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Consistent seismic hazard and fragility analysis considering combined capacity-demand uncertainties via probability density evolution method

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Abstract

A consistent seismic hazard and fragility framework considering combined capacity-demand uncertainties is proposed, in light of the probability density evolution method (PDEM). The PDEM has solid theoretical basis in the reliability field, and it is integrated within the performance-based earthquake engineering (PBEE) for hazard-fragility assessment in this paper. During the analysis, the sample sets with different assigned probability are required to determine in advance, and the equivalent extreme events with virtual stochastic process are required to establish for solution. Both the uncertainties of capacity and demand are considered, and a combined performance index (CPI) is defined as concerned physical variable in PDEM, through pushover static and timehistory dynamic analyses. A non-stationary stochastic earthquake model is introduced using spectral representation of random functions, and the real characteristics of ground motions are reflected by one or two variables for each probability space. The peak ground acceleration (PGA) and spectral acceleration of the first period [$S_a(T_1)$] of non-stationary stochastic ground motions are then obtained for each earthquake level, and the equivalent extreme events are also performed to discuss the statistical information of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ through PDEM. The exceeding probability of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for each earthquake level is acquired, and a connection between the fragility value and hazard extent is built. The final 3D consistent hazard-fragility curves are then given, and the exceeding probability for different limit states, earthquake levels as well as intensity exceeding conditions can be predicted. Moreover, a comparison with the four classic approaches in the state-of-the-art is performed to verify the accuracy of PDEM procedure. In general, the framework avoids the pre-defined lognormal fragility shape and proves the combined efficiency and accuracy with the Monte Carlo simulation (MCS). The consistency from probabilistic hazard to fragility is realized without re-selecting earthquake waves, which is mainly attributed to the application of PDEM and non-stationary ground motions. The proposed framework provides new ideas for the consistent non-parametric hazard and fragility assessment scheme in the PBEE.

Keywords: Probabilistic performance, Seismic fragility, Seismic hazard, Stochastic earthquake, Structural assessment, PDEM

1. Introduction

2 With the development of performance-based earthquake engineering (PBEE) in seismic community in
3 recent decades, researchers are focusing more on the service-period capacity and life-cycle maintenance of

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4 engineering structures, more than the instantaneous structural behaviors. At this stage, the risk-based
5 PBEE framework has received extensive attention, which obtains quantitative data of earthquake damage
6 at various levels and other undesirable consequences based on the full probability theory. The risk-based
7 PBEE framework was proposed by Cornel et al. [1], and the framework takes risk assessment as output,
8 which is very important for strategy formulating before hazards and decision making after hazards, so as to
9 reduce the earthquake losses of all parties [2, 3].

10 In the risk-based PBEE framework, the first step is the probabilistic seismic hazard analysis (PSHA),
11 which refers to the evaluation of the probability level of different earthquake impacts that the engineering
12 construction site may be subjected to in different years in the future [4]. The earthquake impacts can be
13 generally expressed as intensity measures such as ground motion acceleration (PGA) and spectral accelera-
14 tion of the first period [$S_a(T_1)$]. McGuire [5] reviewed the early history of PSHA and mentioned that it is
15 the basis for seismic design of engineering structures from common buildings to critical facilities. Tothong
16 et al. [6] extended the PSHA concept and incorporated the occurring possibility of velocity pulse in the
17 near-fault earthquake. The disaggregation of PSHA explained the probability caused by pulse-like compo-
18 nents and the conditional distribution associated with the pulse period. The research provided basis for
19 appropriate earthquake selections in near-fault zones and improved the PSHA accuracy. Iervolino et al.
20 [7] performed the aftershock PSHA to evaluate the short-term risk management of structures, conditional
21 to mainshock events. The combining results for mainshockaftershocks seismic sequences were also derived
22 to realize a seismic hazard integral, which helped to evaluate the hazard occurrence rate of exceeding a
23 specific limitation. Convertito and Herrero discussed [8] the seismic focal mechanism and source parameters
24 in PSHA, and a theoretical corrective coefficient for different faulting types was analyzed through the atten-
25 uation law. The results concluded the significance of seismic strike-slip activity in hazard assessment and
26 compared with the regular faulting events through an application. In addition, Rahman et al. [9], Bhatti
27 et al. [10], Ebrahimian et al. [11], Mahsuli et al. [12], Stirling et al. [13] performed the PSHA of different
28 countries such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, Italy, Iran and New Zealand, and recommended the corresponding
29 earthquake selection strategy in align with the country codes.

30 Although the current seismic hazard analyses can evaluate the earthquake intensities with different ex-
31 ceeding probabilities for a certain time period and specific site, a noteworthy issue during the process is
32 the selection of ground motions and the uncertainty transmission from hazards to structures. Under the
33 present probabilistic framework, the earthquakes adopted for PSHA generally differ from the earthquakes
34 used for fragility analysis, which indicates that a re-selecting procedure of ground motions is commonly
35 needed for structural dynamic analysis to acquire the performance index as well as to establish the seismic
36 fragility curves. Therefore, the probability relationship from hazard to fragility is not consistent and it is
37 difficult to directly meet the conditional probability in the full-probability formula of the risk-based PBEE
38 framework. How to choose appropriate ground motions in seismic fragility analysis has become a long-term
39 unresolved problem. With the development of stochastically generated ground motion in seismic risk assess-
40 ment procedure, its applicability and superiority has been gradually recognized. Commonly, a stochastic
41 earthquake model can characterize the stochastic process via a few variables and parameters, which criti-
42 cally incorporates the concerned factors and efficiently simplifies the excitation procedure. In this way, the
43 stochastically generated ground motions can be well adopted into the PBEE framework for probabilistic
44 evaluation. Jalayer and Beck [14] adopted seismic source parameters and proposed a stochastic earthquake
45 model to realize the entire probabilistic time-history representation. Subset simulation was combined to
46 derive small failure probabilities under different limit states, and the influence of two alternative represen-
47 tations of earthquake uncertainty was well compared via practical hazard cases. Rezaeian and Kiureghian
48 [15] introduced a procedure of stochastically generated ground motions under specified site characteristics,
49 and a parameterized stochastic model in light of white-noise process was well realized. A series of the s-
50 tochastic model factors were ideally identified, including the fundamental frequency, acceleration bandwidth,
51 and intensity tendency, which provided an important reference for the earthquake selections in probabilistic
52 performance assessment. Gidaris et al. [16] utilized the stochastic ground motions and proposed an efficient
53 probabilistic risk assessment framework. A kriging surrogate model was incorporated into the framework,
54 and a benchmark four-story frame building was well applied to verify the efficiency of stochastic ground
55 motions and the accuracy of risk assessment framework, which laid a significant basis for the subsequent

56 researches.

57 Furthermore, the second step in the risk-based PBEE framework is the probabilistic seismic fragility
58 analysis (PSFA), which refers to the evaluation in the probability of structural responses exceeding different
59 limit states under the earthquake impacts [17]. This work quantitatively describes the seismic performance
60 of engineering structures in a probabilistic sense, and reflects the relationship between the intensity of ground
61 motion and the degree of structural damage from a macro perspective [18, 19]. The conventional empiri-
62 cal PSFA is established based on the previous seismic survey data and is generally used for performance
63 evaluation of group buildings in a regional range. At this stage, the analytical PSFA is the mostly adopted
64 approach, and a lognormal distribution assumption is commonly adopted for both structural capacity and
65 demand. After performing a series of incremental dynamic analyses or multiple stripe analyses, the engi-
66 neering demand parameters such as the maximum drift ratios are acquired, and the analytical fragilities are
67 then generated through linear regression or maximum likelihood estimation. Lupoi et al. [20] evaluated the
68 seismic fragility of realistic systems through nonlinear dynamic analyses and the probabilistic distributions
69 of structural demands were analyzed. Two applications into concrete girders and buildings verified the
70 efficiency of the method. Shinozuka et al. [21] established the analytical fragility procedure via the max-
71 imum likelihood estimation, and a lognormal distribution shape of the fragility model was analyzed with
72 two parameters. The results were compared with the empirical fragility through history data, indicating
73 an ideal matching degree. Schotanus et al. [22] developed a statistical approach for fragility estimation of
74 time-changing systems, and a statistical model was proposed to judge the limit state function of structural
75 capacity analytically. An application into three dimensional frames was carried out to verify the robustness
76 of the approach. Choi et al. [23] discussed the seismic fragility of four typical bridges through synthetic
77 earthquakes, and a first-order reliability principle was introduced to convert the individual components into
78 entire structures. The vulnerability of bridges with different spans and types was compared and concluded.
79 In addition, the PSFA into different structures and infrastructures were performed by researchers broadly,
80 such as offshore wind turbine [24], unreinforced masonry structures [25], geostructures [26], concrete dams
81 [27], external substructures [28], which predicted the tendency of structural performances under various
82 earthquake levels and provided the basis for structural risk assessments in the probability perspective.

83 Worth noticing herein is that the current procedure in the PSFA is commonly based on the lognormal
84 distribution assumption for variables, and this may be different with the accurate conditions. According to
85 Ning [29], the lognormal distribution assumption for engineering demand parameter is idealized and is not
86 applicable under a larger intensity condition. According to Karamlou et al. [30], the lognormal distribution
87 assumption is lack of accuracy, especially for the real environment with strong material-geometric nonlin-
88 earity. Mangalathu and Jeon [31] also carried out relevant researches of seismic fragility and pointed out
89 that the lognormal distribution assumption of variables can result in unrealistic predictions. Moreover, the
90 accuracy of fragility results under the lognormal distribution assumption is mainly related to the number
91 of samples. For instance, in the linear regression approach, the accuracy of fragility is affected by the slope
92 and intercept of the regression relationship, and the values of the two parameters can be quite different for
93 different sample number, thus the obtained fragility curve is still questionable. With the development of the
94 non-parametric PSFA, a series of non-parametric strategies in failure probability characterization have been
95 proposed by researchers, among which the probability density evolution method (PDEM) is an important
96 subdivision. The PDEM has solid theoretical basis and verified mathematical derivations in the reliability
97 field. It divides the sample space with different assigned probability, and summarizes the evolution ten-
98 dency through numerical difference. The target variables with clear physical meanings are analyzed and
99 the reliability trends with non-parametric characteristics are developed. Li et al. [32, 33] first proposed the
100 PDEM theory and established the analyzing framework for nonlinear stochastic systems. Chen et al. [34, 35]
101 developed the PDEM theory, and proposed the efficient point-selection approaches for different assigned-
102 probability space with uncertain parameters. Moreover, Fan et al. [36] introduced a Bayesian updating
103 approach for deteriorating engineering structures via PDEM, Wan et al. [37] performed the life-cycle reli-
104 ability evaluation through combining PDEM and probability measure change, Zhou and Peng [38] adopted
105 the active learning technique and enhanced the active subspace for high-dimensional reliability assessment
106 of structures via PDEM, and Feng et al. [39] proposed an enhanced PDEM and reliability procedure in-
107 corporating multiple limit states and failure patterns. However, the strategy to establish the 3D consistent

108 non-parametric seismic hazard-fragility framework via PDEM is not well researched at this stage, and the
 109 corresponding influence under the combined capacity-demand uncertainties via PDEM still requires further
 110 in-depth exploration.

111 Confronted with the above aspects, a consistent seismic hazard and fragility framework considering
 112 combined capacity-demand uncertainties is proposed in this paper, in light of the PDEM theory. The PDEM
 113 is integrated within the risk-based PBEE framework, and an equivalent extreme event with virtual stochastic
 114 process of PDEM is adopted for both PSHA and PSFA. Then a consistent three dimensional hazard-fragility
 115 relationship is established. During the process, a non-stationary stochastic earthquake model is introduced
 116 through spectral representation of random functions, and the real characteristics of ground motions are
 117 reflected by one or two variables for each probability space. The combined uncertainties of structural
 118 responses and limit states are considered for each probability space, with a combined performance index
 119 (CPI) expressed as demand minus capacity. Moreover, a comparison with the four classic approaches in the
 120 state-of-the-art is performed to verify the accuracy of PDEM procedure. In general, the framework avoids
 121 the pre-defined lognormal fragility shape and proves the combined efficiency and accuracy with the Monte
 122 Carlo simulation (MCS) [40]. Both the uncertainties of capacity, demand and earthquake are considered,
 123 and the consistency from probabilistic hazard to fragility is realized through the PDEM and non-stationary
 124 ground motions, which provides new ideas for the consistent non-parametric risk-based assessment scheme
 125 in the PBEE.

126 2. Consistent seismic hazard and fragility analysis via PDEM

127 In light of the risk-based PBEE framework with full probability theory [1], the uncertainty propagation
 128 from hazard to decision can be expressed as (Eq. 1):

$$\zeta(DV) = \int \int \int P(DV|DM) \cdot dP(DM|EDP) \cdot dP(EDP|IM) \cdot d\zeta(IM) \quad (1)$$

129 where IM is the intensity measure and denotes the hazard extent of earthquakes, EDP is the engineering
 130 demand parameter and denotes the concerned physical demand (D) of the structural system, DM is the
 131 damage measure and denotes the capacity level (C) of the structural system, DV is the decision variable and
 132 denotes the risk or loss of the integrated system. $P[X|Y]$ represents the conditional probability of variable X
 133 under the limitation Y, and $\zeta(\cdot)$ denotes the exceeding frequency of the corresponding variable for a certain
 134 time period [41].

135 In Eq. 1, the section $\zeta(IM)$ is commonly regarded as PSHA and the section $P(DM|EDP) \cdot dP(EDP|IM)$
 136 is commonly regarded as PSFA as follows (Eq. 2):

$$P(DM|IM) = \int P(DM|EDP) \cdot dP(EDP|IM) = P(D > C|IM) \quad (2)$$

137 The Eq. 2 constitutes the primary link in Eq. 1 and provides the basis for final decision making, which
 138 reflects the transmission of randomness from hazard to structure. To be specific, Eq. 2 means the seismic
 139 fragility with the exceeding probability of structural demand over structural capacity under a given earth-
 140 quake level. The uncertainty of demand (resulting from ground motions) is commonly more intense than
 141 that of structural capacity, thus a great many researches of seismic fragility neglect the capacity uncertainty
 142 for simplification. According to Yu [42], capacity uncertainty may lead to obvious difference in calculation
 143 especially for new structural type, and adopting the deterministic thresholds as recommended in codes may
 144 underestimate the structural performance level. Thus, in this paper, both the uncertainties of demand and
 145 capacity are considered. The structural demand is obtained through time history analysis, and the structural
 146 capacity is obtained through pushover analysis. Then, a combined performance index (CPI) is introduced
 147 as demand minus capacity (D-C), and Eq. 2 can be transformed into (Eq. 3):

$$P(DM|IM) = P(D - C > 0|IM) = P(CPI > 0|IM) = 1 - P(CPI \leq 0|IM) \quad (3)$$

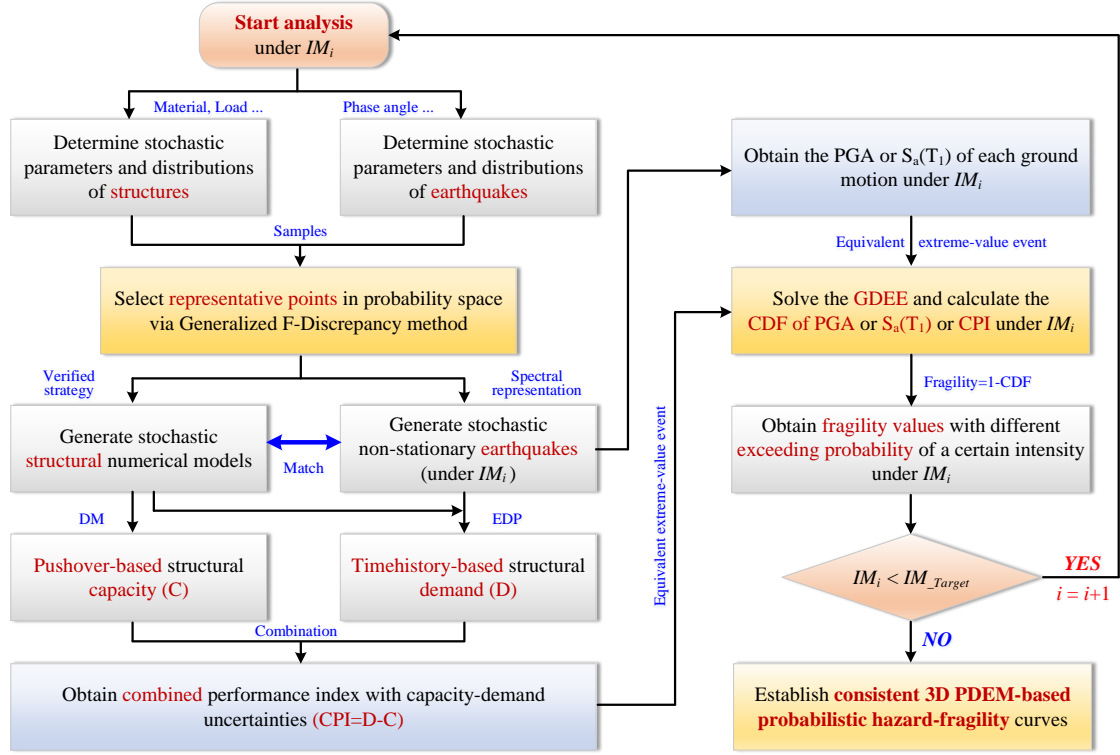


Figure 1: The flowchart of the consistent seismic hazard and fragility analysis via PDEM

148 The utilizations of combined demand-capacity functions as performance index are available in the liter-
 149 ature and can be expressed in different versions. For instance, Jalayer et al. [43, 44] adopted the demand
 150 to capacity ratio to reflect its combined influence in structural dynamic behaviors and systematic fragility
 151 assessment, and their recent research provided a comprehensive description of the reason why the use of
 152 demand to capacity ratio as performance index is indeed critically beneficial [45]. More references related
 153 to this aspect can be found in Vamvatsikos and Cornell [46], Surahman [47], and Hernandez et al. [48].
 154 According to the Eq. 3, the PSFA of a structural system is connected to the distribution of variable CPI
 155 under the earthquake level IM . More generally, for a variable X , $P(X \leq 0)$ indicates the value of cumulative
 156 distribution function (CDF) at the $X=0$, thus, Eq. 3 can be further re-written as (Eq. 4):

$$P(DM|IM) = 1 - CDF_{CPI|IM}(0) = 1 - \int_{-\infty}^0 p_{CPI|IM} \quad (4)$$

157 where $p_{CPI|IM}$ denotes the probability density function (PDF) of variable CPI under the earthquake level
 158 IM . To better reflect the PDF of the concerned variable and avoids the pre-defined shape of the distribution
 159 type, the well-known probability density evolution method (PDEM) is then introduced, which has solid
 160 theoretical basis and verified mathematical derivations in the reliability field. Without the loss of generality,
 161 the dynamic-motion balance equation of a structural system under earthquake excitation can be presented
 162 as (Eq. 5):

$$M\ddot{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t) + C\dot{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t) + K\mathbf{X}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t) = -M\ddot{x}_g(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t) \quad (5)$$

163 where M , C and K represent the $n \times n$ mass matrix, damping matrix and stiffness matrix of structural
 164 system, respectively. $\ddot{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t)$, $\dot{\mathbf{X}}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t)$ and $\mathbf{X}(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t)$ represent the $n \times 1$ acceleration, velocity and dis-
 165 placement vectors of the structural system, respectively. $\ddot{x}_g(\boldsymbol{\Theta}, t)$ represents the non-stationary stochastic
 166 seismic earthquakes which are generated by the spectral representation approach. The randomness of the

167 structural parameters and ground motions is embedded in the random vector, Θ , which includes N groups
 168 of independent random variables (e.g., material, load, phase angle).

169 The Eq. 5 is suitable for arbitrary structural systems, and the theory of probability preservation is
 170 satisfied during the analysis with the randomness depicted by Θ . More generally, the $\mathbf{X}(\Theta, t)$ can be
 171 referred to any concerned physical response in the structural systems relying on the random vector Θ . Call
 172 for the generalized PDEM equation based on the principle of probability preservation (Eq. 6):

$$\frac{\partial p_{\mathbf{X}\Theta}(\mathbf{X}, \Theta, t)}{\partial t} + \dot{\mathbf{X}}(\Theta, t) \cdot \frac{\partial p_{\mathbf{X}\Theta}(\mathbf{X}, \Theta, t)}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = 0 \quad (6)$$

173 in which t represents the generalized time that reflects the evolutionary direction. Worth noticing is that
 174 with regard to the equivalent extreme-value event in PDEM, a virtual stochastic process is required to be
 175 constructed, and t can be the virtual time. Besides, the initial condition of the structural system can be
 176 obtained as (Eq. 7):

$$p_{\mathbf{X}\Theta}(\mathbf{X}, \Theta, t)|_{t=t_0} = \delta(\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{X}_0)p_{\Theta}(\Theta) \quad (7)$$

177 in which $\delta(\cdot)$ represents the Dirac function. \mathbf{X}_0 represents the deterministic value of the concerned phys-
 178 ical response at the initial t_0 . Then the PDF of the concerned physical response along with the generalized
 179 time t can be written as (Eq. 8):

$$p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{X}, t) = \int_{\Omega_{\Theta}} p_{\mathbf{X}\Theta}(\mathbf{X}, \Theta, t) d\Theta \quad (8)$$

180 The above-mentioned generalized PDEM equation can be solved by a numerical approach or analytical
 181 approach. Considering that the target variable $\mathbf{X}(\Theta, t)$ is affected by complicated dynamic behaviors of
 182 the structural system, Eq. 6 is difficult to express in an explicit form. Thus, the numerical procedure is
 183 adopted consequently. During the analysis, the representing points are required to be determined first, and
 184 a generalized F-Discrepancy method proposed by Li and Chen is selected [35, 49]. Assuming that for each
 185 earthquake level IM_{α} , the number of stochastic variables is m , the number of representing points is n_{set}
 186 in the domain Ω_{θ} , then the point sets can be expressed as $\theta_i = \{\theta_{1,i}, \theta_{2,i}, \dots, \theta_{m,i}\}$, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n_{set}$. The
 187 concerned physical variable in the structural system (e.g., CPI in this paper) is re-written as $CPI(\theta, t)$, and
 188 the corresponding assigned probability for each probability space is denoted as P_i . For each point set θ_i ,
 189 the deterministic dynamic and static analyses are performed to get the derivative of the concerned physical
 190 variable, i.e., $C\dot{P}I(\theta_i, t)$, and the value is brought into Eq. 6 to realize the discretized form of the generalized
 191 PDEM equation, say (Eq. 9):

$$\frac{\partial p_{CPI, \theta_i}(CPI, \theta_i, t)}{\partial t} + C\dot{P}I(\theta_i, t) \cdot \frac{\partial p_{CPI, \theta_i}(CPI, \theta_i, t)}{\partial CPI} = 0 \quad (9)$$

192 The numerical solution of Eq. 9 can be then realized via difference method [e.g., Lax-Wendroff (L-W)
 193 form or total variation (TV) form [50]] to acquire the $p_{CPI, \theta_i}(CPI, \theta_i, t)$. The numerical integration is
 194 conducted afterwards to get the PDF of the target variable of the structural system as follows (Eq. 10):

$$p_{CPI}(CPI, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{set}} p_{CPI, \theta_i}(CPI, \theta_i, t) \quad (10)$$

195 In this stochastic analysis, an equivalent extreme-value event in PDEM is constructed and t is the virtual
 196 time without physical meaning. The results in Eq. 10 is then substituted into Eq. 4 for each earthquake
 197 level IM_{α} to acquire the PDEM-based probabilistic fragility relationship.

198 It is noteworthy that the above-mentioned analysis is set for the earthquake level IM_{α} , $\alpha = 1, 2, \dots, Tar$,
 199 and Tar represents the total number of earthquake levels in the analysis. The number of the representing
 200 points n_{set} is also for the earthquake level IM_{α} , followed with the number of generated non-stationary
 201 stochastic earthquake of n_{set} at this intensity. Thus, the information of the non-stationary stochastic
 202 earthquake [e.g., peak ground acceleration (PGA)] can also be the treated as the concerned physical variable

203 and meets the principle of probability preservation, say, $PGA_\alpha = \{PGA_{1,\alpha}, PGA_{2,\alpha}, \dots, PGA_{n_{set},\alpha}\}$, $\alpha =$
 204 $1, 2, \dots, Tar$. Thus, the PGA_α can also be brought into Eq. 6 to realize the discretized form of the generalized
 205 PDEM equation, as presented in Eq. 11 and 12.

$$\frac{\partial p_{PGA_\alpha, \theta_i}(PGA_\alpha, \theta_i, t)}{\partial t} + P\dot{G}A_\alpha(\theta_i, t) \cdot \frac{\partial p_{PGA_\alpha, \theta_i}(PGA_\alpha, \theta_i, t)}{\partial PGA_\alpha} = 0 \quad (11)$$

$$p_{PGA_\alpha}(PGA_\alpha, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_{set}} p_{PGA_\alpha, \theta_i}(PGA_\alpha, \theta_i, t) \quad (12)$$

206 Herein the equivalent extreme-value event in PDEM is also constructed to acquire the PDEM-based
 207 probabilistic hazard relationship. With this step, the representative hazard value for the earthquake level
 208 IM_α with different exceeding probability is obtained, which responds to the corresponding fragility (via CPI)
 209 as presented in Eq. 9 and 10. Because the calculated probabilistic hazard results and probabilistic fragility
 210 results are derived from same probability space, a consistent 3-dimensional PDEM-based probabilistic
 211 hazard-fragility curves can be established. Compared with the traditional 2-dimensional fragility curves, the
 212 consistent 3-dimensional hazard-fragility curves increase a new axis as the exceeding probability of hazard
 213 intensity, and directly combines the hazard level to the fragility results through the same ground motions.
 214 The PDEM avoids the pre-defined distribution types and is more accurate than the lognormal assumption.
 215 The non-stationary stochastic ground motion avoids the wave selection process and reflects more reality
 216 than natural ground motions. The PDEM and non-stationary stochastic ground motions are the core links
 217 in the analysis to realize the consistency. The principles of the non-stationary stochastic ground motions are
 218 introduced in the following subsection. Fig. 1 shows the distinct flowchart of the proposed consistent seismic
 219 hazard and fragility analysis via PDEM, and Fig. 2 shows the detailed schematic steps in the analysis.

220 3. Modeling of non-stationary ground motions

221 In this paper, the non-stationary stochastic acceleration time series are obtained through the spectral
 222 representation of random functions as well as the stochastic process theory [51, 52]. In comparison with the
 223 natural ground motions and the stationary ground motions, the non-stationary stochastic ground motions
 224 contain more adjustable factors such as soil damping and angular frequency, and regard the spectral density
 225 as a time-changing element, thus a more accurate earthquake input process can be realized with combined
 226 intensity and frequency uncertainty [53, 54]. In addition, a modification procedure is adopted to adjust the
 227 spectral representation function, thus the mean acceleration spectra of individual earthquake samples and
 228 the target spectra can match ideally with less discreteness. The relevant generating equations are shown as
 229 follows.

230 The core part in the spectral representation approach to generate non-stationary stochastic earthquakes
 231 is the evolutionary power spectral density (EPSD). In this paper, the Clough-Penzien bilateral EPSD func-
 232 tion $[S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega)]$ which contains the intensity non-stationarity and frequency non-stationarity is adopted, as
 233 presented in Eq. 13 [55, 56]:

$$S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega) = A^2(t) \cdot \frac{\omega_g^4(t) + 4\xi_g^2(t)\omega_g^2(t)\omega^2}{[\omega^2 - \omega_g^2(t)]^2 + 4\xi_g^2(t)\omega_g^2(t)\omega^2} \cdot \frac{\omega^4}{[\omega^2 - \omega_f^2(t)]^2 + 4\xi_f^2(t)\omega_f^2(t)\omega^2} \cdot S_0(t) \quad (13)$$

234 where $\omega_g(t)$, $\xi_g(t)$, $\omega_f(t)$ and $\xi_f(t)$ represent the site non-stationarity of EPSD with time-varying char-
 235 acteristics of earthquake frequency, as presented in Eq. 14 and Eq. 15:

$$\omega_g(t) = \omega_0 - a\frac{t}{T}, \quad \xi_g(t) = \xi_0 + b\frac{t}{T} \quad (14)$$

$$\omega_f(t) = 0.1\omega_g(t), \quad \xi_f(t) = \xi_g(t) \quad (15)$$

Consistent 3D PDEM-based probabilistic hazard-fragility framework

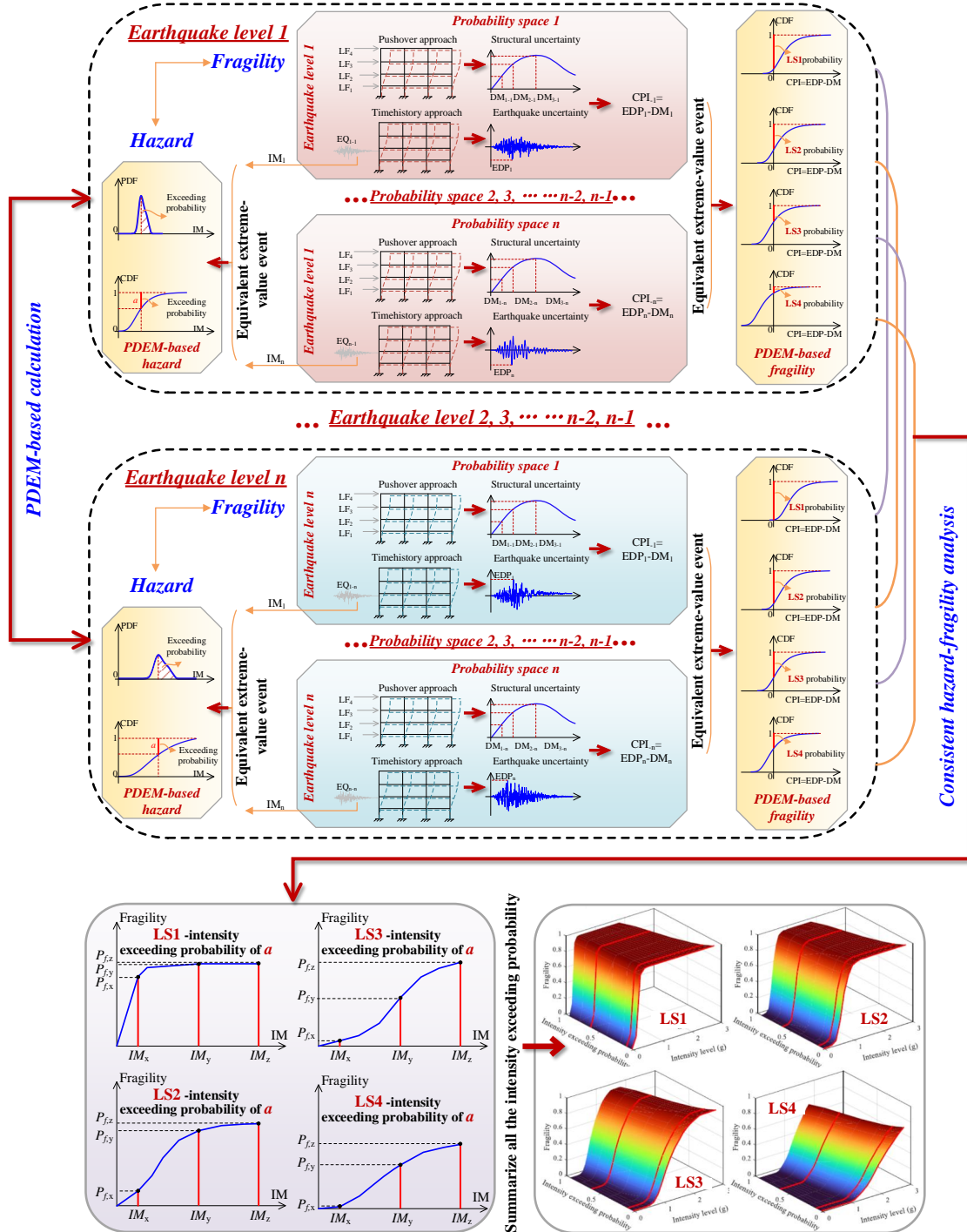


Figure 2: The detailed schematic steps of the consistent seismic hazard and fragility analysis via PDEM

236 where ω_0 and ξ_0 reflect the information of primary site angular frequency and soil damping ratio, re-
 237 spectively. T denotes the duration time of the non-stationary stochastic earthquakes. a denotes the field
 238 classification parameter, while b denotes the seismic group parameter.

239 In addition, the $A(t)$ and $S_0(t)$ in Eq. 13 denote the intensity adjusting parameter and spectral intensity
 240 parameter, respectively. According to Ou and Wang [57], a unimodal envelope expression is adopted herein,
 241 as expressed in Eq. 16 and Eq. 17.

$$A(t) = \left[\frac{t}{c} \cdot \exp\left(1 - \frac{t}{c}\right) \right]^d \quad (16)$$

$$S_0(t) = \frac{\bar{a}_{\max}^2}{\gamma^2 \pi \omega_g(t) \cdot \left[2\xi_g(t) + 1/(2\xi_g(t)) \right]} \quad (17)$$

242 where c denotes the peak ground acceleration arrival point, and d denotes the shape controlling indicator
 243 of the intensity adjusting function $[A(t)]$. γ denotes the equivalent maximum parameter of peak ground
 244 acceleration, and \bar{a}_{\max} reflects the average value of peak ground acceleration. Under different design group
 245 and site classification, the values of the above parameters will vary, and the summarization of the relevant
 246 recommendation values can be available from Liu et al [58].

247 With the expression of Clough-Penzien bilateral EPSD function in Eq. 13, the zero-mean non-stationary
 248 stochastic acceleration time series can be formed, as expressed in Eq. 18 [59, 60]:

$$\ddot{X}_g(t) = \sum_{k=1}^N \sqrt{2S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, k\Delta\omega)} \cdot \Delta\omega \cdot \left[\cos(k\Delta\omega t)X_k + \sin(k\Delta\omega t)Y_k \right] \quad (18)$$

249 where $\Delta\omega$ denotes the interval frequency that is determined by the truncated frequency and items (N). In
 250 Eq. 18, the total number of random variables is $2N$ (i.e., $\{X_1, Y_1\} \dots \{X_N, Y_N\}$), and $\{X_k, Y_k\}$ ($k = 1, 2, \dots, N$)
 251 denote the standard orthogonal stochastic variables. To reduce the random variables in the earthquake
 252 generation process and to improve the calculation efficiency, a deterministic mapping procedure of two
 253 standard orthogonal stochastic variables $\{\bar{X}_n, \bar{Y}_n\}$ ($n = 1, 2, \dots, N$) is introduced to rearrange the values of
 254 $\{X_k, Y_k\}$. Worth mentioning is that if this process is ignored, the non-stationary stochastic earthquakes
 255 will show unreasonable bumps. $\{\bar{X}_n, \bar{Y}_n\}$ can be composed with multiple forms, and in this paper, the non-
 256 Gaussian orthogonal expression with two independent stochastic variables (i.e., Θ_1 and Θ_2) are adopted
 257 as shown in Eq. 19, thus the number of random variables is reduced from $2N$ to 2 [61, 62]. The values of
 258 fundamental variables Θ_1 and Θ_2 vary from 0 to 2π under the assumption of uniform distributions.

$$\bar{X}_n = \sin(n\Theta_1) + \cos(n\Theta_1), \quad \bar{Y}_n = \sin(n\Theta_2) + \cos(n\Theta_2) \quad (19)$$

259 Moreover, to enhance the fit-extent between the mean acceleration spectra of individual earthquake
 260 samples and the target spectra, a modification procedure to the spectral density function is added in light of
 261 an iterative solution, as illustrated in Eq. 20:

$$S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega)|_{i+1} = \begin{cases} S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega), & 0 < \omega \leq \omega_c \\ S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega)|_i \cdot \frac{AS^T(\omega, \xi)^2}{AS^M(\omega, \xi)^2|_i}, & \omega > \omega_c \end{cases} \quad (20)$$

262 where $S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega)|_{i+1}$ and $S_{\ddot{X}_g}(t, \omega)|_i$ denote the $(i+1)$ th and i th iterative expression of spectral density
 263 functions, respectively. ω_c represents the limited frequency, and the exceeding sections (i.e., $\omega > \omega_c$)
 264 of the non-stationary stochastic earthquakes are required for adjustment. $AS^T(\omega, \xi)$ indicates the target
 265 acceleration spectrum, while $AS^M(\omega, \xi)|_i$ indicates the mean acceleration spectrum of generated stochastic
 266 motions after i th-iteration. ξ represents the damping ratio and the commonly-used recommendation is 0.05
 267 for buildings. $\omega = 2\pi/T_s$, and T_s represents the fundamental structural period.

268 In this paper, 200 non-stationary stochastic ground motions are generated, and the phase angles (i.e., Θ_1
 269 and Θ_2) of each ground motion are sampled according to the generalized F-Discrepancy method in PDEM.
 270 The fundamental earthquake level is set as 0.1 g, the soil type classification is type-C and the structural

271 importance class is type-II according to the ASCE/SEI 7-10 [63], thus the corresponding values of stochastic
 272 parameter can be given (i.e., ω_0 is 13.5 s^{-1} , ξ_0 is 0.65, γ is 2.6, T is 25 s, a is 5 s^{-1} , b is 0.2, c is 6 s, and
 273 d is 2). The interval frequency $\Delta\omega$ is chosen as 0.15 rad/s , the truncated item N is determined as 1000,
 274 and the limited frequency ω_c is adopted as $1.57 \text{ rad} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$. Fig. 3(a) displays the samples of non-stationary
 275 stochastic ground motions, and Fig. 3(b) compares the mean and target acceleration response spectra after
 276 modification. Fig. 3(c) and 3(d) show the mean values and standard deviations of non-stationary stochastic
 277 ground motions, respectively.

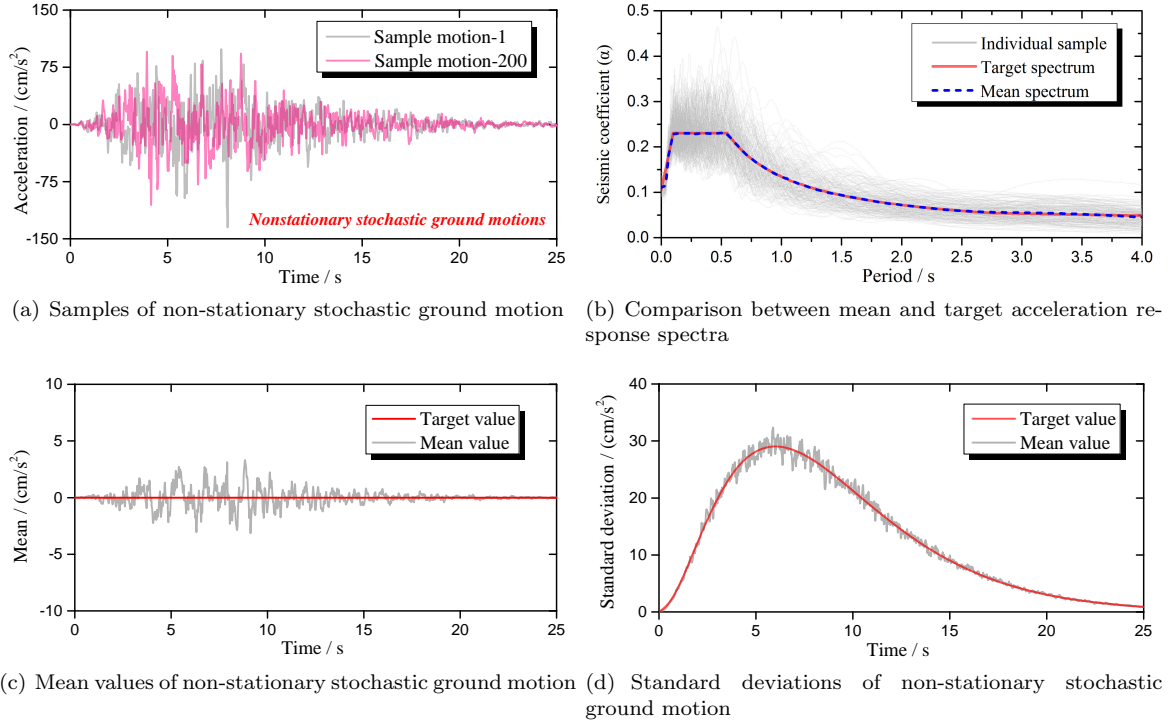


Figure 3: Non-stationary stochastic ground motions

278 4. Modeling of structures and associated uncertainties

279 To evaluate the damage states and conduct the performance calculations of reinforced concrete structures
 280 through non-stationary stochastic ground motions, a fiber-based numerical model using OpenSees software
 281 is established in this paper [64, 65]. The fiber-based numerical model is regarded to be computationally
 282 efficient and analytically accurate, and is widely accepted in the earthquake community for decades. In
 283 comparison with the macro model based on the solid elements, the fiber-based model reduces the time cost
 284 and meanwhile maintains the structural features, thus is especially significant for seismic fragility evaluation.
 285 Fig. 4 displays the typical modelling strategy of reinforced concrete frames (RCFs).

286 To characterize the nonlinear behaviors of beam and column components, the force-based fiber elements
 287 with distributed plasticity are adopted (i.e., nonlinearBeamColumn element in OpenSees), which is integrat-
 288 ed through flexibility theory and distributes the element force along the length direction [66, 67]. Compared
 289 with the displacement-based fiber elements, the force-based fiber elements are more stable with the guar-
 290 anteed equilibrium constraint, thus can be rather effective under intense nonlinearity and can reflect the
 291 structural property with fewer element number. The fiber cross-sectional models are assigned to the force-
 292 based elements, which divide the sections as steel and concrete fibers, respectively. The Steel02 constitutive
 293 material in OpenSees is defined for steel fibers, and the Concrete02 constitutive material in OpenSees is

294 defined for Concrete fibers. As for the hoop effects of stirrups, a confined concrete model is considered for
 295 the core zones within stirrups [68]. An amplification factor (k) is introduced to increase the stress-strain
 296 relationship at these zones, as shown in Eq. 21. Besides, the ultimate strain of concrete will obviously affect
 297 the convergence performance and capacity variations of the structural system. Scott et al. [69] conservatively
 298 recommended the ultimate concrete strain in compression when the stirrups in core zones begin to break,
 299 and the equation is used as Eq. 21 for calculation, in which ρ_s and ε_{max} denote the volume stirrup ratio and
 300 the ultimate strain of confined concrete in compression, respectively. f_{yh} and f'_c denote the stirrup yielding
 301 strength and the cylinder compressive strength of concrete, respectively. As for the unconfined concrete, the
 302 corresponding ultimate compressive strain is adopted as 0.004.

$$k = 1 + \frac{\rho_s f_{yh}}{f'_c}, \quad \varepsilon_{max} = 0.004 + 0.9\rho_s \cdot \frac{f_{yh}}{300} \quad (21)$$

303 To characterize the shear and bond-slip properties of beam-column joints, the Joint2D element in
 304 OpenSees is adopted herein to simulate the connections. The Joint2D element contains one central spring
 305 and four side springs, and can be regarded as a parallelogram shear board. The central spring controls the
 306 shear performance in the core zones, while the side springs control the bond-slip behaviors in the interface
 307 [70]. The pinching4 material in OpenSees is allocated to the central spring to reflect the core moment-
 308 rotation, and the hysteretic material in OpenSees is allocated to the side spring to reflect the interface
 309 moment-rotation. To be specific, the pinching4 material defines four points in each loading direction and
 310 incorporates the parameters to reflect stiffness degeneration as well as strength pinching. The corresponding
 311 point values can be determined through modified compression field theory [71]. The hysteretic material de-
 312 fines three points in each loading direction, accompanied with damage due to ductility and energy, and the
 313 corresponding point values can be determined through the unit-length fiber section analysis, in which the
 314 stress-strain model of Steel02 is substituted by stress-slip model (e.g., Bond_SP01 model in OpenSees) to
 315 discuss the bond-slip functions [72]. The stress-slip model can refer to Eq. 22, in which S_y and S_u represent
 316 the yielding slip and ultimate slip, respectively. β represents the local bond-slip parameter and is commonly
 317 recommended as 0.4. Compared with the rigid connections of beam and column elements at joints, which
 318 commonly overestimate the structural behaviors, the Joint2D element reflects more details and includes
 319 higher authenticity in the dynamic analysis. In addition, the EqualDOF constraint in OpenSees is used at
 320 the two outer Joint2D elements of each storey, for the purpose of binding the horizontal displacements under
 321 the rigid-storey assumption. The Joint2D element is the critical point in the simulation of RCFs, and the
 322 validation with experimental data [73] is given in the Fig. 4, which indicates an ideal fitting accuracy.

$$S_y = 2.54 \cdot \left[\frac{d}{8437} \cdot \frac{f_y}{\sqrt{f'_c}} \cdot (2\beta + 1) \right]^{1/\beta} + 0.34, \quad S_u = 35 \cdot S_y \quad (22)$$

323 As for the associated uncertainties in the modelling, two types of uncertainties are considered, which
 324 are the earthquake-related uncertainty and structural-related uncertainty. As mentioned before, the non-
 325 stationary stochastic earthquake model based on the spectral representation is adopted in this paper, and
 326 the ground motions are controlled by the phase angles (i.e., Θ_1 and Θ_2), thus the phase angles constitute
 327 the earthquake-related uncertainty. As for the structural-related uncertainty, three subtypes are considered
 328 (i.e., materials, dimensions, and loads). The material uncertainty includes the yielding strength, compressive
 329 strain, hardening ratio and so on. The dimension uncertainty includes the rebar diameter, storey height,
 330 sectional size, and so on. The load uncertainty includes the consistent live load, temporary live load,
 331 gravity load, and so on. After determining the uncertainty variables and distributions, the generalized F-
 332 Discrepancy method in PDEM is used to generate the samples, and the corresponding structural analysis
 333 with the numerical model as mentioned above is conducted. The detailed implementation of the proposed
 334 method will be introduced in the following parts.

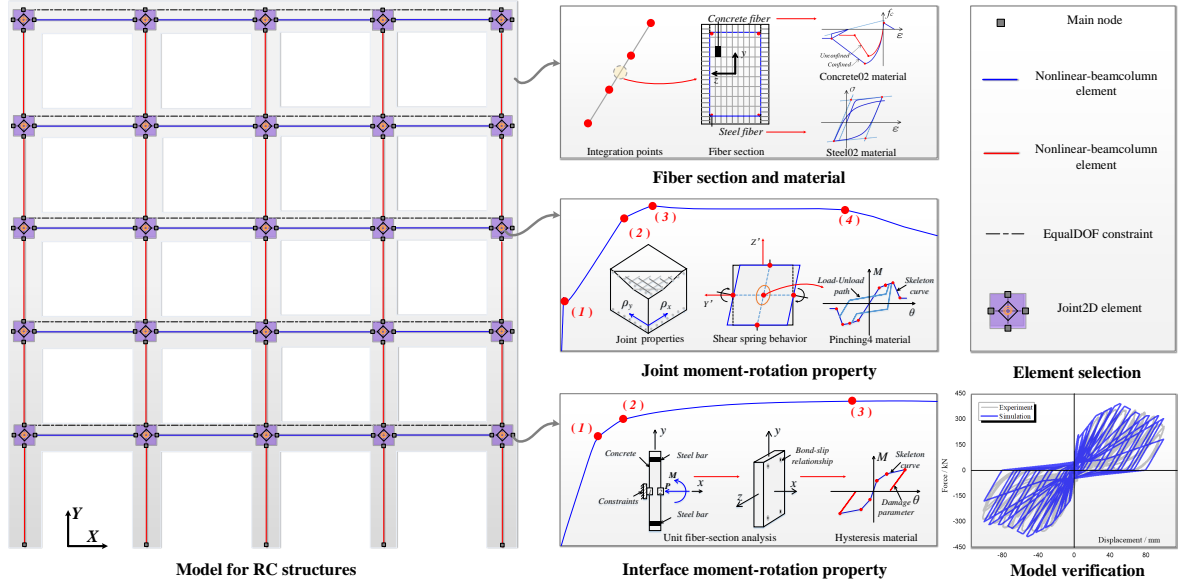


Figure 4: Modeling of structures and strategy of details

5. Implementation of the proposed method: Application into RCF

5.1. Design information and uncertainty

To implement the consistent seismic hazard and fragility analysis via PDEM, an application into RCF is conducted correspondingly. The prototype is designed through the code for concrete structures in China [74], which is a 3-span-6-storey RCF located in the site with fortification level of seven degree. The corresponding fortification PGA is 0.1 g, which means the exceeding probability of 10 % during 50 years. The span length is 6300 mm, and the storey heights for the first and other storeys are 4200 mm and 3500 mm, respectively. The soil type classification is type-C, and the structural importance class is type-II according to the ASCE/SEI 7-10 [63]. The design sectional sizes of beams and columns are 350×550 mm and 650×650 mm, respectively. For the storey 1 to 3, the rebar diameters are designed as 25 mm at both sectional sides for columns, and designed as 20 mm at both sectional sides for beams. For the storey 4 to 6, the rebar diameters are designed as 20 mm at both sectional sides for columns, and designed as 18 mm at both sectional sides for beams. The concrete is type-C30, with the design compressive strength of 14.3 MPa, and the reinforcing steel is type-HRB335, with the design yielding strength of 300 MPa. As for the constructional steel and stirrup, the adopted type is HPB300 with the design yielding strength of 270 MPa. The detailed design information and constructional dimensions are presented in Fig. 5.

The numerical model of the prototype 3-span-6-storey RCF is established by the approach in Section 4. Lumped mass is considered at joints and the damping ratio is delimited as 5 %. The fundamental period with the designed information is 0.956 s. With regard to the earthquake-related and structural-related uncertainties, totally 26 random variables are selected and the distribution parameters are listed in Tab. 1. For the initial earthquake level, 200 sample sets (i.e., earthquake and structure pairs) with different assigned probability are generated for numerical simulation. Then the deterministic static pushover analysis is performed to capture the limit states (i.e., capacity) in each probability space, and the deterministic dynamic time-history analysis is performed to capture the structural responses (i.e., demand) in each probability space. Both the capacity and demand are reflected by the maximum interstorey drift ratio (MIDR), which is a commonly used index for RCF assessment. As for the capacity, four performance levels are defined, i.e., slight, moderate, extensive, and collapse. The slight state corresponds to the MIDR of first steel yield, the moderate state corresponds to the MIDR via equivalent energy principle, the extensive state corresponds to the MIDR of the peak capacity, and the collapse state corresponds to the MIDR of the 85 % of peak

364 capacity. The detailed definition methods are not elaborated herein and can be accessible from Cao et
 365 al [75, 76]. After that the CPI as mentioned in Section 2 is calculated and summarized for subsequent
 366 analysis via PDEM. In addition, the PGA and $S_a(T_1)$ of the 200 non-stationary stochastic earthquakes for
 367 this earthquake level are also obtained correspondingly. The earthquake level continues to increase until the
 368 target level and the above steps are repeated for each earthquake level.

369 A noteworthy point herein is that in this paper, the global capacities of the overall structures are
 370 adopted (i.e., via the damage measure of MIDR). The global capacities contain certain advantages such as
 371 rapid assessment of structural performance after hazards or efficient evaluation of damage levels for decision
 372 making, as recommended in Hazus [77]. At this stage, a series of approaches of employing local member /
 373 section / joint capacity checks have been proposed by researchers. These local-capacity based approaches
 374 are commonly more accurate and authentic. For instance, according to the FEMA P-58 procedure [78], the
 375 structural losses and risks are calculated via the accumulation of component-induced probabilistic behaviors.
 376 Villaverde [79] gave the state-of-the-art review of the seismic collapsing capacities for structural buildings,
 377 in which the balance and significance between the local and global capacities were detailedly analyzed and
 378 systematically summarized. Kazantzi et al. [80] performed the seismic evaluation of a moment resisting
 379 frame under the combined strength-ductility uncertainties, and the local failure indexes as well as the local
 380 demand-capacity correlations were both considered. The research found that the local damage estimations
 381 affected the overall structural responses to some degree. Freddi et al. [81] adopted the local indexes
 382 to give a more thorough and realistic characterization of failure patterns of low ductility frames without
 383 seismic reinforcements. The corresponding probabilistic seismic demand models were established, and during
 384 the process the distribution types as well as the regression models were well investigated. In this paper,
 385 the authors just hope to adopt the global capacities as an example to present the strategy of how to
 386 establish the 3D consistent non-parametric seismic hazard-fragility framework via PDEM, as well as to
 387 analyze the corresponding influence under the combined capacity-demand uncertainties via PDEM. In the
 388 further in-depth research, the extensions to the local member / section / joint capacities via PDEM can be
 389 straightforward for a better application and clearer interpretation.

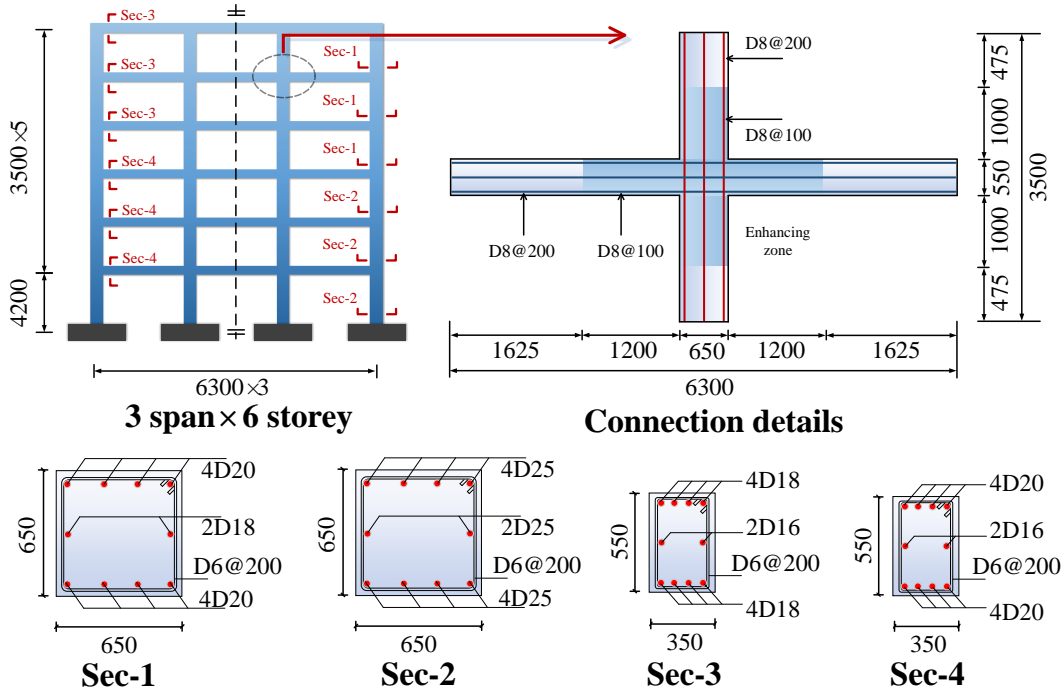


Figure 5: The detailed design information and constructional dimensions in application

Table 1: The random variables and distribution parameters

<i>Random variables</i>	<i>Symbol</i>	<i>Distribution</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>COV</i>	<i>Source</i>
Stochastic motion parameter	$\Theta 1$	Uniform	3.142 (1)	0.577	[82]
Stochastic motion parameter	$\Theta 2$	Uniform	3.142 (1)	0.577	[82]
Concrete bulk density	γ	Normal	26.5 (kN/m^3)	0.0698	[75]
Storey consistent live load	L_{c1}	Gumbel	0.386 (kN/m^2)	0.464	[83]
Storey temporary live load	L_{t1}	Gumbel	0.356 (kN/m^2)	0.683	[83]
Roof consistent live load	L_{c2}	Gumbel	0.504 (kN/m^2)	0.321	[83]
Roof temporary live load	L_{t2}	Gumbel	0.468 (kN/m^2)	0.538	[83]
Beam span	sb	Normal	6300 (mm)	0.003	[84]
First storey height	hf	Normal	4200 (mm)	0.003	[84]
Standard storey height	ha	Normal	3500 (mm)	0.003	[84]
Column height	hc	Normal	650 (mm)	0.01	[84]
Beam height	hb	Normal	550 (mm)	0.01	[84]
Beam width	wb	Normal	350 (mm)	0.01	[84]
Slab height	hs	Normal	120 (mm)	0.01	[42]
Core concrete compressive strength	$f_{cp,core}$	Lognormal	33.6 (MPa)	0.21	[42]
Core concrete peak strain	$\varepsilon_{cp,core}$	Lognormal	0.0022 (1)	0.17	[42]
Core concrete ultimate strain	$\varepsilon_{cu,core}$	Lognormal	0.0113 (1)	0.52	[42]
Cover concrete compressive strength	$f_{cp,cover}$	Lognormal	26.1 (MPa)	0.14	[42]
Cover concrete ultimate strain	$\varepsilon_{cu,cover}$	Lognormal	0.004 (1)	0.2	[42]
Rebar diameter in columns	$d25$	Normal	25 (mm)	0.04	[84]
Rebar diameter in beams	$d20$	Normal	20 (mm)	0.04	[84]
Rebar diameter in beams	$d18$	Normal	18 (mm)	0.04	[84]
Rebar yielding strength	f_y	Lognormal	378 (MPa)	0.074	[85]
Rebar elastic modulus	E	Lognormal	201000 (MPa)	0.033	[85]
Rebar hardening ratio	b	Lognormal	0.02 (1)	0.2	[85]
Damping ratio	ς	Normal	0.05 (1)	0.1	[42]

5.2. Virtual stochastic process of PDEM

During the equivalent extreme-value event in PDEM, a virtual stochastic process is commonly required to be constructed for the extreme-value analysis. As mentioned in the Eq. 6, the parameter t represents the generalized time that reflects the evolutionary direction. In the virtual stochastic process of PDEM, t is commonly regarded as the virtual time varying from 0 to 1. As for different stochastic conditions in consideration, the actual time to achieve the extreme-value is not the same (e.g., the earthquake time to reach MIDR in this example), so we assume that all the extreme-values of different stochastic conditions appear at the virtual time 1 under the virtual stochastic process of PDEM (and time 0 is the initial state). During the virtual stochastic process of PDEM, the PDF or CDF of extreme-value is the primary focus, and the corresponding time-history development is not the main point. More details related to the virtual stochastic process of PDEM can be found in Li et al. [86] and Chen et al. [87].

Fig. 6 and Fig. 8 present the PDF, CDF and hazard curves of PGA for different earthquake levels via PDEM, and Fig. 7 and Fig. 9 present the PDF, CDF and hazard curves of $S_a(T_1)$ for different earthquake levels via PDEM. During the analysis, the virtual stochastic process is well established. To be specific, Fig. 6(a) to 6(f) present the CDF and exceeding probability of PGA for intensity of 0.1 g, 0.2 g, 0.3 g, 0.5 g, 1.0 g, and 2.0 g, respectively, and Fig. 7(a) to 7(f) present the CDF and exceeding probability of $S_a(T_1)$ for these intensities. The black dotted line indicates the CDF value while the red lines indicate the exceeding probability of intensity [PGA or $S_a(T_1)$]. Totally three levels of exceeding probability of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for each intensity are marked (i.e., 63.2 %, 10 % and 2 %), which corresponds to the frequent earthquake level, fortification earthquake level, and rare earthquake level, respectively. For instance, for the intensity of 1.0 g, the PGA of frequent earthquake level is given as 1.0134 g, the PGA of fortification earthquake level is given as 1.3007 g, and the PGA of rare earthquake level is given as 1.4039 g. For the intensity of 1.0 g, the $S_a(T_1)$ of frequent earthquake level is given as 0.8504 g, the $S_a(T_1)$ of fortification earthquake level is given as 1.3693 g, and the $S_a(T_1)$ of rare earthquake level is given as 1.6542 g. Through this way, the representative PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for each earthquake level is assigned with the probabilistic meaning and

415 can be connected to the subsequent fragility analysis to constitute the consistent hazard-fragility curves.
 416 Fig. 8(a) and 9(a) present the PDF of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for each earthquake level, and it can be observed
 417 that the PDF tendency becomes flattened from intensity of 0.1 g to 2.0 g. Although the shape of the PDF
 418 via PDEM is similar to the lognormal assumptions in the smaller intensity, the tendency shows difference
 419 with the intensity increasing (e.g., non-smooth curve), which can also be found in Ning [29]. Fig. 8(b) and
 420 9(b) present the hazard curves of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for each earthquake level. From these two subfigures, it
 421 can be observed that the curves move towards right with the intensity increasing, and the representative
 422 values for different earthquake levels with the various probabilistic meaning can be acquired, in order to
 423 combine with the later fragility evaluation. A noteworthy point is that the hazard curve herein is reflected
 424 as the exceeding probability of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for each earthquake level according to the PDEM theory,
 425 and it differs from the mean annual rate or annualized probability of exceeding a given level of the intensity
 426 measure in expression.

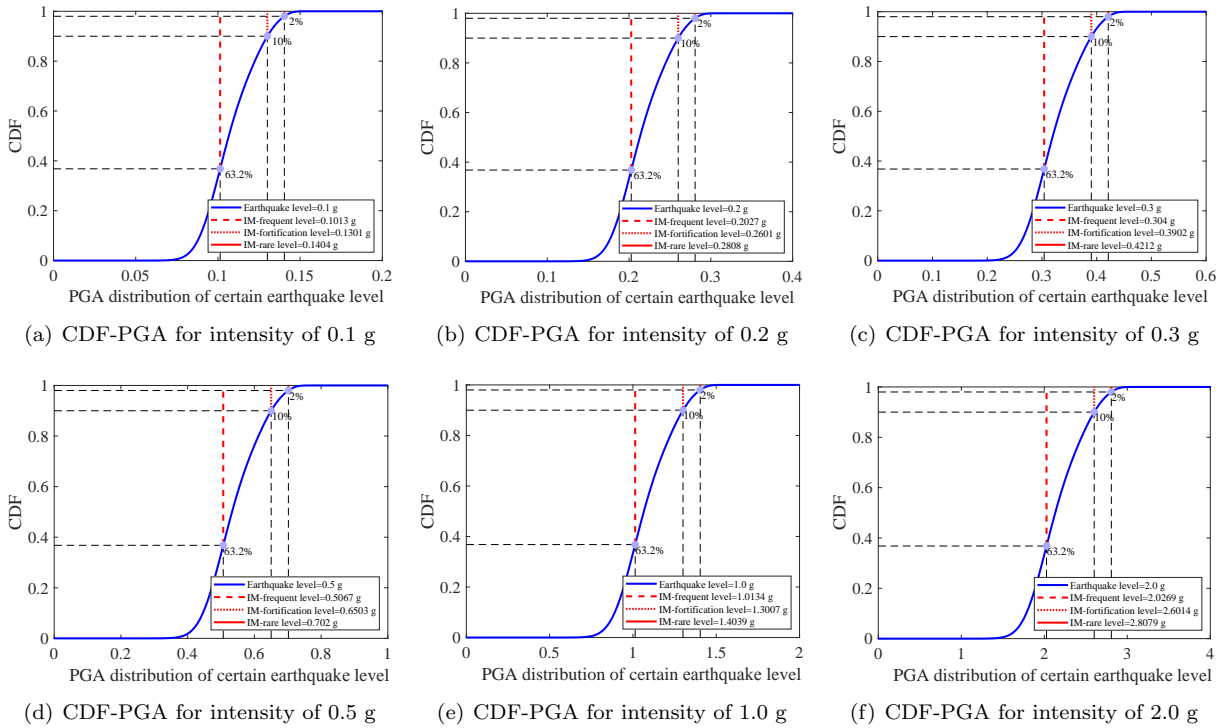


Figure 6: The CDF of PGA for different earthquake levels via PDEM

427 Fig. 10 presents the CDF of CPI (i.e., demand of MIDR minus capacity of MIDR) and fragility for
 428 different limit states and earthquake levels via PDEM, and the virtual stochastic process is established
 429 during the analysis. Fig. 10(a) to 10(d) present the results of slight state for intensity of 0.1 g, 0.5 g, 1.0
 430 g and 2.0 g. Correspondingly, Fig. 10(e) to 10(h), Fig. 10(i) to 10(l), and Fig. 10(m) to 10(p) present the
 431 results of moderate state, extensive state, and collapse state for different intensities, respectively. The black
 432 dotted line indicates the CDF value of CPI while the red solid line indicates the fragility result at this level.
 433 According to Section 2, the values should correspond to the CPI=0. After connecting the fragility results
 434 (i.e., red lines) in Fig. 10 and linking to the PGA (in Fig. 6) or $S_a(T_1)$ (in Fig. 7) with the same exceeding
 435 probability, the fragility curves are generated, as displayed in Fig. 11. The subfigures 11(a), 11(c) and 11(e)
 436 indicate the fragility with different PGA exceeding probability of 63.2 %, 10 %, and 2 %, respectively, and
 437 the subfigures 11(b), 11(d) and 11(f) indicate the fragility with different $S_a(T_1)$ exceeding probability of
 438 63.2 %, 10 %, and 2 %, respectively. The median values (with fragility of 50 %) are also marked in Fig. 11.
 439 Take the Fig. 11(a) and earthquake level of 1.0 g as an example, the corresponding fragility results of slight,

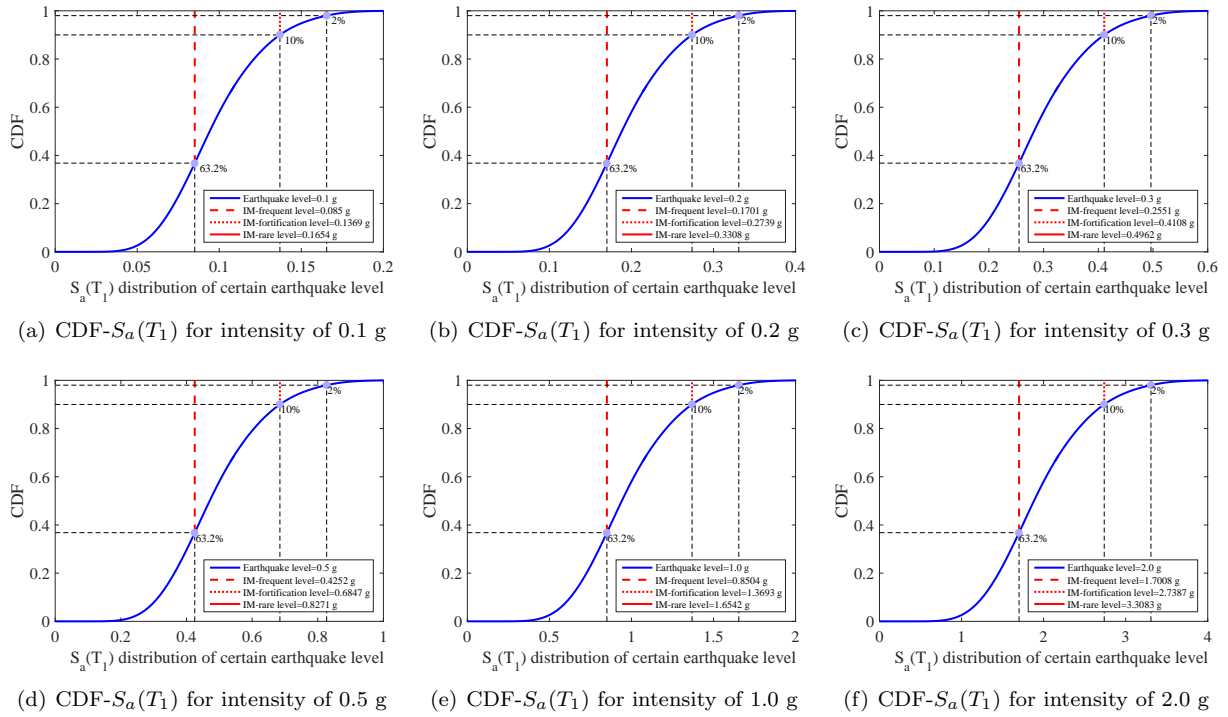


Figure 7: The CDF of $S_a(T_1)$ for different earthquake levels via PDEM

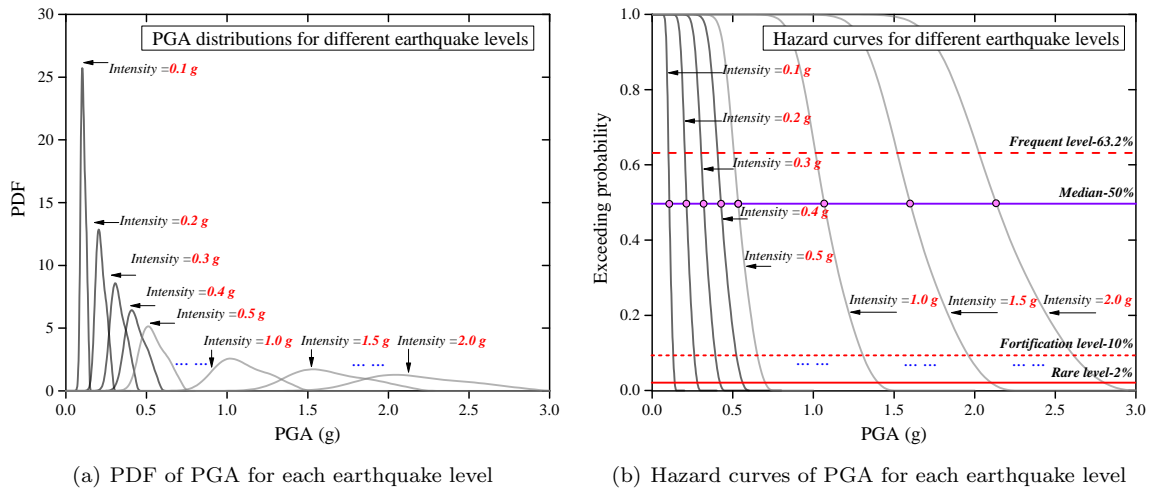


Figure 8: The PDF and hazard curves of PGA for different earthquake levels via PDEM

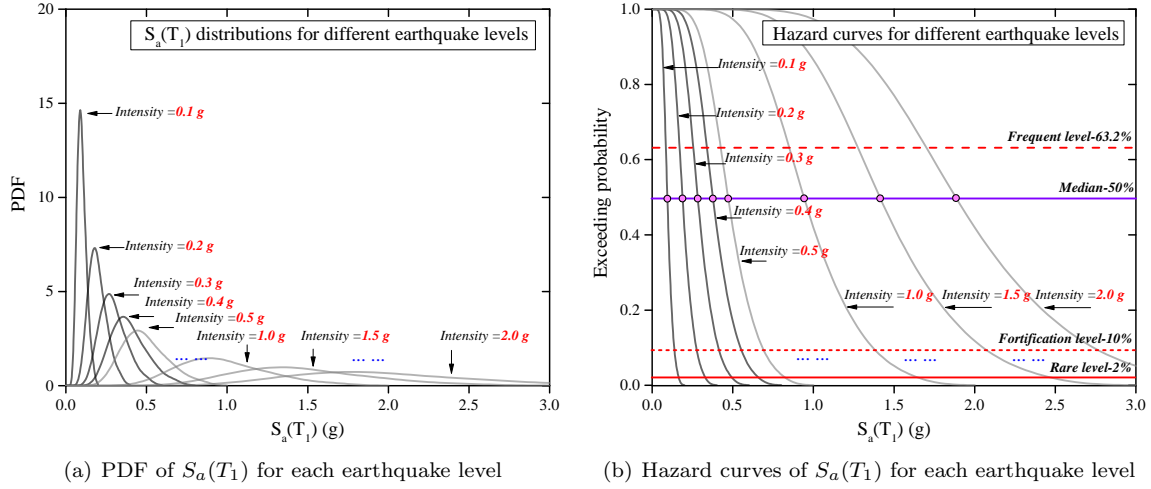


Figure 9: The PDF and hazard curves of $S_a(T_1)$ for different earthquake levels via PDEM

440 moderate, extensive and collapse states can be obtained as 0.9951, 0.9944, 0.6414, and 0.0912 from Fig. 10(c),
 441 10(g), 10(k) and 10(o), respectively. For the PGA exceeding probability of 63.2 % at this earthquake level
 442 (i.e., frequent earthquake level), the corresponding representative PGA is obtained as 1.0134 g, as displayed
 443 in Fig. 6(e), and for the $S_a(T_1)$ exceeding probability of 63.2 % at this earthquake level, the corresponding
 444 representative $S_a(T_1)$ is obtained as 0.8504 g, as displayed in Fig. 7(e). These data are also marked in Fig. 11
 445 in gray lines and then the fragility points to curves are generated subsequently.

446 5.3. Consistent 3D hazard-fragility curves

447 In light of the PDEM-based consistent seismic hazard and fragility theories introduced in Section 2,
 448 Fig. 12 and 13 present the consistent 3D PDEM-based probabilistic hazard-fragility curves for different
 449 limit states, based on the PGA and $S_a(T_1)$, respectively. The red lines in each subfigure indicate the
 450 fragility curves with the PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ exceeding probability of 63.2 % (frequent level), 10 % (fortification
 451 level) and 2 % (rare level), as depicted in Fig. 11. The color bar reflects the fragility values from 0 to
 452 1. Through the 3D consistent hazard-fragility curves, the exceeding probability for different limit states
 453 under different earthquake levels can be predicted, and the earthquake levels are assigned with different
 454 exceeding probability to build a connection with the hazard extent. With the introduction of the PDEM and
 455 non-stationary stochastic process into the PBEE, the 3D non-parametric hazard-fragility curve is realized,
 456 and the probabilistic relationship from hazard to fragility is consistent, directly meeting the conditional
 457 probability in the full-probability formula of the risk-based PBEE framework. Generally, this approach
 458 provides new ideas for the consistent risk-based assessment scheme in the PBEE, and provides references
 459 for the non-parametric probabilistic hazard analysis or fragility analysis in the future study.

460 Worth mentioning herein is that the implementation of the PDEM-based hazard or fragility approach
 461 relies on the representative points in probability space, and its superiority is that there is no need to pre-
 462 define the shape of the curve forms, and at the same time it has the ideal calculation results. To be specific,
 463 the PDEM-based approach avoids the lognormal distribution assumption of demand or capacity in the
 464 classic expression, while the lognormal distribution assumption may not be satisfied under highly nonlinear
 465 scenarios thus leading to inaccurate probabilistic curves in PBEE [88, 89]. However, as for the problems
 466 such as the efficiency to accuracy ratio or total calculation times, the PDEM-based approach may not be
 467 competitive. For example, when the classic lognormal-based approach is coupled with the cloud analysis,
 468 the calculation efficiency may be better than the PDEM-based approach. Some references can be available
 469 in Kennedy and Ravindra [90], Jalayer and Cornell [91], Lallemand et al. [92], Baker [93], and Bakalis and
 470 Vamvatsikos [94]. This aspect is not further discussed in this study, because this paper aims at providing

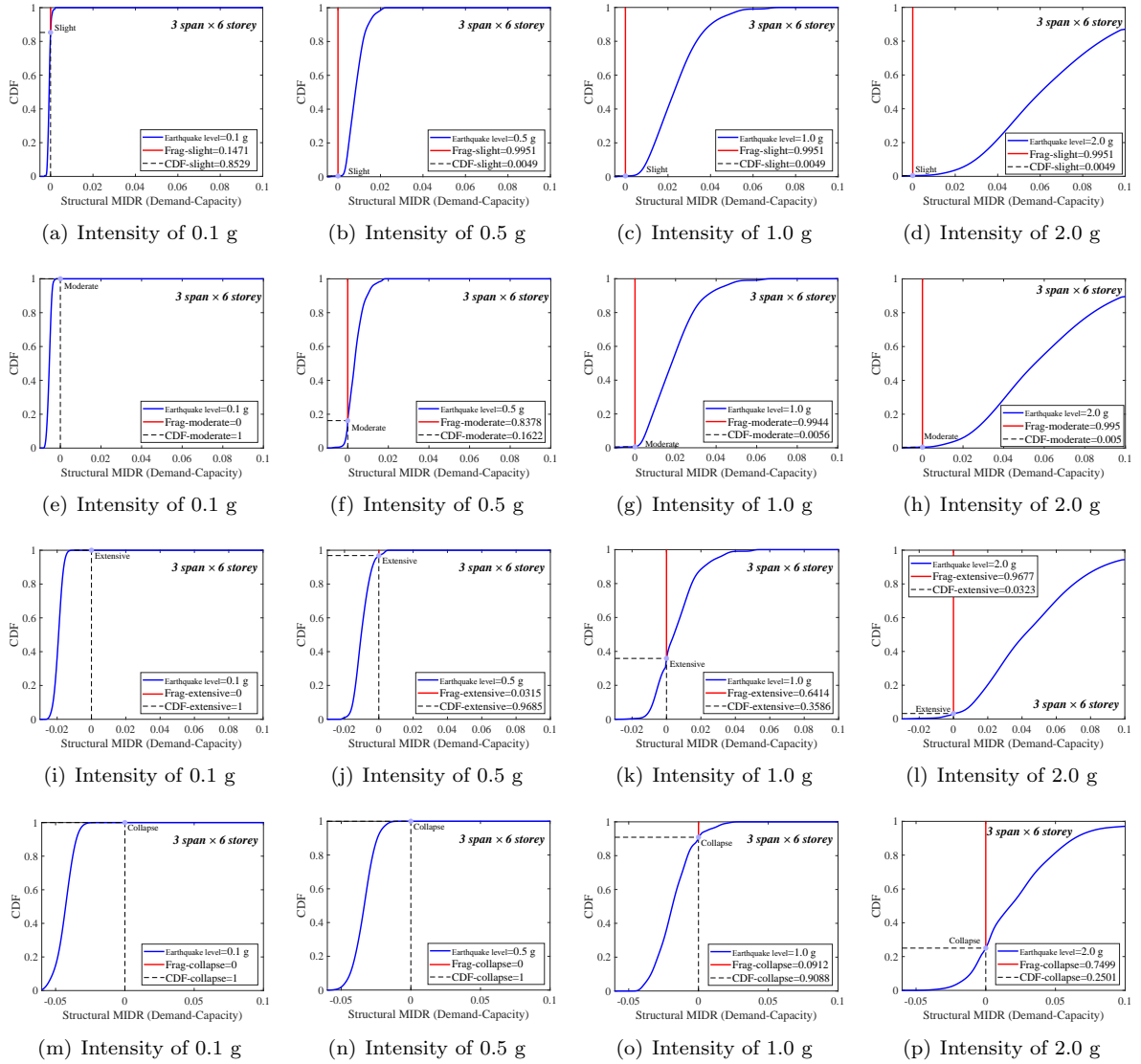
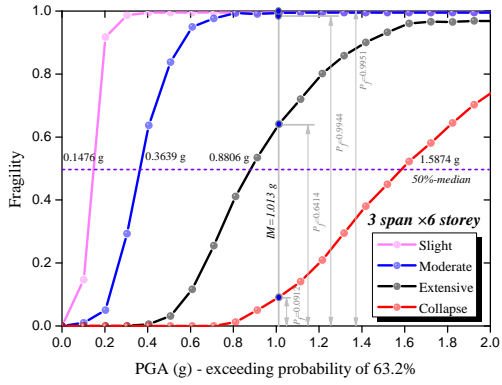
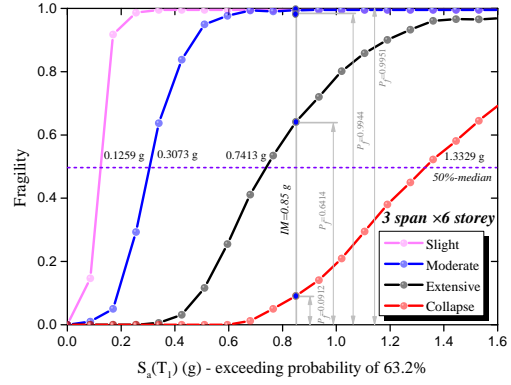


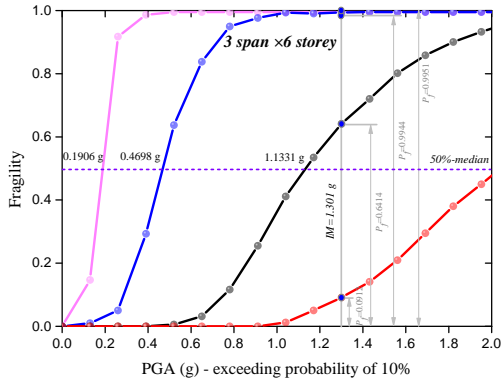
Figure 10: The CDF of CPI and fragility for different limit states and earthquake levels via PDEM



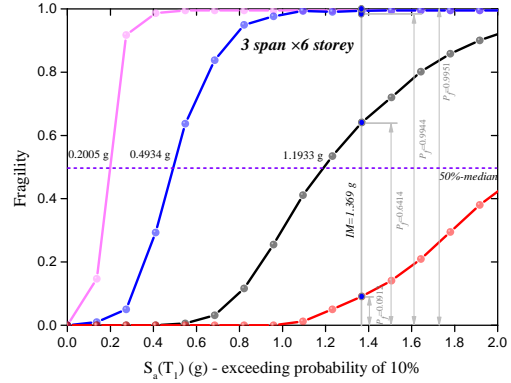
(a) Fragility with PGA exceeding probability of 63.2 %



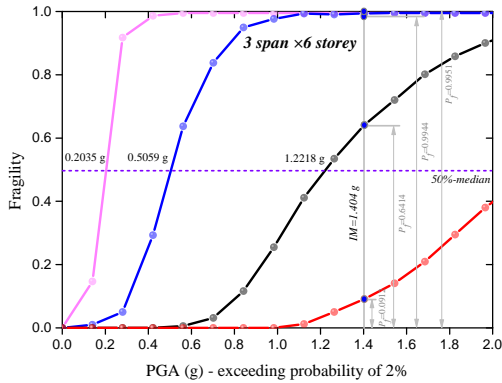
(b) Fragility with $S_a(T_1)$ exceeding probability of 63.2 %



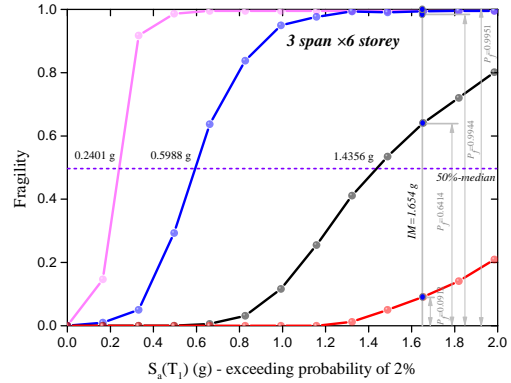
(c) Fragility with PGA exceeding probability of 10 %



(d) Fragility with $S_a(T_1)$ exceeding probability of 10 %



(e) Fragility with PGA exceeding probability of 2 %



(f) Fragility with $S_a(T_1)$ exceeding probability of 2 %

Figure 11: The fragility curves with different exceeding probability of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$

471 a novel and accurate non-parametric PDEM-based approach for the consistent hazard-fragility analysis in
 472 the PBEE.

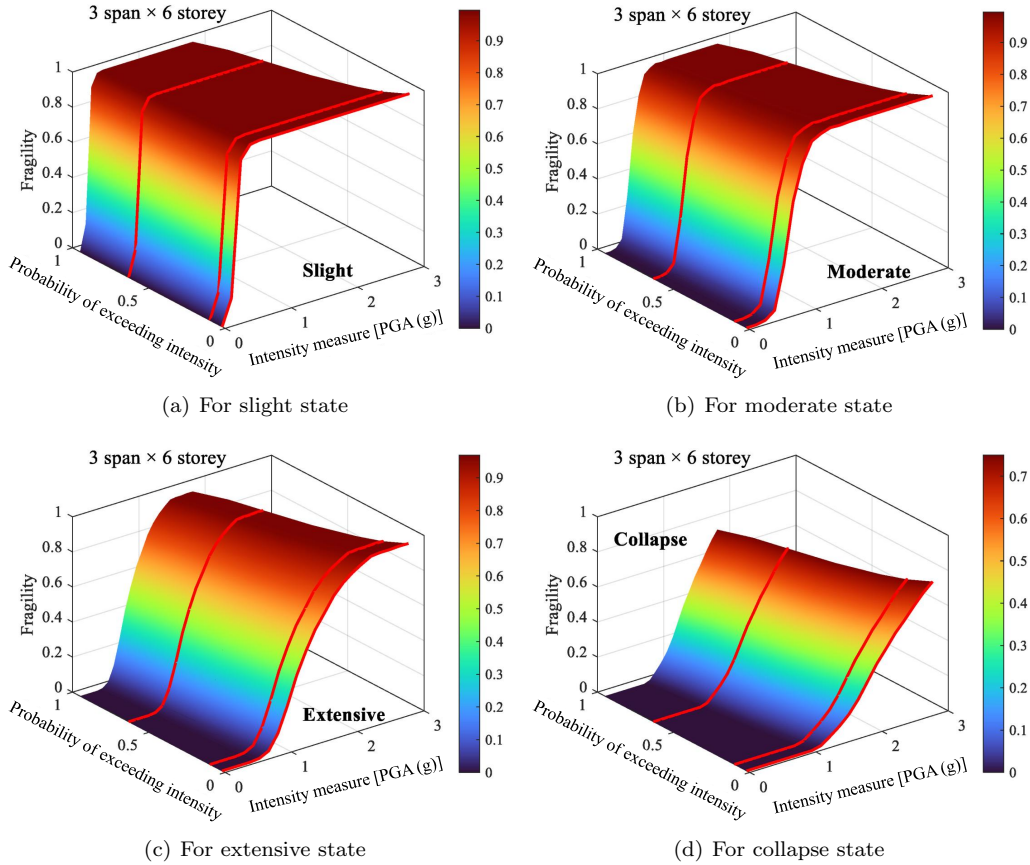


Figure 12: Consistent 3D PDEM-based probabilistic hazard-fragility curves based on PGA

473 5.4. Comparison with the classic approaches in the state-of-the-art

474 To verify the accuracy of the proposed 3D consistent PDEM-based probabilistic curves, a comparison with
 475 the classic approaches in the state-of-the-art is performed in this subsection. The PDEM-based hazard curves
 476 are first compared with the theoretical hazard curves via both the PGA and $S_a(T_1)$, and the corresponding
 477 deviation coefficients are also calculated for analysis. Then, as the fragility result is the most important link
 478 in the full probabilistic framework and the critical connection in the proposed 3D consistent hazard-fragility
 479 expression, four classic fragility approaches are selected and well discussed, which are the linear regression
 480 method (LRM), maximum likelihood estimation (MLE), kernel density estimation (KDE), and Monte Carlo
 481 Simulation (MCS). Among the four selected approaches, the LRM and MLE are based on the parametric
 482 lognormal assumption, and the KDE and MCS are generated in light of the non-parametric theories without
 483 predefined shapes. The LRM is one of the most classic solutions, and in this analysis, it adopts the classic
 484 least-squares principle as well as the lognormal distribution. More details of the LRM equation can be found
 485 in Cornell et al. [1], Lallemand et al. [92], Bakalis and Vamvatsikos [94]. The MLE is under the lognormal
 486 assumption via a two-parameter-based equation (i.e., median value and logarithmic standard deviation),
 487 and its principle mainly lies in the differential calculation of the likelihood function. Shinozuka et al. [21]
 488 explained its theory detailedly, and more references of MLE are available in Baker [93] and Lelièvre et al
 489 [95]. The KDE is expressed in a pure non-parametric analytical form, and during the process, the marginal

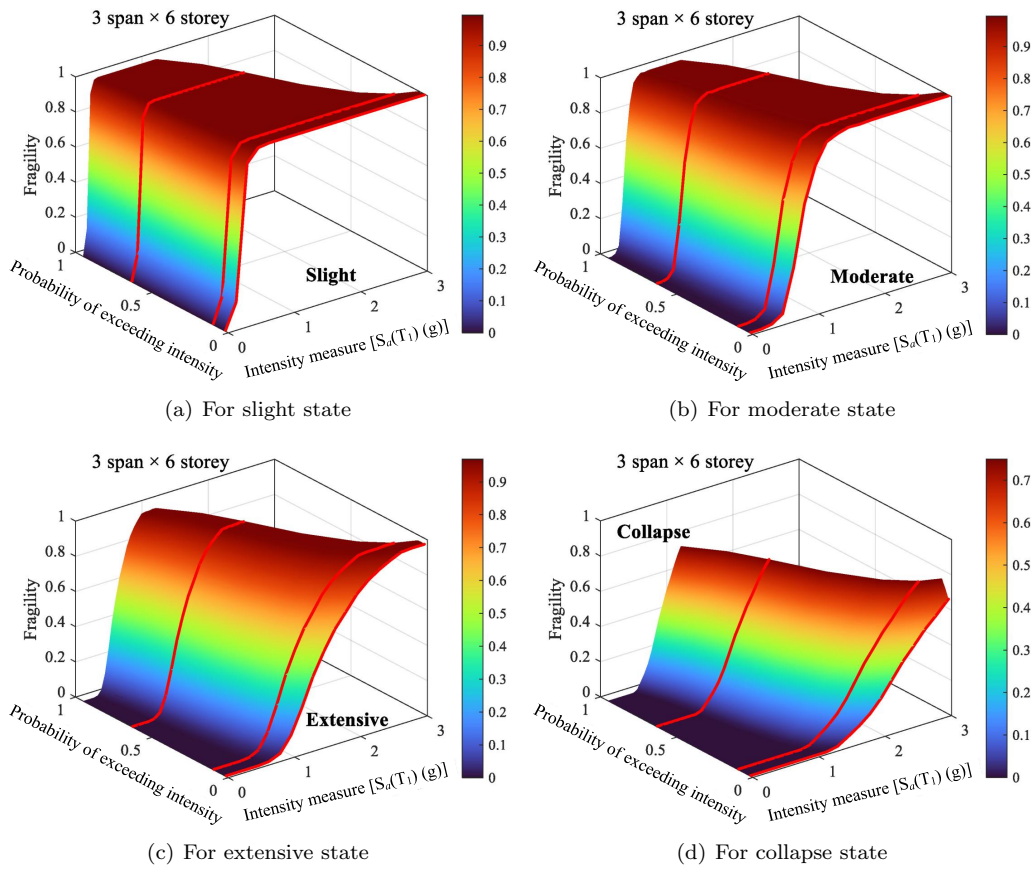


Figure 13: Consistent 3D PDEM-based probabilistic hazard-fragility curves based on $S_a(T_1)$

490 PDF of intensity and the joint PDF between intensity-demand are both required. Sudret and Mai [88, 96]
 491 introduced its application into civil engineering, and more references of KDE can be found in Trevlopoulos et
 492 al. [97] and Lee [98]. As for the MCS, it is a commonly-used benchmark approach to evaluate the unknown
 493 statistical distributions and to verify the accuracy of a novel method by mass sampling. The approach is
 494 computationally consuming but can acquire the accurate results through sufficient data. More references of
 495 MCS are accessible in Echard et al. [99] and Naess et al [100]. In this analysis, the stochastic non-stationary
 496 earthquakes for LRM, MLE and KDE are in accordance with the inputs of PDEM (i.e., 200 samples for each
 497 earthquake level), and for MCS, 10000 sample sets are generated for each earthquake level as the benchmark.

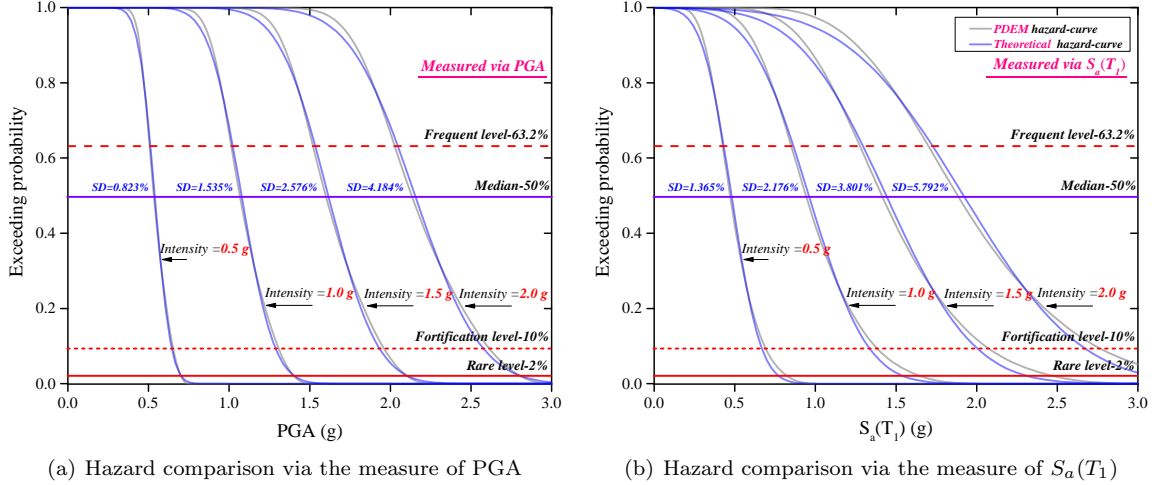


Figure 14: Comparison between the PDEM-based and theoretical hazard curves

498 Fig. 14 displays the comparison between the PDEM-based and theoretical hazard curves for the 0.5
 499 g, 1.0 g, 1.5 g, and 2.0 g levels, respectively. In general, good agreements can be observed between the
 500 two approaches. As for the intensity measure of PGA [Fig. 14(a)], the corresponding deviation coefficients
 501 for the four levels are calculated as 0.823 %, 1.535 %, 2.576 %, and 4.184 %, respectively, and for the
 502 intensity measure of $S_a(T_1)$ [Fig. 14(b)], the corresponding results for the four levels are given as 1.365
 503 %, 2.176 %, 3.801 %, and 5.792 %, respectively. The average deviation is 2.782 %, indicating an ideal
 504 fitting degree between the two approaches in a sense. Besides, the PDEM-based hazard approach avoids
 505 the predefined shapes as well as the distribution types, and its corresponding assigned probability space
 506 can be directly connected to the subsequent fragility analysis to constitute a consistent hazard-fragility
 507 assessment. Fig. 15 to 18 display the LRM-based, KDE-based, MLE-based and MCS-based theories and
 508 application approaches for fragility, respectively. Both the static and dynamic results are integrated (i.e.,
 509 CPI) for fragility assessment in this comparison study, and the PGA of non-stationary stochastic earthquake
 510 is adopted as the intensity measure for display in the following figures. To be specific, Fig. 15(a) and 15(b)
 511 reflect the lognormal fitting for capacity and least square regression for demand in the LRM, respectively.
 512 Fig. 16(a) and 16(b) reflect the marginal PDF of earthquake level and joint PDF between intensity-CPI
 513 in the KDE, respectively. Fig. 17(a) and 17(b) reflect the partial differential results of the two parameters
 514 in the lognormal equation in the MLE, respectively (via CPI). Fig. 18(a) to 18(d) display the scattered
 515 points for different limit states in the MCS, respectively (via CPI). For a clearer view, Fig. 19 presents
 516 the comparison with the classic approaches in the state-of-the-art (i.e., PDEM with the LRM, MLE, KDE
 517 and MCS), and the corresponding fitting coefficient (α) is summarized in Tab. 2. The expression of $\alpha =$
 518 $\sqrt{\sum_x^n (P_{f-app1-x} - P_{f-app2-x})^2 / (n-1)}$, in which $P_{f-app1-x}$ and $P_{f-app2-x}$ denote the fragility of the
 519 approach 1 and approach 2 under the x th earthquake level, and n denotes the total intensity numbers. In
 520 general, it can be seen that the fragility tendency shows ideal consistency between the PDEM and MCS.
 521 For all the four limit states, the α -PDEM to the MCS is given as 0.0134, 0.0163, 0.0113 and 0.0107, which

522 are all the smallest values in comparison with other approaches. As for the average α of PDEM (0.0129),
523 its reducing ratios than the α -MLE (0.0316), α -LRM (0.0415) and α -KDE (0.0477) are calculated as 59.18
524 %, 68.92 % and 72.96 %, respectively, which indicates the accuracy of the PDEM-based fragility framework.
525 Meanwhile, the computational efficiency of the PDEM-based method is significantly improved with less
526 sample sets when compared with the benchmark MCS approach (i.e., 200 vs 10000), which demonstrates
527 the superiority of the combined accuracy and efficiency of the non-parametric PDEM procedure, and further
528 proves the applicability and fidelity of the 3D consistent non-parametric seismic hazard-fragility framework
529 in a sense.

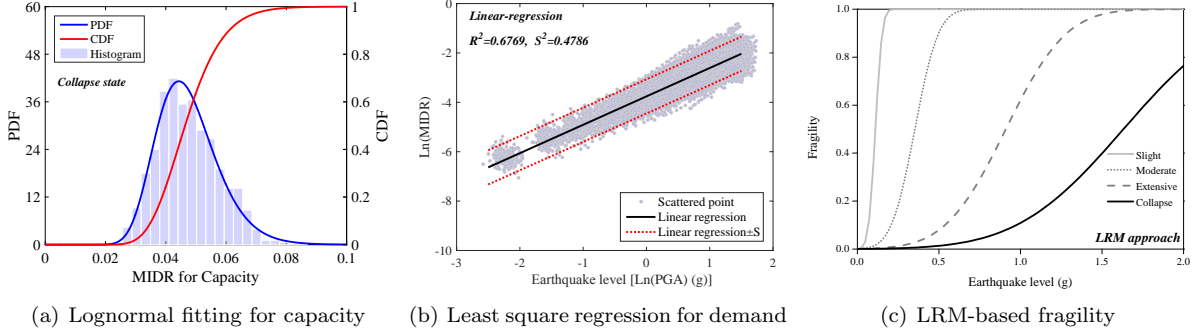


Figure 15: LRM-based theory and application approach for fragility

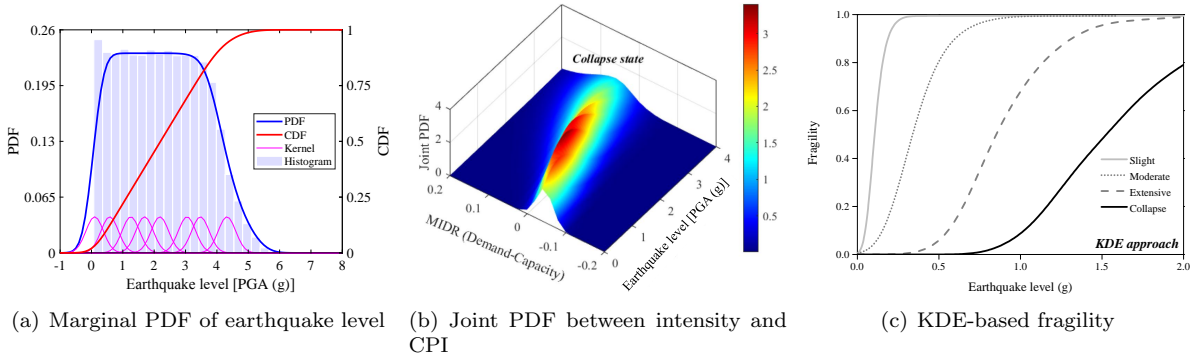


Figure 16: KDE-based theory and application approach for fragility

Table 2: Comparison with the classic approaches in the state-of-the-art (PDEM with the LRM, MLE, KDE and MCS)

<i>Number</i>	<i>Limit state</i>	α -MCS	α -PDEM	α -MLE	α -LRM	α -KDE
1	Slight	benchmark (0)	0.0134	0.0335	0.0542	0.0713
2	Moderate	benchmark (0)	0.0163	0.0425	0.0427	0.0614
3	Extensive	benchmark (0)	0.0113	0.0205	0.0382	0.0301
4	Collapse	benchmark (0)	0.0107	0.0297	0.0307	0.0278
5	Average	benchmark (0)	0.0129	0.0316	0.0415	0.0477

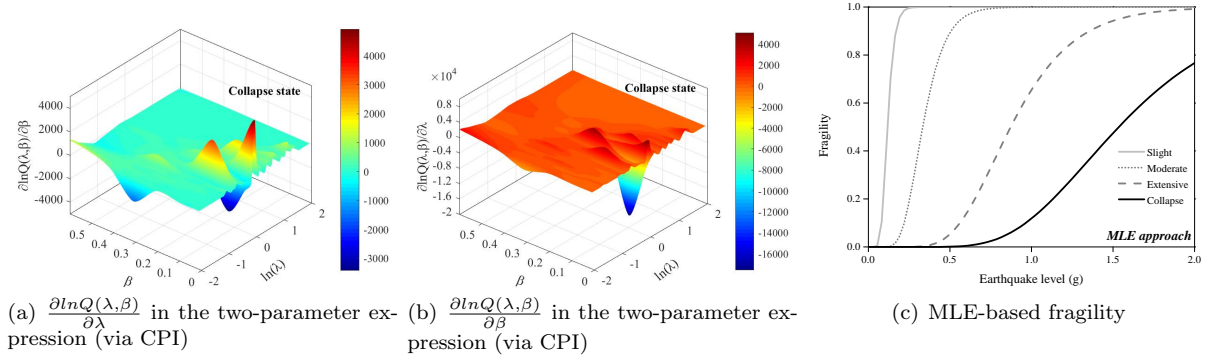


Figure 17: MLE-based theory and application approach for fragility

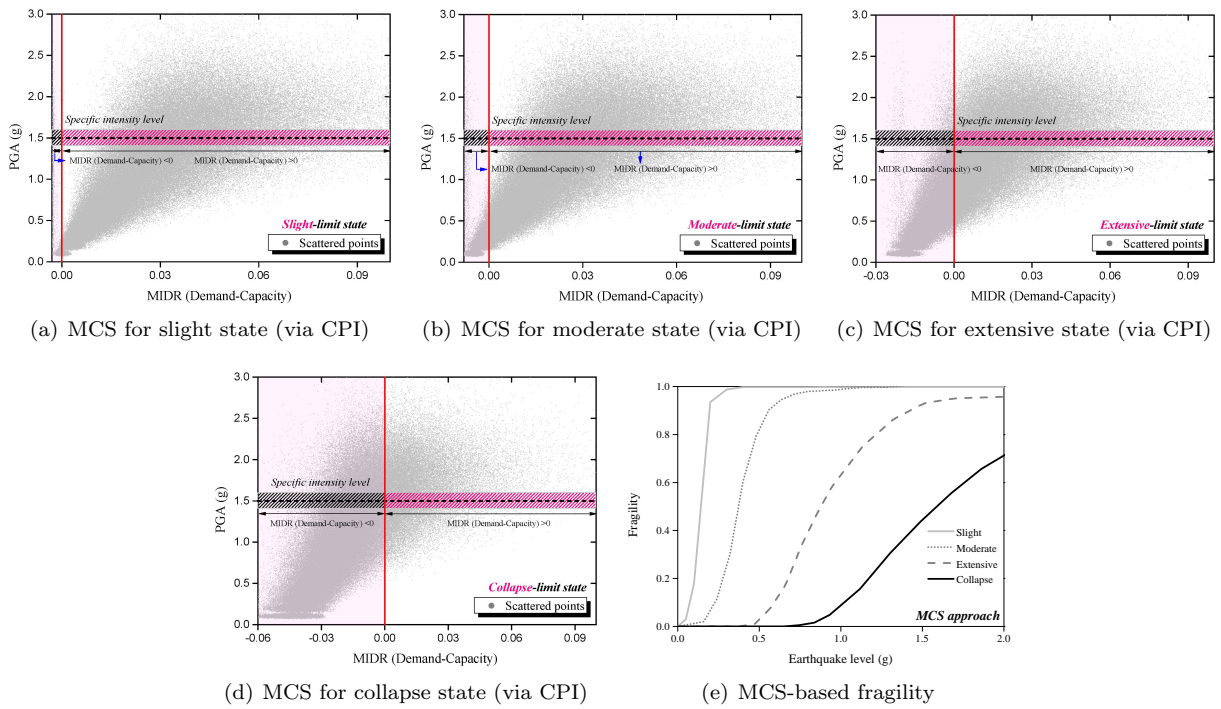


Figure 18: MCS-based theory and application approach for fragility

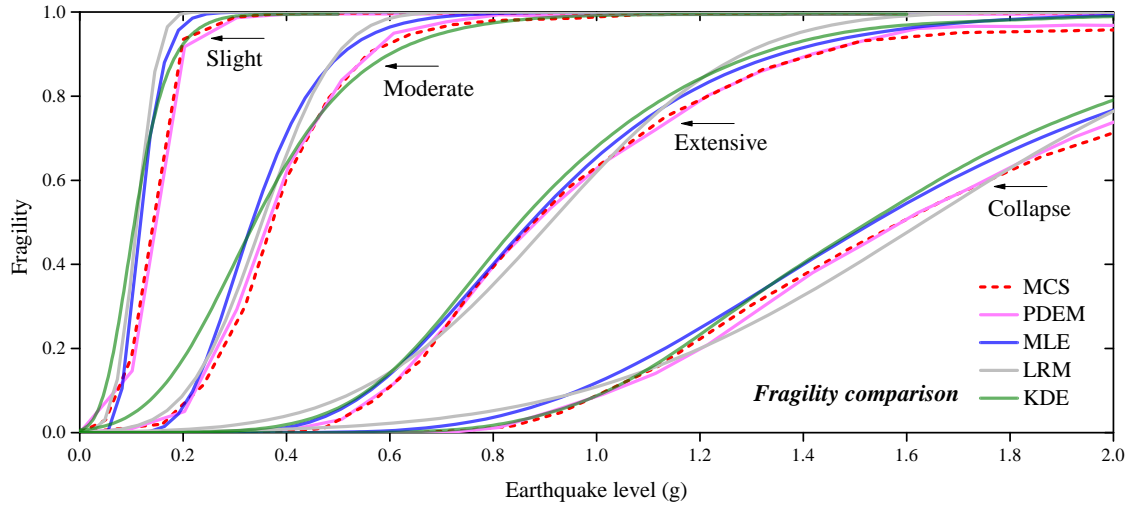


Figure 19: Comparison with the classic approaches in the state-of-the-art (PDEM with the LRM, MLE, KDE and MCS)

530 **6. Conclusions**

531 In this paper, a consistent seismic hazard and fragility framework with combined capacity-demand un-
 532 certainties is proposed. The well-known PDEM is applied, which has solid theoretical basis in the reliability
 533 field, and it is ideally integrated within the PBEE for hazard-fragility assessment. A non-stationary stochas-
 534 tic earthquake model is introduced, and the final 3D consistent hazard-fragility curves are given for predicting
 535 the structural performance considering multiple uncertainties. Different limit states, different earthquake
 536 levels as well as different intensity exceeding conditions can all be incorporated, and a comparison study with
 537 the classic approaches in the state-of-the-art (i.e., theoretical approach for hazard, LRM, MLE, KDE and
 538 MCS-based approaches for fragility) is performed to verify the accuracy of PDEM procedure, from which
 539 the following conclusions may be drawn:

540 As for the PDEM-based framework, the sample sets with different assigned probability are required to
 541 determine in advance through generalized F-Discrepancy method, which is a key step for the subsequent
 542 structural analysis and data summarization. The equivalent extreme events with virtual stochastic process
 543 are established during the process. Both the uncertainties of capacity and demand are considered, and a
 544 combined performance index (CPI) is defined as the concerned physical variable in PDEM, through pushover
 545 static and timehistory dynamic analyses. The information of earthquakes [e.g., PGA or $S_a(T_1)$] is also
 546 acquired as the concerned physical variable for each earthquake level, and then brought into the generalize
 547 PDEM equation for solution. The PDEM-based framework avoids the pre-defined lognormal curve shape
 548 and proves the combined efficiency and accuracy with the MCS.

549 As for the hazard-fragility analysis, the non-stationary stochastic ground motion is a key step in calcu-
 550 lation, which is generated by spectral representation of random functions. The non-stationary stochastic
 551 ground motion avoids the limitations of natural ground motions and reflects more actual characteristics of
 552 ground motions by one or two variables. With the one or two variables, the earthquake model can be con-
 553 nected with the PDEM through each probability space and the statistical distributions of PGA or $S_a(T_1)$ for
 554 different earthquake levels can be constituted. The relationship between the fragility value and hazard extent
 555 is directly built without re-selecting ground motions, and the conditional probability in the full-probability
 556 formula can be directly satisfied. The probabilistic hazard-fragility analysis and the consistent 3D curves in
 557 this paper are mainly attributed to the application of PDEM and non-stationary earthquake models, which
 558 provides new ideas for the risk-based assessment scheme in the PBEE.

559 Acknowledgements

560 The first two authors greatly appreciate the Project of National Key Research and Development Program
561 of China (Grant No. 2022YFC3803004), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos.
562 52208164 and 52078119), and the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu Province (Grant Nos. BK20220984
563 and BK20211564).

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