

26 **Author keywords:** Steel wide-flange columns; ASCE 41; Nonlinear component modeling;
27 Performance-based seismic engineering; Steel frame buildings; cyclic deterioration; model
28 uncertainty.

29 **Introduction**

30 Performance assessment by nonlinear dynamic (response history) analyses is being
31 increasingly used for the seismic assessment and design of buildings and other structures. Over
32 the past decade or so, general guidelines and criteria have been proposed for the use of
33 nonlinear dynamic analyses of tall buildings (e.g., LATBSDC 2017; PEER 2017) and other
34 structures (Deierlein et al. 2010). Most recently, the ASCE 7 standard has introduced a new
35 chapter on nonlinear dynamic analysis for seismic design (ASCE 2017a; Haselton et al. 2017).
36 While general guidelines for implementation of nonlinear dynamic analyses have advanced,
37 detailed recommendations and criteria for structural components have not advanced as quickly.
38 For example, many engineers rely on model parameters in the ASCE 41 standard (ASCE 2014,
39 2017b), which date back to guidelines developed for nonlinear static (pushover) analyses in the
40 late 1990s (ATC 1997; FEMA 1997a; b).

41 In the last decade, guidelines geared to nonlinear dynamic analysis of steel and concrete
42 buildings have been developed, including updated component hysteretic models that explicitly
43 capture cyclic strength and stiffness deterioration (PEER/ATC 2010). These models reflected
44 the most recent findings from laboratory testing of steel beams in pre-qualified beam-to-
45 column connections (FEMA 2000; Lignos and Krawinkler 2011) that were mainly tested as
46 part of the SAC joint venture program. Due to the fairly limited experimental data available at
47 the time, it was recognized that updated modeling recommendations should be provided to
48 properly model the hysteretic response of steel columns subjected to seismic loading
49 (PEER/ATC 2010; Hamburger et al. 2016).

50 More recently, several full-scale experiments have been conducted to characterize the
51 hysteretic behavior of steel columns under multi-axis cyclic loading (Newell and Uang 2008;
52 Suzuki and Lignos 2015, 2017; Lignos et al. 2016; Ozkula et al. 2017; Elkady and Lignos
53 2018a). Although these tests revealed that the plastic deformation capacity of steel columns is
54 strongly influenced by the cross-section and member slenderness as well as the applied axial
55 load on the column, the ASCE 41-13 skeleton curve deformation parameters do not properly

56 capture these dependencies. This has been also recognized by practicing engineers (Bech et al.
57 2015).

58 The ASCE 41-13 standard treats steel columns as force-controlled elements (i.e., zero
59 plastic deformation capacity) when they are subjected to compressive axial load demands of
60 more than 50% P_{CL} (where P_{CL} is the lower-bound axial compressive strength of a steel column
61 as defined in AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a)). This limit may lead into seismic retrofit solutions
62 that often times are needlessly costly (Bech et al. 2015). On the other hand, experimental
63 evidence and corroborating continuum finite element simulations (Newell and Uang 2008;
64 Elkady and Lignos 2015, 2018a, 2018b; Lignos et al. 2016) suggest that seismically compact
65 steel columns as per AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a) can develop appreciable plastic deformation
66 capacities even at relatively high compressive axial load demands. Although the recently
67 published ASCE 41-17 provisions (ASCE 2017b) raised the associated limit for force-
68 controlled column elements to 50% P_{ye} (P_{ye} is the axial yield strength and is calculated based
69 on expected steel material properties) or less, depending on the section compactness, there is
70 no background information to substantiate such change.

71 Steel-framed structures are often subjected to bidirectional loading due to three dimensional
72 (3D) ground motion shaking. Similarly, end (i.e., corner) columns of steel moment resisting
73 frames (MRFs) may experience large fluctuations of axial load demands due to dynamic
74 overturning effects; hence, their hysteretic behavior is different than that of adjacent interior
75 steel MRF columns within the same MRF story (Suzuki and Lignos 2015). In particular,
76 interior steel MRF columns do not experience axial load fluctuations due to overturning forces.
77 The ASCE 41-17 (ASCE 2017b) provisions do not provide explicit guidance on how to address
78 the aforementioned two effects.

79 Despite the fact that both FEMA 273/274 (FEMA 1997a; b) and ASCE 41-17 (ASCE
80 2017b) did not intend for the use of first and/or second cycle component curves in nonlinear
81 dynamic analysis, absent of other established hysteretic models, engineers often apply the
82 ASCE 41 component models for dynamic analyses (Hamburger et al. 2016). Although this
83 issue was explicitly addressed for steel beams (PEER/ATC 2010; Lignos and Krawinkler 2011)
84 with the use of hysteretic models that incorporate cyclic deterioration in strength and stiffness
85 (e.g., Ibarra et al. 2005), it still remains a challenge for steel columns. This requires sufficient
86 monotonic data as well as data from different cyclic loading histories that represent the seismic
87 demands induced in steel frame buildings by different earthquakes and seismic intensities

88 (Krawinkler 2009; Maison and Speicher 2016). It also requires a sense of the associated
89 uncertainty for the first-cycle and monotonic backbone input model parameters such that load
90 and resistance factors can be applied to the associated seismic demands (computed from
91 analysis). Furthermore, acceptance criteria for both deformation- and force-controlled elements
92 can be defined in a similar manner with Chapter 16 of ASCE 7-17 (ASCE 2017b).

93 This paper addresses the aforementioned deficiencies by utilizing the available experimental
94 data, complemented with high-fidelity continuum finite element (CFE) simulations on steel
95 wide-flange columns. In conjunction, detailed background information and refined nonlinear
96 modeling recommendations are proposed for the ASCE 41 standard. These include updating
97 the parameters of the ASCE 41 component model, as well as characterizing the monotonic
98 response of steel columns (i.e., monotonic backbone curves). The above are achieved in the
99 form of empirical regression models that can be effectively used in engineering practice.
100 Recommendations are also made for modeling the cyclic deterioration in strength and stiffness
101 by utilizing a commonly used phenomenological deterioration model. This paper comprises
102 part of the work carried out under the ATC-114 project funded by the National Institute of
103 Standards and Technology (NIST) to propose updated recommendations for all four major
104 structural materials (Hamburger et al. 2017) as well as guidelines for nonlinear structural
105 analysis and design of buildings with steel moment frames (Deierlein et al. 2017, 2018).

106 **Component Model Description**

107 Figure 1a shows the moment-rotation relation of two nominally identical columns (termed as
108 "Test data") tested under monotonic and symmetric cyclic lateral loading histories (Suzuki and
109 Lignos 2015). The first cycle-envelope curve is derived as a series of secants connecting the
110 peaks of each first-cycle loading excursion of a symmetric loading history in the positive and
111 negative loading direction. The idealized multi-linear monotonic backbone and first-cycle
112 envelope curves are superimposed in the same figure (plotted in dashed lines). Although the
113 first-cycle envelope curve is loading-history dependent (FEMA 2009; Krawinkler 2009), it is
114 typically used in nonlinear static analysis so as the effects of cyclic deterioration in strength
115 and stiffness are implicitly reflected in the member's response. On the other hand, a member's
116 monotonic backbone curve is considered as a unique property. It can be used for nonlinear
117 dynamic analysis procedures provided that the employed component hysteretic model

118 explicitly simulates the effects of cyclic deterioration in strength and stiffness (e.g., Ibarra et
119 al. 2005; Krishnan 2010; Sivaselvan 2013).

120 Referring to Fig. 1b, the modeling parameters of the first-cycle envelope curve are
121 distinguished from those of the monotonic backbone with a superscript asterisk (*). The
122 effective elastic stiffness, K_e of a steel column considers both its flexural and shear
123 deformations. The yield point is defined by the effective yield strength, M_y^* , and the
124 corresponding yield rotation, θ_y^* . In the post-yield range, the column hardens prior to reaching
125 its maximum flexural strength, $M_{max}^{(*)}$ (i.e., peak response). This point is associated with the
126 onset of geometric instabilities (i.e., local and/or lateral torsional buckling). the effective yield
127 strength, M_y^* is calculated based on a straight line from the peak response ($M_{max}^{(*)}$) that intersects
128 the elastic slope of the column (i.e., effective stiffness, K_e). The slope of this line is such that
129 the positive and negative areas between the first-cycle envelope (or monotonic curve) and the
130 line itself are equal in an absolute manner (i.e., equal area rule (Chopra and Goel 2001)). The
131 pre-peak plastic rotation, $\theta_p^{(*)}$ defines the column's plastic deformation up to the peak response.
132 Following the onset of geometric instabilities, the column's response is represented by the post-
133 peak plastic rotation, $\theta_{pc}^{(*)}$. Stabilization of the local buckling amplitude occurs at a residual
134 moment, $M_r^{(*)}$ (Krawinkler et al. 1983). Finally, a steel column losses its axial load carrying
135 capacity at an ultimate rotation, $\theta_{ult}^{(*)}$, which is dominated by severe axial shortening (Suzuki
136 and Lignos 2015).

137 The modified Ibarra-Medina-Krawinkler (IMK) phenomenological component model
138 (Ibarra et al. 2005; Lignos and Krawinkler 2011) explicitly captures a component's cyclic
139 deterioration in strength and stiffness. The model assumes that each component has an inherit
140 reference hysteretic energy property, represented by a parameter Λ . This is known as the
141 reference cumulative plastic rotation capacity (Lignos and Krawinkler 2011). This property,
142 which is assumed to be loading-history independent, controls the rate of deterioration in basic
143 strength, Λ_s , post-peak strength, Λ_c , and unloading stiffness, Λ_k of a structural steel component.

144 Referring to Figs. 1c and 1d, the simulated hysteretic response based on the modified IMK
145 model is compared with two nominally identical column tests subjected to different loading
146 histories (Elkady and Lignos 2018a). In brief, the first one is a standard symmetric loading
147 history (Krawinkler et al. 2000). The second one is asymmetric (termed as collapse protocol)
148 and imposes a structural component on few inelastic cycles followed by large monotonic

149 pushes (so-called ratcheting) prior to structural collapse. This protocol has been established
150 based collapse simulation studies of multi-story steel MRFs (Suzuki and Lignos 2014) and has
151 been successfully used in prior experimental programs to characterize the steel column
152 hysteretic behavior (Suzuki and Lignos 2015; Lignos et al. 2016; Elkady and Lignos 2018).
153 The figures suggest that, by utilizing the monotonic backbone curve with properly calibrated
154 deterioration parameters, the IMK model can simulate the cyclic strength and stiffness
155 deterioration reasonably well, regardless of the imposed loading history. Therefore, this model
156 is adopted herein to provide explicit modeling guidelines for steel columns in support of
157 nonlinear dynamic analysis procedures in a similar manner with steel beams (Lignos and
158 Krawinkler 2011). The utilized data is also publicly available (<http://resslabtools.epfl.ch/>) for
159 the development of similar guidelines through the use of other available deterioration models.

160 **Steel Column Database for Component Model Calibration**

161 The component models discussed in the previous section are calibrated with available
162 experimental data on 151 steel columns (MacRae et al. 1990; Nakashima et al. 1990; Newell
163 and Uang 2008; Cheng et al. 2013; Chen et al. 2014; Suzuki and Lignos 2015, 2017; Lignos et
164 al. 2016; Elkady and Lignos 2017, 2018a; Ozkula et al. 2017). The collected tests involve
165 columns subjected to unidirectional and bidirectional bending under monotonic and reversed
166 cyclic symmetric lateral loading histories coupled with constant compressive axial load
167 demands. Datasets including varying axial load demands were also considered (Suzuki and
168 Lignos 2015, Lignos et al. 2016). Figure 2a shows the ranges of the local flange and web
169 slenderness ratios, $b_f/2t_f$ and h/t_w , respectively, of the collected data. It is common that some
170 data points overlap one another because multiple tests were conducted on nominally identical
171 members. The majority of the cross-sections satisfy the compactness limits of highly ductile
172 members, λ_{hd} , per AISC 341-16 (AISC 2016a). Because the dataset is limited to hot-rolled
173 cross-sections, there is a relatively strong linear correlation (i.e., correlation coefficient of 0.79)
174 between $b_f/2t_f$ and h/t_w .

175 Figure 2b shows the gravity-induced compressive axial load ratio, P_g/P_{ye} (where P_g is the
176 gravity-induced compressive load) applied on those column tests versus h/t_w . Notably, several
177 columns were tested with a $P_g/P_{ye} > 50\%$ (i.e., $P/P_{CL} > 50\%$), allowing for a re-assessment of
178 the ASCE 41-13 (ASCE 2014) compressive axial load limit to the current ASCE 41-17 (ASCE
179 2017b) limit for force-controlled elements as discussed later on. Referring to Fig. 2, the

180 database is sparsely populated for the purpose of component model calibration. Therefore,
181 additional data points were generated using high-fidelity CFE simulations to fill the gaps in
182 both the cross-section slenderness and axial load ranges. This includes nearly 1000 CFE
183 simulation data points. In brief, the CFE model specifics comprise a number of key
184 characteristics. In particular, shell elements that are assigned member and local imperfections
185 within the allowable limits of AISC-360-16 (AISC 2016b) and ASTM (2015), respectively, to
186 properly trace geometric instabilities associated with local and lateral torsional buckling.
187 Residual stresses due to hot-rolling are appropriately considered based on the Young (1971)
188 stress distribution. The steel material inelasticity is simulated through a multiaxial plasticity
189 model (Voce 1948; Armstrong and Frederick 1966; Chaboche 1989) that captures the
190 combined effects of the isotropic/kinematic hardening of mild steels. The parameters of this
191 model are calibrated as discussed in Elkady and Lignos (2018b) and Suzuki and Lignos (2017).
192 Nonlinear static analysis is used including geometric nonlinearities based on the Newton
193 solution method. A direct linear equation solver is employed that features a sparse, direct,
194 Gauss elimination method. The column base degrees of freedom are restrained to mimic ideally
195 fixed boundary conditions in steel MRFs. On the other hand, the column top end boundary is
196 flexible mimicking the boundary conditions of first-story steel columns in capacity-designed
197 steel MRFs. All the CFE simulations were carried out with ABAQUS (ABAQUS 2014). The
198 validation procedures of the employed FE model including comparisons with a broad range of
199 test data are discussed in great detail in prior published work by the first and third authors
200 (Elkady and Lignos 2015, 2018b) as well as an international blind analysis prediction contest
201 on deep, wide-flange structural steel beam-columns (NIST-ATC 2018).

202 In brief, the considered steel columns utilize cross-section sizes ranging from W12 to W36,
203 which represent typical member sizes for first story columns in steel frame buildings designed
204 in high seismic regions of North America. The CFE models are subjected to both symmetric
205 cyclic and monotonic loading coupled with constant compressive axial load demands ranging
206 from, P_g/P_{ye} of 0 to 0.75.

207 **Observed Trends of the Component Model Parameters**

208 Prior work (Elkady and Lignos 2015, 2018b, c) underscores the influence of the web
209 slenderness, h/t_w , the gravity-induced compressive axial load ratio, P_g/P_{ye} and the member
210 slenderness, L_b/r_y (L_b is the column's unbraced length; r_y is the radius of gyration in the

211 column cross-section's weak axis) on the hysteretic response of wide-flange steel columns.
212 Figure 3 depicts the influence of the above parameters on the deduced parameters of the first-
213 cycle envelope curve of steel columns. The above geometric and loading parameters are
214 selected because they were found to be statistically significant to the first cycle envelope and
215 monotonic backbone input model parameters of a column (Elkady and Lignos 2018b, c). The
216 data plots distinguish between available physical tests (termed as "Test Data") and the CFE
217 simulation data (termed as "CFE Data"). The dashed straight lines shown in these figures only
218 indicate the data trends between the column geometric (h/t_w , L_b/r_y) and axial loading
219 parameters (P_g/P_{ye}) and the deduced parameters of a column's first-cycle envelope curve. The
220 established linear trend lines are only used to facilitate the discussion herein. Referring to Fig.
221 3a, the pre-peak plastic rotation, θ_p^* , decreases with increasing h/t_w due to the earlier onset of
222 local buckling-induced softening observed in more slender cross-sections. This is exacerbated
223 with increasing P_g/P_{ye} (see Fig. 3b). With increasing L_b/r_y , the cyclic strength deterioration
224 is accelerated due to coupling of local and lateral torsional buckling (see Fig. 3c). Referring to
225 Fig. 3b, the decreasing variance in θ_p^* with increasing P_g/P_{ye} highlights the strong influence of
226 this parameter on θ_p^* , an effect that is not reflected in the ASCE 41-13 (ASCE 2014) guidelines.

227 Similar trends are found with respect to the post-peak plastic rotation, θ_{pc}^* , although a larger
228 scatter in the data is observed in this case. This is attributed to the higher dependency of θ_{pc}^*
229 on the L_b/r_y due to coupling of local and lateral torsional buckling in the post-peak response
230 (Ozkula et al. 2017; Elkady and Lignos 2018a). Notably, the interdependency of L_b/r_y and
231 h/t_w on the "a" and "b" ASCE 41-13 component model definitions is neglected. These two
232 parameters are defined in Fig. 1b.

233 Referring to Fig. 1b, a common value that has been historically employed for the hardening
234 slope in the post-yield range is 3% of the elastic stiffness or the respective structural component
235 (ASCE 2014). Steel components subjected to cyclic loading harden due to combined isotropic
236 and kinematic hardening. This combined hardening effect is dependent on the steel material
237 type (Kanno 2016). For the employed model discussed herein (see Fig. 1) this effect can only
238 be inherently represented by a hardening ratio, $a^* = M_{max}^*/M_y^*$. Figure 3d shows the relation
239 of a^* with respect to h/t_w . From this figure, stocky columns (i.e., $h/t_w \approx 20$) can develop a
240 maximum flexural strength, M_{max}^* approximately 1.6 times their effective yield strength, M_y^* ,
241 due to the delay of local buckling even at large lateral drift amplitudes. This is consistent with

242 observations from full-scale experiments (Newell and Uang 2008). On the other hand, steel
243 columns with seismically compact but slender cross-sections near the current compactness
244 limits of highly ductile members (AISC 2016a) exhibit negligible hardening due to the early
245 onset of geometric instabilities. This becomes more evident in cases that the compressive axial
246 load demands are larger than $0.30P_{ye}$. Referring to the input parameters of the monotonic
247 backbone curve shown in Fig. 1b, similar trends hold true. In particular, there is a strong
248 negative relation between θ_p and both h/t_w and P_g/P_{ye} , as expected. The dependence of θ_p on
249 L_b/r_y is much less pronounced than that observed in the of θ_p^* - L_b/r_y relation. This is due to
250 the fact that member instabilities of wide-flange steel columns utilizing seismically compact
251 cross-sections do not typically occur until after the onset of local buckling, which is strongly
252 associated with a loss of lateral torsional rigidity of a wide-flange member (Elkady and Lignos
253 2018a). For further details, the reader is referred to Hartloper (2016).

254 **Description of Multiple Regression Model**

255 The most relevant parameters in predicting a wide-flange steel column's first-cycle and
256 backbone curves are the web slenderness ratio, h/t_w as defined in AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a);
257 the member slenderness ratio, L_b/r_y ; and the gravity-induced compressive axial load ratio,
258 P_g/P_{ye} . Accordingly, the proposed empirical multiple regression model is as follows,

$$259 \quad y = \beta_o \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{\beta_1} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{\beta_2} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{\beta_3} + \varepsilon \quad (1)$$

260 in which, y is the predicted response parameter of interest; β_j are the regression coefficients;
261 and ε is the error between the test and predicted responses. The goodness-of-fit for each
262 regression equation can be partially evaluated based on the coefficient of determination, R^2 ,
263 and coefficient of variation (COV). The R^2 and COV values are representative of the magnitude
264 and level of scatter in ε , respectively. Although outside the scope of this paper, the reported
265 COV values can facilitate the quantification of modeling uncertainties on the overall steel
266 frame building seismic performance in a similar manner discussed in Liel et al. (2009) and
267 Gokkaya et al. (2016).

268 Although the flange local slenderness, $b_f/2t_f$ can somewhat affect the response parameters,
269 it was found to be collinear with h/t_w for the range of hot-rolled cross-sections included in the
270 steel column database (see Fig 3a). This argument may not hold true for built up cross-sections,

271 where the strong correlation between $b_f/2t_f$ and h/t_w is not necessarily maintained. However,
272 the focus on the present work is on beam-columns utilizing hot-rolled cross-sections.

273 Stepwise multiple regression analysis (Chatterjee and Hadi 2015) is used to determine the
274 regression equations' coefficients. The statistical analysis of the regression models is presented
275 in detail in the following section.

276 **Statistical Analysis of the Regression Models**

277 The quality of each regression model is evaluated based on the conditions of the Gauss-Markov
278 theory (Chatterjee and Hadi 2015). In particular, three conditions are checked for each model:
279 (1) the mean of the residuals is equal to zero; (2) the residuals have constant variance (i.e.,
280 homoscedasticity); and (3) no correlation is present among the residuals. Residuals were
281 calculated for the plastic deformation parameters θ_p (θ_p^*), θ_{pc} (θ_{pc}^*) the hardening ratios α (α^*)
282 and the residual flexural strength, M_r (M_r^*). The raw residual is utilized for this purpose, which
283 is defined as the difference between the observed values minus the predicted ones from the
284 developed regression equations. All statistical tests are conducted considering a significance
285 level of 5% (i.e., $\alpha = 0.05$). For brevity, only the statistical analysis of θ_p^* is presented herein.
286 The reader is referred to Hartloper (2016) for further details regarding the rest of the input
287 model parameters.

288 A Lilliefors test (Lilliefors 1967) is conducted on the residuals of the θ_p^* model. The resulting
289 p -value of about 0.5 confirms the null hypothesis of normally-distributed residuals. This is
290 supported by visual inspection of the quantile-quantile (i.e., QQ) plot (Chatterjee and Hadi
291 2015) shown in Fig. 4a. The markers falling close to the dashed line indicate that the residuals
292 closely follow the normal distribution, as originally assumed in the null hypothesis.

293 The condition of mean of the residuals is assumed to be zero is evaluated through a t -test.
294 Based on the residuals of the θ_p^* model, the test returned a p -value ≈ 1.00 , indicating that the
295 residuals have a zero mean. The homoscedasticity of the residuals is visually checked based on
296 the plot of residuals versus the predicted values. Referring to Fig. 4b, in general, the residuals
297 have a constant variance over the range of predicted values.

298 Finally, the correlation between residuals and predictors is evaluated based on inspection of
299 the partial residual plots (Fox 1991). The partial residual plot with respect to P_g/P_{ye} is shown
300 in Fig. 4c. A relationship is evident between these two parameters, as indicated by the dashed

301 trend line. The regression equation generally underestimates the θ_p^* for high compressive axial
302 load ratios (i.e., $P_g/P_{ye} > 35\%$), and overestimates in between. To preserve the form of the
303 proposed equations for simplicity, and to ensure rational predictions for the pre-peak plastic
304 rotation at moderate axial load levels, a limit of $\theta_p^* \leq 0.1$ rad is imposed to the respective
305 equation. Similar restrictions are placed on the rest of the empirical equations where this issue
306 is encountered.

307 **Proposed Equations for Predicting Component Model Parameters for Wide Flange Steel** 308 **Columns**

309 This section provides equations to estimate each of the proposed component models'
310 parameters (see Fig. 1). The dataset used to develop Eqs. (2) through
311 **Error! Reference source not found.** comprised of structural steel cross sections made of
312 ASTM A992 Gr. 50 steel (ASTM 2015) or equivalent steel material (i.e., $F_{yn} = 345$ MPa). The
313 ranges of predictor variables in Eqs. (2) through **Error! Reference source not found.** are as
314 follows: $3.71 \leq h/t_w \leq 57.5$, $38.4 \leq L_b/r_y \leq 120$, and $0.0 \leq P_g/P_{ye} \leq 0.75$.

315 *Flexural strength parameters*

316 The effective yield strength, M_y^* , is calculated based on the AISC-360-16 (AISC 2016b) P-M
317 interaction equation adjusted for the effects of cyclic hardening as follows,

$$318 \quad M_y^* = \begin{cases} 1.15 \cdot Z \cdot R_y \cdot F_{yn} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{2P_{ye}}\right) & \text{if } P_g/P_{ye} < 0.20 \\ 1.15 \cdot Z \cdot R_y \cdot F_{yn} \cdot \frac{9}{8} \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right) & \text{if } P_g/P_{ye} \geq 0.20 \end{cases}, (\text{COV}=0.10) \quad (2)$$

319 in which, Z is the plastic section modulus of the wide-flange cross-section; R_y is the expected-
320 to-nominal yield stress ratio from Table A3.1 per AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a); and F_{yn} is the
321 nominal yield stress of the steel material. Note that M_y^* is the same for both the proposed
322 monotonic and first-cycle envelope curves.

323 The peak flexural strength $M_{max}^{(*)}$ can then be computed as $M_{max}^{(*)} = a^{(*)} \cdot M_y^*$, where the
324 hardening ratio parameters, a (for the monotonic backbone) and a^* (for the first-cycle
325 envelope) are estimated using Eqs. (3) or (4), respectively. An upper bound of 1.3 is enforced
326 to limit the amount of cyclic hardening in columns with stocky cross-sections undergoing low
327 compressive axial load demands. This limit is rational for A992 Gr. 50 steel or equivalent steels
328 (Kanno 2016; Sousa and Lignos 2017). The corresponding hardening ratios are as follows,

$$329 \quad a = 12.5 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-0.2} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.4} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{0.4} \quad 1.0 \leq a \leq 1.3 \quad (3)$$

$$330 \quad (R^2 = 0.76, COV = 0.1)$$

331

$$332 \quad a^* = 9.5 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-0.4} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.16} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{0.2} \quad 1.0 \leq a \leq 1.3 \quad (4)$$

$$333 \quad (R^2 = 0.87, COV = 0.07)$$

334

335 Expressed as a percentage of the effective yield strength, the column's residual flexural
336 strength, M_r or M_r^* , can be estimated by Eqs. (5) and **Error! Reference source not found.**,
337 respectively,

$$338 \quad M_r = \left(0.5 - 0.4 \cdot \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right) \cdot M_y^* \quad (COV = 0.27) \quad (5)$$

$$339 \quad M_r^* = \left(0.4 - 0.4 \cdot \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right) \cdot M_y^* \quad (COV = 0.35) \quad (6)$$

340 ***Yield deformation***

341 The effective yield rotation, θ_y^* , shall be deduced directly from the column's effective yield
342 strength, M_y^* , and the elastic stiffness, K_e . Experiments (Lignos et al. 2016; Ozkula et al. 2017;
343 Elkady and Lignos 2018a) suggest that the contribution of the shear deformations can reach up
344 to 30% of the overall column's elastic deformation for standard building configurations.
345 Therefore, the column's elastic stiffness K_e can be computed in the same manner with the
346 flexural stiffness of eccentrically braced frame link beams (Bech et al. 2015). In particular,
347 $K_e = L^2 K_s K_b / [2(K_s + K_b)]$ in which, the shear and flexural stiffness are $K_s = GA_w / L$ and
348 $K_b = 12EI / L^3$, respectively. If the column is not in double curvature, then K_b shall be adjusted
349 accordingly; E and G are Young's and the shear modulus, respectively, of the steel material;
350 A_w is the web area of the wide-flange cross-section as defined in AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a);
351 L is the column's length; I is the moment of inertia of the cross-section with respect to its strong
352 axis.

353 ***Plastic deformation parameters***

354 The steel column's pre-peak plastic rotation (θ_p or θ_p^*) can be estimated as follows,

$$355 \quad \theta_p = 294 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-1.7} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.7} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{1.6} \quad \theta_p \leq 0.20 \text{ rad} \quad (7)$$

$$356 \quad (R^2 = 0.89, COV = 0.39)$$

357

$$\theta_p^* = 15 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-1.6} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.3} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{2.3} \quad \theta_p^* \leq 0.10rad \quad (8)$$

$$(R^2 = 0.89, COV = 0.31)$$

360

361 Similarly, the post-peak plastic deformation capacity (θ_{pc} or θ_{pc}^*), representative of the
362 column's post-buckling behavior can be estimated as,

$$\theta_{pc} = 90 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-0.8} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.8} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{2.5} \quad \theta_p \leq 0.30rad \quad (9)$$

$$(R^2 = 0.91, COV = 0.26)$$

365

$$\theta_{pc}^* = 14 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-0.8} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.5} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{3.2} \quad \theta_p \leq 0.10rad \quad (10)$$

$$(R^2 = 0.78, COV = 0.42)$$

368

369 The ultimate rotation (θ_{ult} or θ_{ult}^*), representative of the total chord-rotation at which a steel
370 column loses its axial load carrying capacity, can be estimated as follows,

$$\theta_{ult} = 0.15 \quad (COV = 0.46) \quad (11)$$

$$\theta_{ult}^* = 0.08 \cdot \left(1 - 0.6 \cdot \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right) \quad (COV = 0.51) \quad (12)$$

373 Table 1 summarizes the proposed component model parameters for typical column cross-
374 sections based on the procedures outlined in this paper. Based on these values, the ratio of the
375 mean total plastic rotation between the monotonic backbone curve and the first-cycle envelope
376 curve ($\theta_{ult} / \theta_{ult}^*$) is about 2.6, which is consistent with prior experimental studies conducted
377 on nominally identical column specimens (Suzuki and Lignos 2015, 2017; Lignos et al. 2016).

378 **Reference cumulative plastic rotation capacity**

379 An empirical relation is proposed to compute the reference energy dissipation capacity, Λ of
380 the modified IMK deterioration model (Ibarra et al. 2005; Lignos and Krawinkler 2011) for
381 simulating explicitly the cyclic deterioration in strength and stiffness of steel columns in frame
382 buildings with a concentrated plastic hinge model. For a particular test result, this parameter is
383 calibrated by minimizing an objective function that consists of the integral of the square
384 difference between the predicted and the measured moment over the accumulated plastic
385 rotation. Referring to Figs. 2c and 2d, the simulated column response is based on these

386 calibrations. The proposed equation for computing the Λ_s parameter, which controls the cyclic
387 basic strength deterioration of a steel column is as follows,

388

$$389 \quad \Lambda_s = \begin{cases} 25,500 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-2.14} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-0.53} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{4.92} \leq 3.0 \text{ if } P_g/P_{ye} \leq 0.35 \\ (R^2 = 0.88, COV = 0.51) \\ 268,000 \cdot \left(\frac{h}{t_w}\right)^{-2.30} \cdot \left(\frac{L_b}{r_y}\right)^{-1.30} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{P_g}{P_{ye}}\right)^{1.19} \leq 3.0 \text{ if } P_g/P_{ye} > 0.35 \\ (R^2 = 0.82, COV = 0.60) \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

390

391 The use of a single equation in this case is not possible because the influence of P_g/P_{ye} on the
392 rate of cyclic strength deterioration is not well captured. If a single equation were to be used,
393 then the Λ values would be under predicted at P_g/P_{ye} ratios of 5% to 30%, which are commonly
394 seen in steel MRFs (Suzuki and Lignos 2014). This is not a controlling issue for stocky
395 columns, where cyclic strength and stiffness deterioration is only a minor issue (Newell and
396 Uang 2008). Equation (13) suggests that the influence of P_g/P_{ye} on Λ_s is stronger when
397 $P_g/P_{ye} \leq 35\%$ than $P_g/P_{ye} > 35\%$. The reason is that in the former, for small axial load ratios,
398 web local buckling is partially restrained because the neutral axis is typically in the web of the
399 respective cross-section; while in the latter, the neutral axis is typically in the cross-section's
400 flange; thus, the plate buckling resistance is only modestly influenced by P_g/P_{ye} .

401 Prior calibration studies for steel beams showed that distinguishing the response with
402 multiple Λ parameters (e.g., for different deterioration modes) does not necessarily increase
403 the model accuracy (Lignos and Krawinkler 2011). In the case of wide-flange steel columns,
404 it was found that the post-peak strength and unloading stiffness deterioration parameters Λ_c
405 and Λ_k , respectively, can be estimated as 0.9 times the value of Λ_s .

406 Comparison of Proposed Models with Test Data and ASCE 41-13 Modeling Guidelines

407 The sufficiency of the proposed modeling recommendations in predicting the first cycle and
408 monotonic backbone curves for steel wide-flange columns is demonstrated through meaningful
409 comparisons with representative test data. The parameters θ_p^* , θ_{pc}^* , that define the plastic
410 deformation capacity of a steel column's first-cycle envelope curve are plotted against their
411 corresponding test/simulation values used in the multiple regression models in Figs. 5a and 5b,

412 respectively. Each of the model parameters show a relatively good fit reflected by the data
413 points clustered close to the dashed line. This is also supported by the corresponding R^2 values.
414 Referring to Figs. 5a and b, the increase in the scatter with larger response parameter values is
415 due to the constant variance in the residuals in the log-log domain (i.e., the ratio of the error-
416 to-predicted magnitude ratio is constant). Consequently, the error increases as the absolute
417 value of the response parameter increases. Same observations hold true for the rest of the input
418 model parameters with reference to Figs. 1 and 2. For this reason, upper bound limits are
419 imposed in the predicted parameters. Same observations hold true for the Λ values of most
420 column cross-sections as shown in Fig. 5d.

421 Figure 6 shows the response of a number of tested steel columns subjected to monotonic
422 and symmetric cyclic loading. In an attempt to provide confidence on the proposed modeling
423 recommendations, superimposed in the same figure, are the component models based on the
424 procedures proposed in this paper, as well as those from ASCE 41-13 (ASCE 2014) provisions.
425 The following observations may be made:

- 426 • The ASCE 41-13 model ignores the shear deformation contributions in the column's
427 effective stiffness, K_e calculations; thus K_e is underpredicted by about 30%, on average.
428 In that sense, the current ASCE 41-17 refined recommendations are substantiated.
- 429 • Referring to Fig. 6a the proposed steel column monotonic backbone represents fairly
430 well the experimental data including the post-peak plastic deformation range. The
431 observed differences in the predicted versus the measured effective yield strength are
432 due to the material variability associated with the expected-to-measured yield stress.
- 433 • Referring to Figs. 6b and 6d, the proposed first-cycle envelope curve represents
434 relatively well the measured response of steel columns regardless of the h/t_w and the
435 applied P_g/P_{ye} . On the other hand, the ASCE 41 component model overestimates the
436 pre-peak plastic deformation of steel columns subjected to $P_g/P_{ye} = 0.20$ (see Fig. 6b).
437 This is attributed to the fact that the ASCE 41 component model does not capture the
438 cross-section local slenderness effects on the pre-peak plastic deformation parameter
439 "a" as defined in the ASCE 41 modeling recommendations. In addition, the ASCE 41
440 component model does not directly capture the effect of L_b/r_y on parameter "a".
- 441 • Referring to Figs. 6c and 6d, steel columns that utilize cross sections within the limits
442 of highly ductile members as per AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a) and subjected to P_g/P_{ye}
443 = 0.50 (i.e., $P_g/P_{CL} > 0.50$) have an appreciable plastic deformation capacity that is

444 significantly underestimated by the ASCE 41-13 component model that treats such
445 members as force-controlled elements (i.e., no plastic deformation capacity). This issue
446 is elaborated in a subsequent section.

- 447 • In contrast to the ASCE 41 model, the gradual reduction in the column's flexural
448 strength in the post-peak response is captured relatively well by the proposed model.

449 **Modeling Recommendations for Columns Subjected to Bidirectional Lateral Loading**

450 Columns in steel frame buildings undergo biaxial bending demands during 3-dimensional
451 ground shaking. Figure 7 shows a comparison of the normalized first-cycle envelope curves
452 for two nominally identical W24x84 columns, subjected to unidirectional and bidirectional
453 loading histories (Elkady and Lignos 2018a) coupled with a constant compressive axial load.
454 Notably, the plastic deformation capacity of both specimens is virtually the same. Hence, Eqs.
455 (7) to (13) should be used without any adjustment due to the biaxial bending effects. On the
456 other hand, the effective flexural strength parameters of the first-cycle and monotonic
457 backbone curves should be adjusted by modifying Eq. (2) to account for the axial load-biaxial
458 bending (P - M_x - M_y) interaction. The AISC 360-16 (AISC 2016b) interaction equations shall be
459 employed for this purpose. It should be stated that this observation may not necessarily hold
460 true for end steel MRF columns experiencing axial load fluctuations synchronized with
461 bidirectional lateral loading histories. This issue shall be carefully examined in future related
462 studies.

463 **Modeling Recommendations for End Columns**

464 End columns in steel MRFs may experience large variations in their axial load demands due to
465 dynamic overturning effects (Suzuki and Lignos 2014). These variations, about the gravity-
466 induced compressive load P_g , can reach about $\pm 35\%$ of P_{ye} (Suzuki and Lignos 2014). Figure
467 8 depicts the average first-cycle envelope of both stocky and slender column cross-sections
468 subjected to gravity-induced axial load P_g , plus a transient component P due to dynamic
469 overturning effects. For instance, Fig. 8a shows a 4000mm long W24x233 column subjected
470 to a gravity-induced axial load ratio of $P_g/P_{ye} = 0.15$ and a transient axial load ratio varying
471 with respect to the gravity-induced offset from $P/P_{ye} = -0.15$ in tension to $P/P_{ye} = 0.75$ in
472 compression while the lateral drift increases up to 0.07rads. Although the peak compressive

473 axial load demand is $75\%P_{ye}$ (well above $50\%P_{CL}$) in both columns shown in Fig. 8, stocky
474 cross-sections ($h/t_w < 10$) are able to sustain considerable inelastic deformation demands
475 without noticeable strength deterioration (see Fig. 8a) due to local and/or member instabilities
476 (Newell and Uang 2008). Figure 8b, shows the first-cycle moment-rotation envelope of a
477 W16x89 column, which comprises a slender but seismically compact cross-section according
478 to the AISC-341-16 (AISC 2016a) seismic provisions. This member experiences local
479 buckling-induced softening at much smaller inelastic deformations than the W24x233 column.
480 However, the associated inelastic deformation capacity of the W16x89 is still appreciable
481 despite the excessive compressive axial load ratio of $P/P_{ye}=0.75$ due to the combined gravity
482 and transient axial load demands coupled with the imposed lateral drift history.

483 Referring to Figure 8, unlike the ASCE 41 component model, the proposed model seems to
484 predict reasonably well the column's plastic deformation capacity by just considering the
485 gravity-induced load component (P_g/P_{ye}). Same observations hold true for the rest of the data.
486 In that respect, columns experiencing varying axial load and lateral drift demands may be
487 modeled based on the procedures outlined in this paper considering only the gravity-induced
488 axial load ratio, P_g/P_{ye} and neglecting the transient effects. Ideally, numerical models that
489 explicitly capture the axial force-bending interaction within the cross-section should be
490 employed for this purpose (e.g., Krishnan 2010; Suzuki and Lignos 2017; Do and Filippou
491 2018; Kolwankar et al. 2018). Global instability modes shall also be considered within a
492 simulation framework. As such, the approaches summarized in Krishnan (2010) may be
493 employed for frame analyses not involving CFE models. However, the coupling of local and
494 lateral torsional buckling still remains a challenge to be addressed for frame analysis elements.

495 **Proposed Updates for Force-Controlled Elements**

496 Referring to Fig. 9, steel columns with seismically compact cross-sections (i.e., $h/t_w < 43$) have
497 considerable pre- and post- peak plastic deformation capacities regardless of the applied axial
498 compressive load ratio. This is also evident from Fig. 2b for the entire column data set as well
499 as prior related studies by the first and third authors (Elkady and Lignos 2018b). Accordingly,
500 it is recommended that the ASCE 41-13 force-controlled limit of $50\% P_{CL}$ be relaxed to 60%
501 P_{ye} for wide-flange steel columns with $h/t_w \leq 43$ and $L_b/r_y \leq 120$. At compressive axial load
502 demands near $P/P_{ye} > 60\%$, steel columns may be very close to their lower-bound

503 compressive strength, P_{CL} , especially in the presence of geometric imperfections due to
504 fabrication/erection. This substantiates the refined limit for force-controlled column elements
505 according to the ASCE 41-17 standard.

506 **Conclusions**

507 This paper provides comprehensive recommendations for nonlinear modeling of wide-flange
508 steel columns for performance-based seismic assessment of new and existing steel frame
509 buildings. Two sets of empirical parameters for concentrated hinge models are proposed. The
510 new model parameters are calibrated to testing and high-fidelity continuum finite element
511 analyses of wide-flange steel columns. The empirical formulations predict the monotonic and
512 first-cycle envelope curves of wide flange steel columns in their pre- and post-peak nonlinear
513 response and can be directly used in nonlinear dynamic and static analysis procedures,
514 respectively. Recommendations on how to explicitly simulate the cyclic deterioration in
515 strength and stiffness of steel columns are also provided through the calibration of a widely
516 used phenomenological deterioration model for frame analysis studies. The proposed first-
517 cycle envelope curves are directly compared with the ASCE 41 component model for steel
518 columns. The main findings are summarized as follows:

- 519 • The effective yield strength M_y^* used in both the first-cycle envelope and monotonic
520 backbone curves is, on average, 1.15 times the expected plastic resistance of steel
521 columns reduced by the effects of the gravity induced axial load ratio based on the
522 AISC-360-16 (AISC 2016b) uniaxial or biaxial bending-axial load interaction
523 equations for unidirectional or bidirectional lateral loading, respectively.
- 524 • The test data suggest that shear deformations may contribute up to 30% to the effective
525 elastic stiffness, K_e of a steel column. Therefore, both flexural and shear deformations
526 shall be considered in the elastic stiffness computations of steel columns.
- 527 • The axial load ratio, P_g/P_{ye} , is the primary contributor to the pre-peak plastic rotation,
528 $\theta_p^{(*)}$ post-peak plastic rotation, $\theta_{pc}^{(*)}$, the post-yield hardening ratio $a^{(*)} = M_{max}^{(*)}/M_y^*$
529 and the deterioration parameter Λ of hot-rolled wide flange steel columns, followed by
530 the cross-section's web local slenderness, h/t_w . Of somewhat importance is the
531 member slenderness ratio, L_b/r_y especially in the post-peak column response due to
532 coupling of local and lateral torsional buckling. The ASCE 41-13 component model for

533 steel columns does not directly capture these effects on the pre-peak plastic deformation
534 parameter " a ".

535 • The ratio of the mean total plastic rotation of a column's monotonic backbone curve to
536 that of its first-cycle envelope curve is about 2.6.

537 • The ultimate rotation, θ_{ult} at which a steel column loses its axial load carrying capacity
538 under cyclic loading is strongly influenced by P_g/P_{ye} and it is on average 2 to 3 times
539 less than that of the same column subjected to monotonic loading.

540 • Although bidirectional lateral loading has an apparent effect on the column's effective
541 flexural strength M_y^* , it does not practically influence the column's plastic deformation
542 capacity. However, this observation shall be examined carefully for end steel MRF
543 columns experiencing axial load fluctuations due to dynamic overturning effects
544 synchronized with bidirectional lateral loading histories.

545 • It was found that end columns subjected to varying axial load demands can be modeled
546 reasonably well by only considering P_g/P_{ye} and neglecting the transient axial load
547 component due to dynamic overturning effects. However, additional nonlinear building
548 simulations are required to further validate this statement.

549 • Data from experiments and corroborating finite element analyses suggests that steel
550 columns with cross sections within the limits of highly ductile members as per AISC-
551 341-16 (AISC 2016a) have an appreciable plastic deformation capacity even in cases
552 that $P_g/P_{CL} > 0.50$. Accordingly, it is recommended that the ASCE 41-13 force-
553 controlled limit of 50% P_{CL} be relaxed to 60% P_{ye} for wide flange steel columns with
554 $h/t_w \leq 43$ and $L_b/r_y \leq 120$. In that respect, the adopted change in the recent ASCE 41-
555 17 provisions is deemed to be rational.

556 The conclusions of this paper are based on testing data and continuum finite element analyses
557 of a wide range of hot-rolled column cross-sections made of A992 Gr. 50 steel or equivalent.

558 The proposed recommendations shall be used with caution when built-up column cross-
559 sections are employed. Comprehensive system level studies should be conducted to further
560 quantify the influence of the proposed modeling recommendations on the overall seismic
561 behavior of steel frame buildings. For selected case study steel frame buildings, such studies
562 have been conducted and are summarized in Hamburger et al. (2017).

563 Acknowledgements

564 The work forming the basis for this publication was conducted pursuant to a contract with the
565 National Institute of Standards and Technology (Contract No. 1140-22-431). The substance of
566 such work is dedicated to the public. The authors are solely responsible for the accuracy of
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569 of Standards and Technology, or the Applied Technology Council, its directors, members or
570 employees. These organizations and individuals do not assume any legal liability or
571 responsibility for the accuracy, completeness, or usefulness of any of the information, product
572 or processes included in this publication. The authors gratefully acknowledge co-authors and
573 project review panel of the NIST project; Jon Heintz, Ayse Hortacsu, Veronica Cedillos and
574 ATC colleagues for managing the project and editing the final guidelines; and Steven L.
575 McCabe and colleagues at NIST for their input and guidance throughout the project
576 development process. Additional funding for the third author was provided by the Swiss
577 National Science Foundation (Project No. 200021_169248). Any opinions expressed in the
578 paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of sponsors.

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This paper is published as: Lignos, D.G., Hartloper, A.R., Elkady, A., Deierlein, G.G., Hamburger, R. (2019). "Proposed updates to the ASCE 41 nonlinear modeling parameters for wide-flange steel columns in support of performance-based seismic engineering, Vol. 145(9), pp. 04019083, doi: 10.1061/(ASCE)ST.1943-541X.0002353

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Table 1. Deterioration modeling parameters for first-cycle curve and monotonic backbone for selected steel wide-flange column cross-sections [values calculated assuming $L_b = 4500$ mm, $F_{yn}=345$ MPa (A992 Gr. 50 steel)]

Section	$\frac{h}{t_w}$	$\frac{L_b}{r_y}$	$P_g/P_{ye} = 0.20$							$P_g/P_{ye} = 0.50$						
			a	θ_p	θ_{pc}	a^*	θ_p^*	θ_{pc}^*	Λ_s	a	θ_p	θ_{pc}	a^*	θ_p^*	θ_{pc}^*	Λ_s
W33x318	28.7	47.8	1.244	0.046	0.159	1.278	0.013	0.068	0.83	1.031	0.022	0.049	1.164	0.004	0.015	0.03
W27x235	26.2	53.2	1.214	0.049	0.157	1.300	0.015	0.069	0.96	1.006	0.023	0.049	1.186	0.005	0.015	0.04
W24x146	33.2	58.9	1.111	0.031	0.120	1.166	0.010	0.054	0.55	1.000	0.015	0.037	1.061	0.003	0.012	0.02
W24x84	45.9	90.9	1.000	0.013	0.065	1.000	0.005	0.034	0.22	1.000	0.006	0.020	1.000	0.002	0.007	0.01
W14x370	6.9	41.5	1.300	0.200	0.300	1.300	0.100	0.100	3.00	1.300	0.200	0.172	1.300	0.045	0.050	1.09
W14x233	10.7	43.2	1.300	0.200	0.300	1.300	0.065	0.100	3.00	1.300	0.124	0.117	1.300	0.022	0.035	0.38

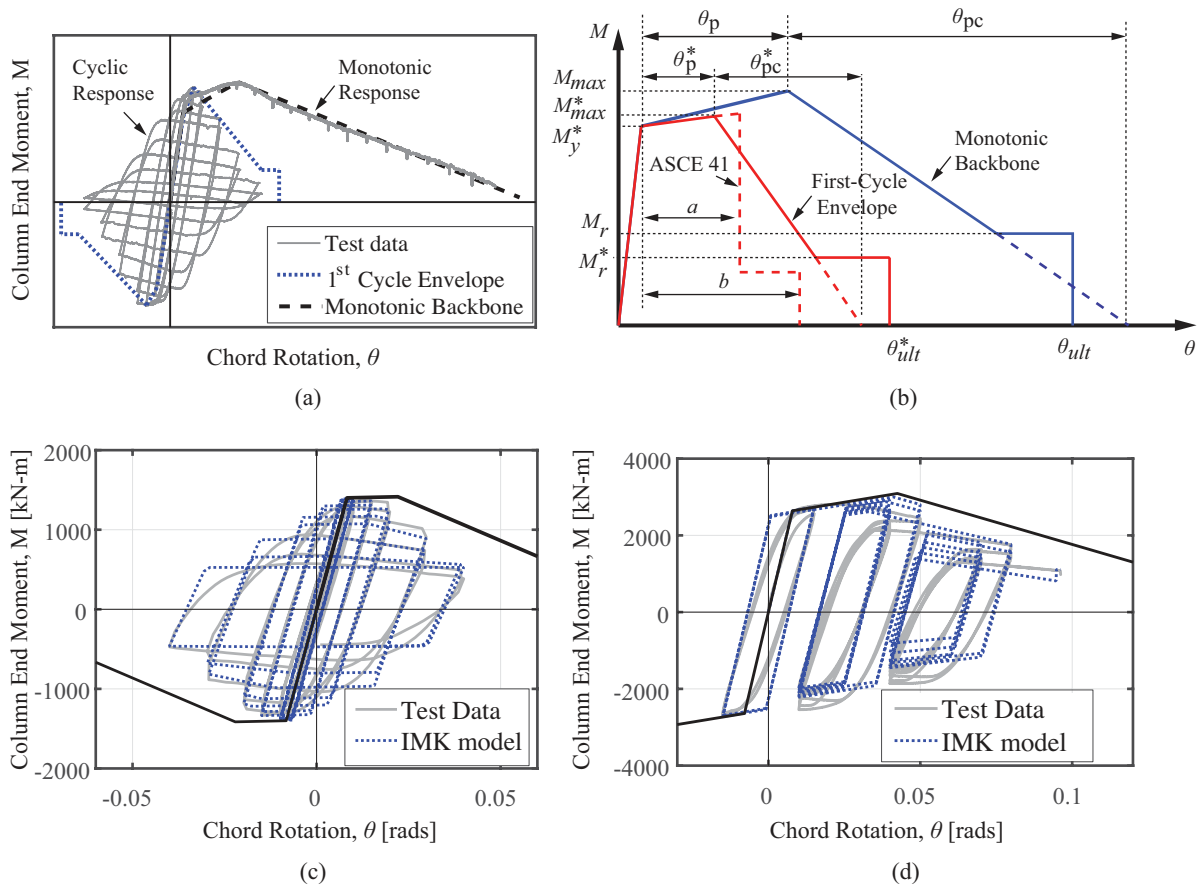


Fig. 1. Steel column component model definitions and illustrations of hysteretic deterioration model [Experimental data from Suzuki and Lignos (2015) and Elkady and Lignos (2018)a] (a) Monotonic and first-cycle envelope curves; (b) idealized monotonic backbone and first-cycle envelope curves; (c) Comparisons of measured and simulated column end moment versus chord rotation under symmetric loading history; (d) Comparisons of measured and simulated column end moment versus chord rotation under collapse-consistent loading history

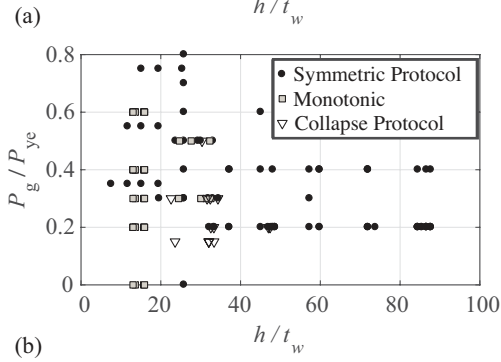
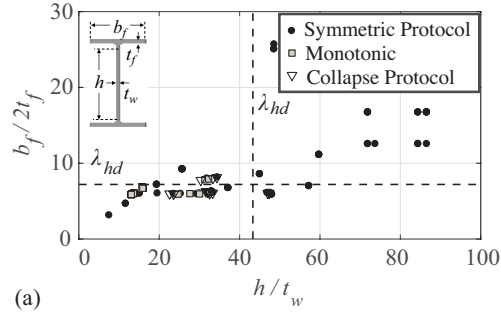


Fig. 2. Cross-section slenderness and axial load ratio ranges of the collected test data (compressive axial load ratio, P_g/P_{yc} , is indicated with a positive sign)

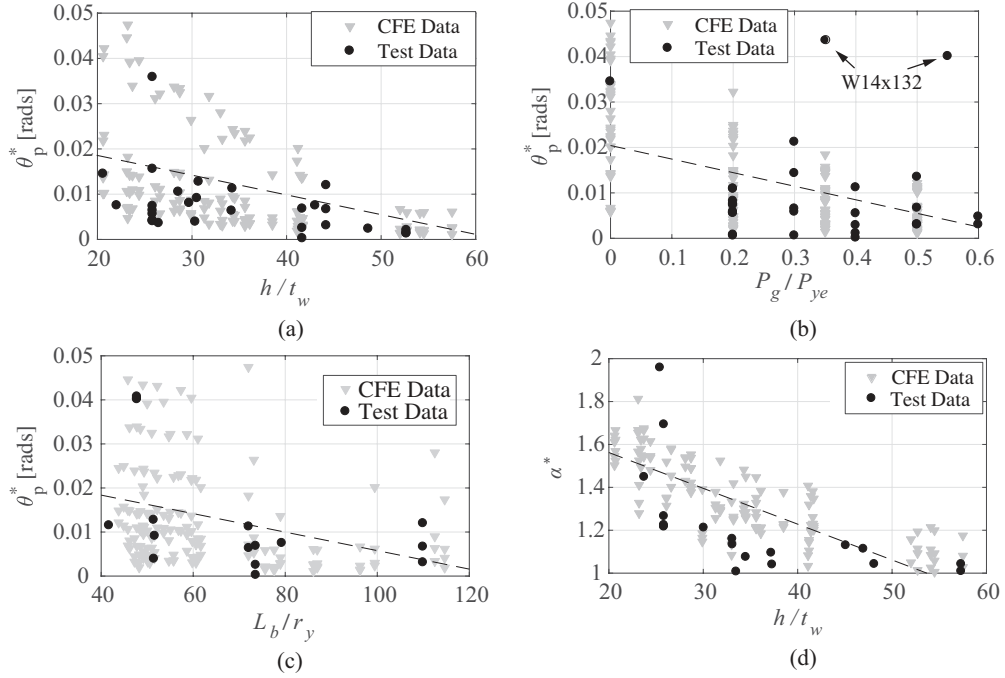
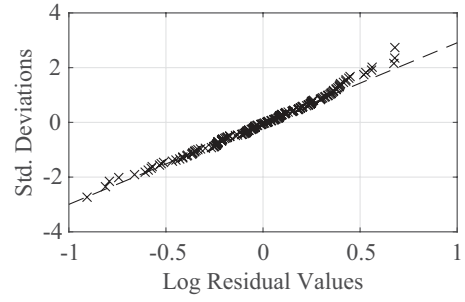
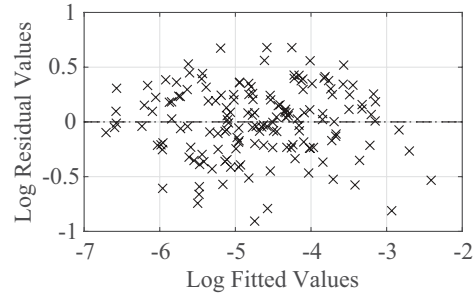


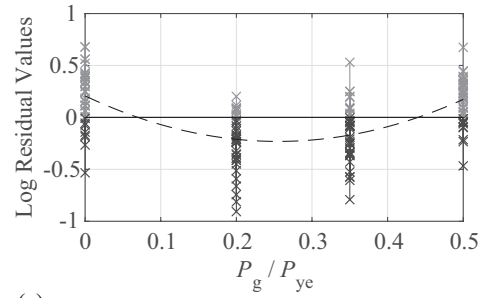
Fig. 3. Component model parameter trends based on symmetric cyclic loading histories



(a)



(b)



(c)

Fig. 4. Residual values from the regression analysis of pre-peak plastic rotation, θ_p^*

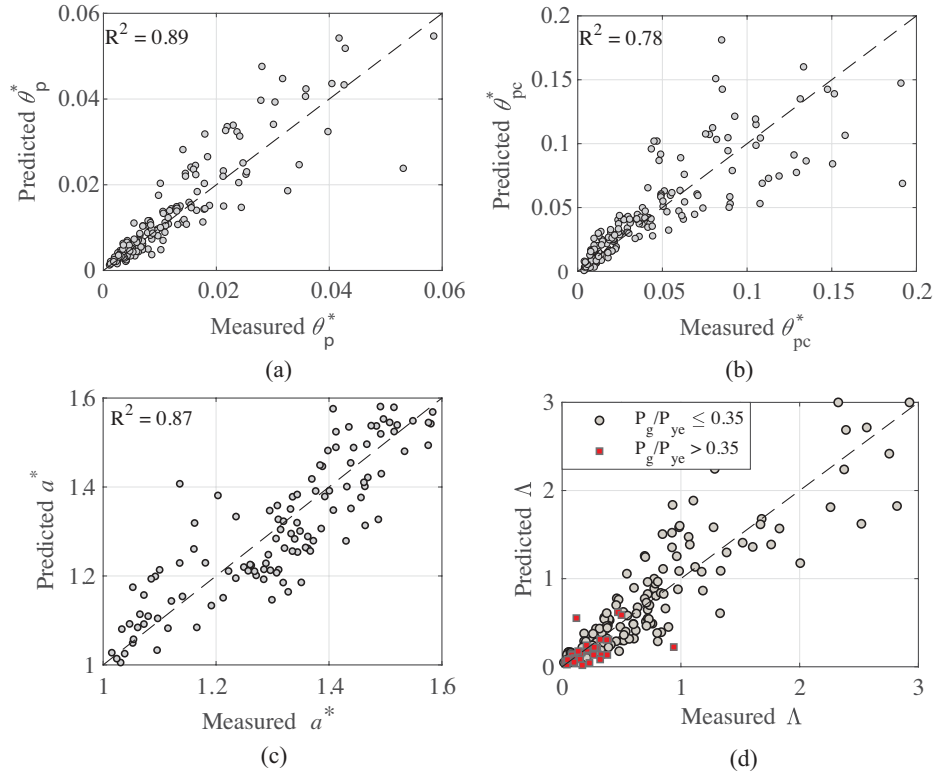


Fig. 5. Comparison of measured and predicted responses for selected component model parameters

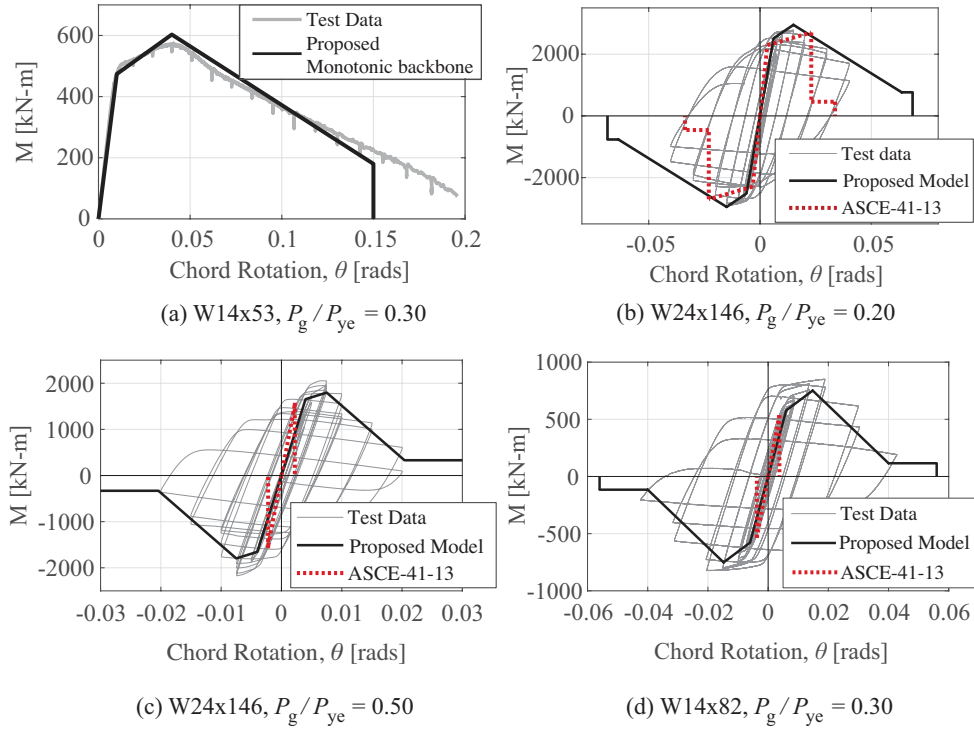


Fig. 6. Comparisons between test data, proposed component models, and ASCE 41-13 component modeling recommendations for steel wide flange columns [data from Suzuki and Lignos (2015) and Elkady and Lignos (2018)]

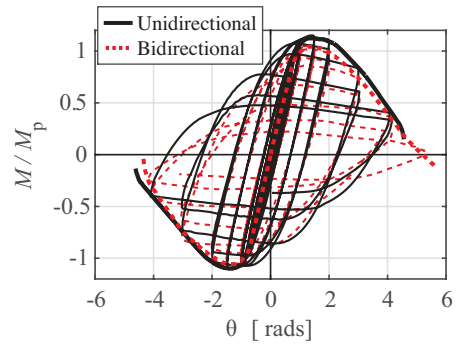
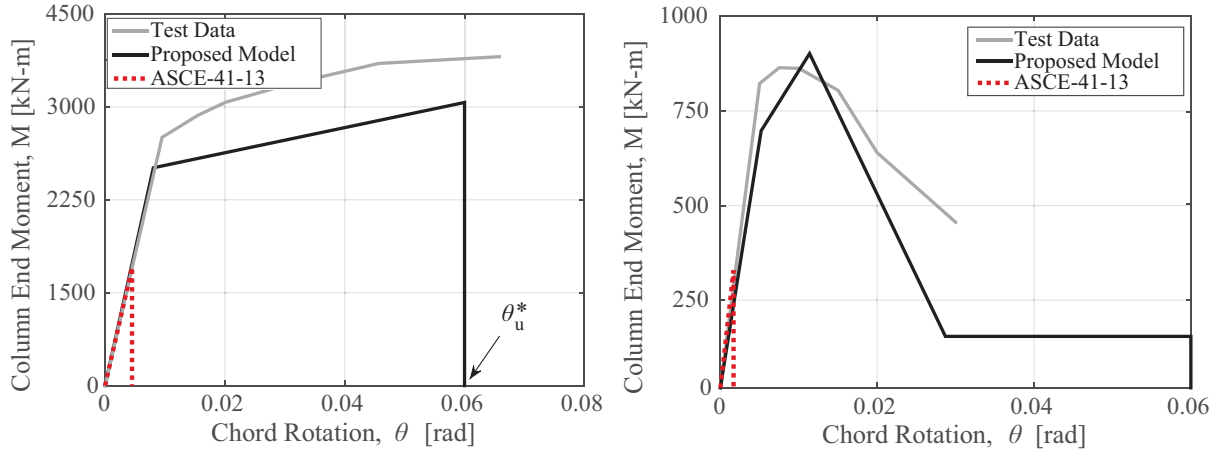
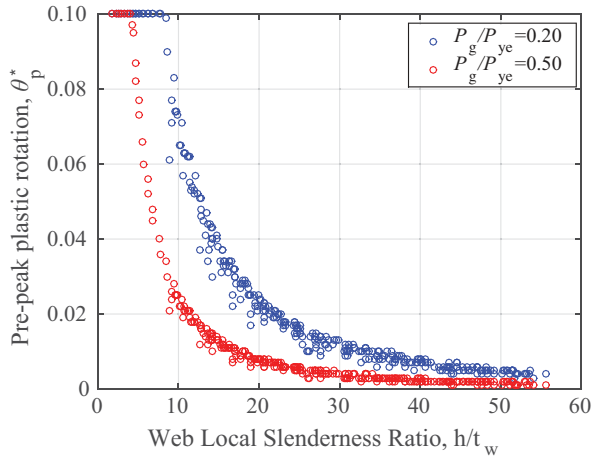


Fig. 7. Wide-flange steel columns (W24x84) subjected to unidirectional and bidirectional lateral loading [data from Elkady and Lignos (2018)]

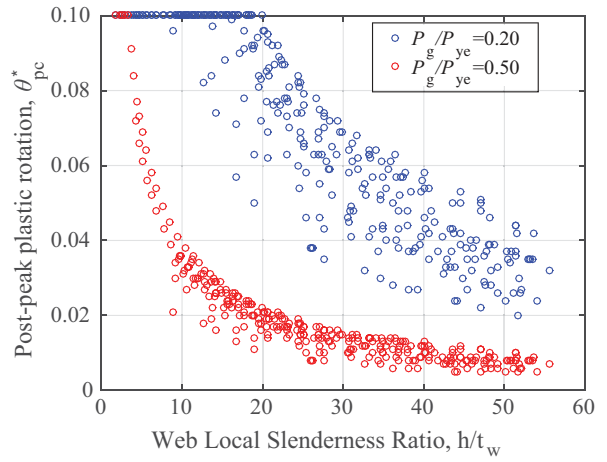


(a) W14x233-55, $P_g/P_{ye} = 0.15$, $P/P_{ye} \sim -0.15 - 0.75$ (b) W16x89, $P_g/P_{ye} = 0.50$, $P/P_{ye} \sim 0.25 - 0.75$

Fig 8. Comparisons of proposed modeling recommendations with ASCE 41-13 for end columns in steel MRF systems [data from Lignos et al. (2016); Newell and Uang (2008)].



(a)



(b)

Fig. 9. Trends of pre- and post-peak plastic rotations with respect to the cross-section web local slenderness ratio for modeling the first-cycle envelope curve of steel wide-flange columns