

Resilience-based Seismic Design Optimization of typical Highway RC Bridges by Response Surface Method and NSGA-II Algorithm

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1 Resilience-based seismic design optimization of typical 2 highway RC bridges by response surface method and 3 NSGA-II algorithm

4 Sicong Hu¹, Baokui Chen¹, Guquan Song¹, Lianhua Wang^{2,3}

5 Abstract

6 To maximize the seismic performance and minimize the material cost of the typical highway
7 reinforced concrete (RC) bridges, a resilience-based multi-objective optimal seismic design
8 method is proposed in this study. The size of elastomeric bearings and the cross-section
9 arrangement of RC piers are chosen as the design parameters. To improve the accuracy and
10 efficiency, the nonlinear time history analysis (NTHA) based cloud analysis approach is
11 associated with the response surface method (RSM) to obtain the seismic resilience during the
12 seismic optimization process. Moreover, the optimization problem is solved through an
13 improved version of non-dominated sorting genetic algorithm (NSGA-II) algorithm.
14 Following, the proposed method is applied to a typical highway RC bridge, and the optimal
15 design schemes are determined from the Pareto optimal solutions. The results show that the
16 resilience response surface model can be used to accurately predict the seismic resilience of
17 bridges. The proposed method can adjust the damage grades of various components by
18 considering the contribution of various components, entailing the minimization of material cost
19 and the maximization of seismic resilience.

20 **Key words:** Seismic design optimization; Resilience; RC bridges; Elastomeric bearings;
21 Response surface method; NSGA-II.

22 1. Introduction

23 Highway bridges play a vital role in the sustainable economic growth and social development.
24 In the past two decades, numerous typical highway RC bridges with similar arrangements are
25 constructed in highway system all over the world. Many of them located in high seismic areas

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26 and required to retain sufficient capacity to withstand a disastrous earthquake. Unfortunately,
27 various bridges were found to suffer damage, which results in the considerable aggravated
28 casualties and economic loss (Basoz and Kiremidjian 1998; Wang and Lee 2009). In fact,
29 unreasonable seismic design is an important factor causing the damage of these bridges during
30 earthquakes. As is well known, the current seismic design guidance doesn't provide the
31 selection of structural alternatives and optimization procedures (Verma and Priestley 1990).
32 Therefore, the design scheme has to be initially tried based on the designer's experience. If the
33 seismic response does not meet the performance target, the design scheme need to be repeatedly
34 revised. In this case, the efficiency of the highly iterative trial-and-error design procedure is
35 strongly sensitive to the professional level and experience of the designer (Sung and Su 2010).
36 By contrast, the optimization seismic design provides a method to obtain the elaborate scheme
37 by using the optimization algorithm. It can solve the deficiency of the current seismic design
38 method and is widely recognized as a valuable tool to perform the cost-effective designs
39 (Papavasileiou and Charnpis 2016). In the past, many studies in the seismic engineering have
40 focused on the transition from the conventional seismic design approach to the optimization
41 seismic design method. Moverover, different performance indicators have been defined as the
42 optimization objectives to propose a more comprehensive and reasonable description of
43 seismic performance. In this respect, the conventional performance indicators, i.e., inner force,
44 ductility level/deformation, were often adopted in the early stages (Verma and Priestley 1990;
45 Sung and Su 2010; Li and Li 2018; Fazli and Pakbaz 2018). With the rapid development of the
46 performance-based seismic design, the damage-based indicators, i.e., damage probability and
47 seismic damage risk, were considered in the seismic optimal design (Xie and Zhang 2018;
48 Gholizadeh and Fattahi 2019).

49 Recently, the seismic resilience has been attracted more and more attention in the seismic
50 performance assessment of bridges (Bruneau et al. 2003; Dong and Frangopol 2016; Pang et
51 al. 2020; Fu et al. 2020). Generally, the resilience describes the capability of a system to
52 withstand the effects of extreme events and to recover the pre-event performance and
53 functionality promptly and efficiently (Bruneau et al. 2003). It is a comprehensive
54 performance-based assessment content and becoming a driving concept for the new generation
55 of structural design codes (Dong and Frangopol 2016). Bocchini et al. (2014) proposed a
56 resilience-based framework to determine the seismic optimal retrofit prioritization of damage
57 bridges distributed along a highway connection between two cities. Dong et al. (2015) utilized
58 the genetic optimization algorithm to obtain the optimal retrofit action for each bridge within
59 an existing bridge network. Liu et al. (2020) proposed a bi-objective optimization model to

60 search for non-dominated optimal restoration schedules based on the recovery trajectory.
61 Overall, the previous studies focus on the optimal restoration sequence of bridges in the
62 transportation networks. Whereas, there has been limited study pay attention to the resilience-
63 based optimal design of an individual bridge.

64 On the other hand, the determination of seismic response is a critical issue in the seismic design
65 optimization. Theoretically, NTHA is the most reliable tool to evaluate the seismic response of
66 structures. However, it was proved to be time-consuming and impractical in the seismic
67 optimization (Rojas et al. 2011). Therefore, the nonlinear static analysis is adopted to improve
68 the efficiency of optimization in many past studies (Verma and Priestley 1990; Sung and Su
69 2010; Papavasileiou and Charmpis 2016; Li and Li 2018; Fazli and Pakbaz 2018). However,
70 only first mode-dominated multi degree of freedom system can be considered in the nonlinear
71 static analysis. Recently, Mokarram and Banan (Mokarram and Banan 2018) utilized the
72 pushover analysis to preliminary screen the feasible solutions and then used the NTHA to
73 determine the accurate seismic response. Although the approach can accurately obtain the
74 seismic response of structures, the pushover analysis still has an important influence on the
75 selection of the optimal solution. Obviously, the further development of seismic optimization
76 design highly depends on the availability of technology to deal with expensive optimization
77 problems.

78 Addressing the existing drawbacks and catering to present needs, the main contribution of this
79 work is comprehensively presenting a complete and efficiency framework of the resilience-
80 based seismic design optimization for the typical highway RC bridges. The resilience response
81 surface model is proposed to predict the seismic resilience of bridges during the optimization
82 process, and the NTHA based cloud analysis approach is applied to develop the resilience
83 response surface model. Moreover, this paper is organized as follows. Sect. 2 describes the
84 seismic resilience method of bridges. In Sect. 3, we present the design parameters, objective
85 functions and constraint conditions. The seismic optimal design procedure of RC bridge is
86 proposed in Sect. 4. Subsequently, the details of the case study bridge are described in Sect. 5.
87 Furthermore, the finite element model is developed and the ground motions are selected. Sect.
88 6 presents the seismic fragility analysis and seismic resilience analysis of the case study bridge.
89 Then, the design optimization results are presented and discussed in Sect. 7. Sect. 8 concludes
90 the paper with some final remarks.

91 **2. Seismic resilience method**

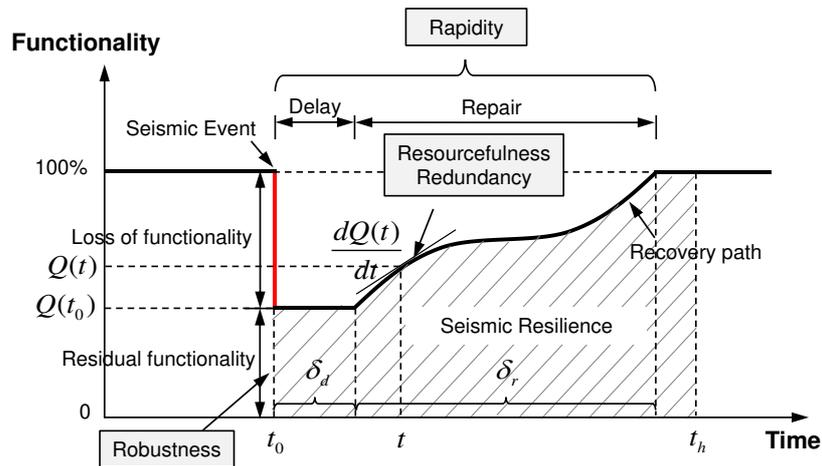
92 Overall, the seismic resilience can be calculated from the normalized area under the
 93 functionality curve, as shown in Fig. 1. The occurrence of a seismic event at time t_0 may cause
 94 a sudden loss of the bridge functionality. After experienced a delay time δ_d , the functionality
 95 of the damaged bridge can be recovered through the post-event restoration activities in the
 96 recovery time δ_r . In this case, the seismic resilience is associated with four attributes:
 97 robustness, rapidity, redundancy and resourcefulness (Anwar 2020). Considering all attributes
 98 together, the seismic resilience of an individual bridge can be defined as:

99
$$RS|IM = \frac{1}{t_h - t_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_h} [Q(t) | IM] dt, \quad (1)$$

100 where IM is the specific intensity measure of ground motions; t_h represents the investigated
 101 time; $Q(t)$ represents the functionality of a individual bridge under a specify recovery path at
 102 time t , which can be obtained by cumulating the residual functionality under different damage
 103 states:

104
$$Q(t) | IM = \sum_{i=0}^4 Q_{DS_i}(t) | IM, \quad (2)$$

105 where DS_i is the damage state (i.e., DS_0 denotes no damage, DS_1 denotes the slight damage,
 106 DS_2 denotes the moderate damage, DS_3 denotes the extensive damage and DS_4 denotes the
 107 complete damage **Error! Reference source not found.**).



108
 109 Fig. 1 Schematic representation of seismic resilience

110 Bridge functionality under different damage states can be quantified by mapping the current
 111 damage state to a functionality value between 0 and 1. Specifically, the bridge functionality
 112 under different damage states at t_0 can be written as:

113
$$Q_{DS_i}(t_0) | IM = 1 - (P_{DS_i} | IM - P_{DS_{i+1}} | IM) \times C_{DS_i}, \quad (3)$$

114 where $P_{DS_i} | IM$ and $P_{DS_{i+1}} | IM$ are the exceedance probability of a bridge at different damage
 115 states; C_{DS_i} is the functionality loss ratio associated with different damage states.
 116 Subsequently, the functionality of a bridge at the specific time t can be determined as follows:

117
$$Q_{DS_i}(t) | IM = Q_{DS_i}(t_0) | IM + H(\tau) \times f(\tau) \times [Q_{DS_i}(t_h) | IM - Q_{DS_i}(t_0) | IM], \quad (4)$$

118 where $\tau = (t - t_0 - \delta_d) / \delta_r \in [0, 1]$ is a normalized time variable; $H(\tau)$ is the Heaviside unit
 119 step function; $f(\tau) \in [0, 1]$ is the recovery models.

120 Strictly speaking, the recovery process is related to the resources available after the seismic
 121 event and the role of the damaged components in the system performance (Biondini 2015).
 122 However, the following models are commonly applied to approximately reflect the recovery
 123 process (Dong and Frangopol 2016; Pang et al. 2020; Fu et al. 2020):

124
$$f(\tau) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-k\tau} & \text{slight damage} \\ [1 - \cos(\pi\tau)]/2 & \text{moderate damage} \\ e^{-k(1-\tau)} & \text{extensive/ complete damage} \end{cases}, \quad (5)$$

125 where k is a shape parameter.

126 On the other hand, the exceedance probability of a bridge at each damage state $P_{DS_i} | IM$ can be
 127 described by the seismic fragility functions. Overall, the seismic fragility function is defined
 128 as the conditional probability of the seismic demand exceeding the seismic demand. If we
 129 assume that the seismic demand and seismic capacity follow lognormal distributions, the
 130 seismic fragility function can be expressed as (Nielson and DesRoches 2007):

131
$$P_{DS_i} | IM = P[S_D > S_{C,DS_i} | IM] = \Phi \left[\frac{\ln(\overline{S_D} / \overline{S_{C,DS_i}})}{\sqrt{\beta_D^2 + \beta_{C,DS_i}^2}} \middle| IM \right], \quad (6)$$

132 where S_D is the structural seismic demand for the specific IM ; S_{C,DS_i} is the structural seismic
 133 capacity corresponding to the given DS_i ; $\overline{S_D}$ and $\overline{S_{C,DS_i}}$ represent the median estimate of the
 134 seismic demand and seismic capacity, respectively; β_D and β_{C,DS_i} represent the standard
 135 deviation of the seismic demand and seismic capacity, respectively; $\Phi[\cdot]$ is the standard
 136 normal cumulative distribution function.

137 Theoretically, $\overline{S_{C,DS_i}}$ and β_{C,DS_i} can be obtained by the probability seismic capacity model
 138 (PSCM). The probability seismic demand model (PSDM) can be develop to determine the
 139 relationship between $\overline{S_D}$ and IM as follows:

140
$$\overline{S_D} = a \ln(IM) + b, \quad (7)$$

141 where a and b are the regression coefficients. Moreover, the standard deviation of seismic
142 demand β_D can be determined as follows:

$$143 \quad \beta_D = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{m=1}^N [\ln(S_{D,m}) - \ln(aIM_m^b)]^2}{N - 2}}, \quad (8)$$

144 where $S_{D,m}$ is the actual seismic demand for a given IM ; N is the number of simulations.
145 According to the method, the NTHA based cloud analysis approach is applied to obtain the
146 seismic fragility functions of bridge components. In this approach, a series of nonlinear time
147 history analysis is performed using a set of unscaled ground motion records. A set of IM values
148 and their associated seismic demand values of each component can be obtained and the PSDM
149 can be determined by the regression analysis. Based on the PSDMs, the fragility functions of
150 bridge components can be developed. Furthermore, the joint probabilistic seismic demand
151 models (JPSDMs) are developed using the vector of seismic response mean of each component
152 and the correlation coefficient matrix of seismic response of different components (Nielson
153 and DesRoches 2007; Choi et al. 2004). Using the seismic capacities and JPSDMs, the Monte
154 Carlo simulation is adopted to obtain random samples of the seismic capacity and seismic
155 demand of bridge systems at different IMs for each damage state. The number of damage
156 samples is counted and a regression analysis is applied to estimate the seismic fragility
157 functions of bridge systems.

158 **3. Seismic optimization model**

159 **3.1 Optimization parameters**

160 The type of highway RC bridges that shown in fig 2 is widely used in the transportation network
161 owing to its simple structure and easy construction. Overall, the pier is designed to have double
162 circular columns and a bent. Moreover, the elastomeric bearings and the PTFE elastomeric
163 bearings are respectively arranged at the top of the bents and abutments to balance the internal
164 force and deformation. Obviously, the cross-section arrangement of the piers and the sizes of
165 the elastomeric bearings play an important role in the seismic performance of bridge. In this
166 respect, the following five parameters can be chosen as the optimization parameters: the total
167 thickness of rubber layers in elastomeric bearings T_e , the rubber area of elastomeric bearings
168 A_e , the diameter of piers D , the longitudinal reinforcement ratio of piers ρ_s and the volumetric
169 ratio of transverse reinforcement ρ_h .

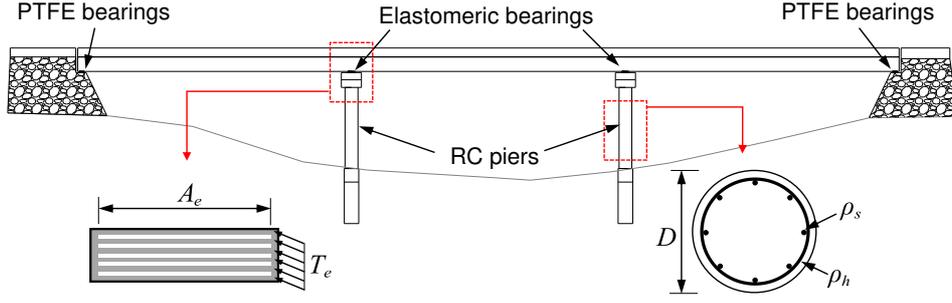


Fig. 2 Optimization parameters of the typical RC bridge

3.2 Objective functions

In general, the primary objective of seismic optimization is to minimize the material cost and maximize the seismic performance. In this study, the seismic resilience of bridge system is adopted to quantify the seismic performance of bridges, and the total material cost of the RC piers and elastomeric bearings are used to roughly describe the material cost of bridges. In this case, the objective functions can be expressed as:

$$\begin{cases} \text{Maximize } RS|IM_D(T_e, A_e, D, \rho_s, \rho_h) \\ \text{Minimize } C(T_e, A_e, D, \rho_s, \rho_h) \end{cases}, \quad (9)$$

where $RS|IM_D$ is the seismic resilience of bridge systems under a design intensity level (IM_D) earthquake; C is the total material cost of the RC piers and elastomeric bearings, which can be determined as:

$$C = C_{Bearing} + C_{Pier} = C_{Bearing} + (c_c + c_h \rho_h + c_s \rho_s) V_c, \quad (10)$$

where $C_{Bearing}$ and C_{Pier} are the material cost of the elastomeric bearings and RC piers, respectively; V_c is the volume of concrete in a pier; c_c , c_h , c_s are the material cost per volume of concrete, longitudinal reinforcement and transverse reinforcement, respectively.

3.3 Constraint conditions

In order to ensure the optimization parameters satisfy the project requirements and design standards, the following constraint conditions should be considered during the optimization process.

(1) Piers

The shear capacity of the RC piers V should satisfy the following conditions to avoid the brittle failure (MOHURD 2011):

$$V = 0.85(V_c + V_s)/1.2 \geq V_y, \quad (11)$$

194 where V_y is the seismic shear demand of the RC piers; V_c and V_s are the concrete and
 195 reinforcement contribution to the shear capacity, respectively. They can be determined as
 196 follows:

$$197 \quad V_c = 0.085A_g \times \min \left[\lambda \left(1 + \frac{P}{1.38A_g} \right) \sqrt{f_c}, 0.335\sqrt{f_c}, 1.47\lambda\sqrt{f_c} \right], \quad (12)$$

$$198 \quad V_s = \min (0.05\sqrt{f_c} A_g \rho_h f_{yh}, 0.064\sqrt{f_c} A_g), \quad (13)$$

199 where A_g is the gross area of cross section; λ is the coefficient related to the displacement
 200 ductility ratio; P is the lowest axial force of piers; f_c is the concrete compressive strength;
 201 f_{yh} is the yield strength of transverse reinforcement.

202 Moreover, the longitudinal reinforcement ratio and the volumetric ratio of transverse
 203 reinforcement of RC piers should satisfy the following conditions:

$$204 \quad \begin{cases} \rho_{h,\min} \leq \rho \leq \rho_{h,\max} \\ \rho_{s,\min} \leq \rho \leq \rho_{s,\max} \end{cases}, \quad (14)$$

205 where $\rho_{h,\min}$ and $\rho_{s,\min}$ are the minimum requirement of reinforcements; $\rho_{h,\max}$ and $\rho_{s,\max}$
 206 are the maximum allowable values of reinforcements.

207 (2) Elastomeric bearings

208 In order to provide appropriate load and movement capacities at the service limit state, the area
 209 of the elastomeric bearings and the total thickness of the rubber layers should satisfy the
 210 following conditions (HPDIMC 2018):

$$211 \quad \begin{cases} A_e \geq \frac{R_b}{\sigma_r} \\ T_e \geq 2\Delta t \end{cases}, \quad (15)$$

212 where R_b is the maximum vertical reaction force of the elastomeric bearing at the service limit
 213 state; σ_r and Δt are the allowable compression stress and shear deformation of the elastomeric
 214 bearings, respectively.

215 Generally, the above constraint conditions are handled by using the penalty functions method
 216 in this study. Therefore, the penalized objective function F_p can be defined as follows:

$$217 \quad F_p = F + \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \delta_k, \quad (16)$$

218 where F is the unpenalized objective function, see Eq. (9); α_k is the penalty parameter
 219 imposed for violation of constraint functions; $\delta_k = \begin{cases} g_k & \text{if } g_k > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } g_k \leq 0 \end{cases}$ is a violation factor for
 220 the k constraint functions; g_k is the constraint function.

221 4. Seismic optimal design method

222 4.1 Response surface method

223 Theoretically, the objective function values of samples should be iteratively calculated during
224 the optimization process. Therefore, determining the objective function quickly is critical to
225 improving the efficiency of optimization. As mentioned, the material cost can be simplify
226 calculated via Eq. (10). Whereas, the seismic resilience analysis includes large scale nonlinear
227 time history analysis, which will result in an inefficient multi-objective optimization process.
228 To solve this problem, the RSM is applied to establish the relationship between the seismic
229 resilience of bridge systems and optimization parameters in this study. In this case, the seismic
230 resilience can be obtained from the resilience response surface model instead of the full process
231 seismic resilience analysis.

232 As a statistical method, the RSM can establish a prediction model via the multivariate nonlinear
233 regression. According to this method, the seismic resilience can be described as follows:

$$234 RS = \widehat{RS} + \varepsilon = \mathbf{a}\mathbf{X} + \varepsilon, \quad (17)$$

235 where \widehat{RS} is the approximate seismic resilience; \mathbf{a} represents the vector of the regression
236 coefficients; $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$ represents the vector of the design parameters; ε is the
237 residual error.

238 For the practical engineering applications, a second-order polynomial function with the cross
239 terms is adequate and appropriate to represent their structural performance functions.
240 Therefore, the estimated resilience response surface model can be expressed by Eq. (18).

$$241 \widehat{RS} = a_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i+1}^n a_{ij} X_i X_j, \quad (18)$$

242 where a_i and a_{ij} are the regression coefficients.

243 It should be pointed out that the coefficients of response surface model should be determined
244 by performing a set of experiment runs. Therefore, it is important to select appropriate sample
245 points to represent the characteristics of the actual function in the whole design space. In this
246 respect, the central composite design (CCD) is a type of design of experiments techniques,
247 which provides the needed basis for selecting sample points (Box and Wilson 1951). For the
248 two-level three-factorial design, the CCD consists of 20 experimental runs with 6 at central
249 point, 6 at axial point and 8 at factorial point, as shown in Fig. 3. For these points, factor values
250 are usually rescaled (coded): factorial points= ± 1 , centre points= 0, and axial points= $\pm a$ (one
251 factor) and 0 (the other factor).

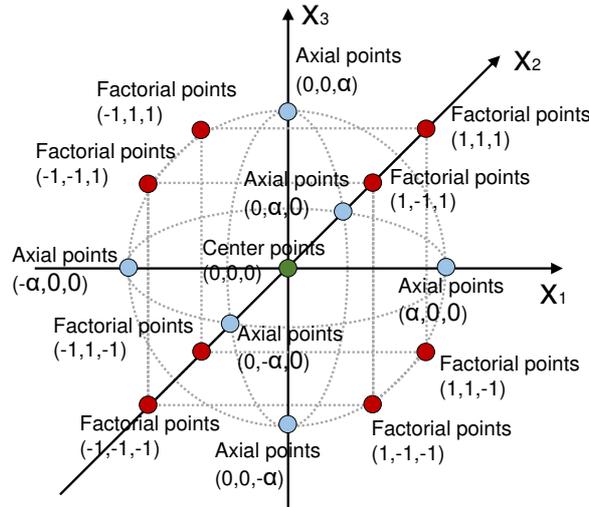


Fig. 3 Design points of central composite design method

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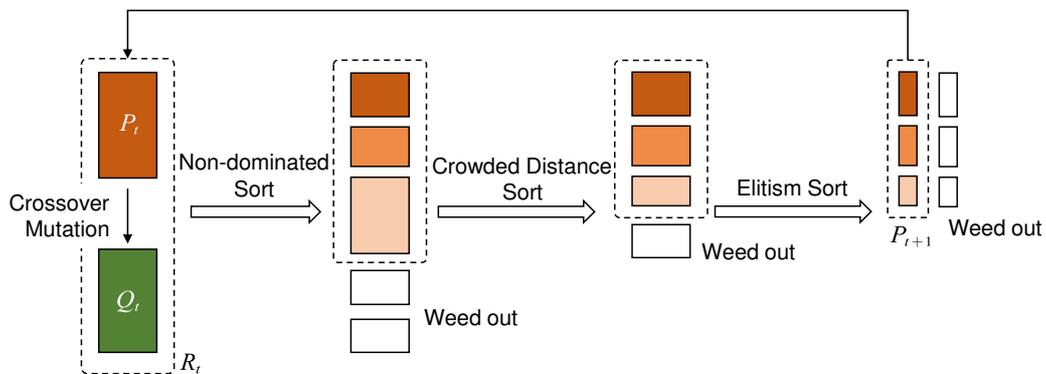
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254 Based on the seismic resilience of each sample point, the regression coefficients in Eq. (18)
 255 can be estimated by the least squares estimators. Then, an estimated response surface model
 256 should be validated to check its accuracy and reliability for the further applications. Generally,
 257 the determination coefficient R^2 , adjusted determination coefficient R_{adj}^2 and the root mean
 258 square of errors RMSE are used herein for the validation.

259 4.2 NSGA-II algorithm

260 Overall, five optimization parameters and two objective functions are included in the proposed
 261 optimization model. Therefore, it is a multi-objective optimization process. Unlike the single-
 262 objective optimization can determinate the single solution, the multi-objective optimization
 263 usually obtains an optimal solution set, which is called the Pareto optimal solutions. In this
 264 study, the multi-objective optimization is executed by the NSGA-II algorithm (Deb et al. 2002).

265



266

Fig. 4 Flowchart of the NSGA-II method

267 Fig.4 shows the principle of NSGA-II algorithm. Generally, the initial population is randomly
268 generated and is sorted based on the non-domination level and the crowded distance metric.
269 Then, the first generation population is obtained through the genetic operations, i.e., selection,
270 crossover and mutation. From the second generation, the parent population and the child
271 population are simultaneously merged to perform the fast non-dominated sorting, crowded
272 distance sort and elitism sort. Subsequently, individuals with better fitness are selected to
273 generate new parent population. Finally, the genetic operations are repeatedly applied to
274 produce new offspring populations until the end of the simulation yields the Pareto solutions.

275 **4.3 Seismic optimal design process**

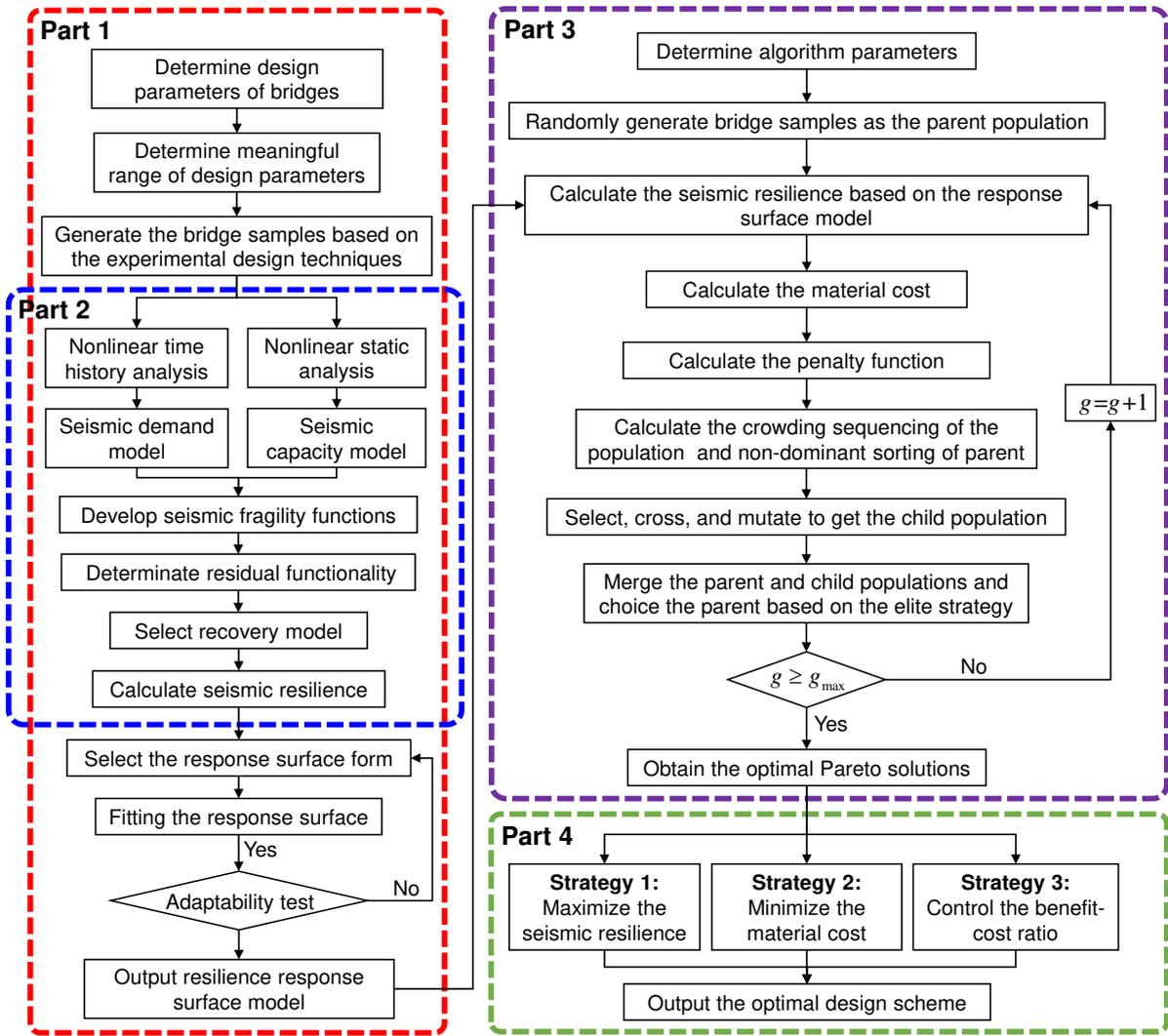
276 Based on the resilience response surface model and the NSGA-II algorithm, the resilience-
277 based seismic optimization design process of bridges are summarized in Fig. 5. Overall, four
278 main parts are included in the process:

279 *Part 1: Develop resilience response surface model.* According to the engineering
280 practices, the meaningful ranges of design parameters are firstly determined. Then, the
281 bridge samples including various design parameters are generated via the CCD method,
282 and the seismic resilience analysis is performed (Part. 2). Finally, the resilience response
283 surface model is developed by fitting the seismic resilience data points of all bridge
284 samples (Eq. (18)).

285 *Part 2: Perform seismic resilience analysis.* The seismic demand and seismic capacity of
286 bridge components are determined by the nonlinear time history analysis and nonlinear
287 static analysis, respectively. Then, the seismic fragility functions are developed by
288 comparing the seismic demand and seismic capacity (Eqs. (6)~(8)). Following, the
289 damage probabilities of bridges suffering the design level earthquake are obtained and the
290 residual functionalities of damage bridges are determined via Eqs. (2) and (3). Moreover,
291 the functionality recovery process of damage bridges can be determined via Eqs. (4) and
292 (5). Finally, the seismic resilience of bridge can be obtained by Eq. (1).

293 *Part 3: Obtain Pareto optimal solutions.* The parameters of NSGA-II algorithm are firstly
294 determined. Then, the bridge samples are randomly generated and are regarded as the
295 initial population. The material cost of bridge samples are calculated by Eq. (10) and the
296 seismic resilience of bridge samples are determined by the resilience response surface
297 model. Moreover, the constraint conditions are judged and the penalized objective
298 functions are calculated by Eq. (16). Finally, the NSGA-II algorithm is performed to
299 obtain the Pareto optimal solutions.

300 *Part 4: Determine optimal design scheme.* The optimal design scheme can be finally
 301 determined from the Pareto optimal solutions by considering the specific optimization
 302 strategies. Overall, three individual optimal strategies are proposed in this study:
 303 Strategy 1 maximizes the seismic resilience of bridge without increasing the material
 304 cost; Strategy 2 maintains the seismic resilience of bridge and minimizes the material
 305 cost; Strategy 3 controls the benefit cost ratio (BCR) no less than a specific proportion of
 306 the maximum BCR in the Pareto optimal solution set.

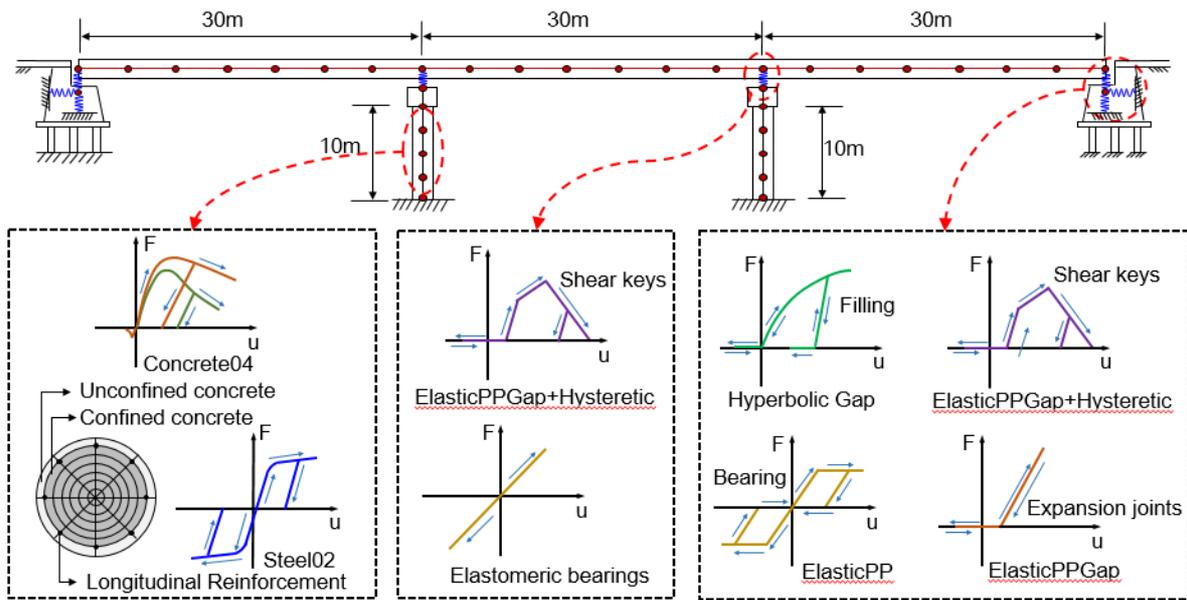


307
 308 Fig. 5 Flow chart of the resilience-based seismic optimization design process of RC bridges using
 309 RSM and NSGA-II

310 5. Case study bridge

311 In this study, a continuous RC bridge with spans of $3 \times 30\text{m}$ is selected as the case study, as
 312 shown in Fig. 6. The width and height of the deck are 13.25m and 1.6m, respectively. The
 313 substructure is made up of two abutments and four piers. The height and diameter of piers are

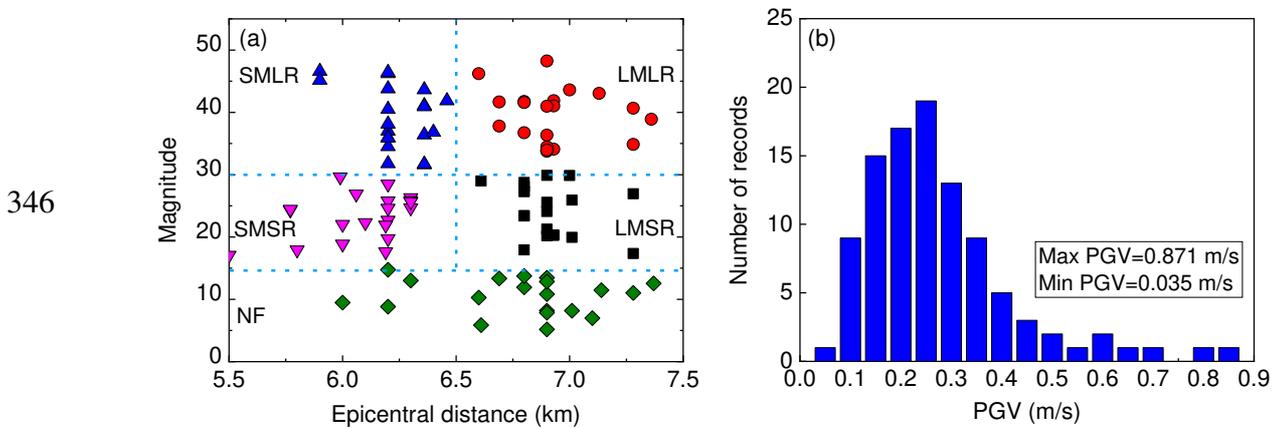
314 10m and 1.4m, respectively. The concrete strengths of the substructure and superstructure are
 315 30MPa and 50MPa, respectively. The piers are reinforced by the HRB335 longitudinal
 316 reinforcement and spiral hoop. Both of the longitudinal reinforcement ratio and the volumetric
 317 ratio of transverse reinforcement are 1.5%. Meanwhile, eight elastomeric bearings are installed
 318 at the top of each bent, and eight PTFE elastomeric bearings are located on the top of each
 319 abutment. The total thickness of the rubber layers in the elastomeric bearings is 0.1m and the
 320 area of the elastomeric bearings is 0.1m². The shear strength of the elastomeric bearings is
 321 10MPa. Moreover, the concrete shear keys are set up at the transverse direction of the bridge.



322
 323 Fig. 6 Schematic and finite element model of the case study bridge

324 The nonlinear finite element model of the case study bridge is developed by using OpenSees
 325 (McKenna 2000), as shown in Fig. 6. Overall, the elastic beam-column element is used to
 326 simulate the superstructure, whereas the distributed plasticity fiber-element model is used to
 327 simulate the piers. For the fiber-element model of columns, the stress-strain relationship of the
 328 confined and unconfined concrete is modeled as the Concrete04 material, while that of the
 329 longitudinal reinforcement is simulated as the Steel02 material. The zero length elements with
 330 the Elastic and ElasticPP materials are applied to simulate the elastomeric bearings and the
 331 PTFE bearings, respectively. The shear keys are simulated in parallel with the Hysteretic and
 332 ElasticPPGap materials. The pounding effects between the deck and abutments are accounted
 333 for using the ElasticPPGap material. The interaction effects of the abutments and backfill soil
 334 are simulated by using HyperbolicGap material (Wilson and Elgamel 2010). The static analysis
 335 presents the maximum vertical reaction force and maximum shear deformation of a single

336 elastomeric bearing at the service limit state are 850kN and 0.06m, respectively. Moreover, the
 337 modal analysis presents the first two periods of the bridge are 2.52s and 1.98s, respectively.
 338 On the other hand, 100 ground motions are selected from the PEER strong motion database to
 339 perform the seismic fragility and resilience analysis (Shome et al. 1998). The selected ground
 340 motions include different source-to-site distances and magnitudes (Fig. 7(a)): small magnitude
 341 and small epicentre distances (SMSR), small magnitude and large epicentre distances (SMLR),
 342 large magnitude and small epicentre distances (LMSR), large magnitude and large epicentre
 343 distances (LMLR), near field (NF). Moreover, the PGV is considered as the intensity measures
 344 to reduce the dispersion in predicting seismic demand. Fig. 7(b) shows the corresponding PGV
 345 distribution of the selected ground motions.



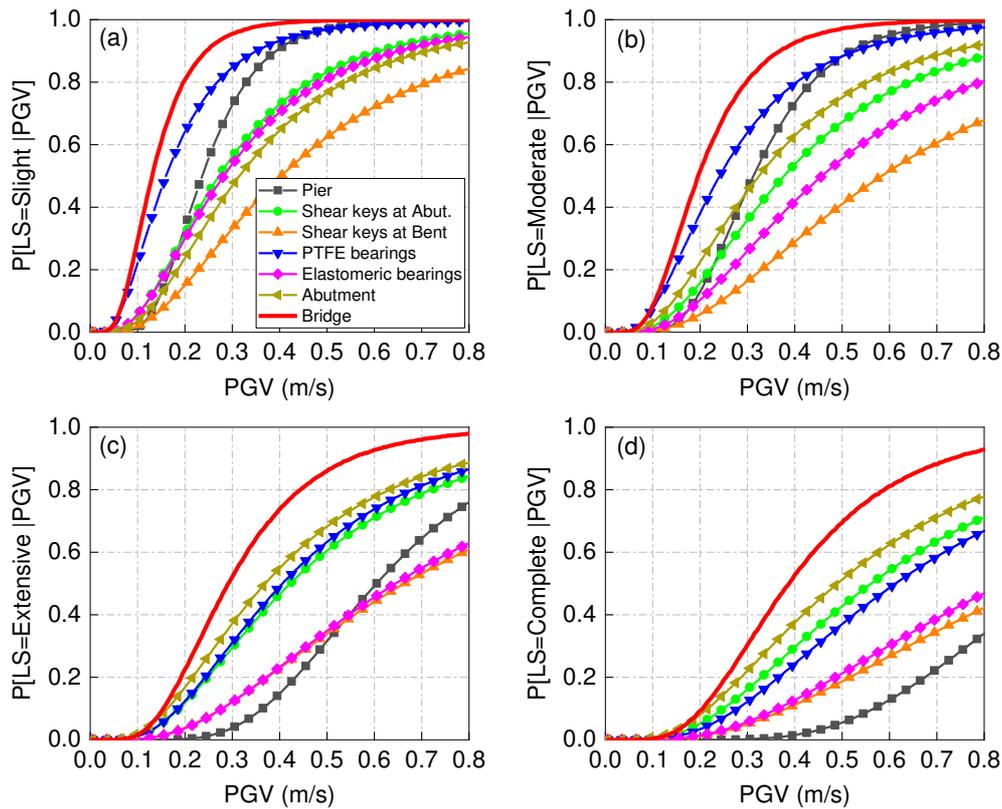
347 Fig. 7 (a) Distribution of ground motion records in M-R space and (b) histogram of the PGV for
 348 ground motion records

349 6. Fragility and resilience analysis

350 In this study, six kinds of critical bridge components, i.e., piers, shear keys at abutment, shear
 351 keys at bent, PTFE bearings, elastomeric bearings and abutments, are considered during the
 352 seismic fragility and resilience analysis. The seismic capacity of each component at different
 353 damage states are listed in Table 1 (Hu et al. 2019).

354 Table 1 Seismic capacity of components at various damage states

Components	Damage Index	Slight	Moderate	Extensive	Complete
Piers	Curvature ductility	1	1.62	5.43	12.48
Shear keys at Abutment	Deformation (mm)	5.2	51	70	130
Shear keys at bent	Deformation (mm)	5.2	51	70	130
PTFE bearings	Displacement (mm)	80	150	200	300
Elastomeric bearings	Shear strain	100%	150%	200%	250%
Abutment	Deformation (mm)	5.5	11	35	100



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356 Fig. 8 Fragility curves of components and bridge at four damage states: (a) slight damage, (b)
 357 moderate damage, (c) extensive damage and (d) complete damage

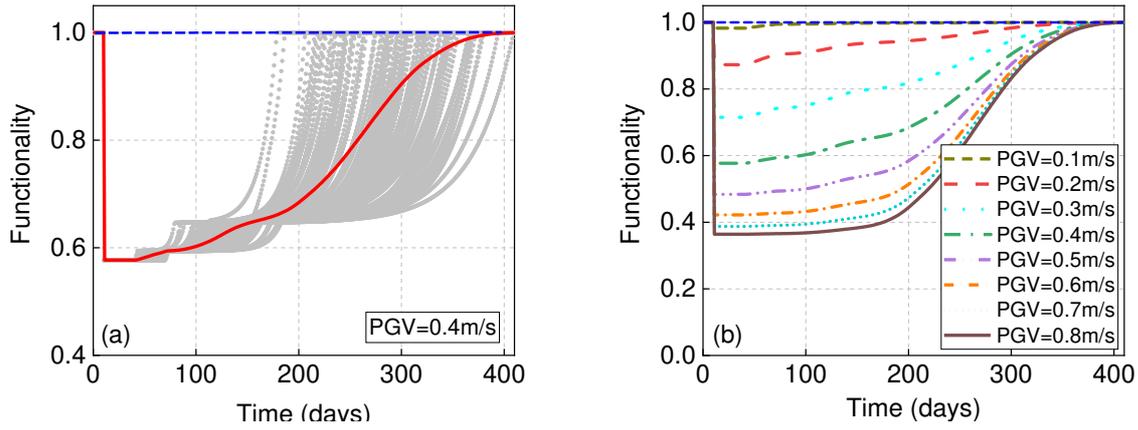
358 Fig. 8 shows the fragility curves of different bridge components and bridge system at four
 359 damage states. It should be noted that each kind of the components has several subcomponents
 360 and the most vulnerable subcomponent is selected and present in the figure. The stiffness of
 361 abutments is larger than that of piers, entailing the deformation demand of PTFE bearings is
 362 significantly larger than that of elastomeric bearings. Therefore, it can be observed that the
 363 PTFE bearings are more vulnerable than the elastomeric bearings at four damage states.
 364 Similarly, the damage probabilities of shear keys at abutments are higher than those at piers.
 365 The piers appear to be the second fragile component at the slight and moderate damage states.
 366 Whereas, the exceedance probabilities at extensive and complete damage states of piers are
 367 very small. Therefore, the piers is expected to exhibit excellent ductility. Moreover, the gaps
 368 of expansion joints make the exceedance probabilities of abutment at slight damage state
 369 slighter than those of most components. However, the abutment becomes the most fragile
 370 component at high level damage states (i.e., extensive and complete damage) because of its
 371 low ductility. On the other hand, the bridge system fragility curves indicated that the bridge
 372 system is more fragile than any one of the bridge components. Obviously, it is more appropriate
 373 to adopt system-level performance indicator than component-level performance indicator

374 while seismic design. Overall, the damage probabilities of the bridge system considered in here
 375 are considered governed by the PTFE bearings and piers at the slight and moderate damage
 376 states. Moreover, the abutments, shear keys at abutment and PTFE bearings paly an important
 377 role in the extensive and complete damage of the bridge system.

378 According to the seismic fragility curves, the residual functionality and functionality recovery
 379 processes of the bridge can be further determined. Table 2 summarizes the probability
 380 distributions of the random variables in the seismic resilience analysis. Fig. 9 (a) presents the
 381 distribution of the functionality after bridge suffering a ground motion with PGV=0.4 m/s. It
 382 can be observed that the bridge functionality reduces rapidly at first and then increases slowly.
 383 Generally, the high level damage has more significant contributes to the degradation of bridge
 384 functionality than the low level damage (i.e., slight and moderate damage). At the same time,
 385 the high level damage need a longer recovery time than the low level damage. Therefore, the
 386 functionality recovery ratio in the early stage is relatively lower than that in the later stage.
 387 Moreover, the recovery process in the later stage presents a significant dispersion. Fig. 9 (b)
 388 presents the functionality recovery processes of the bridge under different intensity of ground
 389 motions. As expected, the residual functionality will reduce with the PGV increases. Moreover,
 390 the proportion of high level damage will increase with the PGV increases, entailing the
 391 nonlinear characteristics of recovery processes more significant. In this case, the recovery of
 392 functionality is mainly concentrated in the later stage.

393 Table 2 Probability distributions of random variables in the seismic resilience analysis

Parameter	Unit	Distribution Type	Upper	Lower	Mean	References
δ_d	days	Uniform distribution	60	30	45	Pang et al. (2020)
δ_{r,DS_1}	days	Triangular distribution	1	0.2	0.6	Dong and Frangopol (2016)
δ_{r,DS_2}	days	Triangular distribution	5	1	2.5	Dong and Frangopol (2016)
δ_{r,DS_3}	days	Triangular distribution	120	30	75	Dong and Frangopol (2016)
δ_{r,DS_4}	days	Triangular distribution	360	120	230	Dong and Frangopol (2016)
C_{DS_1}	-	Determined value	-	-	0.03	Fu et al. (2020)
C_{DS_2}	-	Determined value	-	-	0.08	Fu et al. (2020)
C_{DS_3}	-	Determined value	-	-	0.25	Fu et al. (2020)
C_{DS_4}	-	Determined value	-	-	0.67	Fu et al. (2020)
k	-	Uniform distribution	10	8	0.8	Pang et al. (2020)



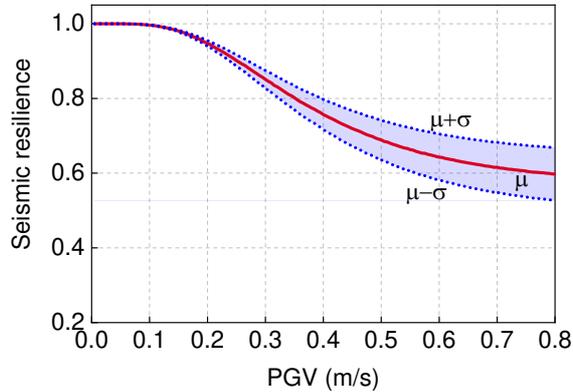
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Fig. 9 (a) Random samples of functionality recovery processes at PGV=0.4 m/s and (b) average functionality recovery processes with varied PGVs

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Following, the seismic resilience of the bridge can be finally determined by assuming the control times is 400 days. Fig. 10 shows the mean values and ranges of the seismic resilience with varied PGVs. Because of the various proportion of four damage states, the seismic resilience of bridge presents a nonlinear variation with the PGV increase. In particular, the bridge mainly incurs low level damage when the PGV is less than 0.1m/s. As a result, the decrease rate of the seismic resilience is small in this range. Whereas, the seismic resilience decreases quickly as the PGV increases. Moreover, the uncertainty of the seismic resilience presents a significantly increase with the rise of the PGV.



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Fig. 10 Seismic resilience of bridge with varied PGVs.

407 7. Seismic design optimization

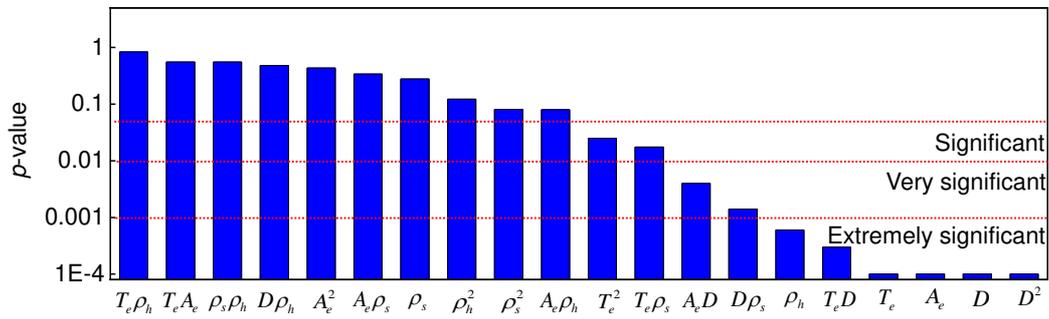
408 7.1 Resilience response surface

409 As stated, the resilience response surface model should be developed before the seismic
410 optimization design. Based on the engineering judgments, the ranges of the design parameters

411 are determined and the factor level are listed in Table 3. According to the CCD, 50 bridge
 412 samples are generated. Moreover, α is chosen as 2.37841 to satisfy the rotatability properties.
 413 Similar to the process in Sec. 6, the seismic resilience of each bridge sample is determined. In
 414 this study, the design seismic intensity is assumed as 0.4m/s. Based on the average seismic
 415 resilience at PGV=0.4 m/s, the statistical significance of each factor term is determined by the
 416 analysis of variance (ANOVA) with quadratic models. Fig. 11 shows the p -value of each factor
 417 term in the response surface model. It is seen from the figure that T_e , A_e , D , D^2 , ρ_h , $T_e D$
 418 are extremely significant levels terms ($p \leq 0.001$), while $A_e D$ and $D \rho_s$ are very significant
 419 levels terms ($p \leq 0.01$). Moreover, $T_e \rho_s$ and T_e^2 are significant levels terms ($p \leq 0.05$).
 420 Whereas, other factor terms are not significant.

421 Table 3 Factor level of the design parameters

Level	t_e (m)	A_e (m ²)	D (m)	ρ_s (%)	ρ_h (%)
-2.378	0.030	0.10	1.00	0.70	0.30
-1	0.056	0.13	1.29	1.66	1.08
0	0.075	0.15	1.50	2.35	1.65
1	0.094	0.17	1.71	3.04	2.22
2.378	0.120	0.20	2.00	4.00	3.00



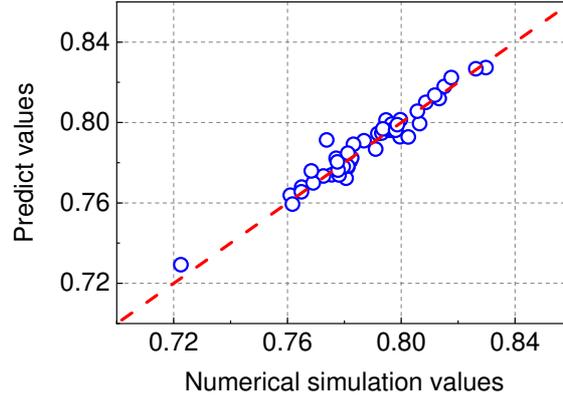
422 Fig. 11 Pareto effect diagram for each factor term.

424 After rounding off the insignificant items, the simplified resilience response surface model can
 425 be described as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 RS = & 0.4 - 0.3T_e - 0.25A_e + 0.5D - 7.76 \times 10^{-4} \rho_s + 0.012\rho_h \\
 & - 0.85T_e D + 0.159T_e \rho_s + 0.49A_e D - 0.105A_e \rho_h \\
 & - 0.016D \rho_s + 4.05T_e^2 - 0.138D^2 + 2.24 \times 10^{-3} \rho_s^2
 \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

427 Table 4 Determination coefficient of the resilience response surface model

Response factor	R^2	R_{adj}^2	RMSE
RS	0.964	0.955	0.00394



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Fig. 12 Response variables obtained from the numerical simulations and resilience response surface model.

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Table 4 lists the determination coefficients of the resilience response surface. It can be seen that the R^2 and R_{adj}^2 are greater than 90%, and the RMSE is very small. Moreover, Fig. 12 shows the seismic resilience obtained from the numerical simulations and resilience response surface model. It is seen that the values ranges from 0.733 to 0.834. A good correlation can be observed from the figure. Obviously, the accuracy of the resilience response surface model can satisfies the following analysis (Papila and Haftka 2000).

437 7.2 Pareto solutions

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To calculate the material cost, we assume that the unit costs of concrete and reinforcement steel are $\$105/m^3$ and $\$7065/m^3$, respectively. Moreover, the cost of the elastomeric bearings can be crudely determined as follows (Fazli and Pakbaz 2018):

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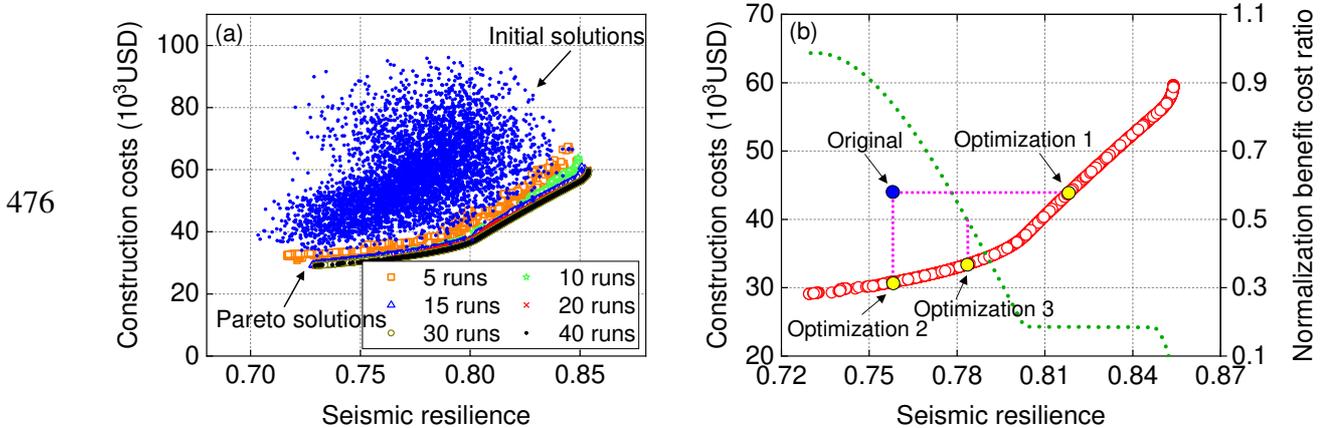
$$C_{Bearing} = 9623A_e + 7764t_e + 12, \quad (20)$$

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After obtaining all objective functions, the NSGA-II algorithm is performed to find optimized solutions. A population size of 5000 is used in the algorithm runs. Moreover, the crossover and mutation probabilities are 0.8 and 0.1, respectively. Figure 13 (a) shows the Pareto optimal solution set under different runs. It can be seen that the initial population is widely distributed in the solution space and the Pareto optimal solutions trend to convergence after 40 runs. Moreover, the Pareto optimal solution set is continuous and has a wide coverage and uniform distribution. Obviously, the population sizes and evolution times are enough for the seismic optimization design. Moreover, the Pareto optimal solution set clearly reflects the conflict relationship between the seismic resilience and material cost, which means that the increases of the seismic resilience will result in an increase of the material cost. Moreover, the nonlinear relationship between the material cost and the seismic resilience of bridge can be observed.

453 When the seismic resilience is low, the slope of Pareto frontier is small. In this range, the
 454 seismic resilience can be easily improved by increasing the material costs. Whereas, the slope
 455 of the Pareto frontier increases as the seismic resilience increases. Therefore, we can
 456 reasonably conduct that the increase of the material costs does not always beneficial to improve
 457 the seismic resilience.

458 According to the Pareto optimal solution set, the optimization schemes of the case bridge can
 459 be further determined by considering the specific optimization strategies. As stated in Sec. 4,
 460 we consider three optimization strategies in this study. The allowance BCR is set as 50% of
 461 the maximum BCR in the Pareto optimal solution set. Figure 13 (b) shows the three
 462 optimization schemes. Table 5 summarizes the design parameters and objective functions of
 463 bridge before and after the optimization. Referring to Fig. 13 (b), the original scheme is far
 464 from the Pareto solution set, which implies the original scheme has great potential for
 465 improvement in seismic resilience and economy. In fact, we can observed from Table 5 that
 466 the seismic resilience of the optimization scheme 1 increases by 8%. For the optimization
 467 scheme 2, the material cost is reduced by nearly 30%. By contrast, the seismic resilience and
 468 material cost of the optimization scheme 3 are relatively balance. It can be inferred that the
 469 method can reasonably determine the design scheme according to the weight between the
 470 material cost and seismic resilience. To verify the correctness of the optimization scheme, the
 471 bridges with three optimal schemes are re-submitted to the seismic resilience analysis. The
 472 numerical simulation (NS) of seismic resilience is also listed in Table 5. The relative error of
 473 each seismic resilience value is within 0.4% in the three optimization schemes. As a result, the
 474 optimized scheme obtained by combining response surface method and numerical simulation
 475 is highly reliable.



477 Fig. 13 (a) Initial solutions and Pareto solutions with different runs and (b) optimization schemes.

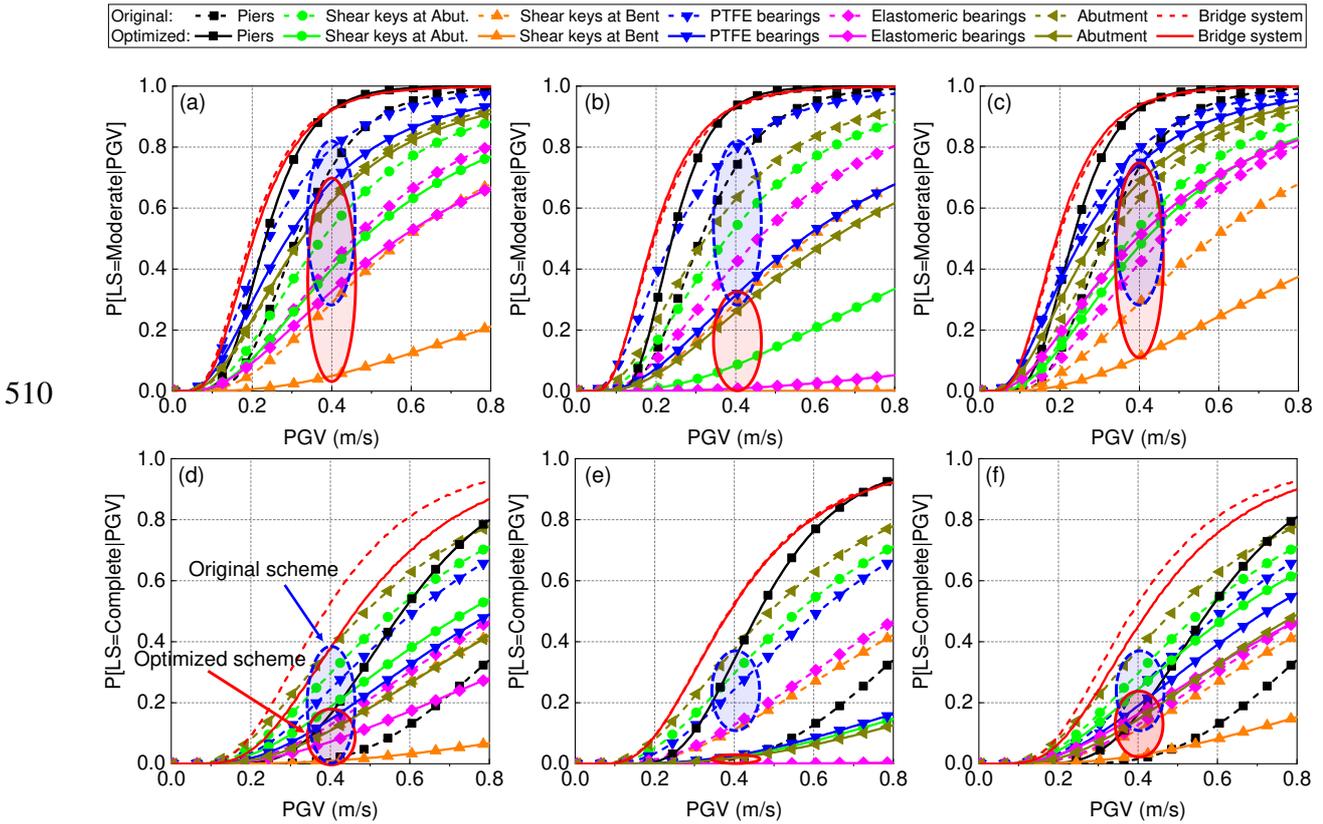
478 As stated, the PTFE bearings, abutments and shear keys at abutments are vulnerable
 479 components in the bridge system. In this case, the decrease in the total thickness of rubber layer
 480 and the increase in the area of elastomeric bearings are benefit to reducing the displacement of
 481 girder, entailing the decrease of seismic damage of the above components. However, the latter
 482 will result in the rise of material cost at the same time. Therefore, it can be seen from Table 5
 483 that the total thickness of elastomeric bearings decrease to the lower bound in the three
 484 optimization schemes, whereas the increase in the area of elastomeric bearings only exists in
 485 the optimization scheme 1. On the other hand, the transverse reinforcement plays an important
 486 role in improving the ductility of RC piers. However, the bridge isn't governed by the RC piers
 487 at extensive and complete damage states. Therefore, the minimum volumetric ratio of
 488 transverse reinforcements is adopted in the three optimization schemes to save the material
 489 cost. Moreover, both the increase in the diameter of cross section and longitudinal
 490 reinforcement ratio has positive influence on controlling the slight and moderate damage of
 491 RC piers. Due to the relatively low cost of concrete than reinforcement, the longitudinal
 492 reinforcement ratio decrease to the lower bound, whereas the diameter of cross section
 493 fluctuates with the vary of optimization strategies.

494 Table 5 Optimization parameters and objective functions with different design schemes

Parameters /objective functions	Unit	Original	Opt. 1	Opt. 2	Opt. 3
T_e	m	0.1	0.06	0.06	0.06
A_e	m^2	0.1	0.14	0.1	0.1
D	m	1.4	1.63	1.15	1.32
ρ_s	%	1.5	0.7	0.7	0.7
ρ_h	%	1.5	0.3	0.3	0.3
Material costs	\$	44091	44089	30887	33279
Seismic resilience (RSM)	-	0.7579	0.8187	0.7581	0.7827
Seismic resilience (NS)	-	0.7577	0.8165	0.7567	0.7859

495 Fig. 14 presents the fragility curves of the original and optimized bridge at moderate and
 496 complete damages. At the same time, the median PGV (corresponding to 50% fragility) at four
 497 damage states are listed in Table 6. Due to a decrease of the longitudinal and transverse
 498 reinforcement ratios, the damage probability of piers in the three optimized bridges is expected
 499 to be larger than that in the original bridge. Moreover, the colour rings mark the range of
 500 fragility curves of other components (all components except the pier) with PGV=0.4 m/s. It
 501 can be easily observed that the damage probability of other components reduces after
 502 optimizing. The main reason is that the thin elastomeric bearings decrease the displacement of
 503 girder. The phenomenon verifies the reasonability of the previous explanations. It should be

504 noted that the damage probability of bridge system reduces after optimizing because other
 505 components play much more important role in the seismic performance compared with piers.
 506 Obviously, in the process of the system-level seismic design optimization, the seismic
 507 performance of overall bridge rather than the individual components is firstly taken into
 508 account. Overall, the design optimization method provides a tool that adjust the damage grades
 509 of various components by considering the contribution of various components.



511 Fig. 14 Fragility curves of components and bridge at four damage states: (a) slight damage, (b)
 512 complete damage

513 Table 6 Median PGV of various components and bridge system with different design schemes

	Original	Opt. 1	Opt. 2	Opt. 3
<i>Slight damage state</i>				
Pier	0.236	0.189	0.210	0.189
Shear keys at Abut.	0.272	0.329	0.750	0.291
Shear keys at Bent	0.403	0.957	-	0.652
PTFE bearing	0.160	0.182	0.358	0.163
Elastomeric bearing	0.282	0.304	1.612	0.214
Abutment	0.315	0.205	0.403	0.184
Bridge system	0.131	0.142	0.159	0.128
<i>Moderate damage state</i>				
Pier	0.313	0.234	0.240	0.233
Shear keys at Abut.	0.377	0.478	1.095	0.417

Shear keys at Bent	0.584	1.542	-	1.024
PTFE bearing	0.241	0.289	0.570	0.257
Elastomeric bearing	0.457	0.570	-	0.393
Abutment	0.324	0.325	0.643	0.289
Bridge system	0.196	0.204	0.193	0.192
<i>Extensive damage state</i>				
Pier	0.605	0.399	0.349	0.397
Shear keys at Abut.	0.422	0.541	1.244	0.469
Shear keys at Bent	0.663	1.806	-	1.186
PTFE bearing	0.406	0.514	1.030	0.458
Elastomeric bearing	0.645	0.890	-	0.602
Abutment	0.370	0.579	1.164	0.516
Bridge system	0.291	0.331	0.286	0.307
<i>Complete damage state</i>				
Pier	0.942	0.582	0.463	0.578
Shear keys at Abut.	0.562	0.747	1.735	0.644
Shear keys at Bent	0.914	-	-	1.764
PTFE bearing	0.613	0.814	1.652	0.724
Elastomeric bearing	0.842	1.264	-	0.850
Abutment	0.490	0.917	1.869	0.816
Bridge system	0.388	0.466	0.391	0.426

514 Note: “-” means the Median PGV is larger than 2.

515 In order to verify the computation efficiency of the proposed optimization method, the number
516 of NTHAs for the conventional optimization method and the proposed optimization method
517 are listed in Table 7. It should be noted that the seismic resilience of the conventional method
518 is directly obtained from the seismic resilience analysis. As can be seen in Table 7, the
519 computational cost of the proposed method is much less than that of the conventional method.
520 More importantly, the number of NTHAs is independent of the population sizes for the
521 proposed method. It means that the advantages of the proposed method are highlighted when
522 dealing with the large scale optimization design.

523 Table 7 Number of NTHAs for different optimization methods (algorithm runs are 40)

Population sizes	50	500	5000
The proposed method	5000	5000	5000
Conventional method	200000	2000000	20000000

524 Conclusion

525 This paper presents a seismic optimization method to design the reasonable sizes of elastomeric
526 bearings and the cross-section arrangements of piers in the typical highway RC bridges. The
527 seismic resilience and the material cost of bridge were treated as the optimization functions in
528 the method. The RSM was applied to quickly obtain the seismic resilience and the NSGA-II
529 algorithm was utilized to perform multi-objective optimization. Additionally, the seismic

530 optimization design was performed on a typical highway RC bridge, and the seismic damage
531 was assessed on the components and bridge system under different design schemes. The main
532 conclusions can be summarized as follows:

533 (1) The resilience response surface model verifies a good agreement between the predicted
534 values and numerical simulation values. It can be applied to describe the relationship between
535 the design parameters and the seismic resilience of bridges. According to the model, the seismic
536 resilience of bridge system is significantly affected by the diameter of piers, the volumetric
537 ratio of transverse reinforcement, the thickness and area of elastomeric bearings. Whereas, the
538 effect of longitudinal reinforcement ratio on the seismic resilience of bridge system is relatively
539 slight.

540 (2) The proposed seismic design optimization method realizes minimization of the material
541 cost and maximization of the seismic resilience. The numerical results demonstrate the seismic
542 resilience of bridge system can increase by 8% without increasing the material cost, whereas
543 the material cost can reduce by nearly 30% without decreasing the seismic resilience of bridge
544 system. The efficiency of seismic design optimization can be significant improved by using
545 the resilience response surface model.

546 (3) The seismic resilience of bridge system depends on the damage grades of various
547 components. The bridge will not always be economic and has better seismic resilience by
548 improving the seismic performance of individual components. The resilience-based seismic
549 design optimization can adjust the damage grades of various components by considering the
550 contribution of various components, entailing an optimal seismic performance and economy
551 of overall bridges.

552 (4) The Pareto solutions reflect the optimal relationship between the seismic resilience and the
553 material cost. The increase of material cost leads to the seismic resilience increase, whereas the
554 sensitivity of seismic resilience to the material cost decreases. It does not necessarily improve
555 the seismic performance of bridges effectively by the blind increase of material cost. Moreover,
556 the Pareto optimal solutions can be applied to further obtain a simple design formula. The direct
557 resilience-based seismic design can be realized according to the design formula.

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561 **Conflicts of interest**

562 No.

563 **Availability of data and material**

564 The datasets used or analysed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on
565 reasonable request.

566 **Code availability**

567 The codes generated or used during the current study are available from the corresponding author on
568 reasonable request.

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Figures

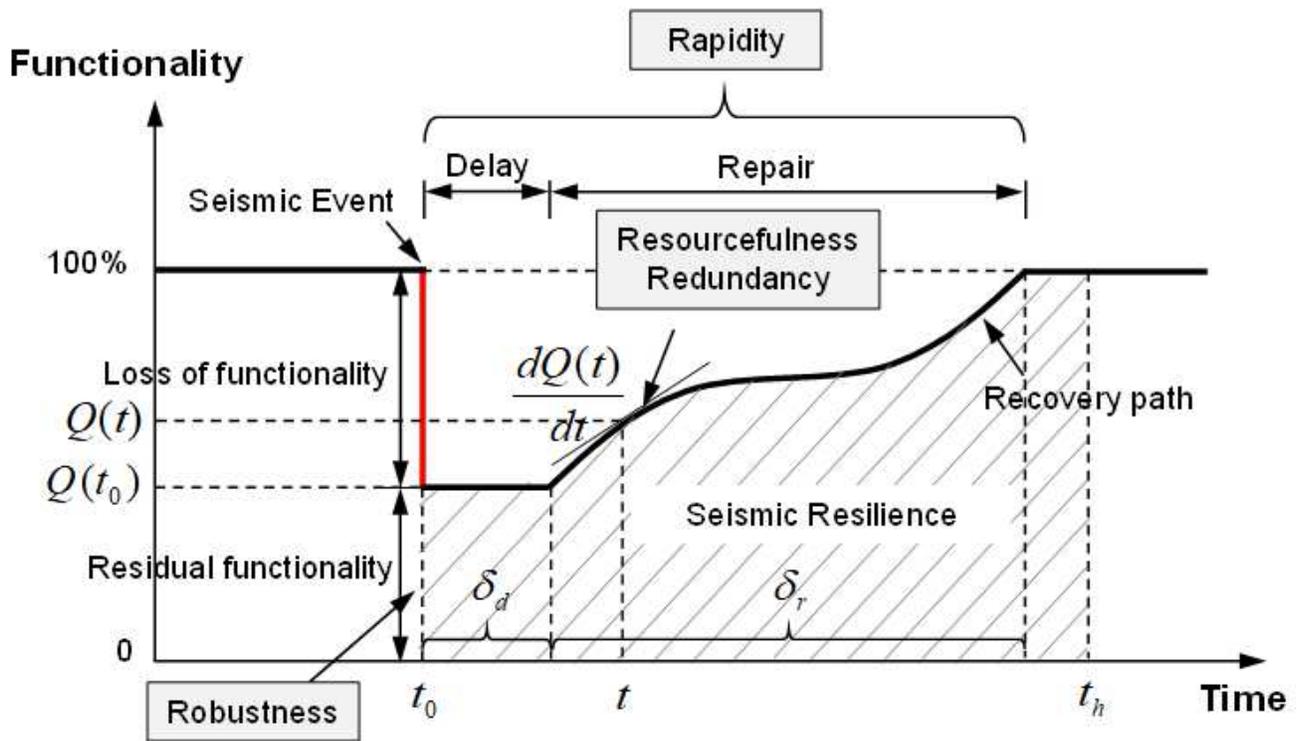


Figure 1

Schematic representation of seismic resilience

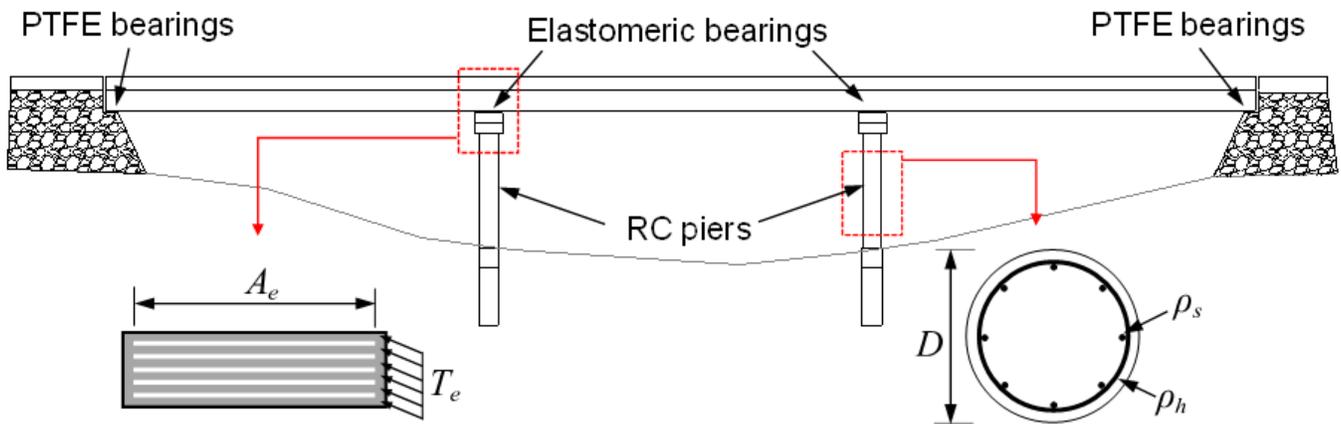


Figure 2

Optimization parameters of the typical RC bridge

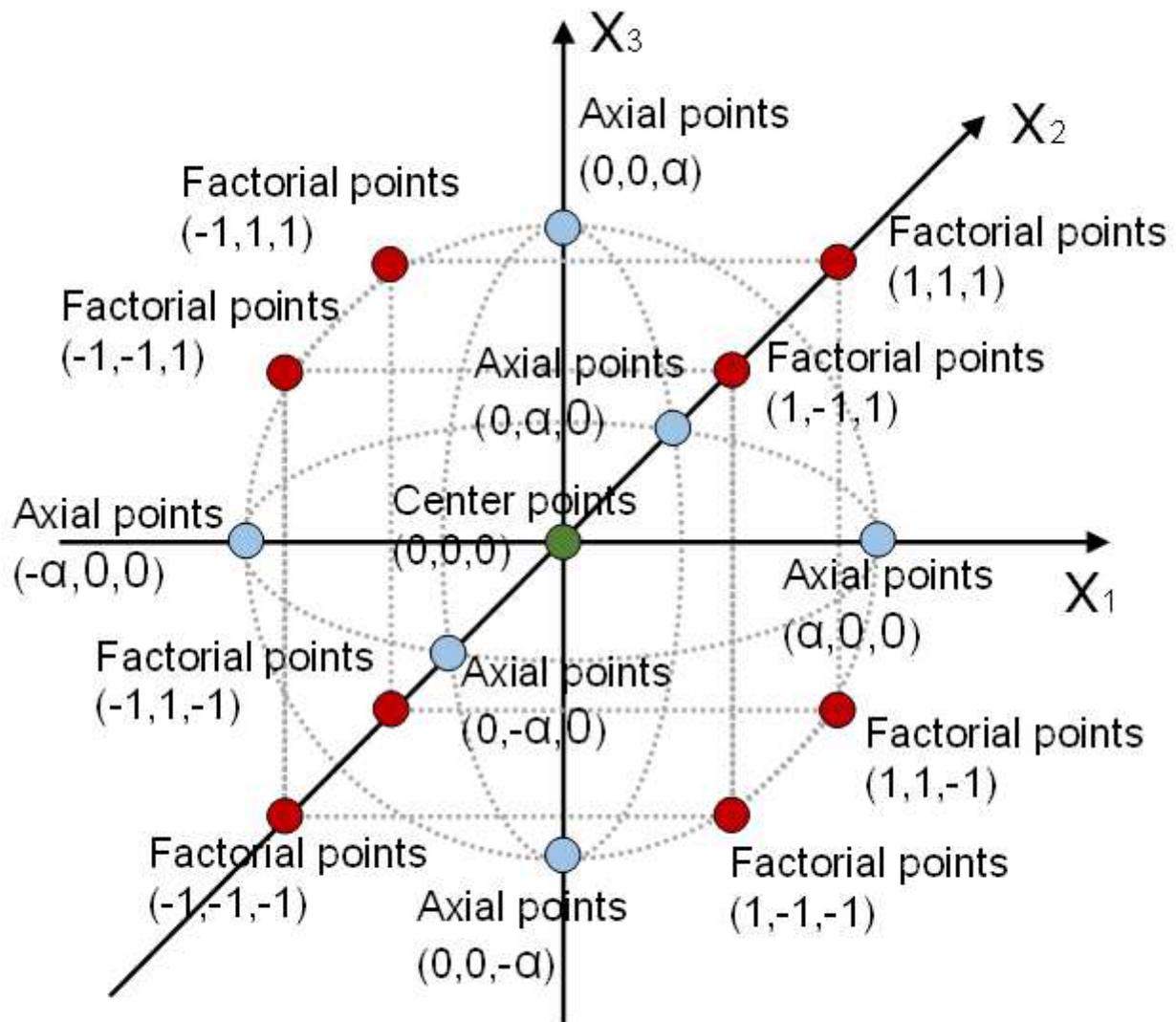


Figure 3

Design points of central composite design method

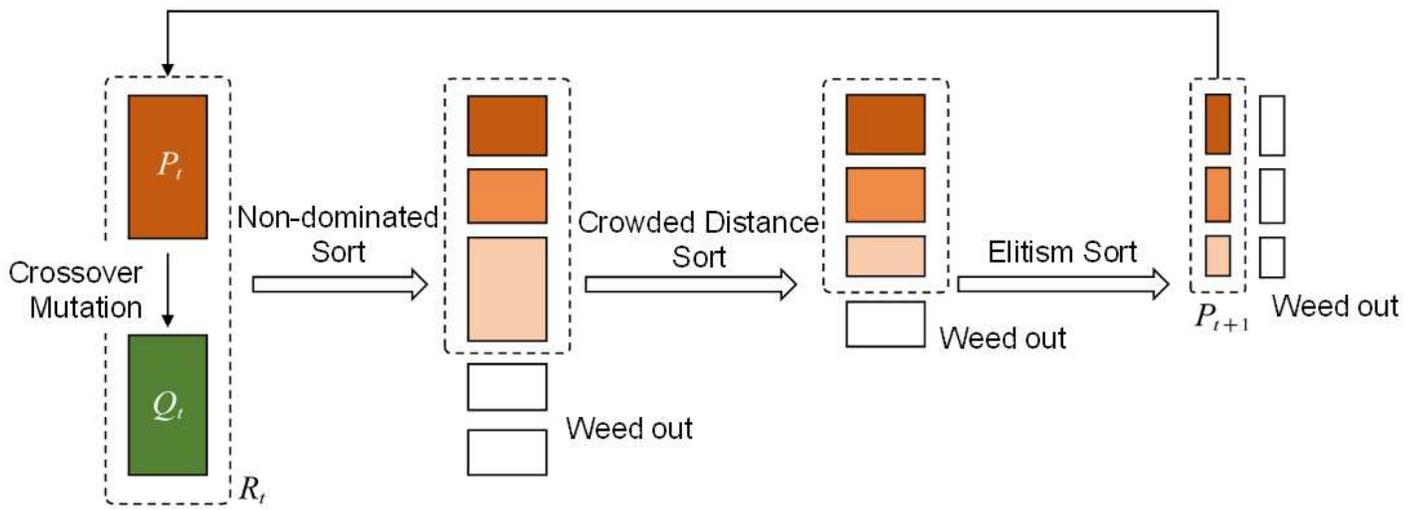


Figure 4

Flowchart of the NSGA-II method

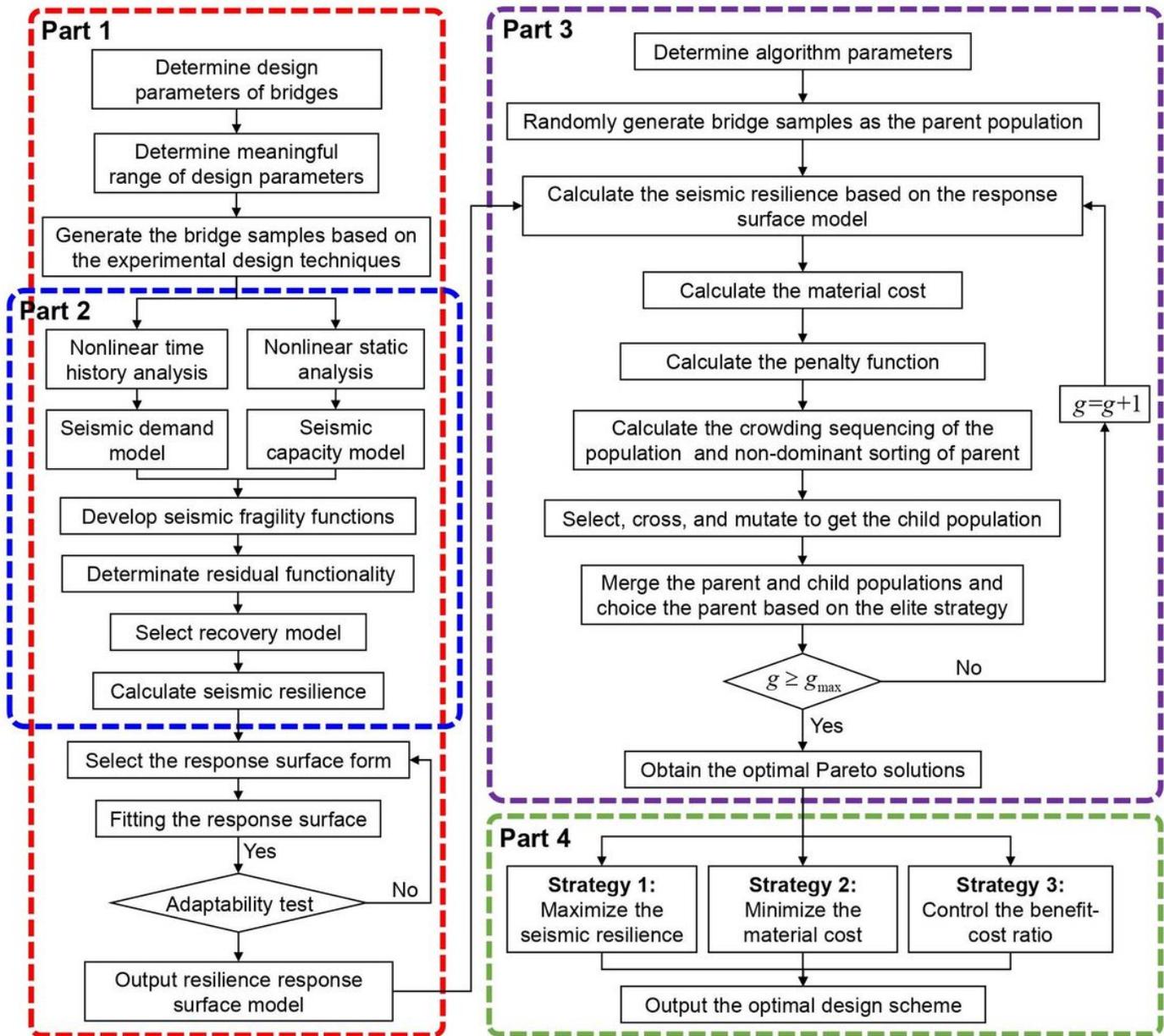


Figure 5

Flow chart of the resilience-based seismic optimization design process of RC bridges using RSM and NSGA-II

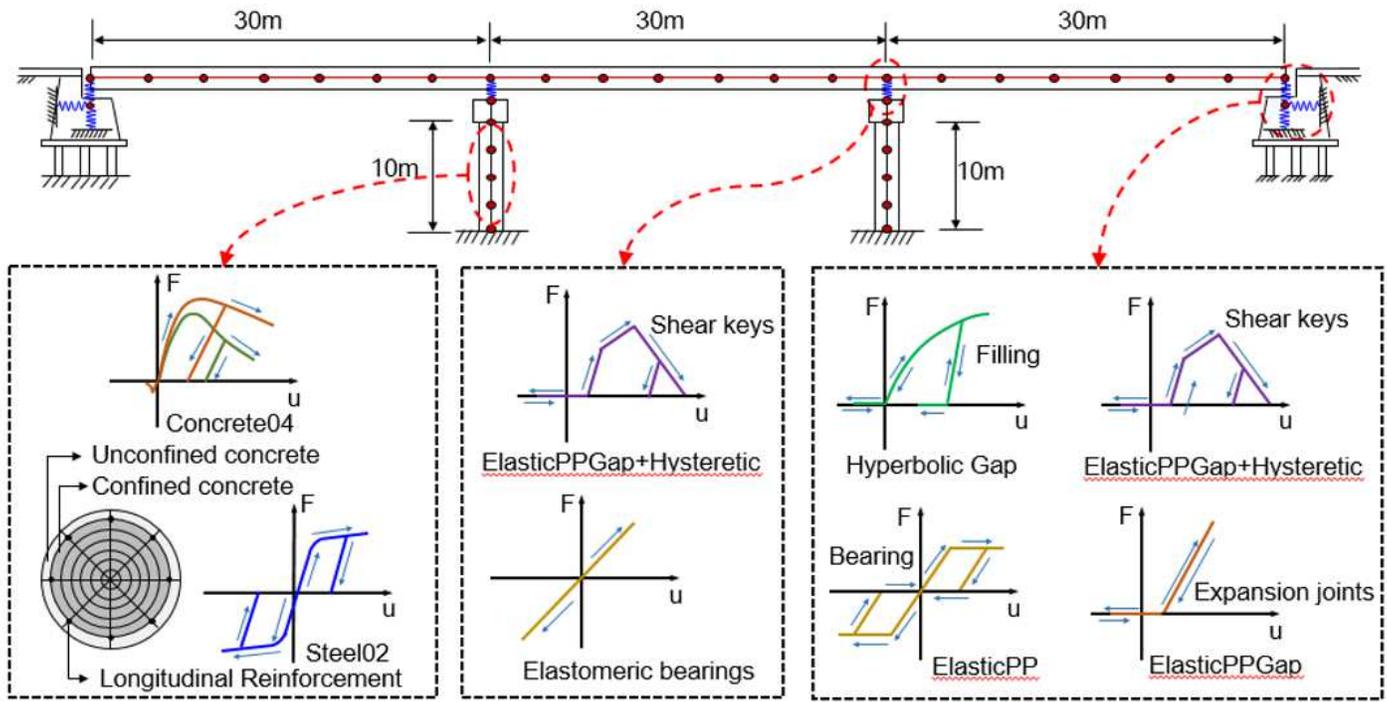


Figure 6

Schematic and finite element model of the case study bridge

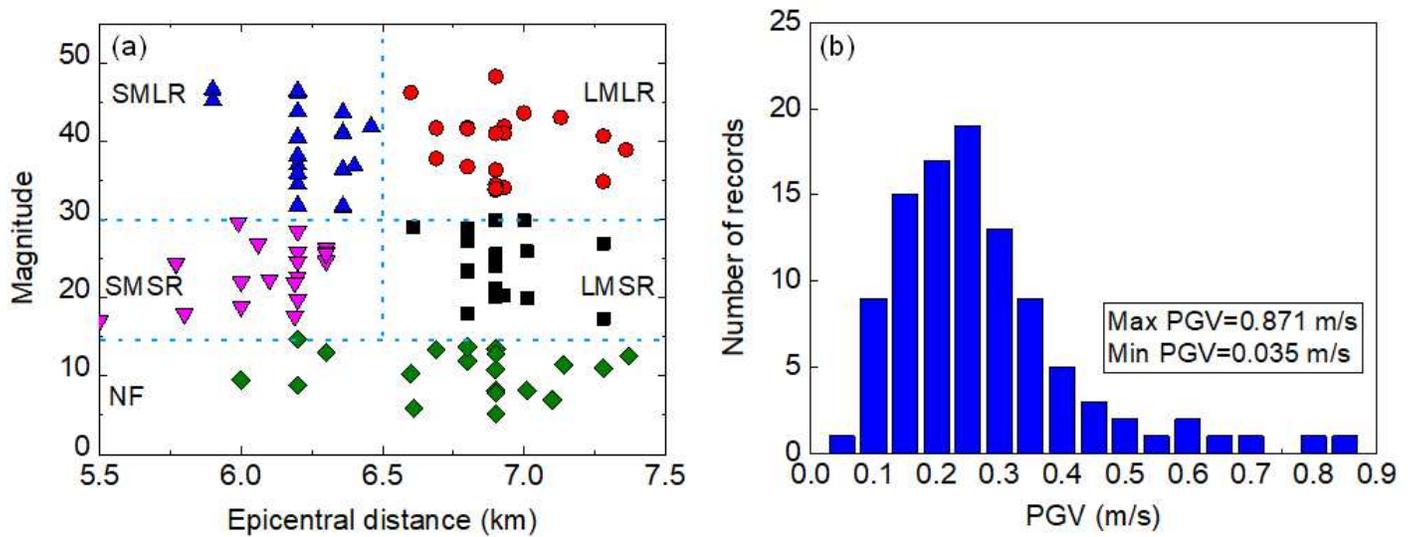


Figure 7

(a) Distribution of ground motion records in M-R space and (b) histogram of the PGV for ground motion records

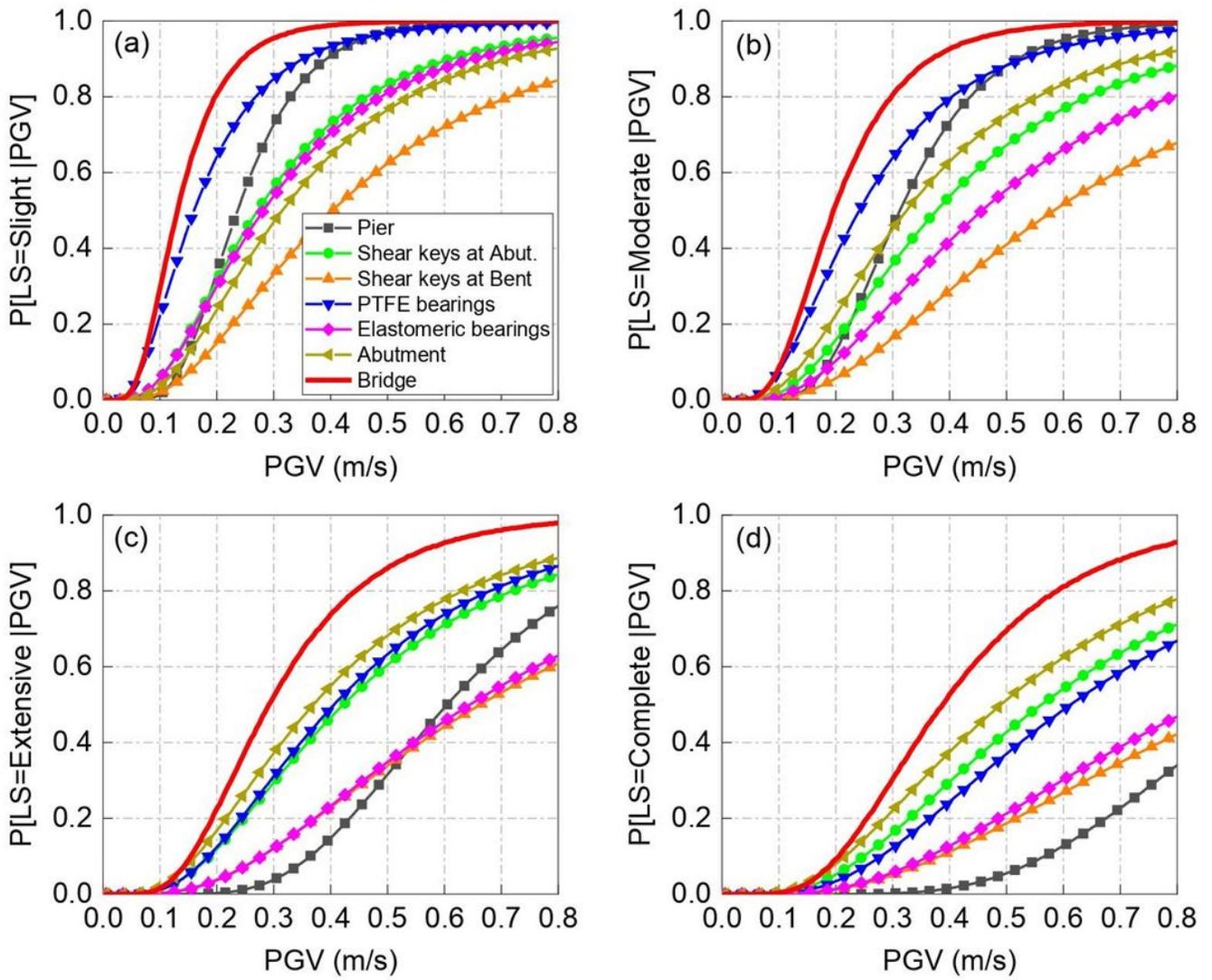


Figure 8

Fragility curves of components and bridge at four damage states: (a) slight damage, (b) moderate damage, (c) extensive damage and (d) complete damage

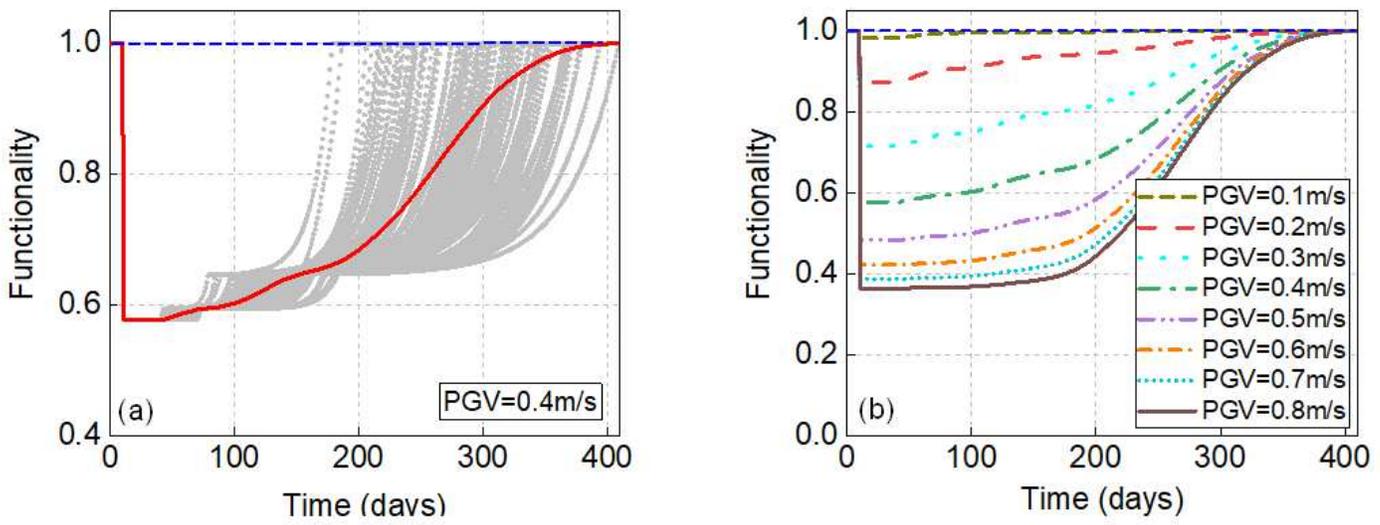


Figure 9

(a) Random samples of functionality recovery processes at PGV=0.4 m/s and (b) average functionality recovery processes with varied PGVs

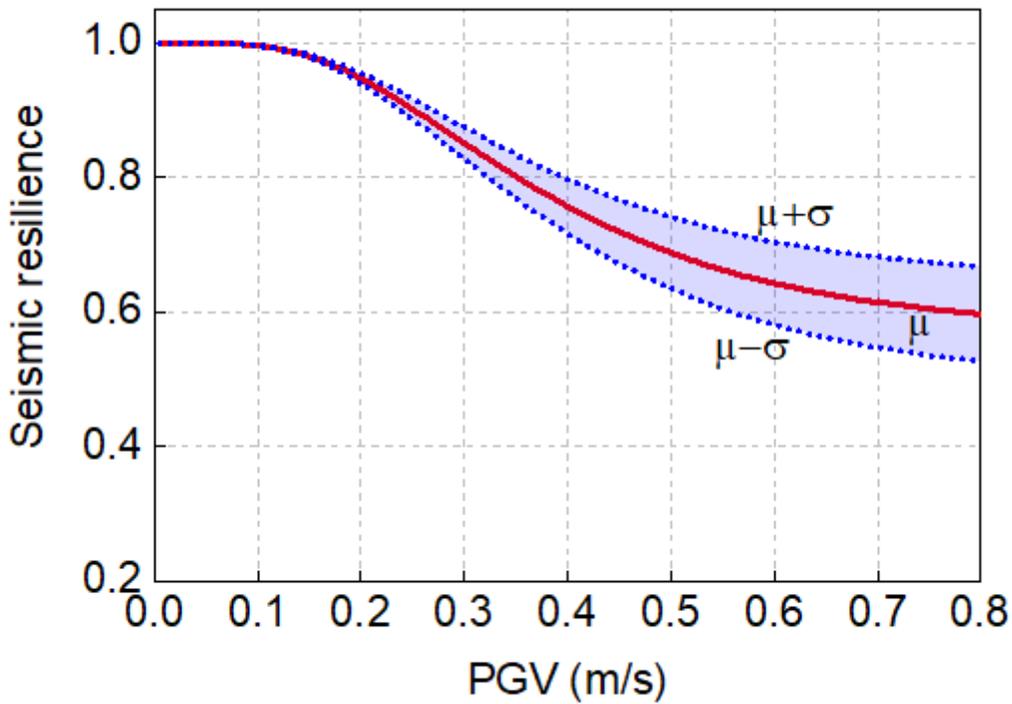


Figure 10

Seismic resilience of bridge with varied PGVs.

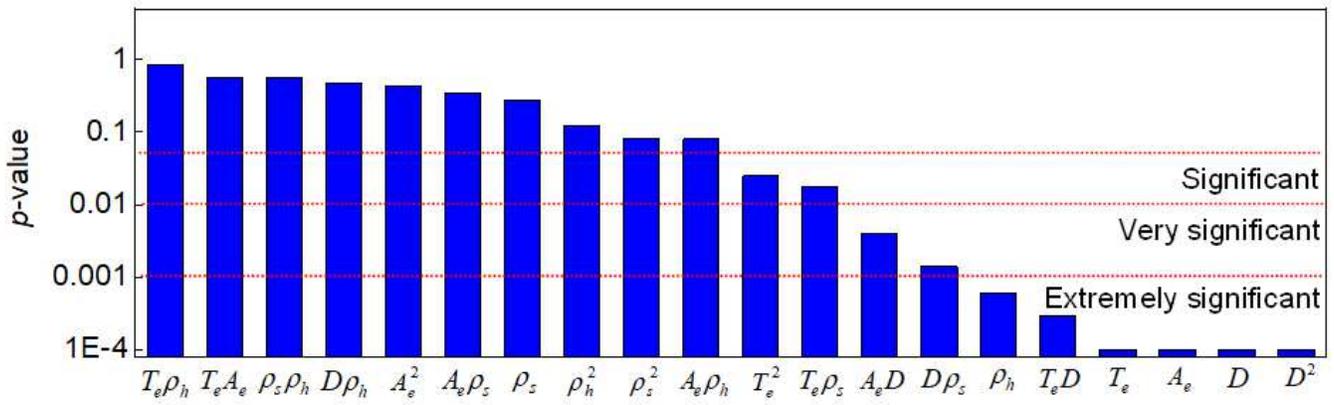


Figure 11

Pareto effect diagram for each factor term.

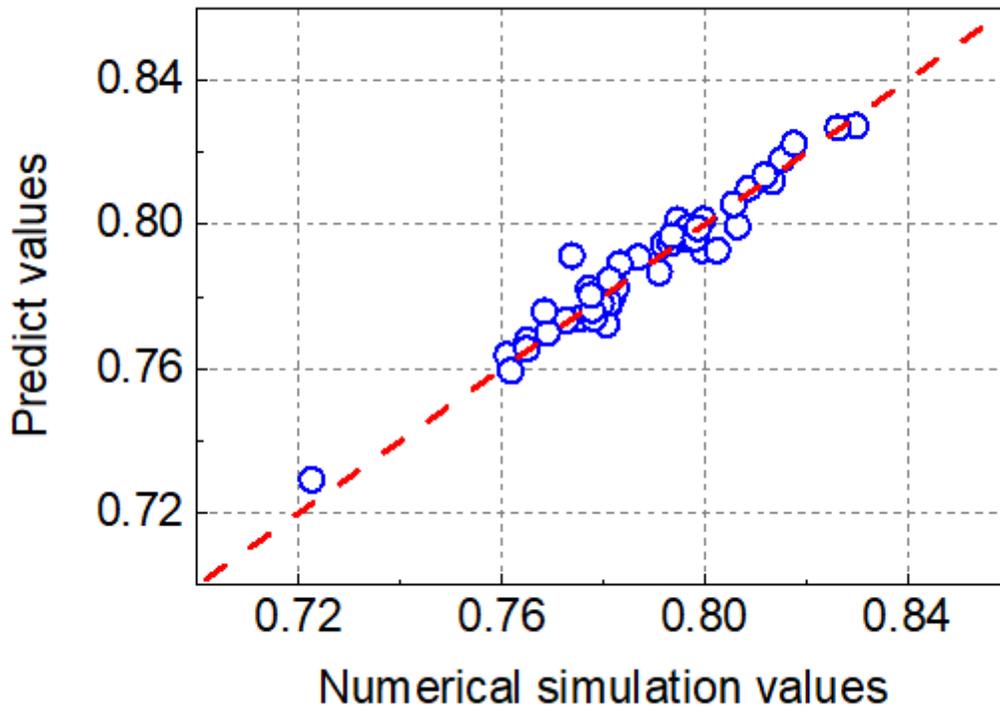


Figure 12

Response variables obtained from the numerical simulations and resilience response surface model.

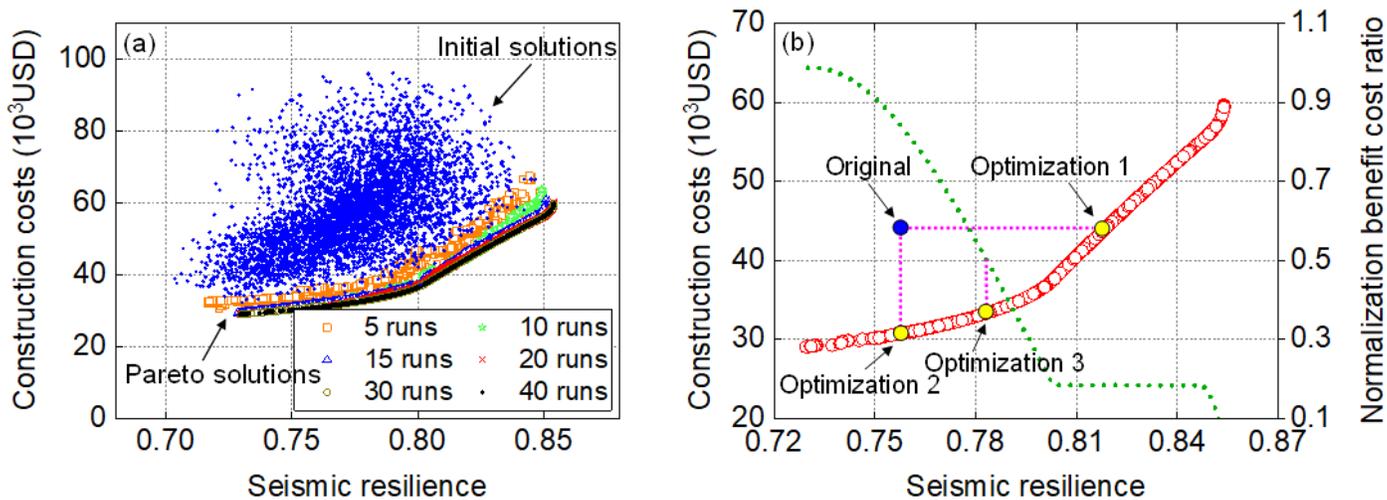


Figure 13

(a) Initial solutions and Pareto solutions with different runs and (b) optimization schemes.

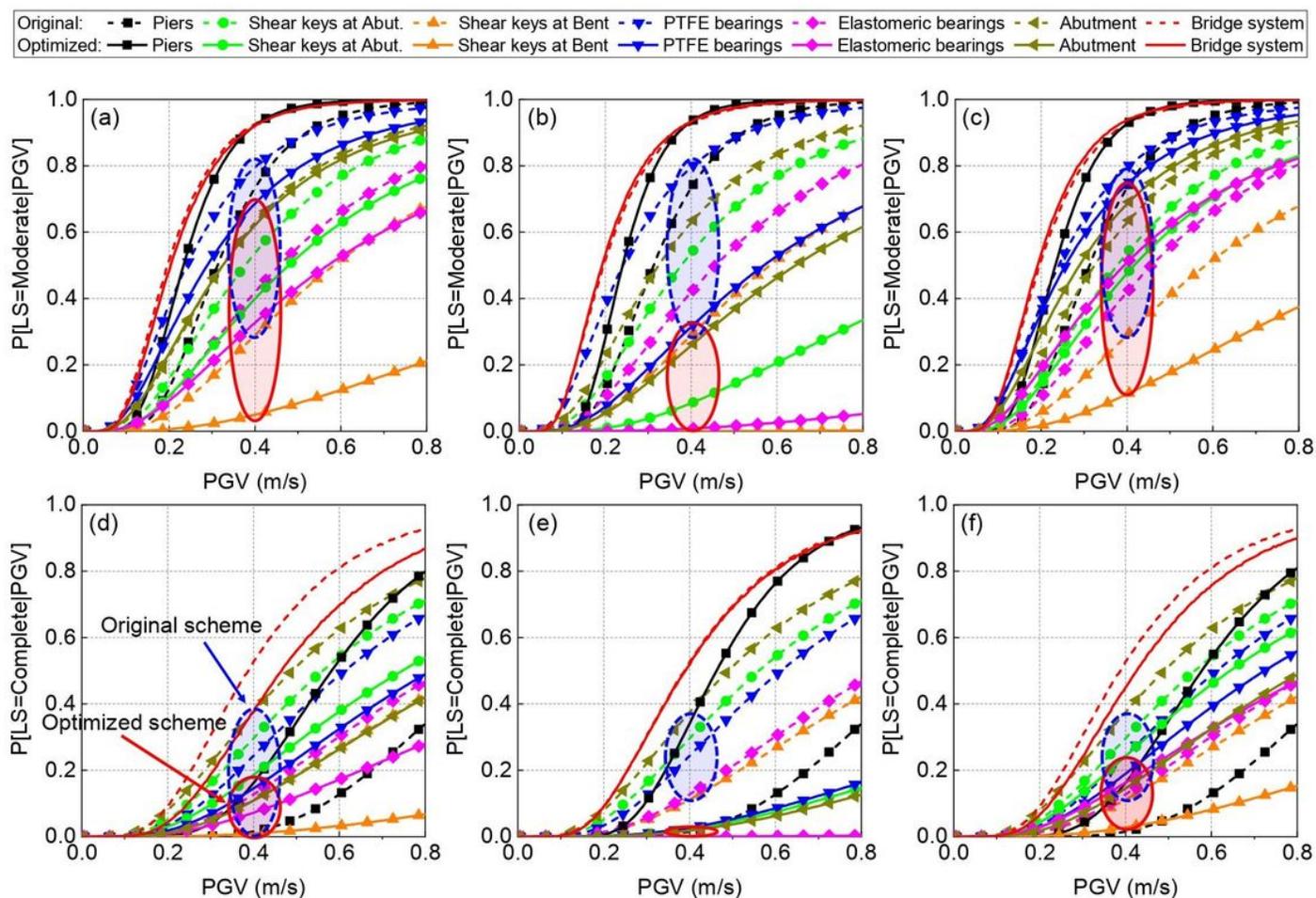


Figure 14

Fragility curves of components and bridge at four damage states: (a) slight damage, (b) complete damage