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## 1 Experimental and Numerical Study on CFRP Strip Strengthened

# 2 Clay Brick Masonry Walls Subjected to Vented Gas Explosions

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## 10 Abstract

11 A total of nine full-scale field blast tests were conducted in a specially designed reinforced concrete (RC) 12 chamber to investigate the performance of carbon fiber reinforced polymer (CFRP) strip strengthened 13 clay brick masonry walls subjected to vented gas explosions. Three wall specimens, i.e. unstrengthened, 14 strengthened with distributed layout and strengthened with concentrated layout were prepared for blast 15 tests. The testing data including overpressure time histories of vented gas explosions, displacement time 16 histories, damage modes of each wall specimen were recorded and analyzed. It was found that under 17 vented gas explosions, the wall specimen strengthened with concentrated layout showed improved blast 18 resistance and all three wall specimens experienced typical flexural damage. Detailed micro models for 19 masonry walls were developed in LS-DYNA, incorporating material parameters obtained from material 20 tests. The accuracy of numerical models in predicting the responses of masonry walls was validated with 21 the testing data. Parametric studies were conducted to explore the performances of masonry walls with 22 different heights and thicknesses under blast loads specified by design codes. It was found that with the 23 increase of wall thickness or the decrease of wall height, the maximum displacement and damage level 24 of masonry walls decreased significantly. The 115mm-thick masonry walls needed be strengthened to 25 prevent collapse under the specified blast loads. The strengthened walls experienced typical flexural 26 response and the strengthening effectiveness of using CFRP, GFRP and spray-on polyurea were 27 numerically compared.

Keywords: Clay brick; Masonry wall; CFRP strip; Vented gas explosion; Field test; Numerical
simulation

## 31 1 Introduction

32 Masonry wall has been widely used as infill walls in reinforced concrete (RC) frame buildings. Due to 33 the low tensile/shear strength of brick and bonding materials, unreinforced masonry infill wall is one of 34 the most vulnerable components in the frame structures under out-of-plane loads. In order to improve its 35 resistance capacity, externally bonding FRP composites is widely used in the engineering practice to 36 retrofit the masonry walls [1, 2]. Meanwhile, with the popularization of natural gas used in the industrial 37 and civilian fields, gas explosion accidents have been reported frequently. In order to reduce the potential 38 hazards to lives and properties, it is necessary to investigate the performances of FRP strengthened 39 masonry walls under gas explosions.

40 The performance of FRP strengthened masonry walls subjected to static out-of-plane loads was 41 studied by many researchers. Hamoush et al. [3] studied the effectiveness of using GFRP web fabric and 42 unidirectional fabric on strengthening concrete masonry unit (CMU) walls under uniformly distributed 43 loads by using airbag. The construction workmanship was proposed for the retrofitting of unreinforced 44 masonry walls to produce sufficient bond at the interface between CMU and composites. Hamilton and 45 Dolan [4] studied four short (1.8 m high) and two tall (4.6 m high) CMU walls strengthened by GFRP 46 composite under uniformly distributed static loads by using airbag and conducting theoretical analysis. 47 Two types of failure modes, i.e. fracture and combination of fracture and delamination were identified. 48 It was reported that the concentrated strain caused the fracture of GFRP and the localized debonding in 49 the mid-span area relieved the concentrated effect of GFRP strips. Albert et al. [5] conducted four point 50 bending tests on ten CMU walls strengthened with GFRP sheet, CFRP strap and CFRP sheet. It was 51 concluded that applying FRP increased the strength and ductility of wall specimens significantly. The 52 composite types, layers of FRP, axial loads, cyclic loads influenced the stiffness of specimens while the 53 layout has effect on the local behavior. Bui and Limam [6] carried out full scale tests on hollow CMU 54 walls strengthened with CFRP composite under out-of-plane static loads by using water bags. The change 55 of failure modes and the enhancement of bearing capacity were observed. The results showed that the 56 change of boundary condition affected the effectiveness of strengthening system significantly. Al-57 Salloum et al. [7, 8] studied the performance of CMU walls strengthened with GFRP laminates under 58 out-of-plane static loads (i.e. concentrated line loads and uniformly distributed loads from airbag) and 59 developed the analytical model for different loads. The analytical model was validated by comparing 60 with the testing results of 47 specimens and design suggestions were also proposed for engineering 61 practice. Hrynyk et al. [9, 10] carried out a series of tests on GFRP and spray-on polyurea strengthened 62 clay brick and CMU walls by using airbag and the corresponding analytical approach was proposed and verified. It was reported that using GFRP-polyurea was superior to using spray-on polyurea only in 63 64 improving load carrying capacity and energy dissipation of wall specimens and necessary anchorage is 65 required between the composites and surrounding structures. Strengthening the unreinforced masonry walls with externally bonded composite material increases load carrying capacity and ductility of 66 67 masonry walls significantly. The existing studies provide useful design and construction guides for 68 engineering practice.

69 With the potential hazards from terrorist attacks, conventional weapons and accidental explosions, 70 the retrofitting performance of masonry walls under blast loads attract attentions of researchers. In order 71 to investigate the design of strengthened CMU masonry walls by using FRPs under high explosive loads, 72 Myers et al. [11, 12] and Urgessa et al. [13] conducted field tests and single degree of freedom (SDOF) 73 analysis. Based on the testing and analytical results, design procedure and guideline were proposed for 74 the retrofitting of masonry walls. Besides CMU blocks, clay bricks, air entrained concrete (AEC) blocks 75 and other types of masonry materials were used in the construction of masonry wall. The changes of 76 masonry blocks with various strength, dimension, density and Young's' modulus also result in different 77 performance of masonry walls under blast loads. Tan and Patoary [14] carried out full-scale tests and 78 SDOF analyses on FRP strengthened solid clay brick masonry walls under TNT explosions. The design 79 procedures were proposed, however no visible crack and debonding was observed in all specimens due 80 to the low blast overpressure generated from the tests. Chen et al. [15, 16] carried out a series of blast 81 tests on 1/2 scale masonry walls with CFRP strips, steel mesh and steel laminated sheets. Both the field 82 tests and the numerical simulations proved that the steel mesh provided the best retrofitting efficacy 83 owing to its good ductility and CFRP strips suffered shear failure at the boundaries of masonry walls. 84 Muszynski et al. [17] reported the blast tests on the AEC masonry walls with dimensions of 2.81m long 85  $\times$  2.60 m high  $\times$  0.20 m wide. It was found that CFRP retrofitting was capable of significantly improving 86 the blast resistance of masonry walls.

Owing to the rapid development of numerical simulation technology, more and more reliable numerical simulations are used to study retrofitting techniques for masonry structures under blast loads. Based on DYNA3D software, Davidson et al. [18, 19] developed detailed dynamic finite element models to study the damage and failure mechanisms of polymer-reinforced CMU walls. Alsayed et al. [20] 91 conducted field blast tests and numerical study on the GFRP sheet strengthened infill CMU masonry 92 walls under C4 charge explosions by using ANSYS/AUTODYN. Explicit boundary modelling was used 93 to simulate the interaction with supports, which may result in membrane effect and enhance the resistance 94 of structures [18, 20, 21]. In order to improve the computational efficiency, the homogenized material 95 model was employed for masonry walls and the composites were simulated as shell elements to reduce 96 element number and the discrepancy between element sizes [20].

97 In general, the application of composite material enhances the equivalent section area of masonry 98 walls, increases the stiffness significantly and in turn reduces the deflection of wall structures. The 99 adhesive between composites and masonry blocks can mitigate the number of fragments and effectively 100 reduce the threats from flying debris under blast loads [1]. All the above-mentioned studies focused on 101 dynamic performances of masonry structures under blast loads generated by high explosives. The study 102 of masonry walls subjected to gas explosion is very limited in the open literature. It is worth noting that 103 the blast loads generated by gas explosions have very different characteristics such as lower amplitude, 104 longer rise time, longer duration and possibly multiple peaks [22, 23]. As compared to those by high 105 explosives, the performance of FRP strengthened masonry walls subjected to blast loads from gas and 106 high-explosive explosions could be very different. Therefore, it is necessary to study the masonry wall 107 responses to gas explosion for reliable predictions of the masonry wall damages and better design of 108 protection measures for such walls to resist accidental gas explosions. In the previous studies [24-26], 109 the performance and strengthening effectiveness by using FRP materials of AAC masonry walls under 110 vented gas explosions were examined and discussed. As for the unreinforced clay brick masonry walls, 111 only the response of unstrengthened clay brick masonry walls under gas explosions were studied by 112 conducting full-scale field tests and numerical simulations.

113 In this study, a series of full scale field tests on CFRP strip strengthened clay brick masonry walls 114 under vented gas explosions were conducted. The effect of strip layout (i.e. distributed layout and 115 concentrated layout) on the performance of wall specimens were observed and discussed. A detailed 116 micro model was also developed to reproduce the behavior of unreinforced and CFRP strengthened 117 masonry walls by using LS-DYNA 971. The predictions from the numerical simulations were compared 118 with the testing data to validate the numerical model. The verified numerical model was then used to 119 study the performance and strengthening methods of masonry walls under blast loads specified by design 120 codes.

#### 121 2 Field blast tests

#### 122 2.1 Preparation of wall specimens

According to the Chinese standard (GB50003-2011) [27], three wall specimens including one unstrengthened specimen and two strengthened specimens were prepared in the precast RC frames. All the wall specimens with the dimensions of  $3.0 \text{ m} \times 2.0 \text{ m} \times 0.115 \text{ m}$  were laid in Running pattern, as shown in Fig. 1. The dimensions of clay bricks used in the wall specimens were 240 mm length ×115 mm width ×90 mm height and the mortar, which was composed of cement, water and river sand in the weight ratio of 1: 6.8: 5.23, was 10 mm thick. The specimens were designed as one-way walls with the right and left boundaries separated from the RC frame by using two layers of 2 mm-thick plastic film.

130 Unidirectional CFRP strips (Toray Industry UT-70-30) with a unit weight of 300 g/m<sup>2</sup> were used to 131 strengthen wall specimens. As provided by the supplier, the tensile strength of dry fiber was 4100 MPa 132 and the nominal thickness of the fiber was 0.167 mm. The corresponding density of carbon fiber was 1.8 133 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. The width of CFRP strips was 50 mm. Two strip layouts (i.e. distributed layout and concentrated 134 layout) were used to strengthen wall specimens, as shown in Fig. 1. In the distributed layout, seven strips 135 were evenly distributed at a distance of 250 mm along the vertical direction of wall specimens and eleven 136 strips along the transverse direction of wall specimens at a distance of 250 mm, as shown in Fig. 1(b). The concentrated layout, which was designed by using the OptiStruct module of the software 137 138 HYPERWORKS[28-30], consumed the same amount of CFRP strips as the distributed layout and the 139 converged optimization result of the strengthening material density is shown in Fig. 2. In the concentrated 140 layout, the CFRP strips were placed at an equal distance of 100 mm along both the vertical and transverse 141 directions of the mid-span area, as shown in Fig. 1(c).

142 The epoxy resin consisting of two components (i.e. main agent and hardener) with a ratio of 2:1 was 143 used as bonding agent for FRP application. The epoxy resin had a tensile strength of 42 MPa, tensile 144 modulus of 2.7 GPa and rupture tensile strain of 1.6%. The ends of CFRP strips were fixed onto the RC 145 frames by using angle irons.

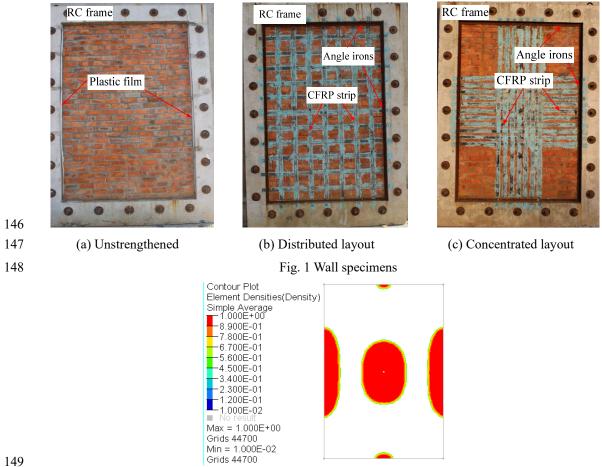






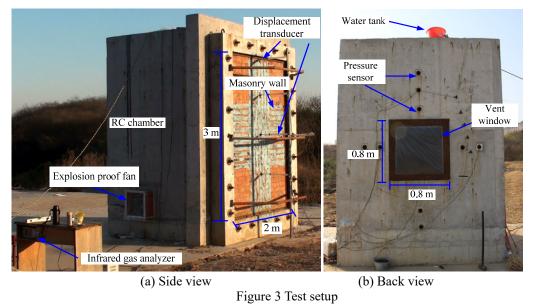
Fig. 2 Optimization result of strengthening material density

151 2.2 Test setup

The vented gas explosion tests were carried out in a RC chamber with the internal dimensions of 3 m  $\times$ 2 m  $\times$  2 m, as shown in Fig. 3. There are two openings on the walls of the chamber. The small opening of 0.8 m  $\times$  0.8 m was used to install vent covers and acted as a vent window. The larger opening with dimensions of 3 m  $\times$  2 m was used to place wall specimens for explosion testing.

The methane was piped into the chamber from a group of cylinder gas tanks, which was placed about 150 meters away. As shown in Fig. 3(a), an explosion-proof fan (CBF-300, Zhejiang Dafeng Blowers, China) was installed in the chamber to ensure homogeneity of the mixtures of gases. An infrared gas analyzer (QGS-08C, Nanjing Xinfen, China) was employed to monitor the methane concentration. An igniting pill was hung at the center of the chamber to fire the flammable gas mixtures.

Four piezo-resistive pressure sensors (CYG1409, Kunshan Shuangqiao, China) were mounted inside the chamber to record the explosion overpressure. The pressure sensors have a measuring range of -20 to 150 kPa with the accuracy of 0.5%. Owing to the high temperature inside the chamber during the explosions, all pressure sensors were equipped with water-cooling circulation systems to protect the 165 sensors. Six displacement transducers (WYJL, Xian Xinmin, China) were mounted on the pre-made steel 166 frame at an equal space of 750 mm to record the displacement-time histories of tested walls. The 167 displacement transducers have the measuring range of 0-300 mm. A high-speed camera (FASTCAM SA-168 Z, Photron, Japan) that can capture images at 20,000 frames per second was triggered at about 100 meters 169 away from the test wall to record the failure progress of the tested specimens. The signals of displacement 170 transducers and pressure sensors were captured by the data acquisition system (DongHua 5927, Donghua 171 Testing Technology Co., Ltd., China), which was sampled at a frequency of 30 kHz.



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175 2.3 Test scheme

176 In this study, nine tests were conducted to investigate the performance of CFRP strip strengthened clay

177 brick masonry walls under gas explosion loads, as listed in Table 1. The gas concentrations and vent

178 covers were adjusted to achieve the desired gas explosion loads.

	Tal	ble 1 Testing schei	ne	
Test	Wall	Methane Concentration	Vent Cover	
1		11.5%	6µm film	
2	W1	6.5%	4mm glass	
3		6.5%	4mm glass	
4		6.5%	4mm glass	
5	W2	12.5%	10mm glass	
6		12.5%	12mm glass	
7		6.5%	4mm glass	
8	W3	6.5%	5mm glass	
9		12.5%	10mm glass	

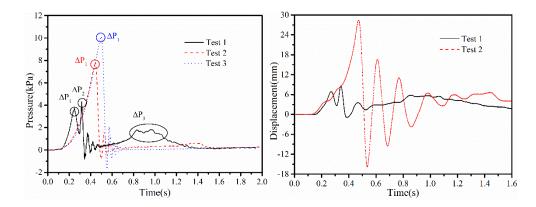
180 2.4. Results and discussions

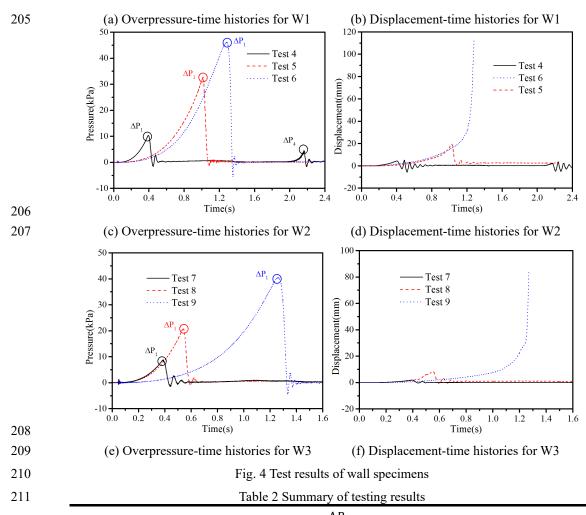
181 2.4.1 Vented gas explosion loads

182 In the previous study [23, 31, 32], it was reported that the overpressure inside the chamber was 183 nearly uniformly distributed during vented gas explosions. The recorded pressure time histories from 184 different pressure sensors in the current study also confirmed this observation. Therefore, only 185 overpressure-time histories recorded by the pressure sensor P1 are reported in this study, as shown in Fig. 186 4. Pressure peaks and impulse are also summarized in Table 2. In general, four major overpressure peaks 187 might be captured when a gas explosion occurs in a vented space [31]. As shown in Fig. 4, the number 188 of peaks and peak values are different from each other owing to different explosion scenarios because 189 methane concentrations, vent covers and the damage of the tested masonry walls all have significant 190 influence on the overpressure load of vented gas explosion.

By comparing the overpressure-time histories of Test 2/3/4/7/8 with concentration 6.5%, it is found that the curves at the rising stage of pressure nearly overlap with each other. Similar results can be found by comparing the data of Test 5/6/9 with concentration 12.5%. These indicate that the gas concentration control is accurate, and the testing data are acceptable.

195 With the same test conditions (i.e. concentration 6.5% and vent cover 4mm glass panel), the rising 196 stages of Test 2/3/4/7 agree well with each other while the peak values of Test 2/3/4/7 are 7.81 kPa, 10.12 197 kPa, 10.32 kPa and 8.73 kPa respectively. The difference of peak values may be caused by the variations 198 in the strength of glass panels used as vent cover caused by random fluctuations of boundary conditions 199 and material strength. Similar results were also observed by comparing the data of Test 5/9 with 200 concentration 12.5% and vent cover 10 mm glass panel. The failure load and process of the vent cover 201 affect the peak pressure that can be achieved in a vented explosion. In this study, the response and damage 202 of each tested masonry wall are discussed with respected to the respective recorded pressure time 203 histories.





				$\Delta P$			Residual
Test	Wall	Peak (P: kPa)	Duration (ms)	Impulse (I: kPa·s)	Maximum displacement (D: mm)	P/D (kPa/mm)	displacement (mm)
1	-	3.77	297	1.33	6.88	0.548	0
2	W1	7.83	495	1.43	28.43	0.275	2.32
3		10.12	555	1.96	—	_	Collapse
4		10.32	400	1.27	4.38	2.356	0.0
5	W2	32.79	1027	9.08	19.51	1.681	2.55
6		46.16	1303	17.85	—	_	Collapse
7		8.73	388	1.13	1.90	4.595	0.0
8	W3	20.93	538	3.48	8.17	2.574	1.08
9		40.45	1283	14.46	_		Collapse

213 2.4.2 Displacement-time histories

214 The mid-span displacement-time histories of wall specimens in each test are shown in Fig. 4 and

the maximum and residual displacements of wall specimens are also given in Table 2.

216 The effect of strengthening methods on the elastic response of wall specimens is studied by

217 comparing the data of Test 1/4/7. In these three tests, the wall specimens experienced elastic response 218 without residual displacement after tests. The ratio of P/D (i.e. the ratio of peak pressure over maximum 219 displacement) is used as an indicator to assess strengthening performance. As shown in Table. 2, the P/D 220 ratios of unstrengthened wall specimen W1, wall specimen W2 strengthened with CFRP distributed 221 layout and wall specimen W3 strengthened with CFRP concentrated layout are 0.548, 2.356 and 4.595, 222 respectively. As compared with the unstengthened wall specimen, the P/D ratios of the strengthened wall 223 specimens with distributed layout and concentrated layout increase by 329% and 739%, respectively. 224 These are because of the increase in structural stiffness owing to the change of boundary conditions 225 through anchoring the FRP strips to the supporting frame, as well as the existence of CFRP strips. 226 Obviously, the concentrated layout is more effective than the distributed layout at improving the 227 specimen stiffness. It is because the concentrated layout is more effective than the distributed layout in 228 enhancing the equivalent section area and structural stiffness in central area.

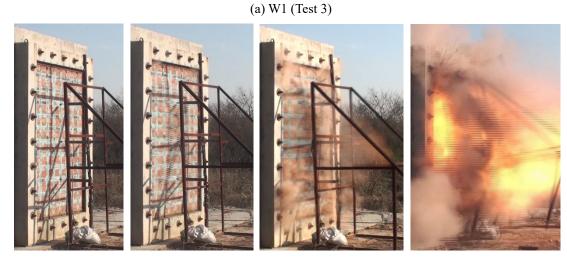
229 The effect of strengthening methods on the inelastic response of wall specimens is studied by 230 comparing the testing data of Test 2/5/7. Under the same test conditions (i.e. concentration 6.5% and vent 231 cover 4 mm glass panel), the maximum displacement of W1 is 28.43 mm, which is 5.5 times higher than 232 that of W2 and 14 times higher than that of W3. After testing, the wall specimen W1 experienced 2.32 233 mm residual displacement while no residual displacement was found for W2 and W3, which indicate that 234 strengthening measures improved the resistance capacity of wall specimens significantly. In this study, 235 Test 9 of wall specimen W3 had the same test condition as Test 5 (i.e. concentration 12.5% and vent 236 cover 10mm glass panel). The wall specimen W3 collapsed but W2 did not due to the unexpected 237 intensive gas explosion loads in test 9, i.e. 32.79 kPa vs 40.45 kPa peak load, and 9.08 kPa.s vs 14.46 238 kPa.s impulse, which was caused by the higher venting pressure owing to the higher strength of the 239 venting glass panel.

240 2.4.3 Failure modes of wall specimens

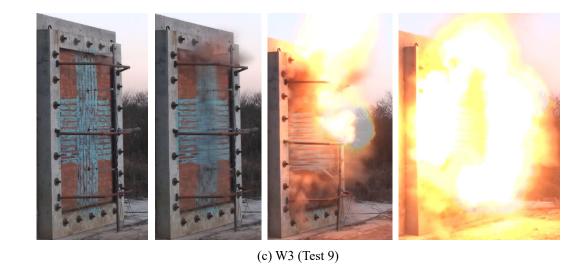
The failure process of the tested specimens was recorded by the high-speed camera, as shown in Fig. 5. Fig. 5 (a) shows the unstrengthened specimen W1 experienced a horizontal crack in the mid-span area before the collapse of the wall. This might be attributed to the fact that for the unstrengthened one-way specimen under uniformly distributed loads, the maximum bending moment occurs at the mid-span area and cracks form along the masonry-mortar interface due to their low tensile strength. With the increase of overpressure inside the chamber, W1 collapsed and was divided into two sections along the horizontal 247 crack in the mid-span area. The specimen W2 strengthened with distributed layout experienced more 248 small cracks and behaved like a typical two-way slab under bending. With the increase of internal 249 overpressure, W2 was broken into small pieces. Similar to W2, W3 strengthened with concentrated 250 layout also experienced typical two-way bending failure under vented gas explosions. The failure mode 251 changed from one-way of unstrengthened specimen to two-way of strengthened specimens because of 252 the change of boundary conditions by anchoring the FRP strips to the concrete frame. As shown in Fig. 253 6, some bricks were found at the corners of RC frame after the strengthened wall specimens W2 and W3 254 collapsed, which might be due to the arching effect. In addition, the rupture of CFRP strips were observed 255 along the edges and in the mid-span area as shown in Fig. 7.



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(b) W2 (Test 6)

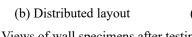


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(a) Unstrengthened



Fig. 5 Failure progress of the tested walls





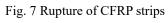
(c) Concentrated layout

Fig. 6 Views of wall specimens after testing



(a) Edges

(b) Mid-span area



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264 265



## 280 3 Numerical study

281 3.1 Numerical model

282 3.1.1 Material model

283 In order to determine the brick and mortar material parameters, a series of laboratory tests were conducted 284 according to the testing standards i.e. GB/T 2542-2012 and JGJ/T70-2009 [33, 34]. The mean uniaxial 285 compressive strength of clay brick and mortar were 7.53 MPa and 14.67 MPa, respectively. The anisotropic material model \*Mat 96 (MAT BRITTLE DAMAGE) in LS-DYNA was employed to model 286 287 the bricks and mortar. The compressive yield strength was taken from the material tests. The density and 288 Young's modulus of brick and mortar were also acquired from the material tests. The Poisson's ratio, 289 tensile limit, shear limit, fracture toughness and shear retention factor were obtained from the references 290 [24, 35, 36]. The parameters used in the numerical simulations are listed in Table 3.

291

Table 3 Material parameters of clay brick and mortar [24, 35, 36]

	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Young's	Poisson's	Compressive	Tensile	Shear	Fracture	Shear
		Modulus	Ratio	Yield Stress	Limit	Limit	Toughness	Retention
		(MPa)		(MPa)	(MPa)	(MPa)	(N/m)	Factor
Brick	1150	380	0.15	7.5	3.0	3.0	120	0.03
Mortar	2100	4644	0.25	14.7	5.0	7.0	140	0.03

The isotropic material model \*Mat\_3 (MAT PLASTIC KINEMATIC) was used to model the unidirectional CFRP strips. Without defining the kinematic hardening plasticity, CFRP strips were simplified as an isotropic and elastic-brittle material, which is a cost-effective method to simulate the CFRP strips. Quasi-static test was carried out to investigate the mechanical properties of CFRP strip by using universal testing machine, as shown in Fig. 8. The CFRP specimens were prepared and tested according to the guidelines [37, 38]. The parameters of CFRP material are listed in Table 4.

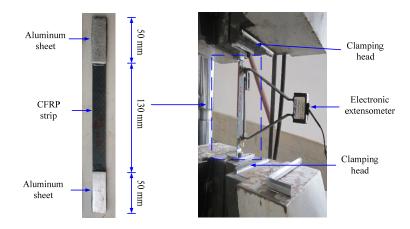


Fig. 8 Quasi-static test of CFRP strip

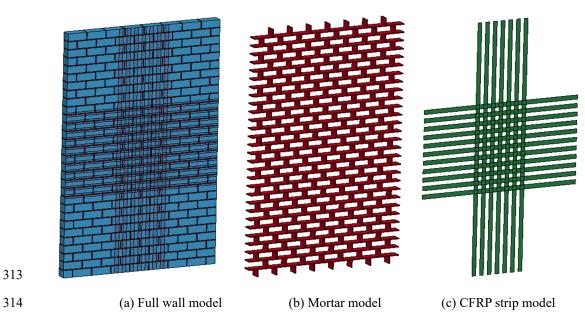
Table 4 Material parameters of CFRP

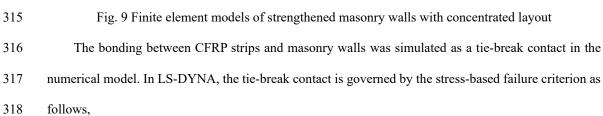
	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Young's Modulus (GPa)	Poisson's Ratio	Tensile Strength (MPa)	Thickness (mm)	Failure Elongation %
CFRP	1800	212	0.17	4100	0.167	1.74

302 3.1.2 Geometric model and modelling strategy

In this study, the masonry wall was simulated by the detailed micro model using commercial software
LS-DYNA. The mortar and bricks were modeled individually and the nodes along the interfaces between
the mortar and bricks are merged. The dimensions of wall models with thickness of 115 mm, 3.0 m height
and 2.0 m width are shown in Fig. 9. The size of bricks is 240×115×90 mm and the thickness of mortar
joints is 5 mm.
Bricks and CFRP strips were meshed with the element size of 20 mm and mortar was meshed into

309 two layers after conducting mesh convergence test. Solid 164 (with element formulation of constant 310 stress solid element) was used for solid elements of bricks and mortar. Shell 163 (with element 311 formulation of Belytschko-Tsay) was used for angle irons and CFRP strips. The finite element model had 312 a total of 145,900 solid elements and 7,770 shell elements for the masonry and CFRP strips, respectively.

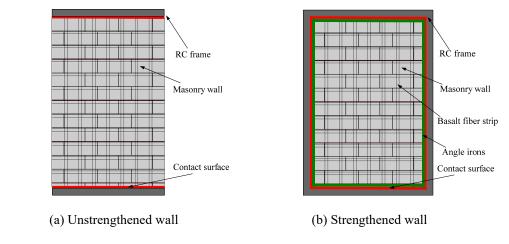




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$$\left(\frac{|\sigma_n|}{f_n}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{|\tau_s|}{f_s}\right)^2 \ge 1 \qquad (1)$$

where  $\sigma_n$  and  $\tau_s$  represent the normal stress and shear stress on the contact surface, respectively;  $f_n$ and  $f_s$  represent the normal failure stress and shear failure stress, respectively. In this study, the static and dynamic coefficients of friction were 0.7. The normal failure stress  $f_n$  and shear failure stress  $f_s$ were 42 MPa and 2 MPa, respectively. The above parameters were determined from the testing report of epoxy resin provided by the supplier and calibrated with the testing data of Test 5 by trial and error approach.

326 According to the testing setup, the boundary conditions applied in the numerical models are shown 327 in Fig. 10. The RC frame was included in the model and simplified as elastic solid elements. For the 328 unstrengthened walls, the interfaces between the RC frame and the masonry wall were simulated as tie-329 break contact. The static and dynamic coefficients of friction for the top and bottom edges were defined 330 as 0.7 and the normal failure stress  $f_n$  and shear failure stress  $f_s$  were set as 7 MPa and 1 MPa, 331 respectively. For the strengthened walls, the static and dynamic coefficients of friction of the left and 332 right boundaries were set as 0.7. The normal failure stress  $f_n$  and the shear failure stress  $f_s$  were 333 defined as 7 MPa and 1 MPa, respectively. The angle irons were also modelled along the boundary. The 334 surface to surface contact was defined between the angle iron and the masonry walls and the contact 335 between CFRP and angle irons. The relevant parameters were calibrated with the testing data of Test 2 336 and Test 5.



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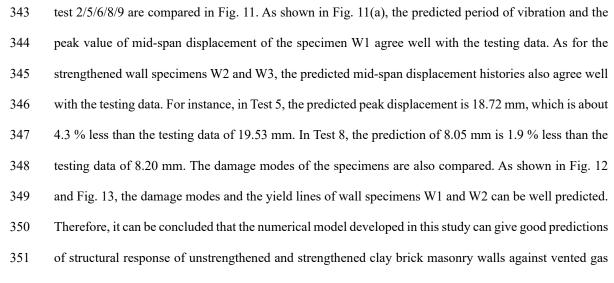
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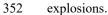
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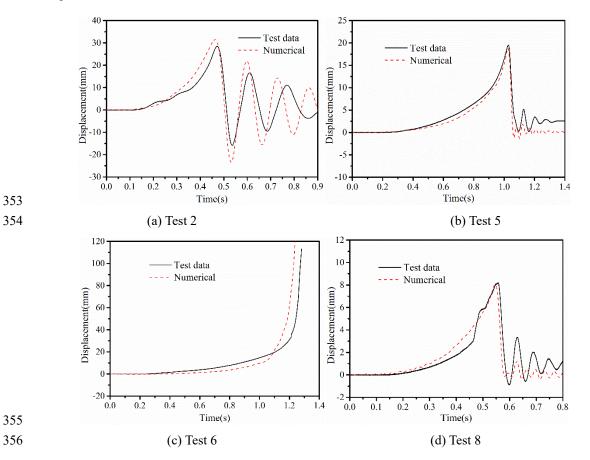
Fig. 10 Boundary conditions of wall models

340 3.2 Model calibration

Applied with the pressure time history recorded from experiments, the numerical models of masonry
 wall are calibrated with the testing data. The numerical predictions and testing data of three walls under







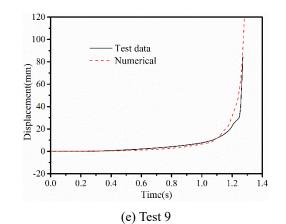
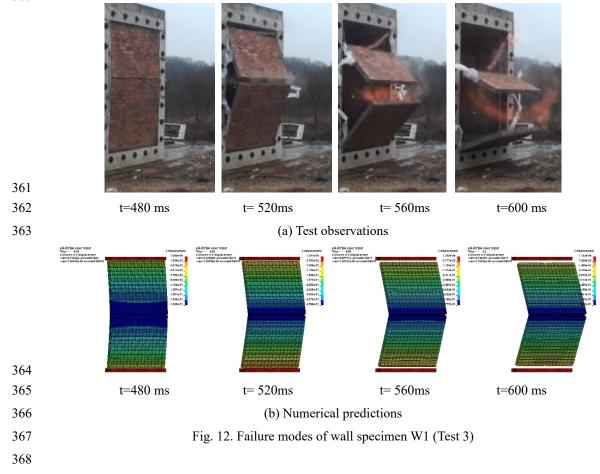
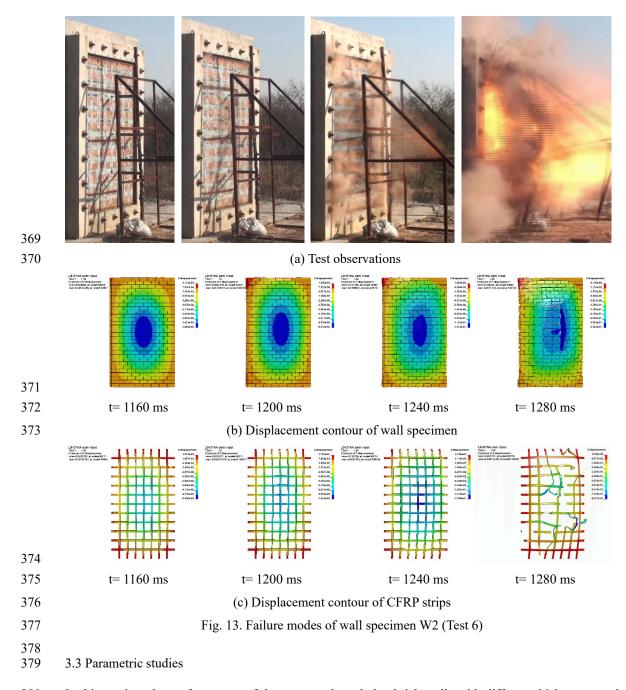




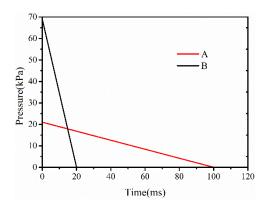
Fig. 11 Comparison of mid-span displacement between numerical predictions and testing data





380 In this section, the performances of the unstrengthened clay brick walls with different thicknesses and 381 heights are compared under various blast loads specified by design codes. In addition, the strengthening 382 effectiveness of using CFRP, GFRP and spray-on polyurea are compared under blast loads. The 383 simplified blast loads used for structural design against gas explosion [39-41] are adopted in the analyses 384 and shown in Fig. 14. Blast load A has the overpressure of 21 kPa and the duration of 100 ms, which 385 corresponds to the explosion of 6% ethane cloud with the diameter of 60 m and 4m-height detonated at 386 a distance of 75 m. The overpressure and duration of blast load B are 69 kPa and 20 ms, which 387 corresponds to a 1000 kg TNT equivalency at a distance of 30.5 m. Only blast load B is investigated in 388 the parametric studies as masonry wall experiences more severe damage under blast load B. In addition,

damage criteria need to be defined to classify damage level of masonry walls. The support rotation limit used to classify damage level (i.e. reusable and non-reusable) of masonry walls [42] is employed in this study as given in Table 5. In addition, the failure criterion defined for unstrengthened wall is the midspan displacement exceeding the wall thickness in [42]. In this study, the strengthened wall is defined as failed when the retrofitting materials fracture, and simultaneously the mid-span displacement exceeds the wall thickness.





396

Fig. 14 Design blast loads [39]

397

Table 5 Damage criteria for masonry walls [42]

Damage level	Wall type	Support rotation limit
Reusable	One-way	0.5°
Reusable	Two-way	0.5°
Non-reusable	One-way	1.0°
Inon-reusable	Two-way	2.0°

398

399 3.3.1 Brief description of numerical models

400 The dimension of wall models used for parametric studies is 1.0 m in width and three wall heights (i.e. 401 3 m, 4 m and 5 m) are considered. The size of bricks is 240 mm  $\times$  115 mm  $\times$  90 mm and the thickness 402 of mortar is 10 mm. Three wall thicknesses (i.e. 115 mm, 240 mm and 365 mm) are considered as shown 403 in Fig. 15. It should be noted that only one-way wall is considered in the current parametric study. Three 404 composite materials (i.e. CFRP strip, GFRP strip and spray-on polyurea) are used in the parametric study 405 and the mechanical properties of composite materials are listed in Table 6. As shown in Fig. 16, the 406 vertical FRP (i.e. CFRP and GFRP) strips are distributed at a distance of 250 mm along the horizontal 407 direction of masonry walls and the width of FRP strips is 50 mm. The spray-on polyurea is applied on 408 the whole back face of masonry walls.

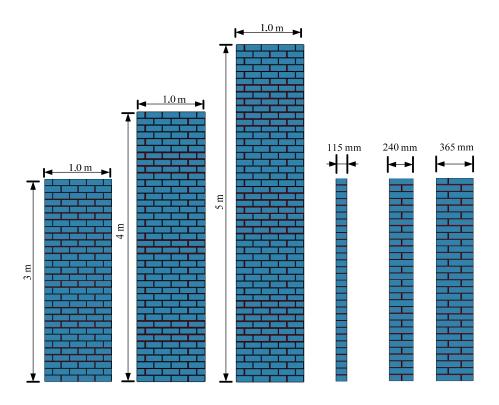
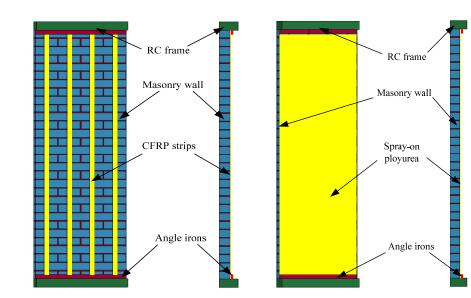


Fig. 15 Wall models used for parametric studies

Table 6 Mechanical properties of FRPs and spray-on polyurea [26, 43]

Material	Density (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Thickness (mm)	Ultimate tensile strength (MPa)	Young's modulus (GPa)	Ultimate strain (%)
CFRP	1800	0.167	4100	212.0	1.74
GFRP	2400	0.125	3040	73.0	4.16
Spray-on polyurea	1150		13.29	0.229	113



(a) FRP strengthened walls

(b) Spray-on polyurea strengthened walls

Fig. 16 Strengthened wall models used for parametric studies

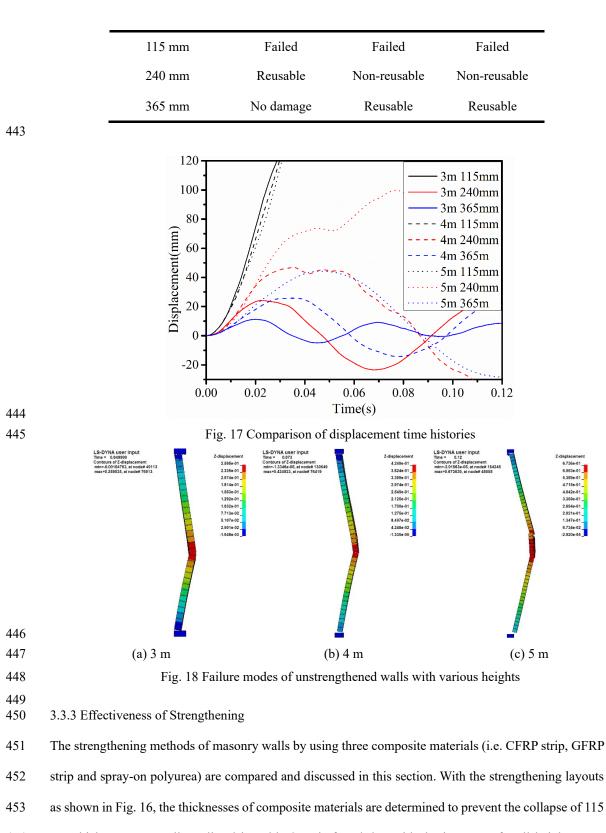
417 3.3.2 Performance of unreinforced masonry walls under specified blast loads

418 In this section, the performances of unstrengthened clay brick masonry walls under specified blast loads 419 are studied. Nine wall models are built with varying wall thicknesses and heights subjected to Load B. 420 The damage levels of unstrengthened masonry walls under Load B are listed in Table 7, it is found that 421 the walls with the thickness of 240 mm and 365 mm survive by experiencing the damage level of either 422 non-reusable or reusable, while the walls with the thickness of 115 mm collapse. Therefore, the 423 strengthening measures are needed to prevent the 115mm-thick masonry walls from collapse. The 424 maximum displacement time histories of unreinforced masonry walls under Load B are also compared 425 as shown in Fig. 17. It is found that with the increase of wall thickness and the decrease of wall height, 426 the maximum displacement and damage level of masonry walls decrease significantly. Taking the 3m-427 high walls as examples, the masonry wall with the thickness of 115 mm collapses. The walls with the 428 thickness of 240 mm and 365 mm experience reusable damage and no-damage respectively and the 429 maximum displacements are 23.93 mm and 11.15 mm, respectively. Similar conclusion can be drawn by 430 comparing the damage levels and the maximum displacements of masonry walls with the height of 4 m 431 and 5 m. When the wall thickness is 240 mm, the maximum displacements of walls with the height of 3 432 m, 4 m and 5 m are 23.9 mm, 46.8 mm and 99.8 mm, respectively and the corresponding damage levels 433 are reusable, non-reusable and non-reusable, respectively. Increasing the wall thickness increases the 434 inertia resistance and the stiffness of the wall, and reducing the height of the wall also increases the 435 stiffness as well. What is more, with the decrease of slenderness ratio (wall height over thickness), the 436 arching action of masonry walls increases.

The failure modes of the 115 mm-thick walls with different heights are shown in Fig. 18. When the wall height is 3 m or 4 m, the masonry walls experience flexural bending and the maximum displacement of walls occurs in the mid-span area. The walls break into two large pieces with the formed horizontal crack. When the height increases to 5 m, the maximum displacement of walls also occurs in the midspan area but two horizontal break lines are generated and divide the walls into three major pieces.

Table 7 Result summary of unreinforced walls under blast load B

Wall thickness		Wall height	
wan unckness	3m	4m	5m



454 mm-thick masonry walls as listed in Table 8. It is found that with the increase of wall height, more 455 strengthening materials is required to prevent masonry wall collapse. For example, the CFRP strips used

456 for strengthening the 115 mm-thick walls with the height of 3 m, 4 m and 5 m are 1 layer, 2 layers and 4

457 layers, respectively. The masonry walls strengthened by the spray-on polyurea experience typical flexural

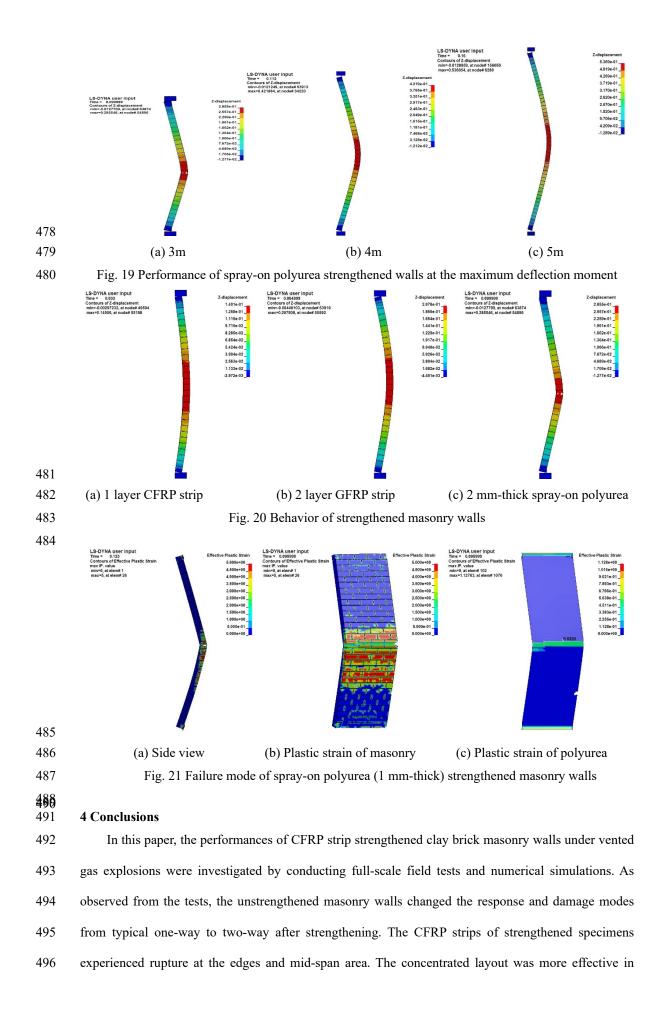
458 behavior and the profiles at the maximum deflection are shown in Fig. 19.

459 The behaviors of 3m-high masonry walls strengthened by three composite materials at the 460 maximum deflection are compared in Fig. 20. It is observed that the spray-on polyurea strengthened wall 461 experiences the largest displacement (285.5 mm), followed by the GFRP strengthened wall (207.8 mm) 462 and the CFRP strengthened walls (140.1 mm). CFRP strips show the best strengthening effectiveness in 463 term of maximum mid-span displacement. This is because of the differences of strengthening composites (i.e. cross section area, Young's modulus and ultimate strain). Compared with the spray-on polyurea, 464 465 FRP materials have higher Young's modulus and lower ultimate strain. Externally bonding FRP materials 466 onto the surface of masonry walls enhances the stiffness of walls more effectively when the response of 467 walls is within elastic range. Applying spray-on polyurea has very limited effect on the increase of wall 468 stiffness. However, with the accumulation of wall deformation, the tensile membrane effect of the spray-469 on polyurea strengthened masonry walls becomes more and more significant due to the higher ultimate 470 strain of polyurea and in turn improve the resistance of masonry walls. As shown in Fig. 21, the spray-471 on polyurea strengthened masonry walls also experience typical one-way flexural failure. The plastic 472 strain of masonry concentrates in the mid-span area due to the flexure damage and along the edges caused 473 by the arching effect. The plastic strain of spray-on polyurea is also observed in the mid-span area and 474 along the edges which are caused by the tension after cracking of the masonry walls and the membrane 475 effect of structures.



Table 8 Strengthening suggestions for the 115mm-thick masonry walls

		Wall height	
Material -	3m	4m	5m
CFRP	1 layer	2 layers	4 layers
GFRP	2 layers	4 layers	5 layers
Spray-on polyurea	2 mm-thick	4 mm-thick	5 mm-thick



497 improving the blast resistant capacity than the distributed layout. Detailed micro models of masonry 498 walls were developed, and the accuracy of numerical models were validated with testing data. With the 499 calibrated numerical model, it was found that the maximum displacement and damage level of masonry 500 walls decreased significantly with the increase of wall thickness or the decrease of wall height. 115 mm-501 thick masonry walls needed be strengthened to prevent collapse. With the increase of wall height, more 502 strengthening materials were required to prevent wall collapse. The strengthening solutions by using 503 CFRP, GFRP and spray-on polyurea were suggested to strengthen 115 mm-thick masonry walls. The 504 spray-on polyurea enhanced the tensile membrane effect and the blast resistance of strengthened masonry 505 walls due to the higher ultimate strain. As compared to spray-on polyurea, bonding FRP materials 506 externally on the surface of masonry walls enhanced the stiffness of walls more effectively when the 507 response was in the elastic range and improved the resistance of walls due to the arching effect. In term 508 of maximum displacement, CFRP strips showed the best strengthening efficacy among the three 509 strengthening materials because of its higher modulus and strength.

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