



Research on this area can be classified into experiments with quasistatic loading on bridge beam-column joints [5,6], typical building frame joints [7,8] and frameworks [9] report enhancement of both shear and bending capacity. Cyclic load tests on joints with inadequate reinforcement bond length [10], rehabilitated specimens [11], shear strengthened T joints [12–14], have also reported substantial improvements in ultimate capacities. A combination of FRP in various forms bars, plates and sheets in structural enhancement have been investigated [15,16]. The suitability of adhesives of different moduli [17] has also been studied. On some occasions a combination of FRP and steel external reinforcements has been used [18]. FRP in seismic retrofitting of strong-beam-weak-column frameworks that are prevalent in gravity load designed buildings have been investigated [19].

Analytical models of externally reinforced beam-column joints have been presented using closed form solutions [20], and finite element technique [21]. Design methods have been suggested for shear [22] and bending [20]. Pushover analysis has been employed in the design of upgradation for bridge joints [21] and buildings [23] in seismic conditions.

Survey of existing constructions reveals that upgradation of structures is necessary in three conditions:

- The structure is inadequately designed for the present load conditions.
- The structure is inadequately detailed for the present loading. This also includes those structures that are found deficient under seismic conditions.
- The structure is damaged and requires rehabilitation.

This paper includes joints of all the three varieties. The motivation behind this program is to examine the performance of fiber reinforced polymer composites (FRP) in upgradation of healthy joints with adequate and deficient reinforcements and also in rehabilitation of damaged joints. The load deflection relations ob-

tained experimentally are discussed along with failure types.

## 2. Experimental work

### 2.1. Specimen details

Two different types of RCC joints have been cast for experimental verification. One set of joints has adequate steel reinforcements with proper detailing of reinforcements at the critical sections (Fig. 1). In the other set of specimens the beam reinforcements have deficient bond lengths at the junctions with the columns (Fig. 2). When the beam of the joint is transversely loaded the first set is characterized by a long plastic zone (ductile) while the second set fails in reinforcement pull out and exhibits sudden failure (non-ductile).

The concrete used is of M30 grade ( $30\text{ N/mm}^2$ ) and properties of other material used are shown in Table 1.

### 2.2. FRP reinforcements

The specimens in Figs. 1 and 2 were strengthened by using carbon and glass FRP materials. Prior to the application of the FRP the concrete substrate was smoothed by grinding and cleaning. The cement paste was removed from the surface and the coarse aggregates were exposed. Acetone was used to clean the surface. The corners of all the members were ground to create a minimum radius of 10 mm. Epoxy putty was used to fill the voids and concave areas. Figs. 3 and 4 present schematic arrangement for two typical systems; L-overlays and precured carbon plates respectively.

### 2.3. Type A: L-reinforcement with GFRP/CFRP sheets

In this type, FRP sheets were applied in L shape to upgrade the joints. FRP has been applied in several

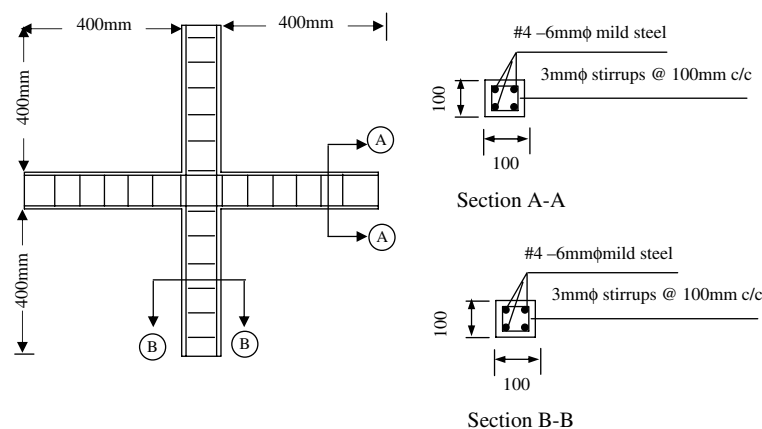


Fig. 1. Specimen with ductile joint reinforcement.

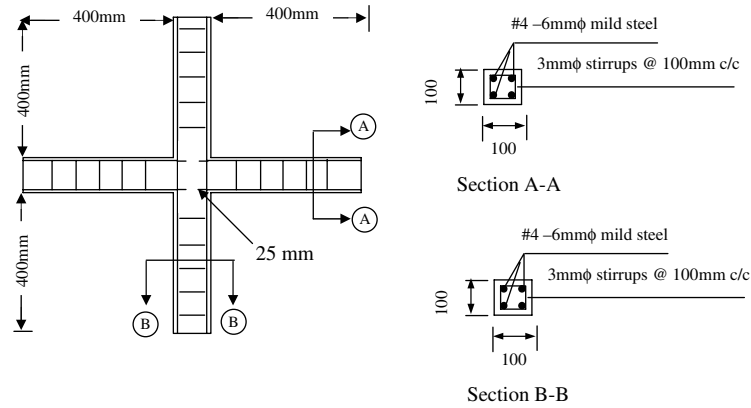


Fig. 2. Specimen with non-ductile joint reinforcement.

Table 1  
Properties of materials

Material	Effective thickness (mm)	Ultimate strength (MPa)	Tensile modulus (GPa)	Ultimate strain
Glass—G (fiber)	0.36	2250	70	0.0239
Carbon—C (fiber)	0.11	3500	230	0.0117
Carbon plate—CP (composite)	1.2	2800	165	0.017
Mild steel longitudinal reinforcement	6mm dia	275	198	0.045
Mild steel transverse reinforcement	3mm dia	555.13	193	0.043

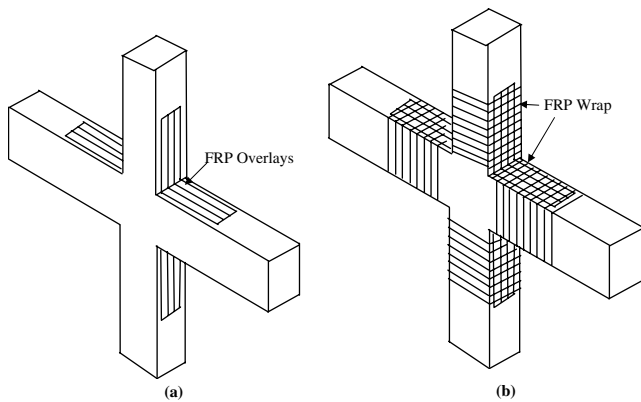


Fig. 3. Type A strengthening system—use of composite overlays.

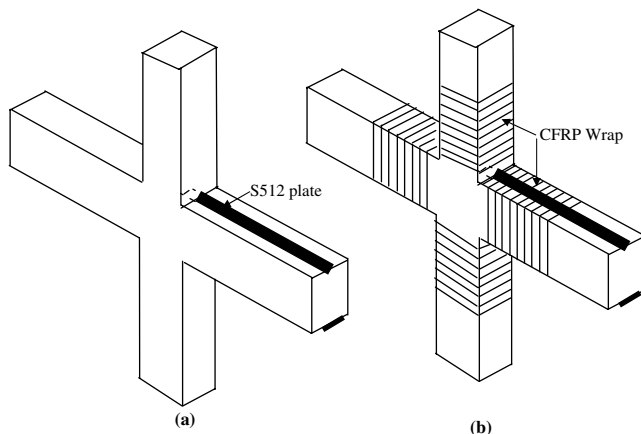


Fig. 4. Type B strengthening system—use of precured carbon plate.

layers. In step 1 FRP has been applied on the top and bottom surfaces concrete surfaces. The fibers were along the axes of the members (Fig. 3a). Subsequently, FRP wraps were provided over the inner layers (Fig. 3b). The direction of fibers in wraps was perpendicular to the axis of the members.

Each joint was used for two different lay ups. Fig. 5a shows glass fiber sheets (80mm wide and 250mm long) on either side of the joint. On one side only one layer is provided. On the other side two layers of FRP have been provided to evaluate the efficacy of different extents of upgradation. Both the column and the beam are then wrapped by unidirectional glass fibers with 100mm lap length as shown in step 2 of Fig. 5. Same configuration is repeated using carbon fiber sheet using 1 and 2 layers of overlays and single wrap with 100mm overlap. Both adequate and deficient joints were reinforced using this configuration.

#### 2.4. Type B: reinforcement with plates

In this type, procured carbon plate (25mm wide and 1.2mm thick) have been used in the beams to improve bending stiffness. To achieve a good bond between the plate and the concrete beam at the joint a groove (25mm wide and 25mm deep) has been created inside the concrete joint. The plates have been inserted into the joint as shown in Fig. 6. The groove was left in the specimens at the time of casting. Surfaces of the concrete specimens were prepared as discussed earlier. The

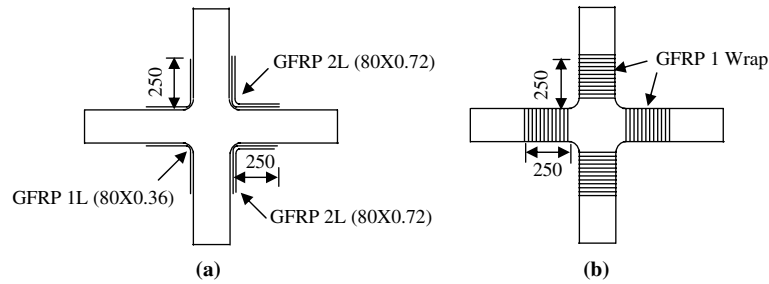


Fig. 5. Strengthening Type A with GFRP/CFRP Sheets.

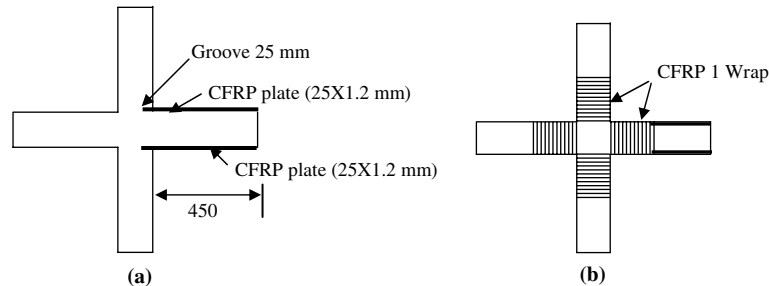


Fig. 6. Strengthening Type B.

groove was filled by injecting epoxy resin, and the plates were inserted in groove as shown in step 1 of Fig. 6. The beams and columns were then wrapped using a single wrap of carbon sheet.

### 2.5. Rehabilitated specimens

The control specimens without FRP were used after testing to evaluate the rehabilitation of joints with FRP. From the failed specimens loose concrete was removed and the cracks and voids were filled with epoxy and sand mortar. The smooth surfaces were restored prior to the application of FRP. Grooves were cut up to 25 mm depth using a rotary concrete cutter. Type B strengthening system with precured carbon plates was used.

The detailed test matrix for adequate and deficient specimens is presented in Tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Table 2  
Test matrix for ductile specimen

S. no.	Specimen name	Details
1	D-1	–
2	G1L-D	Type A with single L of GFRP at top and bottom
3	G2L-D	Type A with two L of GFRP at top and bottom
4	C1L-D	Type A with single L of CFRP at top and bottom
5	C2L-D	Type A with two L of CFRP at top and bottom
6	CP1-D	Type B with CFRP plate at top and bottom
7	Rehab.	Type B with CFRP plate at top and bottom

Table 3  
Test matrix for non-ductile specimen

S. no.	Specimen name	Details
1.	ND-1	–
2	G1L-ND	Type A with single L of GFRP at top and bottom
3	G2L-ND	Type A with two L of GFRP at top and bottom
4	C1L-ND	Type A with single L of CFRP at top and bottom
5	C2L-ND	Type A with two L of CFRP at top and bottom
6	CP1-D	Type B with CFRP plate at top and bottom

### 2.6. Test program

The experimental setup is as shown in Fig. 7. The column was fixed at its ends on a loading frame. It was subjected to a constant axial load of 100 kN which is 50% of ultimate load carrying capacity of the column. This is considered the service load that the column is expected to carry under normal loading conditions.

Cyclic load was applied using a hydraulic actuator. The load cycle was predefined as shown in Fig. 8. The displacement started from the neutral position and it oscillated harmonically about that position. It increased at a uniform rate 0.25 mm/cycle. Each cycle comprises of three full waves of same amplitude in 10 s (0.3 Hz. frequency). The final tip deflection was 22.5 mm. The other end of the beam was free. Vertical deflection of the tip of the beam was recorded directly by the linear variable displacement transducer (LVDT) built in the actuator. It was validated with another external LVDT. The data were collected using a computerized data acquisition system.

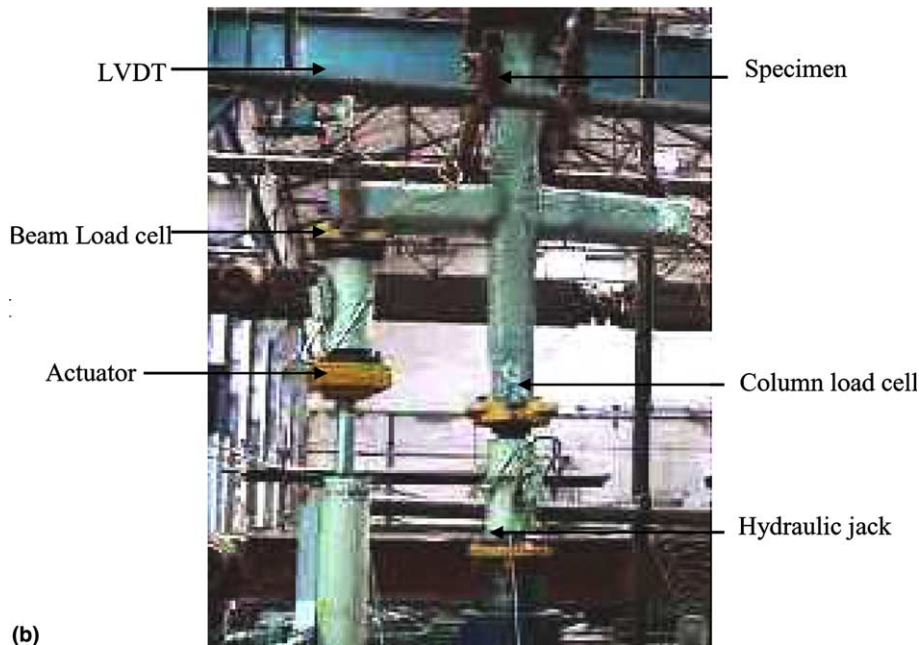
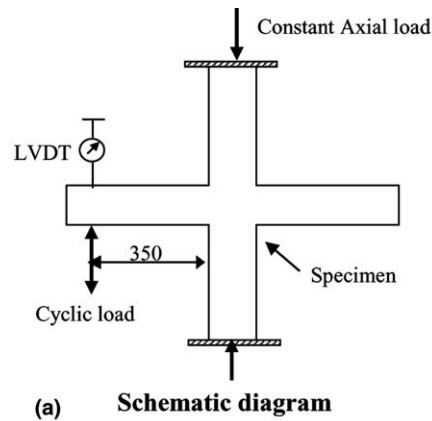


Fig. 7. Experimental setup.

### 3. Results and discussion

The beam tip load–displacement characteristics for all the specimens are discussed here. The displacement levels of the first few cycles did not generate any nonlinear deformation in the structure and the loops followed a straight line with its slope as initial stiffness. The onset of stiffness degradation was identified by simultaneous appearance of tension cracks at the root of the cantilever beam. The calculations show that at this point the steel started to yield and it was not capable of taking any further load. The additional load from this point was carried by the FRP. At this point linearity of the ascending and the descending paths was lost and loops between the two paths appeared. We term this phenomenon *yield*. The post yield behavior is signified by monotonic degradation of stiffness. To enable comparison among

different systems studied here the tip load–displacement envelopes are plotted by joining the peaks of consecutive loops. These plots have better clarity. The rate of stiffness degradation can also be found out from these plots.

Ability of the structure to survive an earthquake depends to a large extent on its ability to dissipate the input energy. Forms of *energy dissipation* include kinetic energy, viscous damping and hysteretic damping, etc. An estimate of the hysteretic damping can be found by the area enclosed in the load–displacement hysteresis loops. It may be noted that a wider loop (i.e. a large difference in ordinates in the ascending and the descending paths) would signify higher hysteretic damping. Cumulative energy dissipated was then calculated by summing up the energy dissipated in consecutive loops through out the test. Failure modes for different specimens are also discussed.

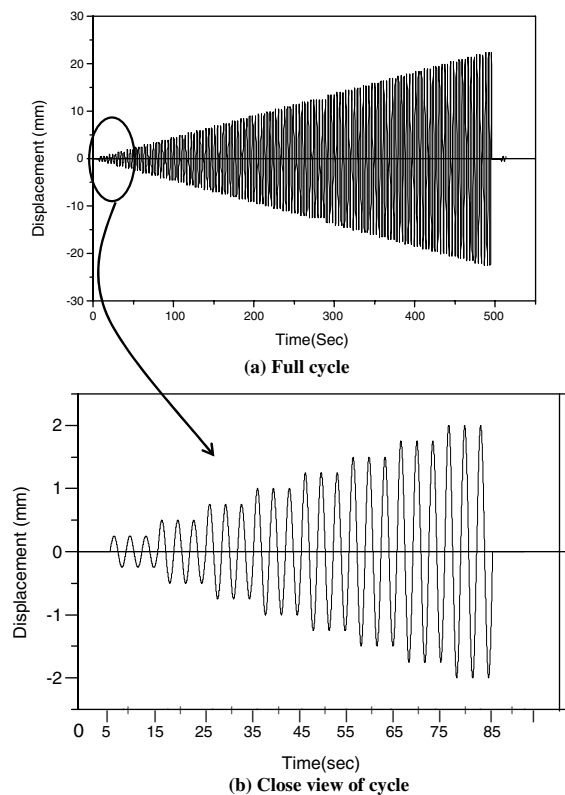


Fig. 8. Predefined displacement cycle applied to beam end.

### 3.1. Ductile specimens

Beam tip load–displacement graphs for the ductile specimens are plotted in Fig. 9. From the graphs it can be seen that the load at yield was considerably higher in the FRP reinforced specimens than the control specimen. Column 3 of Table 4 summarizes the percentage increase in the yield load. The CP1-D exhibited the highest increase in the yield load followed by the C2L-D, G1L-D and G2L-D specimens. It may be noted that the forces at the tensile face of the beam are shared by the steel and FRP in proportion of their relative stiffnesses. The stiffness of carbon is considerably higher than that of glass. Therefore, for the same tip load, the tensile force in steel is lower in the carbon reinforced specimen than in the glass reinforced specimens. As a result, the steel in the carbon reinforced specimens yields at higher tip loads. The CP1-D specimens are anchored at the joint through a groove. Therefore, they exhibit higher stiffness than other sheet specimens. The specimens with two-layer reinforcement had higher yield loads than the specimens with one layer reinforcements.

Due to FRP reinforcements the displacement at yield increased to a much lesser extent than the load (Column 5, Table 4). Another interesting point is that the glass reinforced specimens had much higher displacement at yield than the carbon reinforced specimens. This is due to the higher stiffness of carbon than that of glass. The

ultimate strain in glass is also considerably higher than that in carbon. The CP1 specimens do not follow that trend. The authors believe that better bonding of CP1 specimens through grooves has delayed the onset of yield in them.

The load–displacement envelopes for ductile specimen are plotted in Fig. 10. The envelopes let us compare the relative performance of the specimens. All the FRP reinforced specimens had higher peak loads than the control specimen. The CP1 specimen had the highest peak load followed by the C2L, G2L and G1L specimens. The graph shows the superiority of Type-B arrangement over Type-A reinforcements.

The rate of stiffness degradation is plotted in Fig. 11. All the FRP reinforced specimens had a total loss of stiffness at a higher displacement level than the control specimen. This is a highly desirable phenomenon because the joint collapse can be deferred through FRP reinforcement. The carbon specimens have higher initial stiffness and slower rate of degradation. The CP1 specimens showed some initial gain in stiffness. The authors believe that this is due to the rearrangement in the adhesively bonded groove. The initial stiffness and the ultimate displacements are summarized in Table 5.

The overall performance of the joints can be summarized by the energy dissipation of the structure. The cumulative energy dissipation graphs for the specimens are presented in Fig. 12. The energy dissipation of the FRP reinforced specimens follows closely that of the control specimen. The dissipation of energy is mainly through the yielding of steel. It may be remembered that the FRPs remain elastic until failure. Therefore, not much dissipation of energy is expected through the deformation of the FRP. The only agent of energy dissipation in FRP at this stage is debonding and delamination and the resulting Coulomb damping. However, the FRPs have increased the ultimate deformation of the structure to a large extent. Through higher deformation the FRP reinforced structures have exhibited much higher dissipation of energy. The reasons of higher ultimate deformation in FRP reinforced specimens will be discussed in conjunction with the failure mode. The carbon specimens exhibited higher energy dissipation than the glass specimens.

The photographs of the failed specimens have been presented in Fig. 13. In Fig. 13a the failed control specimen is shown. It may be noted that the beam has failed at the joint through the formation of a hinge. The hinge has formed between the two shear links of the beam. The concrete has spalled in such a fashion that two semi-circular surfaces have been created. This has resulted in free rotation of the beam limb with no transfer of bending moment to the column. The reinforcements have been exposed due to spalling of concrete. This has resulted in kinking of the reinforcements. Due to spalling the cracks were too wide and therefore, they did not come in contact in compression. The FRP reinforced

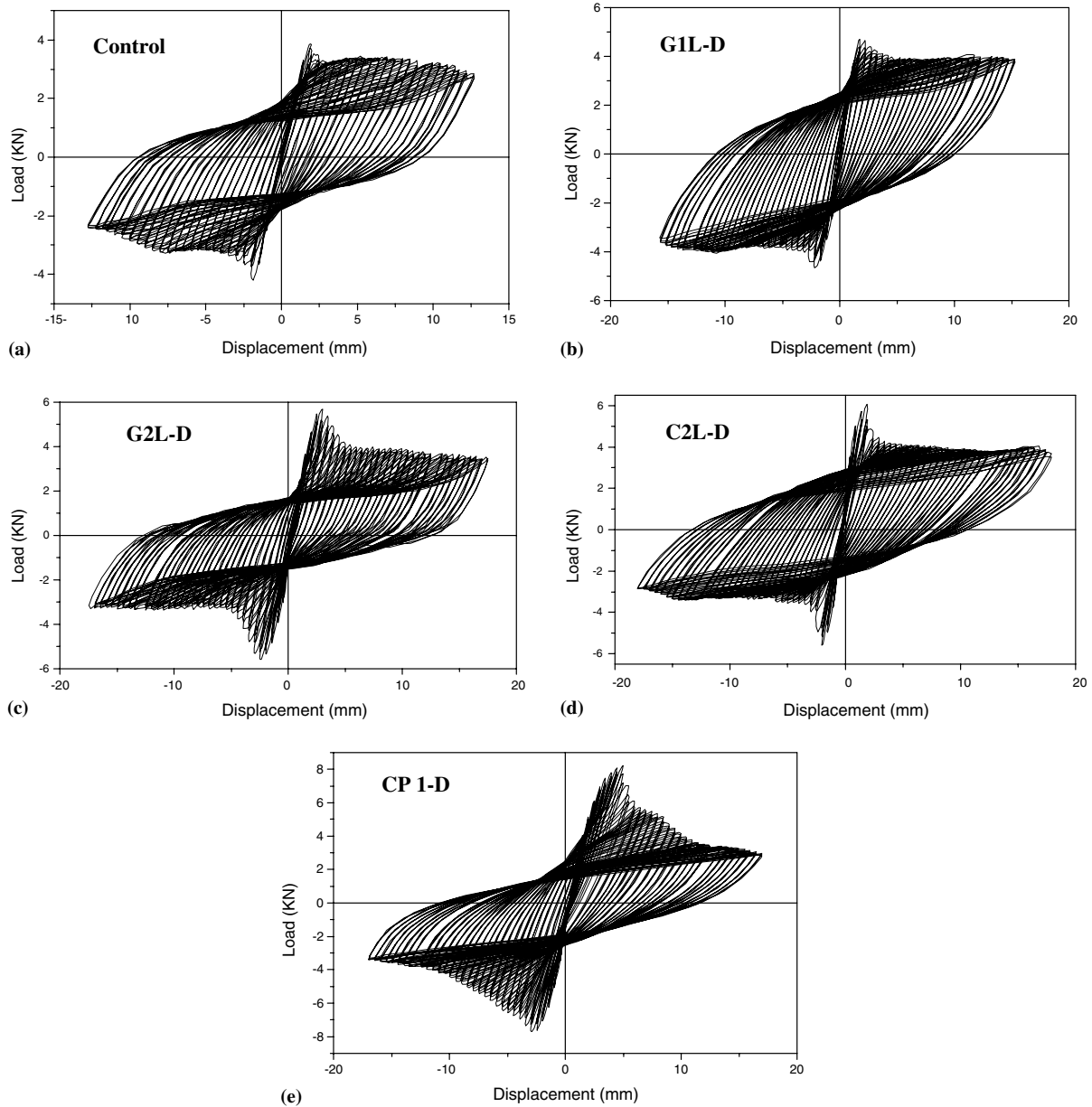


Fig. 9. Load versus deflection for different non-ductile specimens.

Table 4  
Yield points of ductile specimens

Specimen	Yield load (N)		Deflection at yield load (mm)	
	Value	% increase	Value	% increase
Control	3.8	–	1.9	–
	–4.15	–	–1.86	–
G1L-D	4.61	21.32	1.71	–10.00
	–4.65	12.05	–2.14	15.05
G2L-D	5.64	48.42	3.02	58.95
	–5.54	33.49	–2.44	31.18
C2L-D	6.0	57.89	1.84	–3.16
	–5.53	33.25	–2.0	7.53
CP1-D	8.215	116.18	4.975	161.84
	–7.67	84.82	–2.87	54.3

specimens, on the other hand, did not have the semicircular failure planes. The failure planes were approximately vertical (Fig. 13b–d). The authors believe that the difference in the failure mode is due to the presence of the FRP wraps. They confined the concrete and did not allow it to spall. As a result, in cyclic opening and closing of cracks the crack surfaces could react against each other in compression. Therefore, the moment resistance of the beam was not lost. This offered higher collapse loads and displacement. To summarize, the main cause of superior performance of the FRP reinforced joints is the continuous confinement provided by the FRP wraps impeded the creation of hinge through the spalling of concrete.

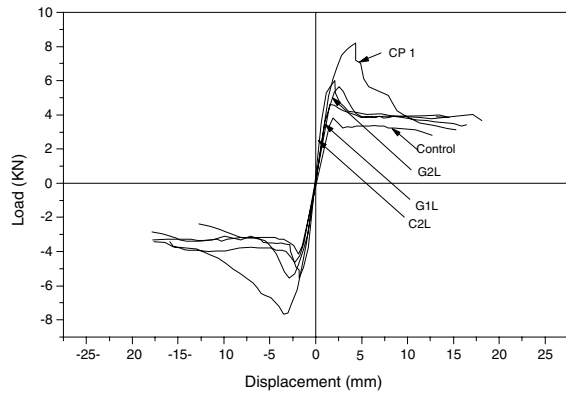


Fig. 10. Load versus deflection envelope plots for ductile specimens.

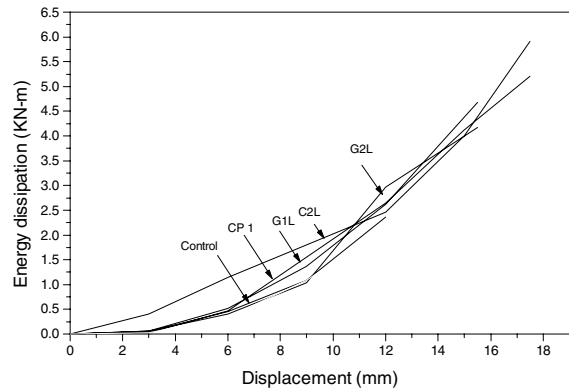


Fig. 12. Energy dissipation versus displacement plots for ductile specimens.

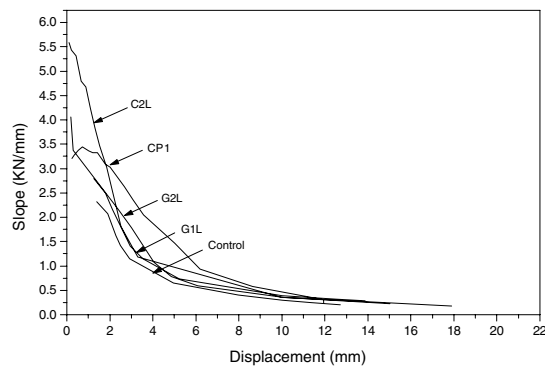


Fig. 11. Stiffness versus deflection plots for ductile specimens.

Fig. 13d shows the failure of CP1 specimens. In this case the CFRP plates were adhesively bonded into the joint by inserting them inside a groove at the joint. The figure shows that the carbon plates have pulled out of the joint and there is no damage to the plate. A thin layer of cement paste is on the surface of the pulled out portion. This shows that the pullout was due to the failure of the cement paste in the groove. The authors expect that this mode will change when larger specimens would be tested; because then the groove

could be created through large aggregates. The mechanical anchorage of the large aggregate would help increasing the pull out forces. However, this point needs to be verified through tests. Another difference in these specimens is that the steel reinforcements had torn completely through cup and cone formation. This shows that the deformations in CP1 specimens were large enough to reach the ultimate strain of steel. As a result, the ultimate failure of the joint was not due to the yielding of steel but the pull out of the CFRP plate.

### 3.2. Rehabbed specimens

A beam tip load–displacement relationship for undamaged ductile specimen and rehabbed specimen is plotted in Fig. 14. Also the load versus displacement envelopes for the same specimens are plotted in Fig. 15. It shows that the use of composite system did not only restore the original capacity of damaged specimen, but also upgraded the ultimate load capacity by 55%. Also displacement at ultimate load increased by 30%. Stiffness versus displacement curves (Fig. 16) show that there is 48% increase in initial stiffness. An increment of 57% is observed in energy dissipation capacity of

Table 5  
Ultimate points in ductile specimens

Specimen	Initial stiffness		Ultimate deflection		Energy dissipation capacity (KNm)	
	Value (KN/mm)	% increase	Value (mm)	% increase	Value	% increase
Control	2.32	–	12.7 –12.73	–	2.37	–
G1L-D	2.80	17.14	14.56 –15.86	14.65 24.59	4.68	97.47
G2L-D	4.06	75.00	16.41 –17.78	29.21 39.67	4.18	76.37
C2L-D	5.59	140.94	18.14 –17.86	42.83 40.30	5.96	151.48
CP1-D	3.28	41.37	15.32 –17.61	20.63 38.42	5.21	119.83



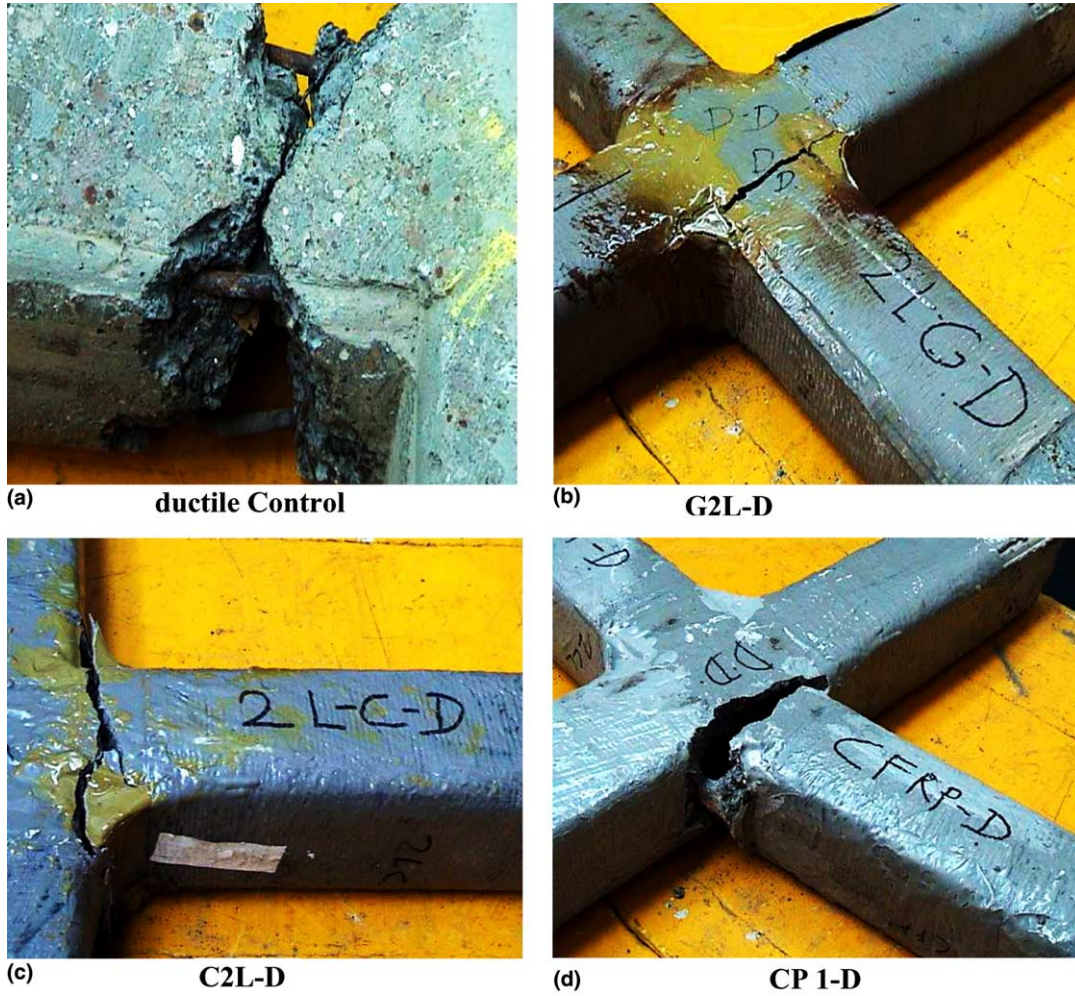


Fig. 13. Failure patterns for ductile specimens.

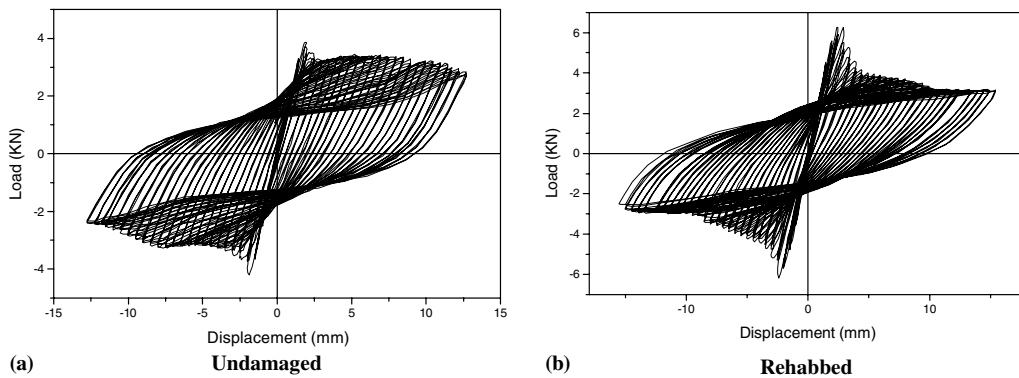


Fig. 14. Load versus deflection for undamaged and rehabbed specimens.

structure after the rehabilitation (Fig. 17). The detailed results of rehabbed specimen are given in Tables 6 and 7.

### 3.3. Non-ductile specimens

Beam tip load–displacement graphs for the non-ductile specimens are plotted in Fig. 18. From the graphs it

can be seen that the load at yield was considerably higher in the FRP reinforced specimens than the control specimen. Column 3 of Table 8 summarizes the percentage increase in the yield load. The G2L-ND exhibited the highest increase in the yield load followed by the C2L-ND, CP1-ND and C1L-ND specimens. The specimens with two-layer reinforcement had higher

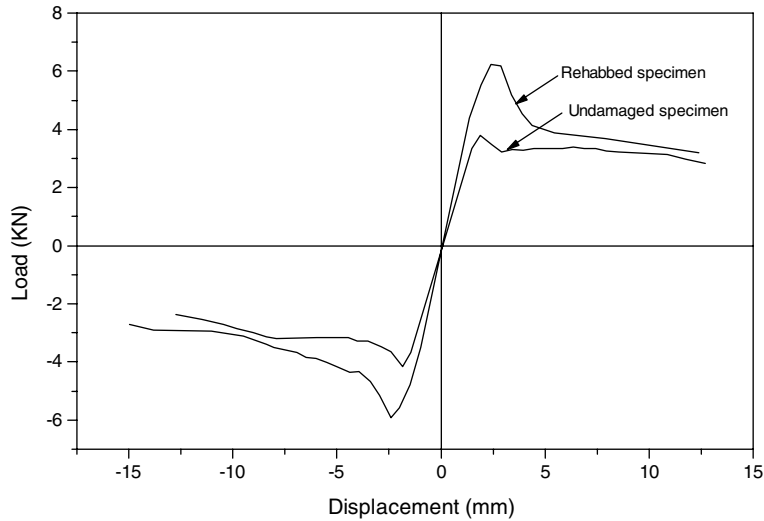


Fig. 15. Load versus deflection envelope plots for rehabbed and undamaged specimen.

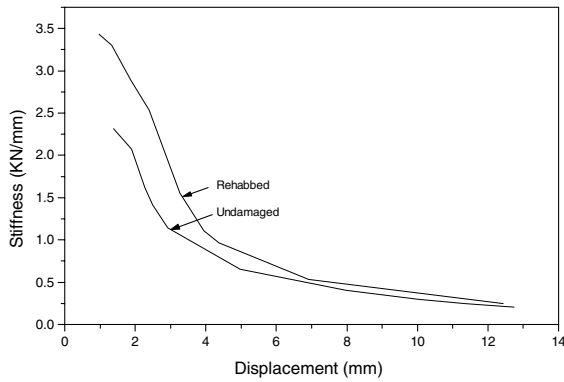


Fig. 16. Stiffness versus deflection plots for undamaged and rehabbed Specimens.

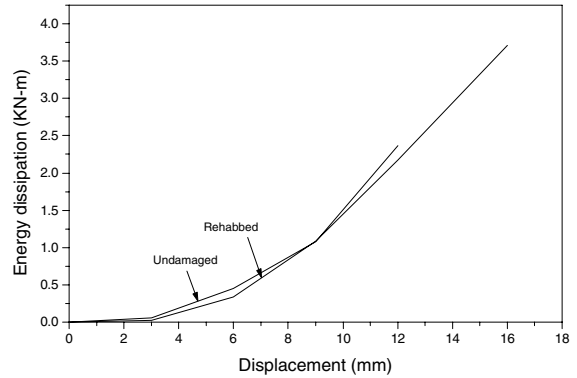


Fig. 17. Energy dissipation versus deflection plots for undamaged and rehabbed specimens.

Table 6  
Yield points of undamaged and rehabilitated specimens

Strengthening configuration	Yield load		Deflection at yield load	
	Value (N)	% increase	Value (mm)	% increase
Undamaged	3.8	–	1.9	–
	–4.15		–1.86	
Rehabbed	6.31	66.05	2.46	29.47
	–5.97	43.86	–2.42	30.11

Table 7  
Ultimate points in undamaged and rehabilitated specimens

Specimen	Initial stiffness		Ultimate deflection		Energy dissipation capacity (kNm)	
	Value (kN/mm)	% increase	Value (mm)	% increase	Value	% increase
Control	2.32	–	12.7	–	2.37	–
			–12.73			
Rehabbed	3.43	47.84	12.38	–2.52	3.71	56.54
			–14.97	17.6		

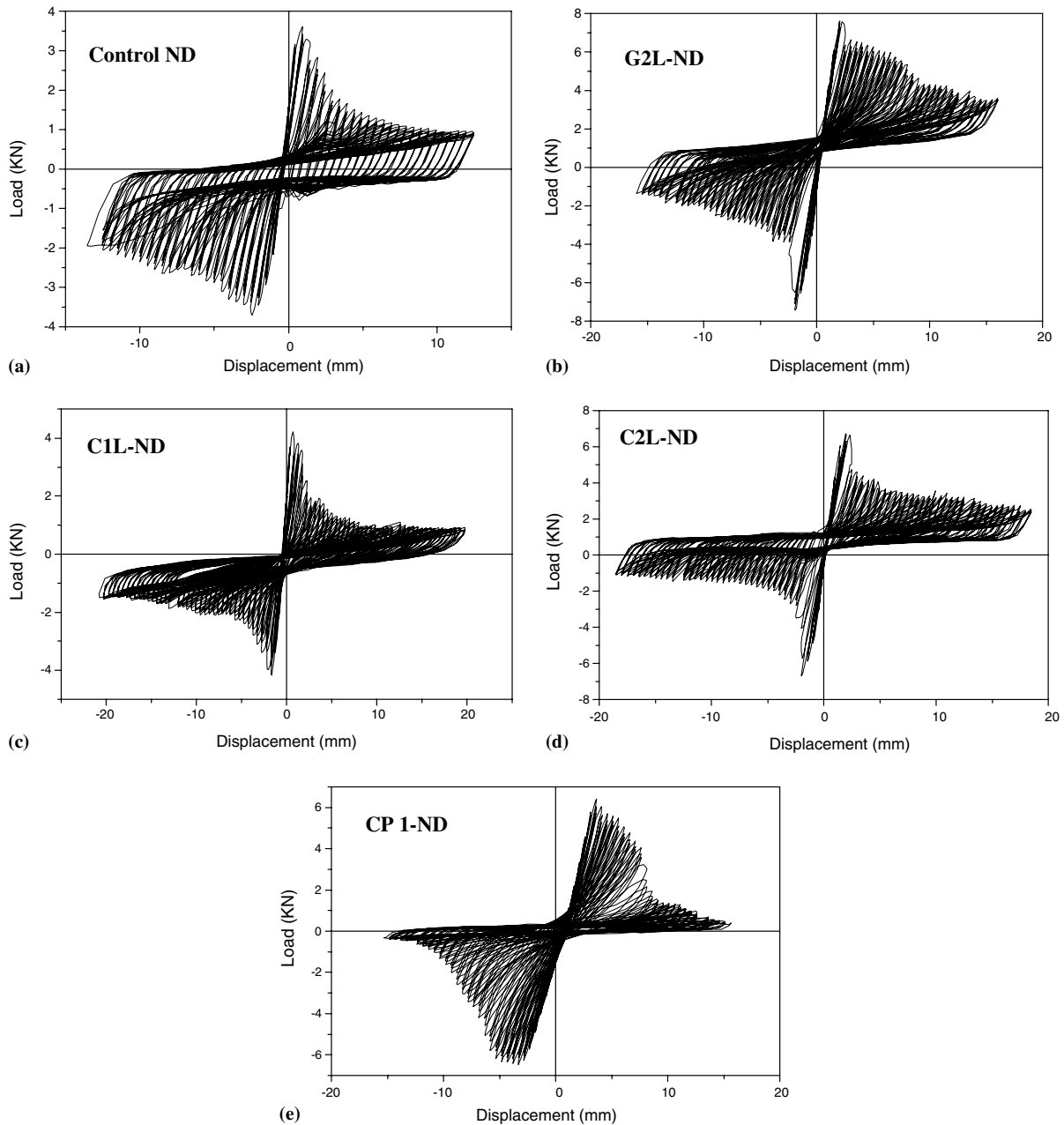


Fig. 18. Load versus deflection for different non-ductile specimens.

yield loads than the specimens with one layer reinforcements.

Due to FRP reinforcements the displacement at yield increased to a much lesser extent than the load (Column 5, Table 8). Similar to the previous ductile specimens the glass reinforced specimens had a much higher displacement at yield than the carbon reinforced specimens. The CP1-ND specimens do not follow that trend. The authors believe that better bonding of CP1-ND specimens through grooves has delayed the onset of yield in them.

The load–displacement envelopes for the ductile specimens are plotted in Fig. 19. The envelopes let us com-

pare the relative performance of the specimens. All the FRP reinforced specimens had larger areas under the envelopes than the control specimen. The G2L-ND specimen had the largest envelope area followed by the C2L-ND, CP1-ND and C1L-ND specimens. The graph shows superiority of glass reinforcements over carbon reinforcement in case of non-ductile specimen.

The rate of stiffness degradation is plotted in Fig. 20. All the FRP reinforced specimens had a total loss of stiffness at a higher displacement level than the control specimen. This is a highly desirable phenomenon because the joint collapse can be deferred through FRP reinforcement. The glass specimens have higher initial

Table 8  
Test results for non-ductile specimens

Specimens	Yield load		Deflection at yield load	
	Value (N)	% increase	Value (mm)	% increase
Control-ND	3.73	–	1.64	–
G2L-ND	–3.6	–	–1.70	–
	7.6	103.75	1.829	15.24
C1L-ND	–7.43	106.38	2.195	29.11
	4.2	12.60	1.34	–18.29
C2L-ND	–4.14	10.99	–1.46	–14.11
	6.69	79.36	1.71	4.27
CP1-ND	–6.67	85.28	–2.1	23.53
	6.28	68.36	2.92	78.05
	–6.39	77.5	–4.02	136.47

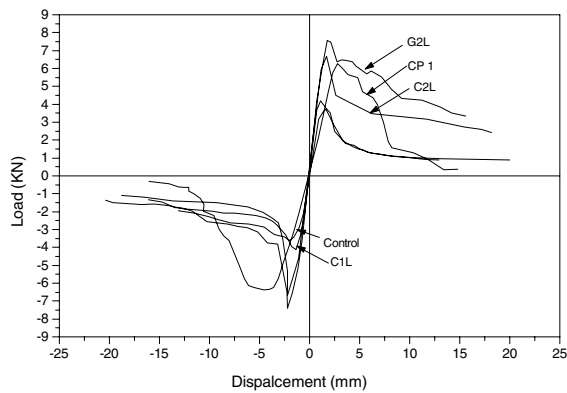


Fig. 19. Load versus deflection envelope plots for non-ductile specimens.

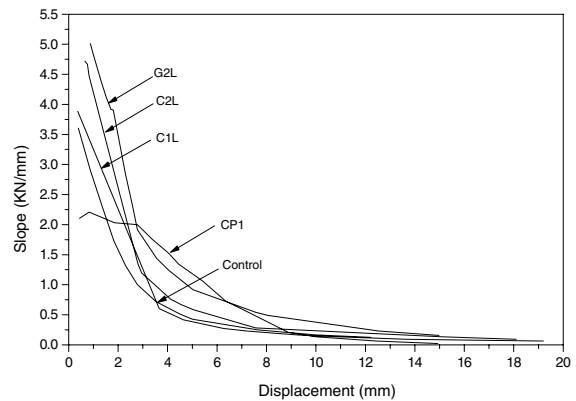


Fig. 20. Stiffness versus deflection plots for non-ductile specimens.

stiffness and slower rate of degradation. The CP1 specimens showed highest stiffness between displacement levels of 3–6 mm. The authors believe that this is due to the rearrangement in the adhesively bonded groove. The initial stiffness and the ultimate displacements are summarized in Table 9.

The overall performance of the joints can be summarized by the energy dissipation of the structure. The

cumulative energy dissipation graphs for the specimens are presented in Fig. 21. The energy dissipation of the FRP reinforced specimens follows closely that of the control specimen. The dissipation of energy is mainly through the yielding of steel. In absence of adequate development length considerable loss in energy dissipation capacity of control specimen is observed. FRPs have increased the ultimate deformation of the structure

Table 9  
Ultimate points in non-ductile specimens

Specimen	Initial stiffness		Ultimate deflection		Energy dissipation capacity (KN m)	
	Value (KN/mm)	% increase	Value (mm)	% increase	Value	% increase
Control-ND	3.57	–	12.81	–	0.695	–
G2L-ND	5.05	41.46	–13.11	–	2.196	215.97
			15.43	20.45		
C1L-ND	3.91	9.52	–16.04	–	1.42	104.32
			19.87	55.11		
C2L-ND	4.73	32.49	–20.30	–	1.47	111.51
			18.11	41.37		
CP1-ND	2.1	–41.17	–18.72	–	1.116	60.57
			14.87	16.08		
			–15.01	14.49		

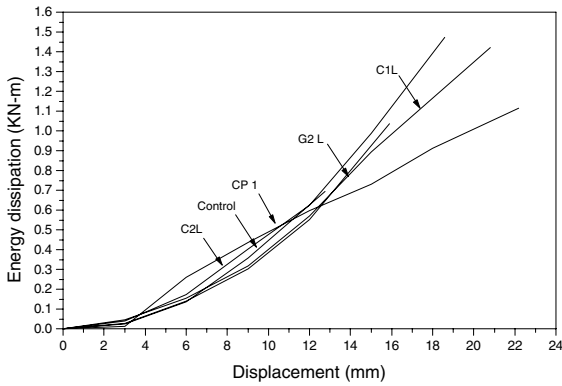


Fig. 21. Energy dissipation versus displacement plots for non-ductile specimens.

to a large extent. Through higher deformation the FRP reinforced structures have exhibited much higher dissipation of energy. The reasons of higher ultimate deformation in FRP reinforced specimens will be discussed in conjunction with the failure mode. The glass reinforced specimens exhibited higher energy dissipation than the carbon-reinforced specimens. The relative increase in energy dissipation capacity is more in case of non-ductile specimen over the ductile specimen, due to lower energy dissipation capacity of control specimen.

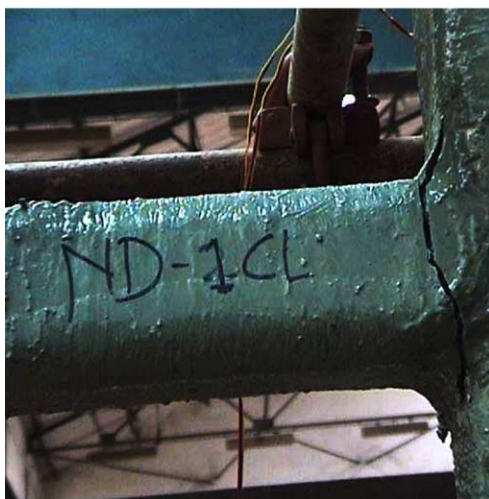
The photographs of the failed specimens have been presented in Fig. 22. In Fig. 22a the failed control specimen is shown. It may be noted that the beam has failed



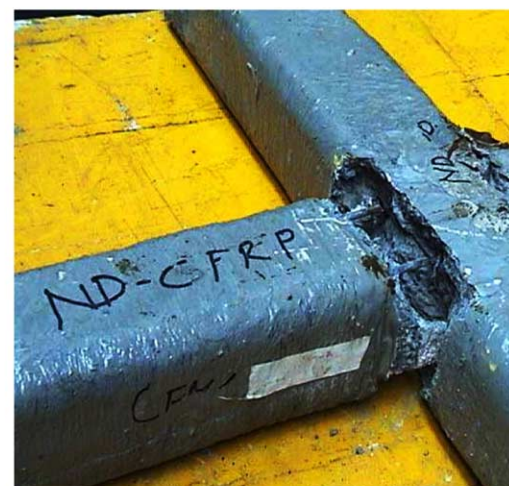
(a) Non-ductile control



(b) G2L-ND



(c) C1L-ND



(d) CP 1-ND specimen

Fig. 22. Failure patterns for non-ductile specimens.

at the joint by pull out of steel reinforcement. Lack of development length prevented the formation of plastic hinge. The FRP reinforced specimens, on the other hand, did not have the reinforcement pull out. The failure planes were approximately vertical (Fig. 22b–d). The authors believe that the difference in the failure mode is due to the presence of the FRP overlays and wraps. They confined the concrete and did not allow it to spall. FRP Overlays helped to hold the beam in its position. As a result, the cracked concrete surfaces closed and they could react against each other at subsequent cycles. Therefore, the moment resistance of the beam was not lost. This offered higher collapse loads and displacement. To summarize, the main cause of superior performance of the FRP reinforced joints is the continuous confinement provided by the FRP wraps and overlays impeded the pull out of reinforcement through the inadequately detailed specimens.

Fig. 22d shows the failure of CP1-ND specimens. The failure pattern is similar to its counterpart ductile specimen discussed previously. The figure shows that both the CFRP plates and steel reinforcement have pulled out of the joint and there is no damage to the plate. A thin layer of cement paste is on the surface of the pulled out portion. This shows that the pullout was due to the failure of the cement paste in the groove. As a result, the ultimate failure of the joint was due to the pull out of both the steel bars and the CFRP plate.

#### 4. Conclusions

Both glass and carbon composite materials can be efficiently used for seismic retrofitting as well as rehabilitation of reinforced concrete joints. Joints exhibit enhanced strength regardless of reinforcement detailing and damage state. Considerable increase in yield load can be achieved by use of these materials. Yield load and initial stiffness depends on numbers of overlays provided in the joint area. Specimens strengthened using CFRPs show stiffer behavior than GFRP strengthened specimens. Energy dissipation capacity can be increased with the use of small amount of composites. Test on rehabbed specimen suggests that FRP not only restores its original strength but there is considerable enhancement in its yield load, initial stiffness and energy dissipation capacity.

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