## Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection



# Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection Design – Aesthetics

- Aesthetic quality is an important design criterion, see Conceptual Design, Design Criteria Aesthetics:
  - → Bridge designers are responsible for the aesthetic quality of their bridges, as much as for structural safety and serviceability
  - → Even though aesthetic quality is inherently subjective, there are some generally accepted goals, i.e.
     Integration – Logic of form – Elegance
    - and design principles to achieve these goals
- These goals and principles are discussed in this chapter by means of illustrative examples, focusing on girder bridges.
- As this is the first typology (and other typologies also contain bridge girders), some general aspects of bridge aesthetics are also outlined.
- Note: Whether a girder bridge or another typology is appropriate for a specific site is not the question here. Other typologies are discussed in the respective chapters; this then serves as basis for selecting an appropriate bridge typology.



#### Design Criteria – Aesthetics

Even though aesthetic quality is inherently subjective, there are some generally accepted principles to achieve an aesthetically satisfactory design:

- Eduardo Torroja postulated the "logic of form" ("Razón y ser de los tipos estructurales"), which is closely related to L. Sullivan's maxim form follows function dating back to 1896
- David Billington suggested that an efficient bridge is not only economical, but also elegant: His axiom was "efficiency – economy – elegance"
- Juan José Arenas insisted in the importance of ethics, rather than economy (which is related, see next slide)
- · Fritz Leonhardt established an entire set of aesthetic design principles
- Many authors postulated similar principles (e.g. A.C. Liebenberg, Ch. Menn, M. Virlogeux, ...), whose common denominator can be summarised as:
- → Integration (in landscape, urban context, ...,
- → Logic of form

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→ Elegance (form, proportion, order, ...





#### Aesthetic principles

- Being an object in space, the perception of a bridge is governed by the following elements of visual art
  - $\rightarrow$  Form (three dimensional, perceived volume)
  - $\rightarrow$  Contrast (light and shadow, aka "value")
  - $\rightarrow$  Colour and visual texture

and design principles such as:

- $\rightarrow$  Balance / proportion
- $\rightarrow$  Rhythm
- $\rightarrow$  Emphasis

 $\rightarrow$  Unity

- These aspects, established in art, architecture and design, are equally relevant to achieve integration, logic of form and elegance when designing bridges.
- Girder bridges (and bridge girders in other typologies) are commonly perceived as elegant if they are transparent and appear slender, and if their span layout is well proportioned → next slides.





#### Colour and visual texture

- The visual texture depends on the material used:
  - → Steel obtains its visual texture through the coating, and the colour can be chosen (with some limitations if MIO coatings are used)
  - → Concrete, weathering steel and timber have their own, characteristic visual texture and colour
  - → Concrete may be coloured by adding pigments to the mix (if done at all, lighter grays are favoured: "white" concrete; other colours are rarely used)
- Concrete surfaces should not be coated, even if the surface is not perfect (e.g. due to improper preparation of casting joints): A coating will look worse





- Bridges are commonly perceived as elegant if they are transparent and appear slender
- Transparency is the opposite of the visual obstruction caused by the bridge as a whole
  - $\rightarrow$  piers (span layout, geometry) decisive
  - → girder depth and deck width relevant mainly in low bridges
- Single, narrow piers are much more transparent than wide or twin piers
- Transparency of the piers depends highly on the perspective (direction of sight), particularly for wide piers
- See also Substructure section





- The girder depth is much less relevant in high bridges than in low ones
- The deck width is often more decisive for transparency than the girder depth





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- The girder depth is much less relevant in high bridges than in low ones
- The deck width is often more decisive for transparency than the girder depth
  - ... equally in low bridges, unless they are primarily perceived from far away





- Truss girders are evidently more transparent than girders with solid webs
- But only when seen from far at the right angle (particularly if they have multiple truss planes)



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- Truss girders are evidently more transparent than girders with solid webs
- But only when seen from far at the right angle (particularly if they have multiple truss planes)
- Still, trusses may definitely enhance the aesthetic quality, and if done well, visualise the force flow → logic of form (hard to achieve otherwise in a girder bridge) (see next slide)







- In conventional prestressed concrete trusses, transparency is limited (large member dimensions for durability reasons)
- Precast concrete segmental bridges with high performance concrete truss webs and external prestressing were promoted by the French contractor Bouygues in the late 1980s. Even if these trusses are indeed transparent (slender members similar to steel), the girder is not.
  - → concrete trusses save weight, but in most cases do not substantially enhance transparency





#### Apparent slenderness

- The observations regarding transparency of girders also apply to their slenderness
- However, while transparency quite directly depends on the girder's form (or rather shape for a given direction of sight), the apparent slenderness is significantly influenced by
  - proportion (depth, span, height above ground)
  - continuous length of the girder (rather than span) (and rhythm, in case)
  - light and shadow
- → The structural slenderness (ratio height/span) is no reliable measure for the apparent (or visual) slenderness

(which of these bridges has a higher slenderness h/l?)





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(although it helps, of course – though this is not a girder bridge, but a cable stayed bridge with an ultra-slender bridge girder)

The following slides show (schematically) different proportions of girder depth, span and height above ground.





#### Apparent slenderness – Proportion

- Low bridges appear more massive than high bridges, even if they have equal span and slenderness (see figures, example with  $h/l \approx 1/15$ )
- $\rightarrow$  Important ratios:
  - girder depth / clear height (soffit to ground)
  - span / clear height (soffit to ground)

- equal span and depth
  (= equal structural slenderness h/l)
- variable PGL (= road surface or rails) height above ground
- optional non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete barriers, ...)







#### Apparent slenderness – Proportion

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- $\rightarrow$  Important ratios:
  - girder depth / clear height (soffit to ground)
  - span / clear height (soffit to ground)

- equal PGL height above ground (low height)
- equal structural slenderness *h*/*l*
- variable span (and depth since h/l = const.)
- optional non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete barriers, ...)



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  - girder depth / clear height (soffit to ground)
  - span / clear height (soffit to ground)

#### Figures (a)...(c) have

- equal PGL height above ground (medium height)
- equal structural slenderness *h*/*l*
- variable span (and depth since h/l = const.)
- optional non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete barriers, ...)



 $l \approx 3.5 \cdot h_s$ 

#### Apparent slenderness – Proportion

- Low bridges appear more massive than high bridges, even if they have equal span and slenderness (see figures, example with *h*/*l*≈1/15)
- $\rightarrow$  Important ratios:
  - girder depth / clear height (soffit to ground)
  - span / clear height (soffit to ground)

- equal clear height (high bridges)
- equal structural slenderness h/l
- variable span (and depth since h/l = const.)
- optional non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete barriers, ...)



Apparent slenderness – Proportion – Span layout

• If the height above ground varies, it may be preferable to vary the spans accordingly





#### Apparent slenderness – Proportion – Span layout

- Note however that this is often primarily seen on drawings, but difficult to perceive in reality (unless the bridge can be seen ± in elevation from a far distance), and it breaks the rhythm of equal spans
- → Though postulated as design principle in many textbooks, this must not be given too much weight
- → This also applies to other design paradigms, such as "the number of spans must be uneven", which may be misleading in many cases





Apparent slenderness – Proportion – Variable depth

- Variable depth may also be used to achieve more equilibrated proportion and enhance visible slenderness
- However, while often attractive in three-span bridges, variable depth is not necessarily favourable in multispan girders, as the continuity of a constant depth girder is equally attractive

 $\rightarrow$  use primarily for large spans (structural efficiency)





#### Apparent slenderness – Proportion

 As illustrated on the previous slides, non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete crash barriers, substantially increase the girder depth of slender, shortspan bridges, reducing the apparent slenderness







- As illustrated on the previous slides, non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete crash barriers, substantially increase the girder depth of slender, shortspan bridges, reducing the apparent slenderness
- Full height concrete crash barriers typically extend 1.15 m above the surfacing, corresponding to a total outside visible height of ca. 1.70 m
  - → If possible, use steel barriers or lower concrete barrier with additional steel profile (aufgesetzter Leitholm), e.g. 0.85+0.30 m, see below and next slide







- As illustrated on the previous slides, non-structural elements (noise barriers, concrete crash barriers, suicide prevention measures) substantially increase the girder depth of slender, short-span bridges, reducing the apparent slenderness
- Full height concrete crash barriers typically extend 1.15 m above the surfacing, corresponding to a total outside visible height of ca. 1.70 m
  - → If possible, use steel barriers or lower concrete barrier with attached guide rail (aufgesetzter Leitholm), e.g. 0.85+0.30 m, see below







- Noise barriers are particularly challenging regarding aesthetics, since they are commonly even higher than crash barriers, e.g. 2.00 m above surfacing  $\rightarrow$  visible height of ca. 2.50 m (including parapet)
- «Transparent» noise barriers absorb less noise and require more maintenance (cleaning, vandalism)
  - often "closed" noise barriers required
  - $\rightarrow$





- U-shaped cross-sections («Trogquerschnitte») with longitudinal girders serving as barrier enable more slender girders if noise barriers or concrete crash barriers are required
- However:
  - → wide decks require more depth for transverse load transfer (deck is simply supported at its edges)
  - → structural elements above the roadway are problematic regarding impact (railway bridges) and durability (road bridges).
  - → Some owners therefore do not allow this solution (e.g. in CH, such elements are commonly treated as non-structural (though monolithically connected) except in special cases, see photos.



#### Apparent slenderness – contrast and rhythm

- The apparent slenderness of bridge girders can be significantly enhanced by making use of rhythm and contrast (light and shadow)
- If wide cantilevers are provided, much of the girder depth will be in the shadow, while the parapets / edge beams are much brighter (even on overcast days or at night)
- This contrast greatly enhances the apparent slenderness of bridge girders and allows "hiding" services







#### Apparent slenderness – contrast and rhythm

- The contrast can be enhanced by inclining the outside of the parapets / edge beams, making them even brighter (use precast edge beams with smooth surface to avoid moss, as in example on this and following slides)
- Note that the example is not a structurally slender bridge  $(h \approx 2.00 \text{ m}, h_{tot} \approx 2.60 \text{ m} \text{ including parapets, typical span} l = 35 \text{ m} \rightarrow h/l \approx 1/17.5, h_{tot}/l \approx 1/13.5)$ , nor are the cantilevers particularly wide







#### Apparent slenderness – contrast and rhythm

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Glatt

Apparent slenderness – contrast and rhythm

- The soffit of a girder can be rhythmised using transverse ribs or diagonal struts
- This also enhances  $contrast \rightarrow higher apparent slenderness$



#### Apparent slenderness – contrast and rhythm

- The soffit of a girder can be rhythmised using transverse ribs or diagonal struts
- This also enhances contrast → higher apparent slenderness
- And at the same time facilitates
  - $\rightarrow$  wide cantilevers with moderate weight
  - $\rightarrow$  efficient construction in stages
    - 1. cast box girder using a narrow launching gantry
    - 2. attach precast rib elements to box
    - 3. cast cantilevers on falsework supported by box girder and precast ribs
- → very efficient method, particularly for wide bridges, used e.g. in several bridges of Swiss motorway network in the late 1970s/early 1980






# Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection Concrete girders

# Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection Concrete girders Bridge specific aspects of structural analysis and design

### Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

### General remarks

- Some differences compared to building structures
- Spine and grillage models usual
- Usually significant eccentric loads → torsion relevant (see top photo on right side)
- Linear elastic analysis usual, without explicit moment redistribution (redistributions are relied upon, see notes)
- Moving loads  $\rightarrow$  design using envelopes of action effects
- Except for short spans, concrete bridge girders are slender to save weight
  - $\rightarrow$  typically prestressed concrete
  - $\rightarrow$  uncracked behaviour up to decompression
  - $\rightarrow$  consider secondary moments in hyperstatic systems
- Construction is often staged
   → account for staged construction in analysis
- Fatigue is often relevant
  - $\rightarrow$  avoid decompression under fatigue loads





Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

Staged construction

- Staged construction is usually analysed by linear elastic models where
  - $\rightarrow$  each load is applied in the structural system active at the time of its application
  - $\rightarrow$  action effects due to all loads are added to obtain total action effects
  - → significant differences in action effects compared to system cast at once ("one casting" = OC), with strong dependence on construction process (see next slide)
- In ductile girders ( $x/d \le 0.35$ , see Stahlbeton I), an analysis of construction stages is not required for ULS design (structural safety)
- Still, analysing construction stages is usually required to
  - → design prestressing (decompression?) and check serviceability criteria
  - $\rightarrow$  determine camber (see design/dimensioning)



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Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

#### Staged construction

- This slide highlights the strong dependency of action effects obtained from a staged construction analysis on the construction process
  - → difference to previous slide: falsework is now supported on the cantilever end of the previous construction stage (this is often done in CH)
  - → falsework reaction must be applied to cantilever in casting stage and "removed" (negative load) when the falsework is lowered, i.e. in next stage
  - → much larger bending moments over supports than with falsework supported independently
- Due to concrete creep, in either case, the bending moments approach those of the one casting system over time (reaching ≈80% of the latter at t=∞, see Advanced Structural Concrete)
- However, for checking prestressing (e.g. no decompression) at t =0, the corresponding bending moments are relevant



Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

#### Staged construction

- Further to the examples shown on the previous slide, other challenges are frequent in staged construction and need to be accounted for:
  - → casting of cross-section in stages (similar to steel-concrete composite girders, see there)
  - → temporary supports being added and removed (support reactions must be applied to the system active at removal of supports, see steel and composite girders)



### Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

### Camber ("Überhöhung")

- Camber is usually required in bridges. Other than 0 bending moments, deflections do not "creep towards" the one casting system  $\rightarrow$  account for prestressing and long-term effects  $\rightarrow$  account for staged construction
- There is **no** «safe side» in determining camber •  $\rightarrow$  do not provide more camber than required
  - $\rightarrow$  avoid construction processes requiring large or complex camber (e.g. twisting of curved girders) where possible
  - $\rightarrow$  adopt conceptual measures to accommodate deviations from expected deflections, particularly to conceal kinks between stages which may extremely harm appearance (e.g. cast parapets (Konsolköpfe) at a later construction stage, as usual in in CH)



### Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

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### Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

### Camber ("Überhöhung")

- The camber corresponds to the sum (with opposite sign) of the expected displacements due to
  - ... deformations of the formwork+falsework (not shown in the slides, including removal of temporary supports)
  - ... deformations of the girder (short+long term) (short-term contribution shown in slides)
- The camber in the example is discontinuous (vertical offset) at all construction joints, since each element only exists + deforms after it has been cast
- This is usual unless construction joints are located over piers, since the camber corresponds to the (negative) difference between the position before casting and the final alignment
- Considering the deflections of the stages cast before reaching a construction joint, the camber of adjacent stages is continuous





Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

### Fatigue

- Fatigue is often relevant, particularly
   → in bridge decks
  - $\rightarrow$  railway bridges
- As illustrated on the right, stress variations in reinforcement and prestressing are much more pronounced after decompression of the cross-section
  - → select prestressing level in fatigue-relevant structures such that no decompression occurs under fatigue loads



Bridge-specific aspects of analysis and design

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# Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection Concrete girders Typical cross-sections and details

#### Typical cross-sections

- Solid cross-section
- Box cross-section
- Multicellular cross-section
- Open cross-section

#### Slab geometry

The deck slab and the bottom slab in box girders contribute significantly to the dead load

- → variable depth = haunches often provided to save weight, in spite of the more complicated formwork:
  - ... transversely to increase the transverse bending and shear resistance of deck and bottom slab (in box girders)
  - ... longitudinally to obtain a thicker compression flange (usually only bottom slab, see notes):





#### Number of webs / girders

The primary criterion for the selection of the number of webs is the weight of the cross-section.

In low-moderate depth girders, the deck (and bottom slab in box girders) constitute most of the dead load:

 $\rightarrow$  select number of webs and respective spacings  $s_w$ such that thin slabs are possible (with haunches, see previous slide)

In deep girders, the webs significantly contribute to the dead load (and are statically inefficient, see notes):

- $\rightarrow$  reduce web thickness  $b_w$  to minimum required for casting (space for tendons and vibrating needle!)
- → reduce number of webs by providing transverse ribs (however: complicated formwork)
- $\rightarrow$  use transverse prestressing
- $\rightarrow$  reduce web weight (truss webs) in long-span bridges

The figure on the right indicates that, as outlined above, more than two webs are (if at all) appropriate in girders with low-moderate depth only, except in very wide bridges. Usual number of webs [Menn 1990] as a function of girder depth and bridge width ...



... but wider bridges are built with 2 webs (e.g. in Montabliz: deck width 26.10 m):





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#### Number of webs / girders

Transverse ribs or struts not only enable reducing the number of webs in wide girders.

They are also aesthetically relevant, since they rhythmise the girder – which is often favourable in long, otherwise monotonic or massive bridges.





#### Cast-in-place girders

- Simple cross-sectional geometry
   = formwork and construction is
   more important than optimising
   weight. Hence, they are usually
- $\rightarrow$  heavier than precast girders
- →  $s_w$  is larger than in precast girders (less webs / beams  $\Rightarrow$  simpler construction)
- Variable depth is easier to achieve than in precast girders. Still, for small and medium span bridges, constant depth is favoured due to the simpler construction (formwork, falsework)
- Cast-in-place girders are usually continuous
   over the piers for structural efficiency



### Cast-in-place girders



### Cast-in-place girders

25.0

• Typical geometry and minimum thicknesses for pre-dimensioning of a box girder



deck span ratios	$b_1/b_2 \approx 0.45; b_4/b_2 \approx 0.2; b_5/b_6 \approx 0.2$
deck slenderness	$b_3/t_3 \le 2530; b_6/t_6 \le 30;$
minimum thicknesses	$t_1 \ge 0.26 \text{ m}$ (for cast-in-place parapet = CH; for prefabricated edge beams 0.20 m is sufficient) $t_2 \ge 0.35 \text{ m}$ (resp. 0.400.45 m if full tandem axle acts on cantilever, i.e. if $b_1 > \text{ca. } 2.5 \text{ m}$ ) $t_3 \ge 0.25 \text{ m}$ $t_4 = b_w \ge 0.35 \text{ m} + n_p \cdot 0.1 \text{ m}$ ( $n_p \le 2$ = number of interior prestressing tendons next to each other in web) $t_6 \ge 0.20 \text{ m}$ (resp. 0.26 m if prestressing tendons are running in bottom slab)
web inclination	$i \ge 34$ 5 (flat webs are structurally inefficient and complicate the reinforcement layout at slab connections)
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#### **Precast girders**

- Complex cross-section geometries and structural optimisation possible (maximise radius of gyration  $\sqrt{\frac{I}{\Lambda}}$ )
  - simple construction
- Construction / erection
   = positive
- fast erection
- elimination of falsework
- Durability / maintenance
   negative
- thin cross-section components
- large exposed concrete surface
- many construction joints
- Precast girders are often simply supported (continuity over supports complicates construction and slows down erection speed)
- Maximum spans l and slenderness h/l depend on the erection method



#### Precast girders – Arrangement over supports

- Different possible schemes for precast girder bridges, regarding the support region, are illustrated on the right
- These are illustrated in more detail on the next slides
- Erection procedures see separate subsection

#### Independent, simply supported girders



#### Partial continuity (monolithic deck slab)



#### Full continuity (cast-in-place diaphragms)



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#### Precast girders – Arrangement over supports

#### Independent, simply supported girders

- Erection of simply supported girders without establishing continuity
- Deck slab may be partially precast or fully cast in situ after erection (but not monolithic over supports!)
- Pier cap must be wide enough to locate the permanent supports of both girders
- Requires bridge expansion joint at each support
  - $\rightarrow$  avoid in road bridges since expansion joints:
    - ... may cause severe damage if leaking
    - ... require maintenance even if properly detailed to avoid leakage, which is difficult, see notes)... are expensive but have a short service life
    - ... affect user comfort and cause noise

(see support and articulation chapter for details)



Precast girders – Arrangement over supports

Partial continuity (monolithic deck slab)

- Erection of simply supported girders
- Pier cap must be wide enough to locate the permanent supports of both girders
- Establishment of partial continuity through the  $\bullet$ cast-in-place deck  $\rightarrow$  no expansion joints, but weak section (only slab transfers  $M_{y}$  at supports)
- If the deck is precast, only the part over the • support ("link slab") is cast in place
- The slab is horizontally disconnected from the girders over the length  $l_{ls}$ 
  - $\rightarrow$  allow relative horizontal displacements between link slab and girders (e.g. via elastomeric pads, see figure)
  - $\rightarrow M_{\nu}$  over supports depends on the relative rotation  $\theta_{v}$  of the two girder ends (which define the curvature  $\chi_v$  of the slab)





typical length  $l_{ls}$  of «link slabs»: 15 m  $\leq l \leq 20$  m  $\rightarrow 1$  m  $\leq l_{ls} \leq 2$  m  $30 \text{ m} \le l \le 40 \text{ m} \rightarrow 2 \text{ m} \le l_{ls} \le 4 \text{ m}$ 



- Cast-in-place deck slab 1.
- Waterproofing membrane 2.
- 3. Wearing surface
- Expansion joint 4.
- Precast girder 5.
- Cast-in-place diaphragm 6.
- Elastomeric pad 7.

no horizontal reaction (bending moment transferred by slab only)

forces

Precast girders – Arrangement over supports

Full continuity (cast-in-place diaphragms)

- Erection of simply supported girders
- Pier cap (ev. with auxiliary falsework) must accommodate the temporary supports of both girders as well as the common final support
- Establishment of full continuity through ... cast-in-place diaphragm and deck
  - ... continuous prestressing
  - $\rightarrow$  no expansion joints, no weak section
- Vertical shear forces from the two spans  $V_{zI,2}$  must be transferred to the support reaction  $V_{zI}+V_{z2}$  through the interface between concrete cast at different times (shear keys often required)
- Post-tensioning is (partly) continuous over supports

   → many solutions (see lecture of M. Meyer)
   → careful detailing essential
- Account for long-term effects (moment redistribution from t=0 to t=∞)

Erection of simply supported girders



Casting of Diaphragms

Prestressing for continuity







# Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection Concrete girders Prestressing concept

#### Prestressing concept

The prestressing concept contains (see Stahlbeton II):

- degree of prestress
- tendon layout (profile, anchorages, ...)
- tendon sizing
- stressing sequence (where, when)

The students are assumed to be familiar with prestressed concrete and the two options for treating prestressing in structural analysis:

- "prestressing as resistance"
  - ... consider entire system
  - ... prestressing causes residual stress state in cross-sections
  - ... in statically indeterminate systems, corresponding deformations are not compatible with the supports, causing, restraint actions («secondary moments») = action effects in the entire system
- "prestressing as load"
  - ... consider partial system = girder without tendon

... anchor, deviation + friction forces are acting on this subsystem



#### Degree of prestressing

The students are also assumed to be familiar with the concept of the degree of prestressing (Vorspanngrad). When defining the degree of prestressing (see Stahlbeton II), the load  $q_{dec}$  that causes decompression is referred to.

The required prestressing force is obtained as illustrated in the figure (derivation of formula for negative bending moments accordingly).

In concrete bridges, a full prestressing for the following loads is common:

- Road bridges (typically,  $P/A_c \approx 3...5$  MPa):
  - $\rightarrow$  permanent load (usual in CH)
  - $\rightarrow$  permanent load + frequent load (usual e.g. in F)
  - → permanent load, but decompression allowed in span (less durable, avoid)
- Railway bridges (typically,  $P/A_c \approx 4...7$  MPa):
  - $\rightarrow$  permanent load + fatigue load (usual)
  - $\rightarrow$  permanent load + frequent load (higher durability)



#### Degree of prestress

In highly prestressed girders (e.g. railway bridges), decompression may occur under permanent load and prestressing, on the side of the cross-section opposite to the tendons. This is often tolerable in construction stages (reduced dead load  $q_0$ ), but should usually be avoided in service (full permanent load). In checking this condition, the initial prestressing force must be used (*P* is unfavourable in this case), see illustration.

Prestressing hardly ever acts on its own. Rather, a significant portion of the girder's self-weight is usually activated at the very moment of applying the prestressing forces (that tend to lift the girder off the formwork)

- → the case «prestressing only» need not to be checked for decompression usually
- → strictly speaking, this should be accounted for when determining the strain difference  $\Delta \epsilon$  between girder and tendon (frozen when grouting) – but usually, concrete strains are completely neglected in determining  $\Delta \epsilon$  (see Stahlbeton II)



#### Degree of prestress

The formulas for determining the prestressing force *P* on the previous slide contain the secondary moment  $M_{ps}$ , which in turn is a function of *P* and the tendon layout. Hence, an iterative procedure is required to determine *P*.

A first estimate of the required prestressing force may be obtained by the load balancing method:

- choose prestressing layout and force such that deviation forces u correspond to a certain load q<sub>b</sub>
  - $\rightarrow$  pure axial compression under load  $q_{bal} = u$ (if anchor forces act in centroid of cross-section)
- full load balancing is hardly ever required
- in order to achieve full prestressing for  $q_{bal}$  (i.e., no decompression under this load), deviation forces of about  $u \approx 0.8 q_{bal}$  are typically sufficient
- The interpretation of prestressing as load is particularly useful for unbonded prestressing (including ungrouted tendons in construction stages)

#### Deviation forces fully compensating load $q_{bal}$



Deviation forces for full prestressing under load  $q_{bal}$ 

$$u = 8 \frac{P_{\infty}f}{l^2} \approx 0.8 \cdot q_{bal} \rightarrow P_{\infty} \approx \frac{0.8 \cdot q_{bal} \cdot l^2}{8f}$$

# Superstructure / Girder bridges

Design and erection Concrete girders Erection methods and tendon layout

# **Concrete girders – Erection methods and tendon layout**

#### Prestressing concept

The prestressing concept, particularly the tendon layout and stressing sequence, are closely related to the erection method.

The erection method in turn depends on the

- span (see table)
- number of (equal) spans
- site (access, height above ground)
- preferences / expertise of contractor / designer

#### Concrete bridge erection methods

Span [m] (	0	20	40	60	80	100	120	140	160	180	200
Conventional falsework <sup>(1)</sup>				, 							
Formwork launching girder		<b>.</b>									
Incremental launching <sup>(2)</sup>		<u> </u>									
Balanced cantilevering <sup>(3)</sup>			<								
Precast girders											
usual / economical exceptional cases											

<sup>(1)</sup> usually most economical cast-in-place solution for low bridges with few spans

<sup>(2)</sup> requires suitable alignment (straight / circle / helix), economical for long bridges only

<sup>(3)</sup> economical for high bridges or spans crossing obstacles with restricted access

# **Concrete girders – Cast in place erection methods and prestressing layout**

#### Erection on falsework (conventional falsework)



#### Movable Scaffold System MSS





# Tendon layouts for cast-in-place girders (cast on conventional falsework or using MSS)

- (a) tendon layout with overlap over piers (→ box girders, open cross-sections)
- (b) tendon layout without overlap over piers (→ open crosssections)

### Free / balanced cantilevering (Freivorbau)



#### Tendon layouts for balanced cantilevering



## **Concrete girders – Cast in place erection methods and tendon layout**





cantilever tendons (curved in plan, in deck slab) tensioned per construction stage continuity tendons (parabolic, in webs) tensioned in final stage

#### midspan tendons

(straight, in bottom slab) tensioned after midspan closure

# **Concrete girders – Precast girder erection methods and prestressing layout**

# Casting Bed Direction of Launch Vertical Reaction Beams Pulling Jack Monolithic or Stressed Connection Scaffolding for Access N H1 N+2 N+3

TYPICAL CONSTRUCTION SEQUENCE



#### Tendon layouts for incrementally launched girders





Installation with overhead gantry



### Full span precast method (launching carrier / VSL)



### Prestressing layout for precast girder bridges

(see also "precast girders - arrangement over supports")



# **Concrete girders – Precast segment erection methods and tendon layout**

Segments are produced in a casting yard by matchcasting: Segment n-1 (and a stiff stop formwork) = formwork for Segment n



### Erection with launching gantry (span by span)



Tendon layout for any precast segment erection method External prestressing tendons, overlap in pier segments

#### Free / balanced cantilevering with cranes



### Free / balanced cantilevering with lifting frames



### Free / balanced cantilevering with launching gantry







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