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Numerical Analysis for Strengthening Steel Trusses using Post Tensioned Cables

By Mohamed Ghannam, Nabil S. Mahmoud, Ahmed Badr & Fikry A. Salem

Mansoura University

Abstract- Using post tensioned cables becomes one of the most effective methods in strengthening different types of structures especially steel structure. This paper studies the effect of post tensioned cables in strengthening double span steel trusses. Different truss's systems (Warren and N truss system) are included in this study.

Different techniques using post tensioned cables are used in strengthening different truss's systems. The main difference between these techniques is the profile and the locations of the post tensioned cables. Comparisons between these techniques are made in order to determine the suitable post tensioning technique for each truss system. The analysis and results are obtained by using ANSYS program.

Keywords: *post tensioned, cables, strengthening, steel trusses, ANSYS.*

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Numerical Analysis for Strengthening Steel Trusses using Post Tensioned Cables

Mohamed Ghannam ^α, Nabil S. Mahmoud ^σ, Ahmed Badr ^ρ & Fikry A. Salem ^ω

Abstract- Using post tensioned cables becomes one of the most effective methods in strengthening different types of structures especially steel structure. This paper studies the effect of post tensioned cables in strengthening double span steel trusses. Different truss's systems (Warren and N truss system) are included in this study.

Different techniques using post tensioned cables are used in strengthening different truss's systems. The main difference between these techniques is the profile and the locations of the post tensioned cables. Comparisons between these techniques are made in order to determine the suitable post tensioning technique for each truss system. The analysis and results are obtained by using ANSYS program.

Keywords: post tensioned, cables, strengthening, steel trusses, ANSYS.

I. INTRODUCTION

Post tensioning is one of the most effective methods for strengthening an existing structure to overcome the increase in service load without replacement parts of the structure. The aim of this paper is to study the effect of post tensioning in strengthening different types of steel trusses and find a suitable way to apply post tensioning in each type. Many researchers studied the effect of post tensioning on strengthening different types of structures.

Previously, researchers study the effect of post tensioning on strengthening steel beams, especially those used in bridges. Dunker et al. [1] presented a research which studied the strengthening of existing single-span steel-beam with concrete deck bridges. Klaiber et al. [2] studied the effect of post tensioning on strengthening an existing continuous-span steel-beam with concrete deck bridge. It was concluded that post tensioning is a viable, economical strengthening technique. Ayyub et al. [3] studied the pre-stressing of a composite girder subjected to a positive moment. It was concluded that using strands is preferable than using bars in post-tensioning. Ayyub et al. [4, 5] presented an experimental and analytical study for prestressing composite girder subjected to negative moment. The research shows that using post tensioning decreases the crack in the negative moment region and reduces the required steel material. Phares et al. [6] presented a research on strengthening of steel girder bridges using

post tensioned rods of carbon fibre reinforced polymers (CFRP). The research showed the significant effect of using post tensioned CFRP in increasing the load capacity of the bridge. Nazir [7] showed that using post tensioned cable for a pre-stressed arch steel bridge has a great effect in reducing the stress on the arch girder.

As the effect of post tensioning cables in strengthening different types of structure becomes obvious, many researchers [8-11] used post tensioning cables in earthquake-resistant in structural steel moment resisting frame (MRF) system, which is known as self-centering moment-resisting frame (SC-MRF) structural system. This type of connection uses high strength post tensioned cables to pre-compress the beams to the columns and to close the gaps that were developed under earthquake loading, returning the frame to its initial position [12]. Vasdravellis et al. [13] proposed a new self-centering beam-to-column connection. The connection used post tensioned high strength steel bars to provide self-centering capability and designed energy-dissipation (ED) elements that consisted of steel cylindrical pins with an hourglass shape. Mahmoud et al. [14] studied the effect of using eccentric post tensioned cables in strengthening simple frame. Different post tensioning techniques were proposed for strengthening simple steel frames. The result shows that using post tensioning cables in strengthening simple steel frames can increase the load capacity by more than 30 %. Similar result where reported by the research done by Ghannam et al. [15].

Ghannam et al. [16] showed that post tensioned cables can increase the load capacity of box girder steel bridge by 25% with a factor of safety equal to 1.8 and 3.63 according to AASHTO LRFD (17) and ECP No. 201 (18) loading vehicles respectively.

Steel trusses are one of the most important types of structures in our life. Nowadays, steel trusses are used in workshops, factory building, stadiums roof, bus and train stations and bridges. Due to the increase in service load applied to steel trusses, researchers began to study different methods to strengthen steel trusses. Using post tensioned cables in strengthening different types of steel trusses are one of the most efficient and widely acceptable methods.

Ayyub et al. [19] and Ayyub and Ibrahim [20] studied the effect of using post tensioned cables on strengthening steel trusses bridge. Single span bridges with different trusses system were investigated in this

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study. Also the effect of different tendon layout was studied. It was concluded that post tensioning tendon is a cost-effective method to strengthen steel trusses and can increase the redundancy levels as well as the reliability of the truss structures to meet the increase in service loading requirements. Post tensioning also enlarges the elastic range, increases the fatigue resistance and reduces deflection and member's stress. Thus, the remaining life of a truss bridge can be extended. More details will be given about this study in section 2.1 of this paper.

Han and Park [21] studied the elastic behaviour of post tensioned steel trusses with straight and draped tendon profiles. The effect of different parameters on the working load and the deflection of truss were studied. These parameters were: tendon profile, truss type, pre-stressing force and tendon eccentricity. Similar to Ayyub et al. [19] and Ayyub and Ibrahim [20], it was concluded that post tensioning enlarges the elastic range, increases the redundancy and reduces the deflection and member's stress. As a result, the load carrying capacity of the truss was increased. Nowadays, there are lots of applications of post tensioned steel trusses for long span roofs especially in stadiums such as Telstra Stadium in Australia [22].

From the literature, it can be concluded that using post tensioned cables is one of the most effective methods in strengthening different types of buildings and structures. Also it was observed from the literature that the effect of post tensioned cables was not investigated on continuous span steel trusses. This paper studies the effect of post tensioned cables in strengthening double span steel trusses. Warren and N truss system are included in this study. Different post tensioning techniques are investigated to check the ability of these methods in strengthening different types of trusses. The main difference between these techniques is the layout and the profile of the post tensioned cables.

II. FINITE ELEMENT ANALYSIS

a) Ayyub et al truss model

The main objective of this paper is to study the effect of different post tensioned cables profile on strengthening double span steel trusses. The numerical study is performed using ANSYS Finite element (FE) program [23]. It is very important to verify the FE model before proceeding to the main objective of this paper. The FE model is verified against the result obtained by Ayyub et al. [19].

Ayyub et al. [19] studied the effect of using post tensioned cables on strengthening steel trusses bridge. Single span bridges with different trusses system were investigated in this study. Also the effect of different tendon layout was studied. In this study, the analysis of post-tensioned trusses is divided into three

steps. In the first step, an analysis is performed using the dead load. In the second step, the analysis is performed using the dead and the posttensioning loads as applied to the truss joints. In last step, an analysis is performed using the live loads including impacts. The stiffness of the tendons is considered only in the third analysis stage. The final solution is achieved by superimposing the second and third step.

In this study three examples were presented. The first example was a statically determinate truss post tensioned internally; the second example was indeterminate truss post tensioned internally and the last example was statically determinate trusses post tensioned externally. It was decided to use the statically determinate trusses that were post tensioned internally and externally for the verification of the FE model. The discretion of the statically determinate trusses is indicated in the following paragraphs.

The detail of the truss that was used in the analysis is described as follows. The truss was a warren single span truss with a height of 11582.4 mm and consists of 8 panels of 8229.6 mm length each. The truss is loaded at 3 point as indicated in Figure 1 the value for dead load was 450 kN and the value for live load and impact was 900 kN, forming a total load of 1350 kN as indicated in Figure 1.

Four different cables layout were used to apply post tensioning to the truss. Here, each layout will be referred as a technique. In the 1st technique, a straight cable was used, this cable was coinciding with the lower member joining between the two supports of the truss, and this layout is indicated in Figure 2.

In the 2nd technique, one drape cable was used; this cable was joining between node U0 and U8 passing through node L4 as shown in Figure 3. In the 3rd technique, two drape post tensioned cable was used, this cable begins at node U1 passing through node L2, L6 and ending at node U7 as shown in Figure 4.

In the 4th technique, the cable was post tensioned externally as indicated in Figure 5. Two drape post tensioned cable are anchored at nodes L0 and L8 and pass over two pulleys at nodes D1 and D2. Two vertical members (L1, D1) and (L2, D2), two diagonal members (D1, L2) and (D7, L6) are added to achieve the stability of the truss as shown in Figure 5. The distance between the post tensioned cable and the lower member of the truss was 6319.5 mm.

In the first three techniques, the cables consist of three strands of 15.24 mm diameter and an ultimate tensile strength of 1860 MPa. The cross sectional area of the cables was 548 mm². The cables were post tensioned by a force equal to 927 kN giving a post tensioning stress equal to 1674 MPa. This stress corresponds to 85% of the ultimate strength of the strands as indicated by Ayyub et al. [19].

In the 4th technique, the cables consist of two strands of 15.24mm diameter and an ultimate tensile

strength of 1722.5 MPa. The cross sectional area of the cables was 361mm². The cables were post tensioned by a force equal to 45 kN giving a tensioning stress equal to 1266.4 MPa. This stress corresponds to 70% of the ultimate strength of the strands as indicated by Ayyub et al. [19].

b) Finite element model description

Link element (8) is used to model the truss member, beam element (4) is used to model the post tensioned cable. It should be noted that the beam element is used with axial stiffness only with ignoring the bending stiffness. Beam element (4) is used to model the cable to overcome the convergence problem that may occur when using Link element (8) to model the post tensioned cable. Post tensioned load is applied by using Pretension element (179), this element splits the cable in to two part and apply the tension force in each part, and this is the reason of using beam element (4) to model the cable.

The poly that is used in the 3rd and the 4th technique is indicated in Figure 6 (a and b) respectively. In the 3rd technique, a connecting link member is added to connect between the truss joint and the post tensioned cable. It should be noted that the axial stiffness of this added link is very small so that it will not affect on the load distribution in the truss member, also its length is very short. This connecting link is added so that the angle between the drape cable is divided equally. A rotational restrained is assigned to joint connecting the cable to the connecting link.

In the 4th technique, another method was used to model the poly. The same connecting link that is used in the 3rd technique is used here with the same properties and dimensions. However, instead of adding a rational restrains, an additional cable is added at the joint connecting between the cable and the connecting link as indicated in Figure 6 (b), the addition link has also a very small axial stiffness and length. A rotational and transitional restrains are assigned at the end of the additional link.

c) Verification of finite element model

Table 1 Shows the comparison between the result introduced in Ayyub et al. [19] and the result obtained in from the finite element (FE) model of this study. In this table result of selected truss members is presented, each truss member is identified by its number as indicated in Figure 1, The result presented by the FE model of this study is indicated by FE.

The comparison was done according to two loading cases, the first loading case include the primary loads without post tensioned force, this case includes deal load and live load plus impact. This case is indicated by *N*. The other case includes the primary load plus the post tensioned load which is indicate as *N+P*. It should be noted that the cable load in the 4th technique was not presented in Ayyub et al. [19].

From the comparison of the result through different techniques, it can be concluded that there is good agreement between the result presented by Ayyub et al. [19] and the result presented in this study.

III. STRENGTHENING OF CONTINUOUS TRUSSES

a) Warren truss

This section studies the effect of post tensioning on double span warren truss. The dimensions of the warren truss are the same as that were used before in verification the model, the truss height is 11582.4 mm. The truss consists of 8 panels, each panel has a length of 8229.6 mm. The analysis is carried under the effect of dead and live load with impact. The total value of each concentrated load is 1350 kN as indicated in Figure 7. Figure 7 shows the numbering system of the truss members in one span. Seven post tensioning techniques are used to strengthen the truss. These seven techniques are described in details in the following sub sections.

i. Technique of the Warren Truss

In this technique, the post tensioned cable is coincide with the lower tensioned member as indicated in Figure 8. The cables consists of three strands of 15.24mm diameter and an ultimate tensile strength of 1860MPa. The cross sectional area of the cables is 548mm². The cables initially post tensioned by a force equal to 925 kN.

ii. Technique of the Warren Truss

In this technique, the post tensioned cable is coincide with the upper tensioned member as indicated in Figure 9. The cross section of the cables and the post tensioning force are the same as the 1st technique.

iii. Technique of the warren truss

In this technique, two external draped post tensioned cables are used parallel to the lower chord members. The distance between the cables and the lower truss member is 3159.8 mm. Another post tensioned cable is used coincide with the two upper central chord member as indicated in Figure 10. The post tensioned force for the external draped cable is 143 kN and for the straight cable is 770 kN.

iv. Technique of the warren truss

In this technique, straight cable is used coincide with the lower chord members and external straight cable is used parallel to the two upper central chord members as shown in Figure 11. The post tensioned force for the lower straight cable is 201 kN and 770 kN for the upper cable.

v. Technique of the warren truss

Straight cable is used coincide with the lower chord members and a straight cable is used coincide with the two upper central chord members as show in

Figure 12. The post tensioned force for the cable is 183 kN and 770 kN for the upper cable.

vi. *Technique of the warren truss*

Two external draped cables are used parallel to the lower chord members and external straight cable is used parallel to the two upper central chord members as shown in Figure 13. The post tensioned force is 156 kN for the lower cable and 770 kN for the upper cable.

vii. *Technique of the warren truss*

In this technique, two draped cables post tensioned by 770 kN are used in each span as indicated in Figure 14.

b) *N truss*

This section studies the effect of post tensioning on double span warren truss. The dimensions of the N truss are the same as that were used before in verification the model, the truss height is 11582.4 mm. The truss consists of 8 panels, each panel has a length of 8229.6 mm. The analysis is carried under the effect of dead and live load with impact. The total value of each concentrated load is 1350 kN as indicated in Figure 15. Figure 15 shows the numbering system of the truss members in one span. Seven post tensioning techniques are used to strengthen the truss. These seven techniques are described in details in the following sub sections.

i. *Technique of the N truss*

In this technique, the post tensioned cable is used coincide with the lower tensioned member as indicated in Figure 16.

ii. *Technique of the N truss*

In this technique, the post tensioned cable is coincide with the upper tensioned member as indicated in Figure 17.

iii. *Technique of the N truss*

In this technique, two external draped post tensioned cables are used parallel to the lower chord members, The distance between the cables and the lower truss member is 3159.8 mm. Another post tensioned cable is used coincide with the two upper central chord member as indicated in Figure 18. The post tensioned force for the external draped cable is 143 kN and for the straight cable is 770 kN.

iv. *Technique of the N truss*

In this technique, straight cable is used coincide with the lower chord members and external straight cable is used parallel to the two upper central chord members as shown in Figure 19, the distance between the cable and the upper member is 3159.8 mm. The post tensioning force for the lower straight cable is 275 kN and for the upper cable is 770 kN.

v. *Technique of the N truss*

Straight cable is used coincide with the lower chord members and a straight cable is used coincide

with the two upper central chord members as show in Figure 20. The post tensioned force for the cable is 169 kN and 770 kN for the upper cable

vi. *Technique of the N truss*

Two external draped cables are used parallel to the lower chord members and external straight cable is used parallel to the two upper central chord members as shown in Figure 21. The post tensioned force is 222 kN for the lower cable and 770 kN for the upper cable

vii. *Technique of the N truss*

In this technique, two draped cables post tensioned by 770 kN are used in each span as indicated in Figure 22.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

From the previous sections, it can be noticed that in different techniques, the post tensioning force which was applied to the post tensioned cables that were located close to upper chord members was chosen to be 770 kN. This value was chosen in order to eliminate the internal tension force of the two middle upper chord members. The post tensioning force of the cables that are located close to the lower chord member was chosen with different values for different techniques. The value of the post tensioning force of the lower cables was chosen based on which value will give the most reduction of the internal forces of the truss members with keeping the post tensioned force in the upper cable constant as 770 kN.

Table 2 shows the percentage of reductions in the truss members' internal tension and compression forces after using different post tensioning techniques with continuous Warren and N trusses. It should be noted that in Table 2 that, % *Ten.* refer to the total reduction in the internal forces of all tension members, % *Comp.* refer to the total reduction in the internal forces of all compression members. In Table 2, +ve numbers mean a reduction in the truss members' internal force and -ve numbers mean an increase in the truss members' internal force.

It can be concluded from the results obtained in Table 2, that the best technique for strengthening the N truss system, is the 6th techniques, which gives a reduction of 9.84 % of the total internal forces of the tension member and a reduction of 3.19 % of the total internal compression forces. Although the 7th techniques provides a reduction of 21.77 % of the total internal tension forces, however, this techniques cause an increase in the total internal forces of the compression member by 1.42 %.

Also, it can be concluded from the results obtained in Table 2, that the best techniques for strengthening the Warren truss system, are the 3rd and the 5th techniques. 3rd technique gives a reduction of 9.72 % of the total internal forces of the tension member and a reduction of 0.94 % of the total internal

compression forces. 5th technique gives a reduction of 9.91% and 0.016 % for the total tension and compression force respectively. Although the 7th techniques provides a reduction of 21.63 % of the total internal tension forces, however, this techniques cause an increase in the total internal forces of the compression member by 12.9 %.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This paper studies the effect of post tensioned cables in strengthening double span steel trusses. Different truss systems (Warren and N truss system) are included in this study. Different techniques using post tensioned cables are used in strengthening different truss systems. The main difference between these techniques is the profile and the locations of the post tensioned cables. Comparisons between these techniques are made in order to determine the suitable post tensioning technique for each truss system. The analysis and results are obtained by using ANSYS program.

From this study, it can be concluded that post tensioning is an effective method in strengthening different types of steel trusses. Strengthening trusses using post tensioned cables can reduce the internal force in both tension and compression members. However, the reductions of the internal tension forces is more significant than the compression forces.

Each type of truss has a specific post tensioned technique that provides the most percentage of reduction in the trusses internal forces. Generally, post tensioning the cable externally has a significant effect in reducing the internal forces, however, care should be taken when using this technique, as it reduces the clearance under the truss. This may have a negative influence on the using purpose of the truss especially, if this truss was designed as a bridge over a water stream where there is a navigation to pass under the truss bridge.

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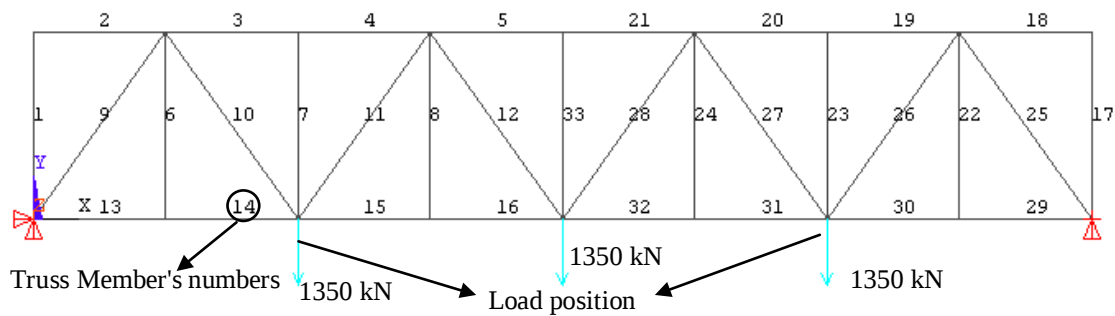


Figure 1: Main truss layout

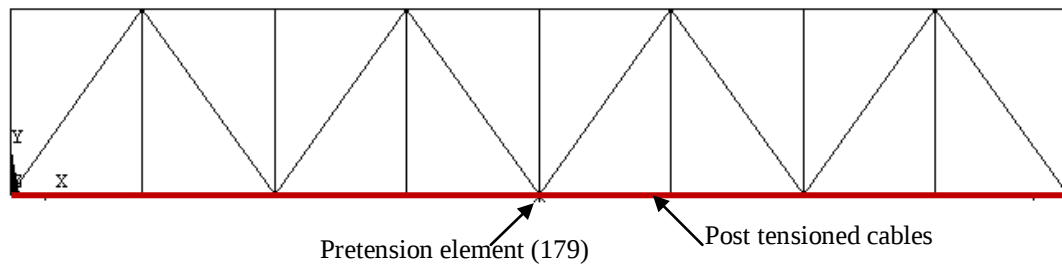


Figure 2: Layout of the 1st technique

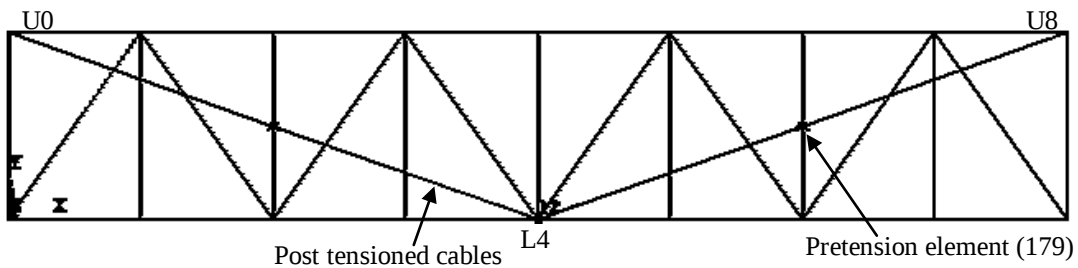
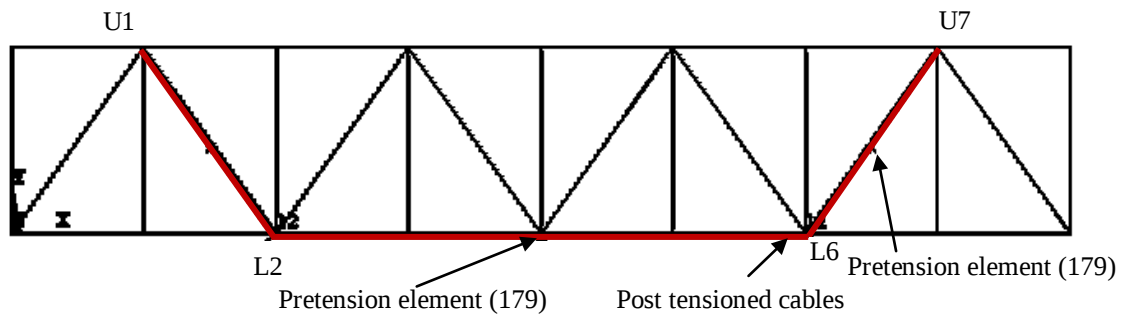
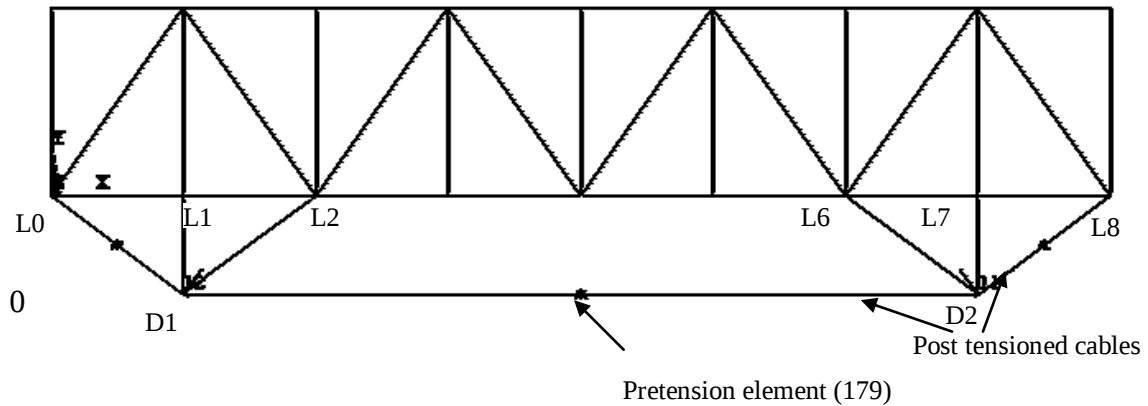
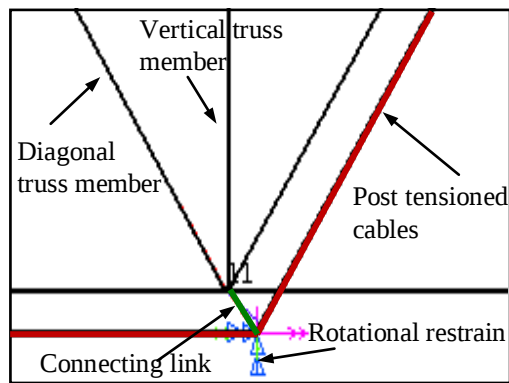
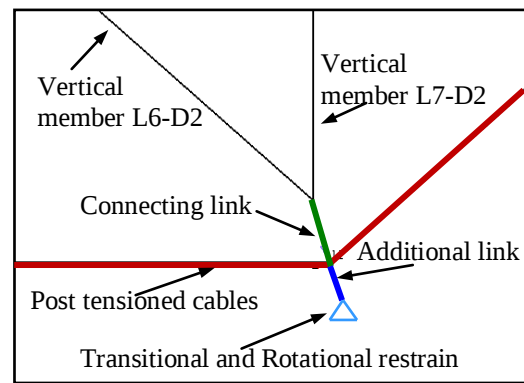


Figure 3: Layout of the 2nd technique


 Figure 4: Layout of the 3rd technique

 Figure 5: Layout of the 4th technique


(a) 3rd technique



(b) 4th technique

Figure 6: Modelling of the poly

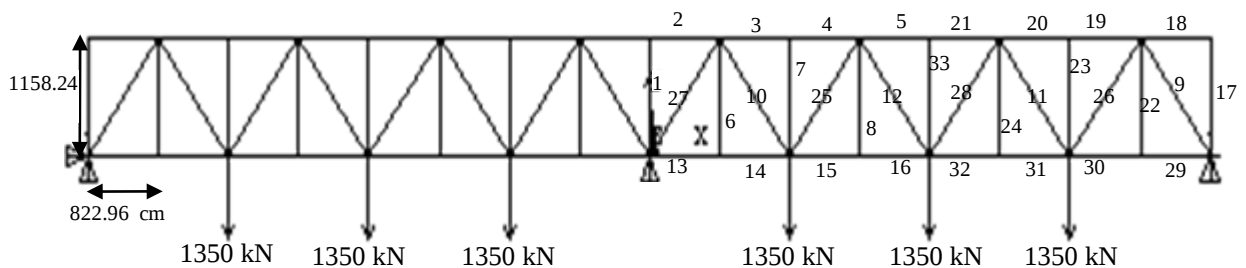


Figure 7: Layout of Warren continuous truss.

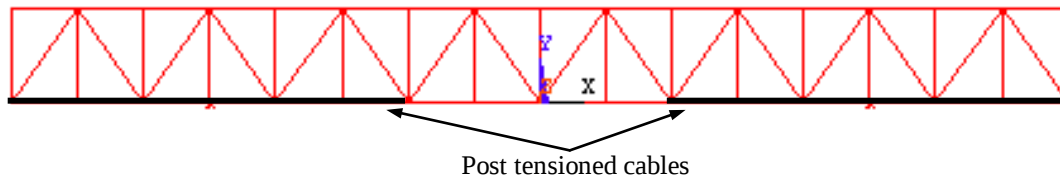


Figure 8: Layout of the 1st technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

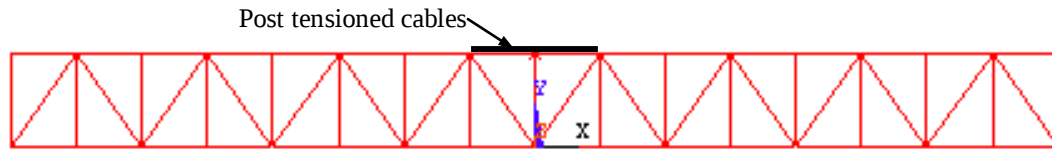


Figure 9: Layout of the 2nd technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

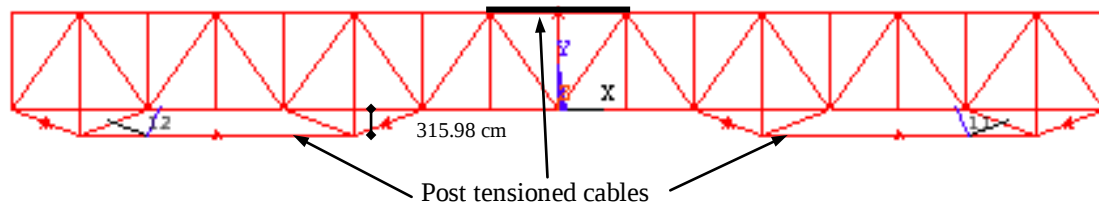


Figure 10: Layout of the 3rd technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

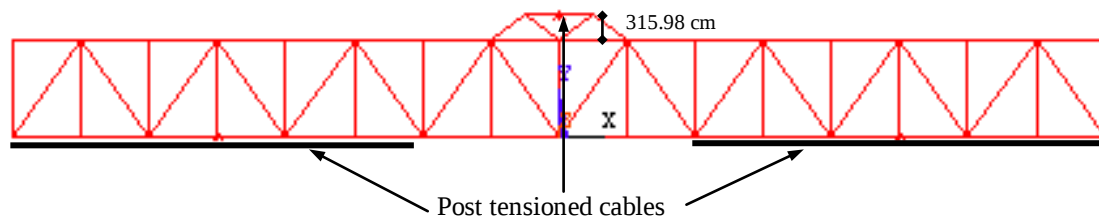


Figure 11: Layout of the 4th technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

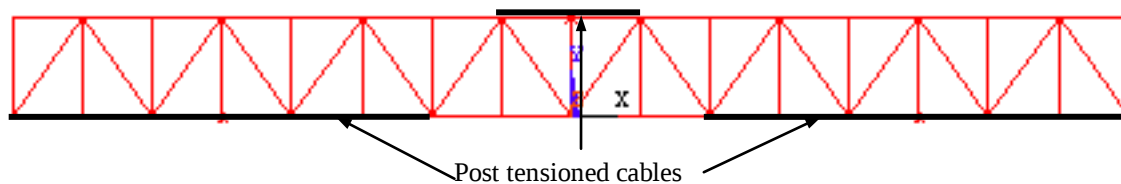


Figure 12: Layout of the 5th technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

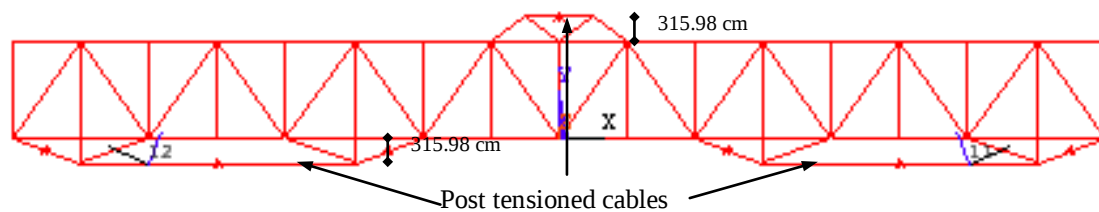


Figure 13: Layout of the 6th technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

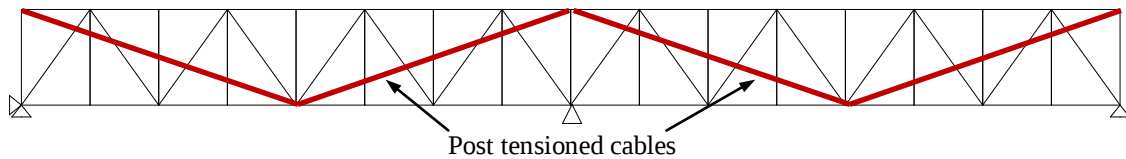


Figure 14: Layout of the 6th technique used for strengthening of the continuous Warren truss

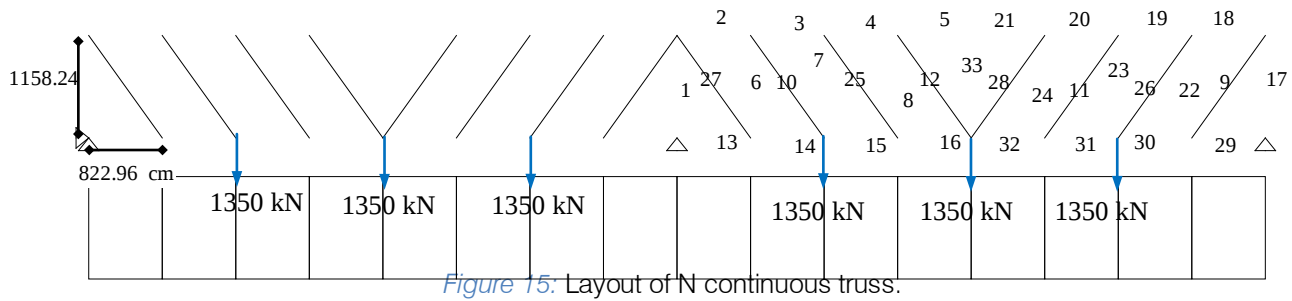


Figure 15: Layout of N continuous truss.

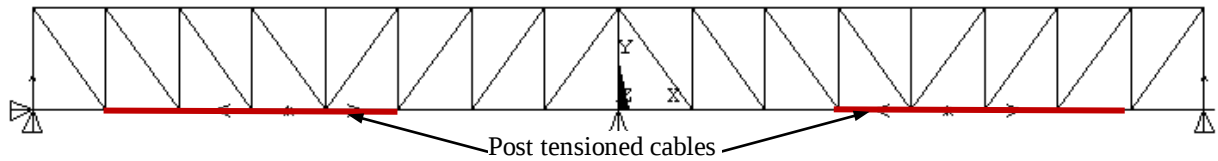


Figure 16: Layout of the 1st technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

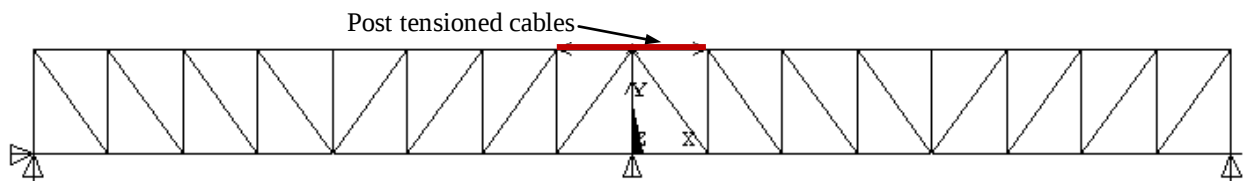


Figure 17: Layout of the 2nd technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

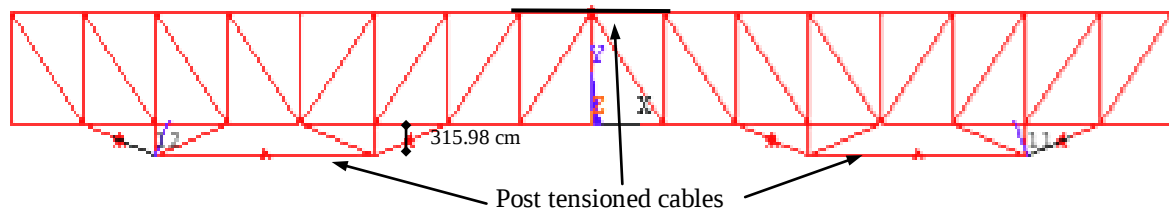


Figure 18: Layout of the 3rd technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

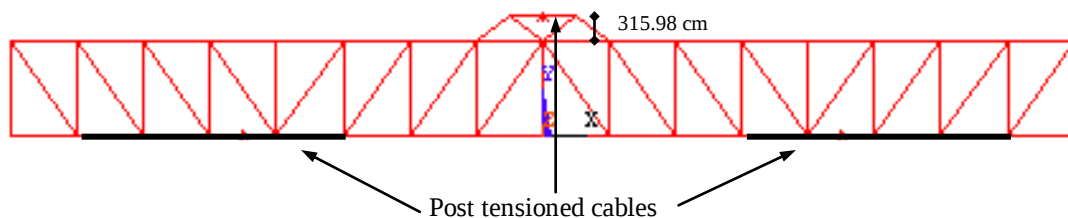


Figure 19: Layout of the 4th technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

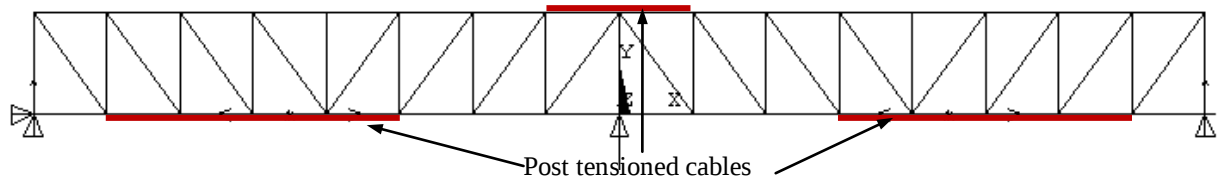


Figure 20: Layout of the 5th technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

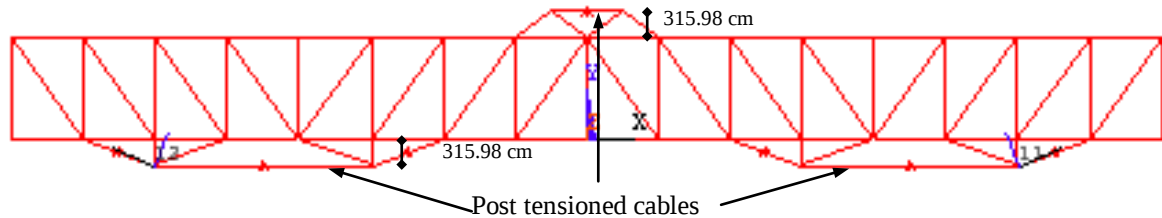


Figure 21: Layout of the 6th technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

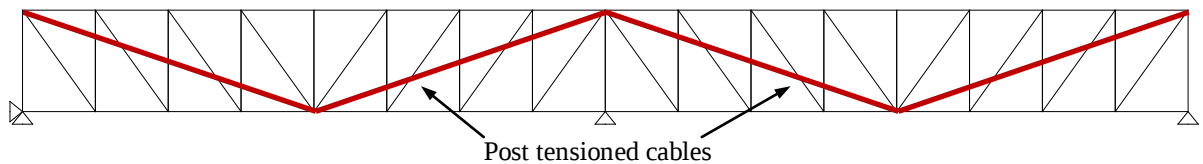


Figure 22: Layout of the 7th technique used for strengthening of the continuous N truss

Table 1: Comparison between the results in Ayyub et al (1990a) and the results obtained by The FE model in this study

Truss Member	N(Ayyub et al 1990a) (kN)	N(FE) (kN)	N + P (Ayyub et al 1990a) (kN)				N + P (FE) (kN)			
			1 st Technique	2 nd Technique	3 rd Technique	4 th Technique	1 st Technique	2 nd Technique	3 rd Technique	4 th Technique
1	0	0	0	-315	0	0	0	-317.26	0	0
2	0	0	0	-900	0	0	0	-901.71	0	0
3	-2880	-2877.62	-2880	-3330	-2880	-2614.5	-2877.62	-3328.47	-2877.71	-2618.73
4	-2880	-2877.62	-2880	-3330	-2880	-2614.5	-2877.62	-3328.47	-2877.71	-2618.73
5	-3838.5	-3836.84	-3838.5	-3838.5	-3838.5	-3573	-3836.84	-3836.84	-3836.88	-3577.86
6	0	0	0	0	0	-220.5	0	0	0	-220.6
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	-2484	-2484.14	-2349	-2097	-2484	-2119.5	-2484.14	-2094.93	-2484.14	-2125.31
10	2484	2484.14	2484	2097	1710	2394	2484.14	2094.93	1533.29	2395.94
11	-828	-828.05	-828	-441	-828	-828	-828.05	-438.84	-828.05	-827.96
12	828	828.05	828	441	828	828	828.05	438.84	828.05	827.96
13	1440	1438.83	477	1215	1440	828	478.98	1213.38	1438.83	839.75
14	1440	1438.83	477	1215	1440	828	478.98	1213.38	1438.83	839.75
15	3357	3357.23	2398.5	2686.5	2380.5	2596.5	2397.38	2680.97	2381.04	2610.05
16	3357	3357.23	2398.5	2686.5	2380.5	2596.5	2397.38	2680.97	2381.04	2610.05
33	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cable			963	954	972		959.85	955.89	964.89	487.31

Table 2: Percentage of reductions in truss members' internal forces after using different post tensioning techniques

Truss's system	1 st technique		2 nd technique		3 rd technique		4 th technique		5 th technique		6 th technique		7 th technique	
	% Ten.	% Comp.	% Ten.	% Comp.	% Ten.	% Comp.	% Ten.	% Comp.	% Ten.	% Comp.	% Ten.	% Comp.	% Ten.	% Comp.
N system	9.05	-0.65	2.22	0.14	7.63	0.98	9.5	1.66	7.2	0	9.84	3.19	21.77	-1.42
Warren system	12.8	-15.52	2.75	0.33	9.72	0.94	9.58	-1.17	9.91	0.016	9.31	-0.14	21.63	-12.9





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Monitoring of the Hill and the Circuit Wall of the Athenian Acropolis Utilizing Optical Fibre Sensors and Accelerographs

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Dr. Nikolaos Melis, Ms. Vassiliki Eleftheriou & Professor Emeritus,
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Abstract- The Acropolis of Athens is one of the most prestigious ancient monuments in the world, attracting daily many visitors, and therefore its structural integrity is of paramount importance. During the last decade an accelerographic array has been installed at the Archaeological Site, in order to monitor the seismic response of the Acropolis Hill and the dynamic behaviour of the monuments (including the Circuit Wall), while several optical fibre sensors have been attached at a middle-vertical section of the Wall. In this study, indicative real time recordings of strain and acceleration on the Wall and the Hill with the use of optical fibre sensors and accelerographs, respectively, are presented and discussed. The records aim to investigate the static and dynamic behaviour – distress of the Wall and the Acropolis Hill, taking also into account the prevailing geological conditions. The optical fibre technology, the location of the sensors, as well as the installation methodology applied is also presented. Emphasis is given to the application of real time instrumental monitoring which can be used as a valuable tool to predict potential structural risk.

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MONITORING OF THE HILL AND THE CIRCUIT WALL OF THE ATHENIAN ACROPOLIS UTILIZING OPTICAL FIBRE SENSORS AND ACCELEROGRAPHS

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Monitoring of the Hill and the Circuit Wall of the Athenian Acropolis Utilizing Optical Fibre Sensors and Accelerographs

Dr. Elena Kapogianni ^α, Dr. Kalogeras Ioannis ^σ, Dr. Prodromos Psarropoulos ^ρ, Dr. Nikolaos Melis ^ω,
Ms. Vassiliki Eleftheriou [¥] & Professor Emeritus, Michael Sakellariou [§]

Abstract- The Acropolis of Athens is one of the most prestigious ancient monuments in the world, attracting daily many visitors, and therefore its structural integrity is of paramount importance. During the last decade an accelerographic array has been installed at the Archaeological Site, in order to monitor the seismic response of the Acropolis Hill and the dynamic behaviour of the monuments (including the Circuit Wall), while several optical fibre sensors have been attached at a middle-vertical section of the Wall. In this study, indicative real time recordings of strain and acceleration on the Wall and the Hill with the use of optical fibre sensors and accelerographs, respectively, are presented and discussed. The records aim to investigate the static and dynamic behaviour – distress of the Wall and the Acropolis Hill, taking also into account the prevailing geological conditions. The optical fibre technology, the location of the sensors, as well as the installation methodology applied is also presented. Emphasis is given to the application of real time instrumental monitoring which can be used as a valuable tool to predict potential structural risk.

List of notation

$\Delta\epsilon$ strain change

$\Delta\lambda$ wavelength change

$K\epsilon$ ratio expressing strain-wavelength relation

K_T ratio expressing strain-temperature relation

ΔT temperature change

1. INTRODUCTION

The Acropolis Hill is the most outstanding ancient Greek monumental complex still existing in our time and was chosen due to its geomorphology since the Neolithic period (4000 / 3500-3000 BC) as a place for local residents. It has a height of about 150 m above sea level and 70 m from the level of the city of

Athens. Among the standing monuments of the Hill, the Circuit (perimeter) Wall serves a pure geotechnical purpose, since it functions as a typical gravity wall, retaining the backfill that forms the plateau of the Acropolis and has total length of about 800 m and variable height areas 5-20 m. In Figure 1, a panoramic view of the Acropolis Hill from the south-east is depicted.

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Figure 1: Panoramic view of the Athenian Acropolis, where the South Wall (right) and the West Wall (left) are shown

The historical significance of the Archaeological Site, the complexity of the geomorphological conditions in the region, the vulnerability to natural and man-made hazards as well as the need to resolve practical problems encountered during the restoration works have led to the application of various contemporary technologies on the Acropolis Hill and its monuments over the last years. In this framework, multi-disciplinarily instrumental monitoring (via accelerographs and optical fibre sensors) has been included, serving also the extensive restoration works and aiming to real time data gathering for immediate intervention when needed (Sakellariou et al, 2016; Kalogeras et al, 2012).

(Koukis et al., 2015). The Athenian Schist is visible on the main entrance of the archaeological site and less in other positions while the limestone is visible on the hill, when is not covered by artificial embankments, which have been built in order to create the surface level of the hill. The embankments are thicker on the south side and held around the Wall and the limestone karstification has led to cavities which facilitate the water flow, further erosion and rock fall phenomena. Figure 2 shows a geological plan view of the Acropolis Hill (Higgins & Higgins, 1996).

II. GEOLOGY OF THE HILL AND THE PERIMETER WALL

The Acropolis Hill is geologically composed mainly by limestone overlying the Athenian Schist

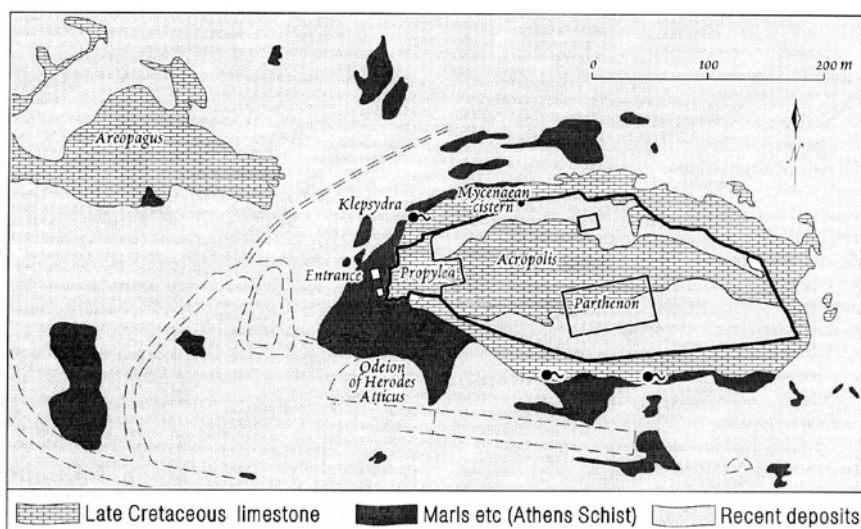


Figure 2: Geological plan view of the Acropolis Hill

The importance of the Perimeter Wall is very high since it provides foundation of other monuments of the hill and the passing of time has seen it undergo numerous damages mainly due to the weather conditions and various types of loading, as well as the human intervention, leading to crack creation and

therefore increasing the risk of local and/or extensive structural failures (Ambraseys, 2010; Trikkalinos, 1977). In Figure 3 the central area of the South Wall is noted, which comprises mainly irregular mixed courses made up of ancient marble blocks in second use (spolia) and small stones, added in later repairs.



Figure 3: Central area of the South Wall on the Acropolis Hill

III. MONITORING INFRASTRUCTURE ON THE ACROPOLIS HILL

Over the last years, 10 high-quality broadband accelerometers (Guralp CMG-5TD) have been installed on specific locations on the hill, recording in continuous mode on 24-bit digitizers and transmitting data in real-time to the Institute of Geodynamics (NOA) facilities in Thissio and the Acropolis Restoration Service (YSMA)

facilities in Plaka, using governmental telecommunication infrastructures (Kalogeras & Egglezos, 2013). The accelerographs were installed, considering the various geotechnical conditions on the hill as well as the specific interest of YSMA for individual sites (Parthenon, South Wall, etc.). In Figure 4 the location of the accelerographs are presented.

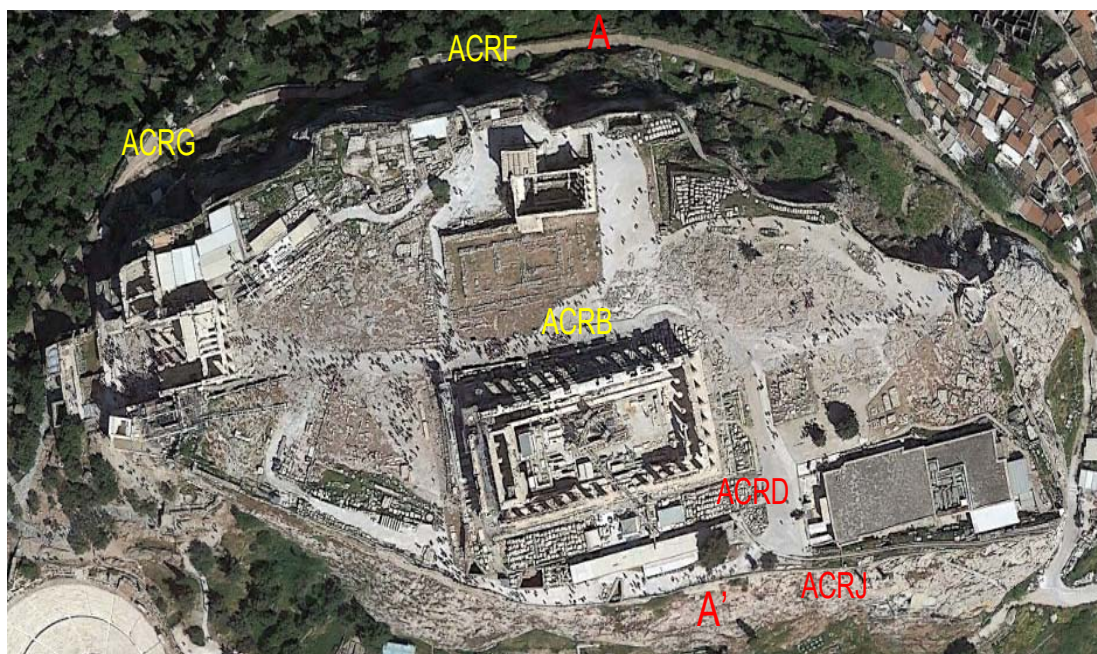


Figure 4: Plan view of the Acropolis Hill showing the location of the ten accelerographs. The red stars correspond to the two accelerographs (ACRD and ACRJ) located on the South Wall (adjacent to the optical fibre sensors array)

In addition, during 2015-2016 a new optical fibre network was developed on the South Wall consisting of eight active strain sensors (Smart Rods) and one acceleration sensor (attached directly on the South Wall), continuously transmitting real time data since June 2016 to date (Kapogianni et al, 2016a; Kapogianni et al, 2016b). The sensors were fixed at predefined positions on the South Wall with the use of stainless steel plates, anchored to the substrate. The critical positions of the optical fibre arrays were defined

by analyzing computational models, utilizing the finite element method (Kapogianni et al., 2017) and the area selected for the final installation was near the pre-existing accelerometers ACRD and ACRJ (see Figure 4). Connection in series was achieved via in situ splicing, while strain measurements were made possible with the use of the Optical Sensing Interrogator SM 130. In Figure 5 the location of the new measuring equipment is presented.

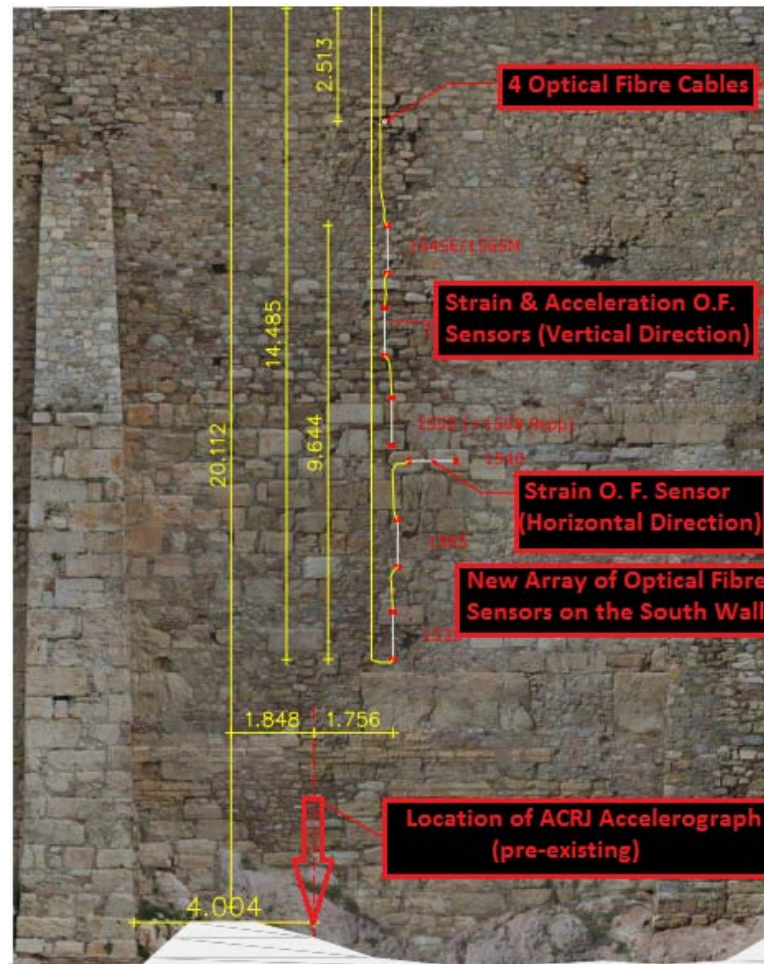


Figure 5: New array of strain and acceleration optical fibre sensors on the South Wall

IV. OPTICAL FIBRE SENSORS AND ACCELERATION RECORDINGS

Time stamped non-continuous and real-time continuous strain and temperature optical fibre measurements were recorded at various positions on the South Wall. Since various physical phenomena affect the Acropolis Hill and the Perimeter Wall, such as very high and low temperatures, excessive rainfalls, earthquakes, etc., the optical fibre monitoring infrastructure aims to quantify their influence on the monument. Equation 1 is used in order to derive strain measurements from the correspondent wavelength recordings.

$$\Delta \varepsilon = (\Delta \lambda - K_T \cdot \Delta T) / K_\varepsilon \quad (1)$$

where

$\Delta \varepsilon$ [%] is the strain change;

$\Delta \lambda$ the wavelength change;

K_ε is a ratio expressing the strain-wavelength relation and is equal to 1.2 picometer (pm)/ μ strain for the sensors type that was used for the current study;

$K_T \cdot \Delta T$ incorporated the wavelength changes due to the temperature variations, where K_T is equal to 11.2 pm/C° for the sensors used and ΔT is the temperature variation, measured during the tests (starting value and actual-final value).

In Figures 6 and 7 characteristic recordings for time-stamped, non-continuous and real-time continuous strain recordings (including temperature) are presented. The results so far indicate that temperature plays an important role on the strain levels on the Wall. Due to lack of a strong seismic event, no notable acceleration recording has been obtained via the optical fibre sensor. In addition, it is noted that information gained from the

non-continuous recordings is of different magnitude and pattern compared to the corresponding ones from the real-time records. In order to derive comprehensive conclusions related to the behavior of the Wall, real-time recordings should be gathered and analyzed for a long period of time and at various positions, including various loading events (e.g. seismic).

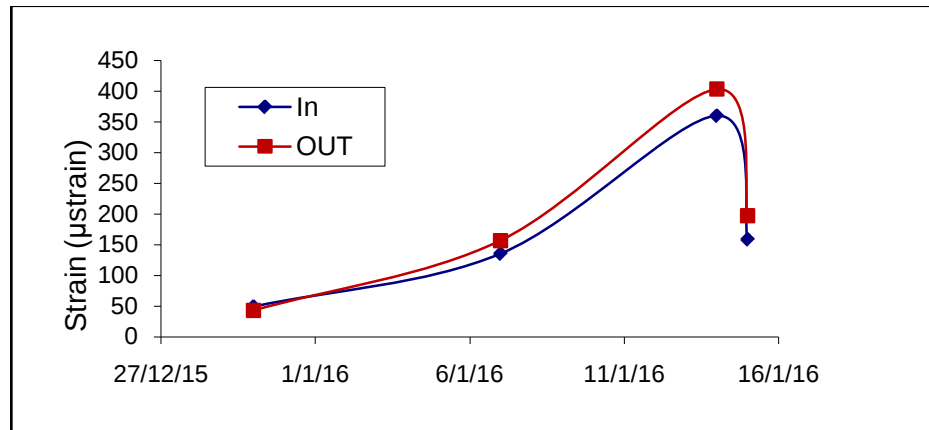


Figure 6: Time-stamped, non-continuous strain recordings on the South Wall

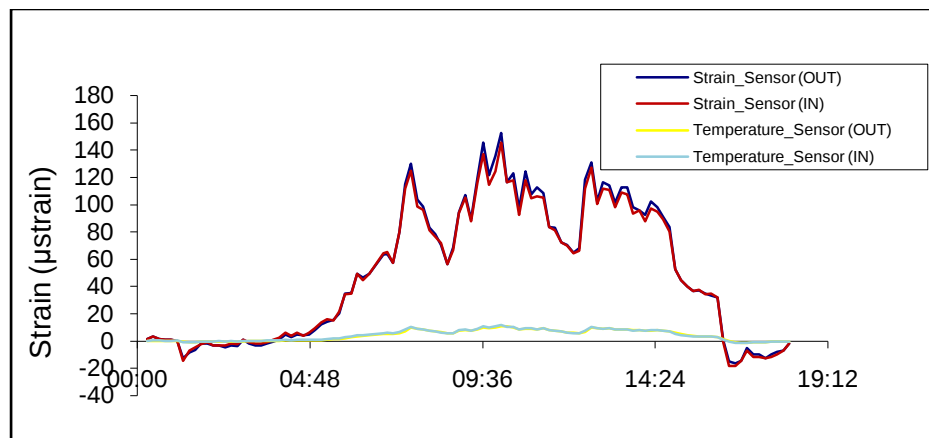


Figure 7: Real-time strain and temperature recordings on the South Wall

Furthermore, real-time continuous strain and temperature recordings are presented in Figures 8a to 8d, for sensors attached on four different locations on the South Wall of the Acropolis Hill. In particular, results via sensors on the top, middle and bottom of the Wall are presented, for an approximately 20-hour period of time. It can be noted that strain increases during the morning and noon and decreases during the night, due to the temperature increase and decrease, respectively. In addition, recordings near the vertical middle section of the Wall are higher, compared to the correspondent values near the top and bottom of the Wall. It should be emphasized that remotely real-time monitoring on various locations on the Wall can provide long-term useful conclusions related to its structural behaviour, especially during various loading events such as

seismic, restoration works on the Acropolis site and/or extreme weather conditions.

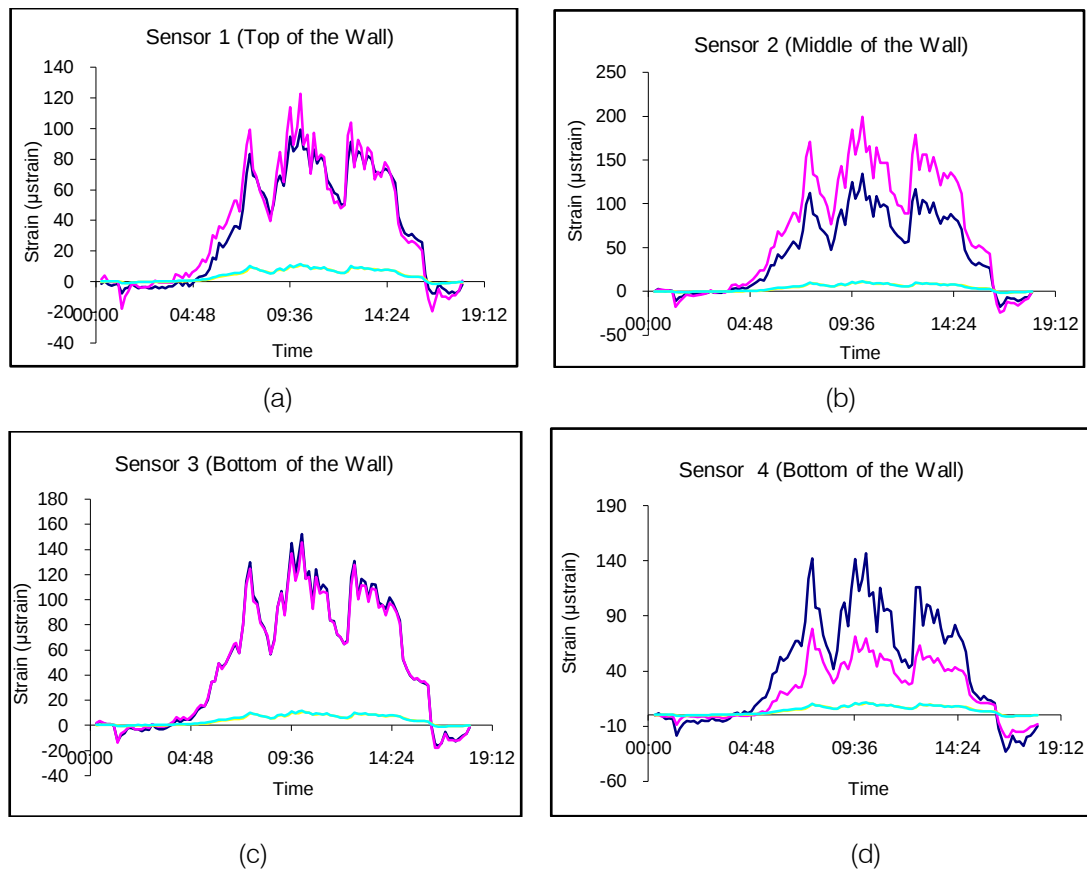
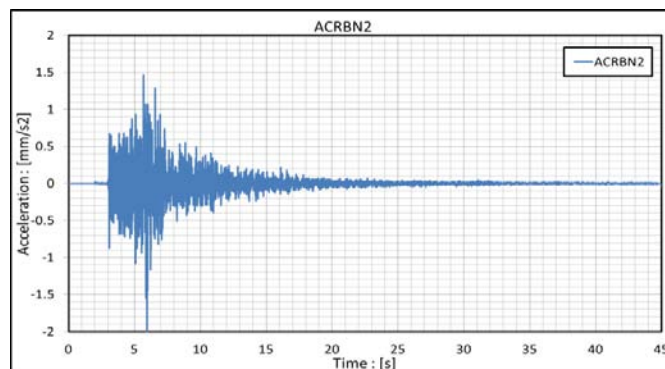


Figure 8: Real-time-stamped strain and temperature recordings at four different locations on the South Wall.

Moreover, since the installation of the first accelerograph in 2006 and of the deployment of the array in two periods (2008 and 2013), many near-field and far-field seismic events have been recorded. In the current study two earthquakes have been considered. The first seismic event (on 05/12/2014) was a small earthquake close to Athens with local magnitude $M_L = 2.4$ and focal depth of 18.4 km from a distance of 17 km, while the second seismic event (on 24/05/2014) was a strong earthquake almost 300 km away from Athens,

close to the island of Samothraki, Northern Aegean, with local magnitude $M_L = 6.3$ and focal depth 28.3 km. Figure 8 shows the acceleration time-histories of the instrument ARCB (N-S component) recorded during the two aforementioned seismic events.



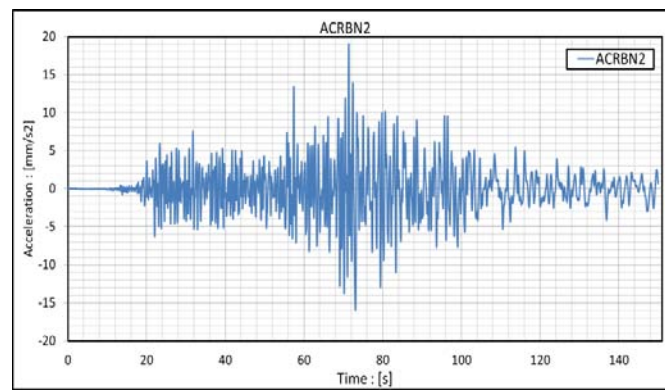


Figure 8: The acceleration time histories recorded by ACRB instrument during the small near-field seismic event (upper) and the strong far-field seismic event (lower)

It is evident that the recorded ground motion of the small near-field seismic event is characterized by very low peak ground acceleration (PGA) levels, short duration and high frequency content, while on the contrary, the recorded ground motion of the strong far-field seismic event is characterized by higher PGA levels, longer duration and lower frequency content.

Figure 9 shows the elastic response spectra of four recorded ground motions (ACRB, ACRF, ACRG and ACRJ) during the two examined seismic events. Judging

from the shape of the spectra, it becomes evident that, apart from the obvious great differences between the two seismic events, the discrepancies between the four records during the far-field earthquake are relatively small, while on the contrary, during the near-field event there is a substantial variability referencing to the installation site characteristics: the instruments located at the north side of the hill (i.e. ACRF and ACRG) exhibit higher PGA levels and higher spectral accelerations.

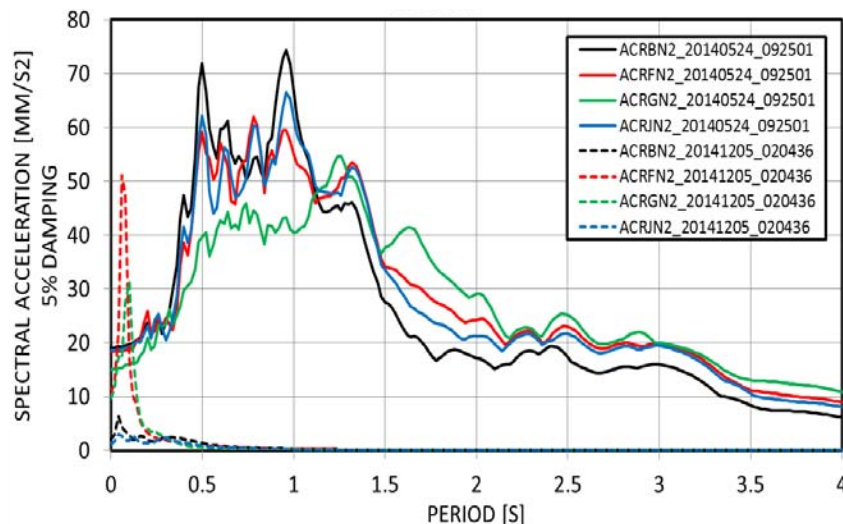


Figure 9: The elastic response spectra of four recorded ground motions during the two examined seismic events. Continuous lines correspond to the far-field event, while dashed lines correspond to the near-field event

V. CONCLUSIONS

Structural health monitoring is a rapidly growing scientific area, applied initially to structures of economic importance, historical significance and high risk of failure. The use of measuring systems aims to the creation of intelligent structures such as bridges, buildings, geotechnical constructions, etc., that are instrumented with sensors and other devices, providing important real time information on various locations, necessary for early detection of failures. Through sensors and devices installation, useful real time

information is gathered, necessary for early detection of structural problems, during construction and life cycle, contributing to safety and their optimal management.

The current paper is involved with the structural health monitoring of the Acropolis Archaeological Site, via optical fibre sensors installed on the South Wall and accelerographs located on the Hill, continuously transmitting data from various locations. The results so far indicate that temperature plays an important role on the strain levels on the Wall however, due to lack of a strong seismic event, no notable acceleration recording has been obtained. It can be noted that strain increases

during the morning and noon and decreases during the night, due to the temperature increase and decrease respectively. In addition, recordings near the vertical middle section of the Wall are higher, compared to the correspondent ones near the top and bottom of the Wall. Concerning the recorded ground motion via the accelerographs, it is noted that the small near-field seismic event is characterized by very low peak ground acceleration (PGA) levels, short duration and high frequency content, while on the contrary, the recorded ground motion of the strong far-field seismic event is characterized by higher PGA levels, longer duration and lower frequency content.

Concluding, it should be highlighted that remotely real-time monitoring on various locations on the Acropolis Hill can provide long-term useful conclusions related to its structural behaviour, especially during various loading events such as seismic, restoration works on the Acropolis site or/and extreme weather conditions.

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Effect of Extraction Residue on the Properties of Asphalt Binders

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Abstract- The present study investigates the influence of extraction residue on the properties of aged and unaged asphalt binders. The extraction residues such as trichloroethylene and mineral filler were varied in selected range of percentage (0.5, 1, 1.5 and 2%) and their effect was comprehended in the ductility, softening point, penetration and dynamic shear rheometer tests of 70# grade and SBS modified asphalt binders. The research shows that: (1) the trichloroethylene has more influence on the properties of asphalt binders than the mineral filler; (2) the effect of extraction residue on the properties of 70# grade asphalt is better while their effect on SBS modified asphalt is poor; (3) ageing asphalt binder is less sensitive to extraction residue compare to unaged asphalt binder.

Keywords: trichloroethylene, mineral filler, asphalt binder property, ageing.

GJRE-E Classification: FOR Code: 090599



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Effect of Extraction Residue on the Properties of Asphalt Binders

Mouhamed Bayane Bouraima ^α, Xiao-hua Zhang ^σ, Shui-wen Zhou ^ρ & Yanjun Qiu ^ω

Abstract- The present study investigates the influence of extraction residue on the properties of aged and unaged asphalt binders. The extraction residues such as trichloroethylene and mineral filler were varied in selected range of percentage (0.5, 1, 1.5 and 2%) and their effect was comprehended in the ductility, softening point, penetration and dynamic shear rheometer tests of 70# grade and SBS modified asphalt binders. The research shows that: (1) the trichloroethylene has more influence on the properties of asphalt binders than the mineral filler; (2) the effect of extraction residue on the properties of 70# grade asphalt is better while their effect on SBS modified asphalt is poor; (3) ageing asphalt binder is less sensitive to extraction residue compare to unaged asphalt binder.

Keywords: trichloroethylene, mineral filler, asphalt binder property, ageing.

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the years, the road building industry has developed asphalt mixtures that have high level of performance. These asphalt mixtures used as paved materials are generally made up aggregates, bituminous binder, air voids and different additives. Due to research purposes in road works sector, it is necessary to separate asphalt mixes into their components. Extraction is an important operation that consists of separating the bituminous binder from the aggregates in reclaimed asphalt or asphalt mixture using a chlorinated solvent. It is mainly used as test to determine the binder properties and content and also to check the grading curve of aggregates after washing and sieving. The extraction process differs in their use of heat method of agitating the mixture and allowable solvents. Different methods have been used for extracting bituminous binders from reclaimed asphalt. They were grouped based on solvent temperature during the process and are categorized into so called hot methods, cold methods, a standardized non-solvent method (EN 12697-39, 2012) and finally automatic method (Montepara and Guiliani, 1999). The hot methods are mostly reflux extraction in which bituminous sample is heated to dissociate the coated aggregates and soxhlet extraction method which is commonly used in organic chemistry. In his paper Collins-Garcia et al.,

2000 has mentioned to a less extended hot method for bitumen extraction. Several methods for cold extraction exist and do not use a heat source. Among them, there are agitation method (Ongel and Hugener, 2014; Sugar et al., 2002; Zhao et al., 2015), centrifuge method (Schultz, 1988; Sengoz and Oylumluoglu, 2013; Stroup-Gardiner and Nelson, 2000) and vacuum method (Jones et al., 1969; State of California – Business, transportation and housing agency / California test 310, 2000; Texas DOT Tex-210-F, 2008). Automatic methods (Montepara and Giuliani, 1999) which use different machine models that are available on the market. They have several advantages due to the fast testing and satisfactory experimental working conditions in terms of safety.

Due to the reasons of asphalt content of HMA calculation for quality control and quality acceptance (QC/QA) testing, solvents are still desirable. A number of solvents have been used through the years (Burr et al., 1990). Carbon disulphide (CS₂) was initially used since the early 1900s (Bateman & Delp, 1927) followed by benzene (C₆H₆). Chlorinated solvents like trichloroethylene (TCE, C₂HCl₃), 1-1-1-trichloroethane (C₂H₃Cl₃) and dichloromethane (CH₂Cl₂) became very popular in the 1950s and 1960s (Cipione, Davison, Burr, Glover, & Bullin, 1991) after benzene has been proven to be carcinogenic and its use, bee phase out. TCE was later then found as effective as Benzene based on Abson and Buton (1960) research and thus it became the main replacement of Benzene. Traxler (1967) found that more binder is removed from aggregate when 10-15% of ethanol or methanol added to TCE is used. Cipione et al., 1991 has mentioned that the use of this combination become popular among many researchers at least in US. Several companies have introduced in the market various normal propyl bromide (nPB) solvents as direct substitutes for both TCE and TCA (M. Stroup-Gardiner & J.W. Nelson, 2000).

A number of researchers have shown in the past that asphalt is never completely removed from aggregate, regardless the solvent used. This incomplete extraction results in underestimating the asphalt content between 0.1 to 0.5% (Peterson et al., 1999). This retained asphalt result in significant changes in the recovered asphalt properties (M. Stroup-Gardiner et al., 1994). After extraction, recovery is important since the goal is to evaluate the final properties of the binder. There are two different state-of-the-art methods for

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binder recovery from solvent mixtures used in the European Union: EN 12697-3: Bitumen recovery: Rotary evaporator (2013) and EN 12697-4: Bitumen recovery: Fractionating column (2015). In the US, ASTM D1856: Standard test method for recovery of asphalt from solution by Abson method (ASTM, 2015), introduced in 1933 and ASTM D5404: Standard practice for recovery of asphalt from solution using the rotary evaporator (ASTM, 2012) are the two different methods used for binder recovery. Rotary evaporator is the most method used in EU and US. In his paper tilted recovery and testing of RAP binders from recycled asphalt pavements, Peterson et al., (2000) showed that the rotary evaporator method has to be preferred when it comes to binder tests. It is the method of choice and has been increasingly used since the 1970 because of fewer problems with residual solvent and lower heat need for recovery (Peterson et al., 1999). Rotary evaporator is more prefer to the Abson recovery method since subsequent research showed that the latter left enough residual solvent in the binder which leads to a significant reduction in binder stiffness (Peterson et al., 1999, Abson and Buton, 1960).

Ma Tao et al., 2008 conducted a study with the aim to verify the influence of trichloroethylene, mineral filler and temperature on the reclaimed SBS modified asphalt during the process of extraction and recovery experiments. Different test were then designed and carried out and the corresponding solutions for different influencing factors were presented so that the performance of SBS modified asphalt can be evaluated accurately. They found that the adoption of the upper part of extracting solution from the extraction equipment from Abson recovery experiment after natural sediment for more than 24 hours decrease the adverse effects from residual mineral filler while when there are no equipments for high speed centrifugal separation and pressure filtration. They also indicated after test results that the adverse effects from residual trichloroethylene can be decreased if the temperature of Abson recovery experiment can be reduced to less than 140°C, and the protection gas can be removed, when no condensing liquid trichloroethylene coming out from the end of the orifice of the condenser tube. Physical properties, including softening point, penetration, 15°C ductility and the 60°C dynamic viscosity have been carried out by (Liu Zhihui, 2012; Hu Xudong, 2003) on virgin and recovered blank pitch binders using trichloroethylene under well-defined operating conditions. The results obtained from the experiments showed that the penetration degree increased while the softening point and the 60°C viscosity decrease as well as the asphalt density when the asphalt is recovered. They concluded that the reduction of the physical properties of recovered binder is due to the non-completely removal of the solvent. To investigate the factors that affect the recovery of asphalt, the effect of the trichloroethylene and powder mineral

residue at four different percentages (0.5%, 1%, 1.5%, and 2%) on the asphalt properties has been analyzed. In this study, 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt were used to analyze the effect of residue on the properties of asphalt. A large number of experiments have shown that the possible residual residues for the recovery of asphalt from rotary evaporators include mineral filler and trichloroethylene, which are mainly aimed at the effects of residuals on the properties of asphalt. To investigate the factors that affect the recovery of asphalt, the effect of the trichloroethylene and powder mineral residue at four different percentages (0.5%, 1%, 1.5%, and 2%) on the asphalt properties has been analyzed. In this study, 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt were used to analyze the effect of residue on the properties of asphalt.

II. EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

Prior to the test, 150g of each type of asphalt is heated under constant temperature: 70# grade asphalt to about 150°C and SBS modified asphalt to about 160°C. Then, the desired content of trichloroethylene and mineral filler is added to the asphalt, and a glass rod is used to stir the asphalt. When the trichloroethylene is added, the quantity of trichloroethylene is needed to be quickly dispersed into the asphalt because of the rapid evaporation of trichloroethylene.

In this study, the ductility test is performed at 10°C for unaged 70# grade asphalt while it is at 5°C for unaged SBS modified asphalt. The dynamic shear rheometer test DSR is performed at 64°C for unaged 70# grade asphalt while it is 76°C for SBS bitumen. The penetration test temperature is at 25°C. The 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt were aged by the pressure aging vessel process (PAV), then the effect of extraction residue on the properties of aged asphalt was studied. After the PAV process, the ductility test temperature for both ageing asphalt is 10 °C.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

a) *Analysis of the Effect of Extraction Residue on the Properties of 70# grade asphalt and SBS Modified Asphalt*

i. *Effect of the extraction residue on softening point*

The effect of the extraction residue on the softening point of asphalt is shown from Fig. 1 to Fig. 4. It can be clearly seen that the softening point of both asphalt binders increases with the increase of mineral filler residue while it gradually decreases with increase in the amount of trichloroethylene. From the development of the trend line, it can be seen that the effect of the extraction residue on the softening point of the 70# grade asphalt is higher than that of SBS modified asphalt. From the numerical point of view for each 0.1% increase in mineral filler residue, the softening point of

70# grade asphalt increased by about 0.066°C while that of SBS modified asphalt increased by about 0.061 °C. An increase of 0.1% in trichloroethylene results to a decreased of 0.307 °C and 0.197 °C on the softening point of 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt respectively. It can be shown that the effect of mineral filler residue on the softening point of 70# grade asphalt

is close to that of SBS modified asphalt, but the effect of trichloroethylene on softening point of 70# grade asphalt is much greater than that of SBS modified asphalt. It can be concluded that the trichloroethylene has a greater effect on the softening point of the asphalt than the mineral filler.

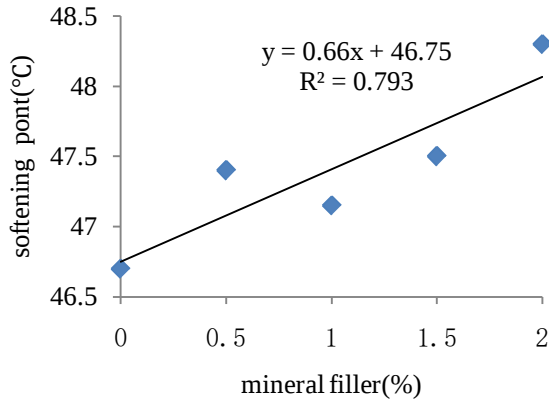


Fig. 1: Effect of mineral filler content on the softening point of 70# grade asphalt

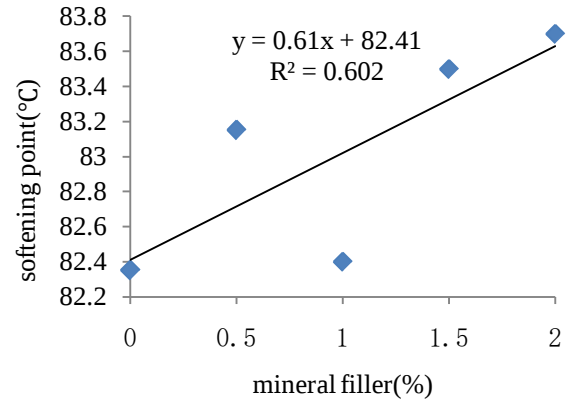


Fig. 2: Effect of mineral filler content on the softening point of SBS modified asphalt

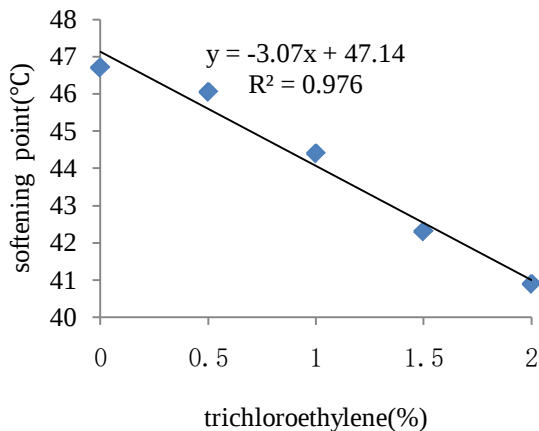


Fig. 3: Effect of trichloroethylene content on the softening point of 70# grade asphalt

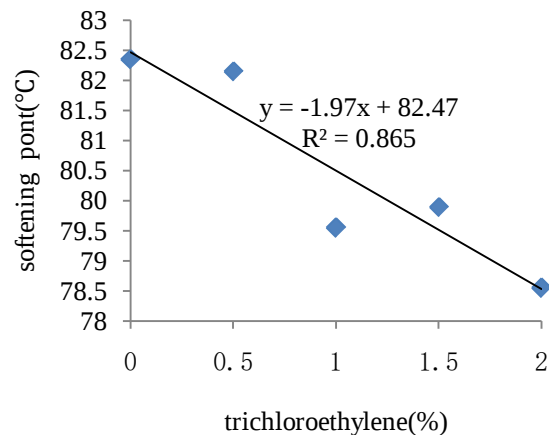


Fig. 4: Effect of trichloroethylene content on the softening point of SBS modified asphalt

ii. Effect of extraction residue on penetration

The effect of the extraction residue on the penetration of the asphalt is shown from Figures 5 to 8. It can be clearly seen that the penetration of both asphalt is gradually reduced with the increase of mineral filler residue content while it is the opposite trend with the increase in the amount of trichloroethylene. From the development of the trend line, the effect of extraction residue on the penetration of 70# grade asphalt is stronger than that of SBS modified asphalt. From the numerical point of view, the penetration rate of 70# grade asphalt decreased by about 0.237 (0.1mm) that of SBS modified asphalt decreased by about 0.120 (0.1mm) when the residue of mineral filler increased by

0.1%. With the increase of trichloroethylene by 0.1%, the penetration of 70# grade asphalt increased by about 3.991 (0.1mm) and that of SBS modified asphalt increased by about 0.921 (0.1mm). It can be explained that the influence of mineral filler residue on the penetration of 70# grade asphalt is much greater than that of SBS modified asphalt and the trichloroethylene effect is higher than that of mineral filler for both asphalt binders.

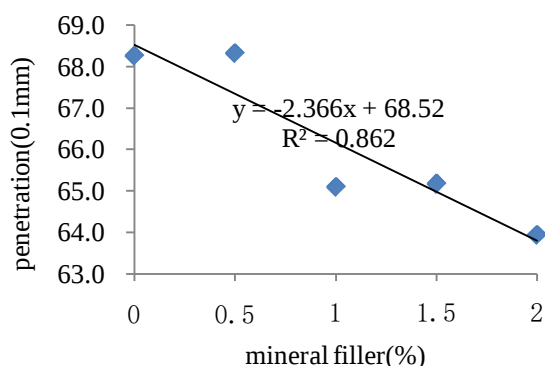


Fig. 5: Effect of mineral filler content on the penetration of 70# grade asphalt

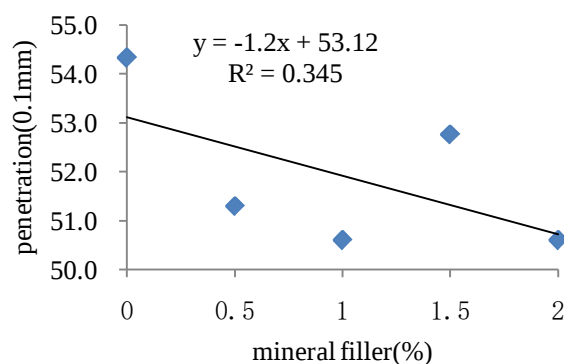


Fig. 6: Effect of mineral filler content on the penetration of SBS modified Asphalt

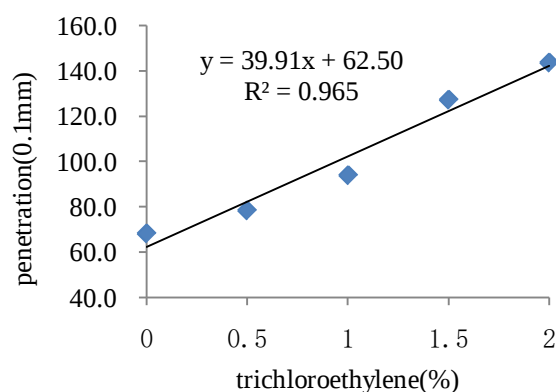


Fig. 7: Effect of trichloroethylene content on the penetration of 70# grade asphalt

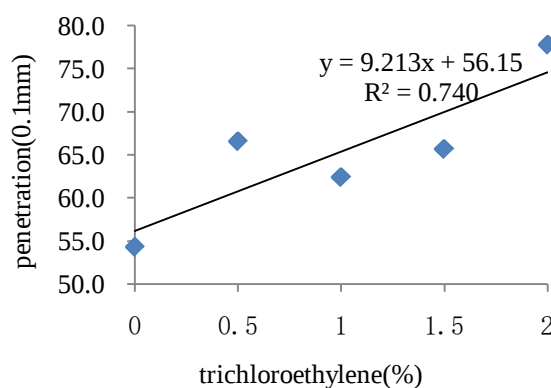


Fig. 8: Effect of trichloroethylene content on the penetration of SBS modified asphalt

iii. Effect of extraction residue on ductility

The effect of the extraction residue on the ductility of the asphalt is shown from Figures 9 to 12. It can be clearly seen that the ductility of 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt is gradually reduced with the increase of mineral filler while it is the opposite trend with the increase in the content of trichloroethylene. From the numerical point of view, each 0.1% increase in the mineral filler residue results in the decreased of 1.039cm and 0.15cm in the ductility of 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt respectively.

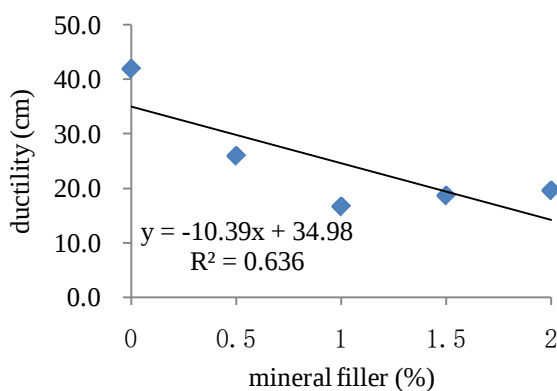


Fig. 9: Effect of mineral filler content on ductility of 70# grade asphalt

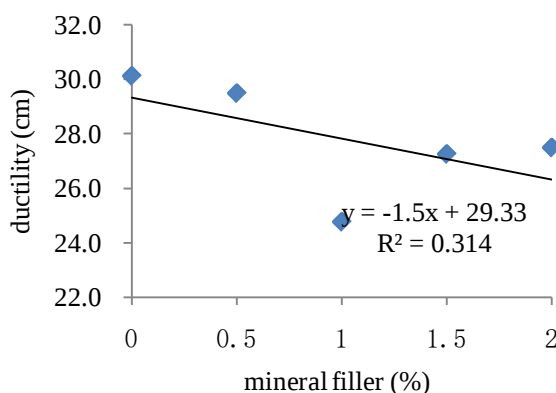


Fig. 10: Effect of mineral filler content on ductility of SBS modified asphalt

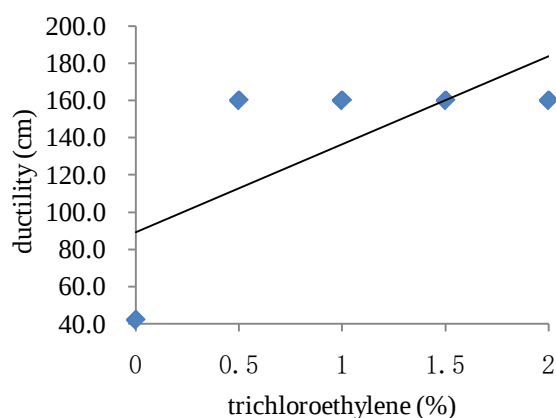


Fig. 11: Effect of trichloroethylene content on ductility of 70# grade asphalt

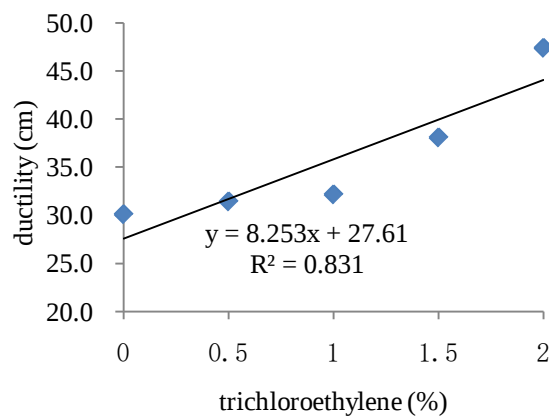


Fig. 12: Effect of trichloroethylene content on ductility of SBS modified asphalt

iv. Effect of extraction residue on rutting factor (DSR)

The effect of the extraction residue on the asphalt rutting factor is shown from Figures 13 to 16. It can be seen that the rutting factor of asphalt increases with the increase of mineral filler, and the rutting factor of 70# grade asphalt increases by about 14.4Pa for each 0.1% increase in mineral filler content while that of SBS

modified asphalt increases by about 8.9Pa. The rutting factor of asphalt has a significant downward trend with the increase in the amount of trichloroethylene. The rutting factor of 70# grade asphalt is reduced by about 42 Pa for each 0.1% increase in the amount of trichloroethylene and that of SBS modified asphalt is reduced by about 13.5 Pa.

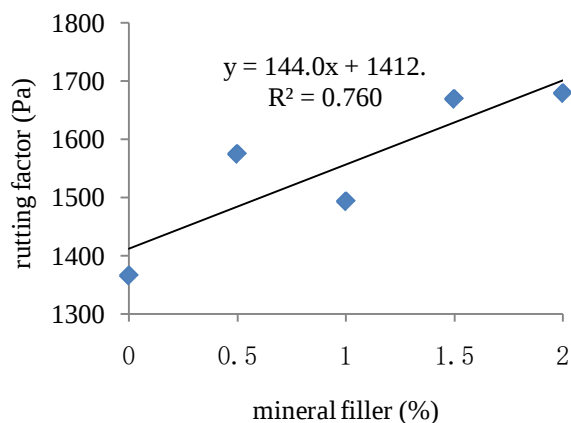


Fig. 13: Effect of mineral filler content on rutting factors of 70# grade asphalt

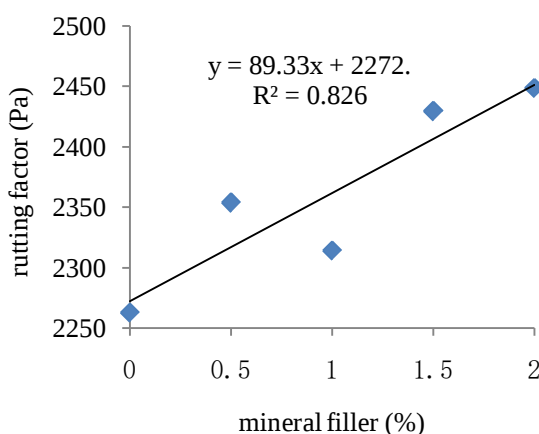


Fig. 14: Effect of mineral filler content on rutting factors of SBS modified asphalt

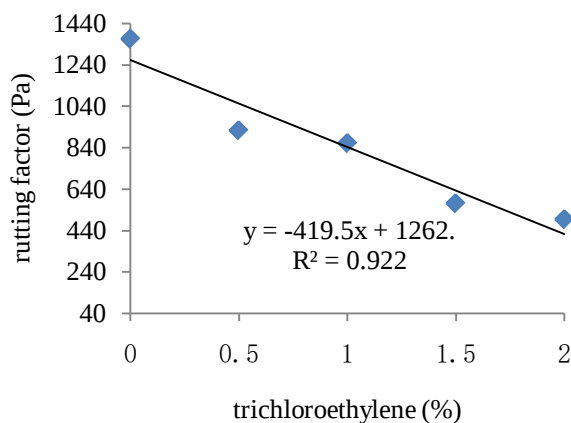


Fig. 15: Effect of trichloroethylene content on rutting factors of 70# grade asphalt

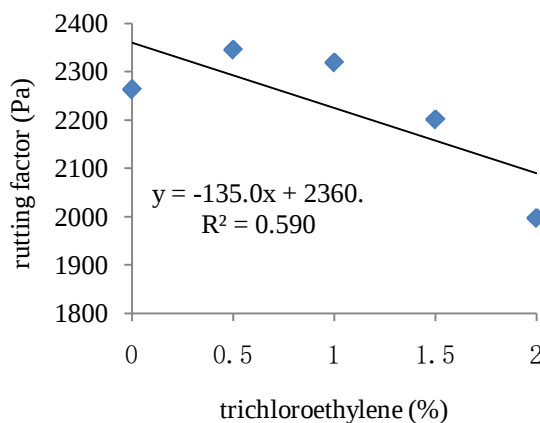


Fig. 16: Effect of trichloroethylene content on rutting factors of SBS modified asphalt

b) Analysis of the effect of extraction residue on the properties of 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt after ageing (PAV)

i. Effect of extraction residue on softening point

The effect of the extracted residue on the softening point of asphalt after PAV aging is shown from Fig. 17 to Fig. 20. It can be clearly seen that the softening point of the asphalt gradually increased with the increase of the content of the mineral filler. With the increase of the content of trichloroethylene, the softening point of the aged asphalt gradually decreases. From the numerical point of view, the softening point of 70# grade aging asphalt increased by about 0.019 °C, 0.3 times less than the temperature sensitivity of the unaged asphalt while that of the SBS aging asphalt increased by about 0.093 °C, 1.41 times more than the temperature sensitivity of the unaged asphalt for an increase of 0.1% of mineral filler. For an increase of

0.1% of trichloroethylene, the softening point of 70# grade aged asphalt decreased by about 0.238 °C, 0.78 times less than the temperature sensitivity of the unaged asphalt, the softening point of SBS modified asphalt decreased by about 0.098 °C, 0.5 times less than the temperature sensitivity of the unaged asphalt. It can be explained that the softening point of aged asphalt is different from that of unaged asphalt to the sensitivity of mineral residue and trichloroethylene. SBS aging asphalt is more sensitive, while the sensitivity of 70# grade aging asphalt is weaker. In addition, we can see that the softening point of the aging asphalt is more sensitive to trichloroethylene than the mineral filler. The experimental data on the effect of slag on the softening point of aging asphalt is more discrete than that of trichloroethylene. It is shown that if the extraction of asphalt contains mineral filler, it will affect the parallelism of the results of asphalt softening point test.

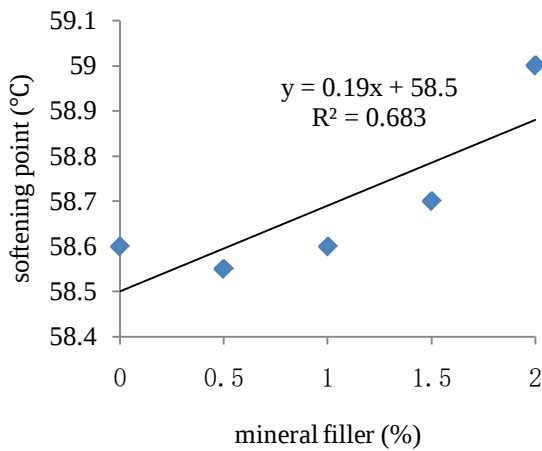


Fig. 17: Effect of mineral filler content on softening point of 70# grade asphalt

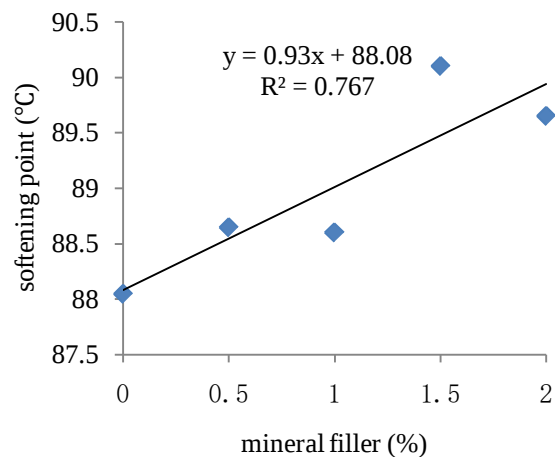


Fig. 18: Effect of mineral filler content on softening point of SBS modified asphalt

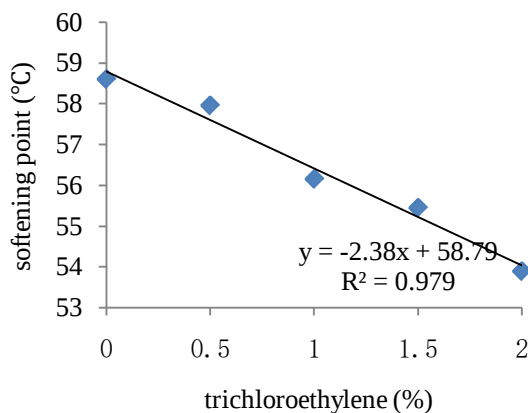


Fig. 19: Effect of trichloroethylene content on softening point of 70# grade asphalt

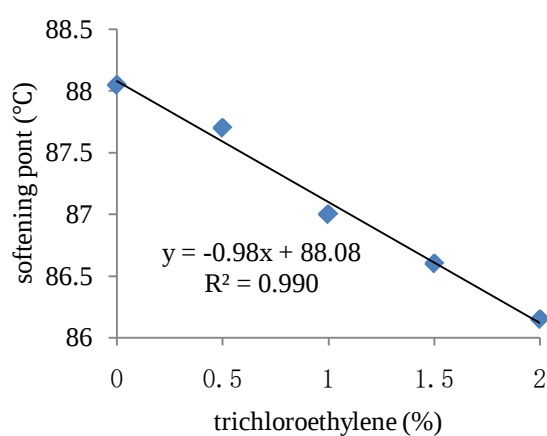


Fig. 20: Effect of trichloroethylene content on softening point of SBS modified asphalt

ii. Effect of extraction residue on penetration

The effect of the extraction residue on the penetration of PAV aged asphalt is shown from Fig. 21

to Fig. 24. It can be clearly seen that the penetration of aged asphalt decreases with the increase of the content of mineral filler. With the increase of the content of

trichloroethylene, the penetration of aged asphalt increases gradually. From the point of view, the increase in mineral filler content by 0.1%, the penetration of the 70# grade aging asphalt reduce by about 0.033 (0.1mm), is less 0.14 times than the temperature sensitivity of the original asphalt; the penetration SBS modified asphalt reduction of about 0.120 (0.1 mm), which is twice less sensitive as the original asphalt. For every 0.1 % increase in the residual amount of trichloroethylene, the penetration of 70# grade ageing

asphalt increased by about 0.75 (0.1mm), 0.19 times the sensitivity of the original bitumen. The penetration of SBS modified asphalt increases by about 0.27 (0.1mm), which is 0.289 times of the original asphalt sensitivity. It can be explained that the needle penetration index of aging asphalt is less sensitive than that of the original bitumen to the amount of trichloroethylene and mineral filler. The effect of mineral filler on the penetration of aging asphalt is also discretized, as well as the parallelism of the softening point of the aging asphalt.

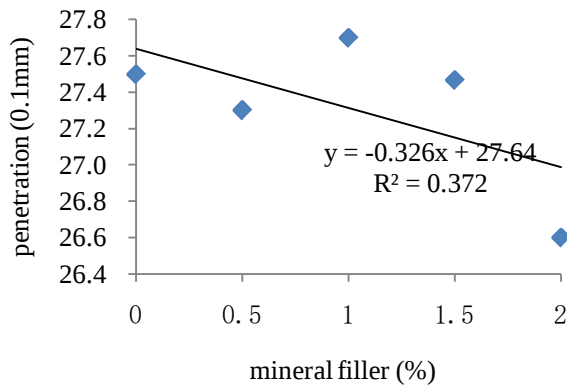


Fig. 21: Effect of mineral filler content on penetration of 70# grade asphalt

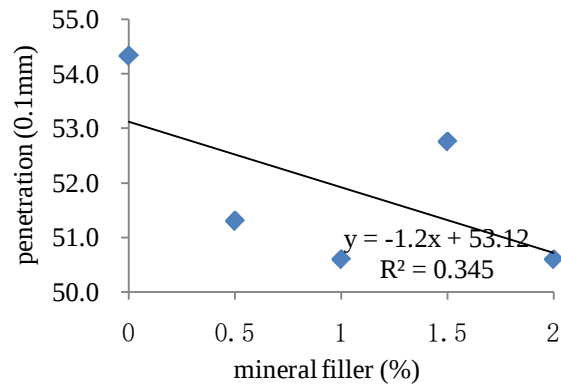


Fig. 22: Effect of mineral filler content on penetration of SBS modified asphalt

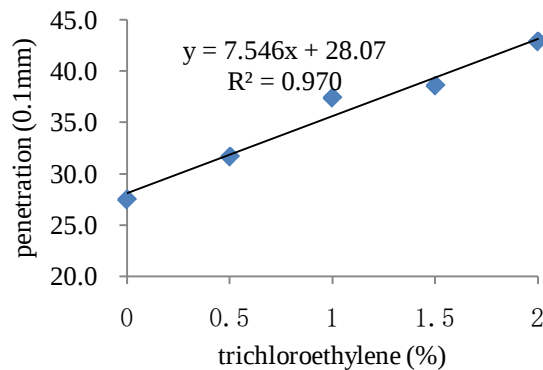


Fig. 23: Effect of trichloroethylene content on penetration of 70# grade asphalt

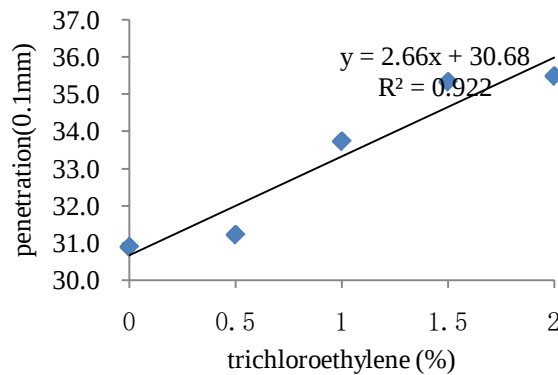


Fig. 24: Effect of trichloroethylene content on penetration of SBS modified asphalt

iii. Effect of extraction residue on ductility

The effects of extraction residues on the ductility of aging asphalt are shown from Fig.25 to Fig.28. It can be clearly seen that the ductility of aging asphalt is gradually reduced with the increase of the mineral filler. With the increase of the residual amount of trichloroethylene, it increased. From the numerical point of view, the increase of 0.1% in mineral filler results in decreased by about 0.011cm on the 15°C ductility of 70# grade aging asphalt, 0.0106 times less than the temperature sensitivity of the unaged 70# grade asphalt; and the 10°C ductility of SBS modified is about 0.053cm, 0.35 times less sensitive than that of the original asphalt. The 10°C ductility of 70# grade aging asphalt increased

by 0.294cm with the increased by 0.1% of amount of trichloroethylene, while the 10°C ductility of the original asphalt can increase from 41.9cm to a value greater than 160cm as long as the 0.5% of trichloroethylene is added. When the content of trichloroethylene is 0.5%, 10°C ductility of SBS aging asphalt increases from 12.7cm to 13.2cm, while that of original asphalt increases from 30.1cm to 31.5cm. Relatively speaking, asphalt aging reduces the sensitivity to trichloroethylene and mineral content. The effect of mineral filler on the stiffness of the asphalt is still discrete relative to the effect of trichloroethylene, which will also affect the parallelism of the results of the ductility test.

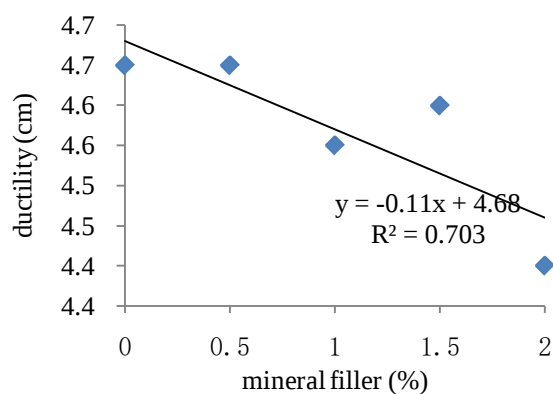


Fig. 25: Effect of mineral content on ductility of 70# grade asphalt

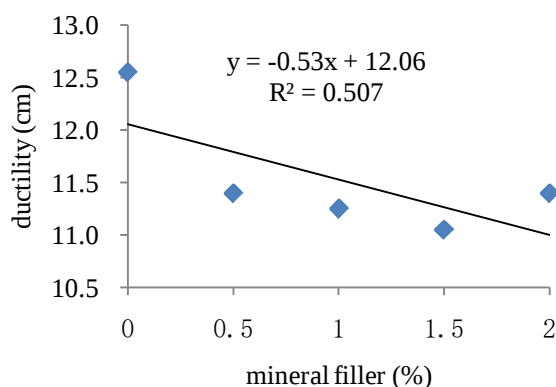


Fig. 26: Effect of mineral content on ductility of SBS modified asphalt

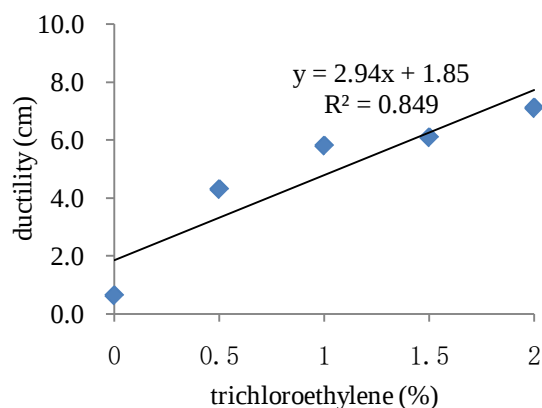


Fig. 27: Effect of trichloroethylene content on ductility of 70# grade asphalt

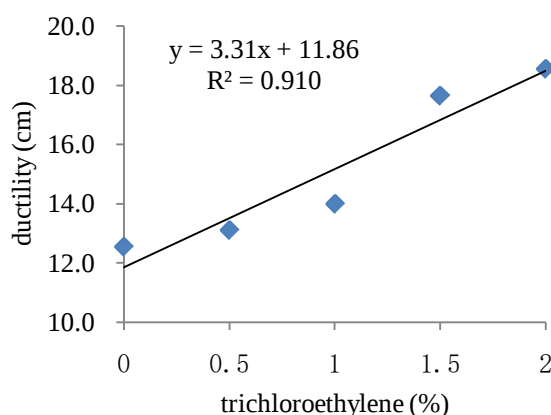


Fig. 28: Effect of trichloroethylene content on ductility of SBS modified asphalt

iv. Effects of extraction residue on rutting factors (DSR)

The influence of the extraction residue on the rutting factor of aged asphalt is shown from Fig.29 to Fig 32. It can be seen that the rutting factor of asphalt aging gradually increased with 0.1% increase of the mineral filler content, the rutting factor of the 70# grade aging asphalt increased about 35.53 Pa, is 2.5 times that of the original asphalt sensitivity; the rut factor of SBS aging asphalt increased about 1.72 Pa, 0.2 times

that of the same original asphalt sensitivity. Rutting factor of aging asphalt has significant decline along with the increasing trichloroethylene every 0.1% increase in trichloroethylene results in 130.9 Pa of the 70# grade asphalt, which is 3.12 times the sensitivity rut factor of the original asphalt; the ruts factor of the ageing SBS modified asphalt is 48.5 Pa, 3.59 times that of the sensitivity rut factor of the original asphalt.

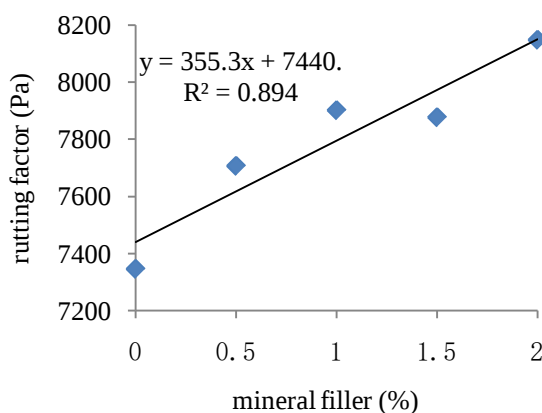


Fig. 29: Effect of mineral content on rutting factor of 70# grade asphalt

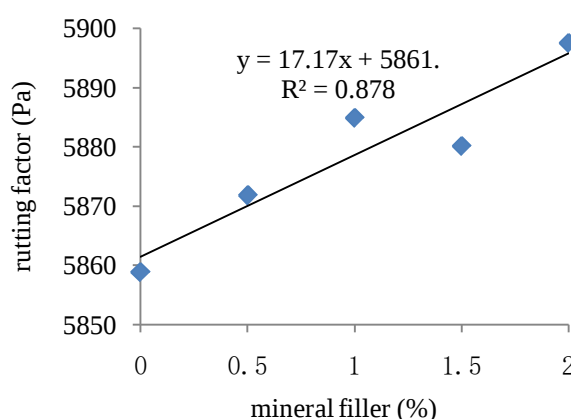


Fig. 30: Effect of mineral content on rutting factor of SBS modified asphalt

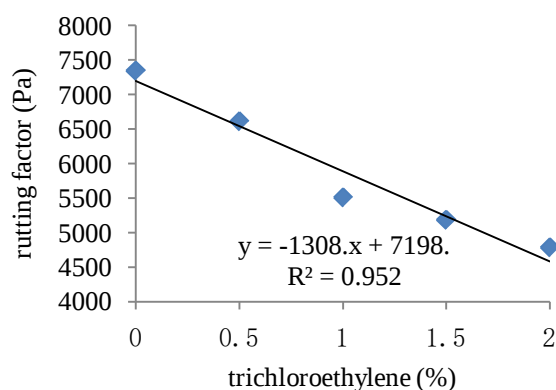


Fig. 31: Effect of trichloroethylene content on rutting factor of 70# grade asphalt

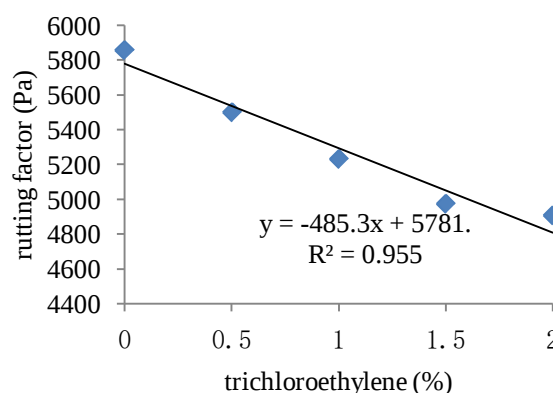


Fig. 32: Effect of trichloroethylene content on rutting factor of SBS modified asphalt

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, the effect of the trichloroethylene and powder mineral residue at four different percentages (0.5%, 1%, 1.5%, and 2%) on the 70# grade asphalt and SBS modified asphalt properties has been analyzed. The following conclusions have been drawn:

1. Trichloroethylene reduces the softening point and rutting factors of the asphalt, increasing the penetration and ductility of the asphalt; the mineral filler residual reduces the asphalt ductility and penetration, and improves the softening point and rutting factor.
2. Under the same amount of extraction residue, the trichloroethylene has more influence on the penetration, softening point, ductility and rutting factor of asphalt than mineral filler.
3. The influence of trichloroethylene on the properties of 70# grade asphalt is greater than that of SBS modified asphalt. The influence of mineral filler on the properties of two kinds of asphalt is quite equivalent.
4. The effect of extraction residue on the properties of 70# grade asphalt is better, and its effect on SBS modified asphalt is poor.
5. Most of the indicators indexes of ageing asphalt are less sensitive to extraction residue than original asphalt.
6. When the content of the mineral filler is small, it cannot uniformly influence the asphalt when it is dispersed. The mineral filler will affect the parallelism of the asphalt index test results, and the test results will be relatively discrete. It has then a little effect on the test result.

V. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Special thanks to the Sichuan provincial Transport Department Highway Planning Survey, Design, And Research Institute by providing the required materials and devices needed to ensure that this work is successfully accomplished.

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An Approach to Determine the Initial Shear Modulus of Clean Sandy Soils

By Mehmet I. Onur, Seyfettin U. Umu, Volkan Okur & Mustafa Tuncan

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Keywords: *toyoura sand; resonant column test; shear modulus; dynamic loading, empirical equation.*

GJRE-E Classification: *FOR Code: 090599*



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An Approach to Determine the Initial Shear Modulus of Clean Sandy Soils

Mehmet I. Onur ^α, Seyfettin U. Umu ^σ, Volkan Okur ^ρ & Mustafa Tuncan ^ω

Abstract- This study presents new empirical equations to estimate the initial shear modulus of clean sands under low strains by using soft computing methods. A series of resonant column tests were conducted on clean sand specimens. The effect of various factors, such as effective stress, saturation degree, void ratio and shear strain levels, were considered by using fuzzy expert systems, neural networks and regression analysis. A new empirical equation was developed to determine the initial shear modulus of clean sand samples and compared with the existing empirical relationships in the literature. Success of the new equation was increased by considering boundary conditions at the shear strain ranges given by the ASTM standards for the resonant column test. It was found that the new formulation has a high level accuracy for determining the initial shear modulus of Toyoura sand samples. And also it can be used for clean sandy soils having similar properties. It was suggested that new approaches can be developed by using soft computing techniques to identify the dynamic shear modulus of sandy soils.

Keywords: *toyoura sand; resonant column test; shear modulus; dynamic loading, empirical equation.*

1. INTRODUCTION

The maximum shear modulus, $G_{\max}(\gamma < 5 \times 10^{-4}\%)$, provides information about the soil strength and rigidity in cyclic loading. Shear modulus of various soils at very small levels of strains can be called maximum shear modulus, initial shear modulus, or low-amplitude shear modulus, and denoted by $G_{\max}$ or G_0 (Ishihara, 2003). Shear modulus is generally determined by field tests or by laboratory tests, such as resonant column (RC), dynamic triaxial and bender element methods (Youn et al. 2008). The shear modulus can be measured at strain levels between 10^{-4} and 10^{-1} by performing resonant column test.

There are many equation and various experimental relationships proposed for the determination of the initial shear modulus of sandy soils in the literature. The most popular empirical equation based on laboratory experiments is presented by Hardin and Drnevich (1972a-b). Although these tests provide adequate results, preparing high quality undisturbed samples and simulating field conditions are the main problems in the laboratory testing. Altun and

Goktepe (2006) emphasized the deficiencies of the laboratory test on the cyclic response of soils, such as reconstitution of non-cohesive samples and the unidentified geological stress history affect. Cyclic testing to simulate the real cyclic response is also expensive and requires much time. Alternatively, the dynamic properties of soils can be determined by using soft computing techniques, such as artificial intelligence based on field or laboratory data (Hasal and Iyisan, 2014). However, artificial intelligence (AI) cannot fully simulate the complex response of the systems; the use of AI technologies, such as fuzzy logic, neural networks, evolutionary computations, and expert systems, provides partial simulations. In addition, using these methods provides effective feasibility analysis, early decisions and so on (Akbulut et al. 2004).

Engineers generally prefer AI applications due to the creation of non-linear mappings between the input and output variables in optimum time and cost. As a result, many researchers began to use AI applications to evaluate dynamic soil parameters. Cabalar et al. (2012), Heider et al. (2014), and Umu et al. (2016) compared different AI models to predict the shear modulus and damping ratio of sandy mixtures. Shanpo et al. (2012) and Ghorbani et al. (2012) created a database based on laboratory tests of sand mixtures to determine the dynamic response and liquefaction potential. Shahnazari et al. (2010) generalized formulations to simulate the strain-stress curves and the modeled dynamic stress-strain behavior of sands by using AI-based genetic programming. It can be concluded from many published studies that AI models well describe the dynamic characteristics of soils.

Many previous study showed that the dynamic behavior of sandy soils are affected by various factors, such as water content, void ratio (relative density), confining stress, particle shape and soil fabric (Salgado et al. 2000). In this study, to determine the dynamic behavior using AI-based genetic applications, a series of RC tests were conducted on reconstituted sand samples. Clean sand samples were prepared under fully saturated, partially saturated and dry conditions. The tests were conducted under undrained and stress-controlled conditions. The input variable data (void ratio, effective stress, shear strain, and saturation degree) were obtained from the tests and used by soft computing techniques to evaluate the output parameters (resonant frequency and shear modulus). A

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new empirical equation was developed and compared with the existing equations in the literature according to its accuracy level.

II. EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

A resonant column (RC) test device was used to determine the cyclic response of the reconstituted sand samples. The resonant column method is used to determine the dynamic properties of soils, concrete, and rocks with respect to the theory of wave propagation. The details of the resonant column tests are explained by Drnevich(1985) and in the Standard of ASTM D 4015-87(2000).

The RC test configuration used in this study is a fixed-free system, in which the sample is fixed at the bottom and is free to rotate at the top. The wave velocity and the degree of material damping can be determined by measuring the motion of the free end. Then, the shear modulus is derived from the velocity and the density of the sample. The bottom of the specimen is fixed to the base of the apparatus. Sinusoidal torsional excitation is applied to the top of the specimen by an electric motor system. A torsional harmonic load with a constant amplitude is applied over a range of frequencies, and the response curve (strain amplitude) is calculated. The output angular acceleration at the top

of the sample is recorded by an accelerometer. The frequency of the cyclic torque is gradually changed until the first resonance of torsional vibration is obtained. The shear wave velocity is obtained from the first-mode resonant frequency. The initial shear modulus for shear strain ranging from 0.001-0.009% to 0.01-0.023% is then calculated using the shear wave velocity and the density of the sample.

Standard uniform Toyoura sand was chosen for the study to allow for easy comparison with the literature. Index and shear strength parameters of Toyoura sand is taken from different studies in the literature. Some basic characteristics are given in Table 1. The test specimens were solid cylindrical samples with an approximate diameter of 50 mm and a height of 130-135 mm. The initial relative density and saturation degree are the most important factors regarding the cyclic behavior of sandy soils. Therefore, the test samples were prepared at different initial void ratios and saturation degrees. Two methods of sample preparation, dry deposition (for dry samples) and moist placement (for partially saturated and fully saturated samples), were preferred because of time consuming by these methods. The experimental details of the study are shown in Table 2.

Table 1: Basic characteristics of Toyoura sand

Material	Toyoura Sand
D_{50} (mm)	0.26
D_{10} (mm)	0.21
C_u	1.33
C_c	0.98
G_s	2.653
ρ_{maks} (Mg/m ³)	1.34
ρ_{min} (Mg/m ³)	1.64
e_{maks}	0.97
e_{min}	0.597
c (kPa)	4
ϕ	39°

D_{10} = diameter corresponding 10% finer, D_{50} = corresponding 50%, finer, C_u = coefficient of uniformity, C_c = coefficient of curvature, ρ : bulk density, e_{maks} , e_{min} = maximum and minimum void ratio, c =cohesion, ϕ =angle of shear strength;

Table 2: Details of the experiments performed in the study

	(e_{int})	σ'_o (kPa)	%Dr	H_{sample} (mm)	R_{sample} (mm)	% S_r	% γ
Max.	0.7959	348.8	47.66	135	50	99.98	0.04
Min.	0.6166	25.8	94.85	130	50	0	0.001

III. MODEL STUDY

Many real-world problems cannot be solved by using conventional approaches because of an inadequate amount of time. Therefore, various soft computing techniques using predictive modeling are preferred for such problems. In particular, fuzzy logic and neural networks are the most popular and widely used techniques because of their benefits in modeling.

a) Generation of the fuzzy expert system (FES)

Fuzzy modeling offers control mechanisms for problems that have uncertainties and building solution steps. A multi-level decision-making mechanism provides an expert system with a knowledge base, an inference mechanism, and a user interface, although with a varying number of elements (Zadeh, 1994, Jang et. al. 1997). In this study, Math Works MATLAB software was used for fuzzy membership functions and rules. The

structure of the fuzzy expert system was created by using the MATLAB Fuzzy Logic Toolbox for all test results. In this study, the input variables were void ratio, effective stress, shear strain amplitude, saturation degree, and the output variables were resonant frequency and maximum shear modulus. The next step

was definition of the fuzzy rules to perform fuzzy reasoning. The fuzzy rules were constructed on an “if-then” structure, in which they provided the conditional statements that comprised the fuzzy logic. The “if-then” statements are defined as follows:

$$R: \text{IF value } x=A_i \text{ and } y=B_i \text{ and } z=C_i \text{ THEN } n = D_i \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, k) \quad (1)$$

where x , y , and z are the input variables, and n is the output parameter described by fuzzy subsets. Two hundred and ten rules were written for the shear

modulus and the resonant frequency. The abbreviations of the membership functions are given in Table 3.

Table 3: Abbreviations and meanings of the membership functions (FES)

Linguistic Rule	Abbreviations
Extremely High	VR7, EP6, G8, V6, FR7
Very High	VR6, EP5, SS5, G7, V5, FR6
High	VR5, EP4, SS4, G6, V4, FR5
Medium High	G5
Medium	VR4, SS3, FR4
Medium Low	G4
Low	VR3, EP3, SS2, G3, V3, FR3
Very Low	VR2, EP2, SS1, G2, V2, FR2
Extremely Low	VR1, EP1, G1, V1, FR1

The output parameters related with each input variable were evaluated by using the test results. The percentages of the weighted output parameters were calculated and defined in the form of “if-then” statements. A total of 516 rules for the maximum shear modulus, 492 rules for the resonant frequency were defined with this way.

The rules were defined according to the MATLAB Fuzzy Logic Toolbox to construct the FES variables. Two built-in AND methods, min (minimum) and prod (product), and two built-in OR methods, max (maximum) and probor (probabilistic OR method), were used to evaluate the values of the resonant frequency and the maximum shear modulus. The best recall performances of the FES indicate that the system has an acceptable performance. The determination value (R^2) for the resonance frequency and the maximum shear modulus are shown in Fig. 2(a) and Fig. 2(b), respectively.

b) Generation of the Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs)

An artificial neural network is a soft computing technique that provides information processing by using the simulation of nerve cells and networks (Fahman, 1988). In this study, a supervised learning network using feed forward back propagation was performed. Alyuda NeuroIntelligence (ANI) software was used to design the structure of the neural network, and the network was compared with the other structures created by MATLAB. Various results were observed by selecting different layers and neurons. The dataset was formed by randomly separation method into training and validation.

Hence, 226 tests were used for validation and 485 tests were used for training and is given in Fig. 1.

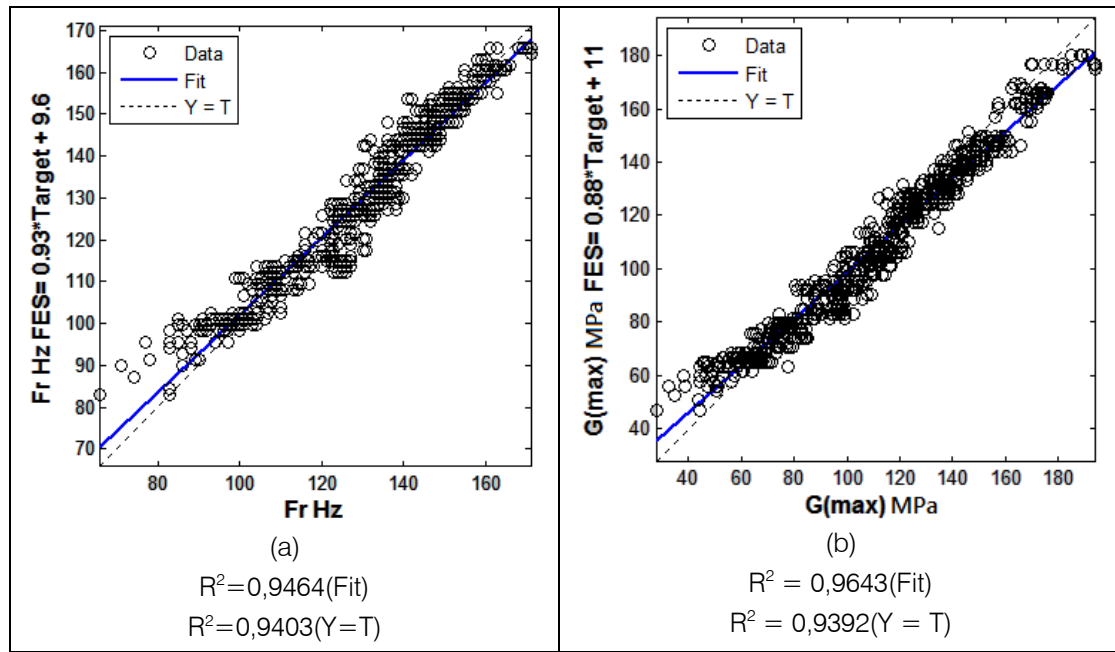


Fig. 1: Inference results: (a) resonant frequency and (b) maximum shear modulus

The Levenberg-Marquardt (LM) algorithm was used to train all the networks. LM was used because the algorithm is known as the optimum training algorithm and gives a virtual standard in nonlinear optimization. LM is a pseudo-second-order method, i.e., it does not only work with function evaluations and gradient information but also it estimates the Hessian matrix using the sum of the outer products of the gradients. LM quickly minimizes the error function and uses the Jacobian matrix instead of the Hessian matrix. The parameter, μ , is the Marquardt parameter, used in the calculation of the Hessian matrix (Hagan and Menhaj 1994).

$$H(n) = J^T(n)J(n) + \mu I \quad (2)$$

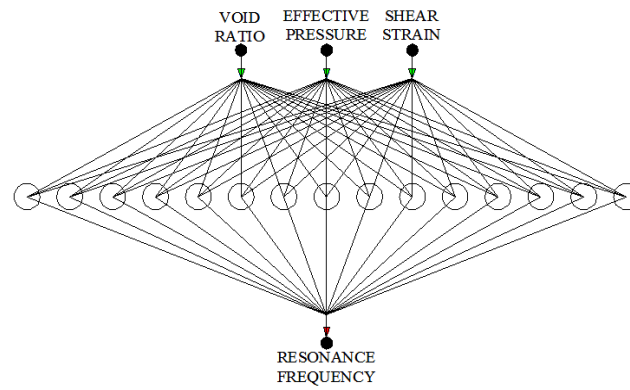
The weights and bias values are updated as follows:

$$w(n+1) = w(n) - (H)^{-1}J^T(n)e(n) \quad (3)$$

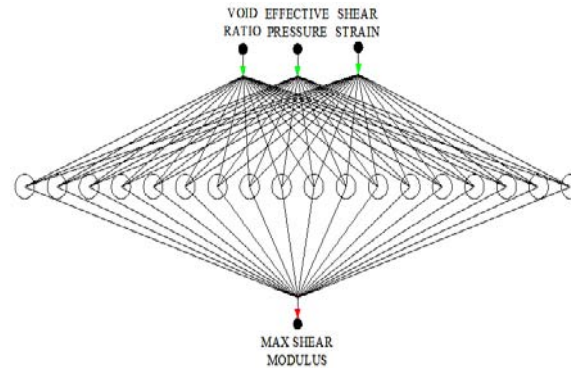
The data for the input and output parameters are given in Table 4. An exhaustive search option in the ANI was used to choose the input variables. The optimal NN architecture was found as 3-15-1 NN architecture for resonant frequency and 3-18-1 NN architecture for shear modulus. The NN architectures created by using Matlab NN are shown in Fig.2.

Table 4: Input and output parameter data

Total Sample:711	e_{int}	$\sigma_o'(kPa)$	$\gamma(\%)$	$S_r(\%)$	f_r	$G_{max}(MPa)$	$V_s(m/sn)$
Column Type	Input	Input	Input	Input	Output	Output	Output
Format	Numerical	Numerical	Numerical	Numerical	Numerical	Numerical	Numerical
Scaling Range	[-1...1]	[-1...1]	[-1...1]	[-1...1]	[0...1]	[0...1]	[0...1]
Min	0.6166	25.8	0.001	0	66	27.97	120.34
Max	0.7959	348.8	0.04	99.98	171	193.92	343.83
Mean	0.733718	150.83884	0.005447	60.76166	130.734177	112.976414	248.98495
Std. Deviation	0.046822	75.95824	0.006556	46.54837	21.815257	35.981497	45.01604



Architecture Fitness $R^2 = 0.98[3-15-1]$

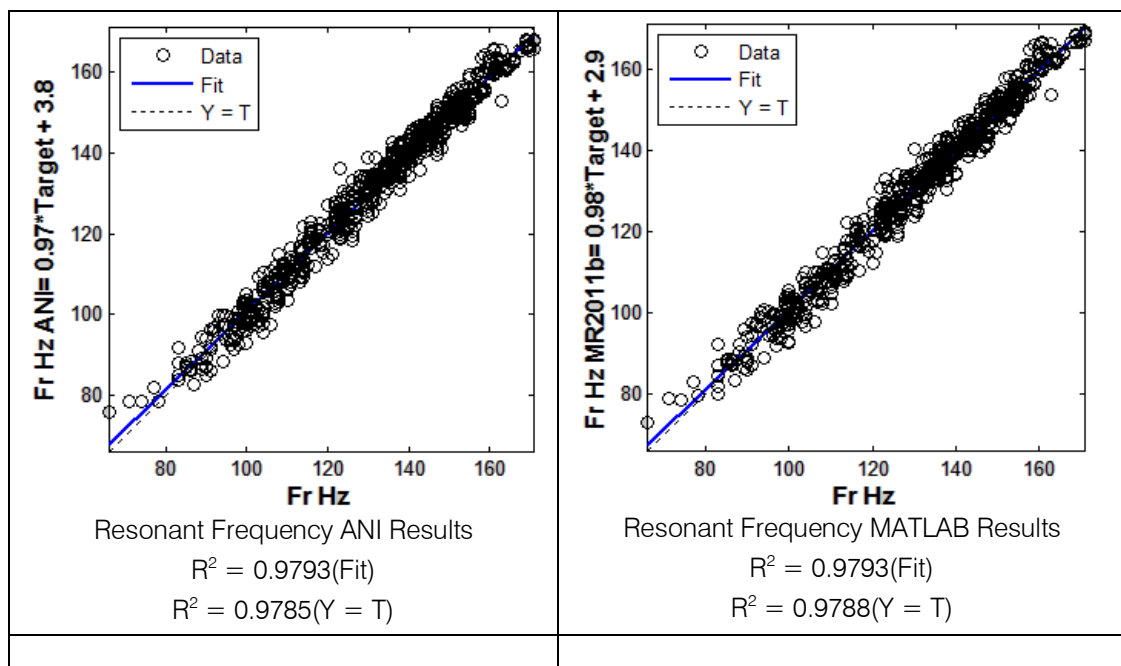


Architecture Fitness $R^2 = 0.99[3-18-1]$

Fig. 2: The network structure for the considered dynamic properties

The same input variables were used and the linearity of the relationship between the parameters for the single-layer structure was found to be acceptable. The coefficients of determination value (R^2) ($Y=T$) are 0.9785 and 0.9787 for the ANI predictions of resonance

frequency and maximum shear modulus, respectively, which implies a significant value for R^2 and hence a good performance for the whole model. The results are presented in Fig.3.



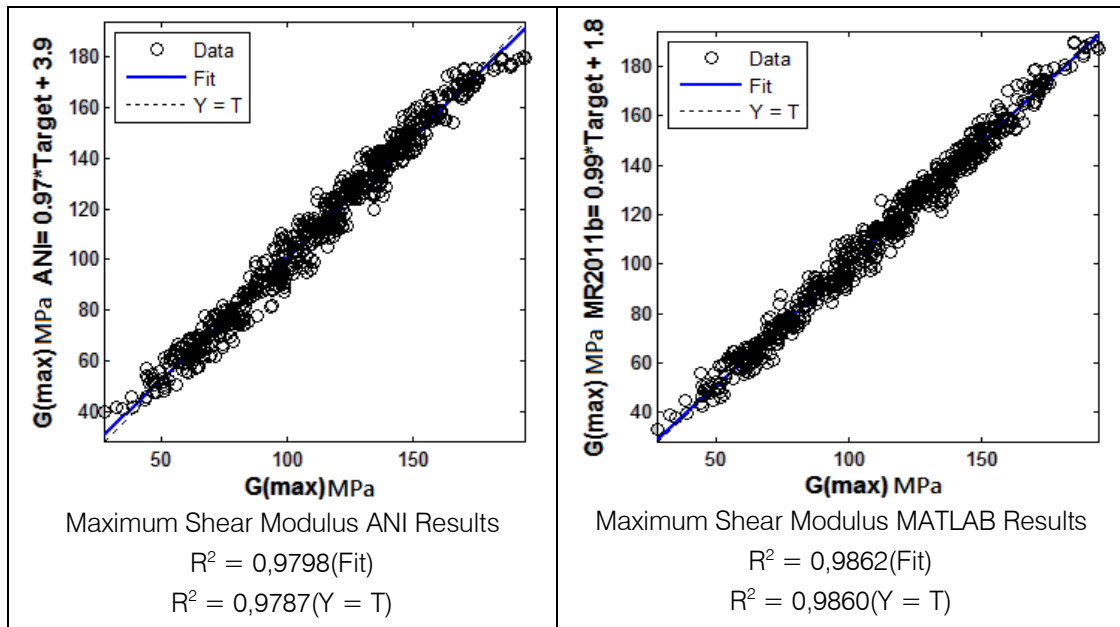


Fig. 3: Neural network results for the considered dynamic properties

c) Generation of the Empirical Equation

The shear strain level is an important factor on the shear modulus. It is already known that the resonant column experiments are capable by achieving shear strain within an amplitude range of 10^{-6} - 10^{-3} (Ishihara 2003). In any type of laboratory test, the shear modulus of cohesionless soils at low strain is measured under different effective confining stresses (σ'_0) for various conditions presented by different void ratios (e). In the early works by Hardin and Richart (1972a-b), the effect of void ratio is found to be expressed by a function $F(e)$:

$$F(e) = \frac{(2,17-e)^2}{1+e} \text{ or } F(e) = \frac{(2,97-e)^2}{1+e} \quad (4)$$

Thus, it is appropriate to divide the measured shear modulus ($G_{\max}$) by the function $F(e)$ and plot this

ratio against the effective confining stress applied in the test (Kokusho 1987). The amplitude of the shear strain is obtained by converting the axial strain in the triaxial test through the following relationship:

$$\gamma_a = (1 + \nu) \varepsilon_a \quad (5)$$

A number of similar formulas are proposed for various sand types, as shown in Table 5; however, most of these formulas can be expressed in the general form of Eq.(5). (Kokusho 1987) For a sufficient small shear strain of $\gamma_a = 10^{-5}$, a typical formula is specified as Eq.(6):

$$G_0 = AF(e)(\sigma'_0)^n \quad (6)$$

$$G_0 = 8400 \frac{(2,17-e)^2}{1+e} (\sigma'_0)^{0.5} \quad (7)$$

Table 5: Selected empirical relationships for various sand types

References	A	F(e)	n	Soil Material	Test Method
Hardin-Richart (1963)	7000 3300	$(2,17 - e)^2 / (1 + e)$ $(2,97 - e)^2 / (1 + e)$	0,5 0,5	Round Grained Ottawa Sand Angular Grained Crashed Quartz	Resonant Column
Shibata-Soelarno (1975)	42000	$(0,67 - e) / (1 + e)$	0,5	Three types of clean sand	Ultrasonic Pulse
Iwasaki et.al. (1978)	9000	$(2,17 - e)^2 / (1 + e)$	0,38	Eleven types of clean sand	Resonant Column
Kokusho (1980)	8400	$(2,17 - e)^2 / (1 + e)$	0,5	Toyoura Sand	Cyclic Triaxial
Yu-Richart (1984)	7000	$(2,17 - e)^2 / (1 + e)$	0,5	Three types of clean sand	Resonant Column
G_0 :kPa; σ'_0 :kPa; e: void ratio					

In this study, the experimental results were compared with the existing empirical relationships for the initial shear modulus obtained by performing various

test devices for several types of sands at the shear strain of 10^{-5} . All the results ($0.001 \leq \gamma\% \leq 0.04$) of the empirical relationships were recomputed using the void

ratio and the effective stress from the test results. The empirical relationship for the shear modulus given by Kokusho(1987) was found more appropriate for the values obtained from the test results in the range of the shear strain amplitude. The comparison between

experimental results and literature is shown in Fig.4. The experimental test results were found to be in excellent agreement with the literature at a small shear strain amplitude.

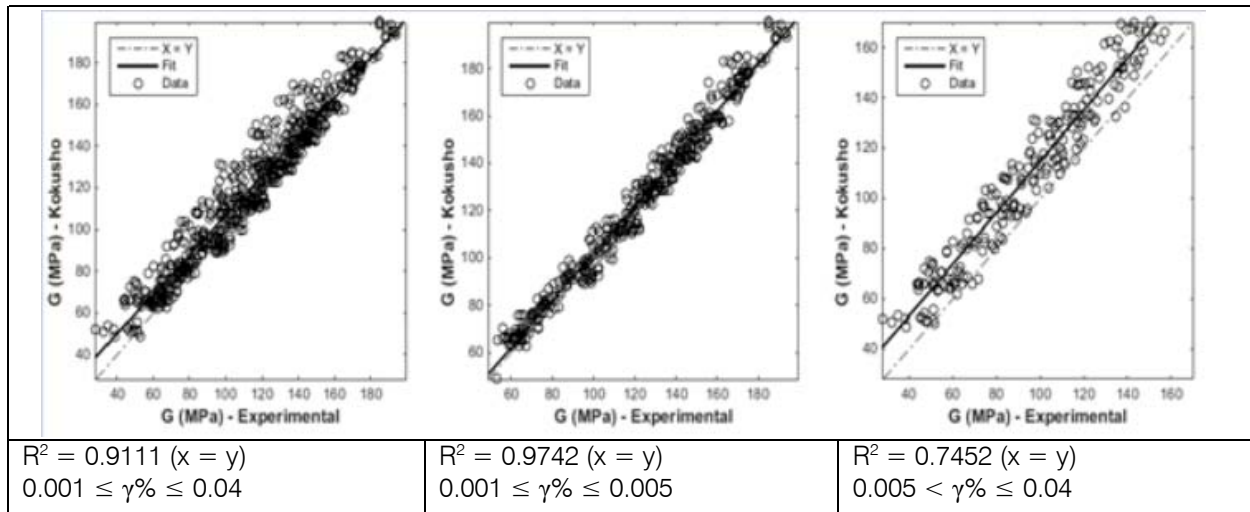


Fig. 4: Suitability of the experimental results and the Kokusho equation

A new empirical relationship for the initial shear modulus was derived from the experimental studies at different shear strain levels by considering test data, the fuzzy expert system and the neural network results. Dynamic responses of soils can be determined at strain levels between 10^{-6} and 10^{-2} by different test methods. But, decrease in shear modulus is observed from %0.005 strain levels to %0.0001 strain levels in the previous studies. Accuracy of the new equation was increased by considering boundary conditions at the shear strain ranges given by the ASTM standards for the resonant column test. Therefore, a new relationship to determine the initial shear modulus was divided into two parts given by Eq.(8) and Eq.(9).

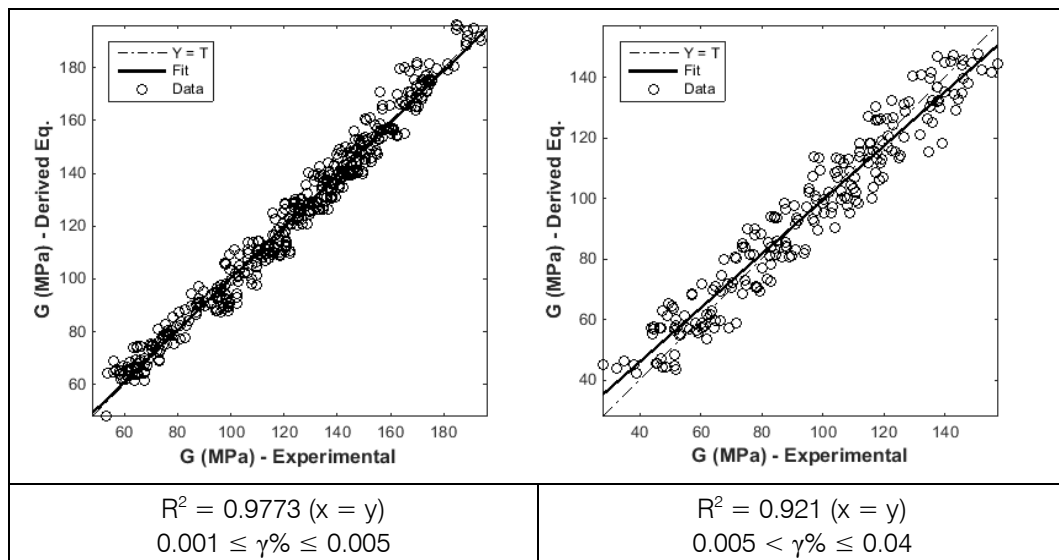
In the range of $0.001 \leq \gamma\% \leq 0.005$, the equation is given below,

$$G_0 = 8254 \frac{(2.17-e)^2}{1+e} (\sigma'_0)^{0.49} \quad (8)$$

In the range of $0.005 < \gamma\% \leq 0.04$, the equation is given below,

$$G_0 = 7294 \frac{(2.17-e)^2}{1+e} (\sigma'_0)^{0.49} \quad (9)$$

The coefficients of determination value (R^2) ($Y=T$) are 0.9767 and 0.9362, respectively. Using these two equations for the prediction of the initial shear modulus, which implies a significant value for R^2 and indicates good performance for the whole model. The suitability of the derived empirical relationship according to the variation of the shear strain amplitude is shown in Fig.5.



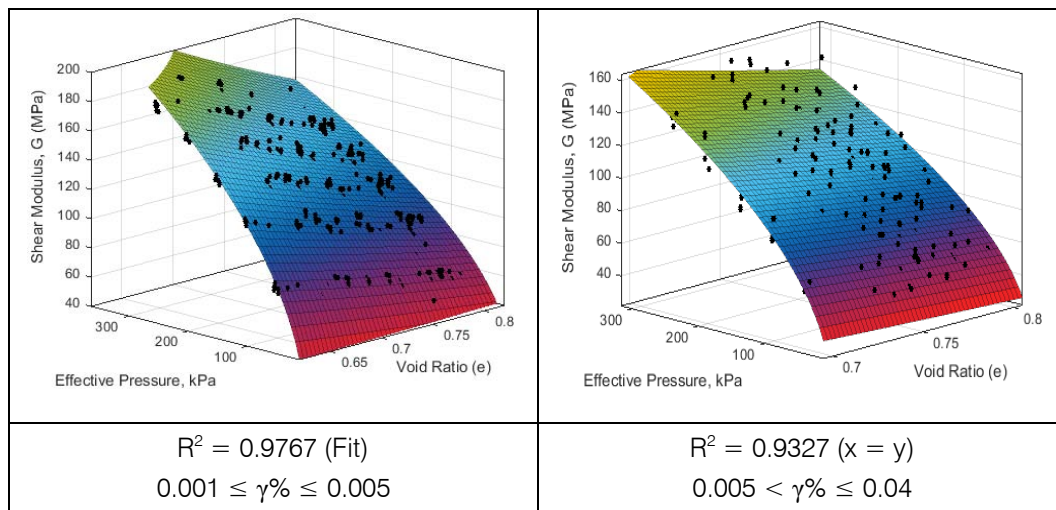


Fig. 5: Suitability of the experimental results to the new empirical equation

IV. CONCLUSIONS

A series of RC tests was conducted on clean sand samples to create a new approach by using AI techniques for the prediction of the dynamic characteristics of soils. MATLAB software was used to perform data analysis and modeling. Test results were analyzed by considering saturation degree, effective stress and cyclic strain. First, two inference systems were performed to predict the maximum shear modulus and the database was created by using the experimental study. Compared with the test results, both inference system models were found to be quite suitable. Subsequently, new empirical relationships in the prediction of the dynamic characteristics of Toyoura sands were derived. New equation is divided in two groups by considering boundary conditions at the shear strain ranges given by the ASTM standards. Therefore, new formulation has a high level accuracy for determining the initial shear modulus of Toyoura sand samples. The equations showed acceptable results that were the analogous to those of the soft computing techniques. These results revealed that both methods can be used for practical purposes to solve complex real life problems. This study encourages further work to explore other inference systems for the estimation and generation of data from experimental studies.

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Note :

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- In future, if the board feels the necessity to change any board member, the same can be done with the consent of the chairperson along with anyone board member without our approval.
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- Align the primary line of each section
- Present your points in sound order
- Use present tense to report well accepted
- Use past tense to describe specific results
- Shun familiar wording, don't address the reviewer directly, and don't use slang, slang language, or superlatives
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Abstract:

The summary should be two hundred words or less. It should briefly and clearly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript-- must have precise statistics. It should not have abnormal acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Shun citing references at this point.

An abstract is a brief distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approach to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Yet, use comprehensive sentences and do not let go readability for briefness. You can maintain it succinct by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study, with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to maintain the initial two items to no more than one ruling each.

- Reason of the study - theory, overall issue, purpose
- Fundamental goal
- To the point depiction of the research
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Approach:

- Single section, and succinct
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Approach:

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- If use of a definite type of tools.
- Materials may be reported in a part section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.

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- If well known procedures were used, account the procedure by name, possibly with reference, and that's all.

Approach:

- It is embarrassed or not possible to use vigorous voice when documenting methods with no using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result when script up the methods most authors use third person passive voice.
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What to keep away from

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Content

- Sum up your conclusion in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In manuscript, explain each of your consequences, point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and comprise remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
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Approach

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- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

Approach:

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