Experimental and numerical investigations on the seismic behavior of bridge piers with vertical unbonded prestressing strands

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Abstract

In the performance-based seismic bridge design, piers are expected to undergo large inelastic deformations during severe earthquakes, which in turn can result in large residual drift and concrete crack in the bridge piers. In this paper, longitudinal unbonded prestressing strands are used to minimize residual drift and residual concrete crack width in reinforced concrete (RC) bridge piers. Seven pier specimens were designed and tested quasi-statically and the numerical simulations were carried out. The effectiveness of using vertical unbonded prestressing strands to mitigate the residual drift and concrete crack width of RC bridge piers are examined and discussed in detail. It is found that the residual drift and residual concrete crack width of the piers can be reduced significantly by using the prestressing strands. Moreover, the strands can increase the lateral strength of the piers while have little influence on the ductility capacity of the piers. The hysteretic

26　curves, residual drifts and strand stress of the piers predicted by the numerical model agree well

27　with the testing data and can be used to assess the cyclic behavior of the piers.

28

29　**Keywords** Seismic design of bridges piers, Unbonded prestressing strands, Residual drift, Residual

30　concrete crack width, Quasi-static test, Numerical simulation

31

32　1 Introduction

33　Bridges are key components in the transportation network, they can provide immediate emergency

34　services following an earthquake. It is of particular importance to ensure the seismic safety of

35　bridge structures during severe earthquakes. In the performance-based seismic design of bridge

36　structures, bridge piers are expected to undergo large inelastic deformations during severe

37　earthquakes, which in turn can result in large residual displacement and concrete crack width and

38　lead to malfunction of the bridge structures. For example, following the 1995 Kobe earthquake,

39　many reinforced concrete (RC) bridge piers with a residual drift ratio (pier residual lateral

40　displacement divided by the pier height) larger than 1.75% were demolished in spite of the apparent

41　light damage (Fujino et al. 2005; Kawashima et al. 1998). During the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake,

42　the maximum residual concrete crack width in the No. 5 pier of the Miaoziping bridge reached as

43　much as 0.8 mm. With such a wide crack, the piers under the water have to be retrofitted to protect

44　them from corrosion attack. The cost of retrofitting was significantly high due to underwater

45　construction of the concrete (Zhuang et al. 2009). Recently, a growing number of high speed

46　railway bridges and cross sea bridges are designed and constructed in China. In the seismic design

47　of high speed railway bridges, it is especially important to reduce the residual drift of the piers to

48　ensure the safety and stability of the high speed trains. On the other hand, concrete cracking can

49   seriously threaten the long-term durability of the cross sea bridge piers, which should be adequately

50   considered in seismic design of these piers (Guo et al. 2015; Moshref et al. 2015).

51   To minimize the residual drift in bridge piers, a new pier design concept by using longitudinal

52   prestressing strands was proposed. For example, Zatar and Mutsuyoshi (2002) suggested using

53   partially prestressed concrete for the bridge piers and a series of quasi-static and pseudo-dynamic

54   tests were carried out to examine its efficiency. It was found that employing prestressing strands in

55   RC bridge piers could result in substantial reductions of residual drift after an earthquake. Sakai and

56   Mahin (2004a, 2004b) proposed a similar design to minimize residual drift of RC bridge piers by

57   using longitudinal prestressing strands to replace some of common longitudinal mild bars. The

58   seismic behavior of such prestressed piers was investigated through a series of quasi-static and

59   dynamic analyses. Moreover, a series of earthquake simulator tests were conducted to validate the

60   effectiveness of using prestressing strands in mitigating the residual drift of the piers (Mahin et al.

61   2006). The Unbonded Bar Reinforced Concrete (UBRC) structure, which consists of a conventional

62   RC structure and vertical unbonded prestressing bars, was proposed by Iemura et al. (2004). To

63   evaluate the seismic behavior of the UBRC structures, cyclic loading and pseudo-dynamic tests for

64   pier specimens were carried out. It was found that UBRC piers exhibit stable seismic response even

65   under strong earthquakes and the residual drift was small. In recent years, a new design concept of

66   segmental precast concrete bridge pier was proposed to accelerate bridge construction (Shim et al.

67   2008; Wang et al. 2008; Yamashita and Sanders, 2009; Ou et al. 2010), in which the unbonded

68   prestressing strands were used to hold the pier segments together and bring the piers back to their

69   original position under lateral loads.

70   According to the previous studies, it is clear that the residual drift of bridge piers can be decreased

71   evidently by employing longitudinal unbonded prestressing strands. It should be noted that the

72   residual crack width of the piers will be restricted as well as a result of the restoring force provided

73 by the prestressing strands. Thus, the use of prestressing strands would bring great benefit for the

74 seismic design of the bridge piers in view of mitigating residual drift and concrete crack width.

75 Until recently, studies on the seismic behavior of cast in place bridge piers with longitudinal

76 unbonded strands are limited, and most of previous studies focused on the residual drift. Very little

77 effort has been devoted to study the residual concrete crack widths of the piers after an earthquake,

78 which is especially important for the long-term durability of the piers. In this study, the longitudinal

79 unbonded prestressing strands are used to minimize residual drift and residual concrete crack width

80 in RC bridge piers. Both experimental and numerical investigations are carried out to investigate the

81 seismic behavior of the proposed bridge piers. Seven pier specimens were designed and tested

82 quasi-statically to evaluate the effect of the prestressing strands on mitigation the residual drift and

83 residual concrete crack width of the piers after an earthquake. The influences of various parameters

84 including the prestressing force ratio, the mechanical prestressing ratio and the location of the

85 prestressing strands, on the residual drift and residual concrete crack width, were experimentally

86 investigated. Finally, a finite element (FE) model was developed and calibrated by using the

87 open-source finite element code OpenSees (Mazzoni et al. 2007) based on the testing data.

88

89 **2 Experimental program**

90 2.1 Test specimens

91 To experimentally evaluate the seismic behavior of the RC bridge piers with vertical unbonded

92 strands under cyclic loading, seven 1:4 scaled pier specimens with a cantilever scheme were

93 designed and tested. Fig. 1 and Table 1 show the design details of the pier specimens. All the

94 specimens had a circular section with a diameter of 300 mm and with a heavy RC footing. As

95 shown in Fig. 1(a), the height of the specimens measured from the top surface of the footing to the

96 point where lateral loading was applied was 1100 mm, corresponding to an aspect ratio of 3.67,

97 which normally leads to flexural failure of the specimens (Hashimoto et al. 2005; Sun et al. 2012).

98 Fig. 1(b) summarizes the reinforcement layout. As shown in Fig. 1(b)-1, specimen RC-1

99 represented a conventional RC bridge pier without prestressing strands. This specimen was used as

100 a reference for comparison with results obtained from specimens with prestressing strands. This

101 specimen was reinforced with eight 12 mm-diameter longitudinal mild bars evenly distributed

102 around the perimeter. Mild bars of 8 mm in diameter were used as transverse reinforcement and

103 spaced at a distance of 75 mm along the pier height, resulting in a transverse reinforcement ratio of

104 1%.

105 Specimen PRC-1 was a standard specimen with prestressing strands. This specimen was designed

106 to be the same as specimen RC-1 except that prestressing strands were included. Four 12.7

107 mm-diameter unbonded strands (each strand with a nominal area of 98.7 mm^2) were used with a

108 total prestressing force ratio of 0.1 (the definition of prestressing force ratio ζ can be found in

109 Equation (3)). The strands were arranged in a square pattern with a side length of 135 mm. Fig.

110 1(b)-2 shows the reinforcement layout of specimen PRC-1. Specimen PRC-2 was designed the

111 same as specimen PRC-1 except for the longitudinal mild bars, where as shown in Fig. 1(b)-3, eight

112 8 mm-diameter longitudinal mild bars were used in this specimen to evaluate the longitudinal mild

113 bars on the seismic behavior of the piers with prestressing strands. Specimen PRC-3 (Fig. 1(b)-4)

114 was design to evaluate the amount of prestressing strands on the behavior of the piers. Only two

115 strands were used in this specimen, and other parameters were the same as specimen PRC-1.

116 Specimen PRC-4 and Specimen PRC-5 were designed to evaluate the initial prestressing stress on

117 the behavior of the piers. In specimen PRC-4, the prestressing force ratio was reduced to 0.05, while

118 in specimen PRC-5, it reached 0.15. For the reinforcement layouts of specimens PRC-4 and PRC-5,

119 they were exactly the same as specimen PRC-1. Specimen PRC-6 was designed with four

120 prestressing strands concentrated at the center of the section to evaluate the arrangement of the

121   strands on the behavior of the piers, as shown in Fig. 1(b)-5. Thus totally three different types of

122   prestressing strand layout are considered in the test and they are summarized in Fig. 1(c). It should

123   be noted that, the prestressing strands were arranged inside the mild longitudinal bars, and the

124   concrete cover depth of the prestressing strands was much larger than the mild longitudinal bars. As

125   a result, the strands would be safe enough against corrosion damage compared with mild

126   longitudinal bars.

127   Before the tests, all the important parameters related to the specimens were tested and measured.

128   For example, the average concrete compression strength was measured as 55.9 MPa by using

129   150×150×150 mm cubic specimens. The yielding strengths of the 8 mm-diameter and 12

130   mm-diameter mild bars were 517 and 453 MPa, respectively. And the ultimate strengths of the 8

131   mm-diameter and 12 mm-diameter mild bars were 611 and 634 MPa, respectively. The ultimate

132   strength of the 12.7 mm-diameter prestressing strand was 1939 MPa. All these parameters were

133   adopted in the numerical simulations in Section 4.

134   To facilitate further explanation, the following parameters are defined in the present study. They are:

135   the total axial force ratio n, axial load ratio η, prestressing force ratio ζ and mechanical prestressing

136   ratio λ. The parameters are defined as follows:

$$n = \frac{N + N_p}{f_c' A}$$

137   (1)

$$\eta = \frac{N}{f_c' A}$$

138   (2)

$$\zeta = \frac{N_p}{f_c' A}$$

139   (3)

$$\lambda = \frac{f_{py} A_p}{f_{py} A_p + f_y A_s}$$

140   (4)

141   where N is the applied axial load, N_p is the total prestressing force before test, f_c' is the cylinder

142   concrete compressive strength, A is area of the cross section, A_p and f_{py} are the area and yielding

143   stress (defined by the 85% of its ultimate strength) of the prestressing strands in the cross section

144   and A_s and f_y are the area and yielding stress of mild longitudinal bars. Obviously, the parameters η

145   and ζ representing the axial loads induced by the weight of the bridge superstructure and the

146   prestressing strands, respectively. The parameter λ accounts for the contribution of the prestressing

147   strands to the overall cross-sectional capacity of the pier. Table 1 summarizes the corresponding

148   values for different specimens.

149   2.2 Test setup and loading sequence

150   The specimens were tested under lateral cyclic loadings while simultaneously being subjected to a

151   constant axial load. The test setup for each of the specimen is shown in Fig. 2, the specimen was

152   vertically fixed to the laboratory floor and the top of the pier was held by a vertical hydraulic

153   actuator to provide axial load, which was used to simulate the weight of the bridge superstructure.

154   Under the vertical actuator, the specimen was loaded by two horizontal actuators (actuator A and

155   actuator B) to provide the lateral cyclic loads. It should be noted that as the horizontal actuators

156   could only provide compressive force, but not able to provide tensile force, two horizontal actuators

157   were placed in a straight line to provide the lateral cyclic loads. During the tests, actuator A was

158   first used to push the specimen to a predefined positive displacement, while actuator B was

159   separated from the specimen. Then, actuator B was used to push the specimen to a predefined

160   negative displacement, and actuator A was separated from the specimen. By using this method, the

161   cyclic loadings were achieved. The lateral loading history was divided into two phases: the load

162   control phase and the displacement control phase. The load control phase was used to determine the

163   specimen's experimental concrete cracking strength $F_{cr,e}$. Then, the specimens were tested under

164   displacement control mode to study the inelastic behavior of the specimens. During the load control

165   phase, the theoretical concrete cracking strength $F_{cr,t}$ was first calculated by using the software

166   Response-2000 (Bentz 2000), which is based on the Modified Compression Field Theory (Bentz et

167   al. 2006). Then, lateral loads corresponding to 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2, and 1.4 times of $F_{cr,t}$ were applied

168   to the specimens, with each load repeated twice. During the displacement control phase, tests were

169   conducted to drift levels of 0.32%, 0.5%, 1.0%, 1.5%, 2.0%, 2.5%, 3.0%……, each cycle was

170   repeated three times, until the lateral strength of the pier declined to 85% of the peak load. Figure 3

171   shows the lateral loading histories. It should be noted that drift ratio was used as a dimensionless

172   measure of pier top displacement in the present study. It was defined for the test specimens as the

173   lateral displacement at the loading point divided by the height of the specimen. The horizontal load

174   was measured by two load cells on the horizontal actuators, and the horizontal top displacement was

175   measured by a displacement transducer. This transducer was fixed to the laboratory floor to obtain

176   the pier top displacement. For specimen with prestressing strands, force measuring transducers were

177   used to measure the stress of the prestressing strands when the specimen was loaded to the

178   maximum displacement during the first cycle at each load or displacement level. For specimen

179   PRC-6, only one force measuring transducer was used to measure the total stress of all strands. For

180   other specimens, each strand was equipped with a transducer to measure the stress separately.

181   During the tests, the concrete crack width was measured using the DJCK-2 Crevice Width Finder

182   (with an accuracy of 0.01 mm), which was manufactured by the Beijing Earth Long Science and

183   Technology Co., Ltd. It should be noted that, both the maximum and residual concrete crack widths

184   were measured in the present study. The maximum crack width was measured when the specimen

185   reached a maximum top displacement (in the first cycle at each load or displacement level). And the

186   residual crack width was measured when the specimen was unloaded (zero lateral load, in the first

187   cycle at each load or displacement cycle). Both the maximum and residual crack width listed in the

188   current study was the measured maximum value for each specimen.

189

190   **3 Experimental results**

191   3.1 Damage pattern and hysteretic response of the specimens

192   During the tests, no obvious difference is observed for the damage development and failure pattern

193   between the specimens with and without prestressing strands. For illustration purpose, Fig. 4(a)

194   shows the failure pattern of the pier without prestressing strands (specimen RC-1) and the failure

195   pattern of specimen PRC-1 is plotted in Fig. 4(b) to represent the pier with prestressing strands. It

196   can be seen that both the specimens show a flexural failure mode in regions close to the bottom of

197   the specimens (the plastic hinge regions).

198   The damage developments of all the specimens are similar with each other as well. During the load

199   control phase, horizontal flexural cracks develop first in the plastic hinge regions and the crack

200   length and width increase with the top load. The measured maximum crack width reaches 0.09 mm

201   in specimen RC-1, while in other specimens they are between 0.03-0.06 mm. Table 2 lists both the

202   experimental and theoretical concrete cracking strengths of the specimens, it could be found that all

203   the specimens with prestressing strands show a higher concrete cracking strength than specimen

204   RC-1, indicating that the concrete cracking strength of the pier could be increased by using vertical

205   prestressing strands. The experimental and theoretical concrete cracking strengths are close with

206   each other, and the experimental concrete cracking strengths of the specimens are between 0.8 and

207   1.2 times of the theoretical concrete cracking strengths. For the residual crack, the measured

208   residual width is about 0.01 mm in specimen RC-1. While in other specimens (in which prestressing

209   is applied), no obvious residual crack is observed when the specimens unloaded from the maximum

210   lateral load during the load control phase.

211   During the displacement control phase, the residual cracks are observed in all the specimens and

212   both the maximum and residual crack widths increase with the increment of drift ratio. At the drift

213   level of 0.32% (3.5mm), the maximum crack width reaches 0.25 mm in specimen RC-1, while in

214   other specimens they are not larger than 0.15 mm. The residual crack width is 0.02 mm in specimen

215   RC-1 while it is 0.01 mm in other specimens. At the drift level of 1% (11 mm), the maximum crack

216 width is 0.9 mm in specimen RC-1 while the widths are between 0.5-0.7 mm in other specimens.

217 For the 2% drift level (22 mm), the spalling of the concrete cover initiates in all the specimens, and

218 the specimens reach the maximum lateral load capacity.

219 It should be noted that during the displacement control phase, some horizontal flexural cracks

220 extend to the regions which are close to the neutral axial of the cross section. Within this region, the

221 absolute value of the normal stress is much smaller than the shear stress, some flexural cracks

222 change to be diagonal shear cracks, as shown in Fig. 4(c). However, generally speaking the

223 performance of all the specimens is dominated by concrete spalling and longitudinal bar buckling

224 damages, which could be classified as flexural failure mode.

225 At the later stages of loading (where drift levels are larger than 2%), the cover concrete peels off

226 and the spiral and longitudinal bars are exposed (Fig. 4(d)), longitudinal bar buckling and concrete

227 core crushing (Fig. 4(e)) follow progressively within the next displacement cycles. At the end of the

228 test, the concrete spalling heights of all the specimens are measured and illustrated in Fig. 5, it can

229 be seen that the concrete spalling damages of all the specimens are concentrated at the plastic hinge

230 regions, the spalling heights are between 210 and 330 mm, corresponding to 0.7-1.1 times of the

231 section depth. Except specimen PRC-4, all the specimens with prestressing strands show larger or

232 similar spalling heights compared with specimen RC-1.

233 It should be mentioned that during the test of specimen PRC-2, one prestressing strand fails due to

234 the damage of the anchorage and a snapping noise is heard when the drift level reaches 0.5%. For

235 all the other specimens, the prestressing strands perform well and no rupture damage is observed

236 during the tests.

237 Figure 6 shows the lateral load vs displacement (drift) hysteretic curves for all the specimens, in

238 which the occurrences of concrete cover spalling, longitudinal bar buckling and prestressing strand

239 failure damage are indicated. It can be seen from these figures that a fat hysteretic curve with no

240 pinching effect is observed for specimen RC-1, in which no prestressing strand is used. For

241   specimens with prestressing strands, specimens PRC-3 and PRC-4 display a slight pinching effect

242   while pinching is evident in other specimens, and specimen PRC-2 shows the most obvious

243   pinching effect among all the specimens. Obviously, the pinching effect is attributed to the restoring

244   force (prestressing force) provided by the prestressing strands. It should be noted, specimen PRC-2

245   is designed with the maximum mechanical prestressing ratio (λ=0.76) while the ratio in specimen

246   PRC-3 is the minimum (λ=0.44). Even after one prestressing strand is failed, the mechanical

247   prestressing ratio (λ=0.70) in specimen PRC-2 is the largest one among all the specimens, indicating

248   that a high mechanical prestressing ratio will lead to significant pinching effect of the piers. The fat

249   hysteretic curve of specimen PRC-4 would attribute to the low prestressing stress of the strands in

250   larger lateral displacement, which would be illustrated in the following section of the work.

251   3.2 The strand stress

252   The strand stress is recorded at the maximum displacement during the first cycle at each

253   displacement level. Figure 7 shows the measured strand stress under different drift ratios. It should

254   be noted that as only one force measuring transducer is used, the values in specimen PRC-6

255   representing the average ones of all the four strands. It could be found that the strand stress would

256   be increased or decreased as a result of the lateral displacement. It also can be seen from the figure

257   that the stress-drift relationship could almost be regarded as linear in both the positive or negative

258   directions.

259   Table 3 tabulates the strand stress values in all the specimens. It includes the initial strand stress

260    $\sigma_{PS,1}$ of all the strands in each specimen measured after the axial load is applied, the measured

261   maximum strand stress $\sigma_{PS,max}$ and the minimum strand stress $\sigma_{PS,min}$ of the strands, and the stress

262   change amplitude $\sigma_{PS,var}$ of each strand during the tests. It could be found that except strand PS3 in

263   specimen PRC-2 (failed due to damage of the anchorage), the measured maximum strand stress is

264   1410 MPa (strand PS3 in specimen PRC-5), it is about 73% of the ultimate strength of the strand

265   (1939 MPa as mentioned in Section 2.1), the strands would be elastic and no yielding or rupturing

266 damage would be observed. The measured minimum strand stress is only 8 MPa for strand PS1 in

267 specimen PRC-4, and the minimum stress of other strands in specimen PRC-4 are less than 200

268 MPa.

269 The relationship between the total prestressing force provided by the strands (recorded at the

270 maximum displacement during the first cycle at each displacement level) and the top drift ratio of

271 the specimens is shown in Fig. 8. Obviously, specimen PRC-5 has the largest prestressing force

272 while the force in specimen PRC-4 is the minimum. Except specimen PRC-2, the total prestressing

273 force in all the specimens increases gradually with the lateral drift. For specimen PRC-2, the total

274 prestressing force decreases suddenly at a drift ratio of 0.5% as a result of the failed strand.

275 3.3 Residual drifts

276 Residual drift is an important measurement of post-earthquake functionality of a bridge, normally it

277 is used to determine whether or not a bridge remains functional following an earthquake. During the

278 tests, the residual drifts of the specimens are measured when the lateral loads reached zero during

279 the first cycle at each displacement level. Figure 9(a) shows the relationship between the residual

280 drift ratio and the applied drift ratio for each specimen, and they are compared in different groups

281 from Figs. 9(b) to 9(f) to make them clearer.

282 It is obvious that the residual drift in specimen RC-1 is higher than all of the other specimens when

283 the same drift level is considered, which indicates that employing prestressing strands is quite

284 effective in reducing the residual drift of bridge piers. It also can be seen from the figure that among

285 all the specimens with prestressing strands, specimen PRC-4 exhibits the largest residual drift,

286 while specimen PRC-2 has the minimum residual drift. Except specimen PRC-4, the residual drift

287 in specimen PRC-3 is much larger than other specimens with prestressing strands in the positive

288 direction. While in the negative direction, the residual drift of specimen PRC-3 is larger than

289 specimens PRC-2 and PRC-6. This is because, as can be seen from Table 1, the mechanical

290 prestressing ratio λ in specimen PRC-2 is the largest (0.76 before the test and changed to 0.70 after

291   one prestressing strand failed) among all the tested specimens. While for specimen PRC-3, the

292   mechanical prestressing ratio is the minimum (0.44), which indicates that larger mechanical

293   prestressing ratio can result in lesser residual drift. The reason for the larger residual drift in

294   specimen PRC-4 is attributed to the low prestressing stresses in the strands, as illustrated in the

295   above section.

296   Specimen PRC-2 is designed with less longitudinal mild bars than specimen PRC-1, and the

297   mechanical prestressing ratio of specimen PRC-2 (λ=0.76 before the test and changes to 0.70 after

298   one prestressing strand failed) is larger than specimen PRC-1 (λ=0.61). As a result, there is a

299   reduction in residual drift ratio, as shown in Fig. 9(b). The amount of prestressing strands in

300   specimen PRC-3 is reduced compared with specimen PRC-1, which results in a low mechanical

301   prestressing ratio (λ=0.44 for specimen PRC-3). The reduction of the prestressing strands leads to

302   higher residual drift ratios, as shown in Fig. 9(c). From the above analysis, it is clear that the

303   mechanical prestressing ratio λ is an important parameter for controlling the residual drift of the pier,

304   larger mechanical prestressing ratio can result in lesser residual drift in the piers.

305   The initial prestressing stresses are changed in specimens PRC-4 and PRC-5, and the effect of the

306   initial prestressing stress on the residual drift is shown in Figs. 9(d) and 9(e). It can be found that

307   specimen PRC-4 exhibits notable larger residual drift ratio than PRC-1. While the residual drift

308   ratio in specimen PRC-5 is slightly larger than that in PRC-1. These results indicate that the

309   influence of the initial prestressing stress on the residual drift is not clear. It should be noted that the

310   prestressing stress for strand PS1 in specimen PRC-4 is reduced to 8 MPa in large lateral

311   displacement, the restoring force (prestressing force) provided by this strand would be neglected,

312   which would induce larger residual drift in specimen PRC-4. From the above analysis, it could be

313   concluded that the initial prestressing stress should have little influence on residual drift of the pier

314   if the strands are effective under seismic action.

315   The residual drift in specimen PRC-6 is almost identical to PRC-1, as shown in Fig. 9(f). This is

316   because both the specimens are designed with the same mechanical prestressing ratio (λ=0.61). Also,

317   the total prestressing forces in specimens PRC-1 and PRC-6 are almost the same during the tests, as

318   shown in Fig. 8. In that case, the location of the prestressing strands has little influence on the

319   residual drift of the piers.

320   3.4 Residual crack width

321   Residual concrete crack width is also important for the usability of the pier following an earthquake.

322   Figure 10(a) shows the relationship between the measured maximum residual crack width and

323   lateral load for all the specimens, and they are compared in different groups from Figs. 10(b) to 10(f)

324   to make them clearer. It should be noted that as large residual crack width will lead to corrosion

325   damage of the reinforcement and deterioration of the bridge piers. Normally it is required to limit

326   the residual crack width within 0.2 mm, beyond this value, corrosion of the reinforcement and

327   concrete cover spalling damage would occur. It is thus believed that the controlling of residual

328   crack width becomes meaningless if it is larger than 0.2 mm. In Figs. 10(b) to 10(f), the y-axis is

329   thus only up to 0.2 mm. The measured residual crack width beyond 0.2 mm can be found in Fig.

330   10(a).

331   It can be seen from Fig. 10(a) that the residual crack widths in specimen without prestressing

332   strands (RC-1) are much larger compared with the specimens with prestressing strands. The

333   maximum residual crack width reaches as much as 1.0 mm in specimen RC-1, while they are not

334   larger than 0.4 mm in all the other specimens.

335   In all the specimens with prestressing strands, the residual crack widths in specimen PRC-4 are

336   much larger than the other specimens. And specimen PRC-5 has the minimum residual crack width

337   compared with other specimens. This is because, as can be seen from Table 1, the prestressing force

338   ratio in specimen PRC-5 is the largest (ζ=0.15) among all the tested specimens while for specimen

339   PRC-4 it reaches the minimum (ζ=0.05), which indicates that the prestressing force ratio has a

340 significant influence on the residual crack width, larger prestressing force ratio can result in smaller

341 residual crack width.

342 Specimen PRC-2 is designed the same as specimen PRC-1 except for longitudinal mild bars, and

343 the mechanical prestressing ratio of specimen PRC-2 (λ=0.76 or 0.70) is larger than specimen

344 PRC-1 (λ=0.61). As a result, the residual crack width in specimen PRC-2 is much smaller than

345 specimen PRC-1, as shown in Fig. 10(b). Also, the residual crack width in specimen PRC-3 (λ=0.44)

346 is larger than specimen PRC-1 (λ=0.61), as shown in Fig. 10(c). Indicating that larger mechanical

347 prestressing ratio will lead to smaller residual crack width.

348 As shown in Fig. 10(f), the residual crack widths in specimens PRC-1 and PRC-6 are almost similar

349 with each other. These observations indicate that the arrangement of the strands has little influence

350 on the residual crack width of the piers if both the prestressing force ratio and the mechanical

351 prestressing ratio of the specimens are identical with each other.

352 As mentioned above, both the residual drift and residual crack width of specimen PRC-4 are larger

353 than other specimens with prestressing strands, indicating that the strand stress has a significant

354 influence on the residual drift and residual crack width. To minimize the residual drift and concrete

355 crack width in bridge piers, the strand should be kept effective under seismic actions.

356 3.5 Strength and ductility of the specimens

357 The strength and ductility of the specimens are compared with each other in this section. The

358 associated parameters, including the peak load $F_{\max}$, yield displacement Δ_1, ultimate displacement

359 Δ_μ, displacement ductility factor μ_Δ, and ultimate drift ratio R, are obtained based on the skeleton

360 curve of the specimens as described in Fig. 11. The parameters are defined by the following

361 equations:

362
$$F_{\max} = \frac{F_{\max}^+ + F_{\max}^-}{2} \tag{5}$$

$$363 \qquad\qquad \Delta_1 = \frac{\Delta_1^+ + \Delta_1^-}{2} \qquad\qquad (6)$$

$$364 \qquad\qquad \Delta_\mu = \frac{\Delta_\mu^+ + \Delta_\mu^-}{2} \qquad\qquad (7)$$

$$365 \qquad\qquad \mu_\Delta = \frac{\Delta_\mu}{\Delta_1} \qquad\qquad (8)$$

$$366 \qquad\qquad R = \frac{\Delta_\mu}{L} \qquad\qquad (9)$$

367   where L is the height of the specimen, the superscripts + and – denote the corresponding values

368   obtained at the positive and negative phases respectively.

369   Table 4 lists the measured and calculated strength and ductility parameters of all the specimens. It is

370   shown that the peak loads of all the specimens with prestressing strands are higher than specimen

371   RC-1, indicating an increasing of the lateral strength of the pier specimens by using unbonded

372   prestressing strands. As for the ductility parameters Δ_μ, μ_Δ and R, it could be found that all the

373   specimens exhibit good ductility. The displacement ductility factors of all the specimens are larger

374   than 4.0, and the ultimate drifts of all the specimens are larger than 3.0%, except for specimen

375   PRC-2. Also should be noted, the ductility of the specimens with prestressing strands are essentially

376   the same with specimen RC-1, indicating no obvious change of ductility capacity by using

377   prestressing strands. This is because, as shown in Table 1, the axial load ratio η of all the specimens

378   is only 0.10, and the total axial force ratio of all the specimens is equal or less than 0.25, which is

379   much lower than the axial loading capacity of the piers. With such a low axial load ratio, the using

380   of the vertical prestressing strands will not have an obvious influence on the deformation capacity

381   of the piers. In most cases, the axial load ratio of the commonly used bridge piers under dead load

382   would be less than 0.1, so it is practical to reduce the seismic residual drift and residual concrete

383   crack width of these piers by using vertical prestressing strands.

384

385 **4 Numerical simulations of the tests**

386 Experimental studies are expensive, time consuming, labor extensive and sometimes may be limited

387 by the capacities of the experimental facilities. In contrast, numerical simulations are more

388 convenient and efficient for the analysis. A reliable finite element model is believed to be necessary

389 for the readers to appreciate the results of the paper. In the present study, numerical simulations are

390 also carried out by using the open-source finite element code OpenSees. The numerical results are

391 compared with the experimental data.

392 4.1 Description of the numerical model

393 The total lateral deformation of a column subjected to lateral loads is comprised of deformations

394 due to three response mechanisms: flexure, longitudinal bar slip at the column footing, and shear. In

395 the numerical simulation, each deformation component can be conveniently modeled (Yavari et al.

396 2009; Shoraka et al. 2013). However, as all the specimens failed in flexural mode in the present

397 study, the shear deformation of the specimen is neglected in the numerical model.

398 The specimens are modeled by using the open-source finite element code OpenSees (Mazzoni et al.

399 2007) and the finite element scheme is illustrated in Fig. 12. Owing to the large size of the RC

400 footing, it is not modeled and only the specimen above the footing top is considered. Also should be

401 noted, as the prestressing strands are anchored at the bottom of the footing, the strand length is

402 larger than the specimen height in the numerical model.

403 The total lateral response of the specimen are modeled by coupling flexure and longitudinal bar slip

404 responses by two elements in series, where the force in each element is the same and the total

405 deformation is the sum of individual element deformations. Flexural deformation is modeled by the

406 nonlinear beam-column element, while the longitudinal bar slip deformation is modeled by the

407 zero-length fiber section element. As shown in Fig. 12, each specimen consists of a single nonlinear

408 beam-column element and a zero length fiber section element located at the bottom of the

409   beam-column element. The length of the beam-column element (distance between Node 2 and Node

410   3) is the same as the height the specimen between footing top surface to the point where lateral

411   loading is applied. The fiber section element is defined by two nodes (Node 1 and Node 2) at the

412   same location.

413   4.1.1 Flexural deformation

414   The force-based nonlinear beam-column element, implemented in OpenSees, accounts for the

415   nonlinear flexural deformation by assuming plane sections remain plane and captures the spread of

416   plasticity along the element while the shear and longitudinal bar slip deformations are neglected

417   (Spacone et al. 1996a, 1996b). The nonlinear hysteretic behavior of the element derives from the

418   constitutive relations of concrete and reinforcing steel fibers into which each section is divided. All

419   concrete fibers are modeled by using the "Concrete01" uniaxial material model in OpenSees, which

420   is based on the modified Kent and Park concrete model (1971). Longitudinal mild bars are modeled

421   using "Steel02", based on the Giuffre-Menegotto-Pinto model.

422   The prestressing strands are modeled separately from the beam-column fiber section by using truss

423   elements fixed at the bottom and connected rigidly to the fiber section at the top. As no yielding of

424   the strands occurred during the tests, the stress-strain relationship of the truss element is assumed to

425   be linear. Rigid element connects the specimen fiber section to the anchorage of the prestressing

426   strands, which are modeled by beam-column element with much higher strength and stiffness.

427   4.1.2 Longitudinal bar slip deformation

428   Longitudinal bar slip deformation results from the extension of the mild longitudinal bar from the

429   specimen footing, this deformation generates rigid body rotation of the specimen that can

430   substantially increase member flexibility (Ghannoum and Moehle 2012). To model bar slip

431   deformation, a zero length fiber section element is used. The section of the element has the same

432   geometry as the fiber section of the beam-column element it is attached to but with different

433   material properties for its steel and concrete fibers (Ghannoum 2007; Melo et al. 2011; Ghannoum

434   and Moehle 2012; Zhang et al. 2013).

435   For steel fiber in the fiber section element, the constitutive law of the steel reinforcement is

436   modified from a stress-strain relation to a stress-slip relation. A hysteretic model for the bar stress

437   versus loaded-end slip response developed by Zhao and Sritharan (2007) is adopted, and the bar

438   stress σ versus loaded-end slip s relationship is shown in Fig. 13. The slip values corresponding to

439   bar yielding (s_y) and ultimate strength (s_u) are calculated using Eqs. (10) and (11), respectively.

440
$$s_y(\text{mm}) = 2.54\left(\frac{d_b(\text{mm})}{8437}\frac{f_y(\text{MPa})}{\sqrt{f_c'(\text{MPa})}}(2\alpha+1)\right)^{1/\alpha} + 0.34 \tag{10}$$

441
$$s_u(\text{mm}) = (30 \sim 40)s_y \tag{11}$$

442   where, d_b is the bar diameter, α is the parameter used in the local bond-slip relation and is taken as

443   0.4.

444   For parameters shown in Fig. 13, f_u is the ultimate strength of the mild reinforcing bar. K is the

445   slope of the straight line for bar stress σ versus loaded-end slip s relationship, and b is stiffness

446   reduction factor (b=0.3$\sim$0.5). R is power index of unloading/reloading curve (R=0.5$\sim$1.0).

447   For concrete fiber in the fiber section element, the "Concrete01" uniaxial material model is also

448   used as in the beam-column element. While the concrete strain at maximum stress is multiplied by a

449   scale factor F_{conc} (F_{conc}=10$\sim$20) to maintain compatibility between the beam-column element and

450   the bar slip section element (Ghannoum, 2007), as shown in Fig. 14.

451   4.2 Comparison between numerical and experimental results

452   It is very difficult to model the residual concrete crack width for reinforced concrete structures.

453   Only the hysteretic curves, residual drifts and prestressing strand stress are compared with the test

454   results in this study.

455 In Fig. 15, a comparison between experimental and numerical hysteretic curves of the specimens is

456 illustrated. It can be seen that the calculated curves of all the specimens coincide well with

457 experimental results in terms of strength, stiffness, residual displacement and overall performance.

458 These results indicate that the proposed numerical model is adequate to evaluate the hysteretic

459 behavior of the pier specimens with unbonded prestressing strands.

460 Figure 16 shows the residual drifts of the specimens from experimental results and numerical

461 analyses. In general, a good agreement is observed between the numerical and experimental results.

462 For specimens PRC-1, PRC-3, and PRC-6, the simulated residual drifts are slightly larger than the

463 corresponding experimental results in the negative direction. But more accurate numerical results

464 are observed in the positive direction. The differences between the experimental and numerical

465 results are very likely caused by the asymmetry of the specimen response during the tests.

466 Taken strand PS-2 (for specimen PRC-6, PS is taken since the stress was measured together as

467 mentioned above) as an example, Figure 17 shows the strand stress of the specimens from

468 experimental results and numerical analysis. It could be found that the simulated strand stress agree

469 well with experimental results, which indicates that the proposed numerical model can accurately

470 simulate the unbonded strand stress under cyclic loading.

471

472 **5 Conclusions**

473 Longitudinal unbonded prestressing strands are used to minimize the residual drift and residual

474 concrete crack width in RC bridge piers. A series of experimental studies were carried out to

475 examine the influences of various parameters including the prestressing force ratio, the mechanical

476 pretressing ratio and the location of the prestressing strands on the bridge pier residual drift and

477 residual concrete crack width. A FE model was developed and calibrated by using the open-source

478 finite element code OpenSees. Following conclusions are drawn:

479   1. During the tests, no obvious difference is observed for the damage development and failure

480   pattern between the specimens with and without prestressing strands. Flexural failure occurs in all

481   the specimens under lateral cyclic loading, and these failures include concrete cracking, concrete

482   cover spalling and longitudinal bar buckling.

483   2. The residual drift of bridge piers can be reduced by using the vertical unbonded prestressing

484   strands, and the mechanical prestressing ratio is an important parameter for controlling the residual

485   drift of the piers. Larger mechanical prestressing ratio would lead to smaller residual drift. The

486   initial prestressing stress and the arrangement of the strands have little influence on residual drift of

487   the piers.

488   3. The residual concrete crack width of the piers can be reduced significantly by using vertical

489   unbonded prestressing strands. Both the prestressing force ratio and the mechanical prestressing

490   ratio have a significant influence on the residual crack width, larger prestressing force ratio and

491   mechanical prestressing ratio would lead to smaller residual crack width. The arrangement of the

492   strands has little influence on the residual crack width.

493   4. During the tests, the strand stress increases or decreases almost linearly with the pier drift. Except

494   for one strand fails due to damage of the anchorage, all the other strands are elastic and no yielding

495   or rupturing damage is observed. To minimize the residual drift and concrete crack width in bridge

496   piers, the strand should be kept effective under seismic actions.

497   5. The lateral strength of the pier specimens can be increased by using unbonded prestressing

498   strands, while the ductility capacity of the piers with prestressing strands is not obviously changed.

499   It is practical to reduce the seismic residual drift and residual concrete crack width of bridge piers

500   by using prestressing strands for commonly used bridge piers with an axial load ratio less than 0.1.

501   6. The proposed numerical model is adequate to evaluate the hysteretic behavior of the pier

502   specimens with prestressing strands.

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584 **List of table captions**

585 **Table 1** Test parameters of the pier specimens

586 **Table 2** The experimental and theoretical concrete cracking strengths of the specimens

587 **Table 3** The strand stress of the specimens

588 **Table 4** Strength and ductility parameters of the specimens

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Table 1 Test parameters of the pier specimens

Specimen	Longitudinal bars	Prestressing strands	n	η	ζ	λ	Description of the specimen
RC-1	Eight 12 mm-dia. bars	Without	0.1	0.1	0	0	Specimen without prestressing strands
PRC-1	Eight 12 mm-dia. bars	Four 12.7 mm-dia. strands	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.61	Standard specimen with prestressing strands
PRC-2	Eight 8 mm-dia. bars	Four 12.7 mm-dia. strands	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.76	Longitudinal bars were reduced compared with specimen PRC-1
PRC-3	Eight 12 mm-dia. bars	Two 12.7 mm-dia. strands	0.15	0.1	0.05	0.44	Prestressing strands were reduced compared with specimen PRC-1
PRC-4	Eight 12 mm-dia. bars	Four 12.7 mm-dia. strands	0.15	0.1	0.05	0.61	Initial prestressing stress was reduced compared with specimen PRC-1
PRC-5	Eight 12 mm-Dia. bars	Four 12.7 mm-dia. strands	0.25	0.1	0.15	0.61	Initial prestressing stress increased compared with specimen PRC-1
PRC-6	Eight 12 mm-dia. bars	Four 12.7 mm-dia. strands	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.61	Concentrated prestressing strands was used

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616   **Table 2 The experimental and theoretical concrete cracking strengths of the specimens**

Specimen	$F_{cr,e}$ (kN)	$F_{cr,t}$ (kN)	$F_{cr,e}/F_{cr,t}$
RC-1	20	17	1.2
PRC-1	34	34	1.0
PRC-2	26	33	0.8
PRC-3	24	30	0.8
PRC-4	29	24	1.2
PRC-5	31	39	0.8
PRC-6	24	30	0.8

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635 **Table 3 The strand stress of the specimens**

Specimen	Strand	$\sigma_{PS,1}$ (MPa)	$\sigma_{PS,max}$ (MPa)	$\sigma_{PS,min}$ (MPa)	$\sigma_{PS,var}$ (MPa)	
					$\sigma_{PS,max}-\sigma_{PS,1}$	$\sigma_{PS,1}-\sigma_{PS,min}$
PRC-1	PS1	686	1020	573	334	113
	PS2	662	1057	464	395	198
	PS3	660	1061	502	401	158
	PS4	656	998	520	342	136
PRC-2	PS1	714	998	605	284	109
	PS2	766	1031	640	265	126
	PS3∗	743	786	700	43	43
	PS4	694	1098	500	404	194
PRC-3	PS1	773	1173	427	400	346
	PS2	816	1246	619	430	197
PRC-4	PS1	310	521	8	211	302
	PS2	342	644	197	302	145
	PS3	326	606	42	280	284
	PS4	320	673	128	353	192
PRC-5	PS1	925	1212	732	287	193
	PS2	1037	1289	857	252	180
	PS3	1097	1410	931	313	166
	PS4	1036	1342	845	306	191
PRC-6	PS	701	855	694	154	7

636   ∗ Strand failed as a result of damage of the anchorage at 0.5% drift.

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Table 4 Strength and ductility parameters of the specimens

Specimens	$F_{\max}$ (kN)	Δ_1 (mm)	Δ_μ (mm)	μ_Δ	R (%)
RC-1	70.9	7.0	35.3	5.0	3.2
PRC-1	95.3	8.0	37.2	4.7	3.4
PRC-2	81.5	6.0	31.7	5.3	2.9
PRC-3	83.8	7.6	38.7	5.1	3.5
PRC-4	84.7	8.0	38.3	4.8	3.5
PRC-5	102.3	7.7	32.6	4.2	3.0
PRC-6	93.5	7.5	36.8	4.9	3.3

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681 **Fig. 14** Stress strain relations for beam-column element and bar slip element concrete fibers

682 **Fig. 15** Experimental and numerical hysteretic curves: **a** RC-1; **b** PRC-1; **c** PRC-2; **d** PRC-3; **e**

683 PRC-4; **f** PRC-5; **g** PRC-6

684 **Fig. 16** Experimental and numerical residual drifts: **a** RC-1; **b** PRC-1; **c** PRC-2; **d** PRC-3; **e** PRC-4;

685 **f** PRC-5; **g** PRC-6

686 **Fig. 17** Experimental and numerical strand stress: **a** PRC-1; **b** PRC-2; **c** PRC-3; **d** PRC-4; **e** PRC-5;

687 **f** PRC-6

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Filled by concrete before test

Lateral load

Prestressing strands

Force measuring transducers

(a)

8 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement stirrups
@ 75 mm

12 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement

300

RC-1

8 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement stirrups
@ 75 mm

12 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement

12.7 mm-dia.
prestressing strands

300

PRC-1, PRC-4, PRC-5

8 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement stirrups
@ 75 mm

8 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement

12.7 mm-dia.
prestressing strands

300

PRC-2

8 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement stirrups
@ 75 mm

12 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement

12.7 mm-dia.
prestressing strands

300

PRC-3

8 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement stirrups
@ 75 mm

12 mm-dia. mild
reinforcement

12.7 mm-dia.
prestressing strands

300

PRC-6

(b)

Specimen PRC-1, PRC-2、PRC-4, PRC-5   Specimen PRC-3   Specimen PRC-6

(c)

Fig. 1 Design details of the pier specimens: **a** elevation view; **b** reinforcement layout; **c** prestressing

strand layout (unit: mm)

Fig. 2 Test setup

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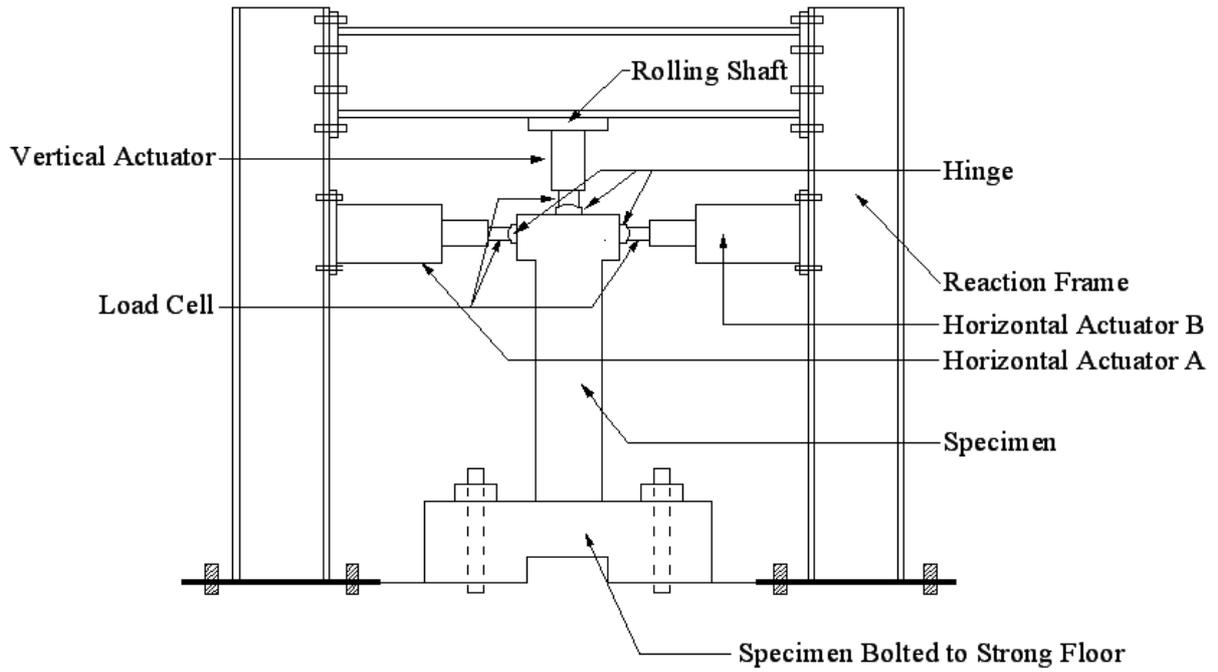
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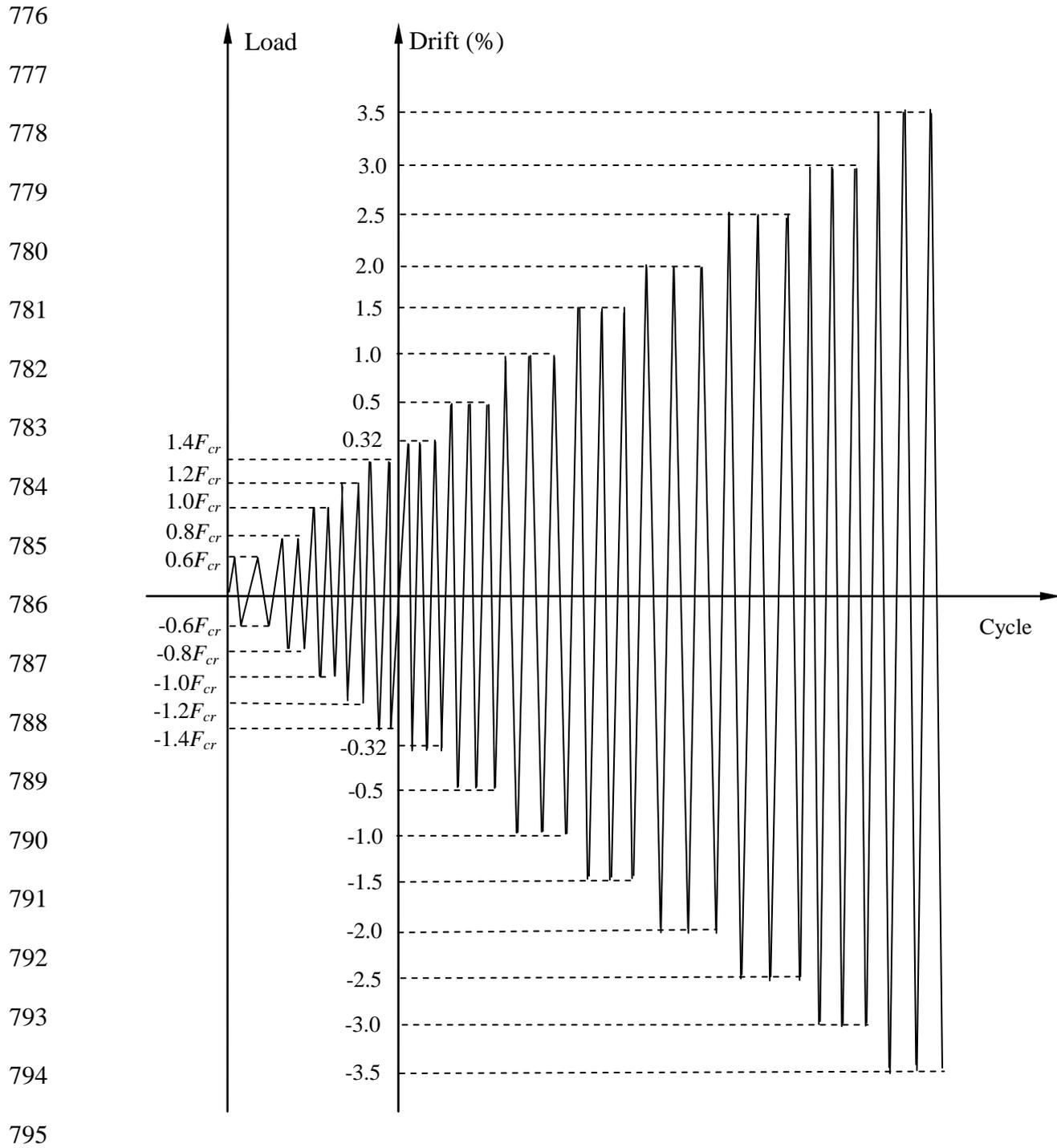
Fig. 3 Lateral loading histories

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799   (a)   (b)   (c)

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801   (d)   (e)

Fig. 4 Failure patterns of the specimens: **a** failure pattern of the specimen without prestressing

strands at the end of the test (RC-1); **b** failure pattern of a specimen with prestressing strands at the

end of the test (PRC-1); **c** flexural and shear concrete cracks; **d** concrete cover spalling and

exposing of the transverse bars; **e** longitudinal bar buckling and concrete core crushing damage

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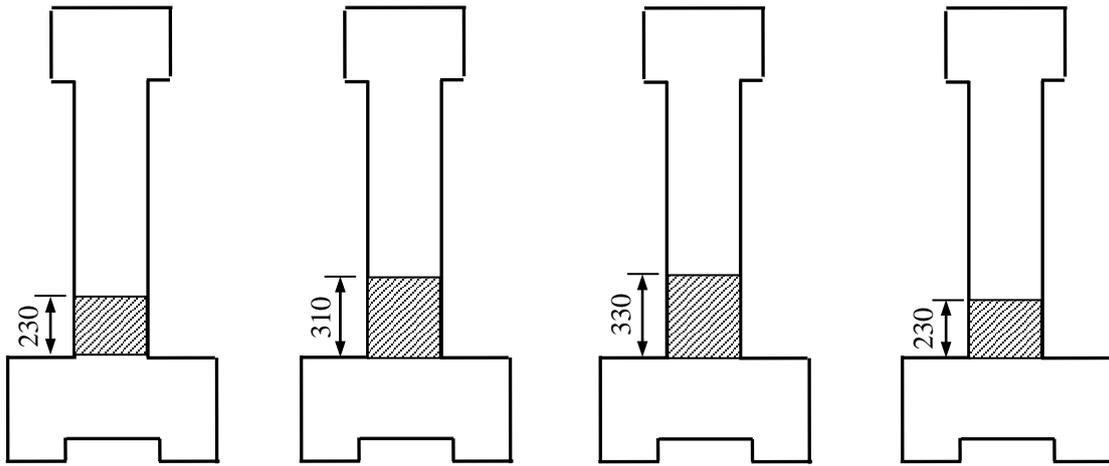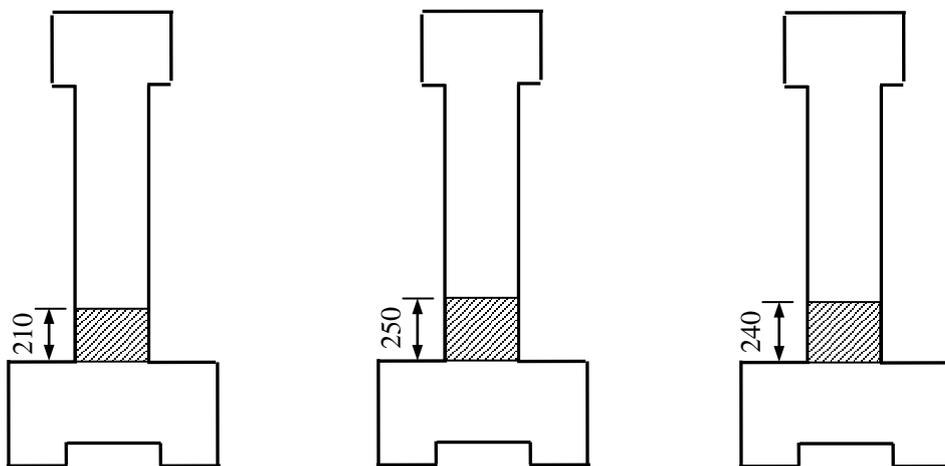
Fig. 5 Sketches of concrete spalling heights of specimens: **a** RC-1; **b** PRC-1; **c** PRC-2; **d** PRC-3; **e** PRC-4; **f** PRC-5; **g** PRC-6

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840   (a)   (b)

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842   (c)   (d)

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844   (e)   (f)

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846   (g)
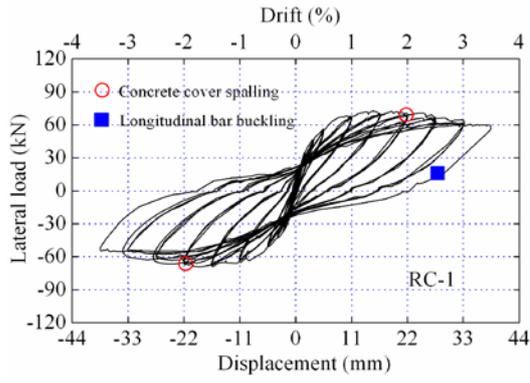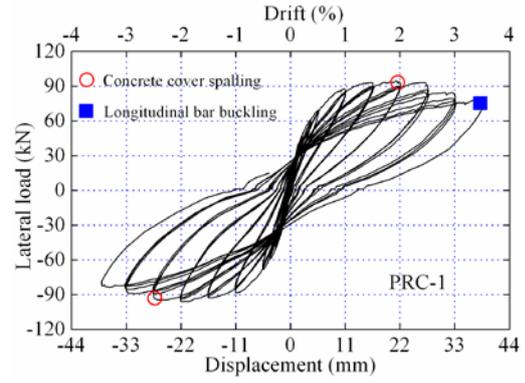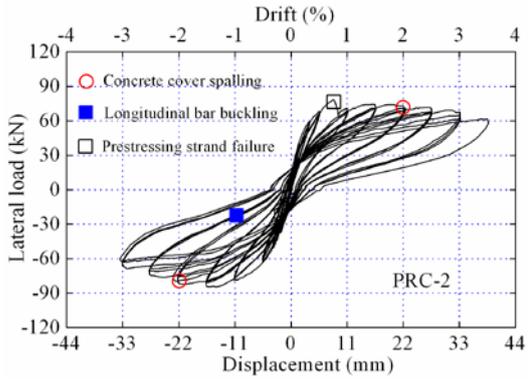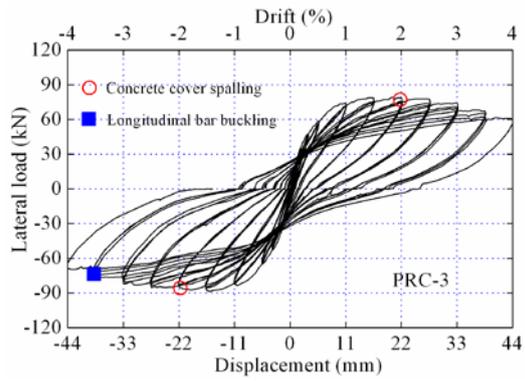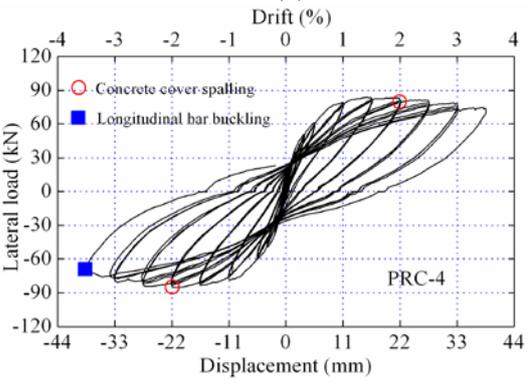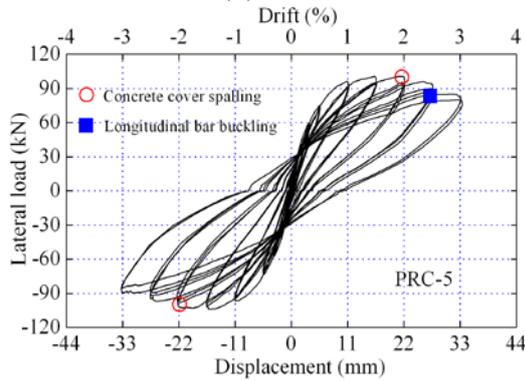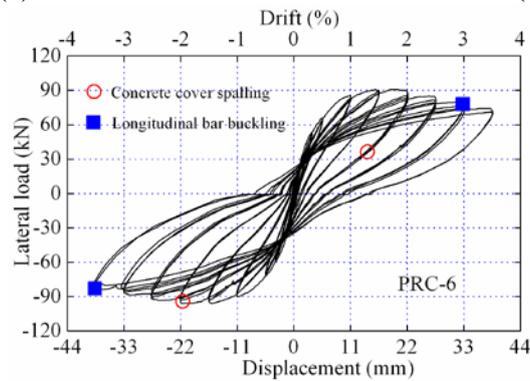
847 **Fig. 6** Hysteretic curves of the specimens: **a** RC-1; **b** PRC-1; **c** PRC-2; **d** PRC-3; **e** PRC-4; **f** PRC-5;

848 **g** PRC-6

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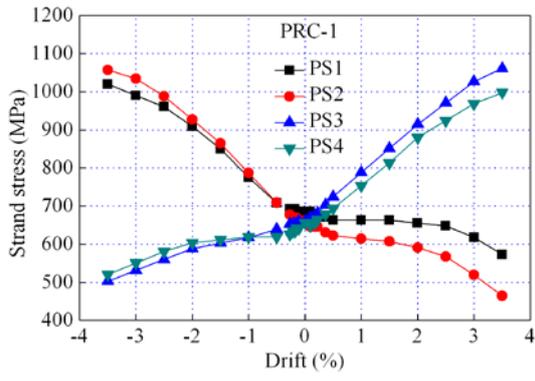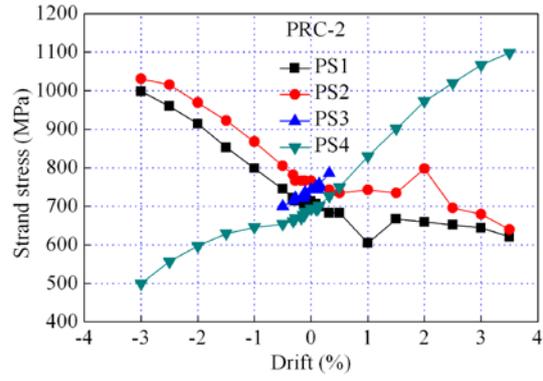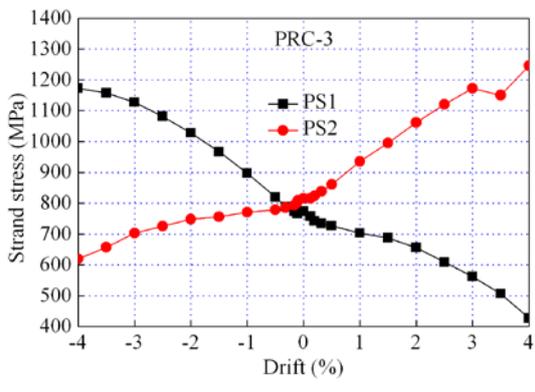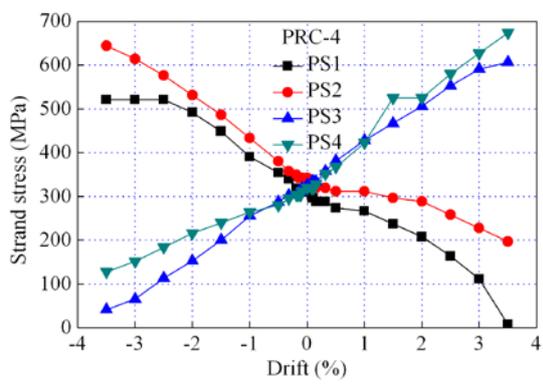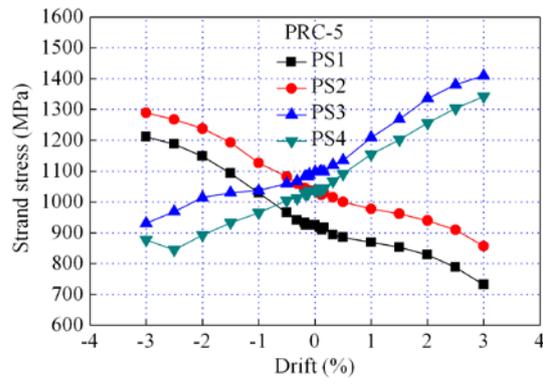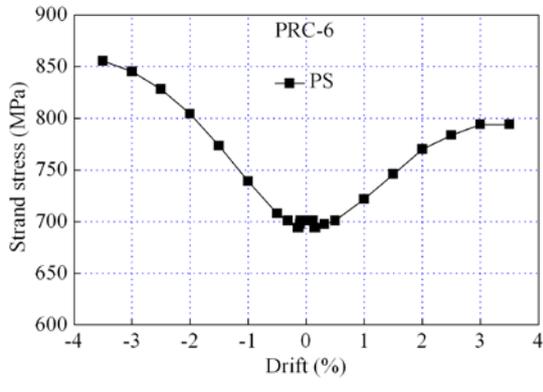
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851   (a)   (b)

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853   (c)   (d)

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855   (e)   (f)

856   **Fig. 7** Strand tress-drift relationship of the specimens: **a** PRC-1; **b** PRC-2; **c** PRC-3; **d** PRC-4; e

857   PRC-5; **f** PRC-6

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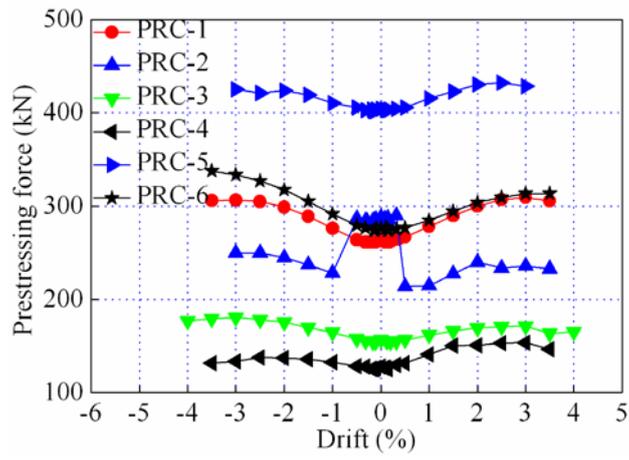
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862 **Fig. 8** Prestressing force-drift relationship of the specimens

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882   (a)   (b)

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884   (c)   (d)

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886   (e)   (f)
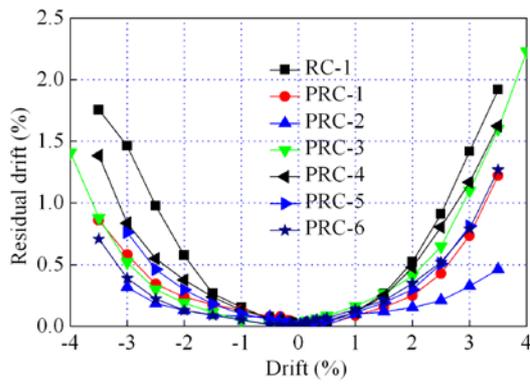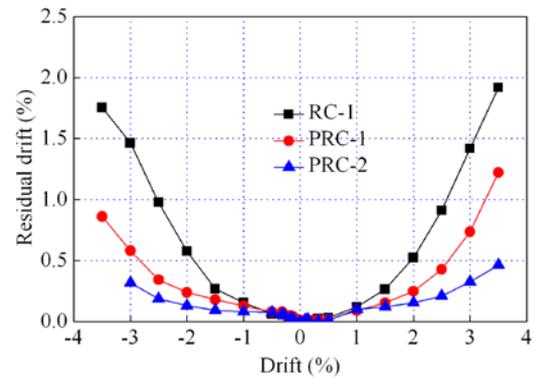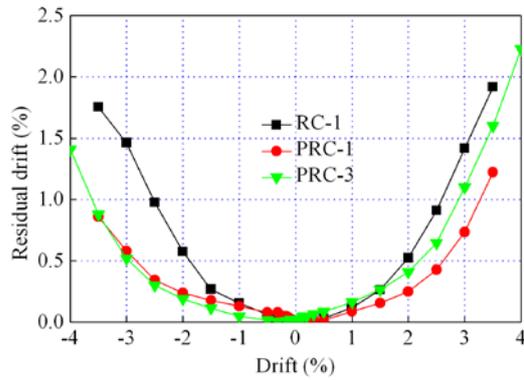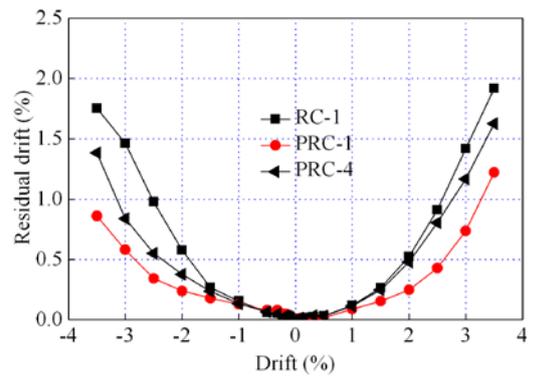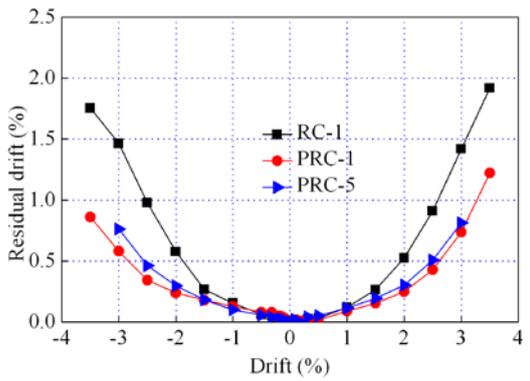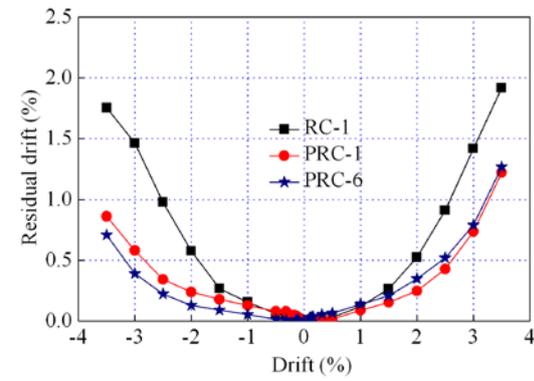
887   **Fig. 9** Residual drifts: **a** all the specimens; **b** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-2; **c** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-3;

888   **d** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-4; **e** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-5; **f** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-6

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892 (a)

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894 (c)

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896 (e)

(b)

(d)

(f)
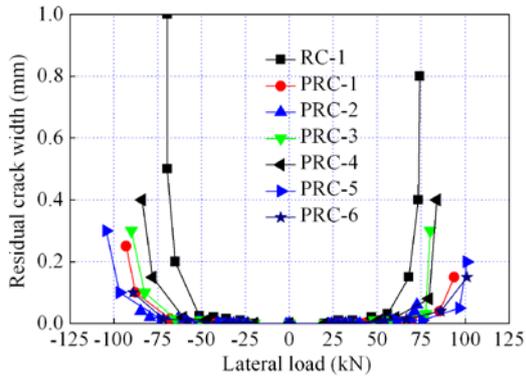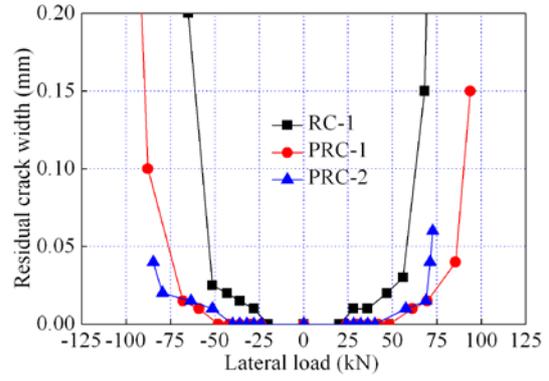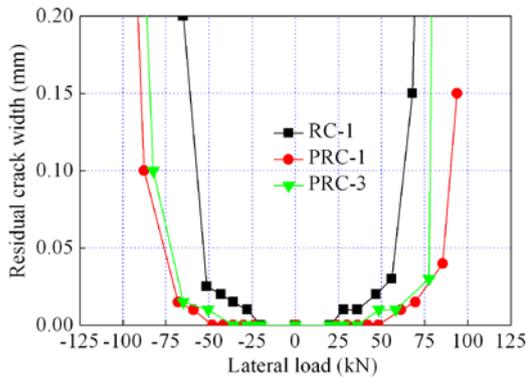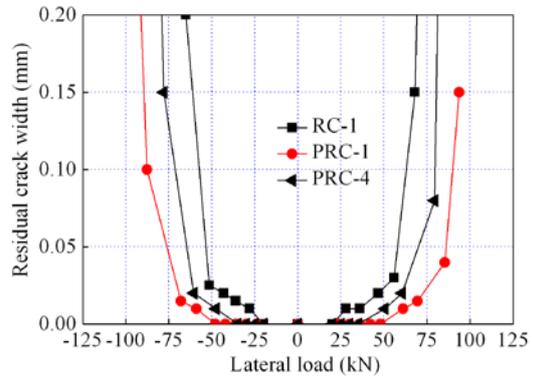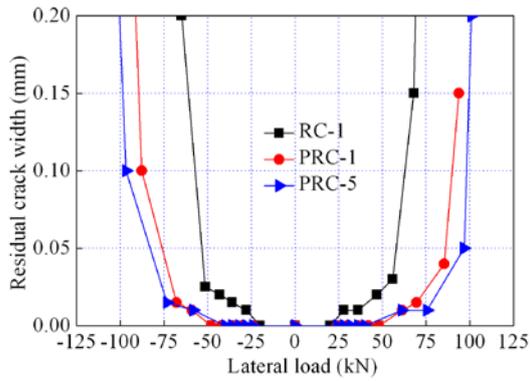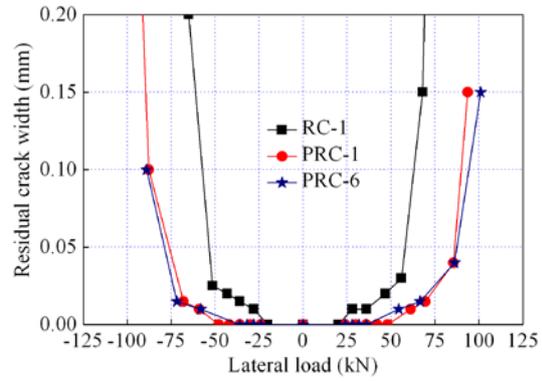
897 **Fig. 10** Residual concrete crack widths: **a** all the specimens; **b** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-2; **c** RC-1,

898 PRC-1 and PRC-3; **d** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-4; **e** RC-1, PRC-1 and PRC-5; **f** RC-1, PRC-1 and

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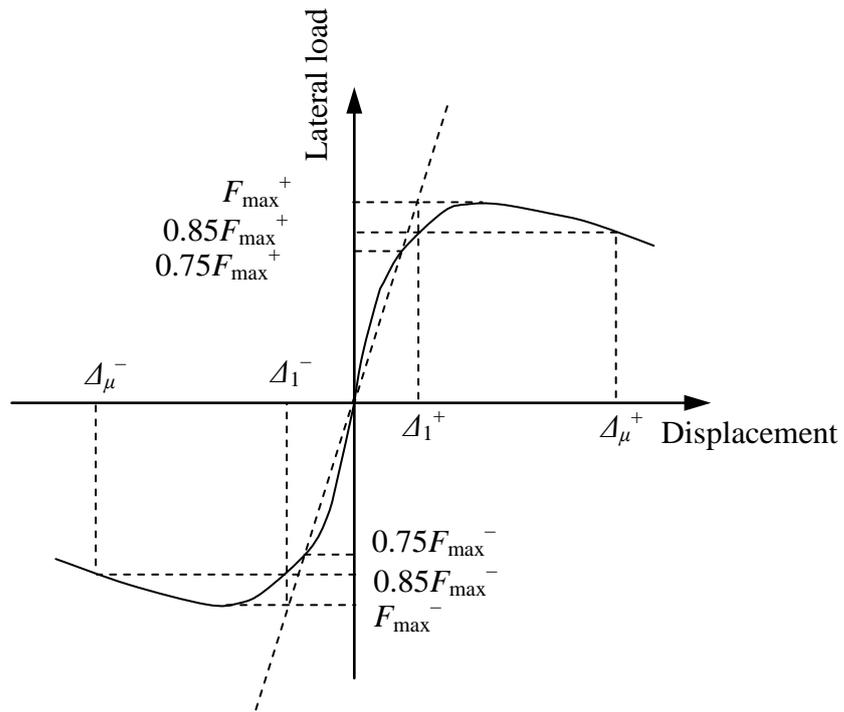
914 **Fig. 11** Definition of the strength and ductility parameters

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Axial load

Lateral load

Prestressing strands

Axial load

Lateral load

Node 3

Rigid link

Nonlinear beam-column element

Truss elements

Node 2

Zero length section element

Node 1
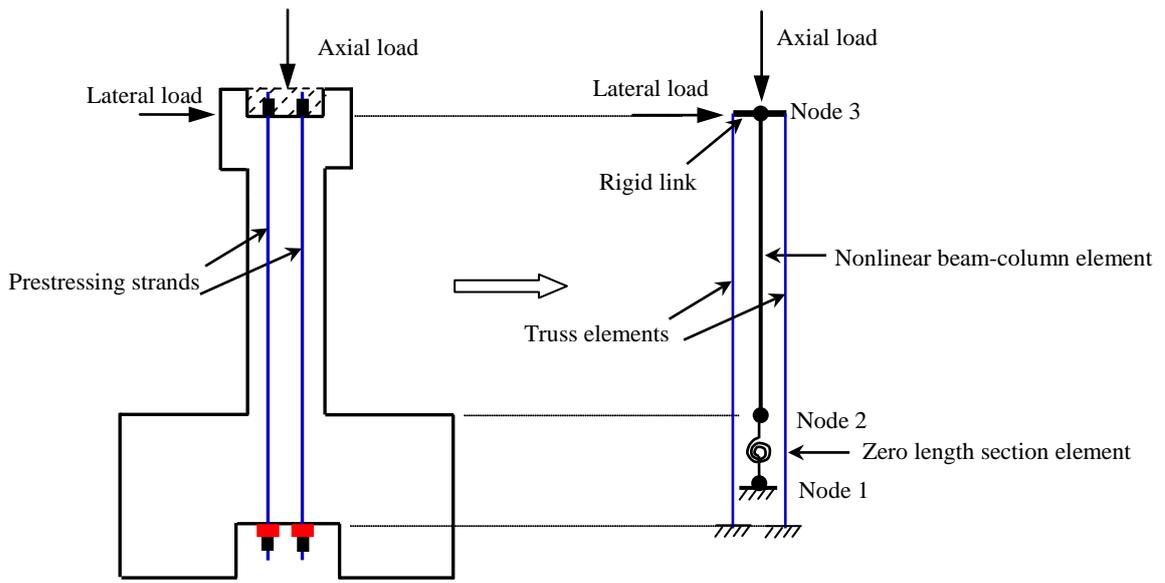
Fig. 12 Numerical model of the specimens

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960   (a)   (b)
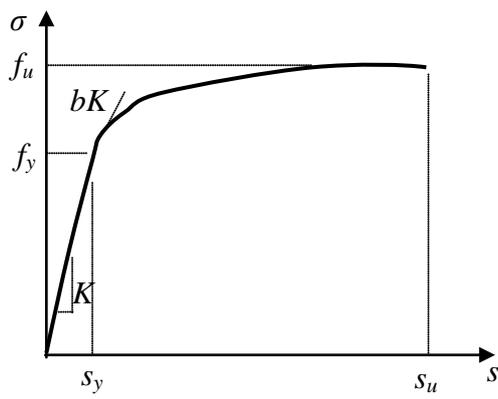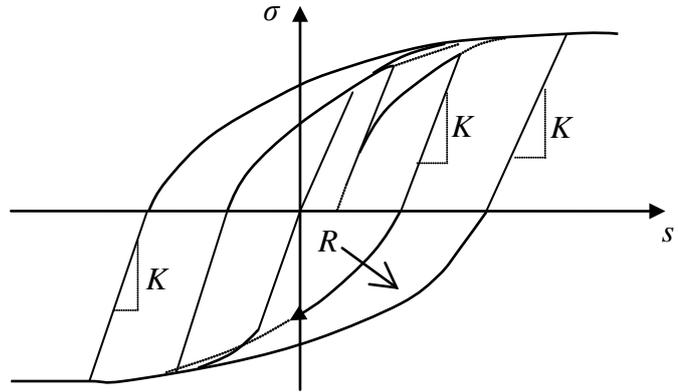
Fig. 13 Bar stress versus loaded-end slip response model proposed by Zhao and Sritharan [20]: **a**

under monotonic loading; **b** hysteretic response

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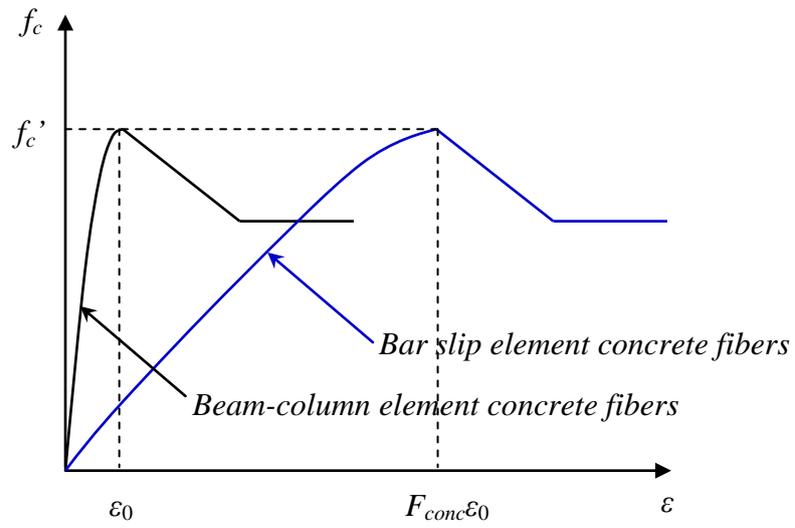
Fig. 14 Stress strain relations for beam-column element and bar slip element concrete fibers

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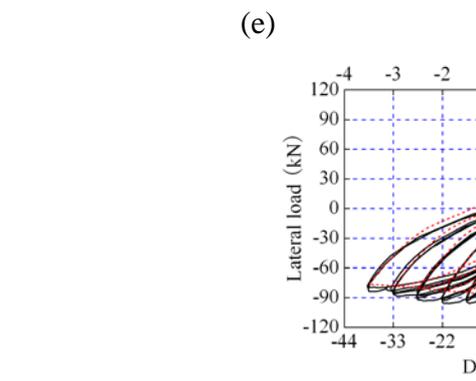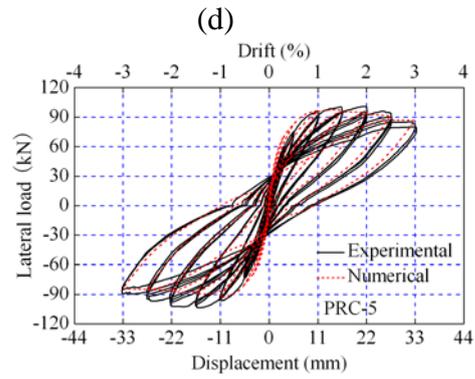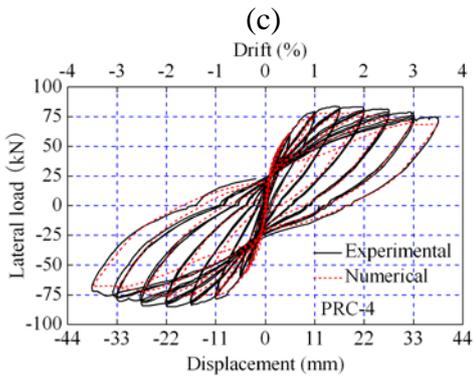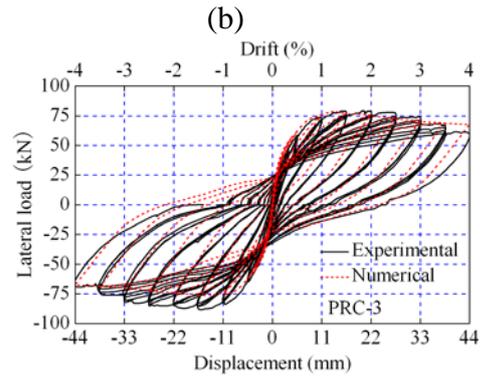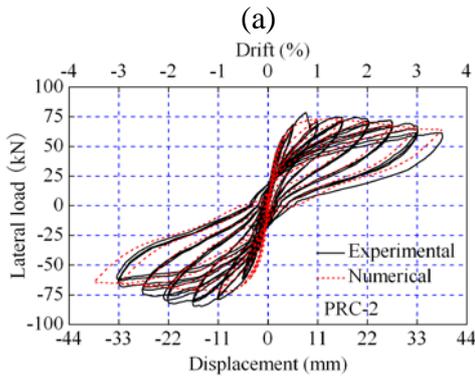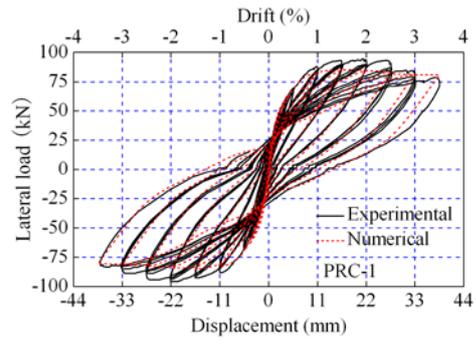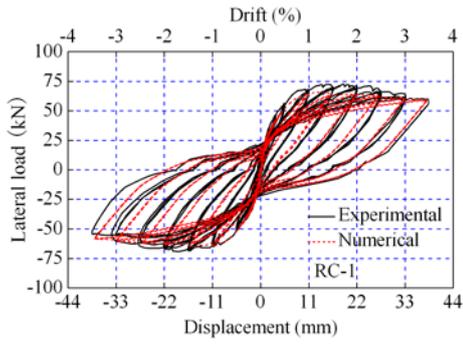
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1000 (a) (b)

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1002 (c) (d)

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1004 (e) (f)

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1006 (g)
1007 **Fig. 15** Experimental and numerical hysteretic curves: **a** RC-1; **b** PRC-1; **c** PRC-2; **d** PRC-3; **e**

1008 PRC-4; **f** PRC-5; **g** PRC-6

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(a)   (b)

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(c)   (d)

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(e)   (f)

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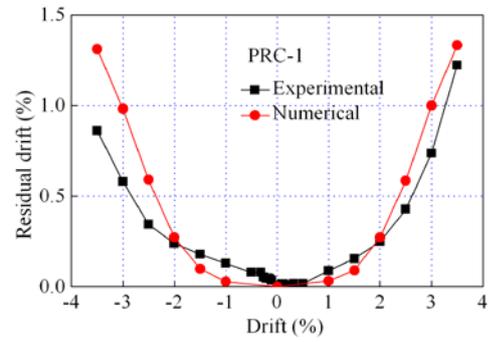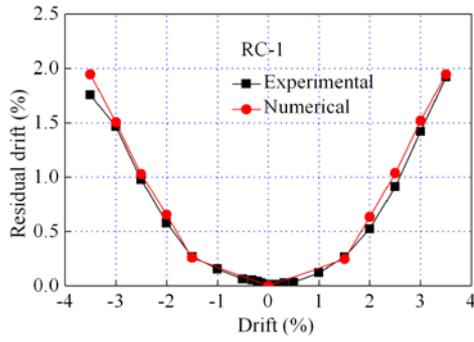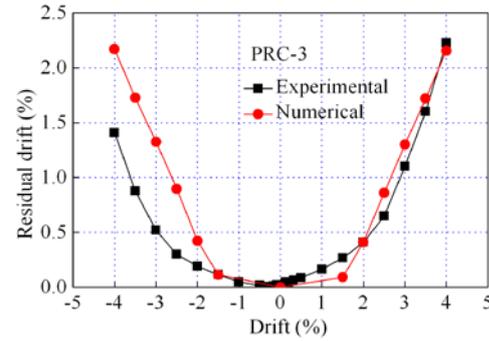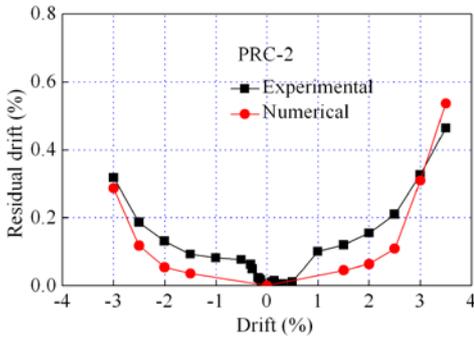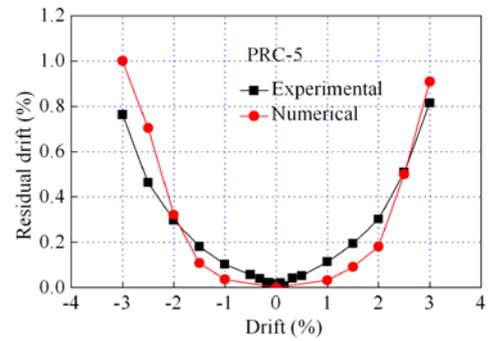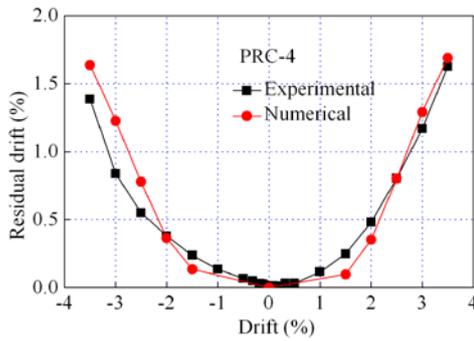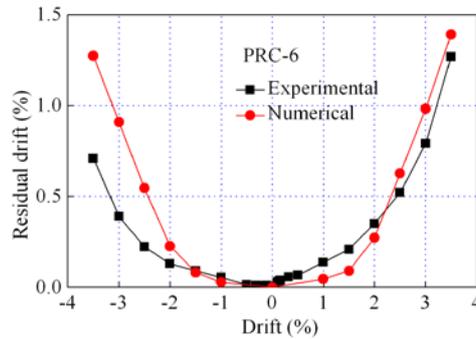
1017   (g)

Fig. 16 Experimental and numerical residual drifts: **a** RC-1; **b** PRC-1; **c** PRC-2; **d** PRC-3; **e** PRC-4;

1019   **f** PRC-5; **g** PRC-6

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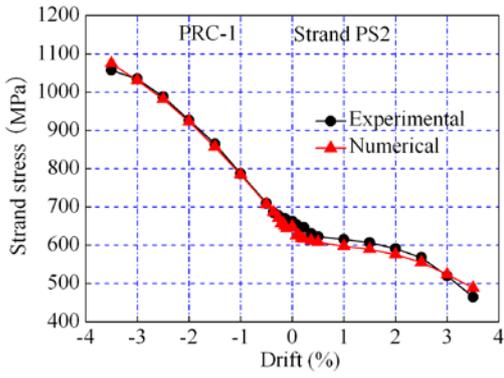
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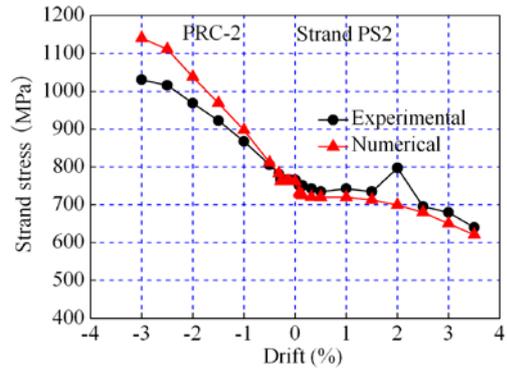
1022   (a)   (b)
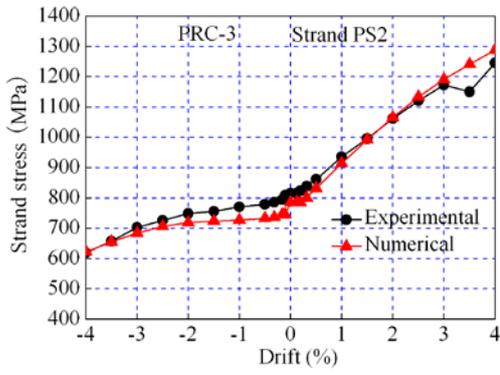
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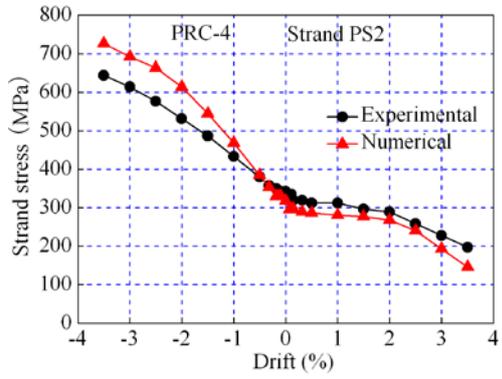
1024   (c)   (d)
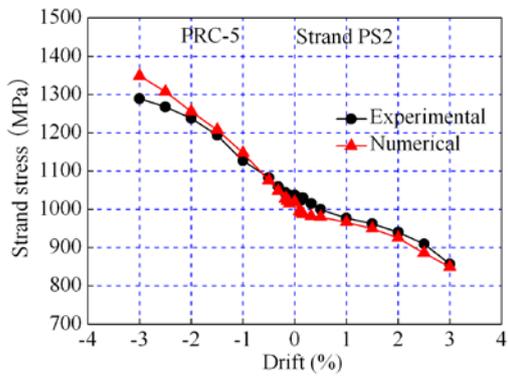
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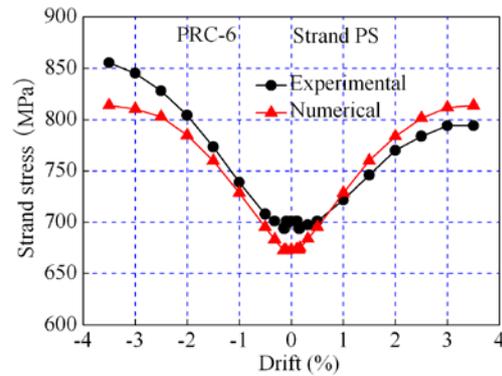
1026   (e)   (f)

1027 **Fig. 17** Experimental and numerical strand stress: **a** PRC-1; **b** PRC-2; **c** PRC-3; **d** PRC-4; **e** PRC-5;

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