

A NEW MITIGATION SCHEME TO RESIST PROGRESSIVE

COLLAPSE OF RC STRUCTURES

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ABSTRACT

Reinforced concrete structures may be vulnerable to progressive collapse due to lack of sufficient continuous reinforcement. In most guidelines, general structural integrity requirements to reduce progressive collapse have been introduced, but the design of structures against progressive collapse has not been a major consideration. A mitigation scheme is proposed to increase resistance against progressive collapse. This involves the provision of additional reinforcement bars in the mid-layer of reinforced concrete beams. In the research reported here, four specimens were designed and tested subject to quasi-static loading conditions for a column removal scenario. One test specimen was made with conventional steel reinforcement and three specimens were made with additional steel reinforcement at the mid depth of the beam. The quasi-static behaviour of the test specimens were converted to a dynamic representation using an energy balance approach to obtain the progressive collapse load. Test results show that the proposed scheme significantly improves the ductility and collapse load of concrete beams subject to a column removal scenario.

INTRODUCTION

Progressive collapse is a situation where local failure is followed by collapse of adjoining members, which in turn causes global collapse and can eventually result in great loss of life and injury. Design of structures against progressive collapse has not been an integral part of structural design[1]. However, General Service Administration [2] and Unified Facilities Criteria Department of Defence [3] have suggested detailed requirements to reduce the

26 likelihood of progressive collapse by altering the load path. Structural resistance against
27 progressive collapse can be improved by increasing redundancy and continuity of the structure,
28 and ductility of structural members. Redundancy will allow the structure to redistribute the
29 load from the lost structural member to an alternative load path through the remaining structural
30 members. This can only be achieved through continuity of the structure and the provision of
31 adequate ductility. To achieve continuity in structural components, tie forces are required to tie
32 the elements together so that they act as one unit. In general code provisions, structural integrity
33 reinforcement is detailed to improve redundancy and ductility in structures[4].

34 When one of the critical load bearing elements is damaged or removed, connecting spans
35 deflect until the rotational capacity provided by the adjacent beams or slabs is exhausted. Then,
36 catenary action may allow the beam to carry vertical loads at large displacements. Catenary
37 action is considered as the last line of defence for a structure to mitigate progressive collapse
38 when a load bearing element is removed or damaged. Regan [5] concluded that the successful
39 development of catenary action requires that the members in question possess not only tensile
40 strength but also ductility, which is largely determined by the detailing of longitudinal
41 reinforcement. The beam above a removed column undergoes three structural mechanisms:
42 flexural action (FA), compressive arch action (CAA) and catenary action. Initially, all beams
43 mobilize flexural action, which they are designed for and they are able to sustain the design
44 load. When a column is removed, the span of the beam increases and in most cases leads to
45 large deflection occurring in the beam. Compressive arch action, which enhances the flexural
46 strength at critical sections, can be mobilized in the presence of axial compression provided by
47 stiff lateral restraints[5]. At large deflections, catenary action can be mobilized. Orton [6] found
48 that catenary action will not begin until the beam has reached a deflection approximately equal
49 to the depth of the beam.

50 Existing buildings designed using design codes are prone to progressive collapse due to
51 insufficient robustness in concrete frames. Consequently, numerous researchers such as Choi
52 and Kim[7], Sadek et al.[8], Sasani and Kropelnicki[9], Su et al.[10], Yi et al.[11], Yu and Tan

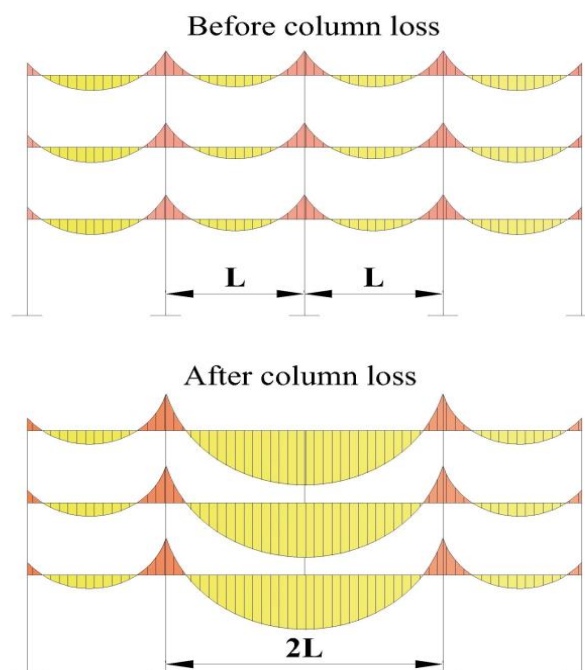
53 [12] [13], Ren et al. [14] and Alogla et al.[15] have studied the structural behaviour of RC sub-
54 assemblages subjected to column removal scenarios. Progressive collapse was studied
55 theoretically by Izzuddin et al.[16], Xu and Ellingwood [17] and Li et al.[18]. The theoretical
56 investigations have resulted in simplified models to estimate the ultimate collapse load[16].
57 Furthermore, researchers have been developing new methods to enhance the progressive
58 collapse resistance. For example, Izadi and Ranjbaran [19] and Hadi and Alrudaini [20]
59 proposed a scheme to resist progressive collapse by transferring the loads after column failure
60 by suspending vertical cables at the top to a steel hat braced frame. Orton [6] suggested
61 increasing the continuity of a beam by using carbon fibre reinforced polymer (CFRP). Yu and
62 Tan [21] suggested adding steel rebar layers at the mid-height of the beam section, using partial
63 hinges and partially de-bonding bottom reinforcement in the joint region.

64 From experimental studies [8,9,10,11], it was noticed that the top and bottom steel
65 reinforcements at beam ends and middle joint, are vulnerable for fracture in the event of
66 progressive collapse. Therefore, presence of additional steel layer will enhance the structural
67 integrity by absorbing the released energy due to the redistributed load. In addition, the
68 additional steel bars can increase the tying capacity of RC beams and tensile capacity in
69 catenary action when it is developed.

70 In this paper, an economical scheme is proposed to increase progressive collapse capacity by
71 adding two steel bars to the beam section throughout the beam length. In order to optimise the
72 best location for the added steel layer, these bars will be added at different elevations within
73 the beam section. The proposed scheme is easy to implement and will stand as an integral part
74 of the structure, which allows for other structural members to function without any restrictions.
75 In order to validate the proposed scheme, an experimental study of structural response of four
76 RC sub-assemblages under a column removal scenario (CRS) were conducted and are
77 presented here.

78 **EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM**

79 A series of experiments were carried out to investigate progressive collapse resistance
80 mechanisms and their capacities for RC beam-column sub-assemblages under CRS. In
81 addition, the program studies the effect of the proposed mitigation scheme on progressive
82 collapse resistance at compressive arch action and catenary action. Figure 1 shows the effect
83 of column removal on a typical building. As seen in Figure 1, the bending moment significantly
84 increases (approximately 4 times) due to doubling the span. Furthermore, the moment over the
85 missing column reverses direction, positive where the beam was designed for negative
86 moment. All these changes may not be considered in conventional design.



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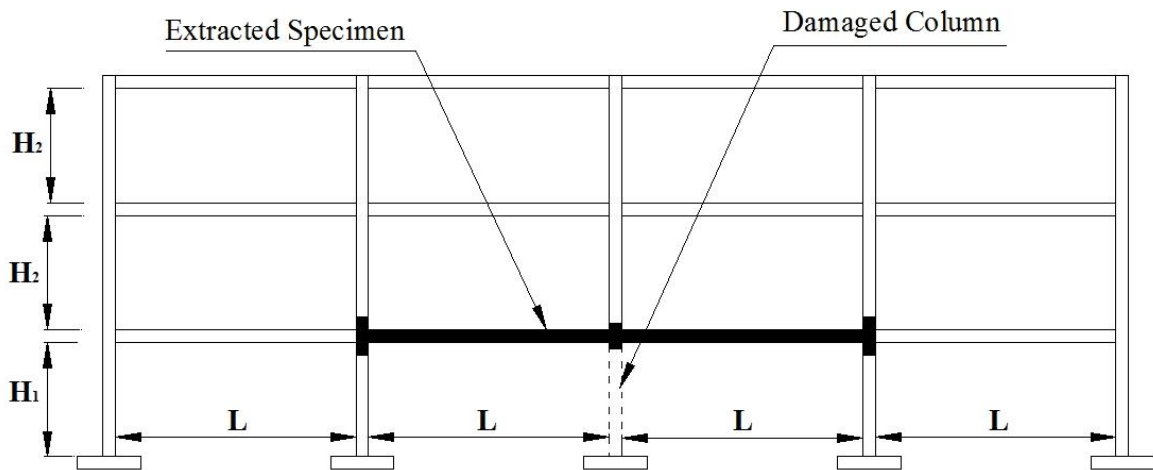
88 Figure 1: Moment distribution of a typical structure before and after column removal

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90 **DESIGN OF SPECIMENS**

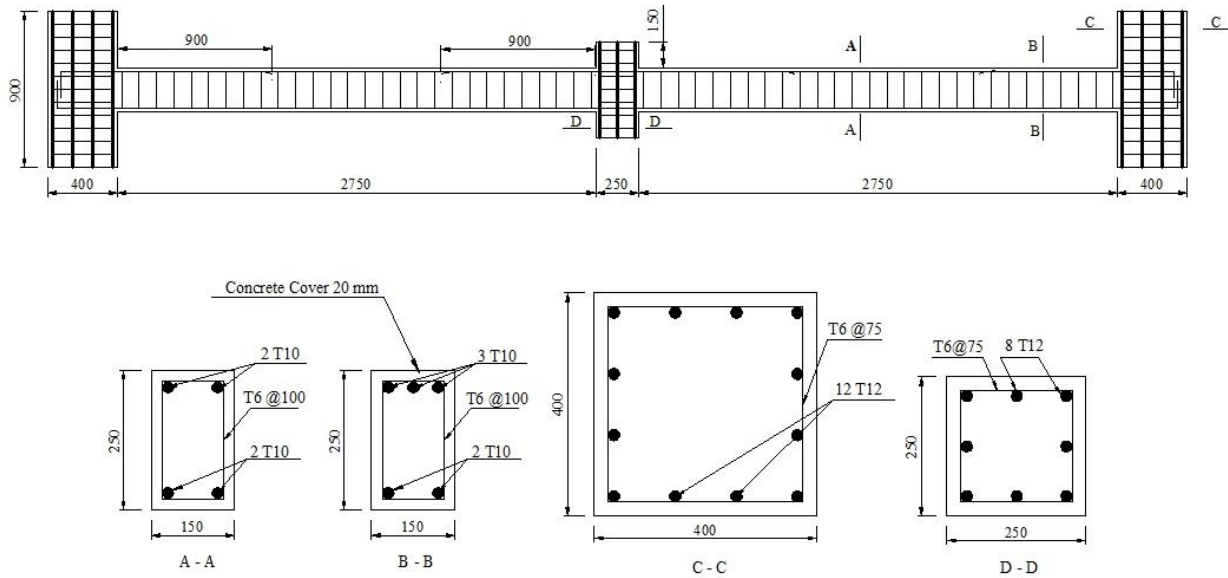
91 The specimens were designed to be extracted from the middle of a multi-storey, multi-bay
92 frame building. Figure 2 shows part of a structure with the shaded area being directly affected
93 by a removed column which represents the test specimen. A prototype frame building was
94 designed and detailed according to ACI 318-05 [22] for non-seismic regions. The specimen
95 was then scaled down to one-half of the prototype frame. In order to avoid the failure of the

96 end support and focusing on structural mechanisms of the beam, the two end beam column
 97 stubs were enlarged to provide sufficient stiffness for the beam. Therefore, they had a much
 98 larger sectional size and provided an adequate space in which the longitudinal reinforcement
 99 could be well anchored. Figure 3 shows the dimensions and detailing of a typical specimen.
 100 The experimental program comprised the testing of four specimens: three specimens included
 101 the proposed new scheme and one specimen was constructed with conventional reinforcement
 102 detailing.
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Figure 2: Test specimen in building front view



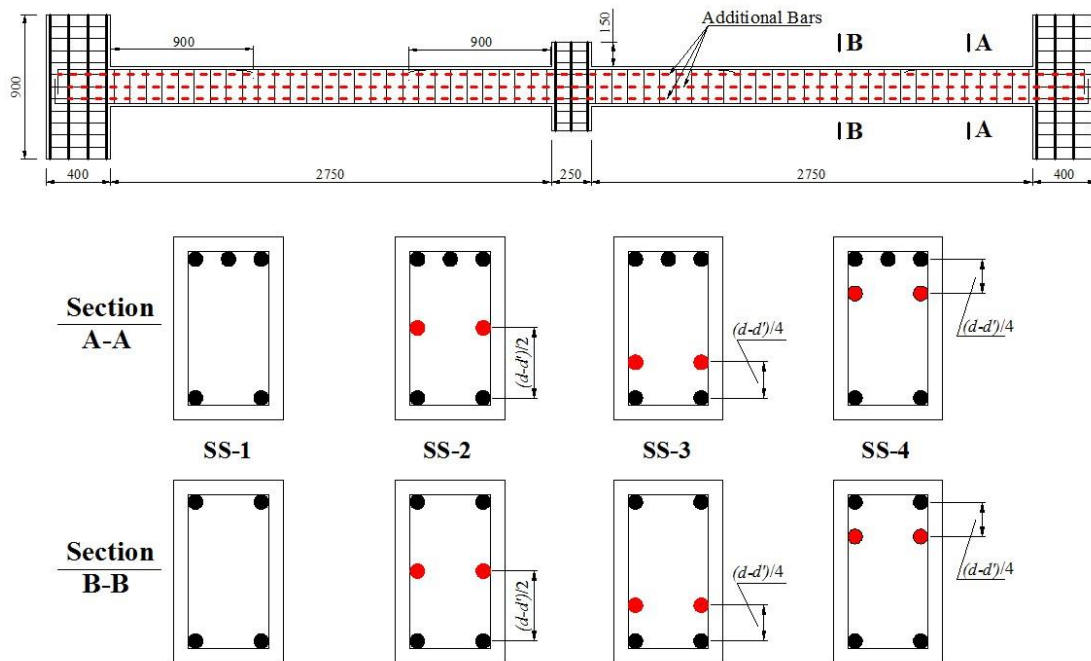
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Figure 3: Conventional specimen dimensions and reinforcement details

110 **PROPOSED SCHEME**

111 Utilizing catenary action to provide a structure with greater load capacity than FA and CAA is
 112 one of the best options to mitigate progressive collapse of buildings. The catenary action
 113 mechanism requires that the concrete beam has significant continuity, ductility and sufficient
 114 tensile strength in the beam-column joint connection, which depends on the detailing of steel
 115 reinforcement. In order to provide a beam and joint with the required continuity, ductility and
 116 redundancy, the scheme proposes to add two additional longitudinal bars at different elevations
 117 of the beam section as shown in Figure 4. d and d' in figure 4 represent the effective beam
 118 depth and the distance from the extreme compression fibre of concrete to the centroid of of
 119 compression reinforcement respectively.

120 For all specimens, the ratio of top steel reinforcement at the middle joint and at the beam ends
 121 was 0.72% using 3T10 steel bars, and the ratio of bottom steel reinforcement at the middle joint
 122 and at the beam ends was 0.48% using 2T10 steel bars. The additional steel bars are placed
 123 throughout the length of the specimen. The "T" symbol refers to deformed reinforcement bars,
 124 which have an area of 78.5 mm². Figure 4 shows each specimen's designation and details.



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126 Figure 4: Designation and details of each specimen

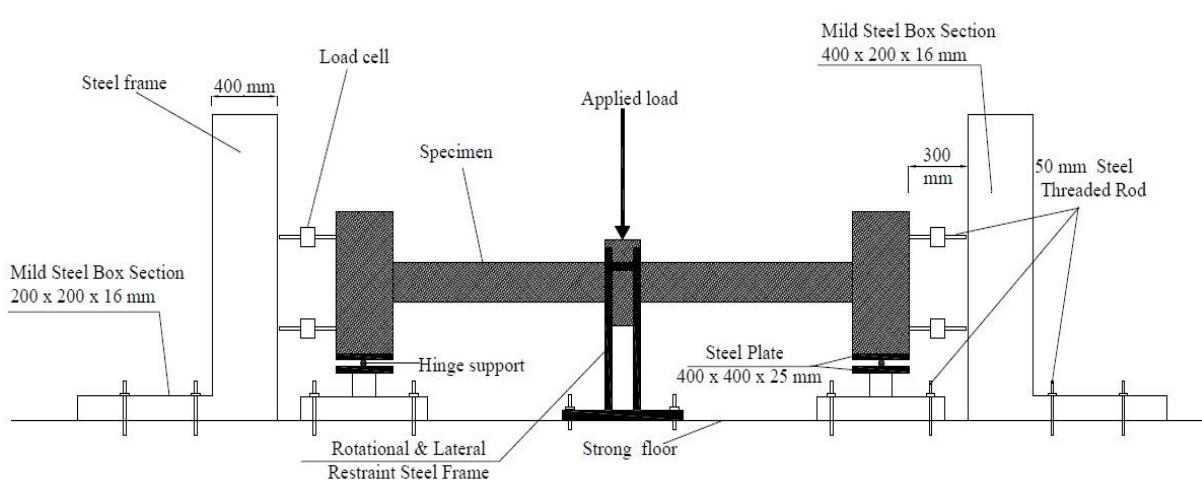
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128 **TEST SETUP AND INSTRUMENTATION**

129 Figure 5 shows a schematic plot for the loading test rig. To simulate the axial horizontal
130 restraint for the beams, the ends of the specimens were connected to a steel frame by two load
131 cells at each end, and these load cells were used to measure the horizontal forces that developed
132 through the specimen during the test. In the vertical direction, a hinge roller support was used
133 to restrain each end of the specimen. The hinge roller support reduces the effect of the vertical
134 reaction on the horizontal reaction i.e. the vertical and horizontal reactions will be independent
135 of each other.

136 The load cells used to measure the reactions in the horizontal direction had a capacity of
137 250kN in both tension and compression. The load was applied at the top of the middle joint
138 using a hydraulic actuator with displacement control until total failure of the specimens. An
139 actuator with a built-in load cell was attached into a steel frame fixed into the strong floor of
140 the laboratory. A steel plate and roller was used to support the bottom of each of the end column
141 stubs. Because of the slenderness of the specimens, a lateral steel restraint was provided near
142 the centre of the specimens to prevent out-of-plane movement as shown in Figures 5 and 6.
143 The testing frame was designed to provide adequate lateral stiffness to resist the expected
144 compressive and tensile forces during CAA and catenary actions without frame failure. The
145 stiffness of the lateral supports was at the level of 10^5 kN/m , which evaluated based on the
146 test rig design.

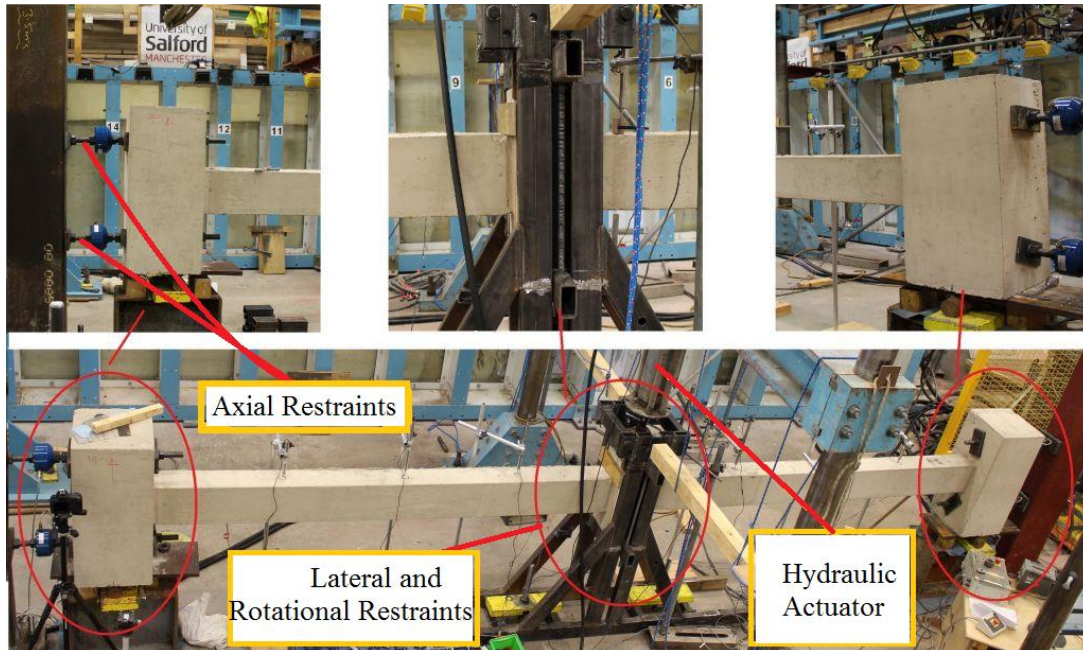
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Figure 5: Schematic view of the test specimen and test rig



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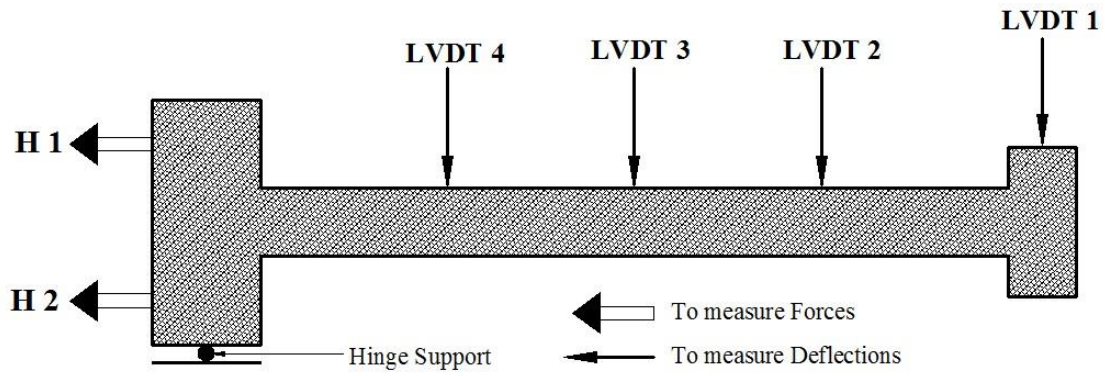
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Figure 6: Test rig restraints

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155 The RC sub-assembly specimens were mounted with measuring instruments both internally
156 and externally. The load imposed by the actuator was measured using an in-built load cell,
157 which was connected in series with the hydraulic actuator jack. Seven external linear variable
158 differential transformers (LVDT) were arranged to measure vertical displacement along the
159 length of the specimens. Four load cells were attached to the column stubs at the ends of
160 specimen to measure axial forces developed during the tests. These load cells have the ability
161 to measure tension and compression forces. Figure 7 shows the lay-out of instrumentation
162 along half of the sub-assembly.

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Figure 7: Arrangement of instrumentation

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In order to monitor the development of internal stresses and forces for different structural

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mechanism phases, strain gauges were installed on the longitudinal steel reinforcement and

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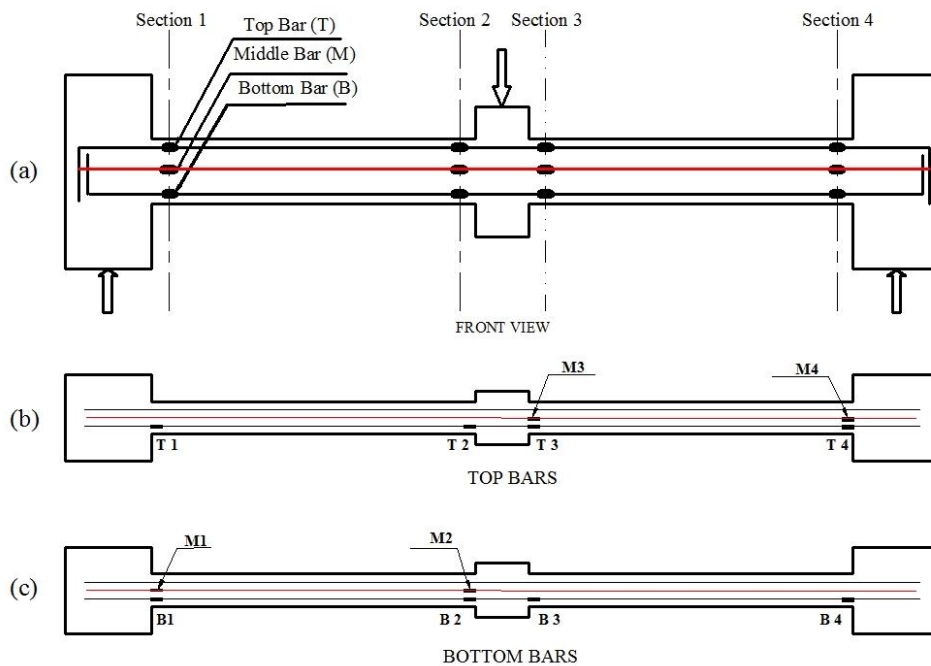
attached at critical sections. These sections include faces of joints and additional steel

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reinforcement. Figure 8 shows the layout of strain gauges and their locations in the sub-

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assemblage specimens.



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Figure 8: Locations of strain gauges. a) Front view, b) Top bars, c) Bottom bars

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174 TEST PROCEDURE

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The load was applied using a hydraulic actuator jack with a monotonic loading regime until

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total failure of the specimens. During the test, all reaction forces at each side (indicated as H1

177 and H2 in Figure 7) were measured using load cells, and the applied load was measured using
178 the in-built load cell of the actuator. The displacement of the middle joint (MJD) and along the
179 length of the beam was measured using LVDT's as shown in Figure 7. Therefore, the beam
180 deflection at each load step could be determined, and axial forces developed through the beam
181 could be calculated for each deflection value corresponding to each load step. In addition, strain
182 gauges attached to the steel reinforcement were used to measure the strain in the steel bar at
183 each load step. These strains can be converted into stresses and then to forces, which indicate
184 the development of each resisting mechanism such as compressive arch action and catenary
185 action.

186 The test data and results were collected and recorded simultaneously at a sampling rate of 1.0
187 Hz using an MTS data acquisition system. Relationships of MJD, horizontal reactions (axial
188 forces) and bar strains are plotted for each magnitude of applied load for all specimens.

189

190 **MATERIAL PROPERTIES**

191 The construction of the specimens was divided into two batches. Two specimens were cast in
192 each batch. For each specimen, three concrete cubes of dimension 100 x 100 x 100 mm were
193 sampled, during the process of casting, to obtain concrete compressive strength. One cylinder
194 of dimensions 300 mm height and 150 mm diameter was sampled and tested to obtain the
195 modulus of elasticity. Also one prism of dimension 400 x 100 x 100 mm was sampled to obtain
196 the modulus of rupture. The compressive strength tests were carried out in accordance with
197 BS1881-116, 1983[23]. The modulus of elasticity testing carried out in accordance with
198 ASTM, C469-02[24].

199 According to the specimen design, the targeted concrete compressive strength at 28 days was
200 28 MPa, the average value of tested cubes was taken as listed in Table 1. For steel reinforcing
201 bars, three samples of longitudinal bars were tested in tension. Steel reinforcement properties
202 are listed in Table 2.

203

204

Table 1: Concrete mechanical properties

Specimens	Compressive Strength MPa	Modulus of Elasticity MPa	Modulus of Rapture MPa
SS-1 SS-2	26.8	23120	2.9
SS-3 SS-4	27.5	24205	3.0

205

206

Table 2: Steel properties

Steel Type	Yield Strength MPa f_y	Yield Strain	Elastic Modulus MPa E_s	Ultimate Strength MPa f_u	Ultimate Strain	Hardening Modulus MPa E_h
T10	510	0.0026	196154	650	0.13	1099

207

208 TEST RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

209 In this section, experimental test results will be presented and illustrated at both global and
 210 local levels. Test results at the global level include the relationships between applied load and
 211 MJD, axial forces vs. MJD, failure mode and crack pattern. Axial forces were taken as the
 212 average of axial forces at both ends of the specimen. Test results at the local level include the
 213 relationship of rebar strains at critical sections with MJD. Moreover, test results have been
 214 differentiated and categorized according to the resistance mechanism for three stages: flexural,
 215 compressive arch action and catenary action.

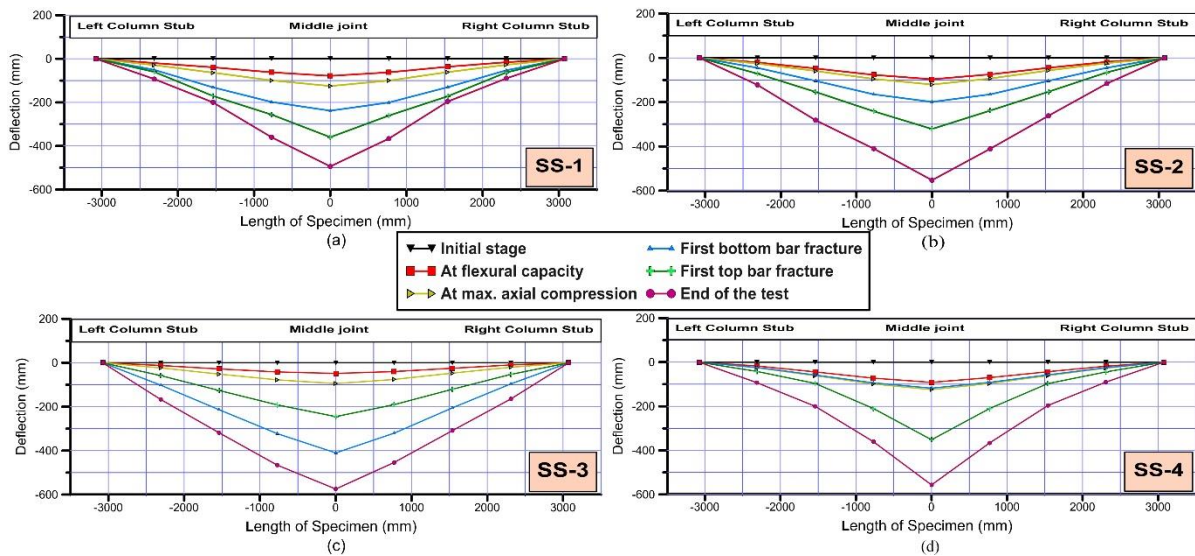
216 For a building, “global” refers to the whole structure of the building system, while “local”
 217 refers to each structural member individually. For this section, “global” refers to the structural
 218 behaviour of the specimen, while “local” refers to the internal forces that developed during the
 219 test.

220

221 TEST RESULTS AT GLOBAL LEVEL

222 The overall structural behaviour of RC specimens is described by the relationships between the
 223 applied load against vertical deflection and the axial forces developed against vertical

224 deflection. The deflected shape of the specimens can be illustrated by the deflection at specific
 225 points along the length of the beam at different stages of loading. Figure 9 shows the deflected
 226 shape curves of the specimens at specified load steps.
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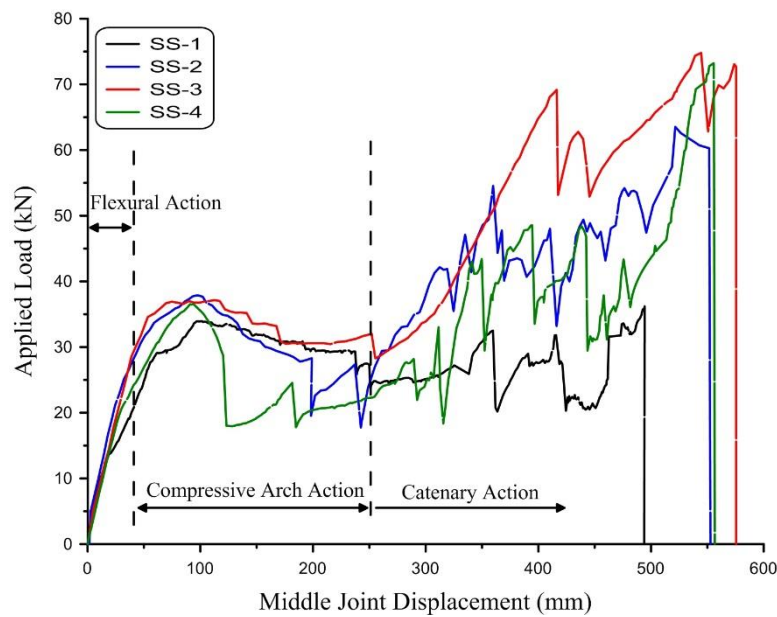


228
 229 Figure 9: Beam deformation for (a) SS-1, (b) SS-2, (c) SS-3 and (d) SS-4

230
 231 It can be seen from Figure 9 that all beams deflected symmetrically at both sides of the
 232 specimens. Also it can be observed that there is a large difference in displacement between the
 233 stage of bottom bar fracture and top bar fracture. This can be related to the formation of plastic
 234 hinges at the middle joint, which caused a large deflection at that stage. In contrast to other
 235 specimens, specimen SS-3 shows no sign of bottom bar fracture during flexural and
 236 compressive arch action. This can be explained by the presence of the additional steel
 237 reinforcement bars, which enhanced the force carrying capacity in the tension zone in the beam
 238 section, and resulted in fracture of the top bars firstly at a relatively large MJ. Deflection
 239 curves of specimen SS-4 showed a limited rotation at the beam ends, whilst being larger at the
 240 middle joint. This was due to the presence of additional steel bars at the top quarter of the beam
 241 section.

242 Based on the relationships of the applied load and the MJ of the specimens, the classification
 243 of three different mechanisms, flexural action, compressive arch action and catenary action, is

244 shown in Figure 10. The overall trends of the load-displacement relationships for the specimens
 245 were quite similar despite having different steel detailing and minimal differences in concrete
 246 strengths, which results in different flexural capacity as can be seen from Figure 10. The peak
 247 flexural capacities were 34.0, 37.9, 37.2 and 36.7 kN for SS-1, SS-2, SS-3 and SS-4
 248 respectively. After the peak loads were reached, plastic hinges were developed and bar fracture
 249 occurred. The abrupt large drops in the applied load shown in Figure 10 were due to subsequent
 250 fracture of steel reinforcing bars at either bottom or top of the beam section.
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253 Figure 10: Applied load vs. MJD relationship of the specimens

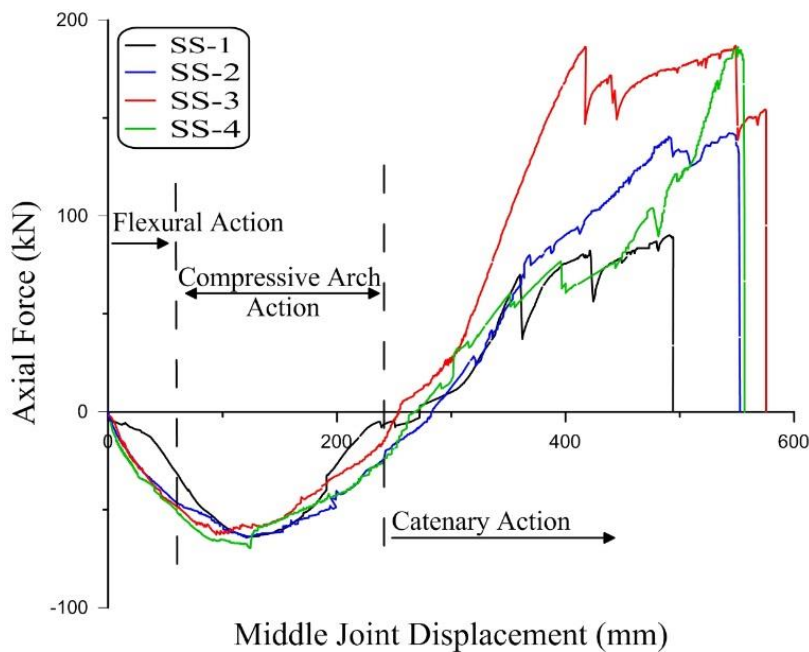
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255 Figure 10 shows the effect of the additional middle steel bars on the structural behaviour of RC
 256 specimens. Within compressive arch action, the applied load for all specimens was larger than
 257 specimen SS-1 by at least 8% for SS-4, and the peak applied load for specimen SS-2 was the
 258 largest. At the catenary action stage, the applied load for all specimens was larger than
 259 specimen SS-1 by at least 77% and the peak applied load for specimen SS-3 was the largest.
 260 This indicates that the effect of the middle layer on catenary action was greater than its effect
 261 on CAA. In other words, the additional middle layer is beneficial for an increase in tying
 262 capacity of the RC structures rather than flexural capacity. The final MJD for all specimens

263 was larger than that for specimen SS-1 and the largest MJD was for specimen SS-3. This means
 264 that the additional steel bars can increase the rotational capacity for RC specimens and the
 265 optimum result can be obtained by placing the middle layer at a distance $(d - d')/4$ from the
 266 centre of the bottom bars.

267 Figure 11 shows the distribution of axial forces within the specimens. Within CAA, the axial
 268 forces developed were close to each other for all specimens. Transition points from CAA to
 269 catenary action ranged from 254 mm to 283 mm for SS-3 and SS-2 respectively. Due to the
 270 presence of additional longitudinal steel bars, the axial tension forces increased significantly.
 271 As listed in table 3, tensile force for specimen SS-3 was the largest, and it was more than twice
 272 the tensile force for specimen SS-1. Based on that and among the three locations of the
 273 additional steel bars, the highest tying capacity can be achieved in the event of progressive
 274 collapse by placing the middle layer at a distance $(d - d')/4$ vertically above the centre of the
 275 bottom bars.

276



277

278 Figure 11: Axial force vs. MJD relationship of the specimens

279

Table 3: Forces with their MJD's at critical stages

Specimen	Calculated flexural capacity with MJD		Max. load at CAA P_{com}			Max. Axial compression Force		Max. Axial Tension Force		Max. Load at Catenary Action		
	P_f (kN)	MJD (mm)	P_{com} (kN)	MJD (mm)	$\frac{MJD}{h}$	N_{com} (kN)	MJD (mm)	N_{ten} (kN)	MJD (mm)	P_{cat} (kN)	MJD (mm)	$\frac{MJD}{h}$
SS-1	28.0	57.9	34.0	101.0	0.40	63.8	125.6	89.2	494.0	36.2	494.0	1.98
SS-2	32.6	55.1	37.9	96.8	0.39	64.3	120.6	142.2	542.9	64.0	521.7	2.09
SS-3	32.2	48.2	37.2	86.8	0.35	62.7	94.6	186.9	549.0	75.6	549.0	2.20
SS-4	30.2	60.1	36.7	91.4	0.37	69.6	124.5	185.0	549.7	73.7	551.2	2.20

280

281 In table 3, the calculated flexural capacity was based on section analysis without considering
282 the effect of axial forces.

283 Table 4 demonstrates a comparison with the specimen SS-1 to investigate the effect of these
284 additional steel bars. It can be seen that with additional steel bars at the middle, the CAA
285 capacity was 12% greater than for specimen SS-1. The largest increase at catenary action was
286 109% for specimen SS-3 compared to specimen SS-1. This indicates that the additional steel
287 bars at the bottom quarter of the section can significantly increase progressive collapse capacity
288 at catenary action.

289

290 In order to obtain progressive collapse capacity for each specimen, the non-linear static
291 structural behaviour, which we will term ‘quasi-static response’, should be converted into non-
292 linear dynamic behaviour. The proposed approach by Izzuddin et al. 2008 [16] was used to
293 obtain progressive collapse capacity. This approach is based on energy equilibrium, which
294 states that for the structure to be stable, the work done by applied gravity loads should be equal
295 to the energy absorbed by the structure. In other words, the structure should have enough strain
296 energy supply to absorb any energy demand caused by sudden loss of vertical support. In this
297 approach, the effect of damping was neglected because the event of progressive collapse occurs
298 in a very short time and the damping consumes little energy. Material strength enhancement
299 due to strain rate, which is usually expressed in the form of a dynamic increase factor (DIF) is

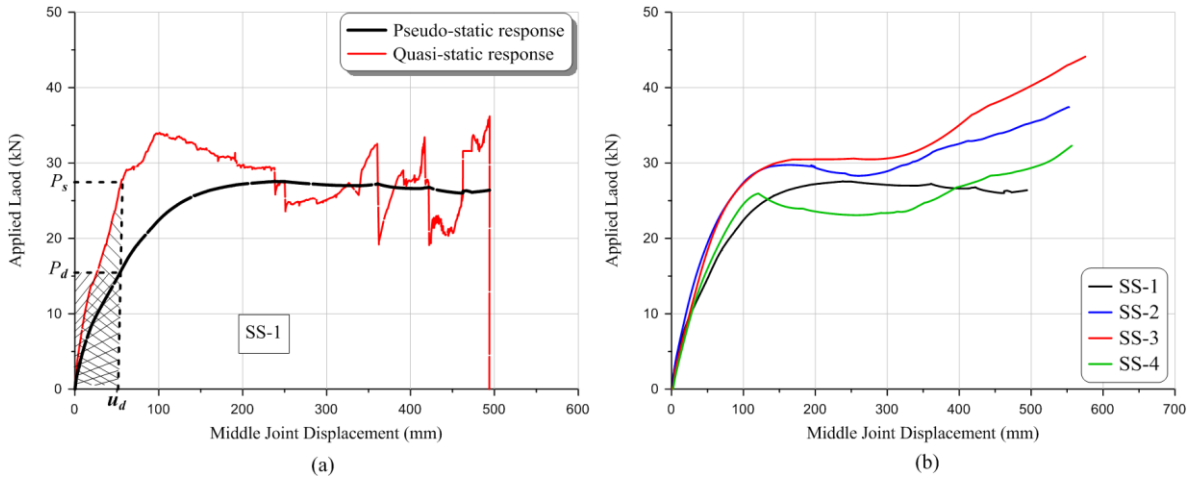
300 neglected in this approach. Yu et al. [25] concluded that the DIF is small and can be
 301 conservatively ignored for column removal scenarios. The converted non-linear dynamic
 302 behaviour is called the pseudo-static structural behaviour. Figure 12(a) shows both static and
 303 pseudo static responses for SS-1. For a given dynamic deflection u_d the applied dynamic load
 304 P_d can be obtained by equating the two hatched areas, which represent external work ($P_d \times$
 305 u_d) and strain energy ($\int_0^{u_d} P(u) du$). Pseudo-static structural behaviour can be obtained by
 306 repeating the process for each dynamic deflection. The accuracy of this approach has been
 307 validated by Tsai[26].

308 Table 4: Applied loads compared to specimen SS-1

Specimen	Applied Load (kN)			$\frac{P_{cat}}{P_{com}}$	$\frac{P_{com}}{P_{com(SS-1)}}$	$\frac{P_{cat}}{P_{cat(SS-1)}}$
	P_f	P_{com}	P_{cat}			
SS-1	28.0	34.0	36.2	1.065	1	1
SS-2	32.6	37.9	64.0	1.69	1.12	1.77
SS-3	32.2	37.2	75.6	2.03	1.10	2.09
SS-4	30.2	36.7	73.7	2.01	1.08	2.04

309
 310 Figure 12(b) shows the pseudo-static structural behaviour of all specimens. The overall trends
 311 of the specimens were similar, but with different peak load values. With the exception of
 312 specimen SS-1, catenary action was able to increase the progressive collapse capacity. The
 313 largest enhancement was 67 % at catenary action stage for specimen SS-2.

314 Table 5 lists the peak loads with their corresponding deflections and the ratio of enhancement
 315 of catenary action stage. The lowest first peak was 25.9 kN for specimen SS-4 with lowest
 316 MJD of 120.7 mm.



317

318 Figure 12: Pseudo-Static relationship for all specimens (a) Energy equilibrium approach for

319 SS-1, and (b) Pseudo-Static curves for all specimens

320 It is clear that the new proposed scheme to resist progressive collapse was able to increase RC

321 capacity at catenary action. The ultimate capacity can be achieved by adding steel bars to the

322 bottom quarter of the beam section. The effect of adding steel bars at the top quarter of the

323 beam section was marginal at the catenary action stage, while it decreases the capacity at CAA.

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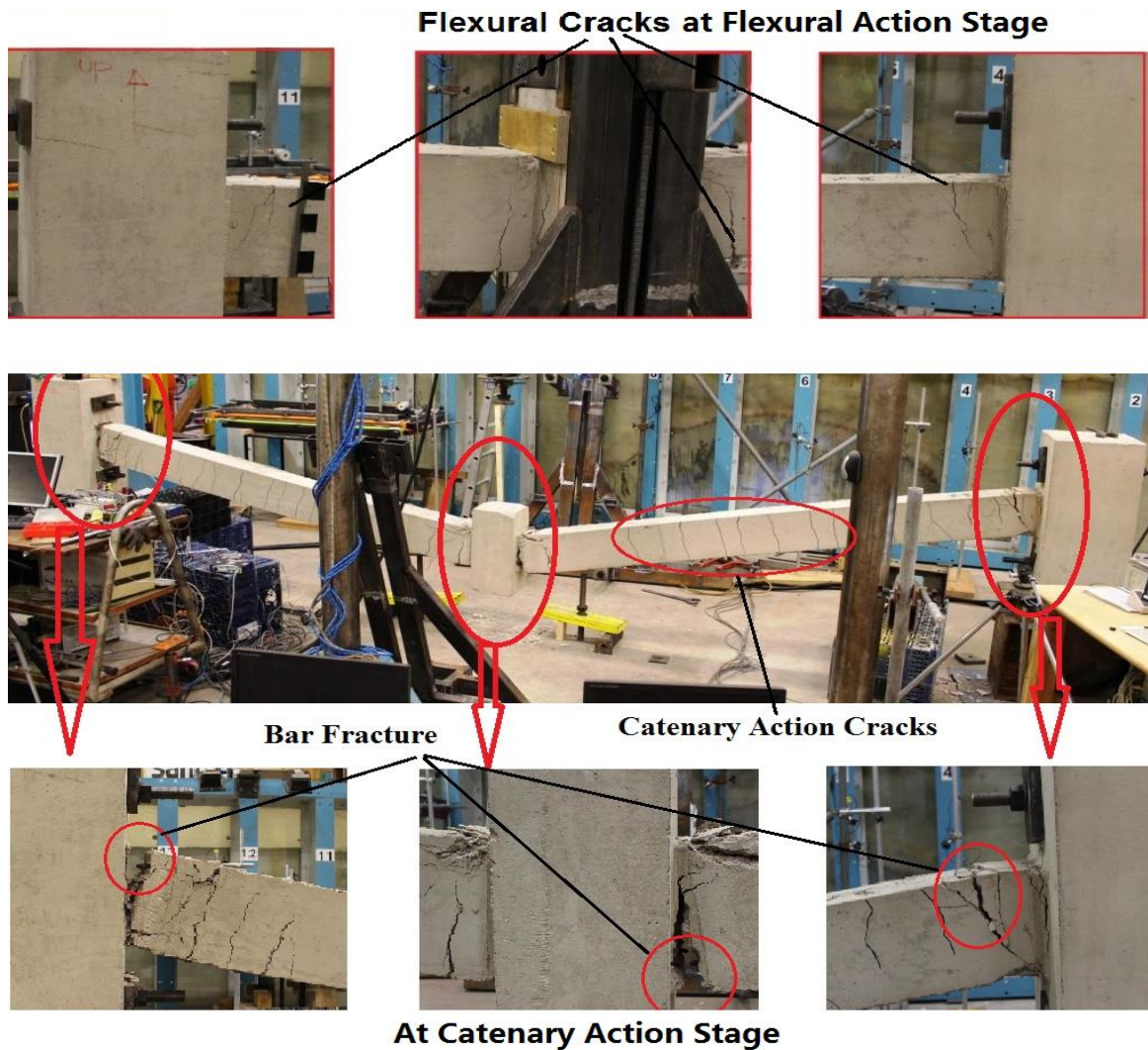
328 Table 5: Peak Loads with their corresponding deflections for all specimens

Specimen	First Peak Load at CAA		Max. Load At Catenary action		$\frac{P_{st}}{P_{st(SS-1)}}$	$\frac{P_{cat}}{P_{cat(SS-1)}}$
	P_{st} (kN)	MJD (mm)	P_{cat} (kN)	MJD (mm)		
SS-1	27.5	249.5	26.4	494.0	1	1
SS-2	29.7	163.8	37.4	553.0	1.08	1.42
SS-3	30.5	172.7	44.1	576.0	1.11	1.67
SS-4	25.9	120.7	32.3	557.0	0.94	1.22

329

330 **CRACK PATTERN AND FAILURE MODE**

331 The overall crack pattern and failure mode for the specimens were quite similar. At the flexural
332 action stage, the cracks were concentrated at the beam-column joint interfaces, which are
333 mainly caused by bending moments at these sections. Cracks developed during flexural action
334 with the presence of compressive arch action beginning from the extreme tension face of the
335 concrete, running vertically through the beam section and terminating at the location of the
336 neutral axis. As the applied load increased, the neutral axis moved towards the compression
337 face until the concrete crushed at the extreme surface in the compression zone. In contrast to
338 flexural action, cracks during catenary action, started to develop throughout the beam length
339 and passed completely through the beam section. With the increase of the applied load, wide
340 cracks and bar fracture occurred at the beam-column joint interfaces.



341

342

Figure 13: Crack pattern of specimen SS-1 at flexural and catenary action

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It is worth mentioning that the cracks at catenary action were uniformly distributed along the beam length and that a large slip between the steel bars and concrete was observed at the beam-column joint interfaces. Figure 13 shows the crack pattern of specimen SS-1 at flexural action.

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It shows clearly the flexural cracks that developed at the beam-column joint interfaces. Figure

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13 shows the crack pattern of specimen SS-1 at catenary action, which shows a uniform

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distribution of the cracks along the beam length.

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Figure 14 shows crack development at different stages of loading for the left end of the

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specimen SS-3. Similar to the specimen SS-1, flexural cracks were developed at the beginning

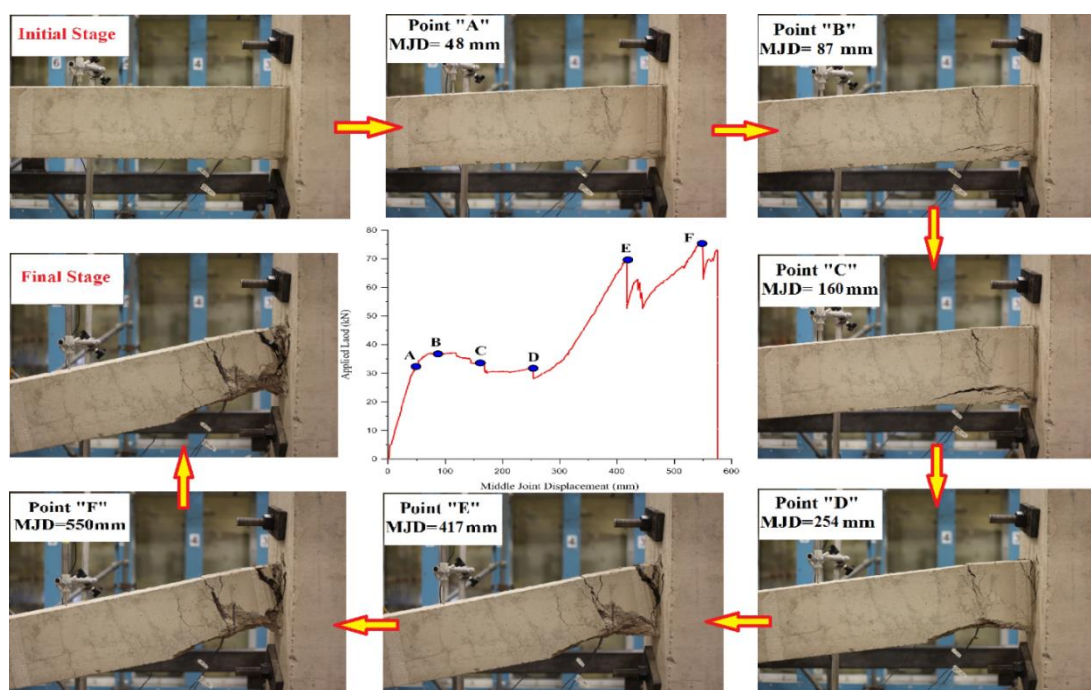
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of the test followed by uniformly penetrating cracks along the length of the beam at catenary

354 action stage. Flexural cracks were concentrated at the interfaces of beam-column joints.
 355 Flexural cracks developed from the extreme tension fibre of concrete, penetrated through the
 356 beam section and stopped at the location of neutral axis. Point "B" in Figure 14 represents the
 357 point of maximum axial compression force developed throughout the beam in which the
 358 indication of concrete crushing was clear. After that point, concrete spalling occurred indicated
 359 by the point "C".

360 The failure of the specimen occurred after the point "F" at a deflection of 575.5 mm, indicated
 361 by a rapid increase in the deflection associated with a decrease in the applied load.

362



363

364 Figure 14: Crack development at the left beam end for specimen SS-3

365

366 TEST RESULTS AT LOCAL LEVEL

367 Bar strain measurements, which can be converted to bar forces, can shed light on the
 368 contributions of reinforcing bars to the mobilization of different mechanisms.

369 Development of stresses and forces at the additional steel bars provides insight as to how these
 370 bars affect the structural resistance mechanisms at both compressive arch and catenary action
 371 stages. Strain readings were converted into bar forces by multiplying the strains by the steel

372 modulus of elasticity and the area of the bar. Converted bar forces were plotted against the
373 MJD for each specimen.

374 Figure 15 shows the relationship between bar forces and MJD for specimen SS-1 and SS-3.
375 The designations FT, FB and FM refer to the force of the top, bottom and middle bars
376 respectively. For specimen SS-1, the transition in bar forces from compression to tension at
377 sections 1 and 3 occurred at a deflection which was more than the deflection of the onset of
378 catenary action for the specimen at global behaviour. The top bar force transition occurred with
379 the fracture of the bottom bar and vice versa. It can be seen from Figure 15 (a-d) that the tensile
380 forces during advanced catenary action were carried only by the bottom bars at the beam ends,
381 and only by the top bars at the middle joint interfaces.

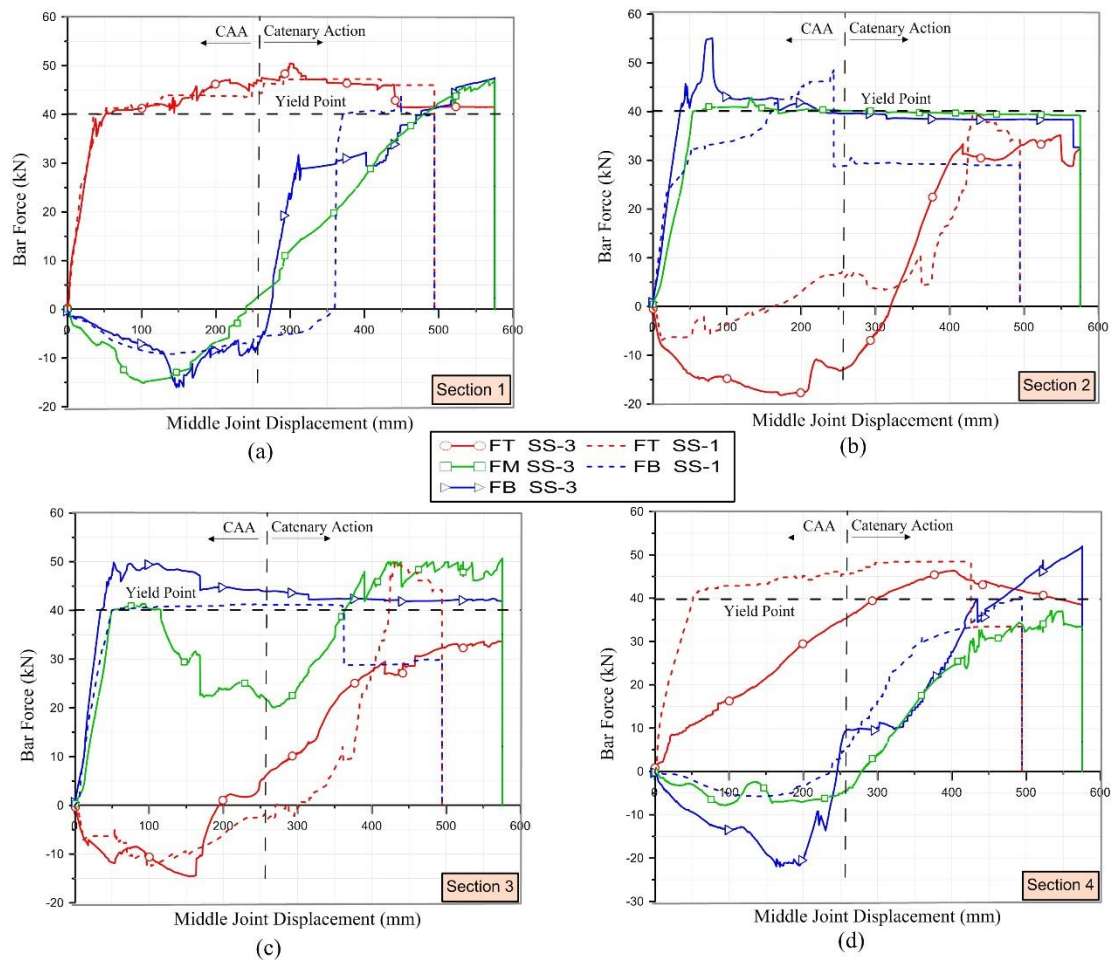
382 At the early stages of loading, the bottom bars yielded at sections 2 and 3, followed by
383 fracture at both sections as shown in Figure 15. This means that the bottom bars are more
384 vulnerable in the early stages of progressive collapse. At the mid stages of loading, it can be
385 seen that the top bar is still carrying the loads at all sections, while at advanced stages of
386 loading, both bars were fractured at two sections at least. It is clear that the need for additional
387 bars at certain locations was crucial in order to reduce the probability of failure at critical
388 sections.

389 For specimen SS-3, it can be seen from Figure 15 that the middle layer enhanced the tensile
390 capacity of the beam by about 90.0 kN at catenary action, which is about 50% of the total force
391 provided by the top and bottom steel bars. Due to the location of the added bars, they behaved
392 similarly to the bottom bars, i.e. they carried compression forces at sections 1 and 4, while at
393 sections 2 and 3 they carried tensile forces.

394

395 Figure 16 shows bar forces for each section at different stages of loading. These stages were
396 chosen to represent each of the resisting mechanism phases. It should be mentioned that after
397 fracture of some bars, residual strains remain, which are reflected as bar forces in the curves.

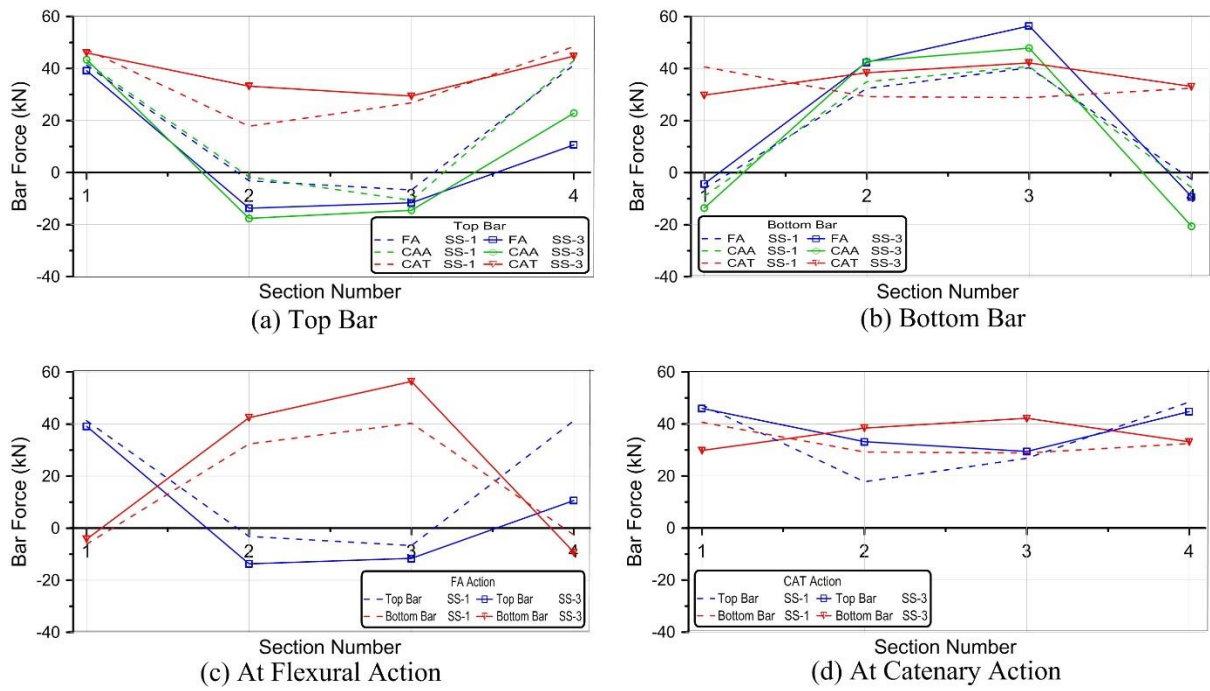
398 As shown in Figure 16b, for SS-1 at the catenary action stage, the bar at sections 2 and 3 was
 399 fractured and the values of the curve should be equal to zero.
 400 It can be seen that both bars contribute to the tension forces developed at the catenary action
 401 stage. The change in the top and bottom bar forces during compressive arch action was smaller
 402 than the change in forces during catenary action, as can be seen from Figures 16a and 16b. The
 403 development of tension and compression forces for SS-1 and SS-3 at the top and bottom bars
 404 were nearly equal throughout the length of the beam, as can be seen from Figure 16c. From
 405 figure 16c, it is evident that the top and bottom bars at all sections were in tension, which
 406 indicates the action of the catenary stage.



407

408

Figure 15: Bar Forces vs. MJD for specimen SS-1 and SS-3



409

410

Figure 16: Bar forces for different resisting mechanisms for specimen SS-1 and SS-3

411

412 ANALYTICAL ULTIMATE LOAD CAPACITY AT CATENARY

413 ACTION

414 Under concentrated applied load, it is expected that both bays of the sub-assembly will

415 remain straight until the total collapse, which is clearly shown in figure 8. Based on this

416 expectation and figure 17, Li et al. [18] proposed a model to obtain ultimate load P_u at catenary

417 action, which was then verified by Jian and Zheng [27], provided by equation 1

418

$$420 \quad P_{u(Li)} = \frac{(L_1 + L_2)v_u}{L_1 L_2} A_{th} f_u \quad (1)$$

419

421 Where L_1 and L_2 are the spans of beam 1 and beam 2, respectively, v_u is the vertical

422 displacement of the removed column, A_{th} is the area of the steel bars through the whole span,

423 and f_u is the ultimate stress of the steel bars in the frame beams. Detailed determination of v_u

424 can be found in Jian and Zheng[27].

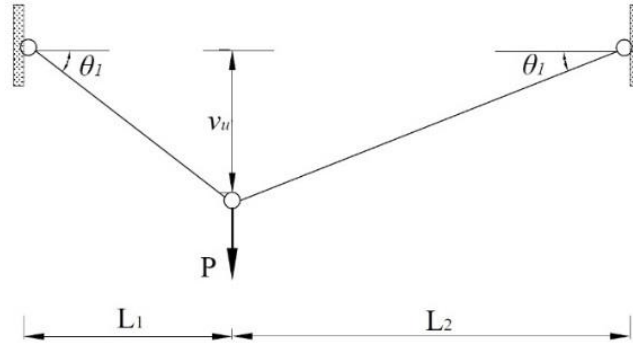


Figure 17 Schematic diagram for two bay beam at catenary action

PROPOSED LOAD CARRYING CAPACITY AT CATENARY ACTION

Based on experimental observation and results, top and bottom bar fractures have occurred. At large deflections, the tensile axial load was carried only by the bottom bars at the beam ends and the top bars at the middle joint as shown in figure 18(a). The ultimate load capacity at catenary action, P_u , can be obtained using a model, which is schematically shown in figure 18(b). The model is derived according to equilibrium at the middle joint considering fracture of steel bars shown in figure 18(a).

$$P = 2N\sin(\theta) \quad (2)$$

$$\sin(\theta) = \frac{\delta_u}{L_2} \quad (3)$$

$$N = f_u A_s \quad (4)$$

The load P is assumed to be resisted only by the vertical component of the tensile force N , which is provided only by the intact steel bars. The tensile force contributions from the concrete, the top bars at the support and the bottom bars at the middle joint are neglected. Ultimate deflection, δ_u , can be calculated based on the total elongation of steel bars that can occur at the end of catenary action. Based on the assumption that the bar elongation is concentrated in the plastic hinge region, and the plastic hinge length model proposed by Mattock [28], the elongation, ΔL for each bay beam with two plastic hinges, can be obtained as follows (equation 5):

446 $\Delta L = 2\varepsilon_{cu}l_p$ (5)

447 Where ε_{cu} is the ultimate steel strain, l_p is the plastic hinge length. According to Mattock, $l_p =$
 448 $0.5d + 0.05z$, where z is the distance from the point of maximum moment to the point of zero
 449 moment. From figure 18(b), δ_u can be obtained as follows:

450 $\delta_u = \sqrt{L_2^2 - L^2}$ (6)

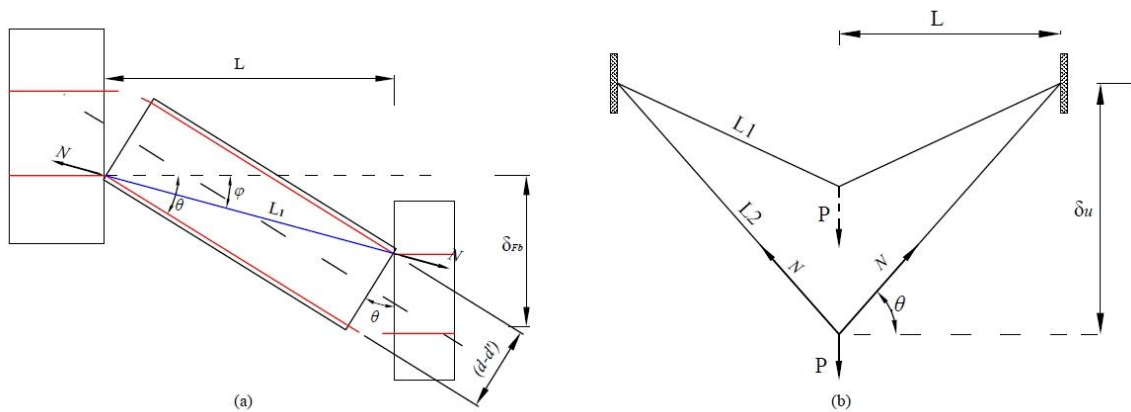
451 $L_2 = L_1 + \Delta L$ (7)

452 $L_1 = \sqrt{L^2 + (d - d')^2}$ (8)

453 Where, L_2 is the final length of the bay beam at catenary action, L is the beam bay length, L_1 is
 454 the beam length at the fracture of the steel bars, d is the beam effective depth, and d' is the
 455 distance from the extreme compression fibre of concrete to the centroid of compression
 456 reinforcement.

457 Based on equation 8 for obtaining L_1 , this model is only valid for a specimen designed using
 458 the conventional approach. This is because L_1 is calculated on the beam section with the top
 459 and bottom steel bars only.

460



461

462 Figure 18: Schematic modelling of a specimen at Catenary Action

463

464 VALIDATION AND COMPARISON

465 Based on the geometry and material properties of specimen SS-1, the calculated values of
466 vertical deflection v_u and δ_u were 494.5 mm and 494.2 mm respectively. Substituting these
467 values in equations 1 and 2, $P_{u(Li)}$ and P_u were obtained and their values were 73.3 kN and
468 36.7 kN respectively. Compared to experimental values, it can be seen that the ultimate
469 deflections were very close to the analytically calculated values. The calculated ultimate load
470 from the proposed model is 1.4% greater than the experimental results, while it is 102% greater
471 for $P_{u(Li)}$. Based on the analytical results, it can be concluded that the proposed model in this
472 paper can accurately predict the ultimate deflection and applied load at catenary action.
473 However, due to the **complexity** of progressive collapse phenomena, the imperfection of
474 experimental data and some assumptions made in this paper, the proposed simplified model
475 should be validated by more experimental or numerical data.

476

477 CONCLUSIONS

478 In this paper, four RC sub-assemblages were tested to investigate the progressive collapse
479 resisting mechanisms of RC structures under a middle column removal scenario. **On top of**
480 **conventionally designed specimen SS-1, additional steel bars were added to the beam section**
481 **at three different elevations aiming to improve the resistance capacity of RC frames against**
482 **progressive collapse. The additional reinforcements were added at the mid-height of the beam**
483 **section in SS-2. For specimen SS-3 and SS-4, the additional steel reinforcements were added**
484 **at a distance equal to $(d - d')$ /4 from the centre of the bottom and top longitudinal**
485 **reinforcement, respectively.**

486 The experimental results showed that all specimens experienced three stages of resisting
487 mechanisms: flexural, CAA and catenary action, and behaviour was dominated by flexure in
488 the early stages of the response. With increased vertical displacement of the centre column,
489 resistance was provided through the development of compressive diagonal axial forces or

490 “arching action” due to the restraint on axial elongation of the beams by the end columns. With
491 further increase in the vertical displacement, tensile axial forces developed in the beams, and
492 the behaviour was dominated by catenary action.

493 Compared with the conventionally designed specimen, the capacity of specimens with
494 modified detailing was 5% - 12% larger at CAA, while it was larger by about 52% - 109% at
495 catenary action. The specimen with additional reinforcement in the middle, attained the largest
496 ratio at CAA while the specimen with additional reinforcement at the bottom quarter attained
497 the largest ratio at catenary action.

498 The bottom bars were more vulnerable to fracture in the early stages of progressive collapse
499 due to the limitation in the rotational capacity of the beam section. . The additional bars near
500 the bottom bars can reduce the probability of early bottom bar fracture. This is due to load
501 sharing and increased tensile capacity, which in turn reduces the probability of progressive
502 collapse.

503 The specimen with additional bars at the bottom quarter achieved larger deformation, and
504 catenary action capacity in quasi-static response. The large deformation can be related to the
505 increase in the rotational capacity of the beam column connection, which in turn increases the
506 vertical projection of tensile forces at catenary action.

507 Pseudo-static results suggest that the presence of additional steel bars can increase progressive
508 collapse capacity, and the maximum capacity can be attained when placing two additional steel
509 bars at a distance of $(d - d')/4$ from the centre of the bottom reinforcement. The increase in
510 progressive collapse capacity was 22% - 67%.

511 The overall crack pattern and failure mode for the specimens were quite similar. The failure of
512 all specimens was characterized by (1) Crushing of concrete at compression zones during flexural
513 action. (2) Development of flexural cracking during flexural and CAA. (3) Bar fracture at beam-
514 column interfaces. (4) Large slippage between concrete and steel bars caused wide cracks at critical
515 sections.

516

517 Based on experimental observation, a simplified model to predict ultimate deflection and
518 applied load at catenary action was proposed. The proposed model, which accounts for bar
519 fracture, can accurately predict load and deflection at catenary action.

520

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