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# Dynamic behavior of RC Frames against Progressive Collapse Subjected to Loss of a Corner Column Scenario

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**Abstract:** In light of increasing concern about the progressive collapse of reinforced concrete (RC) structures, this study investigates the dynamic performance of RC frames against progressive collapse triggered by corner column removal. High-fidelity numerical models were built using software LS-DYNA. The model was validated through a comparison between numerical and experimental results. After this validation, a parametric analysis was conducted to explore the dynamic performance of structures following sudden corner column removal. A comparison was made between the load resistance and load transfer mechanisms of the RC frames under quasi-static and dynamic regimes. The effects of critical factors, such as strain rate and damping ratio, were discussed. Additionally, influences of slab thickness and the constraints from upper stories of the frame were also quantified. It was found that the energy-based method could effectively evaluate the dynamic resistance without inclusion of the effects of strain rate and damping ratio. It found that the effects of strain rate are negligible, while the damping ratio is crucial, as it reduces vibrations, peak displacement, and amplitude. The dynamic responses are greatly affected by the slab thickness. Meanwhile, the constraints from the upper floor of the frame can significantly mitigate the dynamic responses.

**Keywords:** progressive collapse; dynamic performance; numerical study; corner column.

## 25 1. Introduction

26 Accidental events, such as gas explosions, vehicular impact, and terrorist attacks, may lead to the  
27 initial local failure of one or several structural components, ultimately resulting in the collapse of the  
28 entire structure or a disproportionately large part of it [1]. This phenomenon, known as "progressive  
29 collapse," has gained considerable attention since the catastrophic collapse of Ronan Point apartments  
30 in 1968. After the "911" events in 2001, studies on enhancing structural robustness against progressive  
31 collapse have gradually become a research focus in structural community [2-4]. Design methods for  
32 preventing progressive collapse can be categorized as indirect and direct design methods [5-6]. The  
33 alternative load path (ALP) method, a direct design method, assesses whether there are reliable  
34 alternative paths for load distribution of the remaining structure, regardless of accident events. This  
35 method is widely applied in progressive collapse studies [7-12].

36 Based on the ALP method, numerous studies had been carried out to investigate the load-resisting  
37 mechanisms of reinforced concrete (RC) structures against progressive collapse, such as compressive  
38 arch action (CAA) and tensile catenary action (TCA) for beam-column substructures[13-16], as well  
39 as compressive membrane action (CMA) and tensile membrane action (TMA) for beam-slab  
40 substructures [17-19]. Furthermore, the Vierendeel action (VA) has been observed in both multi-story  
41 two-dimensional and three-dimensional substructures [20,21]. Qian and Li **Error! Reference source**  
42 **not found.** studied the performance of three-dimensional beam-column substructures under a corner  
43 column missing scenario, the effects of various reinforcement details and span-to-height ratios on  
44 progressive collapse performance were discussed. Qian et al. [23] conducted quasi-static tests of three-  
45 dimensional RC substructures under an internal column loss, evaluated the 3D and slab effects, and

46 discussed the secondary load-resisting mechanisms of RC frames with slabs. Sasani [24] conducted a  
47 study on the dynamic behavior of a 6-story RC frame, finding that Vierendeel action (VA) is the  
48 primary mechanism facilitating load redistribution when a corner column is lost. Qiao et al. [20] and  
49 Qian et al. [21] conducted studies on multi-story substructures, and found that the influence of the VA  
50 cannot be ignored. Additionally, the top and bottom floors exhibit different behavior to resist  
51 progressive collapse.

52 However, the majority of current studies on progressive collapse are based on quasi-static tests,  
53 mainly due to the difficulty of dynamic testing arrangement. But progressive collapse is a dynamic  
54 process caused by sudden column removal. To tackle this issue, Izzuddin et al. [25] proposed an  
55 energy-based method (EBM) that converts quasi-static responses into equivalent dynamic responses,  
56 utilizing the principle of energy conservation. Nonetheless, EBM may have some errors as the strain  
57 rate effects and damping ratio are ignored [26]. Additionally, the EBM requires the structure to exhibit  
58 the identical failure mode and load transfer mechanism under both quasi-static and dynamic conditions,  
59 which is still unsure [26,27] Furthermore, apart from other column removal scenarios, corner column  
60 removal may result in more severe consequence. This is because, in the event of a corner column  
61 removal, the structure heavily relies on flexural action to resist progressive collapse and ineffective in  
62 developing the TCA and TMA [7,28]. However, the dynamic behavior of spaced frames under sudden  
63 removal of a corner column scenario was still unclear. To fill this gap, high-fidelity finite element (FE)  
64 model of RC frame was developed based on the quasi-static test conducted by Feng et al. [7]. The  
65 accuracy of the numerical model was verified by test results. Subsequently, with the validated model,  
66 a series of dynamic analysis was performed under a sudden column removal scenario. The load  
67 resistance and load transfer mechanisms of the structure under quasi-static and dynamic methods were  
68 compared. The critical factors, such as the effects of strain rate and damping ratio, were discussed.

69 Moreover, parametric studies were conducted to examine the influence of slab thickness and the  
70 constraints from upper stories.

## 71 **2. Numerical model set up**

### 72 **2.1. Previous experimental work**

73 Feng et al. [7] performed an experiment on four half-scaled beam-slab substructures to investigate  
74 their resistance to progressive collapse initiated by corner column removal. The prototype building,  
75 illustrated in Fig. 1, was seismically designed following Chinese codes [29,30], featuring a ground  
76 story height of 3900 mm and an upper story height of 3600 mm, with a span of 5000 mm in both  
77 directions.

78 Specimen numbered as US from [7] was replicated in the numerical model . As depicted in Fig.  
79 2, the overall dimensions of Specimen US were 3200 mm × 3200 mm, with a slab thickness of 70 mm,  
80 and cross-section of 300 mm × 300 mm and 100 mm × 250 mm for the column and beam, respectively.  
81 Fig. 3 illustrates the experimental setup of Specimen US. The column supports were anchored to the  
82 RC blocks, which in turn were bolted onto a robust floor. A dead load (DL) and live load (LL) of 5.5  
83 and 2.0 kPa respectively, as well as an additional uniform load of 12.0 kN/m<sup>2</sup> were applied on the slabs'  
84 extended parts. This extra load was to simulate the additional constraints imposed by surrounding slabs  
85 in accordance with 2(DL+0.25LL) load combination recommended by GSA (2003) [31]. The  
86 experiment was loaded using a displacement-controlled concentrated loading method. The concrete  
87 exhibited an average cubic compressive strength of 26.6 MPa, equivalent to 21.3 MPa for the cylinder  
88 compressive strength. The characteristics of the rebar are detailed in Table 1. For further information,  
89 refer to Feng et al. [7].

### 90 **2.2. Modeling details and methodology**

91 The FE model is built and validated through the numerical software LS-DYNA. To circumvent  
92 the issue of divergence encountered during the large deformation stage, an explicit solver was  
93 employed. The geometrical model of Specimen US is demonstrated in Fig. 4.

#### 94 **2.2.1. Element type and material model**

95 To significantly save computational time while maintaining acceptable accuracy, the eight-node  
96 solid element (\*Element Solid 164) was adopted to model the concrete and steel plates using a reduced  
97 integration strategy. Meanwhile, a two-node Hughes-Liu beam element (\*Element Beam 161), with a  
98 2×2 Gauss quadrature integration, was employed for the simulation of rebars.

99 Material properties employed in the FE models are shown in Table 2. The concrete material was  
100 modeled using the continuous surface cap model (CSCM) for its numerical stability under both static  
101 and dynamic conditions [16,32]. While the model could dictate element failure based on the maximum  
102 principal strain, it exhibited limitations in simulating shear failure when this criterion was the sole  
103 determinant for the erosion criterion. Given the pronounced shear deformation at the beam ends, it  
104 became imperative to define the maximum shear strain with an erosion criterion  
105 \*MAT\_ADD\_EROSION. A solid element is deleted at maximum principal strain or shear strain. LS-  
106 DYNA accommodates both a simplified and comprehensive version of the CSCM model, identified as  
107 \*MAT\_CSCM\_CONCRETE and \*MAT\_CSCM, respectively. The simplified version is more user-  
108 friendly, requiring only three input parameters. However, the simplified CSCM is only applicable for  
109 unconfined compressive strength  $f'_c$  ranging from 28 MPa to 58 MPa. Given that the concrete  
110 strength of the Specimen US measured 21.3 MPa, the full version of the model was employed instead.  
111 Nonetheless, the default values tend to overstate the structural resilience and initial stiffness [32].  
112 Therefore, to refine the numerical outcomes, adjustments were made to the fracture energy and  
113 elasticity modulus, in accordance with the recommendations provided by the model developer [33,34].

114 Rebars were modeled using the bilinear elastic-plastic material model  
115 (\*MAT\_PLASTIC\_KINEMATIC). The model can be converted from kinematic hardening only ( $\beta$   
116 =0), mixed hardening ( $\beta$  between 0 and 1) to isotropic hardening ( $\beta=1$ ) by adjusting the hardening  
117 parameter  $\beta$  [35]. In this study, isotropic hardening is selected, assuming that the characteristics  
118 exhibited in tension are similar to those in compression. Material property parameters are derived from  
119 material coupon tests. The corresponding rebar element is automatically removed whenever the strain  
120 exceeds the assigned ultimate strain values, which are 0.18 for R6 and 0.23 for T12. It should be noted  
121 the strain rate effects were neglected for quasi-static test. Furthermore, the loading plate was modeled  
122 using a rigid material (\*MAT\_RIGID), while the other steel plates were modeled using linear elastic  
123 material (\*MAT\_ELASTIC).

#### 124 2.2.2. *Contact definition*

125 The automatic single surface contact algorithm  
126 (\*CONTACT\_AUTOMATIC\_SINGLE\_SURFACE) was utilized for the face-to-face contact analysis.  
127 This algorithm calculates element contact in a penalty function manner and automatically checks for  
128 model penetration. Since there is no need to define contact and target surfaces, this algorithm is  
129 particularly useful in situations where the specific contact scenario cannot be predicted. Hence, the  
130 automatic single surface contact algorithm was strategically deployed to manage the contact interface  
131 between the loading plate and the concrete. Further, previous studies [36,37] have confirmed that  
132 neglecting bond-slip enable sufficient computational accuracy and simplifying the process, as the  
133 relative slip between rebars and concrete has a negligible impact on the overall results. Consequently,  
134 rebars are integrated into surrounding concrete with \*CONSTRAINT\_LAGRANGE\_IN\_SOLID. To  
135 balance result accuracy and computational cost, an element dimension of 20 mm is employed for  
136 concrete and rebar elements.

### 137 **2.2.3. *Boundary conditions and loading methodology***

138 In the experiment setup, each supporting column was securely anchored to the foundation with  
139 bolts. In the numerical model, the foundation was simplified as a steel plate, with full constraints  
140 applied thereupon. Additionally, the heavy object placed on the extending slab was simplified as a  
141 uniform load on the corresponding slab. Simultaneously, to mitigate stress concentration, a loading  
142 plate was situated atop the corner column, with a one-way pin being strategically positioned between  
143 the loading plate and the jack, employing the keyword \*CONSTRAINED\_JOINT\_REVOLUTE.  
144 Displacement-controlled loading was implemented with the keyword  
145 \*BOUNDARY\_PRESCRIBED\_MOTION\_SET.

### 146 **2.3. Numerical model validation**

147 Fig. 5 compares the load-displacement curve between the test and FE model. In the absence of  
148 adjacent components to constrain the corner column, the substructure mirrors the load-bearing  
149 characteristics of a cantilevered slab. Comprising solely the rising and softening segments, the load-  
150 displacement curve is accurately simulated by the numerical model. The discrepancy between the  
151 experimental and predicted critical values, including yield and peak load, remains insignificantly less  
152 than 6%. Fig. 6 compares the failure modes from the experimental test and numerical model. It is  
153 evident that the numerical model precisely reflects the failure characteristics of Specimen US: plastic  
154 hinges appear at the far end of the adjacent beam to the failed corner column, the bottom concrete of  
155 the beam is crushed, and the corresponding area of the rebar yields. Simultaneously, the main crack  
156 forms along the diagonal direction of the slab surface, indicating that the model successfully predicts  
157 the manner of test failure.

158 Test results confirms the accuracy of the numerical model. Consequently, this model will serve  
159 as the benchmark model for developing dynamic models in the subsequent analysis.

### 160 **3. Dynamic analysis of RC frames against progressive collapse**

#### 161 **3.1. Methodology for dynamic modeling**

162 Fig. 7 presents the numerical model for dynamic analysis, different to quasi-static model, as  
163 illustrated in Fig. 8, the loading scheme for dynamic analysis involves a three-step process to simulate  
164 the scenario of sudden column loss. First, self-weight and external loads are applied using the keyword  
165 \*LOAD\_BODY\_Y with a gravity acceleration of  $9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$ , corresponding to the period from 0 to  $T_1$ .  
166 Then, an additional period ( $T_1$  to  $T_2$ ) was introduced to mitigate possible dynamic vibration from the  
167 load applied at the initial step (0 to  $T_1$ ). Following this, at time  $T_2$ , the column removal was executed  
168 by eroding the steel plate under corner column using the keyword of \*MAT\_ADD\_EROSIO. The  
169 support of corner column was released within a one-time step, corresponding to a time increment of  
170  $3.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}$ , resulting in a practically nearly instantaneous removal column by the explosion. The density  
171 within the corresponding regions of the structure was scaled using the keyword \*ELEMENT\_MASS  
172 to consider the external loads more realistically [37].

#### 173 **3.2. Comparison between static and dynamic analysis**

##### 174 **3.2.1. Load resistance**

175 As illustrated in Fig. 9, according to the EBM put forth by Izzuddin et al. [25], if the remaining  
176 structure regains equilibrium after the initial failure, the external work ( $P_d \cdot u_d$ ) from gravity should  
177 equal the strain energy ( $\int_0^{u_d} P_{NS}(u) du$ ) within the remaining structure, in accordance with the  
178 conservation of energy. Through the conversion of the structure's quasi-static resistance into dynamic

179 resistance, the corresponding dynamic progressive collapse resistance ( $P_d$ ) under displacement ( $u_d$ )  
180 can be ascertained.

181 As shown in Fig. 10(a), the incremental dynamic analysis (IDA) reveals a rising trend in the  
182 vertical peak displacement of the target column, coinciding with the increase in external load. Once  
183 the load exceeds 34.0 kN, the remaining structure does not maintain stability and eventually fails.  
184 Therefore, the dynamic ultimate strength of the building is 34.0 kN. It should be noted that the EBM  
185 did not consider the effects of strain rate and damping ratio.

186 Fig. 10(b) compares the structural load resistance between EBM and IDA. Each point in the IDA  
187 curve represents a nonlinear dynamic analysis. It is observable that the IDA curve agrees with EBM  
188 curve well although the values in IDA curve are slightly lower than that from EBM curve. For example,  
189 the dynamic ultimate strength obtained by the EBM and the IDA is 36.9 kN and 34.0 kN, respectively,  
190 with only a 7.9% difference. The results demonstrate that the EBM, as a simplified assessment method,  
191 can accurately assess the dynamic resistance of the structure excluding the effects of strain rate and  
192 damping ratio.

### 193 3.2.2. *Failure mode*

194 One critical assumption for using EBM is the consistency of failure modes whether subjected to  
195 quasi-static or dynamic load regime. Fig. 11 compares the failure modes at displacements of 84 mm  
196 and 500 mm, representing peak and residual resistances under quasi-static analysis, in both loading  
197 scenarios. In either loading regime, the main cracks appear along the diagonal of the slab before failure,  
198 with noticeable cracks also evident on Beams AD and AB. With further displacement of the corner  
199 column, the cracks propagate along the diagonal, culminating in the emergence of plastic hinges and  
200 eventual structural collapse. Thus, the failure modes and load transfer mechanisms are consistent across  
201 both loading regimes throughout the whole loading process.

### 202 3.3. Discussion on effects of strain rate and damping ratio

203 This section explores the impact of critical factors, such as strain rate and damping ratio, which  
204 are crucial in evaluating the structural dynamic performance during progressive collapse.

#### 205 3.3.1. Influence of strain rate

206 In the numerical models, an "IRATE" parameter value of 1 was set for the CSCM model to define  
207 the rate-dependent stress-strain relationship, highlighting the increased strength of concrete at high  
208 strain rates [33]. The rate effect formulations are drawn from Simo's extension [38] of the popular  
209 Duvaut-Lions formulation. According to model developers [34], the fracture energy should be reduced  
210 ( $REP0W=0.5$ ) if noticeable shear or compression damage was present. The Cowper-Symonds model  
211 was employed to simulate the strain rate effects of the rebar in this material model [39], with strain rate  
212 parameters  $C$  and  $P$  defined as  $40.4 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and 5, respectively [40,41].

213 To explore the influences of the strain rate, four cases were examined using IDA: Case 1 ignored  
214 strain rate effects; Case 2 only considered strain rate effects of rebar; Case 3 account strain rate effects  
215 of concrete only; and Case 4 considered strain rate effects of both rebar and concrete. Fig. 12 indicates  
216 minor differences among the four cases during the elastic stage, with the significant increase in strength  
217 manifesting primarily in the plastic stage. The strain rate effects of rebar have a more noticeable impact  
218 than those of concrete, aligning with prior studies on RC slabs by Russell et al. [42] and Ding et al.  
219 [43]. The four cases correspond to dynamic ultimate strengths of 34.0 kN, 36.0 kN, 34.5 kN, and 40.0  
220 kN. Compared to Case 1, the corresponding deviations are 2.9%, 1.5%, and 4.4%, respectively. This  
221 is because the impact of strain rate is relatively limited due to the low strain rate observed during sudden  
222 column removal.

### 223 3.3.2. *Influence of damping ratio*

224 In this study, the keyword \*DAMPING\_GLOBAL was employed to implement Rayleigh  
225 damping, and the structural damping ratio  $\zeta$  was defined utilizing the concept of logarithmic  
226 decrement. However, as no dynamic tests were carried out and the damping ratio could not be obtained  
227 from the real dynamic responses, a critical damping ratio of 5% was implemented as recommended for  
228 general RC constructions [26]. To explore the influence of damping ratio on dynamic responses,  
229 additional damping ratios of 0, 1%, and 2% were also evaluated. For comparison, strain rate effects  
230 were disregarded in this section.

231 As shown in Fig. 13(a), at lower external loads, damping ratios show little effect on displacement  
232 responses. However, with an increase in external load, these responses start to differ noticeably. An  
233 increase in damping ratio from 0 to 5% results in a rise in dynamic ultimate strength from 34.0 kN to  
234 38.5 kN, signifying a 13.2% increase. This suggests that structural damping ratio plays a considerable  
235 role in the prevention of structural dynamic collapse.

236 Fig. 13(b) demonstrates the structural dynamic responses under a 30.0 kN external load with  
237 varying damping ratios. As damping ratio increases from 0 to 5%, the vertical peak displacement  
238 decreases from -75.1 mm to -53.0 mm, resulting in a reduction of 29.4%. The results show that damping  
239 helps to diminish vibrations and simultaneously lessening the peak displacement and magnitude of  
240 vibrations. Hence, for significant constructions, the implementation of dampers can bolster the  
241 structure's capability to resist collapse.

## 242 **4. Parametric study on building layout**

243 For a thorough examination of the dynamic behavior of RC frames in mitigating progressive  
244 collapse, a parametric study was further conducted. It is noteworthy that due to experimental

245 limitations, the test specimens simplified the boundary conditions of the structures and did not  
246 consider the horizontal constraints from the floor slabs around the corner area. Additionally, the  
247 supporting columns were simplified to short columns of 700 mm in height, rather than their actual  
248 length. To mitigate the adverse effects of these simplifications on the results, two-bay by two-bay  
249 structures with full-length columns, named US-1F and US-2F, were modeled, as shown in Fig. 14. It  
250 should be noted that 1F and 2F denote one-story and two-story, respectively. Moreover, to better  
251 simulate the actual structural loading, a uniform load was employed on the floor panels instead of a  
252 concentrated load in the following study.

#### 253 **4.1. Effects of slab thickness**

254 Following the US model, the effects of slab thickness on the dynamic responses are investigated  
255 by both decreasing and increasing the slab thickness, while maintaining the identical slab reinforcement  
256 ratios as those used in the US model. It is noteworthy that all the reinforcement ratios for slabs with  
257 varying thicknesses were in compliance with the guidelines for minimum and maximum reinforcement  
258 ratios. Given a beam depth of 250 mm, the examined slab thickness of 50 mm, 60 mm, 70 mm and 80  
259 mm represent slab thickness-to-beam depth ratios of 0.20, 0.24, 0.28 and 0.32, respectively. It is worth  
260 noting that the design service loads ( $DL + 0.25LL$ ), which are equivalent to 6.0 kPa, were applied to  
261 the floor slabs.

262 Fig. 15(a) demonstrates the effects of slab thickness on structural dynamic responses. As the slab  
263 thickness increased from 50 mm to 80 mm, the peak displacement decreased from -16.2 mm to -11.7  
264 mm. This indicates that the slab thickness significantly affects the structural dynamic response.  
265 Nevertheless, since the load is relatively small, the structure is almost at the elastic deformation stage,

266 with CAA occurring within the beams depicted in Fig. 15(b). This indicates that under the design  
267 service loads, the structure exhibits strong resistance to progressive collapse.

#### 268 **4.2. Effects of constraints from upper stories**

269 In this study, the surface atop the corner column of a single-story frame substructure is taken as a  
270 free end. However, in practice, for multi-story frame structures, the surface atop the corner column  
271 is subject to constraints from the upper floor. Previous studies based on static analysis [16,44] have  
272 demonstrated that multi-story frames can redistribute vertical loads through interlayer action (also  
273 known as VA). However, the effects of the VA on the dynamic responses of the frames are unclear.  
274 Thus, a two-story frame structure, referred to as US-2F, was devised, wherein equal loads were applied  
275 to both the upper and lower floors.

276 Fig. 16(a) compares displacement response under different loads for both US-1F and US-2F, it  
277 was found that vertical peak displacement of US-2F decreased by 39.5%, 44.4%, and 56.6%  
278 respectively in accordance with the loads of 6.0 kPa, 12.0 kPa, and 18.0 kPa. This indicates that the  
279 constraint effects of the upper floor can significantly reduce the structural dynamic response, and these  
280 effects become more significant as the external load increases. Furthermore, as illustrated in Fig. 16(b),  
281 before column removal, the corner column is subjected to compressive axial force, with load being  
282 transferred from the upper to the lower floor. Once the column is removed, the force shifts to tension  
283 indicating vertical movement constraint by the upper floor, thereby reducing dynamic responses.

284 Fig. 16(c) presents time-history of axial force in the beam cross-sections under various constraints  
285 with the design service loads of 6.0 kPa. Sections X and Y, situated close to columns D and A on Beam  
286 AD respectively, have been selected for this analysis. It should be noted that the terms US-1F-X and  
287 US-2F-X designate the X cross-section of US-1F and X cross-section of the bottom floor in US-2F,

288 respectively. After the column is removed, both sides of Beam AD are in compression. For the US-1F  
289 model, the stable axial compression force amounts to 55.1 kN and 2.1 kN for sections X and Y  
290 respectively. In contrast, the US-2F model records axial forces of 43.1 kN and 13.1 kN in sections X  
291 and Y respectively, indicating a more uniform axial load distribution owing to the constraints imposed  
292 by the upper floor. This behavior can be attributed to the development of VA in redistributing load,  
293 which can be characterized by the shear forces of the corner column (see Fig. 16(d)). This leads to a  
294 more uniform load distribution across multi-story structures, thereby enhancing structural resilience  
295 against collapse.

## 296 **5. Conclusions**

297 In this investigation, high-fidelity FE numerical models were utilized to study the dynamic  
298 response of RC frames against progressive collapse caused by a corner column removal scenario. Based  
299 on numerical and parametric analysis, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 300 1. The LS-DYNA software could simulate the failure mode of RC frames subject to corner column  
301 failure reasonably, including concrete crushing/spalling and crack patterns in slabs.
- 302 2. Both quasi-static and dynamic analysis results demonstrate a consistent behavior in terms of failure  
303 modes and load transfer mechanisms, irrespective of the loading regime. The energy-based method  
304 effectively evaluates structural dynamic resistance without considering the effects of strain rate  
305 and damping ratio.
- 306 3. The parametric analysis showed that the strain rate effects are negligible, and overlooking this  
307 factor may result in conservative outcomes. On the other hand, damping ratio plays a crucial role  
308 in structural collapse; it not only aids in the decay of vibrations but also diminishes the peak  
309 displacement and amplitude of vibrations.

310 4. Slab thickness substantially affects dynamic responses, and the structure exhibits strong anti-  
311 progressive collapse performance under design service loads. The constraints from upper stories  
312 in multi-story frame structures reduce dynamic responses and enhance structural robustness.

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425 **Captions of tables**

426 **Table 1** Rebar properties

427 **Table 2** Material properties of concrete and rebar

428

429 **Captions of figures**

430 **Fig. 1.** Prototype structure (unit: in mm): (a) elevation; (b) floor plan

431 **Fig. 2.** Dimensions and reinforcement detailing of Specimen US (unit: in mm) [7]

432 **Fig. 3.** Test setup [7]

433 **Fig. 4.** Geometrical model of Specimen US

434 **Fig. 5.** Load-displacement curve

435 **Fig. 6.** Failure modes: (a) test [7]; (b) FE model

436 **Fig. 7.** Numerical model for dynamic analysis

437 **Fig. 8.** Loading scheme for dynamic analysis

438 **Fig. 9.** Illustration of energy-based method

439 **Fig. 10.** Response of dynamic analysis: (a) time-history response of displacement; (b) comparison

440 between EBM and IDA

441 **Fig. 11.** Comparison of failure modes under static and dynamic analysis

442 **Fig. 12.** Influence of strain rate on dynamic resistance

443 **Fig. 13.** Influence of damping ratio: (a) dynamic resistance; (b) time-history response of

444 displacement

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446 **Fig. 15.** Effect of slab thickness: (a) time-history response of displacement; (b) time-history of

447 beam axial force

448 **Fig. 16.** Effect of constraints from upper stories: (a) displacement; (b) axial force in the corner

449 column; (c) axial force in the beam with 6.0 kPa external load; (d) shear force in the corner column.

450

451 **Table 1** Rebar properties

Rebar	Diameter (mm)	Yield Strength (MPa)	Ultimate Strength (MPa)	Yield Strain ( $\mu\epsilon$ )	Elongation Ratio (%)
R6	6	324	525	1543	23
T12	12	427	530	2135	18

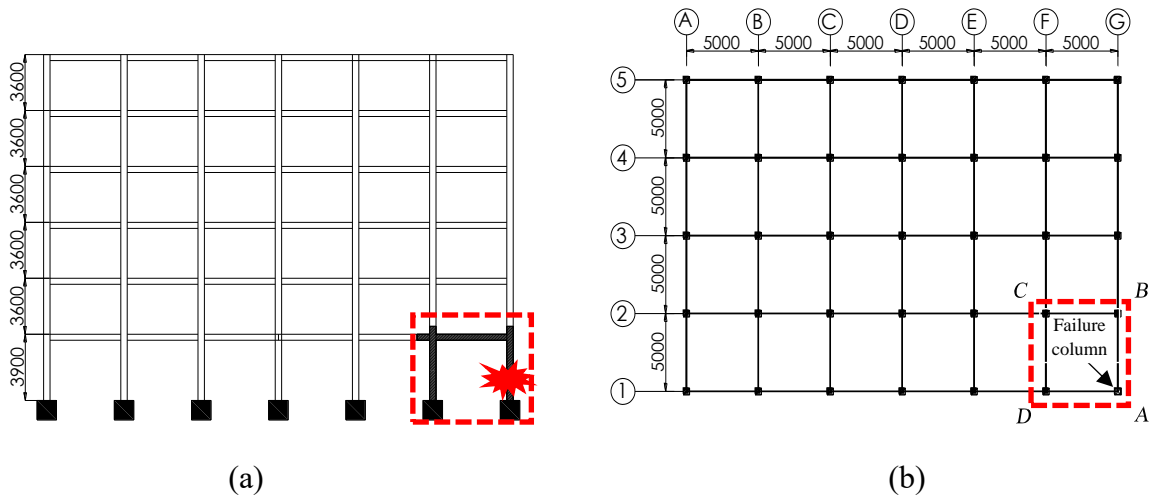
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**Table 2** Material properties of concrete and rebar

Material	Model	Parameter	Magnitude	Unit
Concrete	*MAT_CSCM	Unconfined Compressive Strength	21.3	MPa
		Mass Density	2320	kg/m <sup>3</sup>
		Maximum Principal Strain	0.08	-
		Maximum Shear Strain	0.3	-
Rebars	*MAT_PLASTIC_KINEMATIC	Yield Strength	324/427	MPa
		Ultimate Strength	525/530	MPa
		Mass Density	7850/7850	kg/m <sup>3</sup>
		Elastic Modulus	210/200	GPa
		Poisson's Ratio	0.3/0.3	-
		Failure Strain	0.23/0.18	-

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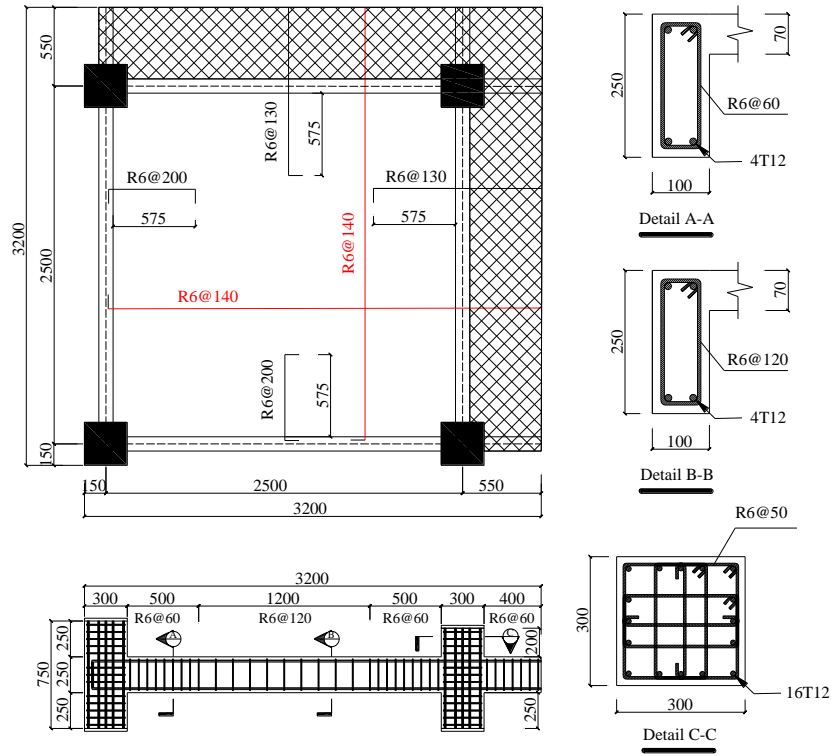
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**Fig. 1** Prototype structure (unit: in mm): (a) elevation; (b) floor plan

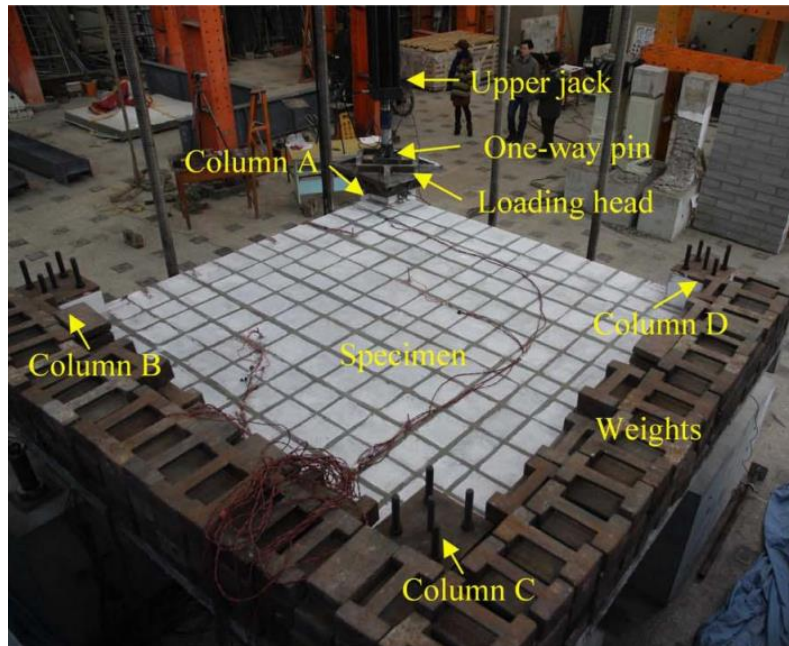


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**Fig. 2** Dimensions and reinforcement detailing of Specimen US (unit: in mm) [7]

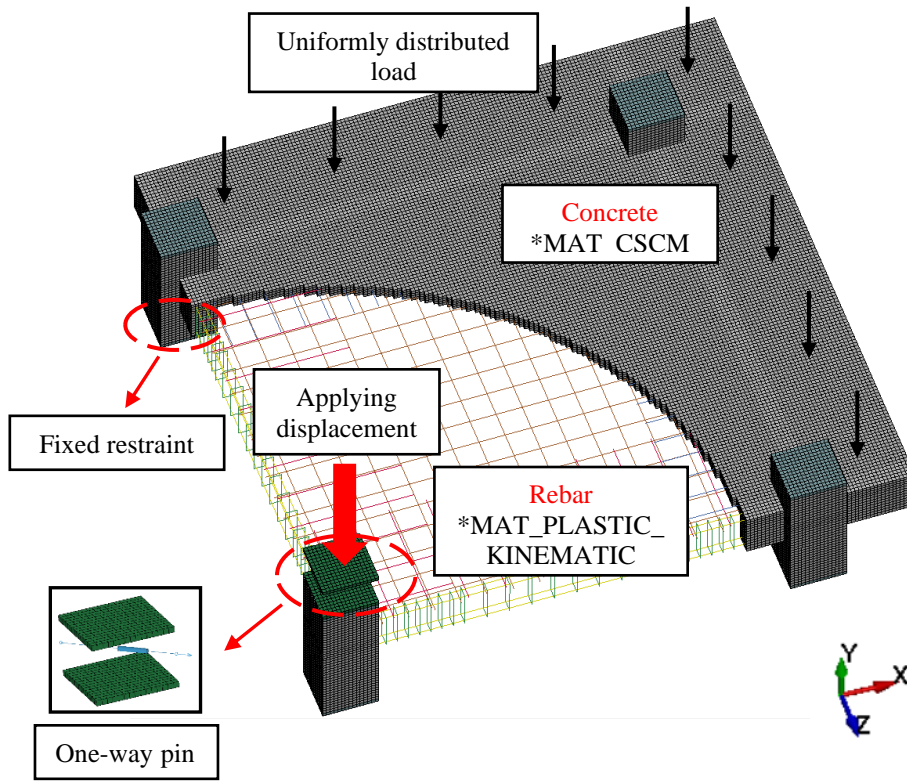


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**Fig. 3** Test setup [7]

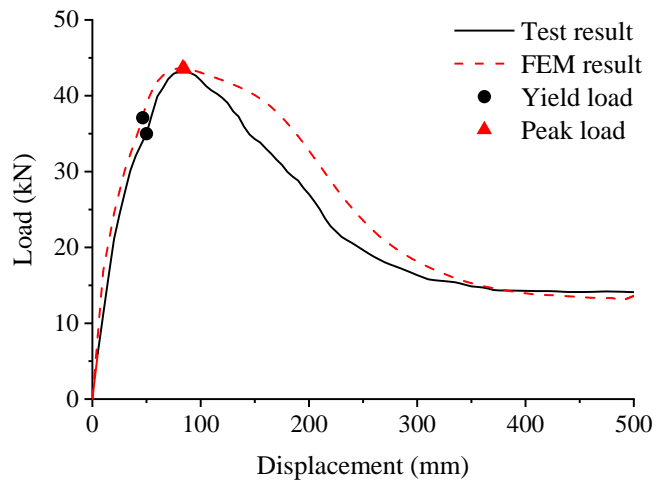


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**Fig. 4** Geometrical model of Specimen US

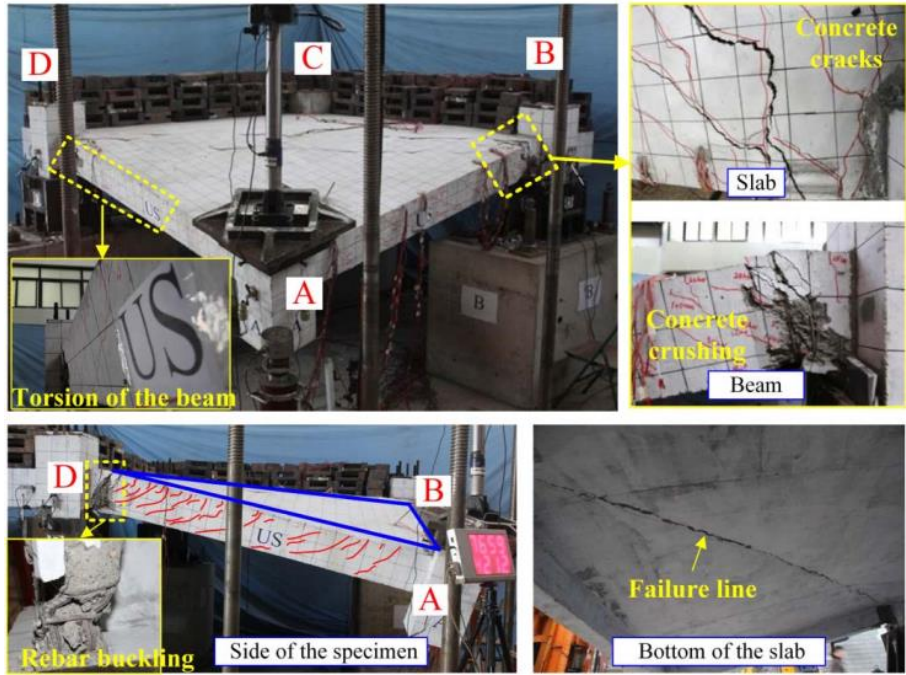


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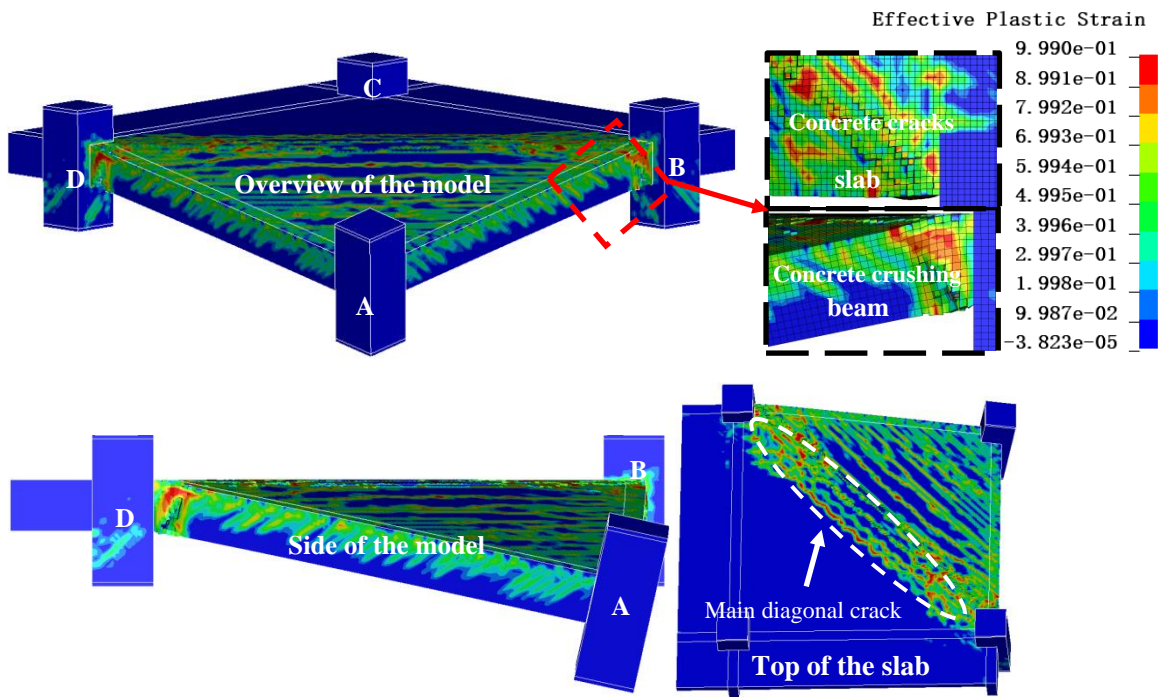
**Fig. 5** Load-displacement curve



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(a)



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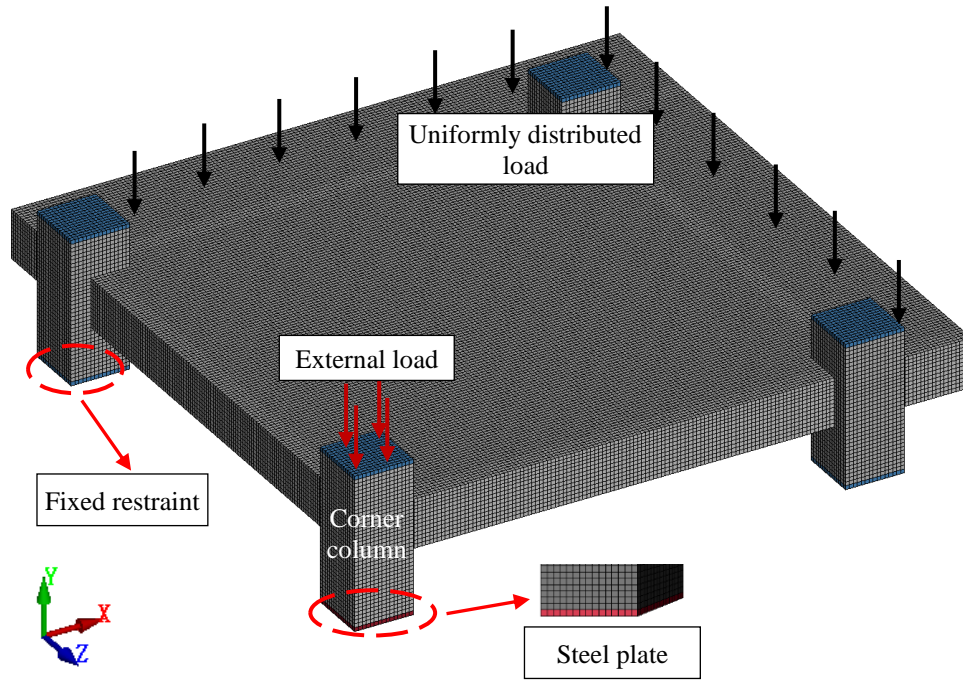
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(b)

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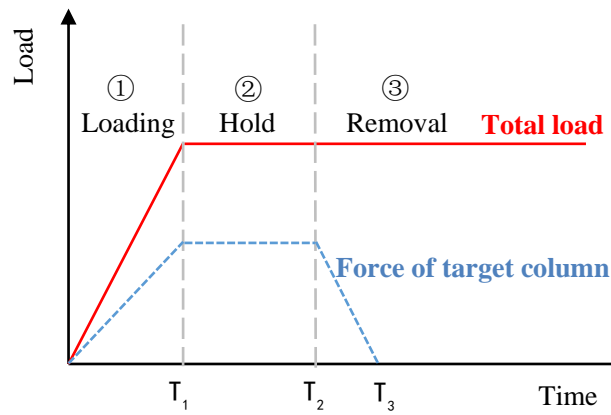
**Fig. 6** Failure modes: (a) test [7]; (b) FE model



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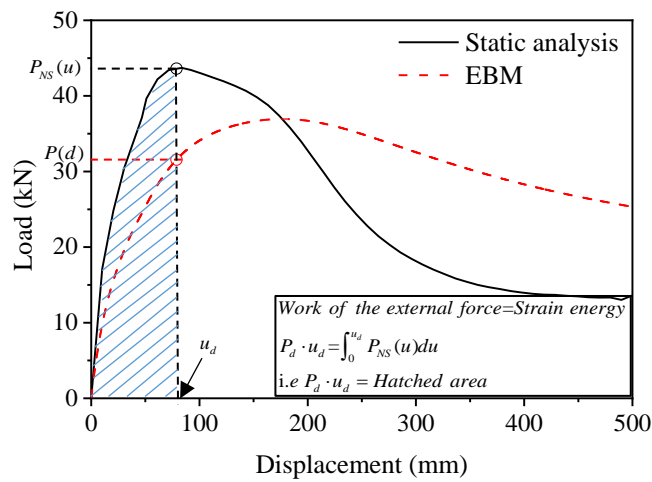
**Fig. 7** Numerical model for dynamic analysis



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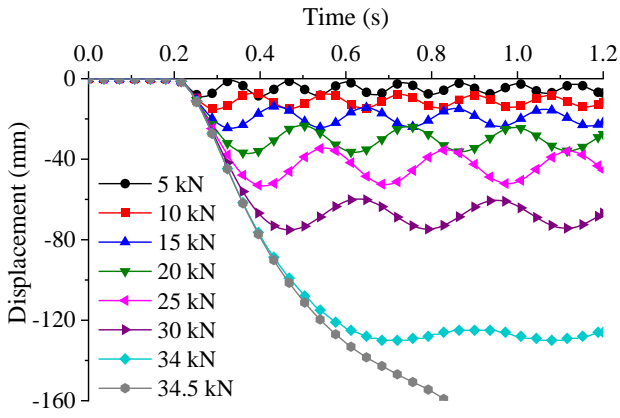
**Fig. 8** Loading scheme for dynamic analysis



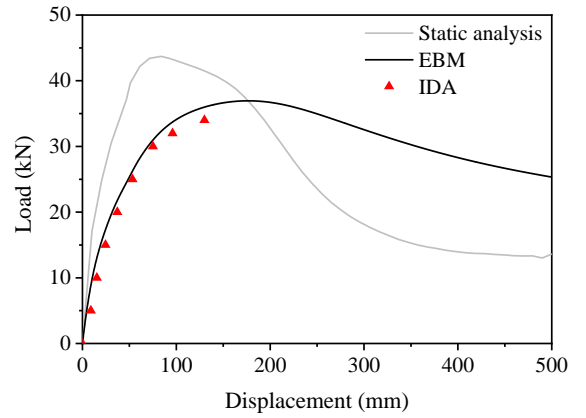
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**Fig. 9** Illustration of energy-based method

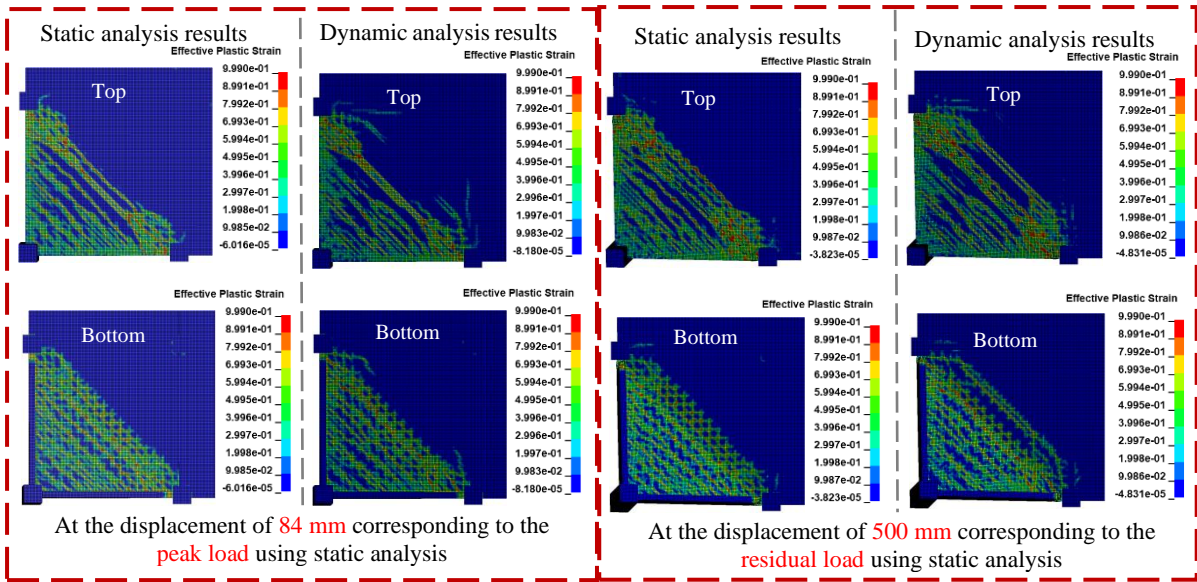


(a)

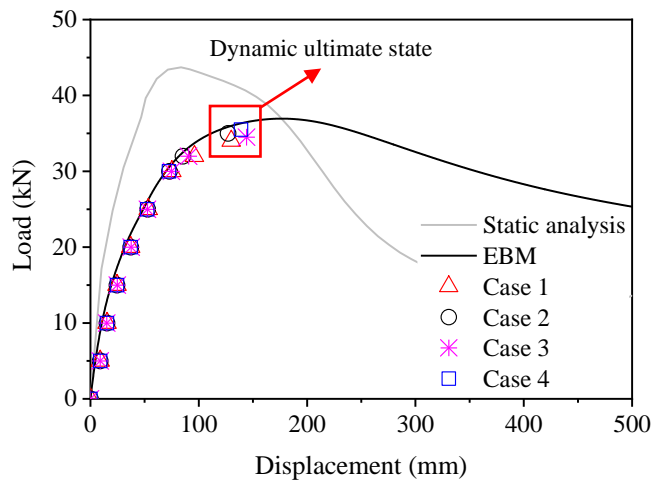


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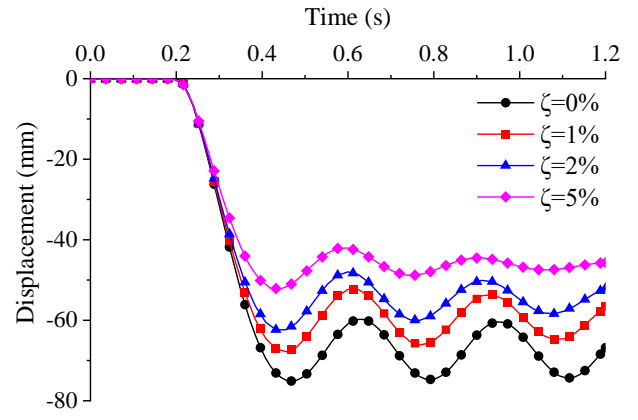
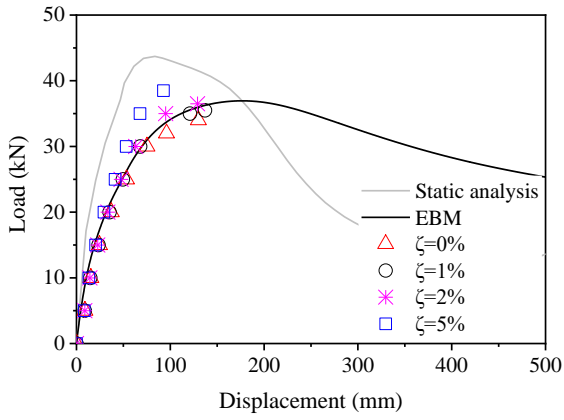
**Fig. 10** Response of dynamic analysis: (a) time-history response of displacement; (b) comparison between EBM and IDA



**Fig. 11** Comparison of failure modes under static and dynamic analysis



**Fig. 12** Influence of strain rate on dynamic resistance



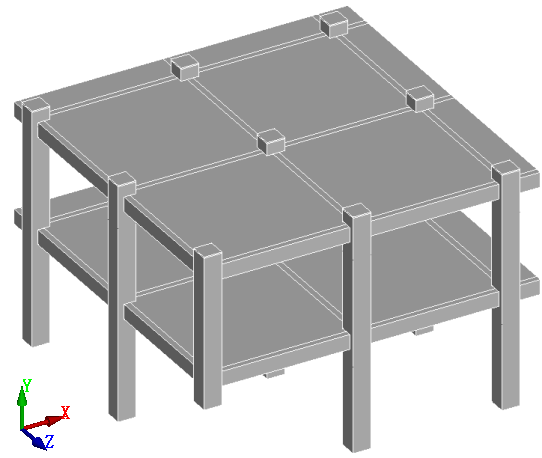
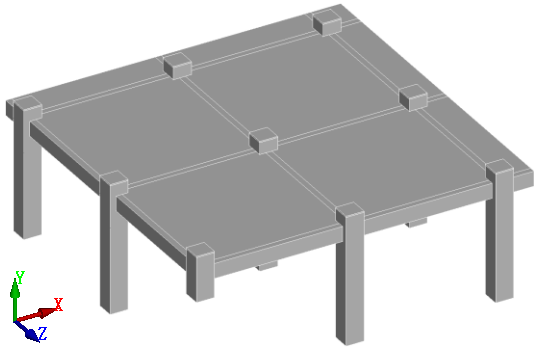
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(a)

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493 **Fig. 13** Influence of damping ratio: (a) dynamic resistance; (b) time-history response of displacement



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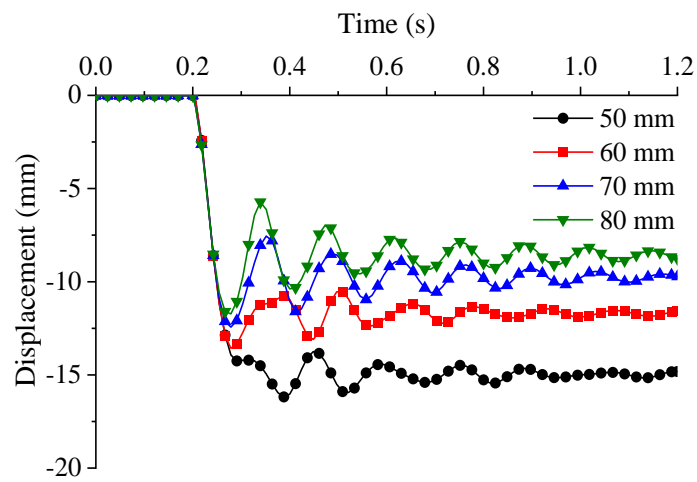
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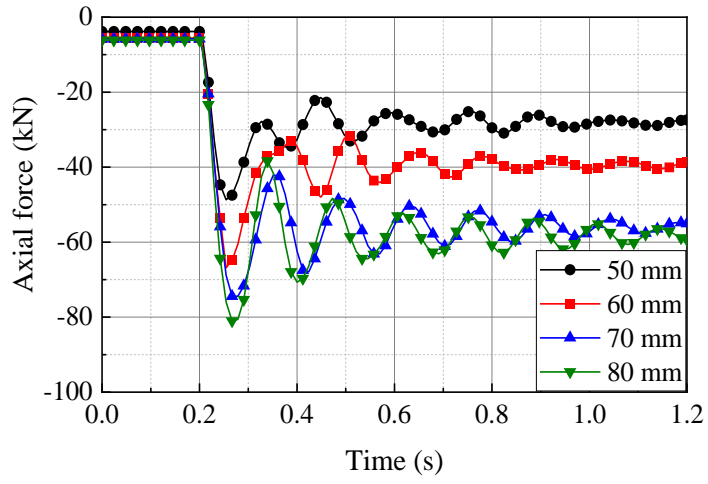
**Fig. 14** Numerical models for parametric studies: (a) US-1F; (b) US-2F



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(a)



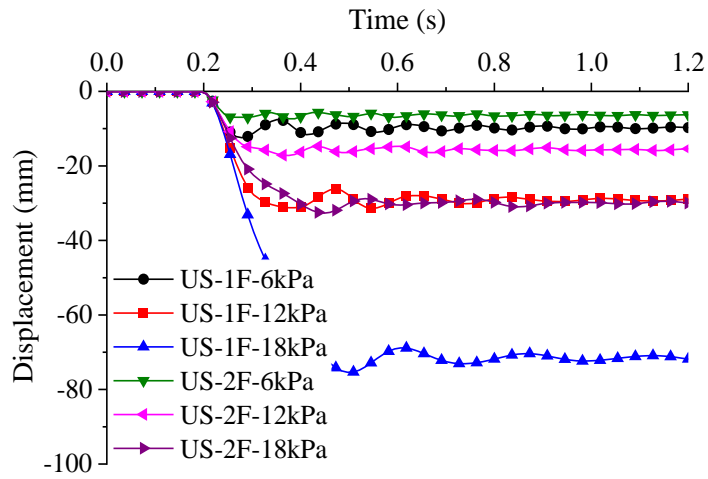
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501 **Fig. 15** Effect of slab thickness: (a) time-history response of displacement; (b) time-history of beam

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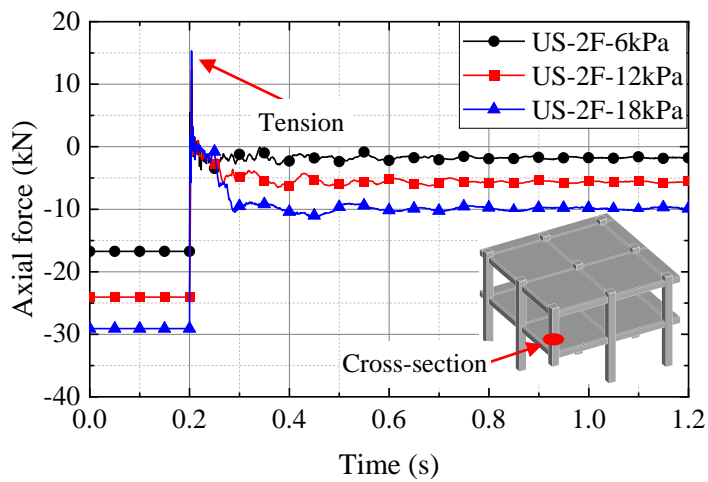
axial force



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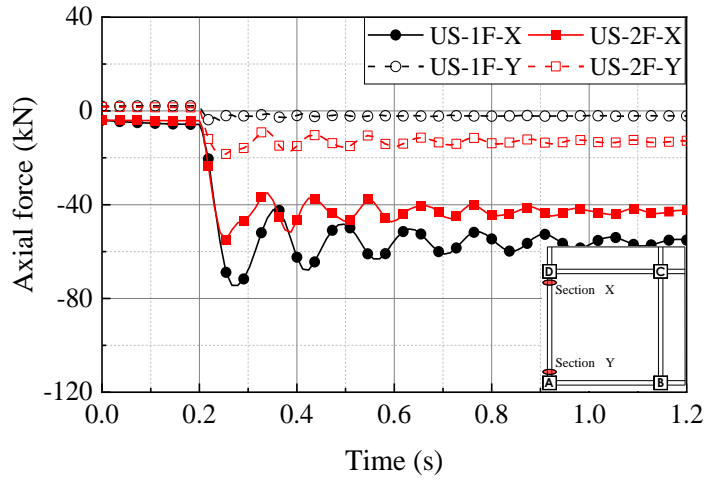
(a)



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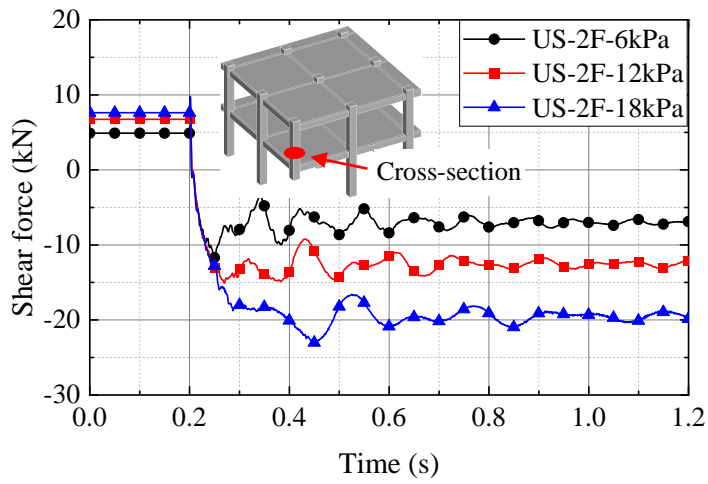
(b)



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(c)



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(d)

511 **Fig. 16** Effect of constraints from upper stories: (a) displacement; (b) axial force in the corner  
 512 column; (c) axial force in the beam with 6.0 kPa external load; (d) shear force in the corner column.