SEISMIC RISK REDUCTION OF LOW DUCTILITY RC FRAMES USING YIELDING SHEAR PANEL DEVICE



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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and it has been written by me in its entirety. I have duly acknowledged all the sources of information which have been used in the thesis

This thesis has not been submitted for any degree in any university previously

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DEDICATION

DEDICATED TO MY PARENTS AND SPOUSE

PREFACE

This thesis is a result of around two and half years research works from October 2014 to July 2017 under the supervision of Dr. Md Raquibul Hossain and Dr. Mahmud Ashraf. This thesis is presented in an integrated article format.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTv
DEDICATIONvi
PREFACE
rable of contents viii
ABSTRACTx
LIST OF TABLES
LIST OF FIGURES
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION1
1.1 General1
1.2 Objectives of the thesis
1.3 Thesis organization
Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW4
2.1 Introduction
2.2 Metal yielding passive energy dissipating device
2.3 Single degree of freedom system fitted with energy dissipating device13
2.4 Background of the Yielding Shear Panel Device16
Chapter 3: SEISMIC PERFORMANCE OF LOW DUCTILITY RC FRAMES EQUIPPED WITH
ZIELDING SHEAR PANEL DEVICE
3.1 Introduction

	3.2 Description of the structure	25
	3.3 Theoretical evaluation of YSPD	27
	3.4 Modeling of the frame with YSPDs	
	3.5 Static pushover analysis	
	3.6 Dynamic time history analysis	40
	3.7 Incremental dynamic analysis	56
	3.8 Fragility analysis	69
	3.9 Conclusions	71
Chapter 4: Co	ONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION	73
	4.1 General	73
	4.2 Conclusions	73
	4.3 Limitation of this research work and future recommendation.	74
References		75
Appendices		81
	Appendix A	81
	Appendix B	109

ABSTRACT

Earthquake is a great threat for human lives as well as for the infrastructures. The loss of human lives and the socio-economic impact of the earthquake makes this hazard more important to analyze and identify the most cost effective and easy to adapt solutions to minimize the losses. The underlying principal for different control systems that are used to protect buildings from damaging earthquake effects is to dissipate the energy as such no or minimal damage occurs to the structure itself. Passive control device is one of the most suitable and reliable technologies as it does not require external power for being active to dissipate energy. The current research proposes the use of a passive energy dissipating device named Yielding Shear Panel Device (YSPD) for strengthening existing low ductility RC buildings. YSPD consists of a square hollow section (SHS) with a diaphragm plate. The basic concept of the YSPD exploits the in plane shear deformation of a steel plate to dissipate the energy introduced due to an earthquake. Bouc-Wen-Baber Noori (BWBN) material is used to simulate the pinching hysteretic force deformation relationship of YSPDs. YSPDs are modeled as spring elements connected between the beam and the V-brace. Static pushover analysis has been conducted to find out the change in capacity of the structure after installing YSPDs. Furthermore, eigen value analysis, time history analysis, incremental dynamic analysis and fragility analysis are done to find out the seismic performance of YSPDs. Three different sizes of YSPDs with three different arrangements are used for the seismic performance evaluation. The result obtained from the static and dynamic analyses for the bare frame and the frames with different sizes and arrangements of YSPDs are compared. The results from the simulations suggests installation of YSPDs has improved the capacity of the structure. The results also suggests that increased size of the YSPD dissipates more energy, and reduces the inter story and roof drift of the structure. The simulated structure shows better performance when YSPDs are installed in three story-three bay configuration compared to first story-three bay and three storysecond bay configuration.

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1	Number of earthquakes worldwide for 2006-2016	2
Table 1.2	Listed are earthquakes with 10 or more causalities	2
Table 2.1	Annual exceedance probability of different limit states (P_{LS}) with and	22
	without YSPDs	
Table 3.1	BWBN material parameters for the YSPDs	32
Table 3.2	Considered frames	36
Table 3.3	Different sizes of YSPDs and bracing	36
Table 3.4	Selected ground motion records used in the current study	42
Table 3.5	Time periods of the first three modes for different types of frames	43
Table 3.6	Average of maximum inter story drift demand (%) for different types	52
	of frames along with the different categories of YSPDS	
Table 3.7	Average roof drift demand (%) for different types of frames along	56
	with the different categories of YSPDS	
Table 3.8	Seismic demand statistics and median fragility values for bare frame	69
	and frames with YSPD	

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1	The impact of earthquake in Nepal	1
Figure 2.1	Categories of structural control system (Chan, 2008)	10
Figure 2.2	Flow diagram of the working steps of structural control systems. (a.	11
	structure with active control system. b. structure with passive control	
	system) (Soong and Spencer, 2002)	
Figure 2.3	(a) Single degree of freedom system with energy dissipating device. (b)	14
	Force displacement relationship of energy dissipating device (Soong and	
	Dargush, 1997)	
Figure 2.4	Energy dissipation of SDOF equipped with energy dissipating device	15
	(Chan, 2008)	
Figure 2.5	(a) Yielding shear panel device (b) Schematic diagram showing the	16
	geometric parameters of YSPDs (Chan, 2008)	
Figure 2.6	Mises stress distribution of (a) FE-1-5.5; (b) FE-2-5.5 and (c) FE-3-5.5 at	19
	0.25% average strain	
Figure 2.7	Variation of total energy dissipation $E_{D}\!/E_{I}$ over the building $% E_{D}\!/E_{I}$ (with and	20
	without pinching) using : (a) 100-2C and (b) 100-3CS	
Figure 2.8	Reduction in inter story drift demands (%) and dispersion of seismic	22
	demand $(\beta_{D Sa})$ for ground motions with design hazard level of LA	
Figure 2.9	Representation of YSPD as a spring element	23
Figure 3.1	(a) General layout, (b) beam reinforcements of the structure	26
Figure 3.2	(a) Typical YSPD-brace assembly (b) Yielding Shear Panel Device.	27
	(Chan 2008) (c) Typical YSPD brace connection. (Hossain et al. 2011)	
Figure 3.3	Undeformed and deformed shapes of a YSPD device. (Hossain et al.	28
	2011)	
Figure 3.4	(a) Deformation of the bolted flanges. (b) Dimensions of the bolted	29
	flanges. (Hossain et al. 2011)	
Figure 3.5	Compressive deformation of diaphragm plate and vertical flanges.	30
	(Hossain et al. 2011)	

Figure 3.6	Nonlinear force displacement (F- δ) relationship of YSPD.(Hossain et al.	33
	2013)	
Figure 3.7	Cyclic force displacement relationship of the YSPDs generated using the	34
	BWBN models	
Figure 3.8	Types of frame considered for analysis (a) Bare frame (b) Frame with	35
	YSPDs in first story three bay (c) Frame with YSPDs in three story	
	second bay (d) Frame with YSPDs in three story three bay	
Figure 3.9	Pushover curves showing the comparison of the three different	37
	arrangement of YSPDs with the bare frame (a.For category-01, b. for	
	category-02, c. for category-03)	
Figure 3.10	Pushover curves showing the comparison of the three different categories	39
	of YSPDs with the bare frame (a.For YSPDs in the first story three bay,	
	b. for YSPDs in the three story second bay, c. for YSPDs in three story	
	three bay)	
Figure 3.11	Inter story drift demand (a.For YSPDs in the first story three bay, b. for	40
	YSPDs in the three story second bay, c. for YSPDs in three story three	
	bay)	
Figure 3.12	Response spectrum of the scaled ground motion records and design	41
	response spectrum at downtown Los Angeles for the site class D (stiff	
	soil) (Hossain et al., 2013)	
Figure 3.13	Inter story drift demand for bare frame (a. Fault normal, b. Fault	43
	paralllel)	
Figure 3.14	Inter story drift demand for FT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	44
Figure 3.15	Inter story drift demand for FT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	44
Figure 3.16	Inter story drift demand for FT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	45
Figure 3.17	Inter story drift demand for TS-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	46
Figure 3.18	Inter story drift demand for TS-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	46
Figure 3.19	Inter story drift demand for TS-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	47
Figure 3.20	Inter story drift demand for TT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	47
Figure 3.21	Inter story drift demand for TT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	48
Figure 3.22	Inter story drift demand for TT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)	48

Figure 3.23	Maximum inter story drift demand for YSPD category-01 (a. for fault	49
	normal, b. for fault parallel)	
Figure 3.24	Maximum inter story drift demand for YSPD category-02 (a. for fault	50
	normal, b. for fault parallel)	
Figure 3.25	Maximum inter story drift demand for YSPD category-03 (a. for fault	51
	normal, b. for fault parallel)	
Figure 3.26	Roof drift demand for YSPD category-01 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)	53
Figure 3.27	Roof drift demand for YSPD category-02 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault	54
0	parallel)	
Figure 3.28	Roof drift demand for YSPD category-03 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault	55
	parallel)	
Figure 3.29	Steps of incremental dynamic analysis	57
Figure 3.30	IDA curves for BR (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	59
Figure 3.31	IDA curves for FT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	60
Figure 3.32	IDA curves for FT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	61
Figure 3.33	IDA curves for FT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	62
Figure 3.34	IDA curves for TS-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	63
Figure 3.35	IDA curves for TS-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	64
Figure 3.36	IDA curves for TS-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	65
Figure 3.37	IDA curves for TT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	66
Figure 3.38	IDA curves for TT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	67
Figure 3.39	IDA curves for TT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)	68
Figure 3.40	Fragility curves for IO	70
Figure 3.41	Fragility curves for LS	70
Figure 3.42	Fragility curves for CP	71

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 General

Earthquake is one of the most life threatening natural hazards. Devastating earthquakes occurring in different parts of the world in the recent years pose a great risk for human lives. A severe earthquake can cause damages and destructions of civil engineering structures, national economic losses and more importantly, it can cause casualty. For example, a severe earthquake with a magnitude of 7 Mw occurred in Haiti on 12th January 2010 causing estimated 222,570 human lives and leaving another 1.3 million people homeless [1]. China also faced an earthquake of 6.9 Mw in 14th April 2010, due to this earthquake 2698 people were died and 12135 were injured [1]. More recently, a devastating earthquake hit Nepal in 25th April 2015. Nepal was shaken by this Gorkha earthquake (7.8 Mw), followed by two aftershocks on 26th April and 12th May, leaving approximately 9,000 and 22,000 people being killed and injured, respectively [1]. Figure 1.1 shows photographs of the severity and destructive effect of this earthquake.



Figure 1.1: The impact of earthquake in Nepal [3].

Table 1.1 below lists major earthquakes occurred from 2006 to 2016 [1]. Maximum intensities are indicated on the Mercalli and are sourced from United States Geological Survey (USGS) Shake Map Data. Table 1.2 lists the earthquakes that occurred in 2016 alone and resulted in 10 or more causalities.

Magnitude	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
8.0+	2	4	0	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	0
7.0-7.9	9	14	12	16	23	19	2	17	11	18	16
6.0-6.9	142	178	168	144	150	185	108	125	143	127	130
5.0-5.9	1712	2074	1768	1896	2209	2276	1401	1453	1574	1413	1550

Table 1.1: Number of earthquakes worldwide between 2006 -2016 [1]

Table 1.2: Earthquakes with at least 10 dead ranked by death toll (Occurred in 2016) [2]

Rank	Death	Magnitude	Location	MMI	Depth	Date
	Toll				(Km)	
1	661	7.8	Ecuador	VIII	20.6	April 16
2	117	6 /	Taiwan	VП	22.0	Fobruary 6
Z	11/	0.4	Taiwan	V 11	23.0	redruary o
3	40	7.0	Japan	IX	11.0	April 15
4	11	6.7	India	VII	55.0	January 3

1.2 Objectives of the thesis

The objectives of the present investigation are to find out the seismic vulnerability of low ductility RC building, retrofit the structure using YSPD as an energy dissipating tool and finally, to compare the seismic performances of the structures retrofitted with and without YSPD. The specific objectives of the thesis are:

1. To determine the seismic performance of the low-ductility RC frame and YSPD retrofitted RC frame.

2. To compare the performance in terms of base shear capacities, roof drift and maximum interstory drift.

3. To evaluate the risk based seismic vulnerability assessment of the structure with YSPDs and without YSPDs through fragility analysis.

4. To determine the best configuration of YSPDs within a frame based on the results of the seismic performance of RC frames fitted with YSPD obtained from the nonlinear static and dynamic analyses.

1.3 Thesis organization

Chapter 1 illustrates the objective of the research work.

Chapter 2 provides literature review on retrofitting techniques and more specifically on YSPD.

Chapter 3 presents the description of the building taken for analysis. It also describes the finite element modeling of the moment resisting frame with YSPDs. This chapter illustrates the static pushover, dynamic time history, incremental dynamic analysis (IDA) and fragility analysis of the moment resisting frame and summaries the results obtained from these analyses. Finally, this chapter describes the seismic performance evaluation of the moment resisting frame with YSPDs and without YSPDs.

Chapter 4 provides the conclusions as well as the limitations of the study and recommendations for possible future development in this field.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Previous studies studied the behavior of low-rise and mid-rise reinforced concrete frame buildings against earthquake load. Erberic and Cullu identified several causes of heavy damage, and even collapse in the worst case, of reinforced concrete buildings as a result of earthquakes [4]. The causes, as identified in the study, were:

- a) Not following the current codes/regulations by most designers.
- b) Not considering the Seismic behavior of the structure in architectural design and during the selection of the structural system.
- c) Failure to maintain Construction quality properly.

To improve the quality of the structures and make the structures safer the evaluation of seismic performance of these building is a must. Fragility is the most important parameter In order to determine the seismic performance of these structure. Fragility is a key indicator of infrastructure performance and seismic risk assessment. Fragility is a function of demand on the system, which means the probability of failure in order to meet a performance objective **[5]**. In other words, fragility is the ability of an engineering system to withstand a specified demand **[6]**. Padgett and DesRoches describes the fragility as a given ground motion intensity (IM), it is conditional probability for the seismic demand (D) which will exceed the capacity (C) of the structure.

$$Fragility = P \left[D \ge C | IM\right]$$
(2.1)

Nielson (2005) describes fragility as a conditional probability and demonstrates that a structure will meet or exceed a specified damage level for a known ground motion intensity.

$$Fragility = P[LS|IM = y]$$
(2.2)

Where LS is the limit state or damage level of the bridge or bridge components, IM is the ground motion intensity and y is the realization of the chosen ground motion intensity. Damage limit demonstrated the following things global drift ratio (maximum roof drift normalized by the building height), inter story drift ratio (maximum lateral displacement between two consecutive stories normalized by the story height), maximum roof displacement or story shear force etc and

the ground motion intensity used in the fragility functions is one of the followings spectral quantities, peak ground motion values, modified Mercalli scale etc [7].

Fragility not only finds out the probability of a specified damage state but also describes the maximum probable losses **[5]**. Fragility is helpful for the owners as it offers tools to evaluate alternative retrofit measure for the structure **[5]**. In order to optimize the seismic design of structures and compare different seismic rehabilitation technique fragility curves are used **[8]**.

There are various kinds of methods for fragility development, one of these is empirical method using empirical data from past earthquake events. [4]. Fragility curves are also developed based on experts' opinion. For example, sufficient data was not available when the Applied Technology Council (ATC) developed the ATC-13 report; therefore, ATC put together a panel of 42 experts to provide information. Analytical method can also be used for fragility analysis. In analytical method, structural demands or capacities are used in order to find out the failure probability [5]. A large number of analytical fragility curves have been developed by many researchers. For example, Mander and Basozn developed analytical fragility curves for HAZUS using finite element technique [10]. Similarly, Karim and Yamazaki developed analytical fragility curve for the Kobe earthquake [11]. Kurian et al. developed analytical fragility curves for a railway overbridge [12]. Kurian et al. used analytical fragility curves for typical three span two lane railway over bridge which is situated in highly seismic region. They developed analytical fragility curve assuming lognormal distribution and found that sensitivity of fragility curve is high for high damage level of the structural modeling. Neilson et al. also developed analytical fragility curves for different classes of highway bridges [13]. Kibboua et al. determined the seismic vulnerability for reinforced concrete bridge piers using analytical fragility curves [14]. Mander developed a basis for fragility curves that can be used to find out the vulnerability of highway bridges [15]. Sbinozuka and Kim developed analytical fragility curves for concrete bridges retrofitted with steel jacketing and adjusted the empirical fragility curves obtained for the unretrofitted bridges [16]. Elnashai developed analytical fragility curve and showed a comparison with the empirical curves for Northridge and Kobe earthquake [17]. Using analytical methods Neilson (2006) developed fragility curves for nine types of bridges. He created 3-D analytical models. After that he generated probabilistic seismic demand models (PGMD). From these models he developed fragility curves specific level of damage [9]. Mackie and Stojabinovic developed analytical and numerical fragility

curves for single bent reinforced concrete highway overpass bridges **[18]**. Kibboua et al. generated analytical fragility curves for typical Algerian reinforced concrete bridge piers **[19]**.

Structural demand and capacity models are need to be developed before generating analytical fragility curves **[20]**. Two different methods are used to develop probabilistic seismic demand model (PGMD), the scaling method and the cloud approach **[20]**. In the scaling method scaled earthquake data are used and incremental dynamic analysis (IDA) is done at each intensity level on the other hand cloud method uses unscaled earthquake data after that nonlinear time-history analysis is done to developed PGMD model **[20]**

Limit state capacities are used in order to describe the fragile condition of a structure. Limit state capacity is the ability of a structure to withstand the demand during seismic excitation [20]. It is the performance of structure ranging from uncertainty to various damage levels including collapse. ASCE 41 (ASCE 2007) and FEMA 356 provide guidance on three performance levels [20] as discussed section below.

Structure falls into immediate occupancy (IO) category if structural damages are within limit (such as yielding of steel, significant cracking of concrete, nonstructural damage). Occupants are permitted for the immediate access in to the structure.

In life safety (LS) category structure may be collapse partially or totally but the risk and injury will be minimum and occupants are protected from loss of life.

For collapse prevention (CP) category there is no margin against collapse and structure supports gravity loads.

Limit states capacity follows a lognormal distribution [21, 22, 23]. Here is a closed form solution for the fragility in lognormal form given bellow-

Fragility =
$$\emptyset\left(\frac{\ln\left(\frac{Sd}{Sc}\right)}{\sqrt{\beta^2 D |IM + \beta^2 c}}\right)$$
 (2.3)

Where Sc is the median value of the structural capacity (for the limit state) and βc is its associated logarithmic standard deviation of structural capacity.

According to FEMA 356 the limit state capacities for IO, LS, CP are 1%, 2%, 3% maximum allowable drift ratios for concrete building [25]. The fragility $F_r(x)$ and seismic hazard H(x) are calculated using the following formula:

$$F_{\rm r}(x) = \frac{\varphi \left[(\ln x - \ln Sa) \right]}{\beta_R}$$
(2.4)

$$H(x) = k_0 x^{-k}$$
 (2.5)

where,

 S_a = median value of the fragility of the structure in units of S_a

 β_R = lognormal standard deviation of the system fragility

 Φ = standard normal cumulative distribution function

 K_0 and k = constant depend on the site of the building

The uncertainties associated with seismic demand and structural capacity is defined by dispersion parameter $\beta_{R.}$ β_{R} is calculated using the following formula

$$\beta_{\rm R} = \sqrt{\beta_D |s_a|^2 + \beta_c|^2} \tag{2.6}$$

 $\beta_{D|S_a}$ = uncertainty in seismic demand

 β_c = uncertainty in structural capacity

No wonder that the severity and disastrous effects of earthquakes has drawn the attention of the academia and the industries to find out easy to adapt and cost-effective solutions to minimize impacts of earthquake and save the lives of the people [26]. Comprehensive researches have been conducted in this regard and different types of retrofitting techniques have been proposed and

utilized to strengthen the structures against earthquake loads. Some of these techniques are discussed here.

Olivato and Marletta reviewed different types of retrofitting techniques including traditional and innovative methods [29]. They suggest that traditional methods such as increase of strength and stiffness, mass reduction can be ineffective as these methods do not consider seismic design criteria. They categorized stiffness reduction, ductility increase, damage controlled structures, composite materials and active control as innovative methods. Stiffness reduction method was discussed briefly. They showed that stiffness reduction method is very effective to minimize the effect due to the earthquake.

Ranjan and Dhiman used three different types of jacketing techniques, named Reinforced Concrete (RC), Fiber Reinforced Polymer Jacketing (FRP) and Steel Fiber Reinforced Concrete (SFRC), to increase the strength of columns of existing building [27]. The researchers also described the design procedures the for RC, FRP, SFRC jacketing of concrete columns. They concluded that FRP jacketing is advantageous than RC and SFRC but slightly expensive.

Kunisue et al. used elasto-plastic steel dampers in existing buildings to increase the energy dissipation **[28]**. They conducted experimental analysis to determine the effectiveness of the frames with dampers and performed response analysis of the frames with dampers. The study reported that, based on the experimental and response analyses performed, the elasto-plastic steel dampers were able to dissipate earthquake energy.

Rizkalla and Hasan conducted experiments to evaluate the performance of pre-stressed concrete bridge fitted with different types of retrofitting techniques **[30]**. Five different retrofitting techniques, named as extremely bonded CFRP strips, near surface mounted leadline bars, near surface mounted C-Bar CFRP bars, near surface mounted CFRP strips, extremely bonded CFRP sheets were used in this study. They compared different retrofitting techniques in terms of construction cost in USA and % of increase in capacity. They showed that extremely bonded CFRP sheets are most cost effective and can increase the capacity of the structure more than the other technics. Extremely bonded CFRP strips are also low cost and capability of increasing capacity of the structure is slightly lower than extremely CFRP sheets. Near surface mounted C-Bar CFRP bars is costly and capable of increasing capacity of the structure. Near surface mounted leadline bars and near surface mounted CFRP strips are more costly than the others but % of increase in capacity is almost similar to the other technics. They also suggested the development length should not be less than 800 mm for 10 mm diameter near surface mounted C-BAR CFRP bars, 850 mm for near surface mounted CFRP strips (25 x 1.2 mm), 500 mm for CFRP sheets bonded to the soffit of concrete specimens.

Vaghani et al. also reviewed different types of retrofitting techniques and structural control systems [**31**]. They discussed about jacketing of existing beams, columns or joints with the use of friction damper, metal shear panels and fiber reinforced cement, the method of confinement of column by embedded composite grid, use of steel fiber reinforced mortar, steel bracing etc. They recommended that steps should be taken to update design manuals and codes of practice considering various strengthening methods and current structure has to be assessed properly before applying any retrofitting techniques.

The retrofitting techniques discussed above are often very expensive and complicated process to adapt for practical purposes. Recently different types of control devices such as active, semi-active passive control devices have been used both in research and industrial purposes to dissipate the earthquake energy. Control devices are easy and relatively inexpensive to install. Generally, the energy introduced by earthquake is transferred to the super-structure through the foundation [30]. Part of this energy can be dissipated through the use of supplementary energy dissipation devices to save the super-structure from damages [31]. Use of control systems to dissipate the earthquake energy is very common solution to the earthquake engineers. Three categories of control devices, such as active control device, semi- active control device and passive control device, are used [32]. These devices are categorized based on their working procedure. Active control devices require external source of power to dissipate the energy. Extensive research have been done on active control device. Currently Japan is using active control devices to protect structures from wind and earthquakes [33]. Semi-active devices require small amount of external power. On the other hand, passive control devices do not require any external source of power to be activated which makes it a very reliable method of control system [34]. Different categories of structural control systems and the working mechanisms of active and passive energy devices are shown in Figure 2.1 and Figure 2.2, respectively [35].



Figure 2.1: Categories of structural control system [37].



(b)

Figure 2.2: Flow diagram of the working steps of structural control systems--(a. structure with active control system. –b-. structure with passive control system-) [**35**].

There are different kinds of passive control devices, such as, named metal yielding, seismic isolation, sliding friction, shearing and viscous fluid [36], some of these are briefly discussed below:

Friction dampers dissipate energy through the friction occurring due to the relative sliding of two solid bodies [36]. Different types of friction damper have been developed to improve energy dissipation capacity of the structure. Pall et al. worked on variety of samples with different surface treatments and performed static and dynamic tests [37]. Pall and Marsh proposed X-braced friction damper and used a simple elasto-plastic model to represent the behavior of the damper [38]. Subsequently Filiatrault and Cherry developed more detailed macroscopic model for the friction damper [39]. Other types of friction dampers, such as three stage friction grip elements, the slotted bolted connections, have also been developed by the researchers [40, 41].

Viscoelastic dampers were used to control the vibration of the structure against wind [37]. Recently it has been used for seismic control. Comprehensive experimental work has been carried out on viscoelastic dampers by many researchers for steel frames [42-44]. Chan et al. carried out shaking table test on the visco-elastically damped structure for El Centro earthquake [45]. Chan et al. also conducted experiments on three story lightly reinforced concrete frame equipped with viscous dampers [46]. They found that viscoelastic damper can reduce the overall response and the risk of developing damaging mechanism near collapse.

2.2 Metal yielding passive energy dissipating device

A good metallic device should possess certain characteristics i.e. it should have sufficient elastic stiffness and yield strength to withstand the in service lateral load. It should also have capability to dissipate large amount of energy and normally representable stable hysteretic forcedisplacement response [47]. The energy dissipating device is connected between the V-brace and beam in series [47]. The total in-plane stiffness (k_{bd}) of the brace –device assembly is given by Equation 2.7.

$$k_{bd} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{k_b} + \frac{1}{k_d}} = \frac{k_b k_d}{k_b + k_d}$$
(2.7)

where, $k_b = stiffness$ of the brace

 $k_d = stiffness of the device$

Equation 2.7 represents that the brace stiffness is compromised with the incorporation of flexible damper.

Various types of yielding passive energy dissipating devices, such as, Added Damping and Stiffness (ADAS), Triangular Added Damping and Stiffness (TADAS), Buckling Restrained Brace (BRB) and Yielding Shear Panel Device (YSPD) are used by many researchers to absorb the earthquake energy.

ADAS device consists of several X-shaped tapered mild steel plates. The plates are connected together using bolts. It is connected together between the V-brace and the bottom of beam [48]. ADAS dissipate energy through flexural deformation. X shape prevents the possibility of stress concentration and the corresponding failure.

TADAS consists of triangular steel plate which dissipate energy through hysteretic flexural deformation. One end of the TADAS is kept fixed while other end is pin supported. The concept of energy dissipation of TADAS is it absorbs energy through hysteretic flexural deformation. It shows stable hysteretic response due to its simple geometric configuration [49].

BRB has two distinct elements; one is the load carrying element and the other is the lateral support element. Load carrying element deforms inelastically due to the diagonal tension and compression resulting from lateral movement of the frame. The lateral support system protects the central load carrying element from buckling [57].

2.3 Single degree of freedom system fitted with energy dissipating device

So far many researchers worked on the energy dissipating device to absorb the energy induced due to earthquake. Soong and Dargush explained the energy dissipation mechanism of yielding energy dissipating device through Single Degree of Freedom (SDOF) system [50]. Figure 2.3 (a) depicts a single degree of freedom system along with an energy dissipating device. The force displacement relationship of energy dissipating device is shown in Figure 2.3 (b)



Figure 2.3: (a) Single degree of freedom system with energy dissipating device. (b) Force displacement relationship of energy dissipating device [49].

The equation of a SDOF in combination of an energy dissipating device can be expressed as:

$$m\ddot{\upsilon} + c\dot{\upsilon} + ku + \Gamma(u) = -(m + m_d)\ddot{\upsilon}_g$$
(2.8)

where, m, k, c are mass, stiffness and damping coefficient of parent structure consequently.

 Γ (u) is force acting on the energy dissipating device as a function of lateral displacement

 $\ddot{\upsilon}_g$ is ground acceleration

 m_d is the mass of energy dissipating device, which can be neglected. So the Equation (2.8) becomes

$$m\ddot{v} + c\dot{u} + ku + \Gamma(u) = -m\ddot{v}_g$$
(2.9)

The balanced equation of SDOF with energy dissipating device is represented by the Equation 2.10.

$$E_I = E_K + E_S + E_V + E_D \tag{2.10}$$

where,

Earthquake input energy, $E_I = -\int_0^u m \ddot{v}g \, du = -\int_0^t m \ddot{v}g u dt$ (2.10.a)

Kinetic energy,
$$E_k = \int_0^U m \ddot{\upsilon} d\, u = m u^{\cdot 2} / 2E_k = \int_0^U m \ddot{\upsilon} d\, u = m u^{\cdot 2} / 2$$
 (2.10.b)

Elastic strain energy,
$$E_s = \int_0^u ku du = ku^2/2E_s = \int_0^u ku du = ku^2/2$$
 (2.10.c)

Viscous damping energy,
$$E_v = \int_0^u c \dot{u} \, du = \int_0^t c \, \dot{u}^2 dt$$
 (2.10.d)

Dissipated hysteretic energy by energy dissipating device, $E_D = \int_0^U \Gamma(u) du$ (2.10.e)

From the Equation 2.10 it is observed that the energy dissipating device is able to dissipate more energy induced during earthquake.

Chan investigated the energy dissipation capacity of SDOF system equipped with energy dissipating device for EI Centro earthquake [32]. He found that 60% of the earthquake energy may be dissipated by energy dissipating device and the rest energy is dissipated through viscous damping. Energy dissipation of the SDOF system fitted with energy dissipating device is shown in Figure 2.4.



Figure 2.4: Energy dissipation of SDOF system equipped with energy dissipating device [33]

2.4 Background of yielding shear panel device (YSPD)

Yielding shear panel device is a passive energy dissipating device consisting of a square hollow section (SHS, dimension D x D x T) and diaphragm plate (thickness, t). Figure 2.5(a) shows the real image of YSPD. Square section is more effective in developing 45° tension field than the rectangular section [47]. The steel diaphragm plate is welded inside the square hollow section and it deforms in shear to dissipate earthquake energy due to the relative horizontal displacement of the top and the bottom part of the section. Deformed Shape and schematic diagram showing the geometric parameters of YSPDs are shown in Figure 2.5 (b) and Figure 2.5 (c). YSPD is a very simple and inexpensive device and its installation and replacement is easier than other control devices [47].











Figure 2.5: (a) Yielding shear panel device (b) Deformed Shape (c) Schematic diagram showing the geometric parameters of YSPDs **[33]**.

YSPD was first designed by U. Dorka at the University of Kassel, Germany to dissipate the earthquake energy [52]. YSPD was first introduced by Williams and Albermani using the design proposed by Dorka [53].

Figure 2.5 (a) shows a real image of yielding shear panel device that was tested by Chan **[34]**. He connected YSPDs with the test set up using bolt in a similar way when YSPDs are connected with the beam and V-brace. There were four bolts spaced at a centre-to-centre distance of 50 mm connected on each of the opposite flanges of square hollow sections, shown in Figure 2.5 (c).

Chan et al. conducted nineteen monotonic and cyclic tests to evaluate the performance of YSPD **[32]**. They used total 19 specimens with 6 different combinations of diaphragm plate to SHS. These set of experiments showed that the slenderness ratio of the diaphragm plate and in-plane rigidity of the surrounding SHS influences the performance of YSPD. They also found that energy dissipation, strength and ductility was proportional to the slenderness of diaphragm plate. The device with slenderness ratio 49.5 offered good energy dissipation and strength. They observed that the device with high slenderness ratio buckled while the device with low slenderness ratio did not buckle. However, the performance of the device with low slenderness ratio was poor in terms of strength and energy dissipation due to localized deformation of the SHS.

Chan et al. derived a preliminary design of YSPD to conduct experimental analysis and find out the capability to dissipate earthquake energy [47]. Figure 2.5 (b) shows the deformed shape of YSPD. The equation for the theoretical elastic in-plane lateral stiffness of the device considering minor contribution from the square hollow section can be written as:

$$k_d = \frac{Gtd}{d} = Gt \tag{2.12}$$

where, G= shear modulus

t = thickness of the diaphragm plate

Assuming von Mises yield criterion for a compact diaphragm plate the yield strength can be taken as shear yield strength.

$$F_{y} = \frac{f_{y}}{\sqrt{3}} td$$
(2.13)

where, d = width of the steel plate

 $f_y =$ tensile yield stress

Yield displacement of the device can be written as

$$u_{y} = \frac{F_{y}}{k_{d}} = \frac{f_{y} d}{\sqrt{3} G}$$
(2.14)

Elastic shear buckling will take place for a device with slender diaphragm plate. The equation 2.15 represents the critical shear stress for a simply supported plate.

$$\tau_{\sigma} = k_{s} \frac{\pi^{2} E}{12 (1 - v^{2})} \left(\frac{t}{d}\right)^{2}$$
(2.15)

where,

 $k_s = 9.35$ for square plate

E = Young's modulus

v = Poisson's ratio

Taking E =205 Gpa and v = 0.3 the limiting plate slenderness ratio at which buckling occurs is

$$\left(\frac{d}{t}\right) = \frac{1732}{\sqrt{fy}} \tag{2.16}$$

Where f_y is the yield strength of the diaphragm plate (MPa).

Chan et al. conducted experiments to evaluate the seismic performance of perforated yielding shear panel device (PYSPD) [55]. Perforations on the diaphragm plate affect the stress patterns. From the finite element model it was found that tension field was developed under shearing action. Figure 2.6 shows the von Mises yield criterion stresses of the models with perforation diameter $d_p = 5.5$ mm deformed at 0.25% strain. From the Figure 2.6 it is observed that stress is high along the tension field diagonally on the plate. They concluded that perforations clearly interrupt the stresses. They also found that the PYSPD reduced elastic stiffness and yield strength and produced a stable hysteretic behavior.





(b)



(c)

Figure 2.6: Mises stress distribution of (a) FE-1-5.5; (b) FE-2-5.5 and (c) FE-3-5.5 at 0.25% average strain [55].

Zhengying et al. developed a modeling technique in order to describe the hysteretic response of YSPD [56]. They developed a BWBN model of the YSPD that accounts for pinching using Simulink and calibrated the hysteretic parameters they used experimental results of the YSPD. They incorporated the model in state-space approach to evaluate the response of the structure in terms of energy dissipation. In this study they used six different types of specimen. They showed that the energy dissipation of YSPD is 10% less when pinching is included in the model. Figure 2.7 shows the comparison of total energy dissipation ratio at each story using 100-2C and 100-3CS YSPDs. It is observed from Figure 2.7 that BWBN model with pinching shows less energy dissipation than the BW model without pinching. The incorporation of pinching showed better agreement with the experimental results for both of the specimens.



Figure 2.7 : Variation of total energy dissipation E_D/E_I over the building (with and without pinching) using : (a) 100-2C and (b) 100-3CS [56].

Hossain et al. developed a finite element model for YSPD by using finite element software ANSYS [26]. They emphasized importance on modeling appropriate support conditions, initial geometric imperfections and residual stresses. Monotonic and cyclic test results were also used to verify the model. They also proposed theoretical formulas in order to predict the initial stiffness of load-deformation response which includes individual stiffness of the diaphragm plate and SHS.

Theoretical predictions for monotonic loading were almost similar with both FE and the experimental results.

Hysteresis response of YSPD was demonstrated using mathematical model developed by Hossain et al. [33]. In order to simulate the response of energy dissipating device Bouc-Wen model was used earlier [36]. One limitation of the Bouc-Wen model (BWBN) model was that it did not consider the effect of pinching and degradation of strength and stiffness. Therefore, a new model was developed by Baber and Noori to include strength degradation, stiffness degradation and pinching characteristics [54]. They used a unified simple formulation technique for all the BWBN model parameters in order to use the easily obtainable physical properties such as plate thickness, size of the YSPD and material strength could be used in mathematical modeling. The mathematical model was able to simulate the performance of YSPD in terms of energy absorption [33]. No detail modeling is required to show the effect of YSPD if this mathematical model is used. This mathematical model is used to develop design methods to find out the appropriate size, location and numbers of YSPD.

Hossain et al. performed a risk based seismic performance assessment of YSPDs in case of steel moment resisting frame. They considered a three story steel moment resisting frame which is designed for the SAC phase II steel project. They used three different types of YSPDs with two different types of arrangements. They installed YSPDs in the middle bay three story (case 1) and three bay three story (TT, case 2) and conducted incremental dynamic analysis and fragility analysis to evaluate the performance of YSPDs. Figure 2.8 shows the reduction in inter story drift demands (%) and dispersion of seismic demand ($\beta_{D|Sa}$) for different combination and cases. Table 2.1 illustrates the annual exceedance probability of different limit states. One of the outcomes of their research is increased size of YSPDs show better energy dissipation capacities. The increased size of YSPD is capable to reduce the median fragility and the limit states annual exceedance probability. Among two different types of arrangements TT arrangements shows better energy dissipation in comparison to the three story single bay arrangements [**58**].



Figure 2.8: Reduction in inter story drift demands (%) and dispersion of seismic demand $(\beta_{D|Sa})$ for ground motions with design hazard level of LA [58].

	P _{LS} for different performance limit states				
	IO	LS	СР		
No YSPD	1/6	1/250	1/1550		
YSPD 100x4x2(case 1)	1/7	1/290	1/1560		
YSPD 110x5x3(case 1)	1/10	1/310	1/1680		
YSPD 120x6x4(case 1)	1/13	1/350	1/1860		
YSPD 100x4x2(case 2)	1/15	1/360	1/2206		
YSPD 110x5x3(case 2)	1/22	1/480	1/2360		
YSPD 120x6x4(case 2)	1/29	1/585	1/2760		

 Table 2.1: Annual exceedance probability of different limit states (PLS) with and without YSPDs

 [58].

The current research focuses on evaluating the energy dissipating capacity of YSPD for the case of concrete building. Hossain et al. conducted incremental dynamic analysis and fragility analysis for evaluating the performance of YSPD in case of concrete building. So far no research has been
conducted to evaluate the seismic performance of concrete building equipped with YSPDs. A low ductility RC frame has been chosen to evaluate the performance of the structure when YSPDs are installed. This type of RC building without YSPD is very common in eastern and central U.S. It is only designed for gravity loads, no earthquake loads are considered [51].



Figure 2.9: Representation of YSPD as a spring element [35].

The Figure 2.9 shows the representation of YSPD as a spring element. The YSPD is connected between the v- bracing and the beam and modeled as a spring element. YSPD is a passive energy dissipating device which dissipates energy through shear deformation. The installation and replacement of YSPD is very simple and inexpensive [34]. Therefore, it is envisioned that incorporating YSPD in already build up low ductility RC can be a simple and cost effective solution to improve its seismic performance.

CHAPTER 3: SEISMIC PERFORMANCE OF LOW DUCTILITY RC FRAMES EQUIPPED WITH YIELDING SHEAR PANEL DEVICE

3.1 Introduction

The worst effect of earthquake is the loss of human lives caused by the collapse of structures. Comprehensive research is necessary to ensure that structures withstand design earthquake forces. There are lots of buildings around the world that are poor in construction quality and seismic design. These buildings are very vulnerable to earthquakes. Over the last few decades, researchers' have developed various retrofit techniques for non-ductile RC frames [59]. The main purpose of these previous retrofit techniques was to improve the strength, stiffness and ductility of the RC frames which was achieved by RC Jacketing, Steel Jacketing, Concrete fiber reinforced polymer (CFRP) Jacketing and Buckling Resistant Bracing to improve its seismic performance [59-62]. However, there are other techniques of retrofitting measures to improve the seismic performance without intervening the structural elements. The use of damper can reduce the vibration, lateral displacement and drift of the building. Control devices, which work as dampers, are used to dissipate the earthquake energy to save the structures from being damaged [58]. The energy dissipating device not only works as a damper but also increase the stiffness of the building [58]. Energy introduced due to earthquake is transferred to the super structure through foundation. The structural damage can be minimized by dissipating the energy as such various kinds of systems has been developed to serve this purpose. All systems can be categorized into three types, such as active control system, semi-active control system and passive control system.

The active control device requires external power to operate and the mechanical properties of these systems are typically adjusted based on the feedback from the structural system. Semi- active control system requires a very small amount of external energy and its mechanical properties are typically adjusted on feedback from the structural system. The major advantage of the passive control system is that no external power source is required to operate such systems **[63]**. The mechanical properties of these systems cannot be modified and it dissipates energy by utilizing the motion of the structure to produce relative motion within damping device. For this reason use of passive control device is advantageous, reliable and relatively inexpensive to minimize the impact of earthquake **[64]**.

Different categories of passive control devices e.g. metal yielding, seismic isolation, sliding friction, shearing and viscous fluid etc. have been developed by many researchers for the purpose of energy dissipation **[50]**. These categories also have various types of sub-divisions. In Recent years, the use of metal yielding devices are more common for their simplicity and large energy dissipation capability. Several yielding devices, such as, i.e. Added Damping and Stiffness (ADAS), which dissipates energy through flexural dissipation and the modification of ADAS is Triangular Added Damping and stiffness (TADAS), Steel Slit Damper (SSD), Buckling Restrained Brace (BRB) and Yielding Shear Panel Device (YSPD) have been developed by researchers **[50]**. YSPD is a passive energy dissipating device which dissipates energy through shear deformation. The installation and replacement of YSPD is very simple and inexpensive **[26]**.

Large number of RC buildings around the world are vulnerable to earthquake due to poor seismic detailing. However, no attempt has been made to use the YSPD as a damper for investigating the performance of concrete building so far. In this research a low ductility RC building has been modelled to explore its performance against earthquake and to observe the improvements in seismic performance after incorporating YSPDs. The building was designed for the gravity loads only without using any seismic provision [51]. This type of building is very common in U.S.A. To evaluate the performance of YSPDs against earthquake static pushover, time history analysis, incremental dynamic analysis and fragility analysis has been conducted for three different types of YSPDs along with three different arrangements. Finally all results are compared for the frame with and without YSPDs.

3.2 Description of the building

In this study a three story low ductility RC moment resisting frame is modelled which has been experimentally tested by Bracci et al. [51]. The building has been designed before the introduction of modern seismic codes. During the design of the building only the gravity loads are considered without following any kind of seismic provision. This type of building is very common in the eastern and central U.S.A. The buildings are highly vulnerable to earthquakes because these are designed only for gravity loads following ACI- 318-89² without considering any seismic detailing requirements [51].

The study frame consists of three stories each **3.66 m** high and three equal bays of **5.49m** wide. The columns and the beams are of equal size at each floor having the cross sections **300 x 300** mm^2 and **230 x 460 mm²** respectively. Concrete with compressive strength fc' = 24 MPa and 40 grade steel with yield strength fy = 276 MPa are used in the design. The general layouts of the structure and beam reinforcements are shown in Figure 3.1.







(b)

Figure 3.1: (a) General layout, (b) beam reinforcements of the structure [68]

3.3 Theoretical evaluation of YSPD

For strengthening the building against seismic loading passive energy device named YSPDs are used in the moment resisting RC frame along with V- bracing. YSPD device is a passive energy dissipating device [58]. It consists of a square hollow section (SHS) with a diaphragm plate. The diaphragm plate is welded inside the square hollow section. SHS supports the diaphragm plate by providing a boundary as well as provides an interface to connect with the main structure. YSPD dissipates energy through shear deformation of the diaphragm plate. Tension field is developed due to post buckling of the diaphragm plate and SHS helps to resist the tension strips and tension field formation [47]. YSPD is placed in a framed structure with a beam through an inverted Vbrace connection [58]. YSPD, bracing and the connection pattern of YSPD are shown in the Figure 3.2.





(b)



Figure 3.2: (a) Typical YSPD-brace assembly (b) Yielding Shear Panel Device [47],

(c) Typical YSPD brace connection [26].

77

(a)

YSPD resists two equal and opposite forces when load is applied. The two forces are created through the bolted connections and that's why YSPD's initial stiffness would be equal to the force required to produce unit horizontal displacement at the loaded flange [68]. Figure 3.3 shows the undeformed shape and the deformed shape of YSPD due to two equal and opposite force.



Figure 3.3: Undeformed and deformed shapes of a YSPD device [26]

The equation shows the overall stiffness of the YSPD:

$$\frac{1}{k_{YSPD}} = \frac{1}{k_{dia}} + \frac{1}{k_{SHS}}$$
(3.1)

For elastic deformation, the shear stress in diaphragm plate is

$$\tau = G\gamma \tag{3.2}$$

So the elastic stiffness of diaphragm plate in pure shear can be written as

Due to the in-plane compression of the diaphragm plate and the vertical flanges the bolted flanges of the SHS experience flexural deformation. Figure 3.3 depicts the assumed deformation with acting force F_1 and F_2 .

Bolted flanges undergo bending about an axis perpendicular to the loading direction due to F_1 . .neglecting the effects of the bolts hole and assuming a zero rotation along the line passing through the centre of nearby bolts, the F_1 force can be calculated as follows

$$F_1 = \frac{3EI_1}{d_1^3} = \frac{DT^3E}{4(\alpha + R)^3}$$
(3.4)

Where, $I_1 = (DT^3/12)$, r is the radius of the bolt hole.

The acting force F_2 is responsible for the deformation along the line joining the flange and the diaphragm plate is assumed to have a triangular distribution due to the large in-plane rigidity of the diaphragm plate. The deformation of the bolted flanges is shown in Figure 3.4.



Figure 3.4: (a) Deformation of the bolted flanges. (b) Dimensions of the bolted flanges [26].

The resultant of the triangular force considering the deformation can be written as

$$F_{2=2}\left(\frac{6E I_2/d_2^3}{2}\right) = \frac{6EI_2}{d_2^3} = \frac{dT^3E}{2d_2^3}$$
(3.5)

Where, $I_2 = (dT^3/12)$,

Forces F_1 and F_2 are calculated for the bending of the flange in two orthogonal directions neglected the effect on each other. A reduction in the total calculated force is required to incorporate this effect. The reduced force can be calculated as follows

$$F_{r} = 2\left(\frac{6EI_{3}}{d_{2}^{3}}\right)\frac{3}{8} = \frac{3 E (a+r)T^{3}}{8d_{2}^{3}}$$
(3.6)

Where, $I_3 = \frac{((a+r)T^3)}{12}$

The compression of the diaphragm plate and the vertical flanges in an YSPD is similar to the deformation of an I-section as shown in Figure 3.5



Figure 3.5: Compressive deformation of diaphragm plate and vertical flanges [26].

The force required to make them a unit deformation at the end of the flange

$$F_{3} = DT \times \frac{E}{d} + \frac{dt}{2} \times \frac{E}{d}$$
(3.7)

The distance between the zero deformation and the time of action of the force

$$d_3 = \frac{DTE + dtE/3}{F_3}$$

The stiffness of the SHS can be calculated by the moment balance of these force and thus may be expressed as follows

$$K_{SHS} = F_1 + \frac{F_2}{3} - \frac{F_r (2d_r - d)}{d} + \frac{F_3 (2d_3 - d)}{d}$$
(3.8)

3.4 Modeling of the building and YSPDs

A 2D three story-three bay moment resisting low ductility RC frame as shown in Figure 3.8 is modeled using Opensees software **[Appendix A]**. Freddi et al. modeled the same frame for probabilistic seismic demand modeling of local level response parameters of that RC frame **[59]**. The same modeling approach is used in this analysis. T sections are considered during the modeling of the beams. "Beams with hinges" elements are used to incorporate nonlinear behavior of beam and column **[65]**. Panagiotakos and Fardis methods are used to calculate the plastic hinge length of beam and columns **[66]**. In plastic hinge zone Concrete-02 and Hysteretic material model is used to simulate the behavior of concrete and steel respectively. Beam column joints are considered as rigid. High axial stiffness of beams are used to incorporate the behavior of rigid-floor diagram.

YSPDs are used in the moment resisting frame to dissipate the earthquake energy through shear deformation. Geometric nonlinearity is incorporated in the modeling of YSPD to analyze post buckling behavior of YSPD. The first buckling mode of deformation is used as initial geometric imperfection. The first buckling deformation is scaled as a function of plate thickness and it was applied at 0.2t amplitude (t was the thickness of the diaphragm plate). Detail modeling and connection of YSPD with the steel base plate are given in Hossain et al. [26].

The Bouc-Wen-Baber Noori (BWBN) model is used to show the pinching hysteretic force deformation relationship of YSPDs [67]. Two types of parameters are used to construct non-degrading pinching hysteretic BWBN model named hysteretic parameters and pinching

parameters. Hysteretic parameters represent the shape of the force-displacement curve and the pinching parameters illustrates the pinching effect. Table 3.1 illustrates the BWBN model parameters of YSPD.

YSPD (D x	Fy	Kt	Fi	Α	β	γ	n	q	ξ10	Р	Ψ_0	δ_{ψ}	λ
T x t)	(M	(KN/	(KN)										
	Pa)	mm)											
100 x 4 x 2	250	0.33	26.76	1.0	0.5	0.5	1.213	0.52	0.96	0.`18	0.41	0.00001	0.0300
110 x 5 x 3	300	0.42	54.22	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.54	0.38	0.95	0.1`5	0.27	0.00001	0.0014
120 x 6 x 4	350	0.49	93.51	1.0	0.5	0.5	0.300	0.30	0.95	0.12	0.22	0.00001	0.0002

Table 3.1: BWBN material parameters for the YSPDs [71]

D is the size of YSPD (mm)

T is the thickness of SHS plate (mm)

t is the thickness of diaphragm plate (mm)

F_y is the yield strength of SHS and diaphragm plates (MPa)

Kt is the tangential stiffness of YSPD after tension field formation (kN/mm)

F_i, A, β , γ , n are hysteretic parameters and are pinching parameters and q, ξ_{10} , p, Ψ_{0} , δ_{ψ} , λ are pinching parameters



Figure 3.6: Nonlinear force displacement (F- δ) relationship of YSPD [71]

Figure 3.6 depicts the restoring force produced in the YSPD [71] and can be expressed according to BWBN model as follows

$$F = F_e + F_h = \alpha F_i \delta + (1 - \alpha) F_i z \tag{3.9}$$

where, F_e = Elastic components of the restoring force

 F_h = hysteretic component of the restoring force

Eq. (2.9) represents a nonlinear force displacement (F- δ) relationship based on the parameters F_i , α and z. F_i is well-defined as the force representing the intersecting point of the bilinear envelope of the force displacement relationship at a unit displacement of δ_i . K_t is the tangential stiffness of YSPD whereas $\alpha = k_t/F_i$. The non-degrading pinching hysteretic response depends on the hysteretic displacement z, which is represented by the following first order nonlinear differential equation.

$$\dot{z} = \delta h(z) \{ A - [\gamma + \beta \operatorname{sgn}(\dot{\delta}z)] | z|^n \}$$
(3.10)

where A, β , γ and *n* are hysteretic model parameters which control the shape of the curve. Value of sgn($\dot{\delta}z$) depends on the sign of $\dot{\delta}z$ and the value becomes +1 if $\dot{\delta}z$ is positive or becomes -1 if $\dot{\delta}z$ is negative. Pinching inducing function h(z) is stated by following equations as

$$h(z) = 1.0 - \zeta_1 e(-(z \cdot sgn(\delta) - (qz_n)^2 / \zeta_2^2)$$
(3.11)

$$Z_{u} = \left[\frac{1}{\beta + \gamma}\right]^{\frac{1}{n}}$$
(3.12)

Where $0 \le \zeta_1 < 1$ controls the severity of the pinching, ζ_2 causes the pinching region to spread, z_u is the ultimate value of z and q are model parameters. Depending on the hysteretic energy (ε), ζ_1 , ζ_2 are written as follows

$$\zeta_1 = \zeta_{10} [1.0 - e^{(-p\varepsilon)}] \tag{3.13}$$

$$\zeta_2 = (\psi_0 + \delta_{\psi\varepsilon})(\lambda + \zeta_1) \tag{3.14}$$

where p controls the rate of initial drop in the slope, ζ_{10} is the total slip, ψ_0 contributes to the amount of pinching, δ_{ψ} controls the rate of pinching spread, λ controls the rate of change of ζ_2 as ζ_1 changes. The rate of hysteretic energy is given by following equation,

$$\dot{\varepsilon} = (1 - \alpha) F_i z \delta \tag{3.15}$$

Three different sizes of YSPDs along with the three different bracings are used for the current study shown in Table 3.2. Cold formed welded Hollow Structural Section (HSS) are selected for the bracing system. HSS is made of ASTM A500 Grade B steel. The force displacement relationships of the three different sizes of YSPDs are shown in Figure 3.7. YSPDs are modeled as spring element which is connected between the V-bracing and mid span of the beam. Three different arrangements for the three different categories of YSPDs are used in this current study. The different types of frames and the considered modeled frames are shown in Table 3.2 and Figure 3.8 respectively.



Figure 3.7: Cyclic force displacement relationship of the YSPDs generated using the BWBN models [19]



Figure 3.8: Types of frame considered for analysis (a) Bare frame (b) Frame with YSPDs in first story three bay (c) Frame with YSPDs in three story second bay (d) Frame with YSPDs in three story three bay configurations.

Table 3.2: Considered frames

Frame ID	Types of frame
BR	Bare frame
FT-C1	Frame with YSPDs (C1) in first story three bay
FT-C2	Frame with YSPDs (C2) in first story three bay
FT-C3	Frame with YSPDs (C3) in first story three bay
TS-C1	Frame with YSPDs (C1) in three story second bay
TS-C2	Frame with YSPDs (C2) in three story second bay
TS-C3	Frame with YSPDs (C3) in three story second bay
TT-C1	Frame with YSPDs (C1) in three story three bay
TT-C2	Frame with YSPDs (C2) in three story three bay
TT-C3	Frame with YSPDs (C3) in three story three bay

Table 3.3: Different sizes of YSPDs and bracing

ID	YSPDs (mm)	Bracing (in)
C1(Category-01)	YSPD 100 x 4 x 2	HSS 4 x 4 x 1/8
C2(Category-02)	YSPD 110 x 5 x 3	HSS 4 x 4 x ¹ ⁄ ₄
C3(Category-03)	YSPD 120 x 6 x 4	HSS 4 x 4 x ¹ ⁄ ₂

3.5 Static pushover analysis

The static pushover analysis is very well-known method to find out the seismic force deformation relationship in order to evaluate the performance of existing and new structures. Sometimes pushover provides much useful information that cannot find out from dynamic analysis. To predict the force deformation demands produced on structures as well as on their elements due to earthquake ground motion, pushover analysis is considered as a simple intermediate solution.



Figure 3.9: Pushover curves showing the comparison of the three different arrangement of YSPDs with the bare frame (a.For category-01, b. for category-02, c. for category-03)

In this current study pushover analysis has been performed for each type of frame using opensees finite element software. Type of the frame considered for the simulation are listed in Table 3.1. 2D finite element models are developed for each type of frames. Total ten pushover analyses have

been performed for the ten individual frames. A triangular lateral load distribution has been considered for the analysis, where the top and bottom of the loads are at the roof level and base of the building, respectively [**Appendix B**]. The pushover response curves are shown in Figure 3.9 for three different sizes of YSPDS. In the Figure 3.10 the bare frame is compared with the other types of frames i.e. YSPDs in the FT, YSPDs in the TS, YSPDs in TT.

Figure 3.9 (a-c) and Figure 3.10 (a-c) represents the resistant capacity of ten different types of frames. From the Figure 3.9 (a-c) it is observed that with the increase of the size of YSPDs the resistance capacity of the frames is also increased. The higher resistance capacity is observed for the YSPDs in TT than the YSPDs in FT and TS arrangements. TS arrangement shows large base shear capacities than FT arrangements with the increased roof displacements. Figure 3.9 (c) shows that the base shear capacity is large for YSPD category C3. Figure 3.9 (a) and (b) depict that for YSPD category C1 and C2 TS shows less base shear capacity initially than FT but finally the base shear capacities are large for TS arrangements than FT arrangements. It is observed from figure 3.9 (a) that for C1 category of YSPD the base shear capacity increases 23% for FT, 50% for TS and 223% for TT arrangements than the bare frame and from figure 3.9 (b) and (c) for C2 and C3 categories of YSPDs the performance increases further. For example, for C3 category base shear capacities increase 24% for FT, 149% for TS and 445% for TT arrangements than the bare frame. From Figure 3.10 (a) it is observed that for the FT arrangement the increase size of YSPDs does not affect much in the resistance capacity. But Figure 3.10 (b) and (c) showed that significant amount of increase in resistance capacity is observed with the increased size of YSPDs in case of YSPDs in TS and TT arrangements.





(b)



Figure 3.10: Pushover curves showing the comparison of the three different categories of YSPDs with the bare frame (a.For YSPDs in the FT, b. for YSPDs in the TS, c. for YSPDs in the TT)

Figure 3.11 describes the inter story drift demand for the ten types of frames obtained from pushover analysis. For the BR frame the maximum inter story drift is at first floor level. After installing YSPDs the inter story drift is lower in first floor level but the inter story drift in the second and third floor level is higher for FT arrangements. For TS and TT arrangements inter story drift is lower for all the floors than bare frame except for TS-C1 combination. TS-C1 does not show better performance than bare frame in terms of inter story drift. So YSPDs can be installed in TS arrangement but for YSPDs category C2 and C3 and in TT arrangement for all the category but best performance has been observed for TT-C3 arrangement.



(c)

Figure 3.11: Inter story drift demand (a.For YSPDs in the FT, b. for YSPDs in the TS, c. for YSPDs in the TT)

3.6 Dynamic time history analysis

Time history analysis is very effective method to generate realistic dynamic sceneries of seismic damage **[47]**. Nowadays time history analysis method is widely used by many researchers to find out the seismic vulnerability of different structures **[65]**. In this research nonlinear time history analysis has been performed for ten different earthquake records including fault normal and fault parallel earthquake values for every earthquake. Earthquake records are listed in Table 3.4.



Figure 3.12: Response spectrum of the scaled ground motion records and design response spectrum at downtown Los Angeles for the site class D (stiff soil).

As part of this current study time history analysis has been performed for twenty earthquakes which matches the design. Figure 3.12 shows the response spectrum of the scaled ground motion records and design response spectrum at downtown Los Angeles for the site class D. Analyses were performed for the ten different types of frames and the results are compared. Eigen value analyses were performed to find out the fundamental time periods of the ten different types of frames. The results of the eigen value analyses are shown in the Table 3.5. The results show that the time periods have decreased with the increased size of YSPDs, and decreased gradually when the YSPDs are installed in orientation of FT, TS and TT.

me Earthquake Distance to	Station name	Year	Earthquake	PGMD
magnitude rupture (Km)			name	record no
er 7.13 62.9	Whitewater	1999	Hector Mine	1838
m	Trout Farm			
7.51 127.1	Botas	1999	Kocaeli,	1153
			Turkey	
5 7.62 2.8	TCU076	1999	Chi-Chi	1511
			Taiwan	
np 7.90 104.9	TAPS Pump	2002	Denali	2112
)8	Station #08		Alaska	
6.53 22	Delta	1979	Imperial	169
			Valley-06	
6.93 63.1	So.San	1989	Loma Prieta	804
0	Francisco			
t.	Sierra Pt.			
n 7.28 27	Mission	1992	Landers	880
ılt	Creek Fault			
7.35 2.1	Tabas	1978	Tabas, Iran	143
6.54 17	Brawley	1987	Superstition	719
	Airport		hills-02	
6.90 9.6	Auletta	1980	Irpinia,Italy-	284
			01	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	TAPS Pump Station #08 Delta So.San Francisco Sierra Pt. Mission Creek Fault Tabas Brawley Airport Auletta	1999 2002 1979 1989 1989 1992 1978 1987 1980	Taiwan Denali Alaska Imperial Valley-06 Loma Prieta Landers Tabas, Iran Superstition hills-02 Irpinia,Italy- 01	 1311 2112 169 804 880 143 719 284

Table 3.4: Selected ground motion records used in the current study [26])

Time	BR	FT-C1	FT-C2	FT-C3	TS-C1	TS-C2	TS-C3	TT-C1	TT-C2	TT-C3
periods										
(sec)										
T ₁	1.26	0.99	0.96	0.94	0.76	0.55	0.44	0.45	0.33	0.26
T ₂	0.40	0.31	0.30	0.29	0.26	0.19	0.16	0.16	0.12	0.09
T3	0.23	0.16	0.13	0.10	0.16	0.12	0.10	0.10	0.08	0.06

Table 3.5: Time periods of the first three modes for different types of frames

Inter story drift demands are determined out through non-linear time history analysis for the ten types of frames using twenty different earthquakes. The results of the inter story drift demands are shown in Figure 3.13 to 3.22. The Figure 3.13 shows that for the bare frame the inter story drift demand is higher at the first floor level than the other two floor levels and it is also true for both fault normal and fault parallel earthquakes. For fault normal earthquakes the inter story drifts of the structure are larger than the fault parallel earthquakes.



(a)

(b)

Figure 3.13: Inter story drift demand for bare frame (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel

Figure 3.14, 3.15 and 3.16 show that for FT arrangement the inter story drift demand has decreased after installing the YSPDs in the first story but the inter story drift demand has increased largely in the second story. It is observed that the inter story drift demand has decreased with the increase of the sizes of YSPDs both for the fault normal (FN) and fault parallel (FP) earthquake data. The similar results are observed for three categories of YSPDs.



Figure 3.14: Inter story drift demand for FT-C1 (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel



Figure 3.15: Inter story drift demand for FT-C2 (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel



Figure 3.16: Inter story drift demand for FT-C3 (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel

Figure 3.17, 3.18 and 3.19 represents the inter story drift demand for TS-C1, TS-C2 and TS-C3 arrangements. The results of the time history analysis show that after installing YSPDs the inter story drift demand decreases for TS-C2 and TS-C3 arrangements. But for TS-C1 arrangement inter story drift demands do not decrease at first floor level in comparison to the bare frame. However, inter story drift demand decreases at second and third floor level for most of the earthquake data for TS-C1 arrangement in comparison to bare frame.



Figure 3.17: Inter story drift demand for TS-C1 (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel



Figure 3.18: Inter story drift demand for TS-C2 (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel



Figure 3.19: Inter story drift demand for TS-C3 (a). Fault normal, (b). Fault parallel

Figure 3.20, 3.21 and 3.22 shows that the inter story drift demand is decreased considerably after installing YSPDs in the TT than the bare frame. Figure 3.17, 3.18 and 3.19 also show that the increased sizes of the YSPDs are helpful to decrease the inter story drift demand for the TT arrangements as well.



Figure 3.20: Inter story drift demand for TT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)



Figure 3.21: Inter story drift demand for TT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)



Figure 3.22: Inter story drift demand for TT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault paralllel)

Figure 3.23, 3.24, 3.25 depict the location of maximum inter story drift demand for three categories of YSPDs along with considered frames (total ten) for ten earthquakes including fault normal and fault parallel . Figure 3.23 represents the maximum inter story drift location for YSPDs Category-01. Figure 3.23 shows that for bare frame maximum inter story drifts occurs at first story. This condition is valid for both fault normal and fault parallel earthquake

data.Variation occurs for two to three earthquake data. In case of YSPDs in FT arragements the maximum inter story drift occur at second story level for both fault normal and fault parallel values. For TS arrangement maximum inter story drift occur at first floor level for TS-C1 arrangements. For TS-C2 and TS-C3 arrangents for most of the earthquakes maximum inter story drift occur at first floor level but for same earthquakes maximum inter story earthquake occurs at second floor level. For TT arrangements of YSPDs the maximum inter story drift happens in first floor level for most of the earthquake data. For YSPDs Category-02 and Category-03 similar trends are observed.



Figure 3.23: Maximum inter story drift demand for YSPD category-01 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)





Figure 3.24: Maximum inter story drift demand for YSPD category-02 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)



Figure 3.25: Maximum inter story drift demand for YSPD category-03 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)

Table 3.6 illustrates the average of maximum inter story drift (%) for ten types of frames along with the different categories of earthquakes. It is observed from the Table 3.6 that the FT shows lower average value of maximum inter story drift than the bare frame. TS shows lower average value of the maximum inter story drift than FT except for the case of TS-C1. TTs shows lower value than the TS arrangements. Again it is found that increasing the sizes of YSPDs decreases the average value of maximum inter story drift.

Frame Types	Average inter story drift (%)	Average inter story drift (%)		
	for fault normal	for fault parallel		
BR	1.44	1.10		
FT –C1	1.25	1.09		
TS-C1	1.69	1.42		
TT-C1	0.70	0.59		
FT-C2	1.18	1.08		
TS-C2	0.78	0.74		
TT-C2	0.51	0.52		
FT-C3	1.14	1.07		
TS-C3	0.66	0.66		
TT-C3	0.40	0.48		

Table 3.6: Average of maximum inter story drift demand (%) for different types of frames along with the different categories of YSPDS.

The Figures 3.26, 3.27, 3.28 represents the roof demand of the three categories of YSPDs along with ten different types of frames against ten different earthquake data along with fault normal and fault parallel. From the Figures 3.26, 3.27, 3.28 it is observed that the roof drift demand is decreased for most of the cases if FT arrangement is compared with the bare frame. Only for first two earthquake data in case of fault normal values the FT arrangements shows slight large roof demand compared with bare frame. For TS arrangements roof demand decreases than the bare frame for TS-C2 and TS-C3 arrangements. For TS-C1 arrangement roof demand decreases and two FP earthquakes. If TT arrangements is considered the roof demand shows lower demand



than the bare frame. As well as the roof demand is also lower than the FT arrangements. It is valid for both fault normal and fault parallel values.

Figure 3.26: Roof drift demand for YSPD category-01 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)





Figure 3.27: Roof drift demand for YSPD category-02 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)







Figure 3.28: Roof drift demand for YSPD category-03 (a. for fault normal, b. for fault parallel)

Table 3.8 illustrates the average of roof drift (%) for ten types of frames along with the different categories of earthquakes. It is observed that the FT show lower average value of roof drift than the bare frame. TS shows lower average roof drift than bare frame and FT. Moreover, TT

shows lower value than the TS, FT and bare frame. Increased sizes of YSPDs are capable to decrease the average value of roof drift.

Frame Types	Average inter story drift (%)	Average inter story drift (%)		
	for fault normal	for fault parallel		
BR	0.76	0.76		
FT-C1	0.65	0.63		
TS-C1	0.74	0.60		
TT-C1	0.38	0.39		
FT-C2	0.60	0.58		
TS-C2	0.46	0.51		
TT-C2	0.32	0.33		
FT-C3	0.57	0.57		
TS-C3	0.33	0.52		
TT-C3	0.26	0.30		

Table 3.7: Average roof drift demand (%) for different types of frames along with the different categories of YSPDS.

3.7 Incremental dynamic analysis

In recent years different types of methods are used for evaluating the seismic performance of civil engineering structures. Among them cloud analysis and Incremental Dynamic Analysis (IDA) are two advanced structural analysis methods. The difference is that in case of performing cloud analysis unscaled ground motions are used and for IDA scaled ground motions are used. For this reason IDA requires more time to complete compared to cloud analysis. Although IDA is time consuming, it can evaluate the relationship between intensity measures and demand parameters considering a large range of Intensity Measure (IM) [69]. IDA is a non-linear analysis method used to evaluate the seismic performance of the structure. In this method a series of non-linear dynamic analyses are performed for multiple scaled ground motion data. It is widely used to predict demand

against capacity capability of structure under seismic loading. The probability of the structural demand against given seismic intensity can be find out through IDA method **[70]**.



Figure 3.29: Steps of incremental dynamic analysis.

The Figure 3.29 shows the analysis steps are followed to complete IDA analysis. Ten different types of frames are taken for the analysis. Frame with three different arrangements and three different sizes of YSPDs and bare frame are considered for the analysis to find out the suitability of YSPDs in case of energy dissipation.

IDA have been performed for total ten earthquakes including fault normal and fault parallel data. For ten different types of frames have been taken for the analysis. Figure 3.30 to Figure 3.39 show the IDA curves for the ten different types of frames. The results of the IDA have been interpreted using the parameters found from the statistical analysis of post-seismic data i.e. Maximum Considered Earthquake (MCE), Design Basis Earthquake (DBE). MCE is the 2% probability of exceedance of peak horizontal acceleration in 50 years. DBE is the 10% probability of exceedance of peak ground acceleration in 50 years. For Los Angeles site class D the MCE is 0.8 g and DBE is 0.5 g. Initially the IDA curves show the straight line representing the linear elastic behavior and then the change in the straight lines depict the nonlinear behavior.

Figure 3.30 (a) depicts that for the BR subjected to FN earthquake data 8 of the 10 ground motion caused collapse of the frame at MCE ground motion level and 3 of the 10 ground motion caused collapse of the frame at DBE ground motion level. From the figure 3.30 (b) it is observed that for the FP EQ data the number of collapse reduces to 5 of 10 ground motion at MCE level and 2 of 10 at DBE level.


(a)



(b)

Figure 3.30: IDA curves for BR (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)

Figure 3.31 shows that for most of the earthquakes drift demand is lower for FT-C1 than the bare frame. With the increase of the size of YSPDs the more reduction in the drift demands have also been observed, shown in Figure 3.31 to 3.33. After installation of YSPDs in the FT-C1 the number

reduces more i.e. 3 of 10 motion caused collapse at MCE level and 2 of 10 at DBE level for FN. Figure 3.31 shows that for FP 3 of 10 ground motion caused collapse at MCE and 1 of 10 at DBE level. The performance improves for the increased size of YSPDs in case of FT arrangements, shown in Figure 3.32, 3.33.







(b)

Figure 3.31: IDA curves for FT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.32: IDA curves for FT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)





(b)

Figure 3.33: IDA curves for FT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)

Figure 3.34 shows that for most of the earthquakes drift demand is lower for TS-C1 than the bare frame. Figure 3.34 to 3.36 show that with the increase of the size of YSPDs the more reduction in the drift demands have also been observed. For TS arrangement 2 of 10 ground motion caused

collapsed of the frames at MCE ground motion level for FN earthquake data and no ground motion caused failure at DBE level, shown in Figure: 3.34(a), 3.35(a), 3.36(a). Figure: 3.34(b), 3.35(b), 3.36(b) depict that for FP earthquake data TS arrangement shows no failure at MCE and DBE level







(b)

Figure 3.34: IDA curves for TS-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.35: IDA curves for TS-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.36: IDA curves for TS-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)

After installation of YSPDs inter story drift demand is reduced more for TT arrangements in comparison of FT, TS and bare frame. The better energy dissipation capacities have been observed for the TT arrangements than the FT and TS arrangements. For the TT arrangement all most no ground motion caused failure both in MCE and DBE level, observed from Figure 3.37, 3.38, 3.39.



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.37: IDA curves for TT-C1 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)





(b)

Figure 3.38: IDA curves for TT-C2 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)



(a)



(b)

Figure 3.39: IDA curves for TT-C3 (a. Fault normal, b. Fault parallel)

3.8 Fragility analysis

Fragility analysis has been conducted to evaluate the risk based seismic performance of the structures. IDA analysis results are used to perform fragility analysis. Vulnerability of the structures are explained through limit states capacities. For IO and LS limit states β_c is equal to 0.25 and for CP limit states β_c is 0.15 [13]. The median fragility values of different combinations are shown in Table 3.8. From the Table 3.8 it can be observed that the system fragility is decreasing and median fragility is increasing after installing YSPD for TS and TT combinations. Though for FT combination the fragility analysis has not shown better performance. TS and TT combination show better performance than bare frame for all three limit states capacities. Such as for TT-C1 median fragility increases in comparison to the bare frame from 0.16g to 0.33g for IO, 0.28g to 0.64g for LS and 0.44g to 1.01g for CP limit states.

Table 3.8: Seismic demand statistics and median fragility values for bare frame and frames with YSPD

Frames	$\beta_{D Sa}$		β_R			S _a (g)	
		ΙΟ	LS	СР	IO	LS	СР
BR	0.53	0.59	0.59	0.55	0.16	0.28	0.44
FTC_1	0.55	0.62	0.62	0.60	0.17	0.27	0.42
FTC ₂	0.54	0.60	0.60	0.58	0.18	0.30	0.45
FTC ₃	0.52	0.57	0.57	0.55	0.19	0.32	0.46
TSC_1	0.47	0.53	0.53	0.48	0.26	0.55	0.96
TSC_2	0.43	0.51	0.51	0.46	0.28	0.58	0.98
TSC ₃	0.42	0.50	0.50	0.46	0.30	0.61	0.99
TTC_1	0.41	0.50	0.50	0.44	0.33	0.64	1.01
TTC ₂	0.42	0.49	0.49	0.43	0.37	0.67	1.04
TTC ₃	0.40	0.47	0.47	0.43	0.40	0.82	1.06



Figure 3.40: Fragility curves for IO



Figure 3.41: Fragility curves for LS



Figure 3.42: Fragility curves for CP

Figure 3.40, 3.41, 3.42 show the fragility curves for the bare frames and the frames with YSPDs. Fragility curves have been drawn for IO, LS, and CP limit states capacities. Significant reduction in fragility is observed after installation of YSPDs except some variation for FT combination. TT combination has demonstrated better performances over FT and TS arrangements. Better performances have been observed with the increase of the size of the YSPDs. TT-C3 arrangements shows the best results among all the combination and arrangements.

3.9 CONCLUSION

The structure chosen for this current research is a low ductility RC building which is very common in eastern and central U.S. The structure is very vulnerable to earthquake as during design no earthquake loads are considered. To strengthen the structure against seismic loading YSPDs are installed. From the pushover analysis it is observed that the capacity of the structure is increased after installing YSPDs. The increase in capacity is higher for the large size of YSPDs. Furthermore it is observed that the use of YSPD in three story three bay is more effective than other two arrangements. The results shows that inter story drift demand is decreased after installing YSPD in three story three bay of the structure. In case of first story three bay arrangement the inter story drift demand is decreased largely in the first story but increased higher in the second story. For TS arrangements inter story drift demand were lower than the bare frame except for the case of TS-C1. With the increased size of YSPDs both the average maximum inter story drift and roof drift are also reduced. From the static, dynamic and fragility analysis it is observed that the three story three bay arrangements shows better result and the highest size of YSPDs along with this arrangement show best result.

Chapter 4: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

4.1 General

The structure chosen for this current research is a low ductility RC building which is very common in Bangladesh. The structure is highly vulnerable to earthquake since no earthquake load is considered in the design of such structures. YSPD, a passive control device, can be installed to strengthen the structure against seismic loading. In the current study, the sizes of the YSPDs were varied and the arrangements were changed to find out the best performance. Total three different sizes of YSPDs with three different orientations were used for evaluating the performance of YSPDs.

4.2 Conclusions

The results found from the analysis are given bellow:

- Pushover analysis has been conducted in order to assess the base shear capacity of the structure against static load after installing YSPDs. The results of the pushover analysis show that after installing YSPDs the base shear capacity of the structure increases, with varying degree of performance has been observed for different orientations and sizes of YSPDs. For FT arrangements the increase in the size of YSPDs does not affect much in case of base shear capacities but for the TS and TT combination increase size of the YSPDs has greater impact in performance. The order of performance (in descending order), as observed in the current study, can be summarized as TS > FT > bare frame. The best performance among three arrangements are observed for TT arrangements. Inter story drift after installing YSPDs for FT arrangements at first floor level decreased to a large amount than the bare frame but increased for other two level. For TS and TT arrangements inter story drift decreased from the bare frame at all floor levels except for the case of TS-C1.
- Time history analysis have been performed for ten different kinds of earthquakes. Results are described in terms of inter story drift, roof drift, location of the maximum inter story drift, average value of the maximum inter story and roof drift. For FT arrangements inter story drift decreases in the first story but increases in the second story. For TS, TT arrangement inter story drift decreases than the bare frame except for the case of TS-C1.

For TS-C1 case, inter story drift increases at first story and decreases in the other two stories. The average maximum inter story drift decreases gradually after installing YSPDs in FT, TS and TT arrangements except for the case of TS-C1. Roof drift also decreases after installing YSPDs for FT, TT and TS arrangements. The best performance has been observed for TT arrangement from the time history analysis also. The locations of maximum inter story drift have been observed for Bare frame, TS and TT is first story and for FT is second story for most of the cases.

Incremental dynamic analysis and fragility analysis have also been performed to assess the performance of the structure before and after installing YSPDs. From the results of the incremental dynamic analysis it is observed that the curves are becoming stiffer after installation of the YSPDs which indicates lower drift demands. For bare frame the incremental dynamic analysis shows that for 8 earthquakes the structure is vulnerable to collapse at MCE level and for three earthquakes at DBE level. But after installation of the YSPDs the number decreases for FT, TT arrangements and almost no failure for TT arrangement have been observed. Fragility analysis shows that system fragility decreases and median fragility increases after installing YSPDS. Significant reduction in fragility have been observed for TT arrangement.

4.3 Limitation of this research work and future recommendation

- The present study is only limited to numerical analysis. Experimental testing using shake table test is recommended for future to see the variation of performance of YSPDs in case of RC building.
- Life cycle cost analysis has not been done for the current structure with two different arrangements of frames with YSPDs which is recommended for further study.
- The beam column joints are modeled as rigid which does not permit any rotation that might occur in the joint. To simulate the better response of the joint a better joint representation may be used in future.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Modeling of the frame along with YSPDs in three story three bay

Prototype Model

(Units mm, N, MPa)

Model with craked stiffness for the elastic part of the elements, rigid joints,

Hysteretic materials for the rebars, T section considering the whole slab, masses

applied on the beam-column intersections, median value among the concrete characteristics considered,

0.05 as last deformation of the concrete to avoid localization of the plasticization,

Rayleg damping 3 %

wipe

model BasicBuilder -ndm 2 -ndf 3;

set dataDir Data;

file mkdir \$dataDir;

Start of model generation

Create ModelBuilder

model BasicBuilder -ndm 2 -ndf 3

# N	ode	xCrd	yCrd
node	101	0	0
node	102	0	3429
node	1021	0	3200.4
node	1022	152.4	3429
node	1023	0	3657.6
node	103	0	7086.6
node	1031	0	6858
node	1032	152.4	7086.6
node	1033	0	7315.2
node	104	0	10744.2
node	1041	0	10515.6
node	1042	152.4	10744.2

- node 105 5486.4 0
- node 106 5486.4 3429
- node 1061 5486.4 3200.4
- node 1062 5638.8 3429
- node 1063 5486.4 3657.6
- node 1064 5334 3429
- node 107 5486.4 7086.6
- node 1071 5486.4 6858
- node 1072 5638.8 7086.6
- node 1073 5486.4 7315.2
- node 1074 5334 7086.6
- node 108 5486.4 10744.2
- node 1081 5486.4 10515.6
- node 1082 5638.8 10744.2
- node 1084 5334 10744.2
- node 109 10972.8 0

node	110	10972.8	3429
node	1101	10972.8	3200.4
node	1102	11125.2	3429
node	1103	10972.8	3657.6
node	1104	10820.4	3429

node	111	10972.8	7086.6
node	1111	10972.8	6858
node	1112	11125.2	7086.6
node	1113	10972.8	7315.2
node	1114	10820.4	7086.6

node	112	10972.8	10744.2
node	1121	10972.8	10515.6
node	1122	11125.2	10744.2
node	1124	10820.4	10744.2

node 113 16459.2 (0
--------------------	---

node	114	16459.2	3429
node	1141	16459.2	3200.4

node	1143	16459.2	3657.6
node	1144	16306.8	3429
node	115	16459.2	7086.6
node	1151	16459.2	6858
node	1153	16459.2	7315.2
node	1154	16306.8	7086.6
node	116	16459.2	10744.2
node	1161	16459.2	10515.6
node	1164	16306.8	10744.2

#setting up the parameters

- set IDctrlNode 104; # node where displacement is read for displacement control
- set IDctrIDOF 1; # degree of freedom of displacement read for displacement control
- set NStory 3; # number of stories above ground level
- set NBay 3; # number of bays

#Building height

set LBuilding 10744.2;

Intermediate Node for YSPDs

- # Node xCrd yCrd
- node 1 2743.2 3429;
- node 2 8229.6 3429;
- node 3 13716 3429;
- node 4 2743.2 7086.6;
- node 5 8229.6 7086.6;
- node 6 13716 7086.6;
- node 7 2743.2 10744.2;
- node 8 8229.6 10744.2;
- node 9 13716 10744.2;

Intermediate Node for Bracing

Node xCrd yCrd

node	11	2743.2	3329
node	22	8229.6	3329
node	33	13716	3329
node	44	2743.2	6986.6
node	55	8229.6	6986.6
node	66	13716	6986.6
node	77	2743.2	10644.2
node	88	8229.6	10644.2
node	99	13716	10644.2

Define Single Point Constraints

SPC tag Dx Dy Rz

fix

fix	101	1	1	1
fix	105	1	1	1

fix 113 1 1 1

109 1 1 1

Define nodal masses

Nodetag mx my mIz

mass	102	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	103	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	104	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	106	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	107	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	108	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	110	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	111	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	112	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	114	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	115	13.77	13.77	0	
mass	116	13.77	13.77	0	

Define materials

#2 Column 1 and 3

- #3 Column 2 and 4
- #4 Columns Subassemblages
- # 5 Beams Subassemblages

6 Concrete Complete Structure

# Material Concrete02 matTag	fc' ep	osc0 fcu'	epsu la	umbda ft	Ets		
uniaxialMaterial Concrete02	2	-24.81 -0.	0025 -7	.44 -0.05	0.05	0.0	0.5
uniaxialMaterial Concrete02	3	-30.13 -0.	0021 -9	0.04 -0.05	0.05	0.0	0.5
uniaxialMaterial Concrete02	4	-31.58 -0.	0029 -1	1.15 -0.05	0.05	0.0	0.5
uniaxialMaterial Concrete02	5	-34.60 -0.	0022 -6	5.50 -0.05	0.05	0.0	0.5
uniaxialMaterial Concrete02	6	-27.68 -0.	00235 -(6.53 -0.05	0.05	0.0	0.5
# 10 Steel gauge12 (slab reinforcen	nents)						
# 11 Steel D4 (beam and column re	einforceme	ents)					
# 12 Steel D5 (upper reinforcement	ts lateral b	eams)					
# Material Steel02 matTag a4> <sig0></sig0>	Fy	E b	R0	cR1 cR2	<a1< td=""><td>aź</td><td>2 a3</td></a1<>	aź	2 a3
uniaxialMaterial Steel02 10 0.0 1.0 0.0	276.00	214080.4	0.00417	75 18.5 0.9	25 0.15	0.0	1.0
# Material Steel01 matTag	Fy	Е	b	a1 a2	a3 a4		
uniaxialMaterial Steel01 11	276.00	214080.4	0.003	0.0 1.0 0.	0 1.0		
uniaxialMaterial Steel01 12	276.00	214080.4	0.003	0.0 1.0 0.	0 1.0		

89

# 20	Steel Hysteretic gauge	#3								
# 20 Steel Hysteretic gauge12 (slab reinforcements) #3 # 21 Steel Hysteretic D4 base column reinforcements (lap splice) #6 # 22 Steel Hysteretic D4 first floor column reinforcements (no lap splice) #6 # 23 Steel Hysteretic D4 Subassemblages #6 # 24 Steel Hysteretic D5 (upper reinforcements lateral beams) #5 # Material Hysteretic matTag s1p e1p s2p e2p s1n e1n s2n e2n pinchX pinchY damage1 damage2 <\$beta> \$\$beta> \$\$11 -276.00 0.00129 364.23 0.100 373.16 0.11 -276.00 -0.00129 -364.23 -0.100 -373.16 -0.11 0.0 <										
# 22	Steel Hysteretic D4 first	p splice)	#6							
# 23	Steel Hysteretic D4 Sul	#6								
# 24 Steel Hysteretic D5 (upper reinforcements lateral beams) #5										
# Mat	erial Hysteretic ma	atTag s1p e	e1p s2p	e2p	s1n	e1n		s2n		
	e2n pinchX pinchY	damage	el dan	nage2		<\$beta	1>			
uniax	ialMaterial Hysteretic	20	276.00 0.0	00129 364	.23	0.100	373.16	0.11		
	-276.00 -0.00129 -36	54.23 -0.100	-373.16 -0	.11 0.0	0.0	0		0		
	0									
uniax	ialMaterial Hysteretic	21	276.00 0.0	00129 339	9.40	0.100	345.82	0.11		
-276.0	00 -0.00129 -339.40	-0.100 -345.82	-0.11 0.4	0.6	0	0		0.8		
uniax	ialMaterial Hysteretic	22	276.00 0.0	00129 339	9.40	0.100	345.82	0.11		
-276.0	00 -0.00129 -339.40	-0.100 -345.82	-0.11 0.2	0.6	0	0		0		
uniax	ialMaterial Hysteretic	23	276.00 0.0	00129 339	9.40	0.100	345.82	0.11		
-276.0	00 -0.00129 -339.40	-0.100 -345.82	-0.11 0.0	0.6	0	0		0		
uniov	ialMatarial Uvetaratio	24	276.00 0.0	0120 220	10	0 100	315 82	0.11		

uniaxialMaterial Hysteretic 24 276.00 0.00129 339.40 0.100 345.82 0.11 -276.00 -0.00129 -339.40 -0.100 -345.82 -0.11 0.0 0.3 0 0 0

90

Define section(s)

#2 Column

#3 Beam internal

#4 Beam external

Section secTag

section Fiber 2 {

patch quad	6	120	1	-152.4	-152.4	152.4	-152.4	152.4	152.4	-152.4
152.4										
layer straight	23	2	283.	87	114.3		114.3	114.3	-114.3	
layer straight	23	2	283.	87	-114.3	}	114.3	-114.3	-114.3	

}

Section secTag

section Fiber 3 {

	patch -228.6	quad 114.3	6	120	1		-228	6.6	-114.3 228.6	-114.3	228.6	114.3
1828.8	patch 76.2	quad 1828.8	6	40		1	76.2	2	114.3	228.6	114.3	228.6
	patch 228.6	quad -114.3	6 76.2	40 -114.3	3	1	76.2	2	-1828.8	228.6	-1828.8	3
	layer	straight	23	3	28	3.87 190	.5 7	76.2	190.5 -76.2			
	layer	straight	23	2		141.94	-	190.5	76.2 -190.5	-76.2		
	layer	straight	20	8		70.97		190.5	1798.8	190.5	144.3	
	layer	straight	20	8		70.97		190.5	-144.3 190.5	-1798.8	3	
	layer	straight	20	8		35.48		114.3	1798.8	114.3	144.3	
	layer	straight	20	8		35.48		114.3	-144.3 114.3	-1798.8	3	

}

#	Section	secTag

section Fiber	4	{					
patch -228.6	quad 6 114.3	120 1		-228.6	-114.3 228.6	-114.3	228.6 114.3
patch 1828.8 76.2	quad 6 1828.8	40	1	76.2	114.3	228.6	114.3 228.6
patch 228.6	quad 6 -114.3 76.2	40 -114.3	1	76.2	-1828.8	228.6	-1828.8
layer layer	straight 24 straight 23	2 28 2	33.87 190 141.94).5 76.2 -190.5	190.5 -76.2 76.2 -190.5	-76.2	
layer	straight 20	8	70.97	190.5	1798.8	190.5	144.3
layer	straight 20	8	70.97	190.5	-144.3 190.5	-1798.8	3
layer	straight 20	8	35.48	114.3	1798.8	114.3	144.3
layer	straight 20	8	35.48	114.3	-144.3 114.3	-1798.8	3

}

Define geometric transformation(s)

GeoTran type tag

geomTransf Linear 1

geomTransf PDelta 2

set Econc_el 24178;

set Acolumns 92880;

set Abeams 627093;

set IzBeams 425250572.6 ;

Define element(s)

# Eleme		eleT	Tag N	NodeI Nod	leJ	secTagI	Lpi see	cTagJ	Lpj			
Е	A	Iz			geoTra	anTag	<-mass	ma	ssDens>	<-iter ma	xIters t	ol>
# Colum	ins											
element	beamWit	hHinges	1	101	1021	2	192.024	2	192.024	\$Econc_e	el \$Aco	lumns
3058742	278.97	1			-mass	+0.00	0000E+00)0 -	iter 25	+1.000000	E-008	
- element beamWithHinges 2 105 1061 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 381202475.60 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 1 109 1101 element beamWithHinges 3 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 381202475.60 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 4 113 1141 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 305874278.97 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008
- element beamWithHinges 5 1023 1031 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 283830488.14 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 1 element beamWithHinges 6 1063 1071 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 336029788.41 1 element beamWithHinges 7 1103 1111 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 336029788.41 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 8 1143 1151 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc el \$Acolumns 283830488.14 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008
- element beamWithHinges 9 1033 1041 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 258044546.66 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 10 1073 1081 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el 2 \$Acolumns 293582234.48 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 11 1113 1121 2 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el \$Acolumns 293582234.48 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 12 1153 1161 192.024 2 192.024 \$Econc_el 2 \$Acolumns 258044546.66 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008

Beams

1022 1 element beamWithHinges 13 4 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 \$IzBeams 1 element beamWithHinges 14 1 1064 4 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc el \$Abeams \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 15 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams 1062 2 3 **\$IzBeams** 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 16 2 1104 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams 3 \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 17 1102 3 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams 3 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 1 \$IzBeams element beamWithHinges 18 3 1144 4 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams **\$IzBeams** 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008

283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams element beamWithHinges 19 1032 4 4 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 **\$IzBeams** 1 element beamWithHinges 20 4 1074 4 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 21 1072 5 3 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 \$IzBeams 1 element beamWithHinges 22 5 1 1 1 4 3 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams **\$IzBeams** 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 23 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams 1112 6 3 \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008

element beamWithHinges 24 6 1154 4 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008

element beamWithHinges 25 1042 7 4 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 26 7 1084 4 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 element beamWithHinges 27 1082 8 3 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 1 \$IzBeams element beamWithHinges 28 8 1124 3 283.464 3 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 \$IzBeams element beamWithHinges 29 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc_el \$Abeams 1122 9 3 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008 \$IzBeams 1 element beamWithHinges 30 9 1164 4 283.464 4 283.464 \$Econc el \$Abeams \$IzBeams 1 -mass +0.000000E+000 -iter 25 +1.000000E-008

set ARigid 1.00E+09;

set ERigid 34000;

set IzRigid 1.00E+15;

Element eleTagNodeI NodeJ A E Iz geoTranTag <alpha d> <-mass massDens>

element	elasticBeamColumn	1021	1021	102	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				
element	elasticBeamColumn	1022	102	1022	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				C
element	elasticBeamColumn	1023	102	1023	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0	102	1020	÷8 ÷8	4-224 C.B.C.
element	elasticBeamColumn	1031	1031	103	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				
element	elasticBeamColumn	1032	103	1032	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				
element	elasticBeamColumn	1033	103	1033	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				
alamant	alastiaDasmColumn	1041	1041	104	¢ A Divid ¢EDivid	¢I-D:~:4
element 1		1041	1041	104	ŞARIğlu ŞERIğlu	\$12R1g10
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				
element	elasticBeamColumn	1042	104	1042	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				
element	elasticBeamColumn	1061	1061	106	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0			0 0	U
-1		10/2	100	10/2	¢∧D:-:1 ¢ጉጉ' '1	ф т_р
element	elasticBeamColumn	1062	106	1062	\$AK1g10 \$EK1g10	\$IZK1g1d
1	0.0 0.0 -mass	0.0				

Rigid

element	elast	icBeam	Column	1063	106	1063	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1064	1064	106	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1071	1071	107	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0			0 0	C
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1072	107	1072	SARigid SFRigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0	107	10,2	¢rindgia ¢⊐ridgia	¢izitigiu
-	010	0.0		0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1073	107	1073	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1074	1074	107	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
alamant	alast	Doom	Column	1001	1001	108	¢ADigid ¢EDigid	\$IzDigid
element 1			maga	0.0	1001	108	PARISIC PERISIC	φιzikigiu
1	0.0	0.0	-111855	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1082	108	1082	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1084	1084	108	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1101	1101	110	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1102	110	1102	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				

element	elasticBear	mColumn	1103	110	1103	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1104	1104	110	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1111	1111	111	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBea	mColumn	1112	111	1112	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0			÷88	+8
_		~ .					
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1113	111	1113	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1114	1114	111	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1121	1121	112	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1122	112	1122	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
alamant	alacticDee	mCalumn	1124	1104	110	¢ A Divid ¢EDivid	¢I-Di aid
		mColumn	0.0	1124	112	ŞARIğid ŞERIğid	alzkigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1141	1141	114	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				
		~ .					
element	elasticBear	mColumn	1143	114	1143	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0 0.0	-mass	0.0				

element	elast	icBeam	Column	1144	1144	114	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1151	1151	115	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1153	115	1153	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elasticBeamColumn			1154	1154	115	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
1	0.0	0.0	-mass	0.0				
element	elast	icBeam	Column	1161	1161	116	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
element 1	elast 0.0	icBeam 0.0	Column -mass	1161 0.0	1161	116	\$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid
element 1 element	elast 0.0 elast	icBeam 0.0 icBeam	Column -mass Column	1161 0.0 1164	1161	116	\$ARigid \$ERigid \$ARigid \$ERigid	\$IzRigid \$IzRigid

#Brace Sections

set A_HSS1 1142.0;

set I_HSS1 1831418.0;

set A_HSS2 2174.0;

set I_HSS2 3246605.0;

set A_HSS3 3884.0;

set I_HSS3 4953154.0;

set E 200000;

#Braces

element elasticBeamColumn 31 101 11 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 32 11 105 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 33 105 22 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 34 22 109 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 35 109 33 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 36 33 113 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1;

element elasticBeamColumn 37 102 44 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 38 44 106 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 39 106 55 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 40 55 110 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 41 110 66 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 42 66 114 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 43 103 77 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 44 77 107 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 45 107 88 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 46 88 111 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 47 111 99 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1; element elasticBeamColumn 48 99 115 \$A_HSS3 \$E \$I_HSS3 1;

Define material

#uniaxialMaterial material tag alpha Ko n gama beta A q Zetas p Shi deltaShi Lamda tolerance maxNumberIter

uniaxialMaterial BWBN 25 0.012331839 26760 1.213 0.5 0.5 1 0.52 0.96 0.018 0.41 0.00001 0.0300 0.001 1000;

uniaxialMaterial BWBN 26 0.007746219 54220 0.544 0.5 0.5 1 0.38 0.95 0.015 0.27 0.00001 0.0014 0.001 1000;

uniaxialMaterial BWBN 27 0.005240081 93510 0.300 0.5 0.5 1 0.30 0.95 0.012 0.22 0.00001 0.0002 0.001 1000;

uniaxialMaterial Elastic 28 1.0e-20;

Define two node link element

element twoNodeLink 49 1 11 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3; element twoNodeLink 50 2 22 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3; element twoNodeLink 51 3 33 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3;

element twoNodeLink 52 4 44 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3; element twoNodeLink 53 5 55 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3; element twoNodeLink 54 6 66 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3;

element twoNodeLink 55 7 77 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3; element twoNodeLink 56 8 88 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3; element twoNodeLink 57 9 99 -mat 28 27 28 -dir 1 2 3;

equalDOF 1 11 2;

equalDOF 2 22 2;

equalDOF 3 33 2;

equalDOF 4 44 2;

equalDOF 5 55 2;

equalDOF 6 66 2;

equalDOF 7 77 2;

equalDOF 8 88 2;

equalDOF 9 99 2;

Define RECORDERS ------

recorder Drift -file \$dataDir/Drift-Story1.out -time -iNode 101 -jNode 102 -dof 1 -perpDirn 2; recorder Drift -file \$dataDir/Drift-Story2.out -time -iNode 102 -jNode 103 -dof 1 -perpDirn 2; recorder Drift -file \$dataDir/Drift-story3.out -time -iNode 103 -jNode 104 -dof 1 -perpDirn 2; recorder Drift -file \$dataDir/Drift-total.out -time -iNode 101 -jNode 104 -dof 1 -perpDirn 2;

display displacement shape of the column

recorder display "Displaced shape" 10 10 500 500 -wipe

prp 200. 50. 1;

vup 0 10;

vpn 0 0 1;

display 1 5 40

Gravity-analysis

constraints Plain;

#constraints Transformation;

numberer Plain;

system BandGeneral;

#system UmfPack;

test NormDispIncr 1.0e-6 100;

algorithm Newton;

set NstepGravity 10;

set DGravity [expr 1.0/\$NstepGravity];

integrator LoadControl \$DGravity;

analysis Static;

analyze \$NstepGravity;

maintain constant gravity loads and reset time to zero

loadConst -time 0.0;

#puts "Model Built";

DYNAMIC ground-motion analysis -----

create load pattern

set G 9810

timeSeries Path 2 -dt 0.005 -filePath 143_FN.acc -factor \$G; # define acceleration vector from file (dt=0.005 is associated with the input file gm)

pattern UniformExcitation 2 1 -accel 2;# define where and how (pattern tag,dof) acceleration is applied

set damping based on first eigen mode

set freq [expr [eigen -fullGenLapack 1]**0.5]

set dampRatio 0.03

rayleigh 0. 0. 0. [expr 2*\$dampRatio/\$freq]

create the analysis

wipeAnalysis;	# clear previously-define analysis parameters
constraints Plain;	# how it handles boundary conditions

numberer Plain;	# renumber dof's to minimize band-width
(optimization), if you want to	
system BandGeneral; equations in the analysis	# how to store and solve the system of
algorithm Linear	# use Linear algorithm for linear analysis
integrator Newmark 0.5 0.25;	# determine the next time step for an analysis
analysis Transient;	# define type of analysis: time-dependent
analyze 3995 0.01;	# apply 3995 0.01-sec time steps in analysis

puts "Done!"

wipe

Appendix B

Calculation of lateral load for pushover analysis

Beam = $230 \times 460 \text{ mm}^2 = 9 \times 18.11 \text{ in}^2$

Column = $300 \times 300 \text{ mm}^2 = 11.811 \times 11.811 \text{ in}^2$ and Slab thickness = 6 in

Total slab dead load = 110 psf

Total slab live load = 50 psf

Total slab load = 110 + 50 = 160 psf

Self-weight of beam = $(150 \times 9 \times 18.11) / 144 = 169.78 \text{ psf}$

Total beam weight = $(1440 + 169.78) \times 18 = 28976.04$ lb

Total column weight = $(150 \times 11.811 \times 11.811)/144 = 145.3 \times 12 = 1743.74$ lb

Weight of first story = (1743.74 x 4) / 2 + (1743.74 x 4) / 2 + 3 * 28976.04 = 93903.8 lb

Weight of second story = 93903.08 lb

Weight of third story = (1743.74 * 4) / 2 + 3 * 28976.04 = 90415.6 lb

Total floor weight = (93903.08 x 2 + 90415.6) = 278221.76 lb

Load at first story = [(93903.08 x 12) / (93903.08 x 12 + 93903.08 x 24 + 90415.6 x 36)] X 278221.76 = 47247.6 lb = 210167.79 N

Load at first story (per node) = 52541.9 N

Load at second story = [(93903.08 x 24) / 6635479.2] * 278221.76 = 94495.22 lb = 420335.52 N

Load at second story (per node) = 105083.88 N

Load at third story = [(90415.6 x 36) / 6635479.2] x 278221.76 = 136478.63 lb = 607086.97 N

Load at third story (per node) = 151771.74 N