

Optimized seismic retrofit of steel-concrete composite buildings

PAPAVASILEIOU, Georgios, CHARMPIS, Dimos C and LAGAROS, Nikos D

Available from Sheffield Hallam University Research Archive (SHURA) at:

<http://shura.shu.ac.uk/32221/>

This document is the author deposited version. You are advised to consult the publisher's version if you wish to cite from it.

Published version

PAPAVASILEIOU, Georgios, CHARMPIS, Dimos C and LAGAROS, Nikos D (2020). Optimized seismic retrofit of steel-concrete composite buildings. *Engineering Structures*, 213: 110573.

Copyright and re-use policy

See <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/information.html>

Optimized seismic retrofit of steel-concrete composite buildings

Georgios S. Papavasileiou¹, Dimos C. Charmpis² and Nikos D. Lagaros³

¹ School of Architecture and Built Environment, University of Wolverhampton
Wulfruna Street, Wolverhampton WV1 1LY, United Kingdom
G.Papavasileiou@wlv.ac.uk

² Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, University of Cyprus
75 Kallipoleos Str., P.O. Box 20537, 1678 Nicosia, Cyprus
charmpis@ucy.ac.cy

³ Institute of Structural Analysis & Antiseismic Research, School of Civil Engineering, National
Technical University of Athens
9 Heron Polytechniou Str., Zografou Campus, 15780 Athens, Greece
nlagaros@central.ntua.gr

Abstract

This work is focused on comparatively assessing the cost-effectiveness of three seismic retrofit approaches for non-code-conforming frame buildings with steel-concrete composite columns. The first two of the assessed retrofit approaches aim in indirectly enhancing structural system performance by strengthening individual composite columns using reinforced concrete jackets or concrete-covered steel cages. The third retrofit approach considered aims in upgrading the composite building frame at hand by installing steel bracings at selected bays. A specially developed structural optimization procedure is used to perform an objective comparison of the cost-effectiveness of the three retrofit approaches. The objective of the optimization procedure is to minimize the total retrofit material cost, while constraints are imposed to ensure the satisfaction of design requirements for the retrofitted structure regarding member capacities (according to Eurocodes 3 and 4 for steel beams and composite columns, respectively), structural system performance under horizontal loading (based on interstorey drifts calculated by pushover analyses) and fundamental periods (obtained from eigenvalue analyses). By defining 30 cases of under-designed 2-storey, 4-storey and 6-storey composite buildings (*i.e.* buildings with steel-concrete composite columns), an extensive numerical investigation involving 120 retrofit optimization runs was conducted. The results obtained provide insight into the relative cost-effectiveness of the three seismic retrofit approaches and reveal certain conditions under which each approach is economically most viable.

Keywords: strengthening; concrete jacket; steel cage; steel bracing; cost-effectiveness; structural optimization.

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Steel-concrete composite design has often been utilized for structures intended for long
36 lifetimes in areas with considerable or even high seismicity. However, such buildings
37 constructed some decades ago generally do not conform to the provisions of current design
38 codes (especially of seismic codes), which are significantly more demanding than the guidelines
39 that were available at the time of their construction. In order to improve these buildings' seismic
40 performance, they need to be appropriately retrofitted. There are two main approaches to retrofit
41 a structural system: (a) strengthening of existing deficient members of the system and (b)
42 installation of additional elements in the system. For both approaches, numerous methods have
43 been proposed, investigated and applied in practice. Even though most of these methods are
44 already considered to be well established, research is still ongoing, in an effort to improve their
45 efficiency or numerical modelling, while also new methods involving innovative materials and
46 techniques are presented.

47 The first retrofit approach involves the enhancement of the structural behaviour of individual
48 members, joints or specific areas of the structure; therefore, this can be considered as a local
49 approach. Strengthening methods following this approach aim at increasing the flexural
50 capacity, shear capacity or ductility of particular structural elements and, consequently,
51 enhancing indirectly the seismic resistance of the overall structural system. Various relevant
52 techniques can be found in the literature, with the most well-known being reinforced concrete
53 jacketing, steel jacketing and confinement with Fibre Reinforced Polymers (FRP).

54 Reinforced concrete jacketing is realized by installing additional reinforcement and concrete
55 cover around an existing member. It is typically utilized to retrofit elements that are expected
56 to have brittle failure and need an increase in their flexural capacity. It is a popular seismic
57 retrofit method that has been actively researched and applied in the past (e.g. [1-3]) and attracts
58 also more recent scientific interest, with researchers investigating it experimentally [4-9],
59 analytically [10-12] or with the use of structural analysis software [10,13-15]. The focus of
60 recent research efforts appears to be on the better modelling of the interface between the
61 existing element and the concrete jacket, the improvement of analytical methods and the use of
62 new materials.

63 Steel jacketing is another method used to strengthen individual structural members and increase
64 their deformability and is realized by adding steel jackets around the retrofitted elements. This

65 method exploits the nearly full confinement of the existing concrete and the high flexural and
66 shear capacity of the jacket's structural steel to achieve a more ductile behaviour for elements
67 where failure is expected to be brittle [16,17]. Its aesthetic effect on the retrofitted building is
68 minimal due to the reduced thickness of the steel jacket compared to reinforced concrete
69 jackets. If the steel jacket is left exposed, it is more susceptible to fire hazard than the reinforced
70 concrete jacket, in which the installed reinforcement is protected by the cover concrete. When
71 the element's flexural capacity does not require to be enhanced, the steel wrapping can be
72 placed only in specific critical areas where plastic hinges are expected to develop. As a variant
73 of this retrofit method, individual steel plates are added to steel and steel-concrete composite
74 beams and steel joints to enhance their capacity. Within the same context, steel plates and beams
75 with I-shaped or U-shaped sections are used to retrofit also reinforced concrete beams [18,19].
76 Full steel jacketing can be analogously applied in practice in the form of interconnected steel
77 strips and angles, forming a steel cage. The application of steel cages is roughly as old as that
78 of reinforced concrete jacketing and is a field of active research efforts as well [3,20-25].

79 The second retrofit approach focuses on the overall improvement of a structure as a system, in
80 order to meet the applicable seismic design requirements, therefore this can be characterized as
81 a global approach. New elements are installed to limit the drifts and decrease the ductility
82 demands of the structural system. Such seismic retrofit methods used in structural engineering
83 practice include the integration of new shear walls, steel bracings, base isolators or dampers
84 into an existing structure to achieve the desirable performance. A particularly popular method
85 in practice is the installation of steel bracings in specific bays of the structure. The design of
86 braced frames is nowadays common practice in buildings with steel and steel-concrete
87 composite columns, but they have been used in reinforced concrete structures as well. Research
88 on the utilization of steel bracings as a retrofit method started decades ago and is still active
89 [26-36].

90 Although the aforementioned methods have been proposed, extensively evaluated and applied
91 for the seismic retrofit of reinforced concrete and steel structures, their effectiveness in the case
92 of steel-concrete composite structures has not yet been thoroughly investigated. Thus, the
93 design and application of retrofit measures for composite structures based on these methods is
94 strongly related to the particular engineer's judgment and experience from applications for other
95 structural systems. In the present work, three methods are evaluated with respect to their cost-

96 effectiveness in retrofitting non-code-conforming multi-storey buildings with steel-concrete
97 composite columns. The decision on whether to retrofit a structure or demolish and replace it
98 is predominantly affected by the total cost of the intended retrofit solution. However, the
99 selection of a retrofit solution typically depends on the engineer's subjectivity. Hence, structural
100 optimization [37-41] is employed herein as an objective decision support tool that automatically
101 identifies the best solution on the basis of a 'fair' assessment, as it employs an optimization
102 algorithm to determine the most cost-effective feasible solution according to each retrofit
103 method evaluated. For this purpose, a structural optimization framework presented in [40] is
104 adjusted to the needs of the present work and applied to various cases of 2-, 4- and 6-storey
105 buildings with steel-concrete composite columns in need for seismic retrofit measures.

106 **2. Retrofit methods**

107 In this section, the retrofit methods evaluated in the present work are presented and details
108 regarding their implementation in the analysed composite building cases are given.

109 **2.1. Retrofit of individual elements – Column strengthening**

110 The local approach of retrofitting individual elements is followed in this work by two methods,
111 which are employed to strengthen steel-concrete composite columns, in order to indirectly
112 improve the buildings' seismic performance: reinforced concrete jacketing and concrete-
113 covered steel caging, herein referred to as 'jacket method' and 'cage method', respectively.
114 Both methods have been extensively used in practice to increase the ductility and flexural
115 capacity of deficient or damaged reinforced concrete columns. Their concepts are similar: both
116 are applied by forming a concrete-covered external grid of longitudinal and transversal steel
117 components, which confine the initial and additional concrete of the column, enhancing its
118 ductility and capacity. Additionally, if the longitudinal steel parts are adequately anchored to
119 develop their full capacity, the particular retrofit methods also increase the initial section's
120 stiffness. The main attributes that are different in the two methods are the type of steel elements
121 (bars/strips) comprising the grid that surrounds the initial member, as well as the
122 position/distance of these elements with respect to the centreline of the initial member.

123 Eurocode 4 [42] specifies that the contribution ratio δ of structural steel in the resistance of a
124 composite column section to compression should range between 0.2 and 0.9. This requirement
125 was checked and found to be satisfied for all fully encased steel-concrete composite column

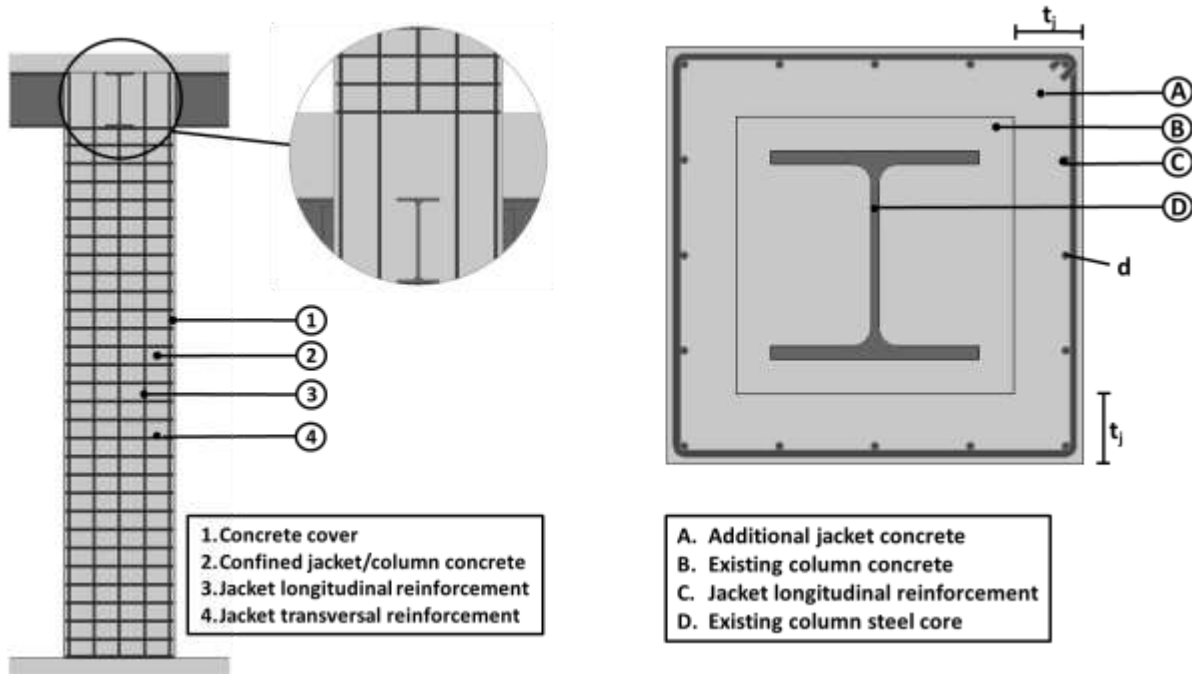
126 sections considered in the present study. Clearly, by adding material(s) around the initial
127 sections, their composite behaviour can be significantly altered, shifting the ratio δ closer to
128 one of the two limit values mentioned above. In the jacket method, the section's extra concrete
129 area added for the retrofit is much larger than the additional steel area of the longitudinal
130 reinforcing bars within the jacket. In the cage method, more structural steel is added for the
131 retrofit to achieve the desirable stiffness, while concrete constitutes only the thin cover layer
132 and the patches between the horizontal and vertical strips; taking also into consideration that
133 the concrete cover is unconfined, the concrete's contribution to the extra capacity of the section
134 is rather low. Hence, with a thick reinforced concrete jacket, the composite section's behaviour
135 resembles more that of a reinforced concrete section (low δ -value), while a steel cage with wide
136 vertical plates increases significantly the contribution of structural steel to the composite
137 section's capacity (high δ -value).

138 **2.1.1. Reinforced concrete jacketing (jacket method)**

139 The installation of a reinforced concrete jacket around a column is one of the most commonly
140 used methods in practice to retrofit existing reinforced concrete columns, as well as one of the
141 most intensively investigated in literature. In this method, the extra concrete cover layer added
142 is unconfined, but the rest of the jacket's concrete forms an additional layer of confined concrete
143 core that enhances the column's capacity. Also, the jacket confines the initial element, creating
144 this way a core of super-confined concrete, which increases the column's capacity even further.

145 The jacket method is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows the locations of the longitudinal bars
146 and the cage formed around the initial composite column. Since failure of the buildings
147 simulated in this investigation was found to be caused mainly by exceedance of the elements'
148 capacity in bending moment, the longitudinal bars of the jacket have a significant effect on the
149 retrofitted section's capacity. Hence, various diameters of bars are considered herein for the
150 longitudinal reinforcement. The effective stiffness added by the jacket is also directly related to
151 the developed capacity of the transversal reinforcement especially at the area of splices, where
152 careful design is needed. In this work, the transversal reinforcement applied is the same for all
153 simulated jacket sizes. The contribution of the added jacket section is analogous to that typically
154 obtained when retrofitting a reinforced concrete column: the longitudinal and transverse
155 reinforcements surrounding the concrete contribute to the section's bending moment and shear
156 capacity, respectively. The longitudinal reinforcement consists of 3 to 5 bars per column side,

157 depending on the dimensions of the initial element, while the transverse reinforcement consists
 158 of rectangular stirrups that travel around the column (Fig. 1). The same effective concrete cover
 159 thickness of 2.5 cm is applied in all analysed cases.



160
 161 **Fig. 1.** Column strengthening using reinforced concrete jacketing (jacket method): side view (left) and cross-
 162 section (right) of the retrofitted column.

163 Since the thickness of the cover concrete, the number of longitudinal bars per column side and
 164 the transverse reinforcement in this work are pre-specified for all analyses performed, only 2
 165 parameters are required to define the reinforced concrete jacket applied to a composite column:
 166 (a) the total thickness of the jacket per side (denoted as t_j in Fig. 1) and (b) the diameter d of the
 167 longitudinal bars. In this work, a set of 18 pairs of jacket thicknesses and bar sizes defines the
 168 available discrete options, from which a jacket can be selected for retrofitting a column or group
 169 of columns. In particular, the first pair provides the option of not retrofitting (no jacket applied).
 170 This option allows the optimization algorithm to selectively apply jackets only at specific
 171 groups of columns, in order to attain the optimum retrofit design. The second pair is a theoretical
 172 option resembling the application of the cage method: the total jacket thickness per column side
 173 is set to 7.5 cm and the bar diameter to 50 mm, thus the jacket bars are placed in direct contact
 174 with the existing column, while the additional concrete serves as cover and patches between the
 175 bars. Use of this option in an optimized design would be indicative of a preference of the
 176 optimizer for retrofit solutions following the cage method. The remaining pairs are

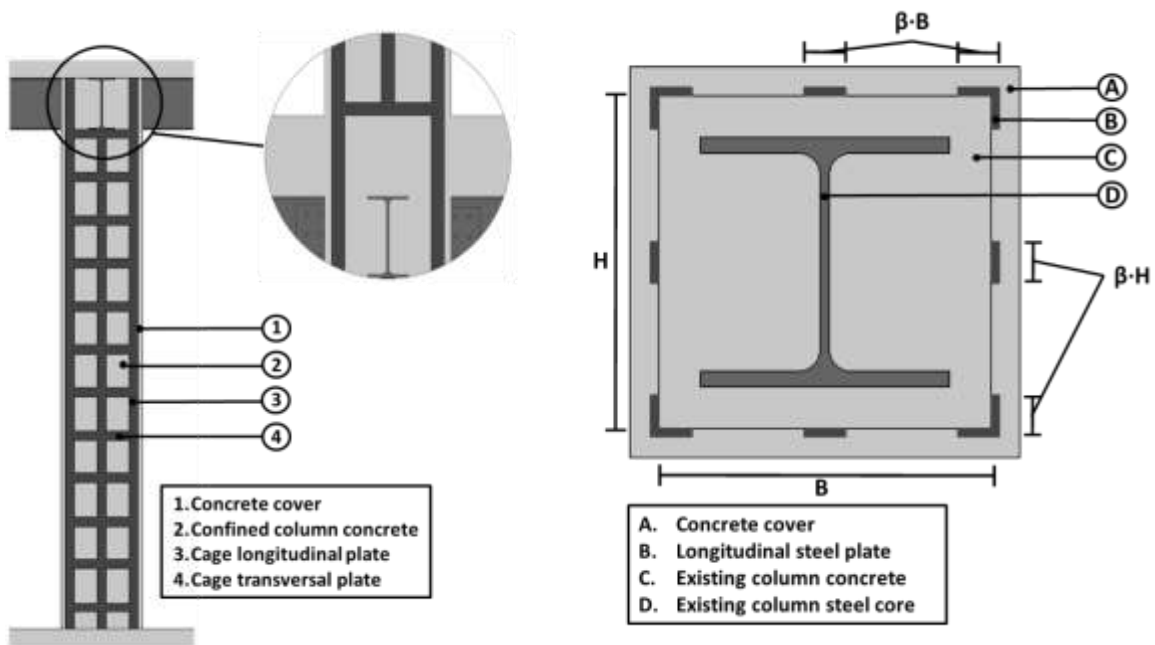
177 combinations of various standard bar diameters (up to 32 mm) for longitudinal reinforcement
178 with jacket thicknesses of 10 cm, 15 cm, 20 cm and 25 cm. It should be noted that large
179 reinforcement bar diameters (>20 mm) are options typically not selected for jackets in practice.
180 Nevertheless, they are made available to the optimizer, because their use in an optimum design
181 is an indicator of need for increase of the corresponding element's stiffness even further than it
182 is actually possible with conventional practices.

183 **2.1.2. Concrete-covered steel caging (cage method)**

184 Full steel jacketing is typically applied in deficient or damaged reinforced concrete columns at
185 locations where plastic hinges are expected to develop. The jacket confines the existing
186 concrete, increasing this way the column's ductility and shear capacity and improving its overall
187 performance. When the steel jacket is wide enough, full confinement of the existing concrete
188 can be achieved, producing an effect that is similar to the one observed in concrete-filled tubes,
189 in which the confined concrete can receive stresses significantly higher than its characteristic
190 capacity. However, the main drawback of the steel jacketing technique is the difficulty in
191 installation, as the steel section needs to be placed in at least two separate parts, which are then
192 welded together, in order to surround the existing element. Moreover, when composite action
193 of the jacket and the existing element is also required, additional dowels need to be installed to
194 operate as shear connectors.

195 The concrete-covered steel cage, which consists of vertical and horizontal plates, can be seen
196 as a hybrid retrofit method, which combines the concrete confinement effect achieved by the
197 installation of steel jackets and the increase of flexural capacity attained by welding longitudinal
198 steel plates on the flanges of I-shaped steel sections. Furthermore, its application in steel-concrete
199 composite columns aims to combine the effectiveness of full steel jacketing with the advantages
200 of the reinforced concrete jacket. In particular, the horizontal plates are mainly intended for
201 increasing the shear capacity and confinement of the concrete, adequately substituting the full
202 steel jacket, while the vertical plates aim mainly at increasing the column's stiffness and
203 flexural capacity. Because the steel plates are placed at larger distances from the composite
204 section's centroid than the steel section's flanges, if the plates are wide enough, the additional
205 flexural capacity achieved may even exceed that of the non-retrofitted section.

206 Figure 2 illustrates the cage method as it is implemented in this work. In the vertical direction,
 207 the steel cage formed consists of 4 elements of angular section installed at the corners of the
 208 steel-concrete composite column and 4 steel plates placed at the middle of each column side.
 209 The longitudinal elements are connected with horizontal plates every 20 cm along the column's
 210 height. The whole cage structure can be prepared in two parts, with each part forming an angle
 211 that covers 2 of the 4 column sides. Then, the two parts can be placed on the existing column
 212 and welded together along two corners. The cover layer of unreinforced concrete applied
 213 afterwards has a minimal effect on the total section's capacity and is taken into account as
 214 unconfined concrete. Its effective thickness is considered smaller than the typical cover sizes
 215 applied.



216
 217 **Fig. 2.** Column strengthening using concrete-covered steel caging (cage method): side view (left) and cross-
 218 section (right) of the retrofitted column.

219 The plates are placed symmetrically at each opposite side of the composite column. Three
 220 longitudinal plates are installed at each column side: 2 at the corners and 1 at the middle (Fig.
 221 2). Their width is denoted as a percentage β of the initial section's dimensions: if H is the total
 222 side width of the unretrofitted section, then the width of each cage plate installed is βH (Fig. 2).
 223 A common ratio β is applied to all sides of a column, thus, unless the initial column has a square
 224 section, the longitudinal plates installed at perpendicular column sides do not have the same
 225 width. Taking also into consideration that a fixed concrete cover of 5 cm around the cage is
 226 assumed for all analysis cases, 2 parameters suffice to define the concrete-covered steel cage

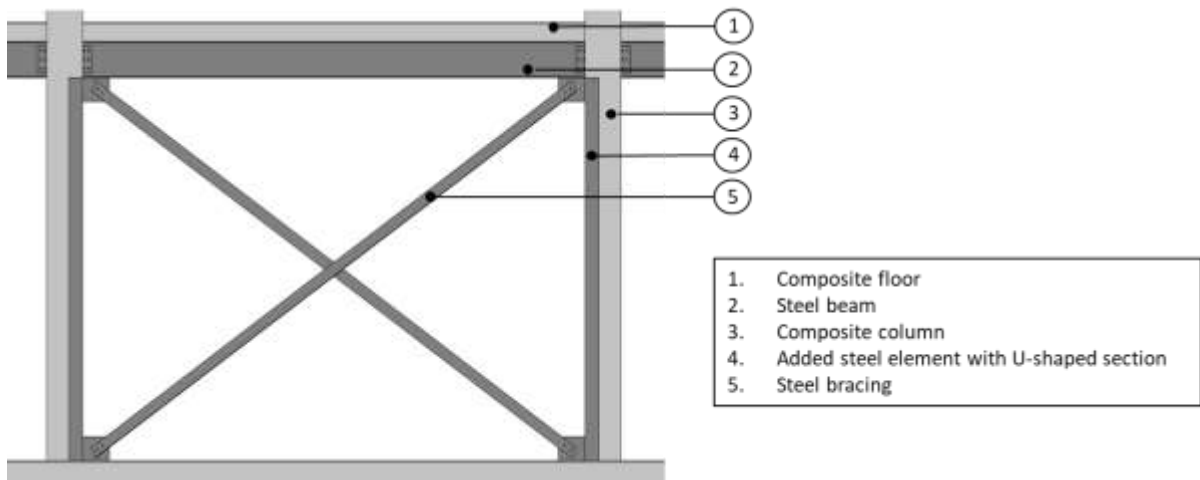
227 applied to a composite column: (a) the common ratio β of the installed longitudinal plates'
228 width over the width of the corresponding column sides and (b) the common thickness t_c of all
229 plates installed at the column. In this work, a set of 18 pairs of ratios β and thicknesses t_c
230 provides the available discrete options, from which a cage can be selected for retrofitting a
231 column or group of columns. The first option to avoid retrofitting specific columns is available
232 in this dataset as well ($\beta=0$). The second option is a very light retrofit solution ($t_c=5$ mm, $\beta=5\%$).
233 The last option corresponds to full steel jacketing of the column ($\beta=33.33\%$, *i.e.* the percentage
234 of each column's side covered by the longitudinal steel plates is $3\beta=100\%$). Plates with
235 thicknesses of 10 mm, 15 mm, 20 mm, 25 mm and 30 mm are combined with ratios β of 10%,
236 20% and 30% to form the remaining pairs of available options.

237 **2.2. Overall system retrofit – Adding new members (bracings method)**

238 There is an upper limit of improvement and cost-effectiveness that can be attained by
239 retrofitting existing elements. Therefore, a second retrofit approach has been developed,
240 according to which the structural upgrade of a non-code-conforming building is achieved by
241 strategically introducing additional members, in order to affect the overall seismic performance
242 of the structural system. Such additional elements could be bracings, shear walls, dampers and
243 base isolators, which receive a large amount of the seismic energy during an earthquake,
244 mitigating this way the damage of the actual building. A common characteristic of the
245 aforementioned extra elements is that, when installed, they all affect significantly the building's
246 fundamental period and, therefore, its behaviour under seismic excitation.

247 The third retrofit method investigated in the present paper is the installation of steel bracings in
248 predefined bays of the building. When bracings are added to a moment resisting frame, its
249 overall stiffness is significantly increased, while its fundamental period and the consequent
250 ductility demands are reduced. Moreover, due to the steel material's high ductility, the bracings
251 are able to reach large tensile deformations before failure, absorbing, this way, an adequate
252 amount of seismic energy. This retrofit method is particularly suitable for relatively flexible
253 structural systems, such as deficient moment resisting frames. However, it could have an
254 adverse effect in buildings with increased stiffness, as further stiffness increase might result in
255 amplification of the internal forces at the columns, resulting in early failure.

256 In this work, the technique used to install bracings at bays of reinforced concrete frames is
 257 adopted (Fig. 3). Specifically, in order to make a steel surface available, on which connections
 258 can be effectively realized, a portal frame of structural steel is installed at the building's bay
 259 considered. This steel frame also protects the beam-column joints from failure due to excessive
 260 concentrated load applied by the bracings. The frame consists of members with U-shaped steel
 261 sections, with which the existing reinforced concrete columns and beam of the bay are
 262 enveloped. These steel members can either have standard UPN sections or custom-made
 263 sections; usually the second option is preferred to ensure that the steel sections fit to the shapes
 264 of the existing columns and beam. The added steel elements are connected to the existing
 265 reinforced concrete members using dowels. Then, connection plates are welded on the webs of
 266 the U-shaped elements (or the plates are pre-welded on the webs at the supplier's facilities) and
 267 the bracings are bolted to the plates. In buildings with steel-concrete composite columns and
 268 steel beams, the top part of the installed steel frame can be defined by the existing steel beam,
 269 without adding a new steel member.



270
 271 **Fig. 3.** Structural system upgrade using steel bracing (bracings method): side view of bay with installed bracings.

272 In total, 17 standard L-shaped sections comprise the set of available options for bracings.
 273 Although this type of bracings is susceptible to flexural buckling, L-shaped sections are often
 274 preferred in engineering practice for their reduced cost compared to buckling-restrained braces
 275 and ease in assembly. In contrast to hollow sections, which require the installation of a cap plate
 276 to weld an additional vertical plate to realize the connection, the web of L-sections plays the
 277 role of the connection plate. Additionally, when L-sections fail in buckling due to compressive
 278 axial force, they develop significant deformations, absorbing this way an amount of the seismic

279 energy and preventing the occurrence of further damage at the beam-column joint. Each bracing
280 consists of a pair of L-sections, which can be connected at middle length to reduce the effective
281 length for buckling to half their total length. In the investigation performed herein, such a
282 connection is conservatively not considered. Moreover, because L-sections fail in compression
283 relatively early, the bracings' connections with the frame remain practically undamaged. Even
284 though buckling is generally regarded as an unwanted type of failure, the repair cost of a
285 retrofitted building is significantly reduced, when only the bracings need to be replaced instead
286 of the bracings together with the connection plates due to failure of both components. Special
287 attention needs to be paid to the bottom end of the columns, on which the bracings are installed,
288 due to the large concentrated shear force applied. The steel core of the composite columns of
289 the buildings simulated in this work was found to suffice, in order to receive the full amount of
290 shear force. The same does not apply for analogous applications in reinforced concrete
291 structures, where the shear force needs to be received almost entirely by stirrups (or diagonal
292 reinforcement), therefore it is a potential location where shear failure might occur. Note that
293 the database with L-shaped sections additionally includes a 'zero' option (no bracing section),
294 which actually offers the optimizer the choice to deactivate bracings.

295 **3. Structural Modelling and Analyses**

296 All structural simulations are performed using OpenSEES [43]. The particular structural
297 analysis software provides the capability of handling various material types in a single member
298 section and, therefore, can simulate effectively the composite columns without and with retrofit
299 measures installed. Hence, the existing steel beams and the steel core of the composite columns,
300 as well as the installed bracings and the steel components of the concrete-covered steel cage are
301 assumed to consist of the same quality of structural steel S235 and simulated using the bilinear
302 material model 'Steel01'. Particular attention is paid so that the final retrofitted building designs
303 do not exceed the ultimate strain of steel or the critical stress for buckling, as otherwise
304 overestimated element capacity would be considered. The 'Concrete01' material model is
305 employed for the simulation of all concrete regions in a building, *i.e.* of both the existing
306 composite columns' concrete and that of the retrofit sections. This model is implemented with
307 no tensile capacity, while its compressive strength is taken as 20MPa and the cracking and
308 crushing strains as 2‰ and 3.5‰, respectively. The longitudinal and transverse reinforcement
309 bars of the existing composite columns and of the reinforced concrete jacket are modelled using

310 the ‘ReinforcingSteel’ material type. This model differs from ‘Steel01’ in its post-yield branch,
311 as it consists of a horizontal plateau and a hardening-softening part. Its yield stress is taken as
312 500MPa and its ultimate strain as 20%.

313 The non-retrofitted and retrofitted columns, the beams and the bracings are simulated using
314 distributed plasticity (fiber section) elements of OpenSEES. In particular, columns and beams
315 are modelled as ‘nonlinearBeamColumn’ elements in the x -direction (i.e. parallel to the major
316 axes of all columns’ HEB steel cores) and ‘beamWithHinges’ in the y -direction, while ‘truss’
317 elements are used for bracings [43]. The composite slabs are considered to perform as rigid
318 diaphragms at the horizontal plane. The stiffness required for the diaphragm behaviour of the
319 floor in the direction that is orthogonal to the corrugations is provided by secondary beams. The
320 slabs’ effect on the structural performance is taken into account by defining a ‘rigidDiaphragm’
321 [43] for each storey, while their loads are transferred as distributed loads on the beams. All
322 beam-column connections are considered to be able to fully transfer the loads and moments
323 they receive in the global x -direction and operate as simple supports in the global y -direction.
324 Column base connections are modelled as fixed supports. It is also worth mentioning the
325 assumption made that, in the analysed structural models, an effective connection between the
326 elevator/staircase reinforced concrete core wall that might be present in the 4-storey and 6-
327 storey buildings and the lateral resisting system is not implemented, *i.e.* the core is detached
328 from the lateral resisting system. In the case of an effective connection, the contribution of the
329 core to the overall building stiffness could be significant with a consequent substantial effect
330 on the retrofit optimization results, depending also on the core’s position within the building’s
331 floor plan.

332 Three types of structural analyses are performed in this work using OpenSEES for any
333 candidate optimum structural design assessed. Initially, a linear static analysis under
334 gravitational loads takes place, in order to apply the gravitational loads on the structural model,
335 as well as to obtain analysis results needed for the initial capacity checks of structural elements.
336 Once the gravitational loads are applied and the total mass of each storey is defined, two
337 eigenvalue analyses are performed (one for each horizontal direction x and y), in order to
338 determine the maximum fundamental period of the building and define parameters required for
339 the next analyses. Finally, two nonlinear static analyses under horizontal loads (pushover

340 analyses) are performed (one for each horizontal direction x and y) up to a targeted top
341 displacement, in order to assess the seismic performance of the building under evaluation.

342 **4. Structural Optimization**

343 The Evolution Strategies (ES) [44] optimization algorithm is utilized for the computational
344 investigation performed in the present work. The particular algorithm, which imitates the
345 evolution of a species in time, is a well-established derivative-free optimization method
346 particularly suitable for engineering problems. The optimization procedure employed herein is
347 an adjusted version of the one developed in [40]. In this section, a description is provided for
348 this adjusted implementation, which is tailored to the needs of the optimization problems dealt
349 with in the next section.

350 **4.1. Design variables**

351 The basic idea in each case study of the present paper is to initially consider an existing, possibly
352 under-designed moment-resisting frame with specific steel-concrete composite columns and
353 steel beams. Hence, the initial design of the studied building is fixed and the purpose of the
354 optimization procedure is to determine (if needed) an optimal retrofit solution using the
355 approaches presented in section 2. In the sequel of this work, the term ‘design’ is used to refer
356 to a retrofit solution.

357 The design variables are the parameters, the values of which are altered during the search for
358 the optimum solution. In this paper, the design variables fully control the retrofit solution of a
359 candidate optimum design as described in section 2. Specifically, for the jacket method and for
360 each column-group defined, a design variable is specified to control the jacket’s concrete
361 thickness and reinforcing bar size; for the cage method and for each column-group defined, a
362 design variable is specified to control the width and thickness of the steel plates installed at
363 column sides; for the bracings method, two design variables are specified to control the L-
364 shaped sections of bracings installed along directions x and y of the building.

365 The optimization problems handled in the present study are of discrete type: the search space
366 of candidate optimum solutions is defined through the options for design variable values, which
367 are not taken from a continuous range, but from a set of specific (discrete) available sizes of
368 retrofit components (the options for design variable values are defined in section 2). In

369 engineering practice, standardization of dimensions and formation of respective discrete
370 databases of available options is essential, as production of structural components with a limited
371 number of sizes can speed up construction and reduce costs. Optimization runs using a
372 continuous search space would yield retrofit solutions with impractical, non-standard section
373 dimensions. Therefore, for any candidate optimum solution considered herein, each design
374 variable actually takes an integer value (identification number), which corresponds to a
375 particular discrete option provided in the respective database.

376 **4.2. Objective function**

377 The objective of the optimization process is to minimize the total cost of structural materials
378 required to retrofit the building under consideration. The cost of materials for existing elements
379 of the building in its initial (non-retrofitted) state are not taken into account in the employed
380 objective function. Hence, the total cost of structural materials added to retrofit the building can
381 be calculated as the sum of the costs of extra steel and concrete installed when any of the 3
382 retrofit approaches of section 2 is applied. Nevertheless, the calculation of the materials costs
383 in monetary units implies that a ‘subjective’ final optimization result will be obtained that will
384 depend on the average material prices, which vary at different locations and typically fluctuate
385 with time, i.e. the optimality of a design identified by the optimization procedure will always
386 be linked with a specific location and a certain period of time.

387 A way to improve the ‘objectivity’ of the utilized optimization procedure is to employ the Cost
388 Ratio CR introduced in [40]. This is defined as $CR=C_c/C_s$, where C_s and C_c are average total
389 unit costs for steel and concrete, respectively. As the cost of concrete is typically calculated
390 based on its volume and that of steel based on its mass, the unit costs C_s and C_c can be specified
391 in €/tn and €/m³, respectively, thus CR is given in tn/m³. The cost ratio may also vary with time
392 and location, however other factors, such as a general increase in prices due to inflation or
393 fluctuation in currency exchange rates, are expected to have a small or even no effect on the
394 value of CR . Hence, the cost ratio CR seems to be a more robust choice to link the costs of steel
395 and concrete in an objective function, rather than explicitly using the unit costs C_s and C_c . In
396 this work, a cost ratio of 1.2% (tn/m³) is adopted for all optimization runs performed, which
397 indicates the availability of ‘cheap’ concrete and ‘expensive’ steel, as is typically the case in
398 Cyprus.

399 Following the definition of the cost ratio CR , the objective function employed in the
400 optimization procedure measures the total equivalent steel mass of retrofit materials M_s^{tot} (tn
401 of steel) in the structure and can be written as:

$$402 \quad M_s^{tot} = M_S + CR \cdot V_C, \quad (1)$$

403 where M_S and V_C are the total steel mass (tn) and concrete volume (m^3), respectively, of retrofit
404 materials used in the structure. Hence, the objective function is expressed as the sum of the
405 actual steel mass and the converted concrete mass of installed materials to retrofit the building
406 under consideration.

407 **4.3. Constraints**

408 In a structural optimization problem, constraint functions are evaluated using the results of
409 structural analyses for each candidate optimum design, in order to assess the overall
410 performance of the building, as well as of its individual structural components, with respect to
411 predefined criteria. The constraints imposed in the framework of the optimization procedure in
412 this work are:

413 (a) The retrofitted structure for any candidate optimum design is required to satisfy the
414 capacity criteria defined in Eurocode 3 [45] for pure steel members and Eurocode 4 [42]
415 for steel-concrete composite members. The provisions of Eurocode 4 regarding the
416 capacity in axial force, shear force, bending moment, combined axial force and biaxial
417 bending moment and the respective types of local and global buckling are evaluated to
418 check the composite columns. The pure steel beams are checked for their capacity in shear
419 force, bending moment and their interaction, as well as the respective types of local and
420 global buckling according to the provisions of Eurocode 3. The aforementioned checks are
421 performed based on the results of the initial linear static analysis of the structure. Note that,
422 although bracings are pure steel members, they are not checked with respect to the
423 provisions of Eurocode 3. The bracings' contribution to the load transferring mechanism
424 of the structure is actually activated under seismic action, therefore bracing sections are
425 determined based on the global structural system performance and not on local
426 member/section capacity criteria.

427 (b) The overall structural performance of the retrofitted structure under horizontal loading is
428 assessed in accordance with provisions of ASCE/SEI 41-06 [46]. In particular, two

429 displacement-controlled pushover analyses (in horizontal directions x and y) up to the
430 targeted top displacement specified in FEMA-440 [47] are performed for each candidate
431 optimum design. The maximum interstorey drift is used as an overall structural
432 performance indicator. Its maximum value is retrieved from Table C1-3 of ASCE/SEI 41-
433 06 [46] for the collapse prevention limit state. The limit values provided therein are 4% of
434 the storey height for reinforced concrete frames and 5% for steel frames. As there is no
435 provision for steel-concrete composite frames, the 4% limit for reinforced concrete frames
436 is selected herein as a conservative requirement.

437 (c) A limit on the maximum fundamental period of the retrofitted building is imposed using
438 the formula of Goel and Chopra [48] for steel moment-resisting frames (again, there is no
439 respective information specifically for steel-concrete composite frames).

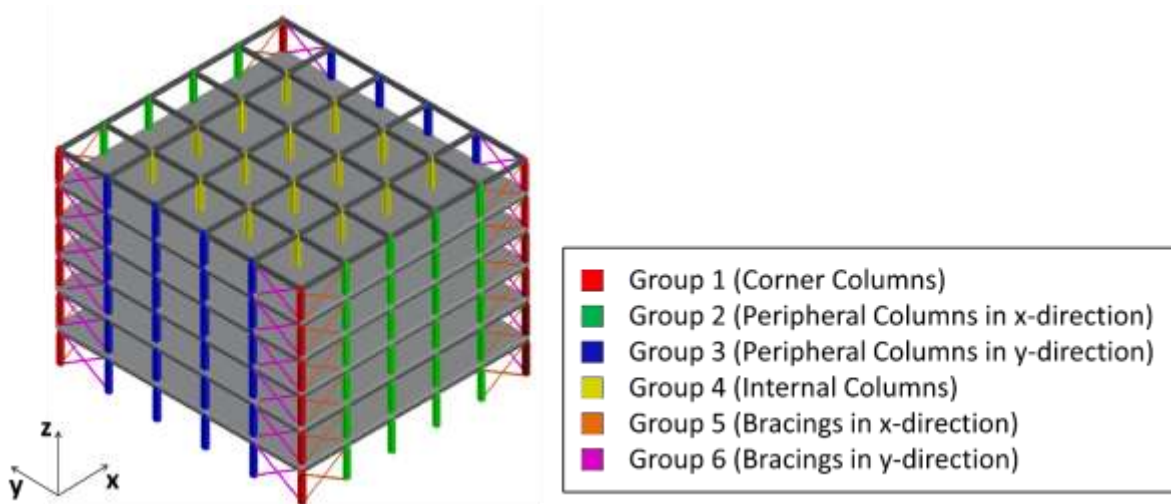
440 All aforementioned constraints need to be satisfied by any candidate optimum design to be
441 considered feasible. Violation of at least one requirement renders the assessed design infeasible
442 and the optimization algorithm adds a penalty to the objective function value. Specifically, the
443 total equivalent steel mass for retrofit materials of an infeasible design is increased by the
444 respective mass of a building with the same geometrical characteristics, which is retrofitted
445 with the largest available sections in the utilized databases, rounded up to 50 tons. It should be
446 noted that, while the local member/section capacity checks of Eurocodes 3 and 4 are used as
447 feasibility criteria using the linear static analysis results, the same does not apply to the
448 performance of structural components under seismic action. Hence, individual components are
449 allowed to fail during both pushover analyses performed, provided that such local failures do
450 not trigger partial or full collapse of the analysed building.

451 **5. Optimization Results**

452 In this section, the cost-effectiveness of the retrofit methods described in section 2 is assessed
453 using the presented optimization procedure. For this purpose, three buildings are assessed,
454 which have the same 5-by-5-bay symmetric floor plan, but a different number of storeys: a 2-
455 storey, a 4-storey and a 6-storey building. The 6-storey structure is illustrated in Fig. 4. For all
456 three buildings, the span of each beam is 6m, calculated as the distance between the centroids
457 of the two columns, to which the beam is attached. As regards columns, all have a height of
458 3.5m and are considered to have the same orientation, with their HEB steel cores' major axes

459 being parallel to the global x -direction. Hence, a global ‘major axis’ and a global ‘minor axis’
460 (parallel to the global x - and y -directions, respectively) are defined for each storey, as well as
461 for the whole building as a system.

462 The first step of the assessment procedure followed herein is to design the three structures in a
463 way that all requirements outlined in subsection 4.3 are satisfied using the smallest possible
464 member sizes (reference buildings). A single size of HEB steel core is used for all composite
465 columns of each building. In preliminary analyses it was noticed that the beam sections required
466 for the gravitational loads generally suffice when the buildings are evaluated for horizontal
467 loads. Hence, it remains to identify the columns’ smallest possible HEB size for each reference
468 building, which renders the design of the 3 code-conforming buildings a simple trial-and-error
469 procedure: starting from a small HEB steel core size, it is increased one standard size at a time
470 until a design is determined that satisfies all criteria of subsection 4.3. Thus, composite columns
471 with HE550B steel cores are required for the 2-storey reference building and HE800B for the
472 4-storey reference building, both designed as Moment-Resisting Frames (MRFs). For the 6-
473 storey building, the largest available column section does not suffice, therefore it is designed as
474 a braced frame: the minimum bracing size is used at the corner bays (as indicated in Fig. 4) and
475 the above mentioned trial-and-error procedure is followed. The design identified for the 6-
476 storey reference building with this procedure has composite columns with HE320B steel cores
477 and L90×90×7 steel bracings at the corner bays.



478

479

Fig. 4. Member groups illustrated on the 6-storey building (top slab removed for visualization purposes).

480 Using smaller steel core sizes for the composite columns than the ones determined for each
481 reference building above, a total number of 30 under-designed buildings are generated. More
482 specifically, sections down to HE180B are used for the 2-storey MRF (13 cases of deficient
483 buildings), sections down to HE280B for the 4-storey MRF (12 cases) and sections from
484 HE220B to HE300B for the 6-storey braced frame (5 cases). Note that, as in the case of the 6-
485 storey reference building, all under-designed and unretrofitted 6-storey buildings have the
486 minimum L90×90×7 steel bracings installed at the corner bays. In all 30 under-designed cases,
487 the buildings are retrofitted using each of the three methods described in section 2 in the
488 framework of the utilized optimization procedure. To facilitate the optimization process,
489 columns are organized into 4 groups according to their location in the floor plan (column groups
490 1-4 in Fig. 4): (1) corner, (2) peripheral at the sides parallel to global x -direction, (3) peripheral
491 at the sides parallel to global y -direction and (4) internal. Hence, the columns of each group
492 have a constant size along the height of the building. Two additional groups are defined for the
493 bracings (bracings groups 5, 6 in Fig. 4): (5) at the corner bays of the sides parallel to global x -
494 direction and (6) at the corner bays of the sides parallel to global y -direction. One discrete
495 design variable controls the retrofit choice for each of these 6 member-groups. As already
496 mentioned in section 2, ‘zero’ options are included in all utilized databases and are available to
497 be chosen as design variable values. This allows the optimization procedure, in its effort to
498 identify the most cost-effective retrofit solution, to activate or deactivate the 2 column
499 strengthening approaches (jacket and cage methods) for any of the 4 column-groups and the
500 bracings along any of directions x and y .

501 Four different retrofit optimization runs are performed for each of the under-designed buildings
502 defined. In each of the first two optimization runs, only one of the column-strengthening
503 methods is enabled: the jacket method is applied in the first run and the cage method in the
504 second run. For the remaining two optimization runs, the bracings method is enabled in
505 combination each time with one of the two aforementioned column strengthening methods. In
506 the case of the 6-storey braced frame, the bracings chosen to retrofit the building are assumed
507 to replace the ones initially installed (if different). A total number of 120 retrofit optimization
508 runs were performed, the results of which are presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3 for the 2-storey, 4-
509 storey and 6-storey buildings, respectively.

510 A macroscopic conclusion drawn from the results of these tables is that the optimal retrofit
511 approach is decisively affected by: (a) how much under-designed a building is compared to the
512 corresponding feasible non-retrofitted building designed initially and (b) the type of structural
513 system of the building (MRF or braced frame). These factors are related to the fundamental
514 period of the building that seems to play an important role in the process of identifying a cost-
515 effective retrofit solution. Indeed, certain building designs exhibited maximum interstorey
516 drifts that were considerably less than the imposed limit of 4% of the storey height, however
517 they also had rather high fundamental periods that rendered them unacceptable. As a result of
518 increasing the structural system's stiffness to address the high fundamental period problem, the
519 maximum recorded interstorey drifts were further reduced (actually, they do not exceed the
520 value of 2.2% of the storey height for all optimized retrofit solutions in this paper). Hence, a
521 designer could use the eigenvalue analysis results to have a strong indication of design
522 feasibility or infeasibility and avoid the need to also perform pushover analyses for designs that
523 would be proven infeasible after all. Clearly, for a retrofit solution with acceptable fundamental
524 period, subsequent pushover analysis results are required to formally check interstorey drifts.

525 **Table 1.** Optimized retrofit solutions for under-designed 2-storey buildings.

REINFORCED CONCRETE JACKETS

Column sections (steel core)	Column group 1	Column group 2	Column group 3	Column group 4	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE180B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	11,460
HE200B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	8,983
HE220B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	9,252
HE240B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	9,521
HE260B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	7,612
HE280B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	7,827
HE300B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	7,096
HE320B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	6,107
HE340B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	6,187
HE360B	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	Not required	4,182
HE400B	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	Not required	3,215
HE450B	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	2,341
HE500B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	Not required	Not required	1,204
≥ HE550B	-	-	-	-	Not required

CONCRETE-COVERED STEEL CAGES

Column sections (steel core)	Column group 1	Column group 2	Column group 3	Column group 4	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE180B-HE360B	-	-	-	-	Infeasible
HE400B	$t_c=20\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=40\text{mm}, \beta=33,3\%$	$t_c=40\text{mm}, \beta=33,3\%$	$t_c=40\text{mm}, \beta=33,3\%$	106,946
HE450B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$t_c=25\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	11,003
HE500B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$t_c=10\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	5,198
≥ HE550B	-	-	-	-	Not required

STEEL BRACINGS

Column sections (steel core)	Bracings group 5	Bracings group 6	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)

HE180B-HE500B	L 90×90×7	L 90×90×7	3,039 - 3,756
≥ HE550B	-	-	Not required

526

Table 2. Optimized retrofit solutions for under-designed 4-storey buildings.

REINFORCED CONCRETE JACKETS

Column sections (steel core)	Column group 1	Column group 2	Column group 3	Column group 4	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE280B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=20\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	48,090
HE300B	$d=25\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	46,844
HE320B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	41,700
HE340B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	33,981
HE360B	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	32,190
HE400B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	26,288
HE450B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=20\text{cm}$	25,695
HE500B	Not required	Not required	$d=20\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=15\text{cm}$	23,326
HE550B	$d=25\text{mm}, t_f=25\text{cm}$	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	18,563
HE600B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	12,713
HE650B	Not required	Not required	$d=25\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	10,534
HE700B	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	5,354
≥ HE800B	-	-	-	-	Not required

CONCRETE-COVERED STEEL CAGES

Column sections (steel core)	Column group 1	Column group 2	Column group 3	Column group 4	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE280B-HE600B	-	-	-	-	Infeasible
HE650B	$t_c=10\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=40\text{mm}, \beta=33,3\%$	$t_c=40\text{mm}, \beta=33,3\%$	$t_c=40\text{mm}, \beta=33,3\%$	276,988
HE700B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$t_c=20\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	23,841
≥ HE800B	-	-	-	-	Not required

STEEL BRACINGS

Column sections (steel core)	Bracings group 5	Bracings group 6	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE280B-HE700B	L 90×90×7	L 90×90×7	6,730 - 8,164
≥ HE800B	-	-	Not required

527

Table 3. Optimized retrofit solutions for under-designed 6-storey buildings.

REINFORCED CONCRETE JACKETS

Column sections (steel core)	Column group 1	Column group 2	Column group 3	Column group 4	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE220B	$d=20\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	22,328
HE240B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	20,771
HE260B	Not required	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	12,192
HE280B	Not required	Not required	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	6,257
HE300B	$d=12\text{mm}, t_f=10\text{cm}$	Not required	Not required	Not required	3,209
≥ HE320B	-	-	-	-	Not required

CONCRETE-COVERED STEEL CAGES

Column sections (steel core)	Column group 1	Column group 2	Column group 3	Column group 4	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE220B	-	-	-	-	Infeasible
HE240B	$t_c=25\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=5\text{mm}, \beta=5\%$	$t_c=30\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=25\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	40,868
HE260B	$t_c=10\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=15\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=15\text{mm}, \beta=10\%$	$t_c=5\text{mm}, \beta=5\%$	21,238
HE280B	$t_c=5\text{mm}, \beta=5\%$	Not required	$t_c=5\text{mm}, \beta=5\%$	$t_c=5\text{mm}, \beta=5\%$	5,344
HE300B	Not required	Not required	$t_c=5\text{mm}, \beta=5\%$	Not required	1,614
≥ HE320B	-	-	-	-	Not required

STEEL BRACINGS

Column sections (steel core)	Bracings group 5	Bracings group 6	Total retrofit demand (equivalent kg steel)
HE220B-HE240B	-	-	Infeasible
HE260B-HE300B	L 120×80×8	L 120×80×8	11,524 - 11,907
≥ HE320B	-	-	Not required

528 In the remainder of this section, specific remarks are made on the effectiveness of each the 3
529 retrofit approaches assessed based on the obtained optimization results.

530 **5.1. Cage Method**

531 The cage method is the least invasive of the retrofit approaches assessed in the present work,
532 as its application results only in a small increase of the section areas of the retrofitted columns.
533 Therefore, the method's effectiveness in increasing the capacity of columns is limited. Hence,
534 the results obtained herein show that this method is really effective in increasing the columns'
535 capacity and stiffness and improving a building's overall performance when only limited
536 strengthening is required. However, for a well under-designed building with rather weak
537 columns, there is an abrupt increase in the total retrofit cost, because the distances of the
538 installed steel cages from the columns' centroids are fixed, unlike in the case of reinforced
539 concrete jackets, in which jacket thicknesses can be increased to move steel reinforcing bars
540 away from the columns' centroids.

541 Indeed, as regards the MRFs of the 2-storey and 4-storey buildings, it can be seen in Tables 1
542 and 2 that feasible retrofit solutions can be determined using the cage method for a rather limited
543 number of cases, in which deficient columns are only a little weaker than the ones of the
544 corresponding code-conforming reference buildings. For under-designed buildings with even
545 weaker columns than the ones successfully retrofitted, no feasible retrofit solutions can be
546 identified using the cage method. Notice that, in the weakest of the retrofitted 2-storey and 4-
547 storey buildings, the total retrofit cost is so high that it renders the cage method practically
548 unacceptable, even if architectural constraints discourage the application of an alternative, more
549 invasive retrofit method. Hence, the cage method appears to be inefficient in retrofitting the 2-
550 storey and 4-storey MRFs, as it struggles to find costly column caging designs with wide and
551 thick steel plates (as indicated by the values of t_c and β in Tables 1 and 2), which do not succeed
552 in satisfying the specified design requirements in most of the cases studied.

553 As regards the 6-storey buildings (Table 3), in the cases of columns with HE300B and HE280B
554 steel cores, the identified optimal retrofit solutions are not only feasible, but are also the most
555 cost-effective ones, outperforming the other two retrofit methods. As already mentioned, all
556 under-designed 6-storey structures are braced frames, with the installed bracings resulting in
557 significantly increased total stiffness and, consequently, in reduced fundamental period for

558 these frames. Even though all deficient 6-storey buildings violate the maximum admissible
559 interstorey drift constraint as well, the fundamental period limit is barely exceeded. Hence, a
560 limited strengthening of selected composite columns (with minimal steel caging using $t_c=5$ mm,
561 $\beta=5\%$) is really effective and beneficial for both interstorey drift and fundamental period criteria
562 (in addition to the structural member capacity criteria defined in Eurocode 4), which explains
563 the success of the cage method in providing the most cost-effective designs for the two
564 particular cases mentioned above. Furthermore, this method manages to determine feasible
565 designs for two more under-designed 6-storey structures with even weaker columns, although
566 the other two retrofit methods suggest more economical solutions for these two cases. Finally,
567 it is observed in Table 3 that the increase in the total retrofit cost for decreasing column section
568 size is considerably smoother in the case of the 6-storey buildings than those observed in Tables
569 1 and 2 for the lower buildings.

570 **5.2. Jacket Method**

571 From the results of Tables 1 to 3, it is evident that the jacket method can be effectively applied
572 to a significantly wider range of under-designed buildings than the cage method. In fact, the
573 jacket method manages to provide feasible retrofit solutions for all deficient column cases
574 considered in this section. Moreover, the increase in the total retrofit cost for decreasing column
575 section size is generally much smoother than in the cage method. In all studied cases concerning
576 the seismic retrofit of pure MRFs (*i.e.* the 2-storey and 4-storey structures), the jacket method
577 provides more cost-effective retrofit solutions than the cage-method. It is indicative that the
578 retrofit of the 2-storey building with HE180B column steel cores by the jacket method requires
579 about the same total equivalent steel mass as the retrofit of the 2-storey building with HE450B
580 column steel cores using the cage method. The jacket method actually succeeds in providing
581 more cost-effective solutions than both other retrofit approaches in the cases of 2-storey
582 buildings having columns with HE500B or HE450B steel cores, as well as in the case of the 4-
583 storey building having columns with HE700B steel cores.

584 As regards the braced frames of the 6-storey buildings examined, the jacket method outperforms
585 the cage method in all cases studied except for the ones with HE300B and HE280B column
586 steel cores. Note also that the jacket method is actually the only approach that is able to provide
587 a feasible retrofit solution for the 6-storey building with the weakest columns (HE220B steel

588 cores). This is related to the fact that, while the steel bracings increase the overall stiffness of
589 the building, they do not enhance the columns' moment resistance. Hence, in the case of a
590 braced frame with very weak columns, while the structure is capable of receiving the
591 gravitational loads (self-weight and imposed loads due to typical use), the design bending
592 moments developed in the columns at the Ultimate Limit States exceed the columns' resistance.
593 Hence, their sections need to be adequately strengthened, which can only be achieved using the
594 jacket or the cage method.

595 In the cases where the same retrofit solution is identified by the optimizer for two different
596 deficient buildings of the same height, it is observed that the total retrofit mass demanded is
597 higher for the building with larger initial column section size. This is due to the way the selected
598 retrofit option is defined, *i.e.* by specifying only the jacket thickness and the reinforcement
599 diameter. Hence, the actual dimensions of the jacket are related to the respective dimensions of
600 the existing column. This results in larger total jacket concrete volume for larger existing
601 column sections. To reduce the additional retrofit cost for such designs, a finer database with
602 extra, intermediate retrofit options could be provided for the optimizer to choose from.

603 Compared to the cage method, the jacket method offers retrofit solutions that require more
604 space in the floor plan to be applied. If there are relevant architectural constraints to limit the
605 degree of retrofit invasiveness, these could be taken into account through a penalty function
606 increasing the objective function value proportionally to the additional area covered by the
607 retrofitted column sections. Hence, although such constraints are not considered in the present
608 work, there are ways to effectively deal with these, if needed.

609 It is worth noting that, with few exceptions, the optimized retrofit solutions of the jacket method
610 use longitudinal steel reinforcement bars with the minimum diameter available in the respective
611 database ($d=12\text{mm}$). The optimization algorithm seems to prefer jacket designs with this rebar
612 size, because they exploit the jacket concrete as a low-cost means to increase the distance of
613 the steel rebars from the columns' centroids. Hence, a column's capacity and stiffness can be
614 significantly increased with a proportionally smaller increase in the total retrofit cost. To
615 validate the optimality of the jacket designs determined by the optimization procedure, all
616 optimized solutions with at least one column group having jackets with rebar diameter larger
617 than 12mm were further investigated manually. Indeed, for these cases, the most cost-effective
618 feasible retrofits using only rebars with $d=12\text{mm}$ were found to have a higher total cost than

619 the designs output by the optimizer with larger rebar sizes. Hence, despite the aforementioned
620 advantage of small-size rebars in thick jackets, the optimization algorithm was able to
621 automatically identify certain exceptions, in which more cost-effective retrofit solutions are
622 available using rebars of larger size. As an alternative to jacket designs using rebars with large
623 diameters, a larger number of small-size rebars per side could be utilized, provided that there is
624 adequate space for their installation.

625 Another interesting observation is that, except for the retrofit of 4-storey MRFs with very weak
626 columns, the optimizer exhibits a general tendency not to strengthen all columns in a retrofit
627 design, but to activate jacketing only for certain column groups each time. The jacketed column
628 groups are not the same in every optimization run performed and can be 1, 2, 3 or 4, depending
629 on the features of the particular retrofit problem at hand. This makes it difficult to manually
630 identify the optimized retrofit solution in each case considered and emphasizes the effectiveness
631 and usefulness of the presented optimization procedure.

632 **5.3. Bracings Method**

633 The installation of bracings in a MRF is a particularly effective method to reduce its
634 fundamental period, leading to decreased ductility demands, which are imposed in this work
635 through the targeted top displacement for the pushover analysis. This effect is confirmed by the
636 results of Tables 1 and 2, which show that the optimization algorithm was able to identify
637 feasible retrofit designs for all 2-storey and 4-storey under-designed MRFs using only the
638 smallest available L-section for the bracings at the corner bays of all building sides. When the
639 results of Table 1 (2-storey MRFs) and Table 2 (4-storey MRFs) are examined separately, it
640 can be observed that, although the same bracing section is utilized in all retrofit solutions,
641 deficient buildings with smaller column section sizes require less steel mass to be retrofitted
642 with the bracings method than buildings with larger column section sizes. Indeed, smaller
643 column section dimensions lead to increased need for steel mass due to longer bracings, but
644 also to reduced need for steel mass due to smaller supporting frame dimensions. The savings in
645 steel mass for the supporting frame are larger, which explains the noticeable reduction in the
646 total retrofit cost for decreasing column section size.

647 As regards the under-designed 6-storey buildings (Table 3), optimized retrofit solutions can be
648 provided for 3 cases (with HE300B to HE260B steel cores) by replacing the bracings at all

649 building sides with stronger ones. Again, as explained above, smaller column section sizes lead
650 to reduced total retrofit costs. Nevertheless, for the 2 buildings with the weakest columns
651 (HE240B and HE220B steel cores), the bracings method is unable to provide feasible retrofit
652 solutions. For these 2 cases, feasible and possibly affordable retrofit designs can only be
653 obtained by keeping the initial bracings and strengthening 3 column groups using the jacket
654 method (Table 3).

655 It is of particular interest that none of the identified optimal retrofit designs using the bracings
656 method is a mixed solution, *i.e.* a retrofit design specifying the replacement of bracings
657 combined with the strengthening of columns using either the cage or the jacket method. This is
658 a very convenient outcome, because, unless the use of bracings is prohibited, a designer can
659 manually determine a cost-effective retrofit solution without the need to run a time-demanding
660 optimization procedure. More specifically, once the bays where bracings can be installed are
661 defined, a designer only needs to check the building performance using the available bracings'
662 sections from the smallest size to larger ones until a feasible design is determined. Especially
663 in retrofitting relatively slender buildings, the use of bracings can be very advantageous in the
664 framework of either a manual or an automatic optimization procedure.

665 However, when either bracing sections are increased or bracings at new locations are installed
666 in a structure, special care must be taken for columns, which need to be able to carry
667 concentrated shear forces at the connections with bracings. Despite the fact that the building's
668 fundamental period is reduced when larger or additional bracings are installed leading to
669 reduced ductility demands, deficient columns may fail and cause local collapse during pushover
670 analysis before the structure reaches the targeted top displacement. In such cases, column
671 strengthening methods need to be applied in combination with the bracings method to achieve
672 the desired structural system performance. This need was not encountered in any retrofit case
673 studied in the present paper.

674 **6. Concluding remarks**

675 Today's stock of old structures that are under-designed with respect to current design codes is
676 rather large. Improving the structural behaviour and performance of such structures requires the
677 development and validation of effective retrofit approaches, but also vast budgets for their
678 application in practise. The aim of the present work is to comparatively assess the cost-

679 effectiveness of a number of seismic retrofit approaches for deficient buildings with steel-
680 concrete composite columns, in order to facilitate the selection of the economically most viable
681 intervention depending each time on the particular case at hand.

682 Three different seismic retrofit approaches are studied in this paper. Reinforced concrete
683 jacketing and concrete-covered steel caging are two local retrofit approaches that aim in
684 indirectly upgrading structural performance at the global system level through individual
685 column strengthening. The installation of steel bracings at selected bays of a structure is a global
686 retrofit approach that focuses directly on enhancing system resistance by adding new structural
687 elements. These 3 retrofit approaches were compared on a ‘fair’, objective basis using a
688 specially developed structural optimization procedure to automatically determine the most cost-
689 effective retrofit solution for each case studied, without relying on the capabilities, experience
690 and subjectivity of a particular designer. All assessed retrofit approaches were found to be
691 effective in improving structural performance, but none of the approaches was found to be the
692 most suitable and cost-effective for all cases of deficient buildings considered.

693 Based on the retrofit solutions obtained from a total number of 120 optimization runs for 30
694 cases of under-designed 2-storey, 4-storey and 6-storey buildings, the following main
695 conclusions can be drawn regarding the advantages and relative cost-effectiveness of each of
696 the 3 retrofit approaches studied:

- 697 • For lightly under-designed buildings (*i.e.* the total interstorey stiffness deficiency is up to
698 about 30% that of the code-conforming reference building), the installation of concrete-
699 covered steel cages at selected or even all composite columns appears to be the most tractable
700 retrofit approach. When limited additional strength and stiffness are required, this approach
701 provides retrofit solutions that are simultaneously the most cost-effective and least
702 aesthetically intervening, improving also the confinement of the existing concrete of the
703 composite columns.
- 704 • In the case of higher requirements for additional column capacity and stiffness of under-
705 designed buildings, the installation of reinforced concrete jackets at selected or even all
706 composite columns provides more cost-effective retrofit solutions. This approach exploits
707 the jacket thickness of the retrofitted element, in order to place reinforcing steel bars at large
708 distances from the section’s centroid and ensure this way their increased contribution to the
709 column’s stiffness and flexural capacity. This is the only approach that managed to provide

710 feasible retrofit solutions for all cases studied in this paper, from lightly to overly under-
711 designed buildings (*i.e.* with total interstorey stiffness deficiency even up to 80% that of the
712 code-conforming reference building). Nevertheless, there are technical and practical
713 limitations associated with the selection of jacket thicknesses, therefore there are also
714 restrictions in the applicability and effectiveness of this retrofit approach.

715 • The installation of adequate steel bracings seems to be often necessary in overly under-
716 designed buildings. The weak columns of such non-retrofitted buildings result in low
717 stiffness and rather high, unacceptable fundamental periods. Bracings change the structural
718 system and its behaviour, effectively shift its fundamental period, but do not necessarily
719 alleviate the deficient composite columns. Therefore, if the capacities of the columns do not
720 suffice, bracings need to be combined with one of the two aforementioned column
721 strengthening approaches (jacketing or caging). If the columns' capacities suffice, the
722 installation of adequate bracings without any other additional intervention can decisively
723 improve a composite building's performance and provide the most cost-effective retrofit
724 solution.

725 References

- 726 [1] Tassios, T. P. The mechanics of column repair with a reinforced concrete jacket. In *Proc. 7th European*
727 *Conference on Earthquake Engineering*, Athens, September 1982.
- 728 [2] Bett, B. J., Klingner, R. E., & Jirsa, J. O. (1988). Lateral load response of strengthened and repaired
729 reinforced concrete columns. *Structural Journal*, 85(5), 499-508. DOI: 10.14359/9226
- 730 [3] Rodriguez, M., & Park, R. (1991). Repair and strengthening of reinforced concrete buildings for seismic
731 resistance. *Earthquake Spectra*, 7(3), 439-459. DOI: 10.1193/1.1585636
- 732 [4] Chalioris, C. E., Thermou, G. E., & Pantazopoulou, S. J. (2014). Behaviour of rehabilitated RC beams with
733 self-compacting concrete jacketing—Analytical model and test results. *Construction and Building*
734 *Materials*, 55, 257-273. DOI: 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2014.01.031
- 735 [5] Júlio, E. N., Branco, F. A., & Silva, V. D. (2005). Reinforced concrete jacketing-interface influence on
736 monotonic loading response. *ACI Structural Journal*, 102(2), 252.
- 737 [6] Nasersaeed, H. (2011). Evaluation of behavior and seismic retrofitting of RC structures by concrete
738 jacket. *Asian journal of applied sciences*, 4(3), 211-228. DOI: 10.3923/ajaps.2011.211.228
- 739 [7] Takeuti, A. R., de Hanai, J. B., & Mirmiran, A. (2008). Preloaded RC columns strengthened with high-
740 strength concrete jackets under uniaxial compression. *Materials and structures*, 41(7), 1251-1262. DOI:
741 10.1617/s11527-007-9323-0
- 742 [8] Tsonos, A. D. G. (2010). Performance enhancement of R/C building columns and beam–column joints
743 through shotcrete jacketing. *Engineering Structures*, 32(3), 726-740. DOI:
744 10.1016/j.engstruct.2009.12.001
- 745 [9] Vadoros, K. G., & Dritsos, S. E. (2006). Axial preloading effects when reinforced concrete columns are
746 strengthened by concrete jackets. *Progress in Structural Engineering and Materials*, 8(3), 79-92. DOI:
747 10.1002/pse.215
- 748 [10] Campione, G., Fossetti, M., Giacchino, C., & Minafò, G. (2014). RC columns externally strengthened with
749 RC jackets. *Materials and structures*, 47(10), 1715-1728. DOI: 10.1617/s11527-013-0146-x
- 750 [11] Minafò, G., Di Trapani, F., & Amato, G. (2016). Strength and ductility of RC jacketed columns: A
751 simplified analytical method. *Engineering Structures*, 122, 184-195. DOI: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2016.05.013

- 752 [12] Thermou, G. E., Papanikolaou, V. K., & Kappos, A. J. (2014). Flexural behaviour of reinforced concrete
753 jacketed columns under reversed cyclic loading. *Engineering Structures*, 76, 270-282. DOI:
754 10.1016/j.engstruct.2014.07.013
- 755 [13] Lampropoulos, A. P., & Dritsos, S. E. (2011). Modeling of RC columns strengthened with RC
756 jackets. *Earthquake Engineering & Structural Dynamics*, 40(15), 1689-1705. DOI: 10.1002/eqe.1109
- 757 [14] Navarrete, B. A. O., Guerrero, J. M. J., Juana, M. D. L. C. T., Soberón, G., & Díaz, M. J. (2016). Influence
758 of RC jacketing on the seismic vulnerability of RC bridges. *Engineering Structures*, 123, 236-246. DOI:
759 10.1016/j.engstruct.2016.05.029
- 760 [15] Papanikolaou, V. K., Stefanidou, S. P., & Kappos, A. J. (2013). The effect of preloading on the strength of
761 jacketed R/C columns. *Construction and Building Materials*, 38, 54-63. DOI:
762 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2012.07.100
- 763 [16] Choi, E., Chung, Y.-S., Park, K., & Jeon, J.-S. (2013). Effect of steel wrapping jackets on the bond strength
764 of concrete and the lateral performance of circular RC columns. *Engineering Structures*, 48, 43-54. DOI:
765 10.1016/j.engstruct.2012.08.026
- 766 [17] Lin, M.-L., Chen, P.-C., Tsai, K.-C., Yu, Y.-J., & Liu, J.-G. (2010). Seismic steel jacketing of rectangular
767 RC bridge columns for the mitigation of lap-splice failures. *Earthquake Engineering and Structural
768 Dynamics*, 39, 1687-1710. DOI: 10.1002/eqe.1003
- 769 [18] Su, R., Cheng, B., Wang, L., Siu, W., & Zhu, Y. (2011). Use of bolted steel plates for strengthening of
770 reinforced concrete beams and columns. *IES journal Part A: Civil and Structural Engineering*, 4 (2), 55-
771 68. DOI: 10.1080/19373260.2011.567816
- 772 [19] Haskett, M., Oehlers, D. J., & Mohamed Ali, M. (2010). Design for moment redistribution in RC beams
773 retrofitted with steel plates. *Advances in Structural Engineering*, 13 (2), 379-391. DOI: 10.1260/1369-
774 4332.13.2.379
- 775 [20] Adam, J. M., Ivorra, S., Pallarés, F. J., Giménez, E., & Calderón, P. A. (2009). Axially loaded RC columns
776 strengthened by steel caging. Finite element modelling. *Construction and Building Materials*, 23(6), 2265-
777 2276. DOI: 10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2008.11.014
- 778 [21] Campione, G. (2012). Load carrying capacity of RC compressed columns strengthened with steel angles
779 and strips. *Engineering Structures*, 40, 457-465. DOI: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2012.03.006
- 780 [22] Garzón-Roca, J., Ruiz-Pinilla, J., Adam, J. M., & Calderón, P. A. (2011). An experimental study on steel-
781 caged RC columns subjected to axial force and bending moment. *Engineering Structures*, 33(2), 580-590.
782 DOI: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2010.11.016
- 783 [23] Montuori, R., & Piluso, V. (2009). Reinforced concrete columns strengthened with angles and battens
784 subjected to eccentric load. *Engineering Structures*, 31(2), 539-550. DOI: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2008.10.005
- 785 [24] Nagaprasad, P., Sahoo, D. R., & Rai, D. C. (2009). Seismic strengthening of RC columns using external
786 steel cage. *Earthquake Engineering & Structural Dynamics*, 38(14), 1563-1586. DOI: 10.1002/eqe.917
- 787 [25] Uy, B. (2002). Strength of reinforced concrete columns bonded with external steel plates. *Magazine of
788 Concrete Research*, 54(1), 61-76. DOI: 10.1680/mac.2002.54.1.61
- 789 [26] Kawamata, S., & Ohnuma, M. (1981). Strengthening effect of eccentric steel braces to existing reinforced
790 concrete frames. In *7WCEE Conference, Proceedings of 2nd Seminar on Repair and Retrofit of Structures*.
- 791 [27] Badoux, M., & Jirsa, J. O. (1990). Steel bracing of RC frames for seismic retrofitting. *Journal of Structural
792 Engineering*, 116(1), 55-74. DOI: 10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9445(1990)116:1(55)
- 793 [28] Maheri, M. R., & Sahebi, A. (1997). Use of steel bracing in reinforced concrete frames. *Engineering
794 Structures*, 19(12), 1018-1024. DOI: 10.1016/S0141-0296(97)00041-2
- 795 [29] Ghobarah, A., & Abou-Elfath, H. A. (2001). Rehabilitation of a reinforced concrete frame using eccentric
796 steel bracing. *Engineering structures*, 23(7), 745-755. DOI: 10.1016/S0141-0296(00)00100-0
- 797 [30] Maheri, M. R., & Akbari, R. (2003). Seismic behaviour factor, R, for steel X-braced and knee-braced RC
798 buildings. *Engineering structures*, 25(12), 1505-1513. DOI: 10.1016/S0141-0296(03)00117-2
- 799 [31] Youssef, M. A., Ghaffarzadeh, H., & Nehdi, M. (2007). Seismic performance of RC frames with concentric
800 internal steel bracing. *Engineering Structures*, 29(7), 1561-1568. DOI: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2006.08.027
- 801 [32] Mazzolani, F. M. (2008). Innovative metal systems for seismic upgrading of RC structures. *Journal of
802 Constructional Steel Research*, 64(7-8), 882-895. DOI: 10.1016/j.jcsr.2007.12.017
- 803 [33] Di Sarno, L., & Elnashai, A. S. (2009). Bracing systems for seismic retrofitting of steel frames. *Journal of
804 Constructional Steel Research*, 65(2), 452-465. DOI: 10.1016/j.jcsr.2008.02.013
- 805 [34] Güneysi, E. M. (2012). Seismic reliability of steel moment resisting framed buildings retrofitted with
806 buckling restrained braces. *Earthquake Engineering & Structural Dynamics*, 41(5), 853-874. DOI:
807 10.1002/eqe.1161
- 808 [35] Sutcu, F., Takeuchi, T., & Matsui, R. (2014). Seismic retrofit design method for RC buildings using
809 buckling-restrained braces and steel frames. *Journal of Constructional Steel Research*, 101, 304-313.
810 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jcsr.2014.05.02>

- 811 [36] Rahimi, A., & Maheri, M. R. (2018). The effects of retrofitting RC frames by X-bracing on the seismic
812 performance of columns. *Engineering Structures*, 173, 813-830. DOI: 10.1016/j.engstruct.2018.07.003
- 813 [37] Lagaros, N.D. (2014). A general purpose real-world structural design optimization computing platform,
814 *Structural and Multidisciplinary Optimization*, 49, 1047-1066. DOI: 10.1007/s00158-013-1027-1
- 815 [38] Lagaros, N.D. (2018). The environmental and economic impact of structural optimization, *Structural and*
816 *Multidisciplinary Optimization*, 58(4), 1751-1768. DOI: 10.1007/s00158-018-1998-z.
- 817 [39] Mavrokapnidis, D., Mitropoulou, Ch.Ch., Lagaros, N.D. (2019). Environmental assessment of cost
818 optimized structural systems in tall buildings, *Journal of Building Engineering*, 24, 100730. DOI:
819 10.1016/j.jobe.2019.100730.
- 820 [40] Papavasileiou, G.S., Charmpis, D.C. (2016). Seismic design optimization of multi-storey steel-concrete
821 composite buildings, *Computers and Structures*, 170, 49-61. DOI: 10.1016/j.compstruc.2016.03.010.
- 822 [41] Papavasileiou, G.S., Charmpis, D.C. (2020). Earthquake-resistant buildings with steel or composite columns:
823 Comparative assessment using structural optimization, *Journal of Building Engineering*, 27, 100988. DOI:
824 10.1016/j.jobe.2019.100988
- 825 [42] Comité Européen de Normalisation. (2003). *Eurocode 4: Design of Composite Steel and Concrete*
826 *Structures*. Brussels, Belgium: Comité Européen de Normalisation (CEN).
- 827 [43] Mazzoni S, McKenna F, Scott M, Fenves GL. Open System for Earthquake Engineering Simulation,
828 OpenSees Command Language Manual, PEER Center, California, USA, 2006.
- 829 [44] Papadrakakis, M., Lagaros, N.D., Thierauf, G., Cai, J. (1998). Advanced solution methods in structural
830 optimization based on evolution strategies, *Journal of Engineering Computations*, 15(1), 12-34. DOI:
831 10.1108/02644409810200668.
- 832 [45] Comité Européen de Normalisation. (2003). *Eurocode 3: Design of Steel Structures (ENV 1993)*. Brussels,
833 Belgium: Comité Européen de Normalisation (CEN).
- 834 [46] American Society of Civil Engineers. (2006). *Seismic Rehabilitation of Existing Buildings, A.S.C.E.*
835 *Standard A.S.C.E./S.E.I. 41-06, including Supplement No. 1*. Reston, Virginia, U.S.A.: American Society
836 of Civil Engineers.
- 837 [47] Federal Emergency Management Agency. (2005). *Improvement of Nonlinear Static Seismic Analysis*
838 *Procedures (FEMA-440)*. Washington D.C., U.S.A.: Federal Emergency Management Agency.
- 839 [48] Goel, R. K., and Chopra, A. K. (1997). Period formulas for moment-resisting frame buildings. *Journal of*
840 *Structural Engineering*, 123 (11), 1454-1461. DOI: 10.1061/(ASCE)0733-9445(1997)123:11(1454)