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## A preliminary design formula for the strength of stiffened curved panels by design of experiment method

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#### Abstract

In bridge construction, the use of stiffened plates for box-girder or steel beams is common day to day practice. The advantages of the stiffening from the economical and mechanical points of view are unanimously recognized. For curved steel panels, however, applications are more recent and the literature on their mechanical behaviour including the influence of stiffeners is therefore limited. Their design with actual finite element software is possible but significantly time-consuming and this reduces the number of parameters which can be investigated to optimise each panel. The present paper is thus dedicated to the development of a preliminary design formula for the determination of the ultimate strength of stiffened cylindrical steel panels. This approximate formula is developed with help of a design of experiment method which has been adapted from the current statistical knowledge. This method is first presented and its feasibility as well as its efficiency are illustrated through an

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application to the reference case of unstiffened curved panels. Then, the case of stiffened curved panels is investigated and a preliminary design formula is developed. The ease of use of this formula for preliminary design is finally illustrated in a cost optimisation problem.

*Keywords:* Design of computer experiments, Response surface, Cylindrical curved panels, Stiffeners, Stability, GMNIA.

#### 1 1. Introduction

The interest of stiffening steel plates or panels to increase their strength 2 under compression has been known for almost a century [1]. In the field 3 of structural engineering, the use of such panels is a common practice, for 4 example in bottom flanges of box-girder bridges. Recent developments of 5 the curving process allowed for the use of curved panels in civil engineering 6 structures where they offer attractive aesthetic and aerodynamic possibilities. 7 The verification of these panels is yet difficult due to a lack of specifications, 8 especially in European Standards: EN 1993-1-5 [2] gives specifications for g flat or slightly curved panels with the condition  $R \ge R_{lim} = b^2/t_p$  (where 10 R is the curvature radius of the panel, b its width and  $t_p$  its thickness) and 11 EN 1993-1-6 [3] deals only with revolution cylindrical shells. Nevertheless 12 the curved panels in bridges have characteristics exactly between these two 13 conditions, as illustrated in the case of the Confluences bridge in Angers, 14 France 2011 (Fig. 1), whose radius R = 80 m is much smaller than the limit 15 of EN 1993-1-5:  $R_{lim} = 1440 \ m$  (with  $b = 4.8 \ m$  and  $t = 16 \ mm$ ) and for 16 which EN 1993-1-6 is not applicable neither because these curved flanges are 17 not full revolution cylinders. 18



Figure 1: Stiffened curved panel of the Confluences Bridge in Angers (France, 2011)

From an academic point of view, the articles related to the buckling theory 19 of curved panels are not so numerous due to the complexity of the studied 20 problem and also due to its late application in the bridge construction. First 21 investigations were conducted in the forties by Batdorf & Schildcrout [4] and 22 Schildcrout & Stein [5] who showed that the stiffeners and the curvature 23 increase the critical buckling strength. A state of the art on curved stiffened 24 panels was then proposed by Becker [6] in 1958 in its handbook on structural 25 stability. Based on experimental results (provided by Gall [7], Lundquist 26 [1] and Ramberge *et al.* [8]), he confirmed that, when a stiffened flat panel 27 is bent to a circular curve, its buckling stress is slightly increased (around 28 6% for the tested specimen which is relatively few compared to the effect of 29 stiffening alone or curvature alone). More recent parametric studies based 30 on numerical examples and the finite element modelling (e.g. Cho et al. [9], 31 Khedmati & Edalat [10] or Park et al. [11]) investigated and quantified the 32 influence of the main parameters on the ultimate strength of curved stiffened 33 plates. They however did not lead to a practical criterion for the evaluation 34 of the resistance of such panels which is therefore still an open question. 35

In a former study, the authors [12] had investigated the case of unstiffened cylindrical curved panels under axial compression and established a set

of formulas for the evaluation of the ultimate strength (which were confirmed 38 by [13]). These semi-analytic formulas had been fitted on a total of 524 com-39 binations of the main parameters. Each calculus involved Geometrical and 40 Material Non-linearity with Imperfection Analysis (GMNIA) and required 41 between 5 and 10 minutes depending on the refinement of the mesh. Consid-42 ering the fact that in the case of stiffened panels the number of parameters 43 is considerably larger, re-employing the same methodology seemed unreal-44 istic. It appeared hence that there is a need for a robust strategy for the 45 choice of the set of tested models and for the measure of the approximated 46 model accuracy. Such a strategy exists for the design of physical experiments 47 as well as for that of computer experiments, they are known as "design of 48 experiments methods". 49

In the following, the authors present thus first the characteristics of computer experiment strategies. Afterwards the feasibility and ease of use of the methodology as well as its efficiency are illustrated through an application to the reference case of unstiffened curved panels. Then, the case of stiffened curved panels is investigated and a preliminary design formula is developed. The interest of this formula for early stages of design is finally illustrated by a short example of cost optimisation.

#### <sup>57</sup> 2. Design of computer experiments

#### <sup>58</sup> 2.1. Background of the design of experiments method

Design of experiment (DOE) methods exist since the beginning of scientific experiment. The first formal theory for the design of experiments in a "modern sense" was published by Fisher [14] in the 1920s and 1930s,

while working on improving agricultural yield. Since the 1940s, various re-62 searchers have promoted and developed the use of experiments strategies in 63 many other areas [15]. In the late 1970s, the theory of Taguchi [16] on qual-64 ity improvement made the design of experiment widely used in the industrial 65 environment. In the past 20 years, advances in computational power have led 66 to the study of physical process through computer simulated experiments, 67 which tends to replace physical experiments in cases where the number of 68 variables is too large to consider performing a physical experiment or where it 69 is simply economically prohibitive to run an experiment on the scale required 70 to gather sufficient information. 71

Computer experiments differ from traditional physical experiment in their 72 deterministic character, meaning that the computer produces identical an-73 swers for the same set of experimental parameters. The error in computer 74 experiments is no longer due to random effects which derive from the vari-75 ability in experimental units, the order of experiments or the locations of 76 the tests. However, it was shown that in many cases, the systematic error 77 between a deterministic model and its approximation has a normal distribu-78 tion, so that standard statistical techniques can still be applied [17]. Several 79 authors [17, 18, 19] also insisted on the fact that the selection of parameter's 80 values for computer runs is still an experimental design problem of primary 81 importance, especially considering the quantification of uncertainty of the 82 model on a statistical point of view. Indeed, as not every combination of 83 parameters can be tested, uncertainty and hazard enter the deterministic 84 process through the choice of tested combinations. The design of a computer 85 experiment is hence at the border of a physical and a statistical problem 86

<sup>87</sup> which specificities are emphasized in the following section.

#### <sup>88</sup> 2.2. General progress of the design of computer experiment method

Schematically, a numerical model can be considered as a process: the user 89 specifies the combinations of (input) variables to the computer simulator from 90 which the responses (output) are generated. Fig. 2 illustrates this process in 91 the simple case where there are only two input values  $(X_1 \text{ and } X_2)$  and one 92 response Y. Each variable can take a value from "low" to "high". The set 93 of all domains of variation forms the "region of interest". In correspondence 94 with each input variable  $(X_1^i, X_2^i)$ , the computer program will provide one 95 result  $Y^i$ . A set of *n* responses will then generate by extrapolation a response 96 surface. In practice, the explicit formula for this surface is not known. The 97 aim of DOE method is to provide approximated models (response surfaces) 98 that are sufficiently accurate to replace the true response and can be used to 99 facilitate design space exploration, optimisation or reliability analyses. 100

The general steps of computer experiments are generally similar to those encountered in classical experiments [20] and can be summarized as follow:

- Step 1: Statement of the problem.
- Step 2: Choice of the model for the response surface.
- Step 3: Selection of the input data points.
- Step 4: Evaluation of the approximated model.
- Step 5: Validation of the accuracy of the response model.
- Step 6: Selection of most significant terms and conclusion.



Figure 2: Principle of the computer experiment process and response surface.

This process is not necessarily linear and could be applied iteratively if the predicted model does not meet the desired accuracy. In the above process, the selection of the input variables (**step 3**) and the technique for approximating the response (**step 4**) are the two main issues that differ between physical and numerical experiments due to the deterministic property of computer experiments. These two issues will be developed in the following paragraphs.

#### 115 2.3. Selecting sampling points

A good experimental design should minimize the number of runs needed 116 to acquire information with a given level of accuracy. The experimental 117 design techniques were initially developed for physical experiments. Due to 118 the discrepancy associated with physical experimentation, classical DOEs 119 will focus on parameter settings near the perimeter of the region of interest 120 and take multiple data points (replicates) as shown in Fig. 3(Left). Computer 121 experiments are determinists and are not subjected to this necessity. The 122 objective of computer experiments is hence mainly to uniformly distribute 123 the sampling points in the region of interest (such a design is called "space 124 filling") as seen in Fig. 3(Right). 125

Within the available methods of sampling [21], the following three are 126 the most common and efficient: the Monte Carlo method (MC), the Latin 127 Hypercube Sampling method (LHS) and the Quasi-Monte Carlo methods 128 (QMC) which can be viewed as deterministic versions of MC methods be-129 cause they use deterministic points rather than random samples. Blatman 130 et al. [22] showed that QMC overperforms MC and LHS, when used with 131 polynomial response surfaces with a mean computational gain factor of 10 in 132 order to reach a given accuracy. The QMC methods are also termed as low 133 discrepancy procedures: sampling points are selected in such a way that the 134 error bound is as small as possible. 135



Figure 3: (Left) "Classical" and (Right) "Space Filling" designs.

There are many ways to construct a QMC sequence but the Sobol' sequences are the most widely used because they are quick to construct and fast to converge [23]. They also have the advantage of preserving the uniformity of the distribution when the dimension increases: a Sobol' sequence can be constructed from a shorter one by adding points to the shorter sequence, on the contrary to LHS, where the entire sampling process must be run again.

#### 142 2.4. Response model regression

After selecting the appropriate experimental points and performing the 143 necessary computer runs, the next step is to choose an approximated model 144 and a fitting method. The approximated model must be simple and represent 145 adequately the response of the studied problem. In recent years, a lot of work 146 has been done on approximated models: polynomial response surfaces, neural 14 networks, kriging or multivariate adaptive regression splines [24]. Despite 148 the variety of approximations that is available, comparative studies of these 149 approaches are limited [25]. Depending on the complexity of the problem, one 150 of the aforementioned method might be suitable. However, the polynomial 15 response surface model is by far the simplest; it has been used efficiently in 152 a wide variety of applications and has provided good approximated solutions 153 to even very complex problems [26]. Beside, the use of polynomial response 154 surface for furthers studies such as reliability [27] and optimisation [28] is 15 relatively easy. 156

#### 157 2.5. Statistic tools for adequacy checking

As mentioned in the section 2, model adequacy checking is an important part of the data analysis procedure. Indeed it is necessary to ensure that the fitted model provides an adequate approximation of the true system and to verify that none of the model assumptions is violated. In most cases, the regression model is a linear function of some unknown coefficients which are identified thanks to the least square method which will be used here for its simplicity and reliability.

# <sup>165</sup> 3. Application to cylindrical curved panels under uniform axial <sup>166</sup> compression

In a former study, the authors [12] investigated the case of unstiffened 167 cylindrical curved panels under axial compression (see Fig. 4) and proposed 168 a set of formulas for the evaluation of the ultimate strength. These formulas 169 were established following the general European Standards procedure for all 170 kind of stability verification and will be used as a reference case to validate 171 the accuracy and relevance of the methodology proposed in previous section. 172 The strength of the panel  $\chi$  was hence given as a function of the relative 173 slenderness  $\overline{\lambda}$  and three parameters  $\overline{\lambda}_0$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha_Z$  depending on the relative 174 curvature: 175

$$\chi = \frac{2\beta}{\beta + \overline{\lambda} + \sqrt{\left(\beta + \overline{\lambda}\right)^2 - 4\beta \left(\overline{\lambda} - \alpha_Z(\overline{\lambda} - \overline{\lambda}_0)\right)}} \tag{1}$$

176

These simulations, as well as those which will be conducted here, involved 177 non-linear material and second-order analyses with imperfection (GMNIA). 178 They were conducted with the software Ansys version 13 and the standard 179 quadrilateral 4-nodes element [29]. Panels were made of elasto-plastic steel 180 with linear hardening as indicated in EN 1993-1.5 C.6.c) (S355, E = 210GPa, 181  $\nu = 0.3$  and a slope of E/100). The cylindrical panels were assumed simply 182 supported on all edges and loaded by a uniform longitudinal compression 183 along the curved edges. An initial imperfection with the shape of the first 184 buckling mode and with a maximum amplitude of  $1/200^{th}$  of the smallest 185 edge was also added. The study was limited to square panels, so that only 186 the thickness, the width and curvature of the panels were varied. 187

#### 188 3.1. Step 1: Statement of the problem

The aim of this step is to identify in an exhaustive manner the parameters 189 of the problem and to select among them the ones which will have an influence 190 on the response and which are liable of variations in practical applications. 191 Here the quantity of interest in the panel response (the output) is the ultimate 192 strength of the panel. Basic structural engineering tells us that it is influenced 193 by the geometry of the panels (including their imperfections), their material 194 properties, their boundary conditions and the nature of the loading. All 195 these parameters could be included in the experimental program, but in this 196 first example, the objective is to validate the method and to illustrate its 19 pertinence, so that the same restrictions as in [12] will be observed: 198

• the imperfections are chosen following EN 1993-1-5 [2] (i.e. their shape is that of the first buckling mode and their amplitude is 1/200th of the width of the panel)

• the steel grade is S355 as generally used in modern bridges;

• the panels are simply supported on all edges;

• the longitudinal compression is uniform along the curved edges.

The only varying input factors are thus the dimensions of the panels: their length a, width b, thickness  $t_p$  and radius of curvature R (see Fig. 4). Applying the Buckingham-Vaschy's theorem, it can be demonstrated that the ratio of the ultimate strength of the panel and the yield stress  $(\sigma_{ult}/f_y)$ depends on three independent dimensionless parameters:

$$\frac{\sigma_{ult}}{f_y} = f\left(\frac{a}{b}; \frac{t_p}{b}; \frac{b}{R}\right) \tag{2}$$



Figure 4: Cylindrical curved panel under uniform axial compression (after [12]).

Now that the parameters have been defined, it is essential to define the range in which these parameters will vary. Every feasible configuration has to be included but the range of variation has to be kept as small as possible: it is directly linked with the precision of the approximated expression found at the end of the process. Here the ranges given in table 1 seem reasonable to cover most applications of such panels in bridge engineering.

| Variable | Description       | Variation range           | Design variable           |
|----------|-------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| a/b      | Aspect ratio      | $0.6 \le a/b \le 1.6$     | $X_1 = 2 \ a/b - 2.2$     |
| $t_p/b$  | Slenderness       | $0.01 \le t_p/b \le 0.04$ | $X_2 = 66.7 t_p/b - 1.67$ |
| b/R      | Curvature (Angle) | $0 \leq b/R \leq 1$       | $X_3 = 2 \ b/R - 1$       |

Table 1: Design variables for unstiffened curved panels

As the order of magnitude of the variations of these three parameters is different, it is preferable to transform the physical parameters into centred variables  $X_i$ , ranging from -1 (low value) to 1 (high value). Their comparative influence on the response will hence be easier to catch. The three adimensional parameters  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$  and  $X_3$  used in the coming paragraphs are thus given in the last column of table 1.

#### 223 3.2. Step 2: Choice of the response surface

The choice of the response surface is based on two issues: the knowledge of the physics of the problem and the desired accuracy of the approximation. Here the target response is the ultimate strength of the plate, namely the maximum load that the plate can bear when accounting for the elasto-plastic behaviour of the material. From existing standards (EC3), it is known that the strength of a flat plate is related to the slenderness by a second order polynomial which was first proposed by Winter [30]:

$$\frac{\sigma_{ult}}{f_y} = \frac{1}{\overline{\lambda}} - \frac{0.22}{\overline{\lambda}^2} \tag{3}$$

In (3), the slenderness  $\overline{\lambda}$  is directly related to a/b and t/b (which means to  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ ) by:

$$\overline{\lambda} = \sqrt{f_y \, \frac{12 \, (1 - \nu^2)}{\pi^2 E}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{k_{a/b}}} \cdot \frac{b}{t_p} \tag{4}$$

<sup>233</sup> where  $k_{a/b}$  is a function of a/b

$$k_{a/b} = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{a}{b} + \frac{b}{a}\right)^2 & \text{if } \frac{a}{b} \le 1\\ 4 & \text{if } \frac{a}{b} \ge 1 \end{cases}$$
(5)

It can thus be concluded that a second order polynomial should provide a good approximation of the strength of a curved plate and that it will be meaningful from a physical point of view. The response surface will thus be investigated in the following form:

$$\widehat{Y}\left(=\frac{\sigma_{ult}}{f_y}\right) = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^3 \beta_i X_i + \sum_{j=1}^3 \sum_{i=1}^j \beta_{ij} X_i X_j \tag{6}$$

where  $\widehat{Y}$  is the approximated response,  $X_i$  are the three input variables and  $\beta_{(.)}$  are the ten unknown parameters.

#### 240 3.3. Step 3: Selection of the input data or sampling points

The selection of the input data points covers the choice of the number 241 of points and of their distribution in the investigated domain which is here 242 a hypercube in the three dimensional space. The generation of a set of 243 sampling points using a QMC method in this cube can be made easily using 244 a common statistical tool providing a function generating a Sobol' sequence 245 (Matlab here). Noting that with the Sobol' sequence, the extreme values 246 of the parameters can only be reached for an infinite number of variables, 247 some additional points located at the corners of the cube can be added to 248 the sequence to give more weight to the boundary of the domain. 249

The key issue is thus the definition of the minimal number of experiments 250 to be conducted to get a response with the desired accuracy. The number of 25 simulations n depends on the complexity of the studied phenomenon as well 252 as of the complexity of the approximated model. Yet there is not a unani-253 mously agreed method relating the number of observations versus the number 254 of independent variables in the model. Some authors suggest 3m + 1 points 255 [31] for a second-order polynomial approximation where  $m = \frac{(p+1)(p+2)}{2}$  is the 256 number of unknown coefficients and p is the number of input variables. Fol-25 lowing this suggestion for the present example which has 3 input parameters, 258 a second order polynomial approximation will have 10 unknown parameters 259 which could be evaluated with a good accuracy with 31 experiments. Adding 260 the corner points (in total 7 additional points as the point (-1; -1; -1) is 261 by construction always part of the sequence) of the investigated domain, the 262 total number of sampling points is set to 38. An illustration of such a set is 263 shown in Fig. 5. 264



Figure 5: Sampling points generated by the Sobol' sequence (circles) and additional corner points (triangles).

#### 265 3.4. Step 4: Parameters evaluation

The approximated response surface is here looked for in the form of a second-order polynomial in the three variables  $X_i$  given by Eq. 6. The unknown parameters  $\beta_{(.)}$  have to be identified from the numerical experiments (here n = 38) which is here done by the least square method. So, from the 38 sampling points shown in Fig. 5, the ultimate strength of a curved plate can be approximated by the following expression:

$$\widehat{Y} = 0.879 + 0.002X_1 + 0.212X_2 + 0.052X_3 - 0.001X_1X_2 - 0.063X_2X_3 -0.004X_3X_1 - 0.037X_1^2 - 0.100X_2^2 - 0.003X_3^2$$
(7)

#### 272 3.5. Step 5: Evaluation of the accuracy of approximated model

To evaluate the accuracy of the approximated model, conducting an analysis of variance (ANOVA) is very useful. The coefficient of determination is first determined  $R^2 = 0.977$  and then the cross-validation coefficient  $Q^2 = 0.969$ . The fact that  $R^2$  is very close to 1 indicates that the regression

model fits well the data. The small difference between  $R^2$  and  $Q^2$  indicates 277 that most observations have an influence on the regression equation and that 278 the approximation model predicts well the observations. Moreover, the same 279 model has been identified on a sample without additional points in the cor-280 ners, leading to  $R^2 = 0.971$  and  $Q^2 = 0.942$ , the small diminution of these 28 coefficients is a direct consequence of the diminution of the number of sam-282 pling points (31 instead of 38), not to the fact that the discarded points were 283 located in the corners of the domain. It is thus concluded that, the addi-284 tion of corner points is not necessary to get an accurate estimation of the 285 regression coefficients. 286

#### 287 3.6. Step 6: Selection of most significant terms and conclusion.

The second-order formula presented in Eq. 7 for the evaluation of the ultimate strength of curved steel panels under axial compression provides a good and best possible approximation of the real capacity of the panel. However, it is remarked that not every coefficient in Eq. 7 have the same order of magnitude. So, rather than trying to explain the model with all its terms, it can naturally be asked if some terms could be excluded from the initial model without altering significantly the accuracy of the whole model.

A criterion of exclusion should hence be fixed. If normality assumptions are verified (as in the present case), the t-test provides a fully reliable criterion as it relates the value of each coefficient to its estimated standard error. More simple criteria, such as arbitrary thresholds of significance are also very effective. Indeed, as the parameters all vary between -1 and 1, the contributions of the various terms can directly be analysed by comparing the coefficients which might then be neglected if their value is bellow a certain absolute value (for example 2% of the sum of the coefficients absolute values or 5% of the maximum value of the coefficients). Fixing here this threshold to 2% of the sum of the coefficients, the terms ( $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_{12}$ ,  $\beta_{13}$  and  $\beta_{33}$ ) are found not significant (a criterion based on t-test and a 90% two sided interval would give the same results). The new model is thus given by Eq. 8; it preserves good precision with high value of  $R^2 = 0.976$  and  $Q^2 = 0.9674$ .

$$\widehat{Y} = 0.879 + 0.212X_2 + 0.052X_3 - 0.063X_2X_3 - 0.037X_1^2 - 0.100X_2^2 \quad (8)$$

Introducing the physical parameters of table 1 into Eq. 8, the ultimate strength of unstiffened cylindrical curved panels under axial compression is given by:

$$\frac{\sigma_{ult}}{f_y} = \left(-0.09 + 0.326 \left(a/b\right) - 0.148 \left(a/b\right)^2\right) + \left(40.6 + 0.314Z\right) \left(t_p/b\right) - \left(444 + 8.40Z\right) \left(t_p/b\right)^2$$
(9)

where Z is the curvature parameter defined by  $Z = b^2/Rt_p$ . Eq. 9 is very similar to the classical expression of the stability problem, where the ultimate strength is represented as a polynomial function of the slenderness t/b.

Fig. 6 shows how well the expressions given by the DOE method (red 314 squares) and by the semi-analytical method [12] (green triangles) are able to 315 predict the numerical results (given by F.E. model). For most input values, 316 the two models have less than 5 % of discrepancy (in absolute value) to 317 the true numerical value. However a few observations (No. 19, No. 22 and 318 No. 28) predicted by DOE method have higher discrepancy (from 8% to 319 10 %) on the contrary to the semi-analytical method whose error remain 320 below 5.5 %. This might be explained by the fact that, although the semi-32 analytical model is not richer (the calibration of  $\overline{\lambda_0}, \beta, \alpha_Z$  involves only 7 322

parameters), its physical bases are finer which proves the crucial importance
of the choice of the parameters and response surface.



Figure 6: Comparison of FEM results with DoE and semi-analytical method [12].

These values of error should be relativised by the fact that in many complex structures such as stiffened plates, the difference between Eurocode predictions and the results of numerical simulations might reach until 20 %, sometimes in favor of safety, sometimes not [32, 33]. Moreover, as the socalled characteristic value of a member is obtained by dividing its design value (e.g. Eq. 9) by some safety factor (often taken as  $\gamma_{M1} = 1.1$ ) the present discrepancy is indeed acceptable.

# 4. Application to stiffened curved panels under uniform axial com pression

The behaviour of stiffened curved panels is a more complex problem, especially due to the interaction of different parameters (curvature, relative rigidity of stiffeners and plate, imperfection, etc.) for which no semi-analytic expression exists. So, as it has just been shown that the design of computer experiment method is well adapted for studying the stability of curved plates, it will be used for the development of a preliminary design formula (i.e suited for hand-calculation) for the ultimate resistance of stiffened curved panels.

#### 341 4.1. Finite element modelling

The stiffened panels are modelled and analysed using the commercial finite element software Ansys [29]. The panels are supposed to be simply supported on all edges of the panel ( $u_r = 0$  in the cylinder coordinate system of Fig. 7) but not on the stiffeners (unfavourable condition).



Figure 7: Boundary conditions of simply supported on all edges

For loading conditions, the study is here limited to a uniform compression 346 in the longitudinal direction as it is the dominant loading in bottom flange 347 panels. It is applied not only to the main panel, but also to the stiffeners due 348 to their participation in the overall behaviour of the structure (Fig. 8). In 349 fact, in a bridge, the compressive forces acting on the flange come through 350 the diaphragms and webs that connect the upper and lower panels of the 35 box girder. By construction, the stiffeners, in most cases, are continuous and 352 attached by welding to diaphragms: therefore they are also subjected to the 353 compressive load. 354



Figure 8: Loading condition and scheme of the connection stiffener/diagram by welding

The curved panels are meshed with eight-nodes shell elements which use 355 an advanced shell formulation that accurately incorporates initial curvature 356 effects (this element is called SHELL-281 in [29]). They are well-suited for 35 linear, large rotation and large strain non-linear applications and offers im-358 proved accuracy in curved shell structure simulations and faster convergence 359 than plate elements as one can see in figure 9 which represents the conver-360 gence study from [34]. A fine mesh with more than 30 elements per panel 36 edges is used to reduce the discretisation error. 362



Figure 9: Convergence study of SHELL-281 element: linear bifurcation analysis (left), non linear buckling analysis (right)

The panels are all made of steel which is assumed to be elasto-plastic with linear strain hardening as indicated in EN 1993-1-5 C.6 for the material non-linear second-order analyses with initial imperfections (GMNIA). The Young modulus E and Poisson's ratio are taken equal to 210 GPa and 0.3 respectively. The steel grade is S355 with a yield steels equal to 355 MPa.

#### 368 4.2. Evaluation of the ultimate strength

This study is limited to the case of stiffened curved panels under ax-369 ial compression with open section stiffeners (simple flat plates) because the 370 curvature makes it difficult to realise a close form section of stiffener (boxed 371 rib). Therefore, the number of input parameters is here restricted to seven as 372 presented in table 2. The ranges of variation of these parameters are chosen 373 in order to cover most panels used in bridge construction. As the orders of 374 magnitude of the parameters variations are different, they are transformed 375 the physical parameters into centred variables  $X_i$ , ranging from -1 to 1. 376 377

| Variable | Description                 | Variation range         | Design variable           |
|----------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|
|          |                             |                         | v r                       |
| a        | Length of the panel         | $4 \le a \le 6$         | $X_1 = a - 5$             |
| b        | Width of the panel          | $4 \le b \le 6$         | $X_2 = b - 5$             |
| $t_p$    | Thickness of panel          | $0.01 \le t_p \le 0.02$ | $X_3 = 200 \cdot t_p - 3$ |
| 1/R      | Curvature of panel          | $0 \le 1/R \le 0.1$     | $X_4 = 20/R - 1$          |
| d        | Distance between stiffeners | $0.3 \le d \le 0.8$     | $X_5 = 4 \cdot d - 2.2$   |
| $h_s$    | Height of stiffener         | $0.1 \le h_s \le 0.2$   | $X_6 = 20 \cdot h_s - 3$  |
| $t_s$    | Thickness of stiffener      | $0.01 \le t_s \le 0.02$ | $X_7 = 200 \cdot t_s - 3$ |

Table 2: Design variable (dimension in meter)

The approximated model is searched in the form of a second order poly-378 nomial. The total number of experiments, as suggested in section 3.3, is 379  $n = 3 \cdot m + 1 = 109$  where m = 36 is the number of unknown coefficients 380 (1 constant, 7 linear and 28 quadratic terms). Their distribution in the re-381 gion of interest is generated by a Sobol' sequences and the coefficients are 382 obtained by the least square method, supposing that errors are independent 383 and normally distributed. Like previously, the selection of significant coeffi-384 cients is made based on the t-test (the limit value being given for 109 tests 385 and the bilateral 5%-95% fractile). Then all remaining coefficients (here 18 386 coefficients) are re-evaluated using the least square method a second time. 387 The resulting approximated model (in MN) is thus the following: 388

$$\widehat{Y} = +17.09$$

$$-0.47X_1 + 3.58X_2 + 4.24X_3 + 7.32X_4 - 3.87X_5 + 4.83X_6 + 2.33X_7$$

$$+1.65X_2X_4 - 1.72X_2X_5 + 1.71X_2X_6 + 0.89X_2X_7 + 1.33X_3X_4$$

$$-0.76X_3X_5 - 1.73X_4X_5 + 0.81X_4X_6 - 1.18X_5X_6 + 0.94X_6X_7$$
(10)

The coefficient of determination  $R^2 = 0.986$  (close to 1) indicates that 389 the value predicted by the model fits very well the data (see Fig. 10). Also, 390 the small difference between the values of  $Q^2 = 0.978$  and  $R^2$  shows that 391 there are few undue influence on the regression equation. The accuracy of 392 the response is also checked by the relative mean absolute error (RMAE): 393 4.2 % (which indicated that a mean error of 4 % is expected), the relative 394 minimum and maximum error: -14.0 % and +13.5 % respectively. The 395 above equation is thus fairly acceptable in bridge constructions and residual 396 errors can be easily covered by using a safety factor. 39



Figure 10: Comparison of the ultimate strength of the FEM and DOE

<sup>398</sup> Considering now every coefficients independently, it is found that the 5 % <sup>399</sup> two-sided confidence interval of the regression coefficients is  $\pm 0.20 \ MN$  for <sup>400</sup> the constant term,  $\pm 0.36 \ MN$  for the linear terms and  $\pm 0.62 \ MN$  for the <sup>401</sup> quadratic terms. As generally observed, the uncertainty on linear terms is <sup>402</sup> almost twice smaller than that on quadratic terms: the direct influences of <sup>403</sup> the parameters are better known than those of their interactions.

These statistical remarks being made, it is remarkable that all parameters 404 are found significant in Eq. 10. In decreasing order, the most significant 405 parameters are the curvature  $(X_4)$ , the height of the stiffeners  $(X_6)$ , the 406 thickness of the panel  $(X_3)$ , the distance between stiffeners  $(X_5)$ , the width 40 of the panel  $(X_2)$ , the thickness of the stiffeners  $(X_7)$  and finally the length 408 of the panel  $(X_1)$  whose influence is very limited (no more than  $\pm 3$  % of the 409 total strength). Quite obviously, increasing the curvature, the thickness of 410 the plate or the height and thickness of the stiffeners increases the strength 411 of the panel, while increasing the length of the panel or the distance between 412 stiffeners decreases it. Then the fact that the strength grows with the width 413 is not so immediate but can be easily understood considering that when the 414 width of the panel increases, the distance between the centre of gravity of 415 the panel and the curved plate increases due to curvature and by there the 416 global inertia of the curved panel increases. 41

There are then multiple interactions which combine effects are more dif-418 ficult to analyse. Indeed increasing the curvature, the height and thickness 419 of the stiffeners or the thickness of the panel has always a positive effect 420 on the strength because, for these parameters, the linear term dominates 421 clearly the quadratic terms. Then concerning the distance between the stiff-422 eners, in most cases diminishing it leads to an increase of the strength but 423 not mandatory as for slender panels with small curvature and small stiff-424 eners it might lead to a smaller strength (indeed the coefficient of  $X_5$  is 425  $-3.87 - 1.72X_2 - 0.76X_3 - 1.73X_4 - 1.18X_6$  and varies between -9.26 MN426 and 1.52 MN). In the same way, in most cases increasing the width of the 42 panel leads to an increased strength but not for slender panels when the spac-428

ing between stiffeners is too large (the coefficient of  $X_2$  being  $3.58 + 1.65X_4 -$ 429  $1.72X_5 + 1.71X_6 + 0.89X_7$ , it varies between -2.39 MN and 9.55 MN). Very 430 likely in the last two cases, these changes of the coefficient sign correspond to 43 a change in the buckling mode from column to plate or from global to local. 432 Anyway, it must be recalled that even in these extreme cases, the error in 433 the prediction of the strength is not larger than in other cases (cf. Fig. 10) and 434 that according to all statistical criteria mentioned above, the approximated 435 model given by expression (10) is able to predict correctly the ultimate 436 strength of stiffened curved panels in the interested domain. It can thus be 43 easily inserted in an optimisation pattern as illustrated in the coming section. 438

#### 439 4.3. Cost optimisation of curved stiffened panels

The cost optimisation scheme proposed here is based on a cost objective function similar to the ones used by [35]. It assumes that the manufacturing cost of a stiffened curved panel K defined by the parameters  $X_i$  is the sum of the material costs  $K_m$  (the steel cost) and of the fabrication costs  $K_f$  which can be defined as follow:

$$K(X_i) = K_m + K_f = k_m \rho V + k_f \sum T_i$$
(11)

where  $\rho$  is the steel density, V is the total volume of the curved panel,  $k_m$  and  $k_f$  are characteristic coefficients of material and fabrication costs.  $T_i$  denotes manufacturing times:

•  $T_1$ : time for preparing, cutting and assembling the pieces:

$$T_1 = \Theta_d \sqrt{\kappa \rho V} \tag{12}$$

with  $\Theta_d$  a factor characterising the impediment for welding and  $\kappa$  the number of elementary pieces to be welded; 451

452

•  $T_2$ : time for welding and  $T_3$ : additional time for maintenance of the machine which might be considered as  $0.3T_2$ , so that:

$$T_2 + T_3 = 1.3 \sum C_i a_{wi}^2 L_{wi} \tag{13}$$

where  $L_{wi}$  is the length of the i<sup>th</sup> weld,  $a_{wi} = \max(0.4t_s, 4mm)$  its width and  $C_i$  a coefficient depending on the welding technique which is here taken equal to 0.2349 for Shielded Metal Arc Welding.

The constraint equation is then given by the stability requirement of the panel:

$$g(X_i) = \frac{N_{app}}{N_{ult}/\gamma_{M1}} - 1 \leqslant 0 \tag{14}$$

where  $N_{app}$  is the applied load,  $N_{ult}$  the capacity of the panel estimated by Eq. (10) and  $\gamma_{M1}$  is a safety factor.

The panel which is proposed here for optimisation has fixed overall di-460 mensions: its length a is 6 m, its width b is 4 m and its curvature radius 461 R is 20 m). It is subjected to a uniform axial compression  $N_{app} = 12 MN$ . 462 The objective is thus to determine the parameters (thickness of the panel  $t_p$ , 463 thickness  $t_s$  and height  $h_s$  of the stiffeners and distance between stiffeners d) 464 which will minimize the cost of the panel (11) and verify the constraint equa-465 tion (14). To make the problem more realistic, it is also considered that the 466 variables are not continuous but discrete (which poses no problem to Matlab 467 optimisation algorithm), so that the solution is looked for in the following 468 domain: 469

• 
$$t_p \in [0.01; 0.02]$$
 by steps of 1 mm;

•  $d \in [0.3; 0.8]$  by steps of 5 cm;

•  $h_s \in [0.1; 0.2]$  by steps of 1 cm;

• 
$$t_s \in [0.01; 0.02]$$
 by steps of 1 mm;

<sup>474</sup> Concerning then the definition of cost coefficients, as no precise data were <sup>475</sup> available for  $k_f$  and  $k_m$ , it was decided to present the results in an adimen-<sup>476</sup> sional form considering different values of the ratio  $k_f/k_m$ . For  $k_f/k_m = 0$ , <sup>477</sup> only material cost is taken into account, while for large values of  $k_f/k_m$ , man-<sup>478</sup> ufacturing cost prevail (reasonable values in northern countries lie between <sup>479</sup> 1 and 2). The results of the optimisation procedure are shown in table 4.3 <sup>480</sup> (where *n* is the total number of stiffeners).

| $k_f/k_m$ | $t_p$ | d    | n | $h_s$ | $t_s$ | K    |
|-----------|-------|------|---|-------|-------|------|
| 0.0       | 0.014 | 0.55 | 7 | 0.16  | 0.015 | 3450 |
| 0.5       | 0.015 | 0.75 | 5 | 0.18  | 0.016 | 4250 |
| 1.0       | 0.016 | 0.90 | 4 | 0.19  | 0.017 | 5000 |
| 2.0       | 0.018 | 0.90 | 4 | 0.17  | 0.015 | 6200 |

Table 3: Results of the optimisation procedure for  $N_{app} = 12 \ MN$ 

About the method first, it must be noticed here that the set of optimised parameters corresponding to each ratio  $k_f/k_m$  was obtained almost immediately thanks to the preliminary design formula developed in section 4.2 whereas it would have taken hours or even days using directly finite element simulations. Concerning the results then, following remarks can be drawn:

486 487 • The number of stiffeners is higher when only material costs are considered. It is however not maximal  $(n_{max} = 12)$  which shows that

# 488 increasing reasonably the thickness of the plate is very efficient from a489 weight point of view.

- For higher values of  $k_f/k_m$ , stiffeners becomes logically stiffer to reduce their number and the number of welds.
  - It is often more economical to increase the panel thickness than to increase the number of stiffeners which confirms the conclusion of [33].

#### 494 5. Conclusion

492

493

Stiffened curved panels in civil engineering structures have high sensitivity 495 to instability phenomenon. Analytical or semi-analytical studies are often 496 not feasible as the problem depends on many parameters such as the panel's 497 curvature or the panel configuration with its stiffener and semi-rigid supports. 498 There is hence a need for a robust strategy when attempting to develop 499 approximated models for such problems. The proposition of such a strategy 500 was the aim of the first part of the present paper and this, through a turnkey 501 methodology based on the theory of the design of experiment method. The 502 efficiency of the method was first reviewed. Some particular points which 503 differentiate the ordinary physical experiments from computer experiments 504 were discussed. Afterwards this methodology was applied to the case of 505 unstiffened curved panels for which solutions were already available in order 506 to evaluate the accuracy of the method and its relevance. A huge gain of time 50 was noticed when using the DOE method: only 38 simulations were needed 508 in the first application against 524 observations in [12] for determining the 509 capacity of a curved panel. Also the general accuracy of the model in the 510

form of a second-order polynomial was comparable to that obtained with more standard heuristic methods. Moreover, as the experiment designer had existing knowledge of the problem, the input values were adequately chosen and the physical interpretation of the results was easy and satisfying, despite the simplicity of the model. The strategy proposed here provides thus a reliable alternative method for the prediction of the ultimate strength of curved panels.

Confident in the methodology, the authors then developed a fully reliable formula for preliminary design of stiffened curved panels. The accuracy of the formula was demonstrated and the influence of various design parameters was discussed. A simple cost optimisation problem was finally presented to illustrate the potential of the formula.

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### 527 Nomenclature

| 528 | $\alpha_Z$             | Parameter characterising the imperfections sensitivity                      |
|-----|------------------------|---|
| 529 | $\beta$                | Parameter characterising the asymptotic behaviour of the panel              |
| 530 | $\beta_0$              | Constant term and average value of the approximated response                |
| 531 | $\beta_i$              | Coefficient characterising the effect of the variable $X_i$                 |
| 532 | $\beta_{ij}$           | Coefficient characterising the interaction of the variables $X_i$ and $X_j$ |
| 533 | χ                      | Reduction factor for the panel buckling according to EC3                    |
| 534 | $\overline{\lambda}$   | Relative slenderness of the panel according to EC3                          |
| 535 | $\overline{\lambda}_0$ | Slenderness separating plastic buckling from elasto-plastic buckling        |
| 536 | ρ                      | Steel density   |
| 537 | $\sigma_{ult}$         | Ultimate strength of the panel  |
| 538 | a                      | Length of the panel   |
| 539 | b                      | Width of the panel  |
| 540 | d                      | Distance between stiffeners   |
| 541 | $f_y$                  | Yield stress of the panel   |
| 542 | $h_s$                  | Height of stiffeners  |
| 543 | $K_f$                  | Fabrication costs   |
| 544 | $k_f$                  | Fabrication cost per volume unit  |
|     |                        | 30  |

 $K_m$  Material costs (steel cost)

| 546 | $k_m$        | Material cost per volume unit                              |
|-----|--------------|--|
| 547 | $k_{a/b}$    | Parameter characterising the influence of the aspect ratio |
| 548 | m            | Number of unknown coefficients in the approximated model   |
| 549 | n            | Number of simulations or numerical experiments             |
| 550 | $N_{app}$    | Normal force applied to the panel                          |
| 551 | $N_{ult}$    | Capacity of the panel                                      |
| 552 | p            | Number of input variables                                  |
| 553 | R            | Curvature radius of the panel                              |
| 554 | $T_i$        | Manufaturing time of the $i^{th}$ operation                |
| 555 | $t_p$        | Thickness of the panel                                     |
| 556 | $t_s$        | thickness of stiffeners                                    |
| 557 | V            | Total volume of the curved panel                           |
| 558 | $X_i$        | Generic name of the $i^{th}$ input variable                |
| 559 | $X_i^j$      | $j^{th}$ value of the $i^{th}$ input variable              |
| 560 | $Y, \hat{Y}$ | Response and approximated response                         |
| 561 | $Y^j$        | $j^{th}$ value of the response                             |
| 562 | Z            | Curvature parameter defined by $Z = b^2/Rt_p$              |

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