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Effects of High Strength Concrete on Progressive Collapse Resistance of **Reinforced Concrete Frame**

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ABSTRACT 4

5 The application of extreme loads such as impact and blast may lead to progressive collapse and the 6 robustness of a structure must be considered in this context. Although extensive studies had been carried out over the past decades to study the load resisting mechanism of reinforced concrete (RC) 7 8 frames to prevent progressive collapse, the effects of high-strength-concrete (HSC) on progressive 9 collapse resistance capacity is still unclear. Therefore, six tests of RC frames with different span-to-10 depth ratio and concrete strength were conducted in present study. Among them, three are HSC frames 11 and the remaining are normal strength concrete frames. It was found that the use of HSC could further 12 enhance the compressive arch action (CAA) capacity, especially for those with low span-to-depth ratio. 13 On the other hand, HSC can reduce the tensile catenary action (TCA) capacity at large deformation 14 stage, primarily because of higher bond stress between concrete and rebar, leading to earlier fracture of 15 the rebar. The analytical results from the model were compared with the test results. It was found that the refined CAA model could accurately predict the CAA capacity of NSC frames, but not for HSC 16 17 frames. Moreover, existing model is hard to predict the CAA capacity of the frames with relatively 18 small span-to-depth ratio (less than 7) accurately.

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20 **CE Database subject heading:** progressive collapse; high strength concrete; compressive arch action; 21 tensile catenary action

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32 **INTRODUCTION**

33 Buildings may subject to initial local damage due to intended or accidental events, such as the loss of 34 one or a couple of columns. However, in ordinary civilian building design, the column missing is not 35 well considered in the past design guidelines. Therefore, these buildings may have high risk to 36 propagate initial local damage disproportionately to a large area of the building or even cause entire 37 collapse. The terminology of progressive collapse is first proposed after the collapse of Ronan Point in 38 1968. The collapse of Murrah Federal Building in 1995 and Twin-Tower of World Trade Center in 39 2001 re-sparkled the interest on progressive collapse in academic and practical engineer's communities. 40 Several design codes or guidelines (BS8110 1997; BSI 2006; GSA 2009; ASCE/SEI 7 2010; DoD 41 2009; ACI-318 2014) were issued for progressive collapse design using so-called explicitly or 42 implicitly design methods. Among them, Alternate Load Path method is commonly accepted for 43 evaluation of the capacity of a building to mitigate progressive collapse due to its threat independent 44 feature.

45 Based on Alternate Load Path method, extensive tests had been carried out in the past decades to understand the capacity of reinforced concrete (RC) frames to resist progressive collapse. These tests 46 47 could be categorized into three groups: multi-story tests (Yi et al. 2008; Sasani et al. 2011a; Xiao et al. 2015; Qian and Li 2017; Qian et al. 2019), single-story beam-column or beam-column-slab 48 49 subassembly tests (Su et al. 2009; Orton et al. 2009; Qian and Li 2012a; FarhangVesali et al. 2013; Yu 50 and Tan 2013a; Lew et al. 2014; Valipour et al. 2015a; Qian et al. 2016; Ren et al. 2016; Peng et al. 51 2017; Oian et al. 2018), and single-story beam-column connections tests (Oian and Li 2012b; Yu et al. 2014). Yi et al. (2008) carried out a 1/3-scaled three-story planar frame test to evaluate the load 52 53 resisting mechanism of RC frame subjected to the loss of an interior column. Compressive arch action (CAA) and tensile catenary action (TCA) were found to be the primary mechanisms in resisting 54

55 progressive collapse at different stages. Sasani et al. (2011a) conducted a real time removal test to 56 study the dynamic response of an 11-story building, which was planned to be demolished, subjected to 57 sudden removal of four adjacent ground columns due to explosives. Flexural beam action and 58 Vierendeel action were identified as the two primary load resisting mechanisms. Xiao et al. (2015) 59 experimentally investigated the dynamic response of a half-scaled three-story RC building, which is 60 deliberately built for progressive collapse study, subjected to different column missing scenarios. The 61 load resisting mechanism shifted from flexural moment resisting to TCA mechanism was observed 62 when two ground exterior columns were removed simultaneously. Qian and Li (2017) tested a series of 63 six three-story frames with or without infilled walls to quantify the effects of masonry infilled walls on 64 load resisting mechanism and capacity of RC frames to resist progressive collapse. It was found that 65 masonry infilled walls enhance the initial stiffness and increase the first peak load significantly. 66 Moreover, the crushing of masonry infilled walls will not jeopardize the development of TCA of the 67 beam at large deformation stage. Qian et al. (2019) also tested another series of five three-story frames 68 to quantify the efficiency of using steel bracings in strengthening RC frames to mitigate progressive 69 collapse. Different configurations of steel bracings were applied. It was found that compressive 70 bracings prone to out-of-plane buckling and have little contribution to the collapse resistance, while 71 tensile bracings may fracture before the development of TCA.

72 Actually, majority of existing tests on progressive collapse investigation were focused on beam-73 column substructures or beam-column-slab substructures. This is because it is easier to replicate the 74 boundary conditions and measure the response. Dynamic effects and dynamic load increase factor of 75 RC frames subjected to sudden column removal scenario were also investigated (Qian and Li 2012b; 76 Yu et al. 2014; Peng et al. 2017). These literatures documented that the failure mode and resistance of 77 the specimens were similar to their counterparts tested in a static test manner. Moreover, the behavior 78 of beam-column connections subjected to different column missing scenarios were evaluated 79 experimentally by Yap and Li (2011) and Qian and Li (2012c), which could provide sufficient 80 evidence for the level of confidence in simplification of the boundary conditions in substructure tests.

81 The load resisting mechanisms of bare RC frames subjected to middle column missing scenario 82 were quantified by pushdown test methods (Su et al. 2009; FarhangVesali et al. 2013; Valipour et al. 83 2015a). Su et al. (2009) concluded that loading rate has little effect on CAA capacity. FarhangVesali et 84 al. (2013) reported that longitudinal reinforcement ratio and stirrup configuration have a minor effect 85 on the CAA. Valipour et al. (2015a) experimentally investigated the effects of concrete strength 86 (ranging from 18 MPa to 67 MPa) on the CAA of RC beam assemblages. The test results demonstrated 87 that the concrete strength has significant influence on the peak load capacity (CAA capacity) of the 88 tested specimens. The stiffness of supports also has significant effects on mobilization of CAA. 89 Valipour et al. (2015b) filled knowledge gap in progressive collapse response of RC frame using steel 90 fiber to replace conventional transverse reinforcements, the test results demonstrated that the 91 replacement had little effects on the development of TCA. The role of slabs, compressive membrane 92 action (CMA) and tensile membrane action (TMA) developed in RC slabs were evaluated (Qian and 93 Li 2012a; Qian et al. 2016; Ren et al. 2016). It was found that, the CMA and TMA bring great benefit 94 to the resistance. The CMA capacity was affected by the stiffness of boundary elements and strength of concrete significantly while the TMA capacity was mainly affected by the amount of slab 95 96 reinforcement in bottom layer (continual). Moreover, improving CMA of precast concrete slabs to 97 resist wheel loading using additional transverse confining system (i.e., straps, cross-bracing and a 98 combination of straps and cross-bracing) was reported by Valipour et al. (2015c). It was found that the 99 peak load capacity could be enhanced significantly due to considerable restraint provided by the 100 confining system. Furthermore, the effects of seismic design and detailing on behavior of RC moment 101 frames to resist progressive collapse were evaluated (Choi and Kim 2011, Qian and Li 2012c, Kim and 102 Choi 2016, Lu et al. 2017). Choi and Kim (2011) and Kim and Choi (2016) indicated that seismically 103 designed specimens performed much better than the corresponding non-seismically designed specimens as seismically designed specimens had higher reinforcement ratio and transverse 104 105 reinforcement installed at joint zones, which delayed the failure of exterior joints. Lu et al. (2017) 106 found that for normal strength concrete frames, seismically design could increase the beam 107 longitudinal reinforcement ratio, which resulted in a much larger resistance in both beam and catenary 108 action. However, the increase of beam depth could improve the resistance of beam action but not the 109 catenary action. Moreover, the results from Kim et al. (2011) indicated that rotational friction damper, 110 which was normally for mitigating seismic or wind load, was also effectively improve the behavior of 111 RC frames to mitigate progressive collapse.

112 Although above studies had deeply improved the understanding on load resisting mechanisms of 113 RC frames to resist progressive collapse, these studies are mainly focused on normal strength concrete 114 (NSC). As high strength concrete (HSC) has advantages in load resisting capacity enhancement, 115 smaller member size, less self-weight etc, HSC is widely used in high-rise buildings in the past 116 decades. Moreover, the high-rise buildings have higher possibility for terrorism attacks due to their 117 higher social impact caused by attacks. Thus, it is necessary to evaluate the behavior of reinforced 118 HSC frames to resist progressive collapse and to identify the effects of HSC on load resisting 119 mechanism of RC frames. For this purpose, a series of six RC frames, using both HSC and NSC, were 120 designed and tested under pushdown loading regime. The accuracy of existing analytical models in 121 predicting CAA and TCA of HSC frames was also evaluated.

122 DESCRIPTION OF TEST PROGRAM

123 Experimental specimens

Six half-scaled beam-column sub-assemblages were designed and constructed to evaluate the effects of
HSC on behavior of RC frames to resist progressive collapse. These specimens include three HSC
specimens (HSC-13, HSC-11, and HSC-8) and three NSC specimens (NSC-13, NSC-11, and NSC-8).
The specimens are denoted flows below conventions:

128 1. 'HSC' represents specimens using HSC and 'NSC' represents specimens using NSC;

1292. Number after hyphen denotes span/depth ratio, which is defined by the ratio of clear beam span130 to its depth.

131 Fig. 1 shows the dimension and reinforcement details of specimen NSC-11 while Table 1 lists the key properties of the specimens. As shown in Fig. 1, Specimen NSC-11 was non-seismically designed in 132 133 accordance with ACI 318-14 (2014) with clear span of 2750 mm and beam cross-section of 250 134 mm×150 mm. The bottom rebar is continuous 2T12 reinforcement, while curtailment is considered for top rebar. The beam transverse reinforcement is R6@100 mm throughout the whole beam without 135 transverse reinforcements in the joint zone. The clear cover of the concrete for beam and column are 136 both 15 mm. T12 and R6 herein represent deformed reinforcement with diameter of 12 mm and plain 137 138 reinforcement with diameter of 6 mm, respectively. Two beams, one middle column stub, and two 139 enlarged side column stubs were casted. The enlarged side column has dimension of 400 mm×400 mm 140 to replicate fixed boundary conditions following previous studies (Orton et al. 2009; Su et al. 2009; Yu 141 and Tan 2013a).

142 As tabulated in Table 1, Specimens NSC-13 and NSC-8 have similar reinforcement ratio and beam cross-section to Specimen NSC-11 but clear span of 3250 mm and 2000 mm, respectively. 143 144 Specimens HSC-13, HSC-11, and HSC-8 have identical dimensions and reinforcement details to NSC 145 counterparts but high strength concrete is used. According to cylindrical compression tests, at the day 146 of test, the recorded concrete compressive strength of NSC-13, NSC-11, NSC-8, HSC-13, HSC-11, and HSC-8 are 30.5 MPa, 31.1 MPa, and 31.7 MPa, 59.3 MPa, 61.2 MPa, and 60.5 MPa, respectively. 147 148 Based on tensile splitting tests, the tensile strength of the concrete of NSC-13, NSC-11, NSC-8, HSC-149 13, HSC-11, and HSC-8 are 2.9 MPa, 3.0 MPa, 2.9 MPa, 6.0 MPa, 6.1 MPa, and 6.1 MPa, respectively. 150 Moreover, the properties of reinforcement are tabulated in Table 2.

151 **Test Setup and instrumentations**

Similar to previous studies (Orton et al. 2009; Su et al. 2009; Yu and Tan 2013a), as shown in Fig. 2a, fixed boundary condition was replicated at the side column by using two rollers and one bottom pin. To eliminate the redundant horizontal restraints from the bottom pin, a series of steel rollers were placed below the pin support. Therefore, the side columns were statically determinate and the

156 horizontal and vertical reaction force could be measured directly. It is intentionally designed with no 157 middle column at ground level due to desired element removal before applying vertical load. The 158 column removal effect is implemented through a hydraulic jack with a downward stroke of 700 mm. 159 Displacement-controlled method was adopted with a rate of 0.5 mm/s throughout the tests. To prevent out-of-plane failure, a specially designed steel assembly was installed below the hydraulic jack. As 160 161 illustrated in Fig. 2b, two load cells were installed above and below the hydraulic jack to measure the 162 vertical load (average value was used for final test results records hereafter). In addition, load cell was 163 installed below each pin support to monitor the load redistribution of the columns. 164 Tension/compression load cell (Item 5 in Fig. 2b) was installed in each horizontal roller to measure the horizontal reaction force. A series of linear variable displacement transducers (LVDTs) were installed 165 166 along the beam (D1 to D7) to monitor the deformation shape during test. LVDTs (H1 and H2) were 167 also installed horizontally at the side columns to determine the stiffness of the horizontal restraints as 168 gap allowance was inevitable when installation of the appliance. Strain gauges were mounted along the 169 length of beam longitudinal reinforcements before casting.

170 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

171 General behavior

172 NSC-series: Fig. 3a shows the vertical load-displacement curve of NSC-series specimens and Fig. 4a shows the development of crack pattern of NSC-11. For NSC-11, first crack occurred at the beam 173 174 ends when the middle joint displacement (MJD) reached 9 mm. When the MJD reached 36 mm, the 175 yield load of 37 kN was obtained. However, the calculated yield strength due to pure bending resistance was 35 kN, which was less than the measured one. This was mainly because of the inherent 176 177 compressive axial force in reality is not taken into consideration in the analytical model. Further increasing the MJD, the CAA capacity of 52 kN was observed at an MJD of 90 mm, which is called 178 179 peak displacement in this study. As shown in Fig. 4a, at this loading stage, concrete crushing was observed at the beam ends. The ratio of CAA capacity to yield load is about 1.41, which is due to 180

181 strain hardening of reinforcements and the mobilization of CAA. After that, the load resistance began 182 to drop gradually due to concrete crushing and second-order effects. However, the load resistance 183 began to re-ascend when the MJD reached 288 mm (about $0.1l_n$) due to the start of TCA. As shown in 184 Fig. 4a, penetrated cracks occurred at this stage. Further increasing displacement, more penetrated cracks were observed which were uniformly distributed along the beam length. The drop of load 185 186 resistance was due to fracture of bottom rebar in the region of the beam-middle column interface. The 187 TCA capacity of 94 kN was obtained at an MJD of 712 mm. After that, the load resistance suddenly 188 dropped significantly because the complete fracture of the top rebar near the beam-middle column 189 joint. Fig. 5 shows the failure mode of NSC-11. As shown in the figure, severe concrete crushing 190 occurred at the beam ends while rebar fracture occurred primarily at beam end near middle joint region. Penetrated cracks were uniformly distributed along the beam. 191

192 For NSC-13 and NSC-8, similar crack pattern and global behavior were observed. The yield load 193 of NSC-13 and NSC-8 was 33 kN and 53 kN, respectively. The calculated yield load of NSC-13 and 194 NSC-8 was 30 kN and 48 kN, respectively based on the analytical model. Similarly, the calculated 195 yield load is less than the measured one, which is primarily due to ignorance of compressive axial 196 force. For NSC-13, the CAA capacity of 43 kN was measured at an MJD of 108 mm. However, for NSC-8, the CAA capacity was 77 kN, which was about 179 % and 148 % of that of NSC-13 and NSC-197 198 11, respectively. Moreover, the TCA capacity of NSC-13 and NSC-8 was 81 kN and 88 kN, 199 respectively whereas the deformation capacity of NSC-13 and NSC-8 was 731 mm and 581 mm, 200 respectively. Although the TCA capacity of NSC-13 was less than that of NSC-11 and similar 201 deformation capacity was measured for them as shown in Fig. 3a. The test of NSC-13 was forced to 202 stop due to limited stroke capacity of the jack, rather than the failure of the specimen. If the jack had larger stroke capacity, the deformation capacity and TCA capacity of NSC-13 would have been larger. 203 Figs. 6 and 7 show the failure modes of NSC-13 and NSC-8. In general, the failure mode of NSC-13 204 was similar to that of NSC-11. However, different to NSC-11 and NSC-13, the diagonal shear cracks 205

along the beams of NSC-8 were observed, rather than flexural cracks perpendicular to the beam axis.This indicated the shear failure in this test.

208 HSC-series: Fig. 3b shows the vertical load-middle joint displacement curve of HSC-series 209 specimens. For HSC-11, first cracks occurred at the beam ends when the MJD reached 15 mm. At an 210 MJD of 28 mm, yield load of 42 kN, which was 114 % of that of NSC-11, was obtained. Further 211 increasing MJD to 74 mm, the CAA capacity of 60 kN, which was 115 % of that of NSC-11, was 212 achieved. The TCA capacity and deformation capacity of HSC-11 were 80 kN and 663 mm 213 respectively, less than these of NSC-11. The smaller deformation capacity in HSC-11 is mainly due to 214 high strength concrete resulted in high bond strength between reinforcement and concrete, which led to 215 stress concentration and rebar fracture in the tests. Fig. 4b shows the crack pattern of HSC-11. 216 Compared to NSC-11, it can be found that the high strength concrete has little effects on crack 217 development. The failure mode of HSC-11 is shown in Fig. 8, which is similar to that of NSC-11. As 218 shown in Fig. 3b and Table 3, due to larger span/depth ratio, HSC-13 only achieved yield load and 219 CAA capacity about 86 % and 80 % of these of HSC-11. Similar to normal strength concrete, HSC-13 220 experienced larger deformation. The lower TCA capacity of HSC-13 was caused by the insufficient 221 stroke capacity during the tests. On the contrast, for HSC-8, its yield load capacity and CAA capacity 222 were 133 % and 152 % of these of HSC-11. Different to rest specimens, the TCA capacity of HSC-8 is 223 less than its CAA capacity, which will be further discussed in analytical section of this paper. The 224 failure mode of HSC-13 and HSC-8 are illustrated in Figs. 9 and 10, respectively. For HSC-13, only 225 bottom rebar near the middle joint were fractured. For HSC-8, both bottom and top rebar near the 226 middle joint were fractured.

227 Horizontal reaction

The horizontal reaction force v.s. middle joint displacement curves are shown in Fig. 11. As shown in Fig. 11a, the horizontal compressive force increased with the increase of vertical displacement. For NSC-11, the horizontal compressive force was -70 kN at yield displacement, which explains the reason 231 that the calculated yield load is less than the measured one. The maximum horizontal compressive 232 force was -178 kN at an MJD of 180 mm, which was greater than the corresponding peak displacement. 233 Then, the horizontal compressive force began to decline with further increase of the displacement. The 234 horizontal compressive force transferred to horizontal tensile force after the MJD of 356 mm. The maximum horizontal tensile force of 154 kN was measured at the MJD of 699 mm. Similar behavior 235 236 was observed for NSC-13 and NSC-8. The maximum horizontal compressive force of NSC-13 and 237 NSC-8 were -153 kN and -202 kN, respectively. Thus, when span/depth ratio reduced from 11 to 8, the 238 maximum horizontal compressive force increased by 13.4 %. Conversely, increasing the span/depth 239 ratio from 11 to 13, the maximum horizontal compressive force decreased by over 14.0 %. Moreover, 240 the maximum horizontal tensile force of NSC-13 and NSC-8 were 148 kN and 147 kN, respectively. 241 Thus, span/depth ratio will not affect the development of horizontal tensile force.

As shown in Fig. 11b, the maximum horizontal compressive force of HSC-11, HSC-13, and HSC-8 were -259 kN, -233 kN, and -321 kN, respectively. Thus, when span/depth ratio decreased from 11 to 8, the maximum horizontal compressive force was increased by 23.9 %, which was greater than that of the NSC specimens. For the maximum horizontal tensile force, similar to NSC specimens, the span/depth ratio will not affect it significantly.

247 **Deflection shape of beams**

248 Fig. 12 shows the beam deflection shape of NSC-11 in accordance with different critical stages: yield load capacity, CAA capacity, onset of TCA, fracture of rebar, and ultimate deformation. As shown in 249 250 the figure, from the beginning of the test, the beams exhibit double-curvature deflection shape. Before 251 fracture of the first rebar near the middle joint, the beams' deformation was almost symmetric. Then, the middle joint continued to rotate and the damage prone to be concentrated in the left side of the 252 253 middle joint due to the weld failure between the top of the middle stub and the steel column, which released the rotational restraints at the middle joint. Moreover, at the final stage of test, the chord 254 255 rotation, which is defined as ratio of MJD to beam span, was compared with the beam deformation shape. It can be seen that the chord rotation will over-estimate the actual end rotation of the beam end
near the side columns while it could estimate the rotation of the beam end near the middle joint well.
For other specimens, similar results were observed.

259 Strain gauge results

260 Figs. 13a and b show the variation of strain gauge readings along beam top and bottom longitudinal 261 reinforcements of NSC-11, respectively. As shown in the figure, the bottom reinforcement near the middle joint was first yielded. At CAA stage, plastic hinges were formed at both beam ends. However, 262 263 the compressive strain in both top and bottom rebar began to decline after onset of the TCA stage. At ultimate load stage, no compressive strain was measured at both top and bottom beam longitudinal 264 reinforcement. As shown in Fig. 14, the strain variation of HSC-11 was quite similar to that of NSC-11. 265 However, as shown in Fig. 15, at ultimate load stage, considerable compressive strain was still 266 267 measured at bottom reinforcement of HSC-8. This could be explained as the high bond between 268 concrete and rebar as well as low span-depth ratio resulted in earlier fracture of longitudinal rebar and 269 delayed the development of tensile strain in rebar.

270 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

271 **Dynamic response of tested specimens**

As progressive collapse is a dynamic event due to the sudden column removal, it was worthwhile to evaluate the dynamic capacity of test specimens. Based on the investigation from Qian and Li (2015a, b) and Tsai (2010), an energy-based simplified single-degree-of-freedom (SDOF) model, first proposed by Izzuddin et al. (2008), is accurate for dynamic assessment. Thus, in this study, the energybased model was utilized to assess the dynamic capacity of specimens based on the measured quasistatic load-displacement curves from the tests. The mathematic equations were expressed as:

278
$$P_d(u_d) = \frac{1}{u_d} \int_0^{u_d} P_{NS}(u) du$$
(1)

where $P_d(u)$ and $P_{NS}(u)$ are the dynamic capacity and the nonlinear static loading estimated at the displacement demand *u*, respectively.

Fig. 16 shows the dynamic response curves of tested specimens. As shown in the figure, the dynamic ultimate capacity of NSC-13, HSC-13, NSC-11, HSC-11, NSC-8, and HSC-8 were 44 kN, 43 kN, 53 kN, 53 kN, 64 kN, and 78 kN, respectively. Thus, the higher strength concrete has little effects on dynamic ultimate capacity of the specimens with moderate or large span/depth ratio. This is primarily because TCA governs the failure. However, for specimens with small span/depth ratio, high strength concrete could increase the dynamic ultimate capacity significantly as CAA governs the load.

287 De-composition of the load resistance contribution from axial force and bending moment

To de-composite the resistance contribution from the axial force and bending moments, a series of analyses were carried out. As shown in Fig. 17, only left bay was extracted for analysis due to symmetry. The load resistance *P* could be determined as the summation of the vertical components of the shear force (*V*) and axial force (*N*) at the middle joint when the MJD was δ .

$$P = (Nsin\theta + V\cos\theta)$$
(2)

293 where θ is the rotation of the beam end near the middle joint and can be determined by the vertical 294 displacements ($\theta = \arctan\left(\frac{4(D_4 - D_3)}{l}\right)$); D_3 is the vertical displacement measured at the position

with l/4 from the middle joint, and D_4 is the MJD; l is beam span length.

As shown in Fig. 17, *N* and *V* could be determined by the measured horizontal and vertical reaction force at the supports:

298
$$N = (F_t \tan \theta + H_t + H_b) \cos \theta$$
(3)

299
$$V = (F_L - N\sin\theta)/\cos\theta \tag{4}$$

300 Therefore, the bending moment at the beam end near the middle column (M_M) and the one near 301 the side column (M_S) could be expressed as:

302
$$M_{M} = F_{L}l - H_{t}(\delta + 0.35) - H_{b}(\delta - 0.35)$$
(5)

$$303 M_s = 0.2F_L - 0.35H_t + 0.35H_h (6)$$

where H_t and H_b are the horizontal reaction force at the upper roller and bottom roller, respectively; F_L is the vertical reaction force at the left side column.

306 NSC-11, HSC-11, NSC-8 and HSC-8 were selected to show the de-composition of load resistance, 307 as shown in Fig. 18. As shown in the figure, initially the contribution from axial force is negative due 308 to development of compressive force at CAA stage. At this stage, the load resistance mainly attributed 309 to the shear force. When tensile force mobilized at TCA stage, the contribution of axial force increased 310 with increase of MJD. However, as shown in the figure, the contribution from shear force is still 311 significant although the contribution from shear force is decreasing with the increase of MJD. Thus, it 312 is not correct to assume the load resistance purely provided from tension force of reinforcement at 313 TCA stage.

314 Figs. 19a, b, c and d show the variation of bending moment of NSC-11, HSC-11, NSC-8 and 315 HSC-8, respectively. As shown in the figure, the bending moments were much larger than expected 316 pure flexural induced bending moments due to compressive force developed in the beams. Moreover, 317 the maximum bending moment and maximum compressive axial force achieved at the same MJD. For 318 NSC-11, the maximum bending moments near the middle column and near the side column were 46.7 kN·m and 48.7 kN·m, respectively. Compared with NSC-11, the maximum bending moments of HSC-319 320 11 were increased by 36.2 % and 38.8 %, respectively. Similarly, compared to NSC-8, the bending 321 moment near the middle column and side column of HSC-8 were increased by 34.3 % and 12.2 %, 322 respectively.

The measured M-N curves of NSC-11, NSC-8, HSC-11, and HSC-8 were presented in Figs. 20, 21, 22, and 23, respectively. It was found that the M-N curves were similar to the theoretical M-N curves for both NSC and HSC specimens. When the bending moment reached its maximum value, the bending moment began to decrease as the axial force changed from compression to tension at large deformation stage. As shown in the figure, even the axial force in tension (catenary action kicked in), the M-N curves agreed with the theoretical ones well.

329 Assessment of the accuracy of existing CAA models

As a favorable alternate load path to resist progressive collapse due to its low demand in deformation, CAA has been widely studied theoretically. Based on plastic theory, Park and Gamble (2000) proposed a classical model to calculate the CMA in RC slabs. The Park and Gamble (2000)'s model can be further used to predict CAA capacity in RC beam as the CMA and CAA share similar merits. As shown in Fig. 24, the CAA capacity P can be given as:

$$P_{CAA} = \frac{2(M_s + M_m - N\delta)}{\beta L}$$
(7)

where M_s and M_m are the bending moments at the beam-column interface; N is the axis force in beam; L is the total span of the double-bay beam; β is the ratio of the net span to the total span L, which is 0.5 here; δ is the vertical displacement in the middle column stub. After stringent derivation, which can be found in Park and Gamble (2000) in detail, P can be expressed as:

$$P_{CAA} = \frac{2}{\beta L} \left\{ 0.85 f_c^{'} \beta_1 h b \left[\frac{h}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\beta_1}{2} \right) + \frac{\delta}{4} \left(\beta_1 - 3 \right) + \frac{\beta L^2}{4\delta} \left(\beta_1 - 1 \right) \left(\varepsilon + \frac{2t}{L} \right) \right. \right. \\ \left. + \frac{\delta^2}{8h} \left(2 - \frac{\beta_1}{2} \right) + \frac{\beta L^2}{4h} \left(1 - \frac{\beta_1}{2} \right) \left(\varepsilon + \frac{2t}{L} \right) - \frac{\beta_1 \beta^2 L^4}{16h\delta^2} \left(\varepsilon + \frac{2t}{L} \right)^2 \right] \\ \left. - \frac{1}{3.4 f_c^{'}} \left(T_s - T_m - T_s^{'} + T_m^{'} \right)^2 + \left(T_s^{'} + T_m^{'} \right) \left(\frac{h}{2} - a_s - \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$\left. + \left(T_s + T_m \right) \left(h_0 - \frac{h}{2} + \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \right\}$$
(8)

340

341 and

342
$$\varepsilon + \frac{2t}{L} = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{hE_{c}b} + \frac{2}{LK}\right) \left[0.85f_{c}^{'}\beta_{l}b\left(\frac{h}{2} - \frac{\delta}{4} - \frac{T_{s} - T_{m} - T_{s}^{'} + T_{m}^{'}}{1.7f_{c}^{'}\beta_{l}b}\right) + T_{m}^{'} - T_{m}^{'}\right]}{1 + 0.2125\frac{f_{c}^{'}\beta_{l}\beta L^{2}b}{\delta} \left(\frac{1}{hE_{c}b} + \frac{2}{LK}\right)}$$
(9)

343 where h and b are the beam depth and beam width, respectively; β_1 is the ratio of the depth of the 344 concrete equivalent rectangular stress block to the depth of neutral-axis; ε is the axial strain of the double-bay beam; t is the axial movement of the side column stub; T_s and T_m are the steel tensile forces 345 at side beam-column interface and middle beam-column interface, respectively; T_s' and T_m' are the 346 347 steel compressive forces at side beam-column interface and middle beam-column interface, 348 respectively; f_c is the concrete cylinder compression strength; h_0 is the effective depth of the beam; a_s is the distance from the centroid of compressive steel to the concrete compression surface; E_c is the 349 350 concrete elastic modulus; K is the lateral stiffness.

351 To evaluate the accuracy of the model, 45 specimens from existing tests (Su et al.2009, Choi and 352 Kim 2011, Sasani et al. 2011b, FarhangVesali et al. 2013, Valipour et al. 2015a, Yu and Tan 2013b, 353 Yu and Tan 2014, Qian et al. 2015, Alogla et al. 2016, Ren et al. 2016) were used for assessment. 354 Table 4 presents the key parameters and analytical results. As shown in Fig. 25a, the mean value and 355 standard deviation of the ratio of measured CAA capacity to the calculated one based on Park and 356 Gamble (2000) were 1.37 and 0.38, respectively. Thus, Park and Gamble (2000)'s model may 357 underestimate the CAA significantly. Similar conclusions were found by Lu et al. (2018). To reveal 358 the reasons for this underestimation, the measured peak displacements (corresponding CAA capacity) 359 were substituted into the model. As shown in Fig. 25b, the mean value and standard deviation of the 360 ratio of the measured CAA to the calculated one were 1.10 and 0.23, respectively. Therefore, the 361 underestimation of Park's model was mainly due to improperly assumption of the peak displacement 362 as a constant value (δ =0.5*h*). To improve the accuracy of Park and Gamble (2000)'s model, Lu et al. 363 (2018) conducted comprehensive parametric studies based on validated finite element model (FEM). A regression model of $\delta = 0.0005L^2/h$ was proposed by Lu et al. (2018). The calculated peak 364

365 displacements of the specimens are compared with the measured ones in Table 4. As shown in the table, in general, the measured displacements are larger than the calculated ones, especially for 366 367 specimens with span-to-depth ratio less than 7, which could be explained as the regression model was mainly calculated based on specimens with larger span-to-depth ratio. As shown in Fig. 25c, relied on 368 Lu et al. (2018)'s model, the mean value and standard deviation of the ratio of the measured CAA to 369 370 the analytical one was 1.04 and 0.23, respectively. If only look at the specimens with span-to-depth 371 ratio less than 7, the mean value was 1.16. Therefore, the regressed equation is more favorable for 372 specimens with relatively larger span-to-depth ratio (greater than 7). Moreover, if we only look at 373 HSC-series specimens in this study, the calculated CAA capacity of HSC-8, HSC-11, and HSC-13 was 112 %, 114 %, and 114 % of the measured one, respectively. Thus, Lu et al. (2018)'s model may 374 375 considerably overestimate the CAA capacity for the frames with high strength concrete as the 376 regression model (δ =0.0005L²/h) did not include the parameter of concrete strength.

377 Assessment of the accuracy of existing TCA models

378 As the last line of defense in resisting progressive collapse, TCA is undoubtedly the most 379 important mechanism to provide alternate load path. To effectively predict TCA capacity, Yi et al. (2008), Su et al. (2009), and Yu and Tan (2013b) proposed simplified TCA models. In their models, 380 381 progressive collapse was assumed to be resisted by the tensile force in beam rebar. However, the 382 contribution of beam rebar for TCA capacity is different in different models. In Yi et al. (2008)'s 383 model, both the top and bottom rebar of beam are deemed to provide resistance. However, in Su et al. 384 (2009)'s model, only the bottom rebars are considered to provide resistance. Conversely, Yu and Tan 385 (2013b) assumed that the TCA capacity is purely provided by the top rebars. In this evaluation study, the deformation capacity of each specimen is assumed to be 10% of the total span of the double-bay 386 387 beam, in accordance to DoD (2009). The TCA model of Yi et al. (2008), Su et al. (2009) and Yu and 388 Tan (2013b) can be expressed as Eqs. 10 -12, respectively.

$$P_{TCA} = 2\psi(A_{st}f_{v} + A_{sb}f_{v})\sin\alpha \qquad (10)$$

$$P_{TCA} = 2A_{sb}f_{y}\sin\varphi \tag{11}$$

$$P_{TCA} = 2A_{st}f_{y}\sin\alpha$$

where A_{st} and A_{sb} are the area of top and bottom rebars, respectively; f_y and f_y' are the yield strength of top and bottom rebars, respectively; ψ is a strain adjustment coefficient, and ψ =0.85; α is the chord rotation of beam; φ is the angle between the connection of top rebar at the side column stub and bottom rebar at the middle column stub and the horizontal line.

(12)

396 A database consists of 30 specimens including the tests from literatures (Su et al. 2009, Yu and 397 Tan 2013b, Yu and Tan 2014, Qian et al. 2015, Alogla et al. 2016, Ren et al. 2016) and tested 398 specimens in this study was utilized to validate the reliability of the TCA models mentioned above. Fig. 399 26 shows the comparison of the measured TCA capacity with the calculated one. As shown in the 400 figure, the mean ratio of the measured TCA capacity to the calculated one based on the models of Yi et 401 al. (2008), Su et al. (2009), and Yu and Tan (2013b) was 1.06, 1.43 and 1.60, respectively. The 402 standard deviation was 0.28, 0.42 and 0.53, respectively. Thus, among them, the model of Yi et al. 403 (2008) gives the best prediction. The model of Su et al. (2009) neglected the contribution from top 404 rebars resulted in conservative prediction. However, as the model of Yu et al. (2013b) assuming the 405 bottom rebar was completely fractured, which is not in reality, the model may also underestimate the 406 resistance of TCA significantly.

For HSC-series specimens, the mean value of the ratio of measured TCA capacity to calculate one from the models of Yi et al. (2008), Su et al. (2009), and Yu and Tan (2013b) was 0.94, 1.48 and 1.33, respectively. Therefore, different to the specimens using NSC, Yi et al. (2008)'s model overestimates the TCA capacity of the specimens using HSC slightly. However, as the test data collected from HSC specimens are very few and it is necessary to carry out further tests on HSC RC frames to further support the conclusions.

413 CONCLUSIONS

414 Based on the results of the experimental and analytical investigation presented in this paper, the 415 following conclusions are drawn:

Test results indicated that for normal strength concrete frames, the CAA capacity and TCA capacity increase by 79.0 % and 8.6 %, respectively, when the span-to-depth ratio decreased from 13 to 8. For the frames with high strength concrete, the CAA capacity and TCA capacity, increase by 89.5 % and 13.9 % respectively, when the span-to-depth ratio decreased from 13 to 8. Therefore, the span-depth-ratio has significant effect on CAA capacity but not for TCA capacity.

422 2. Based on the test results, high strength concrete could increase the CAA capacity of the frame 423 with span-to-depth ratio of 8, 11, and 13 by 18. 2 %, 15.4 %, and 11.6 %, respectively. Thus, 424 high strength concrete is beneficial to enhance CAA capacity, especially for the frames with 425 low span-to-depth ratio. However, the TCA capacity of specimen HSC-8, HSC-11, and HSC-426 13 only achieved 93.2 %, 87.2 %, and 88.9 % of that of NSC-8, NSC-11, and NSC-13, 427 respectively. Thus, the specimens with high strength concrete may detriment the TCA capacity 428 due to high bond strength between reinforcements and concrete, which prone to premature the 429 fracture of reinforcements. However, it should be noted that non-seismically designed specimens were tested. For seismically designed and detailed specimens, more tests should be 430 431 carried out on evaluation of the HSC effects.

432 3. Analytical evaluation indicated that Park's model will underestimate the CAA capacity 433 significantly due to improperly assumption of the peak displacement as 0.5h. However, the 434 agreements could be improved for both NSC and HSC specimens significantly when the peak 435 displacement assumes to be $0.0005L^2/h$, in accordance to the study of Lu et al. (2018). However, the model proposed by Lu et al. (2018) is more suit for RC frames with relatively 436 437 larger span-to-depth ratio (larger than 7). And Lu et al. (2018)'s model may overestimate the CAA capacity of HSC-series specimens significantly due to the regression model did not 438 439 included the effects of concrete strength.

440 4. Although Yi et al. (2008)'s model produced the best prediction for TCA capacity, it slightly underestimates the TCA capacity of NSC frames but overestimate that of HSC frames. 441 442 Although the models proposed by Yu and Tan (2013b) and Su et al. (2009) underestimate the 443 TCA capacity, the reason was different. For Su et al. (2009), the contribution of top 444 reinforcement is ignored, which disagrees with the test observation. However, for Yu and Tan 445 (2013b), the contribution of bottom reinforcements is neglected, which is over-conservative. In reality, the bottom reinforcement may not fracture completely when the deformation reached 446 447 10 % of the total length of the double-span beams, which is proposed by the guideline of DoD (2009). 448

449 **FUTURE RESEARCH**

Based on the test results and conclusions, the future research needed was highlighted. The effects of HSC on seismically designed specimens should be evaluated in the future as the conclusions from nonseismically designed specimens may not be suitable for seismically designed ones. Moreover, the effects of different boundary conditions (different column missing scenarios) should be quantified. Furthermore, the effects of HSC on dynamic response of RC moment frame subjected to suddenly column removal should be investigated.

456 DATA AVAILABILITY

457 Some or all data, models, or code generated or used during the study are available from the

458 corresponding author by request (data related in the measured curves, photos, etc.).

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572 FIGURE CAPTIONS

- Fig. 1. Dimension and reinforcement details of Specimen NSC-11: (a) elevation view; (b) cross
 sections
- 576 Fig. 2. Test setup and instrumentation layout of the tests: (a) photo; (b) schematic view
- 577 Fig. 3. Vertical load-displacement history: (a) NSC-series; (b) HSC-series
- 578 **Fig. 4.** Crack pattern: (a) NSC-11; (b) HSC-11
- 579 **Fig. 5.** Failure mode of Specimen NSC-11
- 580 Fig. 6. Failure mode of Specimen NSC-13
- 581 **Fig. 7.** Failure mode of Specimen NSC-8
- 582 **Fig. 8.** Failure mode of Specimen HSC-11
- 583 **Fig. 9.** Failure mode of Specimen HSC-13
- 584 Fig. 10. Failure mode of Specimen HSC-8
- 585 Fig. 11. Horizontal reaction force-displacement curves: (a) NSC series; (b) HSC series
- 586 Fig. 12. Deformation shape of the beams of Specimen NSC-11 at various stages
- 587 Fig. 13. Strain gauge results of NSC-11: (a) top beam rebar; (b) bottom beam rebar

- 588 Fig. 14. Strain gauge results of HSC-11: (a) top beam rebar; (b) bottom beam rebar
- 589 Fig. 15. Strain gauge results of HSC-8: (a) top beam rebar; (b) bottom beam rebar
- 590 Fig. 16. Dynamic performance of the specimens
- 591 Fig. 17. Relationship of internal forces and the load resistance
- 592 Fig. 18. Collapse Resistance contributions from axial and shear force: (a) NSC-11; (b) HSC-11; (c)
- 593 NSC-8; (d) HSC-8
- **Fig. 19.** Variations of bending moments v.s. deflections at different cross-section: (a) NSC-11; (b)
- 595 HSC-11; (c) NSC-8; (d) HSC-8
- 596 Fig. 20. M-N relationship at the beam end of NSC-11: (a) nearby the middle column; (b) nearby the
- 597 side column
- **Fig. 21.** M-N relationship at the beam end of NSC-8: (a) nearby the middle column; (b) nearby the side
- 599 column
- **Fig. 22.** M-N relationship at the beam end of HSC-11: (a) nearby the middle column; (b) nearby the
- 601 side column
- Fig. 23. M-N relationship at the beam end of HSC-8: (a) nearby the middle column; (b) nearby the side
 column
- 603 column
- 604 Fig. 24. Internal Force diagram for derivation of the analytical model of CAA
- **Fig. 25.** Comparison of the measured CAA capacity with calculated one: (a) δ =0.5h; (b) measured δ;
- 606 (c) $\delta = 0.0005 L^2/h$
- **Fig. 26.** Comparison of the measured TCA capacity with calculated one: (a) Yi et al. (2008); (b) Su et
- 608 al. (2009); (c) Yu and Tan (2013b)
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Table 1-Specimen properties

	Beam clear	Bea	am longitudin						
Test ID	span	A-A	section	B-B s	section	Concrete			
_	(mm)	A-A section Top Bottom 0 3T12 2T12 0 3T12 2T12		Тор	Bottom				
NSC-8	2000	3T12	2T12	2T12	2T12	Normal strength			
NSC-11	2750	3T12	2T12	2T12	2T12	Normal strength			
NSC-13	3250	3T12	2T12	2T12	2T12	Normal strength			
HSC-8	2000	3T12	2T12	2T12	2T12	High strength			
HSC-11	2750	3T12	2T12	2T12	2T12	High strength			
HSC-13	3250	3T12	2T12	2T12	2T12	High strength			

Table 2-Material properties of reinforcements

Items Transverse reinforcement R6		Nominal diameter (mm)	Yield strength (MPa)	Ultimate strength (MPa)	Elongation (%)	
Transverse reinforcement	R6	6	348	486	25.4	
Longitudinal	T12	12	438	577	16.6	
Reinforcements	T16	16	442	605	16.0	

Note: R6 represents plain bar of with diameter of 6 mm; T12 and T16 represent deformed rebar with diameter of 12 mm and 16 mm, respectively.

Test ID	Criti	ical displac (mm)	cements	(Critical load (kN)	ls	MHCF (kN)	MHTF (kN)
	YL	YL CAA TCA		YL	CAA	TCA	(KIN)	(KIN)
NSC-8	25	79	581	53	77	88	-202	147
NSC-11	36	90	712	37	52	94	-178	154
NSC-13	45	108	731	33	43	81	-153	148
HSC-8	16	80	547	56	91	82	-321	145
HSC-11	28	74	663	42	60	80	-259	142
HSC-13	35	104	701	36	48	72	-233	150

651 652 653 Note: YL means yielding load capacity; CAA represents CAA capacity; TCA represents TCA capacity; MHCF means maximum horizontal compressive force; and MHTF means maximum horizontal tensile force.

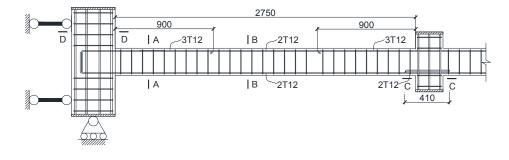
Table 4-Summary of key parameters and analytical results of CAA

		Lateral	Total	Span to	Beam section	Bear	n rebar	Material	properties	Test r	results		Calculate	ed results	;
Test	ID	stiffness	length	depth	h×b	Тор	Bottom	f_c'	f_y	Δ	Р	\varDelta_L	$\mathbf{P}_{\delta M}^{*}$	$\mathbf{P}_{\delta L}^{\#}$	${\mathbf P}_{\delta \mathrm p}{}^{\$}$
		(kN/m)	(mm)	ratio	(mm×mm)	(mm)	(mm)	(MPa)	(MPa)	(mm)	(kN)	(mm)	(kN)	(kN)	(kN)
This Test	NSC-8	1×10^{5}	4250	8.0	250×150	3Φ12	2012	31.7	438	78.6	69.2	36.1	69.3	79.2	57.1
	NSC-11	1×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ12	2012	31.1	438	89.8	46.3	66.1	48.4	52.5	42.2
	NSC-13	1×10^{5}	6750	13.0	250×150	3 Φ 12	2012	30.5	438	108.1	36.3	91.1	38.1	40.5	35.7
	HSC-8	1×10^{5}	4250	8.0	250×150	3Φ12	2Φ12	60.5	438	80.4	87.6	36.1	84.5	98.2	70.8
	HSC-11	1×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ12	2Φ12	61.2	438	90.3	56.8	66.1	59.2	65.0	52.3
	HSC-13	1×10^{5}	6750	13.0	250×150	3Φ12	2Φ12	59.3	438	103.8	43.6	91.1	46.6	49.6	43.7
Su et al. (2009)	A1	1×10^{6}	2700	4.1	300×150	2Φ12	2012	25.8	350	48.9	168.0	12.2	130.3	145.3	82.3
	A2	1×10^{6}	2700	4.1	300×150	3Φ12	3Φ12	28.2	350	56.4	221.0	12.2	159.5	180.3	109.9
	A3	1×10^{6}	2700	4.1	300×150	3 Φ 14	3Φ14	31.2	340	76.4	246.0	12.2	180.3	215.1	138.3
	A4	1×10^{6}	2700	4.1	300×150	2Φ12	1Φ14	23.0	350	65.0	147.0	12.2	104.6	126.7	68.0
	A5	1×10^{6}	2700	4.1	300×150	3 Φ 12	2Φ12	26.5	350	70.7	198.0	12.2	132.7	160.3	93.9
	A6	1×10^{6}	2700	4.1	300×150	3 Φ14	2Φ14	28.6	340	69.2	226.0	12.2	159.5	188.0	116.8
	B1	1×10^{6}	4200	6.6	300×150	3 Φ14	3Φ14	18.6	340	100.0	125.0	29.4	91.3	107.6	80.8
	B2	1×10^{6}	5700	9.1	300×150	3 Φ14	3Φ14	19.3	340	102.0	82.9	54.2	64.6	75.7	60.0
	B3	1×10^{6}	5700	9.1	300×150	3 Φ14	2Φ14	21.1	340	85.5	74.7	54.2	63.0	68.6	51.8
	C1	1×10^{6}	2700	6.1	200×100	2Φ12	2Φ14	15.9	350	33.7	60.9	18.2	44.5	46.7	35.7
	C2	1×10^{6}	2700	6.1	200×100	2Φ12	2Φ12	16.8	350	33.5	64.9	18.2	45.3	47.5	36.0
	C3	1×10 ⁶	2700	6.1	200×100	2Φ12	2Φ12	16.3	350	28.7	68.6	18.2	45.6	47.1	35.8
Choi et al. (2011)	5S	N/A	3315	6.7	225×150	5Φ10	2Φ10	17.0	493	103.0	39.9	24.4	57.6	71.7	57.2
	5G	N/A	3325	8.2	185×150	2Φ10	2Φ10	17.0	493	84.5	22.8	29.9	30.6	48.2	30.3
	8S	N/A	3315	7.7	195×140	5Φ10	3Φ10	30.0	493	59.3	54.1	28.2	70.0	76.6	61.6
	8G	N/A	3325	9.4	160×125	2Φ10	2Φ10	30.0	493	59.0	23.7	34.5	29.4	33.4	26.3
Sasani et al. (2011)	P1	N/A	4170	10.4	190×190	5Φ9.5	209.5	41.0	516	41.0	71.8	45.8	44.9	60.7	44.1
Yu and Tan (2013b)	S 1	1.06×10 ⁵	5750	11.0	250×150	2Φ10 1Φ13	2Φ10	31.2	511	78.0	41.6	66.1	47.9	50.0	39.8
	S 2	1.06×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ10	2Φ10	31.2	511	73.0	38.4	66.1	45.7	46.9	36.7
	S 3	4.29×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ13	2 Φ10	38.2	511	74.4	54.5	66.1	59.8	61.7	48.1
	S 4	4.29×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ13	2013	38.2	494	81.0	63.2	66.1	64.9	68.3	54.8
	S 5	4.29×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ13	3Φ13	38.2	494	74.5	70.3	66.1	75.4	77.4	63.8
	S 6	4.29×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3 Φ 16	2013	38.2	494	114.4	70.3	66.1	66.8	78.0	64.4
	S 7	4.29×10^{5}	4550	8.6	250×150	3Ф13	2Φ13	38.2	494	74.4	82.8	41.4	84.5	94.4	69.1

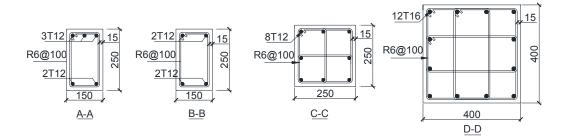
	S 8	4.29×10^{5}	3350	6.2	250×150	3Φ13	2Φ13	38.2	494	45.9	121.3	22.4	128.3	136.6	93.4
Yu and Tan (2014)	F1-CD	4.29×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3 Φ 13	2Φ13	27.5	488	87.0	51.1	66.1	56.8	60.5	50.
Tu allu Tall (2014)	F2-MR	4.29×10^{5}	5750	11.0	250×150	3Φ13	2013	27.5	488	51.0	62.8	66.1	63.1	60.5	50.
FarhangVesali et al.	1	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	2010	2Φ10	30.5	620	49.0	40.5	53.8	36.9	36.0	29.
(2013)	2	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	$2\Phi 10$	2Φ10	27.0	620	44.0	35.7	53.8	35.7	34.4	28.
	3	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	$2\Phi 10$	2Φ10	30.0	620	50.0	41.4	53.8	36.5	35.8	29.
	4	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	3 Φ10	3 Φ 10	26.0	620	54.0	40.1	53.8	38.6	38.7	32.
	5	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	3Φ10	3Φ10	29.5	620	54.0	41.6	53.8	40.3	40.3	33.
	6	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	3Φ10	3Φ10	30.0	620	52.0	39.4	53.8	40.9	34.1	34.
Qian et al. (2015)	P1	N/A	4000	10.5	180×100	2010	2Φ10	19.9	437	35.8	31.6	44.4	24.6	23.8	19.
	P2	N/A	2800	9.3	140×80	2Φ10	2Φ10	20.8	437	32.9	35.5	28.0	21.0	21.4	17.
Valipour et al.	No. 1	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	3Φ10	2Φ10	67.0	480	59.0	51.3	53.8	48.8	47.2	38.
(2015a)	No. 2	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	2Φ10	2Φ10	67.0	480	54.8	42.5	53.8	46.4	43.3	34.
	No. 3	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	3Φ10	2Φ10	48.0	480	55.4	47.4	53.8	43.2	41.3	33.
	No. 4	N/A	4400	11.7	180×180	2Φ10	2Φ10	48.0	480	56.3	38.5	53.8	39.1	37.4	29.
Ren et al. (2016)	B2	N/A	4000	9.5	175×85	2Φ8 1Φ6	2Ф8	35.2	450	33.0	34	40.0	23.6	22.0	16.
	B3	N/A	4000	10.9	200×85	2Φ8 1Φ6	2Ф8	35.2	450	33.3	41.0	45.7	30.7	29.7	20.
Alogla et al. (2016)	SS1	N/A	5750	11.1	250×150	3Φ10	2010	19.4	510	101.0	34.0	66.1	35.1	39.1	32.
- · · /	SS2	N/A	5750	11.1	250×150	3Φ10	2010	19.4	510	96.8	37.9	66.1	35.6	39.1	32.
	SS3	N/A	5750	11.1	250×150	3Φ10	2010	19.9	510	86.8	37.2	66.1	37.1	39.5	32.
	SS4	N/A	5750	11.1	250×150	3Φ10	2Φ10	19.9	510	91.4	36.7	66.1	36.5	39.5	32.

Note: Δ_L represents peak displacement proposed by Lu et al. (2018); $P_{\delta M}^*$, $P_{\delta L}^{\#}$, and $P_{\delta p}^{\$}$ represent the calculated CAA capacity in accordance with the measured peak displacement, peak displacement proposed by Lu et al. (2018), and peak displacement proposed by Park and Gamble (2000), respectively. 658

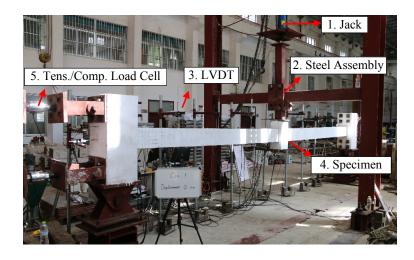




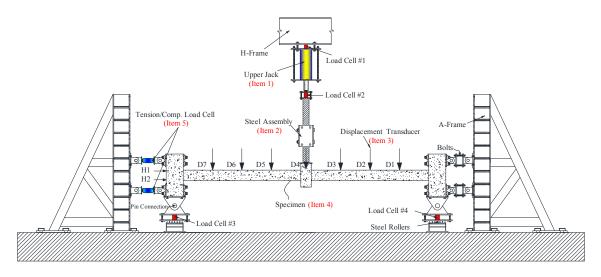
(a)



(b)



(a)



(b)

