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Seismic behavior of circular tunnels: Influence of the initial stress state

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30 **1. Introduction**

31 The excavation of tunnels leads to significant perturbations of the initial stress state in the surrounding
32 soils and thus affects the internal forces and deformations of the tunnel lining. In the last decades, growing
33 attention has been paid to assess the stability of tunnels in various construction methods and consequences
34 during tunneling [8-10].

35 On the other hand, the seismic tunnel behavior is also of great importance due to severe damages of
36 tunnels were found in past earthquakes [23,24,30,33,36,43,44,46]. Despite many important influencing
37 factors have been recently identified [16,40], the influence of the stress redistribution caused by tunnel
38 excavation on the earthquake damage is seldom evaluated due to lack of construction information. Indeed,
39 the stress release process is not easy to be precisely quantified during tunneling or in the experimental test.

40 Recently, a series of centrifuge tests were performed to study the tunnel seismic behavior and to
41 validate the accuracy of various soil constitutive models [1,5,15,17,28,29,42]. The numerical simulations
42 highlighted that more sophisticated constitutive models were not always performing better than simplified
43 ones, mainly due to the uncertainties which exist in the developed numerical models (i.e., soil-tunnel
44 interface, parameter calibration, damping) [3]. The tunnel construction process has been involved in some
45 numerical studies, but the influence of the stress release process on the seismic tunnel behavior was not
46 fully evaluated [6,25,31]. Corigliano et al. [6] analyzed the seismic response of the Serro Montefalco
47 tunnel (Italy) using the nonlinear pseudo-static approach. In their study, a stress release coefficient of
48 0.75 was adopted to simulate the construction stages of the tunnel prior to the earthquake loading.
49 Kontoe et al. [25] compared numerical results with analytical solutions using finite element method with a
50 stress release coefficient of 0.5. Ma et al. [31] performed a numerical analysis to investigate the role of the
51 burial depth on the seismic behavior of subway station accounts for the ground loss ($\zeta = 0.5$ %) induced
52 by construction.

53 Gomes [14] provided the first study of construction-induced stress disturbance effect on the seismic
54 behavior of tunnels, to the authors' knowledge, that considered the soil nonlinearity using an advanced
55 multi-mechanism elastoplastic model. Nevertheless, Gomes [14] did not consider the slippage and
56 separation at the soil-tunnel interface. More recently, Sun and Dias [39] investigated the stress release
57 during tunneling on seismic tunnel behavior by the pseudo-static method accounted for the influence of
58 Young's modulus of soil, the coefficient of earth pressure at rest, the applied shear strain and the

59 constitutive model of soil. It was worth noting that the dynamic soil behavior, the inertia force of the
60 tunnel and the dynamic amplification of the soil could not be considered in the pseudo-static analysis.
61 These effects are probably significant for evaluating the construction-induced stress redistribution on the
62 seismic behavior of tunnels, which can only be captured by dynamic nonlinear time-history analysis.

63 This paper aims to evaluate how the initial stress state caused by construction affects the seismic
64 behavior of tunnels by using a series of dynamic nonlinear time-history numerical analyses in
65 two-dimensional. The Bologna-Florence high-speed railway line tunnel project in Italy is adopted as the
66 reference case. Prior to the earthquake analysis, the tunnel excavation is simulated using the
67 convergence-confinement method to obtain various initial stress states in the surrounding soils and the
68 corresponding static lining forces and deformations. Then, six earthquake loadings are applied to evaluate
69 the effect of the initial stress states on the tunnel seismic response accounting for the input motion
70 intensities and frequency characteristics. The numerical model assumes both the no-slip and full-slip
71 conditions between the soil and the lining, which is consistent with the commonly used assumption of the
72 analytical solutions. Based on the numerical predictions, the relationships between the stress release
73 coefficients and the normalized lining force increments in a wide range of cases are presented. Finally, the
74 possible influences of the stress redistribution caused by construction on the surface ground motion, as
75 well as the uncertainties in modulus reduction curves and damping ratios in numerical models are
76 discussed.

77

78 **2. Convergence-confinement method**

79 Only a three-dimensional model can accurately simulate the tunnel excavation due to the tunnel
80 advancement which induces a stress redistribution and three-dimensional deformation. However, due to
81 the complexity and the time-consuming of this type of model, the tunneling process is often modeled using
82 two-dimensional plane strain conditions [9,21].

83 The convergence-confinement method (CCM) which accounts for the 3D effects by replacing the
84 ground to be excavated by a fictitious pressure is the one that has been widely used among the available
85 equivalent approaches. Previous works pointed out that this method works well to simulate tunnel-induced
86 surface settlement and lining forces in two-dimensional numerical studies [7,8,34]. The radial stress, σ_r ,
87 acting on the tunnel periphery is given as follows:

88

$$\sigma_r = (1 - \lambda)\sigma^0 \quad (1)$$

89

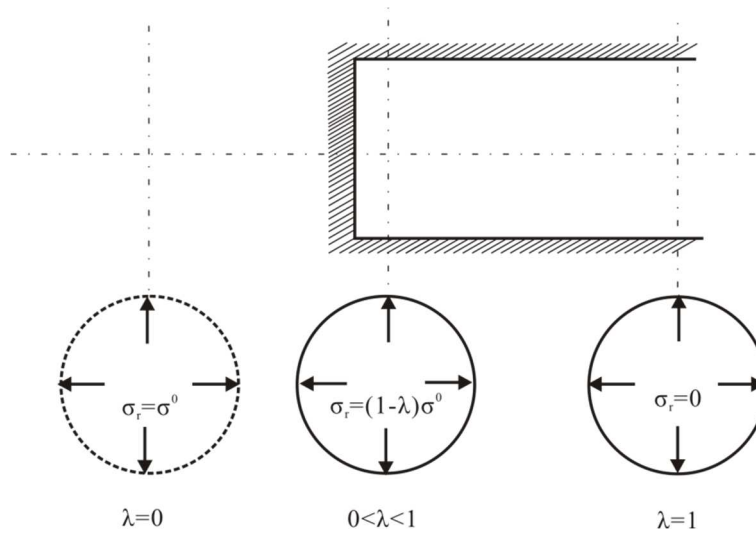
$$\lambda = \frac{U_r^{(x)}}{U_r^\infty} \quad (2)$$

90

$$U_r^\infty = \frac{1+\mu}{E}\sigma^0 r \quad (3)$$

91 where λ is the stress release coefficient; σ^0 is the initial stress in the ground medium; $U_r^{(x)}$ is the radial
 92 component of displacement at a distance x behind the face; and U_r^∞ is the radial component of
 93 displacement at a distance behind the face considered as infinite.

94

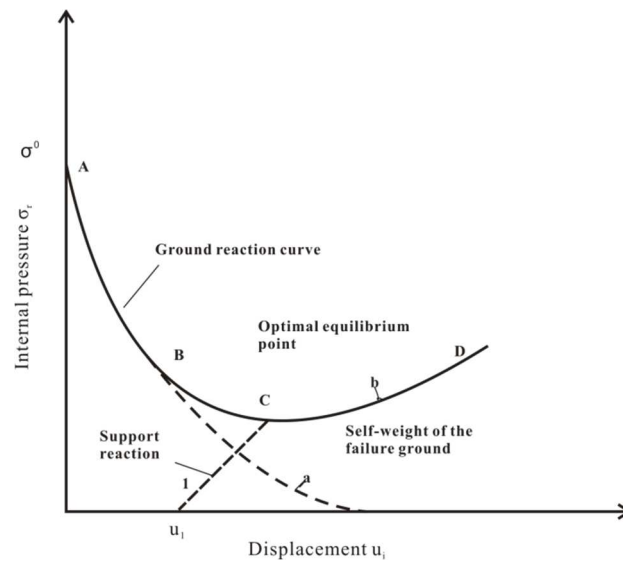


95

Fig. 1. Evolution of tunnel convergence with face advance

96

97



98

Fig. 2. CCM: 1 support reaction line u_1 and tunnel boundary displacements before the installation of the lining

99

100

101 The two-dimensional tunneling problem is illustrated in Fig. 1. The tunneling process is represented

102 by increasing the λ value from 0 to 1. Fig. 2 shows the main characteristics of the
103 convergence-confinement method. The convergence curve corresponds to the internal pressure versus the
104 tunnel radial displacement. The radial displacement of the tunnel increases as the internal pressure
105 decreases. The tunnel can be self-stabilized without a liner (curve (a) in Fig. 2) or the surrounding ground
106 can fail which leads to an increase in the ground load acting on the tunnel lining (curve b in Fig. 2). In the
107 latter case, a liner must be installed to keep the stability of the tunnel [9].

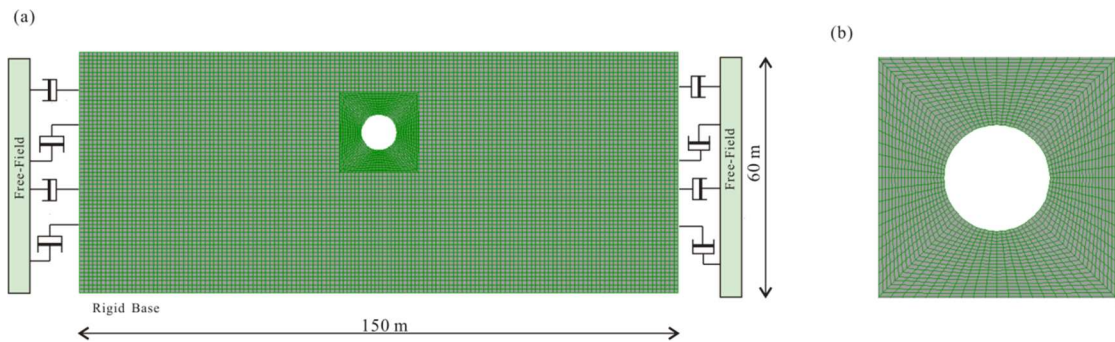
108

109 3. Two-dimensional numerical modeling

110 3.1 Model parameters

111 In this study, the Bologna-Florence high-speed railway tunnel project in Italy is adopted as the
112 reference case. This project is part of the Italian high-speed railway network. The external excavation
113 diameter of the tunnel equals to 9.4 m and the internal diameter equals to 8.3 m. The tunnel section equals
114 to 46 m². The lining forces and stability of the tunnel during the construction stages have been analyzed in
115 the previous studies [7,9].

116



117

118

Fig. 3. Soil-tunnel numerical model: (a) meshes and boundary conditions; (b) refined meshes around the tunnel

119

120 Fig. 3 shows the two-dimensional numerical model using the FLAC finite difference element code
121 [20]. The model has a height of 60 m and a width of 150 m. It is assumed that the behavior of the tunnel
122 lining is linear-elastic and the behavior of the surrounding soil is simulated with an elastic-perfectly plastic
123 constitutive model (Mohr-Coulomb (MC) failure criterion [7,9]). This criterion is frequently used in the
124 nonlinear seismic analyses of tunnels [4,38] despite its simplicity. Parameters of the tunnel support and of
125 the soil adopted in this study are given in Table 1 [7,9].

126

127

Table 1. Parameters of the tunnel

Parameters	Symbol	Value	Unit
<i>Properties of clayed sand</i>			
Unit weight	γ_m	17	kN/m ³
Initial Young's modulus	E_m	150	MPa
Poisson's ratio	μ_m	0.3	-
Internal friction angle	ϕ	37	°
Dilatancy angle	ϕ	0	°
Cohesion	c	5	kPa
Lateral earth pressure factor	K_0	0.5	-
Depth	H	20	m
<i>Properties of tunnel lining</i>			
Young's modulus	E_l	35,000	MPa
Poisson's ratio	μ_l	0.15	-
Lining thickness	T	0.4	m
External diameter	D	9.1	m

129

130 Hysteretic damping models used in the dynamic analysis impose the shear-modulus reduction and
 131 damping ratios as a function of cyclic shear strains. A built-in hysteretic damping model [20] is selected
 132 for the dynamic analysis.

133

$$G_{\text{secant}} = s^2(3 - 2s) \quad (4)$$

134

$$s = \frac{L_2 - L}{L_2 - L_1} \quad (5)$$

135 where L is the logarithmic strain and L_1 and L_2 are the extreme values of logarithmic strain.

136 Shear modulus reduction curves under different mean effective pressures, p' , or depths reported by
 137 several researchers [3,11,12] are presented in Fig. 4. It can be found that these curves are strongly
 138 dependent on the p' or depth, and different curves are probably obtained even for the same value of p' (i.e.,
 139 $p'=400$ kPa). It should be clarified that the hysteretic damping used here is not as a primary way to
 140 simulate yielding, but as a supplement to the nonlinear constitutive model (linear elastic perfectly plastic in
 141 this study). In the absence of laboratory data, the shear modulus reduction curve suggested by Sun et al.
 142 [35] is used (dash green line). This curve is close to the data of [3] for $p'=200$ kPa which corresponds to
 143 the location of the tunnel springline.

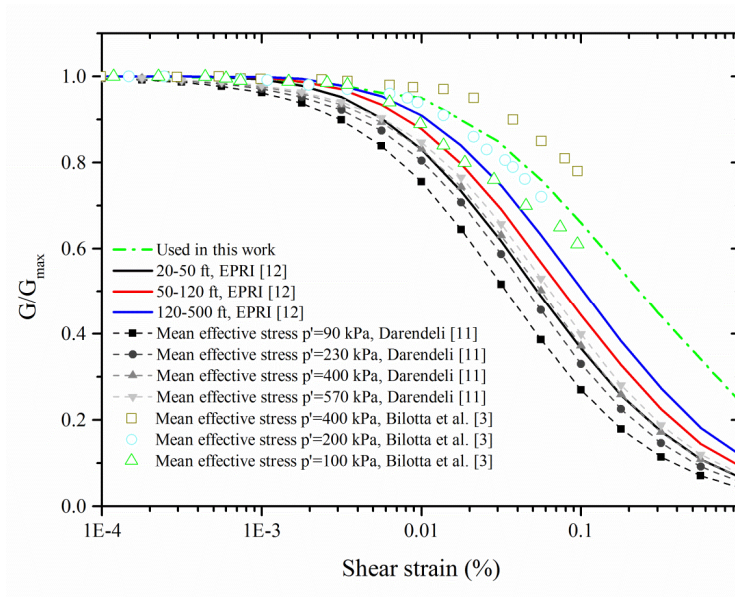


Fig. 4. Shear modulus reduction curve

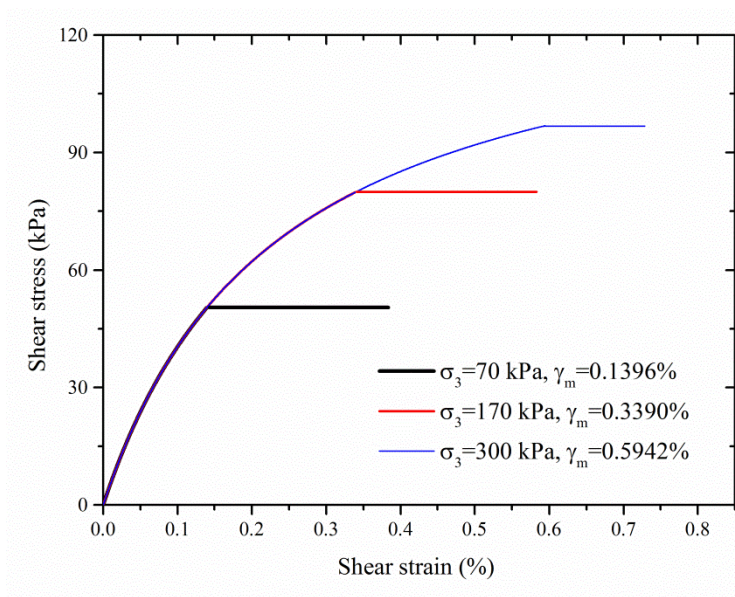


Fig. 5. Shear stress/strain curves – Linear elastic perfectly plastic (Mohr-Coulomb shear failure criteria) constitutive model with hysteretic damping under different confinement pressures

Fig. 5 presents the shear stress/strain curves under different confinement pressures (σ_3) when a hysteretic damping is combined with the linear elastic perfectly plastic MC model. The MC model has a constant elastic shear modulus and a constant yield stress. It is not able to simulate the soil shear modulus degradation in the elastic range. Hence, introducing a hysteretic damping permits to induce energy dissipation below the yield strain γ_m . Whereas, the dissipated energy (area enclosed in the shear stress/strain loop) in the plastic range, can be attributed to both the hysteretic damping and MC model

157 itself. Compared to the MC model only, the inclusion of hysteretic damping increases the overall damping
158 ratio during the dynamic analysis [20], which monotonically increases with the shear strain amplitude.

159 The soil-tunnel interfaces are modeled as a linear spring-slider system following the Mohr-Coulomb
160 shear failure criterion. The relative movement and separation are controlled by the normal stiffness K_n
161 and the shear stiffness K_s . The apparent stiffness of a zone in the normal direction is:

$$162 \max \left[\frac{K + \frac{4}{3}G}{\Delta Z_{\min}} \right] \quad (6)$$

163 where K and G are the bulk and shear modulus respectively, and ΔZ_{\min} is the smallest width of the
164 adjoining zone in the normal direction. According to the Users' manual [20], nearly ten times the
165 equivalent stiffness of the stiffest neighboring zone is generally used to calculate the normal stiffness. By
166 the sensitivity analysis, $K_n = 4 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^3$ is adopted here. Too larger normal stiffness value is not
167 recommended because of expensive computational cost. The shear stiffness depends on the degree of the
168 slippage, and a very high stiffness value prevents movement on the interface. Through checking the
169 soil-tunnel interface states in the sensitivity analysis (see Fig. 8), the shear stiffness of $4 \times 10^9 \text{ N/m}^3$ can
170 properly present the no-slip condition. For the full-slip case, a nominal value of the shear stiffness ($K_s =$
171 $1 \times 10^3 \text{ N/m}^3$) is used as recommended in Kontoe et al. [25].

172 The boundaries conditions used in the numerical models are as follows: the nodes along the lateral
173 boundaries are fixed in the horizontal direction; meanwhile, both the horizontal and the vertical directions
174 are fixed at the base of the model in the static analysis. For the dynamic analysis, the side boundaries use
175 the free-field boundary conditions and the vertical velocity along the model bottom is fixed to simulate a
176 rigid base condition.

177 In dynamic simulations, the frequency-dependent viscous damping is generally introduced by means
178 of the Rayleigh formulation. Owing to the inherent limitation of the Rayleigh damping, the numerical
179 results can be significantly affected by the Rayleigh damping determination method [27,32,38]. According
180 to the recommendation of Kwok et al. [27], the fundamental site frequency and five times the fundamental
181 site frequency are selected to determine the center frequency corresponding to a $f_{\min} = 1.8 \text{ Hz}$ in this
182 study. With regard to the minimum damping ratio ζ_{\min} , a ratio of 3.0 % is determined. The influence of
183 the minimum damping ratio on the numerical predictions will be presented later.

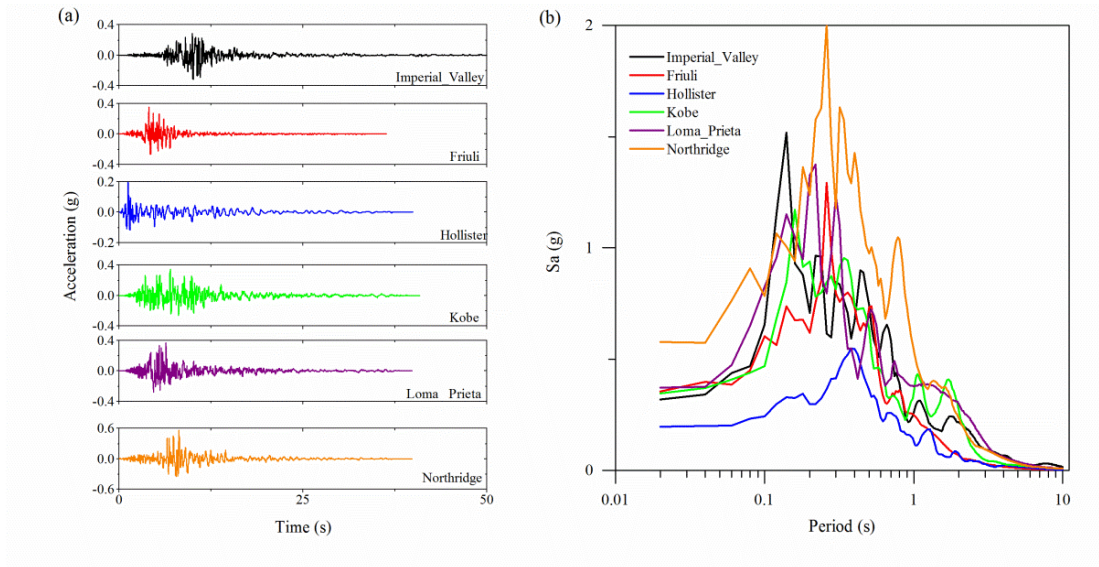
184 Six real ground motions (Table 2) with diverse frequency components are used as the seismic input
185 motions in order to capture the influence of the frequency characteristics on the tunnel seismic behavior, as

186 plotted in Fig. 6. In order to reduce the computational cost, the ground motion duration time is set to 25 s,
 187 which contains the peak acceleration and critical frequency characteristics of the original ground motions.
 188 All the input ground motions are scaled to three amplitudes (0.1 g, 0.2 g, and 0.4 g) to account for the
 189 effect of the input motion intensities. A low-pass filter is applied to remove the frequencies higher than
 190 15 Hz in order to ensure the numerical stability and the accuracy of the wave propagation within the
 191 model. The acceleration time histories are applied along the model bottom to simulate the vertically
 192 propagating ground motions. Based on the well-known equation of Kuhlemeyer and Lysmer [26], the
 193 maximum mesh size used here is equal to 1 m and the meshes around the tunnel are refined, as illustrated
 194 in Fig. 3b.

195 **Table 2.** Input ground motions

Number	Earthquake event	Station name	PGA (g)	Predominant frequency (Hz)
GM1	Imperial Valley	USGS station 5115	0.3152	7.1
GM2	Friuli	Tomezzo (000)	0.3513	3.9
GM3	Hollister	USGS station 1028	0.1948	2.5
GM4	Kobe	Kakogawa (cue90)	0.3447	6.3
GM5	Loma Prieta	090CDMG station 47381	0.3674	4.5
GM6	Northridge	090CDMG station 24278	0.5683	3.8

196



197

198

Fig. 6. Input ground motions (a) Acceleration time histories (b) Fourier amplitude spectra

199

200 3.2 Stress release phase

201 The tunneling induced stress release process is simulated using the convergence-confinement method
 202 through the following steps:

203 (a) Generation of the initial geostatic stress under the gravity loads and the lateral earth pressure.

204 (b) The full tunnel face is excavated and a radial pressure is simultaneously applied to the tunnel
205 boundaries. The radial pressure is then reduced step by step until it reaches the specified stress release
206 coefficient λ and achieve a new equilibrium state.

207 (c) Installation of the tunnel lining then completely releases the residual radial pressure.

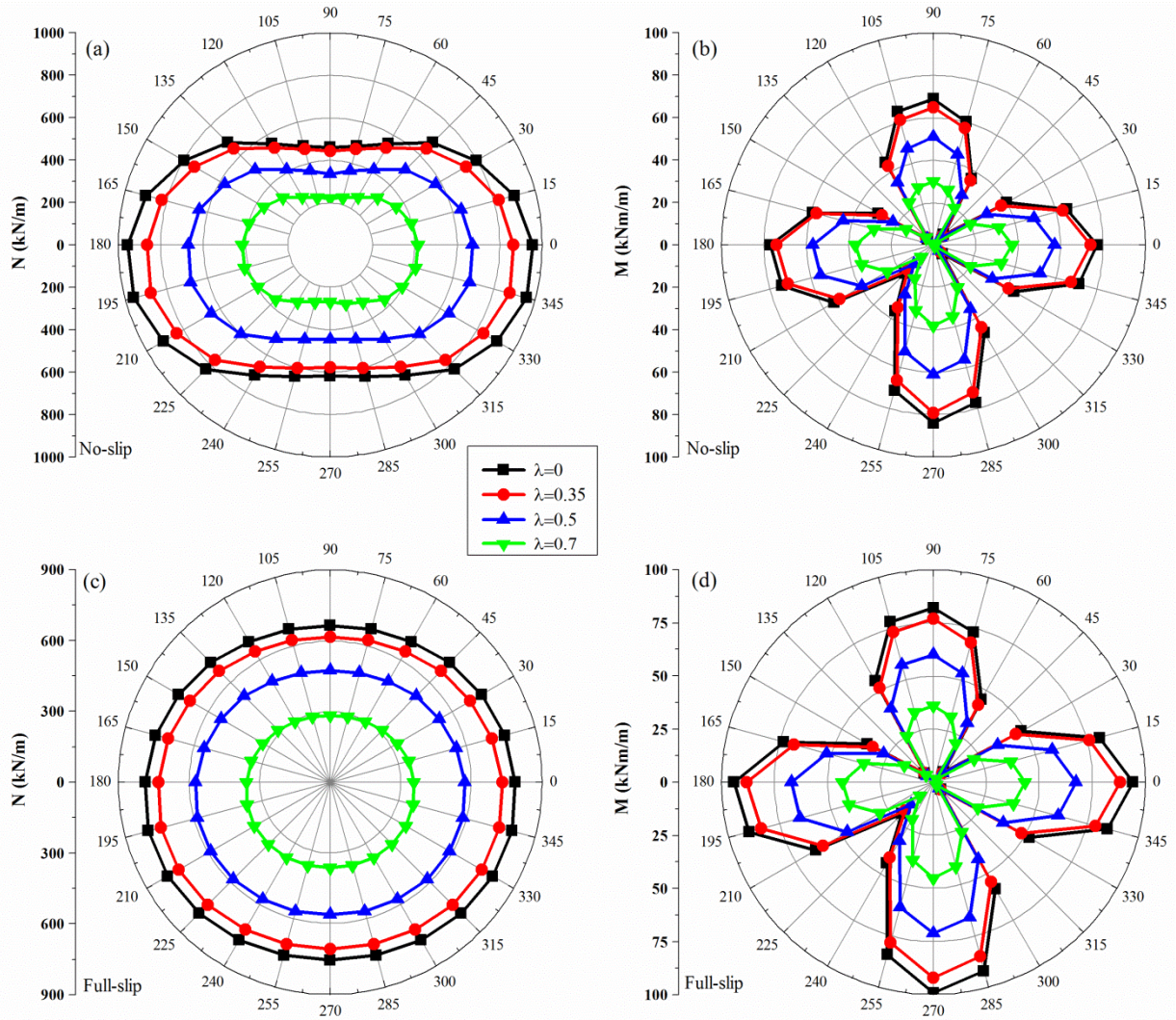
208 In practice, the stress release coefficients are usually specified according to back analysis of
209 experimental or field monitoring data obtained during the tunneling process [19,22]. In the present study,
210 four stress release coefficients of 0, 0.35, 0.5, and 0.7 are adopted. The value $\lambda = 0$ means that the
211 tunneling process is not taken into account, which is frequently used in most of numerical analyses and
212 analytical solutions. In this study, the complete stress release process ($\lambda = 1.0$) is not adopted due to the
213 fact that the calculation cannot reach an equilibrium state (large deformation of soil occurs), which is also
214 not realistic for shallow tunnels constructed in soft soil.

215 **4. Numerical results**

216 *4.1 Static analysis*

217 Before the dynamic analyses, the static analyses are performed first to determine the initial stress
218 states in the surrounding soils and the static lining forces and deformations. Fig. 7 shows the distribution of
219 the static lining forces with different stress release coefficients for the two soil-tunnel interface conditions
220 at the end of the static analysis.

221

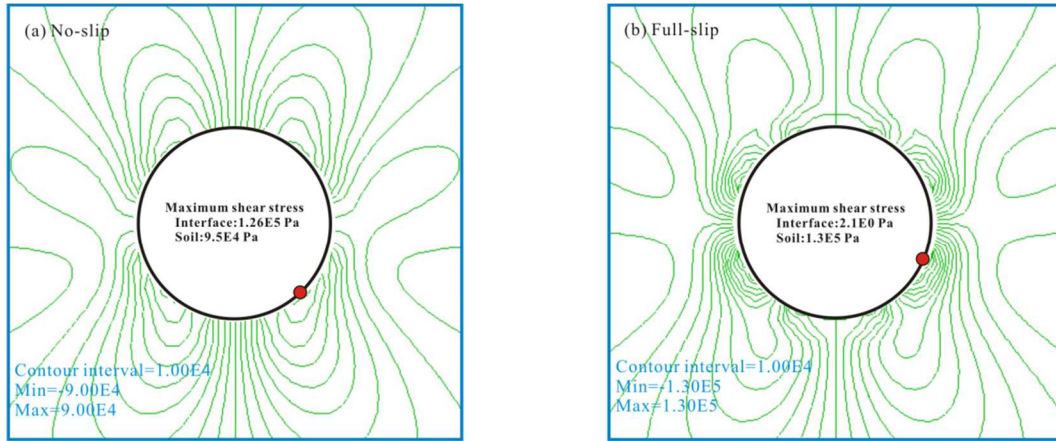


222
 223 **Fig. 7.** Lining forces after the lining installed: (a) axial forces, no-slip; (b) bending moments, no-slip; (c) axial forces, full-slip; (d)
 224 bending moments, full-slip
 225

226 As can be seen, an increase in the stress release coefficient generally results in a reduction in the
 227 lining forces. In addition, the distributions of bending moment are similar for both the no-slip and full-slip
 228 cases. For the no-slip case, the maximum axial forces appeared at the two tunnel sides (Fig. 7a) due to the
 229 low value of the lateral earth pressure coefficient at rest ($K_0 = 0.5$); while for the full-slip case the axial
 230 forces seem to be almost constant in the lining. This can be contributed to the slippage and separation
 231 occurred between the soil and the tunnel due to the very small shear stiffness in the full-slip condition [37].
 232 Fig. 8 shows the maximum shear stress in the surrounding soil and the interface. It can be seen that the
 233 maximum interface shear stress (126 kPa) is larger than the maximum soil shear stress (95 kPa) for the
 234 no-slip condition, preventing the occurrence of the slippage at the soil-tunnel interface. However, the

235 maximum interface shear stress is significantly smaller (2.1 Pa) than the one in the surrounding soil (130
 236 kPa) for the full-slip condition, providing a negligible shear resistance to the slippage. It illustrates that the
 237 interface parameters selected in this study are appropriate to respectively simulate the no-slip and full-slip
 238 conditions.

239



240 Notes: red point presents the location of the soil maximum shear stress

241 Fig. 8. Maximum soil shear stress without considering stress relief: (a) no-slip; (b) full-slip

242

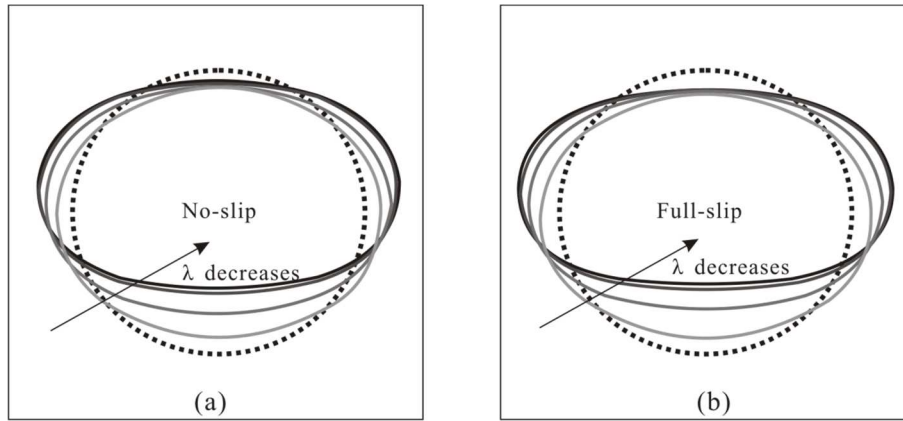
243 To further validate the accuracy of the soil-tunnel interface parameters, Table 3 presents the comparison of
 244 the calculated maximum axial forces and bending moments by the numerical analysis and two analytical
 245 solutions [2,13] for the no-slip condition without considering stress release. The equations employed by the two
 246 analytical solutions are summarized in the Appendix. Both the analytical solutions over-estimate the lining
 247 forces, particularly for the axial forces calculated by the Erdmann [13] solution (+43%). In general, analytical
 248 solutions assume a uniform stress field for a deep tunnel in an elastic soil. However, the tunnel in this study
 249 cannot be considered as a deep tunnel and the stress at the tunnel crown ($\sigma_v = 258$ kPa) is smaller than the one
 250 at the tunnel invert ($\sigma_v = 408$ kPa). It thus leads to a non-uniform stress field. Furthermore, the nonlinearity
 251 soil behaviour affects the lining forces in the numerical predictions, as stated in [45].

252

253 **Table 3.** Comparison of the calculated axial forces and bending moments by numerical analysis and analytical solutions for the
 254 no-slip condition and for $\lambda=0$

	Numerical analysis	Bakker [2]	Erdmann [13]
Axial force, N (kN/m)	959	1233 (+26%)	1374 (+43%)
Bending moment, M (kNm/m)	84	86 (+2%)	117 (+39%)

255

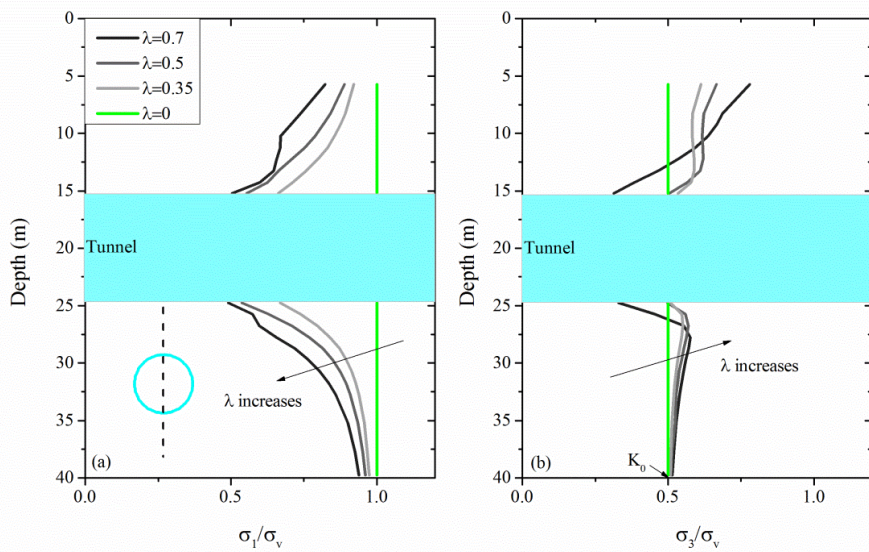


256
257 **Fig. 9.** Tunnel lining deformations for different stress release coefficients: (a) no-slip; (b) full-slip (Magnification factor: 300)
258

259 Fig. 9 compares the tunnel deformations for different stress release coefficients, showing that the
260 tunnel lining deforms less when a larger stress release coefficient is employed, both in terms of horizontal
261 and vertical deformations (Table 4). The stress release process reduces the stress acting on the tunnel lining
262 which then produces less deformation, as expected. Table 4 also depicts that the deformation is more
263 significant for the full-slip condition.

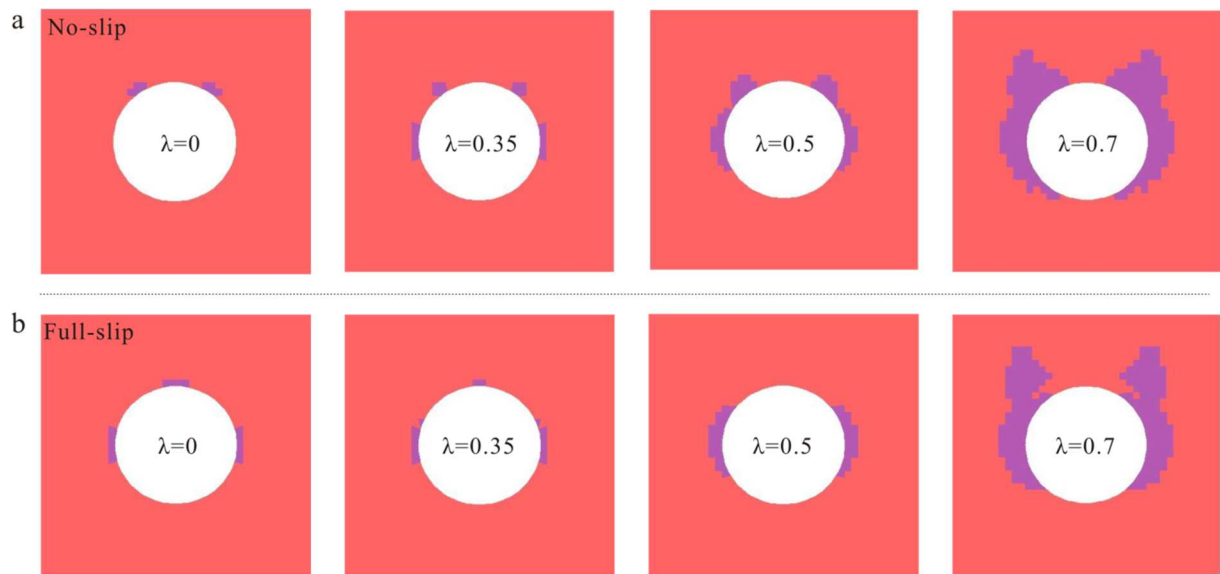
264
265 **Table 4.** Horizontal and vertical deformations of tunnel lining for different stress release coefficients

λ	Horizontal deformation (cm)		Vertical deformation (cm)	
	No-slip	Full-slip	No-slip	Full-slip
0	0.52	0.63	0.62	0.73
0.35	0.49	0.59	0.58	0.68
0.5	0.38	0.46	0.45	0.53
0.7	0.24	0.29	0.28	0.33



266
267
268 **Fig. 10.** Normalized vertical and horizontal stress around the tunnel

269 The mobilization of the earth pressure around the tunnel for different stress release coefficients is
 270 presented in Fig. 10, in terms of the normalized vertical (σ_1/σ_v) and horizontal stress (σ_3/σ_v) calculated
 271 along the tunnel centerline. Both the values of σ_1/σ_v and σ_3/σ_v decrease around the tunnel due to the
 272 stress release process, particularly for the higher stress release coefficients. In addition, larger lateral earth
 273 pressure coefficients (σ_3/σ_v) are predicted for higher λ at some positions, due to the soils are in a passive
 274 state when move towards the tunnel.
 275



276
 277 **Fig. 11.** Plastic zones after the lining installation versus the stress release coefficients: (a) no-slip case; (b) full-slip case
 278

279 Fig. 11 presents the plastic zones in the surrounding soil versus four stress release coefficients for the
 280 no-slip and full-slip cases. As can be clearly seen, the plastic zone becomes larger as the stress release
 281 coefficient increases, particularly for the tunnel sides and shoulders. It is attributed to the displacement of
 282 soil around the tunnel boundary becomes progressively larger as the stress release coefficient increases
 283 (Fig. 2). When $\lambda < 0.35$, most of the surrounding soil elements do not reach the plastic state and, stay in
 284 an elastic state. It seems that no-slip case induces a slightly larger plastic zone than full-slip case. However,
 285 as compared to the stress release process, the effect of soil-tunnel interface conditions on the plastic zone
 286 seems unimportant.
 287

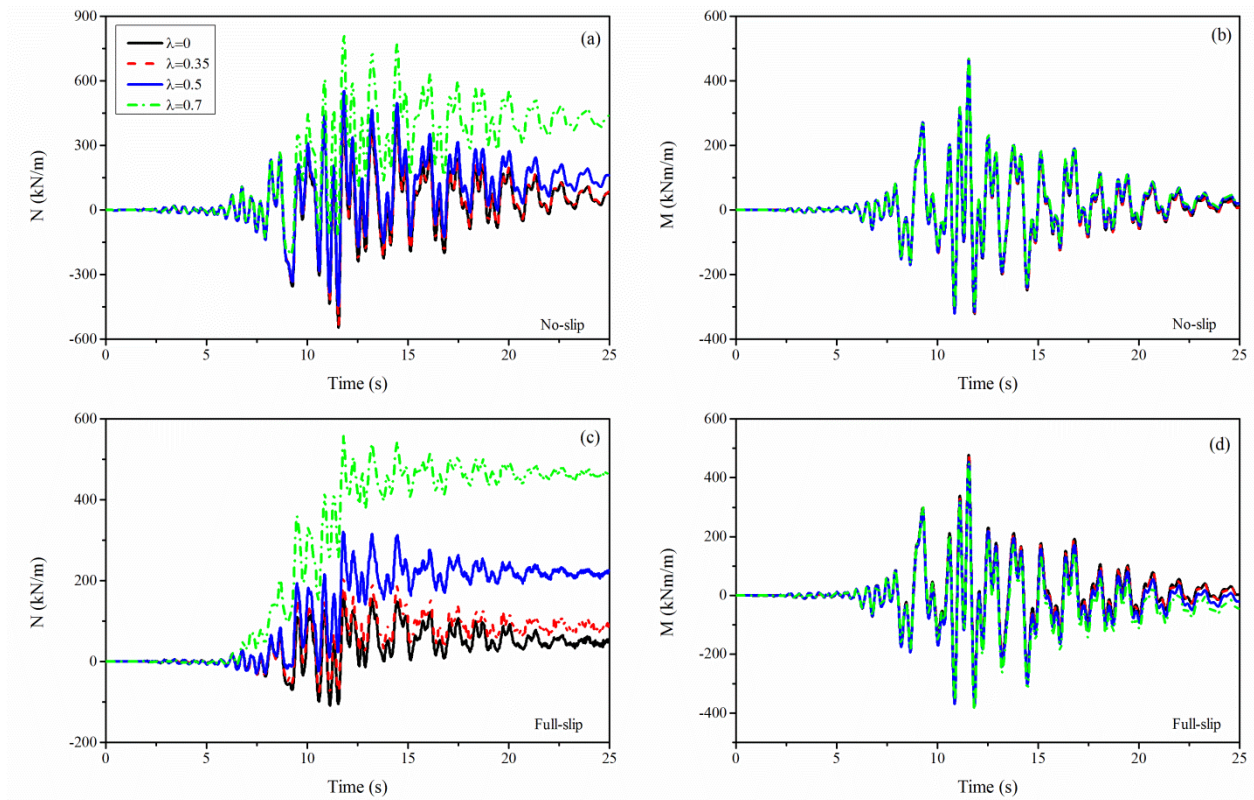
288 4.2 Dynamic analysis

289 After the tunnel construction and liner installation phases, various ground motions are applied to

290 investigate the seismic tunnel response under different initial stress states. Fig. 12 presents the time
 291 histories of seismic-induced internal forces at the tunnel shoulder ($\theta = 45^\circ$) for the Kobe earthquake with
 292 an amplitude of $PGA = 0.4 g$.

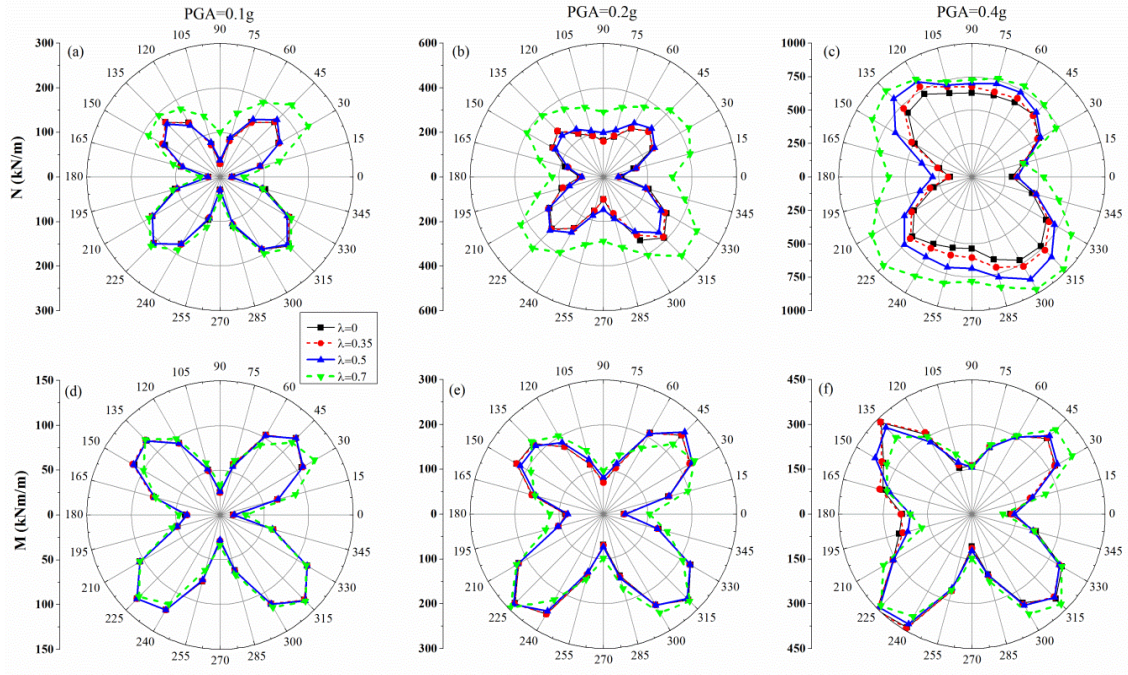
293 The axial force increases at the beginning of the earthquake due to the input motion intensity
 294 increases, especially for the higher stress release coefficient ($\lambda = 0.7$). At the end of the earthquake, a
 295 significant residual axial force is left on the lining due to the irreversible plasticity deformations of soil
 296 [4,24,41]. This is more evident when larger stress release coefficient is employed. However, the stress
 297 release process has a minor influence on the bending moment time histories, and no clear trend is found, as
 298 shown in Figs. 12b and d.

299

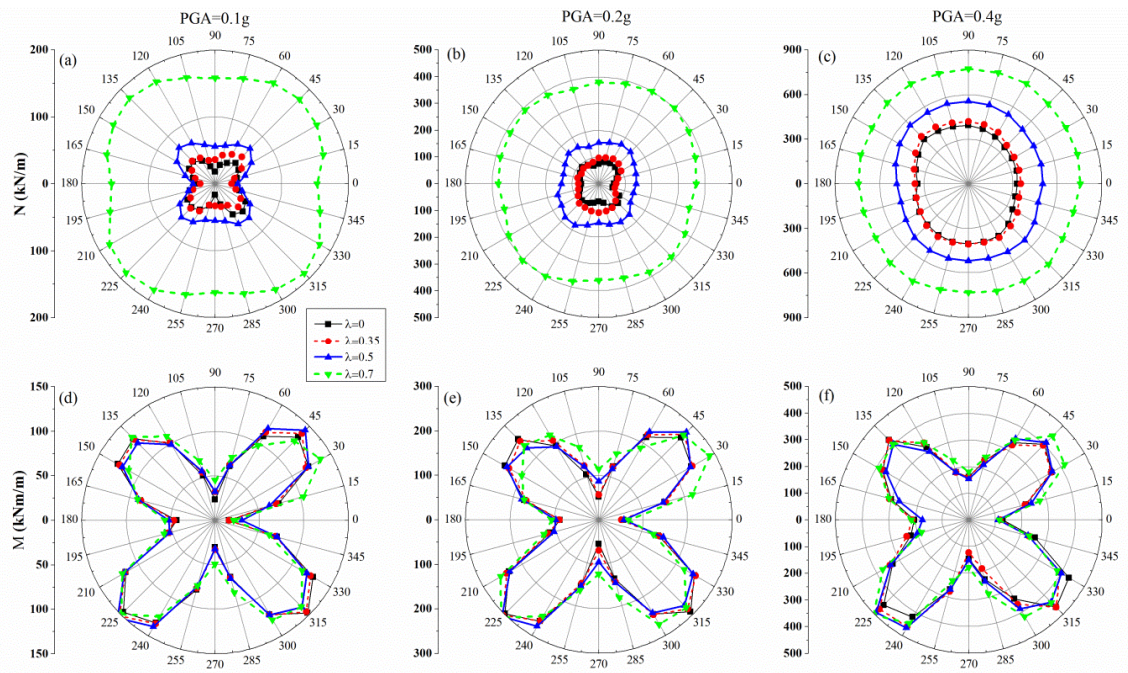


300

301 **Fig. 12.** Time histories of the seismic internal force increments: (a) axial force, no-slip; (b) bending moment, no-slip; (c) axial
 302 force, full-slip; (d) bending moment, full-slip



303
304 **Fig. 13.** Distribution of the maximum absolute seismic internal force increments: (a)~(c) axial force; (d)~(f) bending moment
305
306 (No-slip case)



307
308 **Fig. 14.** Distribution of the maximum absolute seismic internal force increments: (a)~(c) axial force; (d)~(f) bending moment
309
310 (Full-slip case)

311 Figs. 13 and 14 compare the distributions of the maximum absolute internal force increments induced
312 by the Kobe earthquake under various λ values and PGAs for the no-slip and full-slip cases, respectively.
313 All the analyses illustrate that a noticeable seismic internal force increment appears near the shoulder and

314 the arch for the no-slip case and the bending moment for the full-slip case. However, similar to the static
 315 analysis results, the seismic axial force increments are relatively uniform along the tunnel circumference
 316 for the full-slip case. Sedarat et al. [37] studied the effect of soil-tunnel contact condition on the response
 317 of tunnels based on a Coulomb friction law. They stated that the axial force almost stays constant in the
 318 case of tunnel ovaling without friction ($f = 0$ in their studies corresponds to the full-slip case here).
 319 Higher stress release coefficient leads to a larger seismic axial force increment, while the bending
 320 moments are slightly influenced by the stress release process. This is in agreement with the findings of
 321 Gomes [14] and quasi-static analyses of Sun and Dias [39].
 322



323 **Fig. 15.** Plastic zones around the tunnel at the end of the Kobe earthquake versus stress release coefficients: (a) full-slip, 0.1g; (b)
 324 no-slip, 0.1g; (c) no-slip, 0.2g
 325
 326

327 Fig. 15 shows the typical plastic zones in the surrounding soil at the end of the Kobe earthquake. The
 328 plastic zone is becoming progressively larger as the stress release coefficients and the input motion
 329 intensities increase, as expected. Consistent with the static results, the no-slip case generally results in
 330 larger plastic zones as compared to the full-slip case. This could be attributed to the tangential forces
 331 around the lining boundary are larger due to no relative movement is allowed (Fig. 8). Huo et al. [18] and

332 Tsiniadis et al. [41] also reported that the “strong” connection between the soil and the lining increases the
333 soil plastic strain around the flexible tunnel while the plastic strain is decreased for the full-slip condition.

334 In order to quantify the stress release impact on the seismic-induced internal force increments, two
335 normalized parameters are defined as follows:

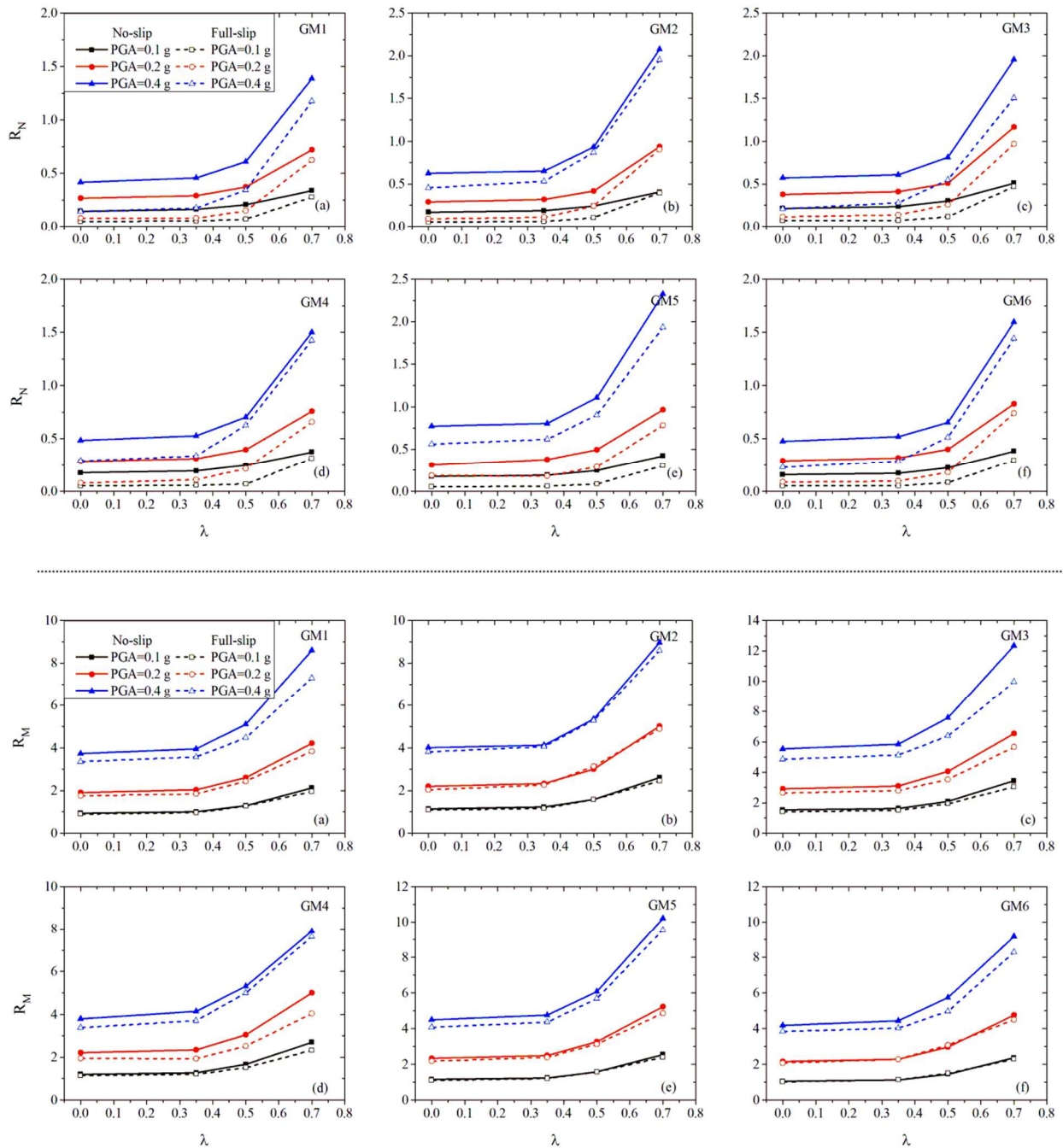
$$336 \quad R_N = \frac{N_{\text{seismic},\lambda_i}}{N_{\text{static},\lambda_i}} \quad (7)$$

$$337 \quad SR_N = \frac{N_{\text{seismic},\lambda_i}}{N_{\text{seismic},\lambda_0}} \quad (8)$$

338 where R_N is the ratio of the seismic axial force increment compared to the static one at the same stress
339 release coefficient λ_i , SR_N is the ratio of the seismic axial force increment at the specific stress release
340 coefficient λ_i compared to the one in the case of no stress release ($\lambda=0$). The definition of these
341 coefficients for the bending moment is same to the ones for the axial forces.

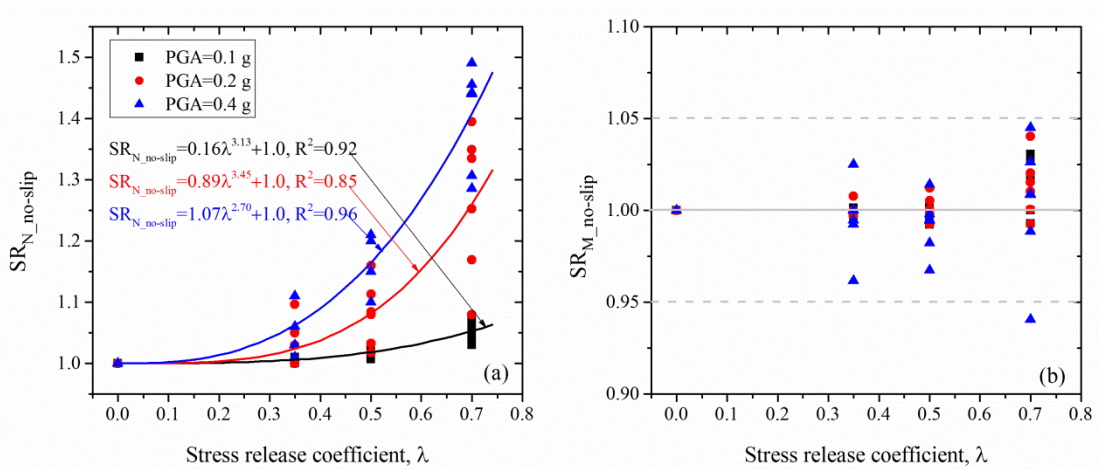
342 Fig. 16 shows the R_N and R_M ratios versus the stress release coefficients for the no-slip and full-slip
343 cases, corresponding to six ground motions and three PGAs. As can be seen, similar trends are captured by
344 different ground motions. The much larger R_M ratios are calculated due to the relatively lower static
345 bending moment (Fig. 7). The effect becomes progressively larger as the stress release coefficients and the
346 input motion intensities increase, particularly for the no-slip case. The maximum R_M ratio increases up to
347 12 while it is around 2.5 for the R_N ratio. Similar to the static analysis results, the changes in the R_N and
348 R_M ratios are negligible when the value of λ is smaller than 0.35, while the ratios rapidly increase when
349 $\lambda > 0.35$. The results of the no-slip cases are in accordance with the Gomes [14] findings.

350



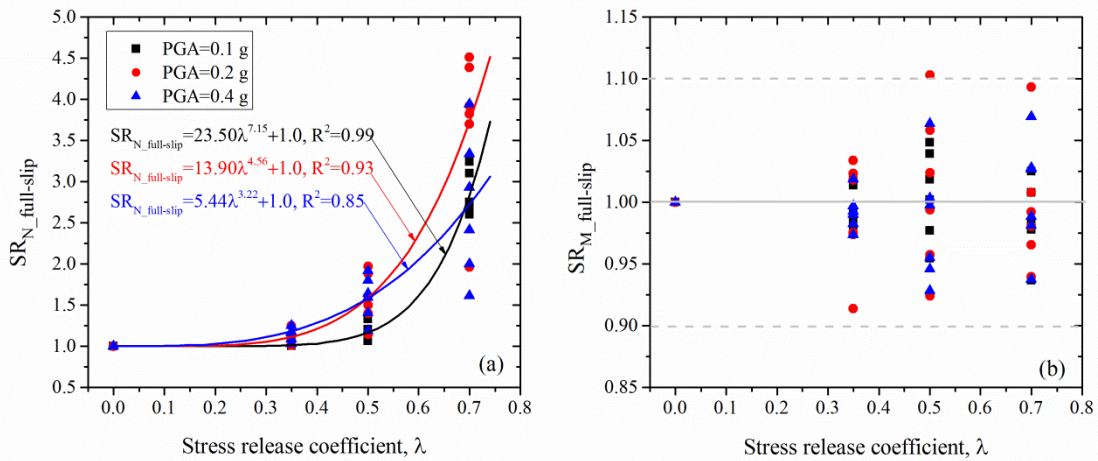
351
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Fig. 16. R_N (upper) and R_M (lower) ratios versus the stress release coefficients for different ground motions and amplitudes



353
354 **Fig. 17.** Relationship between SR ratios and stress release coefficients: (a) axial forces; (b) bending moments (No-slip case)

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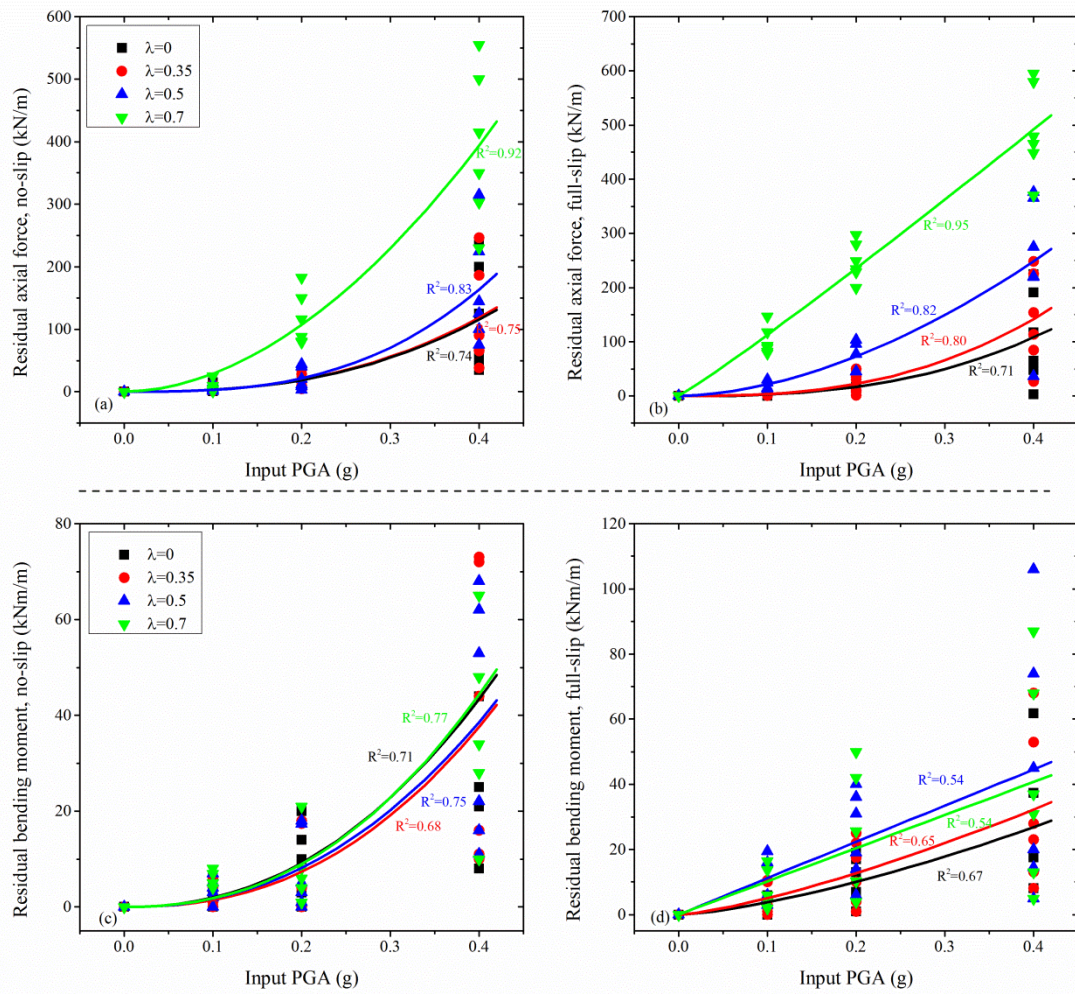
356
357 **Fig. 18.** Relationship between SR ratios and stress release coefficients: (a) axial forces; (b) bending moments (Full-slip case)

356
357
358

359 The ratios (e.g., SR) between the maximum seismic-induced internal force increments at a specific
360 stress release coefficient and the ones at $\lambda = 0$ are respectively presented in Figs. 17 and 18 for the
361 no-slip and full-slip cases. The SR_N ratio increases with increasing stress release coefficient for the two
362 soil-tunnel interaction conditions. For the no-slip case, the ratio varies from 1.0 to 1.5, while it changes
363 from 1.0 to 4.5 for the full-slip case. This contributes to a lower axial force increment is calculated in the
364 case of $\lambda = 0$ for the full-slip condition (Fig. 14a~c). Concerning the bending moments, the stress release
365 process shows a minor influence on the SR_M ratios and the trend observed is not clear. The no-slip
366 conditions predict the SR_M ratios change from 0.95 to 1.05, while a slightly larger variation (0.9~1.1) is
367 observed for the full-slip conditions.

368 Higher input motion intensity leads to larger R_N ratios, but the SR_N ratios do not always vary in the
369 same trend. For the no-slip conditions (Fig. 17a), the SR_N ratio increases as the input motion intensity

370 increases. The effect is becoming progressively larger as the stress release coefficient increases. However,
 371 the full-slip conditions present the same trend only for the stress release coefficient $\lambda < 0.5$, while the
 372 maximum ratio is reported when $\text{PGA} = 0.2\text{g}$ in the case of stress release coefficient $\lambda = 0.7$ (Fig. 18a).
 373 This phenomenon can be due to the larger axial force increment caused by the earthquake in the case of
 374 $\text{PGA} = 0.4\text{g}$ when $\lambda = 0$ (Fig. 14c).
 375



376

377 **Fig. 19.** Relationship between residual internal forces and stress release coefficients: (a) axial forces, no-slip; (b) axial forces,
 378 full-slip; (c) bending moments, no-slip; (d) bending moments, full-slip

379

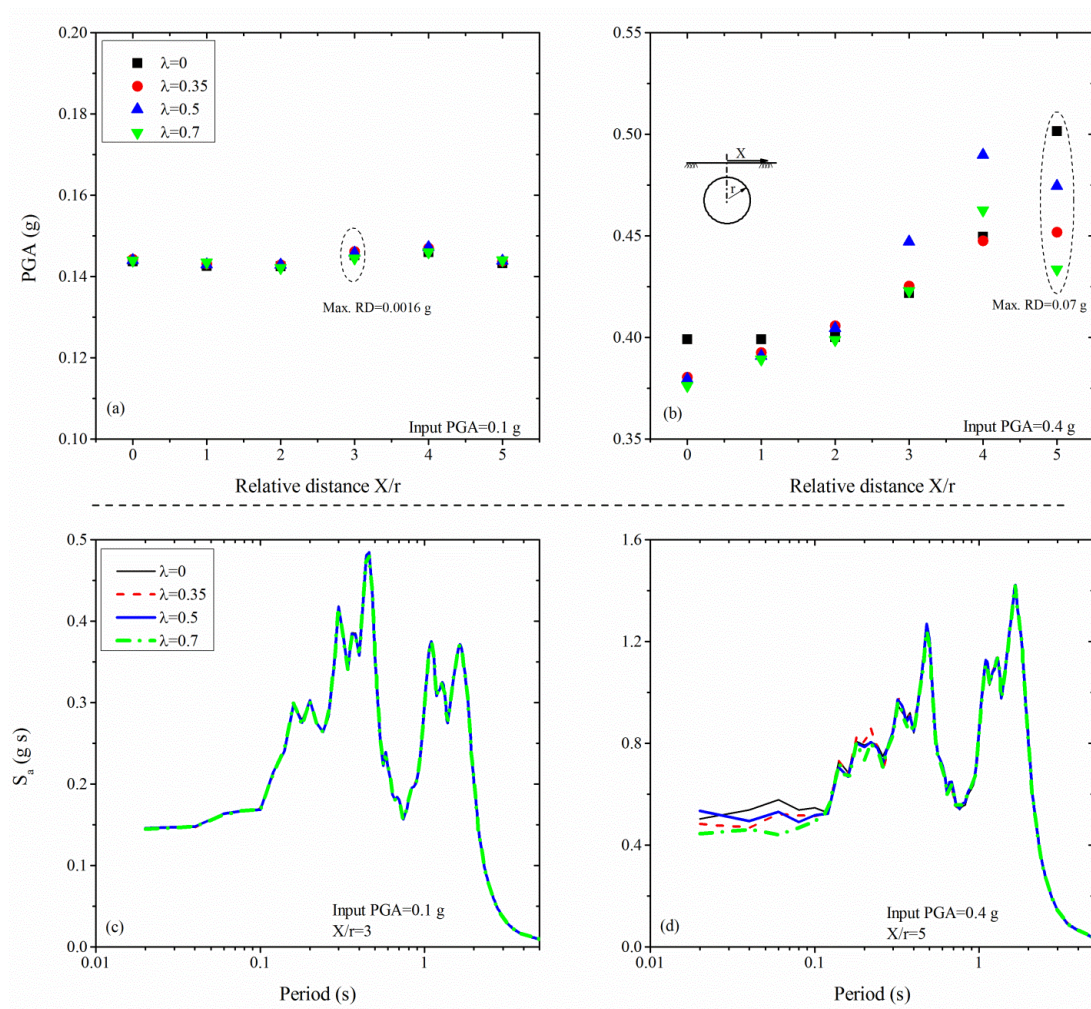
380 Fig. 19 summarizes the residual axial forces and residual bending moments at the end of the
 381 earthquakes for all examined cases. Note that the stress release coefficients have a more pronounced effect
 382 on the residual axial forces rather than the residual bending moments. The residual axial forces increase as
 383 the stress release coefficients increase. This is more evident for the larger input motion intensity. However,
 384 the residual bending moments seem to be less sensitive to the stress release process, since a weak

385 relationship between the stress release coefficients and the residual bending moments. An increase in the
 386 residual bending moment with increasing input motion intensity is observed for the two interface
 387 conditions, as expected. The results indicate that the stress release process could aggravate the residual
 388 internal forces to some extent.

389 5. Discussions

390 5.1 Surface ground motion

391 Researches on seismic wave scattering produced by tunnels mainly focus on two aspects. The first set
 392 of works concentrates on determining the dynamic behavior of tunnels subjected to seismic waves. The
 393 present study belongs to this set. The second set of works focus on the diffracting effects of tunnels on the
 394 surface ground motion. To this end, here discusses whether the stress release during tunneling can
 395 significantly influence the surface ground motion.



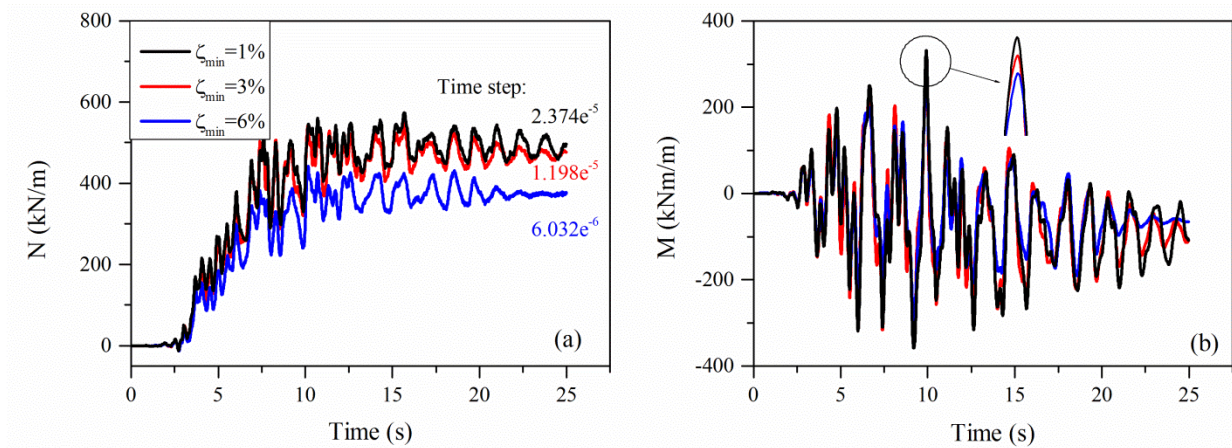
396
 397 **Fig. 20.** Acceleration at the ground surface for various stress release coefficients: (a) surface PGA, 0.1 g; (b) surface PGA, 0.4 g;
 398 (c) spectral acceleration, 0.1 g; (d) spectral acceleration, 0.4 g (no-slip case, Kobe earthquake)

399 Fig. 20 shows the peak ground acceleration (PGA) at various relative positions (X/r) and spectral
 400 accelerations (S_a) at the ground surface. The relative differences (RD) of surface PGA at various stress
 401 release levels are negligible with a maximum RD is equal to 0.0016 g for PGA = 0.1 g while the
 402 maximum RD equals to 0.07 g for the 0.4 g case. The surface PGA seems to be strongly related to the
 403 relative position (X/r) rather than the stress release coefficient. However, the stress release process has a
 404 more pronounced effect on the spectral acceleration for the higher input PGA (Fig. 20d). In general, higher
 405 stress release levels result in slightly smaller S_a values over a short period range while no difference is
 406 observed over a long period range.

407

408 5.2 Minimum damping ratio

409



410

411

Fig. 21. Time histories of seismic internal forces: (a) axial forces; (b) bending moments

412

413 The time histories of the seismic internal force increments for three damping levels (ζ_{min}) are
 414 presented in Fig. 21, corresponding to $\lambda=0.7$, subjected to the Kobe earthquake with an amplitude of 0.4 g
 415 for the full-slip condition. As can be found, a higher damping ratio reduces the responses in terms of
 416 maximum and residual internal forces. In addition, the natural oscillation of the system can be damped out
 417 by the higher damping but the calculation time is significantly increased [27]. Table 5 presents the ratios of
 418 R_N and R_M . A similar trend between the stress release coefficients and the calculated ratios is captured
 419 while larger R_N and R_M ratios are predicted for a smaller damping ratio case. The relative differences of
 420 R_N or R_M ratios calculated by various damping ratios generally become larger as the input motion
 421 intensities increase, particularly at higher stress release levels. The results illustrate that the selection of an
 422 appropriate damping ratio is an important issue in the dynamic time-history numerical analysis, which

423 needs to be determined with caution [38].

424

425

Table 5. R_N and R_M ratios at three damping ratios for the full-slip case

Case	$R_{N_full-slip}$			$R_{M_full-slip}$			
	$\zeta_{min} = 1 \%$	$\zeta_{min} = 3 \%$	$\zeta_{min} = 6 \%$	$\zeta_{min} = 1 \%$	$\zeta_{min} = 3 \%$	$\zeta_{min} = 6 \%$	
PGA = 0.1 g	$\lambda=0$	0.064	0.053	0.045	1.433	1.132	0.885
	$\lambda=0.35$	0.069	0.058	0.050	1.602	1.196	0.946
	$\lambda=0.5$	0.122	0.069	0.051	2.106	1.507	1.207
	$\lambda=0.7$	0.563	0.313	0.209	2.817	2.333	1.853
PGA = 0.2 g	$\lambda=0$	0.111	0.080	0.077	2.646	1.927	1.798
	$\lambda=0.35$	0.128	0.108	0.083	2.812	1.954	1.876
	$\lambda=0.5$	0.298	0.216	0.135	3.459	2.521	2.301
	$\lambda=0.7$	1.329	0.757	0.531	5.027	4.044	3.636
PGA = 0.4 g	$\lambda=0$	0.497	0.288	0.155	4.37	3.371	2.960
	$\lambda=0.35$	0.585	0.336	0.211	4.676	3.696	3.065
	$\lambda=0.5$	0.933	0.627	0.402	5.882	5.000	4.268
	$\lambda=0.7$	2.038	1.496	1.191	9.333	7.622	6.578

426

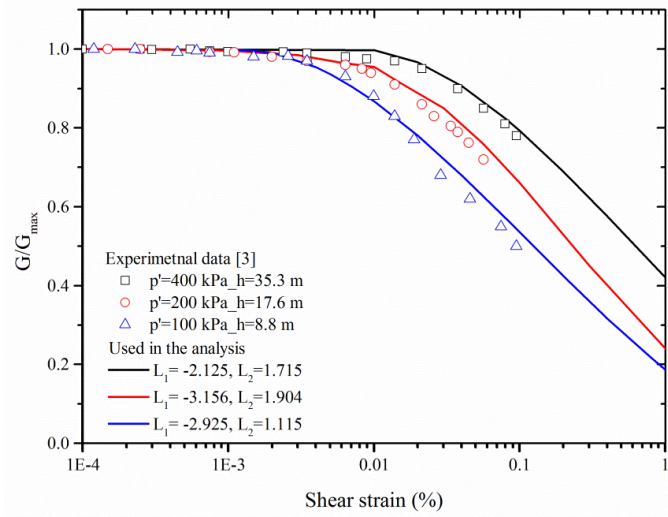
427 5.3 G/G_{max} curves

428 The above numerical model adopts a single shear modulus reduction (G/G_{max}) curve. It is a fact that
429 these types of curves for soils are strongly dependent on the mean effective stress. High mean stress results
430 in less damping and modulus reduction. By making the hysteretic damping depth-dependent, the
431 simulation can be more realistic. Hence, the depth-dependent G/G_{max} curves [3] as illustrated in Fig. 4, are
432 used to compare its potential influence on the numerical predictions. Fig. 22 presents the experimental data,
433 the fitted curves and the corresponding values (i.e., L_1 and L_2 in the Eqs. 4 and 5) used in numerical
434 models [20].

435 Fig. 23 presents the comparison for the full-slip case in terms of the ratios of R_N and R_M . Two
436 scenarios (i.e., single curve and depth-dependent curves) capture similar relations between the R_N (or R_M)
437 ratios with stress release coefficients under different ground motion intensities. The results calculated by
438 the depth-dependent G/G_{max} curves are in well agreement with the ones of the single curve for the smaller
439 stress release coefficients and lower ground motion intensities. The G/G_{max} curve has a more pronounced
440 effect on the axial forces rather than on the bending moments. This effect becomes progressively larger as
441 the stress release coefficients and ground motion intensities increase, reaching respectively differences of
442 27% and 19.4% for axial forces and bending moments. It can be concluded that the effect of the hysteretic

443 formulation in the numerical predictions depends on the initial shear stress state and the modulus reduction
 444 levels (i.e., ground motion intensities).

445

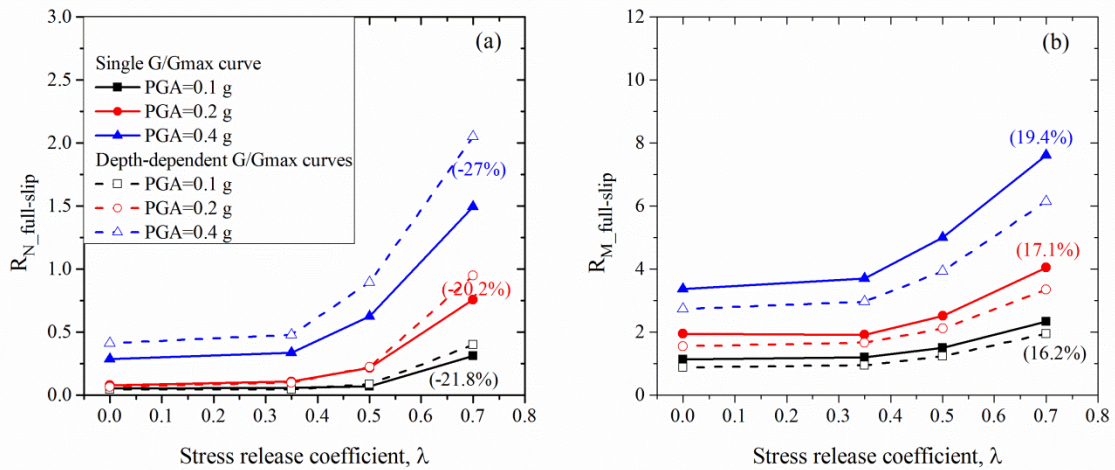


446 **Fig. 22.** Depth-dependent G/G_{\max} curves [3]

446

447

448



449 **Fig. 23.** Time histories of seismic internal forces: (a) axial forces; (b) bending moments

449

450

451

452 **6. Conclusions**

453 A set of two-dimensional dynamic nonlinear time-history analyses combined with the
 454 convergence-confinement method were conducted to assess the influence of the stress release process
 455 caused by construction on the seismic behavior of tunnels. The numerical model accounted for the
 456 frequency characteristics and intensities of the input ground motions at two extreme soil-tunnel interface
 457 conditions. The study also discussed the influence of stress release on the surface ground motion and the
 458 uncertainties of damping ratio and G/G_{\max} curves on the numerical predictions. Based on this parametric

459 investigation the following conclusions can be drawn:

460 1. For the static analysis, the lining forces and deformations decreased and the plastic zones became
461 larger as the stress release coefficients increased. Assuming no-slip conditions between the soil and the
462 tunnel led to larger axial forces and lower bending moments.

463 2. The stress release process produced additional seismic axial force increments whereas the effect
464 was minor for the seismic bending moment increments. Various input ground motions captured similar
465 trends.

466 3. In terms of R ratios, the stress release process had a more pronounced effect on the bending
467 moment (R_M) rather than the axial force (R_N) with the effect became progressively larger as the stress
468 release coefficient and the input motion intensity increased. In general, the no-slip conditions predicted
469 slightly larger R_N and R_M ratios than the full-slip conditions.

470 4. With regards to SR ratios, an increase of SR_N ratio with increasing stress release coefficient was
471 found. In general, the stress release process showed a minor influence on SR_M ratios and no clear trend
472 could be observed.

473 5. The residual axial force in both the no-slip and the full-slip conditions had a tendency of increasing
474 with the stress release coefficients and ground motion levels increased, while the residual bending moment
475 was less sensitive to the stress release coefficients.

476 6. The stress release process hardly affected the PGA at the ground surface although a large stress
477 release level generally resulted in slightly lower spectral acceleration amplitude over the short period range
478 for high ground motion intensities. A larger damping ratio could reduce the lining forces and time step,
479 thus increased runtimes of dynamic simulations. In addition, the G/G_{max} curves had an important influence
480 on the numerical predictions, particularly for the larger stress release coefficients and higher ground
481 motion intensities.

482

483 **Appendix**

484 This Appendix summarizes the equations employed by the two analytical solutions for calculating the
485 axial forces and bending moments for the no-slip assumption at the interface in static conditions. The
486 equations are presented using a consistent notation for all solutions, where σ_v and σ_h are respectively
487 vertical and horizontal stresses at the tunnel center depth, r is the tunnel radius, θ is the orientation angle

488 representing the position of observation points, μ is the soil Poisson's ratio, EI and EA are the flexural
 489 rigidity and the normal stiffness of the lining, E_s is the elasticity modulus of the soil.

490 Bakker method [2]:

$$491 \quad N = -\frac{(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)}{2} r + \frac{(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)}{2} r \cos(2\theta) \quad (9)$$

$$492 \quad M = -\frac{(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)}{4} r^2 \cos(2\theta) \quad (10)$$

493 Erdmann method [13]:

494 The maximum normal force N_{\max} and the maximum bending moment M_{\max} are respectively given
 495 by the following equation:

$$496 \quad N_{\max} = \frac{\alpha \cdot r}{\alpha + \beta + \frac{\alpha \beta}{1 + \mu}} \cdot \frac{(\sigma_v + \sigma_h)}{2} + \frac{\left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{12(1 + \mu)} + \frac{\beta}{4(1 + \mu)}\right) \cdot r}{1 + \frac{\alpha(3 - 2\mu)}{12(3 - 4\mu)(1 + \mu)} + \frac{\beta(5 - 6\mu)}{4(3 - 4\mu)(1 + \mu)} + \frac{\alpha \beta}{12(3 - 4\mu)(1 + \mu)^2}} \cdot \frac{(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)}{2} \quad (11)$$

$$497 \quad M_{\max} = \frac{\left(1 + \frac{\beta}{2(1 + \mu)}\right) \cdot r^2}{2 + \frac{\alpha(3 - 2\mu)}{6(3 - 4\mu)(1 + \mu)} + \frac{\beta(5 - 6\mu)}{4(3 - 4\mu)(1 + \mu)} + \frac{\alpha \beta}{6(3 - 4\mu)(1 + \mu)^2}} \cdot \frac{(\sigma_v - \sigma_h)}{2} \quad (12)$$

$$498 \quad \alpha = \frac{E_s r^3}{EI} \quad (13)$$

$$499 \quad \beta = \frac{E_s r}{EA} \quad (14)$$

500

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504

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