

# Characterisation of Local Damage in Pultruded GFRP Road Bridge Decks with Random Fibre Mat Misalignments

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## Abstract:

The extent to which random, manufacturing-induced fibre mat misalignments compromise the structural integrity of pultruded GFRP road bridge decks is not fully understood. The problem is often critical at the web-flange junctions, which frequently contain the most severe misalignments and are subjected to high moment-shear (M-V) combinations due to local tyre load effects. To that end, in the presently reported experimental study, determinate M-V combinations were applied at the junctions of a pultruded GFRP bridge deck, without artificially restraining (e.g. by clamping, which spuriously strengthens) these junctions. For any given M-V ratio, significant scatter was observed in the damage patterns and loads up to ultimate, owing to random fibre mat misalignments which have been digitally documented in a previous paper. Damage occurred mostly within the junctions, and sometimes in the adjoining flanges. Relative to misalignment-free specimens, the first fracture moments dropped by 19% and 21% for junctions containing flip and wrinkle misalignments respectively. 19% of tests showed higher tangent stiffnesses after damage, probably due to beneficial changes in load-carrying mechanism. A three-pronged approach, based on the load-response, acoustic emission and video data, enables the definition of damage indices, thereby paving the way for integrity assessment of pultruded decks under local tyre load effects.

**Keywords:** Glass fibres, fabrics/textiles, defects, pultrusion

## 1. Introduction

Pultrusion is one of the most popular manufacturing techniques for glass fibre reinforced polymer (GFRP) structures used in civil engineering, including bridge decks [1]. Pultrusion enables the continuous production of modular, cellular profiles with various fibre architectures that are difficult to produce using other manufacturing techniques [2]. The high strength-to-weight ratios of both the GFRP material and the cellular design can result in decking systems that are 80% lighter than equivalent reinforced concrete alternatives, and with superior long-term performance [3].

32           The structural performance of GFRP decks is strongly influenced by the local response of their web-  
33 flange junctions to tyre patch loading on the nearby top flange [4]. Under the patch loads, these junctions  
34 transmit high, multi-directional stress resultants whether the deck runs transversely as in the UK's West Mill  
35 bridge [5] or longitudinally as in the UK's Frampton Cotterell bridge [6]. Such large stress resultants transmitted  
36 through the small volumes of the junctions lead to high local stresses that are further magnified by the randomly  
37 misaligned fibre mat layers present in the junction due to imperfect quality control during the manufacturing  
38 process [7]. Misalignments refer to out-of-plane deviations of the fibre mats (for example, waviness, wrinkles  
39 and folds) from their optimal trajectories; that is, the trajectories that produce the greatest load-carrying capacity  
40 in service.

41           Note that the misalignments do not reduce the stress *capacity* of the material, rather they increase the  
42 local (normal and shear) stress *demands* along and near the misaligned fibre layer, which reduces the structural  
43 integrity of the junctions. Indeed, previous tests have shown that the misaligned fibres dominate the failure  
44 behaviours of the junctions in pultruded decks [8–15] and in I-sections [16–21], which in turn has led to  
45 serviceability problems for FRP decks on the road networks in different countries [22,23]. For FRP components  
46 used in the aerospace, automotive, renewable energy and marine domains, such as stiffened panels employed in  
47 aircraft, F1 cars, wind turbines and yachts, these misalignments and their associated knock-down effects have  
48 been extensively studied [24–28].

49           However, for the civil engineering application of FRP bridge decks manufactured by pultrusion and  
50 other methods, this issue has received relatively limited attention. In one of the very few relevant studies [29] to  
51 date on this topic, loads up to junction failure were applied to the deck in a test setup that preserves the load  
52 paths within the deck and minimizes artificial boundary conditions (e.g. clamping, which can spuriously  
53 strengthen the joint), whilst maintaining statical determinacy of the stress resultants on the junctions. This was  
54 achieved by making a cut across the width of the top flange, to create a top flange cantilever (e.g. see Figure  
55 2(a)) rooted at the GFRP deck's internal junction. The different individual and bonded junction configurations  
56 for a given decking system were studied. The focus was on illustrating the test method, so each test was  
57 performed once, which meant that the extent of scatter in the junctions' structural characteristics was not  
58 evaluated. This study also presented a manual method for mapping the misalignments. A subsequent study [7]  
59 built on this initial investigation by presenting a *digitized* method of mapping the misalignments. This study also  
60 presented a dual scheme for defining a *taxonomy* of these misalignments, including the geometry and the origins  
61 in specific features of the manufacturing process.

62 It is now appropriate to further expand on these earlier studies by understanding the influence of the  
63 scatter in misalignment geometry on any associated variation in the failure behaviour of the junctions. To that  
64 end, an important manufacturing distinction between pultruded and non-pultruded junctions should now be  
65 highlighted. Non-pultruded junctions, which are typically resin-infused or prepreg-based, are manufactured in a  
66 multi-stage process by either co-bonding or adhesively bonding L-shaped sections (stiffeners) to a flat sheet  
67 (skin). This process leaves a triangular-shaped region (or deltoid) at the centre of the junction, commonly filled  
68 with uni-directional fibres or resin, and the failure *mode* of these junctions is often dominated by delamination  
69 of the deltoid from the stiffeners and/or skin [30]. Within this failure mode, the damage loads can be quite  
70 variable owing to manufacturing-induced variability of the deltoid shape, which for co-bonded junctions can  
71 produce misalignment of the surrounding plies. One study [31] showed that, as a result, a 46% reduction in  
72 deltoid area produced a 33% reduction in tensile capacity. By contrast, pultruded deck junctions exhibit multiple  
73 failure modes, each with significant scatter in the failure loads, owing to the range of types and spatial locations  
74 of the misalignments. Therefore, the failure mechanics of non-pultruded junctions are of limited value in  
75 assessing pultruded junctions. Instead, investigations specific to pultruded junctions must be conducted.

76 Previous studies have considered flat FRP coupons under axial load [32–35], and so the knock-down  
77 effects of the misalignments were expressed as reductions of tensile or compressive capacity of the section.  
78 Bridge deck junctions, however, are subjected to combinations of local bending moment and vertical shear, for  
79 which a moment-shear interaction failure envelope seems a more natural means of quantifying knock-down  
80 effects.

81 Acoustic Emission (AE) sensors can aid the detection and quantification of damage within the deck's  
82 junctions. AE is defined as a transient elastic wave generated by material fracture leading to structural damage  
83 [36]. Changes in the cumulative AE hits or energy plots are commonly used in conjunction with mechanical  
84 data to identify the initiation of damage. Previous studies have applied AE damage identification to flat FRP  
85 coupons [37], and to adhesively bonded joints of pultruded components [38,39], which gave confidence in the  
86 application to the T-shaped junctions of the present study. This study also builds on previous work by  
87 introducing novel damage indices which fuse the AE data with the load-displacement data and also with visual  
88 observations from high-resolution video records of the junctions.

89 The objectives of the present study, for the web-flange junctions of a specific deck system, are to:

- 90 • Perform repeat tests to ultimate that enable definition of the moment-shear failure envelopes  
91 of the junctions including the effects of scatter.

- 92 • Combine the load-displacement data, AE data and video logs to characterise the initiation and
- 93 progression of damage, by defining damage indices, in the junctions up to failure.
- 94 • Relate the scatter in failure loads and the severity of damage to the degree of fibre mat
- 95 misalignment.

96 In what follows, the test methodology is described, the key results are reported, then a detailed analysis

97 relating the misalignment profile to the severity of damage is presented, and finally conclusions are drawn.

## 98 2. Methodology

### 99 2.1 Description of GFRP deck specimens

100 Figure 1 shows the geometry of the GFRP deck used in this study, which is a rectangular unit that

101 encloses two inclined webs to form three cells. The GFRP material consists of E-glass fibre mats and rovings

102 embedded in an isophthalic polyester resin. This deck has been used in highway and pedestrian bridges around

103 Europe, including a 73m span pedestrian bridge in Germany completed in 2019 [40]. The top flange of the deck

104 is thicker (9 mm) than the bottom flange (6 mm) to provide adequate resistance to local tyre loads.

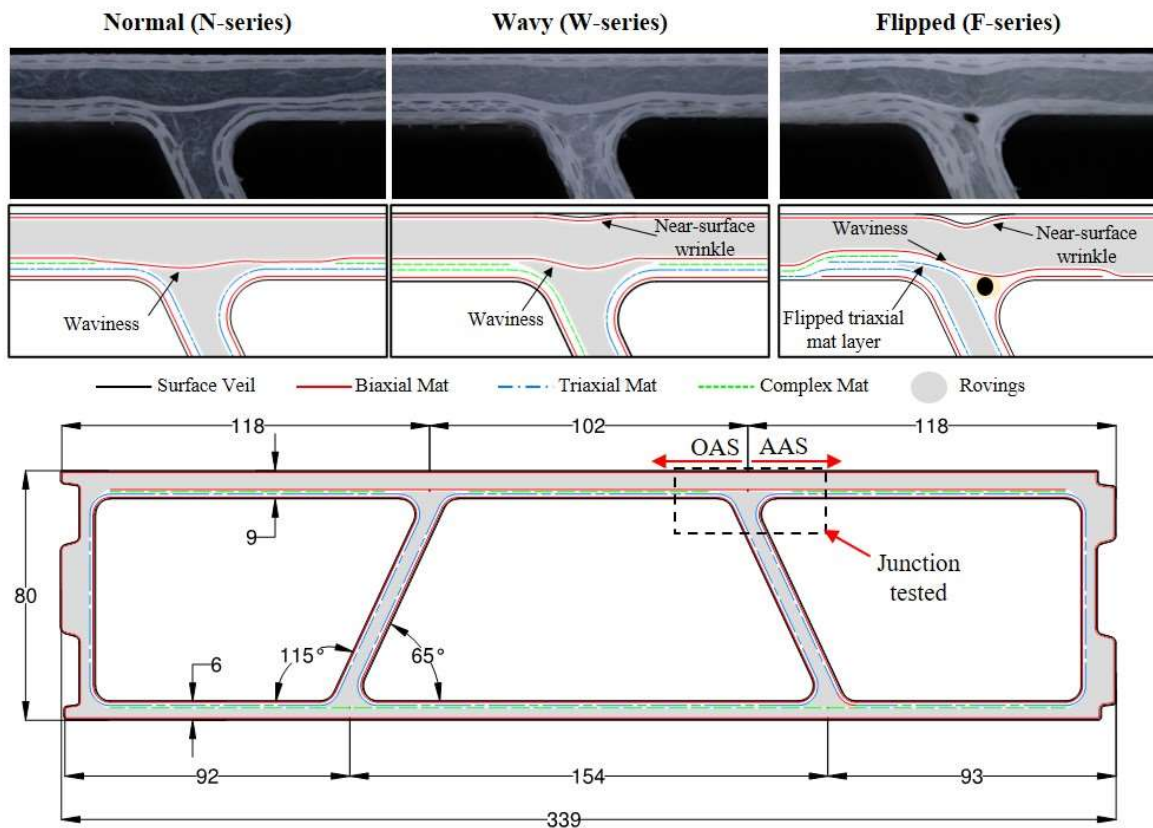


Figure 1: Geometry of GFRP deck with illustrations of the fibre mat positions

105 From resin burn-off tests, the fibre architecture was observed to comprise rovings, a surface veil, and  
106 three types of mat: a triaxial mat with  $+45^\circ$ ,  $-45^\circ$  and  $0^\circ$  fibre bundles, a biaxial mat with  $90^\circ$  and  $0^\circ$  bundles and  
107 a complex mat that consisted of  $90^\circ/0^\circ$  woven bundles stitched to a layer of continuous filament mat (CFM).  
108 The unidirectional rovings formed a single, thick layer within the core of the material, and on the outer surfaces  
109 there was a veil that consisted primarily of CFM and  $0^\circ$  bundles. The diagram at the bottom of Figure 1 shows  
110 how these mats and rovings were arranged in the deck.

111 Tests were conducted only on the internal junction at the top of the right-hand inclined web, which is  
112 labelled in Figure 1. Henceforth, the left- and right- hand sides of the junction as seen in Figure 1 are referred to  
113 as OAS (obtuse angle side) and AAS (acute angle side), respectively. Junctions from *three* different pultrusion  
114 batches were selected for testing, named Normal (N-series), Wavy (W-series) and Flipped (F-series), images of  
115 which are shown at the top of Figure 1.

116 At this point, it is useful to briefly summarise the taxonomy of fibre mat misalignments defined in a  
117 previous study [7], which is of direct relevance to the study presented in this paper. In that earlier study, six  
118 different categories of misalignment were identified within the junctions of different batches of the very  
119 pultruded GFRP deck system used in the present study. The categories were defined from the observed shapes  
120 and manufacturing provenances of the misalignments. The six categories (some of which are illustrated in  
121 Figure 1) were: double-back, flip, corner wrinkle, near-surface wrinkle, waviness and drop. For waviness, the  
122 misalignment severity was quantified using the angle to its steepest tangent, its length, and its height; while for  
123 near-surface wrinkles, the amplitude and width of a fitted Gaussian function were used. That earlier study  
124 reported significant variation in misalignment severity between junctions from different pultrusion batches.

125 In the present study, three different categories of misalignment were observed within the selected  
126 junctions, which are labelled in Figure 1: a flipped triaxial mat layer, a near-surface wrinkle at the top of the  
127 junction, and waviness of the biaxial mat in the middle of the junction. The flip was only present in the F-series,  
128 whereas the wrinkle and waviness were present to varying degrees in all three junction types. The scatter in  
129 degree of wrinkling and waviness is presented in Section 4.1. Finally, the fibre layups were identical for each  
130 junction, except for the W-series that, on the OAS side, had a complex mat in place of a triaxial mat layer.

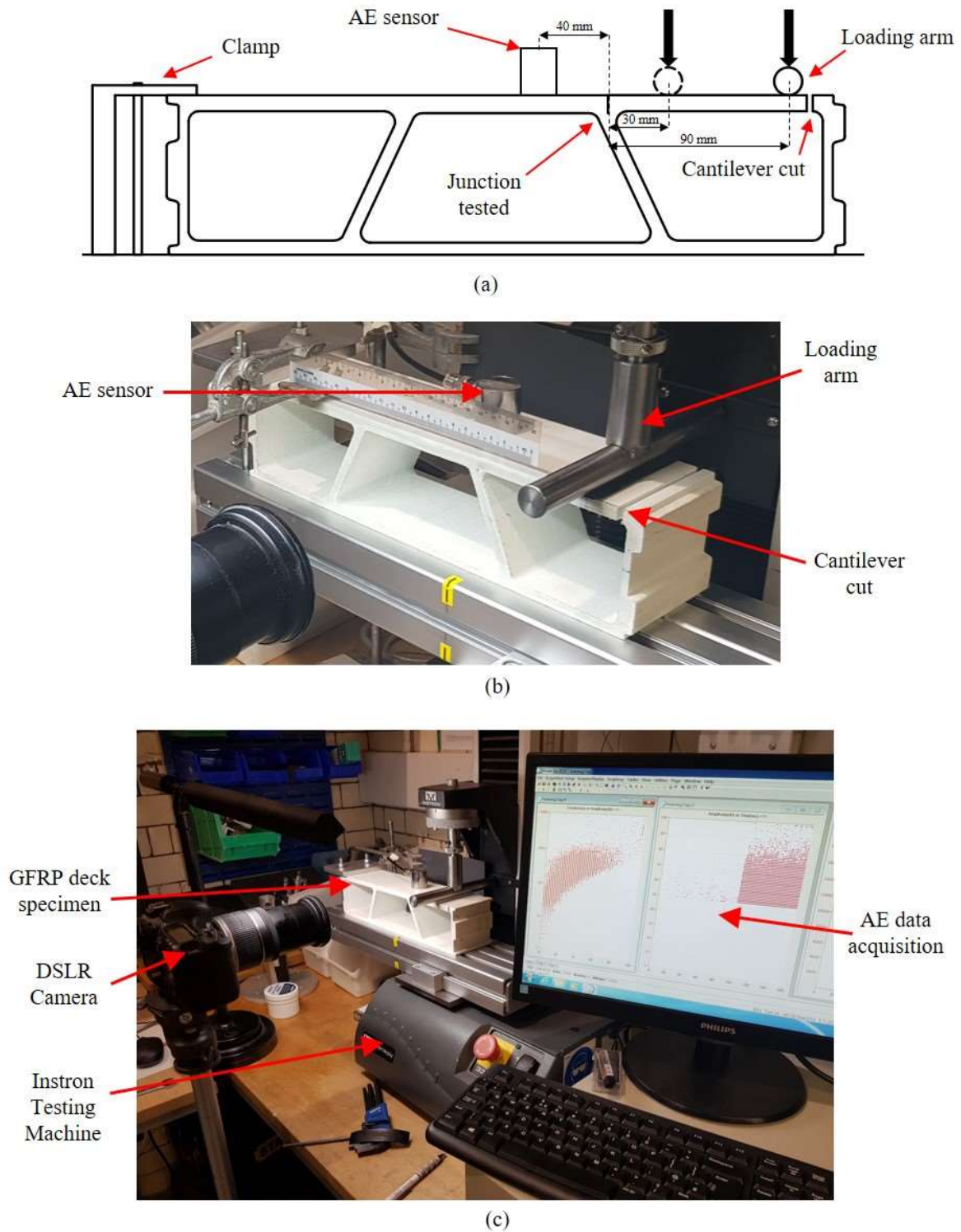


Figure 2: (a) Diagram of test setup, (b) close-up image of specimen and (c) image of instrumentation.

131 **2.2 Experimental setup and loading strategy**

132 Preparation of the GFRP deck specimens was undertaken in two steps: (i) the bridge deck panels were  
 133 cut into 80 mm wide specimens; (ii) a top flange cantilever rooted at the internal junction was created by cutting

134 across the 80 mm width of this flange near to the external right-angle junction, as shown in Figure 2(a) and in  
135 the close-up image of the specimen in Figure 2(b). The 80 mm width was chosen to ensure the junctions failed  
136 within the 5 kN load capacity of the testing machine. It is important to note that the GFRP deck was initially  
137 provided in seven short panels, typically 330 mm wide, of which two contained a ‘Normal’ junction, two a  
138 ‘Wavy’ junction, and three a ‘Flipped’ junction. It was possible to cut four 80 mm wide specimens from most  
139 panels. The specimens cut from the same deck panel are assigned to a unique subgroup, and the mat  
140 misalignments and failure behaviours of these subgroups are presented independently throughout the remainder  
141 of the paper.

142 Figure 2(c) shows an image of the experimental setup that includes the test machine, real-time AE  
143 acquisition data displayed on the monitor, and video camera. The tests were conducted on an Instron 3345,  
144 which had a compressive load capacity of 5 kN. The load was applied using a 100 mm wide, 20 mm diameter  
145 steel bar placed across the width of the cantilever, with a 1 mm thick rubber strip between this bar and the  
146 specimen to prevent local crushing of the GFRP material. The distance from the centreline of the junction to that  
147 of the loading arm was varied between 30 mm and 90 mm, see Figure 2(a).

148 The specimens were secured to the machine using a clamp applied directly above the vertical web on  
149 the opposite side of the junction being tested (Figure 2(a)). This acted as a translational and rotational restraint  
150 that adequately replicated the in-situ boundary conditions, whereby the deck would be adhesively bonded to  
151 adjacent units. The cantilever was loaded under displacement control at a rate of 1.8 mm/min, which is within  
152 the range recommended by BS ISO 15024:2001 [41] for a double cantilever beam test on GFRP specimens. The  
153 vertical force and displacement were acquired at a rate of 100 Hz from the Instron machine using Bluehill 3  
154 software.

155 The AE system comprised a single R15I-AST resonant-type sensor with an operating frequency range  
156 of 50-400 kHz and a resonant frequency of 150 Hz, provided by Physical Acoustic Corporation. The sensor had  
157 an integral preamplifier with an electrical gain of 40 dB. The AE signals were recorded by a PCI-2 based  
158 acquisition computer using the AEWIn software at a sampling rate of 2 MHz. Silicone grease was used as the  
159 acoustic coupling agent. As shown in Figure 2(a) and (b), the sensor was placed on the top surface of the deck,  
160 40 mm from the centreline of the junction. This offset was necessary due to the surface cracks that developed  
161 directly above the junction during failure that would have decoupled the sensor. A pencil-lead break procedure  
162 was used to ensure good conductivity between the sensor and GFRP material [42]. Incoming waves were  
163 converted to a voltage signal by the sensor and were recorded as a hit when the voltage amplitude exceeded the

164 threshold level set to 45 dB. This value adequately removed background noise whilst ensuring that even low-  
 165 amplitude AE events emanating from the GFRP material were detected. The absolute energy of each recorded  
 166 hit was derived from the integral of the squared voltage signal divided by the reference resistance (10k-ohm).

167 The cross-sectional surface of the junction during failure was recorded using a Canon 7D DSLR  
 168 camera with a 200 mm telephoto zoom lens at a frame rate of 24 Hz.

### 169 2.3 Summary of tests conducted

170 Table 1 provides a summary of the 28 tests performed on the three primary junction types. The junction  
 171 subgroups are assigned a letter based on the type (e.g. ‘N’ for Normal) and a number that distinguishes between  
 172 different deck panels (1, 2, 3 ... etc.). Typically, there were four specimens per subgroup, except for N-2 and F-  
 173 3 that had three and five specimens, respectively. The test code (right column of Table 1) is simply the subgroup  
 174 code with a third number indicating the lever arm distance applied during that test. Note that although the  
 175 majority of tests were conducted at regular lever arm intervals of 30, 50, 70, and 90 mm, some tests were  
 176 performed at 40, 60 and 80 mm. In total, there were 7 tests for the N-series, 8 for the W-series and 13 for the F-  
 177 series.

178 Table 1: Summary of cantilever tests  
 179

Junction type	Junction subgroup	Lever arm distance (mm)	Test code
Normal (N)	N-1	40, 50, 60, 80	N-1-40, N-1-50, N-1-60, N-1-70
Normal (N)	N-2	30, 60, 90	N-2-30, N-2-60, N-2-90
Wavy (W)	W-1	30, 50, 70, 90	W-1-30, W-1-50, W-1-70, W-1-90
Wavy (W)	W-2	30, 50, 70, 90	W-2-30, W-2-50, W-2-70, W-2-90
Flipped (F)	F-1	30, 50, 70, 90	F-1-30, F-1-50, F-1-70, F-1-90
Flipped (F)	F-2	30, 50, 70, 90	F-2-30, F-2-50, F-2-70, F-2-90
Flipped (F)	F-3	40, 50, 60, 70, 80	F-3-40, F-3-50, F-3-60, F-3-70 F-3-80

180

### 181 3. Key results

182 Failure of the junctions consisted of a series of distinct crack initiation events, each of which  
 183 corresponded to one of *four* damage modes. Figure 3 shows, for each junction type, example images of the four  
 184 damage modes, which are described below:

- 185 • Mode D<sub>c</sub>: delamination within the corner of the junction’s OAS side, combined with a transverse  
 186 crack within the web’s roving core that extended from the base of the delamination across the



187 width of the web. For the N- and F- series, the delamination occurred between the +45° and -45°  
 188 fibre layers within the triaxial mat, whereas in the W-series the delamination occurred between the  
 189 complex mat and roving layers.

- 190 • Mode D<sub>c</sub>: delamination at the top of the junction between the wrinkled 90° fibre layer and the  
 191 roving layer, combined with a transverse crack within the roving layer that extended diagonally  
 192 from the right edge of the delamination to the mat layer below.
- 193 • Mode D<sub>m</sub>: delaminations in the middle of the junction along both the top and the bottom edges of  
 194 the wavy 90° fibre layer. A transverse crack accompanied the delaminations in the rovings either  
 195 side of the mat layer.
- 196 • Mode K<sub>m</sub>: kinking or buckling of the wavy 90° fibre layer at the middle of the junction. Kinking  
 197 initiated at the point of steepest tangent angle, which for most junctions was on the AAS.

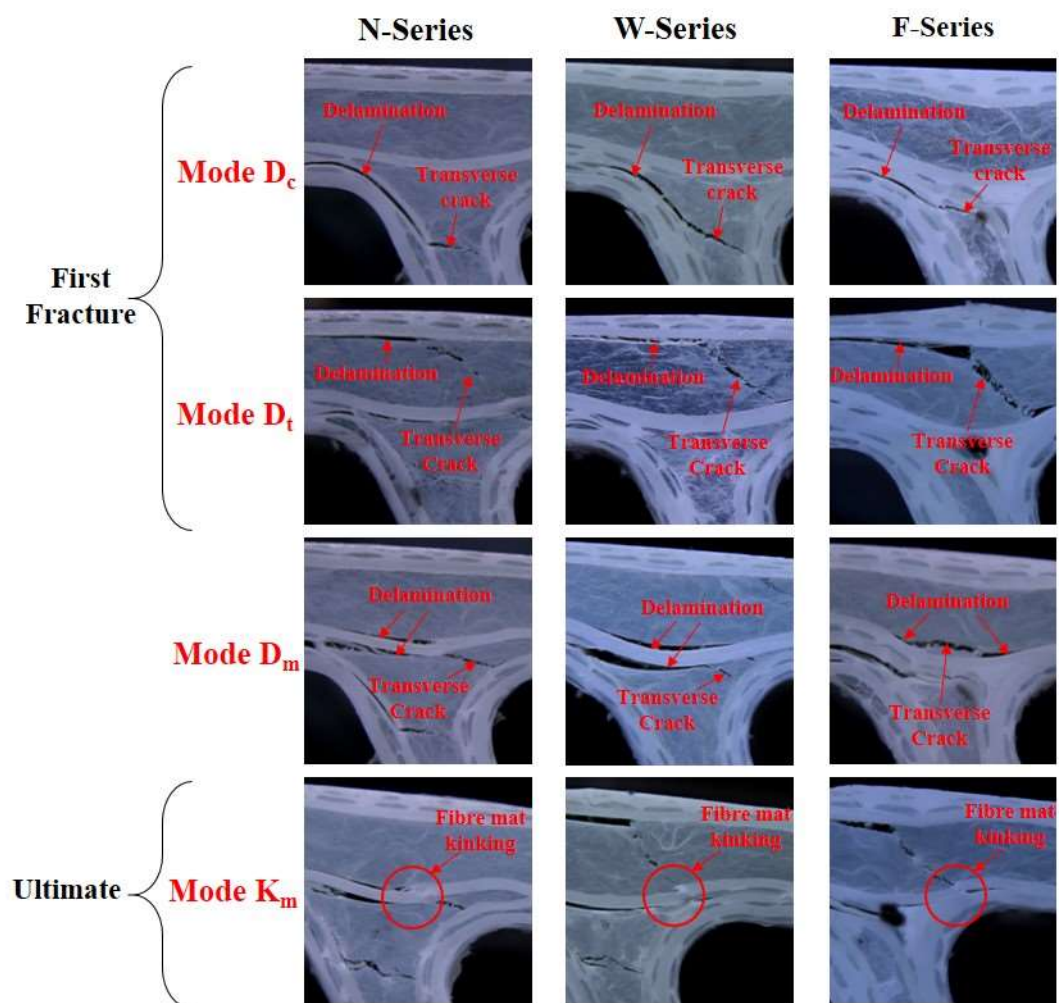


Figure 3: Classification of different damage modes observed within each junction type.

198 When loaded, the junctions exhibited initial linear behaviour up to a point of first fracture, which  
 199 occurred in either mode  $D_c$  or  $D_t$ . When loaded further, some intermediate damage modes developed that  
 200 eventually led to failure of the junction, which typically occurred in mode  $K_m$ . Figure 4 shows two examples of  
 201 this damage evolution: in test W-1-70 (Figure 4(a)), first fracture initiated in mode  $D_t$ , which was followed by  
 202 intermediate modes  $D_c$  and  $D_m$ , and finally the ultimate state was reached in mode  $K_m$ . In a different test (F-1-  
 203 90, Figure 4(b)), only two modes developed: mode  $D_t$  at first fracture and mode  $K_m$  at ultimate. Across all tests,  
 204 the sequence of damage modes was highly inconsistent and sensitive to both the lever arm of the loading and the  
 205 misalignment profile within the junction.

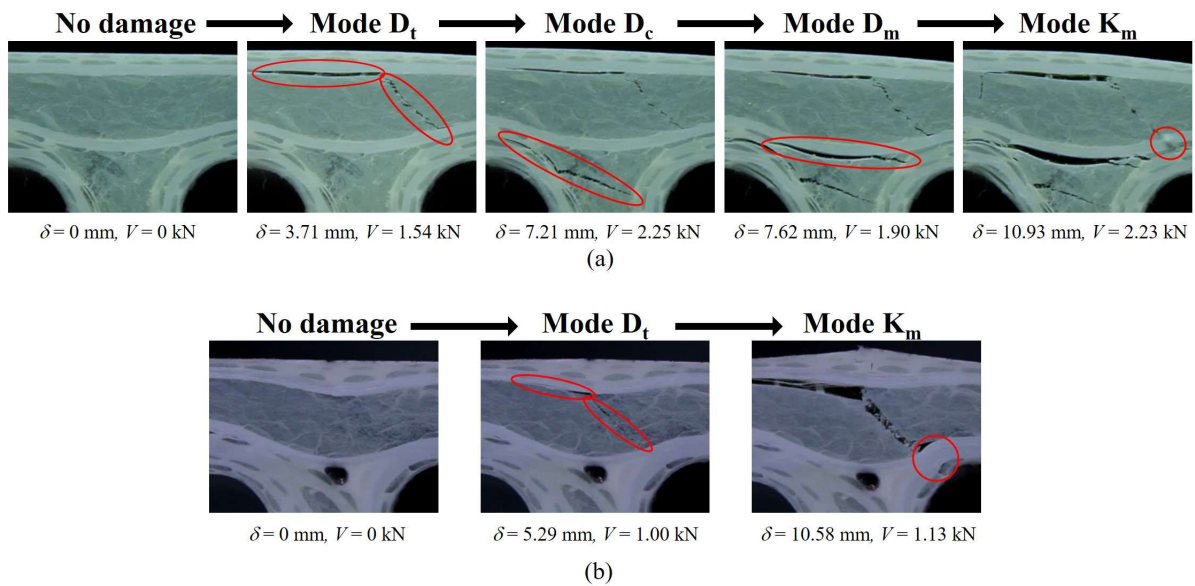


Figure 4: Examples of damage evolution in junctions under load: (a) test W-1-70 and (b) test F-1-90.

206 Given that, by varying the distance between the applied load and the cantilever root, the junctions were  
 207 subject to various combinations of moment and shear, it is natural to define moment-shear failure envelopes for  
 208 each junction type. To that end, Figure 5(a) and (b) show scatter plots of, respectively, the first fracture moment  
 209 ( $M_f$ ) and ultimate moment ( $M_u$ ) as a function of shear ( $V_f, V_u$ ). The  $M$ - $V$  envelopes were estimated by plotting  
 210 2<sup>nd</sup> order polynomial best-fit curves, which gave the lowest  $R^2$  values compared to other functions. For  
 211 comparison, Figure 5(c) shows only the best-fit curves for both first fracture and ultimate.

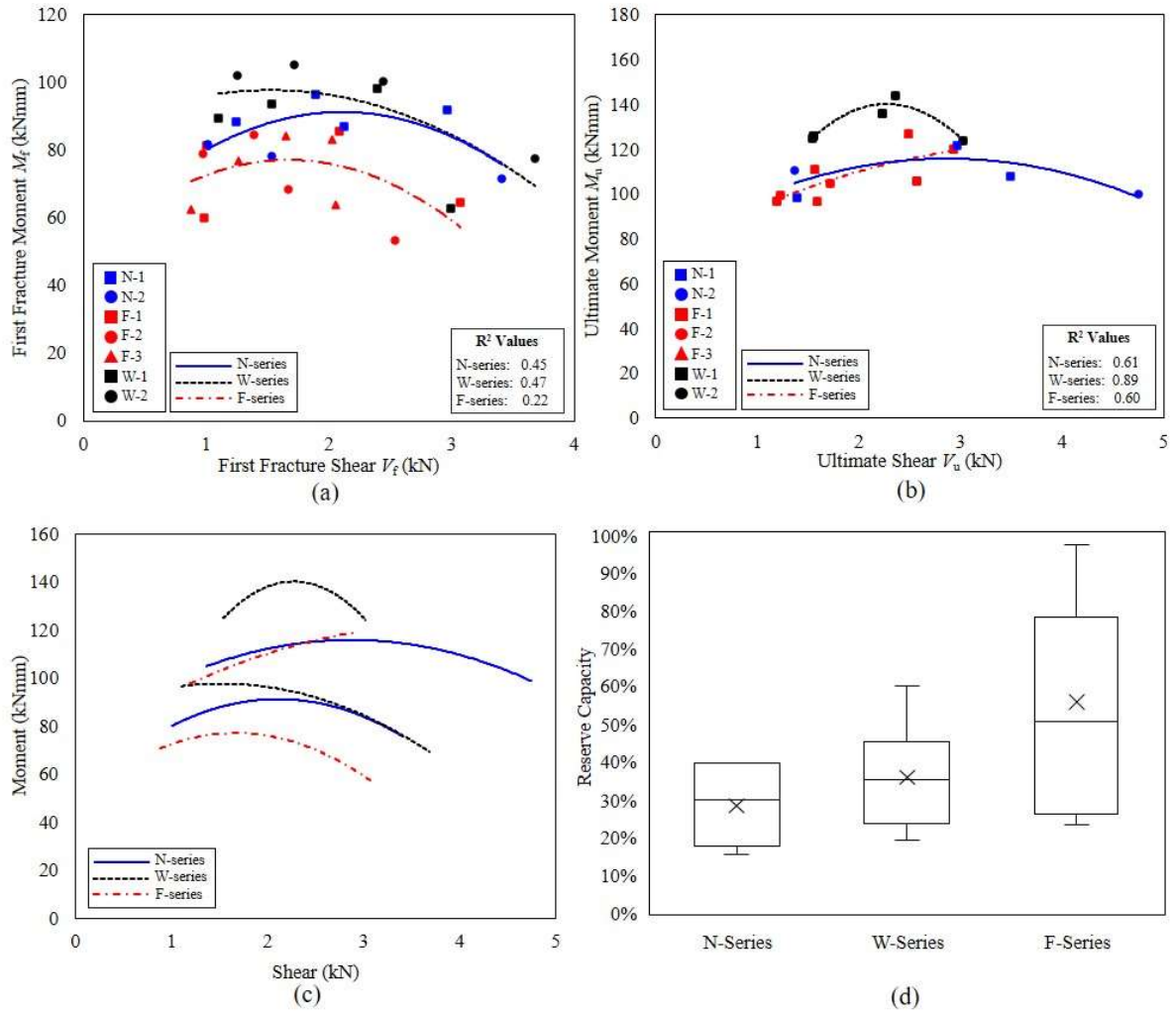


Figure 5: Moment-shear envelopes for (a) first fracture and (b) ultimate; (c) best-fit curves for both first fracture and ultimate and (d) reserve capacities for all junction types.

212 The  $M$ - $V$  failure envelopes show several key trends:

- 213
- 214 • There is significant scatter in the moment/shear at first fracture (Figure 5(a)), although the points for each junction type are distributed primarily along the *horizontal* axis, which suggests that the first fracture was governed mostly by the applied moment. The scatter along the *vertical* axis is partially accounted for by clear differences in  $M_f$  between the junction types: compared to the W-series,  $M_f$  was on average 7% and 20% lower for the N- and F-series, respectively.
  - 217 • Even within each junction type, there is still significant scatter in  $M_f$ , as evidenced by the low  $R^2$  values shown in the bottom right corner of Figure 5(a). The N- and W- series both have  $R^2$  values close to 0.5 and, upon closer inspection, it is seen that this scatter was primarily due to differences between the junction subgroups. For example, on average  $M_f$  was 11% lower for
- 218
- 219
- 220
- 221
- 222

223 W-1 (black squares) compared to W-2 (black circles), and 15% lower for N-2 (blue circles)  
224 compared to N-1 (blue squares). For the F-series, however, the points for F-1, F-2 and F-3 lie  
225 on both sides of the best-fit curve, and result in an  $R^2$  value half that of the other junction  
226 types.

- 227 • The ‘n’-shape of the envelopes in Figure 5(a) suggests that the maximum  $M_f$  was achieved  
228 only when there was a coexistent shear applied to the junction. For all junction types, the  
229 maximum moment was achieved at shear forces of between 1.5-2 kN, which equates to 19-25  
230 kN/m width. This trend suggests that a small amount of shear *increased* the moment required  
231 to initiate first fracture up to a point, beyond which further increases in shear were  
232 detrimental.
- 233 • For ultimate (Figure 5(b)), the points are also distributed primarily along the horizontal axis,  
234 although the average  $M_u$  was approximately equal for the N- and F-series (both 19% lower  
235 than the W-series). This difference was due to the F-series having almost double the reserve  
236 capacity (the remaining load as a percentage of the first fracture load) of the N-series, as  
237 shown in Figure 5(d). Note also that the *range* of reserve capacities for the F-series was also  
238 double that of the other junction types.
- 239 • Within each junction type, the  $R^2$  values for ultimate were all higher than for first fracture,  
240 although this was probably due to there being fewer data points, as many tests at high shear  
241 reached their ultimate state not within the junction, but rather in one of the adjoining flanges.  
242 This type of failure is explored in more detail in Section 5.1.
- 243 • The envelopes for ultimate (Figure 5(b)) are relatively flat, which suggests that the ultimate  
244 state was less sensitive to changes in shear. There was, however, a small drop-off in  $M_u$  with  
245 decreasing shear, similar to that observed for first fracture.

246 The inconsistency in failure behaviour is demonstrated further in Figure 6, which shows the load-  
247 displacement plots for all tests at (a) 90 mm, (b) 70 mm, (c) 50 mm and (d) 30 mm lever arm distances. These  
248 plots show the detrimental effect of damage on the load-carrying capacity of the junctions, which manifested as  
249 a sequence of load drops and concurrent reductions in tangent stiffness. Variability exists not only in the damage  
250 *loads* (exemplified by the scatter in moment-shear envelopes), but also in the damage *severity*, as indicated by  
251 the magnitude of load drops and tangent stiffness reductions up to failure. The load-displacement plots also  
252 point to further inconsistency of the initial stiffness, which one would expect to be identical for all tests at the

253 same lever arm distance. However, at 90 mm (Figure 6(a)) the initial stiffness was clearly greater for the N-  
254 series than for the F-series.

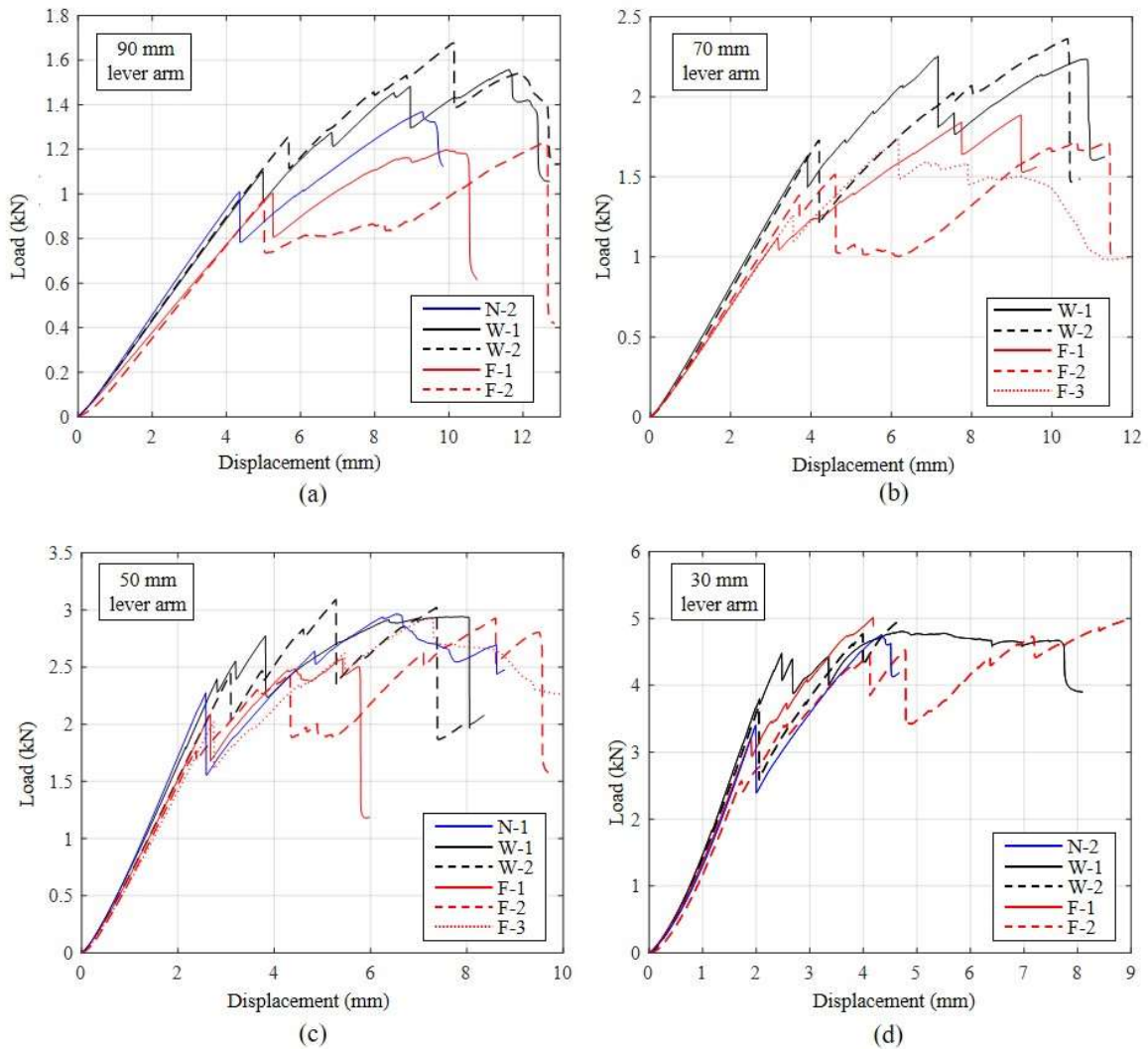


Figure 6: Load-displacement curves for all tests at (a) 90 mm, (b) 70 mm, (c) 50 mm and (d) 30 mm.

255 In summary, there was significant scatter in moment/shear at both first fracture and ultimate of  
256 nominally identical junctions. That some – but not all – of this scatter was accounted for by separating out the  
257 different junction types (N-, W- and F- series), suggests a strong influence of mat misalignment profile on  
258 failure. Hence, a more detailed characterisation of both the degree of misalignment and the damage severity is  
259 needed to fully understand this influence.

## 4. Influence of misalignment profile on ultimate behaviour

The previous section showed that damage in the junctions manifested in four distinct modes (shown in Figure 3). An important observation is that each mode can be linked to one of the three different categories of misalignment present within the junction. Damage modes  $D_c$ ,  $D_t$  and  $D_m/K_m$  were influenced by, respectively, the flip, near-surface wrinkle and waviness. This means that, for example, the effect of near-surface wrinkles on the first fracture loads can be assessed by looking *only* at first fractures that occurred in mode  $D_t$ . Likewise, looking only at measures of damage severity for mode  $D_t$  can give additional insight into the effect of near-surface wrinkles on the junctions' load-carrying capacity. To that end, the following section presents the strategy for digitally evaluating the degree of misalignment within the junctions. Following this, a set of damage indices are defined based on the load-displacement and AE energy data for each test. These indices are then used to evaluate, in turn, the damage-inducing effects of the flip, near-surface wrinkle and waviness. The discussion at the end of the section then links the results of this analysis back to the trends in the moment-shear failure envelopes described in the previous section.

### 4.1 Characterisation of misalignments

The strategy for quantifying the fibre mat misalignments within each junction is described in [7]. Each junction was evaluated with respect to three independent misalignment categories:

1. Flip: as shown in Figure 7(a), for the F-series junctions, the end of the triaxial mat layer was flipped from the AAS to the OAS of the junction.
2. Waviness: as shown in Figure 7(b), the biaxial mat layer passing through the middle of the junction exhibited gradual undulations due to the non-uniform distribution of rovings either side of the layer. The severity of waviness was evaluated using the length ( $L_w$ ), height ( $H_w$ ) and steepest tangent angle ( $\theta_{max,w}$ ).
3. Near-surface wrinkles: as shown in Figure 7(c), the top biaxial mat layer exhibited a wrinkle near the centreline of the junction, which took the shape of a Gaussian curve. The severity of near-surface wrinkles was evaluated using the amplitude ( $A_w$ ), along with the horizontal distance between the peak and the point of maximum tangent angle ( $c$ ) of the Gaussian curve fit for the wrinkle.

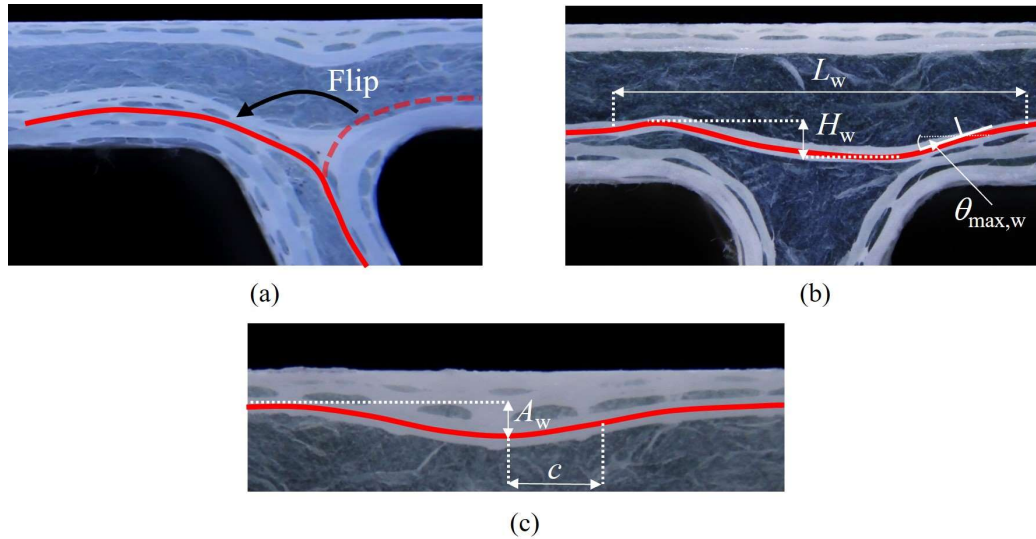


Figure 8: Characterisation of fibre mat misalignments: (a) flip, (b) waviness and (c) near-surface wrinkle.

Figure 8(a) shows a box plot of the near-surface wrinkle amplitude for each junction subgroup. On average the N-series and W-series junctions had small amplitudes of 0.28 mm and 0.34 mm, respectively, without any significant change between the specimen subgroups. Conversely, the F-series had a much greater average amplitude of 1.2 mm and there were distinct differences between the subgroups: F-2 had a 72% and 35% greater average amplitude than F-3 and F-1, respectively. This indicates that the F-1, F-2 and F-3 subgroups were produced in different pultrusion batches, all of which contained a flip, which justifies the decision made earlier to separately present data from different junction subgroups. The average wrinkle lengths for each sub-group (Figure 8(b)) did not show any significant trends between the junction types.

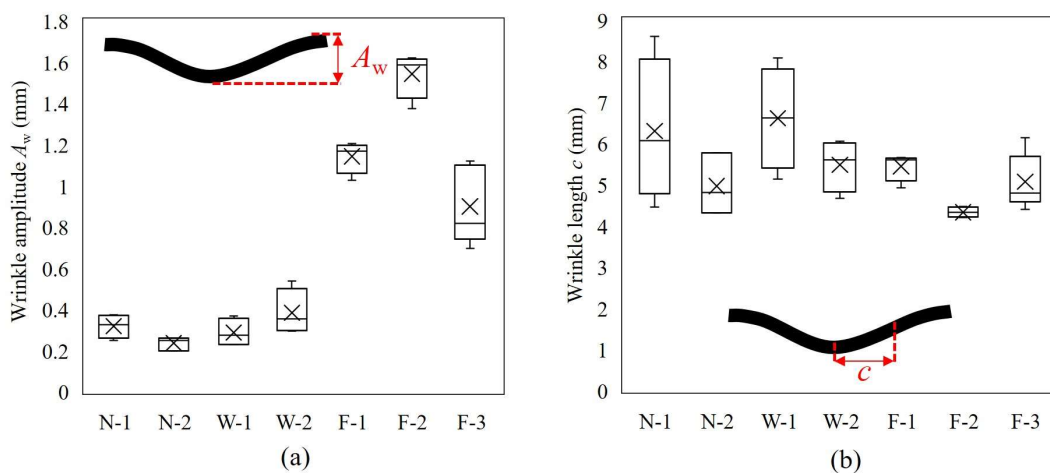


Figure 7: (a) Wrinkle amplitude and (b) wrinkle length for each specimen group.

For the horizontal biaxial mat layer passing through the junction, the average waviness height (Figure 9(a)) and steepest tangent angle (Figure 9(b)) were smallest for the N-series, with the W-series having a 36% and 32% increase in the waviness height and angle, respectively, compared to the N-series. Note that the significant waviness of the biaxial mat in the F-series specimens would have been primarily due to the flipped layer. Thus, the average waviness height and angle were 113% and 71% greater than the N-series, respectively. The waviness length (Figure 9(c)) showed no significant trends between the junction subgroups.

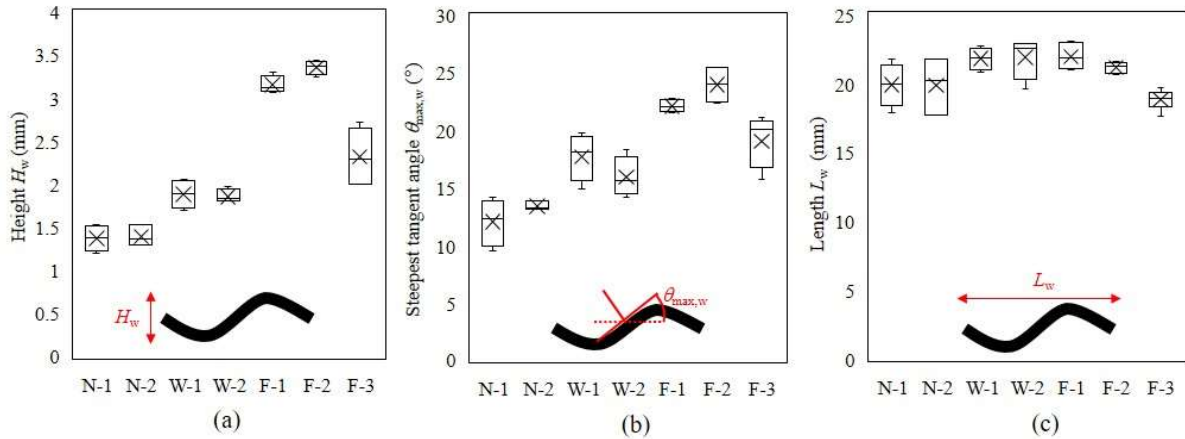


Figure 9 : (a) Waviness height, (b) steepest tangent angle and (c) length for each junction sub-group.

#### 4.2 Definition of damage indices

The severity of damage produced within the junctions under load was characterised using three independent sources of data: load-displacement, AE energy and video. As an example, Figure 10(a) shows both load and AE energy separately plotted as a function of displacement for test W-2-50. Four damage modes developed during the W-2-50 test, which occurred in the sequence: mode  $D_t$ , mode  $D_c$  and then simultaneously modes  $D_c$  and  $K_m$ . The points at which each mode initiated are labelled in Figure 10(a), and the corresponding images are shown in Figure 10(b). The behaviour can be split into three key stages:

1. Initial linear behaviour with neither visible cracking nor significant AE emissions.
2. Sudden first fracture in mode  $D_t$  that produced a significant load drop, reduction in tangent stiffness and a single high-energy AE event (over  $10^8$  aJ). This was immediately followed by a dense cluster of smaller-energy AE hits, smaller load drops and a gradual reduction in tangent stiffness due to crack propagation. Then, intermediate damage developed in mode  $D_c$  that produced a load drop and high-energy AE event similar to those at first fracture.



3. Ultimate failure achieved simultaneously in modes  $D_m/K_m$ , which produced the largest load drop and AE energy event up to that point, after which the test was terminated.

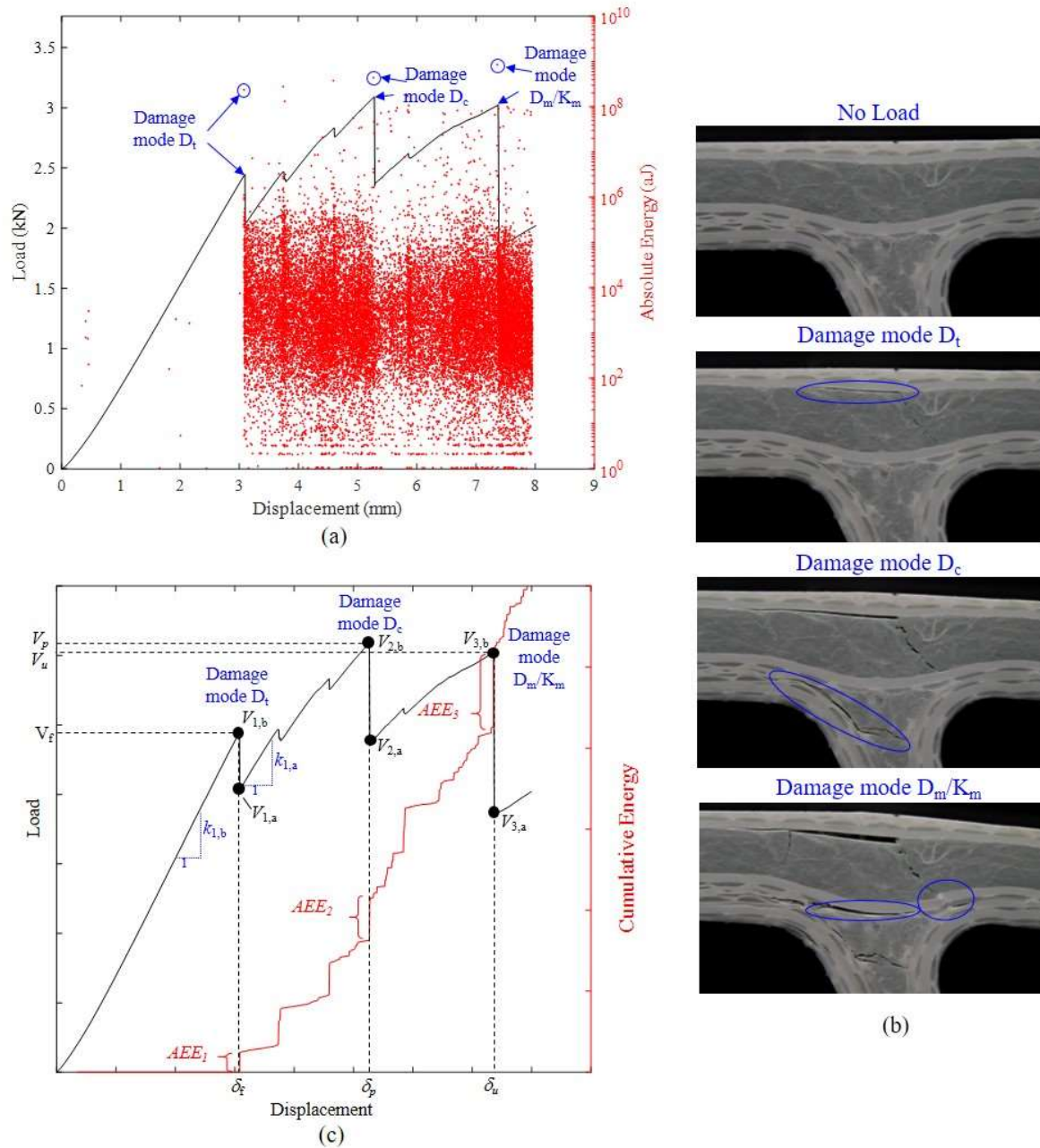


Figure 10 : Example data from test W-2-50: (a) load and AE energy vs displacement plots, (b) images of damage modes and (c) load-displacement and cumulative AE energy plots.

The load-displacement plot for this test is reproduced in Figure 10(c), but now with the AE energy more suitably presented as a *cumulative* curve. Labelled on the y-axis of this plot are the first fracture load  $V_f$  and ultimate load  $V_u$ , and on the x-axis are the corresponding displacements  $\delta_f$  and  $\delta_u$ . Using these plots, the first fracture is now precisely defined as the point at which AE emissions above  $10^8$  aJ were detected. Ultimate is

defined as the load which precipitated a load drop of at least 40%; this load drop sufficiently characterised ultimate behaviour as observed from the load-displacement plots. In the example in Figure 10(c), the peak load ( $V_p, \delta_p$ ) occurred slightly *before*, and so is distinguished from, the ultimate load  $V_u$ , whereas in other tests these two loads were the same (i.e. the peak load occurred at ultimate).

From the plots in Figure 10(c), three damage indices were calculated at each damage mode initiation event  $n$  (where  $n = 1, 2, 3 \dots$ ). These were as follows:

1. Percentage load drop  $PLD_n$ , calculated as:

$$PLD_n = \frac{V_{n,b} - V_{n,a}}{V_{n,b}} \times 100 \quad (1)$$

where  $V_{n,b}$  and  $V_{n,a}$  are the loads immediately before and after event  $n$ , respectively, as shown on Figure 10(c).

2. Percentage stiffness drop  $PSD_n$ , calculated as:

$$PSD_n = \frac{k_{n,b} - k_{n,a}}{k_{n,b}} \times 100 \quad (2)$$

where  $k_{n,b}$  and  $k_{n,a}$  are the *tangent* stiffnesses immediately before and after event  $n$ , respectively, as shown for mode D<sub>t</sub> in Figure 10(c).

3. Acoustic emission energy burst  $AEEn$  (in aJ) at event  $n$ , as shown in Figure 10(c).

These indices were systematically computed for every damage initiation event for all tests. In what follows, the damage indices are used in conjunction with the moments at either first fracture  $M_f$  or ultimate  $M_u$  to analyse the influence of, alternately, the flip, near-surface wrinkle, and waviness on junction failure.

### 4.3 Influence of flipped layer on damage mode D<sub>c</sub>

The flipped mat layer in the F-series junctions was adjacent to, and so would have influenced, the mode D<sub>c</sub> damage within the OAS of the junction. Hence, Figure 11 shows box plots of (a) the first fracture moments  $M_f$ , (b)  $PLD_n$  and  $PSD_n$  values and (c)  $AEEn$  values, all for mode D<sub>c</sub> damage in both flipped and non-flipped junctions.

On average, the flip resulted in a 19% reduction in  $M_f$ . There was, however, still significant scatter in  $M_f$  for junctions both with and without a flip, which was likely due to variability in the bond *capacity* of the interface along which the mode A delamination occurred. The flip also resulted in a 61% increase in AE energy, but produced a 61% lower average  $PLD_n$  and a 26% lower  $PSD_n$  than junctions without a flip. This suggests that

while the flip caused damage to initiate at a lower moment, the resulting damage was less detrimental to the load-carrying capacity of the junction.

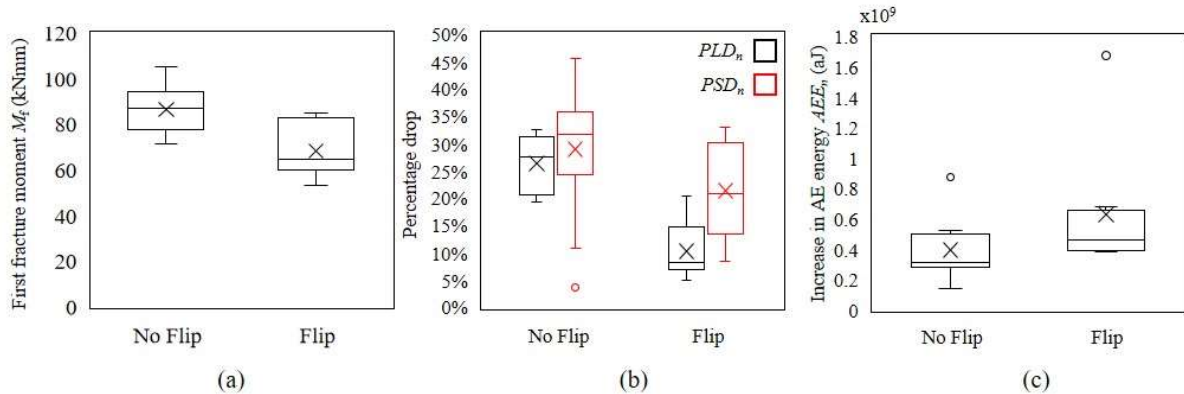


Figure 11: (a) First fracture moment  $M_f$  vs lever arm distance, (b) percentage load and stiffness drop and (c) increase in AE energy. All plots are for damage mode  $D_c$  only and compare both flipped and non-flipped junctions.

#### 4.4 Influence of near-surface wrinkle on damage mode $D_t$

Damage mode  $D_t$  consisted of a delamination between the top  $90^\circ$  fibre and roving layers, and so would have been influenced by wrinkling this layer at the centre of the junction. This section evaluates how the wrinkle amplitude  $A_w$  influenced the initiation and severity of damage mode  $D_t$ .

First, Figure 12(a) shows the first fracture moment  $M_f$  of damage mode  $D_t$  as a function of wrinkle amplitude, with the data grouped by lever arm distance. Three additional points are plotted (in red) where mode  $D_t$  damage initiated second (all at 50 mm lever arm distance). In all cases,  $M_f$  shows a decreasing trend with increased wrinkle amplitude. Furthermore, the gradients of the linear best-fit lines are all comparable (average of  $-18.4$  kNmm/mm). Extrapolating the linear best-fit line for the 90 mm tests backward to  $A_w = 0$  shows that a wrinkle amplitude of 1.6 mm (the largest measured value) reduced  $M_f$  by 21% compared to no wrinkling.

Second, Figure 12(b), (c) and (d) show, respectively, the  $PLD_n$ ,  $PSD_n$ , and  $AEE_n$  values for damage mode  $D_t$  as a function of wrinkle amplitude. The  $PLD_n$  values (Figure 12(b)) indicate that, above a threshold value of  $A_w = 1$  mm, there was a strong positive correlation between  $PLD_n$  and  $A_w$  (as shown by the linear best-fit line with  $R^2 = 0.82$ ). Similar trends are seen for both the  $PSD_n$  and the  $AEE_n$ , where the averages for  $A_w > 1$  mm are, respectively,  $3.0\times$  and  $3.4\times$  higher than for  $A_w < 1$  mm. Hence, mode  $D_t$  damage was consistently more severe for greater wrinkle amplitudes.

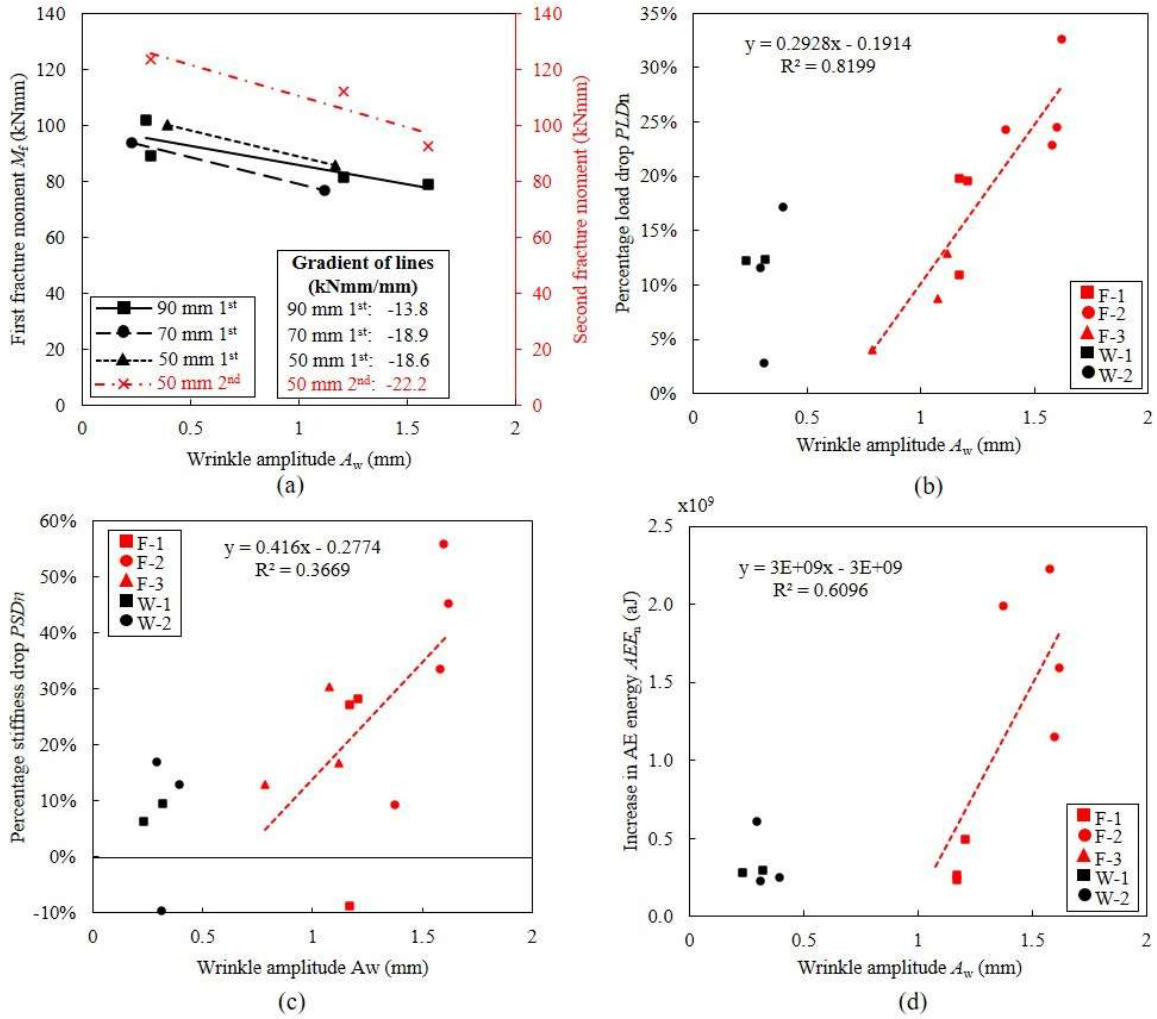


Figure 12: (a) First fracture moment  $M_f$ , (b)  $PLD_n$ , (c)  $PSD_n$  and (d)  $AEE_n$  vs wrinkle amplitude  $A_w$ . All plots are for damage mode  $D_t$  only.

An additional observation of damage mode  $D_t$  was a phenomenon called ‘wrinkle-straightening’. For large wrinkle amplitudes ( $A_w > 1$  mm), the tensile stresses in the wrinkled mat caused it to straighten out under load, as shown in Figure 13(a). Further insight into the wrinkle-straightening phenomenon is gained by examining the load-displacement and cumulative AE energy plots for tests with the largest wrinkle amplitudes.

To that end, Figure 13(b)-(e) show the load-displacement and cumulative AE curves for four tests: (a) and (b) are for junctions F-2-50 and F-2-90 (average  $A_w = 1.5$  mm), respectively, (c) and (d) are for junctions F-1-50 and F-1-90 (average  $A_w = 1.1$  mm), respectively. For all plots the wrinkle-straightening zone is shaded in grey. During wrinkle-straightening the load remained almost constant (i.e. the junction displayed near-zero rotational stiffness) and there was a step-change in the cumulative energy curves due to significant AE energy emissions. This burst in AE energy occurred within a finite displacement range during damage mode  $D_t$  and the increase was constant for tests at the same lever arm distance.

Figure 13 also shows that the wrinkle-straightening zone in the F-2 junctions (average  $A_w = 1.5$  mm) occurred *immediately* after the delamination initiated by damage mode  $D_i$ , whereas in the F-1 junctions (average  $A_w = 1.1$  mm) the wrinkle-straightening zone occurred near the end of the damage mode  $D_i$  phase. Furthermore, the total AE energy emitted during the wrinkle-straightening zone of F-2 junctions was nearly double that for F-1 junctions ( $1 \times 10^{10}$  aJ compared to  $0.5 \times 10^{10}$  aJ). This suggests that an increase in wrinkle amplitude caused the wrinkle-straightening mode to occur earlier and emit more AE energy. This is especially problematic given that, as shown in Figure 13(a), wrinkle-straightening causes multiple cracks to propagate to the surface of the GFRP deck, which can act as paths for water ingress and further long-term degradation of the junction.

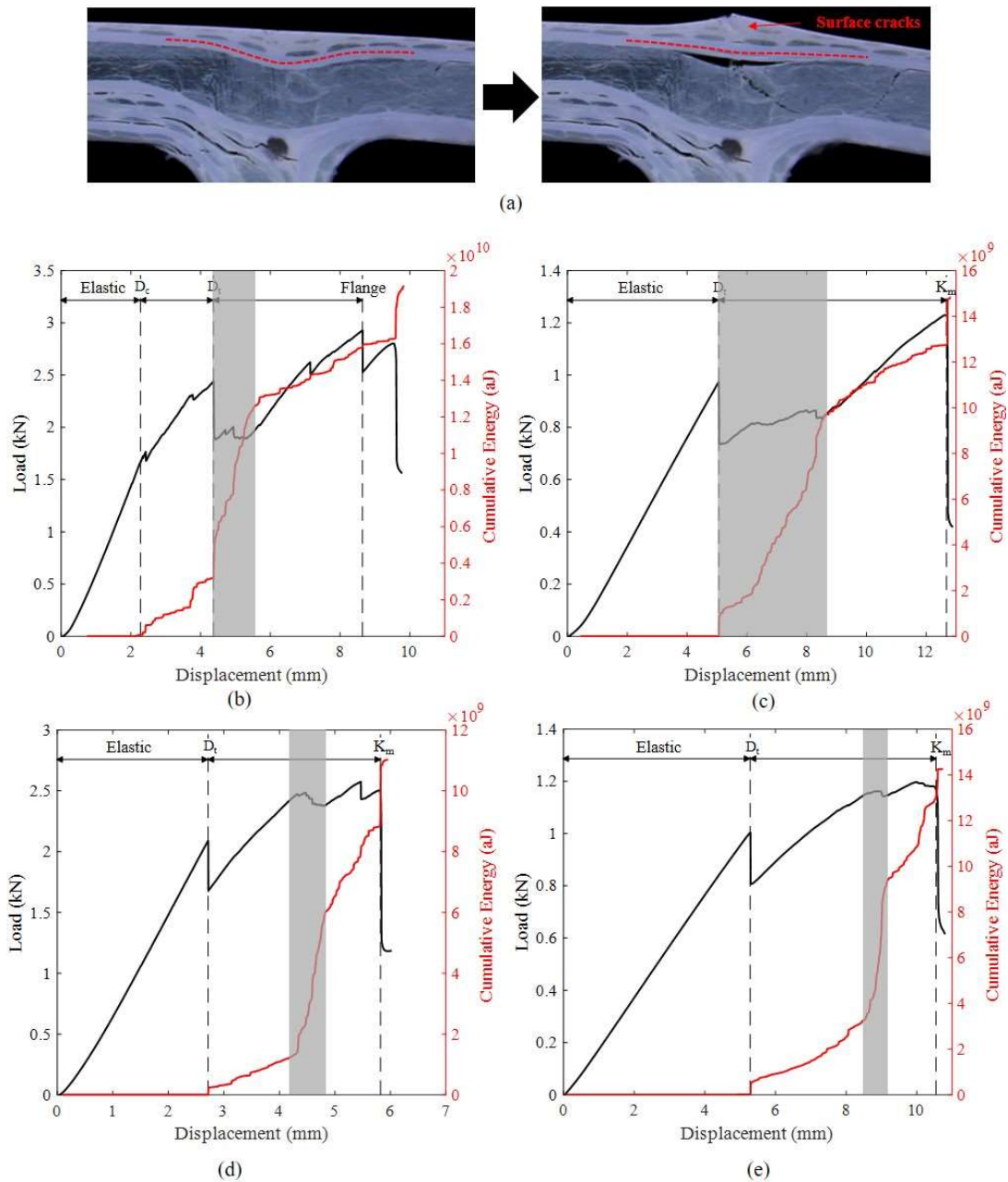


Figure 13: (a) Wrinkle-straightening during damage mode  $D_i$  for test F-2-30. Load-displacement and cumulative AE energy plots for (a) F-2-50 and (b) F-2-90 ( $A_w = 1.5$ mm), and for (c) F-1-50 and (d) F-1-90 ( $A_w = 1.1$  mm). Wrinkle-straightening zone is shaded in grey.

#### 4.5 Influence of waviness on damage modes $D_m$ and $K_m$

The waviness of the biaxial mat layer that passed horizontally through the middle of the junction can be linked to two damage modes: mode  $D_m$  (delaminations above and below the layer) and mode  $K_m$  (kinking of the mat layer at ultimate). The analysis showed that none of the waviness parameters shown in Figure 9 (height, length or angle) had a significant correlation with the four indices for damage mode  $D_m$ . This is likely due to all mode  $D_m$  events having a  $PLD_n$  of less than 5%, which means that most mode  $D_m$  events did not significantly influence the load-carrying capacity of the junction.

There was, however, a negative correlation between the maximum waviness angle  $\theta_{max,w}$  and the ultimate moment  $M_u$  within damage mode  $K_m$ . This relation is shown in Figure 14(a), where the moments are grouped by lever arm distance and a linear best-fit line has been fitted through all points. Extrapolating the linear best-fit line back to  $\theta_{max,w} = 0^\circ$  shows that a waviness angle of  $26^\circ$  (the largest measured value) reduced  $M_u$  by 35% compared to no waviness. This value should be viewed with caution, however, given the significant

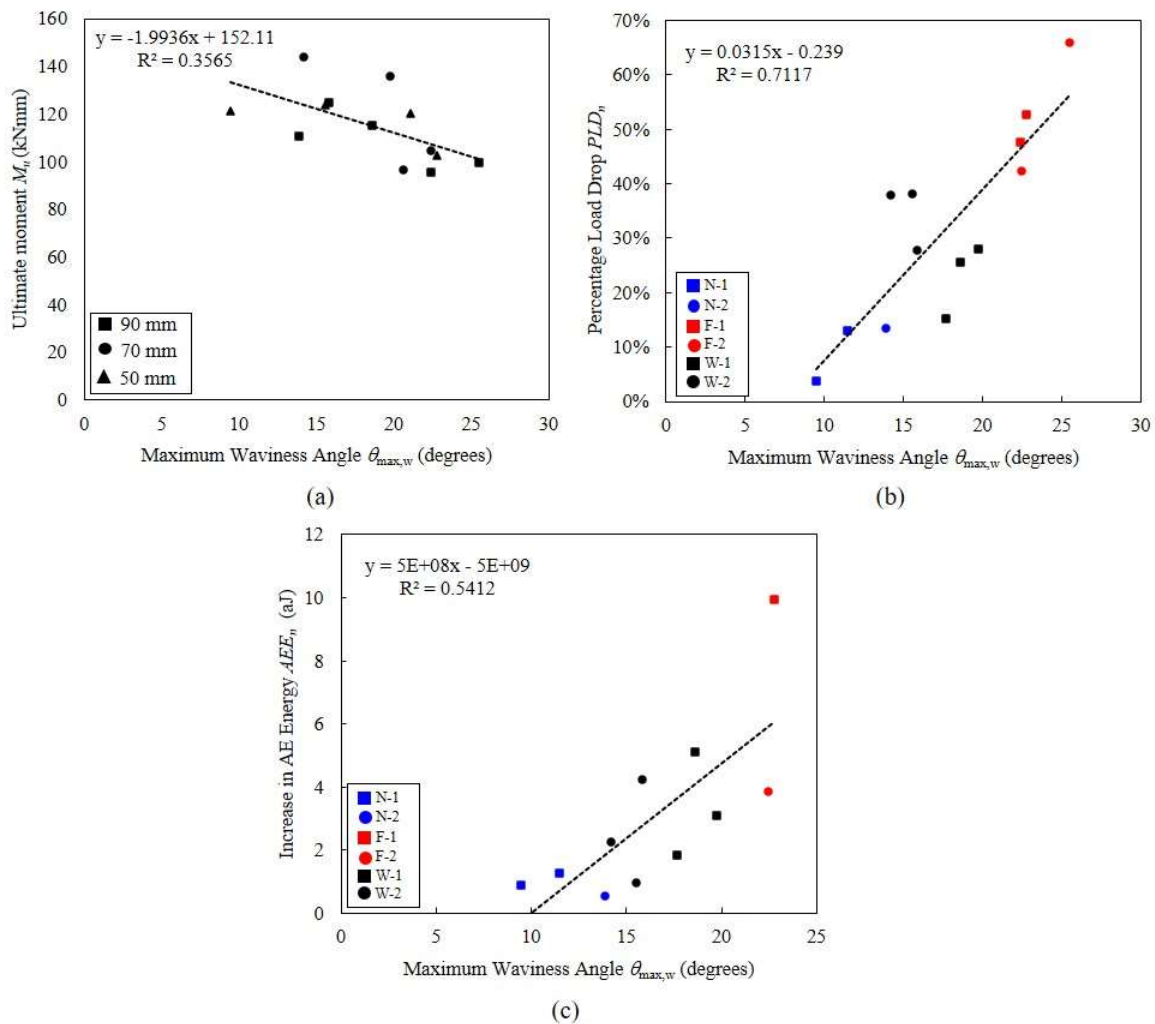


Figure 14: (a)  $PLD_n$  vs maximum waviness angle  $\theta_{max,w}$  and (b)  $AEE_n$  vs maximum waviness angle  $\theta_{max,w}$  for damage mode  $K_m$ .

scatter ( $R^2 = 0.36$ ) that is due primarily to the influence of the junctions' damage history on the ultimate moment.

The  $PLD_n$  and  $AEEn$  values for damage mode  $K_m$  are shown in Figure 14(b) and (c), respectively. There was a strong positive correlation in both cases; the  $R^2$  values from a linear best-fit line were higher for the  $PLD_n$  data (0.712) than for the  $AEEn$  data (0.541). It is important to note that the  $R^2$  values for  $M_u$ ,  $PLD_n$  and  $AEEn$  were all higher than equivalent values using either the waviness height  $H_w$  or length  $L_w$ . This indicates that the waviness *angle* accounts for more of the variance in the junctions' failure. This is to be expected, given that the kinking always initiated at the point of steepest tangent angle. In both Figure 14(b) and (c), the indices significantly increase after a threshold angle of approximately  $10^\circ$ .

#### 4.6 Linking results to moment-shear envelopes

Using the results from the systematic analysis of each misalignment and the associated damage presented above, some of the key trends in the moment-shear failure envelopes in Figure 5 can now be explained.

First, the low first fracture moments ( $M_f$ ) of the F-series were a consequence of both the flip (which reduced  $M_f$  for damage mode  $D_c$  by 19%) and the near-surface wrinkle (which reduced  $M_f$  for damage mode  $D_t$  by up to 21%). The wide range of wrinkle amplitudes (from 0.8 mm to 1.6 mm) in the F-series was likely responsible for the increased scatter in  $M_f$  compared to other junction types. Although, for junctions both with and without a flip, there was still significant scatter within damage mode  $D_c$  that cannot be a consequence of the increased stress *demand* due to mat misalignment. Instead, this is likely due to variable stress *capacities* at the interface between the fibre layers along which delamination occurred.

Second, the W-series had a slightly higher (7%) average  $M_f$  than the N-series, despite having a similar near-surface wrinkle amplitude. One explanation for this is that, as can be seen in the images in Figure 3, for the W-series the mode  $D_c$  delamination occurred between the complex mat and roving layers, whereas for the N-series the delamination occurred between the  $+45^\circ$  and  $-45^\circ$  layers within the triaxial mat. Hence, the bond strength of the complex mat/roving interface may have been greater than the  $+45^\circ/-45^\circ$  interface, leading to an increase in  $M_f$  in the W-series.

Further evidence of the high bond strength at the complex mat/roving interface of the W-series is seen in Figure 15, which shows horizontal bar charts indicating the displacement at which a specific damage mode initiated during the test. It is seen that first fracture occurred in mode  $D_c$  for only 25% of W-series junctions,

compared to 100% of N-series junctions. This again indicates that the W-series had a relatively high bond strength at the location of mode  $D_c$  damage, which, coupled with the small near-surface wrinkle amplitude, likely explains the higher  $M_f$  for the W-series junctions.

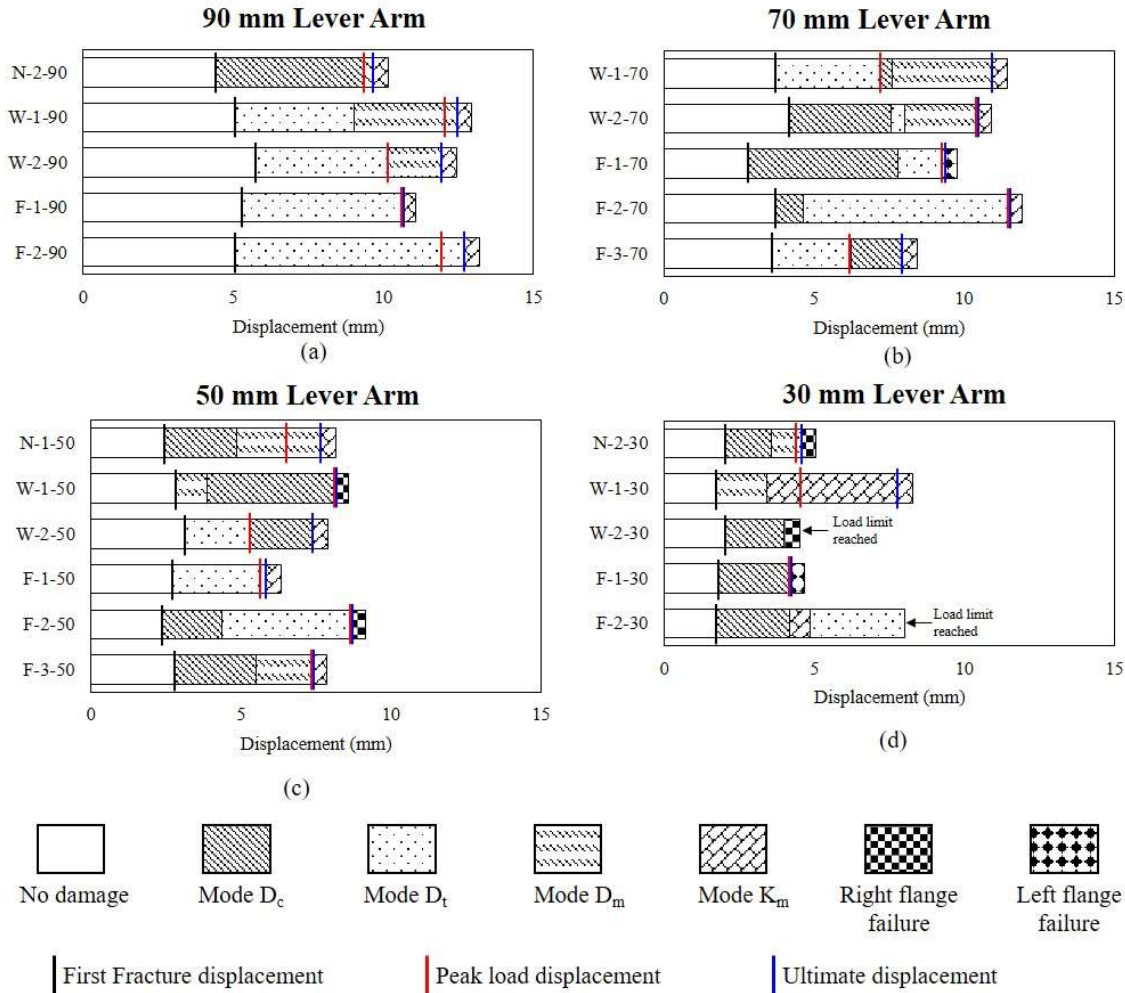


Figure 15: Evolution of damage modes for junctions tested at (a) 90 mm, (b) 70 mm, (c) 50 mm and (d) 30 mm.

Third, Figure 15 also provides insight into why the  $M_f$  initially increased and then rapidly decreased as a function of shear, resulting in the ‘n’-shaped envelopes seen in Figure 5(a). Although the damage evolution was highly inconsistent across all tests, at a 90 mm lever arm 80% of first fractures occurred in mode  $D_t$ , while at a 30 mm lever arm 80% of first fractures occurred in mode  $D_c$ . This suggests a transition from mode  $D_t$  at low shear to mode  $D_c$  at high shear, although there was no consistent point at which the mode switch occurred. Thus, it is reasonable to conclude that, for damage mode  $D_t$ , a small increase in shear force may have *reduced* the stress demand at the interface between the top fibre mat and roving layers, and hence *increased* the moment required to initiate delamination. Further increases in shear, however, switched the dominant damage mode to a delamination within the OAS of the junction (mode  $D_c$ ), which led to a subsequent reduction in  $M_f$ .



The above hypothesis appears to be contradicted by the N-series envelope, which also shows a drop-off in  $M_f$  at low shear despite the first fracture always occurring in mode D<sub>c</sub>. However, by looking at the points in Figure 5(a) for N-1 (blue squares) and N-2 (blue circles) separately, it is seen that they both lie approximately on a horizontal line with a slight negative gradient, which is consistent with the above hypothesis. The overall ‘n’-shape of the N-series envelope is due to the average  $M_f$  of N-2 being 15% lower than N-1, combined with the N-2 junctions being tested at a wider range of lever arms than N-1.

Finally, Figure 15 also indicates that for many tests ultimate failure did not occur within the junction, but rather within the adjoining flanges. This is why the ultimate moment-shear envelopes in Figure 5(b) have far fewer points than for first fracture. This mode of failure is discussed in the following section.

## 5. Other consequences of misalignment

### 5.1 Flange damage

In 26% of tests, the ultimate state did not occur within the junction, but instead was caused by a fracture within the AAS flange (19% of tests) or the OAS flange (7% of tests). Examples of both flange fractures are shown in Figure 16(a) and (b). It is seen that these fractures were the result of near-surface wrinkles in the top biaxial mat, which led to a delamination between this mat and the rovings, as well as a transverse crack through the rovings. Some specimens had flange wrinkles of amplitudes up to 2 mm, which significantly compromised the deck’s load-carrying capacity and therefore such specimens should not be used in a real structure.

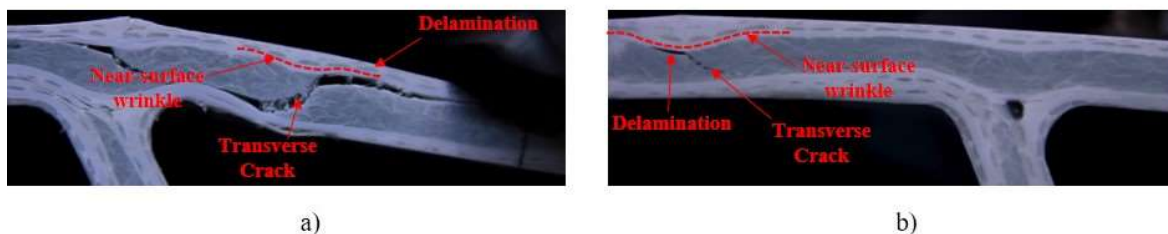


Figure 16: Examples of (a) failure within the right-hand flange of test F-2-50 and (b) failure within left-hand flange of test F-1-70. Note in both cases the right-hand flange was the cantilever.

To compare the severity of flange damage to that of the other four modes within the junction, Figure 17 shows box plots of (a) the percentage load drop  $PLD_n$ , (b) the percentage stiffness drop  $PSD_n$  and (c) the

increase in AE energy  $AEE_n$  for damage modes  $D_c$ ,  $D_t$ ,  $D_m$  and  $K_m$ , as well as for the flange damage on the junction's AAS (denoted 'flange').

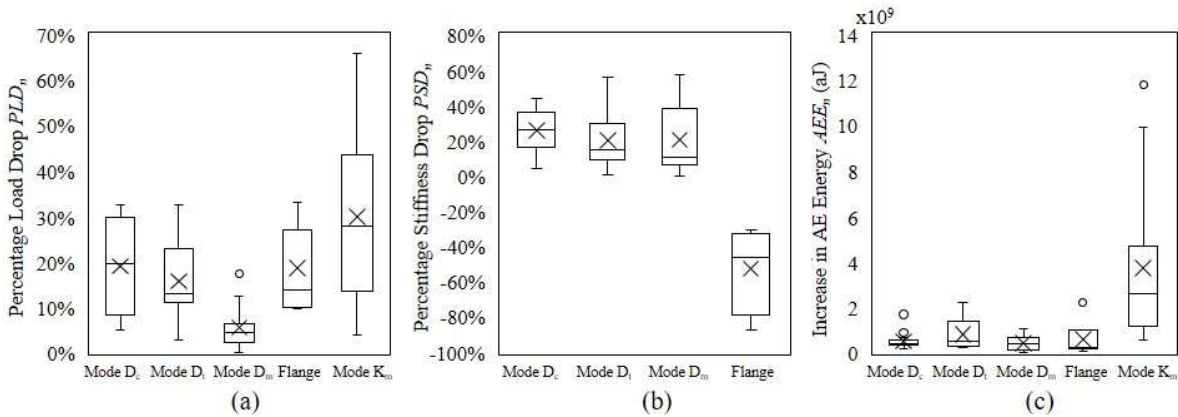


Figure 17: Comparison of (a) percentage load drop, (b) percentage stiffness drop and (c) AE energy burst for each failure mode within the junctions and also for flange failure.

Figure 17(a) shows that the average  $PLD_n$  for flange damage was comparable to modes  $D_c$  and  $D_t$ .

Figure 17(b) shows, however, that flange damage always produced a substantial *increase* in tangent stiffness (52% on average). As an example of this effect, Figure 18 shows the load-displacement data for test F-2-50, and Figure 18(b) provides a magnified view of the region at which flange damage occurred. It is seen that, prior to flange damage, the tangent stiffness gradually decreased from (1) to (2), at which point flange damage precipitated a 14% drop in load to (3). The new tangent stiffness immediately after (3) was comparable to that at (1), where the points (1) and (3) are at the same load. This suggests that flange damage caused a redistribution of stresses that changed the load-resisting mechanism of the cantilever in a way that increased the tangent stiffness.

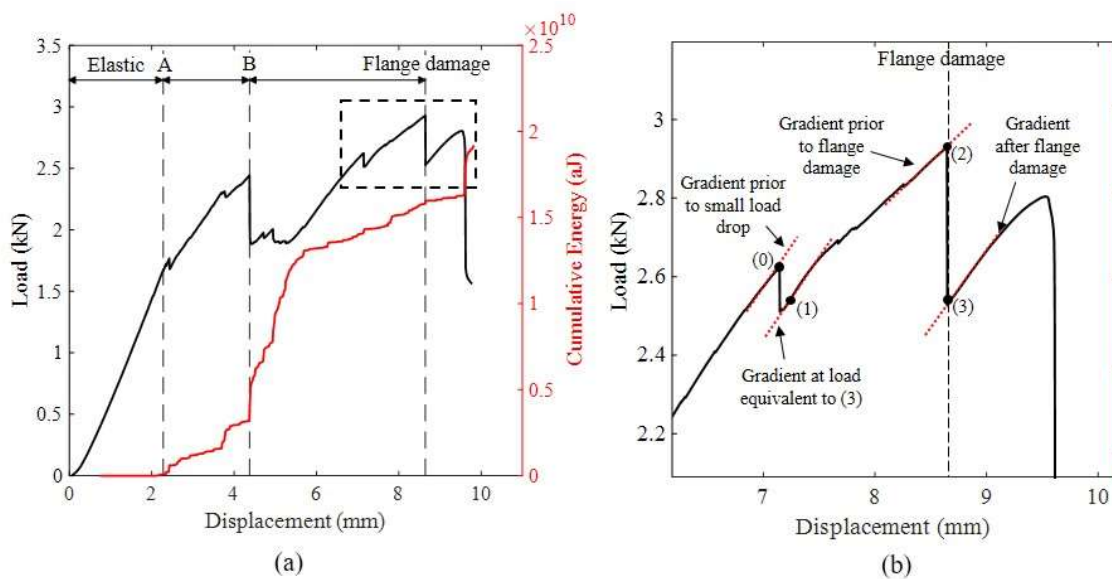


Figure 18: (a) Load-displacement and cumulative AE plots for test F-2-50, (b) magnified plot at location of flange damage.

In addition to some damage events causing an increase in stiffness, Figure 18(b) also shows that a small – but still significant – load drop at (0) caused no reduction in tangent stiffness. Indeed, the data for  $PSD_n$  shown previously in Figure 17(b) indicates that many damage events caused no reduction in tangent stiffness. This suggests that the change in tangent stiffness is not a reliable measure of damage.

## 5.2 Variation of initial stiffness

Figure 19 plots the initial stiffness of all junctions before the first fracture event ( $k_{l,b}$ ) as a function of lever arm distance. The initial stiffness was calculated from the gradient of the load-displacement curve from approximately 50% of the first fracture load up to just before the first load drop. This was to avoid the small ‘bedding-in’ effect observed for some specimens. Figure 19 shows some scatter in the initial stiffnesses from tests conducted at the same lever arm distance, which increases from 90 mm to 30 mm. This is to be expected, given the smaller displacements at shorter lever arm distances, which increases the percentage error in the measurements.

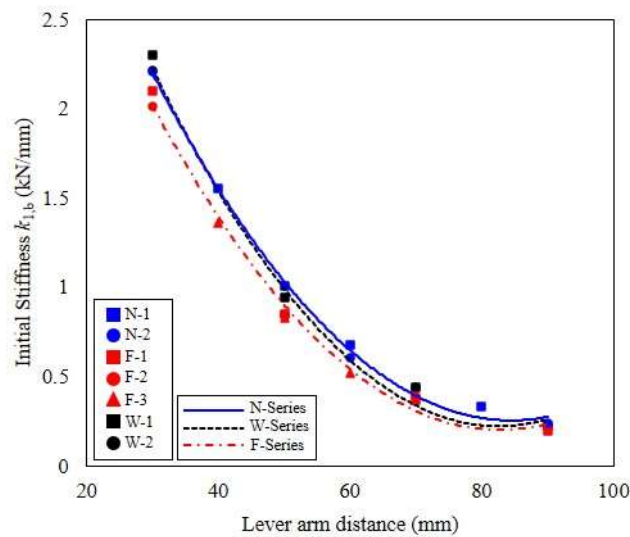


Figure 19 : Initial stiffness vs lever arm distance for all tests.

At 90 mm, where there is minimal scatter, the initial stiffnesses of the W-series and F-series junctions were 7.1% and 17.8% lower than the N-series junctions, respectively. These changes in stiffness are mostly explained by the variation in cantilever thicknesses  $t_c$ , which were 8.60 mm, 8.31 mm and 8.02 mm for the N-, W- and F- series, respectively. Recall that these changes in thickness were a result of differential displacement of the internal mandrels during pultrusion, which, in turn, were caused by asymmetrical pressures acting on the mandrel due to the fibre mat misalignments [7]. For example, for the junctions containing a flip (F-series), the average flange thickness on the AAS was 8.02 mm and on the OAS was 9.15 mm. This difference is directly attributable to the triaxial mat layer being flipped from the AAS to the OAS of the junction.

A simplified beam-theory model of the cantilever, which assumes that the junctions provide fully-fixed support conditions and that the GFRP material is homogeneous, predicts that the gradient of the load-displacement curve is proportional to the second moment of area of the cantilever, which, in turn, is proportional to the cube of the flange thickness. This model predicts a 9.8% and 18.9% reduction in the initial stiffnesses of the W- and F- series compared to the N-series, respectively. These reductions are comparable to the measured reductions at a 90 mm lever arm distance (7.1% and 17.8%, respectively). It should be noted, however, that the assumptions made in this calculation are overly simplistic. For example, the transverse fibres are not uniformly distributed, but rather sandwiched either side of the longitudinal fibres. Hence, flanges of different thicknesses will have the same volume of transverse fibres, but the distance between the top and bottom layers will vary. Furthermore, misalignments including those shown in Figure 16 will produce variable mechanical properties along the length of the cantilever.

## 6. Conclusions

Nominally identical junctions of a pultruded GFRP bridge deck containing different fibre mat misalignment profiles were loaded to ultimate. Repeat tests were performed while moving the load location along the adjoining flange to apply different combinations of moment and shear to the junction. The following conclusions can be drawn from this study:

- When loaded, the junctions developed four distinct damage modes, each of which was linked to a specific category of fibre mat misalignment. The initiation of each damage mode produced a pronounced load drop and corresponding high-energy AE event. Both the sequence of damage and the associated loads were sensitive to the lever arm of loading and to the misalignment profile.
- The moment-shear envelopes showed significant scatter for both first fracture and ultimate. The shape of the envelopes suggested a gradual increase and then a rapid decrease in first fracture moment as a function of shear. This trend was linked to a switch in damage mode from a delamination between the top fibre mat and roving layers at low shear, to a delamination within the obtuse angle side of the junction at high shear.
- Junctions with a flipped mat initiated damage at a 19% lower moment and with 61% more AE energy than junctions with no flip, but the resulting load and tangent stiffness drops were 61% and 26% lower, respectively.

- Wrinkling of the fibre mat at the top of the junction reduced the first fracture moment by up to 21% compared to no wrinkling. For wrinkle amplitudes greater than 1 mm, the average percentage load drop, percentage stiffness drop and AE energy emitted were, respectively, 2.0×, 3.0× and 3.4× higher than for amplitudes less than 1 mm. Also, amplitudes greater than 1 mm produced ‘wrinkle-straightening’, during which the junction exhibited near-zero rotational stiffness and emitted significant AE energy.
- Waviness of the fibre mat in the middle of the junction reduced the ultimate moment by up to 35% compared to no waviness.
- In 27% of tests, damage occurred within the flange, which often resulted in an *increase* in tangent stiffness. This suggests that by itself the change in tangent stiffness is not a reliable measure of damage.
- The variable thicknesses of the top flange on the acute angle side of the junction, which was another consequence of the misalignments, caused reductions in initial stiffness of up to 18%.

These findings can be used to inform quality standards for pultruded profiles to include limitations on the existence of certain types of misalignments, including the flip shown in Figure 7(a), or on the severity of misalignment. For example, the damage caused by near-surface wrinkles at the centre of the junction rapidly increased for amplitudes greater than 1 mm (approximately, 10% of the part thickness), likewise for maximum waviness angles of greater than 10°. These could be used as limiting values for the severity of misalignment within pultruded sections.

This paper has shown how the scatter in failure loads of nominally identical junctions can be accounted for in part by the increase in stress *demand* resulting from misalignment of the fibre mats. Further work is needed, however, to evaluate the variability of stress *capacities* that also contributes to scatter in failure loads, for which digital image correlation may be a valuable tool. Such data can help validate multi-layered FE analyses of the progressive failure of the junctions, which would enable the trajectory of individual mat layers to be altered to predict the optimum load-carrying capacity of the junctions when subjected to local tyre loading.

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