

Seismic Resilience of ASTM Structural Steel Exposed to Fire Hazards through Ultra-Low Cycle Fatigue Loading



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Background: Fire Hazards in Structures



Oakland bridge collapse, California, 2007 (PC: Aziz)



Collapse of truss bridge, Tempe, 2020 (PC: Fox News)



World Trade Center tragedy, 2001 (PC: Wikimedia Commons/Robert)

Bridge Fire vs. Building Fire

- Building safety is achieved through active (e.g., sprinklers) and passive fire protection systems (e.g., fire insulation).
- Bridges are more susceptible to fire damage due to the lack of specific fire safety provisions for bridges (open-air structures).
- Bridge fires are more intense due to hydrocarbon fires from trucks or automobiles involved in collision.

Facts and Figures:

- Bridges are **3 times** more likely to collapse due to fire than earthquakes (NYDOT survey).
- As per a **2022** National Fire Prevention Association (NFPA) report, **522,500** structural fires were recorded in the US, resulting in **14,630** civilian casualties and **\$15 billion** in property damage.

Research Questions

The present study aims to address two research questions:

- What is the earthquake resilience of structural steels exposed to fire hazards?
- How do the underlying microstructural changes affect the macroscale behavior of the structural steels?

Project Goals and Objectives

Goal: To investigate the ultra-low cycle fatigue (ULCF) behavior of ASTM A36 structural steels after exposure to fire.

Objectives: (a) To understand the influence of heat-treatment temperature and cooling methods on the ULCF behavior of notched cylindrical steel specimens.

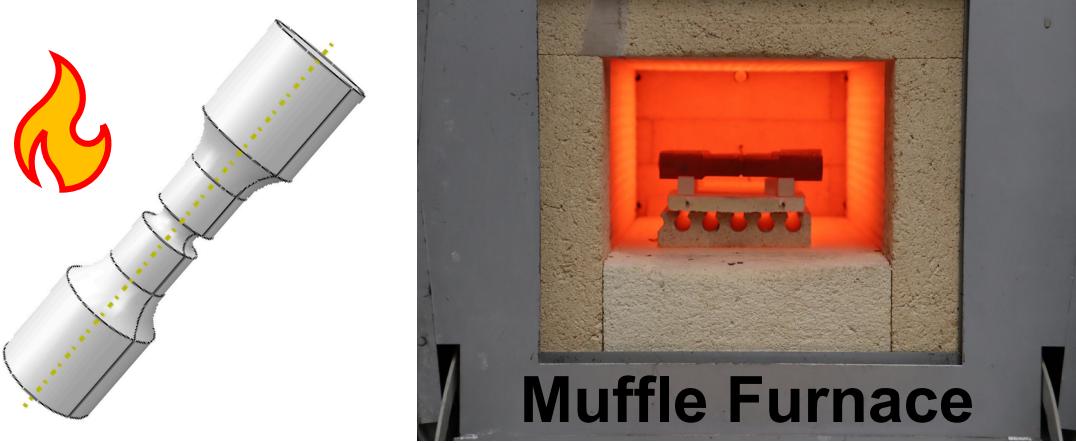
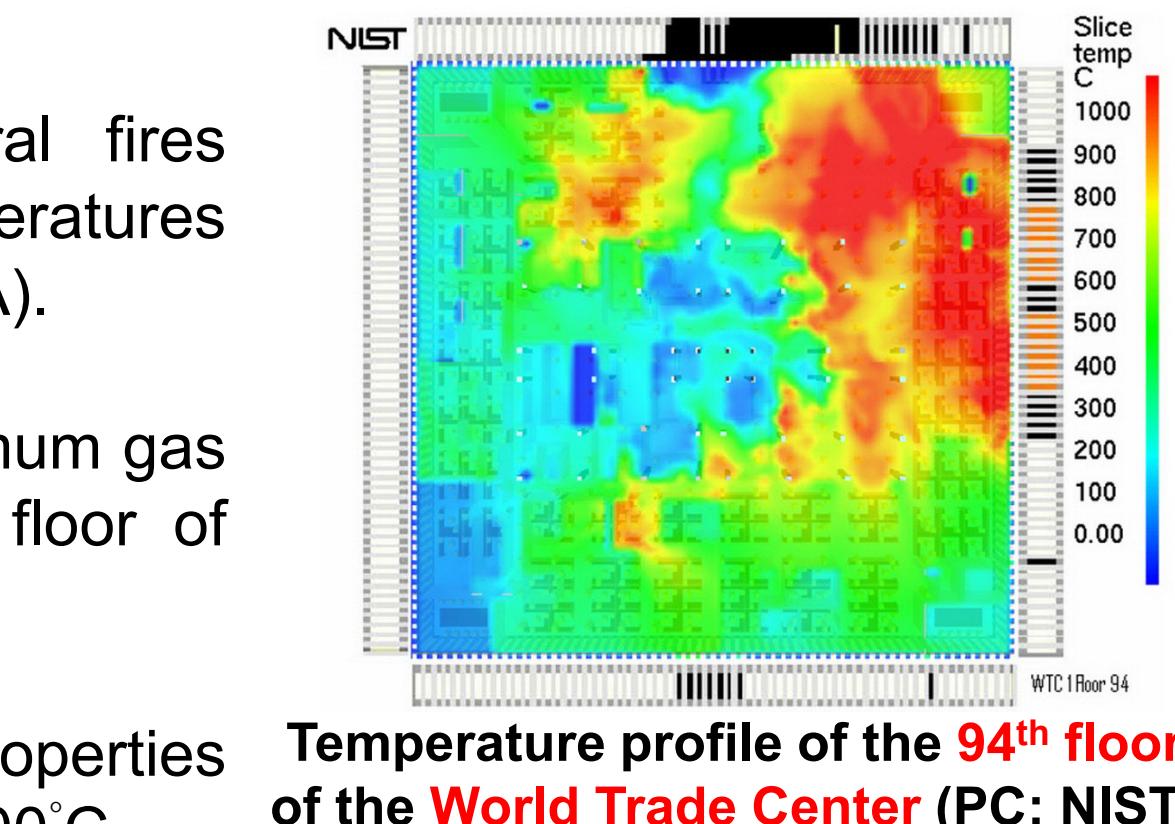
(b) To investigate the effect of microstructural changes on the ULCF behavior of heat-treated structural steels.

Methodology

Step 1: Heat treatment

- Fully developed structural fires reach gas temperatures averaging $\sim 1000^{\circ}\text{C}$ (FEMA).
- NIST estimated the maximum gas temperature on the 94th floor of WTC to be 1000°C .
- Post-fire mechanical properties remain unaffected up to 600°C .

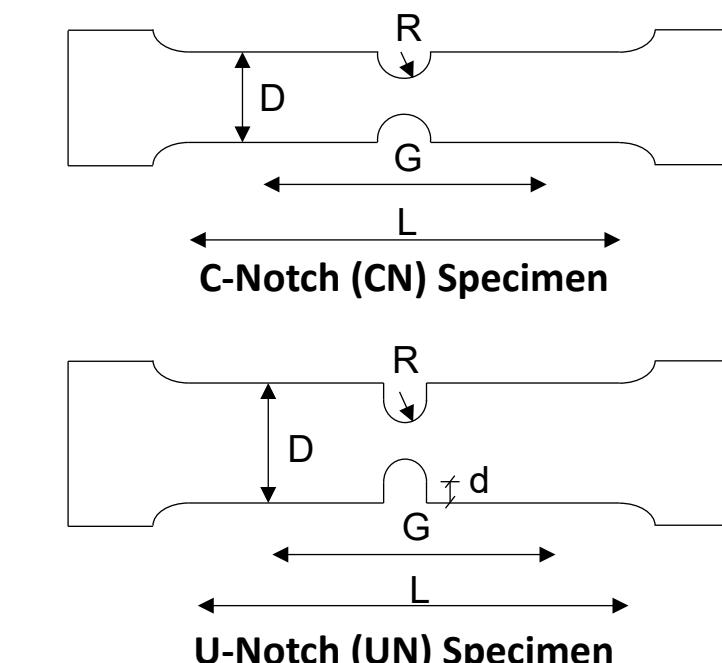
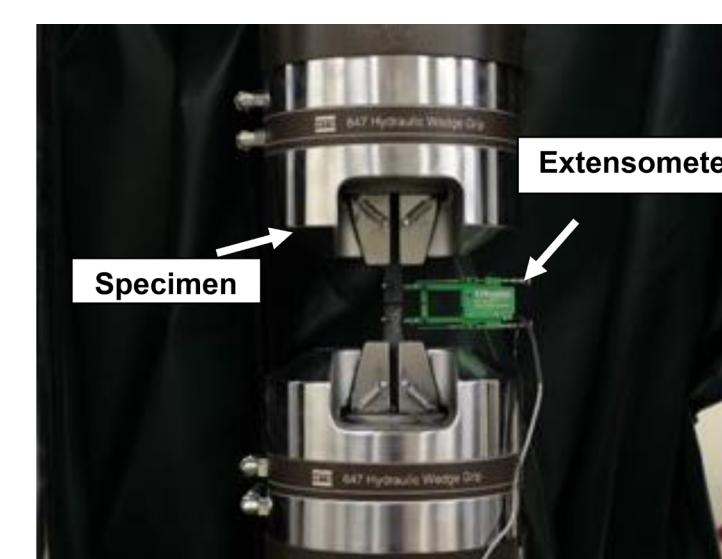
Temperatures: 600°C , 800°C , and 1000°C .



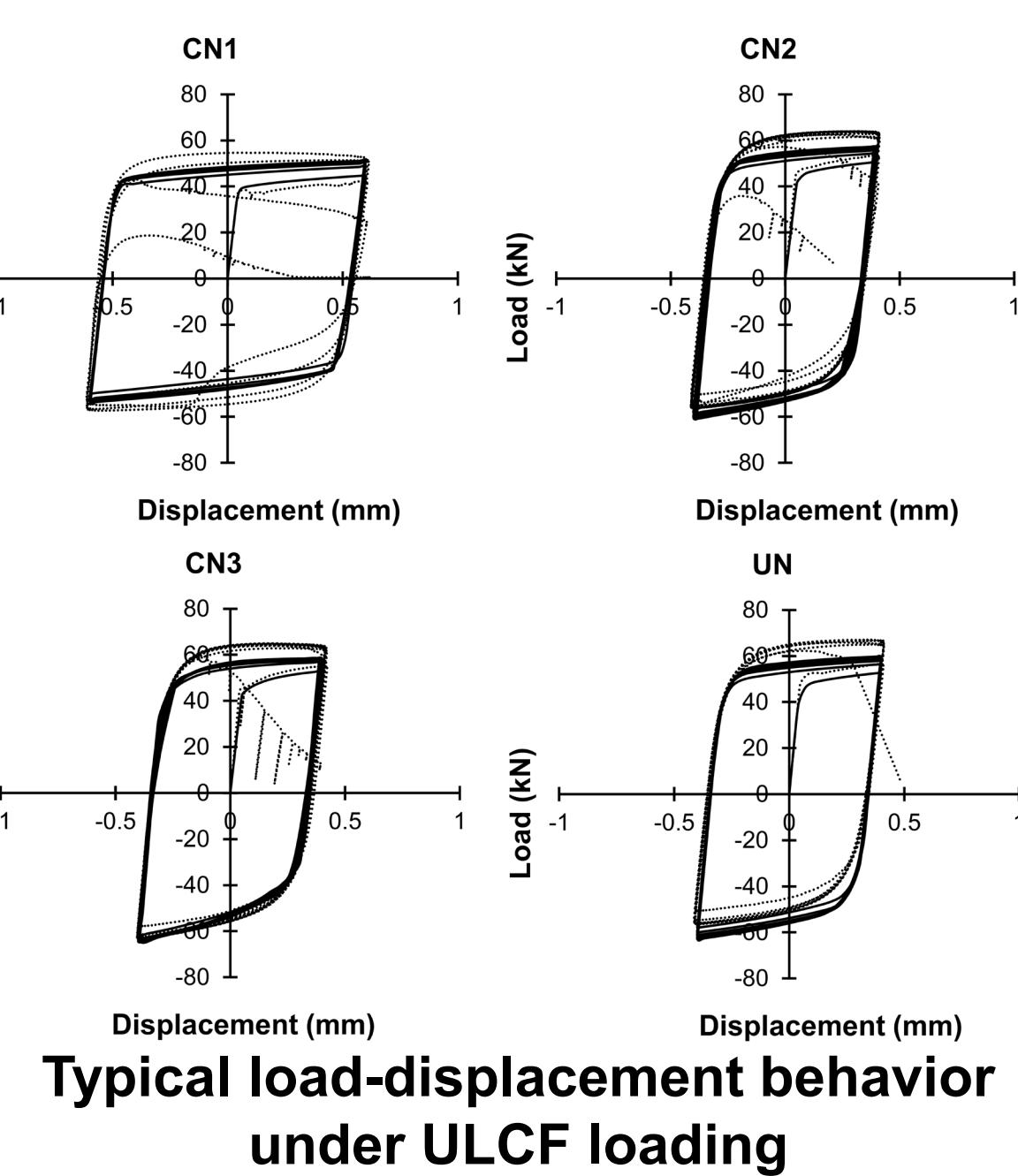
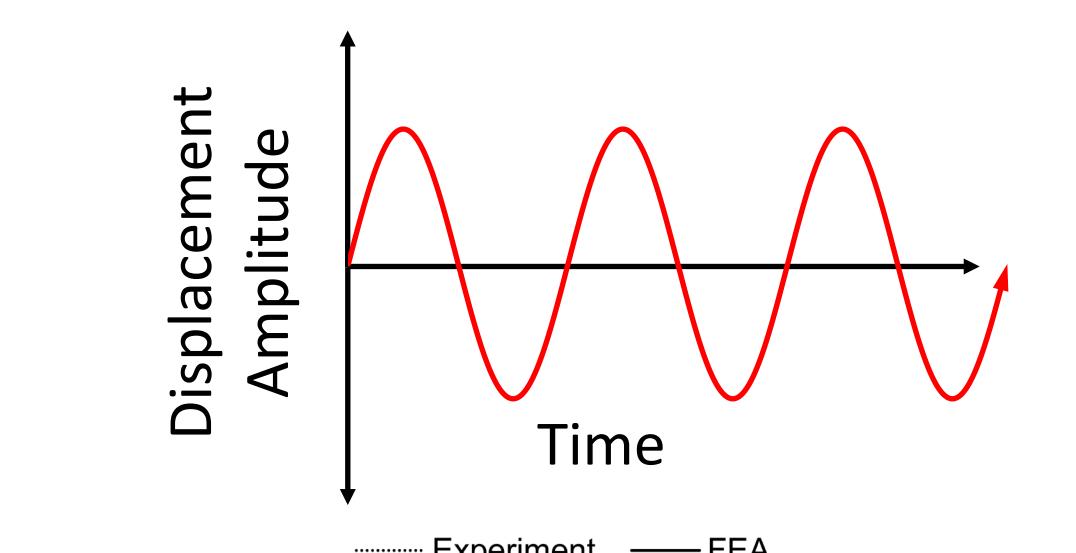
Step 2: Cooling methods



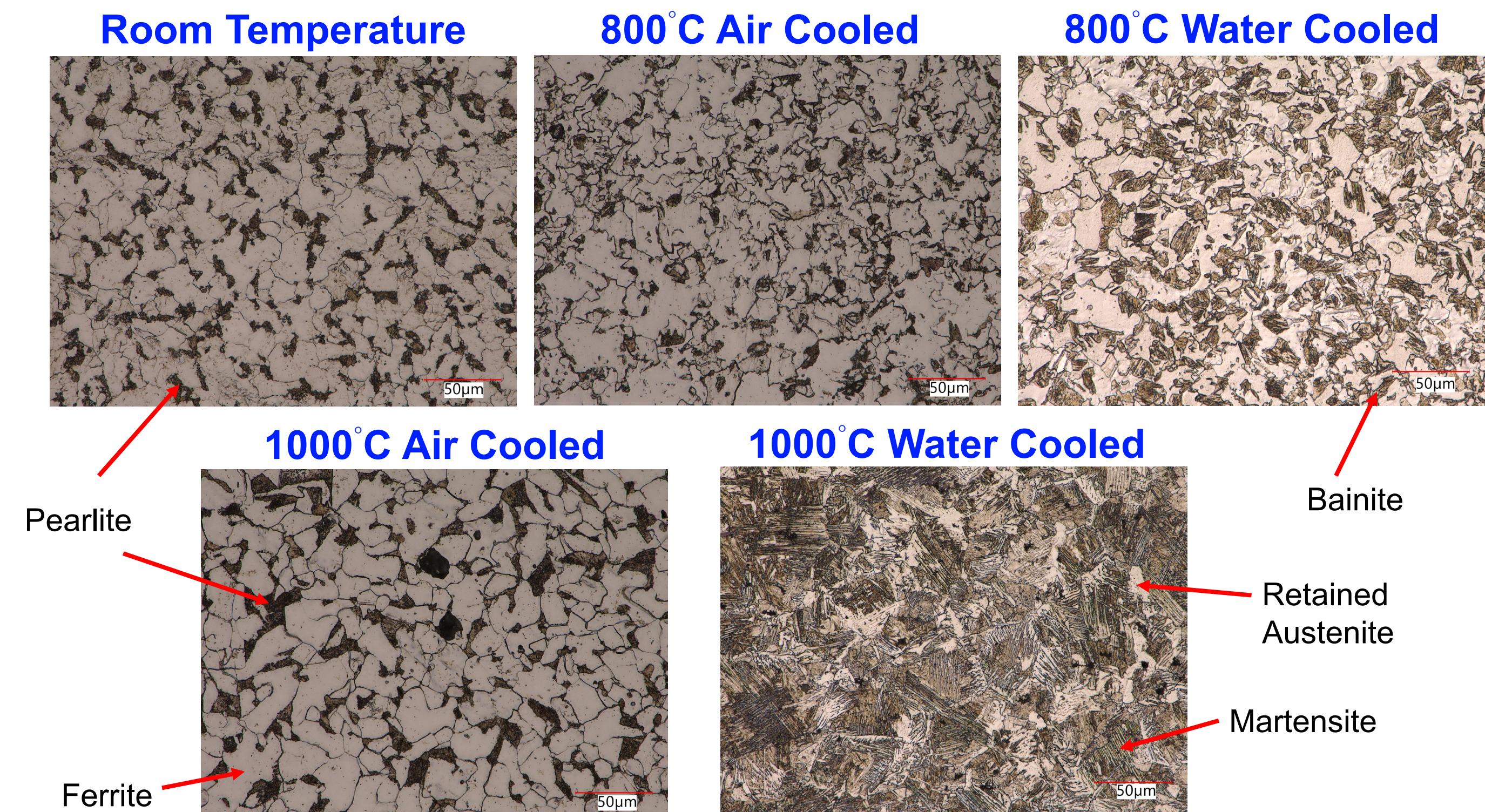
Step 3: ULCF Tests



Notch	Notch radius (R) (mm)	Notch depth (d) (mm)	Cylinder diameter (D) (mm)
CN1	1	-	12
CN2	2	-	14
CN3	3	-	16
UN	1	1	14



Microstructure



Results

ULCF cycles to failure

Notch	Control	600°C		800°C		1000°C			
		AC	Change (%)	WC	Change (%)	AC	Change (%)	WC	Change (%)
CN1	14	16	14.28	11	-21.43	13	-7.14	1	-92.86
CN2	12	18	50	19	58.33	28	133.33	2	-83.33
CN3	15	23	53.33	20	33.33	23	53.33	1	-93.33
UN	10	12	20	12	20	15	50	1	-90
Avg.			34.4		22.56		57.38		-89.88
									27.5
									-74.52

- ULCF life reduced by **~90%** and **~75%** due to water cooling from 800°C and 1000°C .
- Average ULCF life increased when exposed to 600°C irrespective of cooling method.
- ULCF life mostly remains unaffected when air-cooled from 800°C and 1000°C .

Conclusions

- Significant **lath martensite** was observed in water-cooled steel from 1000°C , resulting in increased strength and reduced ductility.
- Bainite** formed when steel was water-cooled from 800°C , which resulted in increased strength but reduced ductility.
- Pearlite** and **ferrite** were observed in the steel microstructure at room temperature.
- Grain and pearlite colony sizes decreased when steel was air-cooled from 800°C .
- Grain and pearlite colony sizes increased when steel was air-cooled from 1000°C .

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