

1 **Title**

2 **Comparison of forecasting models to predict concrete bridge decks**
3 **performance**

4 **Running Head**

5 **Comparison of forecasting models for concrete bridge decks**

6

7 **Monica Santamaria Ariza**

8 *PhD candidate, ISISE, IB-S, Department of Civil Engineering, University of*
9 *Minho, Guimarães, Portugal*

10 msantamaria@civil.uminho.pt

11 **Ivan Zambon**

12 *PhD, FCP Fritsch, Chiari & Partner ZT GmbH, Vienna, Austria*

13 ivan.zambon@outlook.com

14 **Hélder S. Sousa**

15 *Postdoctoral Researcher, ISISE, IB-S, Department of Civil Engineering,*
16 *University of Minho, Guimarães, Portugal*

17 sousa.hms@gmail.com

18 **José António Campos e Matos**

19 *Assistant Professor, ISISE, IB-S, Department of Civil Engineering, University of*
20 *Minho, Guimarães, Portugal*

21 jmatos@civil.uminho.pt

22 **Alfred Strauss**

23 *PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Civil Engineering and Natural*
24 *Hazards, University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences*

25 alfred.strauss@boku.ac.at

26 **Correspondence**

27 Campus de Azurém, University of Minho, 4800-058 Guimarães, Portugal

28 Tel: +351 934926867

29 id8021@alunos.uminho.pt

30

31 **Abstract**

32 The accuracy of forecasting models for the prediction of an infrastructure's
33 deterioration process plays a significant role in the estimation of optimal
34 maintenance, rehabilitation, and replacement strategies. Numerous approaches
35 have been developed to overcome the limitations of existing forecasting models.
36 In this paper, a direct comparison is made between different models using the
37 same input data to derive conclusions of their distinct performance. The models
38 selected for the comparison were Markov, Semi Markov and Hidden Markov
39 models together with Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), which have been
40 reported in literature as reliable deterioration prediction models. A quality of fit
41 was performed to measure how well the observed data corresponded to the
42 predicted values, and therefore objectively compare the performance of each
43 model. The results demonstrated that the most accurate prediction was
44 accomplished by the ANN model. Nevertheless, all models presented differences
45 with respect to typical values of concrete decks life expectancy, which is
46 attributed to the inherent difficulties of the database. Additionally, the problem of
47 the visual inspection subjectivity was also regarded as one of the potential causes
48 for the found deviations. Therefore, this article also discusses the shortcomings of
49 current condition assessment practices and encourages future Bridge Management
50 Systems to replace the classical methods by more sophisticated and objective
51 tools.

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Bridge owners encounter great challenges to efficiently allocate funds to preserve
54 and maintain their aging bridges. The ultimate goal of asset management
55 programs consists on defining strategic and systematic processes to identify the
56 sequence of maintenance, preservation, repair, rehabilitation and replacement
57 actions/interventions to ensure the safety, serviceability, and functionality of

58 bridges within available budgets over their service life [1]. Many Bridge
59 Management Systems (BMS) have been developed in the last decades. Typically,
60 the architecture of a BMS consists of a database and modules dealing with
61 condition and structural assessment, deterioration prediction, lifecycle cost, and
62 maintenance optimization [2]. Even though all modules are equally important, a
63 reliable bridge condition assessment is needed as input for the deterioration
64 prediction modules, which accuracy is a key element for the subsequent
65 maintenance optimization strategies.

66 Different condition assessment tools have been developed over the years such as
67 visual surveys, probing, non-destructive techniques (NDT) and structural health
68 monitoring (SHM) [3]. Based on these assessment tools, the damage is estimated
69 and expressed through performance indicators (PIs), which are metrics that define
70 qualitatively and/or quantitatively the condition state of the bridge elements [3].
71 Faleschini et al [3] classified the PIs in two main categories: operational and
72 research indicators. Operational indicators are based on qualitative condition
73 ratings, i.e. an adopted discrete scale where one value is defined as the as-built
74 condition, and the remaining values represent the deviation from the as-built
75 condition [4]. On the other hand, research indicators are based on a quantitative
76 evaluation of the structural safety of the assets, i.e. computing the probability of
77 failure for a given limit state [3].

78 Due to the distinction between the PIs, different forecasting models have been
79 developed to predict the deterioration over time and the remaining service life of
80 bridge elements. For instance, a lot of research has been conducted on analytical
81 deterioration models to describe common phenomena affecting reinforced
82 concrete structures such as chloride-induced corrosion [5]–[8], carbonation-
83 induced corrosion [8], [9], alkali-aggregate reaction and freeze/thaw attack [10],
84 [11], among others. Another approach has proposed using the reliability index as

85 an indicator of the bridge performance and constructing a reliability profile,
86 defined as the variation of the reliability index with time at a deterioration rate
87 after the deterioration initiation time [12], [13].

88 Even though research PIs and their related forecasting models represent a more
89 quantitative measure of the deterioration phenomena, their practical application
90 on BMS is still limited due to the large amount of assets that transportation
91 agencies must manage. Therefore, operational PIs, i.e. condition ratings, have
92 been predominantly the input parameters for deterioration models in existing
93 BMS [2]. Literature on deterioration modelling approaches based on condition
94 ratings is extensive and include, but is not limited to: deterministic models
95 (multiple linear regression [14], polynomial regressions [14]–[16], ordinal logistic
96 regression [17]), stochastic models (Markov models [18]–[21], Semi-Markov
97 models [20]–[22], Hidden Markov models [20], [23]), Artificial Intelligent (AI)
98 techniques (Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) [24]–[26], fuzzy logic [26], [27],
99 Case-based Reasoning (CBR) [28]), Bayesian networks [29] and Petri-Nets [30].

100 Deterministic and stochastic Markov-chain models are the prevalent deterioration
101 models currently used by most BMS [31], [32]. The main advantage of Markov-
102 chains over the deterministic models is their capability to reflect the uncertainty
103 of the deterioration process while being computationally efficient and simple to
104 manipulate networks with large number of assets [19]. Nevertheless, it has been
105 broadly discussed that some of the Markov-chains assumptions significantly
106 affect the prediction accuracy [18], [21], [28]. Therefore, the aim of this study is
107 to objectively analyse the impact of those assumptions through a direct
108 comparison of the prediction accuracy obtained by the Markov-chains model with
109 other deterioration modelling approaches, namely Semi Markov models, Hidden
110 Markov models and Artificial Neural Networks. These models were selected as
111 they have arisen as an enhancement/alternative to the Markov-chains model,

112 while fulfilling desired characteristics for BMS. Furthermore, the implementation
113 complexity of each model and the associated computational cost are also
114 compared to provide recommendations for practice. To this end, a database
115 containing inspections records from 766 different bridges with approximately 14
116 inspections (time window of approximately 26 years) is employed to predict the
117 evolution of concrete bridge decks condition over time through each adopted
118 model.

119 The present work is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a description of the
120 employed database and the conducted filtering procedure. The following sections
121 present a brief conceptual description of the selected deterioration models and
122 their application to the database. For a more detailed explanation of the theory of
123 the models the reader is referred to [20], [33]–[35]. Consequently, Section 7
124 compares the different degradation patterns predicted by each model and uses
125 some metrics to measure how well the observed data corresponds to the predicted
126 values. Section 8 presents a discussion on the prediction capabilities of the
127 models compared to that reported on literature, and the drawbacks encountered
128 for the individual and general development of the models. Finally, concluding
129 remarks together with recommendations for future directions are provided.

130 **2. Database Pre-processing**

131 The models were implemented using inspection records of bridges retrieved from
132 the National Bridge Inventory (NBI) database managed by the U.S. Department
133 of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration (FHWA) [36]. According to
134 the last ASCE's Report Card for America's Infrastructure [37], by 2016 there
135 were 614,387 bridges in the USA, 9.1% of which had been declared as
136 structurally deficient. Even though from a national perspective the condition of
137 the nation's bridges has improved over the last 10 years, the highest percentage
138 of structurally deficient bridges reached until 24.9% for the state of Rhode Island

139 [37]. The inspection records corresponding to Rhode Island were selected for the
140 implementation of the deterioration models in the present work, granting that the
141 records from any other state would similarly accomplish the aim of the work.

142 The visual inspection (VI) method is the predominant non-destructive evaluation
143 (NDE) technique used for bridge inspections which are carried out biennially by
144 certified inspectors [38]. The VI method examines the bridge members to identify
145 deficiencies; for instance, detect concrete deck defects such as cracking, scaling,
146 spalling, leaching, delamination, and full or partial depth failures. The bridge
147 inspector is responsible for assigning a condition rating that properly characterizes
148 the general condition of the entire component being rated based on the severity
149 and extent of the deterioration [39]. The NBI specifies a condition rating ordinal
150 scale from 0 to 9 (Table 1), where 0 represents a failed condition and 9 represents
151 an excellent condition. Condition rating of 4 is generally considered as the
152 threshold rating where rehabilitation or replacement measures have to be done
153 (structurally deficient) [1]. A separately condition rating is assigned for the three
154 major bridge components namely substructure, superstructure and deck. Herein,
155 the deck ratings were selected to develop the models.

156 Table 1

157 The database comprises inspections records from 766 different bridges by the year
158 2017. The earliest inspections date from 1990, covering a span of approximately
159 26 years. However, some bridges were built after that period (see Figure 1) or
160 were not inspected biennially, resulting in a lower number of available
161 inspections. Consequently, only bridges with the maximum possible number of
162 records, i.e. 14 inspections, were used to build the models. It can be observed from
163 Figure 1 that the predominant deck structure type corresponds to concrete cast-in-
164 place and concrete precast panels. Hence, the database was refined to contain only
165 concrete bridge decks.

166

Figure 1

167 Further filtering was applied to the NBI database to remove inconsistencies before
168 its implementation in the models. For instance, records without condition deck
169 rating were removed, along with inspection records on bridges with reconstruction
170 history which do not characterise a natural degradation trend. Additionally, there
171 were cases where an improvement in the condition rating was observed. This
172 effect can be attributed to non-recorded maintenance actions or visual inspection
173 inaccuracy due to its inherent subjectivity. Both cases were herein studied, so a
174 “Dataset 1” discarded the complete sequence of observations where improved
175 transition were present; while a “Dataset 2” included the transitions towards better
176 conditions up to two ratings assuming to represent the variability between
177 inspectors [38]. All models implemented in the present work except the Hidden
178 Markov model used Dataset 1.

179 Finally, bridge decks with a condition rating of “2” or lower are posted for reduced
180 load or closed to traffic [26], so they were removed because they are not in a
181 normal operation condition. It was also observed that following the filtering there
182 was no records on bridge decks with a condition rating of “9”. Thus, the developed
183 models were built to predict the deterioration from condition rating “8” to
184 condition rating “3”. Table 2 presents information on the distribution of bridges
185 according to their main structure type, functional class and recorded condition
186 ratings for both considered datasets. It can be seen that there is a low number of
187 very high and very low condition ratings in comparison with the number of
188 available mid-condition ratings.

189

Table 2

190 **3. Discrete Markov Models**

191 Discrete Markov models are stochastic processes that describe physical systems
192 where the probability that a system will be in a given state j at time t_2 , may be

193 obtained from a known state i at an earlier time t_l , but is independent on its history
 194 before time t_l (i.e. Markov property) [40]. The probability of a transition between
 195 state i and j per unit of time is expressed as [20]:

$$P_{ij} = Pr\{X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i\} = Pr\{X_1 = j | X_0 = i\}, \quad (1)$$

196 The probability of transitioning from all possible pairs (i,j) during a single period
 197 of time, may be assembled in the transition probability matrix (TPM) of order $(n$
 198 $\times n)$, where n is the total number of condition states [20]:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} P_{11} & P_{12} & \cdots & P_{1n} \\ P_{21} & P_{22} & \cdots & P_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ P_{n1} & P_{n2} & \cdots & P_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (2)$$

199 The elements of a TPM satisfy the following conditions [20]:

- 200 *i.* $0 \leq P_{ij} \leq 1$ for all i, j
- 201 *ii.* $\sum_{j=1}^n P_{ij} = 1$ for all i, j
- 202 *iii.* $P_{ij} = 0$ for $i > j$

203 The third condition is assumed for the purpose of modelling deterioration.
 204 Therefore, the system will remain in the same state during the discrete period of
 205 time or will move to a more deteriorated state.

206 There are different methods to estimate the transition probabilities. In this study,
 207 the percentage prediction method was used to derive the elements of the matrix
 208 [34]:

$$p_{ij} = \frac{n_{ij}}{n_i} \quad (3)$$

209 where:

210 n_{ij} is the number of bridges that moved from state i to state j during a single period
 211 of time;

212 n_i is the total number of bridges in state i before the transition

213 Through the application of Equation (3), the obtained TPM computed using the
 214 Dataset 1 described in Section 2 is equal to:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.59 & 0.41 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.87 & 0.13 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.94 & 0.06 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.93 & 0.07 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0.97 & 0.03 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

215 By means of a discrete Markov process, the state vector Q_t which corresponds to
 216 a vector containing the element rating for any time t , can be obtained as the initial
 217 condition state vector Q_0 multiplied by TPM to the power of t [18] :

$$Q_t = Q_0 \times P^t \quad (5)$$

218 For a newly constructed bridge element at the time of the first inspection, the
 219 initial state vector will be equal to $Q_0 = [1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0]$ [18]. Finally, the estimation
 220 of the condition rating as a function of time $R_{p,t}$ is obtained as [18]:

$$R_{p,t} = Q_t \times R' \quad (6)$$

221 Where R' is a vector of condition ratings which for the processed database is
 222 equivalent to $R' = [8 \ 7 \ 6 \ 5 \ 4 \ 3]$. Consequently, a deterioration curve can be
 223 constructed by computing the expected value of condition rating for each discrete
 224 time step over the lifetime of the network of bridges.

225 4. Semi Markov models

226 Aging is mathematically defined as an increasing probability of transition to a
 227 worse condition state as time progresses [20]. Semi Markov models are an
 228 extension of discrete Markov models where the aging effect can be captured
 229 through the random time that is inserted between state transitions [20]. This
 230 random time is referred as sojourn (or waiting) time and is denoted as T_{ij} , with
 231 probability density function (PDF) designated by f_{ij} , and survival function (SF)
 232 designated by S_{ij} [33]. In order to estimate the transition probabilities in a Semi

233 Markov process, it is necessary to calculate the sum of the sojourn times in the
 234 states ($T_{i \rightarrow k}$), i.e. the time the process will take to move from state i to k , which
 235 can be expressed as [33]:

$$T_{i \rightarrow k} = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} T_{j,j+1} \quad (7)$$

236 With $i = \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$; $k = \{2, 3, \dots, n\}$. Accordingly, the single step transition
 237 probabilities can be determined as [9]:

$$P_{i,i+1}^{t,t+1} = Pr[X(t+1) = i+1 | X(t) = i] = \frac{f_{1 \rightarrow i}(t)}{S_{1 \rightarrow i}(t) - S_{1 \rightarrow i-1}(t)} \quad (8)$$

238 where $f_{1 \rightarrow i}(t)$ and $S_{1 \rightarrow i}(t)$ are the PDF and SF of the sum of the sojourn times
 239 from state 1 to state i respectively. The TPM of the Semi Markov process is hence
 240 populated after generating all the transition probabilities using Equation (8):

$$P^{t,t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} P_{11}^{t,t+1} & P_{12}^{t,t+1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & P_{22}^{t,t+1} & P_{23}^{t,t+1} & \dots & 0 \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & P_{n-1,n-1}^{t,t+1} & P_{n-1,n}^{t,t+1} \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (9)$$

241 For the present work, the distribution of the sojourn times is assumed to follow a
 242 two parameter Weibull distribution. Therefore, the PDF and SF of the sojourn
 243 times are given by [33]:

$$S_i(t) = e^{-(\lambda_i t)^{\beta_i}} \quad (10)$$

$$f_i(t) = \lambda_i \beta_i (\lambda_i t)^{\beta_i - 1} e^{-(\lambda_i t)^{\beta_i}} \quad (11)$$

244

245 The parameters λ_i and β_i are estimated from historical observations recorded in
 246 the Dataset 1. To this end, two intervals of time are defined, namely u and v ($u \neq$
 247 v), and the probabilities of the bridge deck to remain in a certain condition rating
 248 i for more than u and v years are assessed, i.e. $x_{i,u}$ and $x_{i,v}$ respectively [33]. These
 249 probabilities are computed from the relative frequency of events similarly as for
 250 the Markov process [21], and the results for the selected intervals are shown in

251 Table 3. Subsequently, the parameters λ_i and β_i are derived from the following
 252 expressions [33]:

$$\begin{cases} S_i(u) = e^{-(\lambda_i u)^{\beta_i}} \\ S_i(v) = e^{-(\lambda_i v)^{\beta_i}} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \ln[S_i(u)] = -(\lambda_i u)^{\beta_i} \\ \ln[S_i(v)] = -(\lambda_i v)^{\beta_i} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \ln\left(\frac{\ln[S_i(u)]}{\ln[S_i(v)]}\right) = \beta_i \ln\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) \quad (12)$$

253
 254

$$\beta_i = \frac{\ln(\ln[S_i(u)] - \ln[S_i(v)])}{\ln(u) - \ln(v)} ; \lambda_i = \frac{1}{u} (-\ln[S_i(u)])^{\frac{1}{\beta_i}} \quad (13)$$

255 Once both parameters are evaluated for every i , the TPM for the Semi Markov
 256 process can be computed.

257 Table 3

258 **5. Hidden Markov models**

259 Monitoring data from historical inspections frequently contains measurement
 260 errors and selection biases [23], which affect the accuracy of the deterioration
 261 predictions. To address this issue, Hidden Markov models (HMM) have been used
 262 to incorporate the bias of the observations into the forecasting models [20], [23].
 263 HMMs assume that there is some true condition state which is “hidden” to the
 264 observer [20]. In other words, the sequence of true states S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n at the
 265 inspection times t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n is hidden behind the sequence of the observed states
 266 V_1, V_2, \dots, V_n [20]. Therefore, considering the bias in the monitoring data allows
 267 the unobserved true condition states to be captured [23].

268 The sequence of the true states follows a simple Markov chain, so the probability
 269 a_{ij} representing the probability of moving to state S_j depends only on the state S_i ,
 270 which can be expressed as $a_{ij} = P[q_{t+1} = S_j | q_t = S_i]$ [35]. On the contrary, the
 271 observed sequence does not hold the Markov property [20]. The conditional
 272 probability of the observations given the true states corresponds to [20]:

$$e_{ij} = Pr[V_k = j | S_k = i] \quad (14)$$

273 These probabilities are collected in an error or misclassification matrix where $0 \leq$
274 $e_{ij} \leq 1$, and $\sum_{j=0}^n e_{ij} = 1$ [20]:

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} e_{11} & e_{12} & \cdots & e_{1n} \\ e_{21} & e_{22} & \cdots & e_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ e_{n1} & e_{n2} & \cdots & e_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

275 The probability of correctly identifying the condition state corresponds to e_{ii} ,
276 while for all $i \neq j$ there exists a misclassification reflecting the variability in the
277 inspections [20]. This variation is attributed to the fact that the condition rating is
278 a qualitative measure affected by the subjectivity of the inspectors. This
279 phenomenon was investigated by the FHWA [38] who conducted a study to
280 evaluate the reliability of the visual inspections. Forty-nine bridge inspectors
281 completed routine and in-depth inspections to the same bridges. The results
282 showed that 95% of the element condition ratings vary within ± 2 rating points
283 around the mean, and 68% of these ratings vary within ± 1 rating point [38]. The
284 error probabilities referred as emission probabilities in the formal notation for
285 Hidden Markov models may be assessed by expert judgement or by maximum
286 likelihood [20].

287 One of the basic problems involved when using HMMs is to adjust the parameters
288 of the model λ , i.e. the sequence of the states π , the transition probabilities a_{ij} and
289 the emission probabilities e_{ij} , to maximize the probability of the observation
290 sequence given the model [35]. There is no analytical solution to maximize the
291 probability of the observation sequence; hence, an iterative procedure such as the
292 Baum-Welch algorithm can be used to locally maximize the observation sequence
293 given a selected model λ , and re-estimate the model parameters $\bar{\lambda}$ until a stopping
294 criterion is reached [35]. The mathematical description of this procedure is not
295 herein presented, for a detailed explanation the reader is referred to [35], [41].

296 Matlab [42] function “hmmtrain” was used to estimate the transition and emission
 297 probabilities for the Hidden Markov model using the Baum-Welch algorithm. An
 298 initial estimation of the transition and emission probabilities matrices together
 299 with the sequence of observations are the inputs of the function. The initial guess
 300 for the transition probability matrix is computed with the same procedure
 301 described in Section 3 but using the Dataset 2; in this manner the model includes
 302 the inspectors’ variability as explained in Section 2. The obtained matrix is equal
 303 to:

$$a_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.521 & 0.4455 & 0.0335 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.0014 & 0.8566 & 0.1335 & 0.0085 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.0044 & 0.0205 & 0.9044 & 0.0615 & 0.0092 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.024 & 0.0477 & 0.8747 & 0.0536 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.043 & 0.037 & 0.897 & 0.023 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

304

305 Note that the transitions to better states are allowed but the increase is attributed
 306 to imperfect inspections rather than an improvement in the quality of the structure
 307 resulting from maintenance.

308 For the emission probability matrix it is assumed that the inspectors’
 309 misclassifications could be ± 2 condition ratings based on the FHWA findings
 310 [38]. The most likely values for the emission probabilities will be estimated
 311 through the Baum-Welch algorithm, so for the initial guess all the non-zero
 312 elements of the matrix are assumed to be equal:

$$e_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 0 & 0 \\ 1/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 & 1/5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 & 1/4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 & 1/3 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (17)$$

313 The sequence of observations corresponds to the succession of condition ratings
 314 along the years from each bridge deck. The transition and emission probabilities
 315 obtained through the Baum-Welch algorithm were:

$$\bar{a}_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.826 & 0.146 & 0.028 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.019 & 0.919 & 0.02 & 0.042 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.064 & 0.034 & 0.673 & 0.101 & 0.128 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.032 & 0.001 & 0.943 & 0.024 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.064 & 0 & 0.907 & 0.029 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (18)$$

316

$$\bar{e}_{ij} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.091 & 0.904 & 0.005 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.999 & 0.001 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0.138 & 0.808 & 0.054 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (19)$$

317 Note that for the lower condition states, the obtained emission probabilities
 318 indicate that the true conditions are correctly observed by the inspector, while for
 319 the better condition ratings the inspectors tend to assign lower than the true
 320 condition. This effect is in accordance with the FHWA research [38] which
 321 concluded that inspectors are hesitant to assign high condition ratings for better
 322 condition elements.

323 Based on the transition and emission probabilities previously obtained, the Matlab
 324 function “hmmgenerate” is used to generate random sequences of emission
 325 symbols (the observed states) and random sequences of states (true or hidden
 326 states) during a 100-year period. Then, the average of 10000 sequences of states
 327 is computed.

328 **6. Artificial Neural Networks**

329 Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) are information-processing techniques
 330 conceptually motivated by the way the densely interconnected and parallel
 331 structure of the human brain processes information [24]. Several types of ANN
 332 have been applied to solve the bridge deterioration modelling problem. One of the
 333 most widely used model that has demonstrated great capabilities to solve the
 334 prediction deterioration problem are multilayer perceptron networks (MLP). This

335 model is based on fully connected, layered, feed-forward networks [24], that
336 utilize back propagation technique for training. Additionally, other approaches
337 have been developed such as *i*) case base reasoning which looks for previous cases
338 that are similar to the current problem and reuse them to solve the problem [28]
339 *ii*) ensemble of neural networks which is composed of a series of individual ANNs
340 working in parallel so predictions are made by collecting and combining the
341 outputs of individual networks through a weighting process [26] *iii*) Elman neural
342 networks integrated with a backward prediction model which generates missing
343 condition ratings when the input data is insufficient [43].

344 A MLP network has been used in the present work to model the deterioration of
345 bridge decks based on Dataset 1. The input parameters for the network correspond
346 to the variables that more significantly influence the condition of the bridge deck.
347 The selection of the input variables is a crucial issue considering that the nature
348 of the problem cannot be captured with only a few variables, but can be over-
349 fitted with redundant variables [26]. The NBI database comprises of 116 different
350 bridge attributes (full list refer to [4]). Hence, a first selection of the potential
351 influential parameters based on literature review and engineering judgement
352 comprised 12 attributes namely age, structure length, deck width, skew angle, type
353 of design and/or construction, functional classification, design load, maintenance
354 responsibility, kind of material and/or design, wearing surface, ADT (Average
355 Daily Traffic) and ADTT (Average Daily Truck Traffic) . Afterwards, statistical
356 analysis was performed to validate the significance of the association and the
357 correlation of the independent variables with the dependent variable. However,
358 the database possesses complex multidimensional data so that the evidence
359 obtained from the traditional statistical tests was not sufficiently strong to draw
360 consistent conclusions. Therefore, the predictors selection was done through a
361 variance-based sensitivity analysis that computes the importance of each predictor
362 in determining the neural network, i.e. how much the network predicted value

363 changes for different values of the independent variables [44]. The strength of this
364 method is that it can deal with nonlinear responses and produces good estimations
365 when the size of the dataset is large. After conducting the sensitivity analysis, the
366 obtained normalized importance of the independent variables is shown in Figure
367 2.

368 The variables with the lowest importance were sequentially removed until the
369 performance of the network reached its optimal value. The final parameters
370 selected as input variables were age, structure length, deck width, functional
371 classification, kind of material and/or design, and ADTT. The quantitative
372 variables were standardized, and the categorical variables were transformed into
373 a binary system before employing them in the model.

374 Finally, Matlab Neural Network Toolbox [42] was used for the development of
375 the MLP model. The network was trained with a Bayesian regularization
376 backpropagation training function, for its ability to reveal potentially complex
377 relationships. 70%, 15% and 15% of the input data was randomly allocated for
378 training, validating and testing the network respectively. The number of hidden
379 layers and the number of neurons in each layer were selected to be 3 and 20
380 respectively, after several iterations to obtain the best network performance. The
381 maximum number of epochs during the training was set on 10000. The activation
382 function for the hidden layers was the hyperbolic tangent sigmoid transfer
383 function, while the output layer uses a linear transfer function. The obtained
384 weights and biases from the ANN model are available for the public domain as
385 supporting information.

386 7. Results

387 This section provides lifetime deterioration curves developed from the four
388 previous presented models. To enable the comparison a single plot with the

389 degradation curves representing the average condition of the bridge decks
390 belonging to the network is shown in Figure 3. It can be noted that due to the
391 variability in the inspections, the initial condition state for the ANN model starts
392 in a different state than state “8”. It can also be observed that the three Markov
393 processes predict a higher deterioration rate for the early years of the bridge decks
394 compared to the ANN. In general, the ANN model maintains a good condition
395 rating for longer than the rest of the models. However, at the end of the studied
396 period, the hidden Markov model predicts the highest condition ratings. This
397 effect can be explained by the fact that when considering the variability in the
398 inspections, the model assigns a true condition rating higher than the observed for
399 the better states and hence the accumulated deterioration at the end of the period
400 is lower.

401 It can be seen that the deterioration curves developed by the different models
402 produce distinct degradation paths over the lifetime of the bridge decks. It is
403 difficult to determine which of the models provide a better representation of the
404 overall deterioration process of the bridge decks within the network. Hence, as an
405 attempt to quantitatively measure the fitness of each model, the predictions are
406 compared against the average condition rating recorded in the respective database
407 per age (D1 average condition represented as dots in Figure 3). The metrics used
408 to quantify how well the models matched the measured data were the mean square
409 error (MSE), the mean absolute error (MAE) and the accuracy factor [45]. MSE
410 is more sensitive to outliers than MAE which has led some authors to recommend
411 the use of the latter for model fitness evaluation [46]. On the other hand, the
412 accuracy factor indicates how much the predictions differ from observed data,
413 where a value of “1” indicates a perfect model and can be expressed as [45]:

$$Accuracy\ factor = 10^{1/n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \log_{10} \left(\frac{predicted\ value}{observed\ value} \right) \right| \quad (20)$$

414

415

Table 4

416 It is observed from Table 4 that the lowest errors and best accuracy factor are
417 reached by the ANN model, while the highest errors and worst accuracy factor
418 correspond to the Semi Markov model. Based on the MSE measure the Markov
419 and the Hidden Markov models have approximately the same accuracy;
420 nevertheless, the MAE measure indicates that the Hidden Markov model provides
421 a better representation of the data than the Markov model. Likewise, the accuracy
422 factor also suggests that the predictions obtained from the HMM diverge less from
423 the measured data than the Markov model predictions.

424 **8. Discussion**

425 Overall, all the models evidenced a distinct degradation pattern that concluded, at
426 the end of the studied period, with a varying condition rating among the models.
427 The worst condition was predicted by the Semi Markov model followed closely
428 by the Markov model, reaching a rating of 4 which is generally considered as the
429 threshold level to perform rehabilitation or replacement measures. ANN model
430 was also approaching the rating 4 while the Hidden Markov model was entering
431 condition rating 5. As mentioned in Section 7, the better condition predicted by
432 the HMM resulted from considering the variability in the inspections. However,
433 the selection of this model might conduct to inadequate maintenance activities
434 considering that typical values of concrete decks life expectancy in the US are
435 between 24-48 years [47]. In general, all the models are not in line with this
436 experience.

437 Even though Semi Markov models have been proposed extensively and its
438 advantages over Markov chain models have been highlighted [20], [22], there
439 were no significant differences among the obtained results. In fact, it was found
440 that the Semi Markov model differed the most with the observed condition ratings.

441 This might be attributed to the lack of historical data to appropriately estimate the
442 parameters of the distribution of the waiting times. Some studies have employed
443 expert judgement to define these parameters [33]. However, this approach adds
444 subjectivity to the deterioration modelling. Maximum likelihood estimation
445 (MLE) method has also been employed for parameter estimation [20].
446 Nonetheless, MLE can be heavily biased for small samples which is the case for
447 the estimation of the waiting times for the worst condition states, where the
448 available data is limited due to the reconstructive efforts performed to prevent
449 bridges from reaching structurally deficient conditions (as seen in Table 2).
450 Therefore, the estimation of the parameters for the Semi Markov model poses a
451 higher complexity on its implementation from a mathematical point of view than
452 Markov chain model. Hence, unless sufficient data for reliable parameter
453 estimation of the waiting times is available, Semi Markov models will not
454 improve the prediction capabilities of Markov chains.

455 On the other hand, the Hidden Markov model enabled the inclusion of inspections
456 variability which has been demonstrated to take place due to the subjective
457 inspection procedure. Even though the HMM revealed a satisfactory accuracy
458 compared to the rest of the models, the actual hidden process can never be
459 observed [20], hence the model was fully determined by the data-based estimation
460 of the emission probabilities which conducted to an unrealistic result when
461 compared to typical values of concrete decks life expectancy as previously
462 mentioned. The emission probabilities could have been determined also by expert
463 judgement [20]. However, this involves a subjective estimation approach.
464 Consequently, the estimation of the additional matrix increases the complexity of
465 the implementation of HMM compare to Markov chain models.

466 Finally, ANN model demonstrated a superiority in the prediction accuracy. The
467 most influencing parameters affecting the bridge decks condition were identified

468 to construct a MLP network which was able to correctly identify the condition
469 ratings on average in 95% of the cases when exposed to the training data. The
470 lowest percentage of correctly predicted values was obtained for the worst
471 condition rating due to the low number of inspection records on the database to
472 appropriately train the network for transitions to this rating. Nonetheless, the
473 number of datapoints was sufficient to obtain satisfactory predictions. These
474 results are in accordance with the literature review where the ANNs have always
475 demonstrated great predictive capabilities [24], [26]. However, the training of the
476 network involves high computational cost in comparison with Markov chain
477 models, which can be seen as a limitation considering that the database is
478 periodically updated providing further knowledge about bridges that should be
479 employed in predicting their future condition, but that will imply variations on the
480 inputs to train the ANN and consequently the weights and biases should be once
481 again found.

482 In general, the reliability of the predictions might have been affected by the
483 inherent limitations of the models and aggravated by the accuracy of the database,
484 which was found to contain data imbalance and deterioration trends that might not
485 be realistic despite the filtering performed to remove effects from maintenance
486 actions before developing the models (Section 2). For instance, some of the deck
487 ratings over the complete span of 26 years did not vary significantly or did not
488 vary at all. This behaviour differs from what is expected and might be related with
489 regular and minor maintenance activities that are not recorded in the database.
490 This latter effect is particularly evidenced in several bridge decks with 70 years
491 age having ratings of 6 or 7. On the contrary, newly built bridges (0-5 years old)
492 documented a deck rating of 6, i.e. satisfactory condition but with deterioration
493 including cracks and around 2% of spalling or delamination in the deck area;
494 which meant an unforeseen high deterioration rate at an early stage (decrease of
495 3 condition ratings in less than 5 years). As a consequence of the inconsistent

496 deterioration trends observed in the NBI database, some studies have applied
497 additional filtering to the data [15], [16]. For instance, in [15] a maximum and
498 minimum age for each condition rating was imposed and data points outside the
499 limits were removed. Similarly, in [16] it was assumed that any bridge deck
500 should be reconstructed after the average age at which reconstruction works take
501 place e.g. 30 years. Therefore, any deck rating assigned after that age should be
502 eliminated. Nevertheless, these approaches are based on expected deterioration
503 trends so might introduce subjectivity to the predictions depending on the selected
504 ranks or might restrict the available data for the development of the models.

505 **9. Conclusions and future directions**

506 Four different deterioration models namely Markov models, Semi Markov
507 models, Hidden Markov models and Artificial Neural Networks were
508 implemented in the present work to predict and compare the degradation of bridge
509 decks based on condition ratings retrieved from the NBI database. The Markov
510 model herein applied consisted in a homogeneous Markov chain which is the most
511 frequent model used in the BMS. The simplicity in its implementation together
512 with its capabilities to capture the randomness of the deterioration process are
513 some of the main reasons for its selection. However, in a homogeneous Markov
514 chain the transition probabilities are not time dependent which is one of the
515 features that has been widely criticized. For this reason, alternative deterioration
516 modelling approaches were implemented to compare and analyse the impact of
517 the Markov chains assumptions on the prediction results. It was shown that all
518 models exhibited a distinct deterioration curve. However, there were no
519 significant differences among the results obtained by Markov and Semi Markov
520 models. Nevertheless, the Semi Markov presented higher errors and worse
521 accuracy factor than the Markov model. Furthermore, it was found that the
522 predictions obtained by the Hidden Markov model provided a better

523 representation of the observed condition ratings than the Markov model. Amongst
524 all, the ANN model achieved the lowest errors and best accuracy factor. In
525 addition to the higher prediction accuracy, the feature of employing the
526 parameters affecting bridge deck deterioration for assessing the condition, makes
527 ANN model a more convenient alternative to be implemented on existing BMS
528 to predict the condition of individual bridge decks.

529 While the study focused on Rhode Island, in future works, the models and
530 methodologies herein presented can be replicated in other regions using NBI data
531 or other similar databases, in order to analyse if different deterioration trends are
532 obtained. Accordingly, the impact of the inspection and condition assessment
533 practices performed by each state on the development of deterioration models can
534 be investigated. Moreover, additional deterioration modelling approaches such
535 as more advanced AI techniques and Petri-nets could be included as part of the
536 comparison.

537 Finally, the deviation of the predictions from the typical values of concrete decks
538 life expectancy as well as some challenges encountered during the development
539 of the models are attributed to *i)* an unbalanced and scattered database *ii)* minor
540 non-recorded maintenance actions preserving the condition without increasing the
541 rating *iii)* shortcomings of VI as primary condition assessment tool, i.e. assessing
542 a bridge condition only by VI is significantly subjected to variability of the
543 condition ratings as demonstrated by [38], In order to overcome the latter
544 limitation, NDE technologies have been used to more objectively detect and
545 characterize the deteriorated condition of bridge elements. For instance, in [48]
546 several NDE methods namely electrical resistivity, half-cell potential, ground
547 penetrating radar, impact echo, and chain drag, were combined to enable the
548 identification of different deterioration phenomena for a complete assessment of
549 concrete decks. Moreover, when a particular defect has been detected, e.g. active

550 corrosion, condition assessment can be accompanied by additional measurements
551 such as chloride content or carbonation depth which serves for the quantification
552 of the severity of the deterioration phenomena. At present, NDE technologies are
553 being used but surveying large amounts of bridges for BMS is still cost- and time-
554 consuming, usually involving traffic disruption and uncertainties in their
555 measurements which need to be carefully addressed. Similarly, structural health
556 monitoring (SHM) systems are also a powerful and reliable technique for short-
557 and long-term bridge condition assessment. Nevertheless, SHM systems are often
558 costly and their complexity resulting from data acquisition, structural modelling,
559 big data analysis, and routine maintenance required for long-term operation limit
560 their prompt adoption on BMS.

561 Despite the current challenges for integrating NDE/SHM assessment tools into
562 the BMS, research efforts should be undertaken in this direction so bridge
563 condition assessment could move from operational indicators (i.e. condition
564 ratings) to research indicators, which address from a quantitative perspective the
565 structural safety and serviceability of a bridge, Consequently, deterioration
566 modelling could be more realistic considering that the input parameters will be
567 based on quantitative resistance measures.

568 **Acknowledgements**

569 The authors of this paper would like to acknowledge the contribution of Professor
570 Michel Ghosn and Dr. Graziano Fiorillo for the processing of the NBI database
571 and their recommendation for the selection of the Rhode Island State as the case
572 study for the present work.

573 The first, third and fourth authors also acknowledge that, this work was partly
574 financed by FEDER funds through the Competitvity Factors Operational
575 Programme - COMPETE and by national funds through FCT Foundation for
576 Science and Technology within the scope of the project POCI-01-0145-FEDER-

577 007633. This project has received funding from the European Union’s Horizon
578 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 769255. This
579 document reflects only the views of the author(s). Neither the Innovation and
580 Networks Executive Agency (INEA) nor the European Commission is in any way
581 responsible for any use that may be made of the information it contains.



582

583 **References**

- 584 [1] *F. H. A. U.S. Department of Transportation*, “Bridge Preservation Guide
585 - Maintaining a Resilient Infrastructure to Preserve Mobility,” 2018.
- 586 [2] *T. Omar and M. Nehdi*, “Condition Assessment of Reinforced Concrete
587 Bridges: Current Practice and Research Challenges,” *Infrastructures*, vol.
588 3, no. 3, p. 36, 2018.
- 589 [3] *F. Faleschini, M. A. Zanini, and J. R. Casas Rius*, “State-of-research on
590 performance indicators for bridge quality control and management,”
591 *Front. built Environ.*, vol. 5, pp. 1–20, 2019.
- 592 [4] *F. H. A. (FHWA)*, “Recording and coding guide for the structure inventory
593 and appraisal of the nation’s bridges,” *Rep. No. FHWA-PD-96-001*. US
594 Dept. of Transportation Washington, DC, 1995.
- 595 [5] *S. R. Bezuidenhout and G. P. A. G. van Zijl*, “Corrosion propagation in
596 cracked reinforced concrete, toward determining residual service life,”
597 *Struct. Concr.*, 2019.
- 598 [6] *A. P. Vatteri, K. Balaji Rao, and A. M. Bharathan*, “Time-variant
599 reliability analysis of RC bridge girders subjected to corrosion–shear
600 limit state,” *Struct. Concr.*, vol. 17, no. 2, pp. 162–174, 2016.

- 601 [7] *fib Bulletin 76. Benchmarking of Deemed-to-Satisfy Provisions in*
602 *Standards: Durability of Reinforced Concrete Structures Exposed to*
603 *Chlorides*. Document Competence Center Siegmär Kästl e.K: Ostfildern,
604 Germany, 2015.
- 605 [8] *fib Bulletin 59. Condition Control and Assessment of Reinforced Concrete*
606 *Structures Exposed to Corrosive Environment (Carbonation/Chlorides)*.
607 International Federation for Structural Concrete: Lausanne, France, 2011.
- 608 [9] *I. Zambon, A. Vidović, A. Strauss, and J. Matos*, “Condition Prediction of
609 Existing Concrete Bridges as a Combination of Visual Inspection and
610 Analytical Models of Deterioration,” *Appl. Sci.*, vol. 9, no. 1, p. 148,
611 2019.
- 612 [10] *fib Model Code for Concrete Structures*. International Federation for
613 Structural Concrete; Wilhelm Ernst & Sohn: Berlin, Germany, 2010.
- 614 [11] *fib Bulletin 34. Model Code for Service Life Design of Concrete Structure*.
615 International Federation for Structural Concrete (fib): Lausanne, France,
616 2006.
- 617 [12] *P. Thoft-Christensen*, “Assessment of the reliability profiles for concrete
618 bridges,” *Eng. Struct.*, vol. 20, no. 11, pp. 1004–1009, 1998.
- 619 [13] *D. M. Frangopol, J. S. Kong, and E. S. Gharaibeh*, “Reliability-based life-
620 cycle management of highway bridges,” *J. Comput. Civ. Eng.*, vol. 15,
621 no. 1, pp. 27–34, 2001.
- 622 [14] *D. Tolliver and P. Lu*, “Analysis of bridge deterioration rates: A case
623 study of the northern plains region,” in *Journal of the Transportation*
624 *Research Forum*, 2012, vol. 50, no. 2.
- 625 [15] *G. Morcous*, “Developing Deterioration Models for Nebraska,” vol. 1, no.

- 626 July, p. 106, 2011.
- 627 [16] *M. Bolukbasi, J. Mohammadi, and D. Arditi*, “Estimating the future
628 condition of highway bridge components using national bridge inventory
629 data,” *Pract. Period. Struct. Des. Constr.*, vol. 9, no. 1, pp. 16–25, 2004.
- 630 [17] *P. Lu, H. Wang, and D. Tolliver*, “Prediction of Bridge Component
631 Ratings Using Ordinal Logistic Regression Model,” *Math. Probl. Eng.*,
632 vol. 2019, 2019.
- 633 [18] *A. K. Agrawal, A. Kawaguchi, and Z. Chen*, “Deterioration Rates of
634 Typical Bridge Elements in New York,” *J. Bridg. Eng.*, vol. 15, no. 4, pp.
635 419–429, 2010.
- 636 [19] *G. Morcous*, “Performance Prediction of Bridge Deck Systems Using
637 Markov Chains,” *J. Perform. Constr. Facil.*, vol. 20, no. 2, pp. 146–155,
638 2006.
- 639 [20] *M.-J. Kallen*, “Markov processes for maintenance optimization of civil
640 infrastructure in the Netherlands,” Ph.D. thesis, Delft University of
641 Technology, 2007.
- 642 [21] *I. Zambon, A. Vidovic, A. Strauss, J. Matos, and J. Amado*, “Comparison
643 of stochastic prediction models based on visual inspections of bridge
644 decks,” *J. Civ. Eng. Manag.*, vol. 23, no. 5, pp. 553–561, 2017.
- 645 [22] *S. K. Ng and F. Moses*, “Bridge deterioration modeling using semi-
646 Markov theory,” *Structural Safety and Reliability: Proceedings of*
647 *ICOSSAR'97, the 7th International Conference on Structural Safety and*
648 *Reliability, Kyoto, 24-28 November 1997*, p. 113, 1998.
- 649 [23] *K. Kobayashi, K. Kaito, and N. Lethanh*, “A statistical deterioration
650 forecasting method using hidden Markov model for infrastructure

- 651 management,” *Transp. Res. Part B Methodol.*, vol. 46, no. 4, pp. 544–561,
652 2012.
- 653 [24] *Y.-H. Huang*, “Artificial Neural Network Model of Bridge Deterioration,”
654 *J. Perform. Constr. Facil.*, vol. 24, no. 6, pp. 597–602, 2010.
- 655 [25] *G. P. Bu, J. H. Lee, H. Guan, Y. C. Loo, and M. Blumenstein*, “Prediction
656 of long-term bridge performance: Integrated deterioration approach with
657 case studies,” *J. Perform. Constr. Facil.*, vol. 29, no. 3, p. 4014089, 2014.
- 658 [26] *Z. Li and R. Burgueño*, “Using soft computing to analyze inspection
659 results for bridge evaluation and management,” *J. Bridg. Eng.*, vol. 15,
660 no. 4, pp. 430–438, 2010.
- 661 [27] *A. Tarighat and A. Miyamoto*, “Fuzzy concrete bridge deck condition
662 rating method for practical bridge management system,” *Expert Syst.*
663 *Appl.*, vol. 36, no. 10, pp. 12077–12085, 2009.
- 664 [28] *G. Morcous, H. Rivard, and A. M. Hanna*, “Modeling Bridge
665 Deterioration Using Case-based Reasoning,” *J. Infrastruct. Syst.*, vol. 8,
666 no. 3, pp. 86–95, 2002.
- 667 [29] *H. Zhang and D. W. R. Marsh*, “Multi-State Deterioration Prediction for
668 Infrastructure Asset: Learning from Uncertain Data, Knowledge and
669 Similar Groups,” *Inf. Sci. (Ny)*, 2019.
- 670 [30] *B. Le and J. Andrews*, “Petri net modelling of bridge asset management
671 using maintenance-related state conditions,” *Struct. Infrastruct. Eng.*, vol.
672 12, no. 6, pp. 730–751, 2016.
- 673 [31] *M. Santamaria, J. Fernandes, and J. Matos*, “Overview on performance
674 predictive models – Application to Bridge Management Systems,” in
675 *IABSE Symposium Guimarães 2019 Towards a Resilient Built*

- 676 *Environment - Risk and Asset Management*, 2019, pp. 1222–1229.
- 677 [32] Z. Mirzaei, B. Adey, L. Klatter, and J. Kong, “The IABMAS Bridge
678 Management Committee Overview Of Existing Bridge Management
679 Systems,” Iabmas, 2012.
- 680 [33] Y. Kleiner, “Scheduling inspection and renewal of large infrastructure
681 assets,” *J. Infrastruct. Syst.*, vol. 7, no. 4, pp. 136–143, 2001.
- 682 [34] L. Collins, “An Introduction to Markov Chains Analysis,” in *Concepts
683 and Techniques in Modern Geography (CATMOG)*, GEO ABSTRACTS,
684 University of East Anglia, 1975.
- 685 [35] L. R. Rabiner, “A tutorial on hidden Markov models and selected
686 applications in speech recognition,” *Proc. IEEE*, vol. 77, no. 2, pp. 257–
687 286, 1989.
- 688 [36] *U.S. Department of Transportation Federal Highway Administration*,
689 “NBI ASCII files - National Bridge Inventory - Bridge Inspection - Safety
690 - Bridges & Structures - Federal Highway Administration.” [Online].
691 Available: <https://www.fhwa.dot.gov/bridge/nbi/ascii.cfm>. [Accessed:
692 04-Aug-2019].
- 693 [37] *American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE)*, “2017 Infrastructure Report
694 Card.”
- 695 [38] B. M. Phares, D. D. Rolander, B. A. Graybeal, and G. A. Washer,
696 “Reliability of visual bridge inspection,” *Public Roads*, vol. 64, no. 5,
697 2001.
- 698 [39] T. W. Ryan, J. E. Mann, Z. M. Chill, and B. T. Ott, “Bridge inspector’s
699 reference manual (BIRM),” Arlington, Virginia US Dep. Transp., 2012.
- 700 [40] E. Parzen, *Stochastic Processes*. Society for Industrial and Applied

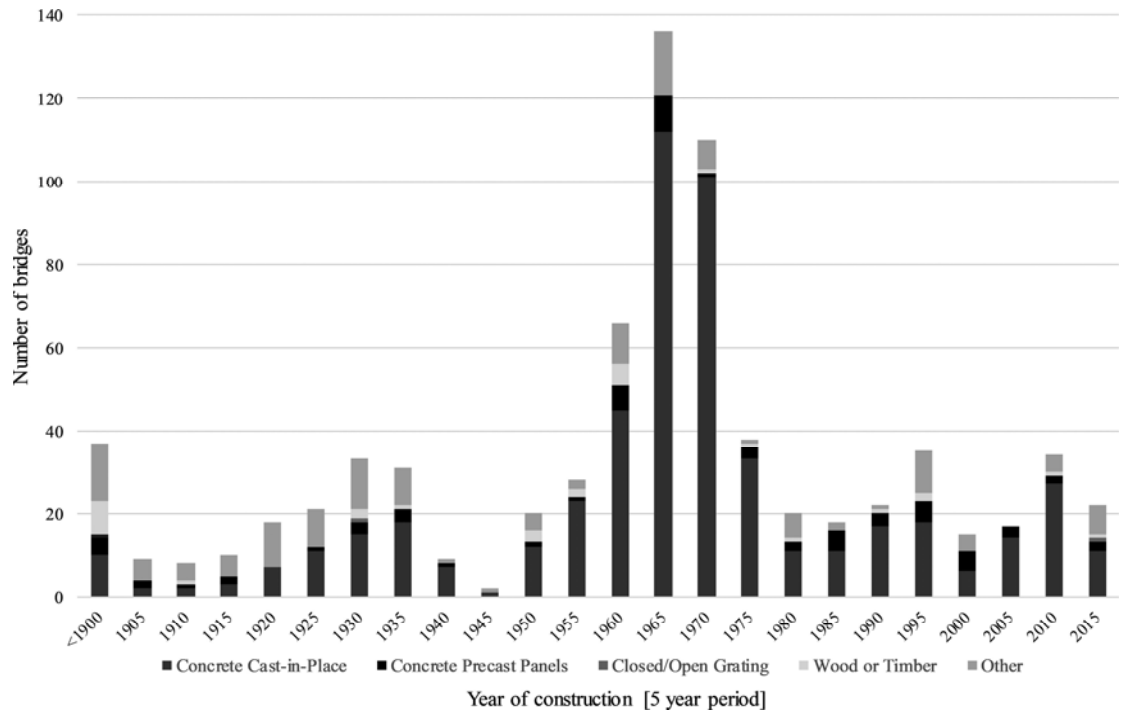
- 701 Mathematics (SIAM, 3600 Market Street, Floor 6, Philadelphia, PA
702 19104), 1999.
- 703 [41] *I. L. MacDonald and W. Zucchini, Hidden Markov and other models for*
704 *discrete-valued time series*, vol. 110. CRC Press, 1997.
- 705 [42] *The MathWorks Inc.*, “MATLAB Neural Network Toolbox Release
706 2016a.” Natick, Massachusetts, United States.
- 707 [43] *G. P. Bu, J. H. Lee, H. Guan, Y. C. Loo, and M. Blumenstein*, “Prediction
708 of Long-Term Bridge Performance: Integrated Deterioration Approach
709 with Case Studies,” *J. Perform. Constr. Facil.*, vol. 29, no. 3, p. 04014089,
710 2015.
- 711 [44] *A. Saltelli, S. Tarantola, F. Campolongo, and M. Ratto*, “Sensitivity
712 analysis in practice: a guide to assessing scientific models,” Chichester,
713 Engl., 2004.
- 714 [45] *L. Zhao, Y. Chen, and D. W. Schaffner*, “Comparison of logistic regression
715 and linear regression in modeling percentage data,” *Appl. Environ.*
716 *Microbiol.*, vol. 67, no. 5, pp. 2129–2135, 2001.
- 717 [46] *R. J. Hyndman and A. B. Koehler*, “Another look at measures of forecast
718 accuracy,” *Int. J. Forecast.*, vol. 22, no. 4, pp. 679–688, 2006.
- 719 [47] *A. C. Estes and D. M. Frangopol*, “Bridge lifetime system reliability
720 under multiple limit states,” *J. Bridg. Eng.*, vol. 6, no. 6, pp. 523–528,
721 2001.
- 722 [48] *B. M. Pailes*, “Damage identification, progression, and condition rating
723 of bridge decks using multi-modal non-destructive testing,” Rutgers
724 University-Graduate School-New Brunswick, 2014.
- 725 [49] *R. Hajdin, J. R. Casas Rius, and J. C. Matos*, “Inspection of existing

726 bridges: moving on from condition rating,” in *IABSE Symposium*
727 *Guimarães 2019: Towards a Resilient Built Environment-Risk and Asset*
728 *Management, March 27-29, 2019, Guimarães, Portugal, 2019*, pp. 940–
729 947.

730

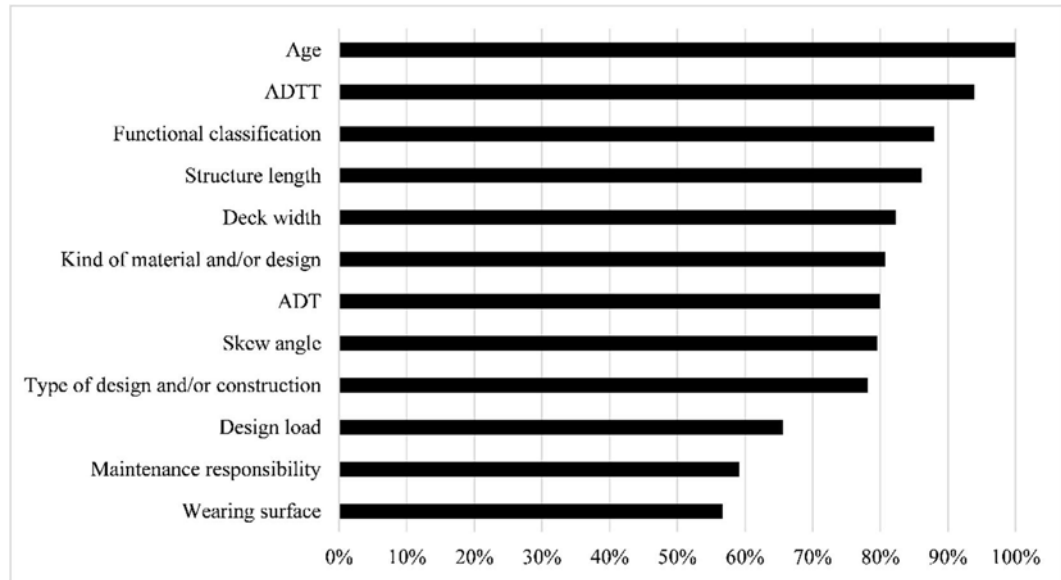
731

732 Figure 1. Distribution of bridges by year of construction and deck structure type



733

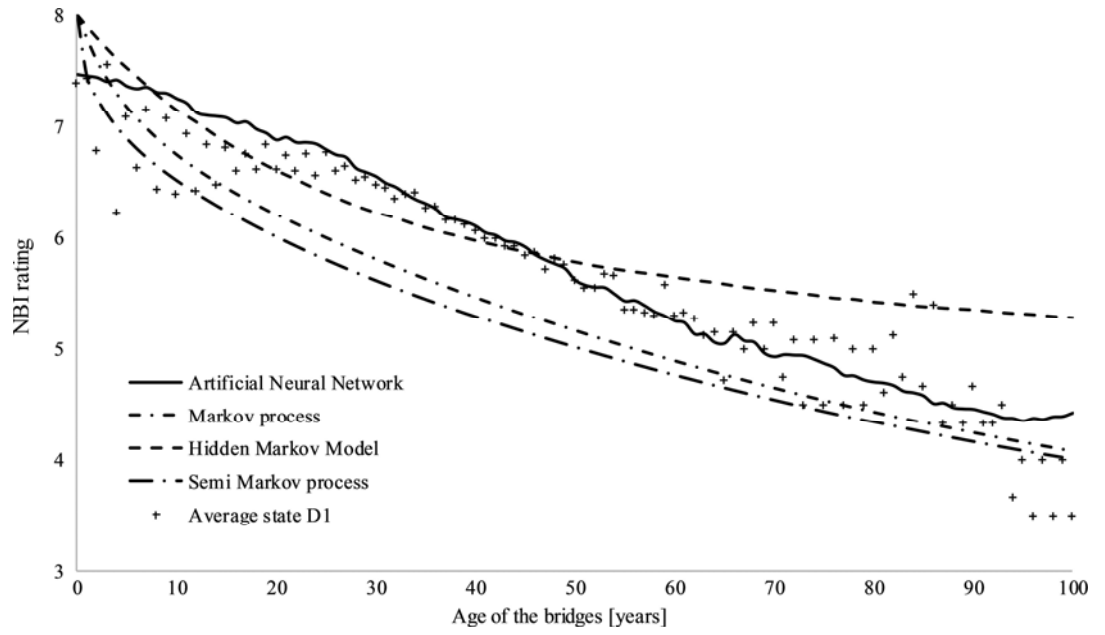
734 Figure 2. Normalized importance of the independent variables



735

736 Figure 3. Deterioration curves for bridge decks

737



738 Table 1. Condition rating system for decks used in the National Bridge
 739 Inventory (NBI) [36]

Code	Condition	Description
9	Excellent	As new
8	Very good	No problems noted
7	Good	Some minor problems
6	Satisfactory	Structural elements show some minor deterioration
5	Fair	All primary structural elements are sound but may have minor section loss, cracking, spalling or scour
4	Poor	Advanced section loss, deterioration, spalling or scour
3	Serious	Loss of section, deterioration, spalling or scour have seriously affected primary structural components. Local failures are possible. Fatigue cracks in steel or shear cracks in concrete may be present
2	Critical	Advanced deterioration of primary structural elements. Fatigue cracks in steel or shear cracks in concrete may be present or scour may have removed substructure support. Unless closely monitored it may be necessary to close the bridge until corrective action is taken
1	“Imminent” failure	Major deterioration or section loss present in critical structural components or obvious vertical or horizontal movement affecting structure stability. Bridge is closed to traffic but corrective action may put back in light service
0	Failed	Out of service, beyond corrective action

740

Table 2. Distribution of bridges according to selected parameters for each dataset

	Main Structure Type		Type of design and/or construction	Functional Class		Condition Ratings					
	Kind of material and/or design			D1	D2	D1	D2	D1	D2		
Concrete	18	34	Slab	12	25	RPI Arterial	4	8	CR 8	104	127
Concrete continuous	10	14	Stringer/Multi-beam or Girder	167	208	RP Arterial	7	7	CR 7	984	1260
Steel	119	149	Girder and Floorbeam System	5	5	RMi Arterial	5	7	CR 6	1385	1769
Steel continuous	24	27	Tee beam	7	9	RMa Collector	9	14	CR 5	418	648
Prestressed concrete	42	56	Box Beam or Girders - Multiple	16	21	RMi Collector	2	5	CR 4	137	204
Wood or Timber	0	1	Frame	6	9	R Local	15	17	CR 3	24	24
Other	5	7	Truss - Thru	1	4	UPI Arterial	43	53			
			Arch - Deck	2	3	UP Arterial	18	25			
			Suspension	1	1	UPF Arterial	36	47			
			Other	1	3	UM Arterial	43	55			
						U Collector	19	28			
						U Local	17	22			

Rural Principal (RP); Rural Principal Interstate (RPI); Rural Minor (RMi); Rural Major (RMa); Urban Principal Interstate (UPI); Urban Principal (UP); Urban Principal Freeways (UPF); Urban Minor (UM)

Dataset 1 (D1) comprises a total of 218 bridges; Dataset 2 (D2) comprises a total of 288 bridges

743 Table 3. Input parameters for the Semi Markov process

CR	u [years]	$x_{i,u}$ [%]	v [years]	$x_{i,v}$ [%]	β_i	$1/\lambda_i$	λ_i
8	30	0.000	50	0.000	0.950	3.178	0.315
7	30	0.110	50	0.028	0.950	13.029	0.077
6	30	0.396	50	0.222	0.950	32.548	0.031
5	30	0.309	50	0.149	0.950	25.361	0.039
4	30	0.592	50	0.426	0.950	59.125	0.017

744

745

746 Table 4. MSE and MAE accuracy measures

Model	MSE	MAE	Accuracy factor
Artificial Neural Network	0.2068	0.3154	1.3552
Markov process	0.3336	0.5371	2.3312
Hidden Markov model	0.3302	0.4219	1.7521
Semi Markov process	0.4276	0.6086	2.6763

747