

Computational Earthquake Engineering of Bridges

T. Less¹ and H. Adeli^{1,*}

Abstract. *A review of major research performed in the field of earthquake engineering of bridges during the past decade is presented with a focus on computational modeling. Topics covered include nonlinear simulation, hazard analysis, passive, active, and hybrid control of bridges, bridge damage studies, health monitoring of bridges, bridge management, and retrofitting of bridges. Important conclusions of interest to the bridge engineering community reported in the articles are noted.*

Keywords: *Bridge engineering; Bridge management; Earthquake engineering; Seismic hazard analysis; Health monitoring; Impact; Nonlinear simulation; Retrofitting; Vibrations control.*

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to present a state-of-the-art review of the computational research performed in the field of earthquake engineering of bridges during the past decade. The focus of the review is on bridge structures and computational modeling as opposed to bridge components. Significant and representative computational research published since 2000 primarily in the following journals are reviewed: *Earthquake Engineering and Structural Dynamics*, *Journal of Structural Engineering*, *Journal of Bridge Engineering*, *Computer Aided Civil and Infrastructure Engineering*, *Engineering Structures*, *Earthquake Spectra*, and *Computers and Structures*. The review in each section is roughly presented chronologically. The decision to limit the review to these journals is based on their positions as key journals for computational earthquake engineering of bridges and limited space available for an article.

ANALYSIS AND SIMULATION

Nonlinear Simulations

Finite Element (FE) computing has become an increasingly powerful tool for bridge designers [1-6]. Research

dealing with simulation methods and models involving large numbers of bridge elements, multiple loading situations, and complicated structures has progressed in a number of ways with the increasing power and availability of computers. Consolazio [7] uses neural networks [8-17] to accelerate the convergence of a preconditioned conjugate gradient iterative equation-solver for FE analysis of highway bridges consisting of steel girders and a concrete slab. Meng and Lui [18] investigate the effects of earthquake induced torsion on short span highway bridges with attention to asymmetry due to construction errors and accidental factors, and bridge deck rotation using vibration and earthquake response analysis. They conclude that for bridges with a small ratio of rotational to translational frequency, asymmetry can significantly affect the dynamic response. Linzell [19] presents results of the comparison of multiple FE models for curved steel bridges with experimental data obtained from nine full scale tests along with Monte Carlo simulations and conclude that, in general, the finite element models yield conservative results.

Cable-stayed bridges have received increasing attention in recent years, particularly in long span applications for reasons such as versatility and aesthetics [20-21]. A key issue in multi-span cable-stayed bridges is stabilization of the central tower(s) under extreme wind or seismic vibrations, since they cannot be anchored to an outer fixed support. A solution to this is the use of stabilizing cables which run from the top of the central tower(s) to a location on the deck

1. *Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering and Geodetic Science, The Ohio State University, 470 Hitchcock Hall, 2070 Neil Avenue, Columbus, OH 43220, USA.*

*. *Corresponding author. E-mail: adeli.1@osu.edu*

Received 15 July 2010; accepted 23 August 2010

near the side towers. Ni et al. [22] investigate the effect of stabilizing cables on Ting Kau Bridge, a four-span cable-stayed bridge with central towers in Hong Kong, through a 3D FE analysis. The authors conclude that *“the longitudinal stabilizing cables are very effective in reducing the internal force in the central tower generated by longitudinal earthquake excitation, but insignificantly affect the seismic response in the bridge deck and side towers”*.

A relatively new option for bridge members are tubes of steel or composite materials filled with concrete. Shao et al. [23] present a parametric nonlinear beam-column method of analysis for these members based on cyclic load tests and note that steel tubes are preferable to composite tubes in hysteretic response, but composite tubes have a higher durability. Concrete Filled Tube (CFT) arch bridges have gained popularity in China in the past two decades where more than one hundred such bridges have been built [24]. A CFT arch rib is, however, heavier than the corresponding steel rib which means it attracts a larger level of earthquake force, especially in the out-of-plane (transverse) direction. Wu et al. [24] investigate CFT arch bridges by performing dynamic nonlinear 3D FE analysis of Second Saikai Bridge, the first CFT arch highway bridge in Japan, consisting of 2 CFTs with a 240-m main span and subjected to multiple earthquakes. The authors conclude that *“because the yielding elements of the arch rib increase, it is necessary for the analysis to consider the combined out-of-plane and longitudinal excitations”*.

Nielson and DesRoches [25] perform nonlinear 3D FE seismic response evaluation of single span, multispan simply supported and continuous multispan concrete girder bridges representative of the Southeastern and Central U.S. subjected to a synthetic ground motion for the Memphis area, and found that designing a bridge with continuous spans or with fixed or expansion steel bearings can escalate the seismic demand in columns, abutments, and bearings depending on the configuration of the bridge and earthquake intensity. Song et al. [26] propose a nonlinear inelastic analysis model using a softening plastic-hinge approach [27-30] for predicting the ultimate load-carrying capacity of steel cable-stayed bridges.

California Department of Transportation (CalTrans) defines *“ordinary and standard bridges”* as those using normal weight concrete, with span lengths less than 90 m, and located in areas with no liquefiable soil [31]. Gindy et al. [32] present a state space approach for deriving bridge displacements from acceleration measurements under vehicular loads. Caracoglia et al. [33] present a computer model for the simulation of the aeroelastic loading associated with lock-in from wind-induced vortex shedding for use in dynamic analysis of long-span bridges.

Research on nonlinear seismic analysis of bridges over the past decade has led to an increased understanding of vertical and near fault ground motion effects, bridge-cable interaction in cable-stayed bridges, bridge-train interaction under earthquake excitation, torsional behavior of bridges, and the seismic response of CFT arch bridges.

Impact Studies

Yuan and Harik [34] present an elastoplastic spring-mass model for the analysis of multi-barge flotillas colliding with bridge piers taking into account pier geometry and stiffness, and dynamic interaction between barges. Ulker et al. [35] study portable concrete traffic barriers under vehicular impact and provide a set of design guidelines. Sharma et al. [36] investigate the feasibility of developing a bridge bumper with several options of energy absorbing materials to minimize the physical injuries and protect bridges by absorbing the impact energy. Tsang and Lam [37] study the collapse of reinforced concrete columns in bridges by vehicle impact. Clark et al. [38] study the behavior of roll over protective structures (ROPS) (devices attached to heavy vehicles to provide protection during an accidental roll over) analytically and experimentally.

Hazard Analysis

Performance and probabilistic analyses are used to assess the socioeconomic repercussions of bridge damage states for use in bridge design and maintenance decisions. Hose et al. [39] present a parametric performance-based assessment method for RC bridges along with sample case studies. Probability-based assessment of bridges has been studied by Monti and Nisticò [40]. Fragility curves provide estimates of the probabilities of exceeding a particular limit state during a given level of ground motion intensity for an individual structure or a type of structures, and have been studied by Karim and Yamazaki [41].

Pan et al. [42] present fragility curves of Peak Ground Accelerations (PGA) for multispan continuous steel girder bridges indicative of those found in the Northeastern United States using 3D FE models subjected to 100 simulated seismic events. They conclude that *“bridges in New York State have reasonably low likelihood of collapse during expected earthquakes.”* Banerjee and Shinozuka [43] present a nonlinear static procedure for developing fragility curves and seismic vulnerability assessment of bridges using the capacity spectrum method for identification of spectral displacement.

Wilson and Holmes [44] investigate the vulnerability of cable stayed bridges to seismic events during

cantilevered construction using six 3D FE models simulating various stages of construction of the 675 m long Fred Hartman Bridge in Texas subjected to 12 seismic events. The authors debunk “*a common misconception that seismic loading during construction need not be considered because of the relatively short duration of construction.*” They conclude that seismic vulnerability may be substantially greater for an incomplete bridge during construction than when the bridge is completed, especially during the final phases of construction, and the use of tie down cables are effective in reducing earthquake susceptibility.

Life cycle cost analysis and design of structures has been advanced recently as a more logical approach for design [45-46]. Kumar et al. [47] present a probabilistic approach for Life-Cycle Cost (LCC) analysis of corroding RC bridges in seismic regions.

Code Comparison

Based on a comparative study of seismic design of highway bridges carried out by the U.S. Federal Highway Administration and Japan’s Public Works Research Institute, Yen et al. [48] and Park et al. [49] examine the differences between US (AASHTO) and Japanese design codes for RC bridge columns for simple two-span bridges using a design example and shake table tests. They found that while both codes are based on ultimate strength design the column designed according to US codes is smaller, more ductile, and has a larger reinforcement ratio and a longer period. The authors also conclude that the Japanese design will suffer a larger amount of damage, while the US based design will experience greater drift and residual displacement. Further, they note that “*The AASHTO column has spiral-type transverse reinforcement with closer spacings in contrast to the hoop-type transverse reinforcement with larger spacings for the JRA columns*” which explains the different behaviors.

VIBRATION CONTROL

Passive Control

Systems which lessen structural response by absorbing energy without feedback can be referred to as passive systems. These include Friction Pendulum Bearings (FPBs), seismic isolation using bearings or dampers made from various materials, Tuned Mass Dampers (TMDs), energy absorbing braces, and rocking piers. FPB systems have been studied by Abrahamson and Mitchell [50]. Constantinou et al. [51] present multiple configurations for a so-called toggle-brace system which combines conventional bracings with dampers. Roussis et al. [52] examine seismic isolation systems. Poovaro-

dom et al. [53], and Chen and Kareem [54] study TMDs and their application.

From 1983 to 2004, twelve bridges in Iceland were base-isolated with Lead Rubber Bearings (LRBs). Bessason and Haffidason [55] describe the recorded response of Thjorsa River Bridge in Iceland, an arch truss bridge with an 83-m long span that is base-isolated with LRBs, to the 2000 South Iceland earthquakes ($M = 6.5$ and 6.6). They found that while the bridge is located rather close to the epicenter of the earthquakes (5 km and 16 km), the base isolation was effective in preventing serious damage and that traffic across the bridge was able to resume immediately after the earthquake. Liao et al. [56] compare the response of regular and LRB isolated 3-span continuous RC box girder bridges subjected to the near and far field records of the Chi Chi Taiwan earthquake and conclude that the PGA is the most important factor in determining the response of isolated bridges, and that during near-field earthquakes the base shear reduction from the use of bridge isolation is limited.

Choi et al. [57] investigate the use of rubber elastomeric bearings with prestained wires of nickel titanium Shape Memory Alloy (SMA) as an alternative to conventional LRBs in a 3-span continuous steel girder bridge subjected to two different earthquakes. The results of cyclic deformation tests and nonlinear modeling show that the SMA rubber bearings perform better than the conventional bearings. The deck and relative displacements for the SMA bearings were greater than conventional bearings at low peak gravitational acceleration, but were reduced at high accelerations due to the strain hardening properties. Andrawes and DesRoches [58] study the effects of ambient temperature on SMA bearing behavior using a nonlinear dynamic FE model of a 417-m 18-span RC concrete box girder bridge subjected to 4 different earthquakes and conclude that the SMA bearings perform significantly better in limiting displacement at higher ambient temperatures.

Carden et al. [59] investigate buckling-restrained transverse braces in steel truss bridges which “*consist of a yielding steel core embedded inside a grout-filled tube such that it is restrained against all but the highest modes of buckling when in compression*” as ductile end cross frames. They perform shake table studies on an 18-m long two-girder single span bridge model subjected to the 1940 El Centro earthquake and conclude that buckling-restrained braces are superior to X angle braces.

In summary, a good number of papers have been published on the application of passive vibration control systems in bridges with a focus on seismic isolation designs, particularly LRBs, FPBs, and more recently, SMA bearings. Only representative papers were reviewed in this section.

Active, Semi-Active and Hybrid Control

Systems used to control bridges requiring power and a control algorithm can be classified as active, semi-active, or hybrid control depending on the exact methods employed. Active control normally requires significant amounts of energy to power systems such as hydraulic actuators to control the bridge response [60-76]. Semi-active systems require substantially less energy, such as Magneto-Rheological dampers (MR) or semi-active friction or stiffness dampers, and can be effective during a power outage (they can work with batteries). But the line between active and semi-active control systems is becoming fuzzy as increasingly more powerful batteries are developed. Hybrid control refers to the combination of semi-active or active control with passive control systems.

Xu et al. [77] propose using decentralized non-parametric neural network control of cables with actuators to influence the response of a cable stayed bridge. Semi-active control has been investigated by a number of other researchers [78,79]. Ruangrassamee and Kawashima [80] investigate nonlinear and pounding effects in bridges with hybrid control. Park et al. [81] discuss active control of cable-stayed bridges using a hierarchical fuzzy logic method [82-95] which is used as a supervisor, called Fuzzy Supervisor Control (FSC), for individual linear quadratic Gaussian control (LQG) of hydraulic actuators and apply the technique to the Bill Emerson Memorial Bridge subjected to 3 different earthquakes. Lee and Kawashima [96] study nonlinear behavior of a hybrid system consisting of variable dampers as a semi-active system and base isolation in a five-span continuous RC bridge subjected to near fault ground motions of the 1999 Chi-Chi, Taiwan, earthquake, with a Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR) control modified with a time-delay compensation.

MR dampers are dampers filled with a fluid that respond to an applied magnetic force by reversibly changing to a semi-solid state with controllable properties [97]. Liu et al. [98] compare energy minimization, Lyapunov, fuzzy logic and variable structure system fuzzy logic control algorithms for use with MR dampers using shake table tests of a 1/12 scale model of a highway bridge with fail-safe MR dampers and conclude that the fuzzy logic and variable structure system fuzzy logic algorithms are preferable due to low energy requirements and implementation ease. Kim and Adeli [21] present vibration control of cable-stayed bridges under various seismic excitations using the robust wavelet-hybrid feedback LMS (Least Mean Squared) algorithm developed by Adeli and Kim [99]. Ok et al. [100] study semi-active control of cable-stayed bridges with magneto-rheological dampers using fuzzy logic as a control algorithm and applied it to the Bill Emerson Memorial Bridge.

In summary, bridge control using active, semi-active and hybrid systems is not widely used, however with the continued development of more efficient control systems, this technology could become a powerful tool for bridge designers, especially in long span, flexible bridges.

BRIDGE DAMAGE STUDIES

Per ASCE [101] and the U.S. Department of Transportation index, 26.9% (161,892 of 600,905) of bridges in the United States are structurally deficient or obsolete, leading to the increased risk of damage and the growing importance of damage identification.

Wallace et al. [102] examine over thirty highway bridges in Taiwan primarily consisting of prestressed RC I-girders on RC columns with or without bearings that were damaged during the 1999 Chi-Chi, Taiwan earthquake including twelve collapsed bridges. They found that the damage to the bridges was predominantly due to near fault effects. They also report that poor structural arrangements including short piers controlled by shear failure, insufficient transverse or vertical reinforcement, eccentric connections, and inadequate foundation performance contributed to bridge damage.

Imbsen et al. [103] evaluate the damage to bridges in Turkey after the 1999 Kocaeli earthquake ($M = 7.4$), mainly composed of continuous decks on short simple-span RC girders supported by elastomeric bearings on stiff RC columns with pile foundations and small seat width. The authors report in general good performance for bridges in the region, with one modern bridge collapse, which was caused by fault rupture, out of approximately one-hundred bridges in the area of extensive building damage. Other problems identified were damage to expansion joints due to pounding and inadequate capacity of transverse shear keys. The authors also note that the Bolu Viaduct which uses a passive energy dissipation system suffered only minor damage.

Torkamani and Lee [104] perform linear dynamic analysis of the 189 m tension tied arch Birmingham Bridge with a steel deck in Pittsburgh using the normal mode method subjected to the 1940 El Centro Earthquake, and conclude that "*steel deck tension-tied arch bridges may be subjected to severe damage and potential failure under high intensity seismic motions*". Chang et al. [105] studied the damage to the Chi-Lu single-pylon cable-stayed bridge with two 120-m spans during the 1999 Chi-Chi earthquake in Taiwan. At the time of the earthquake, the bridge was under construction and near completion with parts of the deck yet to be installed. The authors report a vertical crack in the pylon from the roadway to the level of the lowest cables and severe damage to the deck pos-

sibly due to unsymmetrical behavior of the incomplete bridge.

Bolton et al. [106] study the change in the modal properties of a 2-span continuous concrete box girder bridge damaged during an earthquake using a linear 3D FE model and the incremental single-input, multiple-output force response test method [107] to estimate the modal properties of the bridge before and after the Hector Mine Earthquake in California ($M = 7.1$). Ranf and Eberhard [108] present a strategy for prioritizing bridge inspections after an earthquake based on construction date and type of bridge using fragility curves as opposed to distance from epicenter, and note that movable bridges are particularly vulnerable.

Estimation of financial loss due to earthquake excitation is directly linked to structural response and damage to a bridge, which can be approximated by the likelihood that a design parameter will be exceeded. The work published in this area is mostly based on collection of data and reducing and presenting them in some form of linear or nonlinear regression model. Some are deterministic, others are based on the probability theory. Bradley et al. [109] propose a log-log hyperbolic model to fit the probabilistic seismic hazard analysis data for New Zealand regions taking into account the probability of overloading during a seismic event.

HEALTH MONITORING OF BRIDGES

Currently an increasing number of bridges are being outfitted with strain gauges, deflection gauges, accelerometers, dynamic weight-in-motion sensors, and temperature sensors for health monitoring purposes. This is especially true for long span, high priority bridges, and instrumentation already in place has resulted in response records for these bridges under earthquake excitations, especially in the Far East countries of Japan, China and South Korea.

Algorithmically, the problem of health monitoring of bridges is akin to the system identification problem which has a long history of research [110,111]. System identification can be divided into parametric system identification where the parameters of the structure such as stiffness and damping are identified and non-parametric system identification techniques. Neural networks have found many applications in various disciplines of civil engineering over the past two decades [112-136]. Huang and Loh [137] present a neural network-based non-parametric method for nonlinear system identification of bridges using the Nonlinear Auto Regressive Moving Average with Exogenous (NARMAX) approach [138] and apply it to a five-span continuous pre-stressed box-girder bridge located in Taiwan subjected to several different earthquake ground motions.

Pridham and Wilson [139,140] present a modal parameter estimation technique for linear structures employing stochastic subspace identification, expectation maximization algorithm, and the Monte Carlo simulation, and apply it to Quincy Bayview Bridge, a 542-m cable-stayed bridge in Illinois. Arici and Mosalam [141] study modal system identification of bridges using Monte Carlo simulations, linear FE models of 2 continuous multispan bridges subjected to real and simulated earthquake data, and applying a sensitivity analysis, and conclude that for health monitoring purposes “*only the first three modal frequencies and the 1st mode shape*” need be used for the particular type of bridges studies.

Bozdog et al. [142] perform vibration analysis of New Galata Bridge, a 480-m long bascule bridge with a movable central span of 75 m using data from strain gauges and accelerometers, and a dynamic FE analysis, and discovered that “*the first several natural frequencies of flaps are in the earthquake frequency range, especially at the unlocked situation*” which could cause failure of the bridge. Nagayama et al. [143] present a method of modal identification using natural excitation technique, eigensystem realization algorithm, and inverse analysis of structural properties, and apply it to Hakucho Bridge, a 1380-m steel box girder suspension bridge in Japan, using data from ambient vibrations to identify modes and changes in the structure. Celebi [144] presents an overview of the real-time structural health monitoring system implemented on the cable-stayed Bill Emerson Memorial Bridge using a broadband network and accelerometers.

With a focus on the use of a smaller number of sensors, Zhou et al. [145] evaluate different vibration-based damage detection methods for bridges based on changes in the fundamental mode shape, curvature, and flexibility using 3D dynamic FE models and experimental results on a half-scale model of a single span concrete slab on steel girder bridge deck monitored with accelerometers and strain gauges and conclude that methods based on changes in the mode shape and flexibility methods performed better than other methods in the absence of experimental data. However the accuracy for all techniques was significantly reduced if the damage was located near the supports. Zhu et al. [146] discuss identification of flutter derivatives of a long-span self-anchored suspension bridge using wind tunnel studies and computational fluid dynamics. Mondal and DeWolf [147] describe a computer-based remote monitoring system for the temperature monitoring of an eleven span segmental, post-tensioned concrete box-girder bridge.

Siringoringo and Fujino [148] present parametric system identification of long cable-stayed bridges in the Tokyo Bay area with main span lengths in the range 455-570 m using accelerograms from the 2004

Niigata earthquake. He et al. [149] identify the modal parameters through wind-induced vibration response of Vincent Thomas Bridge, a suspension bridge located in San Pedro near Los Angeles, California, using the data-driven stochastic subspace identification method. Carden and Brownjohn [150] apply “*covariance-driven stochastic subspace identification*” and fuzzy clustering algorithm [151,152] to data obtained from a 3-span post-tensioned concrete box girder bridge with a main span of 30 m. Belli et al. [153] present model based evaluation of reinforced concrete bridge decks with defects using ground penetrating radar and a computational scheme for interpretation of scanned images.

Ren et al. [154] study wavelet packet [155,156] energy changes to assess the integrity of shear connectors in slab on girder bridges using a 1:3 scaled model of a single span RC bridge. Ni et al. [157] study damage identification of Ting Kau cable-stayed bridge by defining a relative flexibility change index. Soyoz and Feng [158] report wireless vibration monitoring of a three-span 111-m long concrete bridge instrumented with 13 acceleration sensors, with the goal of identifying changes in the bridge structure over a five-year period. Cruz and Salgado [159] evaluate *six damage detection methods for vibration monitoring of reinforced concrete bridges*.

Research in this area needs to be developed further for reliable real time health monitoring and remote damage identification of bridges.

BRIDGE MANAGEMENT

There are around 600,000 bridges in the U.S. [160] which are managed by states and counties depending on their jurisdictions. Commercial bridge management systems such as Pontis [161] are used by different highway agencies with limited success. Research on development of effective bridge management systems has been reported by a number of researchers.

Sirca and Adeli [162] and Waheed and Adeli [163] present a methodology and an intelligent decision support system to help bridge engineers convert a Working Stress Design (WSD)-based bridge rating to the Load Factor Design (LFD)-based rating with little human effort using Case-Based Reasoning (CBR) [164]. Hammad et al. [165] describe a mobile model-based bridge lifecycle management system developed in Java that links data about the entire lifecycle stages of a bridge including design, construction, inspection, and maintenance to a 4D virtual model of the bridge. Elbehairy et al. [166] present a bridge repair management system that attempts to minimize the lifecycle cost of repair of seven bridge components: deck, superstructure, substructure, bearings, joints, overlay, and finishing by integrating both project-level and

network-level decisions. They use genetic algorithms as their optimization approach [165-172].

RETROFITTING

Steel truss and RC bridges have been popular bridge options for decades, though some of the older designs fail to meet current code requirements for seismic loads. In order to rectify the deficiencies the bridge may need to be retrofitted as an alternative to complete replacement. Many different retrofit systems have been developed and evaluated such as structural fuse systems [173-174], ductile end frames [175], jackets comprised of steel or composite materials [176-178], base isolation as described in the control section of this paper, link slabs [179], SMA restrainers [180] and ground-level beams [181].

Paultre et al. [182] study the effects of retrofits to Beauharnois Bridge, a suspension bridge in Canada with a main span of 177 m. The retrofits included replacing the bridge deck with an orthotropic slab on steel trusses, and adding cable stays which change the bridge to a hybrid cable-stayed-suspension structure. Ingham [183] describes the seismic retrofit of the historic Million Dollar Bridge in Alaska that was damaged during the 1964 Prince William Sound earthquake. The retrofit consisted of replacement of a damaged pier and seismic isolation using FPBs. Zanardo et al. [184] study the application of FRP retrofit techniques for short RC arch bridges using FE models subjected to both single and multiple accelerograms applied at different piers. They report that using FRP with concrete overlays to increase section thickness is “*the most workable solution*” to retrofit such bridges.

Murphy and Collins [185] propose the retrofit of suspension bridges with friction and hysteretic dampers along the suspended span through the simulation of the FE model of a suspension bridge with a 655 m main span subjected to six synthetic earthquakes typical of those occurring in Central and Eastern U.S. Uang et al. [186] investigate the shear links and orthotropic deck used in the retrofitting of the same bridge employing large scale cyclic tests and nonlinear FE analysis and found that “*for capacity design, the overstrength factor (1.25) as specified in the AISC Seismic Provisions is significantly lower than that measured (1.83 to 1.94) and is, thus, non-conservative for the links tested.*”

A common problem with older bridge columns is lack of confinement and resistance to spalling when subjected to shear forces typically developed during major seismic events. Solutions to this problem involve retrofitting these columns with concrete or steel jackets. Haroun and Elsanadedy [187] study behavior of cyclically loaded squat RC bridge columns retrofitted with jackets made of different composite materials, and conclude that composite jackets are effective and

do not modify the load distribution and reaction of the structure, an advantage over conventional steel jackets. Cheng et al. [188] investigate the use of carbon FRP composite jackets as a retrofit method for hollow columns using full scale tests and conclude that carbon FRP jackets are an effective repair and retrofit method for hollow sections.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Notable advances in the field of earthquake engineering of bridges have been made in the past decade, especially in the form of improved bracing systems, connections, passive energy dissipation systems such as base isolation, active and hybrid control systems, and retrofitting of existing bridges incorporating recently developed materials such as composites and SMA. Enhanced models of different types of bridges, components and their interactions using finite element and nonlinear analyses are continuously being developed to better simulate actual behavior and component interaction. Innovations in efficient component and system design and bridge management systems have led to lower cost and safer structures.

Due to the increased use of health monitoring systems and the huge amount of data they produce research will continue on development of more effective approaches for automated real-time damage detection and health monitoring of bridges. Research on semi-active and hybrid control of structures, so-called smart structures, has the potential to yield more efficient bridge structures. Newer computing paradigms and technologies, such as case-based reasoning, genetic algorithms, and wavelet signal processing will find additional applications in bridge engineering.

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BIOGRAPHIES

Thomas Less is a Graduate Student in the Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering at The Ohio State University and Project Engineer at Barr & Prevost Engineering, where he performs bridge and structural design.

Hojjat Adeli is the Abba G. Lichtenstein Professor of Civil Engineering at The Ohio State University. A contributor to 76 different research journals, he has authored/co-authored over 450 papers in various fields of computer science, engineering, mathematics and medicine since 1976 when he received his Ph.D. from Stanford University at the age of 26. He has authored/co-authored fourteen books and edited fourteen books. In 1995, he wrote *Machine Learning - Neural Networks, Genetic Algorithms and Fuzzy Sets* (published by John Wiley and Sons), the first authored book that covers and integrates the three main areas of soft computing. His recent books include *Intelligent Infrastructure - Neural Networks, Wavelets and Chaos Theory for Intelligent Transportation Systems* and

Smart Structures (CRC Press, 2009) and *Automated EEG-based Diagnosis of Neurological Disorders - Inventing the Future of Neurology* (CRC Press, 2010). He also holds a United States patent. He is the quadruple winner of The Ohio State University Lumley Outstanding Research Award. In 1998 he received The Ohio State University's highest research honor, the Distinguished Scholar Award "in recognition of extraordinary accomplishment in research and scholarship". In 2005, he was elected Honorary/Distinguished Member of American Society of Civil Engineers: "for wide-ranging, exceptional and pioneering contributions to computing in many civil engineering disciplines and extraordinary leadership in advancing the use of computing and information technologies in civil engineering throughout the world". In 2007, he received The Ohio State University, College of Engineering, Peter L. and Clara M. Scott Award for Excellence in Engineering Education as well as the Charles E. MacQuigg Outstanding Teaching Award. In 2008, he was elected a Fellow of the American Association for the Advancement of Science (AAAS), "for distinguished contributions to computational infrastructure engineering and for worldwide leadership in computational science and engineering as a prolific author, keynote speaker and editor-in-chief of journals". He received the Outstanding Civil Engineer award from the American Society of Civil Engineers Central Ohio Section in 2009. He is the founder and Editor-in-Chief of the international journals *Computer-Aided Civil and Infrastructure Engineering* and *Integrated Computer-Aided Engineering* and the Editor-in-Chief of *International Journal of Neural Systems*.