

1 **A framework for assessing the value of information for health monitoring of scoured bridges**

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23 Keywords: Scour, Structural Health Monitoring, Value of Information, Decision Making, Bridge
24 Management

25

26 **Abstract**

27 It is generally accepted that climate-change is leading to increased frequency of extreme weather events
28 worldwide, and this is placing heavier demands on an already aging infrastructure-network. Bridges are
29 particularly vulnerable infrastructure assets that are prone to damage or failure from climate-related
30 actions. In particular, bridges over waterways can be adversely affected by flooding, specifically the
31 washing away of foundation soils, a mechanism known as scour erosion. Scour is the leading cause of
32 failure for bridges with foundations in water as it can rapidly compromise foundation stiffness often
33 resulting in unacceptable movements or even collapse. There is growing interest among asset managers
34 in applying health monitoring approaches to assess the real-time performance of bridges under
35 damaging actions, including scour. Sensor-based approaches involve the acquisition of data such as
36 dynamic measurements, which can be used to infer the existence of scour or other damage without the

37 laborious requirements of undertaking visual inspections. In this paper, a framework is proposed to
38 assess the benefit obtained from health monitoring systems as compared to the scenario where no
39 monitoring system is employed on a bridge, to ascertain how useful these systems are at assisting
40 decision-making. Decisions typically relate to the implementation of traffic restrictions or even partial
41 or complete bridge closure in the event of damage being detected, which has associated consequences
42 for a network. A case study is presented to demonstrate the approach postulated in this paper.

43 **1. Introduction**

44 Extreme weather events are becoming more frequent as a result of climate-change and this is putting
45 increasing pressure on built infrastructure. In tandem with this, infrastructure networks worldwide are
46 aging, and many are approaching the end of their original design lives. These two phenomena together
47 mean it is now more important than ever to direct attention to the maintenance and management of the
48 aging asset stock to ensure safe, reliable transport infrastructure exists for generations to come.

49 Bridges are one of the main infrastructure assets at significant risk from climate-induced loading.
50 Bridges with foundations in water are susceptible to scour erosion [1], whereby adverse hydraulic
51 actions remove soil from around and under foundations compromising stability and increasing the risk
52 of failure [2]. The occurrence of scour can cause a reduction in the stiffness and capacity of a bridge
53 foundation [3–5] and lead to sudden failure.

54 Scour is most commonly monitored by means of visual inspections, whereby divers inspect a given
55 bridge's foundations periodically (typically at times when flooding is not occurring). Susceptible
56 bridges are usually rated using a scale related to the perceived severity of the scour problem affecting
57 their foundations. The main issues with this type of approach are the subjective nature of the rating
58 schemes adopted by respective agencies, and the fact that inspections typically occur during non-
59 flooded conditions (when scour holes may have re-filled post flooding). It is generally not possible to
60 inspect structures during flooding due to safety reasons, as well as the fact that flooded water conditions
61 tend to be turbid thus obscuring the view of the foundations. Furthermore, rating-based ranking
62 measures tend to vary between agencies responsible for the bridges (e.g. national road and railway

63 agencies) as well as from country to country. To improve on the drawbacks associated with visual-type
64 inspections, a significant number of sensor-based systems have been developed in recent times to assist
65 in remotely monitoring scour hole depth evolution. These systems include, among others:
66 radar/electromagnetic systems [6–8], physical probe systems [9–11], and sound wave devices [7, 12].
67 Interested readers are referred to Refs. [13, 14] for a comprehensive discussion on these types of
68 systems. While these sensor-systems have varying success at monitoring scour hole depth evolution
69 near a foundation of interest, they generally provide limited useful information on the structural
70 condition as a result of scour hole formation. This is critical as the presence of a given scour hole may
71 have limited or significant impact on the stability and safety of affected structures, and this will vary
72 depending on factors such as foundation depth and type, as well as structural configuration.

73 In recent times, the application of vibration-based damage detection and health monitoring [15] to
74 bridge scour assessment has become popular in research with many publications investigating the
75 performance of a variety of methods at detecting and monitoring scour. The benefit of systems of this
76 nature for scour detection is that they use actual structural response measurements to infer changes in
77 support conditions (e.g. losses in foundation stiffness) and so can obtain a direct indication of the effect
78 of a scour hole on a given structure. The premise underlying these damage identification methods is
79 that changes in stiffness due to scour modify the dynamic properties of a structure, therefore measuring
80 changes in dynamic parameters can potentially indicate the presence of scour. A variety of vibration-
81 based scour monitoring approaches are put forward in Refs. [5, 16–26]. It should be noted, however,
82 that the adoption and deployment of health monitoring systems of this nature on a bridge can be
83 expensive, therefore tools and methods to assess their benefit for emergency management of bridges on
84 a given network are needed.

85 In this paper, a framework for assessing the benefit of installing a monitoring system as a decision
86 support tool for emergency management of scoured bridges is proposed. The framework is based on
87 the Value of Information (VoI) from Bayesian decision theory. A case study is undertaken to
88 demonstrate the approach. The VoI can be understood as the maximum price a bridge operator should

89 pay for the information from a Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) system: the SHM system should
90 be installed only if the corresponding VoI is higher than the cost of the system itself. Moreover, the VoI
91 can be considered as the money saved each time a decision maker interrogates the SHM system.
92 Interested readers should refer to Refs. [27–36] for further details on VoI theory and applications.

93 The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 presents the general framework for VoI
94 analyses in the case of emergency management of structures; Section 3 presents the application of VoI
95 analyses to scoured bridges; and Section 4 presents a case study demonstration of the approach.

96 **2. General framework**

97 The VoI is herein defined in the context of Bayesian decision theory, which was presented more than
98 half a century ago by Raiffa and Schlaifer [37]. Bayesian decision theory is based on the Expected
99 Utility Theorem by Van Morgenstern and Neumann [38] and on the Bayesian definition of probability
100 [39] which represents a measure of the belief in the different states of a system: probabilities can be
101 updated by means of the well-known Bayes' Theorem, when new information is obtained. Bayesian
102 decision theory is based on the maximization of expected utility: a Bayesian decision maker associates
103 a numerical utility to each of the possible consequences of an action, and a probability to each of the
104 states of the system that may affect that utility. The utility expresses the desirability of a possible option
105 in a decision scenario.

106 The classical formulation of the VoI is herein adapted to the management of civil structures in the
107 aftermath of a disastrous event. For the purpose of the present paper, this will be specified as a severe
108 flood affecting a given structure. According to the available information, three types of decision
109 analyses are possible, namely prior analysis, posterior analysis and pre-posterior analysis. The terms
110 prior and posterior refer to when an analysis is performed with respect to when information is acquired
111 through a monitoring system. The term pre-posterior refers to when an analysis is performed before
112 (pre) acquiring any SHM information. In this case, the analysis is carried out forecasting the information
113 that will be acquired after (posterior) installing the monitoring system.

114 Prior decision analysis deals with decisions taken on the basis of the decision makers' prior knowledge
 115 and uses no additional information. In relation to bridge management, the decision maker might be
 116 concerned about the potential failure of a bridge caused by a disastrous event. Even if failure does not
 117 occur directly because of the event, it may occur at a later time due, for example, to traffic loads, or
 118 aftershocks in the case of earthquakes, or slowly evolving scour induced by the action of flowing water.
 119 It is assumed that following an event of intensity measure IM , which may induce one of L discrete
 120 damage states in a structure $DS_l, l = 1, \dots, L$, a choice has to be made among N actions $A_n, n = 1, \dots, N$.
 121 The expected cost of action A_n , given that the state of the system is DS_l , is obtained as

$$E[c(A_n)|DS_l] = c_F(A_n)P(F|A_n, DS_l) + c_{\bar{F}}(A_n)[1 - P(F|A_n, DS_l)] \quad (1)$$

122 where $P(F|A_n, DS_l)$ is the probability of bridge failure related to action A_n and damage state DS_l ;
 123 $c_F(A_n)$ and $c_{\bar{F}}(A_n)$ are the costs associated with structural failure and survival, respectively, which
 124 change according to the action A_n . The quantity $E[c(A_n)|DS_l]$ represents the expected cost of action
 125 A_n in the ideal case where the decision maker knows with certainty the state of the structure DS_l . In
 126 real cases however, the knowledge of decision makers is affected by uncertainty, therefore each damage
 127 state has a certain probability of occurrence that, when dealing with disastrous events, depends on the
 128 intensity IM of the event. The expected cost of action A_n , given a certain IM , $E[c(A_n)|IM]$, is computed
 129 as the sum of the expected costs related to the occurrence of the possible damage states DS_l ,
 130 $E[c(A_n)|DS_l]$, each weighted by their probability of occurrence following the event of intensity IM
 131 $P(DS_l|IM)$, as follows:

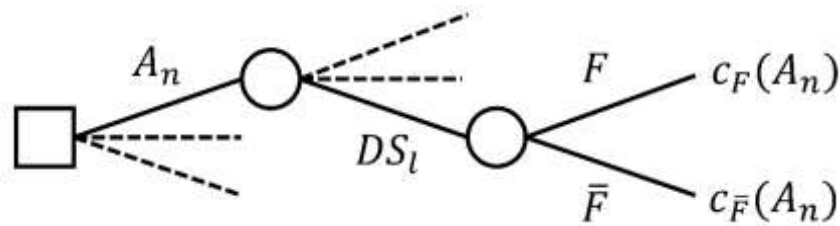
$$E[c(A_n)|IM] = \sum_{l=1}^L E[c(A_n)|DS_l]P(DS_l|IM) \quad (2)$$

132 Herein the utility is expressed as negative cost. Therefore, the prior decision is made according to the
 133 Expected Utility Theorem by selecting the action \hat{A} , which maximizes the utility, that is the action that
 134 corresponds to the minimum expected cost $c_1(IM)$, see Eq. 3 and Eq. 4.

$$\hat{A} = \hat{A}(IM) = \arg \min_n E[c(A_n)|IM] \quad (3)$$

$$c_1(IM) = E[c(\hat{A})|IM] = \sum_{l=1}^L E[c(\hat{A})|DS_l]P[DS_l|IM] \quad (4)$$

135 The described prior decision problem is represented in Fig. 1 by means of a decision tree. Round nodes
 136 indicate a possible state of the system to which a probability of occurrence must be assigned; square
 137 nodes indicate a decision that is made based on the minimization of costs.



138

139

Fig 1. Decision tree for prior decision analysis

140 Posterior analysis is performed when new information on the state of the structure is obtained such as
 141 one of the possible outcomes $O_j, j = 1, \dots, J$, from an SHM system. This information is used to update
 142 the prior probabilities of damage states according to Bayes' theorem, which reads

$$P(DS_l|O_j, IM) = \frac{P(O_j|DS_l)P(DS_l|IM)}{P(O_j|IM)} \quad (5)$$

143 where $P(O_j|DS_l)$ is the probability of obtaining the outcome O_j when the state of the system is DS_l ,
 144 which is obtained by so-called *likelihood functions*; $P(O_j|IM)$ is the total probability given by Eq. 6.

$$P(O_j|IM) = \sum_{l=1}^L P(O_j|DS_l)P(DS_l|IM) \quad (6)$$

145 The posterior expected cost of action A_n is computed similarly to Eq. 2, but using posterior probabilities
 146 of damage states, as follows:

$$E[c(A_n)|O_j, IM] = \sum_{l=1}^L E[c(A_n)|DS_l]P(DS_l|O_j, IM) \quad (7)$$

147 The decision is made by selecting the action \check{A}_{O_j} corresponding to the minimum expected cost

148 $E[c(\check{A}_{O_j})|O_j, IM]$, as follows:

$$\check{A}_{O_j} = \check{A}(O_j, IM) = \arg \min_n E[c(A_n)|O_j, IM] \quad (8)$$

$$E[c(\check{A}_{O_j})|O_j, IM] = \sum_{l=1}^L E[c(\check{A}_{O_j})|DS_l]P(DS_l|O_j, IM) \quad (9)$$

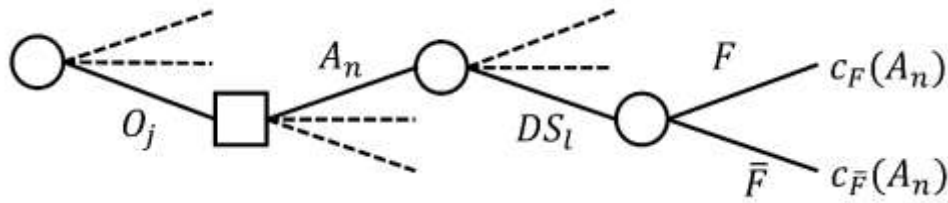
149 In this case, the optimal action and the corresponding expected cost depend on both the intensity of the
150 event IM and the outcome O_j .

151 The pre-posterior analysis is made prior to obtaining additional information. It is used to forecast the
152 expected cost resulting from decision making when a certain information acquisition strategy is
153 adopted. It consists of multiple posterior analyses, where the decision maker selects the optimal action
154 for each possible outcome O_j of the selected acquisition strategy. The expected cost $c_0(IM)$ associated
155 with the information acquisition strategy is computed by marginalizing the expected costs
156 $E[c(\check{A}_{O_j})|O_j, IM]$ over the probabilities of occurrence $P(O_j|IM)$ of each possible outcome O_j ,
157 according to Eq. 10.

$$c_0(IM) = \sum_{j=1}^J E[c(\check{A}_{O_j})|O_j, IM]P(O_j|IM) \quad (10)$$

158 The pre-posterior decision analysis with information from SHM is represented in the decision tree in
159 Fig. 2.

160



161

162 Fig. 2 Decision tree representing the pre-posterior decision analysis with information from SHM

163 The VoI for the decision-making process relevant to the choice of the action needed to manage the
 164 bridge after an event of intensity IM , $VoI(IM)$, is obtained as the difference between the expected cost
 165 of the action taken without (prior) and with (pre-posterior) information, see Eq. 11.

$$VoI(IM) = c_1(IM) - c_0(IM) \quad (11)$$

166 In general, the optimal action and the corresponding cost, for both prior and pre-posterior analyses,
 167 change according to IM that, before the occurrence of an event, is not known. The VoI over the
 168 reference period for which it is calculated, is obtained by marginalizing over the entire range of
 169 intensities, as follows:

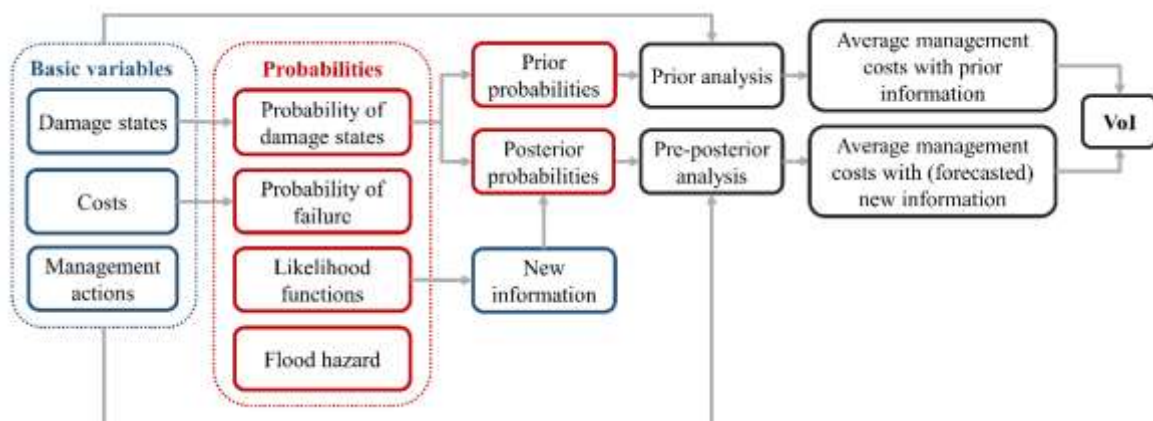
$$VoI = \int_{IM} VoI(IM) f(IM) dIM \quad (12)$$

170 where $f(IM)$ is the probability density function (PDF) of the intensity measure IM over the reference
 171 period. The idea behind Eq. 12 is that the decision maker has at their disposal a statistical model
 172 providing the likelihood of a disastrous event occurring in a certain geographical area in a given
 173 reference time. Examples include seismic hazard functions for earthquakes or distributions of maximum
 174 annual flow for rivers. In Eq. 12, the contribution to the VoI of rare events, with relatively small values
 175 of PDF $f(IM)$ is negligible. In turn, terms of $VoI(IM)$ corresponding to likely events, and therefore to
 176 high values of PDF, are dominant. In this way, accurate estimation of the VoI can be obtained before
 177 the installation of a SHM system.

178 It can be demonstrated (see e.g. Straub [29]) that the VoI is bounded between zero and the so-called
 179 Value of Perfect Information (*VoPI*), which is obtained, ideally, when the information acquired is not
 180 affected by uncertainty. Nevertheless, it has been shown recently [40, 41] that the VoI could be negative.
 181 This could occur, for example, if the person managing the bridge, i.e. the manager in charge of issuing
 182 traffic restrictions, is not the same person making the decision on acquiring new information, i.e. the
 183 owner who pays for the SHM system. Even if they share the same information, the perception of the
 184 costs associated with structural failure and survival might differ between the two individuals. In the VoI
 185 framework, this is modelled by two different utility functions that may lead to a negative VoI. In
 186 particular, the VoI could be negative in the owner's perspective if they are forced to accept an action -
 187 chosen by the manager - that they perceive as too risky due to their own risk averse nature. In this sense
 188 the VoI should not be intended as the absolute benefit associated with the support to decisions provided
 189 by the SHM system, but rather as the perception of this value on behalf of the different stakeholders
 190 involved in the decision process.

191 3. Application to scoured bridges

192 In this section, the methodology for assessing the VoI of SHM in emergency management is applied to
 193 bridges under scour hazard. Fig. 3 shows a flowchart of the general framework: the basic variables of
 194 the decision problem are indicated in blue; the probabilities are indicated in red.



195

196

Fig. 3 Flowchart showing general methodology for assessing the VoI

197 The basic variables of the decision problem include the damage states of the system induced by scour,
198 the possible bridge management actions, and the consequences associated with the different
199 combinations of damage states of the system and actions. An understanding of likely damage states of
200 the system under evolving scour is necessary, which refer to the condition of the bridge (and its
201 elements) under various scour severities. Prior probabilities of the damage states can be calculated,
202 which refer to the likelihood of obtaining a certain scour magnitude based on flow intensity and bridge
203 geometrical conditions (using design formulae or otherwise). The probability of failure of the structure
204 under various scour conditions should be calculated using assumed capacity models and estimates of
205 demand on the system from external actions. Likelihood functions, which refer to the likely output from
206 a SHM system (for example measurements of system frequency) under various scour scenarios, should
207 be obtained in order to calculate the posterior probabilities of the damage states. The consequences of
208 the actions chosen should be quantified, for example bridge closure or imposed traffic restrictions.
209 Finally, the VoI can be obtained as a function of the hydraulic variables to ascertain the costs associated
210 with implementing a SHM system or remaining without one. More detailed information on these
211 elements is provided in the following subsections.

212 **3.1 Damage states**

213 The damage states affecting a structure, in their simplest form, can correspond to different scour depths
214 developing at a critical pier, for example. These in turn can be related to a change in residual load
215 bearing capacity of the given foundation. More advanced damage states including the development of
216 cracks, differential settlement or partial collapse could also be defined, as expected to result from the
217 development of a given scour hole. The probability that the structure is in a certain damage state depends
218 on the scour depth produced by a flood event. In the next section the methodology to compute the prior
219 probabilities of the different states of the bridge is described.

220 **3.2 Prior probabilities**

221 Several equations are reported in the literature for the computation of local scour depth y_s resulting
 222 from given flow and bridge geometrical conditions. A widely used equation is the Hydraulic
 223 Engineering Circular (HEC-18) design formula [42], which reads

$$\frac{y_s}{y_1} = 2.0\lambda K_1 K_2 K_3 K_4 \left(\frac{a}{y_1}\right)^{0.65} Fr_1^{0.43} \quad (13)$$

224 where y_1 is the flow depth upstream of a pier; K_1 is the correction coefficient for pier nose shape; K_2 is
 225 the correction coefficient for angle of attack of flow; K_3 is the correction coefficient for bed conditions;
 226 K_4 is the correction coefficient for armoring by bed material; a is pier width; $Fr_1 = V_1/\sqrt{gy_1}$ is the
 227 Froude Number, where V_1 is the mean velocity of flow upstream of the pier; g is the acceleration due
 228 to gravity; and λ is the model correction factor discussed in reference [43].

229 The quantities y_1 and V_1 can be computed according to the Eq. 14 and Eq. 15, respectively [44], where
 230 Q is the water flow; B is the average width of the channel; n is the Manning's coefficient; s is the slope
 231 of the channel; and λ_Q is a random variable accounting for the uncertainty in the flow [43].

$$y_1 = \left(\frac{\lambda_Q Q n}{B s^{0.5}}\right)^{3/5} \quad (14)$$

$$V_1 = \frac{\lambda_Q Q}{B y_1} \quad (15)$$

232 Each damage state corresponds to a threshold th_l , $l = 1, \dots, L$, for the scour depth, where $th_1 = 0$. The
 233 prior probabilities of the different damage states are obtained as follows

$$\begin{aligned} P(DS_l|Q) &= P[\{y_s \geq th_l\} \cap \{y_s < th_{l+1}\}] && \text{for } l \neq L \\ P(DS_l|Q) &= P(y_s \geq th_l) && \text{for } l = L \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

234 3.3 Consequences

235 The computation of the consequences of bridge management actions is a complex task, which depends
 236 on the boundary conditions of the problem and, to some extent, on the expert judgement of the analyst
 237 [45]. Typically, in the context of bridge management, consequences are classified into direct
 238 consequences and indirect consequences [46]. Direct consequences are related to failures and damage
 239 resulting from the failure of the bridge itself, such as human losses, repairs and replacements. Indirect
 240 losses are generated by the reduced functionality of the transportation system, such as delays, re-routing
 241 and resulting pollution. Consequences are generally expressed in monetary terms, i.e. costs. Several
 242 equations exist in the literature to compute the consequences resulting from bridge failure, which
 243 include both indirect and direct consequences. For instance, in reference [47] the total failure costs are
 244 computed as the sum of rebuilding costs C_{RB} , running costs C_{RN} , costs related to time loss C_{TL} , and
 245 costs associated with loss of life C_{LL} . Rebuilding costs and loss of life costs are generally classified as
 246 direct, whereas running costs and time loss cost are generally considered as indirect costs.

247 3.4 Probabilities of failure

248 The probability of failure of a bridge under a scour hazard is a function of the capacity of the bridge (in
 249 its given state) and the demand imposed by external actions. A limit state function, or performance
 250 function, $g(X)$ may be generated in the form of Eq. (17).

$$g(X) = (C - D) \begin{cases} > 0 & \text{safe state} \\ = 0 & \text{limit state} \\ < 0 & \text{failure state} \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

251 where C is the capacity of the bridge for a given scour condition and D is the demand, comprising
 252 external actions. The capacity of the bridge can be quantified in several ways and is linked to the
 253 assumed mode of failure of the bridge. Bridges affected by scour actions can suffer a loss in vertical
 254 foundation capacity, therefore, a capacity distribution can be specified in terms of available vertical
 255 foundation resistance under scour. For a case like this, simplified design codes such as the American
 256 Petroleum Institute (API) [48] propose equations to calculate the available shaft and base resistance of

257 pile groups, whereby scour leads to a reduction in this capacity via a decrease in available pile shaft
258 shear area. Uncertainty can be incorporated via the specification of a distribution for the soil parameters
259 contributing to the capacity which, in the case of the API formulation, are the bulk unit weight and the
260 angle of internal friction. For a lateral bridge failure mechanism, the lateral capacity distribution of the
261 bridge can be defined, once again, using simplified design assumptions from codes such as API or
262 otherwise. In this case, failure can be defined as the loss in lateral resistance and can be quantified using
263 lateral soil reaction-displacement (p - y) curve analyses [5, 49]. Uncertainty in the operational parameters
264 defining p - y curves enables the specification of a capacity distribution. For each proposed failure
265 mechanism, further uncertainty can be incorporated by postulating distributions for the bridge structural
266 parameters (material and geometry) as appropriate.

267 The demand, D is a function of the externally applied actions affecting the bridge and comprises the
268 dead load, any environmental variations, and applied traffic loading. Once the capacity and demand are
269 defined, the performance function g can be obtained.

270 The probability of failure $P(F)$ can be calculated from the performance function generated for a given
271 scour condition and failure mechanism using the expression in Eq. 18.

$$P(F) = P[g(X) \leq 0] \quad (18)$$

272 The value of $P(F)$ can be obtained by multiple reliability techniques, such as FORM, SORM and Monte
273 Carlo simulations [50].

274 **3.5 Likelihood functions**

275 Likelihood functions are used to update prior probabilities of damage states as described in section 2.
276 They describe the distribution of the outcome (indicator) provided by a monitoring system. For scour-
277 related actions, a variety of indicators can be used to infer damage to the structure [51]. Scour causes a
278 reduction in the stiffness of foundation elements. Therefore, a number of previous works have focussed
279 on using changes in dynamic properties to infer scour presence. The fact that stiffness changes lead to

280 changes in modal properties was the original motivation behind using dynamic measurements for
281 damage detection [15]. The most straightforward modal property that is influenced by scour is the
282 frequency of vibration of the structure, which decreases with the increase of scour depth [3]. Therefore,
283 it is sensible to suggest that observing frequency shifts could infer the presence of scour. While this is
284 a simple concept, there exists significant uncertainty in this process, most notably due to uncertainties
285 in operating soil conditions and stiffness at interfaces, geometrical and material properties of structural
286 elements, and environmental influences such as temperature [52, 53]. For this reason, there exists a
287 distribution of likely frequency values that may be retrieved from measurements obtained under a given
288 scour condition. The likelihood function is defined as a likely distribution of frequencies that could be
289 measured by a sensor placed on a bridge in the event of scour with a certain depth magnitude affecting
290 the bridge. To generate likelihood functions, in the absence of real SHM information measured on a
291 scoured bridge, finite-element models can be used accounting for the various sources of uncertainty that
292 influence the problem (e.g. material and geometrical properties, noise in sensors, model uncertainty,
293 environmental and operational factors, etc.).

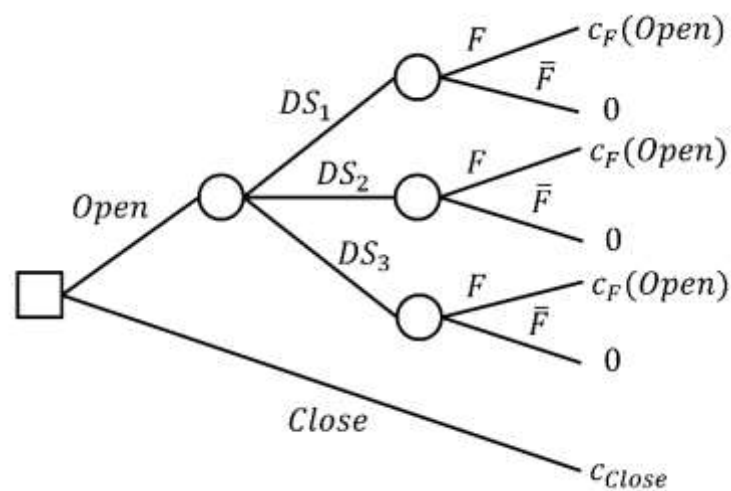
294 **3.6 Flood hazard**

295 As discussed in Section 2, the VoI depends on the distribution of the intensity of the event IM that, for
296 the case of a scour hazard, can be represented by the maximum annual flow. Prior to the installation of
297 a monitoring system, the magnitude of any future maximum annual flow is not known a priori.
298 However, its probability distribution can be obtained by statistical inference on a sample of annual
299 maxima. The VoI obtained by Eq. 11 as a function of IM can be integrated over the PDF of the annual
300 maximum flow according to Eq. 12. This VoI can be interpreted as the money saved each year by using
301 SHM information and it should be compared with the equivalent annual cost (including the annual share
302 of the installation and decommissioning costs) of the SHM system.

303 **4. Demonstration of the approach**

304 The proposed framework to compute the benefit of installing a SHM system for scoured bridges is
305 demonstrated in this section for a generic bridge. The validity of the results obtained is limited to this

306 example that has scope only to illustrate the application of the procedure. It is supposed that the operator
 307 of a bridge is concerned about the traffic restrictions to be imposed in the aftermath of a severe flood.
 308 Hence, they are considering the adoption of an automatic vibration-based SHM system to support
 309 decision-making during emergency operations. In this demonstration, it is supposed that the bridge
 310 manager and the owner are the same person. In this respect, the possibility of obtaining negative VoI is
 311 prevented. Utility is expressed as negative cost. The decision problem in the absence of SHM
 312 information, i.e. the prior decision problem, is represented by the decision tree in Fig. 4.



313

314

Fig. 4 Decision tree representing the prior decision analysis

315 Two possible traffic management actions are considered, namely “leave the bridge open” and “close
 316 the bridge” indicated in the decision tree as *Open* and *Close*, respectively.

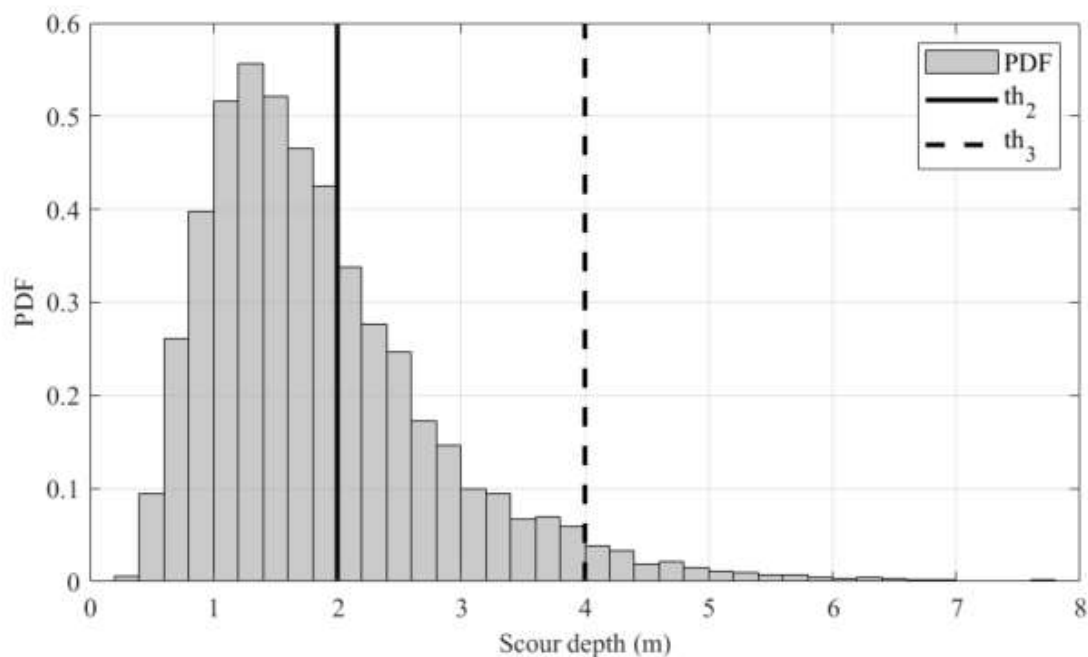
317 The damage state of the bridge due to scour is discretized into three levels: (i) no damage/minor damage,
 318 DS_1 ; (ii) medium damage, DS_2 ; (iii) severe damage, DS_3 . The damage states correspond to different
 319 scour depths, which in turn are related to different residual load bearing capacities of the bridge pier
 320 foundation. The probability that the structure is in a certain damage state depends on the scour depth y_s
 321 produced by a flood event, whose intensity is represented by the flow Q (see Eq. 13 to Eq. 15). Given
 322 the uncertainty of the parameters involved, to each value of the flow corresponds a distribution of the
 323 scour depth. For this case study the parameters reported in Table 1 were assumed.

324

Table 1 Input variables used in the calculation of the distribution of scour depth

Variable	Unit	Distribution	Mean	CoV	Reference
K_1	-	Det.	1	-	-
K_2	-	Det.	1	-	-
K_3	-	Uniform	1.2	0.048	[54]
K_4	-	Det.	1	-	-
a	m	Det.	1.2	-	-
B	m	Lognormal	50	0.05	Assumed
s	-	Lognormal	0.003	0.05	Assumed
λ_Q	-	Normal	1	0.05	[43]
λ	-	Lognormal	0.412	0.646	[43]
n	-	Lognormal	0.035	0.28	[55]

325 Fig. 5 displays the distribution of the scour depth obtained by a Monte Carlo simulation with 10,000
 326 random samples considering a flow $Q=500 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$. Thresholds th_2 and th_3 refer to scour depths
 327 corresponding to the proposed damage levels DS_2 and DS_3 (discussed in more detail below).

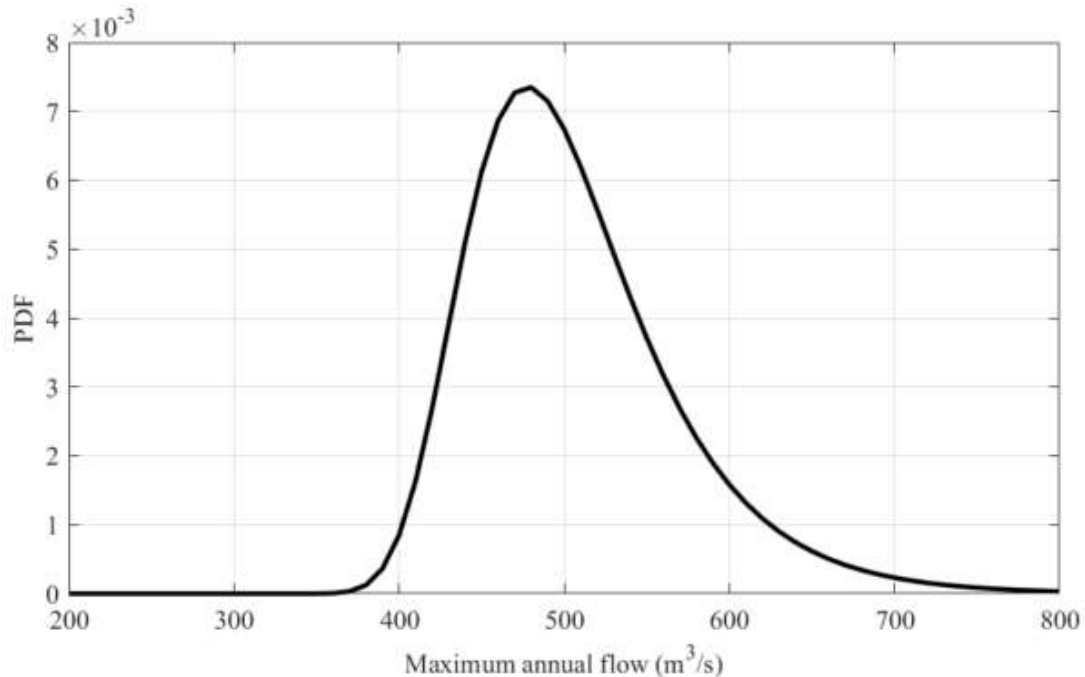


328

329

Fig. 5 Distribution of the scour depth for $Q=500 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$

330 The Gumbel distribution is commonly employed to represent the distribution of the maximum value of
 331 the flood flows that occur within a year [56]. Thus, the probability distribution of the maximum annual
 332 flow is assumed as a Gumbel distribution with mean 500 m³/s and CoV of 0.10, as shown in Fig. 6.



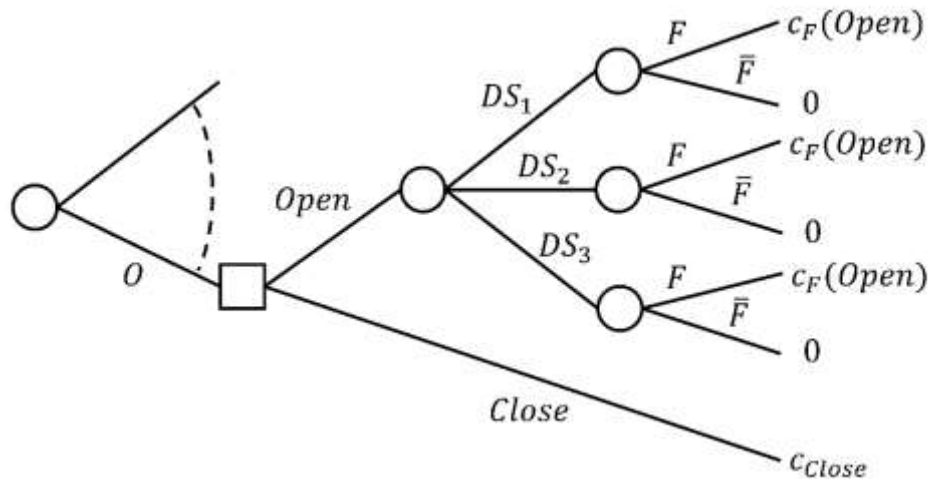
333

334

Fig. 6 Distribution of annual maximum flow rate

335 Three damage levels have been considered defining three threshold values of the scour depth i.e. $th_1 =$
 336 0 , $th_2 = 2$ m, and $th_3 = 4$ m. Damage state DS_1 occurs for $0 \leq y_s < 2$ m; damage state DS_2 occurs
 337 for scour depths in the interval $2 \leq y_s < 4$ m; damage state DS_3 occurs for $y_s \geq 4$ m. The probabilities
 338 of the damage states change according to the value of the flow. For instance, for $Q=500$ m³/s the
 339 probabilities of the damage states read $P(DS_1) = 0.640$, $P(DS_2) = 0.322$, and $P(DS_3) = 0.038$. In
 340 relation to the selected action and to its damage state, the bridge might fail under external actions, such
 341 as traffic loads and/or the hydrodynamic force of flowing water. In this demonstration, the following
 342 probabilities of failure are associated with the action *Open*: $P(F|DS_1) = 0.0001$, $P(F|DS_2) = 0.01$,
 343 and $P(F|DS_3) = 0.8$. In a real application, a reliability analysis should be carried out to determine these
 344 probabilities (values adopted in this case are for demonstration only).

345 The costs of bridge failure and survival for action $A_n = Open$ are $c_F(Open) = 1,500,000 \text{ €}$ and
 346 $c_{\bar{F}}(Open) = 0$, respectively. The expected cost of the action *Close*, c_{Close} , is fixed under the hypothesis
 347 that it can generate only indirect consequences and it is taken as 55,000€. The expected costs of the two
 348 actions *Open* and *Close* computed by means of Eq. 2 as a function of the flow are shown in Fig. 9(a).
 349 The expected cost of action *Open* depends on the prior probabilities of the different damage states,
 350 which in turn depend on the magnitude of the flow. As the water flow increases, the probability of the
 351 bridge becoming damaged increases. So, the expected cost of the action *Open* increases. The upper
 352 bound of the expected cost of the action *Open* is reached when the damage state DS_3 is certain, i.e.
 353 $P(DS_3) = 1$, and it is computed according to Eq. 1 as $c_F(Open) \times P(F|DS_3) = 1,500,000 \text{ €} \times 0.8 =$
 354 $1,200,000 \text{ €}$. The prior probabilities of damage states are obtained by Monte Carlo simulation with
 355 10,000 samples of random variables. According to the prior analysis, rational decision makers should
 356 close the bridge in the case where flow exceeds (approximately) $540 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$, that is the value at which the
 357 expected costs of the two actions coincide.

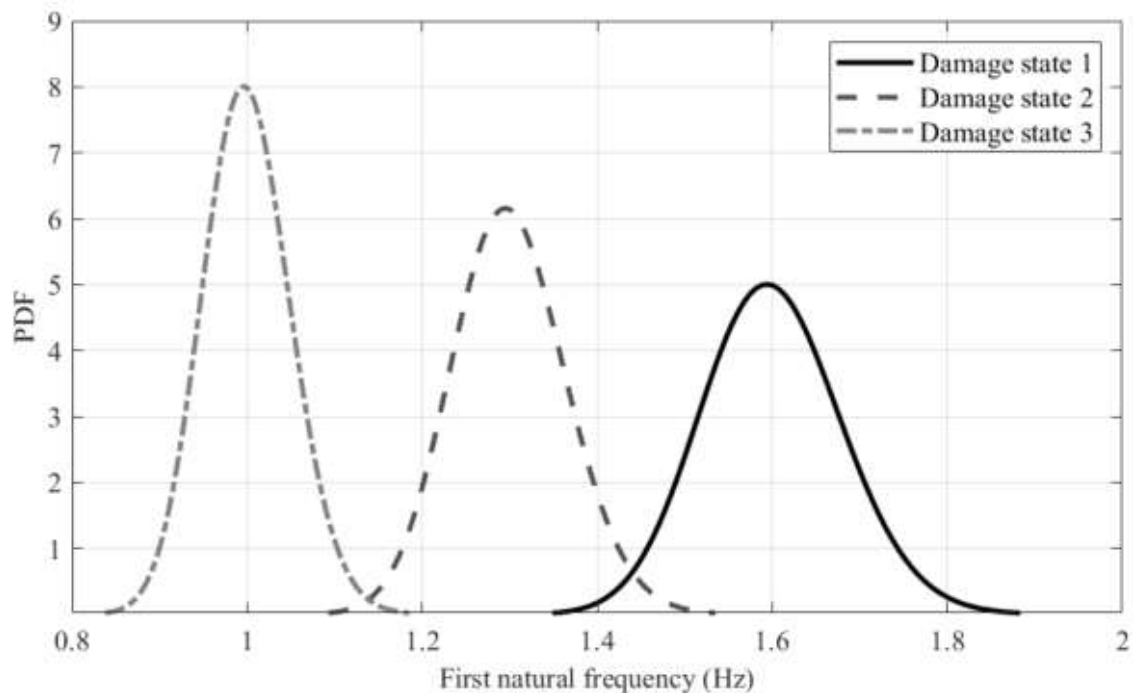


358

359 Fig. 7 Decision tree representing the decision analysis with information from SHM for the case study

360 It is now assumed that the decision maker is interested in knowing the expected costs of actions when
 361 using SHM information, prior to installing such a system, see Fig. 7. This expected cost can be
 362 computed by applying Eq. 10. The damage-sensitive feature used by the decision maker is the first
 363 natural frequency of the bridge, which is expected to decrease when scour is present [20]. This

364 parameter can be estimated by means of several Operational Modal Analysis (OMA) techniques. The
 365 estimated values of natural frequencies are typically affected by multiple sources of uncertainties. These
 366 uncertainties are accounted for in the definition of the likelihood functions, which can be interpreted as
 367 the probability distribution function of the first natural frequency in correspondence to the three damage
 368 states (see section 3.5). Herein, it is assumed that the distribution of the first natural frequency
 369 corresponding to damage states DS_1 , DS_2 and DS_3 of this generic bridge can be described by a
 370 Lognormal distribution with mean value 1.6 Hz, 1.3 Hz, and 1 Hz, respectively, and 0.05 CoV, as shown
 371 in Fig. 8. In this case, a continuous output is obtained from the SHM system and therefore the sum in
 372 Eq. 10 is replaced by an integral.



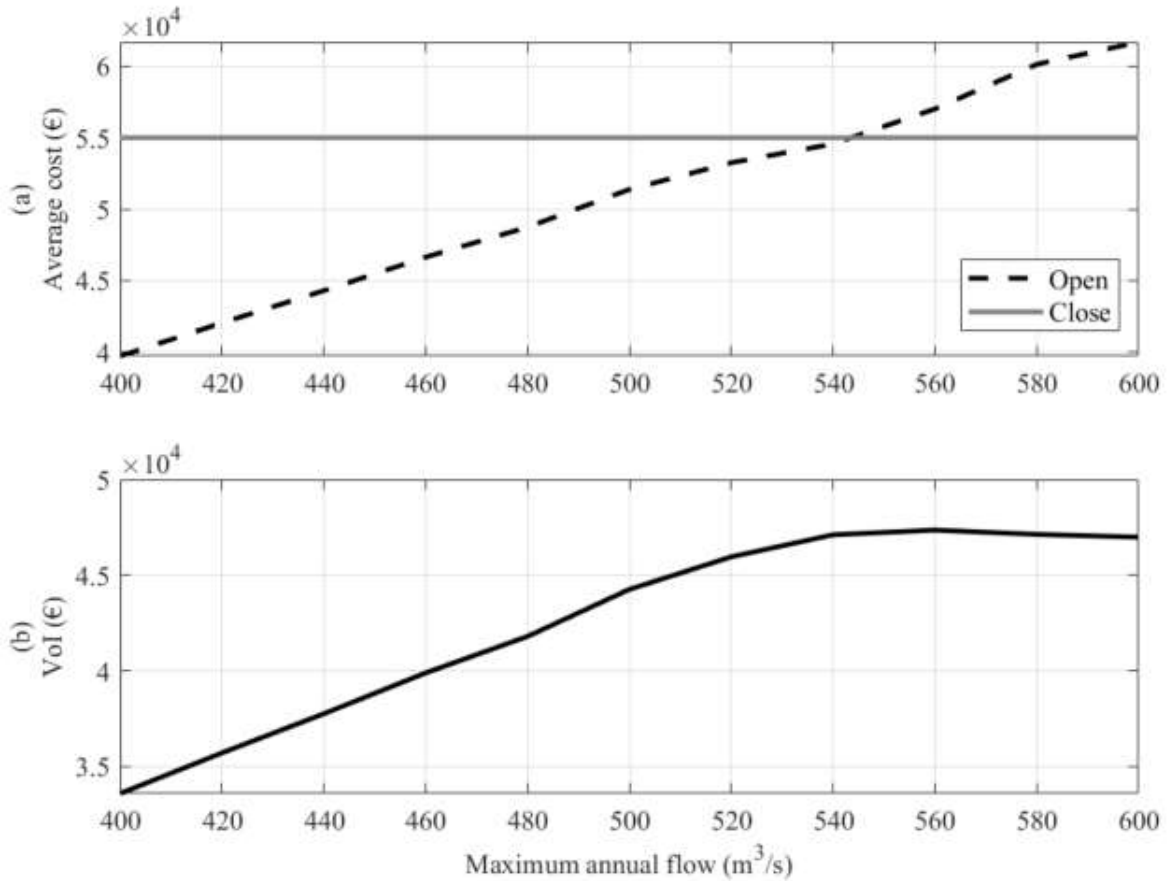
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Fig. 8 Likelihood functions

375 The VoI as a function of the flow is computed according to Eq. 11. The results are displayed in Fig.
 376 9(b). It is observed that the VoI is maximum when the two actions *Open* and *Close* have the same
 377 expected costs. In fact, the benefit of collecting information on the condition of the bridge is maximum
 378 when the uncertainty on the selection of the optimal action is large, that is when alternative actions
 379 correspond to similar expected costs. The VoI is integrated over the probability distribution of the

380 maximum annual flow to remove the dependence on the intensity measure, according to Eq. 12,
 381 obtaining an expected cost of about 43,000 €. The SHM system should be employed if its (annual) cost
 382 is lower than the computed VoI.



383

384 Fig. 9 (a) Prior average costs of actions; (b) VoI as a function of the flow rate

385 **5. Conclusions**

386 In this paper, a framework to assess the benefit of SHM information in the context of bridges damaged
 387 by scour erosion is presented and a brief example (case study) is demonstrated. The framework is based
 388 on the VoI from Bayesian decision theory, which is adapted herein to the case of emergency
 389 management of structures in the aftermath of a flood. The purpose of the paper is to introduce the
 390 concept of VoI in this context with a view to assisting asset managers in decision-making related to
 391 whether to close or keep open bridges that have been damaged in the aftermath of a flood event.

392 Intermediate bridge management actions, such as imposing traffic restrictions, can also be considered
393 in the decision problem. The framework is demonstrated and the relevant steps in the process described.

394 The elements of a VoI analysis for scour monitoring are identified and described. These include: (i)
395 identifying the possible damage states caused by scour, which are related to different scour depths
396 affecting a given foundation; (ii) the prior probabilities of scour occurrence; (iii) the bridge management
397 actions that the decision maker might take after a severe flood event, i.e. imposing traffic restrictions;
398 (iv) the costs associated with different combinations of damage states and bridge management actions;
399 (v) the probability of failure of the scoured bridge under external actions; and (vi) the *likelihood*
400 *functions* used to update the prior probabilities of damage states according to Bayes' theorem, which
401 represents the probability of observing a certain scour monitoring outcome (e.g. bridge frequency),
402 given a certain damage state (scour condition). A simple but exhaustive numerical example is presented,
403 including all the relevant elements of a VoI analysis. In this case demonstration, the operator of a bridge
404 is concerned about traffic management after a severe flood and for this reason they are considering the
405 adoption of a vibration-based SHM system to facilitate emergency operations. It is observed that the
406 expected costs of bridge management actions increase as the intensity of the water flow increases since
407 severe damage states are more likely to occur as a result (when damage is scour development). When
408 the expected costs of actions reach similar values, the VoI is maximum. In this situation, additional
409 information on the actual state of the bridge is particularly useful to select the optimal action. The VoI
410 is computed by accounting for the distributions of maximum annual flow of the river and is used by the
411 operator of the bridge as an upper bound for a cost-effective SHM system. The presented framework
412 will be of use to decision-makers who must make informed decisions about management of bridges
413 during severe flood events and allows the incorporation of uncertainties associated with the measured
414 data and the resulting consequences of a given action. The framework should inform on the benefits (or
415 not) of installing a sensor system on a given bridge based on the VoI this provides (relative to the
416 absence of such information).

417 **Acknowledgements**

418 This study was partially funded by the Italian Civil Protection Department within the project DPC-
419 RELUIS 2019 - RS4 'Monitoring and satellite data'. The second author would like to thank the Faculty
420 of Engineering, University of Nottingham for funding to enable this collaboration.

421 **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

422 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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