

Experimental evaluation of the seismic performance of reinforced concrete structural walls with different end configurations

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ABSTRACT

The Canterbury Earthquake Royal Commission report (2013) showed that cantilever reinforced concrete (RC) walls failed at a lower ductility capacity than expected due to a plasticity concentration region within a very limited height near the location of the primary cracks at the base of the walls. The New Zealand Standards (NZS 3101) (2006) [2] and the Canadian design standards (CSA A23.3-14) (2014), adopt the same capacity design approaches for RC walls design, with both standards specifying a minimum vertical reinforcement ratios (ρ_v) of 0.25% for RC walls. Subsequently, the current study was conducted to study the seismic performance of RC walls with different vertical reinforcement ratios and cross sectional configurations. In this paper, six half-scaled RC structural walls were constructed and tested under quasi-static displacement controlled cyclic loading. The walls had three different cross sectional configurations; rectangular, flanged and boundary elements and were tested with specific design characteristics selected to evaluate and compare the wall ductility capabilities. In this respect, wall ductility can be defined as the ability of the walls to undergo inelastic deformations with no/low strength degradation, which is essential in Seismic Force Resisting Systems (SFERS) as it is not economically feasible to design SFERS to behave elastically under seismic loadings. So the ductility quantification of the structural walls used were ductility ratio between the intended displacements with the yield displacement. Based on the test results, the ultimate drift at 20% ultimate strength degradation varied between 0.9% and 1.6% and the ultimate level displacement ductility ($\mu_{10.8u}$), ranged approximately between 4.0 and 6.0. Although the flanged walls and the walls with boundary elements were designed to develop almost the same capacity as that of the rectangular walls, the seismic performance of the former wall type was found to be superior to that of their rectangular counterparts with respect to both the ultimate displacement capacity and ductility level. Moreover, using the flanges and the boundary elements walls resulted in approximately 30% reduction of the vertical reinforcement compared to that of the rectangular walls when designed to resist the same lateral loads while carrying identical gravity loads. In addition to gaining insights on the response of walls with boundary elements, the results indicated that structural walls with low vertical reinforcement ratio can experience reduced ductility as indicated in the Canterbury Commission Report.

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1. Introduction

The Canterbury Earthquake Royal Commission report [1] revealed that some reinforced concrete walls that are designed according to the New Zealand Standards (NZS 3101) (2006) [2] and detailed to comprise the seismic force resisting system of buildings did not achieve their expected ductile capability. The

report indicated that the reason was the formation of a primary flexural crack at the expected plastic hinge areas. Such crack might then keep increasing in size as the wall top displacements increase and consequently concentrating the steel plastic strain over a relatively very short height resulting in a premature wall failure at a much lower ductility level compared to what is expected. Such cracking pattern might result in strain concentration of the plastic hinge at a limited zone as well as limiting the generated energy dissipation during seismic event. The report showed that such less-than-expected ductile response was associated with insufficient vertical reinforcement that would have resulted in secondary cracks and higher energy dissipation. Consequently yielding of the

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Nomenclature

DS	damage state	$SFRS$	Seismic Force Resisting System
f'_c	average compressive strengths of concrete cylinders	Δ	target displacement level
F_y	theoretical yield strength	$\Delta_{0.8u}$	ultimate level displacement at 20% strength degradation
h_w	wall height	Δ_y	yield displacement
l_w	wall length	Δ_u	displacement at the maximum capacity
$K_{0.8u}$	stiffness at 20% strength degradation	$\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}$	displacement ductility at 20% strength degradation
K_y	stiffness at yield	μ_{Δ}	displacement ductility at the maximum capacity (Δ_u/Δ_y)
K_u	stiffness at the maximum load	$\mu_{\Delta_u}^{id}$	idealized displacement ductility at the maximum capacity
<i>MVLEM</i>	Multiple Vertical Line Element Model	$\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$	idealized displacement ductility at 20% strength degradation
$Q_{0.8u}$	80% of the experimental maximum capacity	ρ_h	ratio of steel reinforcement in the horizontal direction
Q_y	experimental yield strength	ρ_v	ratio of steel reinforcement in the vertical direction
Q_u	experimental maximum capacity		
<i>RC</i>	reinforced concrete		
R_d	ductility related response modification		
<i>SFI</i>	Shear-Flexure Interaction		

reinforcement was limited to the immediate vicinity of that single primary crack [1]. Subsequently, the report concluded with a recommendation to concentrate the vertical reinforcement ratio ρ_v at the wall end regions to allow for the formation of secondary cracks and to enhance the energy dissipation capabilities by spreading the inelastic straining over a larger length of the outermost wall bars. Such detailing would then increase the wall plastic hinge height and hence, reduce the curvature ductility demands corresponding to different displacement ductility levels.

In addition, observations following the Maule earthquake in Chile (2010), indicated that structural walls showed deficient performance attributed to a combination of high axial loads and high out-of-plane slenderness ratios (small thickness) of the walls [4]. Moreover, Wallace et al. [5], concluded that the unexpected seismic performance in Maule Earthquake was due to the poor web boundary detailing where the strength degraded dramatically because of the buckling of the vertical reinforced after concrete crushing. Similarly, Carpenter et al. [6] concluded that the reason for the low ductile capacities of the structural walls in Maule Earthquake was the poor detailing and confinement. Most of the damaged walls were too thin to be confined which was considered another reason for the poor seismic performance of the structural walls in Maule Earthquake. Within the context of the current study, it might be argued that the small thickness of the walls reported herein was the common parameter between them and those that experienced low seismic performance during the Maule earthquake in Chile (2010).

Thomsen and Wallace [7] tested rectangular and T-shaped structural walls to examine the importance of confinement and transverse reinforcement spacing on the seismic performance of walls. It was concluded that small spacing of the transverse hoops could enhance the ductility of the structural walls. While Thomsen and Wallace [8] used the tested walls to analytically predict the strain profiles where the assumption of the plastic hinge $0.33l_w$ and $0.5l_w$ had a significant impact on the predicted results. Massone and Wallace [9] used the tested walls to assess the wall flexure and shear displacement contributions to the inelastic displacement. The study found that diagonally placed displacement transducer overestimate shear by up to 30% and that there is a strong coupling between inelastic flexural and inelastic shear deformations. Zhang and Zhihao [10] evaluated the seismic behavior of rectangular walls under high axial loading then concluded the negative effect of high axial loading on the walls ductility. Adebar et al. [11] tested RC core wall with high axial load and low vertical reinforcement ratio, in order to investigate the effect

of cracking on the walls' effective stiffness. Concluded that although there were a large flexure and shear diagonal cracking in the wall, the effective stiffness of the cracked wall was similar to the uncracked wall due to the axial load. Sittipunt et al. [12] tested a series of RC walls to investigate the effect of diagonal web reinforcement on the hysteretic curves. They concluded that the diagonal web reinforcement enhance the walls energy dissipation and minimize pinching effect on the hysteretic curves. White [13] developed procedures to estimate the inelastic rotational demand of concrete walls, coupling beam chord rotation and the walls performance with axial yielding. They concluded that for higher period walls the axial demand of coupled walls decreased and walls allowed to yielding in axial tension showed lower coupling beam rotations and energy dissipation capacities.

Beyer et al. [14], tested U-Shaped structural walls in order to evaluate their flexural behavior in different directions. They concluded that the diagonal direction was the most critical direction where the displacement capacity was the smallest. Preti and Giuriani [15], tested a full-scale RC wall reinforced with unusual large rebar diameters, uniformly distributed along the wall length. The wall showed high ductility capacity, ensuring a uniform crack pattern and eliminating any localization of crack in the web region. Liao et al. [16], investigated the effect of reinforcing boundary elements walls with Structural steel section in the confined region, where the lateral load capacity increased but failure mode could only change from shear to a mixed flexure-shear mode when the aspect ratio (height/width) was three or more. Oh et al. [17] studied the effect of confinement and end-configurations of Reinforced Concrete structural walls, where they tested three rectangular and a barbell shaped walls. They concluded that the barbell and the well-confined rectangular wall showed similar ductility and energy dissipation.

Orakcal and Wallace [18] proposed a Multiple Vertical Line Element Model (*MVLEM*) to predict the flexural response of RC structural walls under cyclic loading. The model was designed to successfully capture RC walls cyclic response including the stiffness degradation, strength deterioration and hysteretic shape. Orakcal and Wallace [19] compared the *MVLEM* results with the experimental results and the model was capable of predicting the capacities, average rotations over the region of inelastic deformations, and neutral axis position. However, the *MVLEM* underestimated the compressive strains and was not accurate in predicting the non-linear tensile strain distributions in the flanges of T-shaped walls. Kolozvari et al. [20] proposed a model to accurately capture the nonlinear flexural/shear interaction of the cyclic

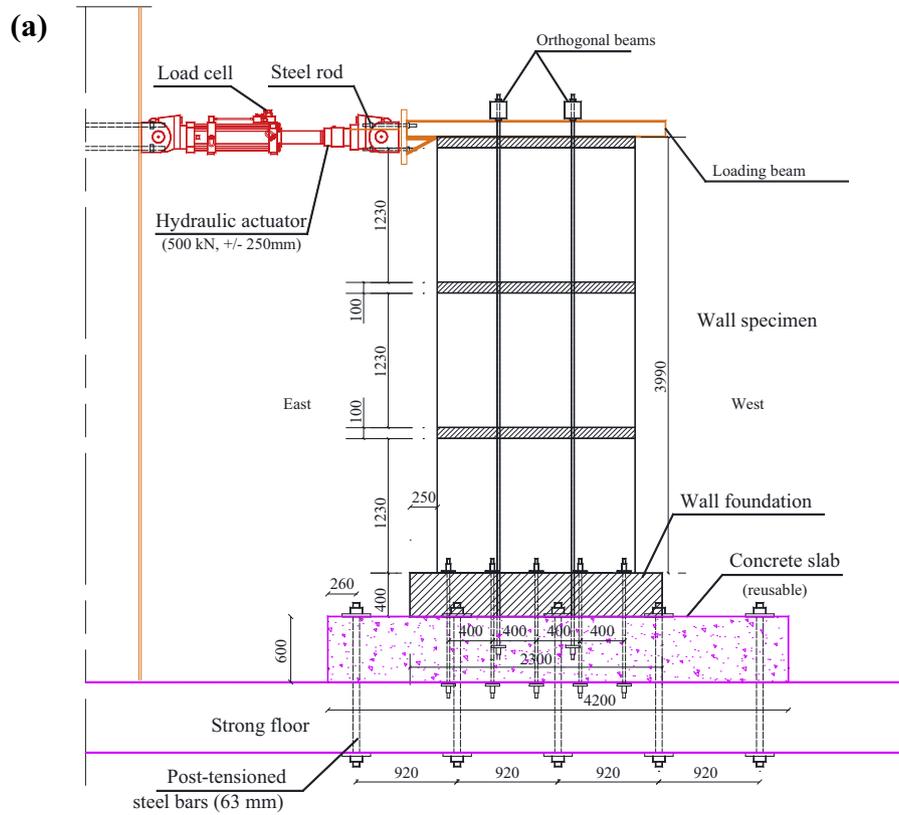


Fig. 1. (a) Test setup: face view; (b) test setup: side view.

strength of 420 MPa (*c.o.v.* = 6.9%) and 9.4% elongation. The average ultimate strength of D4, D7 and D11 bars were 556 MPa (*c.o.v.* = 3.4%), 526 MPa (*c.o.v.* = 2.1%) and 511 MPa (*c.o.v.* = 4.2%), respectively.

2.3. Construction, test setup and instrumentation

All the walls consisted of three-story with the same overall height and width (3990 mm × 1802 mm). The height of each story

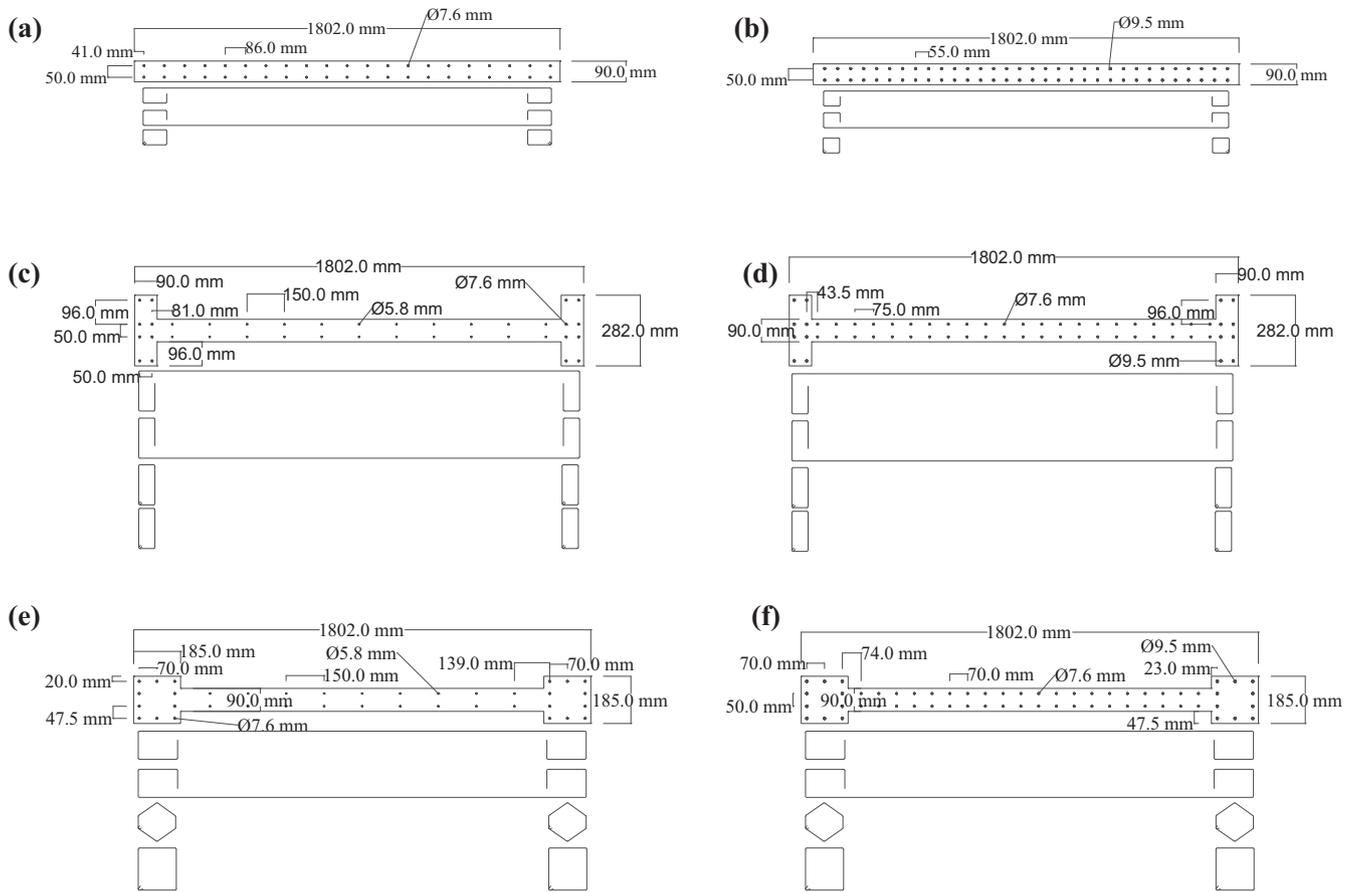


Fig. 2. Specimens configurations; rectangular walls (a) W1 & (b) W4; flanged walls (c) W2 & (d) W5; boundary elements walls (e) W3 & (f) W6.

Table 1
Test matrix.

Specimen	Configuration	Wall dimensions	Vertical reinforcements		Horizontal reinforcements		Axial stress (MPa)	Axial (% f'_c)
			Number of bars and bar sizes	ρ_v (%)	D4 at spacing (mm)	ρ_h (%)		
W1	Rectangular	1802 mm × 3990 mm	42 D7	1.17	2 at 90	0.64	1.09	3.85
W2	Flanged	length × height	16 D7 & 22 D4	0.66	2 at 110	0.53	0.89	3.15
W3	Boundary elements		20 D7 & 18 D4	0.69	2 at 110	0.53	0.89	3.15
W4	Rectangular		64 D11	2.80	2 at 45	1.28	1.09	2.66
W5	Flanged		16 D11 & 44 D7	1.58	2 at 55	1.05	0.89	2.17
W6	Boundary elements		20 D11 & 40 D7	1.63	2 at 55	1.05	0.89	2.17

was 1230 mm in addition to 100 mm slab thickness extending 150 mm in both out-of-plane sides as shown in Fig. 1. The vertical reinforcement of the wall was extended and bent into the foundation extending 250 mm from each side of the wall. The RC foundation had a width of 2300 mm, height of 400 mm and depth of 500 mm. The concentrated reinforcement regions at each end had one rectangular tie for Walls W1 and W4 while two rectangular ties were used for Walls W2 and W5. Regarding Walls W3 and W6 two ties (rectangular and hexagonal) were used on each end as shown in Fig. 2.

Each wall was placed on the reusable slab in the test setup as shown in Fig. 1(a). A built-up steel U-shaped loading beam was connected and coincided to the hydraulic actuator to uniformly transfer the simulated earthquake loading on the entire length of the wall as opposed to a concentrated load at the wall corner.

The lateral cyclic loading of the wall was applied using a displacement-controlled hydraulic actuator with a maximum stroke of ± 250 mm and a maximum capacity of ± 500 kN. Six out-of-plane steel sections were connected to the wall for lateral stability as shown in Fig. 1(b). The out-of-plane members were designed and installed to prevent out-of-plane movement while allowing lateral movements and rotations in the in-plane directions.

The axial load was incorporated in the test via two force-controlled hydraulic actuators, which were connected to four threaded rods (two from each side of the box section) as shown in Fig. 1. The applied load on each rod was maintained at 40 kN resulting in a total vertical axial load on the wall of 160 kN.

Thirty-eight displacement potentiometers were used to measure and record the sliding, vertical, and lateral displacements at

Table 2
Materials (a) concrete strengths and (b) reinforcements.

Concrete	Compressive strength (MPa)		C.O.V. (%)		Standard
<i>(a)</i>					
Walls W1 and W2	28.3		5.5		Cylinder Test ASTM C39–10
Wall W3	36.4		3.4		Cylinder Test ASTM C39–10
Phase II Walls	41.0		7.3		Cylinder Test ASTM C39–10
Reinforcement	Area (mm ²)	Yield strength (MPa)	C.O.V. (%)	Elongation (%)	Standard
<i>(b)</i>					
D4	26	510	3.5	8.0	ASTM A615-09
D7	45	480	2.8	10.7	ASTM A615-09
D11	71	420	6.9	9.4	ASTM A615-09

various points on the wall. Fourteen electrical strain gauges were attached to the four outermost vertical reinforcement bars. The strain gauges locations for the first two bars were placed 200 mm below the interface between the wall and the foundation, at the interface, at 100 mm above the interface, at a height of 900 mm corresponding to half of the length of the wall ($l_w/2$) and at a height of 1800 mm (l_w). The second two bars had one strain gauge 50 mm above the interface and at a location equal to the length of the wall 1800 mm (l_w).

The strain gauges located below the interface and in the foundation were used to determine the extent of plasticity in the foundation which could significantly affect wall top displacement as discussed by Priestley et al. [33] and Shedid and El-Dakhkhni [34].

A target wall resistance equal to 20% of the theoretical yield load F_y was considered in the first loading cycle and was followed by target resistance of 40% F_y , 60% F_y and 80% F_y . The loading was then continued until the experimental yield load Q_y and corresponding top wall displacement Δ_y were determined. After reaching the yield strength, displacement controlled loading, based on multiples of the experimentally determined yield displacement was followed until the wall resistance degraded to approximately 50% of its maximum values, at which point the test was terminated.

3. Test results

The walls lateral load capacities, load–displacement relationships, crack patterns, failure modes, load–displacement envelopes and stiffness degradation are presented and discussed in the following sections. In addition, the displacement ductility values for each wall were computed and compared.

3.1. Lateral load capacities

The theoretical and experimental yield strength, Q_y and ultimate flexural strength Q_u , for all walls were listed in Table 3. Using mechanics, the strength predictions, ignoring material or strength reduction factors, were determined according to the CSA A23.3-14 [3] by limiting the extreme fiber compressive strain for concrete to 0.0035. The predicted yield loads for *Phase I* walls were slightly conservative while *Phase II* predicted yield loads were more in agreement with the experimental results. On the other hand, predicted ultimate strengths of all the specimens were similar to the experimental results except in Wall W1 where a construction error occurred at the East Toe as explained earlier. While, the difference in the push direction can be due to strain hardening of the vertical reinforcements D7 bars.

3.2. Wall load–displacement relationships and failure modes

The load–displacement hysteresis relationships of all the test walls are plotted in Fig. 3. The yield load Q_y and ultimate load Q_u are shown in the push and pull directions on each hysteresis loops graph. A table is inserted in each graph to show the yield load Q_y , the maximum load Q_u , and load at 20% strength degradation $Q_{0.8u}$, along with their corresponding displacements. The bottom right table in each graph shows the wall key features including: the wall length, l_w , height, h_w , vertical, ρ_v , horizontal, ρ_h , reinforcement ratios as well as the axial load, P , applied on the wall. The top right quadrant shows the load–displacement relationships in the push direction where the East toe was under tension and the west toes was under compression and vice versa as it is seen for the bottom left quadrant. Prior to yielding, the slope of the hysteresis loops indicated higher stiffness of the wall compared to loading beyond yield where the slopes of the loading portion of the hysteresis loops of each cycle showed gradual stiffness degradation for all walls. The hysteresis loops after yield started widening which would increase energy dissipation capabilities for walls. In general, all walls failed in a flexural manner characterized by crushing of the concrete at the toes followed by buckling of the vertical bars and finally the outermost vertical reinforcements fractured and the wall strength degraded significantly.

3.2.1. Wall W1

The hysteresis loops for Wall W1 are shown in Fig. 3(a). First yield at the outermost bars was recorded at 152 kN and 123 kN in the push and pull directions, respectively corresponding to displacements of 7.4 mm and 9.2 mm in the push and pull directions, respectively. The average yield displacement taken as $\Delta_y = 8.4$ mm (0.21% drift) was then selected to determine the target displacement levels as multiple of yield displacement.

The recorded ultimate load Q_u was 230 kN in the push and 172 kN in the pull loading direction corresponding to a top displacement of 22.7 mm (0.57%) and 17.1 mm (0.43%), respectively. The wall reached its ultimate load at $3\Delta_y$ during the push cycle, while in the pull loading direction the wall reached its ultimate strength during the $2\Delta_y$ loading cycle. The variability in the strength and displacement could be in part due to an accidental problem during the concrete pouring as minor voids were discovered at the East toe of the wall and were later repaired using high strength low shrinkage repair mortar as they were necessary prior to testing. At $4\Delta_y$ (0.84% top drift), the concrete crushed during the first loading cycle at both wall toes and during the second loading cycle 3 vertical reinforcement bars fractured in the East end of the wall as listed in Table 4 (where repair mortar was used). At $5\Delta_y$ loading cycle corresponding to 42.0 mm (1.05% drift), 5 outermost West vertical bars fractured. The wall was then loaded even further to $6\Delta_y$ (1.26% drift) where both corners were heavily damaged as shown in Fig. 4(a) and the test was terminated.

3.2.2. Wall W2

The experimental yield Q_y load for wall W2 was 175 kN and 158 kN in the push and pull directions, respectively and corresponded to displacements of 8.9 mm (0.22% drift) and 8.4 mm (0.21% drift), respectively. Due to a minor error in identifying the actual yield displacement Δ_y while testing, the wall was pushed in multiples of 10 mm. At $2.3\Delta_y$ (0.50% drift) the wall reached its maximum capacity of 187 kN in the push and 183 kN in the pull directions as shown in Fig. 3(c). At $4.6\Delta_y$ (1.00% drift) displacement level, concrete crushed at the flanges, the vertical bars buckled and the first bar fractured. The ultimate level displacement $\Delta_{0.8u}$ was reached in the push direction at 0.70% top drift while at 0.95% top drift in the pull direction. When the wall was loaded to $5.8\Delta_y$ (1.25% drift), all the bars in the flanges fractured, in addition to

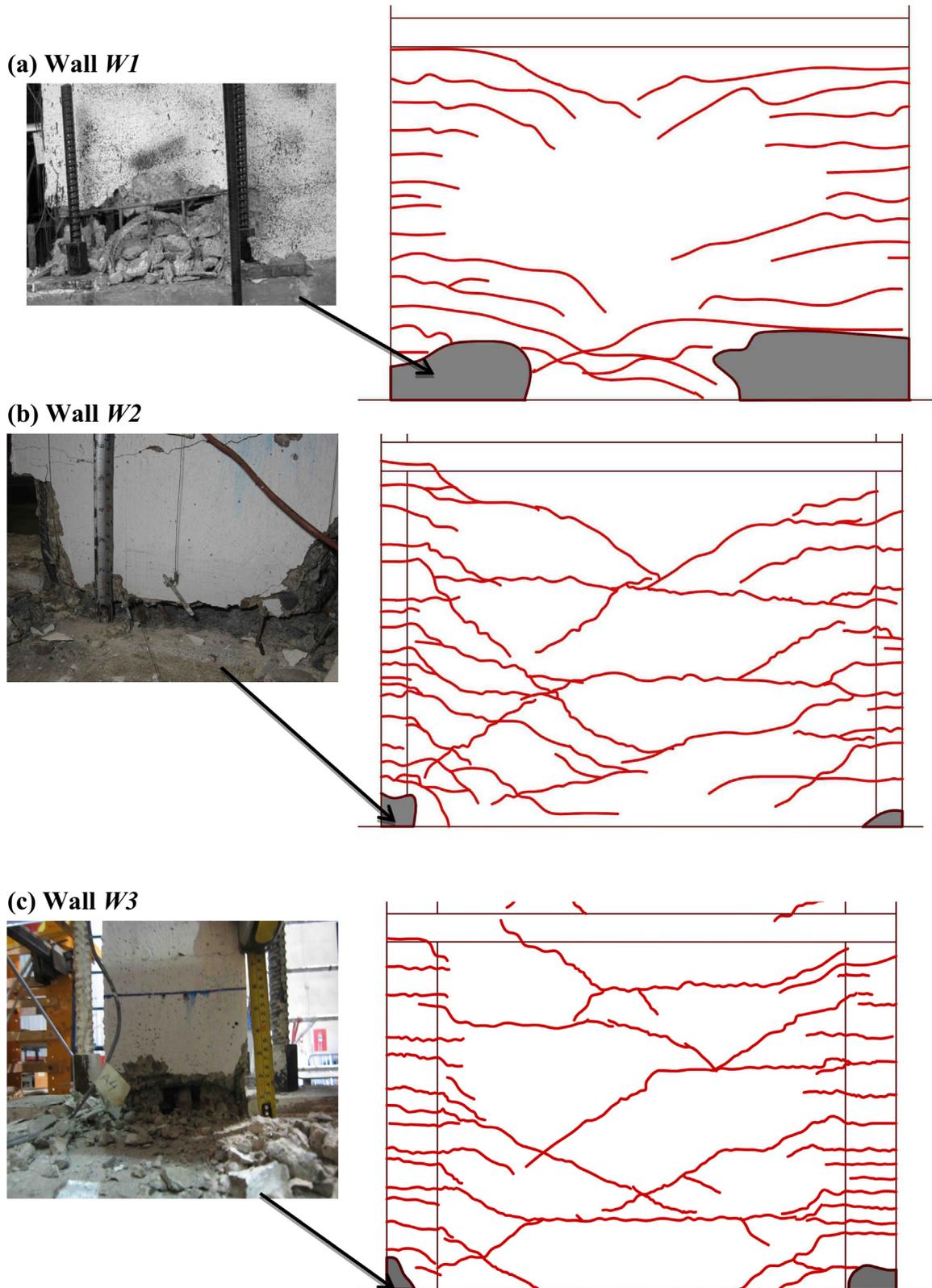


Fig. 4. First story crack patterns and toe damage at failure for each wall; (a) W1; (b) W2; (c) W3; (d) W4; (e) W5; (f) W6.

4. Analysis of experimental results

4.1. Walls damage quantification

According to the Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA P58) [36], damage states are related to the residual story

drift and classified into four levels. The first damage state (DS1), is reached when non-structural repairs are needed and occurs when the story residual drift reach 0.2% the height of the story, whereas, the second damage state (DS2), is specified corresponds to story drift equal to 0.5% and when structural realignment and repairs are needed to limit degradation of the structure stability.

from seismic aftershocks. *DS4*, indicates that the building is on the verge of collapsing and structural repairs are not an option, therefore a new building is inevitable.

Table 4 shows the occurrence of each damage state while specimen was tested. The displacement level cycles written on the right side of Table 3 indicates that the selected specimen reached the specified damage state at the mentioned displacement cycle.

The first (*DS1*) and second (*DS2*) damage states, occurred at the same displacement ductility levels for all walls except for the rectangular walls where *DS1* was reached at $2\Delta_y$ for Wall *W1* and $3\Delta_y$ for Wall *W4*. As seen in Table 4, *DS3* for Wall *W4* was not reached as the wall reached its *DS2* after the first $4\Delta_y$ displacement level cycle, however due to bar snapping, the wall was on the verge of collapsing *DS4* after performing the second $4\Delta_y$ cycle. Phase II flanged and boundary elements walls showed higher displacement ductility levels for higher damage states when compared to their Phase I counterparts. This reflects the enhanced seismic performance of both the flanged Wall *W5* with higher reinforcement ratio ($\rho_v\% = 1.58$) and the boundary elements Wall *W6* ($\rho_v\% = 1.63$). On the other hand, for the rectangular walls, higher ductility levels corresponding to the *DS3* and *DS4* levels were achieved by Wall *W1* ($\rho_v\% = 1.17$) when compared to those of Wall *W4* ($\rho_v\% = 2.80$). Moreover, relatively higher reinforcement ratio and well-distributed web reinforcement of flanged and boundary elements walls would reach the damage state levels at higher ductility levels.

4.2. Load–displacement envelopes

Load displacement relationships for each specimen were constructed and compared in Fig. 5. The cross sectional configuration of the flanged and the boundary elements Walls (*W2* and *W3*) having less vertical reinforcement ratio compared to rectangular Wall *W1*, were expected to show higher ductile capability but due to the localized cracking between the wall and the foundation, which concentrated the steel plastic strain at the interface, these walls did not show the intended seismic performance. As shown in Fig. 5(b), the rectangular Wall *W4* had a lower ductile capability and lower ultimate drift when compared to the flanged Wall *W5* and the wall with boundary elements *W6*. The increase in the drift ratios of Walls *W5* and *W6* was due to the configuration and the confinement of the horizontal hoops at the heavily reinforced regions. It can be inferred that flanges and boundary elements enhance the structural wall performance allowing the wall to reach higher drifts with slower strength degradation rate. As shown in Figs. 5(b) and 6(b), *W5* load displacement envelope in the push direction was not added in the comparison due to foundation cracks as mentioned earlier in *W5* load–displacement relationships section.

To facilitate comparison between the walls, the load was normalized for each specimen, as Phase II wall strengths were higher than those in Phase I. As shown in Fig. 6 Phase II walls had higher displacement (top drifts) compared to Phase I walls at both maximum and ultimate load capacities. The reasons of such higher displacements were related to the effect of the primary cracks leading to concentration of the steel plasticity at those locations and consequently localizing the plastic curvature and the plastic hinge length over a relatively small height above the foundation level. While for Phase II higher vertical reinforcement forced the walls to initiate larger number of horizontal flexural cracks as well as diagonal shear cracks in addition to secondary flexural cracks. These secondary cracks distributed the high tensile in the outermost vertical reinforcement over a larger length, which resulted in spreading the high curvatures at the base of the wall over a larger zone and extended the plastic hinge length. Such a phenomenon resulted in turn in increased top displacements

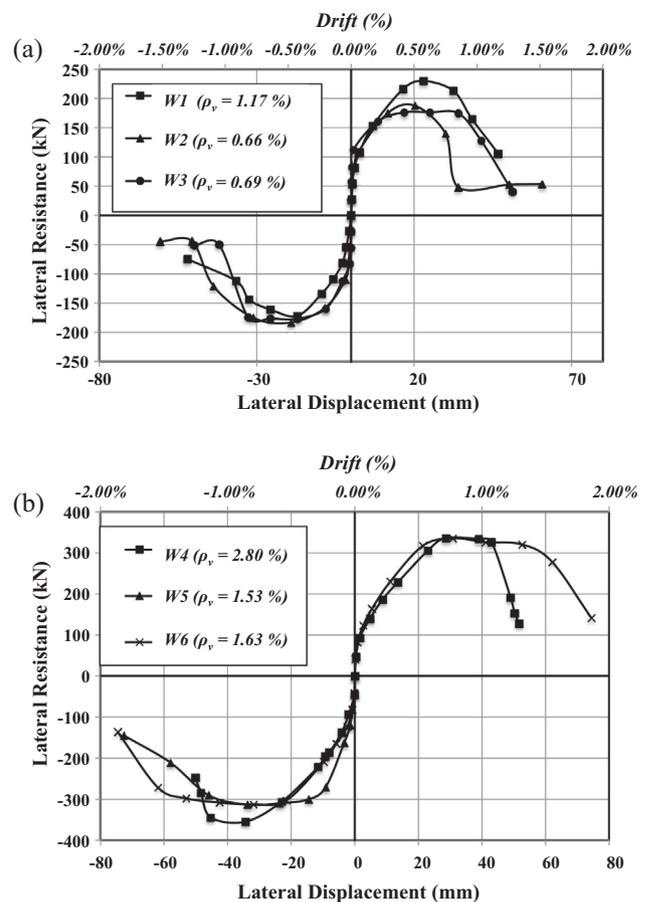


Fig. 5. Load–displacement envelopes; (a) Phase I; (b) Phase II.

corresponding to maximum and ultimate capacities for walls with higher reinforcement ratios as opposed to those with lower ratios. The discussed results agree with the Canterbury Report [1].

Table 5 showed the yield displacement Δ_y , displacement at the maximum load Δ_u and ultimate displacement at 20% strength degradation $\Delta_{0.8u}$ as well as the corresponding percentage drifts. The yield displacement for all the walls varied between 8.3 mm and 10.9 mm (0.21–0.27% drift). The maximum loads were reached for Phase I walls at top drifts varying between 0.42% and 0.69%, while, Phase II wall maximum loads achieved at top drifts varying between 0.72% and 0.86%. Drifts corresponding to ultimate displacement (at 20% strength degradation) for Phase I varied between 0.70% and 0.98% while varied between 1.15% and 1.58% for Phase II specimens. As discussed it was clear that Phase II had higher top displacements at maximum load and at 20% strength degradation when compared to Phase I walls.

4.3. Displacement ductility

The seismic performance could better be quantified by evaluating the displacement ductility values, as high ultimate displacement values do not necessarily imply high ductility capacities. The experimental displacement ductility values in this section were computed by dividing the displacement at the target displacement level (Δ) by the yield displacement (Δ_y). The yield displacement (Δ_y) was the lateral displacement when the first outermost vertical reinforcement started yielding. The displacement ductility values for all the walls at the maximum load μ_{Δ} and at 20% strength degradation (ultimate displacement) $\mu_{\Delta_{0.8u}}$ are presented in Fig. 7. The displacement ductility covers fully the kinetic energy dissipated from the structural wall.

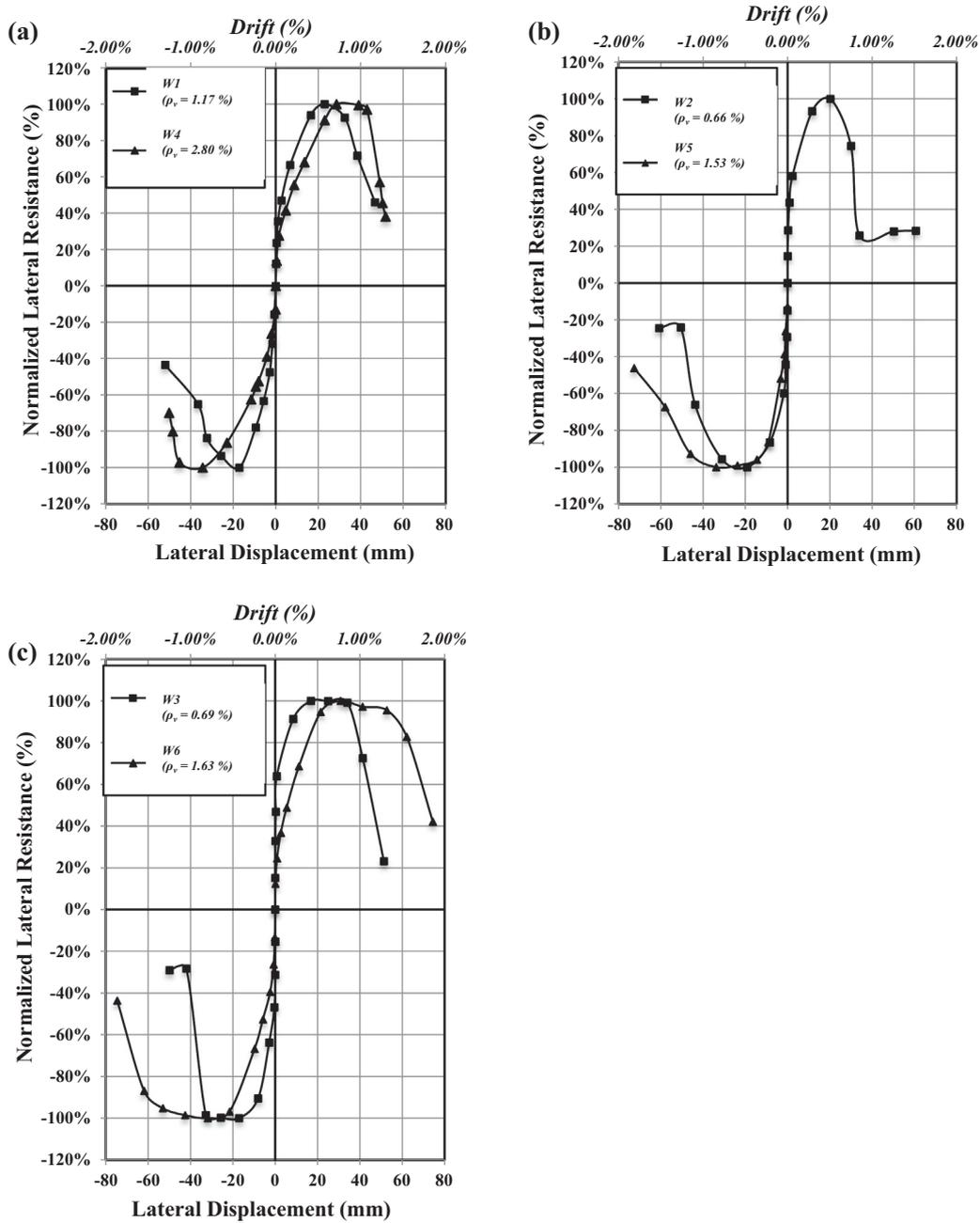


Fig. 6. Normalized load–displacement relationships; (a) rectangular walls W1 & W4; (b) flanged walls W2 & W5; (c) boundary elements walls W3 & W6.

The displacement ductility values calculated at the maximum load μ_A varied between 2.0 and 2.7 in Phase I walls, and between 2.6 and 3.7 for walls in Phase II as indicated in Table 5. The displacement ductility values at ultimate displacements $\mu_{A0.8u}$ for Phase I walls ranged between 3.2 and 4.7 whereas for Phase II walls, $\mu_{A0.8u}$ varied between 4.2 and 6.0. As such, it is clear in Phase II that the displacement ductility values attained by the flanged and boundary elements walls were, respectively 33% and 40% higher than that attained by their rectangular counterpart. The reason for the higher ductile capacity was the confinement and the configuration of the flanges and the boundary elements, which confined the concrete from crushing at earlier stages and enabled sustaining the lateral load capacity at high drift levels. On the other hand, the similar ductility values for Phase I could be justified based on the generation of the primary cracks at the interface for walls W2 and W3 that controlled the failure and limited the ductility due

to high plastic strains concentrated in a relatively smaller length and the relatively low number of bars, acting as dowels between the foundation and the base of the wall, controlling the sliding after generation of the primary crack extending over the entire length of these walls.

4.4. Idealized displacement ductility

The idealized displacement ductility values μ_A^{id} were determined based on bilinear idealization (elastic-perfectly plastic system) performed by Priestley et al. [33]. It offers a conservative yield displacement value, which is the intersection of the yield stiffness K_y line of slope with a horizontal line from the maximum capacity Q_u . The maximum capacity idealized displacement ductility μ_A^{id} was determined by dividing the lateral displacement at the

Table 5
Yield displacement, ultimate displacement, displacement ductility and idealized displacement ductility.

Wall	Configuration	Direction	At first yield		At maximum load				At 20% strength degradation			
			Δ_y (mm)	% Drift	Δ_u (mm)	μ_{Δ}	% Drift	$\mu_{\Delta u}^{id}$	$\Delta_{0.8u}$ (mm)	$\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}$	% Drift	$\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$
<i>Phase I</i>												
W1	Rectangular	+(ve)	8.3	0.21	22.7	2.7	0.57	1.8	36.6	4.4	0.92	2.9
		–(ve)			17.1	2.1	0.43	1.5	34.5	4.2	0.86	3.0
W2	Flanged	+(ve)	8.7	0.22	20.3	2.4	0.51	2.2	27.8	3.2	0.70	3.0
		–(ve)			19.1	2.2	0.48	1.9	37.8	4.4	0.95	3.8
W3	Boundary elements	+(ve)	8.3	0.21	16.8	2.0	0.42	1.8	39.3	4.7	0.98	4.3
		–(ve)			17.1	2.1	0.43	1.9	35.2	4.2	0.88	3.8
<i>Phase II</i>												
W4	Rectangular	+(ve)	10.9	0.27	28.6	2.6	0.72	1.7	45.9	4.2	1.15	2.8
		–(ve)			34.4	3.2	0.86	1.8	48.4	4.4	1.21	2.4
W5	Flanged	+(ve)	9.1	0.23	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
		–(ve)			33.8	3.7	0.85	3.2	52	5.7	1.30	4.9
W6	Boundary elements	+(ve)	10.5	0.26	31.5	3.0	0.79	2.0	63.0	6.0	1.58	4.1
		–(ve)			31.5	3.0	0.79	2.0	62.7	6.0	1.57	4.0

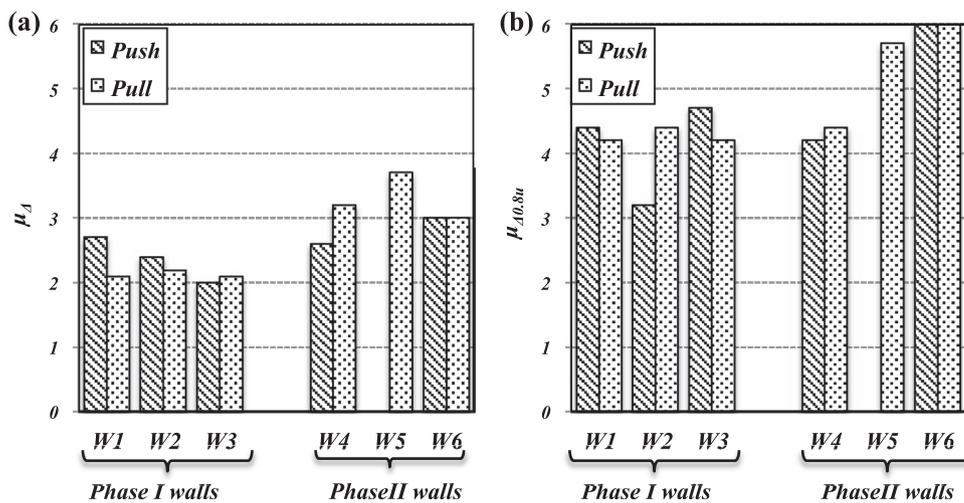


Fig. 7. Walls displacement ductility values: (a) At maximum capacity; (b) At ultimate level.

maximum by the idealized yield displacement. While the ultimate level idealized displacement ductility $\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$ was the lateral displacement at 20% strength degradation by the idealized yield displacement.

The idealized displacement ductility at the maximum capacity $\mu_{\Delta u}^{id}$ varied between 1.5–2.2 and 1.7–3.2 for *Phase I* and *Phase II*, respectively as listed in *Table 5*. *Phase I* flanged Wall W2 achieved higher $\mu_{\Delta u}^{id}$ by 24% when compared to rectangular Wall W1. While the boundary elements Wall W3 showed similar $\mu_{\Delta u}^{id}$ in the push direction and showed 1.26 times the rectangular $\mu_{\Delta u}^{id}$ value in the pull direction. In *Phase II*, the flanged and the walls with boundary elements average higher than their rectangular counterpart by 1.8 and 1.2 times, respectively. Regarding the idealized displacement ductility value at 20% strength degradation $\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$, *Phase I* walls varied between 2.9 and 4.3 while *Phase II* walls ranged from 2.4 to 4.9 as listed in *Table 5*. *Phase I* boundary element Wall W3 average $\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$ was 1.4 times the rectangular Wall W1 idealized displacement ductility. While the flanged wall resulted in 1.3 times, the rectangular value in one direction and the same $\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$ value in the other. *Phase II* flanged and boundary elements walls achieved higher average $\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$ when compared to their rectangular counterpart by 90% and 60%, respectively.

Phase II showed higher average idealized displacement values at maximum capacity and compared to *Phase I* walls. While the average idealized displacement ultimate level $\mu_{\Delta 0.8u}^{id}$ of *Phase II* were,

higher than *Phase I* walls for the flanged walls by 44%, similar to the boundary elements walls and slightly lower by 10% than the rectangular walls.

Flanged and boundary elements walls in *Phase II* showed an enhanced seismic performance when compared to their rectangular counterpart. That was due to the well-detailed flange and boundary element for Walls W5 and W6 respectively. Larger confined area was able to resist the increasing compressive stress delaying buckling of the confined region due to adequate transverse reinforcement and hoops detailing. Moreover, due to the higher concentration of reinforcement at the confined region of the boundary elements and within the flange of the flanged walls, the walls were more capable of meeting higher tensile strain demands when compared to the rectangular Wall W4. Hence, *Phase II* flanged and boundary elements walls experienced an enhanced seismic performance. Furthermore, it is essential to reinforce the web region adequately to expect higher seismic performance, as Walls W2 and W3 did not show the expected ductility capacity when compared to their rectangular counterpart Wall W1 due to a localized flexural primary crack, where the plastic straining of the reinforcements was localized at the primary crack locations.

4.5. Stiffness degradation

Fig. 8 shows the stiffness degradation from yield to failure of each wall versus displacement levels Δ/Δ_y . At yield K_y , ranged

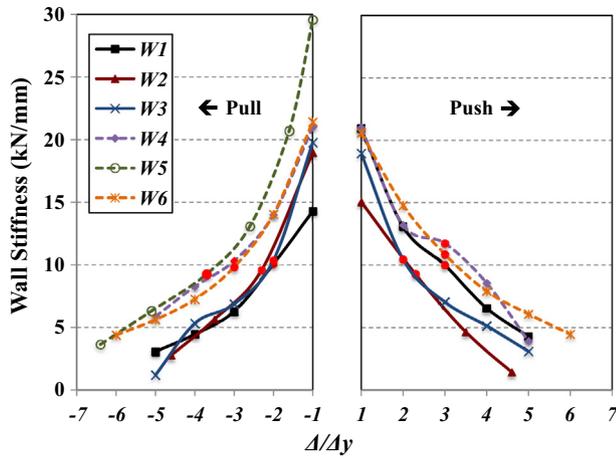


Fig. 8. Stiffness degradation versus displacement levels Δ/Δ_y .

between 14.3 and 30.1 kN/mm, while at the ultimate loads K_u varied between 9.3 and 11.8 kN/mm for all the specimens shown as red points in Fig. 8. The stiffness at 20% strength degradation $K_{0.8u}$ for all the walls was between 2.0 and 7.6 kN/mm. It was observed that both rectangular walls had higher $K_{0.8u}$ when compared to the flanged and the boundary elements walls for both Phases. This implies that the flanged and boundary elements walls would attract less base shear at higher displacement levels when compared to the rectangular walls. Fig. 8 shows that Phase II walls have higher stiffness values at the ultimate level $K_{0.8u}$ when compared to their Phase I counterparts. All the specimens resulted in similar stiffness values at the maximum load K_u . As shown in Fig. 8, the stiffness degrades on higher rate for Phase I walls when compared to their Phase II counterparts, which is due to the difference in the intensity of failure between Phase I and Phase II walls. Phase II walls had extensive cracks and crushing of the concrete, which lowered the stiffness degradation rate when compared to Phase I walls in which walls primary cracks at the interface accelerated the stiffness degradation. When comparing the stiffness degradation for the walls on each phase, similar stiffness degrading slopes were observed, as shown in Fig. 8, which illustrates that the design base shear should be similar for all the walls at each phase. Due to foundation cracks mentioned earlier for flanged wall W5, the stiffness degradation values in the push direction were not considered.

5. Conclusions

Strength prediction for the walls using the Canadian code CSA A23.3-14 [3] showed an excellent agreement with the experimental strengths. At the primary crack location between the base and the wall, the strain in the steel kept increasing till the steel fractured and the concrete crushed over a small height.

The ductile capability for Phase II walls were better than Phase I walls when comparing the normalized load–displacement envelopes which is consistent with the Canterbury earthquake observations for walls with higher reinforcement ratios.

The displacement ductility values at 20% strength degradation $\mu_{A0.8u}$ of the rectangular, flanged wall and wall with boundary elements with low reinforcement ratios were almost similar, however for walls in Phase II with higher reinforcement ratios, the attained displacement ductility values by the flanged and boundary elements walls were 50% and 33% higher than their counterparts in Phase I.

The displacement ductility values of the flanged wall W5 and boundary elements W6 walls seismic performances were

respectively 33% and 40% higher than their rectangular counterpart W4. While, the average idealized displacement ductility values of the flanged and boundary elements walls were higher than their rectangular counter parts by 40% and 30% for Phase I walls and 90% and 60% for Phase II walls, respectively. Such findings are in line with those reported in the Canterbury Earthquake Royal Commission report [1], which recommended concentrating the vertical reinforcements in the outer regions. Generally, Wall end-configurations have major effects on the seismic performance; boundary elements and flanged walls tend to have higher seismic performance. This is due to the larger confined area when compared to rectangular walls. In effect, larger confined areas are able to resist the increasing compressive forces when the cantilever wall is loaded in-plane to higher displacement levels. Moreover, due to higher concentration of the vertical reinforcement at the confined region, the walls could resist higher tensile strains so that the walls could achieve higher ductility capacities. The end-configurations tend to delay the strength degradation at higher displacement level, which, in turn, enhances the seismic performance of the walls.

By increasing the vertical reinforcement ratio in Phase II compared to what in Phase I, secondary cracks were observed and the steel strain was more uniformly distributed at higher length, which increased the ductile capability of the seismic force resisting structural walls. These results are also in agreement with the Canterbury Commission report recommendations [1] of the need to increase the vertical reinforcement ratio $\rho_v\%$ to initiate secondary cracks to extend the plastic hinge length and therefore better seismic performance can be achieved. It is essential to adequately reinforce the web region of the wall to prevent any bond slip of the webs and to extend the plastic straining on multiple flexural cracks instead of strain localization in the vicinity of the primary flexural crack. As such, the provisions for minimum web reinforcement of seismically-detailed RC walls might need to be revisited.

Future editions of seismic codes might need to consider assigning different values for the ductility-related modification factor R_d for ductile walls with different configurations and related to different vertical reinforcement ratio. However, due to the limited number of specimens tested within the current study, further research is necessary to develop recommendations for code revision.

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Appendix A. Theoretical yield load calculations

Compression in concrete

$$C_c = \text{Triangular Area} \times \varepsilon_c \times E_c = \left(\frac{1}{2} b \cdot c\right) \cdot \varepsilon_c \cdot E_c$$

Where, concrete compressive strain

$$\varepsilon_c = \frac{c(\varepsilon_y)}{(a_1 - c)}$$

And concrete Young's modulus

$$E_c = 4500\sqrt{f'_c}$$

Moment of concrete,

$$M_{yconc} = C_c \left(\frac{l_w}{2} - \frac{c}{3} \right)$$

Tensile force in the reinforcement at point n ,

$$F_{sn} = A_{sn} \cdot \varepsilon_{sn} \cdot E_s$$

Sum of moments of the vertical reinforcements around the centroid (M_{steel})

$$M_{steel} = \sum_{a_n \geq \frac{l_w}{2}}^{n=1,2,3,\dots} (F_{sn}) \left(a_n - \frac{l_w}{2} \right) + \sum_{a_n < \frac{l_w}{2}}^{n=1,2,3,\dots} (F_{sn}) \left(\frac{l_w}{2} - a_n \right)$$

So the theoretical yield strength

$$Q_{yth} = \frac{M_{steel} + M_{conc}}{h}$$

Appendix B. Theoretical maximum capacity calculations

Compression in concrete

$$C_c = \alpha_1 f'_c \beta_1 c b$$

where

$$\alpha_1 = 0.85 - (0.0015 f'_c) \quad [\text{CSA A23.3-14}]$$

$$\beta_1 = 0.97 - (0.0025 f'_c) \quad [\text{CSA A23.3-14}]$$

Moment of concrete,

$$M_{conc} = C_c \left(\frac{l_w}{2} - \frac{\beta_1 c}{2} \right)$$

Tensile force in the reinforcement at a point n ,

{for $\varepsilon_{sn} \geq \varepsilon_y$, then use ε_y }

{for $-\varepsilon_y < \varepsilon_{sn} < \varepsilon_y$, then use ε_{sn} }

{for $\varepsilon_{sn} \leq -\varepsilon_y$, then use $-\varepsilon_y$ }

$$F_{sn} = A_{sn} \cdot \varepsilon_{sn} \cdot E_s$$

Sum of moment of the reinforcements around the centroid M_{steel}

$$(M_{steel}) = \sum_{a_n \geq \frac{l_w}{2}} (F_{sn}) \left(a_n - \frac{l_w}{2} \right) + \sum_{a_n < \frac{l_w}{2}} (F_{sn}) \left(\frac{l_w}{2} - a_n \right)$$

So the theoretical maximum capacity (Q_{uth})

$$Q_{uth} = \frac{M_{steel} + M_{conc}}{h}$$

a_1 = distance from the outermost tensile vertical reinforcements to the end of the compression toe (mm)

a_n = distance from the vertical reinforcement at point n to the end of the compression toe (mm)

A_{sn} = vertical reinforcement cross-sectional area at point n (mm^2)

b = width of the section (mm)

c = distance from the compression toe to the neutral axis (mm)

C_c = compressive force due to concrete (mm)

E_c = concrete modulus of elasticity (MPa)

E_s = reinforcement steel modulus of elasticity (MPa)

f'_c = concrete compressive strength (MPa)

F_{sn} = tensile or compressive force of the reinforcements located at point n (kN)

h = height of the wall (mm)

l_w = length of the wall (mm)

M_{conc} = compressive concrete moment around the centroid (kN mm)

M_{steel} = sum of moments of the vertical reinforcements around the centroid (kN mm)

M_{yconc} = compressive concrete moment around the centroid at yield (kN mm)

n = numbering of reinforcement locations, where $n = 1$ is referring the outer most vertical reinforcement, $n = 2$ refers to the second outermost vertical reinforcement, etc.

Q_{yth} = theoretical yield strength (kN)

Q_{uth} = theoretical maximum capacity (kN)

α_1 = ratio of average stress in rectangular compression block to the specified concrete strength

β_1 = ratio of depth of rectangular compression block to depth to the neutral axis

ε_c = concrete compressive strain

ε_y = reinforcement yield strain

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