consisting of three frames separated by two expansion joints. The superstructure consists of a RC box girder in the outer spans and a prestressed box girder in the interior (central) span. The deck has a 6-cell box girder (20 m x 2.6 m). The columns are octagonal in shape and with varying lengths. Bridge 4 is of 483 m long and it has four expansion joints. This bridge is supported on nine columns of all different heights. Each column has a rectangular cross section (1.2 m x 3.7 m). The deck has a 5-cell concrete box type girder section (17 m x 2 m). Bridge 5 has an overall length of 500 m with twelve spans and an expansion joint. It is supported on eleven oblong columns of equal height (12.8 m) and cross-sections. The deck is consisting of 4-cell concrete box type girder section (15 m x 2 m). The geometric configurations of example bridges are shown in figure 2-1.

Bridges	Overall Length	Number of Spans	Number of Hinges	Column Height
1	34 m	3	0	4.7 m
2	242 m	5	1	21.0 m
3	226 m	5	2	9.5 ~ 24.7 m
4	483 m	10	4	9.5 ~ 34.4 m
5	500 m	12	1	12.8 m

TABLE 2-1 Description of Five (5) Sample Bridges



(a) Bridge 1















(e)	Bridge	5
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FIGURE 2-1 Elevation of Sample Bridges

2.2 Nonlinear Modeling of Bridges

Finite element computer code SAP2000 Nonlinear (Computer and Structures, 2002) is used in the ensuing time history analysis. The bridge deck is integrated with the column bents, so full continuity is considered at its girder-column joints. The bridge superstructure is free to rotate at the abutment locations for longitudinal in-plane excitation, although the translational motion is limited to the initially provided gap between the bridge girder and abutment. If the relative displacement of the bridge girder at abutment locations exceeds this gap, axial force develops at the interface due to the passive earth pressure of embankment soil. According to Caltrans recommendation (Bridge Design Criteria, 2004), the longitudinal abutment stiffness is

$$K_{abut} = K_i \times w \times \left(\frac{h}{5.5}\right)$$
 in S.I. units (2-1)

where K_i is the initial embankment stiffness (=11.5 kN/mm/m), *w* is the width of the backfill in m and *h* is the height of the backfill in m. During transverse out-of-plane motion, it can rotate freely while movement is restrained by wingwalls and concrete shear keys which are, in general, assumed to be rigidly connected with abutments and not to dissipate any energy through yielding

(Federal Highway Administration, 1996). Therefore, during transverse motion, the bridge end and the abutment move together as rigidly joined. To incorporate the soil effects behind wingwalls at abutments, translational (linear) springs are attached at the end of bridge girder. Spring stiffness is determined according to Caltrans recommendation for abutment stiffness in transverse direction.

Bridges with expansion joint(s) are modeled such that the two ends of an expansion joint can move independently in longitudinal direction and rotate in longitudinal plane while they have no relative vertical movement. During out-of-plane motion, they are assumed as pin connections as the lateral translations of the two ends of bridge deck at expansion joint are same.

Due to the seismic excitation, bending moment is generated in columns which may lead to the formation of plastic hinges at both ends of the columns. The approximate nonlinearities in a bridge are shown in figure 2-2 and as described immediately below. Moment-curvature relationship at the plastic hinges can generate a complex hysteretic behavior. For the sake of simplicity and design compatibility, however, rotational springs with bilinear moment-curvature relationship are introduced to represent the nonlinearity at both ends of bridge columns. Also linear translational and rotational springs are introduced at the bases of the columns to account for soil effect in longitudinal and transverse directions. An effective moment of inertia is considered to take care of the cracked state of concrete bridge columns.

The computer code (SAP 2000) permits the use of a gap element to take care of the effect of pounding between two adjacent bridge decks at expansion joints and abutment locations during longitudinal movement of the bridge. At abutment locations, an initial gap of 0.0508 m (2 in) is provided between the bridge deck and abutment (figure 2-3a). The gap element at expansion joint is modeled as a linear spring having stiffness not more than 1000 times of that of the adjacent element (Kim and Shinozuka, 2003). Here the initially provided gap is 0.0254 m (1 in) (figure 2-3b) and during oscillation, pounding develops (compressive force) at the interface of the two adjacent bridge decks when relative displacement exhausts this initial gap width. The hook element represents the restraining bar or cable that can be severed under excessive tensile stress, or producing failure of anchorages though which restrainers are tied to decks. Figure 2-3c

shows that the initial slack in the restrainer is 0.013 m (0.5 in) and axial force generates when the restrainer gets engaged by loosing this initial slack.



FIGURE 2-2 Nonlinearities in Bridge Model



FIGURE 2-3 Nonlinear Modeling of Gap and Hook Elements					
at Abutment	at Expansion Joint	Restrainer at Expansion Joint			
(a) Gap Element for Pounding	(b) Gap Element for Pounding	(c) Hook Element for			

2.3 Retrofit of Reinforced Concrete Columns

During seismic excitation, concrete columns often lack flexural strength, flexural ductility and shear strength. One of the main causes for these structural inadequacies is lap splices in critical regions and/or premature breakdown of longitudinal reinforcement. A number of column-retrofit

techniques, such as steel jacketing, wire pre-stressing and composite material jacketing, have been developed and tested. Among all these, the steel jacketing has been widely applied to bridge retrofit as the most common retrofit technique.

Chai *et al.* (1991) observed that confinement of the concrete columns could be improved by placing transverse reinforcement layers closely along the longitudinal axis that will restrain the lateral expansion of the concrete during seismic excitation. By doing this, the compression zone will be able to sustain higher compressive stresses and much higher compressive strains before failure. However, this method is applicable for new design and construction, but not for existing bridge columns.

This study focuses on the steel jacketing technique for retrofitting existing bridge columns to improve their seismic performance.

2.4 Steel Jacketing

Chai *et al.* (1991) performed an experiment to investigate the retrofit of circular columns with steel jacketing. In this experiment with circular columns, two half shells of steel plate rolled to a radius slightly larger than that of the column. These plates are site-welded along the vertical plane, and placed over the area to be retrofitted to provide a continuous tube with a small annular gap around the column. This gap is grouted with pure cement. Typically the jacket is cut to provide a space of about 0.05 m between the jacket and any supporting member. It is noted that the jacket is effective only in passive confinement and the level of confinement depends on the hoop strength and stiffness of the steel jacket.

The thickness of steel jacket is calculated from the following equation (Priestley et al., 1996).

$$t_{j} = \frac{0.18(\varepsilon_{cm} - 0.004)Df_{cc}^{'}}{f_{yj}\varepsilon_{sm}}$$
(2-2)

where ε_{cm} is the strain at maximum stress in concrete, ε_{sm} the strain at maximum stress in steel jacket, *D* the diameter of circular column, $f_{cc}^{'}$ the compressive strength of confined concrete and f_{vi} the yield stress of steel jacket.

2.5 Compression Stress-Strain Relationships for Confined Concrete

The effect of confinement is to increase the compression strength and ultimate strain of concrete as illustrated in figure 2-4 (after Priestley *et al.*, 1996). Many different stress-strain relationships have been developed for confined concrete. Most of these are applicable under certain conditions. A recent (Priestley et al., 1996) model, applicable to all cross-sectional shapes and at all levels of confinement, is used for the analysis.



FIGURE 2-4 Stress-Strain Model for Concrete in Compression

2.6 Moment-Curvature Relationship

The moment-curvature relationship of each bridge column is obtained using the column ductility program developed by Kushiyama (2002) that follows the concept and equations given in Priestley et al. (1996). The rotational ductility demand at each column end is defined as θ/θ_y , where θ is the rotation of a bridge column in its plastic hinge region and θ_y is the corresponding yield rotation. Figure 2-5 shows the cross-section of column 1 of Bridge 1 and their bilinear

hysteretic behavior before and after retrofit as obtained from the column ductility program and figure 2-6 shows the same for column 2 of Bridge 1. The moment rotation curves before and after retrofit of bridge columns of Bridge 2 to 5 in both longitudinal and transverse directions are shown in Appendix A.



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE 2-5 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 1



(a) Before Retrofit



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE 2-6 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 1

SECTION 3

PROGRESSIVE FAILURE ANALYSIS OF BRIDGES

The seismic performance of bridges depends on their geometric configuration, material properties, nonlinear behavior under earthquake loading, soil condition at site as well as the characteristics of specific earthquake ground motion to which they are subjected. Earthquake ground motion, depending on its intensity and major direction of propagation at bridge site, may lead to complete collapse of bridges resulting from various failure mechanisms. Unseating of superstructure at abutments and at expansion joints due to restrainer failure and insufficient seat width, pounding between two adjacent decks at expansion joints as well as at abutments, formation of plastic hinges at all column ends are some examples of such failure mechanisms. Also, premature shear failure in bridge column may lead to collapse by preventing full utilization of rotational ductility capacities at the probable plastic hinge regions of columns. This type of shear failure is prominent in shorter and stiffer columns of a long bridge having several columns with different heights. Using SAP2000 Nonlinear computer code, nonlinear finite element analysis is carried out assuming bilinear hysteretic behaviors of the bridge columns and nonlinear characteristics of the expansion joints arising from pounding and restrainer failures. This analysis focuses on comparative study of different types of bridge collapse and their individual time of occurrences.

3.1 Input Ground Motions

Sixty (60) earthquake time histories in Los Angeles area (originally developed for FEMA/SAC project; <u>http://nisee.berkeley.edu/data/strong_motion/sacsteel/ground_motions.html</u>), listed in table 3-1, are utilized in this study. They consists of 3 sets of 20 actual earthquake records, each set are scaled linearly so as to have return periods of 2500 yrs, 475 yrs and 67 yrs that are representative of earthquakes with exceedance probabilities, respectively of 2, 10 and 50% in 50 years. Among these 60 records, three representative earthquakes one from each set, observed during 1994 Northridge earthquake (LA27; PGA: 908.70cm/sec²), 1940 El Centro Earthquake (LA02; PGA: 662.88cm/sec²), and 1979 Imperial Valley Earthquake (LA44; PGA:

109.45cm/sec²), are considered to demonstrate the progressive failure modes of bridges. Horizontal acceleration time histories of these three ground motions are shown in figure 3-1.

Kim (2003) showed that assumption of identical support ground motions underestimates the peak ductility demands of the bridge columns. In this study, example bridges are analyzed under a number of scenario earthquakes. For each scenario earthquake, the bridge under consideration is analyzed using identical and differential support ground motion. The following ratio is then computed for each section of the bridge in order to quantify the effect of the spatial variation of ground motion on the response of the structure:

 $\rho = \frac{\text{max of response quantity computed using$ *differential* $support ground motion}}{\text{max of same quantity computed using$ *identical* $support ground motion}}$

According to this observation, a conservative factor of 1.5 is used in the earlier research during the analysis of Bridge 2 and 5 in order to highlight the effect of spatial variation of PGA. For other bridges, it is kept as 1.0.

10% Exceedence in 50 yr				2% Exceedence in 50 yr				50% Exceedence in 50 yr			
SAC	DT	Duration	PGA	SAC	DT	Duration	PGA	SAC	DT	Duration	PGA
Name	(sec)	(sec)	(cm/sec ²)	Name	(sec)	(sec)	(cm/sec^2)	Name	(sec)	(sec)	(cm/sec^2)
LA01	0.02	39.38	452.03	LA21	0.02	59.98	1258.00	LA41	0.01	39.38	578.34
LA02	0.02	39.38	662.88	LA22	0.02	59.98	902.75	LA42	0.01	39.38	326.81
LA03	0.01	39.38	386.04	LA23	0.01	24.99	409.95	LA43	0.01	39.08	140.67
LA04	0.01	39.38	478.65	LA24	0.01	24.99	463.76	LA44	0.01	39.08	109.45
LA05	0.01	39.38	295.69	LA25	0.005	14.945	851.62	LA45	0.02	78.60	141.49
LA06	0.01	39.38	230.08	LA26	0.005	14.945	925.29	LA46	0.02	78.60	156.02
LA07	0.02	79.98	412.98	LA27	0.02	59.98	908.70	LA47	0.02	79.98	331.22
LA08	0.02	79.98	417.49	LA28	0.02	59.98	1304.10	LA48	0.02	79.98	301.74
LA09	0.02	79.98	509.70	LA29	0.02	49.98	793.45	LA49	0.02	59.98	312.41
LA10	0.02	79.98	353.35	LA30	0.02	49.98	972.58	LA50	0.02	59.98	535.88
LA11	0.02	39.38	652.49	LA31	0.01	29.99	1271.20	LA51	0.02	43.92	765.65
LA12	0.02	39.38	950.93	LA32	0.01	29.99	1163.50	LA52	0.02	43.92	619.36
LA13	0.02	59.98	664.93	LA33	0.01	29.99	767.26	LA53	0.02	26.14	680.01
LA14	0.02	59.98	644.49	LA34	0.01	29.99	667.59	LA54	0.02	26.14	775.05
LA15	0.005	14.945	523.30	LA35	0.01	29.99	973.16	LA55	0.02	59.98	507.58
LA16	0.005	14.945	568.58	LA36	0.01	29.99	1079.30	LA56	0.02	59.98	371.66
LA17	0.02	59.98	558.43	LA37	0.02	59.98	697.84	LA57	0.02	79.46	248.14
LA18	0.02	59.98	801.44	LA38	0.02	59.98	761.31	LA58	0.02	79.46	226.54
LA19	0.02	59.98	999.43	LA39	0.02	59.98	490.58	LA59	0.02	39.98	753.70
LA20	0.02	59.98	967.61	LA40	0.02	59.98	613.28	LA60	0.02	39.98	469.07

 TABLE 3-1 Description of Los Angeles Ground Motions


(a) Ground Motion 1 (1994 Northridge earthquake (LA27) with exceedance Probability 2% in 50 yrs)



(b) Ground Motion 2 (1940 El Centro Earthquake (LA02) with exceedance Probability 10% in 50 yrs)



(c) Ground Motion 3 (1979 Imperial Valley Earthquake (LA44) with exceedance Probability 50% in 50 yrs)



3.2 Damage States

The rotational ductility demand can be described as the ratio of rotation (θ) of the column end, modeled as nonlinear spring, to its yield rotation (θ_v). According to Dutta and Mander (1998), five different damage states namely 'Almost no', 'Minor', 'Moderate', 'Major' and 'Collapse' can be defined based on column drift which is the ratio of maximum displacement response (Δ) to the height of the column pier/bent (H) and given in table 3-2. Priestley et al. (1996) recommended that drift limit corresponding to yield state is 0.005. In this study, rotational ductility demands at plastic hinge regions of bridge columns are used as the signature representing the bridge damage levels. Therefore, rotational ductility demands corresponding to 'Almost no damage' (i.e., yield state with drift limit 0.005) and 'Column collapse' (i.e., ultimate state with drift limit 0.075) are, respectively of, θ_v/θ_v (=1.0) and θ_u/θ_v , which can be computed from moment-curvature relationship of bridge columns. Rotational ductility demands corresponding to other states of damage are obtained in proportional to the drift limits presented in table 3-2. Tables 3-3 and 3-4 list the ductility demands at the two ends of column of five (5) example bridges where plastic hinges are likely to form during the longitudinal and transverse movement. It should be noted that tables 3-3 and 3-4 give idea about the ductility demands only at left most columns of example bridges. Although in analysis, damage state of a particular column is determined on the basis of the seismic performance and rotational ductility of that column.

Damage state	Description	Drift Limits (Δ/H)
Almost no	First yield	Yield
Minor	Cracking, spalling	0.01
Moderate	Loss of anchorage	0.025
Major	Incipient column collapse	0.050
Complete	Column collapse	0.075

 Table 3-2 Damage States and Ductility Capacities for the Bridge Columns

TABLE 3-3 Peak Ductility Demand of First Left Column of Example BridgesDuring the Longitudinal Motion

Damage States	Bridge 1	Bridge 2	Bridge 3	Bridge 4	Bridge 5
Almost no	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Minor	1.52	1.58	1.40	1.82	2.05
Moderate	3.10	3.33	2.58	4.27	5.20
Major	5.72	6.24	4.56	8.36	10.45
Complete	8.34	9.16	6.54	12.44	15.70

 TABLE 3-4
 Peak Ductility Demand of First Left Column of Sample Bridges

During the Transverse Motion

Damage States	Bridge 1	Bridge 2	Bridge 3	Bridge 4	Bridge 5
Almost no	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Minor	1.52	1.58	1.30	1.56	1.82
Moderate	3.10	3.33	2.19	3.25	4.27
Major	5.72	6.24	3.69	6.07	8.36
Complete	8.34	9.16	5.18	8.89	12.44

3.3 Responses of Bridge 2

To demonstrate different progressive failure modes, Bridge 2 is analyzed for three ground motions indicated in figure 3-1. Responses are measured at column ends in terms of ductility demand and in the interface of adjacent bridge decks in terms of axial force in restrainer and the pounding force due to impact. Also, generated shear force in plastic hinge regions is estimated to check for premature shear failure of bridge columns. It should be noted that bridge failure due to liquefaction is not considered here. The following section elaborates different failure modes of Bridge 2.

3.3.1 Rotation at Column Ends

Figures 3-2(a) and 3-2(b) show the different damage states and variation of ductility demand with time for four column tops and bottoms respectively under ground motion 1. These figures indicate that the variation of ductility factors at all column ends is same as all columns are identical. Though this bridge has one expansion joint, but the stiffness of the hook element (restrainer) is considerably high and no out-of-phase motion is observed between right and left subsystems of the bridge separated by the joint during longitudinal excitation of the bridge. The two column ends have same nature of variation of ductility demand with time. Bridge response at plastic hinge regions under ground motion 2 and 3 are shown in figures 3-3 and 3-4.



(b) All Column Bottoms

FIGURE 3-2 Ductility Demand for Ground Motion 1



. .

FIGURE 3-3 Ductility Demand for Ground Motion 2



(a) All Column Tops



FIGURE 3-4 Ductility Demand for Ground Motion 3

3.3.2 Pounding and Restrainer Failure

For ground motion 1, the relative displacement time history at the two ends of expansion joint is plotted in figure 3-5. Impact force develops at the interface of the adjacent bridge decks when the relative displacement becomes zero exhausting the initially provided gap equal to 0.0254 m and hence causing the pounding. Figure 3-6 depicts that pounding force generates only at that time instance when relative inward movement of decks is more than the specified value. The bridge experiences a maximum of 10870 kN impact force at 15.4 sec due to ground motion 1. The outward movement between the adjacent bridge decks at the expansion joint results in the development of the axial force in restrainer as the hook element gets engaged by losing initially provided slack equal to 0.013 m. This axial force in the restrainer is transmitted to the nearby concrete block through anchors that hold the restrainer in position. Figure 3-7 shows the anchor design capacity and this failure is assumed conservatively to lead to the collapse of bridge. Depending on the design, however, the restrainer itself fails before anchorage fails. This also is assumed to result in the bridge collapse.

For other two ground motions, the relative displacement at the expansion joint and axial force in the restrainer are shown in figures $3-8 \sim 3-11$.



FIGURE 3-5 Relative Displacement at Expansion Joint for Ground Motion 1



FIGURE 3-6 Pounding Force Developed at Expansion Joint for Ground Motion 1



FIGURE 3-8 Relative Displacement at Expansion Joint for Ground Motion 2





FIGURE 3-10 Relative Displacement at Expansion Joint for Ground Motion 3



FIGURE 3-11 Axial Force in Restrainer for Ground Motion 3

3.3.3 Premature Shear Failure

Development of shear force in the region of plastic hinges of column may lead to premature shear failure preventing flexural ductility capacity at those regions from full utilization. Priestley et al. (1996) focused on this issue and prescribed the analytical estimation of shear capacity in the plastic hinge regions in relation to the curvature ductility factor at those regions. They expressed the nominal shear capacity of concrete, $V_c = k \left(\sqrt{f_c} \right) A_e$ where A_e is 0.8 times the gross area of column, f_c' is the compressive strength of unconfined concrete, and k is presented graphically as a function of curvature ductility factor μ_{ϕ} . Outside the plastic hinge regions, value of k for $\mu_{\phi} = 1$ is suggested. To check the possibility of having a premature shear failure, shear strength (capacity) of column is compared with the generated shear force due to seismic excitation. This generated shear force at plastic hinge regions can be obtained directly from the flexural strength developed in these locations. Therefore, for the purpose of comparison the flexural moment-curvature relationship is expressed in terms of equivalent shear force-curvature relationships (shear demand). Following this procedure, the shear capacity and equivalent shear force (i.e. demand) at the plastic hinge regions of Bridge 2 are estimated and presented in figures 3-12 and 3-13 respectively.



FIGURE 3-12 Shear Strength Envelope: Shear Strength in Column at Plastic Hinge Locations



FIGURE 3-13 Equivalent Shear Force-Curvature Relation from Moment-Curvature Relation

3.4 Modes of Progressive Failure

The progressive failure modes of the bridge under these three ground motions are summarized in the following sub-sections.

3.4.1 Ground Motion 1

All of these failure mechanisms can lead to the collapse of the bridge in such a way that mechanism which has the shortest time to occurrence controls failure. Figures 3-2(b), 3-6 and 3-7 highlight three failure mechanisms described above under ground motion 1. Governing failure mechanism changes with different capacities of the restrainer. For example, if the restrainer is assigned to a design capacity of 2500 kN or less, bridge collapses due to the restrainer or anchorage failure while for restrainer capacity of 5000 kN or more, plastic hinges are formed at the four column ends simultaneously at 4.5 sec, which results in the complete 'collapse' of the bridge. Whereas the compressive stress (F/A where F is the impact force and A is the contact area of bridge deck) develops due to the face-to-face impact of the adjacent bridge decks during pounding. This stress, however, is much less than the compressive strength of concrete, and therefore, does not contribute to failure. However, localized damage can be attributed to the generation of a significantly high stress field resulted from local contact (not uniform face-to-face contact) of the adjacent decks.

3.4.2 Ground Motion 2

Bridge response at plastic hinge regions under ground motion 2 (as shown in figure 3-3) clearly indicates that the rotation of bridge columns produces 'moderate damage' to the bridge but does not lead to 'collapse'. Pounding at the interface of the adjacent decks does not develop at all, as nowhere the inward relative movement exceeds 0.0254 m (figure 3-8). For this ground motion, bridge fails in 'collapse' only when either restrainer or anchor fails i.e. restrainer failure occurs. Figure 3-9 depicts the tensile force developed in the restrainer. Failure occurs at 2.1 sec if restrainer capacity is less than 2500 kN or at 8.5 sec if capacity is less than 5000 kN.

3.4.3 Ground Motion 3

As this is the least intensive among three considered ground motions, the sample bridge has a lesser level of response than other two cases. The rotations of the columns are within elastic range (as shown in figure 3-4) and therefore no damage occurs at these locations. As it is depicted in figure 3-11, bridge collapses only when the developed tension in the restrainer exceeds its limit. As an example, 'collapse' due to the restrainer failure occurs at 5.9 sec if the restrainer capacity is less than 1250 kN.

3.4.4 Failure in Premature Shear

Comparison of figures 3-12 and 3-13 indicate the developed shear force (figure 3-13) is well below than the resistant capacity (figure 3-12) of the bridge columns at plastic hinge regions. Hence, no premature shear failure of the bridge column occurs in the current analysis.

SECTION 4 DEVELOPMENT OF FRAGILITY CURVES

4.1 Fragility Analysis of Bridges

It is well accepted that the fragility curves can be expressed in the form of two-parameter lognormal distribution functions, and the estimation of the two parameters (median and log-standard deviation) is performed with the aid of the maximum likelihood method. A common log-standard deviation, which forces the fragility curves not to intersect, can also be estimated. The following likelihood formulation described by Shinozuka et al. (2000) and (2003a) is introduced for the purpose of this method.

Although this method can be used for any number of damage states, for the ease of demonstration of analytical procedure it is assumed in this study that there are five states of damage including the state of (almost) no damage. A family of four (4) fragility curves exists in this case where events E_1 , E_2 , E_3 , E_4 and E_5 , respectively, indicate the state of (almost) no, (at least) slight, (at least) moderate, (at least) extensive damage and complete collapse. $P_{ik} = P(a_i, E_k)$ in turn indicates the probability that a bridge selected randomly from the sample will be in the damage state E_k when subjected to ground motion intensity expressed by PGA = a_i . All fragility curves are then represented

$$F_{j}(a_{j};c_{j},\zeta_{j}) = \Phi\left[\frac{\ln(a_{i}/c_{j})}{\zeta_{j}}\right]$$
(4-1)

where $\Phi(*)$ is the standard-normal distribution function, c_j and ζ_j are the median and logstandard deviation of the fragility curves for the damage state of "(at least) minor", "(at least) moderate", "(at least) major" and "complete" identified by j = 1, 2, 3 and 4. From this definition of fragility curves, and under the assumption that the log-standard deviation is equal to ζ common to all the fragility curves, one obtains;

$$P_{i1} = P(a_i, E_1) = 1 - F_1(a_i; c_1, \zeta)$$
(4-2)

$$P_{i2} = P(a_i, E_2) = F_1(a_i; c_1, \zeta) - F_2(a_i; c_2, \zeta)$$
(4-3)

$$P_{i3} = P(a_i, E_3) = F_2(a_i; c_2, \zeta) - F_3(a_i; c_3, \zeta)$$
(4-4)

$$P_{i4} = P(a_i, E_4) = F_3(a_i; c_3, \zeta) - F_4(a_i; c_4, \zeta)$$
(4-5)

$$P_{i5} = P(a_i, E_5) = F_4(a_i; c_4, \zeta)$$
(4-6)

The likelihood function can then be introduced as

$$L(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, \zeta) = \prod_{i=1}^n \prod_{k=1}^5 P_k(a_i; E_k)^{x_{ik}}$$
(4-7)

where x_i represents realizations of the Bernoulli random variable X_i and $x_i = 1$ or 0 depending on whether or not the bridge sustains the state of damage under PGA = a_i . The maximum likelihood estimates c_{0j} for c_j and ζ_0 for ζ are obtained by solving the following equations,

$$\frac{\partial \ln L(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, \zeta)}{\partial c_j} = \frac{\partial \ln L(c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, \zeta)}{\partial \zeta} = 0 \qquad (j = 1, 2, 3, 4)$$

$$(4-8)$$

by implementing a straightforward optimization algorithm.

There is a question whether PGA or PGV (peak ground velocity) or, other indices are better measure of ground motion intensity for fragility curve development. Actually Shinozuka et al. (2003a) compared various indices (PGA, PGV, SA, SV and SI) and concluded that none is exclusively superior over others in their definition of utility of fragility curve. Their definition for the utility is such that the fragility curve is more useful when the curve more sharply divides the sample population into two groups, ideally in the form of a unit step function. Note that a lognormal distribution function can approach to a unit step function in the limit as $\zeta \rightarrow 0$ with the jump occurring at the value of median c.

4.2 Analytical Fragility Curves in Longitudinal Direction

To construct analytical fragility curves of the example bridges, bridge models (described in Section 2) are analyzed under sixty (60) ground motion time histories (given in Section 3). According to the damage states definition given by Dutta and Mander (1998), ductility demands at each damage states are calculated. Progressive failure analysis of Bridge 2 in time domain showed that formation of the plastic hinge at column ends is the most probable failure mode, and is followed by failure at the expansion joint. Restrainer failure depends on the capacity of restraining cables, therefore not likely to occur in reality. On this basis, only bridge response at column ends is considered for fragility analysis of bridges. Readers are referred to Shinozuka et al. (2003a) for detail procedure about the fragility curve development.

In order to assess the individual and combined effects of various factors (such as, pounding and restrainer at expansion joint, soil effect at the column bases) and retrofitting of columns on seismic performance of bridge, fragility analysis is performed and discussed in the later part of this section.

It should be noted that in this report, bilinear model of moment-rotation curve is considered. However, to compute the effect of stiffness and strength degradation of moment-rotation relation on fragility characteristics of bridges, one example bridge is analyzed for different models of moment-curvature relation and documented in Appendix B. From this exercise, little difference in girder displacement and column rotation is observed when bridge deformation is in moderate range (i.e., at low to moderate performance level of the bridge). Only when column rotation is very close to its ultimate point, the degradation model develops somewhat larger deformation (typically 8% more) than the bilinear model.

All analytical fragility curves reported here are developed for 60 ground motions. In this regard, another research (Zhou 2006) showed that variations in median values are within 15% for minor, moderate and major damage states when a sample of size 64 is used. Additionally, hypothesis testing is performed to check the goodness of fit. This indicates that analytical fragility curves developed using 60 samples are accepted with a 10% significance level.

4.2.1 Fragility Analysis Considering No Abutment Stiffness in Longitudinal Direction

Bridges are analyzed considering no resistance from embankment soil at abutment locations such that superstructure can move freely in longitudinal direction. Numbers of damaged bridges in each damage state and fragility parameters are tabulated in tables $4-1 \sim 4-5$ while figures 4-1 to 4-5 show the analytical fragility curves of Bridge 1 to 5 respectively.

Dama aa Stataa	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters		
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	5	
Almost No Damage	56	0.1806		
Minor Damage	50	0.2306		
Moderate Damage	38	0.4490	0.781	
Major Damage	27	0.6398		
Collapse	17	0.8306		

 TABLE 4-1 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 1



FIGURE 4-1 Fragility Curves of Bridge 1 for Five Damage States

Domogo States	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters		
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ	
Almost No Damage	50	0.1959		
Minor Damage	41	0.4020		
Moderate Damage	31	0.5550	0.931	
Major Damage	17	0.8410		
Collapse	9	1.8353		

 TABLE 4-2 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2



FIGURE 4-2 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States

Demos States	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters		
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ	
Almost No Damage	58	0.1041		
Minor Damage	55	0.1490		
Moderate Damage	47	0.2847	0.825	
Major Damage	39	0.4306		
Collapse	36	0.4745		

 TABLE 4-3 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 3



FIGURE 4-3 Fragility Curves of Bridge 3 for Five Damage States

Domogo States	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters		
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ	
Almost No Damage	57	0.1316		
Minor Damage	50	0.2163		
Moderate Damage	37	0.4492	0.867	
Major Damage	27	0.6357		
Collapse	22	0.7265		

 TABLE 4-4 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 4



FIGURE 4-4 Fragility Curves of Bridge 4 for Five Damage States

Domogo States	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters		
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ	
Almost No Damage	57	0.1255		
Minor Damage	51	0.2908		
Moderate Damage	37	0.4714	0.814	
Major Damage	21	0.7439		
Collapse	13	0.9092		

 TABLE 4-5 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 5



FIGURE 4-5 Fragility Curves of Bridge 5 for Five Damage States

4.2.2 Fragility Analysis Considering Abutment Stiffness in Longitudinal Direction

Bridge 2 is analyzed considering the resistance from embankment soil due to passive earth pressure at abutment locations. The abutment stiffness is computed as described in (2-1). The connection between bridge deck and abutment is modeled as a gap element which is active only in compression. An initial gap of 0.0508 m (2 in) is provided in the gap element (figure 2-3(a)). Axial force develops due to pounding when the bridge deck strikes the abutment by loosing initially provided gap. Numbers of damaged bridges in each damage state and fragility parameters are tabulated in table 4-6 and the analytical fragility curves are shown in figure 4-6.

 TABLE 4-6 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2

 Considering Abutment Stiffness

Demos States	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters		
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ	
Almost No Damage	51	0.245		
Minor Damage	45	0.365		
Moderate Damage	27	0.638	0.932	
Major Damage	9	1.060		
Collapse	2	1.610		



FIGURE 4-6 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States Considering Abutment Stiffness

4.2.3 Effect of Abutment Stiffness on Fragility Curves in Longitudinal Direction

Comparison of figures 4-6 and 4-2 shows that there is no significant improvement of the fragility characteristics of Bridge 2 if the abutment stiffness in longitudinal direction is considered. Though it is very difficult to draw any conclusion depending on one sample test result, but the comparison procedure is general and applicable for all other bridges.

4.3 Pounding and Soil Effect on Fragility Curves

Kim and Shinozuka (2003) carried out a finite element analysis on impact phenomena as well as effects of seismically induced pounding at expansion joints of typical California bridges. They found that impact due to pounding affects the acceleration and velocity response, but does not contribute much to displacement response depending on the size of the impulse, and the rotations of the column ends are sensitive to the time duration of impact. Although pounding effect is found to have negligible effect on the ductility demand, a need is felt to quantify the effect of pounding at the expansion joints by developing fragility curves of highway bridges, particularly for multi-span long bridges with expansion joints.

In order to investigate the effect of pounding, bridges are analyzed with and without pounding under sixty time histories indicated earlier. Also to see the effect of soil-structure interaction, analysis is done considering the soil effect (introducing linear springs at column bottoms) and without considering soil effect (fixed condition at column bottoms). The fragility curves for the four (4) sample bridges (Bridge 2 to 4) associated with the states of damage mentioned in the previous section are plotted as a function of peak ground acceleration in figures 4-7, 4-8, 4-9 and 4-10, while the percent changes in median values of fragility curves are listed in tables 4-7, 4-8, 4-9 and 4-10, respectively considering CASE 1 as a standard case. Each figure has four (4) curves for the following four (4) cases: CASE 1: without pounding effects and without soil effects; CASE 2: with pounding effects and without soil effects; CASE 3: without pounding effects and with soil effects. For the purpose of comparing the fragility curves from above four cases, these are plotted in one figure for each damage state. It is noted that the log-standard deviation in each of figures 4-7, 4-8, 4-9 and 4-10 is obtained such that no two fragility curves will intersect each other.

This shows a mixed result in such a way that the pounding and/or soil effects are beneficial for some damage states, while it appears detrimental for other cases. Even at a certain state of damage of all bridges, it is very difficult to mention any common trend for the effect of pounding and/soil.



Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	3.6	3.6	10.7
Slight	0.0	-17.3	17.3	3.8
Moderate	0.0	5.7	10.0	0.0
Extensive	0.0	0.0	-3.9	5.9
Complete	0.0	0.0	11.5	11.5

4(c = 0.54)

0.4

PGA (g)

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0

0

0.2

0.2

Values of Fragility Curves



(e) Complete Collapse

(d) Extensive Damage

PGA (g)

0.4

FIGURE 4-7 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2

TABLE 4-8 Percent Change in Median

Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	0.0	0.0	83.3
Slight	0.0	11.8	41.2	82.3
Moderate	0.0	-2.9	17.6	17.6
Extensive	0.0	-13.0	4.3	-2.2
Complete	0.0	-6.1	4.5	0.0

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

1

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

1

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0

0

0.2

0.2

0.4

0.4 0 PGA (g)

Values of Fragility Curves



FIGURE 4-8 Fragility Curves of Bridge 3



Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	-55.6	16.7	-72.2
Slight	0.0	-24.0	20.0	-4.0
Moderate	0.0	-32.7	10.2	-14.3
Extensive	0.0	-27.5	2.9	-17.4
Complete	0.0	-19.3	6.4	-10.8

CASE 1 (c₀=0.25, ζ₀=1.01)

CASE 2 (c₀=0.19, ζ₀=1.01)

CASE 3 (c₀=0.30, ζ₀=1.01)

CASE 4 (c₀=0.24, ζ₀=1.01)

0.8

0.4 0 PGA (g)

CASE 1 (c₀=0.69, ζ₀=1.01)

CASE 2 (c₀=0.50, ζ₀=1.01)

CASE 3 (c₀=0.71, ζ₀=1.01)

0.4 0 PGA (g)

(d) Extensive Damage

CASE 4 (c.=0.57

(b) Slight Damage

0.6

1 01

0.6

0.8

1

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

1

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0

0.2

0

0.2

Values of Fragility Curves



(e) Complete Collapse

PGA (g)



TABLE 4-10 Percent Change in Median

Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	0.0	-20.5	-27.3
Slight	0.0	-1.8	-9.1	-14.5
Moderate	0.0	0.0	-9.1	-9.1
Extensive	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Complete	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.5

Values of Fragility Curves





FIGURE 4-10 Fragility Curves of Bridge 5

4.4 Jacketing and Restrainer Effect on Fragility Curve

In order to investigate the effect of bridge retrofit by confining columns with steel jackets, fragility curves of each bridge after retrofit are developed and compared with that of before retrofit. Also, a parametric study is performed to observe the effect of restrainer in the fragility characteristics of bridges by analyzing the bridge with and without applying restrainer.

The fragility curves for the four (4) sample bridges associated with the states of damage mentioned in the previous section are plotted as a function of peak ground acceleration in figures 4-11, 4-12, 4-13 and 4-14, while the percent changes in median values of fragility curves are listed in tables 4-11, 4-12, 4-13 and 4-14, respectively considering CASE 1 as a standard case. Each figure has four (4) curves for the following four (4) cases: CASE 1: without jacketing and without restrainer; CASE 2: with jacketing and without restrainer; CASE 3: without jacketing and with restrainer; CASE 4: with jacketing and with restrainer. For the purpose of comparing the fragility curves from above four cases, these are plotted in one figure for each damage state. It is noted that the log-standard deviation in each of figures 4-11, 4-12, 4-13 and 4-14 is obtained such that the fragility curves in each figure will not intersect each other.

The damage state of a bridge is defined in terms of the maximum value of the peak ductility demands sustained by all the column ends. In this context, comparison between fragility curves in figures 4-11 \sim 14 (CASE: 1 vs. 2 and 3 vs. 4) indicates considerable improvement in the fragility characteristics of bridge after column retrofit. This parametric study does not provide clear idea about the effect of restrainers at expansion joints.



			0	
Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	34.5	0.0	58.6
Slight	0.0	64.1	25.6	64.1
Moderate	0.0	70.0	5.7	70.0
Extensive	0.0	87.6	0.0	138.1
Complete	0.0	220.4	45.5	220.4

CASE 4 (c.=0.64)

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0

0

0.2

0.2





(d) Extensive Damage

PGA (g)

0.4

FIGURE 4-11 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2

(e) Complete Collapse



Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	45.5	-9.1	36.4
Slight	0.0	89.5	-21.1	42.1
Moderate	0.0	87.9	-18.2	45.5
Extensive	0.0	115.0	-2.5	82.5
Complete	0.0	272.6	-22.6	85.5

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

0.4

0.2

0

0

0.2

0.6

0.4

PGA (g)

(d) Extensive Damage

0.8

1

Values of Fragility Curves







0.2

0

0

0.2

0.4 0.6 PGA (g)

(e) Complete Collapse

0.8

1



Damage States	Casel	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	125.0	62.5	150.0
Slight	0.0	105.3	10.5	100.0
Moderate	0.0	109.1	18.2	87.9
Extensive	0.0	104.0	0.0	62.0
Complete	0.0	114.9	-17.2	165.5







FIGURE 4-13 Fragility Curves of Bridge 4



	8 1			
Damage States	Case1	Case2	Case3	Case4
Almost No	0.0	33.3	-24.2	12.1
Slight	0.0	24.1	0.0	27.6
Moderate	0.0	50.0	0.0	50.0
Extensive	0.0	47.5	4.2	53.3
Complete	0.0	54.0	4.6	54.0

CASE 1 (*c*₀=0.58, ζ₀=0.88)

CASE 2 (*c*₀=0.72, ζ₀=0.88)

CASE 3 (c₀=0.58, ζ₀=0.88)

CASE 4 (c.=0.74, ζ.=0.88)

0.4 0.6 PGA (g)

(b) Slight Damage

CASE 1 (*c*₀=1.20, ζ₀=0.88) CASE 2 (*c*₀=1.77, ζ₀=0.88)

CASE 3 (c₀=1.25, ζ₀=0.88)

CASE 4 (c₀=1.84, ζ₀=0.88)

0.8

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

Probability of Exceeding a Damage State

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0,

0

0.2





0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1 PGA (g) (d) Extensive Damage

(e) Complete Collapse

1

FIGURE 4-14 Fragility Curves of Bridge 5
4.5 Fragility Enhancement after Column Retrofit

As observed from the previous figures (figures 4-11 \sim 14), bridge performance in seismic ground motion is improving after retrofitting the bridge columns with steel jackets. In the following sections, the enhancements are computed separately for different shapes of bridge columns. The percent increase in fragility parameter (*c*) after retrofit with respect to the same before retrofit represent the "Enhancement" by definition.

4.5.1 Bridges with Circular Columns

Average fragility enhancements of Bridge 1 and 2 at each state of damage are computed from the corresponding sets of fragility curves for before and after retrofit and plotted as a function of the state of damage. An analytical function is interpolated and the "enhancement curve" is plotted on the basis of the least square fit as shown in figure 4-15. Five damage states are mentioned as indices, x = 1, to 5 and described on the figure. This curve shows 20%, 34%, 58%, 98% and 167% improvement for 'Almost No' damage, 'Minor' damage, 'Moderate' damage, 'Major' damage and 'Collapse' respectively.



FIGURE 4-15 Enhancement Curve for Circular Columns with Steel Jacketing

4.5.2 Bridges with Oblong Shape Columns

For Bridge 3 and 5 with oblong columns, the fragility enhancement is developed in figure 4-16.

Average fragility enhancements of these two bridges at each state of damage are computed from the corresponding sets of fragility curves for before and after retrofit and plotted as a function of the state of damage. An analytical function is interpolated and the "enhancement curve" is plotted on the basis of the least square fit as shown in figure 4-16. Five damage states are mentioned as indices, x = 1, to 5 and described on the figure. This curve shows 20%, 34%, 58%, 99% and 170% improvement for 'Almost No' damage, 'Minor' damage, 'Moderate' damage, 'Major' damage and 'Collapse' respectively.



FIGURE 4-16 Enhancement Curve for Oblong Columns with Steel Jacketing

4.5.3 Bridge with Rectangular Columns

For Bridge 4 with rectangular columns, the fragility enhancement is developed in figure 4-17.

Fragility enhancements of this bridge at each state of damage are computed from the corresponding sets of fragility curves for before and after retrofit and plotted as a function of the state of damage. An analytical function is interpolated and the "enhancement curve" is plotted on the basis of the least square fit as shown in figure 4-17. Five damage states are mentioned as indices, x = 1, to 5 and described on the figure. This figure does not indicate any good correlation among the enhancement records from at five (5) damage states. This is because the rectangular columns of Bridge 4 are not efficiently confined with elliptical steel jackets after retrofit (figures A-6(b) ~ A-14(b)).



FIGURE 4-17 Enhancement Curve for Rectangular Columns with Steel Jacketing

4.5.4 Enhancement in All Bridges

For Bridges 1~5, the fragility enhancement is developed in figure 4-18.

Considering all the sample bridges and corresponding sets of fragility curves before and after retrofit at each state of damage is computed and plotted as a function of the state of damage. An analytical function is interpolated and the "enhancement curve" is plotted on the basis of the least square fit as shown in figure 4-18. Five damage states are mentioned as indices, x = 1, to 5 and described on the figure. This curve shows 40%, 55%, 75%, 104% and 143% improvement for 'Almost No' damage, 'Minor' damage, 'Moderate' damage, 'Major' damage and 'Collapse' respectively. This curve shows improvement for each damage state described on the *x* axis in figure 4-18.



FIGURE 4-18 Enhancement Curve for Five Sample Bridges with Steel Jacketing

4.6 Analytical Fragility Curves in Transverse Direction

To construct analytical fragility curves of the example bridges, bridge models (described in Section 2) are analyzed under sixty (60) ground motion time histories. According to the damage states definition given by Dutta and Mander (1998), ductility demands at each damage states are calculated.

4.6.1 Fragility Analysis Considering No Abutment Stiffness in Transverse Direction

For no abutment stiffness (zero resistance from backfill soil), bridge acts as a single degree of freedom system in transverse direction. Very low abutment stiffness (14.57 kN/m, nearly zero resistance from backfill soil) is considered to analyze Bridge 1 and 2 under earthquake ground motions. Numbers of damaged bridges in each damage state and fragility parameters are tabulated in tables 4-15 and 4-16 while figures 4-19 and 4-20 show the analytical fragility curves of Bridge 1 and 2.

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	55	0.1765	
Minor Damage	49	0.2969	
Moderate Damage	39	0.4459	0.730
Major Damage	27	0.6418	
Collapse	15	0.8969	

TABLE 4-15 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 1for Abutment Stiffness 14.57 kN/m



FIGURE 4-19 Fragility Curves of Bridge 1 for Five Damage States for Abutment Stiffness 14.57 kN/m

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	56	0.0255	
Minor Damage	45	0.1745	
Moderate Damage	34	0.4857	1.527
Major Damage	19	0.8908	
Collapse	12	1.0929	

TABLE 4-16 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2for Abutment Stiffness 14.57 kN/m



FIGURE 4-20 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States for Abutment Stiffness 14.57 kN/m

4.6.2 Fragility Analysis Considering Abutment Stiffness in Transverse Direction

Bridge 1 and 2 are analyzed considering the lateral abutment stiffness of 7287.68 kN/m (500 kips/ft) and 29150.73 kN/m (2000 kips/ft) respectively. Numbers of damaged bridges in each damage state and fragility parameters are tabulated in tables 4-17 and 4-18 and the analytical fragility curves are shown in figures 4-21 and 4-22.

Damage States	Damaged Bridges Fragility I	Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	50	0.3061	
Minor Damage	41	0.3990	
Moderate Damage	28	0.6194	0.707
Major Damage	16	0.8633	
Collapse	6	1.1990	

TABLE 4-17 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 1for Abutment Stiffness 7287.68 kN/m



FIGURE 4-21 Fragility Curves of Bridge 1 for Five Damage States for Abutment Stiffness 7287.68 kN/m

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	c(g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	53	0.212	
Minor Damage	45	0.295	
Moderate Damage	28	0.617	0.968
Major Damage	16	0.856	
Collapse	8	1.738	

TABLE 4-18 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2for Abutment Stiffness 29150.73 kN/m



FIGURE 4-22 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States for Abutment Stiffness 29150.73 kN/m

4.6.3 Effect of Abutment Stiffness on Fragility Curves in Transverse Direction

Considerable improvement in fragility characteristics of Bridge 1 and 2 are noticed due to the lateral resistance of backfill soil at abutment locations. In reality, it is rational to consider that the lateral movement of bridge is resisted by the wingwalls. Therefore, it is important to consider the lateral stiffness of abutments during transverse movement of the bridge.

SECTION 5

CALIBRATION OF ANALYTICAL FRAGILITY CURVES WITH DAMAGE DATA

The damage report of Caltrans' bridges under the Northridge earthquake serves as invaluable field experiments that the nature provided. For the analytical purpose, mechanistic model of bridge damage should be in accordance with that past earthquake damage data. Shinozuka et al. (2003b) developed the empirical fragility curves for Caltrans' bridges utilizing ShakeMap (http://www.trinet.org/shake/index.html) for 1994 Northridge Earthquake and the bridge damage data associated with it. They statistically analyzed 1998 damaged bridges and categorized them according to bridge configurations (such as 'single or multiple span' and 'skew angle') and 'soil type'. Each of these classes is again subdivided into more detailed sets; (a) two span types (single or multiple); (b) three sets of skew angles ($0^{\circ} \sim 20^{\circ}$, $20^{\circ} \sim 60^{\circ}$ and $> 60^{\circ}$); and (c) three soil types (A: hard, B: medium, C: soft as per Uniform Building Code 1993). They generated empirical fragility curves for four different subset levels; (i) Level 1 subset considering all 1998 bridges in a same class, (ii) Level 2 subset for different bridge classes according to their span, soil type and skewness, (iii) Level 3 subset for bridges with any two combinations of their span, soil type and skewness, and (iv) Level 4 subset for bridges with all possible combinations of span, soil type and skewness. Among these, Level 4 is the most statistically sophisticated and consisting of 18 combinations of bridge span, skew angle, and soil type. Figure 5-1 shows a set of empirical fragility curves developed in Level 4 subset with a combination of 'multiple span', skew angle ' $0^{\circ} \sim 20^{\circ}$ ' and soil type 'C'. In this section, these empirical fragility curves are used to mechanically calibrate of analytical damage model of Caltrans' bridges. Definitions of bridge damage states are also quantified through this process for which analytical fragility curves become consistent with empirical damage data.



FIGURE 5-1 Empirical Fragility Curves for Level 4 Subset (Multiple Span, Skew angle 0° ~ 20° and Soil Type C)

5.1 Comparison of Fragility Curves

In the present study, empirical fragility curves for a third level subset (considering 'multiple span' and 'soil type C') are used to compare these curves with the analytically obtained fragility curves (figures $5-2 \sim 5-4$). Comparison indicates that the analytical curves tend to be substantially conservative in the sense that bridges are more probable to suffer from more severe damage state than they are when empirical fragility curves suggest. In order to minimize the discrepancies observed between the analytical and empirical fragility curves, definition of the damage states of bridges is revised for the development of analytical fragility curves and it is found that the damage state definition given by Dutta and Mander (1998) can be adjusted to produce analytical fragility curves much more consistent with empirical one.



FIGURE 5-2 Comparison of Empirical and Analytical Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 at Minor Damage State



FIGURE 5-3 Comparison of Empirical and Analytical Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 at Moderate Damage State



FIGURE 5-4 Comparison of Empirical and Analytical Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 at Major Damage State

5.2 Estimation of Ductility Capacities at Various Damage States

Seismic response of bridges from nonlinear time history analysis (*SAP2000 Nonlinear* analysis) for sixty ground motions is used as input in this part of analysis. While comparing with empirical fragility curves, numerical analysis is done to get best-fit distribution, for minor, moderate and extensive damage states and their corresponding ductility capacities. The parameters (median and log-standard deviation) of each fragility curve are independently estimated by means of the maximum likelihood procedure as described in section 4. The two fragility parameters are computed as c_0 and ζ_0 satisfying (4-8).

Second optimization is done to minimize the difference between parameters of empirical fragility curves (median, c_{emp} and log-standard deviation, ζ_{emp}) and those obtained in the analytical procedure (i.e. c_0 and ζ_0). In order to capture the proper value of threshold ductility capacity at each damage state, which will produce the analytical fragility curves consistent with empirical

curves, the above two optimization procedures are performed simultaneously. Figures 5-5 represents a flowchart that represents the procedure. The entire procedure is carried out independently for Bridge 2, 4 and 5. Table 5-1 presents the median values (c) for empirical fragility curves and calibrated analytical fragility curves. Result indicates that at minor and moderate damage states, calibrated median values are well in accordance with that from empirical fragility curves, although dispersion is observed in the major damage state for Bridges 4 and 5. This is because of the limited failure cases observed in major damage state while analyzing these example bridges under 60 ground motion time histories. Analysis with many severe ground motions that may cause major damage to Bridge 4 and 5 will produce better correspondence with empirical data. Figures 5-6 and 5-7 show the empirical fragility curves and calibrated fragility curves of three example bridges respectively for minor and moderate damage states.

Calibrated rotational ductility capacities for minor, moderate and major damage states of these three example bridges are presented in table 5-2. Figure 5-8 plots these calibrated rotational ductility capacities for different damage states in which indices 1, 2, and 3 stand for 'Minor Damage', 'Moderate Damage' and 'Major Damage' respectively. This figure indicates that in all damage states threshold rotational ductility for Bridge 4 and 5 almost overlap with each other while that for Bridge 2 lay far apart. A clear increasing trend is common for all bridges which can be represented on the basis of least square fit. It can be stated from this result that empirical fragility curve for more detailed bridge classification is needed in order to calibrate analytical result. For example, additional consideration of bridge length and number of span in current classification will enhance calibrated result significantly.



FIGURE 5-5 Flow Chart: Estimation of Bridge Damage States through the Calibration of Analytical and Empirical Bridge Fragility Curves

		Median V	ian Values (g)		
Damage States	Empirical	Calibrated Analytical Fragility Curves			
	Fragility Curves	Bridge 2	Bridge 4	Bridge 5	
Minor	0.56	0.56	0.53	0.54	
Moderate	0.70	0.70	0.67	0.67	
Major	1.09	1.06	0.73	0.83	

Table 5-1 Fragility Parameters (Median Values in g) for Empirical and CalibratedAnalytical Fragility Curves



FIGURE 5-6 Empirical and Calibrated Analytical Fragility Curves at Minor Damage



FIGURE 5-7 Empirical and Calibrated Analytical Fragility Curves at Moderate Damage

Bridge No	Threshold Rotational Ductility at Different Damage States		
	Minor	Moderate	Major
2	3.39	4.75	8.43
4	6.43	9.02	12.35
5	5.93	9.06	12.18

Table 5-2 Lower Bound of Calibrated Rotational Ductility of Bridges



FIGURE 5-8 Rotational Ductility Capacities at Various Damage States

SECTION 6

EFFECT OF GROUND MOTION DIRECTIONALITY ON FRAGILITY CHARACTERISTICS OF BRIDGES

Most of the studies on the seismic performance of structures are conducted using earthquake ground motions acting along one of the principle axes of those structures. According to ATC-6 (1981), "It would be better to use a set of three or more acceleration time histories with an average elastic response spectrum similar to the design spectrum. This discussion is intended to emphasize that the design ground shaking is not a single motion, but rather a concept that encompasses a family of motions having the same overall intensity and frequency content but differing in some potentially important details of the time sequences of the motions". In general recorded ground motions have two components, N-S and E-W. A typical bridge under two components of ground motion is shown in figure 6-1. Figure 6-2 shows the trajectory of an earthquake ground motion with two orthogonal components. It is almost impossible to identify the principal directions of these orthogonal components and position of the structure relative to them. Although it is possible to model the ground motion acceleration time history as a 2D or 3D vector random process (Shinozuka, et al., 1996), the model results in time varying principal axis of the process and becomes too complex for our purposes. Recently some researchers [Stefano et al. (1998), Riddell and Santa-Maria (1999), Ghersi and Rossi (2001)] evaluated structural response considering bi-directional earthquake ground motions acting along principal However, well-designed structure should be capable of resisting axes of the structure. earthquake motion from all possible directions. Therefore directionality of the earthquake ground motion components and its effect on structure is an important issue in seismic performance analysis. The word 'directionality' is used here as opposed to 'directivity' used in engineering seismology with a specific definition related to fault motion unique to that field.

Wilson et al. (1982), Wilson et al. (1995) and Hernandez et al. (2002) showed how to estimate the maximum structural response to more than one translational seismic component of ground motion by a response spectrum analysis. They considered one component of ground motion as some proportion of other and showed the variation in response at a certain location of the structure due to varying inclination of ground motion components. Following their approach, this study presents a practice-oriented technique to compute the effect of directionality of earthquake ground motion on seismic performance of bridges in terms of fragility curves.



FIGURE 6-1 Bridge under Two Orthogonal Components of Ground Motion Acting at Any Angle θ



FIGURE 6-2 Trajectory of Ground Acceleration Time Histories of El Centro Earthquake, 1940

6.1 Bridge Under One Inclined Component of Ground Motion

To investigate the directionality effect of earthquake ground motion, it is considered that the ground motion (GM) acts at all possible angles θ with respect to longitudinal (*x*) axis of the example bridge (figure 6-1), as shown in figure 6-3.



FIGURE 6-3 Earthquake Ground Motions Input (Plan View)

For the purpose of demonstration, it is considered that two separate analyses of the example bridge, under ground motion 'GM' acting along longitudinal and transverse directions, yield the responses R_x and R_y respectively in longitudinal and transverse directions at any location 'A' of the bridge. This response could be in terms of generated force, moment or deformation in any bridge component. At any inclined direction (θ), the response components are computed from R_x and R_y as shown in figure 6-4.



(a) Longitudinal Analysis



(b) Transverse Analysis

FIGURE 6-4 Response Components in any Inclined Direction (Plan View)

Hence, the response of the bridge at location 'A' due to GM when acting with an angle θ with longitudinal axis of bridge is a combination of R_x and R_y and can be expressed as

$$R_{\theta} = R_x \cos\theta + R_y \sin\theta \tag{6-1}$$

To get the maximum response, $\frac{\partial R_{\theta}}{\partial \theta} = 0$

Therefore, the critical angle θ_{cr} , at which the demand of the ground motion is maximum, will be

$$\tan 2\theta_{cr} = \frac{2R_x R_y}{R_x^2 - R_y^2} \tag{6-2}$$

and the maximum response of the bridge at location A becomes,

$$R_{max} = R_x \cos\theta_{cr} + R_y \sin\theta_{cr} = \sqrt{R_x^2 + R_y^2}$$
(6-3)

6.2 Bridge Under Two Orthogonal Components of Ground Motion

To investigate the directionality effect of two orthogonal components of earthquake ground motion, it is considered that one component, GM_1 acts at all possible angles θ with respect to *x* (longitudinal) axis and at the same time the orthogonal component, GM_2 acts an angle 90+ θ . The following figure (figure 6-5) shows the plan view these motions schematically.



FIGURE 6-5 Earthquake Ground Motions Input (Plan View)

Figure 6-6 shows the responses of the bridge R_{1x} and R_{2x} in x direction (at any location 'A') as observed under GM₁ and GM₂, respectively, when they are acting along the longitudinal direction. Similar analyses are done considering motions are acting along the transverse direction of the bridge and corresponding response quantities (at location 'A') are measured as R_{1y} and R_{2y} . In order to compute the response of the bridge under two orthogonal components, it is considered that ground motions are statically independent.



FIGURE 6-6 Response Components under two Orthogonal Components of Ground Motion (Plan View)

The response of the bridge at location 'A' due to GM_1 when acting with an angle θ with longitudinal axis of bridge is

$$R_{1\theta} = R_{1x}\cos\theta + R_{1y}\sin\theta \tag{6-4}$$

and the same due to GM₂, acting at an angle 90+ θ with longitudinal axis of bridge is

$$R_{2\theta} = -R_{2x}\sin\theta + R_{2y}\cos\theta \tag{6-5}$$

As ground motions are statistically independent, the response of the bridge at location 'A' under GM_1 and GM_2 is

$$R = \sqrt{R_{1\theta}^2 + R_{2\theta}^2} = \sqrt{\left(R_{1x}\cos\theta + R_{1y}\sin\theta\right)^2 + \left(-R_{2x}\sin\theta + R_{2y}\cos\theta\right)^2}$$
(6-6)

To get the maximum response, $\frac{\partial R}{\partial \theta} = 0$

Therefore, the critical angle, θ_{cr} at which the bridge will have maximum response at 'A' under GM₁ and GM₂, can be expressed as

$$\tan 2\theta_{cr} = \frac{2(R_{1x}R_{1y} - R_{2x}R_{2y})}{(R_{1x}^2 + R_{2y}^2 - R_{1y}^2 - R_{2x}^2)}$$
(6-7)

So the maximum response of the bridge at location 'A' under GM₁ and GM₂ will be,

$$R_{max} = \sqrt{\left(R_{1x}\cos\theta_{cr} + R_{1y}\sin\theta_{cr}\right)^2 + \left(-R_{2x}\sin\theta_{cr} + R_{2y}\cos\theta_{cr}\right)^2} \tag{6-8}$$

6.3 Development of Fragility Curve for One Inclined Component of Ground Motion

Nonlinear time history analysis of Bridge 2 under 60 pre-stated ground motions is conducted separately to compute the response (in this case, rotation at column ends) for each earthquake in both longitudinal and transverse directions. According to (6-1), rotations of bridge column ends for each ground motion are obtained considering motions are acting at certain angle to the longitudinal axis of the bridge. Therefore, to check the failure possibility of bridge in any damage level, maximum rotations at all column ends of bridge are computed under each time history of ground motion. Fragility curves are developed considering θ as 15⁰, 30⁰, 45⁰, 60⁰ and 75⁰ and plotted in figures 6-7 ~ 6-11. Tables 6-1 to 6-5 show the number of cases of bridge failure at each damage states and the corresponding fragility parameters for different inclinations of ground motion.

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	<i>c</i> (g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	57	0.0694	
Minor Damage	49	0.2847	
Moderate Damage	35	0.4990	1.096
Major Damage	17	0.8500	
Collapse	5	1.2398	

TABLE 6-1 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2 for $\theta = 15^{0}$



FIGURE 6-7 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States for $\theta = 15^{\circ}$

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	<i>c</i> (g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	57	0.1041	
Minor Damage	49	0.2541	
Moderate Damage	35	0.4755	1.001
Major Damage	17	0.7755	
Collapse	5	1.0816	

TABLE 6-2 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2 for $\theta = 30^{\circ}$



for $\theta = 30^{\circ}$

FIGURE 6-8 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	<i>c</i> (g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	58	0.1041	
Minor Damage	52	0.2541	
Moderate Damage	37	0.4531	0.962
Major Damage	22	0.7255	
Collapse	13	1.0296	

TABLE 6-3 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2 for $\theta = 45^{\circ}$



FIGURE 6-9 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States for $\theta = 45^{\circ}$

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	<i>c</i> (g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	59	0.0286	
Minor Damage	52	0.2541	
Moderate Damage	35	0.4898	1.011
Major Damage	20	0.7602	
Collapse	14	0.9694	

TABLE 6-4 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2 for $\theta = 60^{\circ}$



FIGURE 6-10 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States for $\theta = 60^{\circ}$

	Damaged Bridges	Fragility Parameters	
Damage States	(Sample Size 60)	<i>c</i> (g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	57	0.0694	
Minor Damage	51	0.2510	
Moderate Damage	34	0.5174	1.015
Major Damage	19	0.7776	
Collapse	11	1.2592	

TABLE 6-5 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters of Bridge 2 for $\theta = 75^{\circ}$



FIGURE 6-11 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States for $\theta = 75^{\circ}$

6.4 Effect of Ground Motion Directionality on Fragility Curves

From figures 6-7 ~ 6-11 it is clear that the bridge has nearly same failure probabilities in a particular damage state starting from 'Minor' to 'Major', when θ is varying from 30⁰ to 60⁰. The following figures (figures 6-12, 6-13 and 6-14) compare the fragility curves of Bridge 2 for 'Minor', 'Moderate' and 'Major' damage states respectively, for different inclinations (θ) of ground motions to the longitudinal axis of the bridge. Result shows that when ground motions come along the longitudinal axis of the bridge (i.e. $\theta = 0^{0}$), it has least probability of failure while that is maximum for $\theta = 45^{0}$. Fragility curves for $\theta = 90^{0}$ (along transverse direction) are stronger than that for $\theta = 45^{0}$ but weaker than those for $\theta = 0^{0}$. The trend is similar for all three damage states. Therefore, it can be concluded that for Bridge 2, the ground motions have maximum demand when they come with an inclination of 30⁰ to 60⁰ with the longitudinal direction of the bridge. Seismic performance analysis only considering ground motions along longitudinal or transverse directions of the bridge, underestimates the structural impact under the earthquake ground motions.



FIGURE 6-12 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for State of Minor Damage



FIGURE 6-13 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for State of Moderate Damage



FIGURE 6-14 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for State of Major Damage

SECTION 7 FRAGILITY CURVE DEVELOPMENT USING CAPACITY SPECTRUM METHOD

Currently Capacity Spectrum Method (CSM), popularly known as pushover analysis, is in use for a rapid evaluation of structural performance under earthquake ground motion. It correlates structural capacity with the demand related to earthquake ground motion by means of graphical representation. Applied Technology Council (ATC-40, 1996) documented nonlinear static analysis procedures including CSM for seismic evaluation of concrete buildings. For the purpose of vulnerability assessment of bridges, this section develops the nonlinear static procedure involving CSM for construction of fragility curves incorporating performance-based engineering concept. Although analytical methods are available to perform nonlinear time history analysis, this method, as more practice-oriented, is expected to attract more interest and support from the profession.

Over past few years, CSM has been studied and applied for the seismic evaluation of structures, mainly RC buildings. This concept is currently under investigation for the use in bridge analysis, design and seismic evaluation (Fajfar et al., 1997, Abeysinghe et al., 2002 and Zheng at al., 2003). Fragility curves of Memphis bridges were developed using CSM following the procedure prescribed in ATC-40 (ATC, 1996) (Shinozuka et al., 2000). The fragility curves thus developed were in a good agreement with those developed by the nonlinear time-history analysis for one damage state but did not match very well for other damage state. Recently following the same methodology, pushover analysis was carried out for the evaluation of Grevniotikos Bridge in Greece (Abeysinghe et al., 2002), indicating that the use of CSM for the performance-based seismic evaluation of bridges is now acceptable.

In this study, CSM is used to evaluate the seismic performance of Bridge 2 for sixty (60) ground acceleration time histories in Los Angeles (table 3-1). Two spectra, "Demand Spectrum" that represents intensity of the seismic ground motion to which bridges are subjected, and "Capacity Spectrum" that represents the bridges' ability to resist the seismic demand and the "Performance

Point" (i.e. the intersecting point of demand and capacity spectra) are the key elements in CSM. Because of the hysteretic damping of the structure during excitation, elastic response spectrum (5% damped) should be reduced to the inelastic response spectrum by an appropriate spectral reduction factor. Here one simplified approach (Reinhorn, 1997), alternative to the current professional design procedure given in ATC-40 (1996), is followed to reduce the seismic demand curve to take care of structural nonlinearity. Fragility curves at different damage levels are developed by numerically simulating the performance displacements. To check the reliability of this current analytical procedure, developed fragility curves are compared with those obtained from time history analysis of the bridge.

7.1 Fragility Analysis in Longitudinal Direction

7.1.1 Capacity Spectrum

Capacity curve is force-displacement curve that represents the capacity of the structure within and beyond elastic limit. To develop this plot, static nonlinear analysis (pushover analysis) is performed using *SAP2000 Nonlinear* computer code. Computation of total shear force generated at bridge supports as a function of displacement of the bridge girder constitutes the capacity curve by definition.

As stated in ATC-40 (1996) the 'lateral' forces (i.e., force in a horizontal plane acting along longitudinal/transverse direction) are applied in proportion to the fundamental mode shape, and is described as

$$F_{i} = \left(w_{i} \phi_{i} / \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} \phi_{i} \right) V$$
(7-1)

where F_i is the 'lateral' force on node i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, N$), w_i is the dead weight assigned to node i, ϕ_i is the amplitude of the fundamental mode at node i, V the total base shear and N the number of nodes. To generate the capacity curve for building structures, the horizontal displacement at roof level is considered as a most critical displacement component. However, for bridge structures the displacements of the bridge girder in longitudinal direction is used to
develop the capacity curve. In order to develop the capacity spectrum in any mode other than the fundamental mode, the effect of each of the higher modes should be incorporated in the lateral load pattern and all the modal parameters should be taken corresponding to the mode under consideration.

Bridge 2 has 1^{st} mode (T₁ = 1.94 sec) of vibration in transverse direction and the next two modes (T₂ = 1.56 sec and T₃ = 1.39 sec) are in longitudinal direction as shown in figure 7-1. As second (2nd) and third (3rd) modes are very close to each other, modal combination rule is applied for these two modes to determine the 'lateral' forces at each node (7-1) of the bridge for longitudinal pushover analysis. Figures 7-2(a) and (b) are the capacity curves of the bridge obtained from pushover analysis which represent, respectively, the variation of the bridge girder displacement and rotation of plastic hinge regions at bridge column ends with the overall base shear force.



(a) Mode 1 in Transverse Direction



(b) Mode 2 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) Mode 3 in Longitudinal Direction

FIGURE 7-1 Mode Shapes of Bridge 2 in First 3 Modes



FIGURE 7-2 Capacity Curves of Bridge 2 Derived from Pushover Analysis

According the general trend of CSM, it is required to convert the capacity curve to the capacity spectrum in ADRS (Acceleration-Displacement Response Spectra) format. Two measures of capacity spectrum, spectral acceleration S_a and spectral displacement S_d , can be estimated using the following equations;

$$S_a = \frac{V/W}{\alpha} \tag{7-2}$$

$$S_d = \frac{\Delta_{girder}}{PF\phi_{girder}}$$
(7-3)

where W overall dead weight of bridge, Δ_{girder} horizontal displacement of girder, ϕ_{girder} amplitude of the fundamental mode at girder, α and PF are modal mass coefficient and modal participation factor of the fundamental mode defined as follows

$$\alpha = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i \phi_i)/g\right]^2}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i/g\right] \left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i \phi_i^2)/g\right]}$$
(7-4)
$$PF = \left[\frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i \phi_i)/g\right]}{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} (w_i \phi_i^2)/g\right]}\right]$$
(7-5)

For longitudinal pushover analysis, modal combination rule is also applied to obtain α and *PF* and therefore, S_a and S_d . Figure 7-3 shows capacity spectrum of Bridge 2.



FIGURE 7-3 Capacity Spectrum of Bridge 2 in Longitudinal Direction

7.1.2 Demand Spectrum

Sixty elastic acceleration response spectra (5% damped) are generated from ground motion time histories (table 3-1). To use the CSM, these are converted to ADRS format as follows

$$S_d = \frac{T^2}{4\pi^2} S_a g \tag{7-6}$$

Figures 7-4 and 7-5 show the elastic acceleration response spectrum and corresponding demand spectrum for ground motion LA01.



FIGURE 7-4 Elastic Acceleration Response Spectrum (5% Damped)



FIGURE 7-5 Acceleration-Displacement Response Spectrum

7.1.3 Performance Point

Performance point is the intersecting point of capacity spectrum with demand spectrum. To incorporate the energy dissipation of the structure through hysteretic behavior beyond yield, the

elastic demand curve of the earthquake ground motion should be reduced. In a variation of ATC-40 (1996), recent studies developed few methods to determine inelastic demand spectra from elastic spectra (Fajfar, 1999, Miranda, 1994, Reinforn, 1997). In this study, the procedure given by Reinforn (1997) is used to produce the inelastic demand spectrum and, hence the inelastic response. According to this procedure, the inelastic spectral displacement (S_d^{in}) and inelastic spectral acceleration (S_a^{in}) can be expressed as

$$S_{d}^{in} = \frac{S_{d}^{e}}{R} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{c} \left(R^{c} - 1 \right) \right\} \ge \frac{S_{d}^{e}}{R}$$
(7-7)

$$S_{a}^{\ in} = \frac{S_{a}^{\ e}}{R} \left[1 + \alpha_{PY} \left\{ \frac{1}{c} \left(R^{c} - 1 \right) \right\} \right]$$
(7-8)

where S_d^{e} and S_a^{e} , respectively are the elastic spectral displacement and acceleration, *R* is the reduction factor, c is a constant and α_{PY} is the post-yield hardening coefficient of the structure. The reduction factor *R* is defined as the ratio of maximum elastic force (Q^e/W) to the yield force (Q^v/W) as shown in figure 7-6. The constant c can be computed according to the following equation

$$c = \frac{T_o^a}{1 + T_o^a} + \frac{b}{T_o}$$
(7-9)

where T_o is the initial time period of the capacity spectrum, *a* and *b* are factors as given in table 7-1 (Krawinkler and Nasser, 1992).

$lpha_{\scriptscriptstyle PY}$	а	b
0%	1.0	0.42
2%	1.0	0.37
10%	0.80	0.29

 TABLE 7-1 Coefficients as Given in Krawinkler and Nasser (1992)



FIGURE 7-6 Estimation of Spectral Reduction Factor, R

Following this procedure, 60 inelastic demand spectra are generated from corresponding elastic demand spectra. Figure 7-7 shows the inelastic demand spectrum generated from the elastic spectrum of LA01.



FIGURE 7-7 Calculation of Performance Displacement for LA01

The intersecting point of capacity and inelastic demand spectra represents structural performance under that particular ground motion (figure 7-7). It should be noted that the reduction factor R depends on the capacity curve of the structure as well as on the elastic demand curve of the ground motion under consideration. Hence, it is obvious that R will vary with different structures and earthquake ground motions.

7.1.4 Development of Fragility Curves in Longitudinal Direction

For sixty earthquake ground motions, sixty performance (spectral) displacements (S_d) are obtained separately and converted to the displacement of the bridge girder with the aid of following equation.

$$\Delta_{girder} = S_d \times PF \times \phi_{girder} \tag{7-10}$$

In correspond to the estimated displacements of the bridge girder for all sixty ground motions, rotations at plastic hinge regions of bridge columns are computed and used to develop the fragility curves as the damage states are defined on the basis of rotational ductility demand. To be consistent with the analytical fragility curves developed in the earlier section, the definition of damage states is kept unaltered. Number of damaged bridges for each damage states and fragility parameters are listed in table 7-2. In addition, figure 7-8 shows the fragility curves of Bridge 2 for all damage states.

Damage States	Damaged Bridges (Sample Size 60)	Fragility Parameters		
		c(g)	ζ	
Almost No Damage	47	0.2184		
Minor Damage	37	0.4020		
Moderate Damage	24	0.7122	1.249	
Major Damage	8	1.1520		
Collapse	3	1.4340		

 TABLE 7-2 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters

 in Longitudinal Direction



FIGURE 7-8 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States

7.2 Fragility Analysis in Transverse Direction

As stated earlier, Bridge 2 has its fundamental mode of vibration ($T_1 = 1.95$ sec) in transverse direction. Following the procedure described in the earlier part, the capacity of the bridge in transverse direction is computed and shown in is shown in figure 7-9.



FIGURE 7-9 Capacity Curves of Bridge 2 Derived from Pushover Analysis

Figure 7-9(a) is converted to the capacity spectrum and is shown in the following figure (figure 7-10).



FIGURE 7-10 Capacity Spectrum of Bridge 2 in Transverse Direction

Fragility analysis in transverse direction of the bridge is done as described in Section 7.1.4.Number of damaged bridges for each damage states and fragility parameters are listed in table 7-In addition, figure 7-11 shows the fragility curves of Bridge 2 for all damage states.

Damage States	Damaged Bridges (Sample Size 60)	Fragility Parameters	
		c(g)	ζ
Almost No Damage	43	0.2680	
Minor Damage	38	0.3880	
Moderate Damage	27	0.6408	0.96
Major Damage	17	0.8929	
Collapse	10	1.0745	

 TABLE 7-3 Number of Damaged Bridges and Fragility Parameters

 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE 7-11 Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 for Five Damage States in Transverse Direction

7.3 Comparison of Analytical Fragility Curves

Since nonlinear time history analysis is commonly considered as accurate procedure to judge the performance of any structure, the analytical fragility curves developed using static nonlinear analysis are verified by considering the bridge response in time history analysis as an ideal guideline (figures 4-6 and 4-22). Figures 7-12 and 7-13 show the comparison in 'Almost No', 'Minor', 'Moderate' and 'Major' damage states of Bridge 2 in longitudinal and transverse direction, respectively.



FIGURE 7-12 Comparison of Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 in Longitudinal Direction



FIGURE 7-13 Comparison of Fragility Curves of Bridge 2 in Transverse Direction

Result indicates, in all cases (four damage states in both longitudinal and transverse directions) analytical fragility curves derived from pushover analysis are in well accordance with those from time history analysis. Therefore this nonlinear static analysis method can be use successfully in seismic vulnerability analysis of bridges. Also this provides confidence to use this method to conduct seismic performance analysis of bridges when ground motion comes from any arbitrary direction.

SECTION 8 CONCLUSIONS

This report represents the seismic performance analysis of reinforced concrete bridges in the form of fragility curves which is a function of ground motion intensity. Nonlinear time history analyses of five (5) Caltrans' bridges are performed before and after column retrofit with steel jacketing. In addition to the dynamic analysis, pushover (nonlinear static) analysis is also conducted as it is more practice-oriented and appealing to the profession. To be consistent, developed fragility curves are calibrated with damage data of bridges from past earthquakes. Furthermore, this report addresses the issue of directionality effect of earthquake ground motion on structures in order to reflect on the fact that earthquake can come from any arbitrary direction to the structure.

Following are the conclusions that can be drawn from this study:

- The result of progressive failure mechanism indicates that damage may result due to the formation of plastic hinges at column ends or due to the failure at expansion joint. Restrainer performs an important role in bridge failure to the bridge having expansion joints. There is also a probability, though small, of having shear failure at the plastic region of a shorter and stiffer bridge column. Bridge failure can also result from anchorage failure if restrainer and anchor are not designed properly.
- 2. Pounding does not result in any significant damage to the structure. Also impact force generated by pounding is not enough to make any significant change in the columns rotation. In reality, however, there is a high possibility of having non-uniform contact of adjacent decks at expansion joints due for example to the yaw motion of joining decks at different frequency. This may lead to localized damage by generating highly concentrated local stress field, even if the bridge has no geometrical skewness.
- Seismic retrofit of bridge columns with steel jackets helps to improve the fragility characteristics of the bridges enormously. The enhancement curves of bridge retrofit are represented on the basis of least square fit of enhancement records from different damage states.

- 4. Fragility performance of a bridge in transverse direction is highly influenced by the abutment lateral stiffness coming from the backfill soil resistance. This stiffness should be considered carefully, as abutment lateral stiffness influences the bridge movement in transverse direction significantly.
- 5. The present analysis integrated statistical and mechanistic aspects of fragility curve development and revealed that ductility capacity converted from drift limits and used as definition of damage states results in excessively conservative estimate of fragility curves of bridges. To remedy this problem, this study established a method of adjusting mechanistic definition of damage state and produced analytical fragility curves from nonlinear time history analysis consistent with empirical damage data.
- 6. This study developed a practice-oriented method for seismic performance analysis of a structure, in the form of fragility curves, considering earthquake ground motions are coming from any arbitrary horizontal direction to the bridge structure. Result indicates that in seismic performance analysis, consideration of ground motion acting only along longitudinal and/or transverse directions of the bridge may underestimate the maximum seismic demand.
- 7. Fragility curves developed utilizing pushover (static nonlinear) procedure show excellent consistency with that obtained from nonlinear time history analysis. This method was further extended to evaluate the effect of ground motion directionality on bridge response.

There are some aspects that require further future study including:

- 1. Non-uniform (not face-to-face) impact at expansion joint and its effect of structural behavior.
- 2. At a more sophisticated level of analysis considering the random nature of 2D ground motion time histories, sensitivity of the bridge response to the correlation between the orthogonal components will be studied.

SECTION 9

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APPENDIX A MOMENT-CURVATURE RELATIONSHIP OF BRIDGE COLUMNS

The following program on moment-rotation analysis of bridge columns is developed by Dr. Shigeru Kushiyama (Kushiyama 2002) with collaboration with Professor Masanobu Shinozuka. This is done by utilizing the concept and equations presented in Priestley *et al.* (1996).

A.1 Basic Approach and Assumptions

In nonlinear analysis of reinforced concrete structures, moment-rotation relationship (M- θ relationship) of anti-symmetric members is necessary input data. In US codes, there is no empirical formula available to calculate M- θ relationship. Hence, this report focuses on the development of moment-rotation relationship (M- ϕ relationship) of structural members and background assumptions.

For this purpose, $M-\phi$ relationship is determined first from the stress balancing condition in a member section and then $M-\theta$ relationship is determined by evaluating damage zones and corresponding flexibility of these zone. Following are the assumption made for $M-\phi$ analysis.

- 1. Longitudinal strain in a section of a structural member is proportion to the distance of that section from the neutral axis, and this strain changes linearly.
- 2. Tensile stress of concrete is ignored.
- The stress-strain curves of concrete and longitudinal steel reinforcement are defined as shown in Figures A.1 and A.2, respectively with reference to Priestley *et al.* (1996). Detail explanation is presented in the succeeding section.

Moment-rotation analysis is performed based on two basic assumptions; (1) Bending moment in a member changes linearly and (2) Material and cross-sectional properties of a member section remain identical along one of the member axes.

According to these assumptions, damage at the mid-span of a member will be smaller than that at the end. In cases when load such as vertical load is applied at the mid-span of the member or the arrangement of steel bars differs from end to the mid-span, problems can easily be solved by dividing the member into several segments.

A.2 Stress-Strain Curve of Concrete and Longitudinal Steel Reinforcement

A.2.1 Stress-Strain Curve of Concrete

The stress-strain relation of confined concrete surrounded by shear reinforcement is expressed in the following equations and presented in Figure A-1.

$$f_c = \frac{f'_{cc} xr}{r - 1 + x^r} \text{ for } (\varepsilon_c \le \varepsilon_{cu})$$
(A-1)

where

$$f'_{cc} = f'_{c} \left(2.254 \sqrt{1 + \frac{7.94f'_{l}}{f'_{c}}} - \frac{2f'_{l}}{f'_{c}} - 1.254 \right)$$
(A-2)

$$x = \frac{\mathcal{E}_c}{\mathcal{E}_{cc}}$$
(A-3)

$$\varepsilon_{cc} = 0.002 \left[1 + 5 \left(\frac{f'_{cc}}{f'_{c}} - 1 \right) \right]$$
(A-4)

$$r = \frac{E_c}{E_c - E_{\rm sec}} \tag{A-5}$$

$$E_c = 5000\sqrt{f'_c} \text{ MPa}$$
 (A-6)

$$E_{\rm sec} = \frac{f'_{cc}}{\varepsilon_{cc}} \tag{A-7}$$

where f'_c is the compressive strength of unconfined concrete, f'_{cc} and ε_{cc} are the stress and strain of confined concrete at peak stress and f'_l is the effective lateral confining stress. For circular or elliptic section,

$$f'_l = K_e f_l \tag{A-8}$$

where $K_e = 0.95$ and $f_l = \frac{2f_{yh}A_{sp}}{D's}$. For rectangular section,

$$f'_{l} = K_{e}f_{yh}(\rho_{x} + \rho_{y})$$
(A-9)

where $K_e = 0.75$, $\rho_x = \frac{2A_{sp}}{D's}$ and $\rho_y = \frac{2A_{sp}}{b's}$.

In these equations, f_{yh} , A_{sp} and *s* respectively represent the yield stress, cross sectional area and spacing of the shear reinforcement, *b*' is the core width of confined concrete and *D*' is the diameter and side of the core respectively for circular and rectangular column.

Maximum tensile strain in steel reinforcement (ε_{cu}) is computed as

$$\varepsilon_{cu} = 0.004 + \frac{1.4\rho_s f_{yh}\varepsilon_{su}}{f'_{cc}}$$
(A-10)

where $\rho_s = \frac{4A_{sp}}{D's}$ for circular or elliptic section and $\rho_s = \rho_x + \rho_y$ for rectangular section.

For cover concrete, confining stress f'_l is zero. Hence, $f'_{cc} = f'_c$ and the stress-strain relation becomes

$$f_c = \frac{f'_c xr}{r - 1 + x^r} \text{ for } (\varepsilon_c < 2\varepsilon_{co})$$
(A-11)

For $2\varepsilon_{co} \leq \varepsilon_c \leq \varepsilon_{sp}$, a straight line is assumed that connects f_c at $\varepsilon_c = 2\varepsilon_{co}$ with $f_c = 0$ at ε_{sp} . Beyond this point (i.e., $\varepsilon_c > \varepsilon_{sp}$), $f_c = 0$.





FIGURE A-1 (a) Column Cross-Section and (b) Stress- Strain Curve of Concrete

In a RC member confined with the steel jacket, confining effect is also expected in the zone between the jacket and shear reinforcement. Therefore, lateral confining stress (f'_l) is computed considering A_{sp} as combined area of lateral reinforcement and steel jacket for core concrete (i.e., inside the lateral reinforcement), while A_{sp} for cover concrete (i.e., outside the lateral reinforcement) is only the area of steel jackets.

A.2.2 Stress - Strain Curve of Longitudinal Steel Reinforcement

Stress-strain curve of longitudinal steel reinforcement includes strain hardening as shown in the following equations. For grade 60 reinforcement, normally used in the United States, this relation is expressed as below and shown in Figure A-2.

$$f_s = E_s \varepsilon_s \text{ for } (\varepsilon_s < \varepsilon_y) \tag{A-12}$$

$$f_s = f_y \quad \text{for } (\mathcal{E}_y \le \mathcal{E}_s \le \mathcal{E}_{sh}) \tag{A-13}$$

and
$$f_s = f_y \left[1.5 - 0.5 \left(\frac{0.12 - \varepsilon_s}{0.112} \right)^2 \right]$$
 for $(\varepsilon_{sh} < \varepsilon_s \le \varepsilon_{su})$ (A-14)

where, $\varepsilon_{sh} = 0.008$, $\varepsilon_{su} = 0.12$ and $f_y = 1.1 \times \text{Nominal yield strength of steel}$.



FIGURE A-2 Stress-Strain Curve of Steel

A.3 Calculation of Moment-Curvature $(M-\phi)$ Relationship

A.3.1 Crack Moment and Curvature (M_c and ϕ_c)

Crack develops in the tension side of a RC member when tensile stress at the tensile lower edge reaches to the tensile strength of concrete under stress balancing condition. However, in many cases crack moment (M_c) at which crack develops is very small. Here M_c is expressed by the following equation.

$$M_{c} = \left\{ f_{t} + \frac{N}{A_{c} + (E_{s}/E_{c} - 1)A_{s}} \right\} Z$$
(A-15)

where N is the axial force caused by dead load, f_t is the tensile strength of concrete that is given by 9.0 $\sqrt{(f_c)}$ and f_c is 28 days compressive strength of concrete. A_c is the cross-sectional area of the member; for rectangular section $A_c = BD$ and for elliptic section $A_c = \pi ab$ in which a and b are the radii of major and minor axes. $A_s = A_{sp} + A_s$ in which A_{sp} and A_s are the gross crosssectional area of compressive reinforcement and tensile reinforcement, respectively. Section modulus, Z can be written as $Z = I_Z/(D/2)$ in which conversion moment of inertia, $I_Z = (I_c + I_s)$. Here, I_c represents the moment of inertia around the strong axis which is $bD^3/12$ for rectangular section and $\pi ba^3/4$ for elliptical section and I_s is the moment of inertia for reinforcement of multi-level bar arrangement that can be expressed as follows.

$$I_{s} = (E_{s}/E_{c}-1)\sum_{i=1}^{n}A_{sp}^{i}\left(\frac{D}{2}-dp^{i}\right)^{2} + (E_{s}/E_{c}-1)\sum_{i=1}^{m}A_{s}^{i}\left(d^{i}-\frac{D}{2}\right)^{2}$$
(A-16)

where *n* and *m* are the number of levels in compression and tension side, respectively. Therefore, the crack curvature, ϕ_c , can be expressed by

$$\phi_c = \frac{M_c}{EI} \tag{A-17}$$

where *EI* is the elastic bending rigidity. It should be noted here that immediately after the formation of crack, concrete in the tension side of the member cannot contribute to the moment of inertia. Hence, ϕ_c as computed from the above equation is the curvature just before crack appears.

A.3.2 Moment and Curvature at Yield (M_v and ϕ_v)

Yield moment (M_y) of a member depends on the level at which its tensile reinforcement yields. In a member with multi-level reinforcement arrangement, there is a possibility of having multiple M_y . In this case, under the same axial force (P), M_y is larger when inner reinforcement yields than that when outer reinforcement yields in the tension side of this member. This is because when inner reinforcement yields, outer reinforcement already exceeds its yield strain. Therefore, P and M_y have to be computed for all possible balanced conditions when reinforcement in a certain level yields and simultaneously, strain in the outer edge of confined concrete at compression side reaches to its maximum level of compressive strain, ε_{cu} . Thus, for a particular location of neutral axis c (where c is the distance from compressive upper edge to the neutral axis), M_y and P are calculated first at certain level considering that longitudinal reinforcement in that level maintains yield strain. Then, M_y and P are computed repeatedly by gradually reducing c so that strain at the compressive upper edge (ε_{upper}) reduces from ε_{cu} and thus M-P interaction curve for yield moment is developed. In this way multiple interaction curves are drawn for multi-level reinforcement arrangements.

Yield curvature (ϕ_y) can be computed using the following equation as longitudinal strain (ε) is equal to the product of the curvature (ϕ) and the position of neutral axis *c*.

$$\phi_y = \frac{\varepsilon_{upper}}{c} \tag{A-18}$$

It is assumed here that *c* is the distance from the compressive upper edge of the cover concrete to the neutral axis of the member when it is confined with steel jacket. Therefore, this assumption is not valid for members not confined with steel jacket. In such cases, compressive stress of cover concrete at the level of maximum compressive strain (ε_{cu}) is zero as already demonstrated in Figure A-1. However for the sake of simplicity, the above assumption is considered valid for the case of without jacket.

 M_y of a member under axial force *P* (caused by dead load) is obtained as the intersection point of the straight line defined by $P_N = P$ and the interaction curve. From such *M*-*P* interaction curves, M_y and ϕ_y can be calculated immediately under axial loads different from dead load.

A.3.3 Maximum Moment and Curvature (M_{max} and ϕ_{max})

Maximum moment (M_{max}) is obtained in following three steps. In step I, moment at balanced reinforcement condition (M_b) and corresponding position of neutral axis (c_b) are calculated. Here, M_b is obtained under the condition that compression strain at the outer edge of confined concrete is ε_{cu} and at the same time, tensile reinforcement of the member at the first level yields.

In step II, maximum axial force (P_{max}) in pure compressive condition is calculated considering the variation in compressive strain as shown in Figure A-3. As this figure clearly indicates, it is not necessary that axial force becomes maximum (P_{max}) only at maximum compressive strain ε_{cu} .

In step III, M_{max} is calculated for certain location of neutral axis (*c*) when compressive strain at the upper edge of confined concrete is ε_{cu} . This is done in two ways; (*i*) by gradually increasing c_b so that *c* approaches to a value corresponding to the pure axial condition and (*ii*) by gradually reducing c_b so that *c* approaches to a value corresponding to the pure bending condition (i.e., axial force P = 0). Then, *M-P* interaction curve for maximum moment is drawn. Figure A-4 shows an example of interaction curve developed utilizing the above procedure. As shown in this figure, maximum moment is not always larger than the yield moment in the entire range. This occurs depending on the shape of the stress-strain curves of concrete and reinforcing steel.



FIGURE A-3 Maximum Axial Force under Pure Compressive Condition



FIGURE A-4 M-P Interaction Curve

Therefore, curvature for the maximum moment is expressed as

$$\phi_{\max} = \frac{\mathcal{E}_{cu}}{c} \tag{A-19}$$

Maximum moment (M_{max}) under the axial force P can be obtained easily from the intersecting point of the straight line of P and the interaction curve (symbol + in Figure A-4). With these, M- ϕ relationship is derived and presented in Figure A-5.



FIGURE A-5 Moment-Curvature Relationship

A.4 Calculation of Moment-Rotation $(M-\theta)$ Relationship

This section discusses about the development of moment-rotation $(M-\theta)$ relationship of structural members. The relation developed is considering members are anti-symmetric as it is not practical to obtain $M-\theta$ relationship for members with arbitrary moment distributions.

As indicated before, it is assumed that moment changes linearly along the member axis. Therefore, rotations θ_c , θ_y and θ_{max} correspond to moments M_c , M_y and M_{max} respectively. Fundamental approach to calculate rotation at the end of a member is:

(1) Flexibility for each damage zone is obtained by taking inverse of gradients of polygonal lines in M- ϕ relationship.

(2) Based on the moment distribution figure, range of each damage zone is determined. Contribution of each damage zone to the rotation at the end of member is calculated by considering each range separately and corresponding flexibility. Finally, rotation at the end of member is obtained by adding all these contributions.

A.4.1 Distribution of Bending Moment and Curvature along a Member Axis

Prior to the development of moment-rotation relation, bending moment distribution and curvature distribution over the member axis are evaluated. Moment-curvature analysis is performed by assuming that

- 1. the longitudinal strain in a member section is proportional to its distance from the neutral axis of this member, and this strain changes linearly,
- 2. tensile stress of concrete is negligent, and
- stress-strain curves of concrete and longitudinal steel reinforcement are defined as given in Priestley *et al.* (1996) and presented in Figures A-1 and A-2.

Obtained moment-rotation relation can be approximated in bi-linear or tri-linear fashion.

Distributions of bending moment and curvature along the member axis are shown in Figures 6(a) and (b), respectively. As indicated in these figures, curvature distribution is discontinuous at the point when crack moment (M_c) develops. This happens because concrete looses its tensile strength after crack appears and simultaneously, bending rigidity decreases from *EI* to *EI*_c. Therefore, before cracking curvature is computed as $\phi_c = \frac{M_c}{EI}$ while after cracking this is

 $\phi_c = \frac{M_c}{EI_c}$. This also results in the increase of member flexibility. Figure A-7 shows the

distribution of inverse bending rigidity of a member (i.e., flexibility). Bending rigidity is *EI* when the member is in elastic zone. The same is respectively as αEI and βEI when the member is in between cracking and yield zone, and at maximum moment zone. These values correspond to the gradients of polygonal lines in M- ϕ relation as shown in Figure A-5. Therefore, member flexibility remains constant in each damage zone and increases with the progression of damage.



Figure A.6 (a) Moment and (b) Curvature Distribution



(b) Flexibility

FIGYRE A-7 Member Flexibility According to Generated Moment

A.4.2 Moment-Curvature (M- θ) Relationship at the End of the Member

If the bending rigidity distribution along a member axis is $EI(\xi)$, bending moment at an arbitrary point is expressed as $M(\xi) = M_{A'} - (M_{A'} + M_{B'})\xi$, where $M_{A'}$ and $M_{B'}$ are the moments at end A' and B', respectively. Therefore bending moment, by considering unit moment at A', is given by $\overline{M}_A(\xi) = 1 - \xi$ and the same, by considering unit moment at B', is $\overline{M}_B(\xi) = -\xi$. Hence, from the principle of virtual work, rotations at A' and B' are

$$\theta_{A'} = L' \int_0^1 \frac{M(\xi) \overline{M}_A(\xi)}{EI(\xi)} d\xi$$
(A-20)

$$\theta_{B'} = L' \int_0^1 \frac{M(\xi)\overline{M}_B(\xi)}{EI(\xi)} d\xi$$
(A-21)

If the flexibility in an arbitrary damage zone is as shown in Figure A-8, the contribution to rotation of end A' can be expressed by following equation.

$$\theta_{A} = \frac{L}{rEI} \int_{a}^{b} M(\xi) (1-\xi) d\xi$$
(A-22)

where, r represents 1, α , β .



FIGURE A-8 Member Flexibility at any Arbitrary Range

If the end moment is equal to the crack moment, i.e., $M_{A'} = M_{B'} = M_c$, corresponding flexibility is 1/EI as the whole member is in elastic zone. Considering the integral range, $0 \le \xi \le 1$, crack rotation θ_c can be expressed as

$$\theta_{c}(=\theta_{A'}) = \frac{L'}{EI} \int_{0}^{1} (M_{c} - 2M_{c}\xi)(1-\xi)d\xi = \frac{L'M_{c}}{6EI}$$
(A-23)

This value is equal to the rotation of an anti-symmetric member in the theory of elasticity.

Rotation corresponding to yield moment M_y is referred to as yield rotation θ_y . As depicted from Figure A.7(b), θ_y is obtained by adding up all contributions to rotation coming from three damage zones: two crack zones at section edges, elastic zone at the mid-span. At that time, $M(\xi)$ is written as $M(\xi) = (M_y - 2M_y\xi)$ in the equation (A-22), and three integral ranges are as $0 \sim \lambda$, $\lambda \sim (1-\lambda)$, $(1-\lambda) \sim 1$, respectively, where $\lambda = (1 - M_c/M_y)/2$. After integrating, rotation at end A' can be obtained by adding all contributions from three abovementioned damage zones.

As already discussed, yield moment (M_y) is a particular value either obtained exclusively or regarded as the minimum among all calculated yield moments of a member. The usage for M_y after the second or the maximum moment (M_{max}) is as follows. If M_y after the second or the maximum moment (M_{max}) is given by \widetilde{M} , $M(\xi)$ is expressed as $M(\xi) = \widetilde{M} - 2\widetilde{M}\xi$. Integration ranges are $0 \sim \mu_i$, $\mu_i \sim \mu_{i-1}$,..., $\mu_2 \sim \mu_1$, $\mu_1 \sim \lambda$, $\lambda \sim (1-\lambda)$, $(1-\lambda) \sim (1-\mu_1)$, $(1-\mu_1) \sim (1-\mu_2)$,..., $(1-\mu_{i-1}) \sim (1-\mu_i)$, $(1-\mu_i) \sim 1$, respectively, where $\lambda = (1-M_c/\widetilde{M})/2$, $\mu_j = (1-M_{y_j}/\widetilde{M})/2$ and j $= 1 \sim i$, $M_{y_j} > M_{y_j-1} > ... > M_{y_j-1}$. Therefore, rotation at end A' is obtained by adding all contributions from all damage zones. Figure A-9 is an example of the *M*- θ relationship obtained using the above procedure for a member with clear-span length of 4.57 m (15 ft).



FIGURE A-9 Moment-Rotation Relationship

A.5 Moment-Rotation Curves of Example Bridges



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-10 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 2



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-11 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 3 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-12 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 3 in Longitudinal Direction



(b3) Column 3 of Bridge 3 after retrofit

FIGURE A-13 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 3 of Bridge 3 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-14 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 4 of Bridge 3 in Longitudinal Direction


(a) Before Retrofit



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-15 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-16 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



FIGURE A-17 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 3 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-18 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 4 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-19 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 5 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction





FIGURE A-20 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 6 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-21 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 7 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-22 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 8 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



FIGURE A-23 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 9 of Bridge 4 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-24 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction





(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-25 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-26 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 3 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction





(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-27 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 4 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-28 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 5 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-29 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 6 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-30 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 7 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-31 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 8 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-32 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 9 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-33 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 10 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction





-60

-60

-40

-20

FIGURE A-34 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 11 of Bridge 5 in Longitudinal Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-35 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 3 in Transverse Direction



00 60 0.01 0.02 0.03 0.04 0.05 0.06 Rotation (radian) Moment-Rotation Curve

(b) After Retrofit

Section of Column

FIGURE A-36 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 3 in Transverse Direction





-20

-60

-40

0

Dimension(in)

FIGURE A-37 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 3 of Bridge 3 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-38 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 4 of Bridge 3 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-39 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-40 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-41 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 3 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-42 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 4 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-43 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 5 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-44 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 6 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-45 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 7 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-46 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 8 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-47 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 9 of Bridge 4 in Transverse Direction



(a) Before Retrofit



FIGURE A-48 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 1 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-49 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 2 of Bridge 5

0.01

0.02

Rotation (radian)

Moment-Rotation Curve

0.03

0.04

-50

0

Dimension(in)

Section of Column

50

in Transverse Direction



(a) Before Retrofit



(b) After Retrofit

FIGURE A-50 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 3 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction


(a) Before Retrofit



FIGURE A-51 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 4 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-52 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 5 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-53 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 6 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-54 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 7 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-55 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 8 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-56 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 9 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-57 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 10 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction



FIGURE A-58 Moment-Curvature Analysis of Column 11 of Bridge 5 in Transverse Direction

APPENDIX B STIFFNESS AND STRENGTH DEGRADATION OF MOMENT-ROTATION RELATIONSHIP

In this study, Bridge 1 is analyzed under 60 ground motions for the following models of moment-rotation relation; elastic-plastic, bi-linear, stiffness degradation, and stiffness and strength degradation. For all cases, the same yield moment and yield rotation are used. The above four moment-rotation relationships at plastic hinge locations are plotted in Figure B-1.



FIGURE B-1 Moment-Rotation Relationship

Figures B-2, B-3, B-4 and B-5 represent fragility curves computed with these nonlinear models respectively for almost no, minor, moderate and major damage states. Result indicates that fragility curves at almost no damage are nearly the same for these four models. In other three damage states, fragility curves using stiffness and strength degradation model are the weakest among all curves.



FIGURE B-2 Fragility Curves in Almost No Damage State



FIGURE B-3 Fragility Curves in Minor Damage State



FIGURE B-4 Fragility Curves in Moderate Damage State



FIGURE B-5 Fragility Curves in Major Damage State

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