# A Modular and Sustainable Steel Superstructure for a Highway Overpass





# A Modular and Sustainable Steel Superstructure for a Highway Overpass

Thesis report

by

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### Preface

<span id="page-2-0"></span>Before you lies the master thesis "A Modular and Sustainable Steel Superstructure for a Highway Overpass". It is the final contribution to the master Structural Engineering, which is part of the Civil Engineering master, at the Delft University of Technology in Delft, the Netherlands. This thesis is the product of dedicated work on research and writing from May 2023 until May 2024.

As I became more familiar with civil engineering, I realised the field is constantly in development. Therefore, I wanted to investigate an actual topic on which I could apply the knowledge learned during my studies. Where at first the scope of the research appeared to me broad, I found out that gaining knowledge allows you to narrow down the scope during the research process. I was also able to use and apply the different skills developed during my study period in my master thesis, ranging from Multi-Criteria Assessments to structural calculations and from literature study to environmental impact calculations. In conclusion, I have learned valuable lessons during the research and writing of this thesis and gained understanding on multiple, relevant topics in engineering.

I would like to thank my daily supervisors, Dr. Trayana Tankova and Ir. Job van Heusden, for the valuable support and feedback. Their experience and suggestions allowed me to improve my work and helped me to include aspects I may not have thought about myself. I would also like to thank the members of my thesis committee: Prof. dr. Milan Veljkovic, Dr. Florentia Kavoura and Dr. Sandra Barbosa Nunes, and Dr. Mauro Poliotti, who was involved in the committee until April. Their advice has helped me to develop new insights and stay on course during my research. I would like to thank all the colleagues at Sweco for their help with my research and the interesting conversations.

Lastly, I want to thank my family and friends for their support during the research and writing of my thesis. To the reader, I hope that you enjoy this thesis and find inspiration for your own projects.

Jinse Schoorl

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### Abstract

<span id="page-3-0"></span>Due to the transition towards a circular economy, sustainable design strategies are growing in importance. An example of such a strategy is IFD: Industrial, Flexible and Demountable design. This design strategy has been developed recently and focuses on modular designs that can be changed in shape and whose components can be demounted and reused. Given the increasing interest in IFD, this thesis aims to investigate how the principles of IFD can be applied in the design of a sustainable superstructure for an overpass. The goal is to assess which structural system is best for use in a sustainable IFD overpass and to determine how the overpass can be converted into a modular overpass by focusing on connections and module dimensions. To demonstrate the potential of the IFD design, the sustainability benefits of the overpass are evaluated.

Through a review of literature on IFD and similar design strategies, guidelines were formulated that are relevant for overpasses. Based on the guidelines, designs for three structural systems were developed using a preliminary design approach. These designs were assessed on their environmental impact and compliance with IFD principles. The environmental impact was quantified using Life-Cycle Assessment data, which was converted into an Environmental Cost Indicator. The compliance with IFD principles was assessed by performing a Multi-Criteria Assessment. Then, a literature study on the connections was performed to investigate the different options. The focus was on the demountability and reusability of the connections. Regarding the most important connection, the shear connection between the deck and girders of the structure, a finite-element model was made to evaluate the effects of different shear connectors on the structural behaviour. To be able to use the connectors in the model, an elastic limit was imposed to ensure demountability and reusability; small adjustments were made on the reported behaviour of the connectors using a parametric study. For the other connections, their feasibility was proved by development of possible design solutions. The sustainability benefits of the final design were evaluated using the Environmental Cost Indicator.

The study showed that, of the three possible designs, the Composite alternative results in the lowest environmental impact. Regarding the MCA on the IFD principles, the Orthotropic alternative performs slightly better than the Composite alternative. The conclusion was that, in terms of the overall behaviour, the Composite alternative is the best. For the shear connection, the number of relevant shear connectors was reduced to four by considering the tolerances for assembly and the protrusion of connectors from the main elements of the structure. From the four remaining connectors, the Embedded Coupler Device connection without injected resin was found to be the most favourable, due to it requiring the lowest number of connectors in the serviceability limit state. For the steel girder connection, a shear-loaded bolted connection was proposed; shear keys were found to be a good solution for the deck connection. Moreover, module dimensions were determined based on sustainability considerations and IFD principles, leading to the final design.

The proposed design shows that IFD principles can successfully be applied to come to a design for an overpass. The use of a small selection of modular elements and demountable connections creates a flexible design, which complies with all the IFD principles. By application of a structural system with a low environmental impact, sustainability of the design is also accounted for. The IFD design is competitive in situations where the overpass is extended or when it is disassembled and reassembled, since for these scenarios it ends up with the lowest overall environmental impact. This leads to the recommendation to use IFD design in situations where flexibility and reusability are advantageous.

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<span id="page-13-0"></span>**I** Research Framework

# 1 Introduction

#### <span id="page-14-1"></span><span id="page-14-0"></span>**1.1. Relevance**

The Netherlands is heading towards a circular economy. In 2016, the Dutch government announced a national programme to fulfil the transition towards a circular economy by 2050 [\[1\]](#page-103-5). Every part of society is involved in this process, which includes the construction industry. In comparison with the government the goals of the construction industry are even more ambitious, as Rijkswaterstaat aims to develop a circular practice by 2030 [\[2\]](#page-103-6). The need for this is clear: the Dutch construction industry is responsible for an estimated 50% of the material usage and approximately 35% of the CO2-emissions [\[1\]](#page-103-5).

The ambition is not only theoretical: circular design has been put into practice already. There are several examples of this, one of which is the SBIR-invitation issued by Rijkswaterstaat. The SBIR-invitation is a challenge proposed to the market to come with innovative circular solutions [\[3\]](#page-103-7).

The SBIR-invitation shows that there are multiple ways to come to a circular practice. One of the methods is IFD: Industrial, Flexible and Demountable design. Like many circular design approaches, IFD is increasing in importance due to the ambitions regarding a circular economy. This is illustrated by the ambition of the province of Noord-Holland to design all their bridges according to IFD principles [\[4\]](#page-103-8). Though IFD design is seen more often, as IFD has become relevant only recently, the field is very much in development. As a result, the scope is often broad, leading to a collection of guidelines that serve many applications, including non-civil applications. For civil structures, two NTAs have been developed in the Netherlands that list guidelines and points of attention for IFD design, yet, as they focus specifically on movable bridges and fixed concrete overpasses, they may not be as relevant for other types of bridges and overpasses. Hence, considering that a vast amount of guidelines or methods exist that are in some form related to IFD, it is important to review these and focus on the guidelines and methods that are relevant specifically for overpasses and bridges. That IFD is a recent development, is also seen in the limited number of examples that exist. Most structures are designed as temporary bridges and not specifically IFD structures. Moreover, they are not always applicable for use in highways, where a significant number of bridges and overpasses is located. An exception is the Circular viaduct, a pilot project initiated by Rijkswaterstaat. This project provides valuable insights in the possibilities and challenges of an IFD design.

Apart from the circular economy, there is another aspect that requires attention. This is the expected growth of projects within the scope of Replacement & Renovation (Vervanging & Renovatie in Dutch). In the coming years, there will be an increasing number of structures that require renovation or replacement, due to them reaching the end of their design life. The extent of this Replacement & Renovation task has been quantified in a prognosis by Rijkswaterstaat: the costs to fulfil this task are expected to be four times higher for the period 2041-2050 compared to the period 2023-2030, visualised in Figure [1.1](#page-15-4) [\[5\]](#page-103-1). The extent of the Replacement & Renovation task means that there is high demand for new, circular structures. This is where a design approach like IFD has potential. This potential comes not only in the form of the development of flexible and demountable structures, but also by modularity in the design. The high degree of modularity in the design allows for an efficient design process and can potentially reduce engineering costs and installation time.

As one of the three aspects of IFD demountability needs to be incorporated into a design. This requires connections that can easily be demounted. Whilst for steel structures this is common practice - bolted connections are commonly used in various structures - for other materials and most notably concrete, this is less straightforward. In case of the discussed steel-concrete composite structure the connection between the steel and concrete is of particular interest. Traditionally, this connection was created with non-demountable welded studs, yet in recent years various designs have been developed for demountable shear connectors, often utilising bolts. The focus of the existing research is mainly on the individual behaviour of the shear connectors, which is evaluated by performing tests. What is not yet clear is how these connectors

<span id="page-15-4"></span>

**Figure 1.1:** Cost prognosis Replacement & Renovation task [adapted from [\[5\]](#page-103-1)]

behave in an IFD structure. To develop this understanding, it is important to consider the tested behaviour of these connectors in the context of an IFD structure.

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>**1.2. Research formulation**

#### <span id="page-15-1"></span>**1.2.1. Objectives**

The aim of this research is to develop a design for an overpass that contributes to circularity and a more sustainable practice in infrastructure. The central theme is circularity, which comes forward in the design by following the strategy of IFD and the development of a modular structure. Following the application of the IFD design strategy, the first objective is to investigate what the IFD principles are and how they can be applied to optimise an overpass. The second objective is to translate the optimised preliminary design into modules and investigate and develop the connections. The third goal is to assess the benefits of the IFD design in comparison with conventional structures, where the emphasis is on benefits regarding sustainability.

#### <span id="page-15-2"></span>**1.2.2. Research questions**

The main research question of this thesis has been defined as:

*"How can a sustainable overpass be designed with the application of IFD principles?"*

To support the main research question the following sub-questions are formulated:

- How can an overpass be optimised complying with IFD principles and using a preliminary design approach?
- What are the best dimensions for the modules and how can these be connected?
- What are the sustainability benefits of the IFD design in comparison with conventional solutions?

#### <span id="page-15-3"></span>**1.2.3. Research methodology**

The research methodology is described for each of the four phases that can be distinguished in the research. The methodology is explained and graphically shown in Figure [1.2.](#page-16-0)

The first phase within this research focused on the definition of the requirements for the overpass and an investigation concerning the options for its design. For the requirements, the central theme was the design approach of IFD. Besides literature on IFD principles, publications on similar design approaches were consulted to come to a selection of guidelines and principles that focus on overpasses and bridges. The state-of-the-art regarding demountable structures was also studied. The investigation of the design options looked into the suitability of different materials for the use within an IFD structure. The aspects to consider were derived from the formulated IFD guidelines and principles. Based on the materials

<span id="page-16-0"></span>

**Figure 1.2:** Research methodology

that are best applicable, the available structural systems were investigated. From this investigation three alternatives were chosen to explore further.

The objective of the second phase was to determine which of the three alternatives is best suitable as a sustainable IFD overpass. Dimensions were determined for the alternatives with hand calculations and using iterations, with the aim of approaching the optimal dimensions in terms of sustainability. The alternatives were then evaluated on their performance on two aspects: sustainability and IFD principles. Sustainability was assessed by calculating the so-called Environmental Cost Indicator (ECI), which monetises the environmental impact. The environmental impact data was retrieved from existing databases and through published Environmental Product Declarations (EPD). Based on the dimensions of the designs and the environmental impact data for the used materials, the ECI could be calculated to show the environmental impact of the full designs. IFD principles were assessed using a Multi-Criteria Assessment (MCA). The MCA is composed of a number of categories that have been derived from the literature review on IFD principles. The alternatives were scored on these categories quantitatively where possible, or otherwise qualitatively. After a normalisation of the scores, a final score was determined for each of the designs, which illustrates to what extent they comply with IFD principles. This phase concluded with a decision on which of the alternatives is most suitable as a sustainable IFD overpass.

The third phase concerned the details of the design. Through a state-of-the-art study on the relevant connections it was investigated which of the options are the most suitable in the context of an IFD overpass. The main focus was on the shear connectors between the concrete deck and the steel girders. An explanation of the choice for prestressing reinforcement to form the longitudinal joint between the concrete deck plates, which was already included in the design alternatives, was also provided. To determine which of these connectors is best, a finite-element model was created using SCIA Engineer to simulate the behaviour of the structure with the connectors. To be able to build this model, it was necessary to translate test results of shear connectors into input for the model. This was done by determining what behaviour is expected from the connectors and with the help of a parametric study that had been performed on a selection of the shear connectors. Then, based on the verification that was governing for the structure, the most suitable connector was determined. The other connections were designed and verified to prove the validity of the assumptions regarding the connections in the model. The concrete deck connection was verified by combining hand calculations with the finite-element model and with reference to the Circular viaduct; for the steel girder connection a design was made using the finite-element based IDEA StatiCa software. With all connections known, it was possible to determine dimensions for the modules that form the structure. The dimensions were determined based on the sustainability dimensions, translated into the slenderness of the elements and their costs. The conclusion of this phase was the full design.

For the fourth phase it was discussed what the implications of the design are, regarding the preliminary design and the connections. It was also assessed what the sustainability benefits of the IFD design are, in comparison with conventional solutions. Firstly, designs were formulated with similar dimensions for the different solutions. Then, three scenarios were distinguished that highlight a benefit of IFD. Lastly, for each of the scenarios the environmental impact of the different solutions was calculated by using the ECI. The final part of this phase concerned the concluding remarks. Recommendations for further research and future use were also provided.

#### <span id="page-17-0"></span>**1.2.4. Delimitations**

Due to the limited time available, some delimitations are formulated that indicate which aspects are considered and which are not part of the research.

- The design is made for the main structural components of the superstructure, which is the structure that is placed on the supporting structures. Accordingly, the substructure and non-structural elements, e.g. guardrails or edge panels, are not designed. One of the reasons for this delimitation is that the environmental impact of the superstructure is larger than the impact of the substructure [\[6\]](#page-103-9). This means that more improvements can be made regarding the superstructure. Furthermore, there might be possibilities for reuse of existing substructures after removal of their current superstructure, as is shown by a project by Antea [\[7\]](#page-103-10).
- The design is designed as a simply supported system. As the load-bearing behaviour of the structure will always be similar, optimisation in terms of the structural system and material usage is more straightforward, especially considering the variability in spans that can be connected. It is also favourable for the behaviour of the structural systems that are considered. The use of simply supported systems still allows for the creation of multiple spans. Several simply supported systems can be used to create these spans, with the notion that no changes are needed to the system. Erection of these spans may also be more convenient when using simply supported systems.
- Dynamic effects are not considered.
- Extreme events, e.g. fire or collisions, are not included in the design.
- Environmental influences due to wind and snow are not included in the design.

#### <span id="page-17-1"></span>**1.3. Thesis structure**

Part I describes the research framework. Part II concerns the study phase, where the design space and requirements are discussed, followed by a literature review and the formulation of design options. Part III is the preliminary design. In this phase the design alternatives are explained and their performance is evaluated. Part IV concerns the detailed design. First, the options regarding the connections are investigated, after which the design is further developed and connections are verified. The dimensions of the modules are also determined. The final part is part V, where the implications of the design are discussed and it is illustrated how the performance of the design is regarding environmental impact. A conclusion and recommendations are also present in this part.

# <span id="page-18-0"></span>**II** Study Phase

## Design Space and Requirements

<span id="page-19-0"></span>Inherent to an IFD overpass is the flexibility in application. Hence, an overpass that can be used in as many situations as possible is preferable. However, as various variables are involved in the design of an overpass, many different configurations are possible and it is inefficient to develop one design that can be used for all these configurations. Accordingly, the design space describes the range of configurations to which the design is applicable. Following this range, requirements have been formulated, which the designs should meet.

#### <span id="page-19-1"></span>**2.1. Design space**

In the Netherlands, 64% of all existing overpasses is located within a highway [\[8\]](#page-103-11). Thus, in order to design an overpass that can be used in the majority of situations, the design adheres to highway requirements. As this is the most demanding application, it is still possible to use the design for other applications.

When investigating the different spans of viaducts within highways, it is found that not all spans are as common as others. A study on existing overpasses shows that the most prevalent are overpasses with a span range of 12-32 m, representing an estimated 75% of the total [\[9\]](#page-103-12). As a result, it was decided that the design needs to accommodate spans in a range of 12-32 m.

Apart from the span, the width of the overpass is also variable. The width of the overpass is directly dependent on the road cross-section. As a result, several widths can be expected to occur more frequently than others. With the majority of the overpasses located within highways, the cross-section is defined following highway layouts. It is decided to split the two directions of the road, for this requires a smaller width. In the Netherlands, most highways feature two or three lanes per carriageway, which is illustrated by Figure [2.1.](#page-20-1) Consequently, a two-lane or three-lane layout should be possible. Additionally, a layout with one lane per carriageway, to be used as parallel lanes for instance, should be possible to increase the potential for use. It is also decided to incorporate a two-lane layout for secondary roads (N-wegen in Dutch). The maximum width considered is a layout with three conventional lanes and a parallel lane, which is slightly larger than a regular four-lane layout. Although various layouts will be possible if the maximum width equals the (3+1)x1-layout, the priority is on the layouts of 2x1, 3x1 and 4x1 for highways and a 2x1 for secondary roads.

#### <span id="page-19-2"></span>**2.2. Design requirements**

#### <span id="page-19-3"></span>**2.2.1. General principles**

An overpass is to be designed for consequence class 3 in case it is located either within or over a main road [\[11\]](#page-103-13). Since this is the case for a significant number of overpasses within the design space, the overpass is designed according to consequence class 3.

Normally, the design life of highway structures is 100 years. However, to increase the potential of the IFD design, it is designed for a design life of 200 years. This design life is chosen as it is common for the design of circular structures. It has been applied for the example of the Circular viaduct, which is discussed in section [3.2](#page-26-0) [\[12\]](#page-103-4), and it was formulated as the upper limit for the design life in the following SBIR invitation [\[3\]](#page-103-7).

Relevant material properties are listed in appendix [A.](#page-110-0) These materials include steel, concrete, reinforcement steel and prestressing steel.

With regard to the verification of the design, Load Model 1 from EN 1991-2 is used for ultimate limit state (ULS) and serviceability limit state (SLS). As prescribed by the Dutch ROK (Richtlijn Ontwerp Kunstwegen), fatigue load model 4a

<span id="page-20-1"></span>

**Figure 2.1:** Map of the proposed main road network in the Netherlands for 2030 [\[10\]](#page-103-2)

(FLM4a) is used for steel bridges and overpasses to verify the fatigue limit state (FLS) [\[13\]](#page-103-14). Details on the load models and the values used for the loads, load factors and combination factors can be found in appendix [A.](#page-110-0)

#### <span id="page-20-0"></span>**2.2.2. Layout**

<span id="page-20-2"></span>The layouts of concern are 1x1, 2x1 (secondary), 2x1 (main), 3x1, 4x1 and (3+1)x1. Based on the requirements formulated in the Dutch ROA (Richtlijn Ontwerp Autosnelwegen) and HWO (Handboek Wegontwerp) Stroomwegen the width required for these road layouts is determined [\[14,](#page-103-15) [15\]](#page-103-16). This results in the widths for the layouts as shown in Table [2.1.](#page-20-2) It is evident that layouts that are not explicitly mentioned are possible as well, depending on the design of the overpass. Appendix [A](#page-110-0) can be consulted for insight into the determination of the numbers in Table [2.1.](#page-20-2)

Layout	Road type	Width [m]
1x1	main	11,20
2x1	secondary	12,95
2x1	main	14,70
3x1	main	18,20
4x1	main	21,70
$(3+1)x1$	main	22,15

**Table 2.1:** Road layout with corresponding width

# 3

## Literature Review

<span id="page-21-0"></span>This chapter describes existing literature on the topic of research of IFD. First, IFD and similar design approaches are investigated and translated into guidelines. Then, examples of demountable bridges and overpasses are discussed.

#### <span id="page-21-1"></span>**3.1. IFD**

#### <span id="page-21-2"></span>**3.1.1. Principles of IFD**

IFD is a Dutch term and stands for *Industrieel, Flexibel en Demontabel*; which translates into the equivalent terms *Industrial, Flexible and Demountable*. IFD is a design strategy that can be used in the design and development of circular and re-usable structures. As explained, the strategy is centred around three principles. Even though each principle addresses a specific aspect of the design, they are related to each other.

#### **Industrial**

This principle, in short, can be defined as the use of standardised and prefabricated elements [\[16\]](#page-103-17). It also relates to modularity. Use of standardised elements limits the number of different elements and allows for the creation of various configurations. Moreover, the reuse potential of components is increased. Inherent to the use of prefabricated elements, all elements are made off-site and that the on-site construction activities are limited to the assembly of the different components. Advantages of implementation of this principle include monitoring of product quality, good availability of components and a standardised design process [\[17\]](#page-103-18).

#### **Flexible**

Flexible means that a structure is designed such that it is extendable and adaptable. In the context of infrastructure this means a structure can be adapted to the functional requirements, both during the initial design and during the use phase, for instance when the capacity of the road that makes use of the structure has to be increased. Flexibility in a design can prevent replacement of a design when the functional requirements have changed, as the structure can be altered to meet the new functional requirements, thus extending its lifespan.

#### **Demountable**

The principle of demountability is a means to facilitate reuse of structural components or structures. Demountability is strongly related to the connections between members. By creating a demountable structure, it is possible to reuse components from a structure in a new structure and to replace components if their quality is insufficient. It also contributes to flexibility in the design.

#### **Potential of IFD**

The potential of IFD depends on certain factors. The Economisch Instituut voor de Bouw (EIB) distinguishes four factors that are decisive in the successful application of IFD [\[18\]](#page-103-3):

- 1. *Functional design*: a design that focuses on functionality and is standardised in contrast to iconic.
- 2. *Normal technical conditions*: the degree in which technical conditions on-site are special, which would require specific solutions. Technical conditions can, for instance, relate to soil conditions.
- 3. *Different lifespan of components*: for components with a lifespan shorter than other components of a structure, it is beneficial to facilitate independent replacement of these components. The most relevant examples are in movable bridges.
- 4. *High traffic intensity*: due to the high degree of prefabrication of IFD elements the construction time is reduced in comparison with structures that are constructed in-situ.

The EIB states that factors 1 and 4 are relevant for overpasses and provide opportunities for the use of IFD. Factor 3 is less relevant, as there is less need for intermediate replacement of overpass components. However, in the end-of-life, there could be opportunities for reuse. With regard to factor 2, the conditions are naturally site specific, and therefore it is not evident whether limitations are imposed. Specifically for the superstructure, though, technical conditions are not expected to be very challenging.

<span id="page-22-1"></span>The potential for IFD is graphically presented in Figure [3.1,](#page-22-1) which shows that the large number of overpasses (viaduct) in combination with the relatively high potential for IFD makes that overpasses show potential for the application of IFD.



Figure 3.1: Graph with the potential for IFD plotted vs the number of objects [\[18\]](#page-103-3)

When the principles of IFD have been applied appropriately, several benefits can be created. The following advantages can be achieved, provided that the design is widely applicable [\[16\]](#page-103-17):

- Re-usability of materials.
- Prevention of residual waste.
- Reduction of failure costs by controlled manufacturing conditions.
- More efficient and more economic design.
- Reduction in traffic hindrance during execution.
- More flexibility to change the layout of the structure.
- Improved availability of spare parts.

#### **Design life vs. Functional life**

Although IFD has numerous advantages, there is a disadvantage in that generally more material is used in comparison with conventional structures. This is the result of the fact that it should be possible for IFD structures to be used in various situations, hereby reducing the potential for optimisation of a specific design. IFD structures have more potential if they are designed with a long design life. Design life in this context means that a structure, from a structural point of view, can be used without significant changes. It is different from functional life. Functional life (or service life) is the period in which the functional requirements align with the function the structure can serve. Well-designed structures generally have a design life equal to the functional life. In practice, though, the functional life of overpasses is often shorter than the design life. The result of this is that the overpass is not used anymore, although it still has sufficient design life. Consequently, by designing for a long design life, the demountable components of an IFD overpass can be reused in a different structure and last for multiple functional lives.

#### <span id="page-22-0"></span>**3.1.2. Other design strategies**

#### **Guideline for Circular Construction**

Circular construction gains importance in the construction industry, given the desire for more sustainability in the sector. To contribute to this goal, Platform CB'23 has published a guideline for Circular Construction in collaboration with various parties from the construction industry [\[19\]](#page-103-19). The guideline lists seven design strategies for circular design. Although all strategies are relevant for sustainable design, only the strategies that relate to IFD are discussed.

#### **Design for quality and maintenance**

This strategy focuses on the design of a structure that has a long design life and requires little maintenance. These aspects make that on the long-term less material is used and the environmental impact is reduced. Design for quality and maintenance can be achieved by purposely designing for long design life by using high quality materials and designing details carefully. Maintenance in particular is dependent on the details and the need for maintenance can thus be significantly reduced if details are properly designed.

#### **Design for spatial-functional adaptivity**

Spatial-functional adaptivity is explained as the ability to accommodate changes in function or use of space. Possible future changes to the structure should be accounted for by allowing for a change in layout or function. As such, it strongly resembles the aspect of *Flexibility* within IFD.

#### **Design for demountability and re-usability**

Design for demountability and re-usability focuses on the development of a design that consists of elements that can be demounted and reused, with the aim to reduce the use of primary materials in the future. The following guidelines can be used to accomplish this goal:

- *Design with demountable connections*: dry connections or connections with additional components (i.e. bolts) are preferred.
- *Ensure accessibility of connections*: make sure connections are accessible to allow for replacement and disassembly. Moreover, design connections in such a manner that they can be reached without damaging the structure.
- *Prevent unnecessary integration*: components with a different lifespan should be separated and the use of components composed of different materials should be limited.
- *Prevent 'lock-up' of connections*: connections of elements with a short lifespan should not be enclosed by members with a longer lifespan.
- *Take into account standardisation and modularisation*

The three mentioned strategies are not standalone. They can complement each other in creating a circular design. As with IFD, the strategies are related and contribute to the same goal.

#### **Design for Disassembly and Adaptability**

Similar to IFD, Design for Disassembly and Adaptability (DfD/A) is a design strategy that is used to increase sustainability in a design. The strategy is composed of different aspects that complement each other, equivalent to IFD.

Disassembly is equivalent to the term 'Demountable' featured in IFD. Five general principles can be derived [\[20\]](#page-103-20):

- *Ease of access to components and services*: components, in particular components with a short lifespan, should be easily accessible in order to allow for replacement and increase the ease of disassembly.
- *Independence*: the quality to allow components to be removed or upgraded without them affecting the performance of other components. Independence increases the degree of reuse and the adaptability of the structure.
- *Support reuse*: reuse firstly relates to the ability to reuse components of a structure. Components should be designed such that they can be reused easily and without many additional measures to be taken. Where re-usability is not possible, recyclability should be considered. In this instance, the materials are reused. Accordingly, there is a difference between re-using and recycling. Re-using is defined as the use of a component that has not undergone a recycling process, or, alternatively, as the use of a component that has not seen a significant change in its physical composition [\[21\]](#page-103-21). Recycling, on the other hand, is defined as components that are processed, often into smaller parts, to create a new component.
- *Simplicity*: simplicity is achieved by limiting the number of different materials and components. This facilitates repair, reduces the likelihood of failure and allows for a more standardised disassembly process.
- *Standardisation*: the use of standardised components relates to dimensions, components, connections and modularity. A high degree of standardisation accommodates simplicity, reuse and adaptability.

The term adaptability can be considered equivalent to the term *Flexibility* from IFD. For adaptability, three general principles have been defined, which aid in the development of adaptable structures [\[20\]](#page-103-20):

- *Versatility*: versatility can be described as the ability to accommodate changing functions of a system by only minor changes. The relevance of versatility for civil engineering practices is limited, as the function of an overpass or bridge is not expected to change. Only on a component level some degree of versatility can be beneficial.
- *Convertibility*: convertibility is achieved by making modifications to a system in order to accommodate substantial changes in user needs. Where it is most applicable to overpasses is in the ability to change the structure when the loading increases.
- *Expandability*: expandability relates to the ability to enlarge the capacity or increase the capabilities of a system by making substantial changes. The relevance of expandability is mainly in the increase (or decrease) of the capacity of an overpass.

#### <span id="page-24-0"></span>**3.1.3. Design guidelines**

The principles of the IFD-terms, their equivalent DfD/A-terms and the circular design strategies are described and can be accounted for in different ways. To come to more specific requirements that can be pursued in the design, more action-based guidelines are formulated. The guidelines should be considered as possibilities to come to a design complying with IFD-principles rather than requirements; if a guideline is not pursued, the goal of the principle can still be met, albeit it to a lesser extent. For each guideline it is specified to which aspect of the design it is relevant: material, structure or connections. These are also the locations in this report where the guidelines are put into use.

#### **Industrial**

Inclusion of the aspect 'Industrial' in a design is not separately included in the DfD/A approach. It is considered as a principle for Disassembly, in the form of *Standardisation*. Hence, guidelines for the Industrial-aspect relate to *Standardisation* [\[22\]](#page-104-7):

• *Standardisation* **–** Use modular design. *Structure*

## **–** Use prefabricated components and a system of mass production. *Material*

#### **Flexible**

A limited number of guidelines for flexibility (or adaptability) is formulated. The fact that the function of the overpass will in principle not change reduces the need to include different forms of flexibility. Provided that the function will not change, the following guidelines are relevant [\[20\]](#page-103-20):

• *Versatility* **–** Use components or connections that can be used at different locations in the structure. *Connections* • *Convertibility* **–** Accommodate changes in loading. *Structure* • *Expandability* **–** Include the possibility to change the layout of the structure. *Structure*

#### **Demountable**

The guidelines for a demountable (or disassemblable) design are listed for each of the general principles of demountability. Although each guideline is listed once, it should be noted that the guidelines are complementary and contribute to other principles. The following guidelines are considered the most relevant [\[22,](#page-104-7) [23\]](#page-104-8):

- *Ease of access to components and services*
	- **–** Ensure components can be reached without the need to dismantle other parts of the structure. *Structure*
	- **–** Ensure that components with a short lifespan are not enclosed by members with a longer lifespan. *Structure*
- *Independence*

• *Support reuse*



**–** Use recyclable materials. *Material*



#### <span id="page-25-0"></span>**3.1.4. Practical implications**

#### **Convertibility**

The guideline of *Convertibility* can have different definitions and requires some clarification on the interpretation of these definitions. A change in loading relates to traffic loading. The traffic can change on two aspects: intensity and magnitude.

The impact on the design in case of an increased intensity is mitigated on two levels: functionality and resistance. An increased intensity can result in a loss of functionality of the overpass, in case the capacity of the road on the overpass is insufficient. This problem can be overcome by the addition of a lane. The modular nature of the designs is what makes this possible. Resistance on the other hand is covered by designing for infinite fatigue life. Since a rather high number of load cycles is to be expected, the stresses need to be limited such that an infinite number of cycles can be exerted on an element or detail, thus allowing the structure to withstand an increase in intensity.

Although a small increase has been applied on the loads from the existing traffic load model to include some effects of traffic increase, an uncertainty still exists regarding future changes in load magnitude. Still, as it is not known how the loads on overpasses will develop and whether an increase in traffic loads will mean that the current load model the Eurocode prescribes is not valid anymore, it is decided not to include a change to the load model. Noteworthy is that research has been done into the validity of Eurocode load model 1. Zhou et al. [\[24\]](#page-104-9) and Paeglitis and Paeglitis[[25\]](#page-104-10) both come to the conclusion that LM1 is more conservative than the investigated traffic data, of which the most recent are from 2010 [\[24,](#page-104-9) [25\]](#page-104-10). Although the data used for the validation is not necessarily representative for the situation described in this research, it shows that there is a margin between the actual traffic loads and the load situation LM1 describes.

It can be argued that strengthening is also a method to accommodate changes in loading. It is, however, decided not to include any specific strengthening measures, for the following reasons. Firstly, the use of modular and demountable design enables damaged components to be replaced easily, thus removing the need for measures with the application of strengthening damaged components. Secondly, changes to the nature of loading are a reason for strengthening. It has been argued that changes in intensity can be covered by the design through its modularity. Changes in magnitude, on the other hand, are not directly covered, yet it is uncertain whether these will occur and to what extent. Consequently, it is deemed unfeasible to develop specific strengthening measures for these situations.

#### **Expandability and modularity**

The guideline for *Expandability* needs some clarification, as changes to the layout can have multiple interpretations. The most relevant change to the layout would be the width. A variable width allows for the inclusion (or potentially removal) of a lane, hereby increasing the capacity of the overpass. Considering the guideline of *Modularity*, it is evident what the benefit is of including modularity within the width of the overpass. However, it also possible to do this for the length of the overpass. There are number of benefits to design multiple shorter modules instead of a more conventional approach of designing the overpass specifically for each separate length:

- When the overpass is divided into modules, there is more potential to reuse the components. Shorter elements can be used more easily in other structures due to the flexibility in dimensions that exists and without the need for significant adaptations to these elements. Larger elements limit the freedom of application and might even need to be modified to allow for reuse.
- The use of smaller modules means that the dimensions and the weight of the modules are reduced. This is advantageous for two aspects. The first aspect is transportation. Smaller modules are more convenient for transport, since large transports are avoided. The second aspect is the (dis)assembly. Smaller and, in particular, lighter modules are easier to assemble and allow for the use of lighter equipment. This saves on costs and increases the options for use in difficult environments, such as urban areas or locations with weak soils.
- The use of a small set of modules in comparison with specifically designed elements can reduce the time needed for engineering. Automated verification processes can be developed for the modules, resulting in a more efficient and economic design process.
- The availability of the modules is higher than for specific girders, as only a small number of modules exists. This is also beneficial in case of replacement of modules.
- It will be more easy to adapt to changes to the road or other features the overpass crosses, for instance if this road is widened. Although not a frequent requirement for an overpass, it will be possible and without the need for a completely new structure.
- Site conditions for an overpass can differ largely. The benefit of having shorter modules is that more options exist in adapting to these conditions. When, for instance, an overpass connects to a curved road, the dimensions of the overpass can more easily be adapted, resulting in a more efficient transition between the overpass and the connecting road. It is also possible to adjust the position of the abutment to the superstructure, creating more flexibility in the spatial arrangement.

#### <span id="page-26-0"></span>**3.2. Demountable bridges and overpasses**

To illustrate the possibilities for IFD overpasses, a number of existing structures are investigated. Apart from the Circular viaduct, all examples in this section are originally designed as temporary structures, and they are mostly bridges. Due to the short use, for instance in case of natural disasters, these bridges are not operational for a long time and thus are removed relatively shortly after installation. Consequently, demountability is a desired property. Though not specifically IFD structures, the listed examples show various similarities with the IFD principles and are thus relevant for use as an IFD overpass.

#### **Circular viaduct**

Rijkswaterstaat and partners have developed a circular concrete overpass. The overpass consists of concrete modules that fit into each other by means of shear keys. The modules can be combined with prestressing reinforcement to form a strip of the desired span length. Multiple strips can then be combined and prestressed to form the width of the overpass, as illustrated by Figure [3.2.](#page-26-1) The modules are 2,5 m in length, 1,5 m in width and 1 m in height [\[26\]](#page-104-11). This means that spans can be created within intervals of 2,5 m. The overpass is designed for spans between 15 and 25 m. Two different modules are used: one general module and one adapted module at the end of each strip. In-situ concrete is used to fill spaces between the modules.

<span id="page-26-1"></span>

**Figure 3.2:** Circular viaduct [\[27\]](#page-104-0)

#### **Bailey bridge**

The Bailey bridge (Figure [3.3\)](#page-27-0) is one of the best known examples of a temporary bridge. The system, invented 80 years ago, makes use of square modules that, when assembled, form a truss-like structure to form the desired span [\[28\]](#page-104-12). The module assemblies are placed at either side of the span. An assembly can feature multiple modules in the thickness direction (a maximum of 4) and in the vertical direction (a maximum of 3) [\[29\]](#page-104-13). Between the assemblies crossbeams are installed on <span id="page-27-0"></span>which the deck can be placed. The deck can be made from different materials. The modules are 3,05 m in width. With these modules spans of up to 67 m can be created for a one-lane width. It is also possible to incorporate more lanes into the design.



**Figure 3.3:** Bailey bridge [\[30\]](#page-104-1)

#### **Acrow bridge**

<span id="page-27-1"></span>The Acrow bridge is an improved version of the Bailey bridge. It follows the same principle: modules of 3,05 m in width can be stacked and connected side-by-side to form the bridge [\[29\]](#page-104-13). The difference is that the panels are 50% higher, compared to panels used in Bailey bridges, as can be seen in Figure [3.4.](#page-27-1) With this change two problems of the Bailey bridge are addressed: excessive sag and unnecessary steel at the neutral axis. The design can span up to 91 m and can carry three highway lanes.



**Figure 3.4:** Acrow bridge [\[31\]](#page-104-2)

#### **Mabey-Johnson bridge**

The Mabey-Johnson bridge is another design based on the Bailey bridge, shown in Figure [3.5.](#page-28-0) It uses the same modules as the Bailey bridge, yet the height of the modules increases towards the middle of the span to follow the bending moment line and reduce the self-weight of the structure [\[29\]](#page-104-13). The design was also improved by applying increased camber.

<span id="page-28-0"></span>

**Figure 3.5:** Variant of Mabey-Johnson bridge, showing differing panel size along span [\[32\]](#page-104-3)

#### **GFRP truss girder bridge**

The GFRP (Glass Fibre-Reinforced Polymer) truss girder bridge is a design for a modular bridge. It has not been constructed, yet tests have been performed on parts of the bridge that show promising results [\[33\]](#page-104-4). The bridge is composed of trusses at the two sides of the bridge. Each truss is composed of GFRP tubes that are connected near the crossing points, as shown by Figure [3.6.](#page-28-1) The joints are prestressed bearing type connections, meaning that bolts are not required. Forces are transferred by ensuring that the contact surface in the connection is permanently under compression. The trusses can be doubled at both sides to create more strength and stiffness. The deck is supported by the trusses and is formed by a GFRP grid floor deck. The distance between two joints in the truss is equal to 1,875 m. The bridge is designed for a limited width of 4,0 m, meaning that the design needs to be altered in order to allow for larger widths. The span the bridge was designed for is 30 m.

<span id="page-28-1"></span>

Figure 3.6: Schematic of GFRP truss girder bridge [\[33\]](#page-104-4)

#### **Modular plate girder bridge**

Modular plate girder bridges are composed of steel modules, of which Figure [3.7](#page-29-1) shows two. The modules can be combined in width and length direction to form the desired span of the bridge. Different types of the plate girder bridge exist, each with different module sizes [\[34\]](#page-104-5). One design features modules of 3,5 m width and varying lengths of 6 m, 9 m, 12 m and 24 m. Another design features modules of 2,5 m width with a length of either 10,5 m or 13,5 m. Both designs allow for the formation of multiple spans, with intervals of 3 m. For the first design the maximum span is 30 m, whilst for the second the span can be as long as 54 m. The modules are connected with various bolted connections. These include splice plate connections to connect the elements in the length direction. Variants exist where the modules are connected with pin connections.

<span id="page-29-1"></span>

Figure 3.7: Modules of a modular plate girder bridge [\[34\]](#page-104-5)

#### **Modular girder bridge**

<span id="page-29-2"></span>Similar to the modular plate girder bridge, the modular girder bridge uses modules, girder elements, which can be combined to form the span [\[35\]](#page-104-6). Figure [3.8](#page-29-2) shows a section of the girder bridge, which includes prefab concrete panels for the deck. Between the girders, stiffeners can be placed. With this configuration spans of up to 48 m can be constructed. The beam segments are connected using bolted splice connections.



Figure 3.8: Section of a modular girder bridge [\[35\]](#page-104-6)

#### <span id="page-29-0"></span>**3.3. Conclusion**

This chapter has focused on existing literature regarding IFD. The principles of IFD were explained along with similar, yet slightly different design strategies. Based on these strategies design guidelines were formulated, divided over the three principles Industrial, Flexible and Demountable and attributed to the three aspects of the design Material, Structure and Connections. Apart from the theory behind IFD, examples of IFD structures and demountable structures were discussed, the majority of which are made from steel.

# 4

# Design Options

<span id="page-30-0"></span>The design options are investigated in this chapter. Firstly, different materials are investigated on aspects relevant to IFD, after which the possible structural systems for the materials of choice are examined.

#### <span id="page-30-1"></span>**4.1. Material**

Each material has different characteristics. In the construction industry, the most common materials are steel, concrete and timber. These materials are therefore considered as options for the design. FRP (Fibre-reinforced polymer) is gaining interest as a construction material and is included as a fourth option. For each of the materials research is done regarding the suitability for use in IFD structures. The focus lies on the IFD guidelines that relate to the material (see section [3.1.3\)](#page-24-0). These are standardisation, recyclability and durability.

#### <span id="page-30-2"></span>**4.1.1. Steel**

Steel is a metal and as such an isotropic material, which means it has good mechanical properties as strength and stiffness in all directions, making it capable of carrying high loads in multiple directions. Steel also shows ductile behaviour, which is favourable from the point of view of safety.

#### **Current use and standardisation**

Steel is widely used in current structures, proving that it is a feasible material. Applications of steel include combinations with concrete, generally for shorter spans, but also on itself for longer spans. As steel is always prefabricated, standardisation is common. Notable examples are I-shaped profiles and hollow sections, though various different shapes are possible.

#### **Recyclability**

Steel is known as a well-recyclable material. Theoretically, steel is 100% recyclable. In reality, however, this cannot be achieved, due to factors such as loss because of corrosion and difficulties in retrieving the steel from demolition waste [\[36\]](#page-104-14). Nevertheless, the potential is high, which is shown by the fact that currently 85%-90% of the steel is recycled, considering that approximately 10% is even reused [\[37\]](#page-104-15). This means that only a small portion is processed as landfill. Furthermore, it is possible for recycled steel to have the same quality as the original steel [\[38\]](#page-104-16). This makes that down-cycling can be prevented.

#### **Durability**

The durability of steel is good on various aspects. Steel is resistant to chemical components and, as an inorganic material, also to natural influences. The main mechanisms that are of concern and can cause weakening or degradation of steel are corrosion and fatigue [\[39\]](#page-104-17). Corrosion weakens the steel, which results in less resistance. Fatigue is the result of varying stresses due to cyclic loading and can cause cracks in steel. Contrary to corrosion, it is related to stresses in the steel and can thus be considered a design feature. Steel is also sensitive to temperature changes, which may cause damage if not properly designed for. Corrosion can be prevented in different ways. One of the most applied options is to paint the steel elements, which can last 15 to 30 years [\[40\]](#page-105-1). Paint acts as a physical barrier between the steel and the atmosphere, hereby preventing the corrosion process from occurring. Corrosion under a proper paint layer is minimal, yet at locations where the paint is damaged corrosion will occur more substantially [\[41\]](#page-105-2). Hence, by ensuring an intact paint layer by performing repetitive maintenance, a very long design life is possible. Another method is galvanising, which is the process of applying a sacrificing material, zinc for instance, on steel. The applied material will be the material that corrodes and the steel will

be protected. A design life up to 100 years is possible with this protection system. The problem with galvanising is that the most efficient galvanising process can only be performed in the factory and is not possible to apply in the field [\[40\]](#page-105-1).

It can be concluded that design for longevity can be achieved by performing repetitive maintenance to protect the steel form corrosion and by properly designing for fatigue and thermal expansion.

#### <span id="page-31-0"></span>**4.1.2. Concrete**

Concrete is known to have a good compression strength and requires little maintenance. The natural weaknesses of concrete are its low tensile strength and limited ductility. This is why reinforcement steel is used, as it resists tensile stresses and can incorporate some ductility. Concrete is rather heavy for the strength it provides, compared to other construction materials.

#### **Current use and standardisation**

Together with steel, concrete is one of the materials that is used the most for civil structures. In particular for shorter spans, concrete is a cost-effective option, though for longer spans concrete can be viable too. Its widespread use proves that concrete is a feasible option. Concrete can be made in-situ and by prefabrication. Prefabrication is the logical choice, as this allows for standardisation. Currently, this already exists in the form of, for example, box beams.

#### **Recyclability**

Due to the composite nature of concrete, recycling is more complex than for metallic materials. This is explained by the irreversibility of the chemical reactions between the concrete components [\[42\]](#page-105-3). As a result, the recycling of concrete is limited mostly to re-processing rather than a return to its original state. The main challenges that exist are related to the quality of the recycled aggregate. The quality is lower than of aggregate made from virgin material and due to the variation in quality of demolished concrete products, variation exists in the properties of the recycled aggregate [\[43\]](#page-105-4). Nonetheless, recycling of concrete is done, particularly in the form of recycled aggregate. Aggregate from virgin materials is replaced by recycled aggregate in the production of new concrete elements. Currently, research is done on concrete elements, where over 75% of their weight is waste material [\[44\]](#page-105-5). At the moment, however, the main destination of end-of-life concrete is down-cycling, for instance for use in road construction, and a small amount is processed as landfill [\[45\]](#page-105-6). Naturally, the share of end-of-life concrete used for recycling can increase if the quality of the products increases and the use of them proves to be cost-effective.

It can be concluded that recycling is possible and may become more viable in the future, yet more research on the matter needs to be conducted to allow for the production of added-value material [\[46\]](#page-105-7).

#### **Durability**

With respect to the durability of concrete, the causes of degradation are of the following natures: chemical, physical and biological [\[39\]](#page-104-17). Chemical degradation is caused by chemical reactions of the concrete with compounds like chlorides or sulphates. These reactions can have different consequences, such as cracking of the concrete due to expansion or corrosion of reinforcement steel. Biological degradation is caused by by-products of bacteria and can have similar consequences as chemical degradation. Physical degradation occurs due to processes like shrinkage or freeze-thaw cycles.

Degradation can be prevented or strongly reduced by good design of the concrete. This includes optimising the concrete properties by using a specific concrete mix and quality and ensuring a sufficient concrete cover [\[47\]](#page-105-8). Additionally, surface treatment or corrosion-resistant reinforcement bars can be used to further protect the concrete structure [\[48\]](#page-105-9). Maintenance is important as well and should be done on a regular basis. When properly designed and maintained it is possible to reach service lives well over a 100 years [\[49\]](#page-105-10).

In short, it is possible to create a durable structure using concrete by using surface treatments and other protective measures.

#### <span id="page-31-1"></span>**4.1.3. Timber**

Timber is a natural and renewable material. It has a low self-weight, which, in combination with good strength properties, makes it possible to create strong and light structures. It is, however, anisotropic, which should be considered during design. Timber also has a lower stiffness than steel and concrete.

#### **Current use and standardisation**

Timber bridges or overpasses are mostly constructed for low-load applications, such as pedestrian bridges. Recently, timber road bridges are gaining more interest, due to the increased importance of sustainability in engineering. Existing examples show that timber is a good alternative to concrete and steel for low-load applications. For structures with

heavier loads, the low stiffness makes it challenging to design timber structures. Nonetheless, timber can be a feasible option. For nearly all structures engineered wood products are used. These are standardised products that have improved mechanical properties compared to solid wood elements and can be produced on a large scale. Examples of these products are Cross-Laminated Timber and Glue-Laminated Timber.

#### **Recyclability**

Common practice for recycling of timber is the production of particleboard from chipped timber products, which is, in fact, down-cycling [\[50\]](#page-105-11). A requirement is that the timber is clean. Incineration is an alternative when this is not the case. Recently, recycling of timber into engineered wood products has gained interest. Rose and Stegemann have performed research into Cross-Laminated Secondary Timber (CLST) [\[51\]](#page-105-12). CLST is made partially with secondary timber and partially with primary timber. Separate plies are made from recycled timber, which can be used in combination with plies from primary timber. CLST has the potential to be used in the industry, yet more research needs to be done in order to understand the behaviour and the possibilities.

#### **Durability**

As a natural material, timber is prone to biological degradation. Fungi and insects can cause damage, which can reduce the resistance of the timber. The extent to which timber is vulnerable to degradation depends strongly on the moisture content: a high moisture content makes timber more vulnerable [\[39\]](#page-104-17). As a significant part of the problems related to durability of timber relates to the presence of moisture in the material, the structure can be designed to either prevent moisture from entering the material or to allow the moisture to easily exit the material. Additionally, the timber can be protected by surface treatment or modifying the timber. Nevertheless, according to companies from the industry, a design life of up to 80 or 100 years might be difficult to achieve [\[52\]](#page-105-13). This is also illustrated by the example of the Van Brienenoordbrug. This bridge uses panels of hardwood for the deck. After 40 years, which was above expectations, a quarter of the panels needed to be replaced; the panels under the heavy traffic lanes saw the most damage.

This shows that reaching a design life in the realm of 200 years is difficult for timber. Even if the timber is well protected and behaves better than anticipated, a design life of 200 years appears to be improbable.

#### <span id="page-32-0"></span>**4.1.4. FRP**

Fibre-reinforced polymers are a composite material, consisting of fibres and a matrix, that form plies. These plies combine into a strong and lightweight laminate. Different types of fibres exist, with carbon and glass fibres being the most common. Bio-based fibres do exist, such as fibres, though their performance needs to be enhanced to allow for extensive use in construction. With regard to the matrix, thermoset and thermoplastic resins are possible. Thermoset resins are the most prevalent, as they have superior performance compared to thermoplastic resins. Thermoset resin types include vinyl esters and epoxies, of which epoxies are used the most due to their good mechanical properties. Thermoplastics have advantages over thermoset resins, but their properties are, at the moment, still inferior to thermosets. FRP materials require low maintenance and have good fatigue resistance. The fibres in the laminates can be orientated in multiple directions, creating numerous possibilities in terms of the mechanical properties of the laminate. Disadvantages of the material are the high environmental impact and the low stiffness.

#### **Current use and standardisation**

As a relatively new material, FRP has not been used much in civil engineering structures. The construction of FRP structures has been increasing recently, although the application of full FRP structures is limited to low-load applications. Current uses include strengthening of existing bridges and bridge decks. FRP is used in a standardised form. Manufacturing processes like pultrusion allow for the production of large quantities and, due to the procedure of the production, the creation of various profiles with standardised properties.

#### **Recyclability**

With regard to the recyclability of FRP material, it is critical to distinguish between thermosets and thermoplastics. Whereas thermoplastics can easily be remelted and remoulded, the recycling process of thermosets is more complicated [\[53\]](#page-105-14). Considering the superiority in terms of mechanical behaviour of thermosets over thermoplastics, the recycling process of the thermosets is the most relevant. At the moment, landfill is the processing form that is used most for thermoset FRP material [\[54\]](#page-105-15). Incineration is another option to dispose FRP. It is evident that the methods are not truly forms of recycling. In terms of actual recycling, two approaches can be considered. The first is mechanical recycling. Mechanical recycling is the most mature method of the two and is done by crushing or shredding [\[53\]](#page-105-14). The created recyclates can be used in new products, such as concrete or FRP products. The quality of the recyclates is lower than the original material, meaning that this is a form of down-cycling. The other approach is thermal/chemical recycling. This

approach focuses on retrieving the fibres by breaking down the matrix with a chemical or thermal reaction. Due to the high costs and often aggressive components used, it is best applicable to high-value and chemically stable fibres, such as carbon fibres. However, as the matrix is decomposed, the material is not fully recycled.

#### **Durability**

The main points of concern regarding the durability of FRP are related to environmental influences. UV-radiation can cause the matrix and fibres to degrade, losing their strength, whilst moisture penetrates the matrix and leads to degradation of the fibres [\[39\]](#page-104-17).

Due to the insusceptibility to corrosion, FRP materials have lasted 50 years without degradation, providing a strong basis for a design life towards 100 years [\[55\]](#page-105-16). To ensure the durability of the FRP material on other aspects, protective measures exists, such as the use of UV-stabilisers to reduce influence of UV-radiation and the application of coatings to protect from moisture [\[56\]](#page-105-17). A point of attention is the uncertainty in the long-term regarding the durability. Although the durability of FRP has proven to behave well on the short-term, the material has only been in use for a limited time, which is why the durability on the long-term is not yet fully understood.

To conclude, FRP can be used for a durable structure, due to the good durability of the material itself in combination with additional protective measures. The exact design life that can be achieved is uncertain, though.

#### <span id="page-33-0"></span>**4.1.5. Material selection**

In principle, all materials can be used for the design of an IFD overpass. However, some materials are considered to be more appropriate for the application of the overpass. Furthermore, to reduce the number of possible options, one material is chosen for the main parts of the superstructure as well as for the deck structure.

The main material that will be used is steel. Steel has good mechanical properties and excellent durability, a very high recycling potential and can reach a long design life with proper maintenance. With concrete, it is difficult to connect complete elements in a way that makes them demountable. There are, however, options to connect deck elements. In combination with the good durability that can be achieved, concrete is used as the material for deck structures. Regarding timber, the limited durability is an issue. If the timber cannot last for the required lifespan, which is found to be ambitious for timber, it needs to be replaced. This diminishes the advantage it has on environmental impact and reduces the effectiveness of the IFD design, which is why it is not used for the main structure. The connection between the deck and the main structure is also a point of concern. At the time of study, limited tests have been performed on demountable shear connectors. Demountable shear connectors form an essential part of the final design, as becomes clear later in this report. By considering a concrete deck, it is possible to include more connectors and their behaviour is also better understood, thanks to the greater number of tests performed. As a result, timber is excluded as material for the deck. Due to the fact that FRP has not really been used in highway bridges or overpasses, it is considered not (yet) feasible to design the full overpass with FRP. The low stiffness of FRP is a disadvantage too. As material for deck elements it is also excluded. The connection between the deck elements is expected to be a point of concern, as most connections use adhesion and are not demountable. Though it might be possible to develop demountable connections for FRP panels, this could be considered a different research topic and, therefore, it is out of scope.

In conclusion, the main material for the designs is steel. For designs that do not have a steel deck, concrete is the material of choice.

#### <span id="page-33-1"></span>**4.2. Structural systems**

Different options exist for an overpass with a span of 12-32 m. Currently, prefabricated concrete structures are mainly used for these spans. Steel structures are also a possibility within this range. Figure [4.1](#page-34-0) shows a number of possibilities for short-span bridges/overpasses made from either concrete or composite material. Given the focus on steel as the basis for the superstructure, composite structures are for the short span range the most relevant. Figure [4.2a](#page-34-1) shows a composite structure. Welded beam bridges and plate girder bridges are the most economic bridges that utilise composite action. The difference between a welded beam and a plate girder is that a welded beam has standardised cross-section, whilst flange sizes and web thicknesses can be optimised for plate girders, as they are built-up from different elements [\[57\]](#page-105-0). Trough girder bridges (or half-through bridges) are also a possibility for the longer spans within the span range. Trough girders are bridges where the girders are placed at both sides of the bridge, allowing for girders with a higher height without the need of increasing the structural height of the structure under the deck.

Although Figure [4.1](#page-34-0) only mentions steel bridges that include composite action with the concrete deck, it is also possible to construct a sufficiently long bridge without composite action. Bridges without composite action are commonly applied for approximately the same span range as their composite equivalent [\[58\]](#page-106-3).

<span id="page-34-0"></span>

**Figure 4.1:** Structural systems for short-span bridges/overpasses [\[57\]](#page-105-0)

Overpasses made entirely from steel are other possible solutions. A notable example is the orthotropic deck bridge. Bridges with an orthotropic deck are supported by girders, similar to composite bridges. An example is shown in Figure [4.2b.](#page-34-1) Orthotropic decks are generally lighter than concrete decks, making them economic especially for bridges for longer spans, such as arch bridges [\[59\]](#page-106-4). Although the application on a shorter span might be less economic, given the high fabrication costs, the lower weight is an advantage with respect to handling during (de-)construction. Thus, the orthotropic deck structure could be a viable option.

A truss bridge is also a frequently used structural system for bridge structures. Truss bridges can be found in various forms, yet always feature trusses on both sides of the deck it supports. The deck, not necessarily a steel deck, is supported by crossbeams and can be placed both on top of the trusses and at the bottom of the trusses, of which the first option due to height restrictions is less popular. Figure [4.2c](#page-34-1) shows an example of a truss bridge. Truss bridges are normally applied for slightly longer spans [\[58\]](#page-106-3). Nevertheless, as a truss can be constructed with a high degree of repetition, it might be a good solution for modular designs. Existing truss bridges are generally for smaller widths, i.e., one or two lane roads. Larger highway bridges also exist, yet these structures feature elements connecting the trusses at the top. As a result, the trusses themselves need to be rather large in order to create sufficient height of the structure. Several of the discussed demountable structures are truss-like structures. These tend to be smaller than conventional trusses in that the supporting trusses are lower. This is because the upper flanges of the trusses are not connected, allowing the side trusses to be substantially lower. Hence, their application is mainly for small widths. An important aspect regarding the existing demountable structures, such as the bailey bridge, is the fatigue life. Due to the limited period of use the fatigue resistance of these structures is not always high, which should be the case for a structure that is used on a more permanent basis. Considering the often limited fatigue life and small width it is concluded that a design based on a conventional truss has more potential than an existing demountable truss for the application of interest.

Other structural systems include arch bridges and cable-stayed bridges. These bridges are only economic for larger spans and are therefore excluded.

<span id="page-34-1"></span>





**(a)** Composite structure **(b)** Orthotropic deck structure **(c)** Truss structure

**Figure 4.2:** Illustrations of structural systems

#### <span id="page-35-0"></span>**4.3. Conclusion**

The aim of this chapter was to investigate the options that exist with respect to the design, focusing on material and structural system. The materials steel, concrete, timber and FRP were investigated on the IFD-relevant topics of standardisation, recyclability and durability. Steel has been found to be the material with the best characteristics on these aspects and is the main material to be used in the design. Concrete is the secondary material, in particular due to the larger number of options that exist in terms of connections and its good durability. Following steel as the main material, three structural systems are chosen for an assessment on their sustainability: a steel truss structure, a steel-concrete composite structure and a steel girder structure with an orthotropic deck.
# **III** Preliminary Design

# 5

# Design Alternatives

<span id="page-37-1"></span>This chapter describes the design alternatives. First, design requirements and assumptions are explained, along with the general dimensions of the overpass. Then, the designs of the alternatives are described, which have been optimised for a minimal environmental impact.

# <span id="page-37-0"></span>**5.1. Design requirements and assumptions**

# **Design requirements**

The design requirements are derived from section [3.1.3.](#page-24-0) Not all guidelines, however, are considered to be requirements. Some guidelines are assumed to be optional: they are not required for an IFD structure, yet can improve, for instance, the demountability. The guidelines that are seen as requirements are listed below. The other guidelines are used in the assessment of the design alternatives.

- The design should be modular.
- Elements that form (a part of) a module should be made from prefabricated components with standardised dimensions.
- The design needs to accommodate different widths.
- The design needs to accommodate different span lengths.
- The connections between the modules should be demountable.

# **Design assumptions**

The design of the alternatives is a preliminary design, meaning some assumptions and limitations need to be clarified.

- The ULS and FLS are the main focus of the verification. The only SLS checks that are performed are checks on deformations and concrete stresses.
- It is acknowledged that some orthotropic and composite structures feature a change in cross-section along the span, in particular for longer spans. Although this could provide a reduction in impact, this would be the case for all alternatives and the extent of the reduction would be limited. As a result, a change in cross-section is not applied.
- The fact that a design life of 200 years is assumed means that more strict requirements are to be expected regarding durability. For concrete, this can be accounted for by a properly designed cover. Following the approach described in Eurocode 2, the nominal cover  $c_{nom}$  is determined as the sum of  $c_{min}$  and  $\Delta c_{dev}$ .  $c_{min}$  is determined based on a construction class S. Considering the concrete class of C45/55, a plate-like geometry, quality control and a design life of 100 years the class becomes S3. Construction class S3 requires a  $c_{min}$  of 40 mm for environmental class XD3 (as the overpass could be exposed to chlorides, which can cause corrosion, and can be considered to be cyclically wet and dry, exposure class XD3 is used). As this method does not include service lives over 100 years, it is decided to increase  $c_{min}$  by 5 mm to 45 mm to include the 200 years of design life. For  $c_{dev}$ , 5 mm is the conventional value in the Netherlands [\[60\]](#page-106-0). An additional 5 mm is applied since the top surface is not well maintainable (due to the asphalt layer) [\[13\]](#page-103-0), equalling a total  $\Delta c_{dev}$  of 10 mm.  $c_{nom}$  then becomes 55 mm. For the sake of symmetry, this value is applied to both the top and bottom of the deck.
- Connections are neither designed nor verified. Since they are yet to be determined at this stage, they are excluded from the designs.

### **Optimisation**

The designs are optimised to minimise the environmental impact. The optimisation of the alternatives has been done through an iterative process. The spatial arrangement, i.e., the spacing of girders, beams, etc., is varied by set intervals. Then, the dimensions of the individual elements are adjusted to satisfy all unity checks. Based on these dimensions the environmental impact is calculated following the approach described in section [6.1.1.](#page-45-0) The environmental impact is evaluated for each road layout. The sum of these impacts displays the performance across all possible layouts and is used as the value of comparison, as it shows which arrangement is the most efficient for all lane layouts. This process is repeated until the difference between the summed impacts of the best and second best arrangement is below 5%. Accordingly, for the overpass with the largest width the difference is at a maximum around 2%. This is considered to provide sufficient accuracy to build a solid argument on the performance of the alternatives, taking into account the differences that exist in the final environmental impact. Further iteration is not expected to result in a meaningful improvement of the accuracy. The designs shown in this chapter are the result of the optimisation process and are expected to be close-to-optimal solutions.

# **5.2. General overpass dimensions**

The span length and width are the same for all alternatives. As explained in section [2.2.2](#page-20-0) the maximum length is 32 m and the maximum width should be 22,15 m. The designs are developed as conventional overpasss to which adaptations are made to create an IFD design.

Since the design needs to follow IFD principles, it is necessary to divide the overpass in modules or segments. The initial assumption is that the modules in the length direction are equal in size and that in the width direction, two different modules are distinguished: a regular module and a guardrail module. The guardrail module is located at the section of the structure where the guardrail is installed. In combination with an inspection path and railing, this section is 1,6 m in width. Since this section is always present in an overpass and consistently has the same dimensions, these modules are designed differently from the regular modules. Apart from the fact that this allows for a more economic design for the guardrail modules - these modules usually receive lower loads - there are also benefits in that modifications required for guardrails or railings are only needed in the guardrail modules and regular modules can be designed more efficiently. It also allows for the inclusion of services for attachment of edge panels, in order to customise the appearance of the overpass.

Figure [5.1](#page-38-0) shows how an overpass with a width of 22,15 m is formed (Figure [A.4](#page-114-0) shows how the width of 22,15 m is determined). The guardrail sections are removed from the layout, since these are directly accounted for by the end modules. What remains is 18,95 m, for which one unique regular module is used. In the example this module has a width of 4 m. Hence, a total of five of these modules is needed, which results in a width of 20 m. This does mean that the width is larger than strictly necessary. For all the layouts considered, the widths without guardrails are listed in Table [5.1.](#page-39-0) These are the widths that are used to optimise the width of the individual modules. In terms of dimensions of the guardrail sections, the starting point is that the elements are the same as the central sections. Some dimensions, however, can be changed. In appendix [B.4](#page-128-0) it is shown which dimensions are changed for each of the alternatives. These dimensions are determined following the same design process as for the regular modules.

<span id="page-38-0"></span>

**Figure 5.1:** Division of road layout into modules

The length of the components is more variable and does not follow set dimensions. However, for the development of the alternatives no module length is required, as the assumption is that the structure is continuous. The module length becomes of importance when optimisation of the chosen alternative takes place.

Layout	Road type	Width [m]			
1x1	main	8,00			
2x1	secondary	9,75			
2x1	main	11,50			
3x1	main	15,00			
4x1	main	18,50			
$(3+1)x1$	main	18,95			

<span id="page-39-0"></span>**Table 5.1:** Road layout width without guardrails

# **5.3. Truss**

The Truss alternative consists of two trusses, one on each side of the structure. Popular trusses are the Pratt Truss and Warren Truss, shown in Figure [5.2.](#page-39-1) The Warren Truss is chosen over the Pratt Truss, as it uses less material and can easily be elongated following the same pattern. An extension of the Pratt Truss would require the truss to be extended at both ends, compromising execution, or the truss would lose its symmetry, resulting in unfavourable behaviour. As a variation on the Warren Truss vertical members could be added. One reason for this is to reduce the buckling length of the top chord. However, since this has been found not to be an issue, there is no need for vertical members. Secondly, vertical members allow for the inclusion of more crossbeams, which then receive less loads. Still, it has been found that, in terms of an optimal solution, there is very little difference between a design with and without verticals. The layout with only diagonals behaves slightly better and features less elements, which is why it is used.

<span id="page-39-1"></span>

**Figure 5.2:** Truss models

The design is a semi-through design, which means that the trusses are not connected at the top, creating a U-shaped structure. Compared to a through truss, the semi-through design is usually more economic for shorter spans and allows for more freedom, as there are no height restraints. Between the trusses crossbeams support the deck structure. The deck structure consists of a concrete deck, which is supported by small steel beams referred to as stringers, to limit the span the concrete deck needs to bridge. As the overpass supports one single carriageway, intermediate trusses cannot be included, restricting the design to two exterior trusses.

In order to create an IFD truss overpass, some measures need to be taken:

- All elements should be prefabricated and standardised.
- The trusses need to be divisible into multiple, standardised parts. This could be in the form of individual members, assemblies of members or other solutions.
- All connections between the crossbeams, stringers and deck need to be demountable.
- Crossbeams, stringers and the deck (in both directions) need to be divisible into smaller parts.

Prefabrication is achieved by using prefabricated elements for the concrete deck. Division of the trusses is possible at, for instance, the nodes. To promote division into smaller, standardised parts regularity is present in the design, both in the truss and in terms of spacing between crossbeams, stringers and reinforcement. Although connections are not designed, the connection between the concrete deck elements is considered, as this strongly influences the behaviour of the structure. The connection is made by post-tensioned prestressing reinforcement. An explanation to why prestressing reinforcement is used is provided in section [7.4.](#page-68-0)

Existing trusses tend to follow the following dimensions:

- Angle of the diagonals 40-60 deg
- Slenderness truss  $l/h \approx 10$
- Crossbeams spacing should be aligned with joints in the truss to ensure efficient force transfer.
- Stringer spacing  $\approx 2$  m, based on existing structures.

Figure [5.3](#page-40-0) shows the dimensions of the truss. The number of crossbeams is the most influential parameter to the environmental impact. As crossbeams are aligned with nodes in the truss, the crossbeam spacing is dependent on the truss layout. The distance between the truss nodes, and thus the crossbeam spacing, has been varied in such a manner that all nodes are equidistant. The best spacing has been found to be 5,34 m. The height of the truss has been varied according to the slenderness. From a slenderness of 12 to one of 6, the slenderness with the best results is 7. Though this is somewhat lower than is common, it is not too far from existing structures. The angle of the diagonals is in line with the prescribed range. For the truss members square hollow sections are used, as they have the same buckling resistance in both principal directions and are favourable with respect to maintenance. Apart from these dimensions, the spacing between the stringers has been varied as well. This results in the cross-section shown in Figure [5.4.](#page-40-1) The figure shows the cross-section perpendicular to the span, illustrating the side of the crossbeam, on top of which stringers and the deck are placed. The deck consists of separate elements connected by post-tensioned prestressing reinforcement. Practical reinforcement is also applied. Figure [5.5](#page-41-0) shows the cross-section of the deck.

<span id="page-40-0"></span>

**Figure 5.3:** Truss layout

<span id="page-40-1"></span>

**Figure 5.4:** Cross-section perpendicular to span

<span id="page-41-0"></span>

**Figure 5.5:** Cross-section deck Truss design

# <span id="page-41-1"></span>**5.4. Composite**

The Composite design consists of steel girders that support a concrete deck. The concrete deck is connected to the steel girders, in order to create composite action and enhance the performance of the system. A multi-girder system is chosen. An alternative would be a twin-girder system, yet considering the flexibility from the IFD principles, a twin-girder system effectively becomes a multi-girder system when additional lanes would be required, thus making it more efficient to design the full structure using multi-girders. Additionally, multi-girder systems are generally more economic for shorter spans. As the system is simply supported, the bottom flange of the girder will be in tension, removing the need for bracing or crossbeams in the use phase. In the transportation or construction phase a change to the cross-section or the use of bracing might be required to ensure stability of the girders, however, this is not verified during the preliminary design. The design is verified for unpropped construction. Though propped construction might result in smaller girders, unpropped construction is favourable from the point of view of assembly. Since no temporary supports are required, the construction time is decreased and the assembly has less impact on the underlying road. The fact that temporary supports are not needed also increases the potential for reuse.

To ensure the Composite design is following IFD principles, a number of requirements need to be met:

- All elements need to be prefabricated and standardised.
- The connection between the deck and the girders needs to be demountable.
- The girders and the deck (in both directions) need to be divisible into smaller, standardised parts.

Prefabrication is achieved by using prefabricated concrete deck elements. The connections between steel elements are not designed, yet the connection between the concrete deck elements needs to be considered to some extent, as it directly impacts the behaviour of the structure. The connection is made by post-tensioned prestressing reinforcement. The division requirement is met by including regularity in the design, which is done by maintaining one set spacing for the main girders and by placing reinforcement at set intervals.

Existing composite structures generally follow these dimensions:



• Deck thickness 230-250 mm

Figure [5.6](#page-42-0) shows a cross-section of the girder and the deck. The girders have a height of 2058 mm, which results in a slenderness of 16, given the design span of 32 m. This slenderness is in line with existing structures. The girders are spaced 4 m apart. This has been found to be the most efficient spacing in terms of environmental impact and corresponds to existing structures. All girders have the same spacing, creating regularity in the layout. Illustrated by Figure [5.7,](#page-42-1) the deck plate elements have a thickness of 325 mm, are constructed with practical reinforcement and are connected by means of post-tensioned prestressing reinforcement. Generally, the deck has a lower thickness, around 250 mm. The reason the thickness needs to be larger is related to the requirement of no tension in the concrete between the deck elements in ULS, which is required to ensure full interaction between the deck elements, and the omission of shear reinforcement. Due to the strict requirement of no tension in midspan at the interface, a variable thickness of the concrete deck is also not possible.

It is not verified whether all interfaces will remain fully effective under shear loads. If this is not the case, shear keys can be added to allow for shear force transfer. This has not been included in the design, as it will not result in any significant change in material use. The deck is connected to the girder by shear connectors. As specifications of these are yet unknown, the assumption is made that a full degree of composite action is achieved.

<span id="page-42-0"></span>

**Figure 5.6:** Cross-section Composite design

<span id="page-42-1"></span>

**Figure 5.7:** Cross-section deck Composite design

# **5.5. Orthotropic deck**

The orthotropic deck alternative is a design consisting of only steel members. It is composed of girders and cross-girders, which in conjunction support the orthotropic deck: a deck plate with trapezoidal stiffeners, running in longitudinal direction. Trapezoidal stiffeners are considered to be favourable over open stiffeners due to the high torsional rigidity and good ability to distribute transverse loads, resulting in more efficient load transfer. In conventional orthotropic deck structures, all connections are welded, though bolted connections are possible. Bolted connections provide possible solutions to create a demountable orthotropic deck, but there are several points of attention regarding these, such as tolerances and finishing.

To make an orthotropic deck overpass IFD, the following needs to be done:

- The structure needs to be divisible into smaller, standardised parts in both directions of the structure.
- Connections between girders, crossbeams and stiffeners need to be demountable, i.e., conventional welded splice connections cannot be used.
- Stiffeners need to be either connected by demountable connections, or they need to be closed at the end of a module to eliminate the need for a connection.

As for the other alternatives, regularity is applied to allow for divisibility. With regard to the connections, no solutions are proposed. The stiffeners are assumed to be continuous, though.

The following dimensions are generally seen in existing structures:

- Slenderness girder  $l/h \approx 20$
- Slenderness crossbeam  $l/h \approx 20$ , lower slenderness is also frequently seen.
- Spacing girders variable, from 2,5 m to well over 10 m.
- Spacing crossbeams 3-5 m

A cross-section of the design is shown in Figure [5.8.](#page-43-0) The optimal spacing of the main girders has been found to be 5 m, which is within the feasible range, whereas the crossbeam spacing is 4 m, as illustrated by Figure [5.9.](#page-43-1) The latter is restrained by the ROK [\[13\]](#page-103-0). The slenderness of the main girder is 14, which is somewhat lower than usual. This is also the case for the crossbeams, yet this is seen in other structures as well. For the stiffeners the minimum possible dimensions have been used, according to the requirements formulated by the ROK. They have been placed at a fixed distance of each other to ensure regularity. The dimensions are shown in Figure [5.10.](#page-44-0)

<span id="page-43-0"></span>

**Figure 5.8:** Cross-section Orthotropic design

<span id="page-43-1"></span>

**Figure 5.9:** Cross-section crossbeam Orthotropic design

<span id="page-44-0"></span>

**Figure 5.10:** Dimensions of stiffeners

# **5.6. Conclusion**

The design of the alternatives has led to dimensions of all the elements, as well as the number of elements that are needed to create an overpass of 32 m long and 23,2 m in width. These values can be used in chapter [6](#page-45-1) to assess the performance of the alternatives. As a summary of the alternatives, Table [5.2](#page-44-1) lists the most important parameters for the three alternatives. All dimensions belong to the main elements of the structure; the numbers for the guardrail sections may differ slightly. Any changes are documented in appendix [B.4.](#page-128-0)

<span id="page-44-1"></span>

	<b>Truss</b>	Value	Unit	Composite	Value	Unit	Orthotropic	Value	Unit
Main elements	Nr. of trusses	$\overline{2}$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	Nr. of girders	7	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	Nr. of girders	6	
	Truss height	5050	mm	Girder height	2058	mm	Girder height	2250	mm
	Spacing trusses	23,65	m	Spacing girders	$\overline{4}$	m	Spacing girders	5	m
Secondary elements	Nr. of crossbeams	7					Nr. of crossbeams	8	
	Crossbeam height	993	mm				Crossbeam height	580	mm
	Spacing crossbeams	5,335	${\bf m}$				Spacing crossbeams	$\overline{4}$	m
	Nr. of stringers	10					Nr. of stiffeners	48	
	Stringer height	404	mm				Stiffener height	325	mm
	Spacing stringers	2,5	m			$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	Spacing stiffeners	0,5	m
Deck	Thickness	250	mm	Thickness	325	$\rm mm$	Thickness	20	mm
	Prestress $(\emptyset$ 15,2)	2100	$mm^2/m$	Prestress $(\emptyset15,7)$	3000	$mm^2/m$	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$		

**Table 5.2:** Overview of dimensions of the alternatives

6

# Performance Assessment of Design Alternatives

<span id="page-45-1"></span>This chapter describes the assessment of the performance of the design alternatives on the matters of sustainability and IFD guidelines. The chapter is divided in two parts: the first part describes the framework that is used and the second part illustrates the results that have been determined.

# **6.1. Assessment framework**

The assessment framework consists of sustainability, composed of three dimensions, and a Multi-Criteria Analysis, where the performance with respect to the IFD principles and guidelines is assessed.

# **6.1.1. Sustainability framework**

Sustainability is a term that can be interpreted in many different ways. Though different concepts exist, a common approach is to characterise sustainability through three dimensions: the environmental, economic and social dimensions. ISO 21931 lists different areas of concern for each of these dimensions [\[61\]](#page-106-1).

The environmental dimension focuses on the impact of a structure on the environment, as well as other environmental aspects. There are different ways in which this dimension can be quantified. The approach that is chosen is to perform a calculation on the environmental impact using Life-Cycle Assessment (LCA) data. It is limited to environmental impact, as this is considered to provide a clear and comprehensive quantification of the environmental dimension.

The economic dimension encompasses various aspects that affect the economy. With regard to civil structures, the most relevant aspect is the economic viability of a structure. Different approaches of determining this are possible, but commonly used is a life-cycle costs analysis. This analysis provides a measure for the total costs of a structure, from the construction phase towards the demolition phase, thus allowing for a comparison in terms of costs.

The social dimension is a very elaborate dimension for which ISO 21931 lists various aspects related to social performance. Some of these correspond to IFD principles, i.e., adaptability and maintainability, whilst others are site-specific, i.e., accessibility, impacts on neighbourhood, and safety and security. As such, these aspects are not explicitly included as a point of assessment. A measure that is included separately is architectural quality. Although the surroundings of the overpass are unknown, the visual quality of the overpass itself can be assessed to some extent.

### <span id="page-45-0"></span>**Environmental dimension**

For the assessment of environmental impact, an ECI is determined for each of the alternatives. The ECI, equivalent to the Milieukostenindicator (MKI) used in the Netherlands, is a measure that combines the environmental impact of an object across different environmental impact categories into one indicator by converting the impact into a monetary value. It is an expression of the burden an object places on the environment. Before an ECI can be determined, the environmental impact needs to be known. These data are retrieved from LCAs. LCAs list the impact of an object across different environmental impact categories for all life-cycle stages of the object.

### **Goal and scope**

The goal of the assessment is to determine which of the considered alternatives has the lowest environmental impact. The results are used for a comparison; the relative performance is of more importance than the absolute value of the impact. LCA in particular is a useful tool for comparison between alternatives, which is why it is considered an applicable method to use.

Besides the goal, a functional unit is required. A functional unit is the measure of comparison; if all alternatives have the same functional unit, an equal comparison can be performed. The functional unit for this assessment is an overpass with

<span id="page-46-0"></span>

**Figure 6.1:** LCA-modules [\[62\]](#page-106-2)

a design life of 200 years. The maximum width is 23,2 m and the span 32 m. It should also be possible for the overpass to be divided into modules. Furthermore, all requirements from section [5.1](#page-37-0) must be met.

# **Life-cycle modules**

An LCA can be performed taking into account the full life-cycle of a material by means of four modules. Figure [6.1](#page-46-0) shows these modules. Module A includes all processes related to manufacturing and construction, module B relates to the use phase and module C concerns the end-of-life phase. Module D describes benefits and loads beyond the boundaries of the system. These benefits and loads come from reuse or energy extraction from products that leave the system considered in the LCA. Naturally, there is a lot of uncertainty regarding this category, which should be considered when drawing conclusions.

The assessment that is done in this study includes the full life-cycle of the product. In theory, this means all four modules are included. Module B, however, is often unreported or reported as having no impact, for the application of a material is usually unknown in advance. Practically, this means that module B is not included, apart from the impact of products that are used for the application of maintenance. Given that it is assumed the materials are used for their full design life, replacement (module B4) is not accounted for either.

# **Environmental impact categories**

To determine the overall impact of an object, different environmental impact categories need to be included. Currently, EN 15804 prescribes a set of 19 different categories. Most of the data that is found, however, uses a set of 11 categories (following the previous version of EN 15804), which has its use in the Netherlands. Hence, a selection of this set of 11 categories is used for the assessment.

Although some data is reported using the 19 category approach, there is overlap between the two approaches, which is shown by listing the equivalence of certain categories from both approaches. The following categories are considered:

Based on EN 15804, the following impact categories and indicators are considered [\[62\]](#page-106-2):

- Climate change (GWP) *equivalent to Climate change total (GWP-total)*,
- Ozone Depletion (ODP)
- Acidification (AP)
- Eutrophication (EP) *equivalent to the sum of*
	- **–** *Eutrophication aquatic freshwater (EP-freshwater)*
	- **–** *Eutrophication aquatic marine (EP-marine)*
	- **–** *Eutrophication terrestrial (EP-terrestrial)*
- Photochemical ozone formation (POCP)
- Depletion of abiotic resources minerals and metals (ADPE)
- Depletion of abiotic resources fossil fuels (ADPF)
- Human toxicity (HTP) *equivalent to the sum of*
	- **–** *Human toxicity, cancer (HTP-c)*
	- **–** *Human toxicity, non-cancer (HTP-nc)*
- Eco-toxicity, freshwater (FAETP)

*\*The approach with 11 categories also includes marine and terrestrial eco-toxicity. As in the new approach no reporting is done on these aspects, they are excluded from the analysis to allow for an equal comparison. Besides, the contribution of these categories is limited and thus does not result in a substantial difference.*

### **Data**

The data that is used is, for the most part, retrieved from the Nationale Milieudatabase (NMD), a Dutch database that contains environmental impact data of various elements and objects used in the construction industry. Data from this database are used in order to perform the analysis. The time of collection of the data is 8 April 2024.

In case elements or objects that are not included in the database need to be analysed, so-called EPDs can be consulted. An EPD is a form that is supplied by the producer of a product and that includes an LCA of this specific product and thus data on its environmental impact. As EPDs are verified by independent partners, they are an appropriate source for additional data. The data in recent EPDs is mainly reported using the 19 category approach, where some categories feature different units. Hence, a conversion needs to take place to be able to compare the categories. Table [C.4](#page-130-0) shows which units are converted and into which unit, by multiplication with a certain conversion factor.

As the different impact categories have different units, normalisation of the values is required. Normalisation is done by means of monetisation: each impact category has an impact expressed in a specific unit. Multiplying the impact by a monetisation factor for this unit allows for conversion to a monetary value of environmental impact. This can be seen as the cost of the impact. The sum of these costs for all impact categories yields the ECI. In Table [C.5](#page-130-1) the monetisation factors are listed for the respective units of the environmental impact categories.

The data in the NMD is divided into three categories. Categories 1 and 2 are data provided by producers and the industry. These data are quite specific and verified by a third party, which is why they are considered to be accurate. Category 3 data are compiled by the administrators of the NMD. Data from category 3 are generic and not validated by a third party, thus reducing their accuracy. Consequently, a correction is made to compensate for this effect by means of an increase of the reported impact of the object by 30%. It is highlighted which components use category 3 data and receive a correction on their calculated impact.

### **Further assumptions**

Apart from the aspects described in previous sections, some other assumptions are made:

- The assessment is limited to the superstructure, for the contribution of the substructure to the total impact is significantly smaller than the contribution of the superstructure. This is supported by research done by Beco [\[63\]](#page-106-3) and Stutech/Stufib [\[64\]](#page-106-4).
- With repetitive maintenance and infinite fatigue life, the elements are assumed to be able to last for the required design life of 200 years.
- Transport is included to cover the relocation of elements in case of reuse of the structure or its components. The impact of the transport is based on the transport of all components of the structure over 200 km, simulating two reuse cycles of 100 km each. The 100 km results from the transport to and from a storage site, assumed to be 50 km. The storage site is needed as the elements, once disassembled, may not directly be of use for another structure.
- All elements that are not specific for a design are excluded. These elements are non-structural elements, such as guardrails, expansion joints, asphalt layers and any other non-protective finishing. The contribution of joints is not included either, as their mass contribution is limited compared to the main structural components.
- The impact of equipment and machinery is not explicitly included.
- For steel maintenance, the main objective is to provide protection against corrosion. Hence, it is assumed that the members will be maintained in order to provide continuous corrosion protection. Although Stephens et al. [\[40\]](#page-105-0) state that the maintenance interval can be up to 30 years, current practice in the Netherlands is to repaint steel elements approximately every 15 years, which is the interval adopted for application of the corrosion protection [\[65,](#page-106-5) [66\]](#page-106-6). The material that is used is a zinc-rich epoxy primer. Data on this material is provided in an EPD by PPG [\[67\]](#page-106-7). For concrete, it is assumed that there is no significant preventive maintenance required. The main activities related to concrete maintenance will be responsive, such as repairing cracks. It is assumed that the impact of the materials used for the maintenance is limited, allowing for the exclusion of the impact.
- Traffic hindrance due to maintenance is not included. As maintenance can be scheduled efficiently and the duration of the maintenance is not expected to be substantially different for each alternative, according to Zhang et al. [\[68\]](#page-106-8), large differences in impact are not expected.
- All steel grades will be assumed to have the same environmental impact, as most EPDs of steel provide the data independent from the precise type of steel. Although there is a difference between different steel grades, Berggren [\[69\]](#page-106-9) illustrates that the difference is small and can be neglected.

# **Economic dimension**

The economic dimension can be described by cost calculations. Within this research the focus is strongly on the environmental dimension. A cost analysis is, therefore, only used for the optimisation of module dimensions. For this aspect the focus is on the costs that are involved with the production of elements, both the raw material costs and the manufacturing, as well as the assembly costs, covering transportation to the construction site and on-site assembly. In relation to the environmental dimension, this could be considered as module A from Figure [6.1.](#page-46-0)

# **Social dimension**

The third dimension that describes sustainability is the social dimension. This dimension encompasses various aspects and can be interpreted in many different ways, depending on the application. With regard to civil engineering, most logical is to consider the value of the structure for society. In part, this depends on the location of the structure and its effect on the environment, and to the function of the structure within a larger system. These aspects, however, are variable given that the design should be usable at different locations. As a result, the most relevant characteristic for the value of the overpass is its aesthetics.

The aesthetics of the overpass are largely determined in the final stages of the design (through elements such as edge beams for instance) or, once more, dependent on the surroundings of the overpass, which are all out of scope. The one aspect that is related directly to the overpass itself is slenderness. Slenderness, defined as the ratio of the span of the overpass divided by the height, should fall within a certain range: a very low slenderness results in a heavy structure with a large thickness, whilst a very high slenderness results in a rather slender structure that may not seem safe anymore. The precise extent of this range depends on the type of structural system. Though there are no strict requirements regarding minimum or maximum slenderness, an estimate should be made on what is reasonable.

# **6.1.2. IFD principles framework**

The performance of the alternatives on the matter of IFD principles is assessed using a Multi-Criteria Analysis. The MCA is performed by assessing the performance of the alternatives on eight categories. These categories are derived from section [3.1.3](#page-24-0) and in conjunction enable an assessment on the performance regarding IFD principles. The categories are derived from the guidelines that do not translate into requirements (see section [5.1\)](#page-37-0); some additional important factors are included as well. The categories are listed below, along with an explanation of their relevance. Below the list, the method of assessment is described for each category. The structures can eventually be divided into smaller, standardised parts to follow the IFD guidelines. Since the size of the resulting modules affects the outcomes of the MCA, the assessment is performed with two modules sizes: 4 m and 12 m. These sizes are not final, they just show how the module size impacts the outcomes of the assessment for a smaller and larger module size.

- *Number of different components* A limited number of different components reduces complexity of construction and simplifies sorting of components during deconstruction.
- *Number of components* A limited number of components creates a clearer construction process.
- *Number of connections* A reduced number of connections results in less actions to be performed on-site.
- *Ease of changing overpass layout* As one of the essential properties of an IFD structure, simple and limited actions to change the overpass layout are desired.
- *Mass of components* Low mass of the different components allows for easier handling and manoeuvring on the construction site.
- *Independence Parallel assembly* Parallel assembly, the possibility to assemble different segments of a structure simultaneously and combine them later, decreases the construction time and simplifies the assembly process.
- *Ease of replacement of components* Related to *Ease of changing overpass layout*, easy replacement of components increases the longevity of the structure when replacement is a realistic possibility.
- *Maintenance* Less maintenance results in less activities to be executed during service of the structure and saves costs.

## **Number of different components**

The determination of the number of different components is straightforward: components of a different material and with different cross-sections are a separate type of component. Connections are excluded.

### **Number of components**

For the number of components, the different components are counted. Connections are not included.

### **Number of connections**

As the connections themselves are not known at this stage, some assumptions need to be made. For interfaces between linear elements, it is evident that each interface between two modules requires one connection. In the case of concrete deck plates, in transverse direction the connection is created by means of the prestressing reinforcement. In longitudinal direction the connection is assumed to be incorporated in the underlying connection. For steel deck plates, the connection is assumed to be part of the connections of the underlying members.

# **Ease of changing overpass layout**

This criterion is scored qualitatively, as it is difficult to determine relevant values for comparison. Ease of changing overpass layout in this context relates specifically to the addition of lanes, i.e., an extension in width of the overpass. A three-point scoring system is used: two points are awarded in case only edge panels need to be removed, one point if other connections are impacted, yet the main structural system can remain intact, zero points if the structural system is impacted.

# **Mass**

The mass, calculated in kilograms, is determined by the average weight of all components. The mass of an individual component is multiplied by the number of components. The sum of these masses is divided by the total number of components, resulting in the average mass across all components. Prestressing reinforcement is excluded, as it is a connection element rather than a component.

# **Independence - Parallel assembly**

Parallel assembly is scored qualitatively, again with a three-point system. When parallel assembly is fully possible, that is, if all parts of the structure can be assembled independently, a value of two is awarded. If there is some interdependency, a score of one is given, while for significant interdependency, most components are linked in some manner, a value of zero is given.

### **Ease of replacement**

As for parallel assembly, this category is scored qualitatively. The focus is on replacement of components that are not part of the main span-bridging structure, in particular deck plates, as the replacement of the main structure is difficult for any structure. Two points are awarded if replacement can be done without impact on other components, one point if there is impact, yet not on the main structure, and zero points if the replacement directly impacts the main structure. In case all components are part of the main structure, a score of zero is awarded as well.

# **Maintenance**

The maintenance that is considered is related to periodic, preventive maintenance of the structural elements of the overpass. Included is only the maintenance of the steel, as for the steel maintenance is clearly defined and takes place repetitively. Other maintenance is expected to be more accidental of nature and similar for all alternatives. Therefore, it is not included. The total amount of maintenance, in  $\mathrm{m}^2$ , is the product of the area on which the maintenance is applied and the number of times maintenance is applied over the design life of 200 years. The maintenance interval is assumed to be 15 years, as discussedin [6.1.1.](#page-45-0)

### **Normalisation and weights**

The values of the categories need to be converted to a value between one and zero, to allow for a fair comparison. This is done by so-called 'Linear Max'-normalisation, which uses formula [6.1](#page-49-0) in case high values indicate a better score, and formula [6.2](#page-49-1) in case low values indicate a better score [\[70\]](#page-106-10).

<span id="page-49-0"></span>
$$
n_{ij} = \frac{r_{ij}}{r_{max}} \tag{6.1}
$$

<span id="page-49-1"></span>
$$
n_{ij} = 1 - \frac{r_{ij}}{r_{max}} \tag{6.2}
$$

This method normalises data based on the best possible value a category can have and not necessarily on the best value among the alternatives. To illustrate with an example, if the highest performance on maintenance is 9000  $\mathrm{m}^2$  and the lowest performance is 10000 m<sup>2</sup>, their respective values are 0,10 and 0. This takes into account that although 9000 m<sup>2</sup> is

better than 10000  $\mathrm{m}^2$ , it is far from the potential best, which would be no maintenance at all. For the qualitative categories, the maximum and minimum values will be held at two and zero respectively, even if they are not among the assigned values for a category.

The method assumes that zero is the best possible score. However, for certain categories this is not the case. Therefore, for the categories *Number of components*, *Number of different components* and *Mass of components* a value of one is assumed as the best possible score by applying a corrected version of formula [6.2,](#page-49-1) shown in formula [6.3.](#page-50-0)

<span id="page-50-0"></span>
$$
n_{ij} = 1 - \frac{r_{ij} - 1}{r_{max} - 1} \tag{6.3}
$$

Scores are calculated by multiplying the value for each category by a weight factor, which is assumed to be 1 for all categories. The sum of all scores for each alternative results in the total score.

# **6.2. Assessment results**

# **6.2.1. Environmental impact assessment**

In order to perform the assessment on the environmental impact, the materials and processes need to be known. For each alternative, appendix [C](#page-129-0) shows a table with the materials and processes and their quantities. These quantities have been used as input for the environmental impact calculation.

Figure [6.2](#page-50-1) shows the result of the assessment in the form of the ECI, expressed in euros. For each of the layouts the ECI is shown for each alternative. As the designs are based on modules, some layouts have the same impact, since they use the same number of modules. It is obtained that the Composite alternative performs best across all layouts, whereas the Orthotropic alternative consistently has the highest impact. Figure [6.3](#page-51-0) shows the summed impact across all different layouts. It is evident that the Composite alternative has the best performance. The impact is calculated over different life-cycle phases, which are combined in modules (see Figure [6.1\)](#page-46-0). Figure [6.4](#page-51-1) shows the impact from the 4x1 layout, divided into the different life-cycle modules. The total impact reported is the net result: module D is negative and thus reduces the impact. It can be seen that for all alternatives module A is responsible for the largest impact, between 85-90%. Module B in this instance refers only to the impact of the material used for maintenance.

<span id="page-50-1"></span>

**Figure 6.2:** Environmental impact per road layout

Figure [6.5](#page-52-0) shows the contribution of the different elements within the environmental analysis to the total impact of the alternative. It can be seen that for the Orthotropic alternative nearly 50% of the impact comes from the deck (deck plate and stiffeners), which, considering the fact that it is made of steel, is an important reason for it having a higher environmental impact. Maintenance also plays a role. The Composite alternative has a more or less equal impact for the deck and steel girders. For the Truss alternative a limited impact of the deck is seen, making that the main elements are the source of the impact. As explained in section [6.1.1,](#page-45-0) the transport is calculated for a distance of 200 km. Evidently, this

<span id="page-51-0"></span>

**Figure 6.3:** Total environmental impact per alternative

<span id="page-51-1"></span>number can vary, either due to different transportation distances or due to more or less re-use cycles of the structure. However, as for all alternatives the transport accounts for only a few percent of the total impact, variations will have limited impact on the results.



**Figure 6.4:** Environmental impact of 4x1 layout, divided in life-cycle modules

An important factor of the impact that has not been considered yet is the substructure. Considering that the total weight of the Orthotropic alternative is lower than that of the Composite alternative, this influences the results of the assessment. Although the substructure is not designed, an indication can be given of the impact the weight reduction has on the environmental impact. Firstly, it is assumed that, for a steel bridge or overpass, the impact of the substructure is equivalent to 25% of the superstructure, as an LCA study by Beco [\[63\]](#page-106-3) shows. This concerns only the production phase, i.e., the LCA modules A1-3. Evidently, the exact value is dependent on the specific structure, yet this percentage can serve as an estimate. Then, considering the total mass of both structures (700000 kg for the Composite and 275000 kg for the Orthotropic alternative), it is seen that the mass of the Orthotropic structure is equivalent to 39% of the Composite structure. The following calculations show the difference in total load on the substructure:

$$
F_{tot,comp} = F_{sw} + F_{var} = 1,25 \cdot 9,81 \cdot 700 +
$$
  

$$
1,5 \cdot ((10,35 \cdot 3 + 3,5 \cdot 6 + 2,5 \cdot 14,2) \cdot 32 + 600 + 400 + 200) = 14600 \text{ kN}
$$

$$
F_{tot,orth} = F_{sw} + F_{var} = 1,25 \cdot 9,81 \cdot 255 +
$$
  

$$
1,5 \cdot ((10,35 \cdot 3 + 3,5 \cdot 6 + 2,5 \cdot 14,2) \cdot 32 + 600 + 400 + 200) = 9100 \text{ kN}
$$

<span id="page-52-0"></span>

**Figure 6.5:** Environmental impact: contribution of different components to total impact

The Orthotropic alternative has a load equivalent to 62% of the Composite alternative. This means that the impact of the superstructure could be decreased by 38%. Considering the impact of all substructures is equal to 25% of the impact of the Orthotropic alternative, Table [6.1](#page-53-0) is compiled. For the Truss alternative, which has a mass of 630000 kg, a similar calculation results in a load reduction of 6%. The results show that, although the difference decreases, there still exists a margin of 9% between the impact of the Composite and Orthotropic alternatives. The Truss alternative, however, has been surpassed by the Orthotropic alternative, which has a 5% lower impact. Figure [6.6](#page-52-1) graphically shows the combined impact of the superstructure and substructure.

<span id="page-52-1"></span>In conclusion, considering the production phase, the substructure has an effect that favours the lighter orthotropic structure, yet it is not sufficiently large to change the outcome of the assessment. Apart from the weight of the structure, other factors play a role in the design of the substructure, which may again favour the Composite alternative. Consequently, also considering the higher impact due to maintenance for the Orthotropic alternative, the Composite alternative is still the alternative with the lowest impact.



**Figure 6.6:** Combined environmental impact of superstructure and substructure, LCA-phases A1-3

	Superstructure	Substructure	Total $[A1-3]$
Truss	30.314	7.312	37.626
Composite	25.055	7.779	32.834
Orthotropic	31.117	4.823	35.940

<span id="page-53-0"></span>**Table 6.1:** ECI values [€] for superstructure and substructure, LCA-phases A1-3

# **6.2.2. IFD principles**

For each of the MCA categories, the values for the three alternatives have been determined. Table [6.2](#page-53-1) shows the values for each of the assessment criteria. For the calculation of these values, appendix [D](#page-135-0) can be consulted. With the normalisation approach as described, Table [6.3](#page-53-2) is created. All values have been converted into scores between zero and one.

Figure [6.7](#page-54-0) shows the total scores, for weight factors of 1, of the four alternatives. For smaller module sizes, the Composite and Orthotropic alternative perform nearly equally. However, if the module size is significantly larger, the Orthotropic alternative clearly behaves the best, though the Composite alternative still shows good behaviour. The main difference between the two alternatives comes from the reduced number of connections that is required.

The Truss alternative clearly has the lowest score. The main reason for this low score is the dependence in the structural system, which complicates replacement and extensions, and limits parallel assembly. The large number of (different) components is also a disadvantage. This does mean that the mass of the components is relatively low. In terms of connections, the truss structure also performs good, since a substantial number of connections combines multiple elements.

<span id="page-53-1"></span>Strong points of the Composite alternative are the possibility for parallel assembly, explained by the nature of the system, and the small number of different components that are needed. The weak points are the aforementioned number of connections (mainly coming from the prestressing tendons and shear connectors) and the mass of the components. The

	Unit	<b>Truss</b>		Composite		Orthotropic	
Module size $\rightarrow$		4 <sub>m</sub>	12 m	4 m	12 m	4 <sub>m</sub>	12 m
Nr. of different components	#	5		2			
Nr. of components	#	175	104	112	42	48	18
Nr. of connections	#	232	161	577	542	754	2.44
Ease of changing overpass layout	qual.	$\Omega$					
Mass of components	kg	3588	6037	6240	16640	5288	14100
Independence - PA	qual.			2		2	
Ease of replacement	qual.	$\Omega$				$\Omega$	
Maintenance	m <sup>2</sup>	16911		14914		35331	

**Table 6.2:** MCA: values per category



<span id="page-53-2"></span>

mass of the individual components is rather high due to the concrete deck, which has a higher thickness than the Truss alternative, and the fact that the modules itself are of considerable size.

<span id="page-54-0"></span>The Orthotropic alternative has a good score in particular due to the fact that only one module is used. As a result it is easy to modify and assembly is simplified. However, this comes with disadvantages, as the mass of the components becomes rather large and replacement of a component is complex because the structural system is always affected. Since the alternative is made completely of steel, the maintenance area is also larger than for the other two alternatives.



**Figure 6.7:** MCA scores, for module size 4 m (light) and 12 m (dark)

# **6.3. Conclusion**

The three alternatives described in chapter [5](#page-37-1) have been assessed on their performance regarding environmental impact and following IFD principles. The environmental impact assessment is in favour of the Composite alternative, which consistently has the lowest impact, even when a hypothetical substructure is included. On the IFD principles, the Orthotropic alternative shows the best behaviour for larger modules, followed by the Composite alternative. For smaller modules they perform equally. Considering the good performance on both environmental impact and IFD principles, the Composite alternative is concluded to be the best overall design for the application investigated within this research.

# **IV** Detailed Design

# 7

# Connection Options

Three different interfaces are distinguished in the composite overpass that require attention. These are the shear connection between steel girders and concrete deck plates, the steel girder connection between girder segments and the connection between concrete deck plates. Firstly, requirements and guidelines that are applicable to all these connections are listed. Then, based on these requirements, the different options are investigated.

# <span id="page-56-0"></span>**7.1. Requirements**

To ensure demountability is possible and feasible, several requirements are formulated which should be met by the designed connections. The following requirements are defined:

- Use mechanical connections, preferably without connectors, otherwise with connectors or integral connections. In case chemical connections are proven to be demountable, they can be considered equivalent to non-chemical connections [\[19\]](#page-103-1).
- Prevent the occurrence of damage to other parts of the structure during disassembly [\[19\]](#page-103-1).
- Connections should not be enclosed by other objects [\[71\]](#page-106-11).
- Disassembly of connections should be safe [\[71\]](#page-106-11).
- Design joints and connectors to be able to sustain repeated assembly and disassembly [\[22\]](#page-104-0).

Apart from requirements, guidelines can be defined, which increase the demountability of a connection and facilitate a faster and more simplified assembly and disassembly process:

- The time required for disassembly should be minimised [\[71\]](#page-106-11).
- The number of actions required to disassemble the connection should be minimised [\[71\]](#page-106-11).
- The number of (different) connections should be minimised [\[22\]](#page-104-0).
- Aim for limited complexity in the connections [\[23\]](#page-104-1).
- Ensure good accessibility to connections [\[22\]](#page-104-0).

Besides IFD requirements, tolerances also impose limitations on a structure. Tolerances are of importance for the assembly of the structure, particularly for connections in prefabricated structures. From the point of view of mechanical performance, the tolerances should be minimised. Production, however, requires some tolerance to allow for small deviations during the production of components. All components are standardised and mass produced. This means that it is expected to be economically feasible to optimise the production process to create small tolerances, for instance by manufacturing a high-precision mould. Furthermore, the fact that the interfaces between the components will always be the same due to the use of identical components increases the possibility for optimisation of the production process.

In terms of tolerances, separate tolerances are distinguished for both the steel and the concrete. With regard to bolt holes in a steel connection, EN 1090 prescribes that the hole diameter should be 2 mm larger than the bolt, assuming a normal size hole [\[72\]](#page-106-12). It is assumed that this is sufficient, given the considerations mentioned and the fact that this is successfully applied in the modular structure shown in Figure [3.7.](#page-29-0) For concrete, normally tolerances are larger than for steel. Yet, as all panels are the same, it is economically feasible to optimise the mould required for production of the panels, so that small tolerances can be achieved. Therefore, it is decided to assume a slightly larger, yet still limited, tolerance of 4 mm. This margin is chosen because this value is often used in the tests on the shear connectors, to which is referred in section [8.1.3.](#page-72-0) Accordingly, it is also applied on the bolt holes for the shear connectors within the steel.

# **7.2. Shear connection**

A connection between the steel girder and the concrete deck is required to transfer shear forces and to create composite action. The most common type of connection is a mechanical connection in the form of welded elements, mostly studs. The problem with welded elements is that they are not demountable, which is why other types of connectors need to be used to allow for reusability. Bolted connections are well suited for demountability and are increasing in relevance. They exist in the form of conventional bolts, with load transfer by bearing, and as friction connections, where load transfer is by friction. Figure [7.1a](#page-57-0) shows both a welded stud and a bolted connector.

Alternatively, connections utilising adhesives are possible. Figure [7.1b](#page-57-0) shows an example of a developed adhesive connection in combination with a continuous plate welded to the steel. Grout is used to connect the concrete and steel. The main benefit of this connection is the absence of individual connectors and fast assembly. It should be noted that, besides through adhesion, forces are also transferred by friction and interlocking. The disadvantage is that demountability of the grout is not proven. Since the grout is essential for the transfer of forces, the application of non-adhesive grout is not expected to result in good behaviour. Hence, it is decided to focus on a connection created with individual shear connectors.

<span id="page-57-0"></span>

**(a)** Welded stud (left) and bolted connector (right) **(b)** Strip shear connection [\[73\]](#page-106-13)

**Figure 7.1:** Examples of shear connection methods

# **7.2.1. General behaviour**

For analysis of shear connectors, the most insightful feature is the load-slip behaviour, which describes the deformation of a connector in response to the application of a load. As the behaviour of demountable connectors is different compared to welded studs, it is important to understand the differences. Figure [7.2](#page-58-0) shows the qualitative load-slip behaviour of three types of connectors: conventional welded studs, demountable connectors without preload and demountable connectors with preload. The figures are indicative of the behaviour and are used as a matter of comparison. The behaviour of individual connectors may, therefore, differ from the generalised behaviour shown in the figures.

# **ULS vs. SLS**

For an analysis in either ULS or SLS, different assumptions need to be made. For ULS values close to the ultimate resistance can be taken, yet for SLS a limit needs to be imposed. For the welded studs this is defined through tests as a resistance of  $0.7P_{Rk}$ . For demountable connectors, however, this relation is not always valid, as they have different behaviour. Hence, a limit is formulated based on the re-usability. In order to be able to reuse the elements from the structure after a use cycle, it is necessary to prevent the occurrence of damage or irreversible deformation in the structure. This is ensured by the prevention of inelastic behaviour, as also suggested by the Steel Construction Institute [\[74\]](#page-106-14). By imposing such a limit, it is assured that the components can be reused without the need for inspection and that it is possible to disassemble the connections.

For each of the connectors that are discussed the behaviour is different, as is the point up to which plastic deformation is prevented. As a safe limit it is decided to restrict connector forces in SLS to their elastic limit. In case the connectors are not preloaded, this relates to the part of the load-slip curve that is linear, which indicates elastic behaviour as shown in Figure [7.2c.](#page-58-0) In case of preloaded connections, the elastic limit is taken as equivalent to the domain in which the forces are transferred by friction, the first branch in Figure [7.2c.](#page-58-0) Although the behaviour afterwards may be partially elastic, the occurrence of slip after the friction resistance has been overcome may lead to unfavourable behaviour, such as a loss of resistance or plastic deformation, and should be prevented. This approach is also suggested in some design codes [\[75\]](#page-106-15).

<span id="page-58-0"></span>

**Figure 7.2:** Indicative load-slip behaviour of different shear connectors

It is acknowledged that the proposed limit can be conservative for certain connectors, for it is not necessarily the case that the structure deforms plastically directly after the elastic limit of the connector has been surpassed. Still, it is not known for all connectors up to which point plastic deformation is prevented and whether disassembly of the connector and reuse of elements is possible. Therefore, as the current limit ensures for all connectors that no plastic deformation takes place, it is considered that the described approach is suitable for the design.

# **Preload loss**

A point of attention for preloaded connectors is the amount of preload in the bolts and in particular the reduction in load due to preload loss. Although it is not part of the scope of this research to perform a detailed design of the connection, it is important to assess whether preload loss is a limiting factor in the design or if it can be managed when taken into account. Nijgh [\[76\]](#page-106-16) listed several causes of preload loss. The mitigation of preload loss focuses on two properties of the connection: the connector and the surface. With regard to the connector, appropriate detailing can effectively mitigate some of the causes of preload loss and, naturally, should be considered for the detailed design of the connection. The second aspect is the surface, where, by means of the mechanism of embedment, plastic deformation of the surface coating results in relaxation. Though it is evident that a surface coating is required, the right installation methods can cover losses that occur due to these effects [\[77\]](#page-106-17).

Apart from the steel parts, the concrete is also of importance, for creep and shrinkage effects reduce the preload force. Although it is not part of this research to assess the magnitude of preload loss due to creep and shrinkage of the concrete, it has been found that measures can be taken to mitigate these losses. Examples of such measures are the use of high-strength concrete and the application of a proper installation procedure [\[78\]](#page-107-0).

In conclusion, measures exist that can mitigate or potentially fully cover preload loss. The need for these measures is to be demonstrated by a detailed design of the connectors.

# **Initial slip**

The initial slip of a connector is usually defined as the slip that a connector experiences before the elastic design resistance of the connector is reached, denoted by  $\delta_{el}$  in Figure [7.2a](#page-58-0) and [7.2b.](#page-58-0) The initial slip is limited due to the good initial stiffness. For preloaded bolted connectors, though, initial slip is often referred to as the slip that occurs directly after the friction resistance is overcome. In Figure [7.2c](#page-58-0) this is the range  $\delta_{slip} - \delta_{el}$ . The stiffness of the connector in this stage can differ: for some connectors the stiffness is more or less equal to the third stage, whilst for some connectors no stiffness in this stage has been recorded. This slip occurs due to the clearance between the bolt and bolt hole. In favour of fatigue life, initial slip in preloaded connections needs to be prevented. It should be noted that initial slip has no effect on the ultimate resistance of bolted connectors [\[79\]](#page-107-1).

# **Composite action and ductility**

The degree of composite action is also a relevant property of a composite structure. In case of full composite action all forces can be transferred between the steel and concrete resulting in full interaction. If not all forces can be transferred, partial interaction occurs. Full interaction results in better cross-sectional properties, yet it requires more connectors and may not always be required. For the shear connectors full composite action means that all forces can be transferred between the steel and concrete. This either means that connectors should be ductile enough to allow other connectors to reach their ultimate resistance before failure or that the placement of the connectors should be optimised to follow the shear force behaviour. The degree of composite action is also influenced by the stiffness of the connectors. A low connector stiffness results in reduced interaction and as a result a reduced stiffness of the assembly. Consequently, flexible connectors should follow the shear force distribution more closely to limit deformations.

Related to the composite action is the ductility of the connector. A connector is ductile if it exhibits ideal plastic behaviour, that is, it features a plastic plateau. In the Eurocode a connector is considered ductile if it can maintain its characteristic resistance  $P_{Rk}$  up to a slip capacity  $\delta_u$  of 6 mm (see Figure [7.2a\)](#page-58-0). This is under the assumption that  $P_{Rk}$  is reached at limited slip. Demountable shear connectors tend to not show behaviour similar to welded studs and can thus, following the Eurocode definition, not be classified as ductile connectors. Using the classification proposed by the Steel Construction Institute [\[74\]](#page-106-14) the connectors are classified as non-ductile with sufficient deformation capacity, since the majority of the connectors have an ultimate deformation  $\delta_u$  exceeding 6 mm. Normally, non-ductile connectors do not allow for redistribution of loads to other connectors, given that they fail directly after reaching their ultimate resistance. For the demountable shear connectors, however, redistribution is possible up to a certain degree, due to the deformation capacity that exists. Consequently, for the ULS it is allowed to design for plastic resistance, under the condition that the design resistance as retrieved from the Eurocode is slightly reduced [\[74\]](#page-106-14).

Normally, a minimum degree of shear interaction is required to prevent premature failure of the shear connectors. Again, this requirement is based on welded studs and can, therefore, not directly be applied on demountable connectors. As a replacement of this condition it is replaced with a check on elastic behaviour in SLS, which already is the current approach for the SLS verification [\[74\]](#page-106-14).

### **Fatigue life**

Naturally, good fatigue life is desired for applications in bridges and overpasses and especially for an overpass that should be usable for 200 years. Almost all bolted connectors have a fatigue life better than welded studs, due to the fact that welds are more vulnerable to cyclic loading. Fatigue resistance can be increased further by means of preload. The stress variations in a bolt reduce when a preload force is applied, resulting in improved fatigue life. Movements of the bolts inside holes should also be prevented.

# **7.2.2. Connector types**

Due to the increasing interest in the use of demountable shear connectors, numerous types of connectors have been developed recently. Several of these connectors are briefly described. The load-slip behaviours of the different connectors are illustrated, with the remark that they are not directly comparable for all connectors, since the dimensions and strength of the connectors can differ. After the discussion of the different connectors, an overview is given where it is reasoned which connectors have the most potential, based on practical considerations.

## **Welded headed stud**

Welded headed studs, shown in Figure [7.3a,](#page-59-0) are the conventional solution for shear connectors. They are widely used in the construction industry. Given the growing relevance of sustainability and, consequently, of disassembly and reuse of components, the non-demountability of the welded studs is an increasingly important disadvantage. Another point of concern for welded studs is the relatively low fatigue strength of the connector. Figure [7.3b](#page-59-0) shows the load-slip behaviour of welded headed stud connectors. The load-slip behaviour of welded studs is characterised by a rapid increase of resistance, followed by an increase of deformation for a more or less constant load. This translates in a good initial stiffness, as limited initial slip is required before the ultimate resistance is achieved. The ultimate slip capacity is often considered to be 6 mm, proving that welded studs can exhibit ductile behaviour.

<span id="page-59-0"></span>

**(a)** Illustration of welded headed stud [\[80\]](#page-107-2) **(b)** Load-slip behaviour of welded headed stud [\[81\]](#page-107-3)

**Figure 7.3:** Welded headed stud

### **Demountable headed stud**

Demountable headed studs (DHS) are very similar in shape to conventional headed studs, with the exception that they are connected by their threaded end and a nut, as shown by Figure [7.4a.](#page-60-0)

<span id="page-60-0"></span>The behaviour of the demountable headed stud is different from that of welded headed studs, which is shown by Figure [7.4b.](#page-60-0) The connector has a similar capacity and is more ductile, yet has a lower initial stiffness and as such the initial slip is considerably larger than for welded studs [\[82\]](#page-107-4). Fatigue behaviour of the demountable headed studs has not been tested, yet it can be expected to be better than for welded studs, due to the absence of welds.



**(a)** Illustration of a DHS [adapted from D20] **(b)** Load-slip behaviour of welded stud and DHS [\[82\]](#page-107-4)

**Figure 7.4:** Demountable headed stud

# **Embedded nut bolt**

Embedded nut bolts are bolts that are connected with a nut and feature one or two additional nuts at the flange, referred to as respectively single-embedded nut bolts (SENB) and double-embedded nut bolts (DENB). Figure [7.5a](#page-60-1) shows an illustration of an SENB and Figure [7.5b](#page-60-1) of a DENB. The effect of the second nut on aspects such as stiffness seems to be limited, as is shown by analyses by [\[83\]](#page-107-5) and [\[79\]](#page-107-1). Thus, the behaviour of the SENB and DENB can be considered comparable.

Figure [7.5c](#page-60-1) shows a typical load-slip curve of an embedded nut connector, in this case for an SENB. The connector is preloaded and the results are shown for a connection with a total of eight identical connectors. The resistance is similar to welded studs [\[79\]](#page-107-1). The ductility, however, is slightly lower and especially the stiffness is the property that is inferior to conventional studs. Initial slip also takes place due to the clearance between the bolt and bolt hole. Fatigue behaviour has been tested for preloaded DENBs and has proved to be significantly better than for conventional studs[[84\]](#page-107-6). It was reasoned that this might be explained by the reduced bending of the bolt. Since the stiffness of SENBs and DENBs have shown to be very similar, the bending reduction should be similar too, leading to good fatigue behaviour for both DENBs and SENBs.

<span id="page-60-1"></span>An alternative is a bolt without an embedded nut. While some properties are similar to SENBs, the stiffness is considerably lower [\[79,](#page-107-1) [83\]](#page-107-5), excluding them as a feasible option.



**Figure 7.5:** Embedded nut bolt connectors

### **Blind bolt**

Figure [7.6a](#page-61-0) shows an illustration of a blind bolt (BB). The connector consists of a bolt with its head under the steel flange and an additional bolt on top of the flange, embedded in the concrete. The absence of a head or nut on the concrete end of the bolt forms the distinction with the SENB connector.

With respect to conventional studs, blind bolts have a higher resistance and show sufficient ductility [\[87\]](#page-107-9), as is illustrated by Figure [7.6b.](#page-61-0) Not dissimilar from embedded nut connectors, the stiffness is considerably lower compared to welded studs and initial slip is noticed due to the clearance between bolt and bolt hole. Fatigue behaviour of blind bolts, on the other hand, has shown to be better than for welded studs [\[87\]](#page-107-9).

<span id="page-61-0"></span>

**Figure 7.6:** Blind bolt

An alternative to a blind bolt is an adhesive anchor connection, which is in fact a blind bolt where the embedded nut has been removed. The resistance of this connection is similar, yet the stiffness is significantly lower [\[84\]](#page-107-6). Considering fatigue resistance, the fatigue life is, like for blind bolts, better than for welded studs. The rather low stiffness, however, makes that blind bolts are favoured over adhesive anchors. Other types of blind bolts, such as Ajax Oneside or Lindapter Hollo-bolts, have shown to have insufficient fatigue life, making them unsuitable for use in high-cycle-fatigue applications [\[88\]](#page-107-10).

# **High-strength friction grip bolt**

High-strength friction grip bolt (HSFGB) connections are the most basic type of friction connection. Figure [7.7a](#page-62-0) shows the layout of the connection. The bolts are installed through a hole in the concrete and then preloaded to transfer forces by means of friction.

The resistance of the HSFGB is higher than for welded studs [\[89\]](#page-107-11). This is also shown by the load-slip behaviour in Figure [7.7b.](#page-62-0) Initial stiffness of the HSFGB is also better, yet when friction is overcome slip occurs and afterwards the stiffness of the bolt is lower. Noteworthy is that after loss of friction resistance the bolts do not experience a sudden loss of resistance, yet see a continuous, though small, increase of resistance until bearing occurs. This behaviour is consistent with most friction connections. The ductility is good and might even be very large, as shown by [\[84\]](#page-107-6). Moreover, the fatigue behaviour is considerably better than for conventional studs.

Points of attention for this type of connection are the effect of the preload force on the concrete, as this introduces high compressive stress around the bolt. Furthermore, the compressive force on the concrete leads to creep and shrinkage effects in the concrete, which in turn can result in preload loss. Preload loss in general is an important aspect to consider for preloaded bolts.

<span id="page-62-0"></span>

**Figure 7.7:** High-strength friction grip bolt connection

# **Cylinder HSFGB**

A connection with improved behaviour on the aforementioned points of attention is a modified version of the HSFGB connection, the so-called Cylinder system in Figure [7.8a:](#page-62-1) a steel cylinder is placed in a hole in the concrete and in the cylinder the bolt is placed. The main advantage of this system is that the forces are introduced on the steel, rather than on the concrete, and as a result creep and shrinkage effects are eliminated and thus preload losses are reduced [\[90\]](#page-107-12). Additionally, the cylinder serves as protection for the concrete.

In terms of behaviour, the regular HSFGB and cylinder system are very similar. Comparing test results from [\[90\]](#page-107-12) and [\[89\]](#page-107-11), regular HSFGBs have slightly more resistance. Given that the test parameters are not completely similar, no real conclusions can be drawn on this matter. The ductility also appears to be smaller than for the regular HSFGB. This, though, might be explained by the concrete class: The cylinder system has a higher concrete class than the regular HSFGB connection and, considering that Pavlović [\[79\]](#page-107-1) showed that higher concrete classes show more brittle behaviour, this may cause failure at lower deformations. Fatigue has not been tested separately for this connection, yet behaviour similar to HSFGBs can be expected.

<span id="page-62-1"></span>

**Figure 7.8:** Cylinder system: adapted version of HSFGB

# **Embedded coupler device**

Figure [7.9](#page-63-0) shows an embedded coupler device connection (ECD): a connection consisting of two bolts and a coupler device. One bolt is embedded in the concrete and connected to the coupler device. The second bolt connects to the coupler device from under the steel flange. Due to the connection of the second bolt to the coupler, it can be removed easily and without resulting in protruding parts.

The resistance of the connection is higher than, or at least similar to, conventional studs and its ductility is also good [\[90\]](#page-107-12). The stiffness is lower, though, and slip occurs after the friction resistance is overcome, as is the case for HSFGB connections. On fatigue life no tests have been done, but given that preloading of the bolts is applied, it could be expected that good fatigue life can be achieved.

<span id="page-63-0"></span>

**Figure 7.9:** Embedded coupler device, without resin

### **Injected embedded coupler device**

A variation on the ECD connection is the addition of resin in the void between the bolt and the steel flange, displayed in Figure [7.10a.](#page-63-1) The addition of resin allows for larger tolerances, as slip is prevented by the resin. A conventional type of resin can be used for the connection. However, an innovation has been developed where small steel particles are added to the resin to enhance its properties, referred to as injected steel-reinforced resin (iSRR). The iSRR leads to more favourable behaviour: the stiffness is improved compared to conventional resins (by approximately 50% according to Nijgh [\[92\]](#page-107-14)) and long-term behaviour and fatigue behaviour are better [\[93\]](#page-107-15). Accordingly, the reinforced resin is preferred over the non-reinforced resin [\[76\]](#page-106-16).

More specifically, iSRR connections have good shear resistance and stiffness. In combination with preload, the connection also has a high initial stiffness and a lower slip to reach high resistance. In case of omission of preload, the resistance of the injected connection is slightly lower compared to a preloaded non-injected connection [\[92\]](#page-107-14). The fatigue resistance is good [\[88\]](#page-107-10), provided that preload is applied. It is possible to demount the connection, even though resin is used; Nijgh [\[76\]](#page-106-16) showed that when it has been ensured that the resin does not adhere to the steel, demounting is possible. This can be achieved by the application of a release agent.

<span id="page-63-1"></span>

**Figure 7.10:** Embedded coupler device, with injected steel-reinforced resin

## **Locking-nut shear connector**

The locking-nut shear connector (LNSC) is a novel design of a connector. It consists of two bolts with plugs around them, illustrated by Figure [7.11.](#page-64-0) The full assembly is then grouted in the concrete slab.

The connection has a high resistance due to its specific design [\[75\]](#page-106-15). The slip capacity is also better than for conventional studs, as, due to the conical nut and countersunk hole in the steel flange, slip in the bolt hole is prevented. As a result, low initial slip can be achieved. The stiffness in the lower loading regime is comparable to conventional studs, yet conventional studs can sustain higher loads at that stiffness. Disassembly can be done by means of either removing the lower bolt or by loosening the top bolt and removing the concrete along with the plug. Fatigue tests have not been performed yet. Still, as the bolts are preloaded, good fatigue life is plausible. Fatigue life of this connection has not been tested.

The optimised design also has a clear disadvantage in that the connection is rather complex. In combination with the large number of different components, this makes (dis)assembly more difficult. With regard to reuse, the design has a disadvantage as well. As the bolt, the bolt hole and the plug position are adjusted to one another, a perfect fit is created in the first use phase, whilst potential deviations are covered by the application of grout. For re-use phases, however, very strict tolerances are required if the connection is directly reused. These tolerances might be too strict to be feasible, as it can be expected that deviations will occur in the exact position of the bolt holes with respect to the concrete plugs.

<span id="page-64-0"></span>

**Figure 7.11:** Locking-nut shear connector

### **Locking-bolt demountable shear connector**

Locking-bolt demountable shear connectors (LBDSC) are newly developed connections. In Figure [7.12](#page-64-1) can be seen that they consist of a threaded bolt with an embedded trapezoidal nut, placed in a countersunk hole in the steel flange. It is fastened with a nut under the flange. At the top of the bolt a tube, resembling a stud, can be connected and filled with grout. The top of the tube should be level with the concrete surface, to enable demounting of the connection from the top. Demounting through the bottom nut is also possible.

With respect to welded studs, the resistance and slip capacity are better, whilst the stiffness for the lower loading regime of the connector is similar [\[94\]](#page-107-16). Like the locking-nut shear connector, sudden slip that occurs in, for instance, friction bolt connections is eliminated by the conical nut and countersunk hole and high initial stiffness is achieved. The fatigue behaviour of the connection is unknown, though, and given the discontinuities in the design, stress concentrations might develop and reduce the fatigue life. Moreover, although preload is said not to be required, it might be favourable to apply to increase fatigue life.

The largest problem with this design are the tolerances. As the tube, bolt and bolt hole in the flange are all adjusted to one another, they need to be assembled before the pockets in the concrete are cast. This ensures that in the first use cycle the connections are all perfectly aligned. For the re-use phases, however, it can be expected that small deviations in the exact position of the connector in the concrete can occur, which will not necessarily align with the bolt positions. Therefore, perfect positioning of all connectors is required, which is not feasible.

<span id="page-64-1"></span>

**Figure 7.12:** Locking-bolt demountable shear connector

### **Welded demountable shear connector**

A variation on the LBDSC is the welded demountable shear connector (WDSC). It is shown in Figure [7.13.](#page-65-0) Instead of a bolted connection to the steel flange, the bolt is welded to the flange. The tube connection remains unchanged and follows the same principle.

The connection has better shear resistance and similar stiffness to conventional studs and shows ductile behaviour [\[81\]](#page-107-3). Fatigue life has been evaluated and, although it is better than for conventional studs, it is inferior to several other options [\[95\]](#page-107-17). This might be explained by the presence of welds. As for the bolted version, tolerances are expected to be an issue for re-use cycles.

<span id="page-65-0"></span>

**Figure 7.13:** Welded demountable shear connector

# **Coiled spring pin**

The coiled spring pin (CSP) is a connector that is different from the bolted connectors. It consists of a rolled steel plate, which is placed inside a hole that is slightly smaller than the diameter of the CSP. Due to the fact that the CSP is compressed, a spring force develops, which forms the connection between the connected elements. The advantage of such a connector is that it does not require any additional elements, such as nuts in the case of bolts, and it is easy to install, as no preload or injection is necessary. Fatigue life of the CSP is comparable to welded studs, but considerably lower than the fatigue life of most of the bolted connectors [\[96\]](#page-108-0).

The demountability of this connector is not straightforward, though. Originally proposed as a post-installed strengthening measure for composite decks, the connector is installed in a blind hole, for which it is difficult to remove the connector damage-free. Still, it may be possible to remove the CSP. An approach could be to include a profile in the centre of the CSP or at its end to which a device can be connected to pull out the connector. A second option could be to make a through-hole, allowing for the CSP to be pushed out at the top of the deck. Another point of attention is the alignment of the holes. To develop a spring force the connector needs perfect alignment. Whilst such tolerances would be too strict, a solution that may have potential but needs testing would be to make an oversized hole in the steel flange and use injection.



**Figure 7.14:** Coiled spring pin

# **Overview**

To reduce the number of possible connections, it is assessed whether the connectors are suitable for use in an IFD overpass. For each of the connectors several practical considerations exist that are listed in Table [7.1.](#page-66-0)

<span id="page-66-0"></span>



Based on Table [7.1](#page-66-0) a number of connectors can be excluded due to certain practical limitations. Three practical considerations are valued as the most important:

- Protrusion from the deck plate: the protrusion from the deck plate is considered an important limitation for reuse. This creates a vulnerability during transportation and disassembly, which can lead to damage and render the module unusable. Taking note of the requirements in section [7.1](#page-56-0) that focus on prevention of damage and the need for repeated disassembly, this limitation is undesirable in an IFD overpass. As a result, the DHS, SENB and BB connectors are dismissed as options.
- Strict tolerances for reuse: it is acknowledged that some tolerances are necessary for the use of prefabricated components. For some connectors, however, the tolerances need to be considerably lower than for other connectors, due to their optimised design. It is considered unfeasible to demand such strict tolerances, leading to the conclusion that these connectors cannot be part of the design. This is the case for the LBDSC, WDSC and CSP connectors.
- Application of grout: the application of grout has one important downside in that it requires curing time. Hence, it imposes limitations on the assembly process, which is why it is decided to dismiss it as an option for the shear connectors. This applies to the LNSC connector.

Following the exclusion of these connectors, four connectors remain, which are considered to be the most suitable for an IFD overpass. These are the HSFGB, Cylinder, ECD (no resin) and ECD (iSRR). For these connectors their behaviour in the structure is investigated using the mechanical properties determined using test results from literature.

# **7.3. Steel girder connection**

The connection between the steel girder segments is made with a bolted connection, as they are particularly useful for demountable connections, where other types of connections, such as welds, are not demountable.

With regard to the type of connection, there are two types: connections loaded in shear and loaded in tension, shown in Figures [7.15a](#page-67-0) and [7.15b.](#page-67-0) For shear connections, the Eurocode distinguishes three categories: bearing, slip-resistant at SLS and slip-resistant at ULS, categories A, B and C respectively. Category A is not applicable, due to the low fatigue resistance. The difference between category B and C relates to the effect the occurrence of slip will have on a structure. For the connection is located in the main girders, slip is not allowed and rigidity is required, which means that a category C is needed. In terms of classification of the stiffness of the joint, it should be a rigid joint. Tension connections also exist. Yet, as shear joints can be designed infinitely stiff, use bolts more efficiently as forces are better distributed over the bolts and have favourable fatigue behaviour, shear joints are the preferred option.

<span id="page-67-0"></span>



**(a)** Bolted connection with shear forces [\[98\]](#page-108-2) **(b)** Bolted connection with tension forces [\[98\]](#page-108-2)

**Figure 7.15:** Types of bolted connections

# **Bolt types**

With regard to the bolts, three types can be distinguished: regular bolts, preloaded bolts and injected bolts. Regular bolts are bolts used in conventional bolted connections where the load transfer is done via bearing of the contact surface of the bolt with the connected plates. As they do not require additional actions, they are easy to install. However, they have low fatigue resistance, as large force variations can occur in the bolts. This excludes the use of regular bolts. Preloaded or friction bolts are the logical choice for slip-resistant connections. The bolts are preloaded, which creates a clamping force on the connection. As a result the force transfer is through friction between the connected elements, rather than via bearing. When the friction resistance is overcome, the force transfer takes place by means of bearing of the bolts. Loosening of the connection due to vibrations is prevented by preloading the connection. The presence of the preload also reduces the stress variations in the bolt and activates a larger area to develop resistance, resulting in enhanced fatigue performance. Another advantage is that oversized holes can be used. Points of attention are the introduction of additional stress on other members and the loss of preload force.

Injection bolts are an alternative to preloaded bolts to create slip-resistant joints. At first friction takes the load, after which the injected resin and bolt take the load by bearing. In itself injection bolts are not demountable. If, however, measures are taken to prevent the resin to adhere to the steel, the connection can be demounted. Injection bolts have the advantage that larger clearances can be used, since the resin fills the void and prevents sudden slip in case of overload. Like for non-injected bolts, preloading should be applied, for the same reasons as mentioned earlier. The design resistance of preloaded injection bolts is higher than for regular preloaded bolts, leading to a smaller amount of bolts required. The increase is said to be 35% [\[76\]](#page-106-16). The resin also acts as protection for corrosion of the interior of the connection. Points of attention are related to long-term behaviour, e.g., creep of the resin.

Although injection bolts have advantages over regular preloaded bolts. There are several disadvantages, in particular related to execution. It is evident that injection adds time to the installation process of the bolts. An additional installation time of 1 - 2 minutes per bolt can be expected. Consequently, even though less bolts are likely required, the increased installation time removes the advantage of using less injection bolts with respect to preloaded bolts. Another disadvantage is that injection complicates the assembly, since a special release agent needs to be applied in order to allow for future demountability. Considering the IFD guideline "The number of actions required to disassemble the connection should be minimised", injection is not favourable for promoting demountability of the connection. A third note is on the resin itself, which cannot be reused. This results in waste during disassembly and the continuous need for new resin upon every re-use cycle, which is a problem preloaded bolts do not have.

To conclude, given that there is no true benefit of a reduced number of injection bolts in terms of installation time and bearing in mind the increased complexity, preloaded bolts are favoured over injection bolts.

# **Fatigue behaviour**

As the connection needs to be designed such that the friction limit of the bolts is not exceeded (category C), fatigue life is expected to be good. Following this condition the bolts are unlikely to be governing, for they receive limited stress changes. The fatigue design should focus on the stresses in the plate material of the connecting plates, which generally have high fatigue resistance and are unlikely to be governing for the design.

# <span id="page-68-0"></span>**7.4. Deck connection**

The connection between the prefabricated concrete panels also requires attention. The most conventional method for connecting prefabricated decks is to let reinforcement protrude from the deck panels and grout the opening between the two deck panels. The combination of grout and reinforcement ensures the force transfer. An example of such a connection is shown in Figure [7.16,](#page-68-1) joint a. It is evident that this type of connection is not demountable.

Another method for (partially) connecting concrete elements is using shear keys. A concrete element is designed in a specific shape that fits into another element providing a contact surface, particularly useful for the transfer of shear loads. A commonly used type of shear key (an internal key) is illustrated by joint b in Figure [7.16.](#page-68-1) Shear keys are nearly always used in combination with prestressing reinforcement, to ensure an effective contact surface. Another type of shear key is the recently developed overlapping shear key, shown in Figure [7.17.](#page-69-0) Due to the multiple overlapping keys vertical deformation is prevented. The downside to shear keys is that they can only transfer loads in up to two directions and, as such, care should be taken when they are applied. Adhesives may also be utilised. An example is a type of mortar that does not adhere to the concrete and that can easily be removed. The main application of this mortar is to ensure a smooth contact surface.

<span id="page-68-1"></span>

**Figure 7.16:** Examples of prefabricated concrete deck joints [\[99\]](#page-108-3)

Another possible method is prestressing reinforcement. Prestressing reinforcement exerts a compressive force on the concrete, which, when high enough, can withstand the normal force in the concrete and eliminate tensile stresses.

<span id="page-69-0"></span>

**Figure 7.17:** Overlapping shear keys [\[100\]](#page-108-4)

Prestressing reinforcement is often used for connections between prefabricated concrete elements. This could be in the form of the connections in Figure [7.16,](#page-68-1) but it is also used for dry connections, i.e., without the need for grout. In terms of existing structures that use unbonded prestressing tendons to connect prefabricated concrete elements, a notable example is the Circular viaduct from Figure [3.2.](#page-26-0) The main benefit of prestressing reinforcement is that, when unbonded, it is not directly connected to the concrete. This means that the reinforcement can be de-tensioned, which allows for an easy removal of the reinforcement from the concrete. As a result, demountability and potentially even re-usability of the reinforcement is guaranteed.

<span id="page-69-1"></span>New connections are also developed. An interesting concept is the connection shown in Figure [7.18.](#page-69-1) The connection consists of steel plates connected to the reinforcement in the concrete. These plates can then be connected to each other by bolts and welds to ensure all relevant forces can be transferred between the deck plates. The tests performed by Wang et al. [\[101\]](#page-108-5) show that the connection has potential for use. It might be possible to remove the weld to make the connection demountable, but this has not been studied. There are some disadvantages, though, in that stress concentrations can be expected to develop, and, more importantly, it uses a substantial amount of material.



Figure 7.18: Fully-dry concrete deck connection [\[101\]](#page-108-5)

Distinguishing that two joints between deck elements exist (longitudinal and transverse), for each of these joints a different connection is preferred. For the longitudinal joint, prestressing reinforcement is the most suitable, as it is easily demountable and ensures that the relevant forces (forces in the direction of the deck span) are transferred between the deck elements. The integrity of the system is also ensured when using prestressing reinforcement. For the transverse joint it is most important to transfer vertical forces. Hence, prestressing reinforcement is not directly necessary. Instead, shear keys are of better use, as their main purpose is to transfer vertical forces. If sufficiently strong, they are preferred over the connection shown in Figure [7.18,](#page-69-1) for shear keys use less material. In terms of the type of shear key, there is no clear benefit for either of the two types. Hence, the internal keys are preferred over the overlapping keys due to their more simplified form and the fact that they are more commonly used.

# **Couplers**

Due to the need for a possibility to change the overpass layout, the prestressing reinforcement should also change in

length. Evidently, this can be done by using a new prestressing tendon once the width of the overpass increases. Yet, it might be possible to divide the tendons in sections.

Couplers are used to link two prestressing tendons to create a longer tendon. This is mainly beneficial in the reduction of prestress losses, which is why couplers are often used in long-span structures. In terms of tensile strength, couplers are expected to match the tensile strength of the tendon.

There are some disadvantages to couplers, though:

- Couplers are larger in diameter than normal tendons. As a result, larger channels inside the concrete are required than would be necessary for uncoupled tendons. This causes a reduction in concrete area, which leads to an increase in compression and hence more sensitivity to creep. The extent of this effect is expected to be limited.
- The fatigue life of couplers is considerably less than that of tendons. Where tendons have a fatigue detail category of 150, couplers have a detail category of only 80 [\[102\]](#page-108-6). This remark may not be of high relevance for the specific situation discussed in this research, as limited to no stress fluctuations in the tendons are expected.
- Most importantly, the Eurocode states that couplers should not be placed in 50% or more of the tendons, unless any additional risk to structural safety can be proven to be non-existent [\[102\]](#page-108-6). Since the prestressing reinforcement is critical in maintaining structural integrity, a detailed analysis is required to prove whether it is allowed to use coupled tendons.

Since it is not clear whether all tendons can include couplers and it is favourable, from an IFD point of view, to minimise the number of different elements and the complexity of assembly, it has been decided not to include couplers and assume full-length tendons.

# **7.5. Conclusion**

In this chapter the options regarding the three types of connections that are present in the design are investigated. With regard to the connection between the deck and the steel girder, several proposed connectors were investigated and four connectors were selected based on their suitability regarding reuse. For the steel girder connection it was found that a splice joint using shear loaded friction bolts is the preferred connection. The connection between the deck elements is different for each direction: longitudinal joints are formed by prestressing tendons and transverse joints are formed by shear keys. All these connections meet the requirements to ensure demountability, as they are mechanical connections (the injected connection is proven to be demountable too), they are accessible and they can be disassembled without causing damage to the structure.

# 8

# Design Optimisation

This chapter describes the optimisation of the model. Building upon the dimensions as determined in section [5.4,](#page-41-1) a model is created to assess the effects of the different shear connectors. The design is then verified for all relevant limit states. In addition to the shear connection, the connection between the steel girder elements and the transverse connection in the deck are further elaborated on. Lastly, dimensions for the modules that form the designed overpass are determined.

# **8.1. Model**

# **8.1.1. Model description**

The model consists of simply supported girders, modelled as beam elements, and the concrete deck elements, modelled as shell elements. A section of a girder is shown as a schematic in Figure [8.1,](#page-71-0) whilst the full model features five girders, with a spacing of 4 m, that span 32 m. The girders are divided into four 8 m sections. The connection between the girder elements is rigid and, consequently, the girders can be modelled as continuous. The girder and deck elements are connected by the shear connectors: these are modelled as a set of infinitely rigid beam elements with a negligible mass. At the red nodes shown in Figure [8.1,](#page-71-0) the springs are placed, that allow for translation in the x- and y-direction.

The joint in the longitudinal direction, indicated by the blue lines in Figure [8.1,](#page-71-0) is positioned above the girder, as vertical forces need to be transferred to prevent differences in vertical deformation. When positioned between the girders, the connection with only prestressing reinforcement is not sufficient and an additional form of connection would be required, shear keys for example. Instead, when relocating the location of the joint towards the top of the beam, vertical forces are directly transferred to the beam and differences in vertical deformation will not exist. The applied prestressing reinforcement exerts a force large enough that the concrete is always in compression, creating a closed joint that is also able to transfer normal forces in the x-direction. With the connection as it is, it is not possible to transfer forces in the y-direction. It is reasoned that this is not necessary because each deck plate is connected to the girder by a separate row of shear connectors. As a result, the forces in y-direction can be transferred to the beam for each deck plate individually. In conclusion, the longitudinal joint is modelled as rigid in all directions except for the y-direction.

<span id="page-71-0"></span>

**Figure 8.1:** Schematic of elements in the model
As explained in section [7.4,](#page-68-0) the transverse connection is formed by shear keys. The connection is indicated by the blue circles in Figure [8.1.](#page-71-0) The shear keys allow for force transfer in the x- and z-direction; differential deformation in both these directions is restrained. Important is that the deck is verified to always be in compression, thus ensuring that the interfaces of different deck elements are always in compression. This leads to the conclusion that also in the y-direction the deck elements act is if they were continuous. Accordingly, a rigid connection between the deck elements with respect to translations can be assumed. Rotation between the plates (around the x-axis) is not restrained and is assumed to be a hinge.

# **8.1.2. General input**

The input for the model is based directly on the design of the Composite alternative as described in section [5.4.](#page-41-0) Further optimisation on these dimensions is not performed. The same load models and loads are used as have been used for the verification of the alternatives. An exception to this are the traffic loads. Regarding the magnitude of the loading, the Dutch National Annex to the Eurocode prescribes formula [8.1](#page-72-0) to alter the magnitude of the traffic loads, thus accounting for a certain degree of load increase over a long design life [\[103\]](#page-108-0). The formula takes the expected service life t and expected number of truck loads  $N_{obs}$  and converts them into a correction factor  $\Psi$ . For a design life of 200 years and an expected number of truck loads of  $2\cdot10^6$  (a higher  $N_{obs}$  leads to a lower  $\Psi$ , so a lower value is used),  $\Psi$  is equal to 1,0162. This value is applied on all traffic loads.

<span id="page-72-0"></span>
$$
\Psi = \left\{ \frac{ln(N_{obs} \cdot t)}{ln(N_{obs} \cdot 100)} \right\}^{0.45}
$$
\n(8.1)

For details regarding the load models and other input, appendix [A](#page-110-0) can be consulted.

# <span id="page-72-2"></span>**8.1.3. Shear connection input**

## **Static behaviour**

To come to the input for the model, the results from the tests that have been performed and published in literature are used. In order to compare them equally, the circumstances under which tests have been performed need to be similar, as the performance of a connector is governed by a selection of variables. In Table [8.1](#page-72-1) the specifications of the connectors are listed, which include the tensile strength of the connector  $f_u$ . Furthermore, the ultimate load at failure  $P_{ult}$ , the elastic stiffness  $k_{el}$  and the elastic load  $P_{el}$  are listed. The latter two of these parameters focus on the elastic range of the load-slip curve. They are determined following the definitions described in section [7.2.1.](#page-57-0) For the ECD (iSRR) the elastic limit  $P_{el}$  is taken as 40% of  $P_{ult}$  [\[92\]](#page-107-0). For the HSFGB, the tests reflect that there is virtually no slip before the friction limit is exceeded [\[89\]](#page-107-1). There is, however, no value reported regarding the actual stiffness that is achieved. Hence, it was necessary to estimate the magnitude of the stiffness based on the graph with test results from Kayir [\[89\]](#page-107-1). It is acknowledged that the value retrieved from the graph might be slightly off from the true value. Still, as the stiffness is considerably higher than for the other connectors, it is reasoned that the different behaviour of the HSFGB compared to the other connectors is well reflected.

**Table 8.1:** Relevant properties of shear connectors, retrieved from test results

<span id="page-72-1"></span>

Connector type	$f_{u}$	<b>Diameter</b>	Preload	$P_{ult}$	$k_{el}$	$P_{el}$	Source
	[MPa]	mm	[kN]	[kN]	[kN/mm]	[kN]	
<b>HSFGB</b>	800	19	61	169	560	26	[89]
Cylinder	800	20	100	145	250	26	[91]
ECD (no resin)	800	20	120	142	70	50	[91]
ECD (iSRR)	800	20	$\overline{\phantom{a}}$	118	172	47	[92]

The connector that is used has the properties as shown in Table [8.2.](#page-73-0) It is also shown in Figure [8.2.](#page-73-1) It is noteworthy to mention that the dimensions of the top flange are determined taking into account required edge distances of the concrete and steel. The edge distance for the concrete is composed of a concrete cover of 55 mm, a practical reinforcement diameter of 14 mm and an assumed cover between the reinforcement and the hole of 12 mm. The edge distance for the steel towards the centre of the bolt hole should be at a minimum 1,2 $d_0$ , which is 34 mm. With  $d_0$  equal to 28 mm, this results in a total minimum width for half the flange of 146 mm. Accordingly, a width of 150 mm (and a total width of 300 mm) is sufficient.

<span id="page-73-1"></span><span id="page-73-0"></span>

<b>Size</b>	<b>Bolt diameter</b>	Hole diameter	<b>Bolt</b> grade	Preload*	Concrete class
	[mm]	[mm]		[kN]	
M24	24	30	10.9	240	C45/55
¥		Preload force only applicable to preloaded connectors.			
		Concrete deck-			
		Bolt: M24, 10.9		325 mm	
		Coupler: M24, 12.9			
		Bolt: M24, 10.9			
		Steel girder			
		82 mm	32 mm 36 mm		

**Table 8.2:** Properties of used shear connector

**Figure 8.2:** Dimensions of used shear connector

The connector that is used has different properties than the tested connectors from Table [8.1.](#page-72-1) To be able to still use the results from the tests, it is determined if and how the values of  $P_{el}$  and  $k_{el}$  need to be adjusted. For this, a parametric study by Liu et al. [\[104\]](#page-108-1) on the influence of different properties on the behaviour of an HSFGB is used, as the load-slip behaviour of this connection is very similar to the ECD (no resin). Furthermore, the failure mode in for both connectors was shear fracture in the bolt. Hence, given the absence of a parametric study specifically on the ECD (no resin), this study has been found most comparable.

For the preloaded connections,  $P_{el}$  is the friction limit. As shown by Liu et al. [\[104\]](#page-108-1), the magnitude of  $P_{el}$  is for the most part controlled by the preload force; bolt diameter and bolt grade in itself do not change the results. Notably, an increase in the bolt diameter and bolt grade is required to allow for larger preload forces. Following this, it is found that the value of  $P_{el}$  is well predicted by formula [8.2](#page-73-2) from the Eurocode [\[105\]](#page-108-2). This is also illustrated by Kozma et al. [\[91\]](#page-107-2), where the friction coefficient of the surface  $\mu$  is the main source of variability for the differing test results. Therefore, it is possible to determine  $P_{el}$  using this formula. Since oversized holes are present, the value of  $k_s$  is 0,85, there is one friction surface  $(n = 1)$  and for the preload force  $F_{p,c}$  the maximum limit of 70% of the total bolt resistance is respected. The  $\mu$ -factor is assumed to be equal to 0,40, equivalent to category B surface treatment: zinc-treated and painted surfaces [\[72\]](#page-106-0), which is considered to be feasible regarding manufacturing. Since no design formulas are proposed in the literature, partial safety factors are not yet used to allow for a fair comparison. The stiffness  $k_{el}$ , in contrast with the friction limit, does not change significantly due to a change in bolt diameter, bolt grade, concrete class or even preload force [\[104\]](#page-108-1). Consequently, the values as determined from the tests can be used.

<span id="page-73-2"></span>
$$
P_{el} = k_s \cdot n \cdot \mu \cdot F_{p,C} \tag{8.2}
$$

The ECD (iSRR) is not preloaded, so a different approach is needed. Based on the tests performed, Nijgh [\[92\]](#page-107-0) proposes formula [8.3](#page-74-0) to describe the average shear resistance of the connector, where  $A_s$  is the shear area of the connector. Although this originally applies to the ultimate resistance, it is used for the elastic resistance as well, considering that the elastic limit is in fact determined as 40% of the ultimate resistance. With regard to the stiffness  $k_{el}$ , the most influential

property is the bolt diameter: the stiffness increases significantly when the bolt diameter is enlarged from M20 to M24, by 30% according to Nijgh [\[92\]](#page-107-0). Accordingly, the stiffness is increased by this percentage. There are more differences between the used properties and the properties tested by Nijgh [\[92\]](#page-107-0). Most notably, these are the concrete class, hole clearance and bolt grade. The extent to which these factors change, however, is significantly smaller than for the stiffness. Furthermore, the effects combined more or less cancel out each other, leading to the net result that the behaviour of the connector is not really impacted and these effects can be neglected.

<span id="page-74-0"></span>
$$
P_u = 0,547 \cdot A_s \cdot f_{ub} \tag{8.3}
$$

<span id="page-74-1"></span>The changed properties of the used connectors are shown in Table [8.3.](#page-74-1)



ECD (iSRR) 1000 24 - 77 224

**Table 8.3:** Input shear connectors for SLS analysis

### **Fatigue behaviour**

As the connectors are mostly recently developed, fatigue tests have not been performed for all types. The results for the connectors that have been tested (including connectors that have been excluded as options) are shown in Figure [8.3;](#page-74-2) all of the bolted connectors are preloaded. Since the number of tests is limited, it has not yet been possible to suggest S-N curves. What is directly visible is the significant improvement of the fatigue life of all bolted connectors in comparison with S-N curve of welded studs, presumably largely due to the absence of welds. Noteworthy are the so-called run-out tests, marked with the triangle. These are tests during which the specimen did not fail and cycles were stopped at a certain moment. For the HSFGB and DENB connector, the loads corresponding to these run-out tests are equivalent to or even higher than the friction limit. Thus, following these test results, the fatigue life of these connectors is infinite under the requirement that the friction limit is not exceeded in the FLS. While the BB connector has a slightly inferior fatigue life, it still follows the same pattern as the other connectors and has a run-out stress that is close to the friction limit.

<span id="page-74-2"></span>

**Figure 8.3:** Fatigue tests of different connectors

When extrapolating these results to connectors that have not been tested, a trend seems to exist for preloaded connectors: a connector that is loaded at a maximum to its friction limit has an infinite fatigue life. Given the similar initial behaviour of all preloaded connectors, the statement that this applies to all preloaded connectors seems promising.

For the non-preloaded connection, i.e., the ECD with the steel-reinforced resin, no fatigue tests corresponding to the application within this research have been found. Consequently, it is not possible to come to an accurate prediction regarding the expected fatigue life of this connection. Notably, tests have been conducted on this type of connection, yet for a connection of steel to FRP. Results from these tests indicate good fatigue behaviour that is better than that of conventional injected connections [\[88,](#page-107-5) [93\]](#page-107-6). This suggests that the fatigue life of the connection itself is good, though tests for its application in a steel-concrete connection are required to substantiate this statement.

# **8.2. Analysis results**

# **8.2.1. SLS**

To determine which shear connector is the best, it is verified which connector layout is required in the design. It will become apparent that the SLS is governing, given the requirement of the elastic limit/friction limit. Accordingly, the deformation check is the verification that needs to be considered. The limit that needs to be respected is  $L/300$ , a conventional limit for deformations. For a span of 32 m and a margin on the unity check of 5%, the deformation limit  $w_{lim}$  is equal to 101,3 mm.

Independent of the type of connector, the largest part of the deformation comes from the construction stage where the steel girder needs to support itself and the concrete deck on top, which is not yet connected at this stage. The deformation can be determined directly from the girder deformation. The deformation  $u_{constr}$  under the self-weight of the steel and concrete amounts to 70,7 mm. This leaves a deformation margin of 30,6 mm for the use phase.

After the construction stage, the connectors are effective and the composite structure is responsible for supporting the dead load and variable loads. The composite structure then follows a pattern that approaches the pattern shown in Figure [8.4.](#page-75-0) It is clear that the critical locations are at the supports. An initial calculation shows that the forces at this location were rather high. To compensate for this a change is made. Instead of an equidistant spacing for the full beam, the spacing of the connectors is reduced up to 1 m from the support. The effect of this change is that there are more connectors at this location, which, as a result, attract less force. For the remaining part of the beam a larger spacing is applied. It is acknowledged that the spacing could be further optimised, but given the modularity of the deck and girders a regular design is strongly preferred.

<span id="page-75-0"></span>

**Figure 8.4:** Theoretical distribution of longitudinal shear force

Due to the different properties of the connectors, the layouts of the shear connectors are different. Table [8.4](#page-76-0) lists the actual layout for each of the connectors, whereas Figure [8.5](#page-76-1) shows the layout as used in the model for a section of the girder, using spacing values of the ECD (no resin) connector. The layouts of the shear connectors have been designed such that the maximum force in the connectors is below the value of  $P_{el}$  from Table [8.3.](#page-74-1)

The deformation of the system for each of the connectors is within the margin of 30,3 mm, meaning all systems are satisfactory. It can also be concluded that a higher stiffness requires more connectors, yet results in a reduction of the deformation.

Connector	$s_{1m}$	$s_{main}$	$w_{use}$
	[mm]	[mm]	$\lceil$ mm $\rceil$
<b>HSFGB</b>	60	300	21,9
Cylinder	90	330	22,7
ECD (no resin)	130	330	25,7
ECD (iSRR)	80	330	22.8

<span id="page-76-0"></span>**Table 8.4:** Results on connector layout and deformation (SLS)

<span id="page-76-1"></span>

**Figure 8.5:** Connector layout as used in model (view of top flange girder)

Comparing the two extreme scenarios, the HSFGB and ECD (no resin), the trade-off exists in that a reduction in deformation can be achieved at the cost of more connectors. The benefit of the reduction in deformation is that the girder could be further optimised, resulting in a reduction on material. In short, a system with HSFGB connectors uses less material for the main girder, yet has more connectors, whilst an ECD (no resin) system uses more material, but less connectors.

With regard to optimisation of the girder, there is a small margin to allow for an increase in deformation of the girder, as the deformation limit is not yet reached. Still, as the total deformation also includes the construction phase, the potential net reduction in material cost is limited. The number of connectors is also of interest, since more connectors means that the material costs increase. Another relevant aspect of the connectors is the installation time. For the preloaded connectors this is expected to be equal, as the same actions are required. However, for the injected ECD connector the installation process is different. In order to compare the preloaded and injected connectors, the assembly costs are considered. For the preloaded connectors, the assembly costs are estimated at  $\epsilon$ 2,50 per connector (cf. appendix [H\)](#page-192-0). The assembly costs of the injected connector have been estimated by Nijgh [\[92\]](#page-107-0) at the same cost of  $\epsilon$ 2,50. Accordingly, in terms of assembly no difference exists between the two types of connectors.

Aside from costs, for demountability in general guidelines exist (see section [7.1\)](#page-56-0) that assist in a conclusion on the best solution. The use of a small number of connectors itself is a guideline, whilst that also means that the time required for disassembly is decreased, assuming similar (de-)installation times for each connector.

Consequently, it is concluded that it is favourable to minimise the number of connectors, regardless of the slightly larger material usage for the girder. Thus, given the current approach on the elastic limit, the ECD (no resin) is the preferred connector.

### **Other connectors**

The four connectors that are included in the analysis have been chosen based on the fact that they are suitable for reuse; the behaviour of the connectors was not considered initially. Some connectors that are not included do have good properties, though. Hence, it is investigated how this could affect the design. The most interesting connectors are the LNSC and LBDSC, since they have good overall behaviour, in contrast with some other connectors, which have very low stiffness, for instance. The LBDSC is considered because it has a clear elastic limit formulated in literature and there is no need for preload, unlike the LNSC.

To calculate the ultimate resistance of the LBDSC connector He et al. [\[107\]](#page-108-4) propose formula [8.4:](#page-77-0)

<span id="page-77-0"></span>
$$
P_u = \min(\alpha_1 \cdot A_t \cdot \sqrt{E_c \cdot f_c'}, \ \alpha_2 \cdot A_s \cdot f_u)
$$
\n(8.4)

where  $A_t$  is the cross-sectional area of the grout-infilled tube,  $f_c^{'}$  the compressive strength of concrete and  $A_s$  the cross-sectional area of the bolt. For  $\alpha_1$  a value of 0,30 is valid and for  $\alpha_2$  relation [8.5](#page-77-1) holds.

<span id="page-77-1"></span>
$$
\alpha_2 = 0,84 \cdot \left(\frac{20}{d}\right)^{0,84} \le 1\tag{8.5}
$$

<span id="page-77-2"></span>It is also suggested to impose a limit equal to 1/3 of the ultimate resistance to ensure demountability and reusability of all the elements. Thus, for an M24-connector of class 10.9 and concrete of class C45/55, the elastic limit  $P_{el}$  is equal to 85 kN. The stiffness of the connector is estimated at 156 kN/mm, based on parametric studies performed by He et al. [\[107\]](#page-108-4). The values are summarised in Table [8.5.](#page-77-2)

Connector type	$I_u$	Diameter Preload		$P_{el}$	$k_{el}$
	[MPa]	mm	[kN]	[kN]	[kN/mm]
ECD (no resin)	1000	24	240	81	70
<b>LBDSC</b>	1000	24		85	150

**Table 8.5:** Input shear connectors ECD (no resin) and LBDSC

<span id="page-77-3"></span>Using these values, it is determined what the connector layout is. The results are shown in Table [8.6,](#page-77-3) where they are compared with the ECD (no resin) connector. The results show that, as expected, fewer connectors are needed. The reduction is approximately 10%.

**Table 8.6:** Results on connector layout and deformation ECD (no resin) and LBDSC

Connector	$s_{1m}$	$s_{main}$	$w_{use}$	
	mm	[mm]	mm	
ECD (no resin)	130	330	25,7	
<b>LBDSC</b>	110	390	24.6	

From this analysis it can be concluded that connectors with a higher resistance can lead to less shear connectors. In the case of the LBDSC an increase in resistance of close to 5% leads to a reduction in the number of connectors of 10%, noted that the stiffness is also increased. However, the LBDSC is not well-suited for reuse due to its strict tolerances and the need for grout. Therefore, the ECD (no resin) still is the connector of choice. Another conclusion that can be drawn from this analysis is that a similar, possibly more pronounced effect can occur if the elastic limit of the ECD (no resin) connector is proved to be higher than what is currently assumed. It was shown by Kozma [\[90\]](#page-107-7) that for the tested set-up (a four-point bending test) the beam elements are reusable when loaded up to the deflection limit of the beam. Still, other load regimes exist that result in higher forces on individual connectors, which could lead to plastic deformation in the beam elements. So, in order to conclude that for all serviceability loading regimes reusability of the components is possible, more tests need to be performed.

# **8.2.2. ULS**

### **Plastic behaviour**

The connector input as listed in Table [8.3](#page-74-1) is related to elastic behaviour of the shear connectors. For the ultimate limit state, however, plastic behaviour is expected. In the model this can be accounted for by the use of a non-linear spring instead of a linear spring. The input for the non-linear spring comes from the load-slip curve of the connector. As for the elastic behaviour, the curve as determined by the test results needs to be adapted, given the changed connector properties. The ECD (no resin) connector is a friction-based connector (cf. Figure [7.2c\)](#page-58-0) meaning three branches of the load-slip curve need to be defined. Figure [8.6a](#page-78-0) shows the original load-slip behaviour and Figure [8.6b](#page-78-0) shows the simplified load-slip curve that is derived from it. The first branch is related to the elastic part and its values have previously been determined. The second branch is the part describing the slip in the hole due to the present clearance. For the same clearance is used, a slip of 2 mm (as reported by Kozma et al. [\[91\]](#page-107-2)) is adopted. No load increase is accounted for during this stage. The third

stage is the plastic deformation of the connector. It has been previously explained that the demountable shear connectors do not exhibit an ideal plastic plateau, yet show some ductile behaviour. As a result, Steel Construction Institute [\[74\]](#page-106-1) state that the conventional verification on plastic resistance may be utilised, yet with a connector design resistance of  $P_{Rd,eff}$ . With formula [8.6](#page-78-1)  $\mathcal{P}_{Rd,eff}$  is calculated [\[74,](#page-106-1) [106\]](#page-108-3).  $k_{flex}$  in this formula is equal to 0,85.

<span id="page-78-1"></span>
$$
P_{Rd,eff} = k_{flex} \cdot P_{Rd} = k_{flex} \cdot \frac{0.9 \cdot P_{ult}}{1.25}
$$
\n
$$
(8.6)
$$

This means that  $P_{Rd,eff} = 0.612 P_{ult}$ . With  $P_{Rd,eff}$  as limit for the resistance, only the initial part of the third branch of the load-slip curve is of importance; any resistance after  $P_{Rd,eff}$  may not be accounted for. In Figure [8.6a](#page-78-0) it can be seen that the behaviour over the initial part of the third branch is close-to linear. Thus, this third branch is approximated as a linear branch. The stiffness over this part is estimated at  $30 \text{ kN/mm}$ . The most important properties that differ for the designed ECD (no resin) connector compared to the test specimen are the bolt diameter and bolt grade. For the stiffness, from Figure [8.7a](#page-78-2) it can be seen that the bolt grade has limited influence on the behaviour for the initial part of the third branch. The bolt diameter, on the other hand, has an influence in that the stiffness increases, as can be concluded from Figure [8.7b.](#page-78-2) The increase in stiffness is determined as the difference between the 20 mm and 24 mm curve. The interval considered is between the end of the initial slip and  $P_{Rd,eff}$ . The increase is estimated at 13%. As  $P_{Rd,eff}$  is based on  $P_{ult}$ , the value of  $P_{ult}$  also needs adjustment. An increase of both the bolt diameter and bolt grade (from 8.8 to 10.9) results in a higher  $P_{ult}$ . From Figures [8.7a](#page-78-2) and [8.7b,](#page-78-2) the increase has been found to be 43% and 26% respectively. The resulting values are highlighted in Figure [8.6b.](#page-78-0)

<span id="page-78-0"></span>

<span id="page-78-2"></span>

**Figure 8.6:** Load-slip curves ECD (no resin)

 $Slin$  (mm)

Ŕ

Tensile strength of bolt connector 1020 MPa Tensile strength of bolt connector 1020 MP.

 $\overline{20}$ 



**(a)** Influence of bolt grade on load-slip behaviour **(b)** Influence of bolt diameter on load-slip behaviour

**Figure 8.7:** Results from parametric study HSFGB [\[104\]](#page-108-1)

### **Results**

With the non-linear spring defined, the model can be verified for the ULS. The focus is on the global behaviour of the system, as this is the behaviour that is clearly different than is assumed for the calculations in the alternative phase. The total stresses for the system are a combination of the stresses deriving from the construction and use phases. The stresses in the construction phase have previously been determined in appendix [B.2.](#page-119-0) As the system of a simply supported beam has not changed, these stresses can still be used. The stresses in the use phase have been determined with the model,

<span id="page-79-0"></span>

	Construction	Use	Total	UC
Stress bottom flange [MPa]	134.1	148.9	283.0	0.80
Stress top flange [MPa]	$-255.6$	-49.4	$-305.0$	0.86
Stress deck [MPa]	$\mathbf{0}$		$-21.2$ $-21.2$	0.71

**Table 8.7:** Global normal stresses ULS

including non-linear springs. The calculation results are shown in appendix [F.](#page-143-0) From the analysis it is also clear that a substantial margin exist between the connector forces and  $P_{Rd,eff}$ . All resulting stresses in the steel and concrete as well as the unity checks are listed in Table [8.7.](#page-79-0) The unity checks are all sufficient, thus showing that the design still meets the ULS criteria.

# **8.2.3. FLS**

As concluded in section [8.1.3,](#page-72-2) the tested connectors, which were preloaded, have infinite fatigue life for forces up to their friction limit. Given that the ECD (no resin) connector is also preloaded and considering the absence of fatigue tests, it is assumed that this also applies to the ECD (no resin) connector. Since the load situation from the FLS results in lower connector forces than the SLS, this condition is easily met, meaning that the connectors have sufficient fatigue life.

From the hand calculations it was concluded that fatigue of the bottom flange-web connection of the girder was close to critical. Therefore, this detail needs to be verified once more, given that the behaviour of the system is different. In [F](#page-143-0) the stresses in the girder under the fatigue load are shown. At the location of the bottom flange-web connection a maximum stress variation  $\Delta \sigma_{Ed}$  of 15,6 MPa is reported. With the fatigue limit  $\sigma_L$  equal to 34,9 MPa (see appendix [B.2\)](#page-119-0), the following unity check is calculated:

$$
UC_{fat, girder} = \frac{\Delta \sigma_{Ed}}{\sigma_L} = \frac{15,6}{34,9} = 0,45
$$

It can be concluded that the fatigue resistance is sufficient. Noteworthy is that there exists a considerable difference in stress calculated by the hand calculations and the model. This is explained by a redistribution of loads to adjacent beams within the model, resulting in a substantial reduction in loads on the governing girder.

### **8.2.4. Effects of module length**

For the dimensions of the modules are not yet known, the exact positions of the connections and thus the partial hinges in the model are unknown as well. It has been investigated whether this has an influence on the results from the model. In the model the joints are placed 8 m apart, meaning four modules are required to create the span. To see what the effect is of these joints, the current scenario has been compared to a scenario with rigid joints, i.e., simulating a continuous deck. Most important is the deformation, as this is what has been the basis of the SLS analysis. In comparison with a fully rigid deck, the deformation increases by 1% for 8 m modules, which comes down to three joints. Consequently, it is expected that other configurations (i.e., more or differently placed joints) will not result in a meaningful deviation from the current model. The effect on the stress in the steel and concrete has also been investigated. It shows that the stresses increase by approximately 4%, comparing the scenario with partial hinges with the rigid joints scenario. This increase is of such an extent that it cannot be ruled out that larger stresses will be reported for different module sizes. Nonetheless, the extent to which the stresses are larger is expected to be limited and there is sufficient margin on the unity checks for ULS and FLS. Accordingly, the conclusions from the ULS and FLS will not change.

The reported small differences in behaviour that also indicate that the implementation of modularity in the deck is not really disadvantageous in terms of structural behaviour. The connections ensure that most of the forces can be transferred as would be the case in a continuous deck. For the forces that cannot be transferred, differences between the modular deck and a continuous deck exist, yet these are fairly small and do not have a significant impact on the design of the structure.

# **8.3. Connection design**

Apart from the shear connection, two connections need further attention. These are the splice connection between the steel girder segments and the shear key connection between the concrete deck plates in transverse direction.

# **8.3.1. Steel girder connection**

As explained in section [7.3,](#page-67-0) the connection needs to be of type C and is best created using preloaded bolts that transfer forces in shear. This can be done with a conventional splice connection. For the design of the connection, IDEA StatiCa is used. The connection is designed for stresses equivalent to 95% of the material strength. The connection is not designed to be stronger than the connected elements (+100%), since the ULS loads on the structure are not governing and, therefore, stresses are below 95% of the material strength. Thus, it is possible to design a more economic connection, whilst effectively still being stronger than the expected loads would require. By using friction bolts loaded in shear, the stiffness of the connection is, as required, rigid.

Figure [8.8](#page-80-0) shows the connection. The girders are connected at both flanges and the web with preloaded bolts of type M30, strength 10.9. Since minimising the number of different types of connectors is an IFD guideline, the M30 bolt is the only bolt size that is used in this connection. The preload force is limited to 70% of the ultimate strength, following the Eurocode. All splice plates are S355. Appendix [G](#page-184-0) shows the drawings of the connection. It should be noted that the web splice plate could be modified to reduce the material needed, though this is not done yet.

<span id="page-80-0"></span>

**Figure 8.8:** Steel girder connection, 3D view

Regarding the fatigue resistance of the connection, for the connection is of type C, the bolts automatically have sufficient fatigue resistance. The splice plates within the connection have been verified based on the moment in the girder resulting from the fatigue load and have sufficient fatigue life as well. In short, fatigue resistance of the connection elements is sufficient.

With the majority of bolts loaded close to their maximum resistance, it is expected that the solution is representative and close to the optimal solution. It is thus shown that a design can be made that reflects the behaviour that is assumed in the model.

### **8.3.2. Shear keys**

The joint between the concrete deck plates in transverse direction is connected by shear keys. It is determined whether they can create a sufficiently strong connection to transfer vertical forces.

The principle of applying shear keys to transfer forces between prefabricated concrete elements has also been applied in the Circular viaduct (Figure [3.2\)](#page-26-0). Formula [8.7](#page-80-1) is used to calculate the resistance [\[108\]](#page-108-5). This formula is based on EN-1992-1-1, though some modifications have been made.

<span id="page-80-1"></span>
$$
v_{Rd,i} = 0, 5 \cdot f_{ctd} + \left(0, 9 \cdot \frac{A_{sk}}{A_{tot}} + 0, 42 \cdot \frac{A_{tot} - A_{sk}}{A_{tot}}\right) \cdot \sigma_n \le 0, 5 \cdot \nu \cdot f_{cd}
$$
(8.7)

where:

- $A_{sk}$  Area of the base of the shear keys.
- $A_{tot}$  Total area.
- $\bullet$   $\sigma_n$  Stress caused by the minimal external normal force acting simultaneously with the shear force.
- $\nu$  Strength reduction factor, equal to 0,49.

The formula consists of a cohesion and a friction component. The first component is the cohesion, which is determined by the concrete class. The friction (the second component) is dependent on an external normal force. Usually, this is interpreted as a prestressing force, yet this is not present in the longitudinal direction. There still exists a normal force, though, which is the result of the dead load on the structure. Since this normal force is transferred through the interfaces, it can be considered as the external normal force. The total resistance should be higher than the maximum stresses at the interface. This maximum stress is the result from wheel loads from Eurocode Load Model 2 positioned directly next to the interface. It is assumed that the load spreads over an area of  $682 \times 682$  mm (wheel size + spread width with an asphalt thickness of 141 mm). Figure [8.9](#page-81-0) shows the shear stresses that occur at the interface. Important is to consider the difference between the two sides of the interface; the difference in stress is the stress the connection needs to transfer. The stresses are computed assuming a joint where only the rotation between the deck elements is free.

From Figure [8.9](#page-81-0) it can be derived that the average stress that needs to be transferred is, on average, 0,2 MPa. This is valid for an area of 682 x 325 mm, with 325 mm being the height of the deck. The stress at the interface is rather small. It is believed that this is largely due to the positioning of the joint parallel to the span direction. The consequence of this is that stresses induced by local loads do not have to be transferred through the joint to arrive at the main girder, thus reducing the stress at the joint.

As the concrete class is C45/55,  $f_{ctd}$  is 1,77 MPa. In terms of the shear keys, multiple dimensions are possible. Figure [8.10](#page-82-0) shows a possible layout of the shear keys, following Eurocode 2 requirements [\[102\]](#page-108-6). Using these dimensions, it is calculated that the resistance of an area of 682 x 325 (two shear keys) is 1,9 MPa. Thus, it is obtained that the resistance of the shear keys is largely sufficient to resist the stresses induced by wheel loads.

<span id="page-81-0"></span>It is noteworthy to mention that the structure is designed such that all interfaces, i.e., all shear key connections, are in compression. This means that the shear keys are always able to transfer forces, both through cohesion and friction. To ensure an adequate contact surface, non-adhesive mortar can be applied. The fatigue behaviour of the shear keys is also of interest. Although a verification has not been performed, the expectation is that fatigue will not be governing for the design given the relatively low stresses that occur because the joint is parallel with the span direction.



**Figure 8.9:** Shear stress at joint interface due to local wheel load

<span id="page-82-0"></span>

**Figure 8.10:** Possible dimensions for shear keys

# **8.4. Module dimensions**

Now the overpass is designed and verified, it can be determined what the dimensions of the modules should be. Of interest are the width, height and length of the modules.

For the dimensions of the modules the maximum dimensions for transport need to be taken into account. By itself, the length of the elements is not a point of concern. In combination with the height or weight it requires some attention, though. According to the Dutch law, long-term permits may be issued if the height of the transport including its cargo is under 4,25 m and the width under 3,5 m [\[109\]](#page-108-7). Several transportation companies have these permits, meaning that these dimensions can be followed. Considering the greater allowable height, it is more practical to transport elements vertically. In order to transport elements of (up to) 4 m, it is required to make use of special trailers that have a sufficiently low cargo floor that can allow for the transportation of these elements. Using these trailers, elements with lengths up to 15 m can be transported. The maximum dimensions of the modules can, therefore, be 4 m x 3,5 m x 15 m. Manufacturing dimensions are generally larger and are not a point of concern.

# **8.4.1. Module width**

The width of the elements is of concern for the deck elements; the width of the girders is naturally determined by their profile and is sufficiently small. The width of the deck elements should follow the grid of the structure, i.e., the girders. Since the deck elements span the distance between the girders, the width of these elements is 4 m. This dimension has been determined during the preliminary design phase and was part of the optimisation.

# **8.4.2. Module height**

The height of the elements is in principle determined by the structural behaviour, which is directly related to the span. Nevertheless, it is possible to change the height by the creation of multiple modules. For a large span range of 12-32 m is considered, modules with a smaller height can be created for use within smaller spans. This is relevant in particular for the girders; the deck thickness is bound by other factors that are span independent and cannot be reduced.

From the point of view of material efficiency, it is favourable to optimise the height for each span. On the other hand, in favour of the potential for reusability, availability and flexibility, a minimum number of modules is desirable. Hence, a compromise needs to be found. It is suggested that there should be two modules with different heights. This results in sufficient flexibility as each height can be used for a set span range, whilst the material efficiency is improved for shorter spans. Naturally, more heights can be distinguished, yet this would come at the cost of a reduced flexibility and reusability, which is considered unfavourable.

To determine the heights of the modules, the sustainability dimension "social" is considered. As explained in section [6.1.1,](#page-45-0) this dimension is most relevant in the form of the aesthetics of the overpass, and more specifically the slenderness. Hence, the slenderness should be optimised. It is decided to divide the span range of 12-32 m into a range of 12-19 m and a range of 20-32 m, as this is the division that results in the highest slenderness for the shortest span within each range. For both span ranges, a different girder height is defined. The girder height of the 12-19 m span range is estimated based on the deformation, which has shown to be the governing criterion. Equation [8.8](#page-83-0) describes the deformation criterion of a simply supported system under a distributed load, since this causes nearly all the deformation.

<span id="page-83-1"></span>

Span range [m]				Element type Girder height [mm] Total height [mm] Minimum slenderness
$20 - 32$	Regular	2058	2383	8,4
$20 - 32$	Guardrail	1292	1617	12,4
$12 - 19$	Regular	1090	1415	8,5
$12 - 19$	Guardrail	820	1145	10.5

**Table 8.8:** Span ranges and module height

<span id="page-83-0"></span>
$$
w = \frac{5}{384} \cdot \frac{q \cdot L^4}{EI} = L/300 = w_{lim}
$$
\n(8.8)

It can be seen that the numerator decreases by a factor of 4 for a reduction in span. The deformation limit also decreases for a smaller span, yet by a factor of 1. The denominator decreases by a factor of 3 when the height is reduced (the height is present in the moment of inertia *I*). If reductions on both sides are equal, then it is ensured that the deformation stays below the limit. The net result is that the left-hand side and right-hand side both decrease by a factor of 1 if the span is reduced, meaning that the same reduction can be applied to both the span and the height. For a span of 19 m, the left-hand side reduces with a factor of 19/32 and so does the right-hand side. The reduced height is then 19/32 of 2383, which is 1415 mm. This is summarised in Table [8.8,](#page-83-1) where it is also shown that the slenderness for the smallest span in the range is nearly equal for both heights. For the guardrail section the same approach is used. The only difference is that the stress is governing instead of the deformation. This leads to a situation where the inertia still decreases with a factor of 3, yet the nominator, which is the bending moment, decreases only by a factor of 2. For a unity check on stress, the design stress decreases by a factor of 1 (the left-hand side in an equation), whilst the resistance (the right-hand side) stays the same. The resulting dimensions of these sections are also shown in Table [8.8.](#page-83-1)

It is acknowledged that the dimensions of the smaller modules are estimations. A detailed calculation is required to more accurately determine which height the module should have. Nevertheless, it provides a good indication of the degree of reduction that is possible and shows that the appearance of the overpass on shorter spans is improved.

# **8.4.3. Module length**

The length of the modules determines the range of spans that can be created. To increase the range of possible arrangements, it is decided that it is favourable to propose two different modules, each with a different length. To find the optimal length of these modules, several aspects are of importance. The following advantages and disadvantages of smaller modules and more connections can be distinguished. The disadvantages are derived from previously listed IFD guidelines.

- + Reduced mass: less-heavy equipment Increased (dis)assembly time
- 
- + More configurations are possible
- 
- + On-site handling is more convenient More (dis)assembly actions required

For some aspects it is possible to quantify to which extent they play a role by utilising the economic dimension of sustainability, i.e., calculating the costs. Accordingly, a cost calculation has been done on the structure, including the connections. Table [8.9](#page-84-0) shows a selection of relevant costs. The background behind these costs can be found in appendix [H.](#page-192-0)

### **Reduced mass**

The effect of the reduced mass is expected to be related to assembly, specifically in the form of the need for heavy equipment if large modules are used. Based on the data from Table [8.9,](#page-84-0) it can be seen that the costs related to assembly are only 8% of the total costs. Hence, the effect of the assembly on the total costs, which includes the use of equipment, is small. In conclusion, the benefit of a reduced mass is limited.

### **Increased (dis)assembly time**

In terms of assembly time, the connections are of particular interest. The assembly costs for the connection are 9,5% of the total costs. This leads to a conclusion that in terms of installation costs there is limited benefit from less connections. Nonetheless, the fact that more time is needed is a disadvantage in itself.

<span id="page-84-0"></span>

**Table 8.9:** Costs of girder and girder connection

# **More configurations are possible**

Given that the majority of the costs, for both the girders and the connections, stems from the material that is used, the material efficiency is the most insightful aspect. This is covered by the possible configurations. Figure [8.11](#page-84-1) shows conceptually how the module size affects the structure. Smaller modules result in more possible configurations: A combination of two- and three-block modules allows for the creation of a five-block configuration, whilst a set of three and four-block modules cannot. This means that, to achieve a five-block configuration, a six-block configuration needs to be constructed, leading to increased material usage. There is also a disadvantage in that more connections are required: for a four-block configuration, one connection is required using two two-block modules, whilst a four-block module does not require a connection.

<span id="page-84-1"></span>

**Figure 8.11:** Conceptual overview module sizes

To find the module length, the first step is to consider modules with a length of  $60x$  cm. The 60 cm interval is an interval that is often used in current construction practice. Since interfaces with other structures or with secondary elements are expected in the length direction, it is a logical choice to apply this restriction on the module length. Considering the 60 cm interval in module lengths, the minimum distance between two configurations is 60 cm (in Figure [8.11](#page-84-1) this is equivalent to the fact that only a three-block and a four-block configuration are possible). However, this would require small modules and a large number of connections, making this unfavourable. The next option is a gap of 120 cm (e.g., going from a four-block to a six-block configuration in Figure [8.11\)](#page-84-1). A set of modules that would have a maximum distance of 120 cm between two configurations is 5,4 m & 6,6 m. For reference, a configuration of 22,8 m can be constructed (3 x 5,4 + 1 x 6,6) and the next possible configuration is then 24 m ( $2 \times 5.4 + 2 \times 6.6$ ). With these two modules on average a total of 4 modules is required for spans in the range of 20-32 m. For module sets with a maximum difference of 1,8 m, the reduction in number of connections is not significant enough to offset the increase in material usage. Accordingly, modules with a 1,2 m difference are favoured over those with a 1,8 m difference. The next step is a 2,4 m difference. For this difference, modules of 6,6 m & 10,8 m are an option. These modules require an average number of 3 modules per girder. For a 3 m difference, no clear benefit is achieved with respect to the 2,4 m difference. Beyond a 3 m difference, it is considered that the difference is too large and the options regarding configurations are too limited.

In summary, the two best options are the 1,2 m difference modules and the 2,4 m difference modules. In terms of costs, the difference is negligible. This is proved using Table [8.9.](#page-84-0) It is calculated that 1 m of girder costs €2631, which makes that 1,25 m of girder costs the same as one connection ( $\epsilon$ 3299). Practically, this means that if the number of connections is reduced by 1, the total length of a girder can increase by 1,25 m without increasing the costs. This is, approximately, the situation for the two considered module sets. Therefore, the decisive aspect is considered to be the number of actions required to (dis)assemble the connection. It is reasoned that this aspect is more important than easier handling during execution, since the difference in module size is limited. Besides this aspect, installation time is also seen as important. In conclusion, it is suggested for the modules to have lengths of 6,6 m and 10,8 m.

For the span range of 12-19 m, a similar approach is used. For a 1,2 m difference, a module set of 4,2 m & 5,4 m is possible, requiring on average 3 modules. For a 2,4 m difference, modules of 4,2 m & 10,8 m suffice, requiring an average of 2 modules to form a span. Following the same argumentation as for the larger span range, the 4,2 m & 10,8 m modules are favoured.

# **8.4.4. Overview**

All dimensions of the modules are determined. In total, there are four girder modules and four deck modules per span range. Figures [8.12](#page-85-0) and [8.13](#page-85-1) show the modules of the 20-32 m range for respectively the regular sections and the guardrail sections. The modules for the regular and guardrail sections for the 12-19 m range are shown in Figures [8.14](#page-86-0) and [8.15,](#page-86-1) respectively. As can be seen, the width of the guardrail sections is 3,6 m. Whereas initially the width was 1,6 m (illustrated by Figure [5.1\)](#page-38-0), this has been changed to 3,6 m, for it is favourable for the load-bearing behaviour if the interface between two deck elements is located above a girder instead of in between two girders. It is noteworthy to mention that the regular deck module of length 10,8 m can be used for both span ranges, since the thickness is the same for all deck elements. Besides the dimensions of the modules, the proposed connector layout for the 6,6 m module is illustrated in Figure [8.16.](#page-86-2) Since the girder modules are symmetric, half the module is shown in the figure. The connector layout follows the same pattern for modules of other dimensions, where only the distance to the centre connector (420 mm) can differ.

<span id="page-85-0"></span>

**Figure 8.12:** Regular modules for span range 20-32 m

<span id="page-85-1"></span>

**Figure 8.13:** Guardrail modules for span range 20-32 m

<span id="page-86-0"></span>

**Figure 8.14:** Regular modules for span range 12-19 m

<span id="page-86-1"></span>

**Figure 8.15:** Guardrail modules for span range 12-19 m

<span id="page-86-2"></span>

Figure 8.16: Shear onnector layout for a 6,6 m module

# **Adaptations to the design**

Though the modules have fixed dimensions, there are some changes to be made to optimise the design for the specific situation it will be used in. The first optimisation concerns the shear connector. Due to the symmetry of the modules, the closely spaced part of the layout is present in locations not at the support. At these locations it is expected that a larger spacing can be used, which means that certain connector holes can be left empty. This offers the benefit of reduced costs due to lower material and installation costs. A reduction in the number of connectors is also possible for spans shorter than the maximum span. For the layout is determined specifically for the maximum span, it may be possible to increase the spacing in case shorter spans are under consideration.

It is important to provide adequate protection for empty holes, though. The holes in the concrete are of particular concern, since deterioration processes, such as corrosion, can take place when not protected properly. To solve this problem various solutions can be proposed. Two possible solutions could be the use of a 'dummy' connector, a connector that can be placed in the hole but does not transfer loads, or the use of non-adhesive grout.

A reduction in bolts is also possible for the steel girder connections. Like the connectors, these are designed for the

maximum possible loads. Since the maximum loads may differ for different configurations and different locations within the overpass, a reduction in the number of bolts used in the splice connection may be applied in those situations.

Though designed for highway loads, the design could also be used for other applications, where lower loads are expected. In case of a reduction of the magnitude of the loads, different measures can be taken: the number of connectors can be reduced, both relating to the number of bolts in the girder connection and to the number of shear connectors. It could also be an option to reduce the number of prestressing tendons. A third option is to deviate from the existing span ranges. In case of lower loads, it could be possible that longer spans can be created with the modules, which in turn would open up the design to even more applications. Naturally, the possibility of these measures being taken depends on the extent of the load reduction and requires verification. Another aspect on which the number of use cases for the overpass can be increased is the maximum width of the overpass. The overpass is verified for a maximum width of 23,2 m. However, from the structural behaviour there is no direct restriction for the application of an overpass wider than 23,2 m. The load distribution in the longitudinal direction is not significantly affected by a larger width, nor is the load-bearing behaviour in the transverse direction. As a result, there might be possibilities for larger widths. A verification of the design for larger widths should be done to prove whether this is indeed possible.

On the matter of strengthening, it is previously explained that specific strengthening measures are excluded from the design. Nonetheless, the possibility to strengthen the design still exists. One of the possibilities is to increase the number of prestressing tendons. Since there exists some margin on the compressive stresses in the concrete and the prestressing ducts are sufficiently large, it is possible to increase the prestressing load up to 40%. For reinforcement of the girders, other measures are possible, e.g., welding additional plates to the girders or even post-installation of connectors; however, these types of measures are not accounted for in the design and thus require modifications to the elements.

# **8.5. Conclusion**

In this chapter the design has been further developed, leading to more detailed connections and proposals for dimensions.

With regard to the shear connectors, the SLS verification is governing, leading to the conclusion that the ECD connector without resin is best suitable for the application due to its lower stiffness. The layout of the connectors follows the pattern of a small spacing up to 1 m from the support and a larger spacing for the rest of the span. For the connection between the girder elements a design has been made that can withstand the forces in the girders. The feasibility of the transverse connection between the deck elements has also been proved by analysing the stresses in the deck and the resistance of a possible shear key connection. Lastly, dimensions have been proposed for the modules. The width of all modules is equal to 4 m. For the height, two different modules are suggested, each for a certain span range, to increase the material efficiency and improve the slenderness of the system. The length of the modules has been determined taking into account the costs of the girders and the connections, resulting in two sets of two modules, one for each of the span ranges.

# **V** Results

# 9

# Discussion

This research shows that a steel-concrete composite structure is the best option for the design of a sustainable overpass according to IFD principles. The use of prestressing tendons, shear keys and demountable shear connectors, specifically ECD connectors without resin, makes it possible for the structure to be divided into modules and ensures the demountability and modularity of the design. To discuss the implications of the achieved results and possible limitations, this chapter is structured by the phases that exist within this study.

# **9.1. Preliminary design**

# **Environmental impact assessment**

The study identifies that a composite structure is the most sustainable structural system for an IFD overpass. This is in line with the typical range of application of the three structural systems, where, often based on regular costs, the composite structure is the most logical choice for shorter spans. The environmental impact assessment also shows that the environmental costs of different types of superstructures can differ significantly. In combination with the fact that the environmental impact of substructures is limited in comparison with superstructures, as shown by [\[63\]](#page-106-2), this illustrates that an assessment of the environmental impact of different structures should focus primarily on the superstructure. Another statement that can be made based on the results is that the majority of the impact stems from the production phase (module A). This means that an investment is made in the short-term which needs to be valued appropriately in the long-term. The reuse of components, through for instance IFD design, is an effective way of achieving this and should, therefore, be of consideration during the design of new infrastructure.

The reliability of the ECI is influenced by the uncertainty that is inherent to the calculation of environmental impact. Most prominently, this concerns the estimation of long-term impact (modules C and D), as it is difficult to predict what will happen to the materials at their end-of-life, in particular for a lifespan of 200 years. Still, the impact of this uncertainty on the results is limited, varying from 7% to at most 15%. As has been shown in the ECI calculation, the composition is dominated by module A impact. Since this concerns the production phase (i.e., the foreseeable future), it is more predictable, and thus the uncertainty is significantly smaller. Moreover, as the percentage of the total impact that comes from modules C and D is comparable across all materials, any deviations are not expected to have a significant impact on the comparison.

# **IFD principles assessment**

The Orthotropic alternative scored best in the MCA describing the structure's performance on IFD principles. This is explained to a large extent by the limited number of components that are needed to form the structure, the need for a smaller number of connections and the ease of changing the layout. These properties are also present in the modular structure presented in Figure [3.7.](#page-29-0) The inferior performance of the Truss alternative, on the other hand, is largely due to it having a lot of different components and the fact that changes to the structure, whether replacements or changes to the layout, are difficult to perform. Based on the MCA scores it can be identified which aspects are most impactful in developing an IFD structure.

• Whilst a truss is a dependent system because of the fact that the deck structure relies on only two trusses, composite and orthotropic deck structures are more independent, as they feature multiple girders that independently form a separate segment of the structure. The benefits of this are related to the possibilities for parallel assembly and the ease of replacement, but changing the layout of the structure is also simplified. To conclude, independence is an important feature of an IFD structure.

• The good performance of the Orthotropic alternative is in part explained by the fact that it features essentially one, relatively large component, which means the number of connections is limited. Besides, by designing for only a couple of elements that are preferably large, a simplified (dis)assembly process is developed. Therefore, the use of large standardised components contributes to the development of an IFD structure.

It is acknowledged that the results from the MCA are dependent on the categories considered: the inclusion or exclusion of certain categories naturally influences the outcome. Nevertheless, as the categories represent different aspects of IFD, the MCA score is expected to reflect well the overall performance on IFD. A different scoring procedure is also possible. Though this can affect the scores for the alternatives, it is not expected to impact the relative outcome of the assessment: a fully qualitative assessment would still favour the Orthotropic alternative.

# **9.2. Detailed design**

# **Model**

To be able to model the structure, it was necessary to simplify some aspects of the model. Most notably, these are the shear connectors. Instead of modelling the actual shear connectors, they are modelled as springs. Whereas this results in some difference in the behaviour of the connectors, both the forces in the connectors and the deformation of the composite girder correspond well with what is expected from theory, as shown by the validation in appendix [E.](#page-140-0)

# **Shear connectors**

The approach for the design of the shear connection focused on ensuring reusability of the overpass and its components by preventing the occurrence of plastic deformation. This has been accounted for by imposing an elastic limit on the connectors. The analysis on the shear connectors shows that, possibly somewhat unexpectedly, the connectors with a lower stiffness are favourable over the connectors with a higher stiffness. However, when considering the shear force distribution in combination with the use of the elastic limit for the connectors, this statement logically holds true. The application of this elastic limit also implies that improvement of the behaviour of the shear connection is the most impactful in the elastic range. For preloaded connectors, the focus should be on the friction resistance, whilst nonpreloaded connectors benefit from the ability to undergo more elastic deformation. Another point of improvement is the elastic limit itself. The current limit is a safe limit that ensures reusability under all circumstances, but it could be argued that it is conservative. Nevertheless, in the absence of an accurate description of the elastic limit for all discussed connectors, the current limit was found to be the most appropriate.

With regard to the mechanical behaviour of the connectors, the properties are all determined based on limited test results and a parametric study. Though that it was not part of the scope to perform tests, it is evident that more test results will enhance the accuracy of the findings. Nonetheless, given what is available at the time of writing, the analysis can provide valuable and meaningful insights, especially regarding the relative performance of the considered connectors.

# **Shear keys**

The design utilises shear keys to transfer horizontal and vertical forces between the deck elements. The verification on the shear keys showed that it is possible to develop sufficient resistance using the compressive force present due to dead loads. An important condition for this connection to work is that there always exists a compressive force in the interface. Where commonly shear keys are applied in combination with prestressing reinforcement, this study shows that, based on a simplified verification model, prestressing reinforcement may not always be required to create a shear key connection. Thus, the use of dry connections between concrete elements may gain further interest for use in current practice.

# **9.3. Sustainability benefits**

To illustrate where the benefits of the developed design are in comparison with conventional solutions, two comparisons are made on the environmental impact. Figures [9.1a, 9.1b](#page-91-0) and [9.2](#page-91-1) show the Circular viaduct, the conventional concrete overpass and the composite overpass, the overpasses that serve as comparison.

<span id="page-91-0"></span>



<span id="page-91-1"></span>**(a)** Example of the circular viaduct [\[12\]](#page-103-0) **(b)** Impression of the conventional concrete overpass

**Figure 9.1:** Concrete overpasses used for comparison



**Figure 9.2:** Cross-section of conventional composite overpass [\[110\]](#page-108-8)

The first comparison is with a conventional concrete overpass (Concrete overpass) that consists of box girders (SKK girders specifically) and the previously mentioned Circular viaduct, an overpass that has similar design principles as the IFD overpass. The box girder overpass has a design life of 100 years and the Circular viaduct a design life of 200 years. The reference overpasses are 7,5 m (one lane) in width and 22,5 m long (to cross a span of 20 m). These overpasses are designed for the same application as the IFD overpass and are thus well comparable. Data on the material quantities required for both concrete overpasses is retrieved from an LCA-investigation into these two overpasses performed by NIBE Research [\[111\]](#page-108-9) and listed in appendix [C.3.](#page-130-0)

The second comparison is with a design of a conventional multi-girder steel-concrete composite overpass (Composite overpass), which is similar to the IFD overpass. The conventional composite overpass is a continuous structure that crosses two spans of 28 m and has a width of 14,3 m (two lanes plus footways) and has a design life of 120 years. The spans are formed by three girder segments: two of 21,7 m and one of 12,6 m. The conventional composite overpass is designed for the same loads as the IFD overpass. There are some differences in design assumptions, in particular the consequence class (CC2 instead of CC3) and fatigue cycles ( $1x10^6$  cycles instead of infinite cycles). This means that it should be taken into account that the conventional overpass is designed for a slightly less demanding application. The data on the material quantities is retrieved from Steel Construction Institute [\[110\]](#page-108-8) and listed in appendix [C.3.](#page-130-0)

The comparisons are made based on a number of different scenarios. Important is to distinguish between the functional life and the design life. The design life (how long the structure can last) generally is 100 years for conventional overpasses and 200 years for the proposed IFD design. The functional life depends on whether the structure can meet the functional requirements and can differ for each overpass. In practice, the functional life and design life tend not to match: before the design life is reached a situation arises where the functional requirements are not met anymore. In the majority of situations that this is the case the capacity of the structure is insufficient. The average time after which this currently happens is 40 years [\[112\]](#page-108-10).

Figure [9.3](#page-92-0) shows conceptually the changes that occur for each scenario. In appendix [C.4](#page-131-0) a more detailed description of the changes to the structures is provided. The following scenarios are distinguished:

- 0. Reference scenario: for all structures the functional life is equal to the design life. A reference period of 200 years is considered, equal to the design life of the IFD overpass.
- 1. Extension of the width of the overpass: an additional lane is added to all structures. This simulates a situation where the capacity of the overpass is insufficient and requires an extension, relating to the principle of flexibility

of IFD. The reference period is 100 years for the concrete overpass comparison and 120 years for the composite overpass comparison. For both this is equal to their design life. The interval at which an extension is applied is 40 years. For the conventional overpasses, the extension involves partial replacement of the structure.

- 2. Extension of the length of the overpass: the length of the structure is extended, relating to the principle of flexibility. This situation can occur due to different reasons, such as the addition of a lane within the road under the overpass. As for scenario 1, the reference periods are respectively 100 years and 120 years for the concrete overpass and composite overpass comparisons and the replacement interval is 40 years. For the conventional overpasses, the extension involves full replacement of the structure.
- 3. Relocation: for this scenario it is assumed that the superstructure is relocated and used for an application with lower loads, for example a bicycle bridge, which is approximated by reducing the material quantities and thus the impact of the structure by 50%. This relates to the principle of demountability of IFD. The reference period is 200 years, equal to the design life of the IFD overpass. In this scenario the relocation interval is assumed to be 80 years. This is longer than the 40 years replacement interval, as it is expected that this scenario will occur less frequently. This scenario can also be considered an illustration of different situations. An example could be the replacement of 50% of the deck structure due to deterioration, which is a scenario that is very similar to relocation.

<span id="page-92-0"></span>



**(a)** Scenario 1: Extension of the width **(b)** Scenario 2: Extension of the length ⇔

**(c)** Scenario 3: Relocation

**Figure 9.3:** Conceptual changes for scenarios

It should be noted that the scenarios display only the environmental impact of the superstructures and not of substructures. A point of attention is the reference period. For scenarios 1 and 2 a reference period of 100/120 years is used. This because the focus is on the influence of an extension of the overpass and it is expected that it is not likely for an extension to occur more than twice. Hence, a shorter reference period illustrates only the effects of layout changes and not of any other change (e.g. reconstruction), which is already described in other scenarios. Related to this, it is decided not to specify the end-of-life use of the overpasses, other than effects described by module D. All materials that are removed from the structure and are not directly reused again are considered to undergo the end-of-life process as described in the LCA analysis on the material, which is mostly recycling of raw materials. Consequently, any high-quality use of the removed elements from the overpasses, i.e., the reuse of full components, is unaccounted for. Due to the large uncertainty that exists regarding high-quality end-of-life use, it is considered not feasible to include this. An exception to this are IFD overpass modules that are used for a short period and then replaced, since they are intended for reuse and likely to be reused. For these elements, the impact is limited to the period they were used in the overpass.

## **9.3.1. Concrete overpasses comparison**

Figure [9.4](#page-93-0) shows the comparison between the concrete overpasses and the IFD overpass for scenario 0, the reference scenario. This scenario shows that in terms of the construction of one overpass, the Concrete overpass has the least impact. Yet, when a second overpass is constructed after 100 years, the Concrete overpass clearly has the highest ECI. Between the two modular overpasses, the Circular viaduct and IFD overpass, the IFD overpass has less impact over the full reference period, regardless of the maintenance that raises its ECI over time.

<span id="page-93-0"></span>

**Figure 9.4:** Concrete overpass comparison: Scenario 0

Scenario 1 is shown in Figure [9.5.](#page-93-1) It shows that the difference between the concrete and IFD overpass decreases slightly, but not significantly. An explanation for this is that, although the Concrete overpass requires the removal and reconstruction of some elements, whereas for the IFD overpass no replacement or reconstruction is necessary, the assumption is made that all prestressing reinforcement is removed. Whilst it might be possible to reuse the prestressing tendons, for this scenario it is assumed that the tendons are completely replaced. This effect makes that the impacts of an extension are comparable, whereas reuse of the tendons (e.g., extension of the already present tendons) would result in lower impact of the extension of the IFD overpass. The main benefit is in the fact that the IFD overpass does not require a second extension. Since the dimensions of the modules of the IFD overpass for this situation make that the structure after the first cycle is wide enough for the addition of the second lane, there is no need for the addition of more modules and hence no increase in ECI is reported. For reference, if a second extension is done, the ECI is slightly larger than for the conventional concrete overpass. The Circular viaduct follows the same pattern as the IFD overpass, yet with a higher ECI due to the larger construction costs.

<span id="page-93-1"></span>

**Figure 9.5:** Concrete overpass comparison: Scenario 1

The pattern for scenario 2 is more pronounced in comparison with scenario 1, as illustrated by Figure [9.6.](#page-94-0) The modular structure makes that both the IFD overpass and the Circular viaduct can be adapted to a substantially lower environmental cost than the Concrete overpass: after only one extension both have a lower ECI than the Concrete overpass. The temporary reduction in the ECI of the IFD overpass is due to the fact that modules are replaced that are only used for 40 years and that are, therefore, still suitable for reuse after they are disassembled. Accordingly, only the impact for the 40 years of use is accounted for by applying an ECI reduction when these modules are no longer used.

<span id="page-94-0"></span>

**Figure 9.6:** Concrete overpass comparison: Scenario 2

Scenario 3 is visualised in Figure [9.7.](#page-94-1) Again, the Concrete overpass starts off at a lower ECI, yet after one relocation cycle the IFD overpass becomes the overpass with the lowest impact. The differences remain small though, because of maintenance, the reduced impact of the reconstructed overpass and the shorter design life of the final Concrete overpass (in use from 160 years onwards). In case the reconstructed overpasses are used for the same application as the first overpass, the impact of a reconstruction increases substantially. It is evident that the IFD design will then be the most favourable.

<span id="page-94-1"></span>

**Figure 9.7:** Concrete overpass comparison: Scenario 3

# **9.3.2. Composite overpass comparison**

The initial impact of both the Composite overpass and the IFD overpass (IFD overpass) is very similar, as illustrated by Figure [9.8.](#page-94-2) Naturally, one full replacement after 100 years makes that the Composite overpass is the overpass with the highest ECI.

<span id="page-94-2"></span>

**Figure 9.8:** Composite overpass comparison: Scenario 0

For scenario 1, the Composite overpass is in favour, as illustrated by Figure [9.9.](#page-95-0) It can be seen that the addition of one lane results in less impact for this overpass. There are two important reasons for this. The first reason is that in order to add a lane to the Composite overpass, only a small part of the deck (the part that forms the end section) needs to be reconstructed, which for the Concrete overpass earlier was not the case. The second and most important reason has to do with the full removal and replacement of the prestressing tendons. This causes a significant additional impact upon extension. Reuse of the tendons will have a favourable effect and would have the effect that the impact of both overpasses is more or less equal.

<span id="page-95-0"></span>

**Figure 9.9:** Composite overpass comparison: Scenario 1

Scenario 2 is illustrated by Figure [9.10.](#page-95-1) The extension is applied to only one of the two spans. Since the Composite overpass girders are composed of three segments, it is assumed that only one of these girder segments needs to be replaced to extend the overpass, instead of the full overpass. Still, even though this is possible, the IFD overpass is clearly in favour compared to the Composite overpass.

<span id="page-95-1"></span>

**Figure 9.10:** Composite overpass comparison: Scenario 2

Figure [9.11](#page-96-0) shows that, again, the IFD overpass is favourable after one relocation cycle. Even though the lighter loads on the structure allow for the Composite overpass to be constructed with a reduced impact of 50%, the disassembly and reassembly of the IFD overpass has a lower impact.

<span id="page-96-0"></span>

**Figure 9.11:** Composite overpass comparison: Scenario 3

# **9.3.3. Possibilities for environmental impact reduction**

The comparison shows that the environmental impact is low enough for the IFD design to be competitive in certain situations. Yet, although the most sustainable structural system is used, there is potential for further reduction of the impact. The focus is on improvements in the short-term.

The largest source of environmental impact of the design is steel. Though the impact of the steel production itself may not be easily reduced in the short-term, use of recycled steel can reduce the impact as less raw materials are needed. Since it was found in section [4.1](#page-30-0) that there is no loss of quality for steel recycling, this may be a viable option.

The second-largest source of impact is the concrete. As for steel, a more sustainable production process is an improvement for the long-term. Hence, the most potential in the short-term is in the use of recycled materials for the production of concrete and the application of more sustainable cement. With cement being the source of most of the impact of concrete, this is where the largest reduction is possible. In the design it is assumed that CEM III is used, which is already more sustainable than CEM I concrete, due to the lower clinker content. There may, however, be room for more improvement. This is illustrated by the fact that the production of CEM III/C has a 35% lower impact than the production of CEM III/B, which presumably is the type of cement used in the design [\[113\]](#page-108-11). Since CEM III/C is not really used at the moment, it needs to be investigated whether this would be possible.

Another important aspect is the prestressing steel. In scenario 1, it is assumed that the prestressing steel is fully replaced after one extension. This partially explains why the IFD design has a higher impact than the conventional composite design. Hence, reuse of the prestressing steel in some form improves the ECI of the IFD design in case of extension in the width direction.

Within the current design it is also possible to reduce the impact. This mainly concerns the shear connectors and the girder connection. Both connections have been designed for the critical loading situation. Not all locations or designs, however, are subject to this loading situation. As a result there may be possibilities to use fewer shear connectors in case a shorter span is required, or to reduce the number of bolts in the girder connection for locations where the loads are less critical. This saves on environmental impact, costs and assembly time.

# **9.3.4. Conclusion**

Based on the comparisons several conclusions can be drawn on when the IFD overpass is beneficial and when the other solutions are favourable.

- The IFD overpass has a higher or at most equal initial impact compared to conventional solutions. When the impact due to maintenance is included, this difference increases further.
- In most scenarios, the flexibility of the IFD overpass means that, often already after one change to the layout of the overpass, it is the option with the lowest impact. This effect is enhanced after a second change cycle. An exception to this is the extension of the width of the overpass (scenario 1) for the composite overpass: the conventional composite overpass is designed such that an extension of the width is possible without the need for major changes.
- The demountability in combination with the long lifespan of the IFD overpass makes that the environmental impact is lower on the long-term compared to conventional solutions. The extent to which the benefit exists depends on the application after the first use cycle.
- For all scenarios the IFD overpass outperforms the Circular viaduct. The behaviour of the two overpasses in terms of environmental impact is the same, yet the higher impact due to production and assembly makes that the Circular viaduct consistently has a higher environmental cost.
- Besides the environmental impact, the use of raw materials is important for sustainable practice too. Since the impact of module A and the use of raw materials are strongly connected - raw material supply and processing is described by modules A1-A3 - the environmental impact due to module A indicates to which extent raw materials are used. In addition to that, the majority of the total impact stems from module A. Therefore, the outcomes of the comparisons also illustrate to what extent raw materials are used. In conclusion, the benefits of IFD in relation to the ECI also apply to the use of raw materials.

# 10

# Concluding Remarks

This chapter presents the conclusion of the performed research as well as recommendations for future research. The first section focuses on the conclusions, by considering the research objectives and questions. The second section describes several relevant recommendations.

# **10.1. Conclusion**

This research aimed to develop a design for an overpass where the focus was on IFD principles and sustainability. The three central themes of this research, described by the sub-questions, are the preliminary design and IFD principles, the connections and dimensions, and the sustainability benefits.

# **Preliminary design**

The three principles of IFD are Industrial, Flexible and Demountable. Industrial describes the need for the use of prefabricated, standardised components with the aim for efficient material use. Flexible is a multi-interpretable term and has a central goal of ensuring that a structure can be changed in order to meet changing circumstances. A design approach similar to IFD, DfD/A, describes flexible by three characteristics: versatility, convertibility and expandability. Demountable has the straightforward goal of ensuring reusability of components and structures. Demountability concerns a number of different aspects, which are ease of access, independence, support reuse, simplicity and standardisation.

To incorporate the different principles into a design, the principles are translated into guidelines. For industrial, the focus of these guidelines is on modularity and prefabrication. For flexibility, two DfD/A characteristics are relevant. Convertibility guidelines relate to the possibility to accommodate a change of loading. Layout changes due to a change of functional requirements are the central theme for expandability guidelines. Numerous guidelines to improve demountability are formulated. The most relevant guidelines concern the use of demountable connections, designing for durability and longevity and minimising the number of connections and components.

The first step towards finding the most suitable structural system was to investigate the options regarding materials. The materials steel, concrete, timber and FRP were investigated on their current use, recyclability and durability. It was concluded that steel is the material that is most suitable for an IFD overpass, since it is easily standardised, the recycling potential is high and durability can be very good. For its good durability and large number of options regarding connections concrete was found to be a good option for use as a secondary material. Following steel as the main material, a truss structure, a steel-concrete composite structure and a steel girder structure with an orthotropic deck were found to be the most promising structural systems.

For these three structural systems, designs were made and optimised to minimise the environmental impact. Within these designs IFD requirements were included, which state that the designs need to be modular, made from prefabricated and standardised components, adjustable in dimensions and using demountable connections. The design alternatives were then assessed on their performance regarding sustainability, in the form of environmental impact, and IFD principles. The IFD principles were assessed using an MCA, with criteria focusing on the number of connections and components, independence, mass and maintenance. Figure [10.1a](#page-99-0) shows the results of the environmental impact, expressed in the ECI. The results indicate that, in terms of environmental costs, the Composite alternative has the lowest impact. This is true for both the total impact as well as the impact from the production and installation of the overpass (module A). On the notion of IFD principles, Figure [10.1b](#page-99-0) presents the results for the assessment. The outcome is that for smaller modules the scores are equal, whilst for larger modules the Orthotropic alternative is favoured over the Composite. The conclusion is that, combining both assessments, the Composite alternative has the best overall performance.

<span id="page-99-0"></span>

**(a)** ECI of 4x1 layout, divided in life-cycle modules (repetition of Figure [6.4\)](#page-51-0)

**(b)** MCA scores, for module size 4 m (light) and 12 m (dark) (repetition of Figure [6.7\)](#page-54-0)

**Figure 10.1:** Results from the performance assessment of the design alternatives

### **Connections and module dimensions**

Within the Composite design three connections are distinguished. The first connection is the shear connection between the deck and the girders. For this connection the initial step was to investigate the different options that exists for a demountable shear connection. The HSFGB, Cylinder, ECD (no resin) and ECD (iSRR) are found to be the most suitable for reuse applications. From literature properties were determined for these connectors, which needed to be scaled using a parametric study in order to allow for the use larger connectors. Then, a model was created to determine which of the connectors is the best for the application. Since for reuse purposes the forces in the connector for the SLS should remain below the friction limit, the governing criterion is deformation. Based on this criterion, it was determined that the ECD (no resin) is the best connector, as it requires the least amount of connectors without meaningful concessions regarding strength and stiffness.

The second connection is between the steel girder elements. It was found that a splice connection with shear loaded friction bolts is the most suitable option. In the model the connection was assumed as rigid. It was later verified that a design can be made for such a rigid connection that can successfully transfer the forces.

The third connection is between the concrete deck elements. After it was determined that this connection is best created by shear keys, it was shown that shear keys are sufficiently strong to be a feasible option.

With the connections known, it was determined what dimensions the modules should have. Based on aesthetics, in the form of slenderness, it was suggested that two span ranges are distinguished, each with a different girder height. For each of these span ranges two module lengths are proposed, allowing for the formation of multiple span configurations. These modules lengths are based on the number of connections that are needed to construct the beam and the costs affiliated with the connections and the girders.

### **Environmental impact comparison**

The proposed design has several benefits over conventional overpasses when considering the environmental impact. The overall picture is that the initial investment of an IFD overpass is higher than for conventional overpasses. However, after some changes to the overpass, in particular substantial changes, the IFD overpass is the favourable option due to its flexibility, demountability and reusability. These are the situations in which the IFD design is the most effective. It was also concluded that the proposed IFD design outperforms the Circular viaduct due to its lower impact from production

### **Final design**

The end result of the research is the design that is developed for an IFD overpass. Figure [10.2](#page-100-0) shows the concept. The concept exists of multiple girder modules that can be connected via bolted connections to form a full girder. These girders are combined with a concrete deck to create an overpass. The concrete deck elements are linked by shear keys and connected to the girders with demountable shear connectors. Finally, the individual girders and deck elements are combined into one structure by the application of prestressing reinforcement.

<span id="page-100-0"></span>

**Figure 10.2:** Illustration of the final design

The central theme in the research has been to ensure that the designed concept adheres to the IFD principles. The first principle of industrial is present in the use of modules to create the overpass. These modules are all prefabricated and can be produced on a mass scale. Flexibility is accounted for by ensuring the design is convertible and expandable. The ability to change the dimensions of the overpass, both in length and width, accommodates potential changes in traffic intensity and allows for adaptations to the road layout. Demountability is incorporated in the design through various aspects. Most prominently present in the design is the use of connections that can be easily disassembled. The reduction of the number of connections has also been a goal in the design. In addition to the connections, the use of durable materials and the design for longevity contributes to the reuse of the demountable components, as does the use of standardised components. Next to IFD, sustainability has also played an important role in the research. The design has been made sustainable by

selecting the most sustainable structural system and optimising its dimensions based on the environmental impact. Other aspects of sustainability, such as costs and aesthetics, have also been applied to further increase the sustainability of the design.

In conclusion, the design shows that it is possible to develop an overpass that complies with IFD principles by using a small selection of modular elements and demountable connections. During the design process, different aspects of sustainability can be addressed to come to a sustainable end result.

# **10.2. Recommendations for further research**

Since a limited time was available to perform the research, it was necessary to formulate a scope and make assumptions. Based on the scope and assumptions, a selection can be made of aspects that are not included in this research, but which are of particular interest to serve as the topic for further research.

The design focuses on the preliminary design of the overpass. This means that not all aspects have been worked out and some detailing needs to be performed. Hence, it is suggested to perform a detailed design for the overpass, based on the current results.

Within this study, it was decided to focus on concrete as the material for the deck, as there is more literature on connections with concrete rather than with materials like timber and FRP. However, it can be interesting to investigate other materials, such as timber and FRP. Since these materials offer some advantages over concrete, exploring them could lead to alternative solutions. The focus of such an investigation should be on the connection between deck modules as well as the shear connection between the deck and girder.

For this research, use has been made of test results on shear connectors. Since there is only a limited number of tests, it will be beneficial for the accuracy of the description of the load-slip behaviour if more tests are performed on the considered shear connectors. Of particular interest are tests on connectors with different properties, including the properties as used in this research. Furthermore, fatigue tests on the demountable shear connectors, such as the ECD (no resin), should be performed to better understand the fatigue behaviour of the connectors. It is also interesting to perform research regarding the optimisation of the shear connectors. Firstly, this concerns the ECD (no resin) connector, for which a research objective could be to increase the friction resistance or to accurately describe the point at which plastic deformation first occurs within one of the elements of the connection. Secondly, other connectors can be the subject of future research. An example is the LBDSC, which has good behaviour, but is less favourable for reuse. Consequently, changes to the LBDSC that increase the potential for reuse are also an interesting subject for future research.

# **10.3. Recommendations for use**

Following the results from this research, several recommendations can be formulated on the application of IFD and its principles, the connections and the design in general.

Based on the MCA, two recommendations are formulated, which are expected to be the most influential in designing an IFD structure:

• *Aim to create independence in the structural system.*

In the context of this research independence relates to preventing the use of (load-bearing) components that rely on other components to function, or, alternatively, minimising integration of components. Apart from this definition, other aspects of independence are of importance too, such as accessibility of connections and separation of components with different lifespans.

• *Aim to use a small selection of large elements.* The use of large elements reduces the number of elements and connections and simplifies the assembly process.

The presented design has potential for use due to its flexibility and high degree of demountability. Two of the elements that form the design are thought to be particularly interesting:

- Regarding shear connectors, it is recommended to consider demountable shear connectors when designing a composite structure. Demountable shear connectors show good behaviour and have advantages over welded studs, such as the better fatigue life. Furthermore, due to the different options that exist, a form of optimisation is possible in choosing the best connector for the application. Evidently, the demountability of the connectors is an advantage in terms of reuse.
- Shear keys have shown to be a viable option for a demountable connection between concrete elements, even without prestressing reinforcement. Accordingly, the use of shear keys can be an interesting alternative for use

in concrete structures without prestressing, provided that the connection is always in compression. The most promising application is in locations where small loads are expected in the shear keys.

The assessment of the sustainability benefits allows for the formulation of recommendations regarding the use of IFD design. These recommendations are generally applicable for IFD structures, provided they have an application similar to the developed overpass.

• *Aim for a design life that is similar to the (expected) functional life.*

The high impact of the production and construction of an overpass shows that this has a significant impact on how sustainable a design is. Accordingly, a reduction on the impact in the production stage is the most impactful. This is best done by optimising the design for its function and not constructing a structure that is too robust for its intended functional life. The ECI (MKI) can be a useful tool to perform an analysis on the sustainability of a design through an assessment on its environmental impact.

- *Consider IFD design as an alternative when (substantial) changes to the structure are expected.* The extent to which the environmental impact of the IFD overpass is lower than the conventional designs after changes to the layout highlights the benefits of using an IFD design. Especially in the case of large changes to the structure, IFD design is beneficial.
- *Consider IFD design as an alternative when it can be expected that the structure will be demounted and/or reused.* The assessment has demonstrated that the ability to disassemble and reuse components can lead to a significant reduction in environmental impact.
- *If there exists no direct motivation for the use of IFD design, reconsider the need for its application.* For IFD structures to be viable, they need to compensate for the higher initial impact. In case there is no possibility for compensation, conventional solutions will, in principal, be the most sustainable solutions. Consequently, IFD design may not be the most logical choice if the benefits of IFD are not exploited and a different sustainable design strategy may better suit the purpose. In case IFD design is applied though, ensuring high potential for reuse of the components can aid in mitigating the larger initial impact.

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# A

## Design Principles

To be able to perform the design verification, design principles need to be determined. This includes assumptions, material properties, loads and the layout. These principles apply to both the alternatives and the final design.

#### **Design assumptions**

Some general assumptions are made in order to perform the verification of the alternatives. These are listed below:

- All connections, unless specified differently, are considered to be clamped connections. This allows for the assumption that the components form continuous elements. An exception is the Truss alternative: the connections in the truss are assumed to be pinned connections.
- Optimisation is performed up to unity checks in the range of 0,90-0,95. The upper limit of 0,95 is used to maintain some margin with respect to the ultimate resistance of the elements.
- For the fatigue verification, FLM4a is used. Even though the load model consists of five different trucks, only one truck is used for the verification. This is because truck number three from Figure [A.2](#page-112-0) has shown to be the truck that results in the highest loads on the main span. Normally, the calculation focuses on damage accumulation. However, as the amount of loading cycles is at such an extent that infinite fatigue life is required, only the governing truck is relevant.
- To ensure sufficient durability of concrete, EN 1992-1-1 prescribes a lower limit for the concrete class for given exposure classes to ensure sufficient protection of the reinforcement. Assuming exposure class XD3 is valid, the concrete class should be at a minimum C35/45 [\[102\]](#page-108-0). Hence, this is the lower limit for the concrete class.
- Cross-section classes have been checked for all elements: all elements have cross-section class 1, 2 or 3.

#### **Material properties**

<span id="page-110-0"></span>Material factors are listed in Table [A.1.](#page-110-0) The material properties that have been used in the design verification are the following:



#### **Table A.1:** Material factors

\* *For the orthotropic deck a value of 1,15 can be used [\[13\]](#page-103-0).*



#### **Loads**

Figure [A.1](#page-111-0) shows LM1 (Load Model 1). The values for the loads and  $\alpha$ -factors are listed in Table [A.2.](#page-111-1)

<span id="page-111-0"></span>Figure [A.2](#page-112-0) shows the trucks that should be considered and Figure [A.3](#page-113-0) shows the arrangement of the wheels for the different axles. The third truck is the truck that is found to result in the governing loading situation.



**Figure A.1:** Load Model1 [\[114\]](#page-108-1)

**Table A.2:** Load values from LM1 [\[114\]](#page-108-1)

<span id="page-111-1"></span>

	$q_k$ [kN/m <sup>2</sup> ]	$\alpha_k$	$q_k \alpha_k$ [kN/m <sup>2</sup> ]	$Q_k$ [kN]
Lane 1	9	1,15	10,35	300
Lane 2	2,5	1.4	3,5	200
Lane 3	2,5	1.4	3,5	100
Other	2.5		2.5	O

<span id="page-112-0"></span>

<b>Type voertuig</b>		<b>Verkeerstype</b>				
Afbeelding van de vrachtwagen	<b>Afstand</b> tussen de assen	Gelijkwaardige aslast	Lange afstand	<b>Middellange</b> afstand	Lokaal verkeer	Wiel- type
	m	kN	$\frac{0}{0}$ a	$\frac{0}{0}$ a	$\frac{0}{0}$ a	
Heavy-	4,5	70 130	20,0	50,0	80,0	A $\overline{B}$
	4,20 1,30	70 120 120	5,0	5,0	5,0	A B B
Heavy-	3,20 5,20 1,30 1,30	70 150 90 90 90	40,0	20,0	5,0	A B $\mathbf C$ $\mathbf C$ $\mathbf{C}$
Heavy	3.40 6,00 1,80	70 140 90 90	25,0	15,0	5,0	A B C C
<b>Heavy</b>	4.80 3,60 4,40 1,30	70 130 90 80 80	10,0	10,0	5,0	A B $\mathbf C$ $\mathbf C$ $\overline{C}$
Percentage vrachtwagens. a						

Figure A.2: Selection of trucks from FLM4a [\[103\]](#page-108-2)

<span id="page-112-1"></span>The load factors and combination factors for the load combinations are listed in Table [A.3](#page-112-1) and [A.4](#page-112-1) respectively.

**Table A.3:** Load factors for ULS and FLS [\[115\]](#page-108-3)

**Table A.4:** Combination factors for variable loads [\[115\]](#page-108-3)



The following secondary structures and corresponding loads are distinguished:

- Asphalt layer: a minimum thickness of 141 mm is required and the volumetric weight of asphalt is equal to 23,0 kN/m $^3$  [\[13\]](#page-103-0). This results in a load of 3,24 kN/m $^2$ .
- Guardrail and railing: For the guardrail and railing a combined load of  $3.5 \text{ kN/m}$  is assumed.
- Ducts: A load of  $2 \, \text{kN/m}^2$  is assumed for ducts in or under the deck.

Temperature loads are determined using the National Annex to Eurocode 1991-1-5 [\[116\]](#page-108-4). For details regarding the approach (such as the deck types), the Eurocode (EC) can be consulted. The following temperature loads are defined:



<span id="page-113-0"></span>

Figure A.3: Axle arrangements for trucks from FLM4a [\[114\]](#page-108-1)

#### **Layout**

Figure [A.4](#page-114-0) shows the highway (3+1)x1-layout, from which all other highway layouts can be derived by removing the parallel lane and block line and one or more regular lanes. This layout has been determined following regulations in the ROA [\[14\]](#page-103-1). The 2x1-layout for the secondary road is shown in Figure [A.5.](#page-114-1) This layout is determined following the HWO Stroomwegen [\[15\]](#page-103-2). For both layouts the guardrail section is a combination of an inspection area of 0,5 m, a railing of 0,5 m and the guardrail itself measuring 0,6 m.

<span id="page-114-0"></span>

**Figure A.4:** Highway road: (3+1)x1-layout

<span id="page-114-1"></span>

**Figure A.5:** Secondary road: 2x1-layout

## B

## Design Alternatives: Verification

<span id="page-115-0"></span>This appendix describes the verification of the design alternatives as described in chapter [5.](#page-37-0)

#### **B.1. Truss**

The cross-sectional properties for the Truss alternative are derived from the profiles as described in section [5.3.](#page-39-0) The steel class is S460.

#### **ULS**

For the ULS several checks have been performed for the truss, the crossbeams, the stringers and the deck. Evidently, buckling checks are included. Notably, the bottom chord is always in tension, removing the need for a buckling check.



The truss has been designed without bracing/crossbeams at the top. As a result, a check on the stability of the truss is required. This is done based on a U-frame model.



The crossbeam has been verified on bending and shear forces.



The stringers are, similar to the crossbeams, verified for bending and shear forces.



The concrete deck is symmetric, resulting in equal properties for both the top and bottom. The prestressing force is the same for all cross-sections. The reinforcement is continuous over the support and as a result covers the tensile forces. At midspan, since this is the assumed location of the interface between two plates, there is no reinforcement. Theoretically, no reinforcement is required since the deck is prestressed and is designed such that no tension occurs. Still, some practical reinforcement with the dimensions ∅12-170 is included.

The prestressing tendons are composed of six strands, each with an equivalent diameter of 15,2 mm and a cross-sectional area of 140 mm. The tendons are spaced 400 mm apart. The loss in prestress force over time has been accounted for by using a reduced stress in the prestressing strands at  $t = \infty$ . The assumed stress  $\sigma_{p,\infty}$  equals 1080 MPa. As this is an assumption, the result will be slightly conservative.



It has been verified whether shear reinforcement is required. For the verification, a cover of 55 mm is used, as explained in section [5.1.](#page-37-1)



#### **SLS**

The deformation of the crossbeam is verified. The crossbeam is assumed to be clamped at both ends. For the variable load an equivalent distributed load has been determined.



As prestressing reinforcement is used, it should be verified whether tensile stresses are present in the SLS. For the midspan location this is not the case, as it is already verified for the ULS that there is no tension. For the support location this is verified.



#### **FLS**

The fatigue load is determined using FLM 4a. Loads are determined for a 602 mm wide strip over which the load spreads (considering an asphalt layer thickness of 141 mm, a spreading angle of 45 $^{\circ}$  and a wheel width of 320 mm). The verification focuses on whether the resistance of the concrete to fatigue is sufficient. This is the case if the inequality below is fulfilled. The verification is performed for the governing moment, which is at the midspan location. As no shear reinforcement is present, a check is also done on the shear forces. As a conservative assumption reinforcement has not been included in the section modulus.





Due to the central placement of the prestressing reinforcement, limited to no stress fluctuations occurs in the tendons. As a result, fatigue is not governing for the prestressing reinforcement.

The steel crossbeam has also been verified on fatigue. For the truss members fatigue is not governing due to the high detail class and favourable loading pattern.



#### **B.2. Composite**

#### **Cross-sectional properties**

To determine the cross-sectional properties, the assumption has been made that full composite action exists between the steel and concrete. The steel class used in this alternative is S355. Since fatigue proves to be governing, a higher steel class, as has been used in the Truss alternative, is not possible.



#### **ULS - Construction stage**

The verification of the girder in the construction stage has been performed with the assumption that no contribution exists between the concrete and steel during the construction, i.e., unpropped construction. The loads present at this stage are the self-weight of the steel and concrete.



#### **ULS - Use stage**

For the use stage, loads from the construction stage are combined with live loads and the dead load on the structure. The temperature load acts over the height of the cross-section, i.e., as a horizontal load. The stresses in the cross-section are composed of the stresses in the construction phase and additional stresses from, e.g., the variable load. The assumption that self-weight of the steel and concrete is supported by just the steel girder is still valid.



Shear buckling of the web is verified using the same design force as is used for the shear stress.



Transverse buckling of the web is verified assuming a combined load of two wheels (in reality they are 1.2 m apart) acting as one point load on the web.



The prestressing tendons are composed of eight strands, each with an equivalent diameter of 15,7 mm and a cross-sectional area of 150 mm. The tendons are spaced 400 mm apart. The loss in prestress force over time has been accounted for by using a reduced stress in the prestressing strands at  $t = \infty$ . The assumed stress  $\sigma_{p,\infty}$  equals 1080 MPa. As this is an assumption, the result will be slightly conservative.



It has been verified whether shear reinforcement is required.



#### **SLS**

The deformation of the system is verified for the use stage. For the point load it is assumed that from a tandem load placed above the girder, 88% of the load is supported by that girder.



It is verified whether tensile stresses are present in the SLS. For the midspan location this is not the case, as it is already verified for the ULS that there is no tension. For the support location this is verified.



#### **FLS**

The fatigue load is determined using FLM4a. Loads are determined for a 602 mm wide strip over which the load spreads. The verification focuses on whether the resistance of the concrete to fatigue is sufficient. This is the case if the inequality below is fulfilled. The verification is performed for the governing moment, which is at the midspan location. As no shear reinforcement is present, a check is also done on the shear forces.



Minimum shear force  $V_{Ed,min} = V_{perm} = 27,4 \text{ kN}$ Shear resistance  $V_{Rd,c} = 238 \text{ kN}$ *UC*  $\frac{|V_{Ed,max}|}{|V_{Rd,c}|} = 0, 34 \le 0, 5 - \frac{|V_{Ed,min}|}{|V_{Rd,c}|} = 0, 39$ 

The steel girder is verified on fatigue, with the focus on the connection between the bottom flange and the web.



#### **B.3. Orthotropic**

#### **Cross-sectional properties**

To determine the cross-sectional properties of the deck, effective widths and buckling effects need to be taken into account. Moreover, a difference exists in the properties for the ULS and SLS. All results follow from the geometry of the overpass and are calculated based on the approach as described in EN-1993-1-5.

For the girder the effects of plate-like and column-like buckling are taken into account. For the calculation of  $I_{g,ULS}$  the influence of the deck has been neglected.

*ULS*



For the crossbeam the effective properties have been determined taking into account effective width. The location for which the properties have been determined is at the support.



The effective properties of the stiffeners have been determined taking into account the effective width of the stiffener. The dimensions of the stiffeners are such that local buckling effects can be neglected.

*Midspan*



#### **ULS**

The normal stress in the girder and deck in longitudinal direction are determined. For the deck this is due to global and local bending, which cause interaction at a position in between cross-beams and close to midspan of the girder.



Shear buckling of the web is verified for the shear force at the support. The same loads as for the normal force are valid.



Transverse buckling of the web is verified assuming a combined load of two wheels (in reality they are 1.2 m apart) acting as one point load on the web.



The crossbeams and stiffeners are verified for normal stresses. For the crossbeam the location at the support of the element is governing; for the stiffener this is the midspan location.



#### **SLS**

The deformation of the main girder has been verified. For the variable load an equivalent distributed load has been determined.



With regard to the stiffener, its stiffness has been found sufficiently large to match the minimum stiffness required, following Figure [B.1.](#page-126-0)

<span id="page-126-0"></span>

Figure B.1: Graph for minimum stiffness of longitudinal stiffeners [\[118\]](#page-109-0)

 $\frac{Ed,g}{\tau_L}=0,32$ 

#### **FLS**

The steel girder and crossbeam have been verified on fatigue for bending and shear stresses.





Apart from the main elements, the welded details present in the orthotropic deck are verified, since these are often governing. With regard to the subscripts listed in the calculations, the element that comes first is the element in which the stress is considered; the second element indicates with which element the connection has been made.

The first detail that has been verified is the connection between the deck and the stiffener. This location is considered for the position between the crossbeams and above the crossbeams. In the deck interaction of stresses occurs: the bending of the crossbeam over the main girders and the bending of the deck over the stiffener both result in a tensile stress. Although there is no stiffener directly at the location of the main girder, the bending moment is, slightly conservatively, taken from that location.



Another detail is the weld between the stiffener and the crossbeam.



The connection between the crossbeam and deck is also verified. For the stress in the deck the load is assumed to come from a wheel load on top of the crossbeam.



Details that have not been verified are either covered by other verifications or it is assumed that they will not be governing. This includes the welds themselves.

#### **B.4. Guardrail section**

<span id="page-128-0"></span>As previously explained, guardrail sections are considered as distinct modules. Though most of the dimensions of these modules need to be the same as for the main part of the structure (due to geometrical restraints), a small number of dimensions can be optimised. This is due to the fact that these modules receive less loads. Table [B.1](#page-128-0) shows the changes that have been made to the main modules to come to the dimensions of the guardrail sections. The dimensions are determined using the same calculations as for the main part of the structure.

Alternative	Dimension	Original [mm]	Changed [mm]
Truss	$e_{stringer}$	2500	2050
Composite	$h_{\text{girder}, web}$	2000	1240
	$e_{\text{qirder}}$	4000	3200
	$b_{fl,bot}$	660	400
	$t_{fl,bot}$	38	32
Orthotropic	$h_{girder, web}$	2190	1350
	$e_{\text{qirder}}$	5000	3300
	$t_{girder,web}$	18	14
	$b_{qirder,fl}$	660	410
	$t_{girder,fl}$	40	30
	$e_{stf}$	250	200
	$b_{stf,top}$	250	200

**Table B.1:** Changed dimensions of the guardrail sections

## C

## Environmental Impact Calculations

### **C.1. Materials and processes - Design alternatives**

Tables [C.1](#page-129-0)to [C.3](#page-130-0) show the material quantities and the processes that are taken into account to perform the analysis. The majority of the data is retrieved from the NMD [\[119\]](#page-109-1). If other sources are used, the source is added.

<span id="page-129-0"></span>



**Table C.2:** Materials and processes for environmental impact assessment: Composite



<span id="page-130-0"></span>

Element	<b>Material</b>	Unit	Value	Name from NMD
Girder + Deck	Steel	kg	253800	Zwaar constructiestaal GWW 7820 kg/ $m^3$ , incl. conservering [120]
	Zinc primer	m <sup>2</sup>	35331	From EPD: [67]
Transport	Truck transport	tkm	50760	Transport met vrachtwagen, EURO 6, diesel Category 3 data

**Table C.3:** Materials and processes for environmental impact assessment: Orthotropic

### **C.2. Conversion factors**

<span id="page-130-1"></span>The data not directly retrieved from the NMD is in part reported in different equivalent units. In order to be able to perform calculations with these data, the values need to be converted into the corresponding unit. Table [C.4](#page-130-1) shows the categories for which conversion is required, along with the conversion factor.

Category	Old unit-eq	New unit-eq	<b>Conversion factor</b>	Source
<b>POCP</b>	kg NMVOC	$\text{kg} NO_x$	5,56	$[121]$
	$kgNO_x$	$\text{kg}\,C_2H_4$	0,36	[121]
AP	mol $H^+$	kgNH <sub>3</sub>	0,33	$[122]$
	kgNH <sub>3</sub>	kg SO <sub>2</sub>	1,88	[122]
<b>ADPF</b>	MI	$\text{kg }Sb$	4,81E-04	$[123]$
EP-freshwater	kgP	kgPO <sub>4</sub>	3,06	[124]
EP-terrestrial	mole $N$	g N	14,007	Molar mass
$EP-m/EP-t$	g N	kgPO <sub>4</sub>	$4,2E-04$	[124]
$HTTP-c$	<b>CTUh</b>	$kg$ 1,4-DCB*	$3,27E+06$	$[125]$
HTTP-nc	<b>CTU<sub>h</sub></b>	$kg$ 1,4-DCB*	1,10E+07	$[125]$
<b>FAETP</b>	<b>CTUe</b>	$kg$ 1,4-DCB*	1.02E-03	$[125]$
*DCB stands for dichlorobenzene				

**Table C.4:** Unit conversion factors environmental impact categories

<span id="page-130-2"></span>The monetisation factors applied for conversion of the impact into a monetary value are listed in Table [C.5.](#page-130-2) The monetisation factor itself is listed for each impact category, as is the unit that this category uses.

Category	Unit-eq	Monetisation factor $\lfloor \frac{\epsilon}{kg} \rfloor$		
<b>GWP</b>	$\text{kg }CO_2$	0,05		
ODP	$kg$ CFC-11 $*$	30		
AP	$\text{kg}$ $SO_2$	4		
EP	kgPO <sub>4</sub>	9		
<b>POCP</b>	$\text{kg}\,C_2H_4$	2		
<b>ADPE</b>	kgSb	0,16		
<b>ADPF</b>	kgSb	0,16		
<b>HTTP</b>	$kg$ 1,4-DCB*	0.09		
<b>FAETP</b>	$kg$ 1,4-DCB*	0,03		
*CFC stands for chlorofluorocarbon				
	*DCB stands for dichlorobenzene			

**Table C.5:** Monetisation factors environmental impact categories [\[123\]](#page-109-5)

#### **C.3. Materials and processes - Reference overpasses**

<span id="page-131-0"></span>Table [C.6](#page-131-0) and [C.7](#page-131-1) show the mass of the reference overpasses for all materials.





<span id="page-131-1"></span>



<span id="page-131-2"></span>To calculate the ECI the environmental impact data of the different materials needs to be known. Table [C.8](#page-131-2) lists the material data along with the source of the data.





\* *The exact concrete class was not found in the NMD. The closest available class is used.*

#### **C.4. Sustainability comparison approach**

With the materials and environmental impact data from the previous section, it is possible to perform the calculations for the scenarios from section [9.3.](#page-90-0) The calculation of the ECI itself is the same as previously explained, how the ECI values are used to make the ECI-over-time plots is what is explained in this section.

#### **General approach**

In principle, the approach is nearly the same for all of the different overpasses. At time=0, the impact of the production and construction (module A) is applied. Then, at the end of the functional life of the overpass, modules C and D are applied, which describe the disassembly process and potential benefits beyond the system boundaries. In case the reference period is longer than the functional life, this cycle is repeated. In situations where parts of a structure are removed, on these parts modules C and D are also applied. For overpasses which feature steel components, the impact of one maintenance cycle is added every 15 years.

#### **Scenario 0**

For scenario 0, the general approach is followed. For the Concrete overpass one full replacement is applied after 100 years, whilst the Circular viaduct and IFD overpass feature one cycle. The Composite overpass also features a replacement cycle, yet the impact of the second structure is reduced to 2/3 (80/120 years) of the initial impact, to compensate for the fact that the structure can be designed for a shorter design life.

#### **Scenario 1**

Scenario 1 starts with the general approach. Then, after 40 years one lane is added to all the structures. The minimum lane width required for the addition of one lane is 3,5 m. Figures [C.1](#page-132-0) and [C.2](#page-132-1) show graphically which changes are required to the original overpasses in order to add a lane. The red elements indicate elements that are removed and demolished, green elements are elements that are added to the structure and blue elements are elements that are removed yet suitable for reuse. The exact approach is explained for each overpass separately:

- Concrete overpass: assuming an average beam width of 1,25 m, first an edge beam is removed. Then, three beams and a new edge beam are added in cycle 1. For cycle 2, again three beams and an edge beam are added.
- Circular viaduct: first, the prestressing reinforcement in transverse direction is removed (43% of the total), assuming no reuse. Since the modules of the Circular viaduct are 1,5 m in width, three modules are added and new prestressing reinforcement is installed. For cycle 2 this is repeated, yet with only two modules.

<span id="page-132-0"></span>

**Figure C.1:** Scenario 1: Changes to overpasses of concrete comparison

<span id="page-132-1"></span>

**Figure C.2:** Scenario 1: Changes to overpasses of composite comparison

- IFD overpass: the prestressing reinforcement and the edge beam are at first removed. The edge beam removal (or disassembly) is accounted for using the assembly costs of the edge beam, i.e., the costs from modules A4-5. Secondly, one module of 4 m is added, along with the edge beam and the application of new prestressing reinforcement. There is no need for additional modules for a second extension, so no additional impact is reported. Maintenance is assumed to be applied during the replacement to ensure that all elements receive maintenance at the same time, having the effect that a new maintenance cycle is needed 15 years after the replacement. In Figure [C.1](#page-132-0) there is also a line indicating the IFD overpass with a second extension. For this situation the process of the first extension is followed.
- Composite overpass: since the conventional steel-composite overpass features no edge beam, only a part of the concrete deck needs to be removed to allow for the addition of girders. It is assumed that 1,5 m of deck need to be removed. Next, one girder is added along with 5,2 m of concrete deck (3,7 m spacing between girders + 1,5 m edge). This is repeated for replacement cycle 2. Maintenance is assumed to be applied during the replacement. A new maintenance cycle is then needed 15 years after the replacement.

#### **Scenario 2**

Like scenario 1, scenario 2 features a layout change after 40 and 80 years. The reason for this change is assumed to be the addition of a lane beneath the overpass, resulting in the need to extend the overpass itself by a minimum of 3,5 m. The change is applied at the same end of the overpass both times. Figures [C.3](#page-133-0) and [C.4](#page-134-0) illustrate the changes graphically.

- Concrete overpass: for it is not possible to extend the conventional beam overpass, it is completely removed and replaced by a new overpass that is 3,5 m longer for each cycle.
- Circular viaduct: To start, the longitudinal prestressing reinforcement (57% of total) and the end module are removed. Then, two modules of 2,5 m in length are added, along with the previously used end module and new prestressing reinforcement. For cycle 2 this is repeated, yet with the addition of just 1 module.
- IFD overpass (concrete overpass comparison): the layout of the IFD overpass can be adjusted simply by the addition of one module of 6,6 m. For the second cycle, the best solution in terms of ECI is the removal of this 6,6 m module and the addition of a third 10,8 m module. For the 10,8 m module full costs are applied. Since the 6,6 m module is still available for use elsewhere, the cost of this module is accounted for by adjusting its impact to its use period. This means that upon disassembly, next to disassembly costs, 80% (40 years out of 200 years) of the initial impact is applied as a discount, resulting in a reduction of the ECI. Maintenance is assumed to be applied during the replacement, having the effect that a new maintenance cycle is needed 15 years after the replacement.
- Composite overpass: the original design of the composite overpass consists of three girder segments. Hence, it is assumed that it is possible to remove one of these segments and replace it with a longer segment. This is what is done twice, by extending the segment by 3,5 m. Maintenance on the remaining structure is assumed to be applied during the replacement, having the effect that a new maintenance cycle is needed 15 years after the replacement.
- IFD overpass (composite overpass comparison): for the first cycle it is more advantageous to remove the 6,6 m module and replace it by a 10,8 m module. For the second cycle it is sufficient to add a 6,6 m module. In terms of the impact of these changes, the same approach is used as for the IFD overpass in the concrete overpass comparison.

<span id="page-133-0"></span>

**Figure C.3:** Scenario 2: Changes to overpasses of concrete comparison

<span id="page-134-0"></span>

**Figure C.4:** Scenario 2: Changes to overpasses of composite comparison

#### **Scenario 3**

Scenario 3 again starts with the general approach. After 80 and 160 years the structure is needed at a different location. If possible, the old superstructure is relocated. If not, the old superstructure is removed and a new one is constructed, with an impact that is equivalent to 50% of the original structure.

- Concrete overpass: since the structure is not demountable, it is removed and replaced by an overpass with 50% lower impact. The impact of the third overpass (after 160 years) is reduced by 75% because it also has half the design life.
- Circular viaduct: one relocation of the overpass is accounted for by applying twice the impact from modules A4-5 for the full structure, thus simulating disassembly and reassembly of the overpass.
- IFD overpass: the same approach as for the Circular viaduct is used.
- Composite overpass: the approach for the Composite overpass is the same as for the Concrete overpass, with the exception that the impact of the third overpass is reduced by 83%, as the original design life of the Composite overpass is 120 years.

# D

### MCA Calculations

This appendix describes the calculation of the input for the MCA score calculations. The results of these calculations form the direct input of Table [6.3.](#page-53-0)

As explained in section [6.2.2,](#page-53-1) the MCA has been performed for a module size of 4 m and 12 m. It is acknowledged that not all dimensions are divisible by these numbers. In that case, the number is rounded up. In case it is required for a structure to be divided into modules, the module dimensions are based on the regularity in the layout.

#### **Number of different components**

<span id="page-135-0"></span>Table [D.1](#page-135-0) shows the number of different components for each alternative.

**Table D.1:** Values Number of different components



#### *Truss*

For the Truss alternative the following components can be distinguished: top chords, bottom chords, diagonals, crossbeams and stringer-deck modules. The stringers and deck are considered as one module, as this reduces the number of components and connections.

#### *Composite*

The Composite alternative consists of two different components: the girders and the deck plates.

#### *Orthotropic*

The Orthotropic alternative has only one component.

#### **Number of components**

<span id="page-135-1"></span>Table [D.2](#page-135-1) lists the total number of components for each of the alternatives.



**Table D.2:** Values Number of components

#### *Truss*

The number of components of the truss itself is assumed to be determined by the nodes: each element spans between the nodes. This means the 32 m long bottom chord of the truss consists of 6 5,335 m segments. The top chord is 28 m long and has 5 segments. There are total of 12 diagonals. With two trusses at each side, this means all values need to be multiplied by 2. With regard to the crossbeams, there are 7 of them in the 32 m span, having a spacing of 5,335 m. For the width of 23,2 m, a total of either 7 or 4 segments is required (2 separate segments are included for the guardrail sections). The stringer-deck modules are 2,5 x 4 or 12 m, where 2,5 is the spacing between individual stringer. The width is smaller

than 4 or 12 m, as this ensures a one-size module. This means that for the width 10 modules are required, resulting in a total of 80 and 30 modules respectively. The total number of modules is then 104 and 175 respectively.

#### *Composite*

The Composite alternative essentially consists of  $4 \times 4$  or  $4 \times 12$  m modules, composed of a separated girder and deck section. For the 4 m segment width this translates into 5 sections for the 20 m width plus two for the guardrail sections. For a length of 32 m and a width of 23,2 m in total 112 or 42 of these modules are required respectively (including separate sections for the guardrail).

#### *Orthotropic*

The components of the Orthotropic alternative are 5 x 4 or 5 x 12 m modules, composed of a separated girder and deck section. With a width of 5 m, the number of modules is 6 (2 guardrail sections). For a length of 32 m 48 and 18 of these modules are required for respectively 4 m and 12 m.

#### **Number of connections**

<span id="page-136-0"></span>Table [D.3](#page-136-0) shows the number of connections for each alternative.



#### **Table D.3:** Values Number of connections

#### *Truss*

All points where truss members align require a connection. For two trusses, this amounts to 26 connections. With 7 crossbeams that are divided into 7 or 4 segments, a total of 8 or 5 connections per crossbeam are required, since they are connected to the truss at their ends. A total of 10 stringers are present. Each stringer requires 7 or 2 connections. The prestressing reinforcement for this alternative is spaced at 400 mm, resulting in a total of 80 tendons. In total, this combines to 232 and 161 connections for 4 m and 12 m respectively.

#### *Composite*

A total of 7 girders, each requiring 7 or 2 connections between the segments, results in 49 or 14 connections. The connection between the deck and the girder is done with shear connectors, which are assumed to be spaced at 500 mm. Each m thus has 2 connectors. For each girder this means 64 connections with the deck. The prestressing reinforcement forms the connection in the transverse direction. With a spacing of 400 mm, a total of 80 tendons is required. This combines to a total of 577 or 542 connections for 4  $m$  and 12  $m$  segments respectively.

#### *Orthotropic*

There are 6 girders each requiring 7 or 2 connections, for 4 m segments and 12 m segments respectively. A total of 8 crossbeams, spaced at 4 m, is present. The number of connections per crossbeam is 5, resulting in 40 connections in total. Every meter of deck features 2 stiffeners, which are all assumed to require two connections (at both webs of the stiffener). There are a total of 40 plus 8 (guardrail sections) is 48 stiffeners. They are divided like the girders, hence coming to a total of 772 or 192 connections for the stiffeners. This combines to a total of 754 or 244 connections respectively.

#### **Ease of changing overpass layout**

<span id="page-136-1"></span>Table [D.4](#page-136-1) lists the qualitative scores for the category of Ease of changing overpass layout.

#### **Table D.4:** Values Ease of changing overpass layout



#### *Truss*

In order to add additional lanes, it is necessary to remove one truss before the crossbeam can be extended. It is evident that this impacts the main structure, resulting in a score of zero.

#### *Composite*

To add additional lanes, it is required to remove the guardrail section, which in turn requires de-stressing of the prestressing reinforcement. Still, as this can be done in segments, it will not impact the main structure: a score of one is assigned.

#### *Orthotropic*

The addition of a lane for this alternative only requires the removal of the guardrail section, which is why a score of two is assigned.

#### **Mass of components**

<span id="page-137-0"></span>Table [D.5](#page-137-0) lists the average mass of the components for all the alternatives.





#### *Truss*

<span id="page-137-1"></span>The mass of components is calculated as the averaged weight of all components. Table [D.6](#page-137-1) shows the mass of the individual components. In the deck prestressing reinforcement and regular reinforcement are included. When multiplied with the total length or area of these components the total mass is acquired. The average mass is then the total mass divided by the total number of components. The average mass amounts to 3473 and 5844 kg for 4 m and 12 m segments respectively.

**Table D.6:** Mass of components: Truss

	Mass	Unit
Truss top chord	214	kg/m
Truss bottom chord	170	kg/m
Truss diagonal	130	kg/m
Crossbeam	576	kg/m
Stringer	76	kg/m
Deck	597	$\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$

#### *Composite*

The mass of the regular components is reported in Table [D.7.](#page-137-2) For the guardrail, the values are shown in Table [D.8.](#page-137-2) In the deck prestressing reinforcement and regular reinforcement are included. The average mass is calculated to be 6035 and 16093 kg.

<span id="page-137-2"></span>**Table D.7:** Mass of components: Composite

**Table D.8:** Mass of components: Composite (guardrail)

	Mass Unit			Mass Unit
	Girder $464$ kg/m		Girder $284 \text{ kg/m}$	
Deck $813 \text{ kg/m}$			Deck $813 \text{ kg/m}$	

#### *Orthotropic*

The Orthotropic alternative consists of only one component, meaning that the average mass is derived from the mass of this component. For the regular section the mass of one section of width 5 m and 4 m length is 6657 kg and for the guardrail section, with width 1,6 m, it is 2549 kg per 4 m length. Combined, this results in an average mass of 5288 or 14100 kg for 4 m and 12 m segments respectively.

#### **Independence - Parallel assembly**

Table [D.9](#page-138-0) lists the qualitative scores for the category of Independence - Parallel assembly.

#### **Table D.9:** Values Independence - Parallel assembly



#### <span id="page-138-0"></span>*Truss*

A number of components can be assembled in parallel, crossbeams for instance, but there still exists an interdependency between trusses and crossbeams, leading to a score of one.

#### *Composite*

Parallel assembly is possible for the Composite alternative, as each girder, along with the deck on top, can be assembled independently. The girders can then be combined to form the full structure. A score of two is awarded.

#### *Orthotropic*

Since the orthotropic deck has identical sections, it is evident that it can be assembled in parallel. Hence, a score of two is applied.

#### **Ease of replacement**

<span id="page-138-1"></span>Table [D.10](#page-138-1) shows the qualitative scores for the category of Ease of replacement.





#### *Truss*

In order to replace a deck plate or a stringer, the prestressing reinforcement needs to be temporarily removed. As the truss will most likely block some of the anchorage points of the prestressing tendons, the truss itself needs to be removed as well, which has a significant impact on the structure. Therefore, a score of zero is awarded.

#### *Composite*

The replacement of a deck plate for this alternative requires the removal of the prestressing reinforcement. However, as the girders and the deck are separated, the girders are unaffected and the main structure remains intact. This means that a score of one is awarded.

#### *Orthotropic*

All components of the Orthotropic alternative, including the deck, are part of the main structure. Evidently, the main structure is impacted in case of replacement, resulting in a score of 0.

#### **Maintenance**

<span id="page-138-2"></span>Table [D.11](#page-138-2) lists the total area of maintenance for each of the three alternatives.

#### **Table D.11:** Values Maintenance



#### *Truss*

Maintenance is calculated by multiplying the total area to be maintained by the number of times the maintenance takes place. Table [D.12](#page-139-0) shows the data for the calculation of the area. The perimeter and the total length of the members are multiplied to determine the total area. For the crossbeam and the stringer the top of the top flange is excluded from the perimeter, as this is covered by the deck. The interval for maintenance is assumed to be 15 years, meaning that in 200 years a total of 13 times maintenance is required. Multiplying this by the area results in a total of 16911  $m^2$  of area to be maintained.

#### *Composite*

The perimeter of the main girder, minus the top of top flange, is 5,708 m. For the guardrail girder this is 3,656 m. With a

<span id="page-139-0"></span>

	Perimeter [m]	Total length [m]	Area $[m^2]$
Truss top chord	1,8	53,3	95.9
Truss bottom chord	1,8	64	115,1
Truss diagonal	1,4	127,6	178,6
Crossbeam	3,14	162,4	509,6
Stringer	1,26	320	401,6
Total			1301

**Table D.12:** Maintenance area: Truss

maintenance interval of 15 years and a total of 160 m of main girder and 64 m of guardrail girder, the total area amounts to  $14914 \,\mathrm{m}^2$ .

#### *Orthotropic*

<span id="page-139-1"></span>Table [D.13](#page-139-1) shows the area of the members of the Orthotropic alternative, divided into the three major parts of the structure. With 13 maintenance periods, the total to be maintained area is 34910 m<sup>2</sup>.

	Perimeter [m]	Total length [m]	Area $[m^2]$
Deck + Stiffeners	43,88	32	1404
Main girder	5,80	128	743
Main girder (guardrail)	3,57	64	228
Crossbeam	1.85	185,6	343
Total			2718

**Table D.13:** Maintenance area: Orthotropic

## E

### Model Validation

This appendix describes the validation of the SCIA model as described in section [8.1.](#page-71-0) The validation focuses on situations with a full and a partial shear connection between the steel and concrete.

#### **E.1. Full shear connection**

A full shear connection means that all forces between the steel and concrete can be transferred. It is validated if the model is an accurate representation of a structure with full composite action and whether the way in which the shear connectors are modelled impacts the outcome.

In the model, this is simulated by assuming a near-infinite stiffness for the springs. The transversal joints have also been modified to simulate a rigid connection. As it was the assumption for the calculations done for the design alternative Composite that there was full composite action, the calculations listed in appendix [B](#page-115-0) can be used for the validation. The validation has been performed for a distributed load of 10 kN/m, equivalent to a surface load of 2,5 kN/m<sup>2</sup>. All dimensions are the same as for the Composite alternative.

<span id="page-140-0"></span>Table [E.1](#page-140-0) shows the values computed for both the model and the hand calculations. There appears to be a trend in that the model yields slightly higher values than the hand calculations do, though the difference is consistently small.

	Unit	Model	<b>Hand calculations</b>
$\sigma_{s,bot}$	[MPa]	16,1	15,9
$\sigma_{s,top}$	[MPa]	$-1,5$	$-1.3$
$\sigma_{c,top}$	[MPa]	$-0.8$	$-0.7$
$w_{use}$	[mm]	4.6	4.2

**Table E.1:** Validation full shear connection

#### **E.2. Partial shear connection**

Partial shear interaction describes a situation where not all forces are transferred from the concrete to the steel. This is the case for the proposed design. Validation is performed using an elastic analysis, which is the case for the SLS situation discussed in section [8.2.1.](#page-75-0)

The model is validated using a differential equation that describes a composite beam with elastic interaction. The differential equation is shown in equation [E.1](#page-140-1) and [E.2,](#page-140-2) along with the five equalities required to solve the equation. Figure [E.1](#page-141-0) shows schematically the reasoning behind these equations.

<span id="page-140-1"></span>
$$
\frac{d^6 w}{dx^6} - \alpha^2 \frac{d^4 w}{dx^4} = -\frac{\alpha^2}{EI_\infty} q
$$
\n(E.1)

<span id="page-140-2"></span>
$$
\alpha^2 = K \left( \frac{1}{E_1 A_1} + \frac{1}{E_2 A_2} + \frac{r^2}{E I_0} \right)
$$
 (E.2)

<span id="page-141-0"></span>

**Figure E.1:** Explanation of parameters in differential equation [\[126\]](#page-109-8)

$$
\frac{dV}{dx} = -q
$$
  
\n
$$
N_1 + N_2 = 0
$$
  
\n
$$
M = M_1 + M_2 - N_1 \cdot r
$$
  
\n
$$
V = \frac{dM}{dx}
$$
  
\n
$$
V_s = K \cdot s = -\frac{dN_1}{dx} = \frac{dN_2}{dx}
$$

The validation is done with the same assumptions as for full shear interaction. For the model, one isolated beam is considered, as this is most comparable to the situation the differential equation describes. In terms of input, a spacing of 500 mm between the connectors and a stiffness of the shear connectors of 80 kN/mm is used.

Figures [E.2](#page-141-1) and [E.3](#page-141-2) show the deformation of the beam for the model and the differential equation. As expected, both have symmetric deformation. It is also evident that with a deformation of 5,9 and 6,0 mm respectively, the results are similar.

<span id="page-141-1"></span>

**Figure E.2:** Girder deformation from SCIA model

<span id="page-141-2"></span>

**Figure E.3:** Girder deformation from differential equation

Figure [E.4](#page-142-0) shows the shear forces for the sets of two connectors at the same position along the beam, i.e., the sum of the forces in the individual connectors. Figure [E.5](#page-142-1) shows the shear force distribution from the differential equation. It can be seen that the shear forces follow the pattern that is expected from the shear force distribution. In terms of magnitude, the model yields a force of 32,58 kN in the first connector from the support. When integrating the differential equation over the interval 0-0,5 m (from the support), the shear force that would be taken by the first connector is calculated, which is equal to 30,12 kN.

<span id="page-142-0"></span>

**Figure E.4:** Shear force per set of connectors from SCIA model

<span id="page-142-1"></span>

**Figure E.5:** Longitudinal shear force distribution from differential equation

## F

Calculation Report - System Model


<u>т.</u>





# **2. Geometry**

**2.1. Overview**



### **2.2. Cross-sections**









#### **2.3. Nodes**



IYZ.LCS Product moment of area in the LCS

α Rotation angle of the principal axis

 $I_y$  Second moment of area about the principal y-axis I<sub>z</sub> Second moment of area about the principal z-axis i<sup>y</sup> Radius of gyration about the principal y-axis

system

system







 $13,900$ 

**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z**

10,100 31,900 1,512 9,900 31,900 1,512 6,100 31,900 1,512 1,512<br>
2,100 31,900 1,512

1,900 31,900 1,512  $-1,900$  31,900 1,512  $13,900$  1,200 1,512  $10,100$  1,200 1,512 9,900 1,200 1,512  $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\n6,100 & 1,200 & 1,512 \\
\hline\n5,900 & 1,200 & 1,512\n\end{array}$ 

 $1,900$   $1,200$   $1,512$ 1,900 1,200 1,512<br>13,900 8,100 1,512

10,100 8,100 1,512<br>9,900 8,100 1,512  $9,900$  8,100

1,512<br>5,900 8,100 1,512

 $2,100$  8,100 1,512 1,900 8,100 1,512  $-1,900$  8,100 1,512 13,900 15,900 1,512 10,100 15,900 1,512 9,900 15,900 1,512<br>6,100 15,900 1,512

1,512<br>
2,100 15,900 1,512

1,900 15,900 1,512<br>-1,900 15,900 1,512 15,900 13,900 16,200 1,512 10,100 16,200 1,512 9,900 16,200 1,512<br>6,100 16,200 1,512 1,512<br>5,900 16,200 1,512

 $2,100$  16,200 1,512 1,900 16,200 1,512 1,900 16,200 1,512<br>13,900 1,400 1,512

10,100 1,400 1,512<br>9,900 1,400 1,512  $9,900$  1,400

6,100 1,400 1,512 1,400 1,512 1,400 1,512 1,900 1,400 1,512  $-1,900$  1,400 1,512 13,900 1,600 1,512<br>10,100 1,600 1,512

9,900 1,600 1,512<br>6,100 1,600 1,512  $1,600$ 1,600 1,512<br>2,100 1,600 1,512

1,900 1,600 1,512

1,900 1,600 1,512<br>14,000 7,600 0,000<br>10,000 7,600 0,000

10,000 7,600 0,000 6,000 7,600 0,000  $2,000$  7,600 0,000  $-2,000$  7,600 0,000 14,000 14,200 0,000<br>10,000 14,200 0,000  $10,000$  14,200 0,000  $6,000$  14,200 0,000  $2,000$  14,200 0,000  $-2,000$  14,200 0,000 13,900 15,800 1,512

9,900 15,800 1,512<br>6,100 15,800 1,512

5,900 8,100

 $6,100$  15,900

 $2,100$  15,900

5,900 16,200

 $13,900$  1,400

 $\overline{10,100}$  1,600

 $2,100$  1,600

 $\overline{2,100}$  31,900











**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]**

 $\overline{17,830}$  0,000

 $\overline{18,160}$  0,000

 $19,150$  0,000

 $\overline{19,810}$  0,000

 $21,130$  0,000

 $\overline{22,120}$  0,000

 $22,120$  0,000

 $22,120$ 

18,160

 $19,150$ 

19,150











of the









N31298 | 6,100 | 12,160 | 1,512 | N31558 | 13,900 | 15,400 | 1,512



N31801 | 2,100 | 18,280 | 1,512



**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]**  $24,760$  1,512 24,760 1,512 24,760 1,512 24,760 1,512<br>24,760 1,512

24,760 1,512<br>24,760 1,512

24,760 1,512<br>25,120 1,512

 $\overline{25,120}$  1,512

1,512<br>
25,120 1,512<br>
25,120 1,512

 $\overline{25,120}$  1,512 25,120 1,512<br>25,120 1,512

25,480 1,512<br>25,480 1,512

25,480 1,512<br>25,480 1,512

N32389 5,900 25,480 1,512 N32391 2,100 25,480 1,512 25,480 1,512<br>25,480 1,512 25,480 1,512<br>25,840 1,512

25,840 1,512<br>25,840 1,512

25,840 1,512<br>25,840 1,512

25,840 1,512<br>25,840 1,512

25,840 1,512<br>26,200 1,512 036,200 1,512<br>26,200 1,512<br>26,200 1,512

 $\overline{26,200}$  1,512 26,200 1,512<br>26,200 1,512

26,200 1,512<br>26,200 1,512

26,560 1,512<br>26,560 1,512

1,512 1,512 26,560 1,512 1,512 26,560 1,512 26,560 1,512<br>26,920 1,512

26,920 1,512<br>26,920 1,512

26,920 1,512<br>26,920 1,512

1,512

26,920 1,512<br>26,920 1,512<br>27,280 1,512

 $\overline{27,280}$  1,512 27,280 1,512<br>27,280 1,512

27,280 1,512<br>27,280 1,512

27,280 1,512<br>27,280 1,512

27,640 1,512  $\overline{27,640}$  1,512 27,640 1,512<br>27,640 1,512

 $\frac{1}{24,760}$ 

24,760

25,120

 $25,120$ 

25,480

25,480

25,840

 $25,840$ 

25,840

25,840

 $\frac{1}{26,200}$ 

26,200

26,560

 $26,920$ 

26,920

 $26,920$ 

27,280

27,280

27,280

27,640<br>27,640





**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]**

 $\begin{array}{r|cc} 10,100 & 2,650 & 1,350 \\ \hline 6,000 & 2,650 & 1,350 \\ 5,900 & 2,650 & 1,350 \\ \hline 6,100 & 2,650 & 1,350 \end{array}$ 

2,000 2,650 1,350<br>1,900 2,650 1,350







of the







N33255 6,000 7,270 1,350

**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]** 2,000 8,260 1,350 1,900 8,260 1,350 N33327 2,100 8,260 1,350 -2,000 8,260 1,350<br>-2,100 8,260 1,350

 $-1,900$  8,260 1,350 14,100 8,260 1,512 14,000 8,260 1,512<br>14,000 8,590 1,350 14,000 8,590 1,350 13,900 8,590 1,350 14,100 8,590 1,350<br>10,000 8,590 1,350

9,900 8,590 1,350<br>10,100 8,590 1,350

6,000 8,590 1,350<br>5,900 8,590 1,350

6,100 8,590 1,350 N33342 2,000 8,590 1,350 1,900 8,590 1,350 1,350 1,350  $-2,000$  8,590 1,350  $-2,100$  8,590 1,350  $-1,900$  8,590 1,350 14,100 8,590 1,512<br>13,900 8,590 1,512 13,900 8,590 1,512 10,100 8,590 1,512<br>9,900 8,590 1,512

6,100 8,590 1,512 N33353 5,900 8,590 1,512 2,100 8,590 1,512<br>1,900 8,590 1,512

 $-1,900$  8,590 1,512  $-2,100$  8,590 1,512 14,000 8,920 1,350 13,900 8,920 1,350<br>14,100 8,920 1,350

10,000 8,920 1,350 N33362 9,900 8,920 1,350 10,100 8,920 1,350 6,000 8,920 1,350 N33365 5,900 8,920 1,350 6,100 8,920 1,350 N33367 2,000 8,920 1,350 1,900 8,920 1,350 N33369 2,100 8,920 1,350 -2,000 8,920 1,350<br>-2,100 8,920 1,350  $-2,100$  8,920 1,350 1,900 8,920 1,350<br>14,100 8,920 1,512

14,000 8,920 1,512<br>14,000 9,250 1,350

13,900 9,250 1,350 14,100 9,250 1,350 10,000 9,250 1,350 9,900 9,250 1,350<br>10,100 9,250 1,350

1,350<br>5,900 9,250 1,350<br>5,900 9,250 1,350

 $6,100$  9,250 1,350 N33384 2,000 9,250 1,350 1,900 9,250 1,350 N33386 2,100 9,250 1,350 -2,000 9,250 1,350<br>-2,100 9,250 1,350 1,350 -2,100 9,250 1,350<br>
-1,900 9,250 1,350

14,100 9,250 1,512 13,900 9,250 1,512<br>10,100 9,250 1,512 10,100 9,250 1,512<br>9,900 9,250 1,512

 $\overline{10,100}$  9,250

 $\overline{5,900}$  9,250

 $-1,900$  9,250

N33393 9,900 9,250 1,512

1,900 8,590

 $-2,100$  8,260

 $10,000$  8,590

 $\overline{5,900}$  8,590

 $10,100$ 

 $9,900$ 

 $14,100$ 

 $14,100$ 

14,000



N33324 6,100 8,260 1,350



**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z**

 $\frac{1}{11,230}$ 

 $\frac{1}{11,230}$ 

 $\frac{1}{11,230}$ 

 $11,230$  1,350

 $11,230$   $1,350$ 

11,560 1,350

11,560 1,350

11,560 1,350

11,560 1,512<br>11,560 1,512

 $11,560$   $1,512$ 

11,890 1,350

11,890 1,350

11,890 1,350

 $\overline{11,890}$   $\overline{1,512}$ 





**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]**

13,870 1,512

14,200 1,350<br>14,200 1,350<br>14,200 1,350

 $14,200$  1,512

14,200 1,512

14,530 1,350

14,530 1,350<br>14,530 1,350<br>14,530 1,350

14,530 1,350

 $\frac{1}{14,530}$ 

14,530

14,860

14,860

14,860

 $\frac{1}{14,200}$ 

 $14,200$ 

14,200





**[m] [m] [m]**

10,100 17,170 1,350

9,900 17,170 1,512

14,100 17,500 1,350

6,100 17,500 1,350

14,100 17,500 1,512

10,000 17,830 1,350

13,900 17,830 1,512

6,000 17,500

 $-2,100$  17,500





**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]** 19,810 1,350 19,810 1,350 19,810 1,350 19,810 1,350<br>19,810 1,350

19,810 1,512<br>19,810 1,512

19,810 1,512<br>19,810 1,512

19,810 1,512

19,810 1,512<br>19,810 1,512<br>19,810 1,512

19,810 1,512<br>19,810 1,512

19,810 1,512<br>20,140 1,350

20,140 1,350<br>20,140 1,350

 $20,140$  1,350 1,350  $20,140$  1,350 1,350  $\overline{20,140}$  1,350 20,140 1,350<br>20,140 1,350

20,140 1,350<br>20,140 1,350

20,140 1,350<br>20,140 1,350

20,140 1,350<br>20,140 1,512

1,512<br>20,140 1,512 20,140 1,512<br>1,512<br>20,140 1,512

20,140 1,512<br>20,140 1,512

20,140 1,512<br>20,140 1,512

1,512<br>20,140 1,512

20,470 1,350 1,350 1,350 1,350 1,350 1,350 1,350 20,470 1,350<br>20,470 1,350

 $20,470$  1,350 1,350 20,470 1,350 1,350 1,350

20,470 1,350<br>20,470 1,512<br>20,470 1,512

20,470 1,512 1,350  $\overline{20,800}$  1,350 20,800 1,350

19,810

19,810

19,810

 $19,810$ 

 $19,810$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $\frac{1}{20,140}$ 

 $\overline{20,140}$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $\frac{1}{20,140}$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $20,140$ 

 $\frac{1}{20,470}$ 

 $20,470$ 

 $\frac{1}{20,470}$ 

 $20,470$ 

20,470

20,470





**[m] [m] [m]**

 $\frac{1}{9,900}$  22,780 1,350<br>10,100 22,780 1,350 10,100 22,780 1,350<br>6,000 22,780 1,350 22,780







**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]**

1,512

25,420 1,512<br>25,420 1,512

25,750

 $25,750$ 

N34587 1,900 25,750 1,350

N34589 -2,000 25,750 1,350 25,750 1,350<br>25,750 1,350

1,350

1,350

1,350 1,350 26,080 1,350<br>26,080 1,350

1,512

26,080 1,512<br>26,080 1,512<br>26,080 1,512

26,080 1,512<br>26,080 1,512

26,080 1,512<br>26,080 1,512

1,350 26,410 1,350 26,410 1,350 1,350

26,080

26,080

26,080

26,080

26,410





**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]** 1,900 28,060 1,512  $-1,900$  28,060 1,512  $-2,100$  28,060 1,512 14,000 28,390 1,350<br>13,900 28,390 1,350

14,100 28,390 1,350 10,000 28,390 1,350 9,900 28,390 1,350 10,100 28,390 1,350 6,000 28,390 1,350 1,350<br>  $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\n 5,900 & 28,390 & 1,350 \\
 \hline\n 6,100 & 28,390 & 1,350\n \end{array}$ 28,390 2,000 28,390 1,350<br>1,900 28,390 1,350

2,100 28,390 1,350<br>-2,000 28,390 1,350

 $-2,100$  28,390 1,350  $-1,900$  28,390 1,350 14,100 28,390 1,512<br>13,900 28,390 1,512

10,100 28,390 1,512 9,900 28,390 1,512 N34796 6,100 28,390 1,512  $5,900$  28,390 1,512 N34798 2,100 28,390 1,512 1,900 28,390 1,512<br>-1,900 28,390 1,512  $\frac{1}{28,390}$ 1,512<br>14,000 28,720 1,512<br>1,350 14,000 28,720 1,350 13,900 28,720 1,350 14,100 28,720 1,350<br>10,000 28,720 1,350 10,000 28,720 1,350 9,900 28,720 1,350 10,100 28,720 1,350 6,000 28,720 1,350<br>5,900 28,720 1,350

 $\overline{13,900}$  28,390

 $\overline{1,900}$  28,390

 $-2,000$  28,390

 $13,900$  28,390

 $\overline{5,900}$  28,720

 $\overline{10,000}$  29,050

 $-2,000$  29,050

13,900

9,900 29,050 1,350<br>10,100 29,050 1,350 10,100 29,050 1,350  $6,000$  29,050 1,350 N34826 5,900 29,050 1,350  $6,100$  29,050 1,350 2,000 29,050 1,350<br>1,900 29,050 1,350 29,050 2,100 29,050 1,350<br>-2,000 29,050 1,350

 $-2,100$  29,050 1,350  $-1,900$  29,050 1,350 14,100 29,050 1,512<br>13,900 29,050 1,512

10,100 29,050 1,512 9,900 29,050 1,512 6,100 29,050 1,512 N34839 5,900 29,050 1,512 2,100 29,050 1,512 1,900 29,050 1,512

6,100 28,720 1,350 2,000 28,720 1,350 1,900 28,720 1,350 2,100 28,720 1,350  $-2,000$   $28,720$   $1,350$  $-2,100$  28,720 1,350  $-1,900$  28,720 1,350 14,100 28,720 1,512  $-2,100$  28,720 1,512 14,000 29,050 1,350 13,900 29,050 1,350 14,100 29,050 1,350<br>10,000 29,050 1,350





**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z**

 $1,512$ 

 $1,512$ 

 $1,512$ 

 $1,350$ 

 $1,350$ 

 $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 

1,350 1,350

 $\overline{1,512}$ 

 $1,512$ 

 $1,512$ 

1,350

 $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 

1,350

 $1,350$ 

 $1,350$ 

 $1,350$ 

1,350

1,350

1,350

 $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 

 $\overline{1,350}$ 1,350

 $0,000$ 







**Name Coord X Coord Y Coord Z [m] [m] [m]** 1,350 1,350  $\frac{1}{1,350}$  $1,350$  $1,350$ 1,350 1,350 1,350  $\frac{1}{1,350}$  $\frac{1,350}{}$ 1,350 1,350  $1,350$  $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 1,350  $0,000$  $1,512$ 1,512  $0,000$  $1,512$  $1,512$  $0,000$  $\overline{1,512}$  $1,512$  $0,000$ 1,512  $\frac{1}{1,512}$  $0,000$  $1,512$  $\overline{1,512}$  $\frac{1}{1,350}$  $\frac{1}{350}$ 1,350

> $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 1,350  $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 1,350 1,350  $\overline{1,350}$ 1,350  $1,350$ 1,350  $1,350$  $1,512$  $1,512$  $1,350$  $\frac{1}{1,350}$  $1,350$ 1,350 1,350  $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 1,350 1,350 1,350 1,350  $\frac{1}{1,350}$ 1,350  $\frac{1}{1,350}$  $1,350$  $1,350$  $0,000$  $1,512$  $1,512$  $0,000$  $1,512$













#### **2.4. Nonlinear functions**



Drawing

of the



### **2.5. Nodal supports**



# **3. Loads**

# **3.1. Free point load**





<u>т</u>



**Explanations of symbols**

Load case Verkeerslast Midspan

# **3.2. Load cases**

 $\frac{y}{x}$ Z

# **3.2.1. Load cases - BG2**







 $\frac{y}{x}$ Z

# **3.2.2. Load cases - BG3**







 $\frac{y}{x}$ Z

### **3.2.3. Load cases - BG4**







# **3.2.4. Load cases - BG5**







#### **3.2.5. Load cases - BG6**







### **3.2.6. Load cases - BG7**







 $\frac{y}{x}$ Z

### **3.2.7. Load cases - BG8**







### **3.2.8. Load cases - BG9**





# **4. Results**

### **4.1. Shear Connector Forces - SLS**

### **4.1.1. Combinations**



### **4.1.2. 1D internal forces; V\_y**



### **4.2. Deformation - SLS**

#### **4.2.1. Combinations**





#### **4.2.2. 3D displacement; u\_z**

Values: uz Linear calculation Combination: SLS Midspan<br>Selection: S28006..S28009, S5..S12 Location: In nodes avg. on macro. System: LCS mesh element





#### **4.3. Steel Stress - ULS**

#### **4.3.1. Nonlinear combinations**





# **4.3.2. 3D stress; σ\_x (1D/2D)**

Values:  $\sigma_x$  (1D/2D)<br>Nonlinear calculation NonLinear Combi: NC Midspan LM1 Selection: All Filter: Cross-section = CS3 - Iwn (2058; 14; 300; 20; 660; 38; 2000; 8) Location: In nodes avg. on macro. System: LCS mesh element Basic magnitudes





#### **4.4. Concrete Stress - ULS**

### **4.4.1. Nonlinear combinations**




#### **4.4.2. 2D stress/strain; σ\_x+**



#### **4.5. Shear Connector Forces - ULS**

#### **4.5.1. Nonlinear combinations**





#### **4.5.2. 1D internal forces; V\_y**



#### **4.6. Steel Stress - FLS 4.6.1. 3D stress; σ\_x (1D/2D)**

Values:  $\sigma_x$  (1D/2D)

X Y Z

Linear calculation Load case: BG3 Selection: All Filter: Cross-section = CS3 - Iwn (2058; 14; 300; 20; 660; 38; 2000; 8) Location: In nodes avg. on macro. System: LCS mesh element **Basic magnitudes** 



#### **4.7. Shear Keys - ULS**

#### **4.7.1. Combinations - ULS LM2**



#### **4.7.2. 2D stress/strain; τ\_yz**



#### **4.7.3. Combinations - ULS LM2 min**





## G

Drawings Report - Steel Girder Connection



## **Project item Steel-Steel\_Shear plate**

### **Design**



#### **Bill of material**

#### **Manufacturing operations**





#### **Welds**



#### **Bolts**



#### **Drawing**

#### **SPL1 - SPL1a**

#### **P19,0x660-1000 (S 355)**





#### **SPL1 - SPL1b**

**P19,0x307-1000 (S 355)**



#### **SPL1 - SPL1c**

**P19,0x307-1000 (S 355)**





#### **SPL3 - SPL3a**

**P12,0x1900-1000 (S 355)**



**SPL3 - SPL3b**

**P12,0x1900-1000 (S 355)**





#### **SPL4**

**P6,0x300-690 (S 355)**



**B1, Iwn2058x(300/660) - Top flange 1:**



**B1, Iwn2058x(300/660) - Bottom flange 1:**





#### **B1, Iwn2058x(300/660) - Web 1:**



**B2, Iwn2058x(300/660) - Top flange 1:**



**B2, Iwn2058x(300/660) - Bottom flange 1:**





### **B2, Iwn2058x(300/660) - Web 1:**



## H

## Cost Calculations

<span id="page-192-0"></span>Table [H.1](#page-192-0) lists the data used for the calculation of the costs. The costs are estimates made by cost experts from Sweco. Included are the raw material costs, production costs, transportation costs and assembly costs.





\* *Based on assembly of 40 connectors per hour*

# I

## Tables

Connector type	Preload	$P_{el}$	$k_{el}$
	[kN]	[kN]	[kN/mm]
<b>HSFGB</b>	240	81	560
Cylinder	240	81	250
ECD (no resin)	240	81	70
ECD (iSRR)		77	224

**Table I.1:** Input shear connectors for SLS analysis



