

1                   **TRI-LINEAR MODEL FOR THE OUT-OF-PLANE SEISMIC**  
2                   **ASSESSMENT OF VERTICALLY-SPANNING UNREINFORCED**  
3                   **MASONRY WALLS**

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13                   **ABSTRACT**

14                   Out-of-plane failure of masonry walls is often responsible for the partial collapse of unreinforced  
15                   masonry structures. Modeling the out-of-plane response of these walls is therefore key in the  
16                   assessment of existing buildings. The paper presents a new tri-linear model describing the force-  
17                   displacement response of vertically-spanning unreinforced masonry walls subjected to out-of-plane  
18                   loading. Different factors that affect the response of the walls are captured by the model: the  
19                   support conditions, the level of applied axial load, the slenderness ratio and the deformability  
20                   of the wall. The model is validated against experimental results from shake table tests. The  
21                   force and displacement parameters of the model are described by analytical expressions that are  
22                   derived from a mechanical model previously developed for unreinforced masonry. They offer an  
23                   alternative to existing tri-linear models where corner displacements are mainly defined by empirical  
24                   relationships.

25 **Keywords:** URM wall, out-of-plane loading, tri-linear model, one-way bending, rocking, NTHA  
26

## 27 INTRODUCTION

28 Vertically-spanning, or one-way bending, unreinforced masonry (URM) walls are among the  
29 most vulnerable walls against out-of-plane failure mechanisms, as observed in post-earthquake  
30 surveys carried out on commercial and residential buildings (Giaretton et al. 2016a). This type of  
31 failure mechanism is usually observed in long walls, or in walls without side supports. Moreover,  
32 cantilever, or overturning, types of failure, which are also part of this class of out-of-plane failure  
33 mechanisms, mainly due to a lack of top horizontal restraint, are by far the most commonly observed  
34 failure mechanisms in URM buildings (D'Ayala and Speranza 2003).

35 The seismic behavior of vertically-spanning URM walls undergoing large out-of-plane deflec-  
36 tions and rocking can be described by simplified force-displacement models such as the bi-linear  
37 model and the tri-linear model (Doherty 2000; Doherty et al. 2002; Griffith et al. 2003; Sorrentino  
38 et al. 2016), see Fig. 1. Bi-linear models are derived from non-linear rigid-body kinematic analysis  
39 of the wall, i.e., by modeling the wall as one or several rigid macroblocks, which are separated  
40 by fully cracked cross-sections and undergo large relative displacements and rotations. The non-  
41 linear kinematic analysis yields the two parameters of the model, which are the force  $F_0$  and the  
42 displacement  $\Delta_0$ . Tri-linear models are derived when the deformability of the masonry is taken  
43 into account. These models are composed of a first linear increasing branch, a horizontal plateau  
44 and a third branch that follows the descending branch obtained by non-linear kinematic analysis.  
45 The tri-linear model is defined by the force parameter  $F_1$ , that is the force at the plateau level, the  
46 displacement parameters  $\Delta_1$ ,  $\Delta_2$  and the ultimate displacement  $\Delta_U$ . The parameters of the tri-linear  
47 model are usually related to those of the bi-linear model through the ratios  $F_1/F_0$  and  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0$ ,  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$ ,  
48  $\Delta_U/\Delta_0$ .

49 Due to their relative simplicity and the small computational cost, these simplified force-  
50 displacement models have gained increasing attention and are nowadays recommended by building  
51 codes for the out-of-plane assessment of URM walls when subjected to seismic loading (Sorrentino

52 et al. 2016). Assessment of the out-of-plane capacity of URM walls according to today's codes is  
53 based on the use of bi-linear models (NTC 2008; NZSEE 2014). Estimates of  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$  are required  
54 for predicting the displacement demand on the walls, which is obtained from an equivalent linear  
55 elastic single-degree-of-freedom system with a stiffness equal to the secant stiffness  $K_2$ , Fig. 1  
56 (Doherty et al. 2002; Griffith et al. 2003; Sorrentino et al. 2016; Derakhshan et al. 2017). If non-  
57 linear time-history analyses are carried out, the tri-linear model shows itself particularly adapted  
58 (Sorrentino et al. 2016): unlike the bi-linear model, in addition to the displacement capacity of the  
59 wall  $\Delta_{\max}$ , it is able to capture the initial stiffness  $K_{\text{in}}$ , through  $K_1$ , and the force capacity  $F_{\max}$ ,  
60 through  $F_1$  (Fig. 1).

61 Tests showed that four factors affect the response of out-of-plane vertically-spanning URM  
62 walls (Lam et al. 1995; Doherty 2000; Griffith et al. 2004; Dazio 2009; Derakhshan et al. 2014;  
63 Ferreira et al. 2015; Graziotti et al. 2016; Giaretton et al. 2016b): a) the support conditions of the  
64 wall (kinematic boundary conditions), b) the level and the eccentricity of the applied axial load  
65 (static boundary conditions), c) the height-to-thickness ratio of the wall (wall slenderness) and d)  
66 the deformability of the wall, which is given by the elastic deformation of the masonry together  
67 with its limited tensile and compressive strength. These findings were corroborated by a number  
68 of numerical and analytical studies carried out on URM walls (Lu et al. 2004; Brencich et al. 2008;  
69 Morandi et al. 2008; Cavaleri et al. 2009; Tondelli et al. 2016; Godio and Beyer 2017).

70 Non-linear rigid-body analysis yields insights into the influence of the static and kinematic  
71 boundary conditions and wall slenderness on the wall force capacity  $F_{\max}$ . It also allows investi-  
72 gating the influence of these factors on the wall displacement capacity  $\Delta_{\max}$  (Griffith et al. 2003).  
73 However, it disregards the effect of the elastic deformation of the wall, which, together with the  
74 local rounding of the brick corners due to local crushing and the reduction of the mortar layer over  
75 the wall thickness (mortar pointing), reduces the peak force  $F_1$  of the URM wall (Priestley 1985;  
76 Doherty 2000; Griffith et al. 2003; Derakhshan et al. 2013a; Derakhshan et al. 2014).

77 Tri-linear models were formulated with the aim of bounding the force capacity of the walls. The  
78 use of tri-linear models for modeling the response of vertically-spanning URM walls was introduced

79 in the early 2000s (Doherty 2000) and their potential has been well demonstrated by the growing  
80 number of works devoted to the topic (Table 1). Nonetheless, the tri-linear models proposed in  
81 the previous works were based on the use of the non-linear rigid-body analysis in conjunction with  
82 experimentally determined empirical parameters or ratios.

83 The objective of this paper is to offer fully analytical and mechanically-based formulations for the  
84 force and displacement parameters of the tri-linear model, to be used for modeling the out-of-plane  
85 response of a wide range of wall configurations without the use of empirical parameters. The new tri-  
86 linear model proposed in this paper is an engineering approximation of a recent mechanical model  
87 (Godio and Beyer 2017), which yielded the analytical expression of the experimental pushover curve  
88 for vertically-spanning URM walls subjected to out-of-plane static loading. As the model on which  
89 it is based, the herein presented tri-linear model regards masonry as a deformable homogeneous  
90 material with zero tensile strength and linear elastic constitutive law in compression. Its formulation  
91 includes the effect of geometric non-linearities. Following these assumptions, vertical strips of  
92 URM walls are modeled as deformable second-order Euler-Bernoulli beam elements where, as the  
93 wall deflects, cross-sections remain plane in the compressed regions of the wall and diffuse cracking  
94 occurs and spreads within the regions of maximum bending moment (Fig. 2). When describing the  
95 pushover curve of URM walls, idealizations of this kind yield important differences with respect  
96 to the rigid-body idealizations that are usually carried out. In particular, the following features of  
97 the experimental force-displacement curve are captured: (i) the initial slope of the curve, related  
98 to the initial elastic stiffness of the wall; (ii) the progressive reduction of the slope up to the peak  
99 force, due to the decrease of the effective thickness of the wall after cracking and the geometric  
100 non-linearity; (iii) the peak force which, because of the combined effect of wall deformability and  
101 geometric non-linearity, is always smaller than the 'rigid threshold'  $F_0$  (Godio and Beyer 2017).

102 The analytical formulations presented in this paper describe the effect of the four factors  
103 experimentally observed to affect the response of out-of-plane loaded walls. The tri-linear model  
104 is formulated for three different boundary conditions (Fig. 2). The boundary conditions that are  
105 applied by the model are those offered by the beam theory (Chapman and Slatford 1957; Godio

and Beyer 2017), used here to reproduce typical support conditions observed in existing buildings (Doherty et al. 2002; Dazio 2009): URM walls spanning vertically between two supports are modeled as clamped-clamped or pinned-clamped beams, depending whether the connection with the rest of the building is provided at the top of the wall by a slab (Fig. 2(a)) or by a timber beam (Fig. 2(b)); walls laid on one single support are modeled as cantilever beams (Fig. 2(c)). For all the considered boundary conditions, the effect of the self-weight and of the level of applied axial load (overburden) is taken into account by the formulation. For walls spanning between two supports, when the axial load is small compared to the wall self-weight, the middle crack tends to form in the upper half of the wall; if the self-weight is negligible compared to the applied axial load the crack forms at mid-height (Sorrentino et al. 2008). The new model includes a formula for predicting the position of the middle crack and its effect on the force and displacement capacity of the wall is captured by the analytical expressions of the force and displacement parameters of the tri-linear model. The model captures the effect of the applied axial load also at higher levels, that is, when it is close to Euler's critical load of the wall. It is known that increasing the slenderness and decreasing the masonry elastic modulus diminishes Euler's critical load and, as a result, walls become more vulnerable to lateral loading. As such, the analytical formulations of the new tri-linear model include the effect of the elastic deformability of the walls not only on their initial stiffness  $K_{in}$ , but also on their force capacity  $F_{max}$  and displacement capacity  $\Delta_{max}$ . This aspect was excluded in early tri-linear models.

The paper is organized as follows. The analytical formulations for the force and displacement parameters of the tri-linear model are first detailed. The tri-linear model is next validated against displacement time-histories obtained from laboratory shake table tests and its performance is compared to that of existing tri-linear models. The force and displacement parameters of the tri-linear model are next studied and compared with the empirical values previously suggested in the literature.

## MODEL FORMULATION

The wall under consideration has a height  $H_w$ , a length  $L_w$  and a thickness  $t_w$ . It is subjected

133 to a vertical load  $O$  (overburden) and to its self-weight  $W$  (Fig. 2). The elastic modulus of the  
 134 masonry is  $E_m$  and its mass density  $\rho$ . The moment of inertia of a generic uncracked cross-section  
 135 of the wall is  $I_w = 1/12L_w t_w^3$ . The scheme followed for the derivation of the tri-linear model can  
 136 be summarized as follows (Fig. 3):

- 137 • first, the parameters of the bi-linear model  $F_0$  and  $\Delta_0$  are derived from the non-linear kinematic  
 138 analysis of the walls undergoing rigid-body mechanisms;
- 139 • next, the plateau force  $F_1$  is equated to the force capacity  $F_{max}$  of the pushover curve and  
 140 expressed through the ratio  $F_1/F_0$ ;
- 141 • similarly, the stiffness  $K_1$  of the initial branch of the tri-linear model is defined as a percentage  
 142 of the initial stiffness of the pushover curve  $K_{in}$ ;
- 143 • the descending branch of the bi-linear curve is shifted in order to consider the effective thickness  
 144 of the wall and the ultimate displacement  $\Delta_U$  is expressed as a percentage of  $\Delta_0$ ;
- 145 • finally, the displacement parameters of the tri-linear model  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$  are derived from the  
 146 expressions of  $F_1$ ,  $K_1$  and  $\Delta_U$  and expressed through the ratios  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0$  and  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$ .

147 The steps listed above are detailed below in this section. In the resulting expressions,  $\Delta$  refers to  
 148 the displacement of the control point of the wall, which corresponds to the wall mid-height for the  
 149 clamped-clamped and the pinned-clamped wall and to the wall top for the cantilever or parapet wall  
 150 (Fig. 2). The expressions are parametrized through the factors  $\epsilon$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\kappa$ , which take the following  
 151 values: 0, 0.5, 0.5 for the clamped-clamped wall; 0.5, 0.5, 0.7 for the pinned-clamped wall; 1, 1, 2  
 152 for the cantilever wall.

### 153 **Bi-linear model parameters $F_0$ and $\Delta_0$**

154 The parameters of the bi-linear model are derived for a wall under a uniformly distributed  
 155 load. The demonstration is given in Section S1 of Supplemental Data. Assuming the rigid-body  
 156 mechanisms of Fig. 2, the parameters  $F_0$  and  $\Delta_0$  result in the expressions:

$$F_0 = \frac{1}{2\beta^2} \frac{\xi W + (1 - (1 - \xi)\epsilon)O}{\xi(1 - \xi)} \frac{t_w}{H_w}, \quad (1)$$

157 and:

$$\Delta_0 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\xi W + (1 - (1 - \xi)\epsilon)O}{(1 - \xi)(\xi W + O)} t_w, \quad (2)$$

158 where  $\xi$  describes the position of the middle crack along the height of the wall. For clamped-clamped  
159 and pinned-clamped walls, the middle crack does not necessarily form at the wall mid-height but  
160 at  $(1 - \xi)H_w$  from the base support, with  $\xi$  given by:

$$\xi = \frac{\sqrt{(1 - \epsilon)(W + O)O} - (1 - \epsilon)O}{W + \epsilon O}. \quad (3)$$

161 When the wall self-weight is little as compared to the overburden, that is  $W/O \rightarrow 0$ , the middle  
162 crack tends to form at  $0.5H_w$  from the base of the clamped-clamped wall and at  $0.586H_w$  from  
163 the base of the pinned-clamped walls. In these cases, the parameters of the bi-linear model are  
164 respectively  $F_0 = 8Ot_w/H_w$ ,  $\Delta_0 = t_w$  and  $F_0 = (3 + 2\sqrt{2})Ot_w/H_w$ ,  $\Delta_0 = (1 + \sqrt{2})t_w/4$ . For  
165 cantilever walls, the crack always forms at the base of the wall. In this case, the expressions for  $F_0$   
166 and  $\Delta_0$  are retrieved by treating  $\xi$  as an auxiliary factor set equal to 1/2.

### 167 **Force parameter $F_1$**

168 The force capacity  $F_{\max}$  of a vertically-spanning wall subjected to an uniformly distributed load  
169 can be approximated by Eq. (4) (Godio and Beyer 2017). Starting from this expression, the tri-linear  
170 model is built by equating the plateau force  $F_1$  to  $F_{\max}$  as proposed by Griffith et al. (2003), thus  
171 obtaining:

$$\frac{F_1}{F_0} = 1 - \left( \frac{P}{P_E} \right)^{0.4}. \quad (4)$$

172 In this equation  $F_0$  is given by Eq. (1),  $P$  is denoted as the effective axial load and is defined as  
173 (Godio and Beyer 2017):

$$P = \beta W + O, \quad (5)$$

174 and  $P_E$  is the Euler's critical load of the wall:

$$P_E = \frac{\pi^2 E_m I_w}{(\kappa H_w)^2}. \quad (6)$$

175 The expression  $F_1/F_0$  contained in Eq. (4) was originally derived for walls in which the middle  
176 crack forms at mid-height (Godio and Beyer 2017). Finite element simulations reported in Section  
177 S2 of Supplemental Data show that the same expression yields a very good approximation for walls  
178 in which the middle crack does not form at mid-height but in their upper half as a result of the  
179 influence of the wall self-weight on the wall response.

### 180 ***Stiffness $K_1$***

181 Denoted with  $K_{in}$  is the initial stiffness of the wall, which was derived by Godio and Beyer  
182 (2017) for a geometrically non-linear Euler-Bernoulli beam with uncracked cross-sections. Here it  
183 is written as the product between the stiffness  $K_{lin}$  of a geometrically linear beam and the function  
184  $\Psi_K$  embodying the  $P - \Delta$  effect:

$$K_{in} = K_{lin} \Psi_K. \quad (7)$$

185 The stiffness  $K_{lin}$  is classically expressed as:

$$K_{lin} = \frac{\zeta E_m I_w}{H_w^3}, \quad (8)$$

186 with  $\zeta = 384, 192, 8$  respectively for the clamped-clamped, pinned-clamped and cantilever walls,  
187 whereas the function  $\Psi_K$  can be reasonably approximated by the short form (Section S3 of Supple-  
188 mental Data):

$$\Psi_K = 1 - \frac{P}{P_E}, \quad (9)$$



190 where  $P$  and  $P_E$  are expressed for each boundary condition by Eq. (6) and (5).  $\Psi_K$  decreases linearly  
 191 with increasing  $P/P_E$  and so does the stiffness of the wall  $K_{in}$ , which tends to  $K_{lin}$  for  $P \rightarrow 0$  and  
 192 to 0 for  $P \rightarrow P_E$ . Once the initial elastic stiffness of the pushover curve is defined, the stiffness  $K_1$   
 193 of the first branch of the tri-linear model is set equal to:

$$K_1 = 0.7K_{in}. \quad (10)$$

194 The factor 0.7 defines the ratio of the effective stiffness up to  $\Delta_1$  to the initial stiffness at zero  
 195 displacement.

### 196 *Ultimate displacement $\Delta_U$*

197 The ultimate displacement of the pushover curve of URM walls is often observed to be smaller  
 198 than  $\Delta_0$  obtained by the rigid-body analysis (Griffith et al. 2003; Lagomarsino 2015). Reduction of  
 199 the ultimate displacement in URM walls can be due to different material and geometrical factors,  
 200 namely: the rounding of the unit corners due to local deformation (Lagomarsino 2015), the unit  
 201 or mortar crushing (Derakhshan et al. 2013b), a reduced effective depth of the mortar layer due to  
 202 mortar pointing or due to the dropping out of mortar during the rocking of the wall (Doherty 2000;  
 203 Derakhshan et al. 2013b). In order to take into account this reduction, an effective thickness of the  
 204 wall  $t_{w,eff}$  is introduced. Expressed as  $t_{w,eff} = \tau t_w$  and substituted into Eq. (1) and (2), it leads to a  
 205 shift of the descending branch of the bi-linear model (Fig. 3), which results in:

$$\frac{\Delta_U}{\Delta_0} = \tau. \quad (11)$$

206 Moreover, replacing  $t_w$  with  $t_{w,eff}$  in the formulation of the tri-linear model affects through  $I_w$  the  
 207 formula for  $P_E$  (Eq. (6)) and  $K_{lin}$  (Eq. (8)).

### 208 *Displacement parameters $\Delta_1$ and $\Delta_2$*

209 The displacement parameter  $\Delta_1$  can be obtained from the expression of the plateau force  $F_1$   
 210 (Eq. (4)) and the stiffness  $K_1$  (Eq. (10)) as  $\Delta_1$  is defined as:  $\Delta_1 = F_1/K_1$ . Normalized with respect

211 to  $\Delta_0$ , it writes:

$$\frac{\Delta_1}{\Delta_0} = \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{P}{P_E} \right)^{0.4} \right] \frac{F_0}{\Delta_0} \frac{1}{0.7K_{in}}. \quad (12)$$

212 The displacement parameter  $\Delta_2$  can be derived as  $\Delta_2 = (\tau - F_1/F_0)\Delta_0$ . Introducing Eq. (4), the  
213 ratio of  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$  becomes:

$$\frac{\Delta_2}{\Delta_0} = \tau - 1 + \left( \frac{P}{P_E} \right)^{0.4}. \quad (13)$$

## 214 MODEL INTEGRATION

215 The tri-linear model is integrated numerically as single-degree-of-freedom system with non-  
216 linear elastic behavior following the tri-linear  $F(\Delta)$  relationship. For this purpose, two assumptions  
217 are required, see Fig. 2. The first assumption consists in assuming that the bottom and top  
218 supports of the URM wall experience the same out-of-plane ground acceleration  $a_g(t)$ . The second  
219 assumption consists in assuming a piece-wise linear inertia force distribution along the wall height.  
220 The first assumption represents a simplification in the case of real buildings, as the upper storeys  
221 of the building may experience motions which are filtered by the building structure, i.e. the  
222 walls and the diaphragms, and can therefore be different from storey to storey. Even though  
223 examples of tri-linear models considering the diaphragm deformation can be found in the literature  
224 (Derakhshan et al. 2015; Landi et al. 2015), a systematic study quantifying the vulnerability of  
225 out-of-plane walls subjected to the relative support motion is still missing. The second assumption  
226 has been corroborated by experimental observations from laboratory shake table tests (Doherty  
227 2000; Graziotti et al. 2016) and is justified for walls undergoing significant rocking (Doherty et al.  
228 2002; Griffith et al. 2003). Its application to the herein developed tri-linear model is validated in  
229 this paper.

### 230 *Equation of motion*

231 Based on the above assumptions, D'Alembert's principle can be written for the wall configura-  
232 tions depicted in Fig. 2. The use of this principle leads to the equation of motion for the equivalent

233 single-degree-of-freedom system, which writes:

$$\ddot{\Delta}(t) + \frac{C}{M}\dot{\Delta}(t) + \frac{3}{2}\frac{F(\Delta(t))}{M} = -\frac{3}{2}a_g(t). \quad (14)$$

234 In the above equation,  $\Delta(t)$ ,  $\dot{\Delta}(t)$  and  $\ddot{\Delta}(t)$  are respectively the displacement, the velocity and the  
235 acceleration measured at the control point of the wall,  $M$  is the total wall mass and  $C$  is the  
236 equivalent viscous damping factor. The derivation of Eq. (14), which for sake of conciseness is not  
237 reported in the paper, follows Griffith et al. (2003), where the equation was originally derived for  
238 walls where the middle crack is located at mid-height. The same equation is obtained here for an  
239 arbitrary crack location and using as control point the wall mid-height.

240 The response  $F(\Delta(t))$  given in the equation is the time-integrated force-displacement relation-  
241 ship of the wall, when this latter is subjected to uniform inertia forces. In Griffith et al. (2003), the  
242 expression for  $F(\Delta)$  was given by a non-linear elastic force-displacement curve of a bi-linear model.  
243 In the present case,  $F(\Delta)$  is given by the developed tri-linear model. The use of a non-linear elastic  
244 force-displacement curve represent a simple yet reliable modeling assumption which, as shown in  
245 this and previous works (Doherty et al. 2002; Sorrentino et al. 2016), allows mimicking the rocking  
246 behavior of vertically-spanning, or one-way bending, URM walls. Contrarily from what observed  
247 on two-way bending walls, the experimental behavior of one-way bending walls undergoing rocking  
248 is characterized by the absence of hysteresis cycles due to damage. The response of these walls is  
249 in fact mainly governed by geometric non-linearities, the main source of damping being the impact  
250 between the macroblocks (Lam et al. 1995; Doherty 2000; Griffith et al. 2004; Meisl et al. 2007;  
251 Dazio 2009; Derakhshan et al. 2014; Ferreira et al. 2015; Graziotti et al. 2016; Giaretton et al.  
252 2016b; Degli Abbatì and Lagomarsino 2017).

### 253 ***Damping factor***

254 A viscous damping factor based on a constant damping coefficient  $c$  is used for the integration  
255 of the tri-linear model. Related to the initial stiffness of the model, this factor reads (Griffith et al.  
256 2003):  $C = \sqrt{6MK_1}c$ . For the simulations conducted in this paper, a constant damping coefficient

257 of 5% is used. This value constitutes a lower bound of the values observed during free-rocking tests  
258 (Griffith et al. 2004; Doherty 2000; Graziotti et al. 2016; Giaretton et al. 2016b). It has been shown  
259 that taking this value is a suitable choice when combining the tri-linear single-degree-of-freedom  
260 system with a viscous damping model (Griffith et al. 2003; Melis 2002), resulting in only negligible  
261 differences with respect to other more sophisticated numerical procedures such as the 'event-based'  
262 one proposed by Doherty (2000).

### 263 *Model implementation*

264 The tri-linear model is integrated numerically by means of the classical Newmark time-  
265 integration scheme. Simulations are run until failure of the wall occurs. The following failure  
266 condition is adopted:

$$|\Delta| \geq \Delta_U. \quad (15)$$

## 267 **MODEL VALIDATION**

268 Two series of laboratory shake table tests carried out on walls undergoing rocking under  
269 out-of-plane excitations are used for validating the tri-linear model. Both test series involve single-  
270 leaf brick masonry walls spanning vertically between two supports, with top support conditions  
271 reproducing connections between the walls and reinforced concrete slabs in existing buildings  
272 (Fig. 2(a)). Section S4 of Supplemental Data gives the link to a repository containing the Matlab  
273 code used in this section for the validation of the tri-linear model.

### 274 *Simulation of Adelaide tests*

275 The walls tested at the University of Adelaide (Griffith et al. 2004; Doherty 2000) had a height  
276  $H_w = 1500$  mm, a length  $L_w = 950$  mm and a nominal thickness of  $t_w = 110$  and 50 mm. They  
277 were made of bricks with mass densities of 1800 and 2300 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively. At their base, the  
278 walls were placed onto a straight steel plate after application of a mortar layer. At the top, the last  
279 row of bricks was laterally supported by two stiff rubber spacers fixed on both sides into L-shaped  
280 steel profiles. This prevented the lateral displacement but not the rotation of the bricks (Doherty

281 2000), resulting in a boundary condition similar to that at wall base, where the bricks were able to  
282 rotate after cracking of the mortar layer (Doherty 2000). In order to seize this condition, the walls  
283 are modeled as clamped at their ends: the moment originating at the wall ends leads to the partial  
284 cracking of the cross section and, as a result, the reaction force moves, as in the tested configuration,  
285 towards the compressed region of the cross-section (Godio and Beyer 2017).

286 Griffith et al. (2004) tested three walls under out-of-plane loading on the shake table. The two  
287 110 mm-thick specimens 12 and 13 without overburden are selected for validating the model. The  
288 50 mm-thick specimen 14 was also tested on the shake table but the results for this specimen are not  
289 reported (Griffith et al. 2004; Doherty 2000). For the tests, Griffith et al. (2004) used the Nahanni,  
290 El Centro and Pacoima ground motions scaled at different intensities. When simulating the tests,  
291 the actual table accelerations are used as input for the tri-linear model, except for the Pacoima  
292 ground motion scaled at 66%, for which the input motion for the tri-linear model is here derived  
293 by scaling the table acceleration of the Pacoima motion available at 80%. This approach is taken  
294 as an unrealistic low response of the tri-linear model is observed when using the recorded table  
295 acceleration for that motion, possibly due to a wrong measurement of the table acceleration.

296 Quasi-static pushover tests were carried out on the specimens before and after the shake table  
297 tests, to study respectively the uncracked and cracked behavior of the walls. The analytical model  
298 presented by Godio and Beyer (2017) was used to simulate the pushover tests carried out on the  
299 cracked walls and showed that an important reduction of the elastic moduli occurred due to the  
300 degradation of the joints. The resulting values of  $E_m$  were derived from the initial stiffness of the  
301 static force-displacement curve of the walls and were 43 and 5 MPa, respectively for specimen 12  
302 and 13 (Godio and Beyer 2017). These values are used here for the simulation of the shake table  
303 tests by the tri-linear model. Table 2 gives the list of the force and displacement parameters used  
304 in the tri-linear model for simulating the Adelaide tests. No mortar drop-out was observed during  
305 the tests for the specimens that are here modeled. Moreover, the walls were cracked at mid-height  
306 from the previous pushover tests, where a concentrated force was applied at mid-height. In the  
307 simulations, the middle crack position is consequently fixed at mid-height and the displacement

308 parameter  $\Delta_U$ , representative of the effective wall thickness, is set equal to the nominal wall  
309 thickness:  $\Delta_U = \Delta_0 = t_w$  (Eq. (2)).

### 310 *Force-displacement curves*

311 Fig. 4 shows the comparison of the tri-linear model with the experimental results in terms  
312 of normalized dynamic force-displacement curves. The experimental curves are built following  
313 Doherty (2000), see also Graziotti et al. (2016):  $\Delta$  is the relative displacement measured at the  
314 wall mid-height, where the middle crack is located, and  $F$  is the force derived by multiplying the  
315 absolute acceleration of the center of mass of the two portions of wall that are delimited by the  
316 middle crack, by their mass. To this purpose, a triangular distribution of the relative acceleration  
317 along the wall height is assumed as in Fig. 2. To be consistent with the experimental results,  
318 the numerical curves show the total inertia force, which, according to Eq. (14), is the sum of the  
319 restoring force,  $3/2F(\Delta)$ , and the force generated by damping,  $C\dot{\Delta}$ . The figure shows the accuracy  
320 of the tri-linear model and the selected damping model in reproducing the force and displacement  
321 capacity of the walls tested on the shake table. Moreover, the initial stiffness of the walls, which was  
322 back calculated starting from pushover tests (Godio and Beyer 2017), yields a good estimation of  
323 the stiffness observed in the dynamic force-displacement curves. The comparison is complemented  
324 with the results obtained from the tri-linear model built based on the empirical values proposed  
325 by Doherty et al. (2002), which were chosen on the basis of the different states of degradation  
326 observed on the same walls used for the benchmark (Griffith et al. 2003): the  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0$  and  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$   
327 ratios increased as the mortar quality degraded from new to moderately degraded and severely  
328 degraded joints, resulting in respectively 0.06; 0.13; 0.20 and 0.28; 0.40; 0.50. Following Melis  
329 (2002) and Griffith et al. (2003), new and moderately degraded joints are assumed respectively  
330 for specimen 12 and specimen 13, resulting respectively in  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0 = 0.06$ ,  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0 = 0.28$  and  
331  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0 = 0.13$ ,  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0 = 0.40$ . The curves given by the empirical model (Doherty et al. 2002)  
332 are very close to those given by the herein proposed tri-linear model, showing therefore good  
333 performance of this latter.

334 *Displacement time histories*

335 Fig. 5 compares the present tri-linear model and the tri-linear model proposed by Doherty  
336 et al. (2002) with the experimental results in terms of normalized displacement time histories. In  
337 general, the present tri-linear model shows itself able to seize the peak displacements (Table 3)  
338 and the frequency content of the experimental response. Moreover, failure occurs in the test of  
339 Fig. 5(b), where the specimen hits the support frame which was put in place to prevent the collapse  
340 of the wall onto the shake table (Doherty 2000). For specimen 13 (Fig. 5(b),(d),(f)) the model built  
341 with the empirical values proposed by Doherty et al. (2002) gives a response which is the same  
342 than that of the model proposed here. For specimen 12 (Fig. 5(a),(c),(e)) the new model gives a  
343 better estimate of the wall response than the empirical one, which tends to overestimates the actual  
344 wall response.

345 *Error estimators*

346 The response of rocking structures such as masonry walls, columns and isolated blocks is  
347 very sensitive to small changes in the geometry, the material parameters and the input excitation  
348 (Psycharis et al. 2000; Papantonopoulos et al. 2002). For this reason, a full agreement between  
349 numerical and experimental results can hardly be attained. Moreover, the model does not take  
350 into account the wall cracking at other levels than that calculated by rigid body analysis. In  
351 order to evaluate in a quantitative manner the capability of the tri-linear model in reproducing the  
352 displacement time histories of the experimental response, two error estimators are used.

353 The first error estimator is denoted with  $\varepsilon_{\text{RMS}}$  and is based on the Root Mean Square (RMS)  
354 value of the mid-height displacement computed throughout the experimental (*exp*) and numerical  
355 (*trl*) time histories. It writes (Al Shawa et al. 2012):

$$\varepsilon_{\text{RMS}} = \frac{|\bar{\Delta}_{\text{exp}} - \bar{\Delta}_{\text{trl}}|}{|\bar{\Delta}_{\text{exp}}|}, \quad (16)$$

356 with the RMS value  $\bar{\Delta}$  computed over the time history  $\Delta(t)$  as:

$$\bar{\Delta} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |\Delta(t_i)|^2}. \quad (17)$$

357 The second error estimator is based on the Weighted Mean Error (WME) and is defined as (Al  
358 Shawa et al. 2012):

$$\varepsilon_{\text{WME}} = \min_{\Delta t \in [-0.50s, 0.50s]} \frac{\int_0^T |\Delta_{\text{exp}}(t) - \Delta_{\text{trl}}(t + \Delta t)| dt}{\int_0^T |\Delta_{\text{exp}}(t)| dt}. \quad (18)$$

359 This error estimator is computed by keeping fixed the experimental response and shifting the  
360 response obtained from the tri-linear model over the total duration of the time history  $T$  by a  
361 lag  $\Delta t$  ranging between  $-0.50 s$  and  $+0.50 s$  and taking the minimum WME value over this  
362 interval. This error measure can be computed taking into account either the whole time histories or,  
363 according to Al Shawa et al. (2012), only the parts of the time histories that contain displacements  
364 with amplitudes larger than 20% of the maximum absolute displacement of the experimental and  
365 numerical results (whichever is larger). All other parts of the time histories are set to zero and the  
366 error computed as defined in Eq. (18). The first method yields the error denoted with  $\varepsilon_{\text{WME}}$ ; the  
367 second yields the error  $\varepsilon_{\text{WME}(20)}$ . The objective of these error measures is to estimate the accuracy  
368 of the tri-linear model in predicting all and large amplitude displacements not at a fixed time but  
369 within a given time window. This error proves particularly useful in the case of rocking structures,  
370 where, as already stated above, reaching a perfect agreement is practically impossible.

371 The errors  $\varepsilon_{\text{RMS}}$  and  $\varepsilon_{\text{WME}(20)}$  defined by Eq. (16), Eq. (18) have been used by Al Shawa et al.  
372 (2012) for estimating the sensitivity of a tri-linear model with respect to the displacement parameters  
373  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$ , based on the comparison with experimental results. The error committed by the new  
374 tri-linear model in simulating the shake table tests presented in Fig. 5 is given in Table 3. The mean  
375 values are close to the minimum errors of  $\varepsilon_{\text{RMS}} = 0.300$  and  $\varepsilon_{\text{WME}(20)} = 0.700$ , which Al Shawa  
376 et al. (2012) obtained when optimizing the displacement parameters  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$  of his tri-linear



377 model. For comparison, the empirical model proposed by Doherty et al. (2002) gives errors that  
378 are on average  $|\Delta_{trl}^{\max}|/|\Delta_{exp}^{\max}| = 1.207$ ,  $\varepsilon_{RMS} = 0.479$ ,  $\varepsilon_{WME} = 1.205$  and  $\varepsilon_{WME(20)} = 1.641$ , that is  
379 approximately twice the error committed by the new tri-linear model presented here. Table 3 also  
380 contains the ratio between the absolute peak displacement measured on the tested and simulated  
381 walls: the tri-linear model yields a close and slightly over-conservative estimation of the wall peak  
382 displacements.

### 383 *Simulation of Pavia tests*

384 Graziotti et al. (2016) tested an unreinforced single-leaf brick masonry wall of  $H_w = 2754$  mm,  
385 length  $L_w = 1438$  mm and thickness  $t_w = 102$  mm. The wall was tested during an experimental  
386 campaign dedicated to the study of cavity walls. It was made of bricks with mass density  $\rho =$   
387  $1835$  kg/m<sup>3</sup> and was subjected to two levels of vertical compression stress during the tests, namely  
388  $0.3$  and  $0.1$  N/mm<sup>2</sup>. At its base, the wall was laid on a mortar layer placed on the foundation.  
389 At the top, the last row of bricks was fixed into L-shaped steel profiles filled with mortar, which  
390 prevented both the lateral displacement and the rotation of the bricks. Similarly to the walls tested  
391 by Doherty (2000), this wall can be modeled as double clamped, with the exception that an effective  
392 height of  $2673$  mm, neglecting the last row of bricks, is considered.

393 The specimen SIN-01-00 is used as benchmark for the tri-linear model, since it is the only  
394 one exhibiting rocking (Graziotti et al. 2016). More particularly, only the tests for which the  
395 wall undergoes mid-height displacements that are greater or equal than  $0.1t_w$  are considered. An  
396 estimate of the masonry elastic modulus can be derived from the measure of the elastic frequency  
397 of the wall, made at the beginning of the test sequence by application of a random signal. A flexural  
398 frequency of  $14.27$  Hz was found for the specimen SIN-01-00 (Graziotti et al. 2016). Assuming  
399 that the wall behaves at that stage as a double clamped beam made of uncracked homogeneous  
400 material, this frequency corresponds to an elastic modulus of  $E_m = 1735$  MPa, that is  $0.53$  times  
401 the one determined by material testing (Graziotti et al. 2016). For the simulation of tests (a)-(d)  
402 the modulus measured at the beginning of the test sequence is used. However, as the wall may  
403 lose its initial stiffness during the tests, due to the repeated shakes that damage the joints and the

404 units, a more precise estimate of the wall stiffness is derived for tests (e) and (f). In particular the  
405 elastic modulus is derived from the experimental  $F - \Delta$  curves shown in Fig. 6. These curves were  
406 built as those of Fig. 4, i.e. taking  $\Delta$  as the relative displacement measured at wall mid-height,  
407 and  $F$  as the force derived by the absolute acceleration of the center of mass of the two portions  
408 of wall delimited by the middle crack (Graziotti et al. 2016). The resulting force and displacement  
409 parameters of the tri-linear model used for simulating the Pavia tests are given in Table 4.

410 The comparison with the experimental curves is shown in Fig. 6 and Fig. 7. In general, the  
411 frequency content and the peak displacements (Table 5) of the experimental response are well  
412 represented by the tri-linear model (Fig. 7). The model predicts also satisfactorily the dynamic  
413 force-displacement hysteretic curves (Fig. 6). Moreover, the middle crack position predicted by  
414 the tri-linear model (Eq. (3)) is located at  $0.560H_w$  from the foundation, which is very close to the  
415 position observed in the tests of  $0.575H_w$ .

416 The comparison with the experimental curves is complemented by the computation of the  
417 error estimators for each test (Table 5). The mean values are, also for this test series, close to  
418 the optimum values of 0.300 and 0.700 obtained by Al Shawa et al. (2012). To put the obtained  
419 error measures further in context, these error measures are also computed for the tri-linear model  
420 using the parameters suggested by Doherty et al. (2002); the new joints are assumed for tests (a)  
421 to (d) and moderately degraded joints are assumed for tests (e) and (f). The errors obtained are  
422  $|\Delta_{trl}^{\max}|/|\Delta_{exp}^{\max}| = 4.110$ ,  $\varepsilon_{RMS} = 4.186$  and  $\varepsilon_{WME} = 2.122$ . The estimator  $\varepsilon_{WME(20)}$  is larger than 10  
423 because the model predicts failure for four walls while only one wall failed during the tests.

## 424 **SENSITIVITY OF MODEL PARAMETERS TO FACTORS AFFECTING THE** 425 **OUT-OF-PLANE RESPONSE OF URM WALLS**

426 An insight on the four factors affecting the response of out-of-plane vertically-spanning URM  
427 walls is carried out in this section through a sensitivity study on the tri-linear model parameters. As  
428 described in the introduction to the paper, these factors are: (a) the support conditions of the wall,  
429 (b) the level of applied axial load, (c) the height-to-thickness or slenderness ratio of the wall and  
430 (d) the deformability of the wall. The latter factor is taken into account explicitly by the tri-linear

431 model by taking as input the masonry elastic modulus but not its compressive strength, as it is  
 432 assumed that the walls do not crush. The possibility of modeling the rounding of the unit corners  
 433 due to local crushing and a reduced effective depth of the mortar layer is given by introducing an  
 434 effective wall thickness as a proxy for the nominal wall thickness (Eq. (11)).

435 The parameters of the tri-linear model mainly depend on the  $P/P_E$  ratio. This ratio can be  
 436 expressed in such a way that the four above-mentioned factors can be distinguished and their effect  
 437 on the wall response studied separately (Godio and Beyer 2017):

$$\left(\frac{P}{P_E}\right) = \frac{12}{\pi^2} \frac{f_{cm}}{E_m} \Lambda^2 \left(\frac{P}{P_0}\right). \quad (19)$$

438 In the above expression  $P/P_0$  is the axial load ratio, factor (b), with  $P_0 = f_{cm}L_w t_w$  the maximum  
 439 compressive load that the wall can sustain at incipient material failure, introduced only in order to  
 440 normalize the axial load applied to the wall, and  $f_{cm}$  the masonry compressive strength, which is  
 441 here just assumed since not explicitly considered by the model;  $\Lambda = \kappa H_w / t_w$  is the wall slenderness  
 442 ratio, factor (c), in which the effect of the boundary conditions, factor (a), is expressed by means of  $\kappa$ ,  
 443 and  $E_m$  is the masonry elastic modulus, which allows studying the effect of masonry deformability,  
 444 factor (d).

#### 445 ***Effect of boundary conditions, axial load and wall slenderness ratio***

446 Fig. 8(a) shows the variation of the force and displacement parameters of the tri-linear model  
 447 versus the slenderness ratio of the wall  $\Lambda$  and for increasing axial loads. The figure refers to a wall  
 448 strip of unitary length, height  $H_w = 2.8$  m and mass density  $\rho = 1800$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>. A compressive  
 449 strength of  $f_{cm} = 10$  MPa and  $\tau = 1$  are also assumed and  $E_m$  is set to 2000 MPa, which corresponds  
 450 to  $E_m/f_{cm} = 200$ . To vary the slenderness ratio, the wall height is kept constant while the wall  
 451 thickness is varied between 0.35 and 0.07m. Note that, changing  $t_w$  makes changing  $P_0$  as well.  
 452 Overall, increasing the wall slenderness ratio decreases the force ratio  $F_1/F_0$  and increases the  
 453 displacement ratios  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0$ ,  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$  with an almost linear trend. The slope of the curves remains  
 454 almost linear and increases with the value of  $P/P_0$ , which means that the effect of the slenderness

455 ratio on the model parameters is amplified by increasing axial loads. Nonetheless, already for  
456 a low axial load ratio of  $P/P_0 = 0.01$ , as the one that can be found at the highest levels of a  
457 building, the plateau force ranges from  $0.80$  to  $0.95F_0$ , with  $F_1/F_0 \approx 0.85$  for  $\Lambda = 12$ . For the  
458 same slenderness but for a larger yet still relatively low ratio of  $P/P_0 = 0.05$ , the plateau force  
459 reduces to approximately  $0.7F_0$  and for  $P/P_0 = 0.10$  to  $0.6F_0$ . With regard to the effect of the  
460 boundary conditions, the  $F_1/F_0$  and  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$  curves are the same for the clamped-clamped and the  
461 pinned-clamped case, since the slenderness ratio  $\Lambda$  is fixed at each point of the curve (Eq. (4) and  
462 (13)); on the contrary the  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0$  curves result in higher ratios in the pinned-clamped case than  
463 in the clamped-clamped one, since in Eq. (12) the initial stiffness  $K_1$  and the  $F_0/\Delta_0$  ratio are not  
464 equivalent in the two cases.

#### 465 ***Effect of wall deformability***

466 Fig. 8(b) shows the variation of the force and displacement parameters of the tri-linear model  
467 when varying the elastic modulus of masonry  $E_m$ , for a given compressive strength of 10 MPa,  
468 and the axial load ratio  $P/P_0$ . In this case, the slenderness ratio is fixed to 10, which corresponds  
469 to  $t_w = 0.14$  and  $0.196$  m for the clamped-clamped and the pinned-clamped case. In general, an  
470 increase of the elastic modulus leads to greater values of  $F_1/F_0$  whereas  $\Delta_1/\Delta_0$  and  $\Delta_2/\Delta_0$  reduce.  
471 From the curves it is expected that for high moduli and very low axial load ratios,  $(\Delta_1, \Delta_2) \rightarrow 0$  and  
472  $F_1 \rightarrow F_0$ , i.e., the tri-linear model tends to the bi-linear one.

#### 473 ***Classes of joint degradation***

474 Fig. 8 also compares the parameters of the tri-linear model proposed by Doherty et al. (2002),  
475 who empirically distinguished new from moderately degraded and severely degraded joints, with  
476 the parameters of the herein proposed tri-linear model. With respect to the empirical values,  
477 those developed in this paper depend on the slenderness ratio, the level of applied axial load, the  
478 deformability of the masonry and the support conditions of the wall. For a given  $P/P_0$ , it can be  
479 observed that, moving from new to degraded joints, the parameters given by the present model  
480 intercept the empirical values for increasing values of slenderness and decreasing values of elastic  
481 modulus. From the comparison, classes of joint degradation to be used in the practice can be

482 distinguished.

## 483 **CONCLUSIONS**

484 Simplified tri-linear force-displacement models are an alternative to the use of refined numerical  
485 simulations in the seismic assessment of vertically-spanning URM walls. Moreover, their larger  
486 but still very limited number of parameters makes them very flexible compared to bi-linear models  
487 derived from rigid-body analysis, which cannot capture the initial stiffness and the actual force  
488 capacity of the walls (Doherty et al. 2002; Griffith et al. 2003; Sorrentino et al. 2016). The  
489 deformability of the walls is a major factor in determining this latter, together with the slenderness  
490 ratio and the boundary and overburden conditions of the wall (Doherty et al. 2002; Griffith et al.  
491 2003; Dazio 2009; Godio and Beyer 2017). Various tri-linear models have been previously proposed  
492 in the literature, but the effect of the wall deformability in conjunction with non-linear geometric  
493 effects on the displacements  $\Delta_1$  and  $\Delta_2$  and therefore also on the initial stiffness  $K_1$  and the maximum  
494 force  $F_1$  was determined by means of calibration constants determined from experimental results.  
495 These constants relate the parameters of the tri-linear model to the joint conditions observed in the  
496 walls (Doherty et al. 2002) or are used as correction factors for bounding the force capacity of the  
497 walls obtained through bi-linear models (Derakhshan et al. 2013b).

498 In this paper, new analytical formulations for the force and displacement parameters of the  
499 tri-linear model are presented. The formulations are derived from a recently developed mechanical  
500 model for the out-of-plane response of URM masonry walls, in which the analytical expression of  
501 the static pushover curve was given (Godio and Beyer 2017). For engineering purposes, a tri-linear  
502 model is derived from the expression of the pushover curve, being particularly suited to non-linear  
503 time-history analyses.

504 The tri-linear model proposed in this paper shows itself capable of providing good predictions  
505 of the displacement time histories and the force-displacement hysteretic curves of tested URM  
506 walls. It has the advantage of a rational development and an analytical formulation, which allows  
507 covering a wide range of wall configurations. When compared to existing tri-linear models, this  
508 new model needs one additional input parameter only, i.e. the elastic modulus of the masonry  $E_m$ .

509 Its use in the context of the seismic assessment and preliminary design of masonry buildings can be  
510 envisaged both in the modeling of the out-of-plane response of the URM walls through non-linear  
511 time-history analyses and in the prediction of the displacement demand on these walls, by means  
512 of an equivalent single-degree-of-freedom system with a secant stiffness passing through one of  
513 the points of the tri-linear curve (Godio and Beyer 2018).

## 514 NOTATION

515 *The following symbols are used in this paper:*

$a_g$  = ground motion (m/s<sup>2</sup>);

$C$  = equivalent viscous damping factor ( $\sqrt{\text{kgN/m}}$ );

$c$  = damping coefficient (-);

$E_m$  = elastic modulus of masonry (MPa);

$F_{\max}$  = force capacity of the wall (N);

$F_0$  = force parameter of the bi-linear model (N);

$F_1$  = plateau force of the tri-linear model (N);

$f_{cm}$  = compressive strength of masonry (MPa);

$H_w$  = height of the wall (m);

$I_w$  = moment of inertia of the uncracked section of the wall (m<sup>4</sup>);

$K_{in}$  = initial stiffness of the wall (N/m);

$K_{lin}$  = stiffness of a linear elastic Euler-Bernoulli beam (N/m);

$K_1$  = initial stiffness of the tri-linear model (N/m);

$K_2$  = stiffness of the equivalent single-degree-of-freedom system (N/m)

$L_w$  = length of the wall (m);

$M$  = mass of the wall (kg);

- $O$  = overburden (N);
- $P$  = effective axial load of the wall (N);
- $P_E$  = Euler's critical load of the wall (N);
- $P_0$  = maximum compressive load of the wall (N);
- $t_w$  = thickness of the wall (m);
- $t_{w,eff}$  = effective thickness of the wall (m);
- $W$  = self-weight of the wall (N);
- $\beta, \epsilon, \kappa, \zeta$  = factors accounting for different boundary conditions (-);
- $\Delta$  = displacement of the control point of the wall (m);
- $\dot{\Delta}$  = velocity of the control point of the wall (m/s);
- $\ddot{\Delta}$  = acceleration of the control point of the wall (m/s<sup>2</sup>);
- $\bar{\Delta}$  = root mean square value of the displacement history (-);
- $\Delta_{max}$  = displacement capacity of the wall (m);
- $\Delta_U$  = ultimate displacement of the tri-linear model (m);
- $\Delta_0$  = displacement parameter of the bi-linear model (m);
- $\Delta_1$  = first displacement parameter of the tri-linear model (m);
- $\Delta_2$  = second displacement parameter of the tri-linear model (m);
- $\epsilon_{RMS}, \epsilon_{WME}, \epsilon_{WME(20)}$  = error estimators (-)
- $\Lambda$  = slenderness ratio of the wall (-);
- $\xi$  = normalized position of the middle crack from the top wall support (-);
- $\rho$  = mass density of the masonry (m);

$\tau$  = ratio between effective thickness and nominal thickness of the wall (–), and

$\Psi_K$  = function embodying  $P - \Delta$  effects in the initial stiffness of the wall (–).

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## 522 **SUPPLEMENTAL DATA**

523 Supplemental sections S1-S4 are available online in the ASCE Library ([ascelibrary.org](http://ascelibrary.org)).

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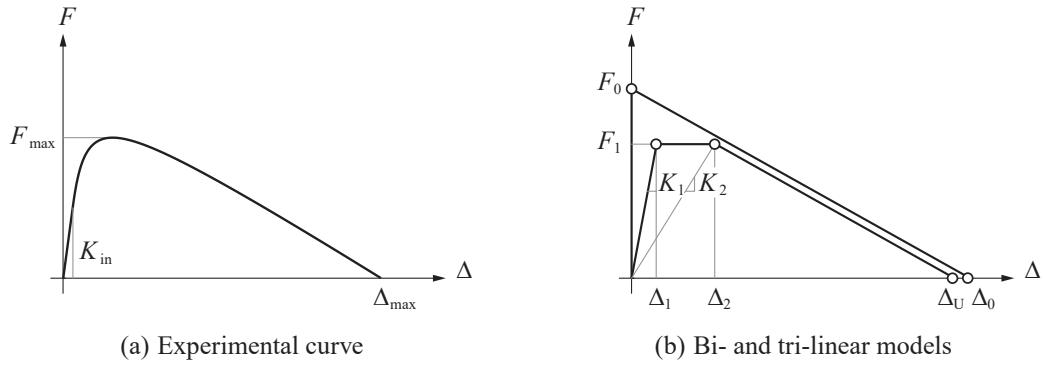
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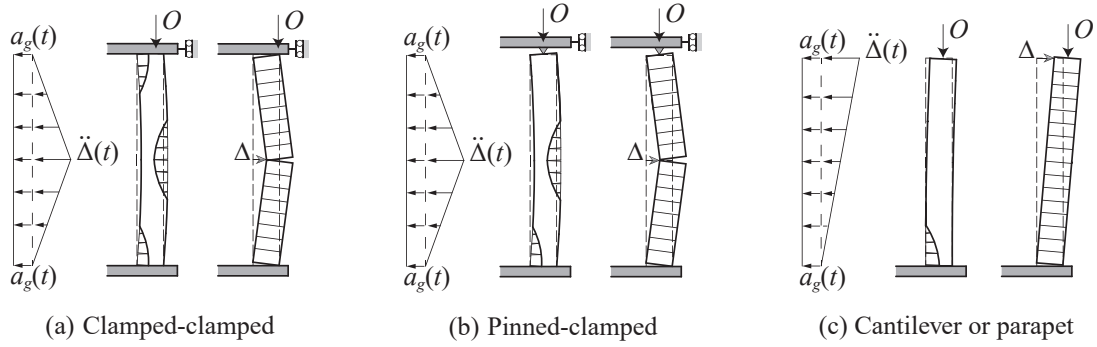
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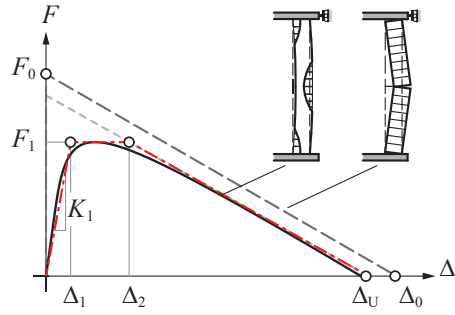
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**Fig. 1.** Force-displacement curves and simplified models of vertically-spanning out-of-plane loaded URM walls.

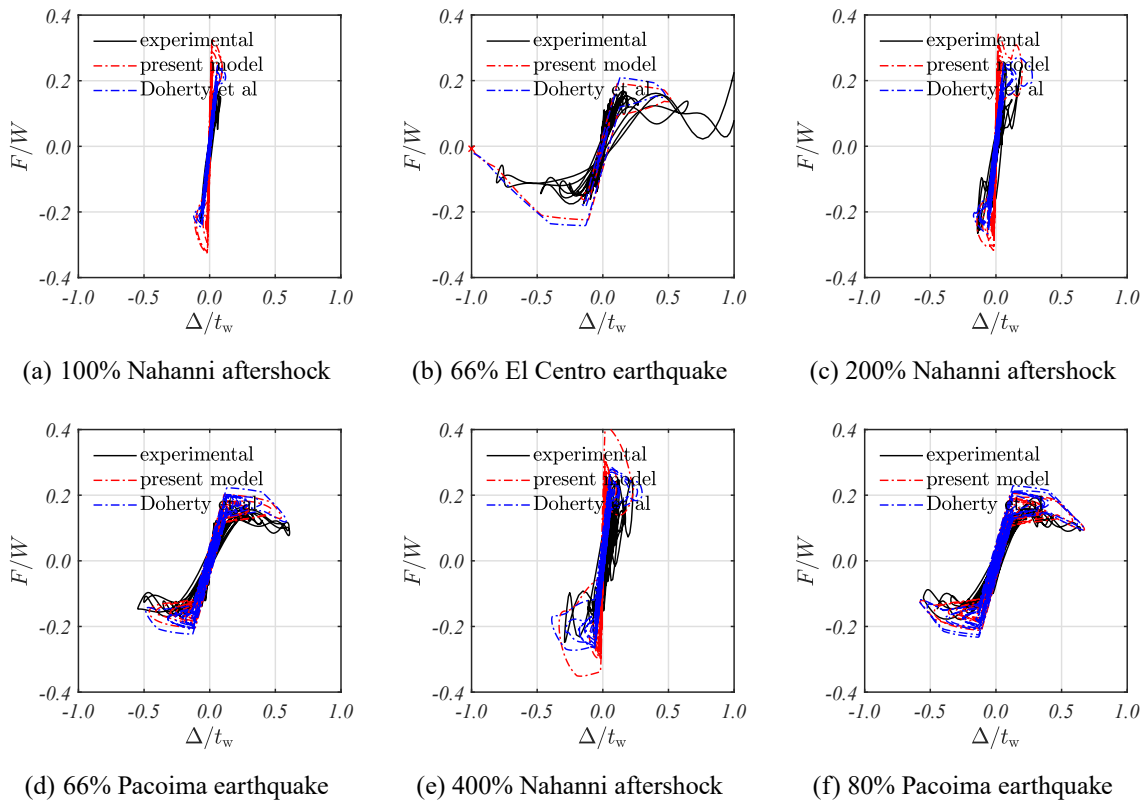


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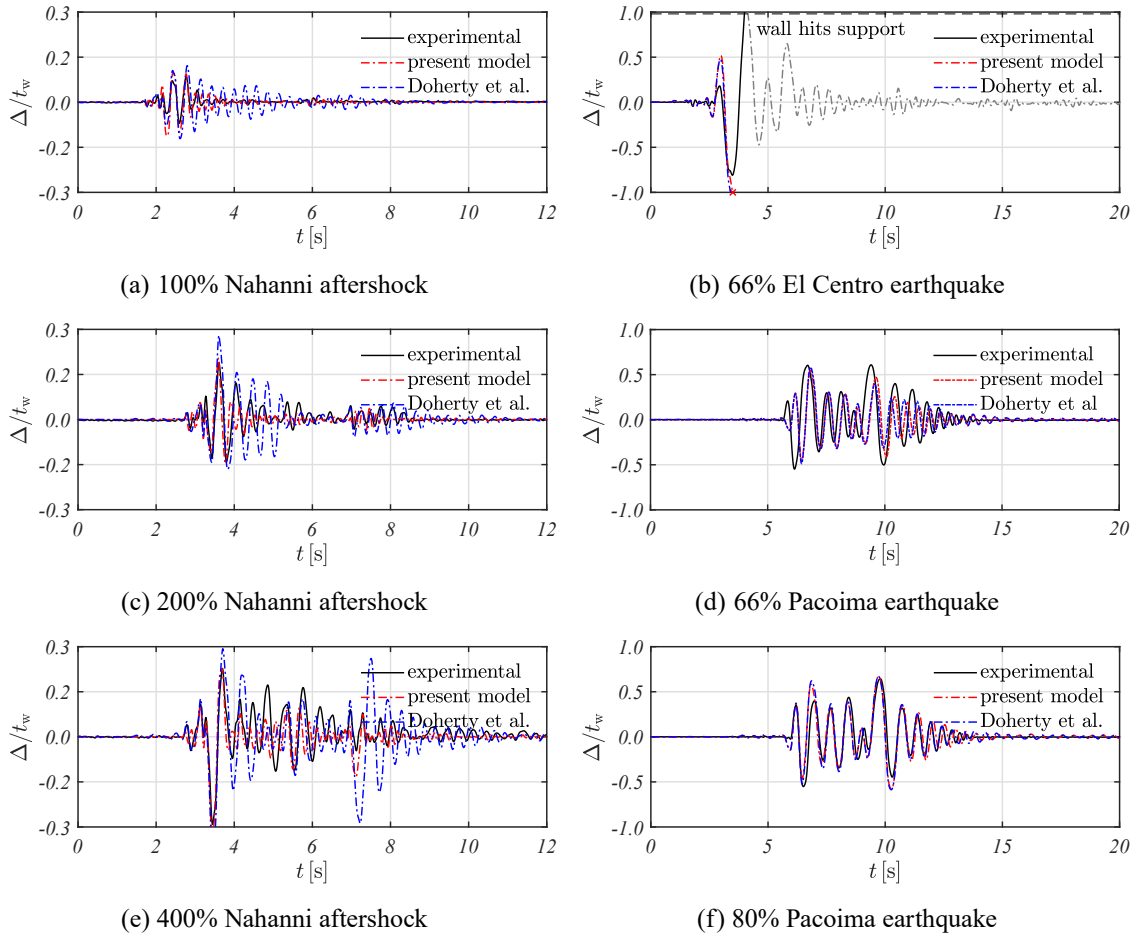


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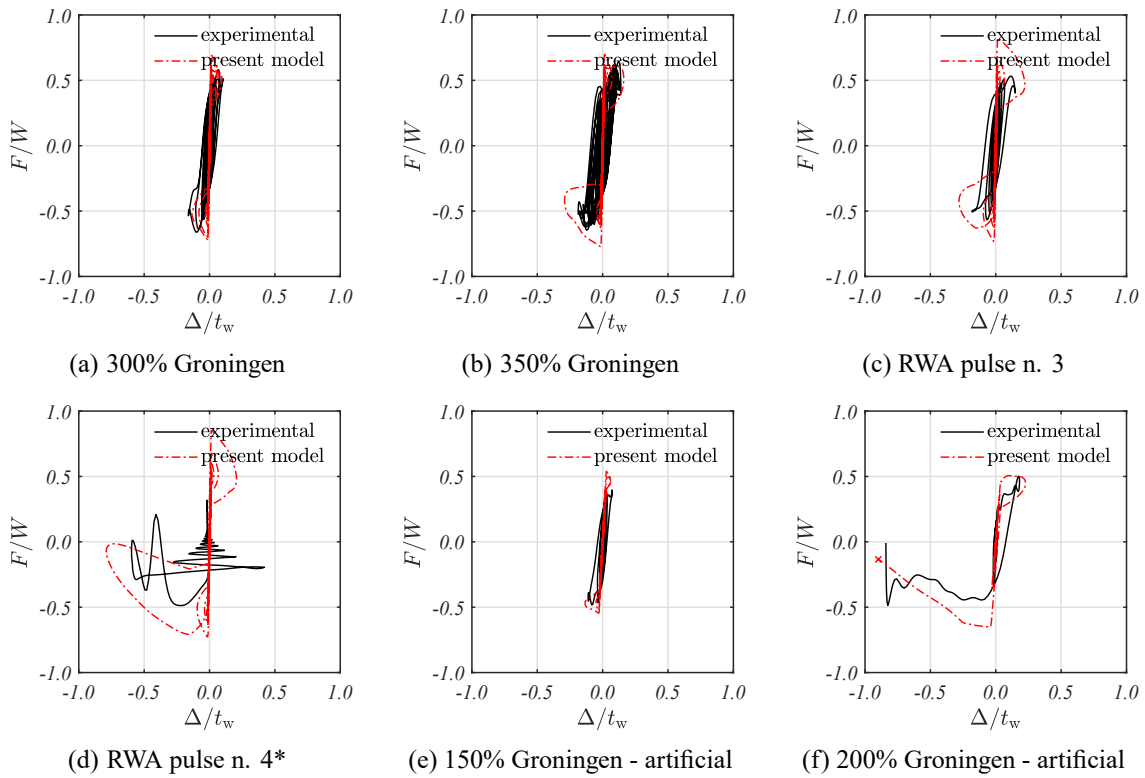




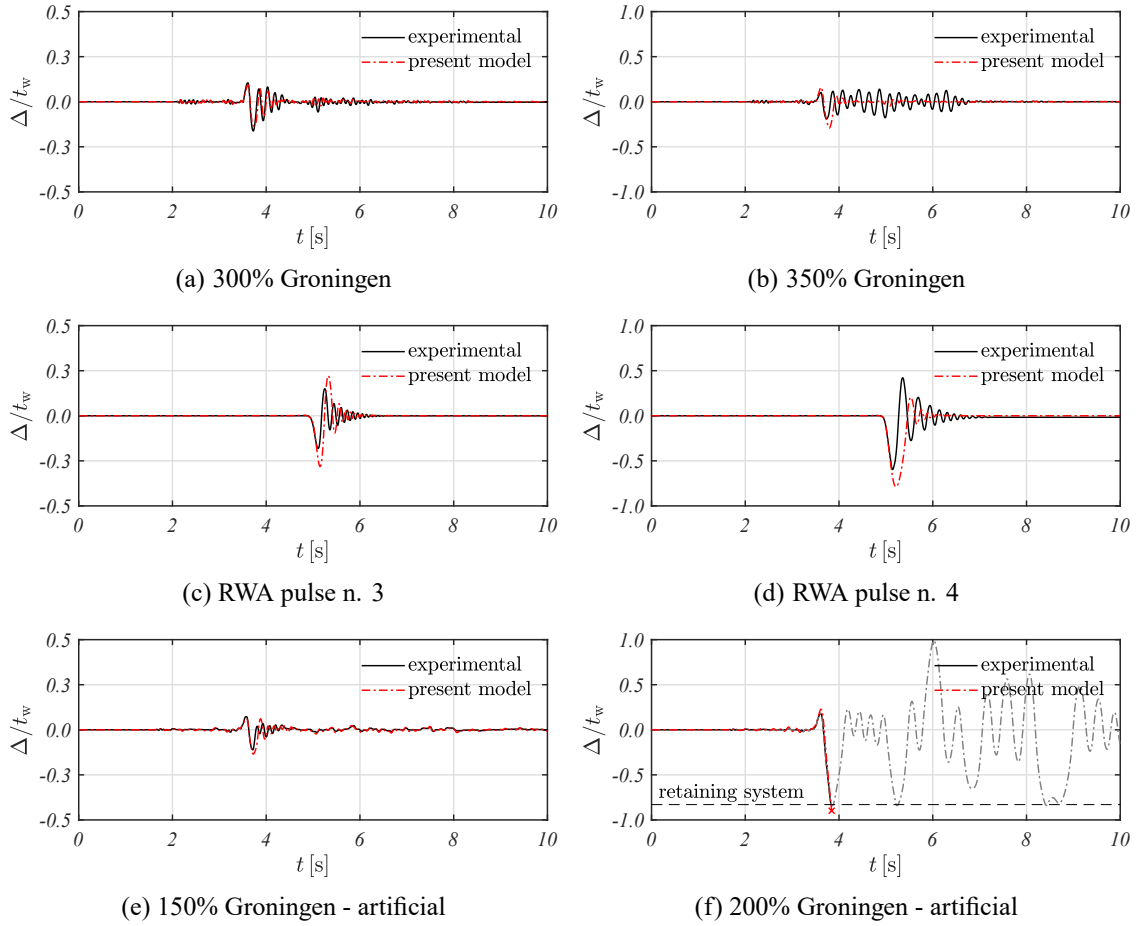
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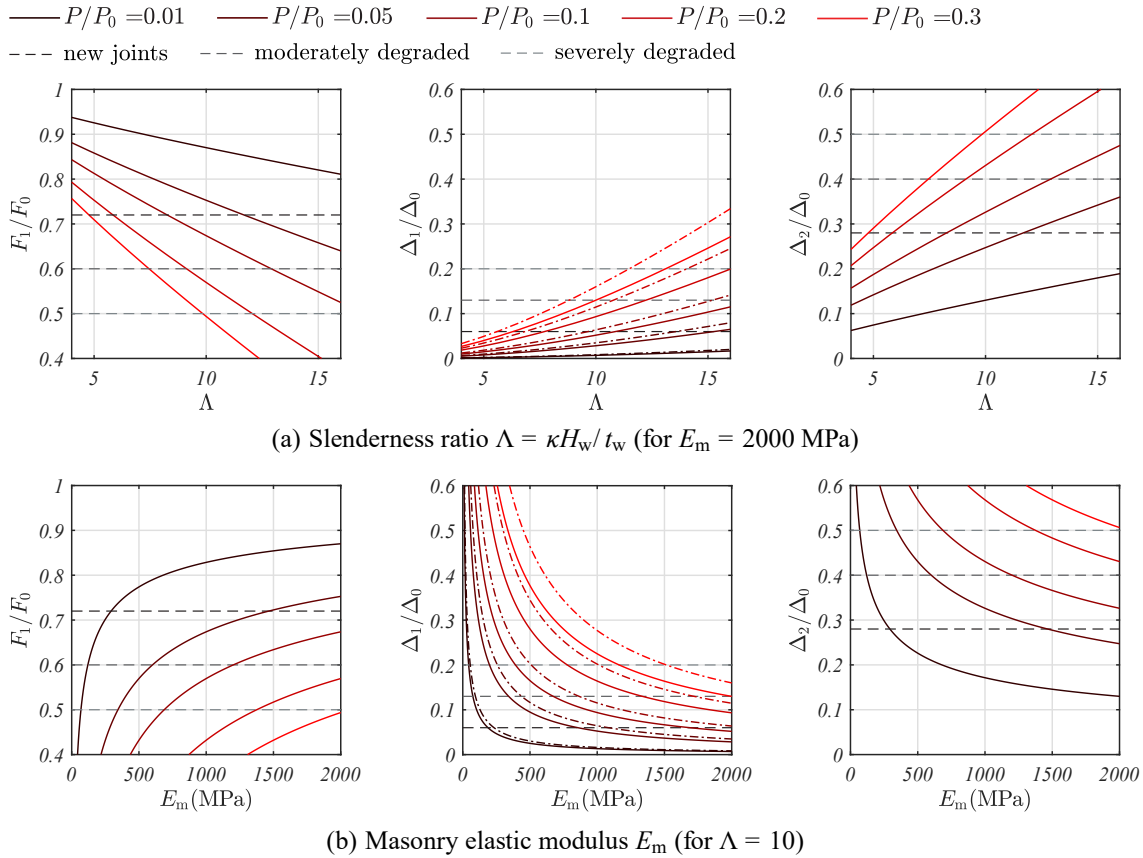
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**Table 1.** Summary of existing tri-linear models describing the out-of-plane response of vertically-spanning URM walls. Support conditions of the wall (Fig. 2): CC = clamped-clamped; PC = pinned-clamped; Cant. = cantilever.

Tri-linear model	Support conditions	Joints condition	$\Delta_1/\Delta_0$	$\Delta_2/\Delta_0$	$\Delta_U/\Delta_0$	$F_1/F_0$
Doherty et al. (2002)	CC, PC, Cant.	New	0.06	0.28	1	0.72
		Moderately degraded	0.13	0.40	1	0.60
		Severely degraded	0.20	0.50	1	0.50
Derakhshan et al. (2013b)	PC		0.04	1 – $\leq 1^*$		0.83**
				$F_1/F_0$		
Al Shawa et al. (2012)	Cant., one-side rocking		0.02	0.20-0.35	0.94	0.74-0.59
Derakhshan et al. (2015)	PC, flexible top and bottom supports		0.04	0.33	1	0.67
Landi et al. (2015)	PC***		0.05	0.26	1	0.74
Tomassetti et al. (2018)	CC, single-leaf and cavity walls		0.03-0.04	0.06-0.25	0.92-0.98	0.73-0.90

\*expressed as a function of the mortar pointing and the compressive strength of the masonry

\*\*with  $F_0$  calculated by rigid-body analysis of the wall including the limited compressive strength of the masonry

\*\*\*values given according to the formulations proposed by Sorrentino (2003)

**Table 2.** Parameters of the tri-linear model used for simulating the Adelaide tests. Imposed middle crack position at  $0.5H_w$ .

Tested wall*	$\Delta_1/\Delta_0$	$\Delta_2/\Delta_0$	$F_1/F_0$
Specimen 12 (a),(c),(e)	0.017	0.198	0.802
Specimen 13 (b),(d),(f)	0.110	0.468	0.532

\*reference to results contained in Fig. 4, Fig. 5



**Table 3.** Ratio between the absolute peak displacements and error committed by the tri-linear model in predicting the displacement time histories of the Adelaide tests.

Tested wall*	$ \Delta_{trl}^{\max} / \Delta_{exp}^{\max} $	$\varepsilon_{RMS}$	$\varepsilon_{WME}$	$\varepsilon_{WME(20)}$
Specimen 12 (a)	1.342	0.544	1.105	1.365
Specimen 12 (c)	1.052	0.159	0.772	0.514
Specimen 12 (e)	1.141	0.180	0.855	0.632
Specimen 13 (b)	0.991	0.108	0.702	0.630
Specimen 13 (d)	0.898	0.244	0.742	0.710
Specimen 13 (f)	1.046	0.072	0.628	0.524
Mean value	1.078	0.218	0.801	0.729

\*reference to results contained in Fig. 4, Fig. 5

**Table 4.** Parameters of the tri-linear model used for simulating the Pavia tests. Predicted middle crack position from the base support at  $0.560H_w$ .

Tested wall*	$\Delta_1/\Delta_0$	$\Delta_2/\Delta_0$	$F_1/F_0$
SIN-01-00 (a)	0.013	0.172	0.828
SIN-01-00 (b)	0.013	0.172	0.828
SIN-01-00 (c)	0.013	0.172	0.828
SIN-01-00 (d)	0.013	0.172	0.828
SIN-01-00 (e)	0.031	0.249	0.751
SIN-01-00 (f)	0.041	0.281	0.719

\*reference to results contained in Fig. 6, Fig. 7

**Table 5.** Ratio between the absolute peak displacements and error committed by the tri-linear model in predicting the displacement time histories of the Pavia tests.

Tested wall*	$ \Delta_{trl}^{\max} / \Delta_{exp}^{\max} $	$\varepsilon_{RMS}$	$\varepsilon_{WME}$	$\varepsilon_{WME(20)}$
SIN-01-00 (a)	0.830	0.154	0.784	0.394
SIN-01-00 (b)	1.559	0.225	1.044	1.126
SIN-01-00 (c)	1.558	0.607	0.996	1.456
SIN-01-00 (d)	1.324	0.382	0.998	1.365
SIN-01-00 (e)	1.217	0.304	1.035	0.892
SIN-01-00 (f)	1.069	0.076	0.226	0.102
Mean value	1.260	0.291	0.847	0.889

\*reference to results contained in Fig. 6, Fig. 7