

# TIME-DEPENDENT RELIABILITY ANALYSES OF PRESTRESSED CONCRETE GIRDERS STRENGTHENED WITH CFRP LAMINATES

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## Abstract

This paper presents a time-dependent reliability analysis of prestressed concrete girders subjected to degradation caused by pitting corrosion. The procedure proposed includes the effects of both spatial and temporal pitting corrosions on prestressing steel, as well as the degradation of the strengthening CFRP laminate used for the rehabilitation of the member. Results indicate that the correlation of corrosion in different segments of the prestressing tendons impacts on the computed safety index for the deteriorated structure. The paper proposes the use of Ditlevsen bounds for a better approximation of the correlation between failure modes in the spatial discretisation. Results show that this approach produces adequate estimates of the reliability index over the full range of analysis in comparison with other tested models. It is also observed that the degradation of the CFRP laminates does not affect the reliability as significantly as corrosion, and that traffic loads, models uncertainties, corrosion error and corrosion rate are the most relevant variables in the analysis, followed by the prestressing strength and concrete cover. The significance of the variables changes with time: the corrosion rate, corrosion model error and concrete cover increase in importance with the development of corrosion, whereas traffic loads become gradually less important.

**Keywords:** CFRP laminate degradation; prestressed girder; time-dependent reliability; spatial variability; corrosion; Ditlevsen bounds.

29        **Introduction**

30        Many highway networks have been progressively expanding over the last decades to  
31 accommodate the growth of road traffic and meet the demands of modern cities. Such expansion  
32 required the construction of a significant number of bridges, many of which using precast  
33 prestressed concrete (PC) girders. This structural system has several advantages over other  
34 solutions, such as the speed of construction, the low cost, and the quality control from precast  
35 industry.

36        With ageing, however, many PC girders are vulnerable to corrosion of reinforcements that  
37 progressively reduces the structural strength, and can eventually lead to complete degradation.  
38 Generalised corrosion can occur when a large area of the structure is subjected to carbonation. The  
39 pronounced corrosion at specific localisations, also known as pitting, can spread along the  
40 reinforcement bars and is more likely to be caused by chloride attack [1]. Several factors influence  
41 the corrosion rate, such as the water-cement ratio, cement composition, aggregate size, construction  
42 practices, concrete cover, environmental conditions, admixtures, temperature, and pH variation due  
43 to carbonation, among others [1, 2]. Predicting the impact of these parameters – in both time and  
44 space – is a complex process. For this reason, a probabilistic approach to corrosion can be very  
45 useful, since it allows explicit consideration of the uncertainty in reliability analysis.

46        Most time-dependent flexural reliability studies of RC beams available in the literature  
47 considered steel reinforcement and pitting as time-dependent random variables [2-5]. Even though  
48 those studies generally show that the reliability strongly decreases with the corrosion, a typical  
49 simplification consists in assuming pitting to be concentrated at the mid-span section. Thus, the  
50 spatial spread over the length of reinforcement is neglected.

51        Stewart [6] studied the flexural time-dependent reliability of RC beams including the spatial  
52 variability. This was achieved by dividing the structural element into several segments, and for each

53 segment, different levels of pitting corrosion were randomly included to simulate the non-  
54 homogeneous process along the beam. Structural reliability was computed considering a series  
55 system. A similar procedure was also adopted by several other researchers [7-13], showing that the  
56 probabilities of failure considering series reliability are higher when compared with the probabilities  
57 obtained based only on the most unfavourable situation, i.e., the failure of the reinforcement at the  
58 mid-span. This occurs because when a series system is considered, the reliability of the beam  
59 assumes failure to occur at any segment. Since the failure of any segment on such system directly  
60 causes the failure of the beam, the probability of failure increases. This simple analysis shows the  
61 relevance of obtaining a reliable procedure to correlate the segments of corroded steel  
62 reinforcement, particularly for structures that rely heavily on prestressing steel.

63 A competitive solution available to upgrade and strengthen degraded RC girders uses fibre  
64 reinforced polymer (FRP) composites applied as externally bonded reinforcement (EBR).  
65 Compared to other techniques, it has cost effectiveness, low weight, ease of installation, and the  
66 ability to restore full capacity in a short period of time [14]. Focusing on the condition assessment  
67 of bridge girders upgraded with post-tensioned near-surface-mounted CFRP laminates, Kim, Kang  
68 [15] developed a computational model for the bridge girders over an extended lifespan showing that  
69 the strengthening composite becomes more effective as the flexure stiffness of the girders decreases  
70 with damage. A probabilistic model for the flexural capacity of beams strengthened with prestressed  
71 CFRP laminates was developed by Liu, Peng [16] considering all possible failure modes. A time-  
72 dependent reliability study targeting shear fracture of reinforced concrete beams strengthened with  
73 CFRP laminates in aggressive environments was carried out by Firouzi, Taki [17] and highlighted  
74 the importance of corrosion for the occurrence of difference fracture modes. Other time-dependent  
75 reliability studies where the specimens are strengthened after safety becomes unacceptable can be  
76 mentioned, namely the ones from Ali, Bigaud [18], Bigaud and Ali [19] and Guo, Chen [20]. The  
77 first authors performed a reliability analysis of reinforced concrete highway bridges strengthened  
78 with CFRP laminates exposed to aggressive environments confirming that the most significant

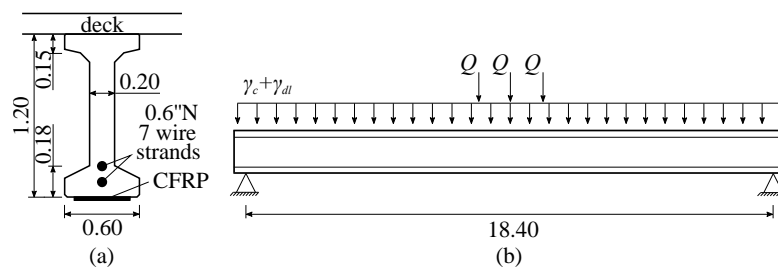
79 deterioration factor is the corrosion of reinforcements. The other two studies are also relevant to the  
80 current work, with Bigaud and Ali [19] addressing concrete bridge girders strengthened with CFRP  
81 laminates with 15 m span, without prestressing steel, designed with AASHTO LRFD [21], whereas  
82 Guo, Chen [20] studied bridges designed with GB/T50283 Chinese code, based on a box-girder  
83 cross section for longer spans.

84 The work presented in this paper addresses outdated bridge girders built in small Western European  
85 cities several decades ago, with medium to small spans. Many of these structures are currently  
86 needing repair due to corrosion and an upgrade to meet current design standards. The study of the  
87 degradation, strengthening and subsequent performance of the bridge girders presented is new and  
88 relevant to many countries, since the current design codes now widely adopted are often more  
89 demanding than previous local standards [22]. Also, given that the girders being studied are heavily  
90 prestressed, the reliability analyses target the role of the corroded prestressing steel before and after  
91 strengthening, together with the interaction with the CFRP laminates. Such aspects are not dealt  
92 with in previous works for the same type of prestressed girder focussed here.

93 Reliability studies are frequently based on an idealised reduction of the area of steel  
94 reinforcements at mid-span or on series system reliability analysis [7-13]. Given that corrosion of  
95 prestressing bars varies significantly along the length, an innovative approach is proposed in the  
96 current paper using the Ditlevsen bounds to tackle the spatial interaction between corroded  
97 segments in temporal reliability analyses and improve the estimates of the probability of failure for  
98 bridge girders strengthened with CFRP laminates. The Ditlevsen bounds provide a very good  
99 approximation to the probability of failure for system series. Given the sensitivity of the prestressed  
100 structure to corrosion, this approach seems quite promising and directly contributes to the field of  
101 reliability analysis. The uncertainties for load and resistance models, the error associated with the  
102 corrosion model, and both the initiation and propagation stages of corrosion, are also considered.

103 **Case Study- PC Girder**

104 The girder selected for analysis in a rehabilitation scenario is part of a simply supported bridge  
105 with two traffic lanes and two side-walks, as represented in Figure 1. The design of the initially  
106 unstrengthened structure was done according to the Portuguese national codes – REBAP [23] and  
107 RSA [24] – which were the standards in place just before the new European codes took place. The  
108 latter code is significantly more demanding, as can be seen in a comparison presented in Appendix  
109 A. Even though the bridge has three girders, only the exterior beam is the most critical member and  
110 herein selected for reliability analyses. A value of 10.37 kN/m is assumed for the dead-loads in  
111 addition to the self-weight, whereas the traffic loads,  $Q$ , are 200 kN in the original design [24]. The  
112 concrete grade is C35/45 EN 1992-1-1 [25], which corresponds to a characteristic compressive  
113 strength,  $f_{ck}$ , of 35 MPa, and a mean compressive strength,  $f_{cm}$ , of 43 MPa at 28 days of age. Two  
114 prestressing bounded strands of grade Y1860S prEN 10138-3 [26] with a characteristic tensile  
115 strength,  $f_{pk}$ , of 1,860 MPa are used as active reinforcement, each with two 0.6in seven-wire steel  
116 strand considered submitted to a tension of 1,200 MPa after the long-term losses.



118 Figure 1. Case study: (a) transversal section; and (b) longitudinal section and loading (unless  
119 otherwise state, dimensions are in ‘m’).

120 The strengthening of the PC girder is based on Carbon FRP (CFRP) ‘CFK 150/2000’ laminates  
121 according to Eurocodes, namely EN 1990 [27], EN 1991-2 [28] and EN 1992-2 [29]. The laminates  
122 are glued to the bottom flange along their length and anchored to the concrete girder at both ends  
123 using steel plates. The ultimate load capacity of the FRP-strengthened girders is determined using

124 an analytical model with the non-linear stress-strain relationship for concrete defined in the EN  
 125 1992-2 [29] (Figure 2):

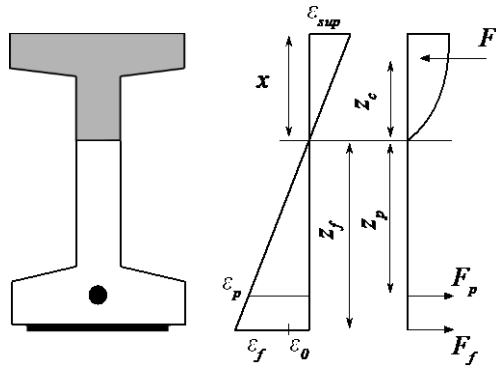
$$126 \quad \frac{\sigma_c}{f_c} = \frac{k\eta - \eta^2}{1 + (k-2)\eta}, \quad (1)$$

127 with

$$128 \quad \eta = \frac{\varepsilon_c}{\varepsilon_{c1}} \text{ and } k = 1.05E_c \frac{|\varepsilon_{c1}|}{f_c} \quad (2)$$

129 where  $\sigma_c$  and  $\varepsilon_c$  are the compressive stress and strain for concrete,  $\varepsilon_{c1}$  is the strain at peak stress  
 130 according to EN 1992-2 [29],  $E_c$  is the secant Young's modulus of concrete, and  $f_c$  is the concrete  
 131 cylinder compressive strength. In addition, the tensile strength of the concrete is neglected.

132



133 Figure 2. Stress-strain diagram for sectional analysis.

134 The analytical model assumes a linear strain distribution over the depth of the girder and that  
 135 initially plane sections remain plane while bending. The bending moment is calculated by:

$$136 \quad M = F_c z_c + F_p z_p + F_f z_{fu}, \quad (3)$$

137 where  $F_c$  is the compressive force in concrete,  $z_c$  is the distance from the neutral axis,  $x$ , to the  
 138 concrete force,  $F_p$  is the force due to prestressing strands,  $z_p$  is the distance between the  
 139 prestressing strands and the neutral axis,  $F_f$  is the force due to CFRP laminates and  $z_{fu}$  is the  
 140 distance from the CFRP laminates to the neutral axis.

141 The stress state when CFRP laminates are to be installed is very important for serviceability  
142 purposes, in which case the girders may need to be lifted to partially release dead-loads and allow  
143 the strengthening to be more effective. Given that focus in this paper is given exclusively to  
144 ultimate limit bending state, a conservative analysis is adopted in which only the dead-loads are  
145 present during the strengthening operation. An iterative process is used to find the equilibrium of  
146 forces by progressively searching the location of the neutral axis in two stages of analysis. In a first  
147 stage, the equilibrium is checked for dead-loads only (before the application of CFRP laminates),  
148 such that the strain at the soffit before strengthening the girder can be assessed. This strain is not  
149 used to engage the CFRP laminates and sets a conservative value for the maximum strain that can  
150 be mobilised after installing the CFRP laminates quantified in a second stage of analysis. During  
151 this second stage, the required area of the CFRP laminates is determined to assure that the ultimate  
152 bending moment capacity of the cross-section matches the design moment for the fully loaded  
153 girder. All possible situations are accounted for, e.g. failure after the yielding of the prestressing  
154 steel through the CFRP laminate or concrete crushing, and prestressing strands reaching 0.1% proof  
155 stress simultaneously with the CFRP laminate.

156 It should be mentioned that a recent study addressing advanced non-linear models capable of  
157 capturing the interaction of concrete cracks with local debonding of the CFRP laminate, including  
158 bond between steel and concrete, and CFRP laminate and concrete, showed that the approximations  
159 made in simplified analytical models such as the one herein adopted to be acceptable [30].

## 160 **Time-Dependent Degradation Models**

161 One of the major concerns in prestressing steel structures is related with corrosion, since it could  
162 reduce the structural strength and serviceability conditions quickly to an unacceptable level [1]. In  
163 the case of CFRP strengthened structures, the degradation of the composite is also an important  
164 factor that needs to be evaluated. The following section describes the degradation models adopted  
165 in this research for prestressing steel and CFRP laminate.

167 Pitting corrosion can easily occur in prestressing steel reinforcements due to chloride-induced  
 168 contamination and can vary in space and time [31]. The time-dependent model proposed by Val and  
 169 Melchers [3] is adopted here. Accordingly, pits are assumed to propagate in hemispherical forms,  
 170 with a radius of  $p$  estimated by:

$$171 \quad p(t) = 0.0116(t - t_i)i_c R \tag{4}$$

172 where  $t$  is time in yrs,  $t_i$  is the corrosion initiation time in yrs,  $i_c$  is the corrosion rate quantified as  
 173 a current density, and  $R$  is the ratio between the maximum pit depth,  $P_{max}$ , and the average pit  
 174 depth,  $P_{av}$  – see representation in Figure 3.

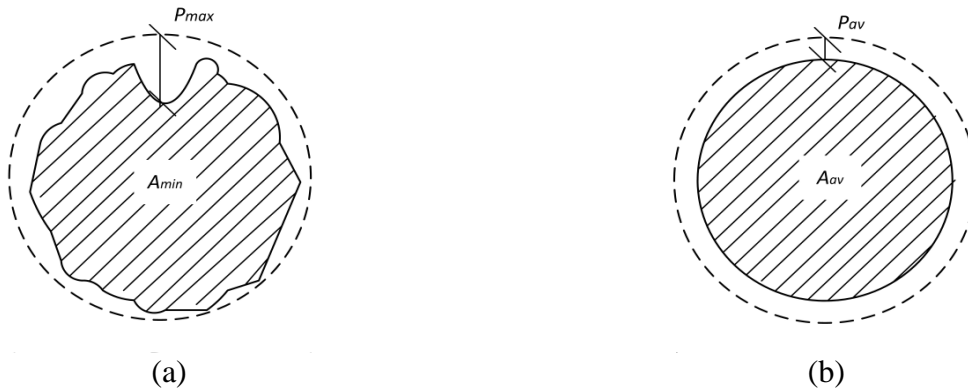


Figure 3. Pitted corroded rebar: (a) cross-section of corroded rebar with  $P_{max}$ ; and (b) equivalent average cross section referred to the overall surface of the corroded rebar.

175  
 176 The area of the pit,  $A_{pit}$ , can be quantified as Val and Melchers [3]:

$$177 \quad A_{pit}(t) = \begin{cases} A_1 + A_2 & \text{if } p(t) \leq \frac{D_0}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{\pi D_0^2}{4} - A_1 + A_2 & \text{if } \frac{D_0}{\sqrt{2}} < p(t) \leq D_0 \\ \frac{\pi D_0^2}{4} & \text{if } p(t) > D_0 \end{cases} \tag{5}$$

178 with



$$\begin{aligned}
179 \quad A_1 &= 0.5 \left[ \theta_1 \left( \frac{D_0}{2} \right)^2 - a \left| \left( \frac{D_0}{2} \right) - \left( \frac{p(t)^2}{D_0} \right) \right| \right], \quad A_1 = 0.5 \left[ \theta_2 p(t)^2 - a \left( \frac{p(t)^2}{D_0} \right) \right], \quad a = 2p(t) \sqrt{1 - \left( \frac{p(t)}{D_0} \right)^2}, \\
180 \quad \theta_1 &= 2 \arcsin \left( \frac{2a}{D_0} \right), \quad \text{and} \quad \theta_2 = 2 \arcsin \left( \frac{a}{p(t)} \right). \tag{6}
\end{aligned}$$

181       The initiation time,  $t_i$ , is the time necessary for the chloride ions concentration at concrete cover  
182 to reach a threshold value,  $C_{th}$ , at the contact surface of steel, as shown in Figure 4. The diffusion  
183 equation is solved to obtain the evolution of the chloride concentration with both depth and time,  
184 thus allowing to quantify the initiation time for a given  $C_{th}$ . Accordingly, Fick's second law can be  
185 written as:

$$186 \quad \frac{\partial C(x,t)}{\partial t} = D_{cl} \frac{\partial^2 C(x,t)}{\partial x^2}, \tag{7}$$

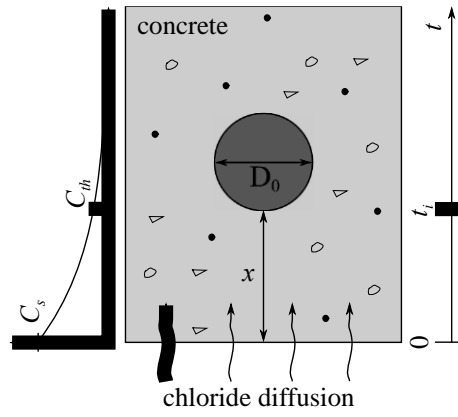
187 where  $C(x,t)$  is the chloride ion concentration at time  $t$  in years, and distance from the surface  $x$ ,  
188 and  $D_{cl}$  is the chloride diffusion coefficient.

189       The chloride concentration is given by [2]:

$$190 \quad C(x,t) = C_s \left( 1 - \operatorname{erf} \frac{x}{2\sqrt{D_{cl}t}} \right), \tag{8}$$

191 where  $C$  is concentration inside concrete for a given time  $t$  and depth  $x$ ,  $C_s$  is the chloride  
192 concentration on the concrete surface,  $\operatorname{erf}$  is the error function, and  $D_{cl}$  is the chloride diffusion  
193 coefficient. The last coefficient is strongly affected by the time of exposure, temperature and  
194 relative humidity [32].

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Figure 4. Chloride diffusion process associated with the corrosion initiation.

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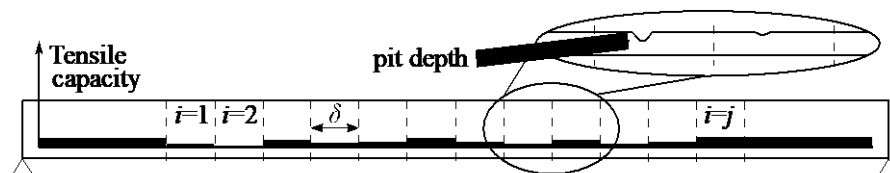
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Corrosion can propagate uniformly along the bar and/or concentrate at specific locations. When the corrosion extends uniformly to a large area, it is usually denoted as generalised corrosion and is typically due to carbonation. On the other hand, when corrosion is more pronounced on specific locations, it is known as pitting. This localised corrosion is more likely to occur due to chloride attack and is the most common type of corrosion in prestressing steel [31]. Based on the geometry and location of prestressing strands, chloride penetration is herein assumed to progress from the bottom face of the girder. To model the spatial variability of pitting corrosion, the reinforcement is divided into several segments (see Figure 5) where different pit depths are considered for each segment [6]. The resistance capacity of the girder is determined by considering the tensile capacity of each segment given by the reduced prestressing area according to Equation (5). The ratio between maximum and average pit depth is randomly generated, such that the pit diameter varies for each segment along the reinforcement.



211

212

Figure 5. Spatial tensile capacity of the girder.

213 The discretisation length for each segment should model the distance at which the pitting  
214 corrosion influences the structural safety. This length depends on several factors, such as the  
215 capacity of the corroded reinforcement to redistribute stresses, the mechanical behaviour of the  
216 reinforcement, the development length, and the specific layout and spacing of reinforcements.  
217 Values found in the literature typically range between 0.1 m and 1.0 m [6, 8-10, 12]. In this paper,  
218 the discretisation length is defined based on the observation that the reliability index should not  
219 change suddenly at the onset of corrosion. Therefore, a length of 0.45 m is found by imposing that  
220 the reliability index calculated using the series system immediately after corrosion has started  
221 matches the value obtained without a series system. The discretisation length is kept constant for all  
222 analyses.

223 When evaluating the safety of the concrete beam, the critical effect of corrosion is the localised  
224 reduction of cross-sectional area. Over a given segment, there will be different sections where  
225 corrosion is present, but, for the reliability analysis, it is critical to model the maximum corrosion in  
226 each segment. This suggests that an extreme distribution might be adequate and this is confirmed by  
227 experimental results from concrete specimens subjected to accelerated corrosion tests [8]. All  
228 segments are considered statistically independent and the random pit depths,  $R$ , are generated using  
229 a Gumbel distribution that was calibrated for a similar initial cross-section by Stewart and Al-  
230 Harthy [8]. The distribution is defined by:

$$231 R \sim G(\mu, \alpha); \mu = 5.56; \alpha = 1.16. \quad (9)$$

### 232 *CFRP laminate degradation*

233 Although several experimental studies addressing the degradation of the FRPs can be found in  
234 the literature [33-38], probabilistic models suitable to predict this phenomenon are yet to be  
235 developed and validated for reliability studies. As such, degradation is herein considered using a

236 deterministic approach following the Arrhenius rate equation developed by Karbhari and Abanilla  
237 [39]. According to the authors, the percentage of strength retention can be expressed by:

$$238 \quad \%f = A \ln(t) + B, \quad (10)$$

239 where  $A$  is the degradation rate, and  $B$  is a material constant.

240 Experimental calibration must be used to obtain the parameters mentioned above using  
241 accelerated tests to finally express the evolution of the strength retention under real moisture  
242 conditions. Given that there are not results available for the type of composite used in this paper, the  
243 expression by Ali, Bigaud [18] obtained for a wet-layup system is adopted as an approximation:

$$244 \quad \%f_{FR} = -3.366 \ln(t) + 106.07, \quad (11)$$

245 where  $\%f_{FR}$  is the percentage of FRP strength retention and  $t$  is time in days. A model without any  
246 degradation on the CFRP laminate is also considered for comparison purposes.

### 247 **Proposed Reliability Analysis Procedure**

248 Please note that in the analyses presented in this paper focus is given to ultimate limit states, in  
249 which case the long-term losses associated with pre-stress are included in the pre-stress force  
250 corresponding to a stress of 1,200 MPa. The time-dependent reliability analysis procedure proposed  
251 includes three main stages – see Figure 6a.

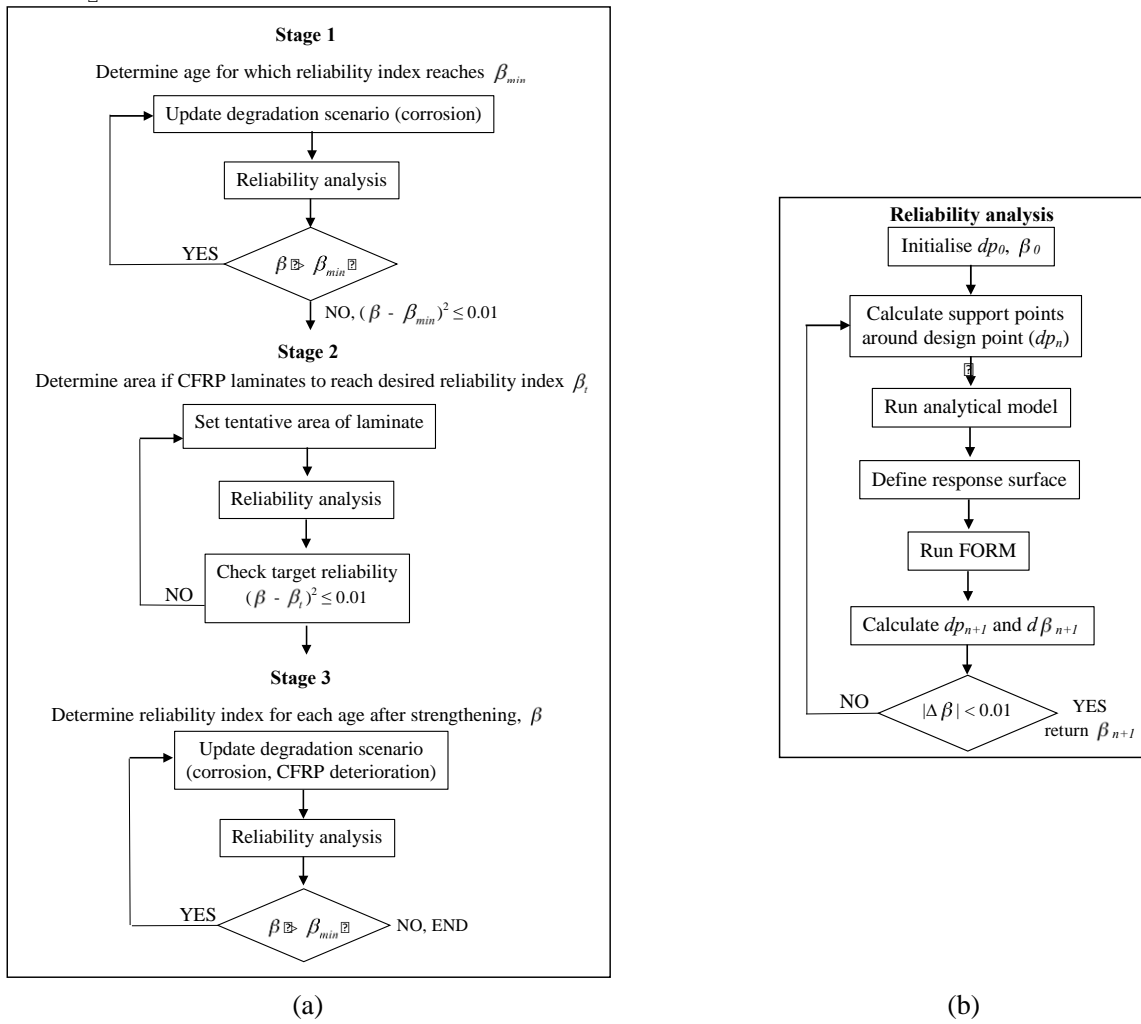


Figure 6. Flow chart describing the: (a) stages of analysis; the (b) reliability analysis step.

252 During the first stage, the degradation caused by corrosion in the unstrengthened girder  
 253 progresses over time and the corresponding reliability index,  $\beta$ , is computed for each step.  
 254 Corrosion is modelled by means of a reduction in the prestressing strand area over time caused by  
 255 the pit depths along the beam. The girder is considered to have an unacceptable structural safety  
 256 when the reliability index reaches a minimum threshold,  $\beta_{min}$ . Since this threshold is not provided  
 257 in the Eurocodes, 2.5 is adopted, which is the same value used in the load and resistance rating  
 258 provisions in AASHTO [40] for checking the safety of existing bridges [41].

259 Failure is defined when the random structural resistance,  $R$ , is lower than the current random  
 260 load demand,  $S$  [42-44]. The relationship  $R-S$  (to be defined ahead) is the limit state function  
 261 setting the boundary that separates acceptable and unacceptable structural performance depending

262 on the random variables. Graphically, the probability of failure corresponds to the grey volume  
 263 represented in Figure 7a if only two variables are considered, whereas the target reliability index  
 264 geometrically measures the minimum distance from the origin to the failure domain. This point is  
 265 the so-called design point – see representation in Figure 7a  $(r^*, s^*)$  – and its cosines direction  
 266 measure the importance or sensitivity of each parameter on the probability of failure, where a  
 267 positive value means that an increase of the mean value also increases safety (see Figure 7b).

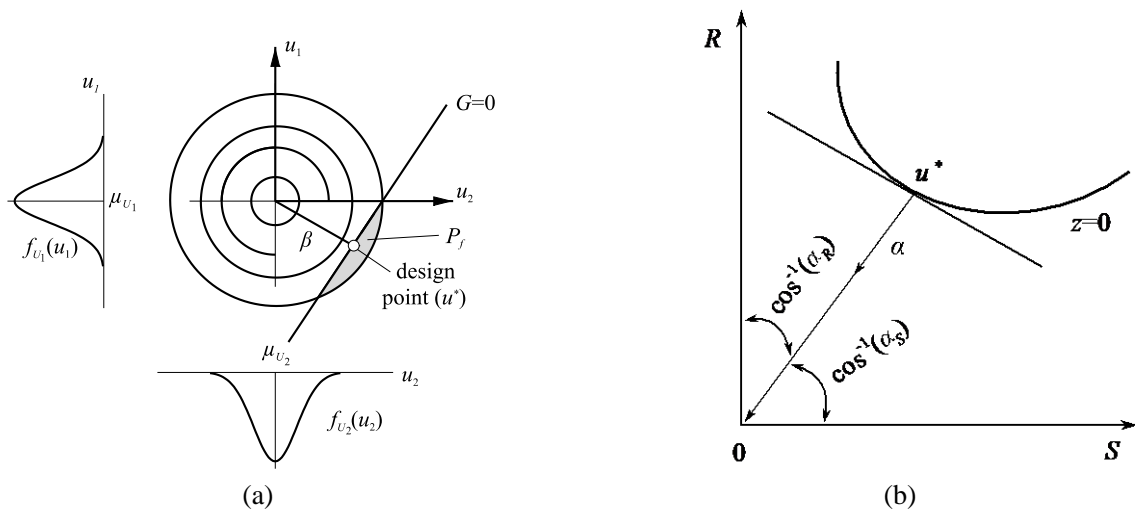


Figure 7. (a) Reliability index and design point assuming a linear limit state function, joint density function  $f_{R,S}(r,s)$  of two random variables with marginal density functions  $f_r$  and  $f_s$ ; and (b) cosines direction at design point. Figure adapted from Schneider [45].

268 For each time step, the reliability index and probability of failure are iteratively computed  
 269 according to Figure 6b. In summary, FORM uses a Taylor expansion in the neighbourhood of the  
 270 design point that is progressively refined. The response surface method (RSM) is herein applied to  
 271 approximate the non-linear limit state function by a regression function of lower-order polynomials  
 272 [43] using selected support points for each random variable. The reliability index is then determined  
 273 within two iterative cycles, the first uses RSM to compute an approximated limit state function, and  
 274 the second applies FORM to determine the reliability index for the approximated limit state  
 275 function. Both are applied sequentially until converging into a design point within a tolerance in  
 276 absolute value of 0.01 – see Figure 6b.

277 When the reliability of the member reaches the minimum acceptable level of structural safety,  
 278 the second stage of analysis is initiated to determine the strengthening requirements. This is  
 279 achieved by computing the area of the CFRP laminate necessary to upgrade the girder from the  
 280 minimum reliability index of 2.5 (reached after corrosion degradation) to a target reliability index,  
 281  $\beta_t$ , of 3.8. This value was set according to Steenbergen and Vrouwenvelder [46] for repairing  
 282 existing highway bridges based on EN 1990 [27]. The same iterative procedure applied in the first  
 283 stage is again used in the search for the area of the CFRP laminate. It should be mentioned that the  
 284 area of CFRP laminate is herein treated as deterministic due to the low coefficient of variation  
 285 associated.

286 In the third and last stage, another time-dependent reliability analysis is performed, this time to  
 287 assess the behaviour of the strengthened girder with the progression of degradation. This study  
 288 considers both steel corrosion and CFRP laminate degradation.

#### 289 *Strength limit state*

290 Given that the structure is a simply supported beam, the formation of a plastic hinge in any  
 291 section leads to the failure of the girder. Consequently, the reliability analysis can be performed by  
 292 assessing each segment, in which case failure occurs if any segment fails resulting in a series  
 293 system. The limit state function,  $G$ , is formulated for each segment,  $j$ , as a function of time,  $t$ :

$$294 \quad G_j(t) = \gamma_{mlj}(t) - \gamma_{tlj} \quad (12)$$

295 where  $\gamma_{ml}$  is the maximum traffic load scale factor supported by the girder as function of time, and  
 296  $\gamma_{tl}$  is the standard traffic load scale factor. The first term is time-dependent and is computed from  
 297 the maximum capacity given by the analytical model described above.

298 The limit state function can be expressed as:

$$299 \quad G_j(t) = \gamma_{mlj}(\theta_E; \nu_1(t); \nu_2(t); \nu_3(t); \dots; \nu_n(t)) \times \theta_R - \gamma_{tlj} \quad (13)$$

300 where  $\theta_E$  is the load model uncertainty,  $\theta_R$  is the resistance model uncertainty,  $v_i$  are the  
 301 statistical variables, and  $n$  is the maximum number of statistical variables described in the next  
 302 section.

303 Based on the limit state function defined above, the probability of failure of each segment is  
 304 given by:

$$305 \quad p_{f_i} = \int_{G < 0} f(\theta_E; \theta_R; v_1(t); v_2(t); \dots; v_n(t)) \quad (14)$$

306 where  $f$  is the joint density function.

307 Different segments of the girder are nevertheless correlated as only the level of deterioration  
 308 varies from section to section. As a first approach, the system probability of failure can be bounded  
 309 by the probabilities of failure corresponding to independent components (i.e., assumption that the  
 310 failure of different segments is only determined by corrosion, and thus independent) and to fully  
 311 correlated segments (i.e., assumption that the corrosion is irrelevant and all segments are fully  
 312 correlated. The series system probability of failure under the assumption of statistically independent  
 313 segments is given by:

$$314 \quad P_f = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - p_{f_i}), \quad (15)$$

315 whereas for completely correlated segments, the series system probability of failure is:

$$316 \quad P_f = \max(p_{f_i}) \quad (16)$$

317 where  $p_{f_i}$  is the probability of failure of the  $i$ -th segment.

318 The series system probability of failure therefore falls within the following lower and upper  
 319 bounds limits:

$$320 \quad \max(p_{f_i}) \leq P_f \leq 1 - \prod_{i=1}^n (1 - p_{f_i}). \quad (17)$$



321 For a series system, such limits can be narrowed down using the approach developed by  
 322 Ditlevsen [47] in which the segments are assumed to be correlated. Accordingly:

$$323 \max(p_{f_i}) + \sum_{a=2}^n \max\left(p_{f_a} - \sum_{b=1}^{a-1} p_{f_a} \cap p_{f_b}; 0\right) \leq P_f \leq \sum_{a=1}^n p_{f_a} - \sum_{a=2, b < a}^n \max(p_{f_a} \cap p_{f_b}). \quad (18)$$

324 In the last equation, the lower bound accounts for the individual probabilities,  $p_{f_a}$ , and for all  
 325 possible joint probabilities involving two segments, i.e.,  $p_{f_a} \cap p_{f_b}$ . Joint probabilities involving  
 326 more than two segments are neglected for simplification. The upper bound also includes the  
 327 individual and joint probabilities, such that the failure events are ordered from the highest  
 328 probability of failure to the lowest.

329 The joint probabilities are calculated using the integral of the bivariate normal distribution  
 330 function written as:

$$331 P(p_{f_1} \cap p_{f_2}) = \int_{\beta_1}^{\infty} \int_{\beta_2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{1-\rho_{sys_{ab}}^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(1-\rho_{sys_{ab}}^2)(\beta_a^2\beta_b^2 - 2\rho_{sys_{ab}}\beta_a\beta_b)} d\beta_a d\beta_b \quad (19)$$

332 where  $\rho_{sys_{ab}}$  is the correlation factor between  $\rho$  segments  $a$  and  $b$ . The correlation between failure  
 333 modes  $\rho_{sys_{ab}}$  can be computed as the angle between the vectors connecting the origin and the design  
 334 points on each failure mode. Since the direction cosine gives the contribution of each random  
 335 variable to the reliability vector defined by connecting the origin to the design point in the  
 336 normalised space (see Figure 6b), the correlation is given by:

$$337 \rho_{sys_{ab}} = \frac{Cov(a,b)}{\sigma_a\sigma_b} = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_{a_k}^* \alpha_{b_k}^* \quad (20)$$

338 where  $\alpha_{a_k}^*$  is the direction cosine at the most probable point of failure and measures the contribution  
 339 of  $a$  over segment  $k$ . Finally, the reliability of the system can be estimated as the average reliability  
 340 for both upper and lower bounds shown in Equation (18).

341 An example is given in Figure 8, in which case the segments correlation can be written as:

$$\begin{cases}
\rho_{sys_{12}} = \alpha_{11}^* \alpha_{21}^* + \alpha_{12}^* \alpha_{22}^* + \alpha_{13}^* \alpha_{23}^* + \alpha_{14}^* \alpha_{24}^* \\
\rho_{sys_{13}} = \alpha_{11}^* \alpha_{31}^* + \alpha_{12}^* \alpha_{32}^* + \alpha_{13}^* \alpha_{33}^* + \alpha_{14}^* \alpha_{34}^* \\
\rho_{sys_{14}} = \alpha_{11}^* \alpha_{41}^* + \alpha_{12}^* \alpha_{42}^* + \alpha_{13}^* \alpha_{43}^* + \alpha_{14}^* \alpha_{44}^* \\
\rho_{sys_{23}} = \alpha_{21}^* \alpha_{31}^* + \alpha_{22}^* \alpha_{32}^* + \alpha_{23}^* \alpha_{33}^* + \alpha_{24}^* \alpha_{34}^* \\
\rho_{sys_{24}} = \alpha_{21}^* \alpha_{41}^* + \alpha_{22}^* \alpha_{42}^* + \alpha_{23}^* \alpha_{43}^* + \alpha_{24}^* \alpha_{44}^* \\
\rho_{sys_{34}} = \alpha_{31}^* \alpha_{41}^* + \alpha_{32}^* \alpha_{42}^* + \alpha_{33}^* \alpha_{43}^* + \alpha_{34}^* \alpha_{44}^*
\end{cases} \quad (21)$$

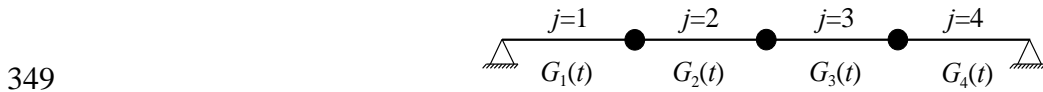
343 The lower and upper probabilities of failure in Figure 8 are given by:

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{f_{lower}} = & p_{f_1} + \max[p_{f_2} - p_{f_2} \cap p_{f_1}; 0] + \max[p_{f_3} - p_{f_3} \cap p_{f_2} - p_{f_3} \cap p_{f_1}; 0] + \\
& + \max[p_{f_4} - p_{f_4} \cap p_{f_3} - p_{f_4} \cap p_{f_2} - p_{f_4} \cap p_{f_1}; 0]
\end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

345 and

$$\begin{aligned}
P_{f_{upper}} = & p_{f_1} + p_{f_2} + p_{f_3} + p_{f_4} - p_{f_2} \cap p_{f_1} - \max[p_{f_3} \cap p_{f_2}; p_{f_3} \cap p_{f_1}] + \\
& - \max[p_{f_4} \cap p_{f_3}; p_{f_4} \cap p_{f_2}; p_{f_4} \cap p_{f_1}]
\end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

347 The average between the lower and upper probabilities provides a good estimate of the probability  
348 of failure in the system based on the work from Barakat, Malkawi [48].



350 Figure 8. Series model with four segments.

### 351 *Random variables*

352 In this study, the adopted variables can be divided into three categories: resistance; loads; and  
353 corrosion. The resistance variables that contribute to the strength of the girder are: the prestressing  
354 strength,  $f_p$ , the CFRP laminate strength,  $f_t$ , and the resistance model uncertainty,  $\theta_R$ . The load  
355 variables consist of the traffic load scale factor,  $\gamma_{tl}$ , the dead loads,  $\gamma_{dl}$ , the concrete self-weight,  
356  $\gamma_c$  and the loads model uncertainty,  $\theta_E$ . Additionally, the corrosion variables include the surface  
357 chloride concentration,  $C_s$ , threshold chloride concentration,  $C_{th}$ , chloride diffusion coefficient,  $D_{cl}$ ,  
358 concrete cover,  $c$ , corrosion rate,  $i_c$  and corrosion model error,  $\gamma_{ic}$ . Table 1 summarises the models

359 and values for each variable [2, 4, 5, 19, 49-53]. It should be mentioned that other material  
 360 properties not mentioned in the table below, such as the compressive strength of concrete,  $f_{cm}$ , are  
 361 considered deterministic with their average design value since they were shown in a previous study  
 362 not to be significant for the reliability analyses [54].

363 Table 1. Statistical properties of random variables used in time-dependent reliability analysis.

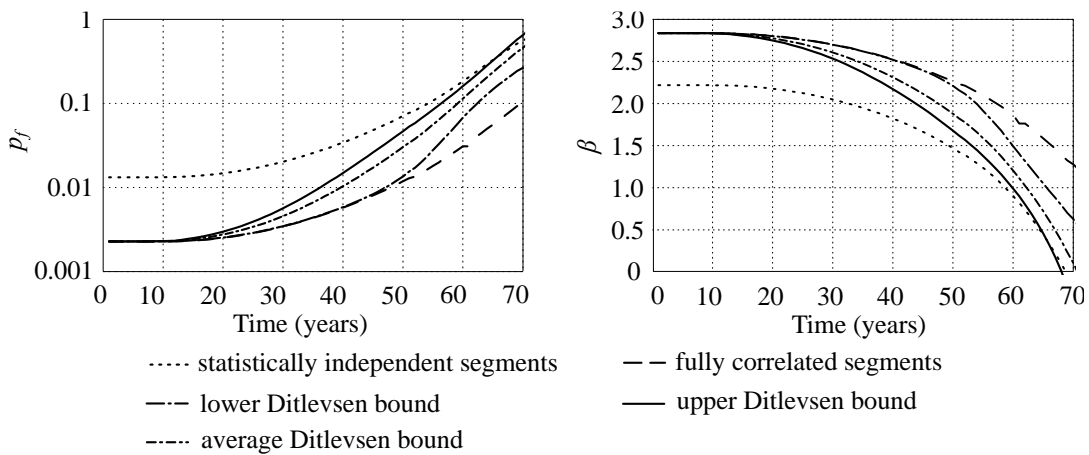
Variable	Units	Mean	Standard deviation	COV	Distribution type	Indicative References
Prestressing strength, $f_p$	MPa	1674	50	0.03	Normal	[51]
CFRP laminate strength, $f_t$	MPa	2687	214.9	0.08	Weibull	[55]
Resistance model uncertainties, $\theta_R$	-	1.0	0.13	0.13	Log-normal	[49]
Traffic loads, $\gamma_{tl}$	-	0.78	0.117	0.15	Gumbel	[22]
Dead loads, $\gamma_{dl}$	kN/m	10.83	1.08	0.10	Normal	[52]
Concrete self-weight, $\gamma_c$	kN/m <sup>3</sup>	25.0	1.0	0.04	Normal	[49]
Load model uncertainties, $\theta_E$	-	1.05	0.11	0.10	Log-normal	[49]
Surface chloride concentration, $C_s$	kg/m <sup>3</sup>	0.35	0.175	0.50	Normal	[53]
Threshold for chloride concentration, $C_{th}$	kg/m <sup>3</sup>	1.2	0.228	0.19	Normal	[53]
Chloride diffusion coefficient, $D_{cd}$	cm <sup>2</sup> /s	2.0x10 <sup>-8</sup>	4.0x10 <sup>-9</sup>	0.20	Normal	[53]
Cover, $c$	cm	5.0	0.75	0.15	Log-normal	[19]
Corrosion rate, $i_c$	$\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$	1.0	0.20	0.20	Log-normal	[2-4, 56]
Model error, $\gamma_{ic}$	-	1.0	0.20	0.20	Normal	[19]

364 Several values can be found in the literature for the corrosion rate model, typically varying from  
 365 0.1 to 10  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  [5-7, 31]. In the scope of this paper, the mean current density adopted is 1.0  $\mu$   
 366  $\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$  based on the work by Dhir, Jones [56] on uncracked concrete specimens exposed to salt  
 367 spray corresponding to medium corrosion intensity conditions – see also [2]. The coefficient of  
 368 variation is taken as 0.2 from [2, 3]. It should be considered that steel corrosion can accelerate  
 369 CFRP laminate deterioration due to concrete cracking near the reinforcement. However, this effect  
 370 is not included in the analyses due to the lack of reliable models for this complex phenomena.  
 371 Finally, a normal distribution is considered for the traffic loads according to JCSS [49] with  
 372 characteristic values,  $Q$  [57].

373 **Results and Discussion**

374 *Reliability analysis of series system*

375 The probability of failure and reliability index as a function of time for different series reliability  
 376 assumptions are shown in Figure 9 for the non-strengthened girder. When the segments are  
 377 considered statistically independent, the probability of failure is much higher in earlier years. In the  
 378 case of fully correlated segments, results are similar to the ones obtained with the Ditlevsen bounds,  
 379 with a good agreement with the lower bound for the earlier years. The contrasting results of fully  
 380 correlated and independent segments, highlights that such simplifications may not be realistic in  
 381 practice. Moreover, if the segments are statistically independent, the probability of failure directly  
 382 corresponds to the weakest segment, which may be too conservative for most cases. Conversely,  
 383 full correlation means that only the segment subject to higher moment can fail (all other segments  
 384 have the same strength but smaller applied moments), which represents a reduction in the potential  
 385 failure modes, and consequently, of the probability of failure. This is further confirmed by  
 386 analysing Equations (15) and (16), which show a much lower probability of failure for fully  
 387 correlated systems.



388

389 Figure 9. Probability of failure ( $P_f$ ) and reliability index ( $\beta$ ) as a function of time for different

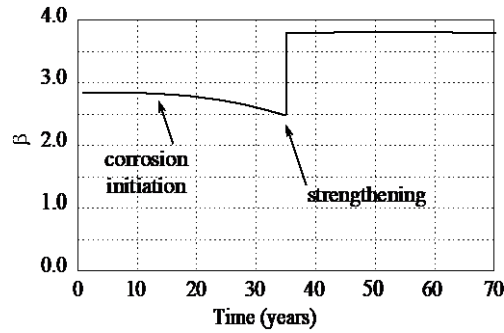
390 series reliability approaches.

391 The Ditlevsen bounds provide a valid approach to compute the reliability of series systems with  
392 correlation between segments. The results presented in Figure 9 indicate that the upper and lower  
393 Ditlevsen bounds are close together and, thus, this approach produces a reliable estimation of the  
394 probability of failure of the system. Furthermore, results also indicate that considering statistically  
395 independent segments is over conservative since the reliability index computed with this approach  
396 is much lower than the one obtained considering correlation between the failure of different  
397 segments. Given that the properties of the girder along the beam only change due to corrosion,  
398 without it all random variables are constant at different sections except for the applied moment,  
399 which is perfectly correlated along the girder. Therefore, the probability of failure obtained for an  
400 uncorroded girder corresponds to the midspan segment and that of the fully correlated case. As  
401 corrosion progresses, the differences in strength between sections increase causing a reduction in  
402 the correlation between the strength of different segments. The system reliability then tends to  
403 increase towards the extreme case of uncorrelated random variables. Adopting the average of both  
404 bounds can be a good estimate for the contribution of the segments, since it approaches perfect  
405 correlation – for up to 40 years – and the statistically independent segments model for the latest  
406 years of analysis.

#### 407 *Time-dependent reliability analysis*

408 The time-dependent safety without considering the CFRP laminate degradation is illustrated in  
409 Figure 10. It is important to denote that the reliability index starts close to 2.8. When the safety of  
410 the girder designed according to the old standard is assessed using the requirements imposed by EN  
411 1991-2 [28], the structural safety is already below the minimum allowed by the new standard and  
412 very close to the threshold of unacceptable safety of 2.5 discussed above. This result is explained by  
413 the differences in the traffic load models – see comparison in Appendix A. Corrosion starts at 11  
414 years of age, but only becomes severe after 20 years. Without strengthening, the reliability of the

415 girder would reach zero, corresponding to a 50% probability of failure, after 70 years of age. After  
416 the chloride corrosion starts, the rate of reduction of the reliability index increases.

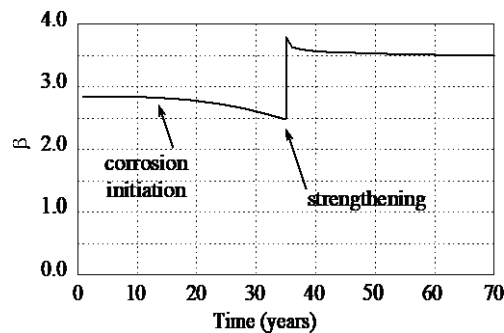


417

418 Figure 10. Reliability index as a function of time for strengthened section without CFRP laminate  
419 degradation.

420 The strengthening area of CFRP laminates required to increase the reliability index to 3.8  
421 calculated using the procedure described in the previous section is 305 mm<sup>2</sup>. After strengthening,  
422 further reductions of the reliability index factor due to degradation are significantly slower (Figure  
423 10).

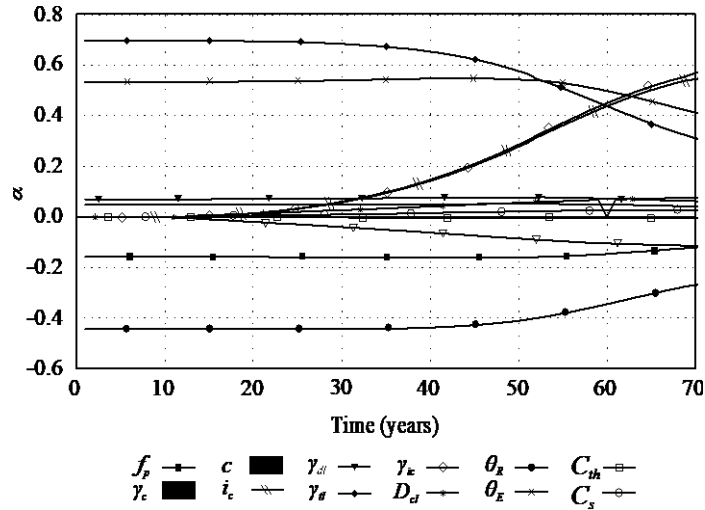
424 When the CFRP laminate degradation is taken into account – see Figure 11 – the reliability  
425 progressively reduces over the years after strengthening. However, this impact is not as severe as  
426 the one caused by corrosion [18].



427

428 Figure 11. Reliability index as a function of time for strengthened section with CFRP laminate  
429 degradation.

431 The cosines direction at the design point for each random variable as a function of time are  
 432 represented in Figure 12. Values close to zero indicate the variable not to be relevant in the analysis,  
 433 whereas cosines closer to 1 or -1 correspond, respectively, to a significant negative or positive  
 434 impact. A representation of the geometric meaning can also be found in Figure 6.



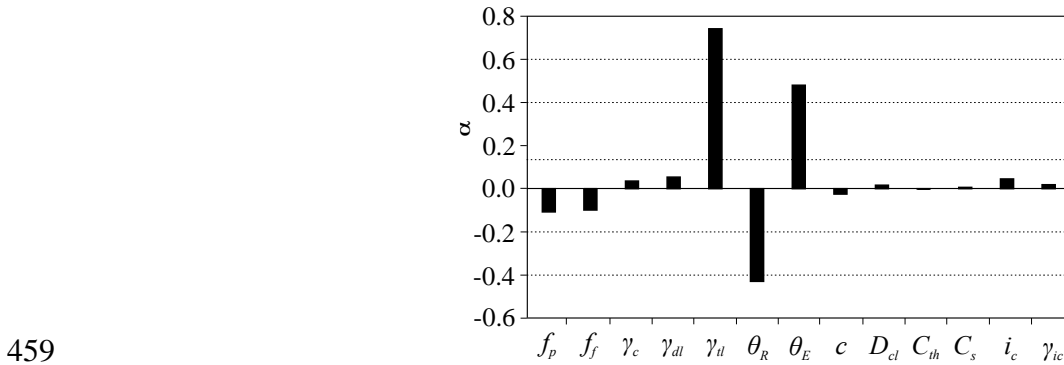
435

436 Figure 12. Cosines direction at design points as a function of time.

437 From Figure 12, it can be concluded that traffic loads,  $\gamma_{tl}$ , have the highest weight in the analysis  
 438 reaching a value close to 0.7. However, this role is reduced with the development of corrosion. The  
 439 uncertainties for both resistance and load models,  $\theta_R$  and  $\theta_S$ , have cosine values close to -0.44 and  
 440 0.54, respectively, and decrease with corrosion. The large cosine values without corrosion indicate  
 441 that a significant part of the uncertainty is associated with the limitations of the models employed.  
 442 With the growth of corrosion, the uncertainty associated with it becomes increasingly significant  
 443 and, consequently, the importance of the uncertainty in models reduces. The prestressing strength,  
 444  $f_p$ , presents values close to 0.16 over the entire analysis, the concrete self-weight,  $\gamma_c$ , and the dead  
 445 loads,  $\gamma_{dl}$ , present values close to -0.08. The remaining variables, surface chloride concentration,  
 446  $C_s$ , threshold chloride concentration,  $C_{th}$ , chloride diffusion and coefficient,  $D_{cl}$ , have no  
 447 contribution without corrosion. With the ageing of the structure, the reduction in strength due to

448 corrosion becomes more likely, and the importance of the parameters increase, as shown in Figure  
 449 11. Therefore, after the initiation of corrosion, the most important variables related with this process  
 450 of degradation are the concrete cover,  $c$ , corrosion model error,  $\gamma_{ic}$ , and corrosion rate,  $i_c$ . Their  
 451 importance starts to increase with the development of corrosion, reaching values of respectively to -  
 452 0.12 and 0.60 after 60 years.

453 After the strengthening of the member, the equilibrium in the cosines direction changes due to  
 454 the recovered flexural strength (see Figure 13). Consequently, the traffic load,  $\gamma_{tl}$ , increases its  
 455 importance relatively to the values observed in early years, whereas the concrete cover,  $c$ , and  
 456 corrosion rate,  $i_c$ , decrease its weight to values close to the ones before the initiation of corrosion.  
 457 The CFRP laminate strength,  $f_f$ , assumes a weight of -0.10. All other calculated values remain  
 458 practically constant over time since the degradation is quite slow (see Figure 10).



459  
 460 Figure 13. Cosines direction at design point for the strengthened girder.

461 **Summary and Conclusions**

462 This paper presented a time-dependent reliability analysis of prestressed concrete girders. The  
 463 girders were subjected to a scenario of degradation caused by pitting corrosion. The rehabilitation  
 464 of the member was done using externally bonded CFRP laminates after the girder reached an  
 465 unacceptable probability of failure. It was also assumed that the CFRP laminate could degrade over  
 466 time after rehabilitation.



467 The reliability analysis procedure proposed in this paper included the effects of both spatial and  
468 temporal corrosion. The spatial distribution of corrosion was analysed by considering the  
469 reinforcement divided in segments on a series system. The obtained results showed the reliability  
470 index to be more conservative when the segments are considered statistically independent. In  
471 addition, the assumption of fully correlated and statistically independent segments can produce  
472 contrasting results, which may fail to properly predict the structural behaviour. The first approach is  
473 suited for analysis while the girder is uncorroded. In this situation, the strength along the girder does  
474 not vary, in which case failure is directly driven by the midspan segment given that it is subjected to  
475 the highest applied moment (all segments are fully correlated). The second approach provides good  
476 results when corrosion is significantly advanced, since the differences in strength of segments can  
477 cause failure in other regions other than the midspan part of the girder, being theoretically driven by  
478 the weakest element. For all other steps of analysis, which correspond to 50 years of analysis,  
479 neither approach (i.e. fully correlated and statistically independent segments) provides good  
480 estimates. In this case, the Ditlevsen bounds are recommended given that they can approximate the  
481 model with perfect correlation in the first 50 years of analysis, and the statistically independent  
482 segments model in the following years.

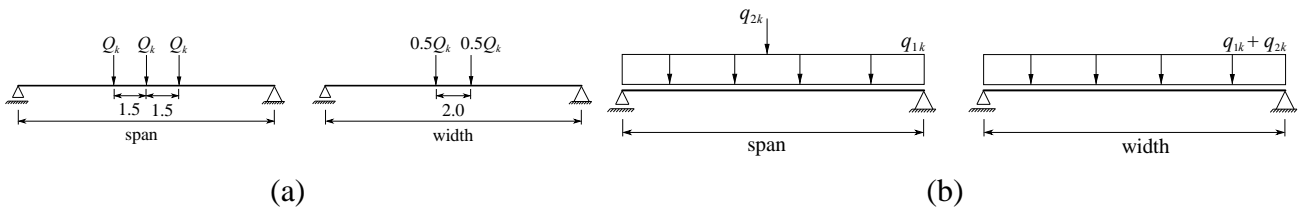
483 Results from time-dependent reliability analysis also showed that the degradation of the CFRP  
484 laminate does not impact on the reliability as significantly as corrosion. The sensitivity analysis for  
485 the non-determinist variables showed the traffic loads, models uncertainties and corrosion rate and  
486 uncertainty to be the most relevant variables, followed by the prestressing strength and concrete  
487 cover. The significance of variables, however, changes over time and also with the conditions of the  
488 structure. For example, corrosion rate and concrete cover increase importance with the development  
489 of corrosion over time, and traffic loads lose weight. After strengthening the girder, the  
490 reinforcement steel is no longer critical to the strength and, consequently, the impact of corrosion  
491 on the probability of failure is much lower than that observed for the unstrengthened girder.

492 **Acknowledgements**

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 496 Technology Foundation (FCT) through the PhD grant number SFRH/BD/76345/2011.

497 **Appendix A – Comparison of traffic load models**

498 This section presents a summary of the traffic load models from RSA [24] and EN 1991-2 [28]  
 499 applied to the bridge geometry used in the case study in this paper. The traffic loads defined in RSA  
 500 [24] were developed in the 1960s and include two load models – see Figures A1 and A2. The first  
 501 sets three concentrated loads that account for an idealised three-axle vehicle and its dynamic effects,  
 502 whereas the second model defines a uniformly distributed load and a knife load. Loads are to be  
 503 placed at the most unfavourable positions along the bridge deck for the design of each structural  
 504 element and their characteristic values are shown in Table A1. The principal load model LM1  
 505 defined in the EN 1991-2 [28] is shown in Figure A2 and the characteristic values are given in  
 506 Table A2. Distributed loads are to be placed in lanes of 3 meters across the deck width, whereas  
 507 concentrated loads are also included to account for an idealised two-axle vehicle and its dynamic  
 508 effects.



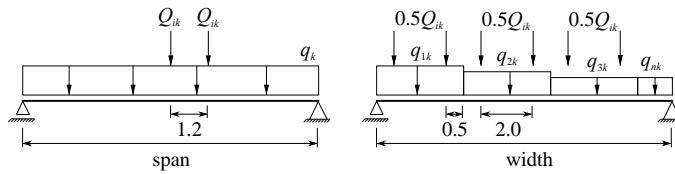
509 Figure A1. Traffic load models in RSA [24]: (a) idealised vehicle; and (b) knife and distributed load  
 510 models.

511

Table A1. Characteristic values defined in RSA [24].		
Concentrated load $Q_k$ (kN)	Distributed load $q_{1k}$	Knife load $q_{2k}$ (kN/m)

(kN/m <sup>2</sup> )		
200	4	50

512



513

514

Figure A2. Traffic load model LM1 in EN 1991-2 [28] (dimensions in ‘m’).

515

Table A2. Characteristic values defined in EN 1991-2 [28].

Location	Concentrated loads $Q_{ik}$ (kN)	Distributed load $q_{ik}$ (kN/m <sup>2</sup> )
Lane 1	300	9
Lane 2	200	2.5
Lane 3	100	2.5
Other lanes, n	0	2.5
Remaining areas	0	2.5

516

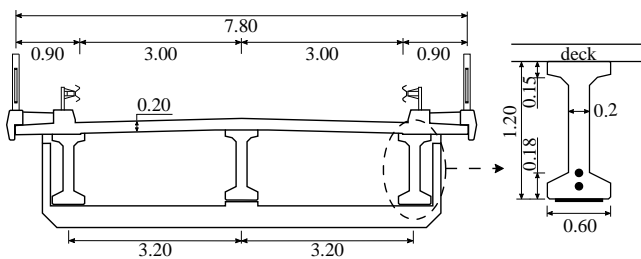
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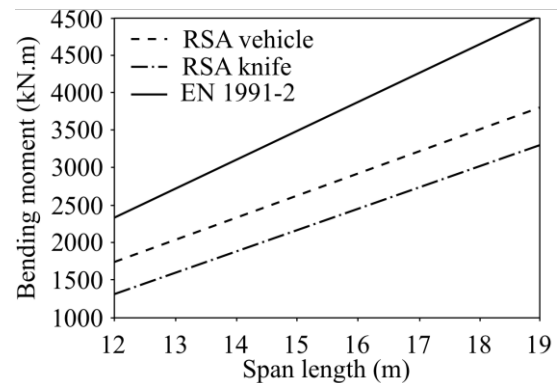
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For the same bridge deck, a comparison of ultimate design bending moments is shown as a function of the span in Figure A3. Please note that the dead load includes self-weight, sidewalks, guard rail and asphalt corresponding to the layout shown in the figure. As can be concluded, the design bending moment from the current standard, EN 1991-2 [28], is significantly higher than the one provided by both models in RSA [24].



(a)



(b)

521

522

523

Figure A3. Comparison between codes: (a) bridge cross-section; (b) ultimate design bending moment.

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