

1 **Resilience and Life-Cycle Performance of Smart Bridges with Shape Memory Alloy (SMA)**
2 **-Cable-Based Bearings**

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4 **Abstract:**

5 Due to its unique properties within hazard mitigation, shape memory alloy (SMA) has been
6 developed and adopted within the design and retrofit of civil infrastructures to improve the
7 seismic performance. The performance benefit associated with the SMA bridges in a long term
8 has not been well recognized by the decision maker, thus, the wide application of SMA within
9 the civil infrastructures is still limited. This paper aims to apply the resilience and life-cycle loss
10 assessment to the comparative performance assessment of novel and conventional bridges and to
11 promote the application of novel materials within the civil engineering. Both the direct and
12 indirect costs are considered within the life-cycle assessment process. Specifically, the
13 corresponding structural performance, resilience, and life-cycle loss associated with different
14 bridge systems are addressed. The methodology accounts for the life-cycle loss assessment
15 considering the representative hazard scenarios that could happen within the investigated region.
16 The proposed approach is applied to highway bridges with and without using the SMA-cable-
17 based bearings. The benefit associated with the application of the proposed novel bearing is
18 quantified in terms of resilience and life-cycle loss.

19 **Keywords:** Shape memory alloy; Earthquake; Fragility curve; Life-cycle loss; Comparative
20 assessment; Resilience.

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26 **1. Introduction**

27 Earthquakes can bring disastrous consequences to our society and economy. For instance, the
28 2015 Nepal earthquake killed nearly 9,000 people and more than 600,000 structures in
29 Kathmandu and the nearby towns were either damaged or destroyed. Thus, it is of paramount
30 importance to mitigate structural damage under seismic hazard. To address this concern, several
31 seismic improvements have been adopted within the design codes to enhance seismic
32 performance of bridges. Many studies showed that isolation devices can dissipate a large amount
33 of energy as these devices introduce a discontinuity between the superstructure and substructure
34 and reduce the energy transferred to the superstructure. Accordingly, isolation devices have been
35 developed to reduce the bridge damage under seismic hazard and have been implemented with
36 the structural design process, especial for the essential structures. The conventional isolation
37 devices include lead-rubber bearings, high damping bearings, and magneto-rheological dampers,
38 etc. (Ghobarah and Ali 1990; Warn and Whittaker 2004; Bhuiyan *et al.* 2009). The
39 disadvantages associated with these traditional isolation devices are obvious in terms of ageing
40 and durability, strict maintenance requirements, long-term performance and residual
41 displacement (Dolce *et al.* 2000; Dion *et al.* 2011). Shape memory alloys (SMAs), which are
42 characterized by their super-elasticity and energy dissipation, have the potential to be adopted
43 within the bridge design and retrofit to improve the structural performance under earthquakes.
44 The relevant studies are conducted within this study.

45 SMAs are generally associated with high strength, good fatigue and corrosion resistance
46 besides the super-elasticity and energy dissipation; thus, can get rid of several drawbacks with
47 respect to the traditional isolation devices (DesRoches *et al.* 2004; Song *et al.* 2006; Choi *et al.*
48 2005; Dezfuli and Alam 2014). Within the traditional bridge seismic design, steel is expected to

49 yield for energy dissipation, which could result in a large residual deformation and hamper
50 bridge functionality. To solve this problem, SMA could be implemented to resist the high
51 seismic load without significant permanent residual deformations. In this paper, SMA is adopted
52 within the highway bridges and is investigated to improve the seismic performance under
53 earthquake hazard. The application of SMA within the bridge seismic mitigation process has
54 been studied previously. SMA-cable/bar restrainer was used to replace the steel bar restrainer
55 and was installed at in-span hinge or interface between the girder and abutment. Choi *et al.* (2005)
56 and Dezfuli and Alam (2014) developed an isolation device that integrated SMA wires with
57 rubber/elastomeric bearing to reduce the permanent residual deformation of the bridges under
58 earthquakes. Xue and Li (2007) proposed a rubber bearing installed with pre-tensioning SMA-
59 wires and applied it to a lattice shell structure for seismic mitigation. In this paper, the authors
60 propose a novel frictional sliding bearing with SMA-cable, which fully takes advantages of the
61 properties of SMAs, such as self-centering, super-elasticity, and energy dissipation. Another
62 difference from the previous devices with application of SMA is that the SMA-cable is adopted
63 instead of the wire to improve the re-centering capacity of SMA-wire. Additionally, this type of
64 isolation device is more easily to be manufactured and installed. The effects of the proposed
65 SMA-cable-based device on the bridge seismic performance are investigated.

66 To examine the feasibility of wide application of SMA within hazard mitigation process, it
67 is necessary to investigate whether the higher initial cost can be paid off by considering the
68 relative lower damage loss in a life-cycle context. Previously, the performance benefit associated
69 with the SMA bridges has not been well recognized by the decision maker and life-cycle loss has
70 not been emphasized within the decision-making process. Thus, the life-cycle engineering should
71 be incorporated within the performance assessment process of bridges using SMA-based

72 isolation device. In order to investigate the life-cycle performance, the bridge performance and
73 damage consequence should be identified firstly. Pacific Earthquake Engineering Research
74 (PEER) Center has developed a performance-based assessment approach considering repair loss,
75 downtime, and fatalities. This approach is adopted within this study to compare the performance
76 of different structural systems in a life-cycle context. Life-cycle cost could act as an important
77 performance indicator for the comparative study associated with different structural systems.
78 Wen and Ang (1991) proposed a methodology to investigate the cost effectiveness of an active
79 control system of structures under earthquakes in a life-cycle context; Kang and Wen (2000)
80 used the life-cycle cost as a design objective to obtain the optimal design strategies for structures
81 under single and multiple hazards; Padgett *et al.* (2010a) presented an approach to assess the
82 cost-benefit ratio associated with different retrofit strategies in a life-cycle context; Dong and
83 Frangopol (2017) investigated the life-cycle loss of highway bridges under multiple hazards
84 considering the effects of climate change. To the best knowledge of the authors, the life-cycle
85 concept and performance-based assessment have not been well incorporated within the
86 assessment and comparison of conventional and novel systems using SMA. In this paper, the
87 comparative assessment of the life-cycle performance of conventional and SMA bridges is
88 conducted based on the performance-based engineering in a life-cycle context.

89 Nowadays, with respect to the hazard management of infrastructures, a widely-
90 recognized indicator is resilience. Researchers have turned attention to the challenge of making
91 infrastructure systems more resilient against devastating earthquakes. Resilience is related with
92 the ability of a structural system to mitigate the hazard damage to infrastructures, society, , and
93 economy. A methodology to evaluate the seismic resilience of conventional and novel bridges is
94 obliged to meet current performance requirements. The seismic resilience associated with novel

95 bridge systems with SMA is investigated in this paper and comparative assessment between the
96 conventional and novel bridges is emphasized. Overall, a performance-based assessment
97 framework that incorporates both resilience and life-cycle engineering is provided in this paper.
98 This framework can be used for making comparison among different alternative designs and
99 retrofit actions.

100 An approach to assess the seismic resilience and life-cycle performance of conventional and
101 novel bridge systems is presented. The structural vulnerability of the conventional and novel
102 structural systems is computed based on three-dimensional (3D) nonlinear finite element (FE)
103 models. The seismic vulnerability of the structural components (e.g., columns and bearings) is
104 studied by using nonlinear time-history analysis. The life-cycle loss associated with seismic
105 hazard is computed considering the representative hazard scenarios that can happen during the
106 investigated time interval and is incorporated within the performance-based design and
107 assessment process. The life-cycle loss and resilience of these structural systems are computed in
108 a life-cycle context. The proposed approach is illustrated on the conventional and novel bridge
109 systems, which can be effectively used for the comparative assessment of different infrastructure
110 systems to aid the application of emerging materials within the civil engineering.

111 **2. Structural Seismic Vulnerability**

112 In order to evaluate the life-cycle loss and resilience of the bridge under seismic hazard, the
113 structural seismic vulnerability analysis should be conducted as indicated in Figure 1. Fragility
114 curves are the commonly used method to quantify the probability of exceeding a certain damage
115 state associated with structural components and systems under given hazard intensity. Fragility
116 analysis of different types of bridges has been conducted by many studies (Shinozuka *et al.* 2000;
117 Choi *et al.* 2004; Zhang and Huo 2009; Padgett *et al.* 2010b; Dong *et al.* 2013; Muntasir Billaha

118 and Shahria Alamb 2015). The seismic demand should be computed to derive the analytical
 119 fragility curves based on the nonlinear time history analyses. The seismic demand assesses the
 120 engineering demand parameters as a function of a chosen ground motion intensity and can be
 121 quantified using appropriate seismic structural responses, such as deformation or ductility of
 122 vulnerable components. The peak ground acceleration (*PGA*), is typically used as a ground
 123 motion intensity indicator (Baker and Cornell 2006; Padgett and DesRoches 2007). Given the
 124 chosen seismic ground intensity, the median value of seismic demand can be computed as
 125 (Cornell *et al.* 2002)

$$126 \quad EDP = a \cdot (IM)^b \quad \text{or} \quad \ln(EDP) = \ln a + b \ln(IM) \quad (1)$$

127 where *IM* is the ground motion intensity indicator and *a* and *b* are regression parameters derived
 128 from the analytical responses. A 3D FE model can be established using the SAP 2000

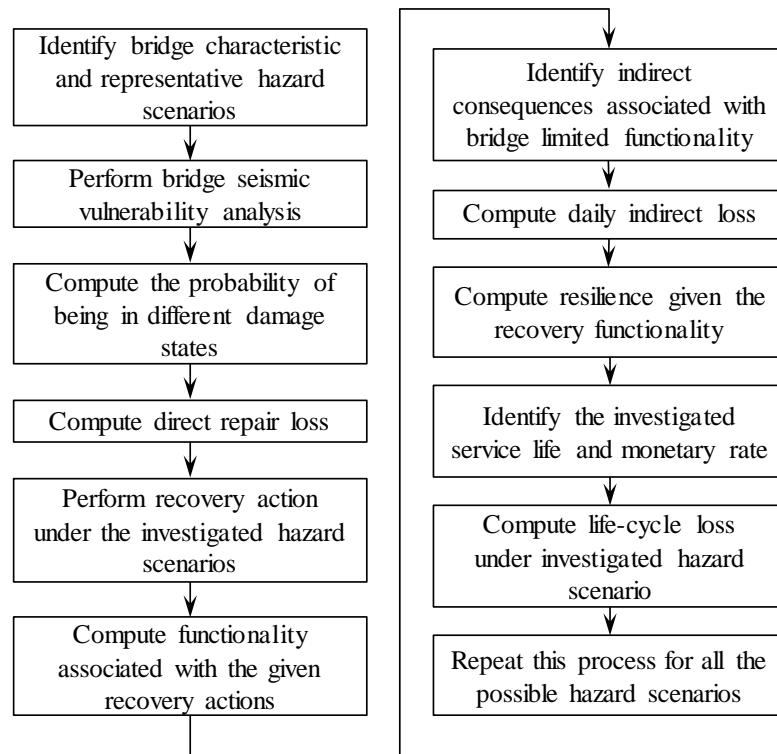


Figure 1. Flowchart for the performance-based assessment incorporating vulnerability, loss, resilience, and life-cycle loss

Table 1. Seismic damage states for RC columns and bearings

Bridge component	Damage indicator	Slight (DS = 1)	Moderate (DS = 2)	Major (DS = 3)	Collapse (DS = 4)
	Physical phenomenon	Cracking and spalling	Moderate cracking and spalling	Degradation without collapse	Failure leading to collapse
Column	Sectional ductility (μ_k) ^a	$\mu_k > 1$	$\mu_k > 2$	$\mu_k > 4$	$\mu_k > 7$
	Displacement ductility (μ_d) ^b	$\mu_d > 1.0$	$\mu_d > 1.2$	$\mu_d > 1.76$	$\mu_d > 4.76$
Bearing	Drift ratio (θ) ^c	$\theta > 0.007$	$\theta > 0.015$	$\theta > 0.025$	$\theta > 0.050$
	Displacement (δ) ^a	$\delta > 0$ mm	$\delta > 50$ mm	$\delta > 100$ mm	$\delta > 150$ mm

^a: Choi *et al* 2004; ^b: Hwang *et al* 2001; and ^c: Yi *et al* 2007.

129 (Computers and Structures Inc. 2010) or OpenSees (McKenna *et al.* 2004) to assess the seismic
 130 demand. The standard deviation of $\ln(EDP)$ under given IM can be computed as (Baker and
 131 Cornell 2006)

$$132 \quad \xi_{EDP|IM} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n [\ln(EDP_i) - (\ln a + b \ln IM_i)]^2}{n-2}} \quad (2)$$

133 where n is the number of the selected earthquake ground motions and EDP_i is the seismic
 134 response corresponding to the i th earthquake ground motion.

135 To obtain fragility curves of different components, it is necessary to specify the damage and
 136 capacity models. The damage states are usually discrete and are quantified by the designated
 137 thresholds of the chosen damage index DI to define different damage stages. Under a given
 138 ground motion intensity IM , the fragility curves can be expressed as (Cornell *et al.* 2002; Zhang
 139 and Huo 2009)

$$140 \quad P[EDP - DI_i \geq 0 | IM] = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\ln(DI_i / aIM^b)}{\xi_{EDP|IM}}\right) \quad (3)$$

141 where $\Phi(\cdot)$ is the standard normal distribution function and $\xi_{EDP|IM}$ is the standard deviation of the
142 logarithmic distribution using Eq. (2). For highway bridges, reinforced concrete (RC) columns
143 and bearings are the components that are susceptible to seismic damage. Sectional curvature
144 ductility, displacement ductility, and residual displacement are often used as the seismic damage
145 indicators for RC columns. Drift ratio, displacement, and shear strain can be used as the damage
146 indicator for bearings. Four levels of the damage states namely slight, moderate, major, and
147 collapse damages were proposed by HAZUS (2003). The definitions of these four levels
148 corresponding to the chosen damage index DI are associated with RC column and bearings and
149 are summarized in Table 1. Given the fragility curves, the probability of exceeding a certain
150 damage state can be computed using Eq. (3). Subsequently, the probability of a structural
151 component and system being in damage state i can be computed by the difference between the
152 probabilities of exceedance of damage states i and $i+1$, where damage state $i+1$ is more severe
153 than damage state i .

154 Given the fragility curves of the components, fragility curve of a bridge system can be
155 developed accounting for the relationship between the vulnerable components and assessing
156 structural performance as an overall system. Previous studies suggest that system fragility can be
157 determined by considering the functionality of the bridges using a joint probabilistic seismic
158 demand model associated with the vulnerable components. Other studies simply considered the
159 column damage as the performance indicator of bridge system without considering other
160 components. Nielson and DesRoches (2007) and Song and Kang (2009) computed the bridge
161 fragility curves as an event that at least one component exceeds its corresponding damage state.
162 Monte Carlo simulation method can be utilized to conduct the system fragility of bridges. This
163 method, however, is time consuming. As an alternative method, the first-order reliability theory

164 can be adopted to determine the upper and lower bounds on the system fragility. The lower
 165 bound is the maximum component fragility and the upper bound is a combination of the
 166 component fragilities. These bounds are expressed as follows (Nielson and DesRoches 2007)

$$167 \quad \max_{k=1}^m [P(F_k)] \leq P(F_{sys}) \leq 1 - \prod_{k=1}^m [1 - P(F_k)] \quad (4)$$

168 where m is the number of the vulnerable component; $P(F_k)$ is the probability failure of the k th
 169 component; and $P(F_{sys})$ is the failure probability of the bridge system. Later, Zhang and Huo
 170 (2009) proposed a composite damage index to compute the system-level behavior of bridges
 171 under seismic hazard by using weighting factors. A weighting factor of 0.75 and 0.25 is assigned
 172 to the column and isolated device, respectively. Accordingly, the damage state of a bridge
 173 system can be computed as follows (Zhang and Huo 2009)

$$174 \quad DS_{sys} = \begin{cases} \text{int}(0.75 \cdot DS_{col} + 0.25 \cdot DS_{bear}) & DS_{col} \text{ and } DS_{bear} < 4 \\ 4 & DS_{col} \text{ or } DS_{bear} = 4 \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

175 where DS_{col} and DS_{bear} represent the damage states of the column and the bearing, respectively.

176 3. SMA-Cable-Based Novel Bearing

177 Modeling of the proposed novel bearing using SMA is introduced in this section. SMA is a smart
 178 and novel material associated with shape memory and super-elasticity properties (Ozbulut *et al.*
 179 2011). The shape memory effect is the ability of SMA to recover its original shape after
 180 deformation through a thermal cycling. The super-elasticity effect is described as the ability to
 181 recovery from a large strain due to the stress-induced martensitic phase transformations. To
 182 reflect the two properties of SMA, a flag-shaped hysteretic model (Tremblay *et al.* 2008) of
 183 SMA was developed as shown in Figure 2, in which E_A and E_M are the Young's moduli of the

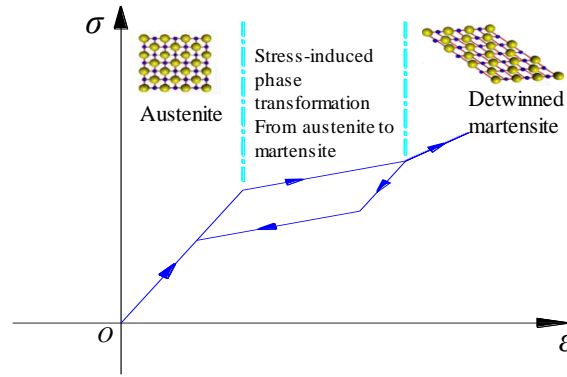


Figure 2. Constitutive hysteretic model of the Ni-Ti SMA material

184 SMA material at austenite and martensite phases, respectively. Given the cross-sectional area
 185 and the free displacements in both longitudinal and transverse directions of the SMA-cable, the
 186 strain-stress constitutive model of SMA-cable can be established using a one-dimension flag-
 187 shaped force-displacement model associated with the proposed isolation device.

188 The proposed novel seismically-isolated device consists of one frictional sliding bearing and
 189 two SAM-cable components as indicated in Figure 3(a). Some screwed holes exist on both the
 190 top and bottom plates of the frictional sliding bearing to aid the installation of the SMA-cable.
 191 The developed constitutive model of the proposed novel device is a parallel system as indicated
 192 in Figure 3(b), accounting for both the sliding effect associated with frictional sliding bearing
 193 and the energy dissipation and self-centering effects of the SMA-cable component. The frictional
 194 slide bearing is modeled using an elastic-perfectly plastic force-displacement constitutive model
 195 as indicated in Figure 3(b). The initial shear stiffness per unit length is represented by k_e and the
 196 sliding frictional force (F_s) of the frictional sliding bearing is given by

197
$$F_s = \mu N \tag{6}$$

198 where μ is frictional coefficient of the bearing component and N is the normal force acting on the
 199 bearing component. The SMA-cable component is modeled using a flag-shaped force-

200 displacement constitutive model that is indicated in Figure 3(b). The flag-shaped model involves
201 five parameters: u_0^s represents the gap of the SMA-cable component; k_0^s , k_1^s , k_2^s and k_3^s denote
202 the axial tension stiffness per unit length of the slack SMA-cable component, the initial axial
203 tension stiffness per unit length, the yielding axial tension stiffness per unit length, and the super-
204 elastic stiffness per unit length of the SMA-cable component, respectively. The initial axial
205 tension stiffness per unit length of the SMA-cable component can be expressed as

$$206 \quad k_1^s = \frac{E_A A_s}{L} \quad (7)$$

207 where E_A is the initial Young's modulus of the SMA cable; A_s is the total cross-sectional area of
208 all the SMA cables associated with the two SMA-cable components; and L is the length of the
209 SMA-cable. The difference between the conventional and the SMA-cable-based bearings is that
210 the conventional bearing does not have the SMA-cable components. Accordingly, the
211 constitutive model of the conventional bearing is indicated in Figure 3(c).

212 **4. Performance-Based Assessment and Resilience**

213 *4.1. Life-Cycle Loss Assessment*

214 In order to investigate the benefit in collaboration with the SMA within the bridge design and
215 hazard mitigation process, bridge performance assessment in a life-cycle context should be
216 conducted. Life-cycle loss associated with conventional and novel bridge systems, as an
217 important performance indicator, should be quantified to compare the performance between
218 these two types of bridges considering different types of losses, e.g., direct and indirect loss (e.g.,
219 repair cost, downtime interruption, and injuries).

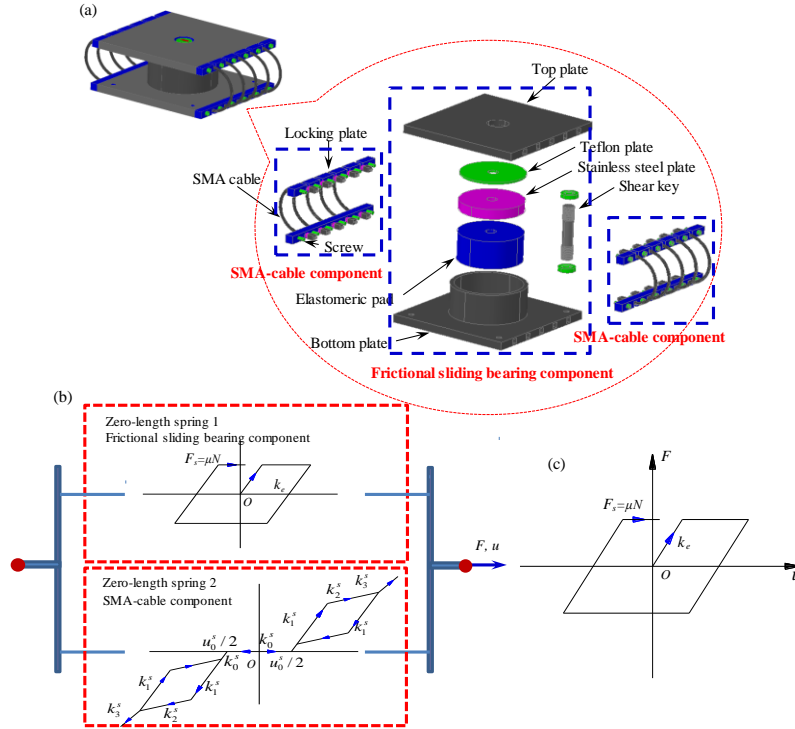


Figure 3. (a) Configuration of the modular SMA-cable-based bearing, (b) constitutive model of the novel bearing with frictional sliding bearing and SMA-cable component, and (c) constitutive model of the conventional bearing loss

220 The performance-based engineering is adopted within the performance quantification
 221 process. Basically, the performance-based performance under hazards can be assessed using the
 222 following steps: hazard analysis, structural analysis, damage analysis, and loss analysis. The
 223 detailed flowchart regarding the performance-based assessment is shown in Figure 1. In order to
 224 assess the seismic loss, the investigated hazard scenarios should be identified. The selected
 225 hazard scenarios should be able to represent the earthquake intensity at the location of the
 226 investigated bridge incorporating both the frequent lower magnitude and the larger magnitude
 227 earthquakes with low probability of occurrence. For instance, the seismic intensity can be
 228 classified as lower, upper, and severe cases (Ataei *et al.* 2017). The lower level seismic event
 229 refers to a relatively small but frequent earthquake that can happen with a reasonable likelihood
 230 within the service life of the bridge. The design service life for a bridge is usually 75 years.

231 Accordingly, lower level ground motion could be determined as a 50% probability of exceedance
 232 within the life of a bridge and this is associated with a 120-year return period. The upper level
 233 earthquake event represents a large with a relatively low probability of occurrence within the
 234 service life. For instance, the upper level earthquake scenario could refer to a 10% probability of
 235 exceedance within the service life and is with a return period of 715 years approximately. A
 236 severe earthquake represents a high intensity ground motion with a rare probability of occurrence
 237 within the service life of a bridge. Herein, the severe earthquake is assumed to with a 5%
 238 probability of exceedance in 75 years and is associated with approximate 1450-year return period
 239 earthquake scenario. Overall, given the prescribed investigated hazard levels, the selected
 240 seismic scenarios can be identified accordingly.

241 The loss of bridges under the selected earthquake scenarios is investigated herein. Given the
 242 fragility curves, the probability of bridges being in different damage states could be computed.
 243 Subsequently, based on the theorem of total probability, the loss is the sum of consequences
 244 weighted with the probabilities of having these consequences. The expected annual loss under
 245 the given the occurrence of the hazard can be computed as

$$246 \quad l_i = \sum_{DS} C_{DS} \cdot P_{DS|IM} \quad (8)$$

247 where C_{DS} is the consequence associated with the given damage state of the bridge and $P_{DS|IM}$ is
 248 the conditional probability of a damage state given a hazard intensity. The direct and indirect
 249 consequences associated with bridge being in different damage states are investigated. The repair
 250 cost associated with a given damage state is assumed proportional to the rebuilding cost of the
 251 bridge (Stein *et al.* 1999) and is

$$252 \quad C_{REP} = RCR \cdot c_{reb} \cdot W \cdot L \quad (9)$$

253 where RCR is the repair cost ratio for a damaged bridge; c_{reb} is the rebuilding cost per square
 254 meter (USD/m²); W is the bridge width (m); and L represents the bridge length (m). The repair
 255 cost is usually regarded as direct cost. Indirect cost could also be incorporated within the
 256 consequence evaluation procedure and can be much larger than the direct cost. Once the bridge is
 257 damaged, the drivers are forced to follow the detour route. The cost associated with running
 258 vehicles on detour is (Stein *et al.* 1999; Dong and Frangopol 2015)

$$259 \quad C_{RUN} = \sum_{i=1}^{t_{IL}} \left[c_{Run,car} \left(1 - \frac{T}{100}\right) + c_{Run,truck} \frac{T}{100} \right] D_l \cdot ADTD \quad (10)$$

260 where $c_{Run,car}$ and $c_{Run,truck}$ are the costs for running cars and trucks per unit length (USD/km),
 261 respectively; t_{IL} is the time interval until the bridge reaches full functionality (e.g., days); D_l is
 262 the length of detour (km); $ADTD$ is the average daily traffic to detour; and T represents the
 263 average daily truck traffic ratio. The monetary time loss for users and goods traveling through
 264 the detour and damaged link can be expressed as (Stein *et al.* 1999; Dong *et al.* 2013)

$$265 \quad C_{TL} = \sum_{i=1}^{t_{IL}} \left[c_{AW} O_{car} \left(1 - \frac{T}{100}\right) + (c_{ATC} O_{truck}) \frac{T}{100} \right] \cdot \left[ADTD \cdot \frac{D_l}{S} + ADTE \cdot \left(\frac{l_l}{S_D} - \frac{l_l}{S_0} \right) \right] \quad (11)$$

266 where c_{AW} is the wage per hour (USD/h); c_{ATC} is the compensation per hour (USD/h); c_{goods} is the
 267 time value of the goods transported in a cargo (USD/h); $ADTE$ is the average daily traffic
 268 remaining on the damaged link; O_{Car} and O_{Truck} are the average vehicle occupancies for cars and
 269 trucks, respectively; l_l is the route segment (i.e., link) containing the bridge (km); S_0 and S_D
 270 represent the average speed on the intact link and damaged link (km/h), respectively; and S
 271 represents the average detour speed (km/h).

272 Given the annual loss under the selected hazard, the loss of the bridge within the
 273 investigated time interval can be computed. Given the occurrence of earthquake as a Poisson
 274 process, the total seismic loss in a life-cycle context can be computed as

275
$$Lt_i(t_{int}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N(t_{int})} l_i(t_k) \cdot e^{-\gamma t_k} \quad (12)$$

276 where t_{int} is the investigated time interval (e.g., years); $N(t_{int})$ is the number of hazard events that
 277 occur during the time interval; $l_i(t_k)$ is the expected annual hazard loss at time t_k ; and γ is the
 278 monetary discount rate. Given $N(t_{int}) = \lambda_f \times t_{int}$, the total expected life-cycle loss can be
 279 computed as (Wen and Kang 2001; Dong and Frangopol 2016)

280
$$E[Lt_i(t_{int})] = \frac{\lambda_f \cdot E(l_i)}{\gamma} \cdot (1 - e^{-\gamma t_{int}}) \quad (13)$$

281 where $E(l_i)$ is the expected value of annual loss l_i given a seismic event. Given all the
 282 investigated hazard scenarios, the total life-cycle loss associated with all the investigated seismic
 283 scenarios is

284
$$E[TLt_i(t_{int})] = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{sc}} \frac{\lambda_i \cdot E(l_i)}{\gamma} \cdot (1 - e^{-\gamma t_{int}}) \quad (14)$$

285 where N_{sc} is the number of hazard scenarios under investigation.

286 4.2. Resilience

287 Resilience, as another important structural performance indicator under extreme event, is defined
 288 as the ability of a civil infrastructure system to maintain its functionality and return to normality
 289 after an extreme event, which depends on the functionality level and recovery patterns. The
 290 functionality of a bridge can be defined as the ability of opening traffic after an extreme event.
 291 Different functionality levels should be considered for emergency response and post-earthquake
 292 recovery period. In the emergency response planning, it is of great importance to identify
 293 whether the bridge located on a link is still available to transfer the resources to the disaster area.
 294 In the post-earthquake recovery phase, the functionality associated with the bridge under hazard
 295 event can be defined as closed, limited use, and open. Based on the recovery pattern, the

296 resilience of the bridge under an extreme event can be computed. One of the most widely
 297 adopted approaches to quantify the resilience is (Cimellaro *et al.* 2010; Frangopol and Bocchini
 298 2011)

$$299 \quad R_{Resi} = \frac{1}{\Delta t_r} \int_{t_0}^{t_0 + \Delta t_r} Q(t) dt \quad (15)$$

300 where $Q(t)$ is the functionality of a bridge under recovery function at time t (e.g., days); t_0 is the
 301 investigated point in time; and Δt_r is the investigated time interval (e.g., days, months). The
 302 shape of the performance restoration curve is related with the repair and recovery efforts. In
 303 order to quantify the resilience, the functionality $Q(t)$ should be identified. Generally, the bridge
 304 functionality can be assessed by mapping the bridge damage state to a value between 0 and 1.0
 305 (Dong and Frangopol 2015). For instance, the value 0 is associated with collapse of the bridges.
 306 Given the functionality associated with different damage states, the expected functionality can be
 307 computed as (Dong and Frangopol 2015)

$$308 \quad Q = \sum_{i=1}^5 FR_i \cdot P_{DS_i | IM} \quad (16)$$

309 where FR_i is the functionality ratio associated with damage state i . Herein, the following
 310 scenarios are considered: immediate access, weight restriction, one lane open only, emergency
 311 access only, and bridge closed represent. These functionality categories are mapped to a
 312 functionality level between 0 and 1.0 as $Func > 0.9$, $0.6 < Func \leq 0.9$, $0.4 < Func \leq 0.6$, $0.1 <$
 313 $Func \leq 0.4$, and $Func \leq 0.1$, respectively (Dong and Frangopol 2015). In HAZUS (ATC 1999),
 314 the bridge functionality restoration process was modeled by a normal cumulative distribution
 315 function corresponding to the four bridge damage states: slight, moderate, major, and complete
 316 (collapse); Padgett and DesRohes (2007) investigated bridge functionality recovery based on
 317 web-based survey; and Decò *et al.* (2013) proposed a probabilistic approach for calculating the

318 resilience of bridges. Then, given functionality under the recovery pattern, the resilience is
 319 computed using Eq. (15).

320 **5. Illustrative Example**

321 The presented approach is applied to a reinforced concrete (RC) bridge with the proposed SMA-
 322 cable-based bearing. The relevant performance indicators, such as fragility curves, life-cycle loss,
 323 and resilience are investigated and compared with the conventional bridge. This study can aid the
 324 application and development of emerging materials within the civil engineering.

325 *5.1 Bridge Description and Modelling*

326 The bridge investigated herein is a continuous RC bridge with two equal spans (i.e., 20 + 20 m).

327 The geometry of the box girder, column, and abutment is shown in Figure 4. As indicated, the

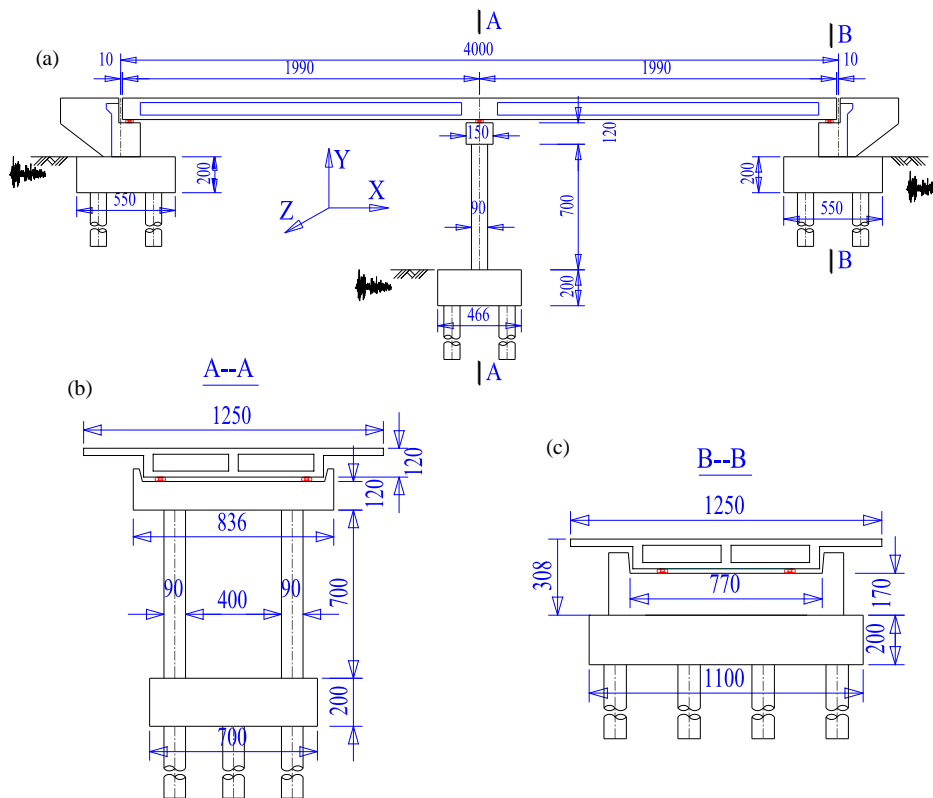


Figure 4. (a) Configuration for the investigated continuous RC bridge (unit: cm), (b) elevation view, and (c) section view of the bridge

328 height and the width of the RC two-box girder are 1.2 m and 12.5 m, respectively. The clear
329 height of the RC column is 7.0 m, and the cross section of the RC column is 0.9 m × 0.9 m. The
330 longitudinal and transverse reinforcement ratios of the RC column are 0.024 and 0.00251,
331 respectively. The compressive strength of the concrete used in the column is 30.0 MPa and the
332 yield strength of the reinforcement is 280.0 MPa. Based on the pushover analysis, the
333 relationship between the bending moment and curvature of the RC column section is shown in
334 Figure 5(a), which could be represented by a bilinear curve. Accordingly, the yielding bending
335 moment and the curvature are 2970.1 kN.m and 0.00461/m, respectively.

336 The seismic vulnerability of the conventional and novel bridges with SMA-cable bearings is
337 investigated. The schematic FE model of the continuous RC bridge is shown in Figure 5(b). For
338 the conventional RC bridge, two conventional expansion bearings are placed on the top of
339 abutment and two conventional fixed bearings are placed on the top of the bent cap. As an
340 example, the constitute model of the expansion bearing is indicated in Figure 3(c). The yielding
341 strength (F_s) of the expansion bearing is computed as the product of the frictional coefficient (μ)
342 and the normal force (N) acting on the bearing. The initial elastic stiffness per millimeter (k_e) and
343 the frictional coefficient are 123 kN/mm and 0.2 (Mander *et al.* 1996). With respect to the novel
344 isolated bridge, two SMA-cable-based expansion bearings are placed on the top of abutment and
345 two SMA-cable-based fixed bearings are placed on the top of the bent cap. The SMA-cable-
346 based fixed and expansion bearings are modeled by two zero-length spring elements in parallel
347 as illustrated in Figure 3(b). The initial gap (u_0^s) is 50 mm and the initial axial tension stiffness
348 per unit length (k_1^s) of the SMA-cable component is 72.7 kN/mm. The ratio between the yielding
349 axial tension stiffness per unit length (k_2^s) and k_1^s is 0.015. The ratio between the super-elastic

350 tension stiffness per unit length (k_3^s) and k_1^s is 1.0. The SMA-cable-based bearing is used here to
351 enhance the seismic performance of bridge under seismic hazard.

352 The RC columns are modeled by displacement-based nonlinear fiber elements accounting
353 for the nonlinear characteristics. The constitutive behavior of the reinforcing steel is represented
354 by a uniaxial Menegotto-Pinto constitutive model (Menegotto and Pinto 1973; Barbato and
355 Conte 2006). The uniaxial Kent-Scott-Park concrete model (Scott *et al.* 1982) is used to model
356 the unconfined and confined concrete. The soil-structure interaction (SSI) effect of the soil-
357 abutment-pile-foundation is modeled by several zero-length spring elements in parallel
358 (Maragakis *et al.* 1991). Specifically, a tri-linear hysteretic model is assigned to a zero-length
359 spring element to simulate the dynamic mechanism of the SSI between the soil and abutment.
360 The superstructure and RC abutment are modeled by using linear elastic beam-column elements.

361 5.2 Seismic Vulnerability Assessment

362 In order to conduct the nonlinear time-history analysis, a set of 88 ground motion records is
363 selected from Pacific Earthquake Engineering Research Center Ground Motion Database (PEER
364 2013). This suite of selected records covers a wide range of magnitude. The seismic performance
365 of SMA-cable-based bearings and the RC columns, as the most vulnerable components, is
366 investigated and median values corresponding to their appropriate seismic demands are
367 computed using Eq. (1). For the RC column within the conventional bridge, taking the PGA and
368 maximum curvature ductility as the seismic intensity and demand parameter, the two constants a
369 and b can be obtained based on the linear regression and they are 6.003 and 1.960, respectively,
370 as indicated in Figure 6(a). Similarly, the values of a and b associated with the columns of the
371 novel bridge are 2.167 and 2.033, respectively, as indicated in Figure 6(b). The relevant
372 regression parameters associated with conventional and proposed novel bearings can also be

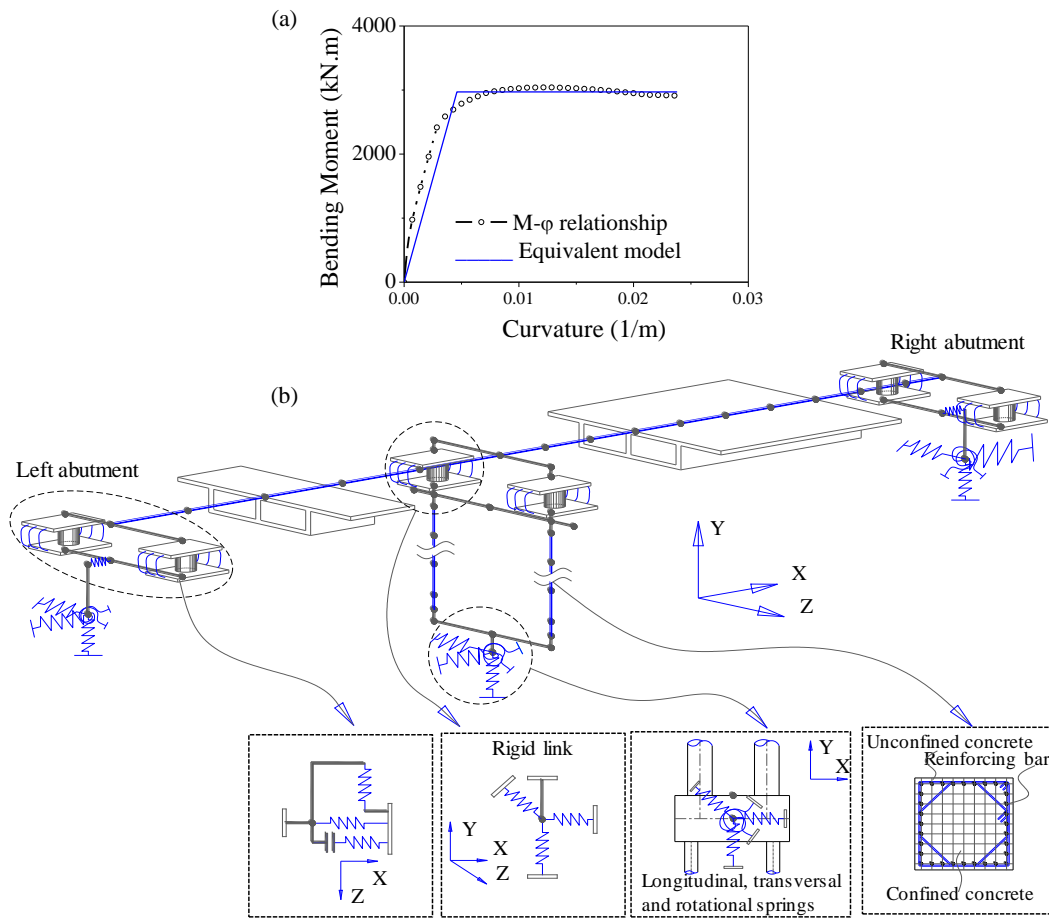


Figure 5. (a) Bending moment vs. curvature of the section at the bottom of the RC column and (b) nonlinear FE model of the investigated bridge

373 obtained. For the conventional bearing, these two constants a and b are 0.1333 and 1.401,
 374 respectively, as shown in Figure 6(c). For the novel SMA-cable-based bearing, a and b are
 375 0.0684 and 1.636, respectively, as shown in Figure 6(d).

376 Given the seismic demand, the fragility curves of the RC column and bearing with and
 377 without using SMA are obtained. The parameters used for the quantification of different damage
 378 states of the RC column and bearing are indicated in Table 1. The fragility curves can be
 379 computed using Eq. (3). Accordingly, Figure 7(a) shows the fragility curves associated with four
 380 damage states of the RC columns with conventional bearings and SMA-cable-based bearings. As
 381 indicated, under a given ground motion intensity, the damage probabilities of the RC column of
 382 the conventional bridge are much larger than those of the RC column within the isolated bridge
 383 using SMA-cable-based bearings. Thus, the SMA-cable-based bearing can improve the structural
 384 performance of the RC columns significantly. For instance, given the $PGA = 1.0 g$, the
 385 probabilities of exceeding the four damage states of the RC column within the novel bridge

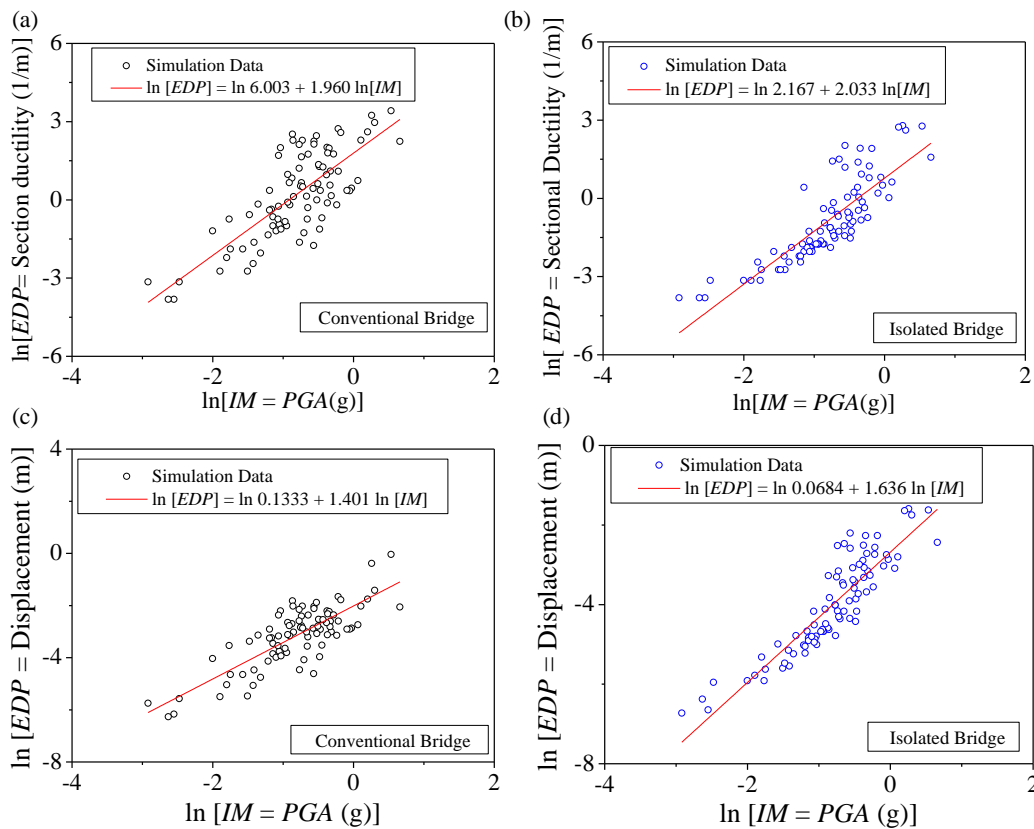


Figure 6. Relationship of logarithmic EDP against logarithmic IM of the RC column (a) Conventional bridge, (b) novel bridge with SMA, and relationship of logarithmic EDP against logarithmic IM of the bearings (c) conventional bridge, and (d) novel bridge with SMA

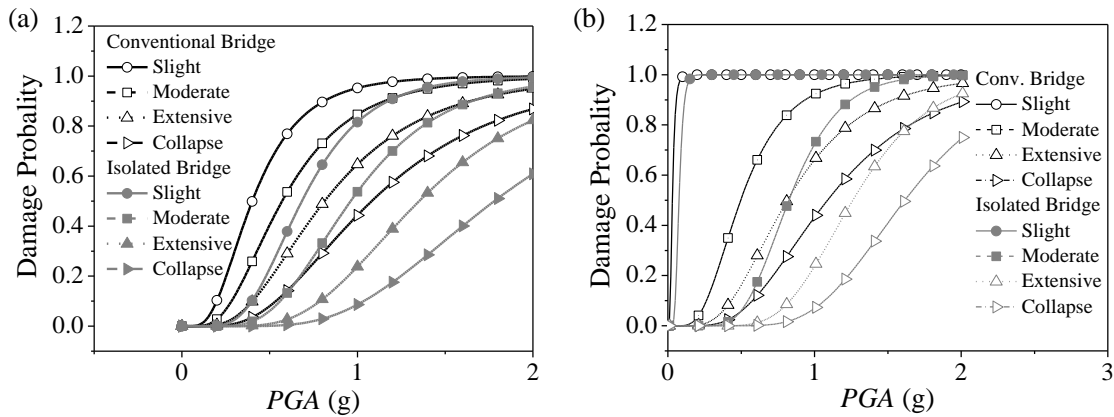


Figure 7. Fragility curves of (a) RC columns and (b) bearings the conventional and isolated novel bridges with SMA

386 system are 85.7%, 63.5%, 36.8% and 19.4% of those of the conventional bridge. The fragility
 387 curves of the conventional and SMA-cable-based bearings are indicated in Figure 7(b). It can be
 388 concluded that the damage probabilities of the conventional bearing associated with four damage
 389 states are larger than those of the SMA-cable-based bearings. Similarly, the SMA-cable-based
 390 bearing can improve the performance of the bearings under earthquakes significantly.

391 Given the fragility curves associated with different components, the system-level fragility
 392 curve can be obtained. The system failure model proposed by Nielson and DesRoches (2007) is

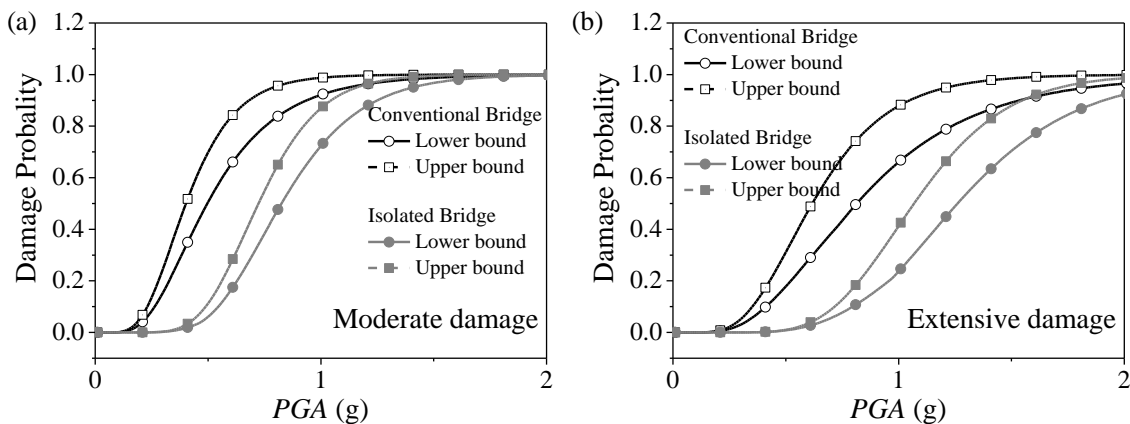


Figure 8. System fragilities for (a) moderate damage and (b) major damage of conventional and novel bridges

393 used to compute the system-level bridge fragility curve considering the seismic performance of
394 the columns and bearings. As indicated in Eq. (4), the fragility curves of the bridge system at
395 each damage state compose two parts, i.e., upper and lower bounds. The upper bound indicates
396 the combination of the component fragilities while the lower bound represents the maximum
397 component fragility. The fragility curves associated with moderate and major damage states are
398 plotted in Figure 8. As indicated, the SMA-cable-based bearing can improve the structural
399 performance of the bridge system significantly. At moderate damage state, the upper and lower
400 bounds for the conventional bridge are much higher than those for the novel bridge. For instance,
401 given the $PGA = 1.0 g$, the upper and lower bounds of the novel bridge system exceeding
402 moderate damage are approximately 88.0% and 78.5% of those of the conventional bridge. With
403 respect to the extensive damage state, given the $PGA = 1.0 g$, the upper and lower bounds of the
404 novel bridge system are approximate 21.5% and 18.9% of those of the conventional bridge. Thus,
405 the SMA cable-based bearing has a larger effect on the bridge performance with respect to a
406 severe damage state.

407 5.3 Resilience Assessment

408 The resilience of the conventional and novel bridges is assessed in this section, in which the
409 functionality of bridges considering different damage states should be identified firstly. Herein,
410 the following scenarios are considered: immediate access, weight restriction, one lane open only,
411 emergency access only, and bridge closed; these functionality categories are mapped to a
412 functionality level between 0 and 1.0 as $Q(t) > 0.9$, $0.6 < Q(t) \leq 0.9$, $0.4 < Q(t) \leq 0.6$, $0.1 < Q(t) \leq$
413 0.4 , and $Q(t) \leq 0.1$, respectively (Dong and Frangopol 2015). Given the hazard intensity, the
414 functionality of the bridges after the earthquake is computed using Eq. (16). Given the lower and
415 upper bounds associated with different damage states, the bridge fragility curve can be obtained

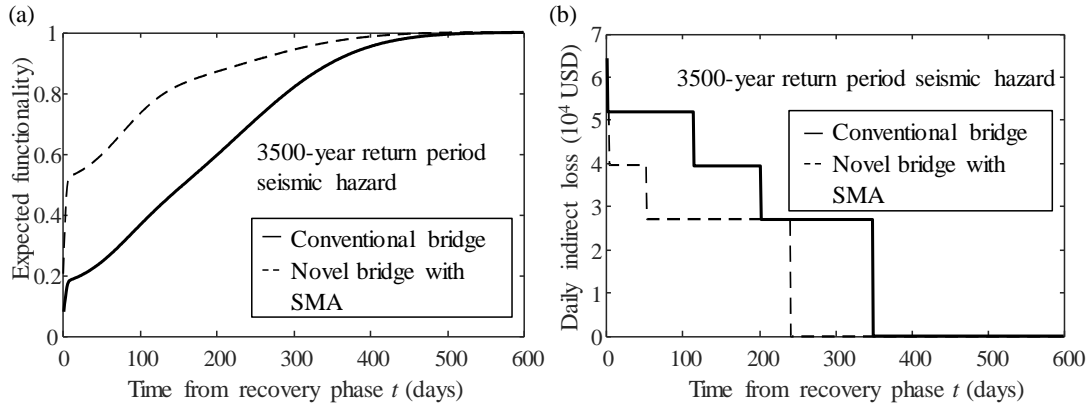


Figure 9. (a) Expected functionality of the bridge from the recovery phase and (b) daily indirect loss associated with the novel and conventional bridges under the given hazard

416 as the average of these two bounds. The four hazard scenarios are investigated herein, which
 417 refer to the 120, 715, 1450, and 3500-year return period earthquakes. For illustrative purpose,
 418 two locations are selected in this study: Nutbush, Tennessee and Los Angeles, California. Hazard
 419 curve parameters for Nutbush and Los Angeles are based on the United States Geological Survey
 420 (2017). The $PGAs$ with return period of 120, 715, 1450, and 3500-year at Nutbush are 0.061,
 421 0.337, 0.528, and 0.809 g , respectively. With respect to the Los Angeles, the relevant $PGAs$ are
 422 0.2774, 0.659, 0.860, and 1.157 g , respectively. Given the seismic intensity and fragility curve,
 423 the probabilities of the bridge being in different damage states can be obtained, which act as the
 424 input for Eq. (16). The expected residual functionalities of the novel bridge located at Los
 425 Angeles under four selected seismic intensities are 0.747, 0.582, 0.400, and 0.203, respectively.
 426 With respect to the novel bridge located in Nutbush, the residual functionalities are 0.936, 0.743,
 427 0.687, and 0.445, respectively. By comparison, the seismic intensity associated with different
 428 locations of bridge can affect the functionality significantly. Also, the functionality of the
 429 conventional bridge at the Los Angeles is also computed. The residual functionality of the
 430 conventional bridge under the investigated four return period earthquakes are 0.664, 0.258,
 431 0.1519, and 0.0772, respectively.

432 Given the functionality of the bridges after the earthquake, the resilience of the bridge can
 433 be computed using Eq. (15). Herein, the recovery path is based on ATC (1999). Accordingly, the
 434 bridge functionality restoration process is modeled by a normal cumulative distribution function
 435 corresponding to each of the four bridge damage states: slight, moderate, major, and complete
 436 (collapse). The approach developed by ATC is adopted within this paper and any other models
 437 can also be easily incorporated within the computational process. Under the recovery strategies,
 438 the functionality of the bridge can recovery to a desirable level. Under the investigated 3500-year
 439 return period earthquake and recovery actions, the functionality of the bridge is shown in Figure
 440 9(a). As indicated, the functionality of the damaged bridge increases with time and there exists a
 441 significant difference between the conventional and novel bridges. Then, based on Eq. (15), the
 442 resilience of the conventional and novel bridges is computed. Given $\Delta t_r = 300$ days, the
 443 resilience of the novel bridges located in Los Angeles under the four seismic hazard intensities is
 444 0.996, 0.975, 0.920 and 0.770, respectively. The resilience of the bridges under the investigated
 445 earthquake scenarios is shown in Table 2. By comparing these values, the resilience of the bridge
 446 can be increased by 46.5% of the case of adopting SMA novel system under 1450-year seismic
 447 event. As indicated, the performance benefit of resilience associated with SMA increases with a
 448 larger investigated hazard intensity. It means that the SMA is more beneficial for the bridges that
 449 located within the seismic active zones with a higher hazard intensity.

450 **Table 2.** Resilience of the conventional and novel bridges located in different regions under different
 451 hazard intensities

Return Period (years)	Los Angeles, CA		Nutbush, TN	
	Conventional Bridge	Novel Bridge	Conventional Bridge	Novel Bridge
120	0.984	0.996	0.996	0.997
715	0.767	0.975	0.967	0.996
1450	0.628	0.920	0.863	0.991
3500	0.479	0.770	0.661	0.938

452 5.4 Life-Cycle Loss Assessment

453 In order to compute the life-cycle loss, the annual loss given the occurrence of the seismic
 454 scenarios should be computed. Based on the fragility curves obtained previously, the
 455 probabilities of the bridge being in different damage states are quantified. Then, given the
 456 consequences associated with different damage states, the direct and indirect costs can be
 457 quantified using Eqs. (9) - (11). Accordingly, the direct repair cost associated with the damaged
 458 bridge is computed using Eq. (9). The expected repair loss of the bridge using SMA at Los
 459 Angeles under the investigated four earthquake scenarios are 1.436×10^5 , 2.737×10^5 , $4.699 \times$
 460 10^5 , and 8.013×10^5 USD, respectively. The indirect loss associated with the bridge considering
 461 partial functionality is computed using Eqs. (10) and (11). The parameters used in these
 462 equations are indicated in Table 3. The time-variant daily indirect loss is shown in Figure 9(b).
 463 Once the functionality of the bridge is completely restored, the daily indirect loss reaches zero at
 464 the end of the investigated time interval. The total indirect loss of the damaged bridge is the sum
 465 of the daily loss. The total indirect losses associated with conventional and novel bridges under
 466 the four investigated hazard scenarios are computed. The total indirect loss of the bridge using
 467 SMA at Los Angeles under the investigated four earthquake scenarios are 2.698×10^4 , $1.204 \times$

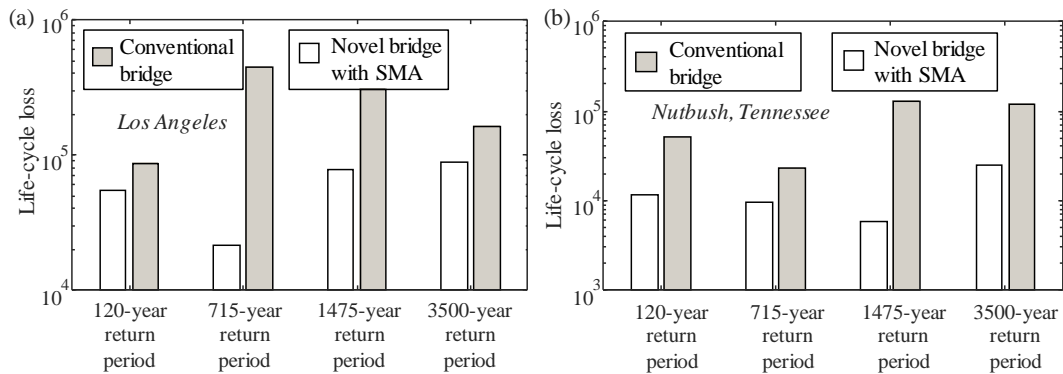


Figure 10. Life-cycle loss associated with the conventional and novel bridges under different hazard scenarios at (a) Los Angeles, CA and (b) Nutbush, TN

468 10^5 , $2.454.699 \times 10^6$, and 7.188×10^6 USD, respectively. By comparing, the indirect loss is
 469 much larger than the direct repair loss as the seismic intensity increases.

470 **Table 3.** Parameters associated with the consequence evaluation

Random variables	Notation	Value
Average daily traffic	ADT	19750
Daily truck traffic ratio	T	13%
Length of link (km)	l_l	6
Detour additional distance (km)	D_l	2
Vehicle occupancies for cars	O_{car}	1.5
Vehicle occupancies for trucks	O_{truck}	1.05
Rebuilding costs (\$/m ²)	C_{reb}	2306
Compensation for truck drivers (\$/h)	C_{ATC}	29.87
Operating costs for cars (\$/km)	$C_{Run,car}$	0.4
Operating costs for trucks (\$/km)	$C_{Run,truck}$	0.57
Wage for car drivers (\$/h)	C_{AW}	11.91
Detour speed (km/h)	S	50
Link speed (km/h)	S_0	80

471 Then, the expected loss within the life-cycle of the bridge is assessed using Eq. (13).
 472 Considering the investigated four earthquake scenarios, the life-cycle loss of the conventional
 473 and novel bridges located in Los Angeles, CA, is shown in Figure 10(a). As indicated, the SMA-

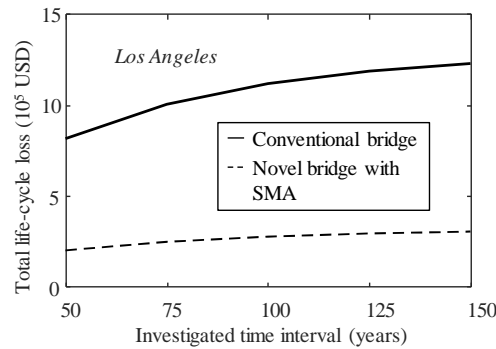


Figure 11. Effect of investigated time intervals on the life-cycle loss of the conventional and novel at Los Angeles, CA

474 cable based bearing can reduce the life-cycle loss significantly compared to the bridge with the
475 conventional bearing, especially for the 715-year return period earthquake scenario. Similarly,
476 the life-cycle losses of the conventional and novel bridges located in Nutbush, TN, are computed
477 and indicated in Figure 10(b). As indicated, there exists a significant difference between these
478 two types of bridges. The SAM cable-based bearing has a larger effect on the loss reduction
479 associated with 1475-year return period earthquake. The effects of the investigated time interval
480 on the life-cycle loss are also assessed within the computational process. Figure 11 shows the
481 profiles of the life-cycle loss of the conventional and novel bridges located in Los Angeles under
482 different time intervals. As the results indicated, the bridge life-cycle loss increases over time
483 and the difference between the losses of conventional and novel bridges increases with the
484 increase of the time interval.

485 **6. Conclusions**

486 This paper presents an approach to assess the life-cycle loss and resilience of conventional and
487 novel structural systems with SMA cable-based bearings in order to evaluate the benefit
488 associated with the adoption of this novel bearing system. The fragility curves associated with
489 the conventional and novel bridges with SMA were evaluated by using nonlinear time-history
490 analysis. Life-cycle loss and resilience under the investigated hazard scenarios were assessed,
491 taking into account the direct and indirect loss and hazard recovery pattern. The proposed novel
492 isolation device was applied to a continuous RC bridge.

493 The following conclusions can be drawn.

- 494 1. The effect of SMA-cable based bearing on the seismic performance of a highway bridge
495 was investigated by using time history analysis. The proposed novel isolation device can

496 improve the seismic performance of the bridge significantly. Thus, the bridges with the
497 proposed SMA devices proved to be effective considering the structural performance and
498 the relevant loss associated with bridge failure.

499 2. The seismic loss of the bridges within the investigated time interval was assessed and
500 compared with the novel and conventional bridges. The indirect loss is highly related with
501 the investigated hazard intensity. Indirect loss could be much larger than the direct loss,
502 specifically for the investigated seismic scenario with a relatively low probability of
503 occurrence. As can be concluded from the results, the life-cycle loss of the bridge using the
504 novel isolation device with SMA can be reduced significantly. The investigated time
505 interval can affect the life-cycle loss significantly and different conclusions can be obtained
506 associated with different investigated time horizon.

507 3. The contribution of the hazard scenarios on the life-cycle loss depended not only on the
508 hazard occurrence rate but also the annual loss given the occurrence of the investigated
509 hazard scenarios. In order to cover a comprehensive performance assessment content,
510 different hazard scenarios should be chosen within the evaluation process. The performance
511 benefit of resilience associated with SMA increases with a larger investigated hazard
512 intensity. SMA is more beneficial for the bridges that located within the seismic active
513 zones with a high hazard intensity.

514 4. The resilience of the conventional and novel bridge systems was assessed in this study. The
515 functionality and probability of the bridge in different performance levels were computed to
516 aid the assessment of resilience. The investigated seismic intensity can affect the resilience
517 significantly. The difference of the resilience between the conventional and novel bridge
518 systems increases with the increase associated with the investigated hazard scenario.

519 5. This paper provided a decision-making tool for the application of novel materials within the
520 structural seismic design process. The comparative seismic vulnerability, life-cycle loss, and
521 resilience of different bridge systems were investigated. The proposed SMA cable-based
522 bearings can improve the seismic performance of the bridge significantly in a long-term
523 time interval.

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