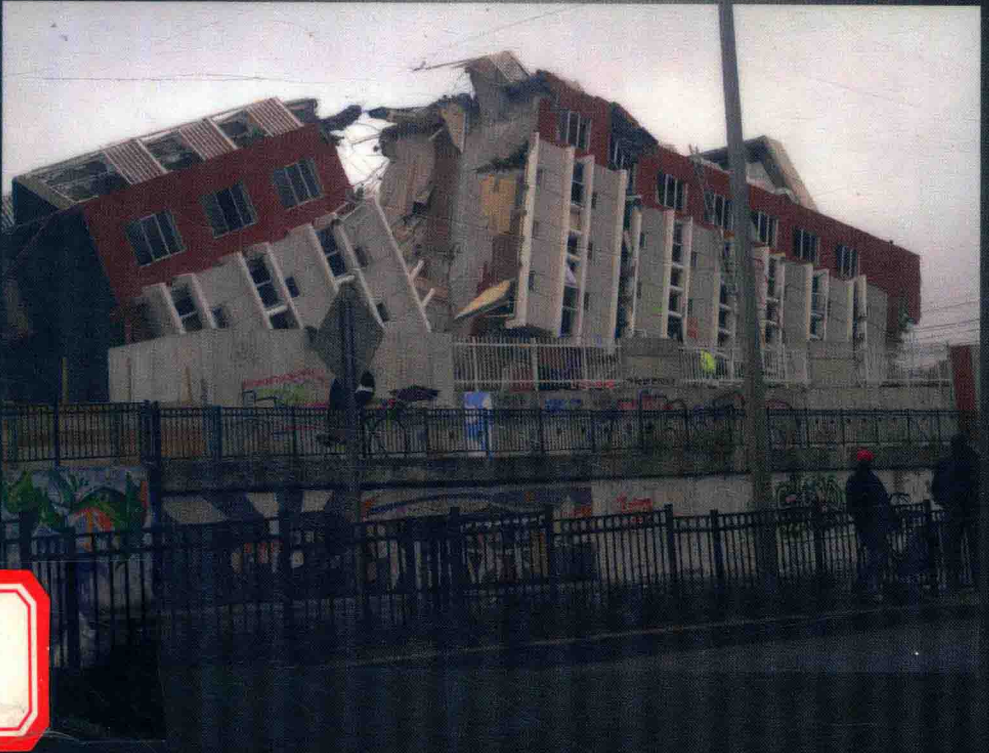


Basic Earthquake Engineering

Petre Kozel



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Editor

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Edited by **Petre Kozel**

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Preface

Earthquake engineering or seismic engineering is the scientific field concerned with protecting society, the natural environment, and the man-made environment from earthquakes by limiting the seismic risk to socio-economically acceptable levels. Earthquake Engineering can be defined as the branch of engineering devoted to mitigating earthquake hazards. In this broad sense, earthquake engineering covers the investigation and solution of the problems created by damaging earthquakes, and consequently the work involved in the practical application of these solutions, i.e. in planning, designing, constructing and managing earthquake-resistant structures and facilities.

The main objectives of earthquake engineering are to predict the potential consequences of strong earthquakes on urban areas and civil infrastructure. A properly engineered structure does not necessarily have to be extremely strong or expensive. It has to be properly designed to withstand the seismic effects while sustaining an acceptable level of damage.

This book emphasize to students of structural and architectural engineering the problems and solutions in attaining efficient earthquake-resistant structures and facilities. To achieve this objective, after a brief discussion of the general goals in seismic-resistant design and construction of structures and facilities, the diverse sources of damage that can be triggered by an earthquake are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

A Cognitive Look at Geotechnical Earthquake Engineering: Understanding The Multidimensionality of The Phenomena

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INTRODUCTION

Essentially, disasters are human-made. For a catastrophic event, whether precipitated by natural phenomena or human activities, assumes the state of a disaster when the community or society affected fails to cope. Earthquake hazards themselves do not necessarily lead to disasters, however intense, inevitable or unpredictable, translate to disasters only to the extent that the population is unprepared to respond, unable to deal with, and, consequently, severely affected. Seismic disasters could, in fact, be reduced if not prevented. With today's advancements in science and technology, including early warning and forecasting of the natural phenomena, together with innovative approaches and strategies for enhancing local capacities, the impact of earthquake hazards somehow could be predicted and mitigated, its detrimental effects on populations reduced, and the communities adequately protected.

After each major earthquake, it has been concluded that the experienced ground motions were not expected and soil behavior and soil-structure interaction were not properly predicted. Failures, associated to inadequate design/construction and to lack of phenomena comprehension, obligate further code reinforcement and research. This scenario will be repeated after each earthquake. To overcome this issue, *Earthquake Engineering* should change its views on the present methodologies and techniques toward more scientific, doable, affordable, robust and adaptable solutions.

A competent modeling of engineering systems, when they are affected by seismic activity, poses many difficult challenges. Any representation designed for reasoning about models of such systems has to be flexible enough to handle various degrees of complexity and uncertainty, and at the same time be sufficiently powerful to deal with situations in which the input signal may or may not be controllable. Mathematically-based models are developed using scientific theories and concepts that just apply to particular conditions. Thus, the core of the model comes from assumptions that for complex systems usually lead to simplifications (perhaps oversimplifications) of the problem phenomena. It is fair to argue that the representativeness of a particular theoretical model largely depends on the degree of comprehension the developer has on the behavior of the actual engineering problem. Predicting natural-phenomena characteristics like those of earthquakes, and thereupon their potential effects at particular sites, certainly belong to a class of problems we do not fully understand. Accordingly, analytical modeling often becomes the bottleneck in the development of more accurate procedures. As a consequence, a strong demand for advanced modeling and identification schemes arises.

Cognitive Computing CC technologies have provided us with a unique opportunity to establish coherent seismic analysis environments in which uncertainty and partial data-knowledge are systematically handled. By seamlessly combining learning, adaptation, evolution, and fuzziness, CC complements current engineering approaches allowing us develop a more comprehensive and unified framework to the effective management of earthquake phenomena. Each CC algorithm has well-defined labels and could usually be identified with specific scientific communities. Lately, as we improved our understanding of these algorithms' strengths and weaknesses, we began to leverage their best features and developed hybrid algorithms that indicate a new trend of co-existence and integration between many scientific communities to solve a specific task.

In this chapter geotechnical aspects of earthquake engineering under a cognitive examination are covered. Geotechnical earthquake engineering, an area that deals with the design and construction of projects in order to resist the effect of earthquakes, requires an understanding of geology, seismology and earthquake engineering. Furthermore, practice of geotechnical earthquake engineering also requires consideration of social, economic and political factors. Via the development of cognitive interpretations of selected topics: i) spatial variation of soil dynamic properties, ii) attenuation laws for rock sites (seismic input), iii) generation of artificial-motion time histories, iv) effects of local site conditions (site effects), and iv) evaluation of liquefaction susceptibility, CC techniques (Neural Networks NNs, Fuzzy Logic FL and Genetic Algorithms GAs) are

presented as appealing alternatives for integrated data-driven and theoretical procedures to generate reliable seismic models.

GEOTECHNICAL EARTHQUAKE HAZARDS

The author is well aware that standards for geotechnical seismic design are under development worldwide. While there is no need to “reinvent the wheel” there is a requirement to adapt such initiatives to fit the emerging safety philosophy and demands. This investigation also strongly endorses the view that “guidelines” are far more desirable than “codes” or “standards” disseminated all over seismic regions. Flexibility in approach is a key ingredient of geotechnical engineering and the cognitive technology in this area is rapidly advancing. The science and practice of geotechnical earthquake engineering is far from mature and need to be expanded and revised periodically in coming years. It is important that readers and users of the computational models presented here familiarize themselves with the latest advances and amend the recommendations herein appropriately.

This document is not intended to be a detailed treatise of latest research in geotechnical earthquake engineering, but to provide sound guidelines to support rational cognitive approaches. While every effort has been made to make the material useful in a wider range of applications, applicability of the material is a matter for the user to judge. The main aim of this guidance document is to promote consistency of cognitive approach to everyday situations and, thus, improve geotechnical-earthquake aspects of the performance of the built safe-environment.

A “Soft” Interpretation of Ground Motions

After a sudden rupture of the earth’s crust (caused by accumulating stresses, elastic strain-energy) a certain amount of energy radiates from the rupture as seismic waves. These waves are attenuated, refracted, and reflected as they travel through the earth, eventually reaching the surface where they cause ground shaking. The principal geotechnical hazards associated with this event are fault rupture, ground shaking, liquefaction and lateral spreading, and landsliding. Ground shaking is one of the principal seismic hazards that causes extensive damage to the built environment and failure of engineering systems over large areas. Earthquake loads and their effects on structures are directly related to the

intensity and duration of ground shaking. Similarly, the level of ground deformation, damage to earth structures and ground failures are closely related to the severity of ground shaking.

In engineering evaluations, three characteristics of ground shaking are typically considered: i) the amplitude, ii) frequency content and iii) significant duration of shaking (time over which the ground motion has relatively significant amplitudes). These characteristics of the ground motion at a given site are affected by numerous complex factors such as the source mechanism, earthquake magnitude, rupture directivity, propagation path of seismic waves, source distance and effects of local soil conditions. There are many unknowns and uncertainties associated with these issues which in turn result in significant uncertainties regarding the characteristics of the ground motion and earthquake loads.

If the random nature of response to earthquakes (aleatory uncertainty) cannot be avoided [1,2], it is our limited knowledge about the patterns between seismic events and their manifestations -ground motions- at a site (epistemic uncertainty) that must be improved through more scientific seismic analyses. A strategic factor in seismic hazard analysis is the ground motion model or attenuation relation. These attenuation relationships have been developed based on magnitude, distance and site category, however, there is a tendency to incorporate other parameters, which are now known to be significant, as the tectonic environment, style of faulting and the effects of topography, deep basin edges and rupture directivity. These distinctions are recognized in North America, Japan and New Zealand [3-6], but ignored in most other regions of the world [7]. Despite recorded data suggest that ground motions depend, in a significant way, on these aspects, these inclusions did not have had a remarkable effect on the predictions confidence and the geotechnical earthquake engineer prefers the basic and clear-cut approximations on those that demand a *blind* use of coefficients or an intricate determination of soil/fault conditions.

A key practice in current aseismic design is to develop design spectrum compatible time histories. This development entails the modification of a time history so that its response spectrum matches within a prescribed tolerance level, the target design spectrum. In such matching it is important to retain the phase characteristics of the selected ground motion time history. Many of the techniques used to develop compatible motions do not retain the phase [8]. The response spectrum alone does not adequately characterize specific-fault ground motion. Near-fault ground motions must be characterized by a long period pulse of strong motion of a fairly brief duration rather than the stochastic process of long duration that characterizes more distant ground motions. Spectrum compatible with

these specific motions will not have these characteristics unless the basic motion being modified to ensure compatibility has these effects included. Spectral compatible motions could match the entire spectrum but the problem arises on finding a “real” earthquake time series that match the specific nature of ground motion. For nonlinear analysis of structures, spectrum compatible motions should also correspond to the particular energy input [9], for this reason, designers should be cautious about using spectrum compatible motions when estimating the displacements of embankment dams and earth structures under strong shaking, if the acceptable performance of these structures is specified by criteria based on tolerable displacements.

Another important seismic phenomenon is the liquefaction. Liquefaction is associated with significant loss of stiffness and strength in the shaken soil and consequent large ground deformation. Particularly damaging for engineering structures are cyclic ground movements during the period of shaking and excessive residual deformations such as settlements of the ground and lateral spreads. Ground surface disruption including surface cracking, dislocation, ground distortion, slumping and permanent deformations, large settlements and lateral spreads are commonly observed at liquefied sites. In sloping ground and backfills behind retaining structures in waterfront areas, liquefaction often results in large permanent ground displacements in the down-slope direction or towards waterways (lateral spreads). Dams, embankments and sloping ground near riverbanks where certain shear strength is required for stability under gravity loads are particularly prone to such failures. Clay soils may also suffer some loss of strength during shaking but are not subject to boils and other “classic” liquefaction phenomena. For intermediate soils, the transition from “sand like” to “clay-like” behavior depends primarily on whether the soil is a matrix of coarse grains with fines contained within the pores or a matrix of plastic fines with coarse grained “filler”. Recent papers by Boulanger and Idriss [10, 11] are helpful in clarifying issues surrounding the liquefaction and strain softening of different soil types during strong ground shaking. Engineering judgment based on good quality investigations and data interpretation should be used for classifying such soils as liquefiable or non-liquefiable.

Procedures for evaluating liquefaction, potential and induced lateral spread, have been studied by many engineering committees around the world. The objective has been to review research and field experience on liquefaction and recommended standards for practice. Youd and Idriss [12] findings and the liquefaction-resistance chart proposed by Seed et al. [13] in 1985, stay as standards for practice. They have been slightly modified to adjust new registered input-output conditions and there is a strong

tendency to recommend i) the adoption of the cone penetration test CPT, standard penetration test SPT or the shear wave velocities for describing the *in situ* soil conditions [14] and ii) the modification of magnitude factors used to convert the critical stress ratios from the liquefaction assessment charts (usually developed for M7.5) to those appropriate for earthquakes of diverse magnitudes [12, 15].

COGNITIVE COMPUTING

Cognitive Computing CC as a discipline in a narrow sense is an application of computers to solve a given computational problem by imperative instructions; while in a broad sense, it is a process to implement the instructive intelligence by a system that transfers a set of given information or instructions into expected behaviors. According to theories of cognitive informatics [16-18], computing technologies and systems may be classified into the categories of imperative, autonomic, and cognitive from the bottom up. Imperative computing is a traditional and passive technology based on stored-program controlled behaviors for data processing [19-24]. An autonomic computing is goal-driven and self-decision-driven technologies that do not rely on instructive and procedural information [25-28]. Cognitive computing is more intelligent technologies beyond imperative and autonomic computing, which embodies major natural intelligence behaviors of the brain such as thinking, inference, learning, and perceptions.

Cognitive computing is an emerging paradigm of intelligent computing methodologies and systems, which implements computational intelligence by autonomous inferences and perceptions mimicking the mechanisms of the brain. This section presents a brief description on the theoretical framework and architectural techniques of cognitive computing beyond conventional imperative and autonomic computing technologies. Cognitive models are explored on the basis of the latest advances in applying computational intelligence. These applications of cognitive computing are described from the aspects of cognitive search engines, which demonstrate how machine and computational intelligence technologies can drive us toward autonomous knowledge processing.

Computational Intelligence: Soft Computing Technologies

The *computational intelligence* is a synergistic integration of essentially three computing paradigms, viz. neural networks, fuzzy logic and evolutionary computation entailing probabilistic reasoning (belief networks, genetic algorithms and chaotic systems) [29]. This synergism provides a framework for flexible information processing applications designed to operate in the real world and is commonly called *Soft Computing SC* [30]. Soft computing technologies are robust by design, and operate by trading off precision for tractability. Since they can handle uncertainty with ease, they conform better to real world situations and provide lower cost solutions.

The three components of soft computing differ from one another in more than one way. Neural networks operate in a numeric framework, and are well known for their learning and generalization capabilities. Fuzzy systems [31] operate in a linguistic framework, and their strength lies in their capability to handle linguistic information and perform approximate reasoning. The evolutionary computation techniques provide powerful search and optimization methodologies. All the three facets of soft computing differ from one another in their time scales of operation and in the extent to which they embed *a priori* knowledge.

Figure 1 shows a general structure of Soft Computing technology. The following main components of SC are known by now: fuzzy logic FL, neural networks NN, probabilistic reasoning PR, genetic algorithms GA, and chaos theory ChT (Figure 1). In SC FL is mainly concerned with imprecision and approximate reasoning, NN with learning, PR with uncertainty and propagation of belief, GA with global optimization and search and ChT with nonlinear dynamics. Each of these computational paradigms (emerging reasoning technologies) provides us with complementary reasoning and searching methods to solve complex, real-world problems. In large scope, FL, NN, PR, and GA are complementary rather than competitive [32-34]. The interrelations between the components of SC, shown in Figure 1, make the theoretical foundation of Hybrid Intelligent Systems. As noted by L. Zadeh: "... the term hybrid intelligent systems is gaining currency as a descriptor of systems in which FL, NC, and PR are used in combination. In my view, hybrid intelligent systems are the wave of the future" [35]. The use of Hybrid Intelligent Systems are leading to the development of numerous manufacturing system, multimedia system, intelligent robots, trading systems, which exhibits a high level of MIQ (machine intelligence quotient).

Comparative Characteristics of SC Tools

The constituents of SC can be used independently (fuzzy computing, neural computing, evolutionary computing etc.), and more often in combination [36, 37, 38- 40, 41]. Based on independent use of the constituents of Soft Computing, fuzzy technology, neural technology, chaos technology and others have been recently applied as emerging technologies to both industrial and non-industrial areas.

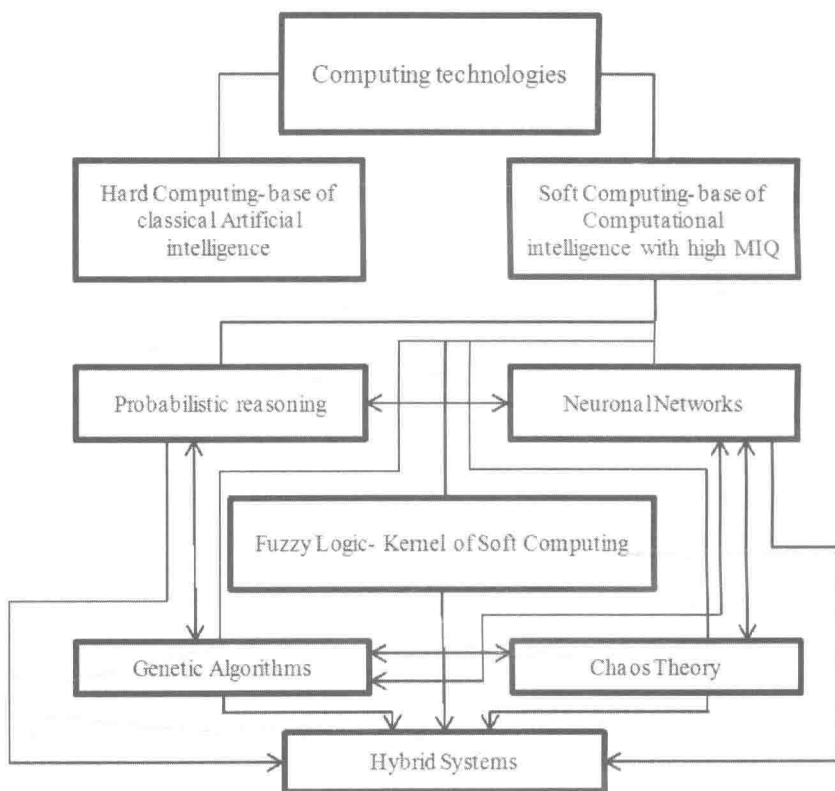


Figure 1. Soft Computing Components.

Fuzzy logic is the leading constituent of Soft Computing. In Soft Computing, fuzzy logic plays a unique role. FL serves to provide a methodology for computing [36]. It has been successfully applied to many industrial spheres, robotics, complex decision making and diagnosis, data compression, and many other areas. To design a system processor for handling knowledge represented in a linguistic or uncertain numerical

form we need a fuzzy model of the system. Fuzzy sets can be used as a universal approximator, which is very important for modeling unknown objects. If an operator cannot tell linguistically what kind of action he or she takes in a specific situation, then it is quite useful to model his/her control actions using numerical data. However, fuzzy logic in its so called *pure form* is not always useful for easily constructing intelligent systems. For example, when a designer does not have sufficient prior information (knowledge) about the system, development of acceptable fuzzy rule base becomes impossible. As the complexity of the system increases, it becomes difficult to specify a correct set of rules and membership functions for describing adequately the behavior of the system. Fuzzy systems also have the disadvantage of not being able to extract additional knowledge from the experience and correcting the fuzzy rules for improving the performance of the system.

Another important component of Soft Computing is neural networks. Neural networks NN viewed as parallel computational models are parallel fine-grained implementation of non-linear static or dynamic systems. A very important feature of these networks is their adaptive nature, where "learning by example" replaces traditional "programming" in problems solving. Another key feature is the intrinsic parallelism that allows fast computations. Neural networks are viable computational models for a wide variety of problems including pattern classification, speech synthesis and recognition, curve fitting, approximation capability, image data compression, associative memory, and modeling and control of non-linear unknown systems [42, 43]. NN are favorably distinguished for efficiency of their computations and hardware implementations. Another advantage of NN is generalization ability, which is the ability to classify correctly new patterns. A significant disadvantage of NN is their poor interpretability. One of the main criticisms addressed to neural networks concerns their black box nature [35].

Evolutionary Computing EC is a revolutionary approach to optimization. One part of EC—genetic algorithms—are algorithms for global optimization. Genetic algorithms GAs are based on the mechanisms of natural selection and genetics [44]. One advantage of genetic algorithms is that they effectively implement parallel multi-criteria search. The mechanism of genetic algorithms is simple. Simplicity of operations and powerful computational effect are the two main advantages of genetic algorithms. The disadvantages are the problem of convergence and the absence of strong theoretical foundation. The requirement of coding the domain of the real variables' into bit strings also seems to be a drawback of genetic algorithms. It should be also noted that the computational speed of genetic algorithms is low.

Because in this investigation PR and ChT are not exploited, they are not going to be explained. For the interested reader [41] is recommended. Table 1 presents the comparative characteristics of the components of Soft Computing. For each component of Soft Computing there is a specific class of problems, where the use of other components is inadequate.

Intelligent Combinations of SC

As it was shown above, the components of SC complement each other, rather than compete. It becomes clear that FL, NC and GA are more effective when used in combinations. Lack of interpretability of neural networks and poor learning capability of fuzzy systems are similar problems that limit the application of these tools. Neurofuzzy systems are hybrid systems which try to solve this problem by combining the learning capability of connectionist models with the interpretability property of fuzzy systems. As it was noted above, in case of dynamic work environment, the automatic knowledge base correction in fuzzy systems becomes necessary. On the other hand, artificial neural networks are successfully used in problems connected to knowledge acquisition using learning by examples with the required degree of precision.

Incorporating neural networks in fuzzy systems for fuzzification, construction of fuzzy rules, optimization and adaptation of fuzzy knowledge base and implementation of fuzzy reasoning is the essence of the Neurofuzzy approach.

Table 1: Central characteristics of Soft Computing technologies

	Fuzzy Sets	Artificial Neural Networks	Evolutionary Computing, GA	Probabilistic Reasoning	Chaotic computing
Weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge acquisition • Learning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Black Box interpretability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coding • Computational speed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limitation of the axioms of Probability Theory • Lack of complete knowledge • Computational complexity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computational complexity • Chaos identification complexity
Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpretability • Transparency • Plausibility • Graduality • Modeling • Reasoning • Tolerance to imprecision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning • Adaptation • Fault tolerance • Curve fitting • Generalization ability • Approximation ability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Computational efficiency • Global optimization 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rigorous framework • Well understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nonlinear dynamics simulation • Discovering chaos in observed data (with noise) • Determining the predictability • Prediction strategies formulation

The combination of genetic algorithms with neural networks yields promising results as well. It is known that one of main problems in development of artificial neural systems is selection of a suitable learning method for tuning the parameters of a neural network (weights, thresholds, and structure). The most known algorithm is the "error back propagation" algorithm. Unfortunately, there are some difficulties with "back propagation". First, the effectiveness of the learning considerably depends on initial set of weights, which are generated randomly. Second, the "back propagation", like any other gradient-based method, does not avoid local minima. Third, if the learning rate is too slow, it requires too much time to find the solution. If, on the other hand, the learning rate is too high it can generate oscillations around the desired point in the weight space. Fourth, "back propagation" requires the activation functions to be differentiable. This condition does not hold for many types of neural networks. Genetic algorithms used for solving many optimization problems when the "strong" methods fail to find appropriate solution, can be successfully applied for learning neural networks, because they are free of the above drawbacks.

The models of artificial neurons, which use linear, threshold, sigmoidal and other transfer functions are effective for neural computing. However, it should be noted that such models are very simplified. For example, reaction of a biological axon is chaotic even if the input is periodical. In this aspect the more adequate model of neurons seems to be chaotic. Model of a chaotic neuron can be used as an element of chaotic neural networks. The more adequate results can be obtained if using fuzzy chaotic neural networks, which are closer to biological computation. Fuzzy systems with If-Then rules can model non-linear dynamic systems and capture chaotic attractors easily and accurately. Combination of Fuzzy Logic and Chaos Theory gives us useful tool for building system's chaotic behavior into rule structure. Identification of chaos allows us to determine predicting strategies. If we use a Neural Network Predictor for predicting the system's behavior, the parameters of the strange attractor (in particular fractal dimension) tell us how much data are necessary to train the neural network. The combination of Neurocomputing and Chaotic computing technologies can be very helpful for prediction and control.

The cooperation between these formalisms gives a useful tool for modeling and reasoning under uncertainty in complicated real-world problems. Such cooperation is of particular importance for constructing perception-based intelligent information systems. We hope that the mentioned intelligent combinations will develop further, and the new ones will be proposed. These SC paradigms will form the basis for creation and development of Computational Intelligence.