# Frame bridges



# **Frame bridges**

# Introduction and general aspects

### Typologies

- Strictly speaking, most bridges are framed structures. While frame action is obviously relevant e.g. in arches and in girder bridges longitudinally stabilised by piers, it also matters in many other cases, where frame action is present in the longitudinal and/or transverse direction of the bridge.
- However, in bridge design, the term "frame bridge" is used only for structures exhibiting pronounced frame action in the transfer of vertical loads, which is similar to that of arches.





### Typologies

- Frequent types of frame bridges and their fields of application are illustrated on the right.
- Historically, frame bridges were often idealised to simplify global analysis by introducing hinges. This is still useful in preliminary design, but otherwise obsolete. However, reduced stiffnesses due to cracking (e.g. of the slender Vstruts) must be accounted for.
- Frame bridges are often the most economical solution for smaller spans. Orthogonal and trapezoidal frames are particularly suitable for grade separations (flyovers, underpasses – modest structures in many cases).
- Concrete strut frame bridges are more expensive than girder or arch bridges for long spans due to the falsework cost (expensive for inclined piers). Composite bridges, with inclined steel legs, installed from the abutments, are economical for longer spans (see examples behind).

Frame bridge typologies (and frequently used idealisation = hinges)



### **Typologies**

- Single span frames are particularly suitable for low bridges, since they allow minimising girder depth
  - $\rightarrow$  much higher slenderness possible than for simply supported girders
- The depth of frame bridges at midspan is usually not ٠ sufficient for a box girder (access for maintenance)
  - $\rightarrow$  in large span frames, use open cross-section at midspan and add bottom slab = box girder in frame corners (negative bending moment region) required)
- Single span frame bridges are always integral, strut  $\bullet$ frame bridges and V-strut frames are often integral or semi-integral as well
  - high durability, low maintenance  $\rightarrow$
  - $\rightarrow$  no uplift problems even at pronounced skew (V-strut frame bridge ends may, however, require regular pavement maintenance due to vertical movements of the bridge ends)

#### Frame bridge typologies – illustration from Menn (1990)



# box-girder frame



#### V-strut frame = V-Stiel Rahmen



### Examples: Train station at Rikon

- Buried orthogonal frame for train station pedestrian underpass (a bridge ...)
- Precast elements ("Fanger-Elemente")
- Installation in extremely short time (railway line interrupted)



### Examples: Flyover at Widnau

- Slender single span prestressed concrete frame bridge
- Span ca. 45 m, depth at midspan 1.10 m  $\approx l/41$
- Extremely complex geometry (variable skew and gradients)





### Examples: Hofbrücke (Aarebrücke) Innertkirchen

- Slender single span prestressed concrete slab frame,
- Clear span 42 m, length 51.40 m
- Replacing Maillart's bridge from 1934 to increase hydraulic capacity





### Examples: Stägmattabrücke, Lütschental

- Very slender single span prestressed concrete slab frame
- Clear span 38.5 m, length 60 m, depth at midspan 0.80...1.60 m
- Replacing previous bridge destroyed in flood event 2005
- Built using overhead gantry (hydraulic capacity during construction)







### Examples: Brücke Schönenwerd

- Single span composite frame bridge with pronounced skew
- Prestressed concrete half-frame with cantilevers supporting the composite part of the span (four weathering steel box girders).







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### Examples: Brücke Ruckhalde

- Skewed single span prestressed concrete trough frame bridge
- Minimum depth to cope with clearance requirements (changes in rail track alignment restricted by maximum slope and radius)







### Examples: Flyover at Düdingen

- Prefabricated V-strut frame overpass
- Standardised solution in CH, frequently used in motorways built in 1960-70s





### Examples: New Versamertobel Bridge

- prestressed concrete strut frame bridge, cast in situ
- Erected by (i) constructing legs (expensive falsework); (ii) supporting girder falsework on legs; (iii) casting girder





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- Concrete strut frame bridge, cast in situ
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### Examples: Pont de la Dala

- Composite strut frame bridge
- Structurally very efficient system, very slender
- Erected by (i) tilting the legs (built vertically),
  (ii) launching the girder longitudinally on the legs and
  (iii) casting the deck on the girder







### Examples: New Pont du Gueroz

- Composite strut frame bridge
- Structurally very efficient system, very slender
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  (ii) launching the girder longitudinally on the legs and (iii) casting the deck on the girder















# **Frame bridges**

Modelling and analysis

### Load-carrying behaviour

- Historically, frames were not only analysed, but also built with hinges to avoid restraint due to imposed deformation, settlements etc. Today, hinges are avoided (durability); the three-hinged frame is used here only to illustrate the behaviour (top row figures):
  - → pronounced frame action = strongly inclined reactions, large hogging moments at frame corners
- If the legs are haunched, reducing the depth towards the foundation, behaviour is similar to a two-hinged frame (figures in middle row):
  - → reduced frame action compared to three-hinged frame (lower hogging moments, less inclined reactions)
- However, frames are usually (partially) fixed at the base (bottom row figures):
  - $\rightarrow$  similar hogging moments as two-hinged frame
  - $\rightarrow$  bending moments in legs change sign
  - → higher shear forces in legs than for two-hinged arch (inclination of reactions in-between two- and threehinged frame)



### Soil-structure interaction

- In reality, frames are typically neither fixed nor hinged at the base, but elastically clamped
  - $\rightarrow$  behaviour between fixed and two-hinged frame
- Furthermore, the foundations are flexible, particularly in the horizontal direction
  - $\rightarrow$  frame action significantly reduced in soft soil
  - → model foundation with elastic springs (see substructure)
- In short-span buried frames (underpasses), the backfill is often modelled as load (top figure).
- In abutment walls acting as legs of large span frames, the backfill can be modelled as follows:
  - $\rightarrow$  apply permanent earth pressure as load (top figure)
  - → model backfill using elastic springs for all other loads (bottom figure)
  - → check that no tension results and passive pressure is not exceeded (relevant value = combination of both models)



Strut frame geometry – symmetric and skew symmetric case

- In strut frames, the geometry (leg inclination, girder spans) should be anti-funicular, i.e., correspond to the thrust line of the dead load (girder + upper part of legs):
  - $\rightarrow$  bending moments in girder  $\approx$  continuous girder
  - → "zero" girder deflection at inclined pier connection (except axial deformation of legs)
  - $\rightarrow$  no horizontal movements under dead load
- Aesthetically, the connection line of the leg foundations, resp. the leg intersection with the ground, should (as the springing line of arches) be parallel to the girder
- In either case, graphic statics is useful to understand the response and determine the geometry (considering the legs as pin-jointed members)
  - → equal horizontal component of leg forces by equilibrium
  - $\rightarrow$  equal vertical support reaction = equal leg inclination
  - $\rightarrow$  slightly different leg inclination in skew symmetric case



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#### Strut frame geometry - non-symmetric case

- In non-symmetrical strut frames, choosing an anti-funicular geometry is more important than in symmetric cases, where "symmetric" deviations of the geometry merely cause changes in bending moments, see next slide
- Graphic statics is particularly useful to define the right geometry:
  - (i) choose girder span layout ( $\rightarrow c_1 + c_2$  given)
  - (ii) determine support reactions in continuous girder
  - (iii) select first leg foundation = inclination  $\rightarrow$  inclination of other leg and position of foundation follow from  $G_1 \cdot c_1 + G_2 \cdot c_2$
  - (iv) iterate until second leg foundation matches topography and layout is aesthetically satisfactory



### Strut frame geometry - non-symmetric case

- If the geometry of the struts is not anti-funicular in nonsymmetric strut frames (lower figure)
  - $\rightarrow$  large horizontal displacements under dead load
  - $\rightarrow$  large girder deflection at inclined pier connections
  - → bending moments in girder ≠ continuous girder (sagging moment in large end span, already critical in anti-funicular case, increases)
- The behaviour can be explained by observing that equal strut inclinations cause equal strut forces (due to horizontal equilibrium), i.e., the vertical component *R* (equal for both legs) is
  - smaller than  $G_1$  (left leg to girder connection)
  - larger than  $G_2$  (right leg to girder connection)
  - $\rightarrow$  differences between vertical component of leg forces and ( $G_1$ ,  $G_2$ ) must be carried by the girder in bending



#### V-strut frame geometry – symmetric case

- Similar observations apply to the geometry of V-strut frames, in both the symmetrical case (figures on this and next slide) and non-symmetrical case.
- Depending on the span arrangement and the foundation stiffness (model with horizontal spring), uplift reactions occur at the end supports
  - $\rightarrow$  rear legs in tension
  - → frequent case in motorway flyovers (main span maximised / side spans minimised)
  - → prestressed legs are a frequent case of damage (improper grouting, see next slides)
- V-strut legs are often embedded in the backfill / embankment
  - → protect V-struts from earth pressure (half tube / soft layer above legs before backfilling)



 $G_{e}$ ,  $G_i$  = girder reaction + weight of upper part of leg



V-strut frame geometry – skew symmetric case

• As in strut frames, it is aesthetically favourable if the connection line of the leg foundations, resp. the leg intersection with the ground, is parallel to the girder.







# Frame bridges

Prestressing

## Frame bridges – Prestressing

Prestressing concept and tendon geometry: (V)-strut frames

- Strut frame and V-Strut frame girders can be prestressed as conventional bridge girders, accounting for the fact that
  - → in both cases, the midspan section of the girder is compressed by the frame action (beneficial)
  - → in V-strut frames, the side spans OF THE GIRDER (above each V) are subjected to tension, which requires additional prestressing
- Depending on the span layout and support stiffness (model with springs), the rear legs of V-strut frames are often subject to tension, at least under traffic loads at midspan
  - $\rightarrow$  prestress rear legs
  - $\rightarrow$  proper grouting essential for durability
  - → upper end of struts is difficult to grout: use re-/post-grouting (nachinjizierbare Spannglieder)



### Frame bridges – Prestressing

### Prestressing concept and tendon geometry: Single span frames

- Single span frames should at least be fully prestressed for permanent load (no decompression under permanent load).
- Large span, slender single span frames are sensitive to deflections and moment redistributions due to
  - long-term effects (prestressing force losses)
  - horizontal deformations of foundations
  - provide strong prestressing, preferably fully balancing the  $\rightarrow$ permanent loads ("formtreue Vorspannung") to ensure concentric compression at  $t = \infty$  under permanent load and accounting for foundation flexibility
- Deviation forces in variable depth girders may be estimated as illustrated in the figure
- "Parabolic" tendon geometry can be defined using this approach as well
  - define geometry in equivalent girder with horizontal axis  $\rightarrow$
  - transfer eccentricities with respect to real geometry  $\rightarrow$

(method is applicable in any variable depth girder, e.g. for continuity tendons in cantilever-constructed girders)



#### Girder and tendon profile

# Frame bridges

Detailing



### (V-) Strut frame bridges: Strut-girder connection

- Vertical diaphragms are commonly used at the connection of the inclined piers to the girder
- In box girders, provide passage for inspection
- Ensure force flow
  - → include moment transfer (even if piers are modelled as pin-jointed members, they transfer bending moments)
  - → use strut-and-tie model for detailing (internal actions referred to system axes yield only limited insight in local force transfer)



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### Single span frames: Frame corners

- The frame corners are subject to closing moments
  - → much less critical than opening moments, see lecture Advanced Structural Concrete)
  - → use strut-and-tie models and stress fields for a consistent dimensioning and detailing (figure)
- Similarly, in box girder frames, a diagonal compression slab is usually required (figure)
- Skew frames rotate in plan (see chapter on skew bridges)

force flow in slab frame corner (simplified, for equal depth of

wall and slab)

force flow in box

compressive force in plan)

girder frame corner diagonal slab (compression diagonal in frame corner AND transverse spreading of



### Particularities of trough frames

- Trough frames are appropriate in situations with very limited available depth (due to clearance and alignment requirements)
- In their design, it must be observed that the trough slab cannot be activated in compression in the frame corner, unless a continuing slab providing load spreading is provided (abutment wall cannot resist this high force in transverse shear)
- In turn, the wing walls can be activated for moment transfer (larger depth, no prestressing required), design with stress fields



# Frame bridges – Prestressing and detailing

