A multi-stage-based nonlinear static procedure for estimating seismic demands of steel MRFs equipped with steel slit walls

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Abstract:

This paper aims to develop a nonlinear static procedure for estimating seismic demands of steel moment resisting frames (MRFs) equipped with steel slit walls (SSWs) exhibiting multi-yielding stages under seismic actions. The hysteretic behaviour of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs was examined. Numerical models were also developed and verified by revisiting a previous full-scale test programme. The applicability of a classical trilinear kinematic model for idealising the hysteretic response of the systems was examined. Then, a multi-stage-based nonlinear static procedure (MNSP) governed by the energy-balance concept was proposed, which enables practitioners to quantify the seismic demands of a steel MRFs equipped with SSWs showing multi-yielding stages. The MNSP was subsequently applied to two prototype steel MRFs equipped with SSWs under design basis earthquakes and maximum considered earthquakes. The predictions by the MNSP were compared with nonlinear response history analysis (NL-RHA) to examine the effectiveness of the method. The lateral load distributions documented in FEMA-356 were also included in the work for comparison. The observations from this study suggests that the proposed MNSP offers a promising tool for estimating the peak seismic response of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs showing multi-yielding stages.

Keywords: steel slit wall, multi-yielding stages, pushover analysis, energy-based procedure, trilinear hysteretic model

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1. Introduction

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Recent post-earthquake structural damage evaluations have highlighted the limitations 2 3 of the conventional seismic design methodology pursuing the ductility as the sole objective. For a steel moment resisting frame (MRF) designed following current seismic provisions, 4 yielding of members and connections in rapid succession triggered by earthquake loading 5 generally results in significant post-disaster structural damages and residual deformations 6 [1-3], and hence long-time occupancy suspension is expected due to the repairing works. 7 In cases where severe damages are sustained by a system, complete demolition-and-8 9 reconstruction is needed. Recognising that continuous operation and fast functional recovery of the system after a seismic event are critical for maintaining both economic 10 prosperity and social stability, the research community engaged in seismic hazard 11 12 mitigation has shifted the pursuit from 'life-safety' to 'performance-based design' [4, 5] and 'seismic resilience' [6, 7]. In this context, passive energy dissipation device (EDD) [8] 13 is an attractive solution for enhancing the seismic behaviour of conventional ductile steel 14 MRFs. With a wise design, EDDs can dissipate plastic energy at smaller deformation 15 levels, and members of a MRF are able to respond elastically to produce the 'damage-16 control' behaviour [9-11]. 17 18 Among newly emerged plate-type EDDs [12-14], the steel slit wall (SSW) [15-20] is a promising candidate and has drawn much attention from the research community. With 19 slits distributed in a steel panel, a SSW resists lateral loading by bending behaviour of a 20 series of flexural links, and a steel MRF with SSW is schematically shown in Fig. 1. The 21 22 hysteretic performance of the SSWs and the steel MRFs equipped with SSWs as EDDs

have been examined by a number of researchers in recent decades. For instance, Hitaka and Matsui [15] examined the seismic performance of SSWs with various geometries and slit configurations based on an experimental and numerical study. The authors proposed design methods for calculating the lateral stiffness and ultimate strength of a SSW. Later. SSWs were applied in steel MRFs, and the ductile manner of the system in the extreme state was verified [16]. Gortes and Liu [21] developed a similar system combining the steel frames with steel slit panels, and the feasibility of the novel system was strengthened by a large experimental programme. He et al. [18] recently investigated the seismic performance of SSWs with low-yield-steel plate and proposed a design procedure for the SSWs. To examine the potential of using SSWs as sacrificial members under seismic attacks, Ke and Chen [22] conducted a feasibility-of-concept study on steel MRFs equipped with SSWs using full-scale quasi-static tests. The earlier yielding of the SSW in the 'damage-control stage' and the synergetic energy dissipation behaviour of the SSW and the MRF in the 'ultimate stage' were observed. The multi-yielding stages of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs were in line with the fundamental requirements of the performance-based seismic engineering. More recently, Wang et al. [23] developed an innovative self-centring modular panel using the SSW as the energy dissipation member. From the practical application point of view, quantification of seismic demands of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs subjected to expected earthquake events is an essential task for extending the system in seismic regions. In this respect, nonlinear static analysis procedures [24-26] are promising tools as they could shed insightful lights on the seismic demands of structures and can be used in the preliminary design or evaluations before

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eventually transitioning to the most rigorous approach, i.e. the nonlinear history response analysis (NL-RHA). This study aims to develop a multi-stage-based nonlinear static analysis procedure for estimating the seismic demands of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs. The seismic demand quantification of the structure in both the damage-control stage where only SSWs yield and the ultimate stage with significant yielding of the steel MRF is employed in the procedure. First, the cyclic behaviour of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs was revisited, and numerical models were developed and verified by a recent full-scale test programme. The applicability of a multi-linear kinematic model for describing the nonlinear force-displacement response of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs was examined in detail. Then, the seismic energy balance of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs in multiyielding stages was developed using the concept of the modal equivalent oscillator assigned with the verified hysteretic model. A stepwise multi-stage-based nonlinear static procedure (MNSP) was subsequently proposed, and it was applied to seismic demand evaluation of prototype steel MRFs equipped with SSWs. The rationality of the invariant lateral load distributions in the MNSP for quantifying the seismic demands of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs was strengthened by conducting a comparative study employing lateral load distributions documented in FEMA-356 [27]. The adequacy of the proposed procedure was justified using NL-RHAs of the prototype structures under two ensembles of earthquake ground motions representing design basis earthquakes and maximum considered earthquakes, respectively.

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2. Hysteretic characteristics of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs

2.1. Test programme

Two full-scale tests on the seismic behaviour of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs have 68 been conducted by Ke and Chen [22]. For both specimens, a SSW with the panel 69 70 dimension of 2258 mm × 1970 mm (panel height × panel width) and the thickness of 12 mm was installed in a steel MRF with the dimension of 4750 mm × 3348 mm (bay length 71 72 \times storey height). An I-section beam of $400 \times 200 \times 8 \times 13$ (beam depth \times beam width \times web thickness × flange thickness, unit: mm) along with the cold formed-square tubular 73 column of 350 × 350 × 12 (column depth × column width × thickness, unit: mm) was used 74 in the MRF. The frame members (i.e. I-section beam and cold-formed square column) 75 76 were made of grade Q345 steel with the nominal yield strength of 345 MPa, and the SSWs were fabricated from grade Q235 steel plates with the nominal yield strength of 235 MPa. 77 The detailed information about the measured material properties from coupon tests can be 78 found in [22]. The slits in the SSWs were cut by a 'SlabCO2' laser machine, and a slit 79 width of 12 mm was used with the error ranging from 0.1 to 0.4 mm. The surface 80 roughness was limited to a reasonable range (i.e. 12.5 µm to 25 µm). The end of the slits 81 82 was rounded with the radius of 6 mm to avoid stress concentration. Two rows of flexural links with the designed aspect ratio (i.e. link length to link width ratio) ranging from 5.03 83 to 5.14 along with the width to thickness ratio (i.e. link width to panel thickness) ranging 84 from 11.67 to 11.92 were produced in the SSW panels. Note that the configuration of the 85 slits and the flexural links was in line with the design recommendations in previous works 86 [15, 21]. The first specimen coded as 'FSSW1' was designed to simulate the subassembly 87 of a MRF with a SSW in the ground floor, and hence the bottom beam was fixed on the 88 ground. The other specimens 'FSSW2' corresponded to the scenario in which SSWs were 89

not consecutively arranged in all floors, and thus the effect of the flexibility of the girder in the lower floor was employed. An overview of the test programme is reproduced in Fig. 2.

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2.2. Numerical modelling strategy and hysteretic behaviour of steel MRF equipped with SSWs

The finite element (FE) programme ABAQUS [28] was used to develop numerical models of the two specimens in the previous test programme [22]. Specifically, a SSW was discretised by linear quadrilateral four-node doubly curved thin shell elements with reduced integration (i.e. S4R elements). The two-node linear beam elements with first order interpolation (i.e. B31 elements) were utilised to model the frame members. Intersecting elastic B31 elements were used to simulate the connection between the SSW with the adjacent girders. Note that the adequacy of this modelling strategy for simulating the connections between the SSWs and the frame beams was verified in a previous work [29]. The mesh size for the SSWs and the MRF was approximately 20 mm, which was finalised using a trial-and-error procedure. An overview of the assembly of the FE models of the specimens is shown in Fig. 3. Different boundary conditions were included in the models for representation of the two specimens. In particular, the 'encastre' boundary condition was used for the lower beam in the model of specimen 'FSSW1' to produce a fixed end, i.e. U1=U2=U3=UR1=UR2=UR3=0, where U1, U2 and U3 represent the translational movement as shown in Fig. 3, while UR1, UR2 and UR3 are the corresponding rotational movement. Comparatively, only the bases of the stub column of the model for FSSW2 was fixed, and the rotational movement of the lower beam was allowed. To replicate the support by the lateral bracing system in the test, lateral movements of the girder (U1=0) at the bracing points were restrained. The material nonlinearity for the SSWs and the frame components was included in the model based on elastic-plastic multi-linear simplification, i.e. kinematic model, governed by the von Mises yield criterion. The coupon test results were used to produce the input material properties. The geometric nonlinearities were also included in the FE models.

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A three-step analysis procedure was adopted to reproduce the loading protocols in the quasi-static tests. Specifically, a buckling analysis was performed first to obtain the fundamental buckling mode of the SSW, and it was subsequently scaled and utilised as the initial geometric imperfection for the FE models. To investigate the effect of the magnitude of the initial imperfection on the cyclic response of the steel MRFs equipped with SSWs, a sensitivity analysis was conducted with two analysis cases in the second step. In 'case A', the amplitude of the initial imperfection of SSWs was specified according to Eurocode 3 [30]. In particular, the fundamental buckling mode was scaled, and the magnitude was set as $B_s/200 = 9.9$ mm, where B_s is the short span of the panel (i.e. the width of the SSW). In 'case B', the buckling restrained configuration was simulated by restraining the lateral movement of flexural links (U1). In each case, the constant vertical load applying on the upper girder of the specimens was included for simulating the gravity load applied on the specimen. In the third step, static analysis was performed and cyclic loads in accordance with the loading protocol of the quasi-static tests were applied on the FE models.

The FE simulation was compared with the test results till the load cycle where evident

cracking was initiated in SSWs (i.e. loading amplitude of 50 mm), as shown in Fig. 4. It is seen that reasonable correlation between the FE predictions and the test results was obtained, and the predicted curves by 'case A' were in better agreement with the test results because the behaviour deterioration of the SSWs induced by distortional buckling of the flexural links was simulated reasonably. In contrast, fuller hysteretic curves were achieved in 'case B', in which the lateral distortional buckling of the flexural links was avoided. In addition, the initial stiffness and the peak base shear (at the load cycle of 50 mm) by FE predictions are also compared with the test results, as indicated in Fig. 4. It can be observed that FE predictions may slightly overestimate the initial stiffness and the strength of the test specimens, and the response curves predicted by 'case B' have relatively higher stiffness and ultimate base shear. These observations are also in line with the research findings from recent experimental investigations. In particular, inception of distortional buckling of flexural links in the SSWs is a major cause of cyclic deterioration and an inducement to trigger early cracking of the panels. Therefore, the discussion of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs in the following sections is based on the presumption that a structure is well designed without inception of performance deterioration for a wide deformation range. Cyclic degradation induced by distortional buckling of flexural links, fracture of SSWs and local buckling of frame members were not included in the model. In practical cases, available buckling restrained devices [21, 29] can ensure the stable hysteretic performance of SSWs.

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2.3. Feasibility of a trilinear hysteretic model

The pushover force-displacement response of a steel MRF with SSWs showing multiyielding stages can be characterised by typical trilinear behaviour, as schematically shown in Fig. 1b. Note that The multi-yielding stages are formed owing to the yield deformation gap between the SSWs and the MRF (i.e. $\delta_2 > \delta_1$, where δ_2 = yield deformation of the steel MRF and δ_1 = yield deformation of the SSWs, respectively). In particular, a 'damagecontrol core' (Fig. 5) governed by the bilinear kinematic hysteretic rule [22] can quantify the force-displacement hysteretic response if the maximum deformation does not exceed the equivalent yield deformation of the MRF, and the shape of the damage-control core is quantified by two non-dimensional hysteretic quantities, i.e. the yield displacement ratio $(\zeta_1 = \delta_2/\delta_1)$ and the post-yielding ratio in the damage-control stage (α_1) . For a steel MRF with SSWs progressing to the ultimate stage with evident inelastic actions triggered in frame members, the hysteretic response can be idealised by a trilinear simplification. The hysteretic model of the system is given in Fig. 5, and the loading-unloading-reloading path is governed by reference lines (i.e. $L_0 \sim L_7$ in Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). It is worth noting that the loading-unloading-reloading path of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs depends on the hysteretic characteristics of the damage-control core. Specifically, when the hysteretic parameters of the damage-control core satisfy $\alpha_1(\zeta_1-1) > 1$, yielding of SSWs is activated during unloading, and the loading-unloading-reloading path is schematically shown in Fig. 6a. Otherwise, a fuller damage-control core is formed, and the loading-unloadingreloading rule is illustrated in Fig. 6b. According to the hysteretic law, a steel MRF with SSWs progressing to the ultimate stage is quantified by shifting of the damage-control core, and the post-yielding stiffness ratio in the ultimate stage, i.e. α_2 , governs the shifting

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path of the damage-control core. To demonstrate this mechanism, the FE models for the specimen 'FSSW1' and 'FSSW2' in case B (i.e. buckling restrained) was loaded under a loading protocol with 'shifting action'. The analysis results were compared with the trilinear idealisation, as given in Fig. 7, and reasonable agreement between the FE results and the trilinear idealisation can be observed. Thus, the effectiveness of the trilinear kinematic hysteretic model for describing the hysteretic behaviour of steel MRFs with SSWs was demonstrated, and the model was used as the basis to explore the nonlinear static procedure for prescribing seismic demands of the system subjected to expected earthquake excitations.

3. A stepwise multi-stage-based nonlinear static procedure

3.1. Seismic energy balance of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs in multi-yielding stages

The energy-balance-concept-based seismic design was initiated by Housner [31] in the last century, and the peak seismic response demand of a structure was directly related to the elastic spectral pseudo-velocity or pseudo-acceleration of the equivalent oscillator. Recently, it was observed that the inelastic action of a system interacts with earthquake ground motion properties, and hence Lee et al. [32, 33] developed a modified energy-based equation using the classical elasto-perfectly-plastic (EPP) model. An energy factor was introduced into the classical Housner equation, reproduced as follows:

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$$\gamma(\frac{1}{2}MS_{v}^{2}) = E_{e} + E_{p}$$
 (1)

where γ = energy factor for modifying the Housner principle; M = mass of the oscillator; $S_{\rm v}$ = pseudo-velocity; $E_{\rm e}$ = elastic energy defined by the elastic part covered by the area of the

skeleton pushover curve of an EPP system and E_p = plastic energy defined by the inelastic part covered by the pushover curve of an EPP system. The energy factor defined by the ratio of the covered area by the skeleton pushover response of the inelastic system and the horizontal coordinate axis to that of the correlated elastic oscillator was utilised to quantify the interactive effects between the nonlinear dynamic behaviour of the system and earthquake ground motion characteristics [32, 33].

The logic of the present study is in line with the modified Housner equation, i.e. Eq. (1), and the influence of the multi-yielding stages of the force-displacement responses on the seismic demand of a steel MRF with SSWs can be quantified by the energy factor. Note that a multi-storey steel MRF equipped with SSWs acts as a typical multi-degree-of-freedom (MDOF) system influenced by multi-modes, and modal combinations can be used to quantify the energy balance of the structure. The energy factor of modal oscillators representing a steel MRF equipped with SSWs is demonstrated in Fig. 8. Specifically, utilising the hysteretic force-displacement characteristics of the system in the damage-control stage (Fig. 8a), the energy factor of a modal oscillator (i.e. the *n*th mode) [34] is given by

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$$\gamma_n = \chi[2\mu_n - 1 + \alpha_{1,n}(\mu_n - 1)^2]$$
 (2)

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$$\chi(T_n; \mu_n; \alpha_{1,n}; \xi_n) = (\frac{V_{1,n}}{V_{e,n}})^2$$
 (3)

where T_n = period; $\mu_n = \delta_n/\delta_{1,n}$ (where δ_n and $\delta_{1,n}$ are the maximum displacement under an earthquake motion and the displacement quantifying yielding of the SSWs, respectively.); $\alpha_{1,n}$ = post-yielding stiffness ratio of the damage-control core; $V_{1,n}$ = first yield force of the oscillator corresponding to yielding of the SSWs; $V_{e,n}$ = maximum force of the

corresponding elastic oscillator; ζ_n = damping ratio; χ = damage-control factor depending on the hysteretic parameters and nonlinear dynamic characteristics of the oscillator. Eqs (2)-(3) quantify the energy factor of the bilinear oscillator, and they are valid for cases $\delta_n < \delta_{2,n}$, where the modal oscillators are deforming in the damage-control stage.

Once yielding of the steel MRF is triggered and the system progresses to the ultimate stage (Fig. 8b), the trilinear hysteretic characteristics should be considered, and the energy factor can be quantified based on a trilinear idealisation [34], expressed as

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$$\gamma_{n}' = \chi[2\zeta_{1,n} - 1 + \alpha_{1,n}(\zeta_{1,n} - 1)(2\mu_{n} - \zeta_{1,n} - 1) + \alpha_{2,n}(\mu_{n} - \zeta_{1,n})^{2}]$$
 (4)

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$$\chi(T_n; \zeta_{1,n}; \mu_n; \alpha_{1,n}; \alpha_{2,n}; \xi_n) = (\frac{V_{1,n}}{V_{e,n}})^2$$
 (5)

where $\zeta_{1,n}$ = yield displacement ratio (i.e. $\zeta_{1,n} = \delta_{2,n}/\delta_{1,n}$, where $\delta_{2,n}$ is the yield displacement of a trilinear oscillator quantifying yielding of the steel MRF of the n^{th} mode.); As can be seen, the damage-control factor of the oscillator in the ultimate stage is influenced by additional parameters, i.e. $\alpha_{2,n}$ and $\zeta_{1,n}$. Note that the energy factor can be computed through a constant-ductility-based procedure with iterations, and more detailed information about the development of energy factor spectra of oscillators showing multi-yielding stages is documented in [34–36]. In summary, compared with the previous works established on the energy balance of the EPP model [32, 33], the energy factor accounting for the progressively yielding behaviour of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs can be utilised to quantify the influence of the hysteretic parameters on the energy balance of the system in various yielding stages. The MNSP was established using the energy factor as an essential index, and the detail will be discussed in later sections.

3.2. Underlying assumptions

In the MNSP, the modal oscillator analogy was used to estimate the peak seismic response demands of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs, and a step-by-step framework was developed. The assumptions of the procedure are clarified as follows: (1) The seismic action can be simplified with invariant lateral load distributions applied on the structure; (2) The coupling effect among the modal coordinates in terms of energy induced by yielding of the system is ignored when quantifying seismic demands of a multi-mode-sensitive steel MRF equipped with SSWs; (3) The SRSS superposition method [25, 37] of modal responses can be applied to the structure in the inelastic range. It is worth noting that the assumptions were adopted in recent works on nonlinear static pushover procedures, e.g. the widely used modal pushover analysis (MPA) method [25], and the feasibility will be further validated by demonstration of the MNSP in next sections.

3.3. Detail of the MNSP

Using the energy factor in the multi-yielding stages as the core demand index, the stepwise MNSP was developed and is presented as follows:

(1) Perform frequency analyses for essential vibration modes and extract the elastic vibration quantities of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs, i.e. the period T_n , the effective mass M_n^* , the modal vector $\boldsymbol{\varphi}_n$, and the participation factor Γ_n . Generally, the first two or three modes will be sufficient, and the modelling techniques discussed in Section 2 can be used for developing the structural model in case where effective buckling restraint SSWs are installed in a system.

266 (2) Conduct pushover analyses for the critical vibration modes using the lateral load
267 distributions proposed by Chopra and Goel [25]:

$$\mathbf{L}_{n} = \mathbf{m}\mathbf{\phi}_{n} \tag{6}$$

where \mathbf{L}_n = lateral load distribution vector of the n^{th} mode; \mathbf{m} = mass matrix; and $\mathbf{\varphi}_n$ = modal vector of the n^{th} mode.

- (3) Develop the base shear versus the energy-based displacement responses and the energy capacity curves using the pushover database obtained in the previous step. Specifically, these response curves can be obtained by converting the force-displacement-based pushover responses, i.e. base shear versus roof displacement responses, into energy-based curves based on the approach proposed by Hernandez-Montes et al. [38-40]. The detailed formulas for producing the 'energy-based' responses are reproduced in **Appendix A**.
 - (4) Idealise the base shear versus energy-based displacement responses with a multi-linear idealisation, and the algorithm [3] is also reproduced in **Appendix A**. Hence, the hysteretic parameters of an energy-based modal oscillator (i.e. $\alpha_{1,n}$, $\alpha_{2,n}$, $\zeta_{1,n}$, and μ_n) can be computed. It is worth pointing out that a target displacement should be selected first during the curve idealisation, and a relatively large value can be used as a start point to launch an iterative process.
 - (5) Determine the energy factor of modal oscillators in multi-yielding stages based on Eqs. (2)-(5), and compute the energy demand curve based on the nonlinear hysteretic parameters of the base shear versus energy-based displacement responses, dynamic properties of the modal oscillators (T_n, ξ_n) and pseudo-velocity of the n^{th} mode $(S_{v,n})$,

given by

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$$E_{a,n} = \begin{cases} 1 & (\mu_n \le 1) \\ \gamma_n (\frac{1}{2} M_n^* S_{v,n}^2) & (1 < \mu_n \le \zeta_{1,n}) \\ \gamma_n^{'} (\frac{1}{2} M_n^* S_{v,n}^2) & (\mu_n > \zeta_{1,n}) \end{cases}$$
 (7)

- (6) For the n^{th} mode, plot the energy demand curve and the corresponding capacity curve (step 3) in one diagram, and the peak response demand of the n^{th} mode is estimated by the intersecting point of the energy demand response curve and the corresponding capacity response curve acting as the 'performance point'. Therefore, the peak response demand quantities of the n^{th} mode (e.g. peak floor displacement, interstorey drift and roof drift) can be extracted from the analysis results when the modal oscillator reaches the performance point. Iterations may be needed to finalise the performance point (i.e. go back to step 4).
- 298 (7) Compute the seismic demand quantities of the entire structure using the SRSS superposition method using the demand quantities in the influential modes.

$$D = \sqrt{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(D_n^2\right)} \tag{8}$$

where D_n = demand quantities of the n^{th} mode, D = demand quantities of the entire system and N = the number of considered modes. To demonstrate the procedure, a flowchart illustrating the stepwise procedure is illustrated in Fig. 8c. In general, the proposed MNSP may be used to quantify the seismic demands of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs progressing to various yielding stages, and the method also retains the advances of the MPA procedure. Concurrently, the MNSP also integrates the inherent advantage of an energy-based procedure [38, 39].

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4. Application of the MNSP and discussions

4.1. Prototype steel MRFs with SSWs and ground motions

The proposed MNSP was applied to two prototype steel MRFs equipped with SSWs, and the effectiveness of the procedure for prescribing the peak seismic demands of the system was examined. The prototype buildings were preliminarily designed based on Chinese Code for Seismic Design of Buildings (GB 50011-2010) [41], and the seismic intensity of 9 was assumed (i.e. The basic acceleration was 0.4 gal). To ensure a wide deformation range of the damage-control stage, the steel MRF was designed with the steel of the grade Q460 (yield strength of 460 MPa) [3, 36] for the two structures, and the SSWs were designed with the steel of the grade Q235 (yield strength of 235 MPa). The detailed information about the section of the prototype structures is provided in Table 1. In the table, m and n denote the number of rows of flexural links in the SSW and the number of flexural links in a row, respectively. The width and length of links are denoted by b and h, respectively (unit mm). The thickness of the SSW is represented by t (unit mm). In addition, it was assumed that effective buckling restrained configurations were used. The modal properties of the prototype structures are given in Table 2, and the structural arrangements of the two structures are illustrated in **Appendix B.** Two ensembles of earthquake ground motion records [1, 42] were used to verify the effectiveness of the proposed MNSP. These earthquake motions were developed by Somerville et al. [42] in the SAC project. The first ensemble of ground motions (i.e. record code LA01-LA20) was for representation of the design basis earthquakes, and the latter

(i.e. record code LA21-LA40) was for characterising the maximum considered earthquakes. Both ground motion ensembles correspond to the site condition of stiff soil. The pseudo-acceleration spectra of the earthquake ground motions corresponding to a damping ratio of 5% are shown in Fig. 9.

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4.2. Analysis description and the responses statistics

In this research, the responses of the prototype structures were determined by the proposed MNSP, and three vibration modes were considered to account for contributions of multi-modes. For the purpose of comparison, pushover analyses with the lateral load distribution documented in FEMA-356 [27] were also performed. It is noted that for the two prototype structures, they might be multi-mode-sensitive according to the modal property information shown in Table 2. Thus, in practical cases, it is required that linear dynamic analysis should also be performed when conducting the nonlinear static procedure in FEMA-356 [27]. Nonetheless, the results from the static procedure can provide an insight into the applicability of the method for prescribing the seismic demand of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs. In particular, the uniform lateral load distribution and the counterpart corresponding to the fundamental vibration mode were used. It is worth mentioning that when applying the procedure of FEMA-356, the 'target displacement' was not estimated by design equations in the provision, but was taken to be identical to that determined by the MNSP (i.e. Section 3). Thus, the comparison was more instructive as the difference between the results by MNSP and the method in FEMA-356 was caused by the lateral load distributions. In both nonlinear static procedures, the gravity load was applied first, and the P-delta effect was included in the analysis. Nonlinear response

history analyses (NL-RHAs) of the prototype structures subjected to forty ground motions were also performed. The damping ratio of 5% for the first two vibration modes was assumed for developing the Rayleigh damping matrix. It is worth mentioning that the damping ratio ranging from 2% to 5% may be applicable to steel structures [1, 9, 11, 32], and a significant damping ratio may be used to quantify the damping effect of non-structural elements. Nonetheless, the MNSP also provides sufficient flexibility for practitioners using various damping ratios in practical cases.

The pushover responses of the fundamental vibration mode and the roof displacement determined by NL-RHAs are given in Fig. 10, and the base shear force (V) was normalised by the ultimate base shear (V_u). As can be seen, the typical trilinear behaviour was evident, and the two prototype structures progressed to different yielding stages when subjected to the two ground motion ensembles. It is worth pointing out that the maximum interstorey drift of the two structures under the two ground motion database was below 6% which is generally defined as the drift limit of collapse prevention for steel MRFs in FEMA-350 [43]. Therefore, it was assumed that all the data points are valid and collapse would not occur for the two structures. However, a reader may be aware that a full-fledged seismic design of the structure also requires quantification of the 'capacity' of the system, which is beyond the scope of the current study.

As the roof displacement and the interstorey drift are directly related to structural damage, these demand quantities were explored in detail. Specifically, δ_{MNSP} represents the roof displacement demand by the MNSP, and $\delta_{\text{NL-RHA}}$ represents the counterpart obtained by NL-RHA. The 'exact' peak interstorey drift demand determined by NL-RHA is denoted

by $\Delta_{\text{NL-RHA}}$, and the estimated interstorey drift demands determined from MNSP and FEMA-356 are denoted by Δ_{MNSP} and Δ_{FEMA} , respectively.

The ability of the static procedures for prescribing the seismic demands of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs was quantified by the ratio of the estimated responses to the 'exact' responses by NL-RHAs. Thus, a roof displacement ratio (δ_{MNSP}^*) and two interstorey drift ratios (i.e. Δ_{MNSP}^* and Δ_{FEMA}^*) were defined, as given by

$$\delta_{\text{MNSP}}^* = \frac{\delta_{\text{MNSP}}}{\delta_{\text{NL-RHA}}} \tag{9}$$

$$\Delta_{\text{MNSP}}^* = \frac{\Delta_{\text{MNSP}}}{\Delta_{\text{NL-RHA}}} \tag{10}$$

$$\Delta_{\text{FEMA}}^* = \frac{\Delta_{\text{FEMA}}}{\Delta_{\text{NL-RHA}}} \tag{11}$$

The median response quantity defined by the geometric mean (exponential of the average of the natural log values) was used to evaluate the demands of the systems under an ensemble of ground motions, as given by

$$x_{\rm m} = \exp\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ln x_i\right]$$
 (12)

where $x_{\rm m}$, $x_{\rm i}$ and n are the demand in terms of median value, the demand quantity of a system under an individual ground motion and the number of ground motions (i.e. n=20). The dispersion index (ε) was defined by

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$$\varepsilon = \left[\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\ln x_i - \ln x_{\rm m})^2\right]^{0.5}$$
 (13)

Note that these two statistical indices were demonstrated to be logical for estimating the seismic demands of structures, and they have been used in extensive studies [37, 44].

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4.3. Roof displacement demands

Fig. 11 presents the roof displacement determined from the MNSP and NL-RHAs. The median roof displacement ratios and the corresponding dispersion measure are also indicated in the figure. For both prototype structures, the results show that the MNSP generally overestimated the roof displacement demand slightly, and the reasonable dispersion was achieved, echoed by the observation that data points were clustered at the forty-five degree diagonal line. With respect to the effect of the ground motion intensity, the analysis data indicate that the accuracy of approximate procedures might deteriorate in case of stronger ground motions, as the median and the dispersion measure of roof displacement ratio both increased with the intensity of ground motions increasing. This observation was reasonable as the coupling effect among multi-vibration modes which was excluded from the MNSP may be more evident when a structure develops significant yielding.

4.4. Interstorey drift demands

Fig. 12 presents the interstorey drift demands (median interstorey drift ratios, median interstorey drifts and dispersion measures) of the 5-storey structure. It is seen that the median interstorey drift ratios determined by the MNSP were close to unity when the system was subjected to design-level earthquakes (i.e. LA01-LA20). With the intensity of the ground motion increasing, it was observed that the accuracy of the MNSP deteriorated as the interstorey drift ratio of the structure evidently increased. It was also observed that the median interstorey drift demand predicted by the MNSP agreed well with that from the

FEMA-356 method with the fundamental-mode lateral load distribution regardless of the intensity of the ground motions, suggesting that higher modes did not have an appreciable contribution to the seismic demands of the system in this case. Comparatively, the uniform lateral load distribution produced conservative estimates of the median interstorey drift demands at lower storeys, but the counterparts in upper storeys were underestimated. This trend was more evident when the system experienced more intense earthquakes. The dispersion measure of the interstorey drift ratios over the structural height fell in a reasonable range, and the scatteration of the estimates of the MNSP was generally smaller than that by the FEMA-356, particularly in upper storeys. Fig. 13 illustrates the corresponding interstorey drift demands of the 10-storey prototype structure subjected to the seismic excitations. In general, the MNSP resulted in satisfactory estimates of the interstorey drift demand ratios, while relatively more pronounced inconsistency between the predictions by the MNSP and NL-RHAs was observed when the structure was subjected to more intense seismic events (i.e. LA21-LA40). Nonetheless, the MNSP generally produced conservative estimates of the median interstorey drift demand, as shown in Fig. 13. This observation echoed the trend of the predicted roof displacement demands and may be induced by the more evident coupling effect arising from multi-modes under intense earthquake events. In contrast, for the predictions by the lateral load distribution of the fundamental vibration mode in FEMA-356, the results in Fig. 13 suggested that the median interstorey drift demand at upper storeys was underestimated when the structure experienced the design-level seismic events (i.e. LA01-

LA20), and this trend was aggravated when the structure experienced more intense

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excitations. This finding was not surprising as the contribution of higher vibration mode became more significant when inelasticity of the structure was sufficiently developed under more intense excitations (i.e. LA21-LA40). As for the uniform lateral load distribution, the similar phenomenon as observed in the 5-storey structure was seen.

In practical engineering, to verify the adequacy of a design strategy or to evaluate an existing structure, building codes generally specify a maximum interstorey drift as a threshold [45]. In this context, it is instructive to compare the maximum interstorey drift demand over all stories determined from the MNSP and the NL-RHA to examine the practical effectiveness of the MNSP. Fig. 14 presents the maximum interstorey drift demands over all stories determined by NL-RHAs and the counterparts by the MNSPs as abscissa and ordinate, respectively. As can be seen, the MNSP led to reasonable estimates of the median demands and the corresponding dispersion fell in an acceptable range. Importantly, the accuracy of the MNSP for quantifying the maximum interstorey drift demand did not evidently deteriorate when systems were subjected to more intense earthquakes, demonstrating its potential for practical applications.

4.5. Further discussions and comments

A key element of the MNSP is the quantification of the energy factor of the modal oscillators representing an influential mode of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs. Thus, sensitivity analyses of the energy factor were performed using the modal oscillators with varied hysteretic parameters to shed lights on the effect of multi-yielding stages on the seismic demands of the system, and the focus was given to the ultimate stage of a system. A companion work [35] showed that the energy factor is not sensitive to the post-yielding

stiffness ratio of the ultimate stage (i.e. α_2) for a trilinear oscillator. Thus, α_2 of the ultimate stage was assumed to be zero for simplification.

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Representative mean energy factors of oscillators with various hysteretic parameters subjected to ground motions LA01-LA20 are given in Fig. 15, and the oscillators had the identical elastic period to the modal oscillators representing the prototype structures. As a general remark, the energy factor of an oscillator was appreciably influenced by the parameters characterising the multi-yielding stages, but the effect was period-dependent. The energy factor of the oscillator with the period of the fundamental mode of the 5-storey structure increased with increasing post-yielding stiffness ratio of the damage-control stage (i.e. α_1). Comparatively, the reversed trend was characterised for the modal oscillator representing the higher mode of the system. For the oscillator representing the 10-storey structure, positive correlation was characterised among the energy factor, α_1 and ζ_1 for the two vibration modes. It was also observed that the energy factor evidently increased with increasing ductility for short-period modal oscillators (e.g. second mode for the 5-storey structure and 10-storey structure), exhibiting the phenomenon of 'energy lock' [40]. In practical engineering, the seismic demand of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs can be readily modulated by adjusting structural design strategy, and this research work just puts forth a promising tool for quantifying the effect of the influential parameters.

However, it is re-emphasised that some trade-offs were made between the theoretical rigorousness and the practical simplicity when developing the MNSP, as reflected by the adopted assumptions in Section 3. Thus, it is also of significance to point out the limitations of both nonlinear static procedures and energy-based methods. For instance, the

'reversal' of the pushover response may be observed when implementing the modal pushover analysis (MPA) procedure [25, 38]. The recently expanded energy-balance-based seismic design methodology was generally developed based on energy balance of equivalent oscillators, and hence empirical expressions of the lateral force distributions over the structure [46-48] may not replicate realistic lateral force pattern under earthquake motions. To combat the drawbacks produced by these methods, the proposed MNSP procedure was built on the framework of the MPA procedure [25, 38], and the energy factor was only used to determine the target displacement for a trilinear modal oscillator. In this context, the effectiveness of the MNSP would not be further undermined when the energy concept is utilised carefully, which is in line with recent research findings [32, 39]. However, the accuracy of MNSP can be evidently compromised in the cases of torsionsensitive structures [49] and structures with strength and stiffness irregularity [50]. In addition, although the MPA-based procedures may overcome some limitations of conventional nonlinear static procedures [24, 51, 52] and provide a physical basis towards a deeper understanding of the cascading effect of the hysteretic parameters and earthquake motion characteristics on the seismic responses of inelastic systems, ignoring the coupling effect among multi-vibration modes may produce inconsistent estimates of the seismic demands. Thus, the MNSP is not recommended for quantifying the seismic demand of a structure subjected to a single earthquake ground motion, echoed by interstorey drift ratio demands under individual ground motions as given in Fig. 12 and Fig. 13. In summary, a reader should be aware that although the proposed MNSP shows satisfactory accuracy for quantifying the seismic demand of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs showing multiple

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yielding stages based on an ensemble of earthquake ground motions, the adequacy of the MNSP should be complemented by the NL-RHA in seismic design and evaluations.

5. Conclusions

- The current study focuses on a multi-stage-based nonlinear static procedure (MNSP) for quantifying the seismic demands of steel moment resisting frames (MRFs) equipped with steel slit walls (SSWs). The paper commenced with clarification of the hysteretic behaviour of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs exhibiting multi-yielding stages, and recent experimental findings were also revisited. An effective finite element model for replicating the cyclic response of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs was proposed and verified by the test data. The MNSP motivated by energy balance concept was then introduced using the concept of modal single-degree-of-freedom (SDOF) systems, and the effectiveness of the method was demonstrated based on prototype structures subjected to forty ground motions. The main research findings drawn from this work are presented as follows:
 - 1. The hysteretic behaviour of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs may alter in different yielding stages. When buckling of SSWs is avoided, the hysteretic force-displacement response of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs showing multi-yielding stages can be idealised by a trilinear kinematic model.
 - 2. The proposed MNSP procedure produced satisfactory estimates of the peak seismic demands (i.e. the roof displacement demand, the interstorey drift demand and the interstorey drift demand over all storeys) of prototype steel MRFs equipped with

SSWs. In contrast, inconsistent estimates of seismic demands were obtained by the fundamental vibration mode lateral load distribution and the uniform load distribution recommended by FEMA-356, particularly in cases where the contribution of higher vibration mode was pronounced.

- 3. The comparative study of prototype structures subjected to two ensembles ground motions representing design basis earthquakes and maximum considered earthquakes shows that the accuracy of the MNSP may deteriorate slightly with ground motion intensity increasing, but generally conservative results can be obtained.
- 4. The seismic demand of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs is appreciably influenced by the multi-yielding stages of the system. As a dual system, the influential hysteretic parameters can be adjusted flexibly by modulating the structural design strategy, and an optimised design can also be achieved using the MNSP in the design phase.
- Despite the reasonable predictions produced by the MNSP, it should be re-emphasised that the theoretical rigorousness of the MNSP is compromised compared with the NL-RHA due to the nature of a simplified method. Ignoring the coupling effect among the modal coordinates in the nonlinear stage accompanied by simple modal combination may result in inconsistent estimates of seismic demands of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs when the MNSP is applied to quantifying seismic demands of a structure subjected to a single seismic event. Thus, the adequacy of the MNSP should be verified by NL-RHA when finalising the seismic design and evaluation of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs. In

addition, although the present study focuses on the peak response demands, the MNSP can be extended to multi-demand indices accounting for the cumulative demand of the system, and this work is currently being conducted by the authors.

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Appendix A

The detailed procedure for developing the capacity curve of an energy-based modal oscillator can be found in [38, 40], and it is reproduced herein for clarity. In particular, the energy absorbed by a modal oscillator is identical to the external work done by the invariant lateral load, given by

$$\delta W_n^m = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{L}_n^{m-1} + \mathbf{L}_n^m) \cdot (\mathbf{U}_n^m - \mathbf{U}_n^{m-1})$$
(A.1)

where $\delta W_{\rm n}^m$ = incremental external work at the $m^{\rm th}$ step for the $n^{\rm th}$ mode and $U_{\rm n}$ = the lateral deformation profile of floors subjected to the lateral load pattern of the $n^{\rm th}$ mode.

Therefore, the quantity defined as the energy-based displacement $(u_{e,n})$ of the oscillator for the n^{th} mode may be extracted, as reproduced in Fig. A1. The energy-based displacement in the incremental form [38, 40] is expressed by

$$\delta u_{e,n}^{m} = \frac{\delta W_{n}^{m}}{\frac{1}{2}(V_{n}^{m} + V_{n}^{m-1})}$$
(A.2)

where V_n = the base shear force corresponding to the nth mode, which is reproduced by

$$V_n^m = \mathbf{L}_n^m \cdot \mathbf{1} \tag{A.3}$$

Therefore, the capacity curve representing the nth mode is reproduced and given by

$$W_n^m = W_n^{m-1} + \delta W_n^m \tag{A.4}$$

$$u_{e,n}^{m} = u_{e,n}^{m-1} + \delta u_{e,n}^{m}$$
 (A.5)

A simplified method for idealising the pushover curves response with a multi-linear approximation was proposed by Ke and Chen [3], and the detail is also reproduced herein for clarity. Specifically, the data extracted from the base shear force versus energy-based displacement response curve for all essential modes are firstly normalised by

$$t = \frac{u_{e,n}}{u_{\max,n}} \tag{A.6}$$

$$\omega = \frac{V_n}{V_{\text{max},n}} \tag{A.7}$$

587 where $u_{\text{max},n} = \text{maximum energy-based displacement for the } n^{\text{th}} \text{ mode (preselected in a}$ 588 pushover analysis); $V_{\text{max},n} = \text{maximum force}$. Based on the assumption of the trilinear
589 approximation, the idealised curve for n^{th} mode can be expressed as

$$\omega = \begin{cases}
k_n t & 0 \le t \le t_1 \\
\alpha_{1,n} k_n t + (1 - \alpha_{1,n}) k_n t_1 & t_1 < t \le t_2 \\
\alpha_{1,n} k_n t + (\alpha_{1,n} - \alpha_{2,n}) k_n t_2 + (1 - \alpha_{1,n}) k_n t_1 & t_2 < t \le 1
\end{cases}$$
(A.8)

where k_n = initial stiffness of the normalised idealised curve for the n^{th} mode; t_1 = displacement characterising yielding of SSWs in the idealised curve (Fig. A2); t_2 = displacement characterising yielding of the MRF in the idealised curve (Fig. A2); $\alpha_{1,n}$ = post-yielding stiffness ratio of the damage-control stage for the n^{th} mode and $\alpha_{2,n}$ = post-yielding stiffness ratio of the ultimate stage for the n^{th} mode. Utilising the least-square principle, the governing function [3] is expressed as

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$$G = \sum_{i=1}^{M} (k_n t_i - \omega_i)^2 + \sum_{i=M+1}^{M+N} [\alpha_{1,n} k_n (t_i - t_1) + k_n t_1 - \omega_i)]^2 + \sum_{i=M+N+1}^{M+N+Q} [\alpha_{2,n} k_n (t_i - t_2) + \alpha_{1,n} k_n (t_2 - t_1) + k_n t_1 - \omega_i)]^2$$
(A.9)

where M = number of data points in the phase where a steel MRF equipped with SSWs responds elastically; N = number of data points in the damage-control stage in which inelastic actions are generally locked in SSWs and Q = number of data points in the phase where all members of the system develop significant yielding. Therefore, the hysteretic parameters of the trilinear idealisation can be finalised if the target function reached the minimum.

Appendix B

The detailed geometric information about the arrangement of the prototype structures is schematically shown in Fig. B1.

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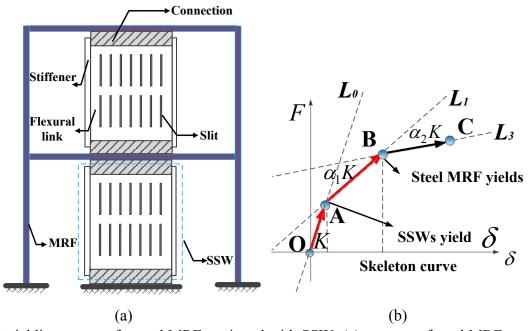


Fig. 1 Multi-yielding stages of a steel MRF equipped with SSW: (a) concept of steel MRF equipped with SSW and (b) skeleton response.

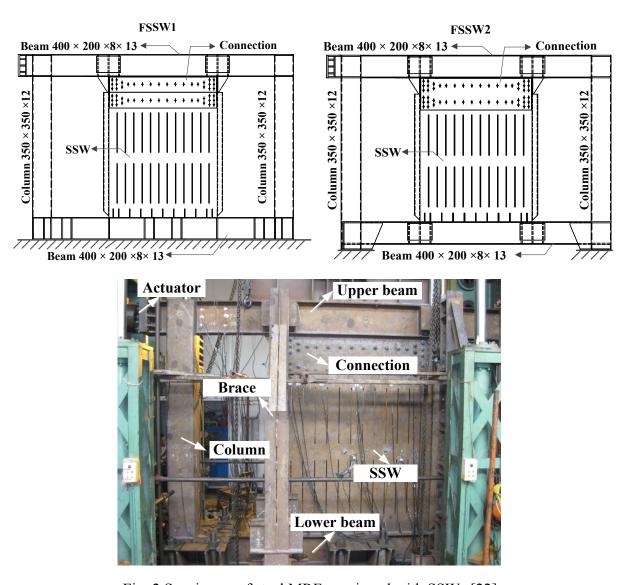


Fig. 2 Specimens of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs [22].

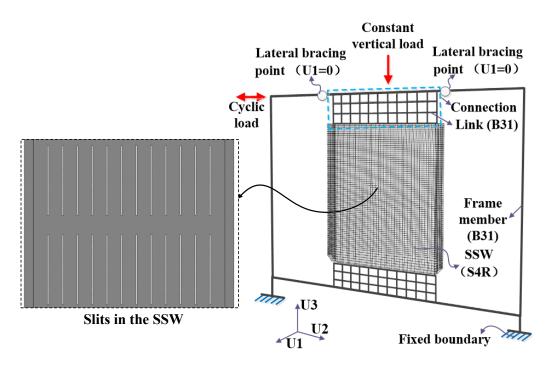


Fig. 3 Overview of numerical models of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs.

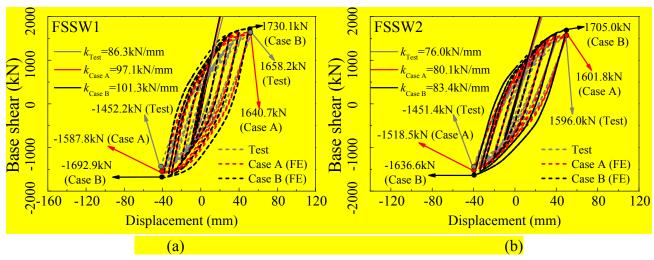


Fig. 4 Comparison of test results and FE predictions: (a) FSSW1 and (b) FSSW2.

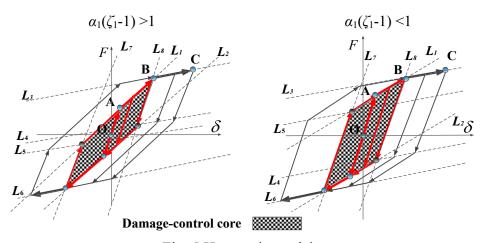


Fig. 5 Hysteretic model.

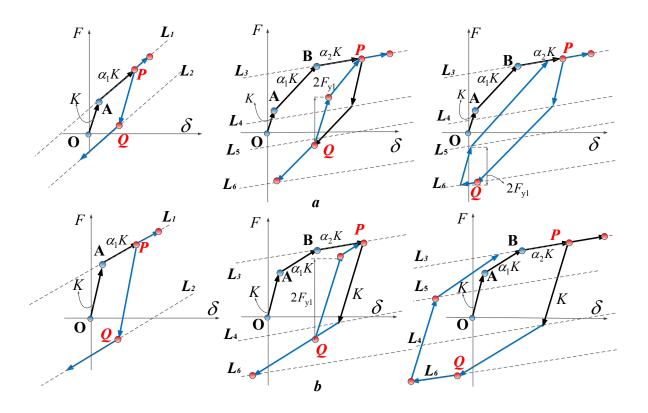


Fig. 6 Hysteretic path of a steel MRF equipped with SSWs: (a) $\alpha_1(\zeta_1-1) > 1$ and (b) $\alpha_1(\zeta_1-1) \le 1$.

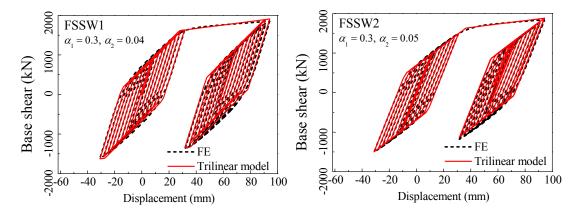


Fig. 7 Shift of the damage control core.

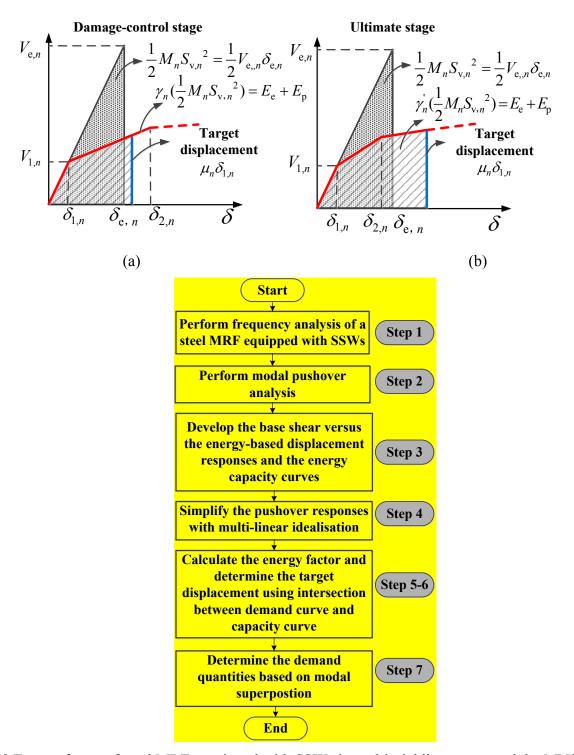


Fig. 8 Energy factor of steel MRFs equipped with SSWs in multi-yielding stages and the MNSP: (a) damage-control stage, (b) ultimate stage and (c) flowchart of the MNSP.

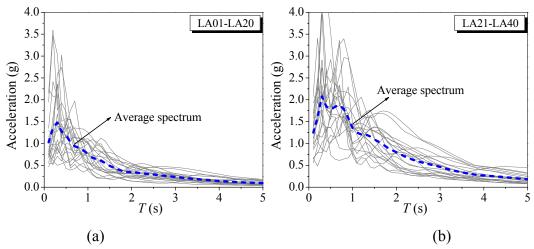


Fig. 9 Acceleration spectra of the ground motion ensembles: (a) design basis earthquakes and (b) maximum considered earthquakes.

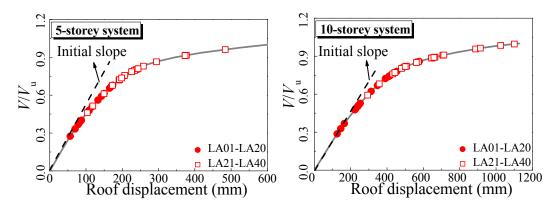
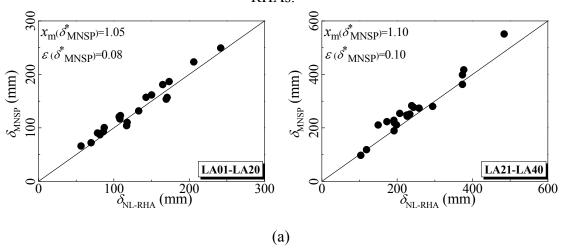


Fig. 10 The first mode pushover curves (the fundamental mode) and roof displacements determined by NL-RHAs.



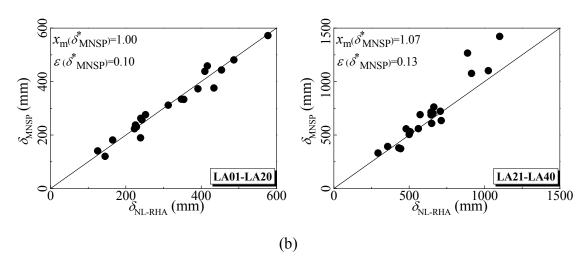


Fig. 11 Roof displacement demands by different procedures: (a) 5-storey structure and (b) 10-storey structure.

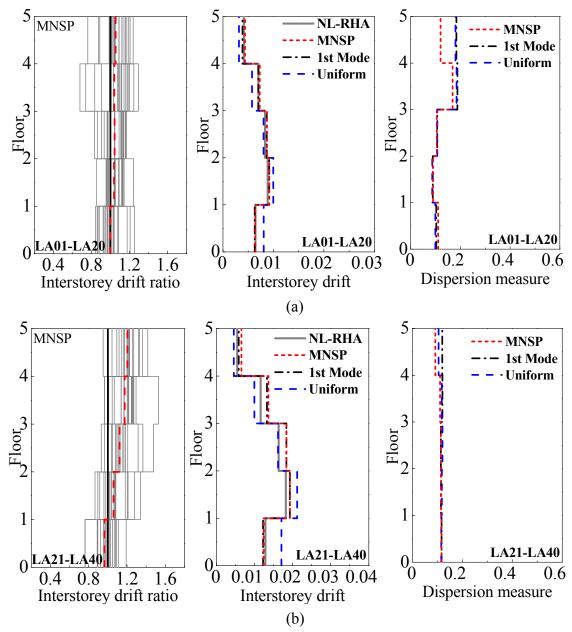


Fig. 12 Interstorey drift demands of the 5-storey structure : (a) under design basis earthquakes (LA01-LA20) and (b) under maximum considered earthquakes (LA21-LA40).

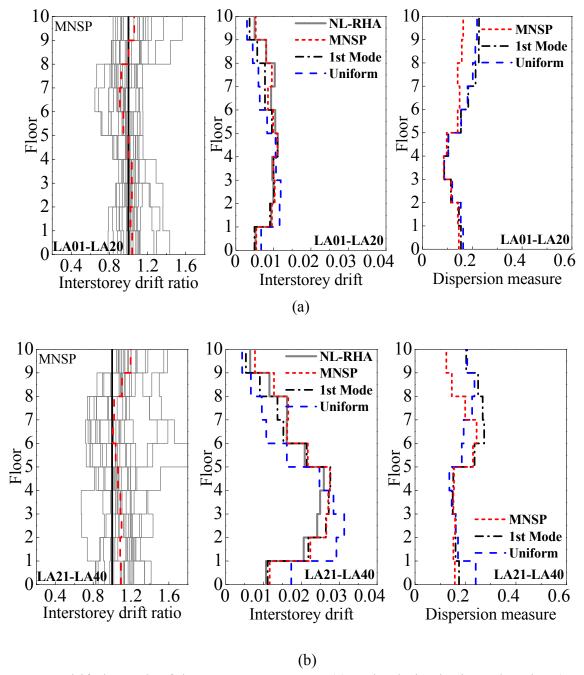


Fig. 13 Interstorey drift demands of the 10-storey structure: (a) under design basis earthquakes (LA01-LA20) and (b) under maximum considered earthquakes (LA21-LA40).

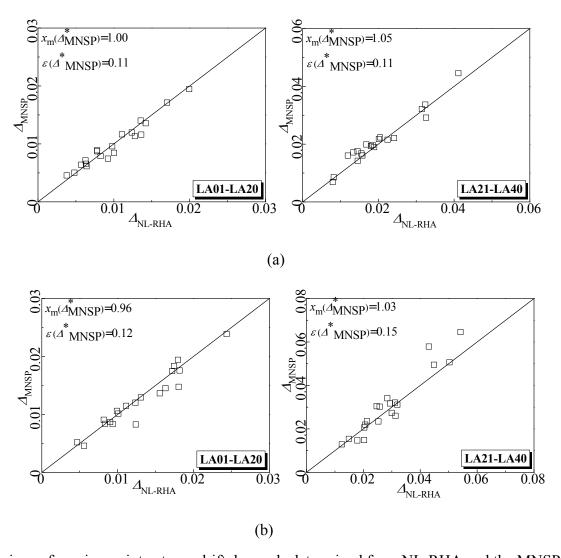


Fig. 14 Comparison of maximum interstorey drift demands determined from NL-RHA and the MNSP: (a) 5-storey structure and (b) 10-storey structure.

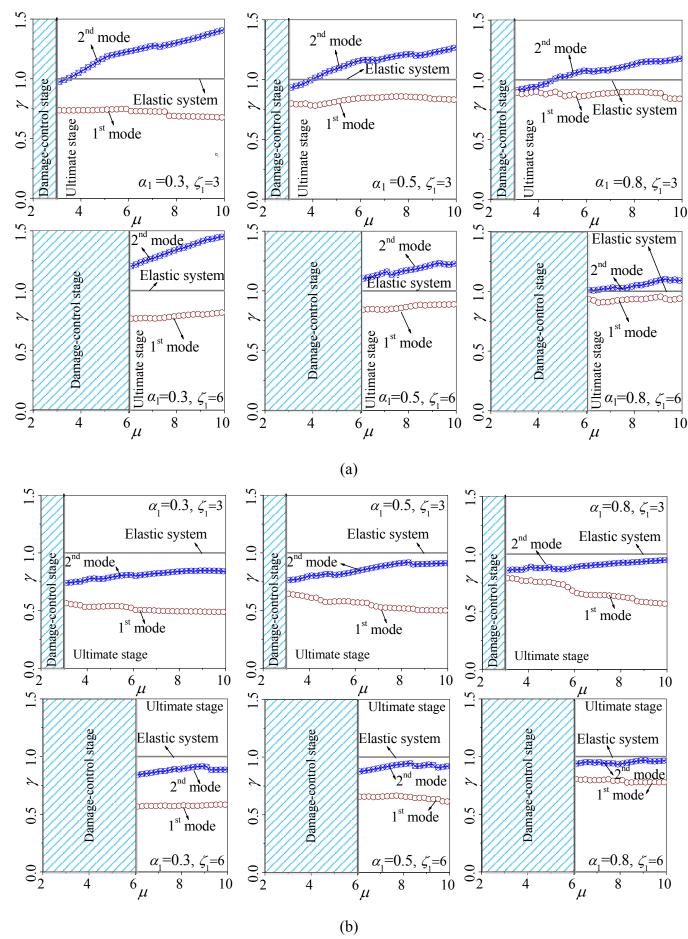


Fig. 15 Energy factors of oscillators with identical periods of prototype structures and varied hysteretic parameters of the damage-control core: (a) 5-storey structure and (b) 10-storey structure.

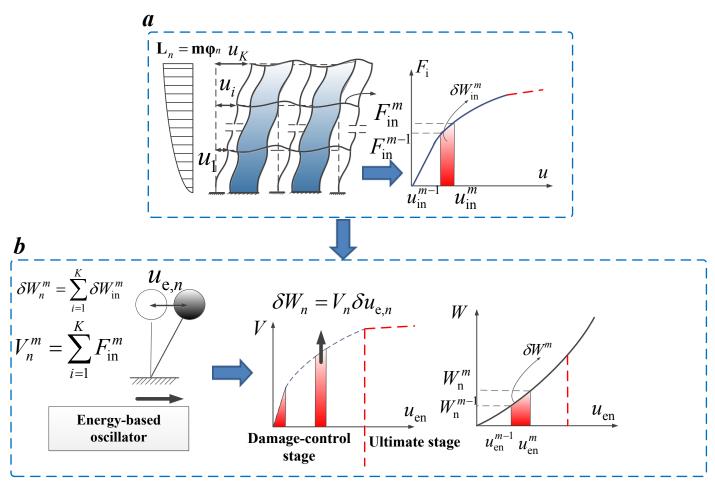


Fig. A1 Procedure of developing capacity curve for an energy-based modal oscillator [38, 40].

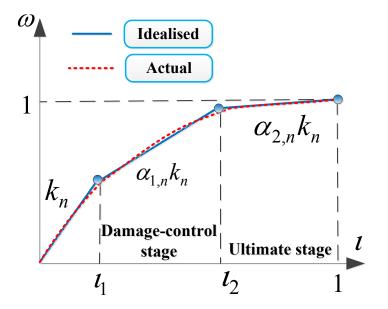
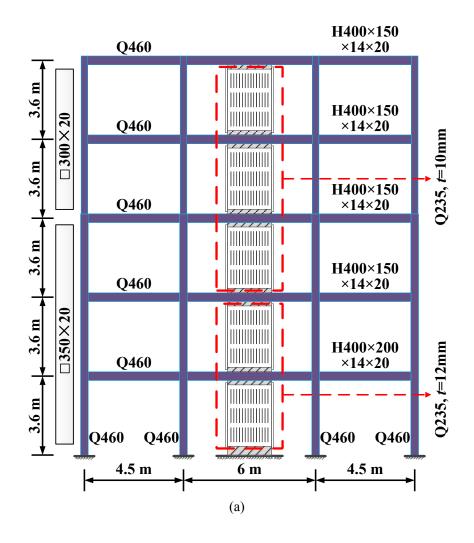


Fig. A2 Trilinear idealisation [3].



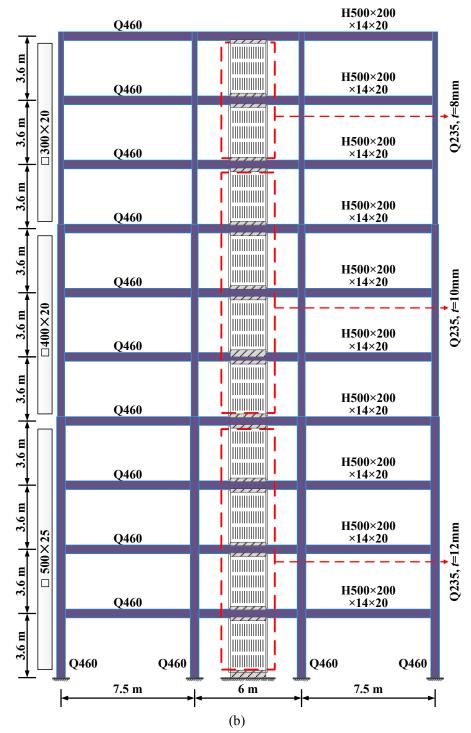


Fig. B1 Structural arrangement of the prototype structures: (a) 5-storey structure and (b) 10-storey structure.

Table 1 Section information of prototype structures

Floor	Interior beam	Exterior beam	Column	SSW								
				\overline{b}	h	m	n	t				
	5-storey system											
1	I 400×200×14×20	I $400 \times 200 \times 14 \times 20$	□350×20	130	650	3	15	12				
2	I 400×150×14×20	I 400×150×14×20	□350×20	130	650	3	15	12				
3	I 400×150×14×20	I 400×150×14×20	□350×20	130	650	3	15	10				
4	I 400×150×14×20	I 400×150×14×20	□300×20	130	650	3	15	10				
5	I 400×150×14×20	I 400×150×14×20	□300×20	130	650	3	15	10				
10-storey system												
1	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□500×25	130	650	3	15	12				
2	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□500×25	130	650	3	15	12				
3	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□500×25	130	650	3	15	12				
4	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□500×25	130	650	3	15	12				
5	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□400×20	130	650	3	15	10				
6	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□400×20	130	650	3	15	10				
7	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□400×20	130	650	3	15	10				
8	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□300×20	130	650	3	15	10				
9	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□300×20	130	650	3	15	8				
10	I 500×200×14×20	I 500×200×14×20	□300×20	130	650	3	15	8				

Table 2 Frequency analysis results of the prototype structures

Structure	Property (unit)	1st Mode	2 ^{nd.} Mode	3 rd mode
<i>.</i>	Period (s)	0.66	0.22	0.12
5-storey structure	Modal effective mass (t)	236.53	36.66	12.20
structure	Modal participation factor	1.31	0.47	0.26
10. 4	Period (s)	1.36	0.47	0.27
10-storey structure	Modal effective mass (t)	626.41	103.05	36.25
suuctuic	Modal participation factor	1.36	0.54	0.30