

1 **Macro-modelling approach for assessment of out-of-plane**
2 **behavior of brick masonry infill walls**

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6 B. Pantò¹, L. Silva², G. Vasconcelos² and P.B. Lourenço²

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8 1Department of Civil Engineering and Architecture, University of Catania, Italy

9 2 ISISE, Department of Civil Engineering, University of Minho, Guimarães, Portugal

25

26 **Abstract**

27 This paper deals with the numerical simulation of two solutions of brick infill walls
28 developed at University of Minho under out-of-plane loading. The new solution of brick
29 infills intend to represent an enhancement of the seismic performance of this
30 constructive element. The numerical simulation is based on an innovative discrete
31 macro-modelling strategy proposed by Caliò et al. (2014). This method is based on a
32 hybrid approach by which the frame is modelled using concentrated plasticity beam-
33 column elements, whereas the non-linear behaviour of masonry infill is modelled by
34 means of a 3D discrete macro-element.

35 The main goals of this work are: (1) calibrate a numerical model based on the
36 experimental results of the out-of-plane tests on two types of brick masonry infill walls;
37 (2) assess the efficiency of the macro-modelling approach by comparing the numerical
38 results; (3) assess the main influencing material and geometric parameters in the out-of-
39 plane behavior of brick infill walls.

40 The results of the numerical simulation enabled to assess the good performance of the
41 macro-modelling approach in simulating the seismic response of brick infill walls and
42 predicting the failure mechanisms. In addition, it was possible to identify the main
43 influencing parameters in the out-of-plane behavior of brick infill walls.

44

45 **Keywords:** Brick infill wall, numerical simulation, macro-modelling approach,
46 parametric study

47

48 **1 Introduction**

49 The out-of-plane response of infilled frames due to earthquake actions was under
50 scrutiny of different researchers to find out the main influencing parameters. The
51 relevance of studying the out-of-plane behavior of brick infill walls was brought to light
52 in the recent earthquakes occurred in Europe such as L'Aquila earthquake in 2009
53 (Braga et al. ,2011), where severe damages developed in the infill walls in comparison
54 to some minor cracks observed in the surrounding structure. It was observed that no
55 immediate occupancy was possible due to the generalized damage in the masonry
56 infills. From several examples, it was seen that the ground motion was not strong
57 enough to cause structural damage but due to improper anchorage and interaction of the
58 infill walls with surrounding frame, the exterior walls tore away and the concrete beam
59 and columns were exposed. In spite of the out-of-plane behavior of masonry infilled
60 frames have attracted less attention from the research community than masonry infill
61 under in-plane loading, some studies on the out-of-plane behavior of masonry infilled rc
62 frames can be found in literature (Drysdale and Essawy,1988; Chuang et al., 2010;
63 Flanagan and Bennett, 1999).

64 Experimental studies have been presented in literature in order to investigate the non-
65 linear response of unreinforced masonry infills surrounded by reinforced concrete
66 frames, subjected to actions orthogonal to their own plane. These tests have been
67 performed by applying monotonic and cyclic uniform static loads to the infill, in order
68 to simulate the effects of the inertia forces (Angel et al., 1994, Furtado et al., 2016,
69 Akhouni et al., 2016) or applying dynamic excitations (Tu et al., 2010).

70 A detailed numerical simulations of the out-of-plane response of infill frames requires
71 computational expensive nonlinear finite element models, able to predict the damage on

72 the masonry infill and the complex non-linear infill-frame interaction (Madan et al.,
73 1997; D’Ayala et al., 1997; Singh et al., 1998; Asteris, 2008; Macorini and Izzuddin,
74 2011). However, these rigorous models are often unsuitable for practical applications
75 due to its huge computational cost. With the aim to develop operative tools, capable of
76 simulating the collapse mechanisms of large structures with a sufficient approximation,
77 many authors have developed simplified methodologies (macro-models). They try to
78 predict the global structural behaviour without obtaining a detailed representation of the
79 non-linear local behavior of the material. The most used macro-model practical
80 approach is the ‘diagonal strut model’, where the infilled masonry is replaced by a
81 single unidirectional bar. Since its original formulations, in which only the in-plane
82 behaviour of the infill was considered, this approach has been extended in order to
83 include the out-of-plane behaviour (Furtado, 2016; Asteris et al., 2017; Di Trapani et
84 al., 2017).

85 Following the need to have safer masonry infills, two solutions of brick masonry infill
86 walls were developed at University of Minho. After the validation of the experimental
87 behavior of both types of masonry infill walls under in-plane and out-of-plane loading,
88 it was decided to calibrate a numerical model based on macro-modelling approach to
89 describe the out-of-plane behavior. In this paper, the influence of the in-plane damage
90 on the out-of-plane response of IFS is neglected. However, the latter is a key aspect in
91 order to fully understand and simulate the response of real structures subjected to
92 earthquake actions, as demonstrated by experimental (Angel et al., 1994; Oliaee and
93 Mageses, 2016; Ricci et al., 2018) and numerical (Di Trapani et al., 2017) studies.
94 Therefore, further investigations will be needed to complete the results here presented,
95 including combined in-plane and out-of-plane loading scenarios.

96 In this work, an innovative 2D discrete macro-modelling strategy, proposed by (Caliò et
97 al. ,2014), is employed. This method is based on a hybrid approach by which the frame
98 is modelled using concentrated plasticity beam-column elements, whereas the non-
99 linear behaviour of masonry infill is modelled by means of a 3D discrete macro-
100 element, introduced and validated in Pantò et al. (2017). The non-linear interaction
101 between the masonry infill and the surrounding frame is modelled by a 3D discrete non-
102 linear interface elements, able to simulate the in-plane and out-of-plane flexural and
103 sliding mechanisms (Pantò et al., 2018).

104 Therefore, the main goals of this work are: (1) to calibrate a numerical model based on
105 the experimental results of the out-of-plane tests on two types of brick masonry infill
106 walls; (2) to assess the efficiency of the discrete macro-modelling approach by
107 comparing the numerical results obtained with the macro-model with the results
108 obtained by a meso-scale modeling approach; (3) to assess the main influencing
109 material and geometric parameters in the out-of-plane behavior of brick infill walls.

110 This paper is organized in three main parts: (1) review of the main experimental results
111 of the out-of-plane tests on the brick infill walls; (2) derivation of material properties,
112 numerical simulation of the out-of-plane behavior of the brick infill walls and
113 assessment of the efficiency of the macro-modelling approach; (3) parametric study to
114 evaluate the influence of different parameters in the out-of-plane response of the brick
115 infill walls.

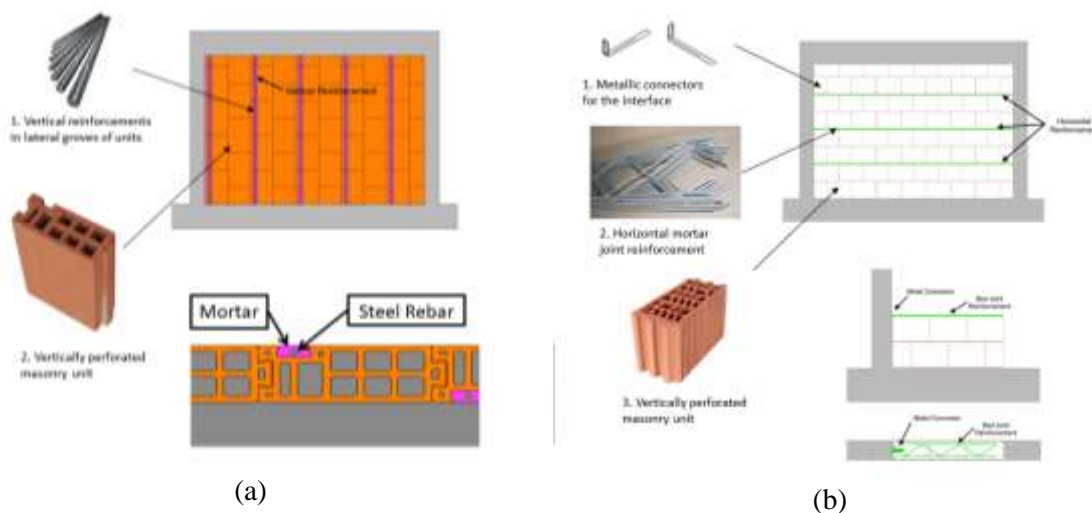
116 **2 Brief overview of the masonry infills constructive systems**

117

118 As mentioned above, one the main objectives of the present paper is to use a macro-
119 model approach to simulate the out-of-plane behavior of brick masonry infills that were
120 recently developed in the scope a research project (Insysme Project, 2017). These brick

121 infills intend to result in a better behavior under seismic loading when compared to the
 122 traditional ones.

123 The first solution for masonry infill walls is called Uniko System (*System-1*). This
 124 system is a single-leaf masonry wall, with 100mm thickness, composed of a vertical
 125 perforated clay unit, see Figure 1. This unit has a tongue and groove system along the
 126 perforation direction. The masonry units are laid aligned in the vertical direction
 127 creating a continuous vertical interlocking joint, see Figure 1a. This intends to take
 128 advantage of sliding between masonry units, improving possibly the energy dissipation
 129 ability of the masonry infill. With this arrangement, it is intended that masonry infill can
 130 withstand inter-storey drift without damage for lateral drift for which traditional infills
 131 are already damaged. Aiming at enhancing the out-of-plane behaviour of the brick infill,
 132 it was decided to add steel rebars in the external recesses at the external faces of
 133 masonry units. These steel bars should be connected at top and bottom reinforced
 134 concrete beams. The masonry infill has dry vertical joints and mortared bed joints, for
 135 which a general-purpose M10 mortar is recommended.



136 Figure 1 – Masonry infill systems: (a) System1, (b) System2

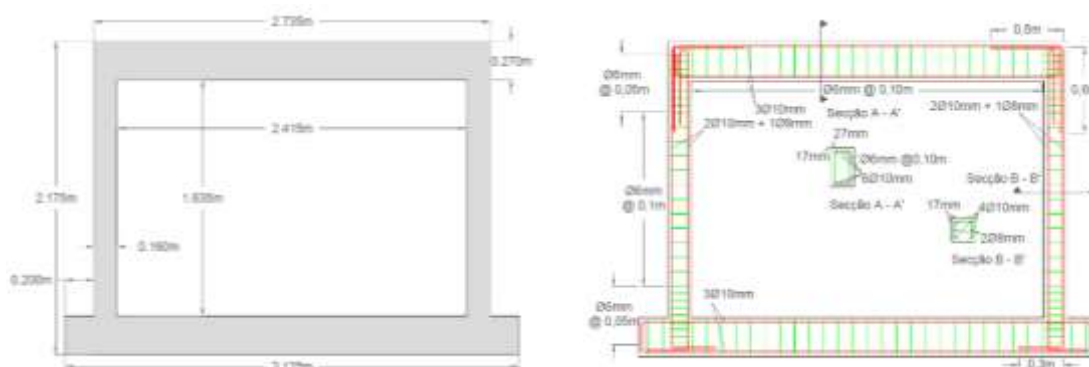
137 The second solution (*System2*) is called Térmico system, use the concept of maintaining
138 the infill rigidly attached to the frame, using internal reinforcement and connectors
139 between the infill and frame. This system is composed of a single-leaf clay masonry
140 wall made with a commercial vertical perforated masonry unit produced in Portugal, see
141 Figure 1b. The proposed system recommends a M10 mortar for the bed joints and dry
142 head joint with interlocking. To improve the in-plane and out-of-plane performance of
143 masonry infill walls, truss reinforcements was used in the bed joints. Additionally, the
144 walls are connected to the columns by metallic connectors at each two rows where bed
145 joint reinforcement is applied (see Figure 1b). The masonry infill panel was built with
146 294x187x140mm bricks with vertical perforation, using murfor RND 0.5 100
147 reinforcement and in each two rows, and murfor L +100 anchors to connect the infill
148 and RC frame at the same levels of reinforcements.

149 The idea in Térmico system is making the infill and the frame one system, increasing
150 the initial stiffness by using connectors and reinforcement, which not only helps to
151 increase the maximum load, as to control cracking and the out-of-plane collapse.

152 **3 An overview of the experimental Infill Frame Prototype out-of-plane behaviour**

153 One of the steps of the validation of the two brick infill systems was the experimental
154 testing under out-of-plane loading. For this, an experimental model was designed
155 composed of a reinforced concrete (rc) frame (one bay, one storey) and a brick infill
156 with one of the two solutions described previously. The reinforced concrete frame was
157 built according to the actual building practice in Portugal. The dimensions of the
158 prototype were defined based on an extensive work carried out on a database of
159 buildings from different cities in Portugal: (a) rc frame was defined having a length of
160 4.50m and a height of 2.70m; (b) the cross section of rc columns was 0.3m x 0.3m

161 (length x height) and (c) the cross section of rc beams was 0.3m x 0.5m. The reinforcing
 162 schemes were defined based on EC8 (NP EN 1998-1, 2010) recommendations. Due to
 163 the laboratory limitations, it was decided to test reduced scale specimens. For this,
 164 Cauchy's Similitude Law was considered (Akhoundi et al., 2018). Therefore, the
 165 geometry of the frame was reduced to 2/3 times of the prototype rc frame and the
 166 reinforcing scheme of columns and beams was updated in relation to the reinforcing
 167 schemes of the rc frame prototype, see Figure 2. The frame has 2735 mm in length and
 168 2175 in height. The dimensions of beams and columns sections are 270×160 mm and
 169 160×160 mm, respectively. The brick infills were built according to the details
 170 previously described. For each solution, a reinforced and a non-reinforced brick infill
 171 was considered so that the performance of the reinforcing schemes could be assessed.



172 **Figure 2** – Details and dimensions of experimental RC frame.

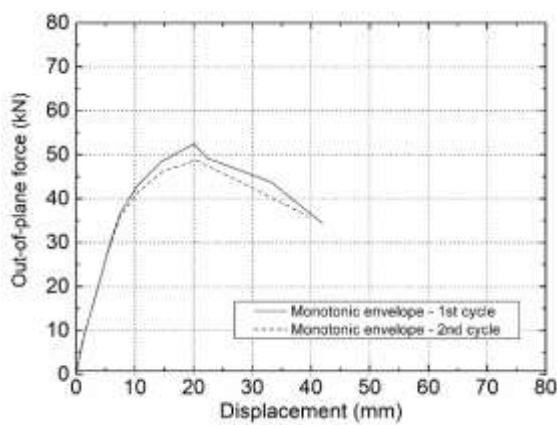
173 The rc frames with brick infill solutions were tested under out-of-plane loading
 174 according to the procedure pointed out by (Akhoundi, 2016). The out-of-plane loading
 175 was applied by means of an airbag that was connected to an external supporting frame.

176 The time cyclic load history used in the out-of-plane tests was adapted from the
 177 procedure recommended in (FEMA 461, 2007) for in-plane. It consists of a cyclic
 178 procedure composed of two cycles of load and unloading for increasing levels of out-of-
 179 plane displacement. The increments of displacement at each two cycles $i+1$ is about 1.4

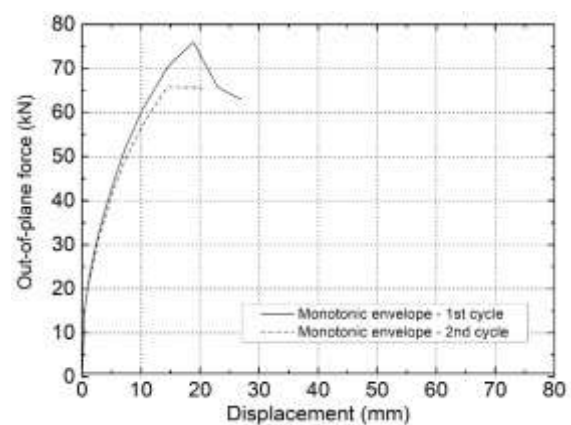
180 times the displacement corresponding to the previous two cycles i . The out-of-plane test
181 was carried out under displacement control by imposing the load displacement history
182 at the central point of the brick infill (mid span and mid height). The loading was
183 performed in one direction to monitor the deformation of the infill, propagation of
184 cracks and assessment of the separation of the brick infill in relation to the rc frame.

185 The monotonic envelopes of the experimental cyclical responses of the brick walls
186 (reinforced and unreinforced) are presented in Figure 3 With reference to the first
187 (continuous line) and second cycle (dashed line).

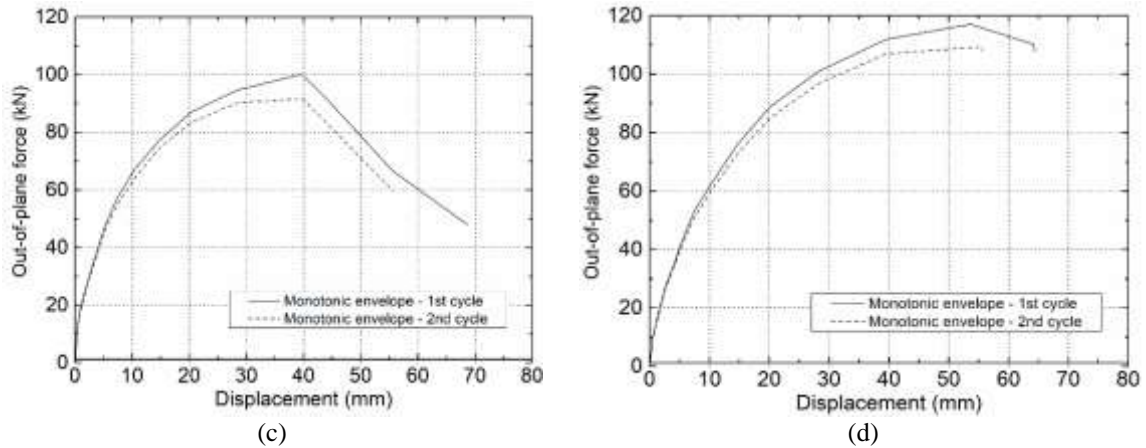
188 The maximum resistance obtained in the unreinforced Sistem1 wall (US1) was equal to
189 52.50kN, corresponding to a lateral 20.01mm of displacement. The maximum
190 displacement before collapse was 53mm (Figure 3a). The test stopped because of the
191 collapse of infill, followed also by a reduction of resistance. The lateral resistance
192 attained in the second cycle is very close to resistance recorded in the first cycle,
193 particularly in the elastic range of the wall. After these first steps, it is possible to see a
194 small reduction of lateral force in second cycle, being of approximately 7.1%. The
195 addition of vertical steel bars to the brick infill with vertical continuous joints (US2)
196 resulted in a significant increase of the out-of-plane resistance (Figure 3b).



(a)



(b)



197 Figure 3 - Load-displacement envelope curve for first and second loading cycle for; (a) solution
 198 1 – non-reinforced (US1); (b) solution 1 reinforced (US2); (c) solution 2 –non-reinforced (TS1);
 199 (d) solution 2 – reinforced (TS2).

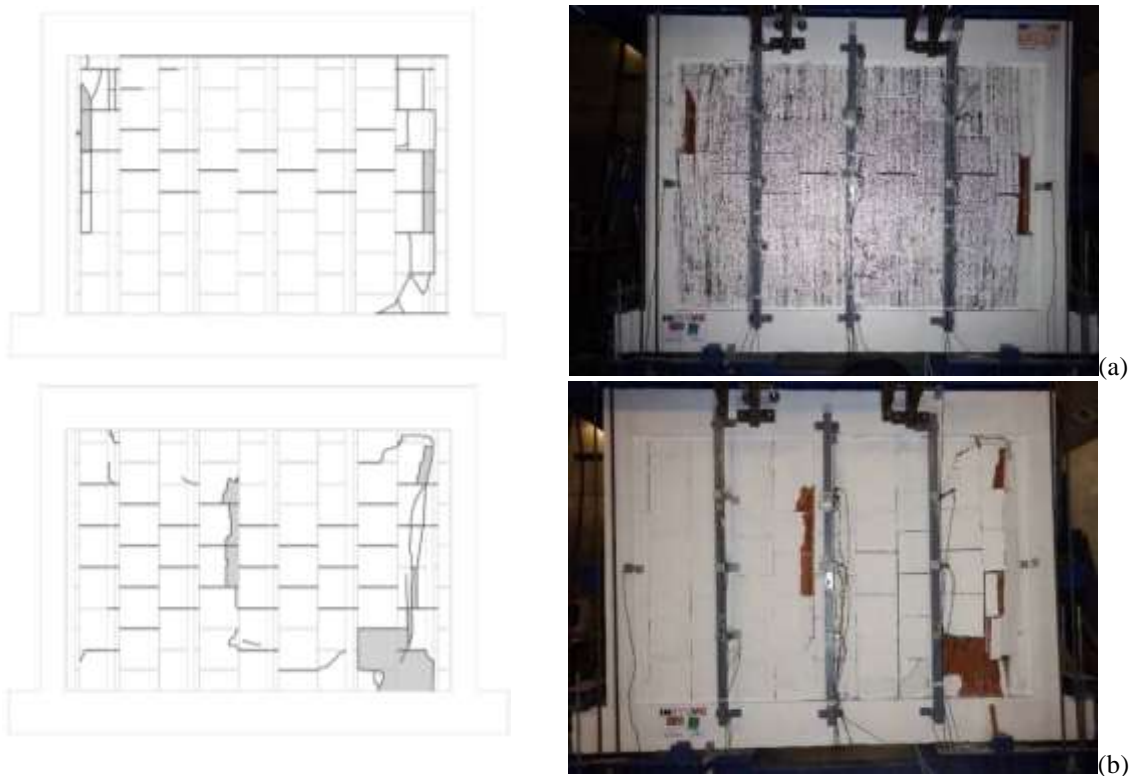
200
 201 In this case, the maximum resistance was equal to 76kN for 18.81mm of displacement,
 202 representing an increment of 44,8% in comparison with the unreinforced wall.

203 The maximum displacement applied before collapse was around 27mm. The test
 204 stopped due to the localized collapse of infill in a vertical joint due to the failure of
 205 interlocking system. The force response during the second cycle is almost the same of
 206 first cycle until the cracking occurs. After this stage, there is a degradation of the lateral
 207 resistance in the second cycle of loading of about 13.6%.

208 In the case of brick infill system2, it is seen that the out-of-plane resistance of the
 209 unreinforced specimen (TS1) was 100.15kN, attained for an out-of-plane displacement
 210 of 39.67mm, see Figure 3c. The maximum displacement applied before collapse was
 211 68.71mm. The test stopped due to the collapse of the infill. The out-of-plane force
 212 during the second cycle is almost the same of first cycle until the onset of cracking.
 213 After this stage, it is possible to see the reduction for second cycle. For the reinforced
 214 System2 brick masonry infill (TS2), an increase of about 16,9% of out-of-plane
 215 resistance was observed, see Figure 3d. For this masonry infill wall, the maximum
 216 resistance was equal to 117.05kN, achieved for a lateral displacement at the central

217 point of the infill of about 53.6mm. The maximum displacement applied was around
218 64mm corresponding to a stage near to wall collapse. The test stopped because the
219 imminent collapse of infill.

220 The presence of reinforcement changes the crack patterns observed in both types of
221 brick infills, see Figure 4. The presence of reinforcement results in a more distributed
222 crack pattern, particularly in case of system 1. In the unreinforced brick infill (US1) the
223 cracks develop at mid height of the wall, mainly along the mortar bed joints. There is
224 also a concentration of damage close to the columns characterized by crushing of some
225 brick units. This crack pattern appears to be associated to a predominant one-way
226 vertical bending. Conversely, the cracking developed in reinforced masonry infill is
227 more associated to the development of two way bending. In spite of the cracks develop
228 along the horizontal bed joints, they develop along the adjacent are of diagonal struts.



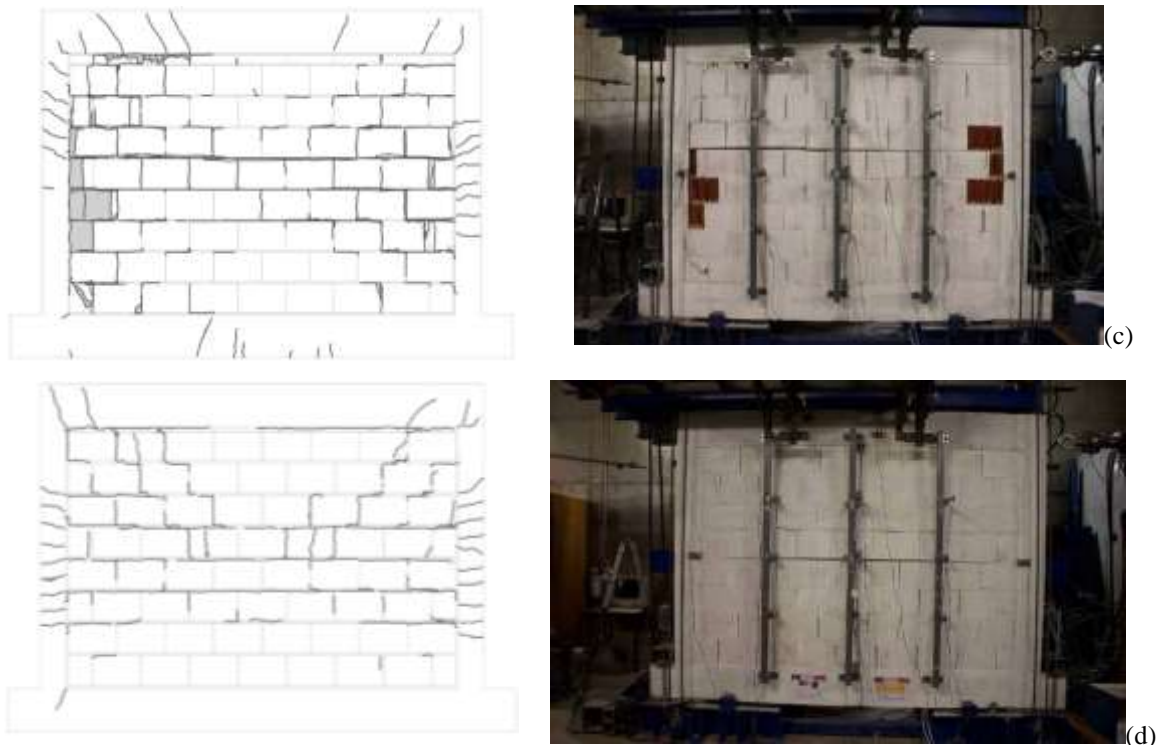


Figure 4 – (a) Cracking pattern of US01 at out-of-plane displacement of 53mm; (b) Cracking pattern of US02 at out-of-plane displacement of 26.98mm; (c) Cracking pattern of TS01 at out-of-plane displacement of 68.70mm; (d) Cracking pattern of TS02 at out-of-plane displacement (max disp.) of 64.37mm.

229 The cracking in the masonry infill with termico brick units starts along the central bed
 230 joint and progress along diagonals of the walls, which result from the development of
 231 two way bending mechanism. At the end of the test, crushing of the brick units close to
 232 the columns occur. In case of the reinforced brick infill, it appears that the two-way
 233 bending mechanism also develop, but the cracking is less severe. Besides, there is no
 234 signs of crushing of the brick units. This means that the addition of horizontal
 235 reinforcement and connectors allow a better control of damage in the infill wall for the
 236 same levels of displacement. In both cases, some microcracks develop in the rc frame,
 237 particularly in the columns. This should result from the much higher level of out-of-
 238 plane resistance of this type of infill and appears to demonstrate a higher interaction
 239 between the brick infill and the rc frame. It should be noticed that in case of System1
 240 any cracks appears in the rc frame.

241 **4 The Macro-modelling approach**

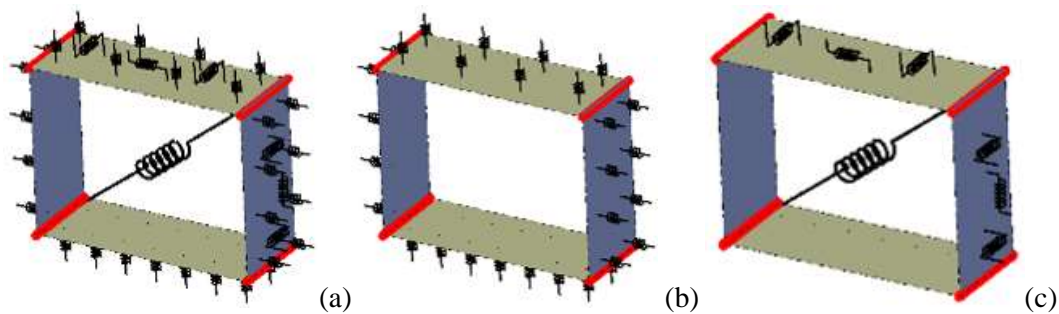
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243 In order to numerically simulate the experimental tests on the unreinforced and
244 reinforced infill frame prototypes, an innovative discrete macro-modelling strategy,
245 proposed by (Caliò et al., 2014), is employed. This method is based on a hybrid
246 approach by which the frame is modelled using concentrated plasticity beam-column
247 elements, while the non-linear behaviour of masonry infill is modelled by means of a
248 3D discrete macro-element, introduced and experimentally validated in (Pantò et al.
249 ,2017). The model is able to simulate the axial-2D out-of-plane bending moment
250 interaction on unreinforced masonry panels loaded orthogonally to own plane with
251 different external bond conditions. The non-linear interaction between the frame and the
252 infill is modelled by means of discrete non-linear interface elements which simulate the
253 tensile cracking, the crush of the masonry and the sliding between masonry and frame.
254 In order to take into account the complex out-of-plane interaction mechanisms between
255 the infill and frame elements, a new 3D discrete interface was developed in (Pantò et al
256 2018).

257 *4.1 The Discrete Macro Model (DMM) for masonry infills*

258 The three-dimensional discrete element used to simulate the masonry is based on an
259 innovative macro-element introduced by (Caliò et al. ,2012), originally developed to
260 simulate the in-plane non-linear response of unreinforced masonry walls, later extended
261 to the mixed concrete-masonry structures and infill frame structures (Caliò and Pantò,
262 2014). The extension of the existing model to a 3D kinematic model was introduced and
263 numerically validated in (Pantò et al. ,2017). This model is represented by means of a
264 simple *discrete* mechanical scheme consisting of an articulated quadrilateral (*panel*)
265 with four rigid edges and a diagonal link, connected to the corners, to simulate the

266 masonry shear behaviour (Figure 5a). Each side of the panel interacts with other panels,
 267 frame elements and or ground supports by means of a discrete distribution of nonlinear
 268 springs, denoted as *interface*. Each interface is constituted by a $m \times n$ grid of non-linear
 269 springs, orthogonal to the panel edge (Figure 5b). In addition, at the same interface, a
 270 longitudinal in-plane spring controls the relative sliding in the direction of the panel
 271 edge, whereas two longitudinal out-of-plane longitudinal springs control the out-plane
 272 sliding and the torsion behaviour (Figure 5c).



273
 274

275 Figure 5 - Discrete macro-element: (a) mechanical scheme; (b) representation of the orthogonal springs;
 276 (c) representation of the longitudinal in-plane and out-of-plane springs.

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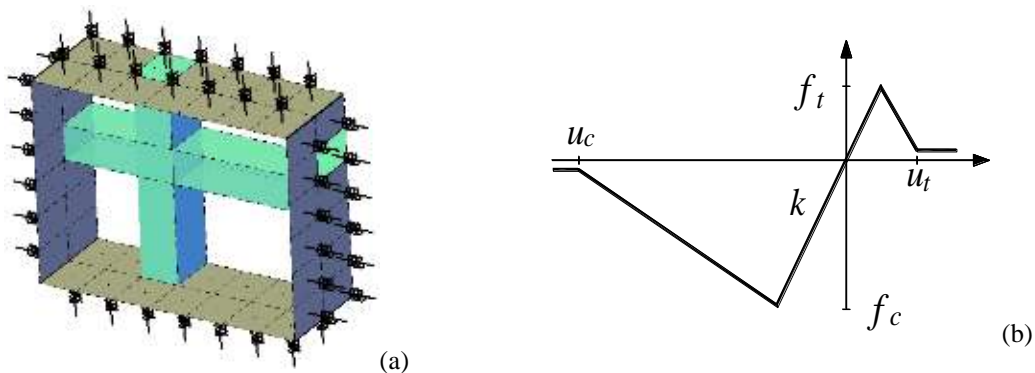
278 The kinematic of this spatial macro-element is governed by seven degrees of freedom,
 279 able to describe the rigid body motions and the in-plane shear deformability of the
 280 panel. The calibration procedures of each non-linear link material properties are based
 281 on simple mechanical equivalences imposed between the discrete macro-model and the
 282 equivalent continuous homogenised models.

283 The orthogonal links of the interfaces intend to describe the flexural/axial behaviour of
 284 the masonry which is assumed as an orthotropic homogeneous media material. Each
 285 link inherits the nonlinear behaviour of the corresponding fibre along each main
 286 direction of the material (see Figure 6a). Each spring is calibrated assuming that the
 287 masonry strip is a homogeneous elasto-plastic material, according to the procedure

288 reported in (Caliò et al., 2012) and (Pantò et al., 2017). A linear softening behaviour
 289 governs the post-yielding response under tension and compression, ruled by fracture
 290 energy values in tension (g_t) and compression (g_c), to which the corresponding ultimate
 291 displacements u_t and u_c are associated, see Figure 6b.

292 The shear in-plane and out-of-plane springs are modelled respectively by means of a
 293 rigid and an elasto-plastic constitutive law governed by the Mohr–Coulomb yielding
 294 surface. A linear relationship between stress and sliding describes the post-peak
 295 behavior governed by the shear fracture energy (g_s).

296 The capability of this model to simulate the structural behaviour until collapse has been
 297 validated by (Marques and Lourenço, 2014) and (Pantò et al., 2017) with reference to
 298 multi-storey mixed buildings and by (Pantò et al., 2016) with reference to monumental
 299 structures.



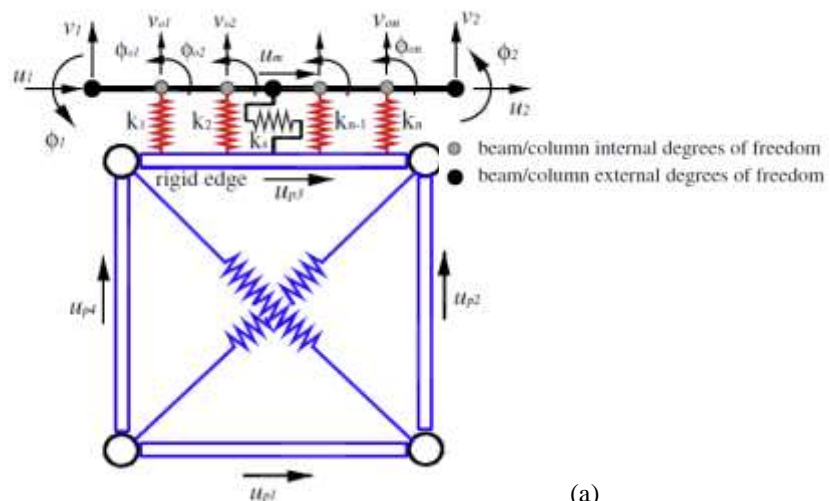
300 Figure 6 Definition of the material properties of orthogonal links ; (a) Two generic orthogonal links and
 301 the corresponding fibre representations ; (b) constitutive law associated to the transversal springs.

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303 4.2 The Modelling of the frame-masonry interaction

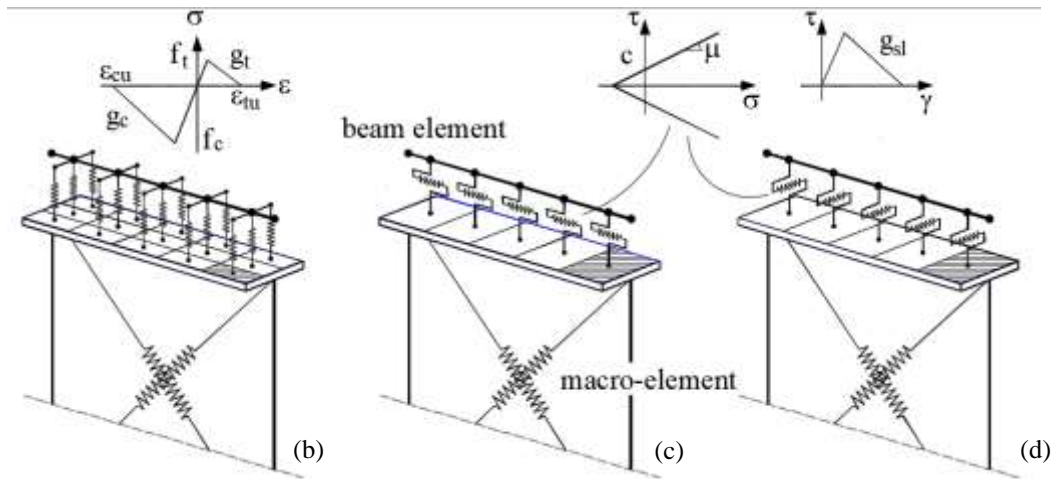
304 The frame elements interact with the masonry panels along the entire length by means
 305 of non-linear orthogonal links, uniformly distributed into contact with *infill-frame*
 306 interfaces. Each interface, as those between masonry panels, includes $n \times m$ orthogonal
 307 links, a single longitudinal in-plane non-linear link and two out-of-plane longitudinal

308 links. In order to simplify comprehension, Figure 7a shows the in-plane degrees of
 309 freedom governing the in-plane panel-frame interaction, while Figures 7b 7c and 7d
 310 show the 3D mechanical scheme distinguishing flexural (Figure 7b), in-plane sliding
 311 (Figure 7c) and out-of-plane sliding interaction (Figure 7d). In the figures, the afferece
 312 area associated to each link, obtained discretizing the transversal cross section of the
 313 panel, is also reported. The interface links are characterised by an elasto-plastic
 314 constitutive law with linear-softening branch, calibrated from the macroscopic
 315 mechanical properties of masonry and the afferece volume of the link (Pantò et al.,
 316 2018). In particular, the flexural transversal links are characterized by the tensile and
 317 compression masonry strengths (f_t , f_c) and the corresponding fracture energies (g_t , g_c).
 318 The ultimate strength of the in-plane and out-of-plane sliding links is determined by the
 319 masonry cohesion (c) and friction factor (μ) through a Mohr-Coulomb domain. Finally,
 320 the ultimate capacity displacement of the sliding links is determined assigning the
 321 sliding fracture energy (g_{sl}). More details on the model kinematics and on the link
 322 calibration procedures can be found in (Pantò et al. 2018).



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(a)



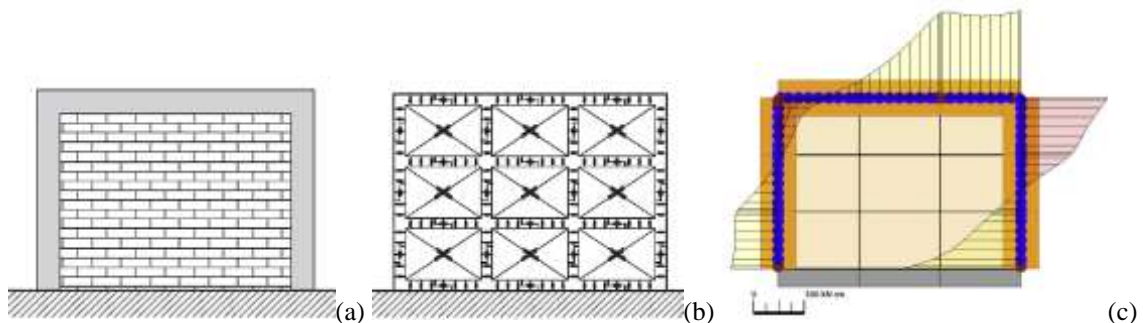
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325 Figure 7 - Mechanical scheme of the in-plane masonry-frame interaction (a); mechanical scheme of the
 326 out-of-plane masonry-frame interaction: flexural (b), in-plane sliding (c) and out-of-plane sliding (d)
 327 interface links.

328

329 This macro-model is particularly appropriate to simulate the flexural and sliding forces
 330 shared between the frame and masonry panel providing a reliable prediction of the
 331 bending moment distribution on the frame (Caliò and Pantò, 2014). For the sake of
 332 clarity, in Figure 8 a simple structural prototype constituted by a full infilled regular
 333 brick-wall frame (Figure 8a) is modeled by a 3x3 mesh of macro-elements (Figure 8b).
 334 The ultimate frame bending moment corresponding to a horizontal in-plane force
 335 applied at the top beam (Caliò and Pantò, 2014), is reported in Figure 8c.

336



337 Figure 8 Infill frame structure: (a) typological geometrical scheme; (b) macro-modelling of the infilled
 338 frame by means of a 3x3 mesh of macro-elements; (c) typical bending moment prediction associated to
 339 horizontal actions.

340 4.3 2D macro-modelling approach versus the equivalent strut model

341 In this section, the 2D Discrete Macro-Model is compared with the equivalent strut-
342 model which represents one of the most used macro-model approach both for
343 engineering and research purposes. In particular, a strut model formulation, recently
344 proposed to simulate the in-plane and out-of-plane behaviour of IFS (Di Trapani et al.,
345 2017), is considered. This model is composed of four struts: two diagonal struts plus
346 two horizontal/vertical elements. Each strut consists of two fiber-section beam-column
347 elements characterized by a rectangular section with in-plane width (w) and thickness
348 (t). The mechanical behaviour of the fiber is characterized by the Kent and Park model
349 (Kent and Park, 1971) assigning the peak (f_{m0}) and residual stress (f_{mu}) and the
350 corresponding strain (ε_{m0} , ε_{mu}). More details on the calibration of the model can be
351 found in (Di Trapani et al., 2017).

352 The two models are compared in terms of capacity curves considering the test-1
353 performed by Angel (Angel et al., 1994) on a single bay, one storey, infilled reinforced
354 concrete frames with brick-clay masonry infill. The test was performed monotonically
355 by applying a uniform out-of-plane pressure across the infill surface after applying the
356 vertical loads consisting of two concentrated forces of 200 kN at the top section of each
357 column.

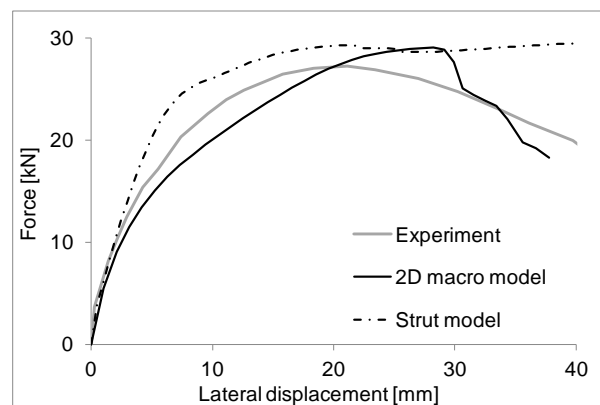
358 The strut model is calibrated according to (Di Trapani et al., 2017) with reference to the
359 test-2 of the Angel's campaign, characterised by the same frame geometry and masonry
360 typology of the tes-1, here considered. The geometric and mechanical parameters
361 characterizing the struts are reported in Figure 9a. The analyses are performed in
362 OpenSees (McKenna, 2011) using Force-Based Beam-Column Element (Taucer et al.,
363 1991) both for the frame and the struts and considering 40x40 fiber-grid discretization

364 for each cross section. The concrete is modelled by the Kent and Park model while the
 365 steel bars are modelled by the Menegotto and Pinto constitutive law (Menegotto and
 366 Pinto, 1973).

367 The numerical out-of-plane capacity curve obtained by means of the 2D macro-model is
 368 reported in (Pantò et al. 2018) and here shown in Figure 9b, compared with the results
 369 obtained by the strut model and the experimental findings. These capacity curves are
 370 expressed in terms of lateral displacement of the central point of the infill against the
 371 applied external force. Both models provide a satisfactory prediction of the
 372 experimental response. In particular, the two numerical curves are very close to each
 373 other in terms of initial stiffness and ultimate strength. In the non-linear pre-peak phase,
 374 the strut model and the 2D macro model tend respectively to overestimate and
 375 underestimate the experimental response. However, the differences between the two
 376 models are less than 15% and both lead to a very good prediction of the peak load
 377 (about 5% of error). Larger differences are observed in the post-peak phase where the
 378 2D macro-model, coherently to the experiment, presents a softening behaviour not
 379 provided by the strut model.

Strut	w	t	f_{mo}	f_{mu}	ϵ_{mo}	ϵ_{mu}
	(mm)		(MPa)		(%)	
Diag.	203	230	2,25	1,35	0,15	0,80
Vert.	679	48	10,85	6,51	0,15	0,80
Horiz.	454	48				

(a)



(b)

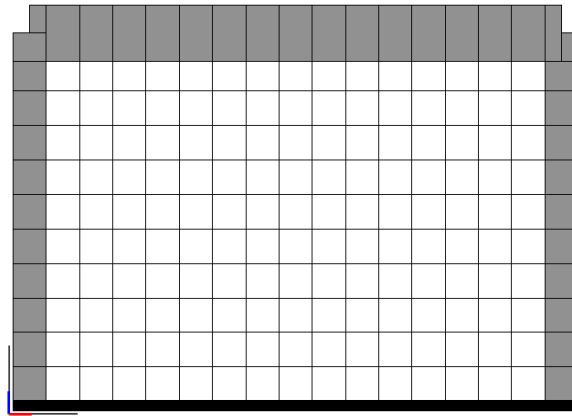
380 Figure 9 Mechanical calibration of the equivalent strut model (a); comparison between the experimental
 381 response and the numerical predictions of the two macro-models (b).

382

383 **5 Simulation of the out-of-plane behaviour of the unreinforced prototypes**
384

385 In this section, the discrete macro-model described in section 4 is employed to
386 numerically simulate the experimental behaviour of the masonry brick infill solutions,
387 previously described in section 2 (*system 1* and *system 2*). According to this modelling
388 strategy, the orthotropic behaviour of the masonry material is taken into account by
389 means of the calibration of the interface non-linear links. With this aim, two different
390 one-dimensional constitutive laws are considered to characterize the masonry along the
391 horizontal and vertical direction (or parallel and orthogonal directions to the bed joints).
392 More details on these procedures can be found in (Pantò et al. ,2017). The numerical
393 simulations aim at providing the capability of the macro-model in predicting lateral
394 stiffness, ultimate strengths and failure mechanisms of the infill frame prototypes. The
395 results of the numerical analyses and the comparisons with the experimental findings
396 are reported and critically commented in the following.

397 A detailed mesh of macro-elements with size 15cm x 15cm is considered for both
398 prototypes (Figure 10) in order to accurately simulate the out-of-plane behaviour of the
399 infill panels and to obtain a high detailed representation of the collapse mechanism and
400 plastic damage distribution. Each model is constituted by 150 macro-elements,
401 corresponding to 1050 degrees of freedom, and by 35 beam elements, corresponding to
402 204 degrees of freedom (Figure 10).



403

404 Figure 10 Mesh of discrete macro-elements

405 In order to evaluate the performance of the macro-model, in section 5.4 the results
406 obtained by the latter model are compared with those obtained by a meso-scale
407 modelling approach which enables a 3D representation of the effective brick
408 arrangement of the two masonry systems. The comparisons are presented and critically
409 discussed in terms of capacity curves and failure mechanisms.

410 The frame is modelled using elastic beam/column elements fully restrained at the base
411 section of the two columns, neglecting the foundation beam. The choice to neglect the
412 nonlinear behaviour of the frame is justified by the slight or inexistent damage observed
413 in the out-of-plane tests.

414 For each model, representative of one masonry typology, the structural response is
415 obtained performing non-linear incremental static analyses (pushover), where two
416 distinct loading stages are considered: (a) self-weight loads and additional vertical
417 forces of 200 kN, applied on the top of each column; (b) uniform pressure distribution
418 applied orthogonally to the masonry infill wall with monotonic increasing intensity. The
419 gravity/vertical loads are applied with the infill present in order to transfer the
420 compression stress to the masonry.

421 The analyses are performed by the structural software HISRA, HIstorical STRuctural
422 Analyses), where the 3D macro model have been implemented (Histra, 2015). An
423 iterative Newton-Raphson method with arch-length algorithm is employed in order to
424 highlight the softening behaviour of the materials.

425

426 *5.1 Estimation of key material mechanical properties*

427 The flexural stiffness (EI) of the frame columns and beams are obtained considering a
428 homogenized cross section and a secant Young modulus (E) of the concrete equal to
429 16.500 MPa, being representative of a cracked section.

430 The masonry compression strength is estimated from compression tests performed on
431 masonry wallets within the research framework described in section 2. The flexural and
432 sliding mechanical parameters of masonry, necessary to calibrate the non-linear links of
433 the macro-model, are estimated from the out-of-plane bending tests performed on
434 *system 1* and *system 2*.

435

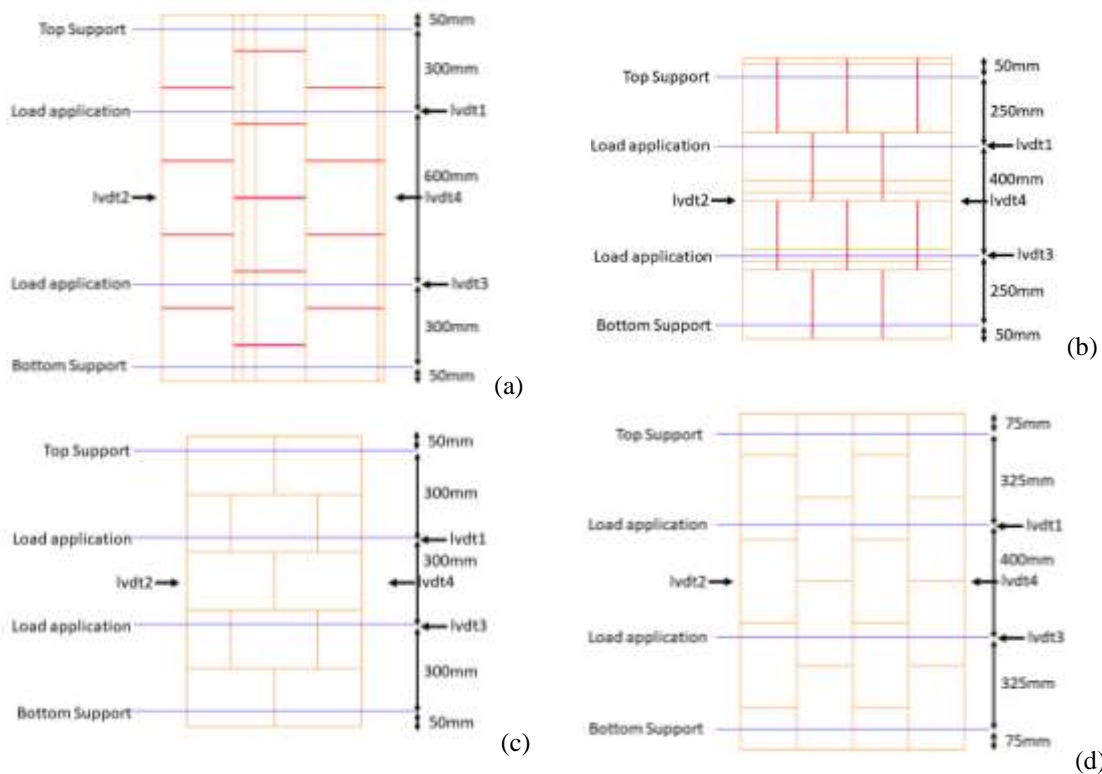
436 *5.1.1 Flexural parameters*

437

438 In order to characterize the flexural behavior of masonry along the parallel and
439 perpendicular directions to the bed joints, three out-of-plane bending specimens were
440 tested in each direction according to (EN1052-2, 1999) for both types of brick masonry.

441 The masonry specimens were laid on general purpose mortar and for the head joints
442 both systems present interlocking joints. In the case of *System1*, the masonry specimens
443 had $1300 \times 765 \text{mm}^2$ and $1000 \times 750 \text{mm}^2$ for the parallel and perpendicular direction to the
444 bed joints respectively, see Figure 11 a,b. In the case of *System2*, the masonry
445 specimens had $1000 \times 600 \text{mm}^2$ and $1200 \times 800 \text{mm}^2$ for the parallel and perpendicular

446 direction to the bed joints, see Figure 11 c,d. Four lvdt's were used to control the
 447 displacement of the specimen, two under the loading sections (lvdt1 and 3) and two on
 448 the middle span (lvdt 2 and lvdt4) of the specimen (one on each side), see Figure 11.
 449 The force is measured using a loading cell attached at the end of the hydraulic actuator.



450 Figure 11 Specimens used for flexural tests; (a) System1 – parallel direction to the bed joints; (b) System1
 451 – perpendicular direction to the bed joints; (c) System2 – parallel direction to the bed joints;
 452 – perpendicular direction to the bed joints.

453

454 The masonry Young modulus, parallel ($E_{//}$) and perpendicular (E_{\perp}) to the bed joints, is
 455 estimated by fitting the initial stiffness obtained from the experimental force-
 456 displacement diagrams whereas the masonry tangential modulus (G) is assumed 40% of
 457 the Young modulus. According to (Lourenco, 1997), the tensile strength of masonry (f_t)
 458 along the main directions of the material is estimated from the ultimate bending moment
 459 (M_u) obtained through the corresponding flexural test, using the expression:

460
$$f_t = M_u / 2W = F_u b / 4W \quad (1)$$

461 where F_u is the ultimate external load recorded during the test (average value from all
 462 specimens), b is the distance between the application point of external force F and the
 463 supports (see Figure 11) and W is the cross-section modulus. The tensile fracture energy
 464 g_t , associated to the experiment, is given by Eq. (2) where u represents the current
 465 deflection of the loaded point corresponding to the external force F and A_t the cross
 466 section of the specimen. The results are summarized in Table 1. The symbol (//) and (\perp)
 467 are used to indicate the test parallel and perpendicular to the bed joints respectively.

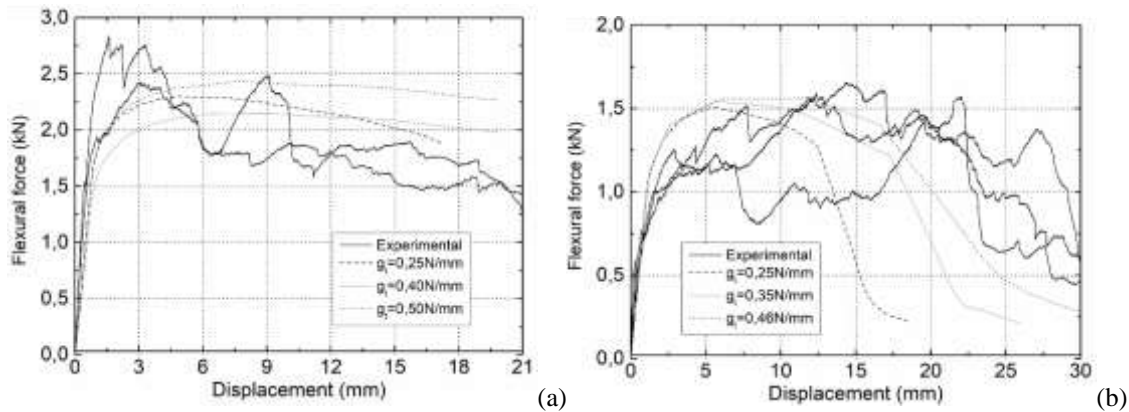
$$468 \quad g_t = \frac{1}{A_t} \int F(u) du \quad (2)$$

469 Table 1 - Determination of the masonry tensile strength and fracture energy.

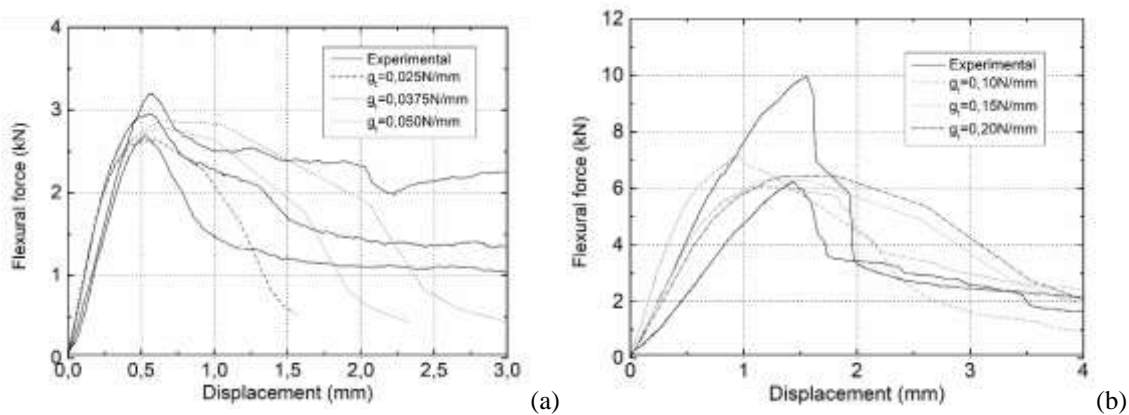
Typology	test	F_u [kN]	G_t [kNmm]	M_u [kNmm]	$A \cdot 10^3$ [mm ²]	$W \cdot 10^4$ [mm ³]	f_t [Mpa]	g_t [N/mm]
System1	//	2,64	37,56	396	76,5	127	0,14	0,501
	\perp	1,55	35,29	193	75,0	125	0,07	0,460
System2	//	2,49	3,84	373	84,0	196	0,08	0,046
	\perp	6,52	15,26	1059	112,0	261	0,16	0,135

470

471 Figure 12 and Figure 13 show the experimental and numerical flexural force-deflection
 472 curves, both in the parallel and perpendicular direction to the bed joints. The numerical
 473 results were obtained for different values of fracture energy. Hence, the results highlight
 474 the high influence of the fracture energy in the numerical response, mainly in the post-
 475 peak branches. On the contrary, little influence is observed until the peak-load is
 476 attained.



477
478 Figure 12 Numerical simulation of the bending tests carried out in *System1*; (a) direction parallel to bed
479 joints; (b) direction perpendicular to bed joints

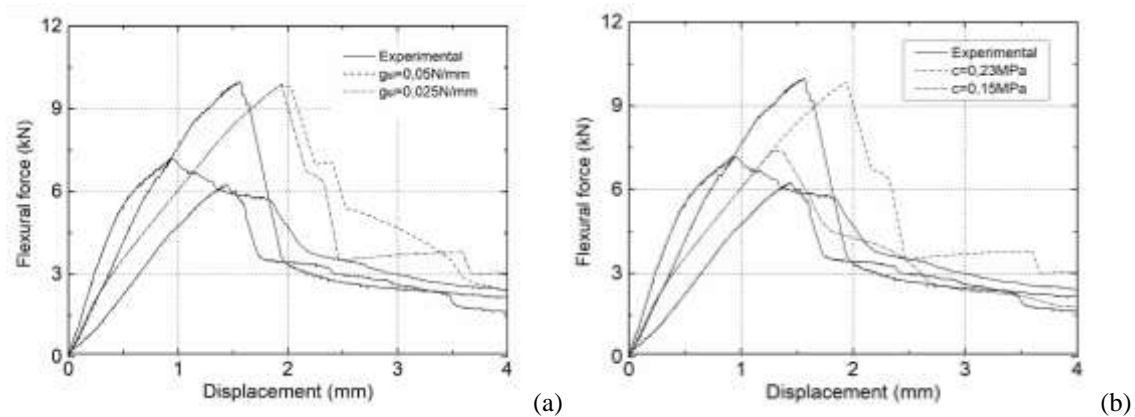


480
481 Figure 13 Numerical simulation of the bending tests carried out in *System2*; (a) direction parallel to bed
482 joints; (b) direction perpendicular to bed joints

483 5.1.2 The sliding properties

484 The mechanical parameters characterizing the sliding behaviour of the masonry bed
485 joints are estimated through the numerical simulation of the flexural tests parallel to the
486 bed joints (Figure 11a,c) by means of a meso-scale modelling approach, here performed
487 employing the *DMM* described in section 4, as described in section 5.4. The flexural
488 behaviour of the interfaces is calibrated according to the results obtained in the previous
489 section, while their sliding behaviour is characterised assuming a constant friction
490 coefficient $\mu=0,57$, representative of the residual friction factor. The cohesion (c) and
491 sliding fracture energy (g_{sl}) of the mortar joints are estimated fitting the experimental
492 results of each system. Subsequently, parametric analyses are performed in order to
493

495 estimate the influence of these parameters on the global response. The results of the
 496 parametric analyses, with reference to *system-2*, are shown in Figure 14. More in detail,
 497 the influence of the fracture energy is assessed by keeping the cohesion constant
 498 ($0,15MPa$) and varying the sliding energy ($0,025-0,050N/mm$) (Figure 14a). The
 499 influence of the cohesion is analysed by keeping the fracture energy constant
 500 ($0,025N/mm$) and by varying the values of cohesion ($0,15MPa$ and $0,23MPa$) (Figure
 501 14b). The set parameters which led to the best approximation of the experimental results
 502 were $c=0,40MPa$ and $g_{sl}=0,1N/mm$ for *System1* and $c=0,15MPa$ and $g_{sl}=0,025N/mm$
 503 for *System2*.



504
 505 Figure 14 Influence of the sliding fracture energy (a) and cohesion (b) on the out-of-plane flexural
 506 behaviour of the system-2 brick masonry.

507
 508 The masonry compressive strengths (f_c) and the fracture energy in compression (g_c) are
 509 assessed using the results of compression tests performed on masonry wallets within the
 510 same research framework. In the numerical analyses, the same value of $g_c=0,5N/mm$ is
 511 assumed for both masonry typologies. The other mechanical masonry parameters,
 512 adopted in the numerical simulations of the infill frame prototypes, are reported in Table
 513 for System1 and in Table for System2.

514 Table 2 - Mechanical property of the System-1.

Direc.	E [N/mm ²]	G [N/mm ²]	f _c [N/mm ²]	f _t [N/mm ²]	g _c [N/mm]	g _t [N/mm]	c [N/mm]	μ [-]	g _{sl} [N/mm]
Parallel	1200	450	3,00	0,14	0,5	0,50	0,4	0,57	0,10
Perpen.	250		1,00	0,07		0,46			

515 Table 3 - Mechanical property of the System-2.

Direc.	E [N/mm ²]	G [N/mm ²]	f _c [N/mm ²]	f _t [N/mm ²]	g _c [N/mm]	g _t [N/mm]	c [N/mm]	μ [-]	g _{sl} [N/mm]
Parallel	750	300	1,50	0,08	0,5	0,04	0,15	0,57	0,025
Perpen.	750		1,50	0,16		0,14			

516

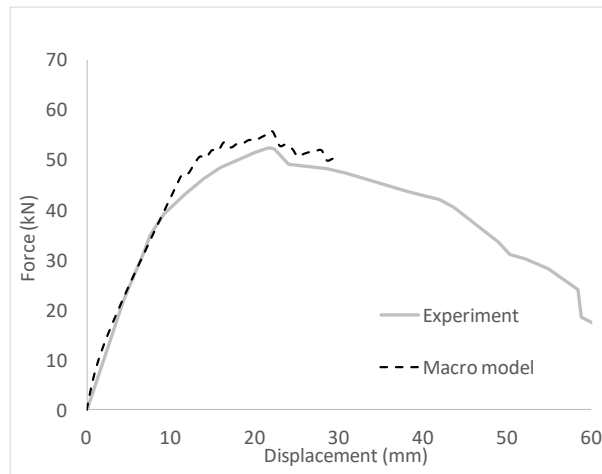
517 *5.2 Numerical simulation of the out-of-plane behaviour of the System 1(unreinforced)*

518 The performance of the macro-modelling approach applied in the numerical simulation
 519 of the rc frame with masonry infill *System1* (unreinforced) is compared with the
 520 experimental force-displacement diagrams (monotonic capacity curves) and damage
 521 patterns, see Figure 15 and Figure 16.

522 From the comparison of the numerical and experimental capacity curves, it is seen that
 523 the response of the models is close to the experimental curve, both in terms of lateral
 524 stiffness and ultimate strength. In particular, the numerical curve follows the
 525 experimental envelope in the pre-peak stage and in the first part of the post-peak branch
 526 with a very reasonable approximation. However, at 30mm of lateral displacement the
 527 numerical analysis is prematurely interrupted due to numerical convergence problems.

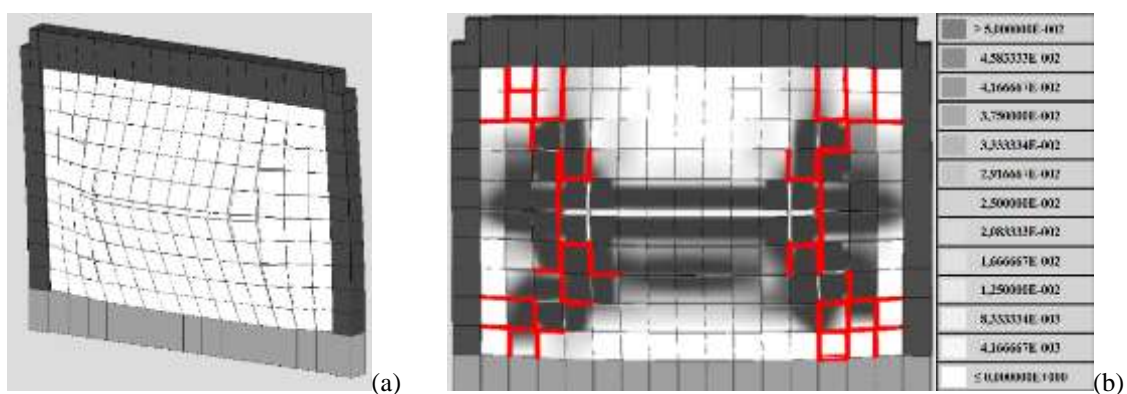
528 Figure 16a presents the mesh deformation of the macro-model at the last step of the
 529 analysis, while Figure 16b shows the corresponding damage scenario in terms of normal
 530 plastic deformation and sliding mechanisms. The first are represented by a grey color-

531 map scale, defined according to (Pantò et al. ,2017), while the sliding is indicated by red
532 lines.



533
534 Figure 15 Comparison of the numerical and experimental capacity curves of the unreinforced prototype.

535
536 The numerical failure mechanism highlighted in Figures 15 is substantially coherent to
537 the experimental observations briefly summarised in section 2. The tensile cracking is
538 concentrated in the central part of the infill, where the highest bending moments are
539 reached. A spread damage, characterised by plastic sliding, is observed along the
540 diagonal directions of the infill and at the frame corner areas.



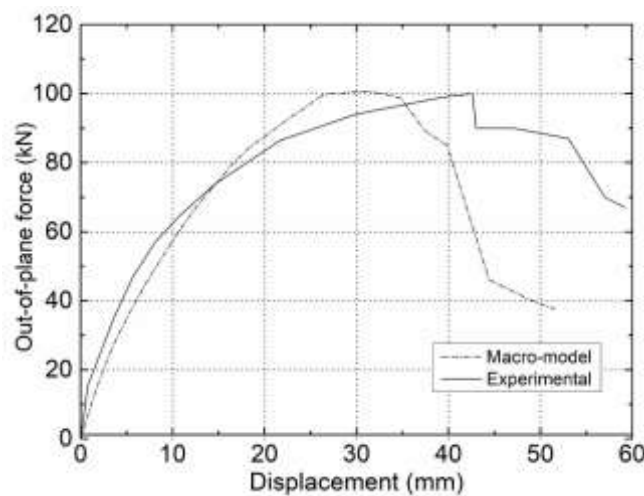
541
542 Figure 16 Macro-modelling of the rc frame with *System I* (unreinforced): (a) deformed mesh and (b)
543 plastic damage at the last step of the analysis.

544

545 5.3 Numerical simulation of the out-of-plane behavior of the System 2 (unreinforced)

546 The experimental behaviour of masonry infill *System2* was characterised by sliding
547 between the infill and the top beam of the frame. In the numerical analyses this aspect is
548 well simulated when the infill-beam cohesion (c_{m-f}) is assumed to be equal to 65% of the
549 masonry cohesion ($c=0.15MPa$). Figure 17 presents the numerical capacity curve
550 obtained by means of the macro-model, together with the experimental envelope. It is
551 considered that the model satisfactorily reproduces the experimental response until the
552 lateral drift of 25mm although a slight underestimation of the initial lateral stiffness is
553 observed. On the contrary, a good prediction of the ultimate strength of the system is
554 provided.

555 In the post-peak stage, the numerical macro-model shows a sharper strength
556 degradation, underestimating the actual ductility which the system exhibited during the
557 experiment. This difference may be caused by the inability of the model to reproduce
558 the large masonry deformations characterising the post-peak infill response since the
559 hypothesis of small displacements and small deformations are accepted in the numerical
560 simulations.



561

562 Figure 17 Comparison of the numerical and experimental capacity curve of the Unreinforced Infill Frame.

563 The plastic damage corresponding to the peak-load state is composed by tensile cracks
 564 concentrated at the centre of the infill (Figure 18a) and at the base (Figure 18b).
 565 Widespread sliding develops in the horizontal and vertical interfaces along the
 566 diagonals of the infill. The last step of the analysis is characterized by widespread
 567 tensile cracking formed at the centre of the front face panel, at approximately 1/3 of the
 568 height from the base, and two vertical cracks, located at the 1/3 of the infill span from
 569 the columns (Figure 19a). Tensile cracks are concentrated at the base section of the back
 570 face of the specimen (Figure 19b). The numerical collapse mechanism, described above,
 571 is substantially coherent with the experimental observations, both in terms of shape
 572 lateral deformation and plastic damage distribution.

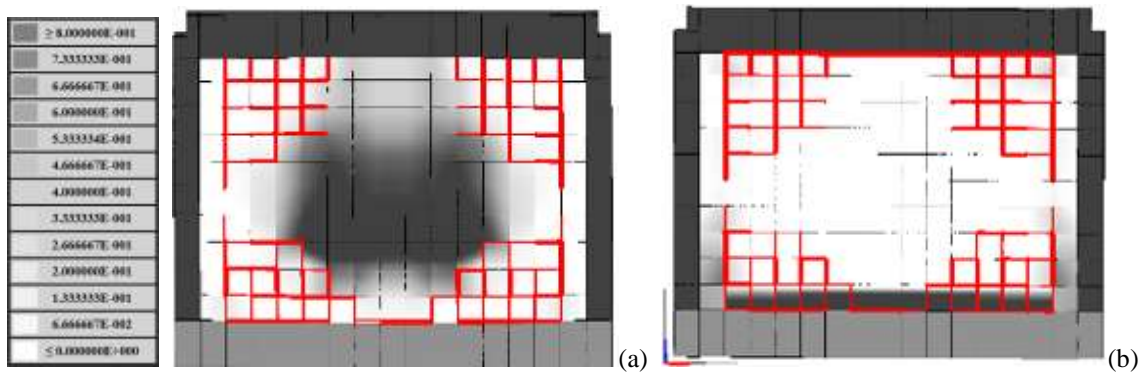


Figure 18 Damage distribution of the unreinforced infill frame at the peak load value: (a) front face ; (b) back face

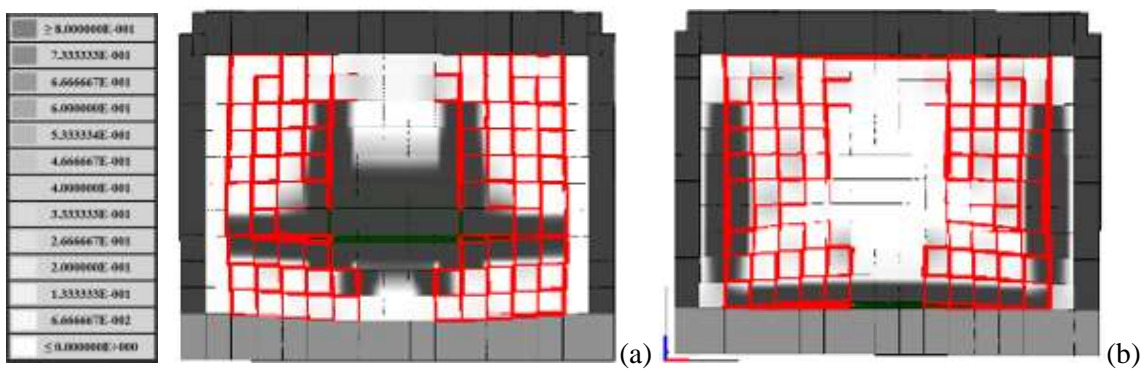


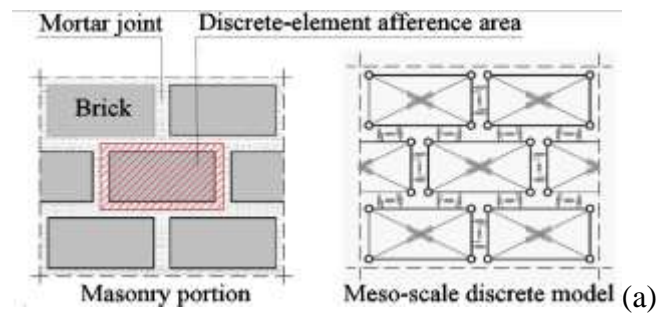
Figure 19 Damage distribution of the unreinforced infill frame at the last step: (a) front face ; (b) back face

577

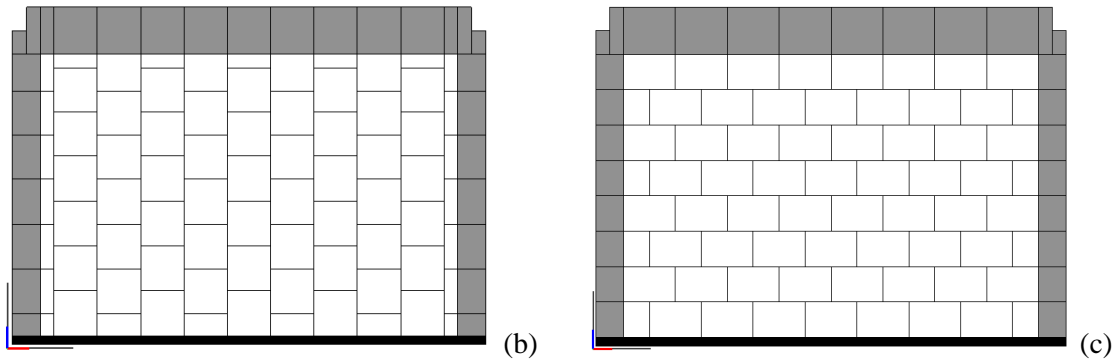
578 5.4 Meso-scale numerical simulations

579 In order to validate the performance of the macro-model, two meso-scale models are
580 developed. In these models, the actual masonry texture of each system is reproduced as
581 shown in Figure 20b and 20c. According to this modelling strategy (Dolatshahi and
582 Aref, 2011) (Macorini and Izzuddin, 2011) the masonry units are modelled using
583 continuum solid or rigid elements, whereas the mortar layers are modelled by means of
584 non-linear zero-thickness interface elements.

585 In the present study, the meso-scale models are developed employing the same macro-
586 element described in section 4, calibrated in order to transfer the shear and normal
587 masonry deformation to the diagonal and interface links. Each discrete element is
588 defined to represent a single brick and is assigned to represent both the brick and the
589 surrounding mortar joint properties according to the correspondence reported in Figure
590 20a. The interface nonlinear links are delegated to represent the mortar joints and the
591 deformability of bricks according to the influence area of each link (Caliò and Pantò,
592 2014).

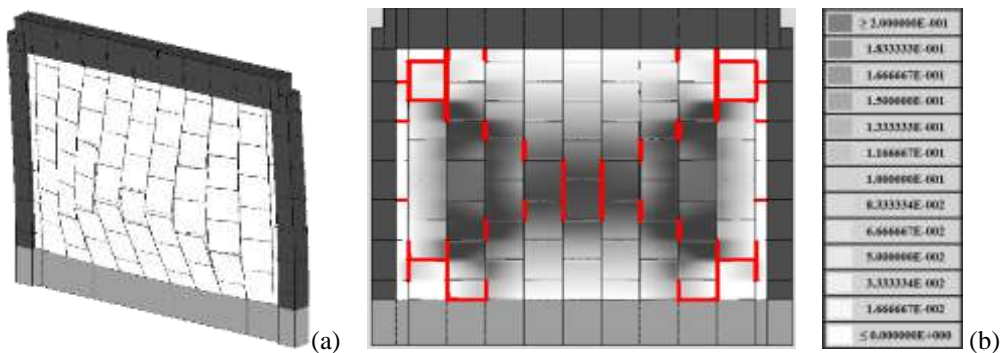


593



594 Figure 20 Meso-scale modelling approach: mechanical scheme of the discrete model (a); discretization
 595 mesh of System-1 (b) and System-2(c).

596 Figure 21 shows the failure mechanism (last step of the analysis) obtained by means of
 597 the meso-scale model for the *system-1* with the distribution of the plastic damage on the
 598 interfaces. Similarly to the macro-model, the plastic deformations normal to the joints
 599 are represented by a gray colour map, while the sliding is represented by red lines. The
 600 numerical failure mechanism is characterised by tensile cracking at the central part of
 601 the infill and sliding at the beam/column joint areas. Due to the particular disposition of
 602 the bricks, the sliding mechanisms appear mainly along the vertical interfaces with a
 603 typical "zig-zag" shape, frequently observed in the brick masonry typologies.

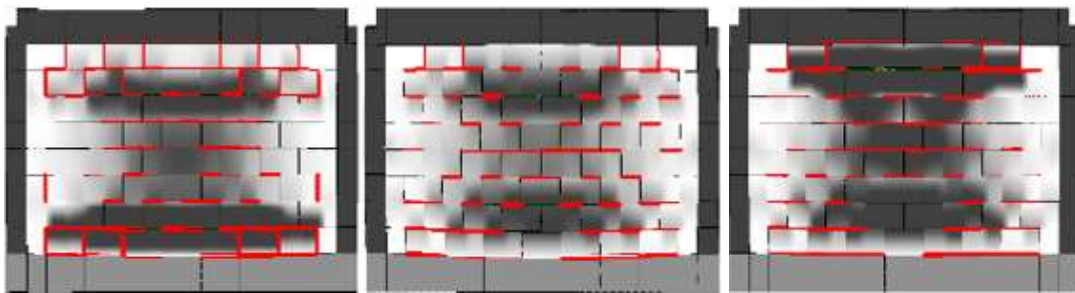


604
 605 Figure 21 Meso-scale model of the rc frame with *System 1* (unreinforced): (a) deformed mesh (b) collapse
 606 mechanism

607
 608 It is interesting to notice that in this case, the horizontal cracks are more close to the
 609 base of the walls, similarly to the crack pattern visible in the specimens tested

610 experimentally. This appears to indicate that in this constructive solution, the meso-
611 scale modelling strategy can be more appropriate for the simulation.

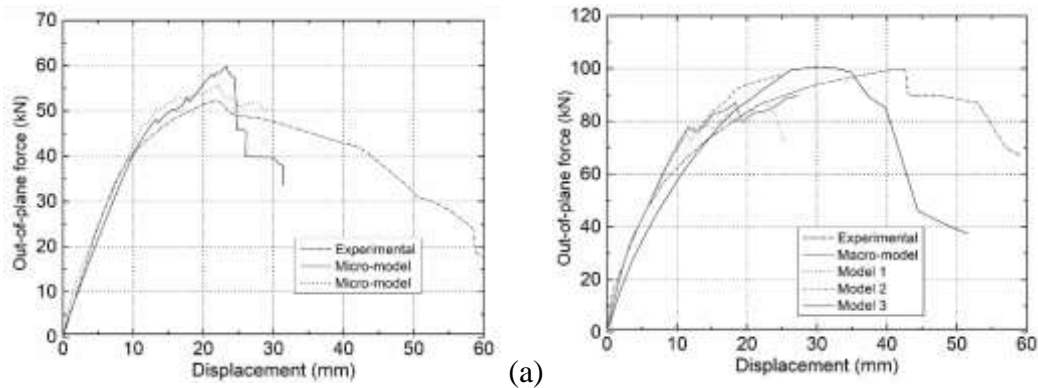
612 The failure mechanisms of *system-2* predicted by the meso-scale discretization,
613 considering three different values of infill-frame cohesion $c_{mf} = 35\%$ (model 1), 65%
614 (model 2) and 100% (model 3) of the cohesion considered for the masonry joints, are
615 reported in Figure 22. A significant influence of this parameter on the plastic damage
616 distribution is observed: in *model 1*, the damage is more concentrated at the panel base
617 and 3/4 of the panel height with two main horizontal tensile cracks and sliding along the
618 horizontal mortar joints. Decreasing the cohesion (*model 2*, *model 3*), the plastic
619 damage moves towards the top part of the infill wall.



620
621 Figure 22 Plastic damage at the last step of the analysis for the model 1 (a), model 2 (b) and model 3 (c).
622

623 The comparisons between the numerical capacity curves are reported in Figure 23,
624 where the experimental curves are also reported. A substantial agreement between the
625 two models can be observed, mainly for the *system-1* where the two numerical curves
626 are very close to each other. With regards to the *system-2*, a slight overestimation of the
627 lateral strength is observed by the meso-scale model 3 ($c_{mf} = c$) if compared with the
628 macro-modelling and the specimen. However, all three meso-scale models are rather
629 close to the experimental curve providing a more reliable prediction of the initial lateral
630 stiffness of the system, in comparison to the macro-model. However, the analyses

631 performed on the meso-scale models are precociously concluded, approximately at
632 30mm, for problems concerning numerical stability of the solution.



633 (a) (b)
634 Figure 23 Capacity curves of the meso-scale models of the System-1 (a) and System-2 (b).

635 In conclusion, the comparisons reported in this sub-section confirmed that the macro-
636 model is able to simulate the out-of-plane behaviour of brick infill frame systems with
637 an accuracy comparable to the one obtained employing more refined meso-scale
638 modelling strategies.

639 **6 Simulation of the out-of-plane behaviour of the reinforced prototypes**

640
641 As already described in section 2, two different reinforcing techniques have been
642 considered and experimentally tested for the two brick masonry infill solutions. The
643 reinforcement of *system-1* is constituted by vertical steel bars applied on the two
644 external faces of the bricks through cementitious mortar to guarantee the tangential
645 adherence between the bars and bricks. *System2* has been reinforced by means of
646 horizontal steel bars located inside the mortar bed joints and mechanical connections
647 between the infill and the columns.

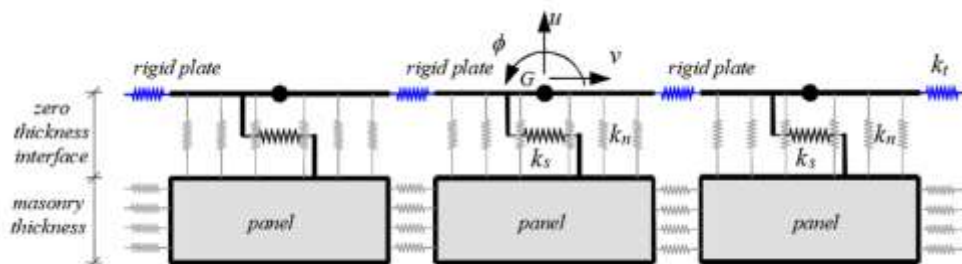
648 Two different modelling approaches are used to simulate the behaviour of the two
649 reinforced systems. In the case of *System1*, the reinforcing steel bars are explicitly
650 modelled by means of additional macro-elements interacting to the other elements of the
651 model by means of non-linear interfaces able to simulate the normal and tangential bond

652 interaction between the reinforcing bars and masonry. For *System2*, since the
 653 reinforcement is embedded within the bed mortar joints, it is not possible to explicitly
 654 consider it by the macro-modelling strategy. For this reason, the reinforced infill is
 655 modelled as an equivalent homogenised material with increased flexural mechanical
 656 properties related to the ones adopted to model the unreinforced infill.

657

658 6.1 The *System1* prototype

659 The reinforcement is modelled following the approach proposed by (Caddemi et al.,
 660 2017), in which the reinforcing steel bars are simulated by means of piecewise rigid
 661 plates interacting to the masonry by means of zero thickness non-linear discrete
 662 interfaces. The latter simulate the cohesive behaviour of the mortar layer connecting the
 663 bars to the masonry, in normal and tangential directions. Each interface is made of a
 664 row of n transversal N-Links which simulate the normal interaction (k_n) and of a single
 665 longitudinal N-Link which simulates the shear behaviour (k_s). Figure 24 presents a
 666 simplified modelling scheme of a portion of the reinforced masonry infill through an
 667 assemblage of macro-elements and rigid plates corresponding to the reinforcement
 668 system.



669

670 Figure 24 Modelling scheme of the reinforced system.

671

672 Each plate is characterized by three degrees of freedom, associated to the two
673 translations of its barycentre (u, v) and to the rotation of the plate (ϕ). According to the
674 philosophy of the macro-modelling approach, the rigid plates are discretized by a mesh
675 compatible to the mesh of the macro-elements (Figure 24). The plates interact with each
676 other by means of unidirectional links (k_t) working only in traction which reproduce the
677 deformability and strength of the bars under tension. This mechanical behaviour is
678 described by an elastic-brittle constitutive law characterised by the elastic Young
679 modulus (E_s) and yield stress (f_y) of the steel and the area of the bar (A_t).

680 An elasto-plastic bond-slip constitutive law with linear softening behaviour,
681 characterised by the yield tangential stress (τ_s) and the ultimate fracture energy (g_s), is
682 employed to simulate the debonding failure mechanism of the reinforcements. The
683 geometrical and mechanical parameters of steel bars and the bond-slip constitutive
684 parameters, necessary to mechanically calibrate the model, are estimated according to
685 (Caddemi et al. ,2017) and reported in Table 4.

686

687 Table 4 - Mechanical parameters of the reinforcing steel bars and the bond-slip constitutive law

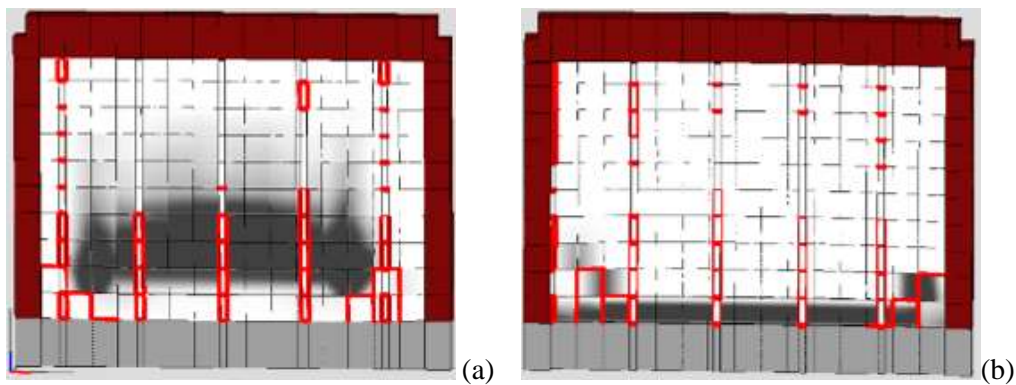
Tensile behaviour			Bond-slip behaviour		
E_s [MPa]	f_y [MPa]	A_t [mm ²]	k_s [N/mm ³]	τ_s [MPa]	g_s [N/mm]
210000	547.35	28	600	0,4	0,5

688

689 Figure 25 shows the plastic damage distribution at the last step of the pushover analysis.
690 It can be observed that the plastic damage is constituted by masonry flexural cracking
691 on the infill masonry and sliding between masonry and reinforcements. The latter,
692 mostly concentrated at the bottom part of the front face panel (Figure 25a), is indicated
693 by red lines, similarly to the representation adopted for the sliding mechanisms between

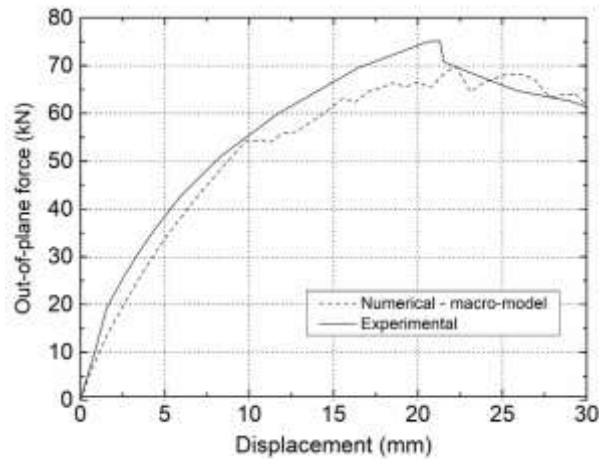
694 two masonry panels. At the back face, tensile cracking occurs at the base section of the
695 infill and near the columns, while sliding is activated in correspondence of the interfaces
696 between the infill and the columns (Figure 25b).

697 This failure mode is rather different from the collapse mechanism exhibited by the
698 unreinforced brick masonry infill. The widespread tensile cracking at the central part of
699 the panel and sliding at the corners, observed in the unreinforced model, are here
700 strongly restricted by the confinement action of the reinforcements.



701 (a) (b)
702 Figure 25 Damage distribution at the last step of the analysis; front face (a), back face (b).

703
704 The numerical capacity curve is reported in Figure 26 compared to the experimental
705 monotonic envelope. From this, it is possible to observe a good agreement between
706 numerical and experimental response in terms of lateral stiffness, ultimate load and
707 displacement capacity. Two phases can be recognized in the numerical response: (1)
708 from zero to approximately 55kN, numerical and experimental response are very close;
709 (2) after the out-of-plane resistance of 55kN, the numerical response is characterised by
710 an irregular path with continuous loss of strength, due to the sliding mechanism
711 involving the reinforcement. This leads to numerical values of out-of-plane resistance
712 slightly lower than the ones recorded in the experimental test.



713

714

Figure 26 Numerical and experimental capacity curve of the reinforced prototype.

715

716 A more refined mesh of the reinforcing steel bars would be necessary to more
 717 accurately follow the progressive loss of reinforcement adherence. Nevertheless, the
 718 adopted mesh discretization gives a satisfactory prediction of the global strength of the
 719 reinforced system, coherently to the simplified character of the modelling approach.

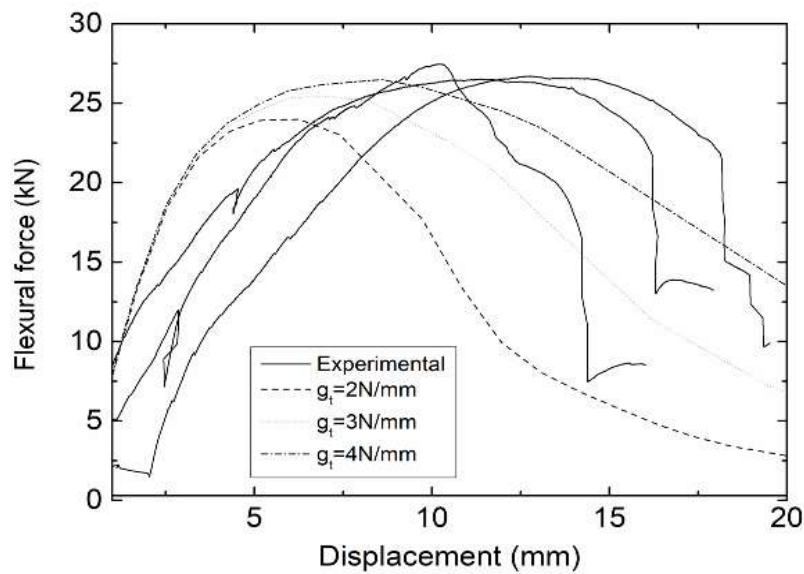
720 The difference between the experimental strength and the numerical prediction is
 721 approximately 10%. This level of approximation is considered to be adequate to the
 722 scope of the numerical investigation.

723

724 6.2 The System2 prototype

725 The contribution of the steel reinforcements, applied within the horizontal bed joints, is
 726 modelled increasing the masonry tensile strength and fracture energy, along the
 727 direction parallel to the bed joints. Furthermore, in order to take into account, the steel
 728 connections between infill and frame, the sliding motion at the masonry-column
 729 interfaces is inhibited. The new flexural parameters of the masonry are estimated by
 730 simulating the flexural tests performed on reinforced specimens and fitting the
 731 experimental results. The tensile strength (f_t) of the reinforced masonry was evaluated

732 yet again as $M_u / 2W$ resulting in the value of 0,83 MPa, being the ultimate moment M_u
 733 equal to 4371 KNmm. The corresponding tensile fracture energy (g_t) that adequately
 734 provides the experimental results is 4,00 N/mm. Figure 27 shows the influence of the
 735 fracture energy on the force-deflection bending test response. It is important to notice
 736 that the reinforcing system produces an extreme increase of the masonry ductility when
 737 compared to the unreinforced masonry system.



738
 739 Figure 27 Numerical simulation of the bending tests on the reinforced masonry walls : influence of the tensile
 740 fracture energy

741
 742 Figure 28 shows the failure mechanism and the corresponding plastic damage
 743 distribution of the reinforced system. The numerical damage scenario is substantially
 744 coherent to the results of the experiments. In order to better clarify the difference
 745 between the unreinforced and reinforced system, the ultimate lateral displacements
 746 obtained with and without reinforcements are compared, see Figure 29. The two
 747 scenario are sensibly different: in the unreinforced masonry infill (Figure 29a) the peak
 748 lateral displacement is recorded below the central section of the panel; in the reinforced
 749 prototype (Figure 29b) the peak lateral drift is achieved at the top of the infill. It is seen

750 that in both cases the detachment of the walls from the top beam occurs but the failure
 751 of the reinforced model is more influenced by sliding between the infill and the top rc
 752 beam.

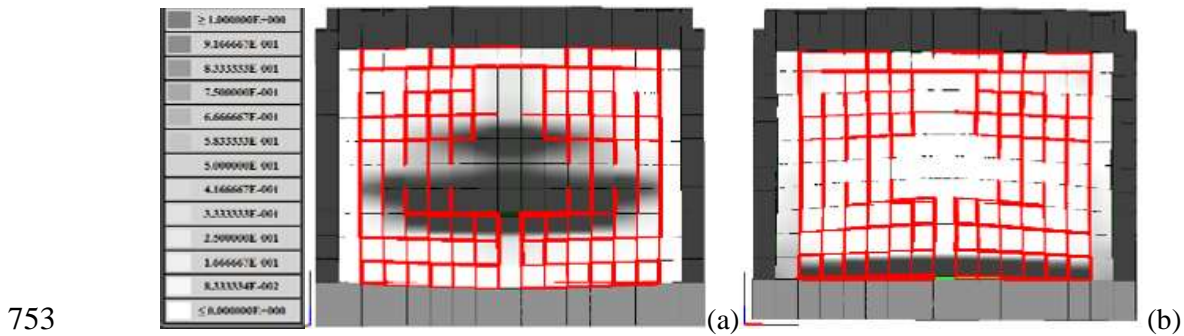
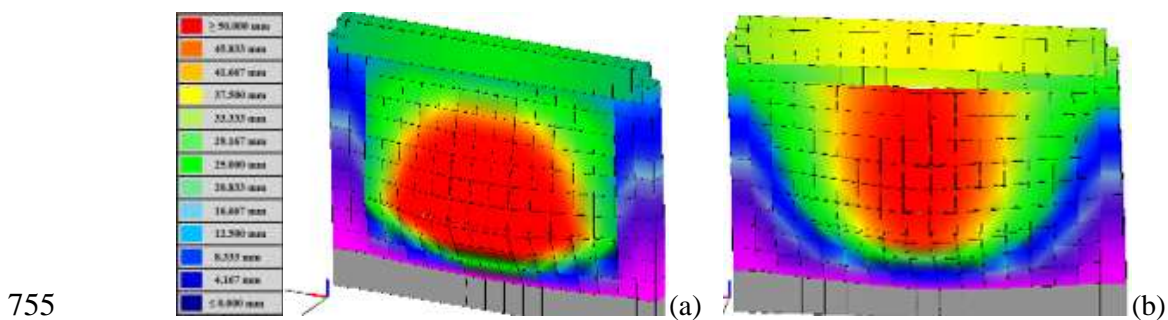


Figure 28 Damage distribution of the unreinforced infill frame at the last step: (a) front face (b) and back face.



756 Figure 29 Comparison of the ultimate deformed shape of: (a) unreinforced masonry infill wall ; (b) and reinforced
 757 masonry infill wall.

758 The considerable increment of the tensile strength and ductility of masonry along the
 759 horizontal direction due to the reinforcing system, lead to predominant horizontal
 760 bending. This enabled the infill to carry increment of lateral load although large
 761 horizontal cracks are developed by means an horizontal bending moment transfer
 762 horizontal cracks are developed by means an horizontal bending moment transfer
 763 mechanism.

764 The comparison between numerical and experimental capacity curve, is reported in
 765 Figure 30, from which it is possible to see that a substantial agreement between the
 766 responses, both in terms of initial lateral stiffness and ultimate load-carrying capacity.

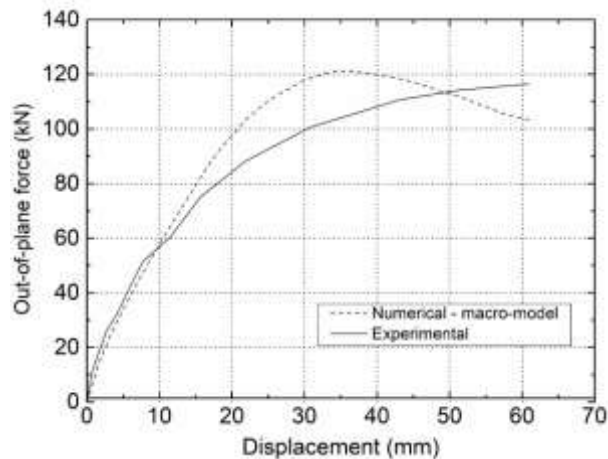


Figure 30 Numerical capacity curve compared to the experimental results.

767
768

769

770 Up to the lateral displacement of 15 mm, the numerical and experimental curves are
 771 very close to each other. After this point, the numerical model begins to overestimate
 772 the lateral stiffness of the system, reaching the peak load before the specimen, at a
 773 lateral drift of approximately 35mm. The model then shows a softening branch, which
 774 leads the numerical prediction towards the experimental curve. The discrepancies
 775 between the numerical and experimental curve can be justified by the simplicity of
 776 constitutive law employed to simulate the out-of-plane sliding mechanism. A non-linear
 777 plastic constitutive law, instead of the elasto-plastic here considered to calibrate the
 778 longitudinal interface links, may give a better approximation of the experimental
 779 response. Nevertheless, it is considered that the current modelling accuracy level is
 780 satisfactory to interpret the global structural behaviour of the system and suitable to be
 781 used in real structures for seismic vulnerability assessments.

782

783 **7 Parametric analyses**

784 In order to assess the sensitivity of brick masonry infill walls on the main mechanical
 785 and geometrical parameters and evaluate how they influence the lateral stiffness and

786 strength of the system, it was decided to perform a parametric study. This study refers to
787 *System2 which can be considered representative of traditional masonry infills*. Five
788 aspects are considered, as shown in Table 5: infill geometry including thickness (t) and
789 infill aspect ratio (L/H); masonry strength including compression strength (f_c), tensile
790 strength (f_t), tensile fracture energy (g_t), cohesion (c), friction coefficient (μ) and sliding
791 fracture energy (g_s); masonry stiffness (E_m , G_m); opening effects; vertical loads, applied
792 in the columns (Q) and in the top rc beam (q). Regular opening distribution, constituted
793 by a single central door or window opening, characterized by different geometrical ratio
794 A_o/A_m , where A_o is the area of opening and A_m the area of the masonry infill wall, is
795 here considered.

796 A set of three values is taken into account for each parameter investigated namely, an
797 average value (v_m) and two upper/lower values (v_{inf}/v_{sup}) obtained by an increase or a
798 decrease of 50% to 100% of the average value, v_m . The numerical analyses were
799 performed considering the variability of a singular parameter, whereas the others were
800 kept constant and equal to the average values as reported in Table 5.

801 **Table 5 - Geometrical parameters considered in the sensitivity analysis (N-mm).**

Aspect investigated	parameter	symbol	measure unit	values		
				v_{inf}	v_m	v_{sup}
Infill geometry	thickness	T	-	100	140	210
	In-plane shape ratio	L/H	-	1,00	1,50	2,00
Masonry strength	compression strength	f_c	MPa	1,20	1,80	2,40
	tensile strength (isotropic behaviour)	f_t	MPa	0,10	0,25	0,50
	tensile fracture energy (isotropic behaviour)	g_t	N/mm	0,03	0,30	0,90
	cohesion	c	MPa	0,10	0,15	0,20
	friction factor	μ	-	0,4	0,55	0,70
	sliding fractural energy	g_s	N/mm	0,025	0,05	0,10
Masonry stiffness	Young modulus	E_m	MPa	600	1200	2400
	shear modulus	G_m	MPa	150	300	600
Openings	windows opening ratio	A_o/A_m	%	0	13	28

	door opening ratio	A_o/A_m	%	0	23	37
Vertical loads	column loads	Q	kN	50	200	300
	beam loads	q	kN/m	25	50	100

802

803

804 The results of the parametric analyses on the full infilled frames are reported in

805 Figure 31 in terms of capacity curves expressed as base shear vs maximum lateral

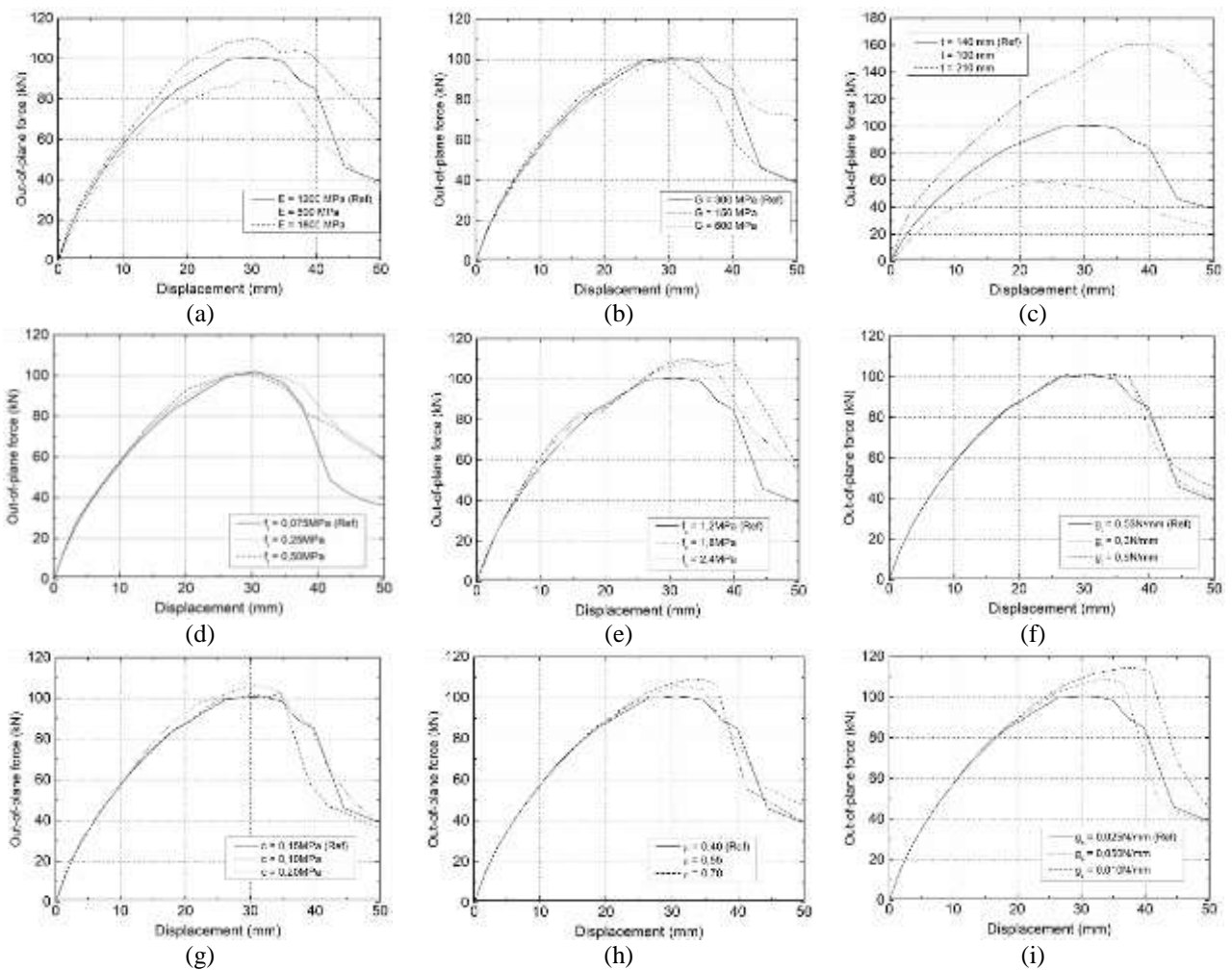
806 displacement. The strength parameters characterizing the sliding behaviour and, in

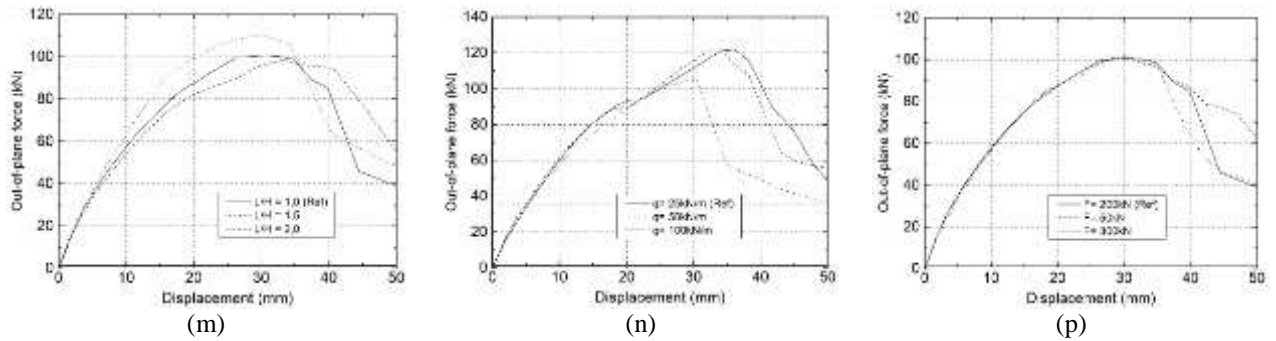
807 particular, the sliding fracture energy (g_s), cohesion (c) and the friction factor (μ),

808 influence the ultimate lateral strength of the system, see Figure 31g, h, i. The increase

809 on the infill compression strength results in a slight increase of the peak system strength

810 and ductility capacity (Figure 31e).





811 Figure 31 Sensitivity analysis of the macro-model: Young modulus (a); tangential modulus (b); thickness of infill
 812 (c); compression strength (d); tensile strength (e); tensile fracture energy(f); cohesion (g); friction coefficient (h);
 813 fractural sliding energy (i); infill shape ratio (m); vertical beam load (n); vertical loads on the column (p).

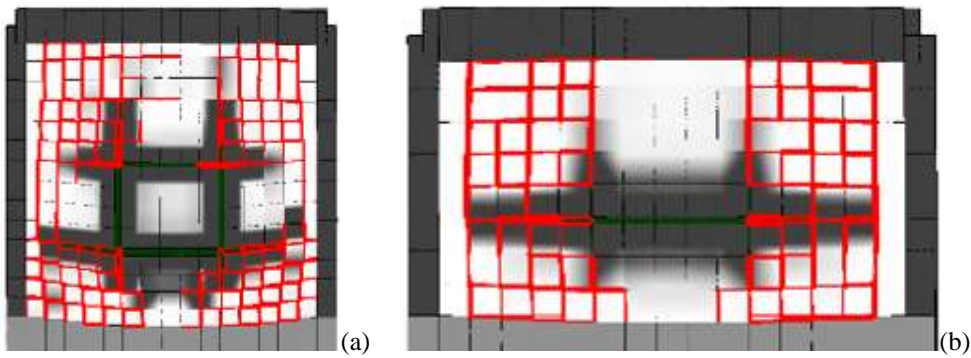
814

815 A low sensitivity of the model on the tensile fracture energy is observed (Figure 31f)
 816 while tensile strength influences only the post-peak response (Figure 31d). The initial
 817 stiffness is greatly influenced by the thickness of the infill (Figure 31c) and slightly
 818 influenced by the Young masonry modulus (E) as shown in Figure 31a. Conversely,
 819 shear modulus (G) influences only post-peak response of the system (Figure 31b).
 820 Finally, in-plane infill aspect ratio (L/H) considerably influences the peak and post-peak
 821 response, Figure 31m.

822 Distributed beam load (q) significantly influences the ultimate resistance of the
 823 system, see Figure 31n. High values of the distributed load results in a significant
 824 decrease on the out-of-plane resistance of the masonry wall. This is associated to the
 825 direct transfer of the vertical load to the brick infill, increasing the masonry compression
 826 stress state. Since flexural behaviour and arching mechanism prevail on the infill
 827 response, it is affected by the increase on the compression stress levels due to the
 828 development of anticipated crushing mechanism when out-of-plane load is applied. This
 829 brings to light the issue of deformability of the rc beams/slabs, inducing additional
 830 compressive stresses to the infill walls and reducing its out-of-plane resistance. On the
 831 other hand, it is observed that the vertical column forces (F) slightly influence the

832 global response of the brick infill (Figure 31p), since such loads transferred directly by
833 the stiffer r/c columns to the foundation.

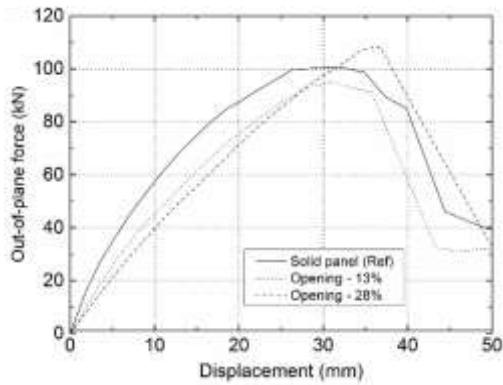
834 The influence of the infill shape ratio was investigated keeping a constant height (H)
835 while changing the system length (L). Typical damage patterns of brick infill, for two
836 different aspect ratios are reported in Figure 32. The failure mode changes from the
837 formation of two vertical and horizontal tensile cracks (case $L/H=1$) to the formation of
838 a widespread horizontal crack in the case of $L/H=2$. In the first case a 2D-bending
839 mechanism develops, whereas in the second case, a unidirectional (vertical) flexural
840 mechanism predominates.



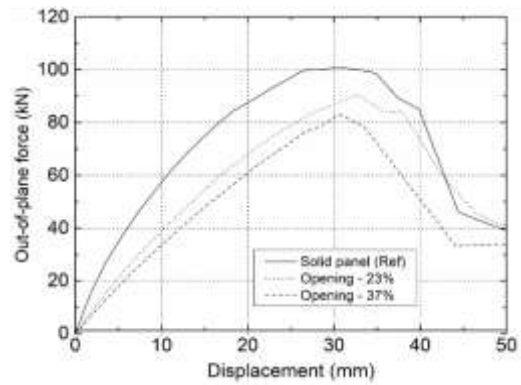
841
842 Figure 32 Failure modes associated to the geometry ratio $L/H=1$ (a) and $L/H=2$ (b)

843

844 The responses of the masonry infills with different types of openings (windows and
845 doors) and different percentages of opening area are shown in Figure 33. It is observed
846 that the presence of openings produces a significant invariably reduction of the initial
847 lateral stiffness of the system. A lateral strength reduction is observed in the door-open
848 systems. On the contrary, window-opening results indicate no significant influence in
849 the out-of-plane strength, despite the decrease of lateral stiffness.



(a)



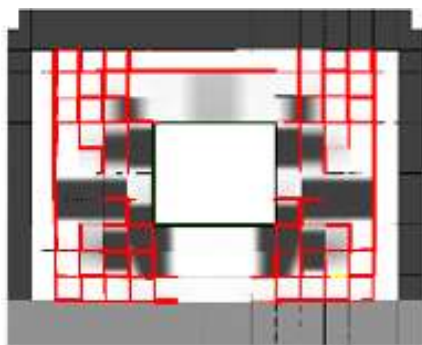
(b)

850 Figure 33 Capacity curves of the infill frame with opening; (a) windows opening; (b) doors opening.

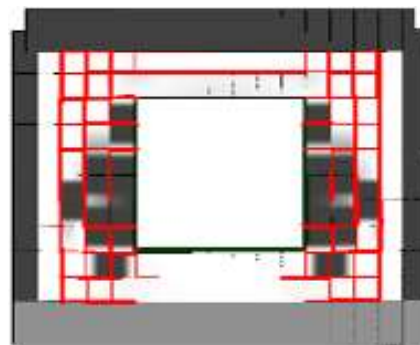
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852 The collapse mechanisms observed for different openings are shown in Figure 34. The
 853 damage is concentrated mainly at the lateral sides of the openings. A more evident
 854 damage concentration is observed in the upper spandrel where infills are characterized
 855 by low opening ratio (windows 13% and door 23%).

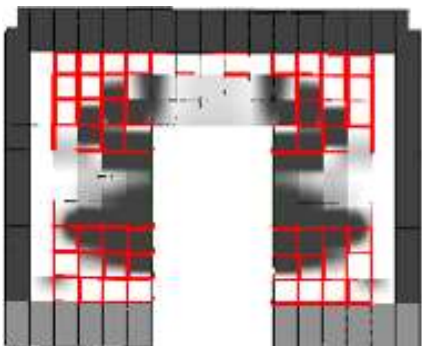
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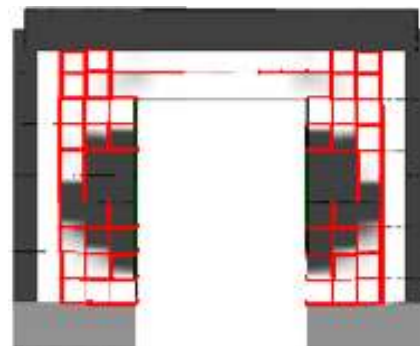
(window 13%)



(window 28%)



(door 23%)



(door 37%)

857

858

859

860

861 Figure 34 Collapse mechanisms of the infilled frame with opening.

862

863 7.1 Variation of the out-of-plane stiffness and strength

864 Taking into account the most influential parameters in the out-of-plane behavior of the
 865 investigated brick infill walls, it was decided to perform a deeper investigation on their
 866 influence in the variation of the ultimate strength (F_u) and initial stiffness (K_I), the latter
 867 evaluated at 30% of load level with respect to the peak.

868 Four dimensionless parameters are considered: (i) relative masonry-concrete
 869 deformation ratio (E_m/E_c) considering a constant concrete module $E_c=30\text{GPa}$; (ii) in-
 870 plane infill shape ratio (L/H); (iii) thickness ratio (t/H) and (iv) distributed vertical beam
 871 load (q) referred to the specific masonry self-weight ($q_m=Htw$). The values of the
 872 investigated parameters and the corresponding strength and stiffness are reported in
 873 Table 7.

874 Table 7 – Initial stiffness [kN/mm] and ultimate lateral load [kN].

Thickness ratio	t / H	0,04	0,05	0,06	0,07	0,08	0,09	0,10	0,12
	K_I	3.41	3.30	3.92	4.73	5.51	5.72	6.25	6.57
	F_u	23.94	35.47	49.04	63.79	78.83	95.62	113.97	140.98
In-plane aspect	L/H	1,0	1,2	1,4	1,6	1,8	2,0	2,5	
	K_I	7,07	6,40	6,23	6,49	5,91	6,21	5,43	
	F_u	110,36	104,26	100,15	100,64	96,00	98,37	93,23	
Masonry deformation	E_m / E_c	0,02	0,03	0,04	0,05	0,06	0,07	0,08	0,10
	K_I	5,35	5,55	5,76	5,90	6,00	6,08	6,15	6,21
	F_u	84,99	89,50	96,87	100,71	104,52	106,74	108,91	110,20
Vertical load	q/q _m	0,05	0,15	0,3	0,5	0,65	0,05		
	K_I	6,09	6,20	6,38	6,63	6,82	6,34		
	F_u	118,59	121,92	121,94	123,21	117,32	104,89		

875

876 The out-of-plane resistance is clearly affected by the thickness ratio of the walls, being
 877 higher for increasing values of the thickness. The out-of-plane lateral stiffness also
 878 increases but at a lower rate. The masonry elastic modulus contributes to the increase of

879 both stiffness and ultimate resistance however, at a lower rate than that associated to the
880 increasing thickness ratio.

881 The vertical load applied in the rc beam has little influence on the out-of-plane strength
882 for high load values. On the other hand, additional vertical loads make the system
883 stiffer. The in-plane aspect ratio has an important influence in the out-of-plane
884 resistance and lateral stiffness.

885

886 **8 Conclusions**

887 This paper presented the results of the numerical simulation of the mechanical
888 behaviour of two modern solutions of brick masonry infill walls submitted to out-of-
889 plane loading. The solutions of masonry infill walls intended to improve its behaviour
890 under seismic loads. The numerical simulations are based on an innovative discrete-
891 macro-modelling approach, able to simulate the in-plane and out-of-plane behaviour of
892 infill frames with a reduced computational effort if compared to refined non-linear finite
893 element approaches. Following this strategy, the frame is modelled by lumped plasticity
894 beam/column elements whereas the infill is discretized by means of macro-elements
895 consisting in articulated quadrilaterals connected to each other and to the frame through
896 non-linear discrete interface elements, simulating both the axial/flexural and sliding, in-
897 plane and out-of-plane, interactions.

898 In order to limit the sources of uncertainty, associated to the calibration of the model,
899 the present study has been restricted on the simulation of the out-of-plane behaviour of
900 undamaged systems. Thus, the influence of the in-plane motion and damage on the out-
901 of-plane behaviour was neglected. Further investigations are needed to assess the in-
902 plane out-of-plane interaction mechanisms and its numerical simulation.

903 Based on the results achieved, it is possible to draw the following conclusions:

904 (a) it was possible to obtain the major mechanical properties to calibrate the
905 numerical macro-element model developed for both infill masonry walls
906 (unreinforced and reinforced) based on the results of the flexural tests;

907 (b) good agreement between experimental monotonic envelopes and numerical
908 pushover curves was attained, namely at the level of initial stiffness and out-of-
909 plane resistance. After peak load is attained, the responses are more divergent
910 which can be associated to the predominant arching mechanism observed in the
911 experimental campaign and that cannot be described through the macro-element
912 method.

913 (c) the crack and deformation patterns obtained in the numerical models were
914 mostly compatible with the crack patterns and deformation paths obtained in the
915 experimental out-of-plane tests.

916 (d) the parametric analysis revealed that geometrical features of the masonry infill
917 walls play a central role on the out-of-plane behaviour of the brick infills,
918 namely the length to height aspect ratio and the thickness to height ratio.
919 Increasing values of the L/H ratio lead to the decrease on the out-of-plane
920 resistance, which is justified by the changing on the governing resisting
921 mechanism from two way bending to one way being. In addition, the out-of-
922 plane stiffness decreases with increasing values of L/H. Besides, it is clear that
923 low values of thickness to height ratio results (slenderness), result in very low
924 values of out-of-plane resistance.

925 (e) the out-of-plane performance of brick infills is negatively affected by the
926 uniformly distributed load on the top rc beam. In general, no additional vertical

927 loads are supposed to be applied on the brick infills, given that they are
928 considered to be non-structural. However, if for constructive imperfections or
929 long-term behaviour additional loads are induced in the brick infills, these can
930 contribute to increase its seismic vulnerability.

931

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