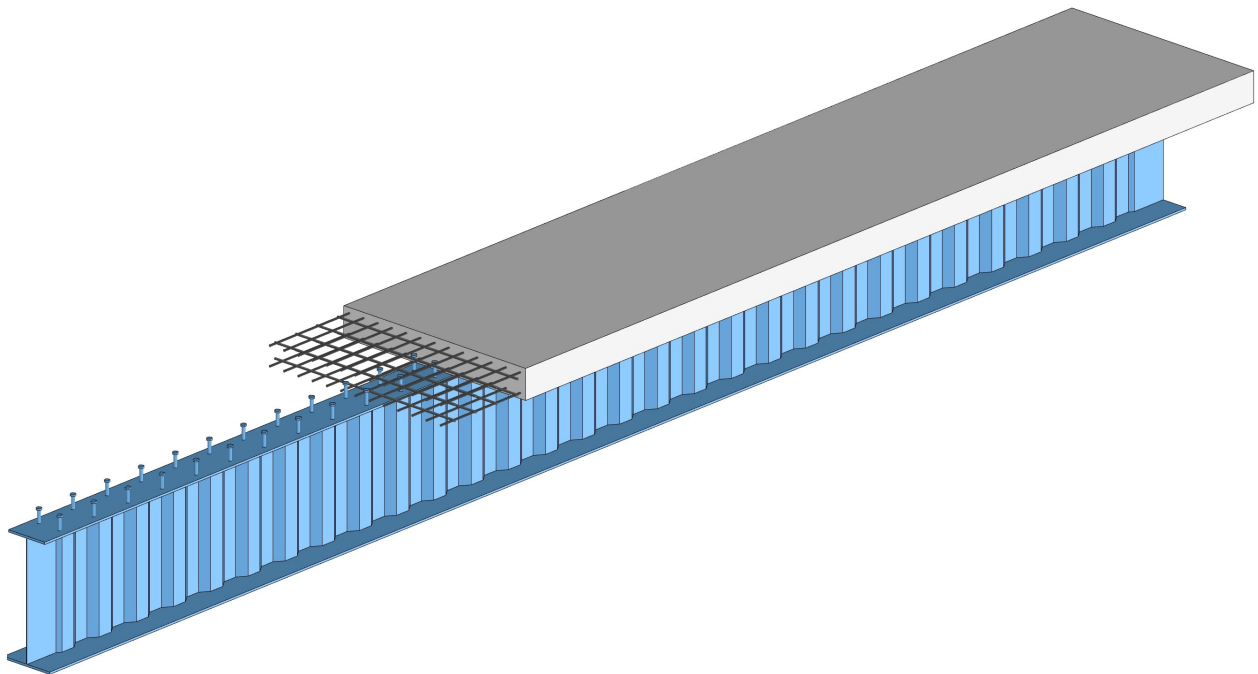




CHALMERS



Design Tool for the Ultimate Bending Resistance of Steel-Concrete Composite Bridge Girders with Flat and Corrugated Web Plates made of Stainless Steel

Master's thesis in Master Program Structural Engineering and Building Technology

ALBIN KARLSSON
GUSTAV FRIMAN

DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE AND CIVIL ENGINEERING

CHALMERS UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
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MASTER'S THESIS 2023

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ALBIN KARLSSON
GUSTAV FRIMAN

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Supervisor: Senior Lecturer Mozhdeh Amani, Department of Architecture and Civil
Engineering, Civil Structures department at COWI

Examiner: Senior Lecturer Mozhdeh Amani, Department of Architecture and Civil
Engineering

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Department of Architecture and Civil Engineering
Division of Structural Engineering
Lightweight Structures
Chalmers University of Technology
SE-412 96 Gothenburg
Telephone +46 31 772 1000

Cover: AN ILLUSTRATION OF A STEEL-CONCRETE COMPOSITE BEAM
WITH A CORRUGATED WEB.

Gothenburg, Sweden 2023

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Abstract

Stainless steel may be a relatively expensive material choice, however, its remarkable and sustainable material properties can make it a great option for steel-concrete composite beams in bridge construction. Stainless steel provides a ductile behaviour with substantial strain hardening, and if combined with a corrugated web, the plastic capacity can be utilized even further. Eurocode only provides an analytical calculation method for carbon steel beams with an elastic perfectly plastic calculation model, furthermore, corrugated webs are completely disregarded in bending. For a beam with stainless steel and a corrugated web, this provided method is especially conservative.

The aim of this master's thesis was to develop a design tool capable of calculating the ultimate bending capacity for beams with different materials and geometry, also, incorporating behaviour models from recent research of corrugated beams and stainless steel.

The tool was tested for stability with shifting location of the neutral axis and the bending capacity was verified with a comparison to finite element analysis in a case study. The resulting comparisons between the design tool and finite element analysis suggest that the tool performs satisfactory with bending moment capacities closer to the simulations compared to the conservative Eurocode models. This implies that the elastic perfectly plastic calculation model is not recommended for beams with stainless steel and high levels of strain hardening.

Even though the design tool is stable and yield good results, parts of it still need additional validation and development. More research in this topic is needed in order to get a better understanding of the actual behaviour of this type of beams. At the moment the available research is limited, especially for steel-concrete composite beams with corrugated webs.

Keywords: Steel-concrete composite beam, Stainless steel, Strain hardening, Corrugated web, Ultimate bending capacity, Design tool

Beräkningsverktyg för den Ultimata Böjkapaciteten för Samverkansbalkar med Släta och Korrugerade Livsplåtar av Rostfritt Stål

ALBIN KARLSSON

GUSTAV FRIMAN

Institutionen för Arkitektur och Samhällsbyggnadsteknik

Avdelningen för Konstruktionsteknik

Forskargruppen för Lättviktskonstruktioner

Chalmers Tekniska Högskola

Sammanfattning

Rostfritt stål kan vara ett relativt dyrt materialval, men med sina unika materialgenskaper kan det vara ett utmärkt alternativ för samverkansbalkar av stål och betong inom brokonstruktion. Rostfritt stål ger ett segt verkningssätt med betydande töjningshårdning, i kombination med korrugerade livsplåtar kan den plastiska kapaciteten utnyttjas ytterligare. Eurocode tillhandahåller endast en analytisk beräkningsmetod för kolstålbalkar med en elasto-plastisk beräkningsmodell, samtidigt som de korrugerade livsplåtarna bortses helt i böjning. För en balk med rostfritt stål och en korrugerad livsplåt är denna metod särskilt konservativ.

Syftet med denna masteruppsats var att utveckla ett designverktyg som kan beräkna den ultimata böjningskapaciteten för balkar med olika material och geometrier. Genom att inkludera beräkningsmodeller från den senaste forskningen inom korrugerade livsplåtar och rostfritt stål.

Designverktyget testades för stabilitet med olika positioner av neutrallagret och böjkapaciteten verifierades med en jämförelse mot resultat från finita element analyser i en fallstudie. De resulterande jämförelserna mellan designverktyget och finita element analysen tyder på att verktyget presterar tillfredsställande med böjmomentkapaciteter närmare simuleringarna jämfört med de konservativa Eurocode-modellerna. Detta innebär att den elasto-plastiska beräkningsmodellen inte rekommenderas för balkar med rostfritt stål och höga nivåer av töjningshårdning.

Även om designverktyget ger numeriskt stabila och goda resultat behöver delar av det fortfarande ytterligare validering och utveckling. Mer forskning inom ämnet behövs fortfarande för att få en bättre förståelse av det faktiska beteendet hos denna typ av balkar. För närvarande är den tillgängliga forskningen begränsad, speciellt för samverkansbalkar med korrugerade livsplåtar.

Nyckelord: Samverkansbalkar i stål och betong, Rostfritt stål, Töjningshårdning, Korrugerade livsplåtar, Ultimat böjningskapacitet, Design verktyg

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Albin Karlsson and Gustav Friman, Gothenburg, June 2023

List of Acronyms

Below is the list of acronyms that have been used throughout this thesis listed in alphabetical order:

CDP	Concrete damage plasticity
CS	Carbon steel
CSM	Continuous strength method
CSW	Corrugated steel webs
FE	Finite element
FEM	Finite element method
EPP	Elastic perfectly plastic
LPF	Load proportionality factor
NA	Neutral axis
PW	Partial web contribution for corrugated webs
SLS	Serviceability limit state
SS	Stainless steel
ULS	Ultimate limit state

Nomenclature

Below is the nomenclature of indices, sets, parameters, and variables that have been used throughout this thesis.

Roman upper-case letters

A	Elongation after fracture for the steel
A_{fl}	Cross-section area of the lower flange
A_{re}	Minimum reinforcement area
A_s	Cross-section area of the steel girder
A_{steel}	Cross-section area of the steel girder
A_w	Cross-section area of the web
E_{cm}	Mean Young's modulus of elasticity for concrete
E	Young's modulus of elasticity
G	Shear modulus
G_F	Fracture energy of the concrete
N_c	Compressive force on the concrete
M_{CSM}	Ultimate moment capacity calculated with the CSM model
M_{EC}	Ultimate moment capacity calculated with model given by Eurocode
M_{EPP}	Ultimate moment capacity calculated with the EPP model
M_{Pl}	Plastic bending moment capacity
$M_{SHA,D}$	Ultimate moment capacity calculated with the detailed model by Shamass and Cashell (2019)
$M_{SHA,S}$	Ultimate moment capacity calculated with the simplified model by Shamass and Cashell (2019)
M_u	Ultimate moment capacity given by test or simulation
L	Length of the beam
V_{Ed}	Vertical shear acting in the cross-section

$V_{L,Ed}$	Resulting longitudinal shear force in the shear connection
V_{Rd}	Vertical shear resistance of the cross-section

Roman lower-case letters

a	Spacing between parallel beams
a_1	Length of a flat fold in the corrugation
a_3	Corrugation depth
b_1	The length of the outstanding concrete
b_2	The length of the outstanding concrete
b_c	Effective width of the concrete slab
b_{eff}	Effective concrete width
$b_{eff,1}$	Effective concrete width in mid-span
b_{fu}	Width of the upper steel flange
b_{fl}	Width of the lower steel flange
d_c	Plasticity variable for the damaged concrete in compression
d_{head}	Diameter of the stud head
d_{stud}	Diameter of the stud shank
d_t	Plasticity variable for the damaged concrete in tension
e_d	Distance from stud edge to edge of the steel flange
e_E	Distance from centre of the stud to edge of the concrete slab
e_L	Longitudinal stud spacing
e_s	Distance from bottom of stud head to lower layer of reinforcement
e_T	Transverse stud spacing
$f_{0.2}$	0.2% proof strength of the steel
f_c	Concrete compressive strength
f_{cd}	Design compression capacity of the concrete
f_{ck}	Characteristic concrete compressive strength
f_{cm}	Mean concrete compressive strength
$f_{ctk0.05}$	5% Characteristic concrete tensile strength
$f_{ctk0.95}$	95% Characteristic concrete tensile strength
f_{ctm}	Mean concrete tensile strength
f_{sd}	Ultimate design capacity of the shear reinforcement
f_u	Nominal ultimate capacity of the steel

f_{ub}	Ultimate strength for bolts and shear connectors
f_y	Nominal yield capacity of the steel
f_{yb}	Yield strength for bolts and shear connectors
h	Crack band width of the concrete
h_{stud}	Total length of the stud
h_w	Height of the steel web
k_s	Rotational stiffness per unit length along the top steel flange
n	Strain hardening exponent
n_0	Modular ratio for short term loading of the concrete
n_L	Modular ratio for long term loading of the concrete
m	Strain hardening exponent
t	Nominal thickness of the steel element
t_c	Thickness of the concrete slab
t_{fu}	Thickness of the upper steel flange
t_{fl}	Thickness of the lower steel flange
t_{head}	Thickness of the stud head
t_w	Thickness of the steel web
$t_{w,eff}$	Effective web thickness
$y_{0.2}$	Location in the cross-section where the steel strain is equal to the yield strain
y_1	Location of the neutral axis from the top of the concrete
y_2	Distance between the neutral axis and the distributed stress

Greek letters

α	Corrugation angle
β	Reduction factor for reduced plastic behaviour
γ_c	Partial factor for concrete
γ_{M0}	Resistance of cross-section to excessive yielding including local buckling
γ_{M1}	Resistance of members to instability assessed by member checks
γ_{M2}	Resistance of cross-section in tension to fracture
γ_s	Partial factor for reinforcement
γ_V	Partial factor for shear connectors

δ_{uk}	Characteristic slip capacity in the shear connector
ε	Reference factor for cross-section classification
ε_2	Strain in location y_2
ε_u	Ultimate steel strain
ν	Poisson's ratio
ν_a	Poisson's ratio of the steel
ρ_w	Minimum transverse reinforcement ratio
σ_{cm}	Distributed compressive stress
σ_m	Distributed compressive stress
σ_{max}	Stress in the bottom of the steel girder
σ_{tm}	Distributed tensile stress
$\varphi(t, t_0)$	Creep coefficient at time t for load applied at t_0
$\chi_{c,g}$	Shear buckling reduction factor, for global buckling
$\chi_{c,l}$	Shear buckling reduction factor, for local buckling

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1

Introduction

This first chapter provides a brief background of the thesis topic and clarifies the aim of the study and what methods and limitations that the work is performed with.

1.1 Background

Steel-concrete composite bridges has been an effective and sustainable approach for a long time. The combination of different materials allows for unique and smart designs that can satisfy structures need by utilizing the superior properties for each material. These structures can be further optimized with the availability of the different types of steel and concrete. One interesting choice for the steel is stainless steel, its response is highly ductile but during large deformations it also performs with significant strain hardening. Which is a sought-after property during ultimate loading just before collapse. Even with these benefits, a reason for the lack of presence of stainless steel in construction is the high initial investment costs. However, recent studies have shown that beams in composite structures with corrugated webs and stainless steel can be designed with a reduced material consumption. Also, the use of corrugated webs has demonstrated an increase in the activation of the strain hardening, due to its flexibility. Steel-concrete composite bridges already have a design procedure given in Eurocode, only considering carbon steel. A complete cross-section analysis in Eurocode for ultimate limit state during plastic effects completely disregards any positive extra capacity from strain hardening. Design cases where stainless steel with corrugated webs seems appropriate will therefore lead to conservative capacity calculations. Further refined methods to take the strain hardening effect into account has recently been developed. Compared to Eurocode that limits the moment resistance to the plastic resistance, these methods may provide a more accurate representation of the stainless steel real load carrying capacity.

1.2 Aim

The aim of this master's thesis is to develop a design tool that should be able to determine the ultimate load carrying capacity for steel-concrete composite bridges in bending. The tool should be able to handle members with both flat and corrugated webs of both carbon steel and stainless steel, while also considering the effects of strain hardening for stainless steel.

1.3 Objectives

The thesis objective is to investigate the potential of the proposed design methods that are able to take the positive strain hardening effect into account. Information and data about these properties and design methods will be collected and incorporated into the design tool. This further developed design process for steel-concrete composite bridges using stainless steel and corrugated webs may lead to a reduced material consumption and increase its usage in construction. The developed tool and the resulting designs will be validated by comparing its capacity to a finite element analysis.

1.4 Method

The thesis is executed in the following steps:

- A literature study of the design models for steel-concrete composite bridges
- Development of a parameterized design tool for the ultimate bending capacity of beams with flat or corrugated webs and made of stainless steel or carbon steel
- Numerical finite element modelling and analysis of the composite action in girders and comparing to existing experimental data to validate the numerical model.
- A case study to evaluate the developed design tool and comparing the results with finite element analyses.

1.5 Limitations

This master's thesis is executed with the following limitations:

- The design of the steel-concrete composite beams are done as simply supported cases.
- The capacity calculations are performed in the ultimate limit state, only for plastic cases.
- The web corrugation will be limited to trapezoidal corrugation.
- Only beams with constant height will be taken into account.
- The steel flanges and web is considered to be of the same material and strength.

2

Theory

This chapter presents information about the fundamental theory about steel-concrete composite bridges, stainless steel and corrugated webs from previous studies and standards that are used in construction today. It is divided into three main sections that will cover the theory behind composite bridges, corrugated webs, and stainless steel.

2.1 Steel-concrete composite bridges

The structure of a steel-concrete composite bridge consists of beam elements with steel girders and a concrete deck on top. Both materials collaborate and act together by utilizing each superior load bearing property. The composite beam is primarily exposed to bending moments, but the composite action allows for the steel to carry the tension with its high tensile strength while the concrete manages the compression with its great compression strength. This considerable material usage results in an efficient and cost-effective bridge design and a significant capacity increase compared to other non-composite designs. However, for the composite action to be possible the steel girder and concrete slab ought to be linked together with shear connectors. The connection transfers shear forces between the materials and prevents any separation or slip. In Figure 2.1 the components of a steel-concrete composite beam can be seen in a schematic illustration (Hällmark, 2020).

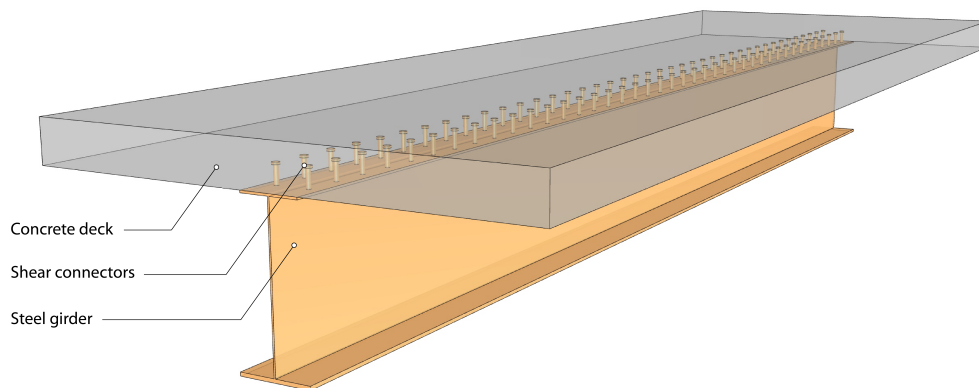


Figure 2.1: *Illustration showcasing the different parts of a steel-concrete composite beam*

Even though the steel-concrete composite concept was developed already in the mid-19th century it was not established and recognised in construction in Sweden until the late 1980s. Before that, steel and concrete bridges was built with no composite action. In current design practice, composite action is almost required for steel-concrete composite bridges (Hällmark, 2020). Considering the benefits from composite structures, designing a bridge is still no easy task. Bridges creates crucial connections for the infrastructure by overcoming a broad variety of obstacles with different limitations for the design. The steel-concrete composite bridge is a flexible concept and can be adapted to the surrounding with its light structure, slim height, and longer spans. The flexibility trait can however lead to complicated situations when looking for optimal solutions for a bridge design (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013).

2.1.1 Structural concept advantages

The composite bridge concept exhibits several benefits compared to non-composite constructions. Ellobody (2014) lifts further advantages of the composite structures, they have a higher strength compared to the structure self-weight than reinforced concrete bridges. The composite structure is easily prefabricated with its slim and light design. It can be transported and erected with many installation alternatives, such as, by cranes, slide-in techniques and launching. The fast construction process results in less time for the workers in a hostile environment, less closure of surrounding infrastructure, and reduced labour costs. Some sites also require lighter structures because of poor ground conditions. Once the composite bridge is erected, the steel girders will provide support to the subsequent operations, which further reduces impact on the surrounding by reducing the need of big form works or scaffolding. After the bridge has been built it can be strengthened with additional stiffeners, repaired if needed, recycled, or even modified in case the bridge needs a widening to accommodate extra traffic lanes. Ellobody (2014) continues to compare composite bridges to steel bridges and provides benefits in favour of the composite design. The composite bridge utilizes the exceptional properties of both materials and therefore have a higher strength, higher ductility, higher stiffness, higher fire resistance, and a higher seismic loading resistance.

2.1.2 Composite action

It is crucial that the composite beam has a sufficient connection between the different materials for the concept of composite action to work. The connection means that the materials will act as a single element in the structure. Without an interaction the materials would act individually. The connection between the girder and the slab needs to be designed to handle any potential shear coming from the design loads. There are many available types of shear connectors such as perfobond strips, T-connectors, welded studs and looped bars. By far, the most common shear connector is the welded shear studs. Besides shear forces, the shear connectors should be able to prevent separation of the steel girder and concrete deck. If the connectors are designed with sufficient strength the beam can be assumed to perform with full composite action. However, the assumption of either full action or no action at

all are two extreme cases. In reality there will always be some slip effect even if the shear connectors are designed with high strength. Also, there will always be friction in cases where no connectors are utilized. In situations where the shear connectors do not have enough strength for full composite action, the beam will act with partial composite action. This is allowed in design if additional requirements are fulfilled. Parts of the steel girder will be compressed, and the concrete will be subjected to tension and will lead to a risk for buckling and cracking, which need to be considered in design. Figure 2.2 illustrates the difference between composite action and no composite action together with the sectional strains depending on the connection restraint degree (Hällmark, 2020).

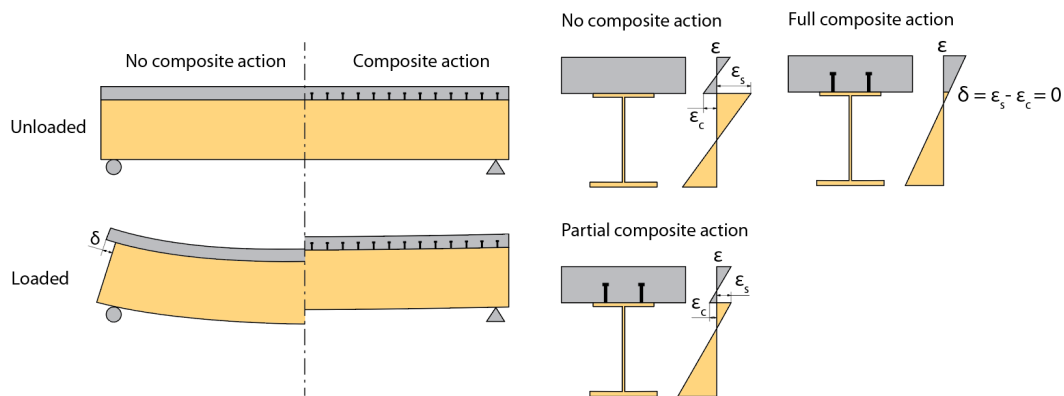


Figure 2.2: Difference between different levels of restraint degree for the composite action, redrawn from (Hällmark, 2020)

The slip that occurs for beams without full composite action is the difference between the steel strain and the concrete strain, since both materials are assumed to work individually without any friction. With full composite action the load will be shared depending on the flexural stiffness for the steel girder and concrete slab separately. The assumption of full composite action results in a slip that is equal to zero, and the strength completely depends on the global cross-section. This allows for the same assumption as in the Euler-Bernoulli beam theory, that plane sections will remain plane during bending (Hällmark, 2020).

2.2 Corrugated webs

In current practice I-girders with flat plate webs are one of the most commonly used type of cross-sections when it comes to the use of steel in bridge girders. These types of cross-sections are generally built up with deep and thin webs that may lead to instability issues such as shear buckling or flexural buckling. This instability phenomenon is prevented by the use of web stiffeners, either transverse or longitudinal that act as stabilisation of the cross-section. An alternative method to handle them is replacing the conventional flat webs with ones that are corrugated.

Corrugated web steel girders have been used in many bridges all over the world. The first example when it was used for a composite bridge is the Maupre bridge in

France. The main advantage of corrugated webs is that they have a higher out-of-plane stiffness compared to flat webs (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022). This also leads to that girders with corrugated webs have a higher shear buckling strength compared to ones with flat webs (He et al., 2012). This makes it possible to create steel girders with slim webs without using stiffeners (Elgaaly & Seshadri, 1997). Studies have shown that by replacing stiffened flat webs with corrugated webs an increased fatigue resistance of about 50% and a reduction in self-weight around 30-50% can be reached (Moga et al., 2017). This makes the use of corrugated webs in combination with stainless steel an attractive option as the reduction in self-weight, hence material use, may somewhat cancel out the higher investment cost of stainless steel.

There are however some disadvantages with corrugated webs. Due to the corrugation, the web gets a low axial rigidity called the "accordion effect" (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022). This results in a low flexural stiffness for the web and is therefore not considered when calculating the bending moment capacity of the girder according to SS-EN 1993-1-5 (2006). Due to the irregularities and eccentricities of the connection between the corrugated web and the flanges, local buckling can appear in the flanges. This is related to the larger overhangs of the flanges when the web corrugates and no longer lie in the middle of the flange (Elamary et al., 2017).

2.2.1 Manufacturing, types and design of corrugated webs

The most common corrugation geometries are either sinusoidal or trapezoidal. The sinusoidal corrugation is formed just like a sinus wave with a given amplitude and wavelength, an example and general geometric notations can be seen in Figure 2.3. The trapezoidal webs are more commonly used than the sinusoidal webs and have a higher capacity potential when thin webs are used (Karlsson, 2018). An example with general geometric notations of a trapezoidal web corrugation can be seen in Figure 2.4. Both types of are usually manufactured by cold bending to prevent loss of steel ductility and surface cracks (Steffner & Öman, 2021). In this master's thesis, only webs with trapezoidal corrugation will be studied due to it being the most common type in practice.

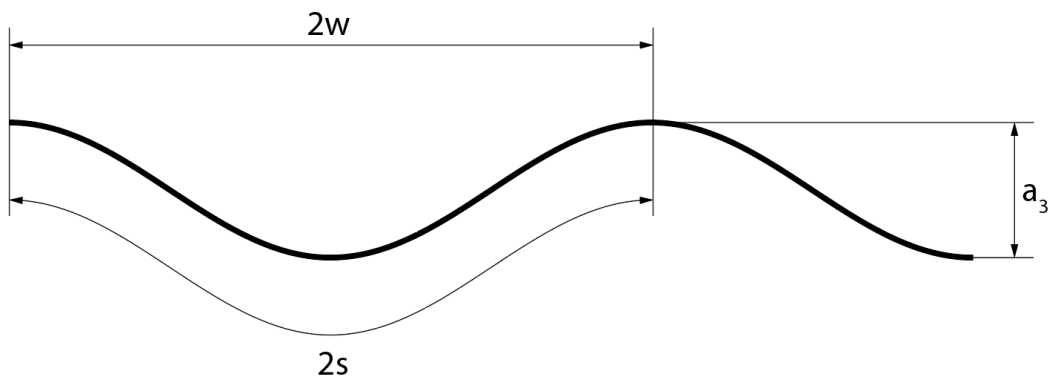


Figure 2.3: *Illustration and geometrical notations for a sinusoidal web*

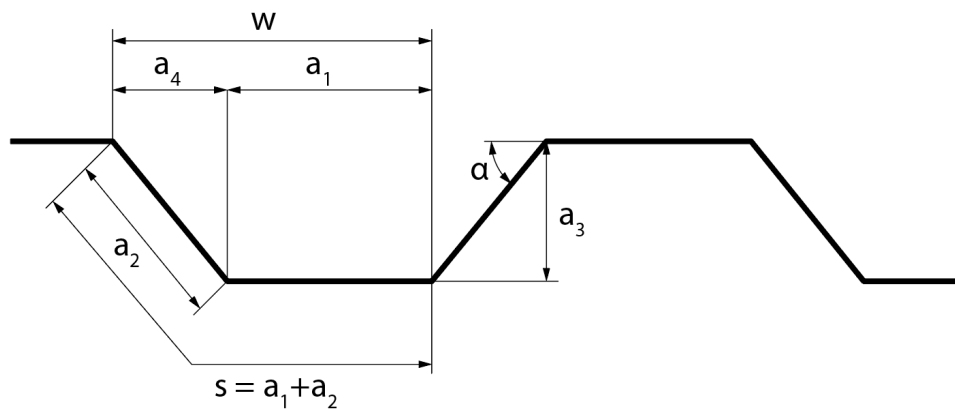


Figure 2.4: *Illustration and geometrical notations for a trapezoidal web*

Previous studies have been performed on the effect of the different parameters of the corrugated webs on ultimate shear capacity by Luo and Edlund (1996). The conclusions of the study are summarised and can be seen in Table 2.1. Further investigation on this topic was performed in a master's thesis by Karlsson (2018). Karlsson (2018) saw similar results as Luo and Edlund (1996) for most parameters but Karlsson (2018) also gathered additional understanding of the effects of the corrugation angle and length of the flat fold. It was found that the shear capacity from corrugation angle continues to increase up to approximately 50° . Also that the length of the flat folds and corrugation angle is the most influential parameters when performing design of shear capacity for beams with corrugated webs.

Table 2.1: *Geometrical parameters and their effect on ultimate shear capacity (Luo & Edlund, 1996)*

Geometrical parameter	Effect on ultimate shear capacity
Web thickness, t_w	Increased with increased web thickness
Web height, h_w	Increased with increased web height
Corrugation depth, a_3	Small or no effect
Corrugation angle, α	Small increase with increased corrugation angle
Length of flat fold, a_1	Decreased with increased length

2.3 Stainless steel

Stainless steel is a family name for a group of steels manufactured to be highly corrosion and heat resistant. They come with varying alloy element additions that affects the material properties such as strength, corrosion resistance, ductility and weldability. The wide range of stainless steel types and grades provide materials that can fit different site atmospheres. All stainless steel grades contain a minimum amount of 10.5% chromium, which is the added content that effects the stability of the corrosion resistance. Further property modification can be done with additional alloys, for example molybdenum and nitrogen. However, improved material properties results in a higher price (SCI, 2018).

A combination of a clean stainless steel surface with chromium and exposure to an oxidizing environment will lead to a tight and transparent, chromium-rich oxide film on the steel surface. Any potential cuts or scratches of the film are ineffective as it will reform immediately when subjected to oxygen. When the stainless steel is equipped with enough corrosion resistance, it will no longer react to the surrounding environment. Hence, the protective film is referred to as a passive film (SCI, 2018).

Stainless steel is a practical material and is recommended for buildings or structures that are subjected to intense environments with pollution, de-icing salts or coastal atmosphere. Stainless steel has also shown to compete with carbon steel in both environmental impact and long-term cost. The initial price of stainless steel material is substantially higher than carbon steel with similar properties. Stainless steel however comes with several cost-effective advantages in the long run, such as not needing corrosion resistance coating, avoiding normal and coating maintenance and avoiding component replacements as a result of corrosion. This in turn reduces downtime due to the reduced maintenance. Also, stainless steel provides a high strength and can therefore be designed with smaller cross-sections, which leads to lower material usage. The high durability gives the material a long service life, and at end-of-life, it is still fully recyclable (SCI, 2018).

2.3.1 Stainless steel types

The stainless steel products are divided in types which have further variations called grades which provide alternative choices for all potential environmental conditions. The stainless steel types that are most commonly used in structural application are austenitic, ferritic and duplex steels (SCI, 2018).

The stainless steel type with the highest frequent use in construction is austenitic steels, they consist of 17-18% chromium and additions of 8-11% nickel. The atomic structure is face-centered which leads to a highly ductile material that is easily weldable. Compared to carbon steel it has a great toughness when susceptible to a wide temperature range. The remarkable ductility gives the steel a good formability and a great elongation before any possible fracture (SCI, 2018).

Another type of stainless steel is the ferritic steels, it contains about 10.5-19% chromium and possibly small amounts of nickel additions. This type of steel has an atomic structure similar to that of carbon steels, body-centred, which also yields comparable formability. Ferritic stainless steels are cheaper compared to austenitic steels with the same corrosion resistance. However, while this type of steel is not commonly used in load-bearing construction, it is still used in the industry for cladding, roofing, water pipes, elevators, and other indoor applications (SCI, 2018).

The third stainless steel type is duplex steels, also called austenitic-ferritic stainless steel explained by its combined microstructure of the previous steel types. Duplex steels have 20-16% chromium, 1-8% nickel, 0.05-5% molybdenum and 0.05-3%

nitrogen. Duplex steels have a remarkably high strength, double the strength of austenitic and have therefore increased in demand for load-bearing structures. The considerable strength also allows for a reduced cross-section which makes it suitable for bridges that can be sensitive to self-weight. Even though duplex steel has a high ductility, the formability falls behind as a result of the high strength. Further properties worth noting are the good weldability and resistance against stress corrosion cracking (SCI, 2018).

2.3.2 Material behaviour

By comparing stainless steel and carbon steel a clear difference in material behaviour can be seen in the stress-strain curve. Comparisons of the stress-strain curves of both materials are illustrated in Figure 2.5 and 2.6. The most noticeable difference, and also the most important, is the shape of the curves. The carbon steel curve shows the initial linear elastic part up to the clearly identifiable yield strength. After the yield strength is reached it flattens out until the strain hardening effect initiates. Stainless steel however shows a more rounded response with no clear yield strength. The yield strength is instead defined by the 0.2% proof strength. The method to finding the proof strength is illustrated in Figure 2.7. After yielding it is clear that stainless steel exhibit substantial plastic strain hardening (SCI, 2018).

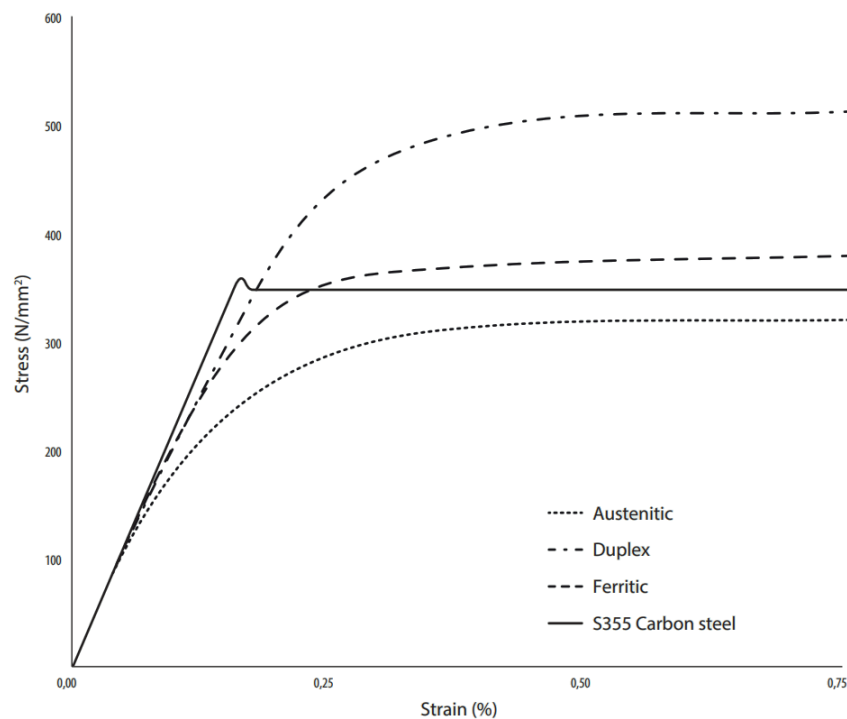


Figure 2.5: Stress-strain curves for carbon steel and stainless steel up to a 0,75% strain (SCI, 2018)

2. Theory

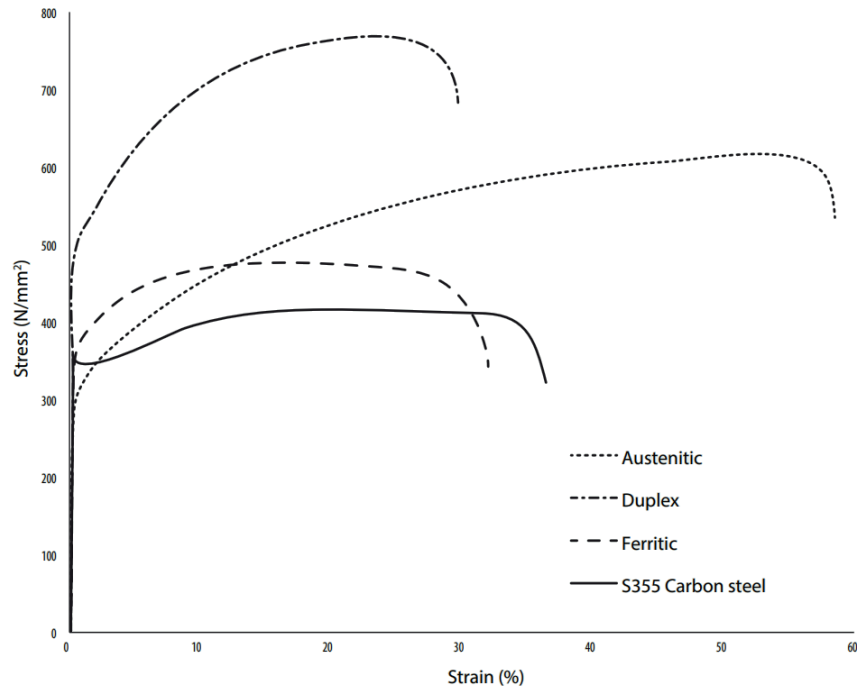


Figure 2.6: *Stress-strain curves for carbon steel and stainless steel for the full strain range (SCI, 2018)*

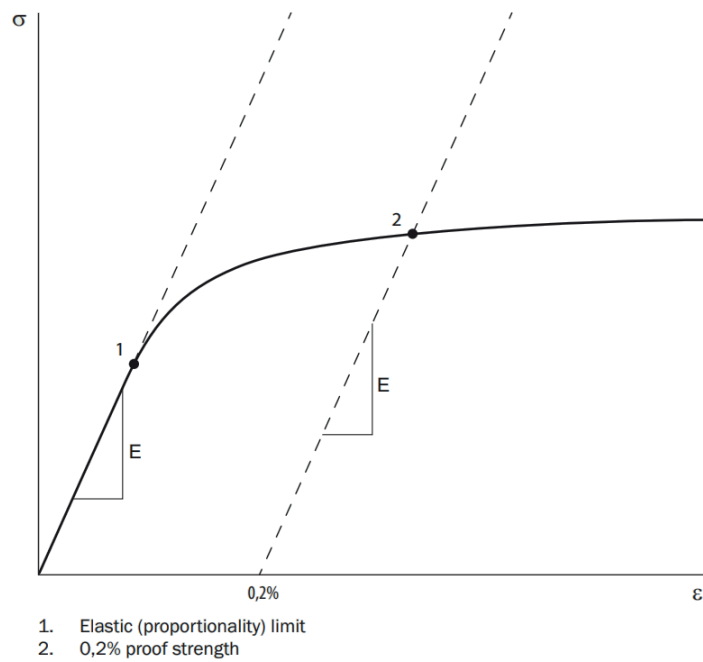


Figure 2.7: *Graph illustrating the definition of 0,2% proof strength (SCI, 2018)*

2.3.2.1 Manufacturing of stainless steel

The stainless steel metallurgy is complex compared to carbon steel and the material properties of the final steel product after the manufacturing process can be altered. Depending on the sought after dimension, an early discussion with potential fabricators is recommended to get the correct information about size limits. The manufacturing methods for steel is either cold forming or hot rolling. Products that are produced are bars, sheets or plates but with further techniques even more elements can be fabricated. Such techniques are bending, pressing, deep drawing and pressing for cold forming. For even more products, cold forming techniques are bending, pressing, spinning and deep drawing. Depending on the quantity and size of the needed structural elements, some manufacturing techniques may be more economically beneficial. Stainless steel will require higher forming loads because of the higher strength compared to carbon steel. However, the high ductility allows for smaller corner radii when forming the element. One effect of cold forming is cold working which enhances the strength and reduces the ductility of the steel by plastic deformations. Cold working also increases the anisotropy of compression and tension strengths which can alter the stress-strain characteristics. The compression strength will be lower than the tensile strength and it is important to be careful and use the correct strength values in design (SCI, 2018).

When dealing with larger production, hot rolling is generally the most cost effective. It is also the production of choice when the steel thickness is too large for cold forming. By adding welding, larger structural member can be produced. The material strength values given in design is usually in annealed condition. Annealing is a heat treatment that can be used after cold working or welding to relieve stresses and return the steel to a more ductile and workable state. Cold worked sections are though rarely annealed when delivered and it can be conservative designing such a section with annealed strength values (SCI, 2018).

2.3.3 Corrosion durability

Stainless steels are fabricated to be highly resistant to corrosion and in general it will have a satisfactory performance for the majority of environments. Each grade under the steel types will have a slight difference in performance, and the most important step for a desired result is to carefully select one that is appropriate for the given site. Steels that contain more chromium, molybdenum and nitrogen will have a higher corrosion resistance. Duplex steels will therefore have a higher corrosion resistance compared to the other stainless steel types. If the steel still is prone to corrosion, it may be a result of wrongly assessed environment, unsuitable manufacturing techniques, a flawed design or poor workmanship. When detailing for a good corrosion control, appropriate measures should be taken to avoid surface contamination by having a smooth surface finish and design to prevent moisture and dirt entrapment. Also, consideration is necessary for the different types of corrosion that can occur by preventative detailing (SCI, 2018).

Some possible corrosion types are pitting, crevice, bimetallic (galvanic) and inter-

granular corrosion. Pitting corrosion is when the passive layer breaks down locally and form localised corrosion pits. The pitting is however often superficial and will not impose a reduction of the cross-section, although it can reduce the visual value for the architectural features. The next corrosion type, crevice corrosion, can be more severe depending on the geometry. It will occur in unsealed crevices with a continuous existence of a water film where deeper and tighter crevices will result in worse corrosion. Bimetallic corrosion will happen if two metals with dissimilar nobility are in contact together as an electrolyte. This condition induces a current which flows from the anode, the less noble metal to the cathode, the more noble metal. Eventually, the cathode will start to corrode. Any filler part that connects to the stainless steel should therefore be at least as noble as the stainless steel. Other methods to prevent bimetallic corrosion can be to add insulation between the metals or to coat or paint the most noble metal. The last mentioned corrosion type, intergranular corrosion can happen by prolonged heating that sensitize the material. However, it is no longer common with a modernised steel fabrication process (SCI, 2018).

3

Design procedure used today

This chapter presents and explains how design of a steel-concrete composite beam is to be carried out based on current standards used in Sweden. It will cover what parameters and checks that have to be considered and how different designs and materials influence the procedure.

3.1 Basis for design

When designing a bridge, all potential events and their requirements has to be considered. This includes requirements in structural resistances, durability and serviceability which are accomplished by following appropriate standards and regulations for design, production and service. The design is done by considering the bridge in different limit states, serviceability and ultimate limit state (SLS and ULS). The bridge in SLS concerns the functionality and usability during normal use. Some of the considered factors are deformations, cracking and vibrations (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013). While ULS concerns structural failure for the safety of the users and the structure itself. Failures considered in ULS design include loss of global equilibrium, collapse or excessive deformations of the superstructure, failure due to fatigue and failure of the substructure (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013).

In design of a new bridge, the main standard that is used in Sweden is Eurocode. These guidelines and regulations cover topics such as materials, loads, safety and structure verification for design (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013). All standards from Eurocode that has to be considered for design of steel-concrete composite bridge and what they cover can be seen in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: List of Eurocode standards used for design of steel-concrete composite bridges

Eurocode	Standard	Part
SS-EN 1990	Basis of structural design	-
SS-EN 1991	Actions on structures	Part 1-1: Self-weight Part 1-4: Wind actions Part 1-5: Thermal actions Part 2: Traffic loads on bridges
SS-EN 1992	Design of concrete structures	Part 1-1: General rules Part 2: Concrete bridges
SS-EN 1993	Design of steel structures	Part 1-1: General rules Part 1-5: Plated structural elements Part 1-8: Design of joints Part 1-9: Fatigue Part 1-11: Design of structures with tension components Part 2: Steel bridges
SS-EN 1994	Design of composite steel and concrete structures	Part 2: General rules and rules for bridges
SS-EN 1998	Design of structures for earthquake resistance	Part 1: Seismic actions Part 2: Bridges

Along with the Eurocode standards, nations can have their own addition, which are called the *National Annex*. The National Annex have country specific parameters and data that is either not covered in Eurocode or only given as recommended values (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013). In Sweden the national annex for bridge design is TRVINFRA-00227 (2022).

3.2 Material properties

Material properties for the materials that are used for steel-concrete composite bridges are presented in this section. That include parameters for concrete, carbon steel and stainless steel elements. Strength properties should be used as design values according to SS-EN 1990 (2002), design values are calculated by using equation 3.1.

$$X_d = \eta \frac{X_k}{\gamma_m} \quad (3.1)$$

where,

X_d	is the design value of the property for the material;
η	is the mean value of the conversion factor considering effects of volume and scale, effects of moisture and temperature and any other relevant parameters;
X_k	is the characteristic value of the property for the material;
γ_m	is the partial factor for the material property considering the possible deviation of a material property and the random part of the conversion factor η .

3.2.1 Concrete

SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that only normal concrete of classes between C20/25 and C60/75 are covered by the standards for design of composite bridges. It also states that properties and safety factors should be taken according to SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005). Characteristic strengths and Young's modulus for named concrete classes can be seen in Table 3.2. Additionally, the Poisson's ratio should be taken as 0.2 for uncracked concrete and 0 for cracked concrete. According to SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005) the partial factor γ_C should be used for normal concrete and is equal to 1.5.

Table 3.2: *Characteristic strengths and Young's modulus of concrete in MPa (SS-EN 1992-1-1, 2005)*

Grade	f_{ck}	f_{cm}	f_{ctm}	$f_{ctk,0.05}$	$f_{ctk,0.95}$	E_{cm} $\times 10^3$
C20/25	20	28	2.2	1.5	2.9	30
C25/30	25	33	2.6	1.8	3.3	31
C30/37	30	38	2.9	2.0	3.8	33
C35/45	35	43	3.2	2.2	4.2	34
C40/50	40	48	3.5	2.5	4.6	35
C45/55	45	53	3.8	2.7	4.9	36
C50/60	50	58	4.1	2.9	5.3	37
C55/67	55	63	4.2	3.0	5.5	38
C60/75	60	68	4.4	3.1	5.7	39

3.2.1.1 Long term effects of concrete

Concrete as a material suffer from long term effects due to creep and shrinkage, both of which have effects when concrete is used in composite bridges. According to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) the creep can be handled by using a long term loading modular ratio n_L , for composite bridges, which can be calculated by using equation 3.2.

$$n_L = n_0(1 + \Psi_L \varphi(t, t_0)) \quad (3.2)$$

where,

n_0	is the modular ratio E_a/E_{cm} for short term loading;
E_{cm}	is the Young's modulus of the concrete for short term loading;
E_s	is the Young's modulus of the steel;
Ψ_L	is a load dependent creep multiplier taken as 1.1 for permanent loads, 0.55 for primary and secondary effects of shrinkage and 1.5 for prestressing by imposed deformations;
$\varphi(t, t_0)$	is the creep coefficient at time t for load applied at t_0 .

The creep coefficient, $\varphi(t, t_0)$, should be determined using methods presented in Annex B of SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005). The coefficient is dependent on time, load and moisture in the environment and can be calculated using equation 3.3.

$$\varphi(t, t_0) = \varphi_0 \cdot \beta_c(t, t_0) \quad (3.3)$$

where,

φ_0	is the notional creep coefficient;
$\beta_c(t, t_0)$	is a coefficient describing the creep development in time after loading.

The total effect of shrinkage consists of two components, drying and autogenous shrinkage. The drying shrinkage is a long process as it depends on water migrating from the concrete. While the autogenous shrinkage is a much faster response as it occurs when the concrete hardens, where the main effect happens during the days immediately after casting (SS-EN 1992-1-1, 2005). The total shrinkage strain is determined by equation 3.4.

$$\varepsilon_{cs} = \varepsilon_{cd} + \varepsilon_{ca} \quad (3.4)$$

where,

ε_{cs}	is the total strain due to shrinkage;
ε_{cd}	is the strain due to drying shrinkage;
ε_{ca}	is the strain due to autogenous shrinkage.

3.2.2 Carbon steel

TRVINFRA-00227 (2022) specifies no limitation on what grades of structural carbon steel that is allowed for design of bridges. However, it states that regardless of what steel is used it has to be designed for corrosion class C4. TRVINFRA-00227 (2022) also declares that a minimum steel thickness of 4 mm is allowed for design.

In SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) it is stated that the standards only cover use of structural carbon steel with a nominal yield strength lower than 460 MPa, and that material parameters should be taken in accordance with SS-EN 1993. Nominal yield and ultimate tensile strength for covered steel grades in accordance with SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) are presented in Table 3.3. Additional material parameters for the structural steel can be seen in Table 3.4.

Table 3.3: *Nominal yield and ultimate tensile strength of structural carbon steel (SS-EN 1993-1-1, 2022)*

Steel Grade	Nominal thickness of the element			
	t [mm]			
	$t \leq 40$ mm		$40 \text{ mm} < t \leq 80$ mm	
	f_y [N/mm ²]	f_u [N/mm ²]	f_y [N/mm ²]	f_u [N/mm ²]
S235	235	360	215	360
S275	275	390	245	370
S355	355	490	325	470
S420	420	510	390	490
S460	460	540	410	510

Table 3.4: *Additional material parameters of structural carbon steel (SS-EN 1993-1-1, 2022)*

Young's modulus, E	210 GPa
Poisson's ratio, ν	0.3
Shear modulus, G	81 GPa

Partial factors used for design of carbon steel structures and when they are applicable should be taken from TSFS 2018:57 (2018) according to TRVINFRA-00227 (2022) and can be seen in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: *Partial factors for structural carbon steel (TSFS 2018:57, 2018)*

Partial Factor	Description	Value
γ_{M0}	Resistance of cross-sections to excessive yielding including local buckling	1.0
γ_{M1}	Resistance of members to instability assessed by member checks	1.0
γ_{M2}	Resistance of cross-sections in tension to fracture	$\min \begin{cases} 0.9f_u/f_y \\ 1.1 \end{cases}$

3.2.2.1 Reinforcement steel

SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that material parameters for reinforcing carbon steel used in composite structures should be taken according to SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005) or SS-EN 1992-2 (2005) for ductility classification. SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005) declares that only carbon steel reinforcement with specified yield strength in the range of 400 to 600 MPa and that a partial factor γ_s equal to 1.15 should be used. Also it is recommended to use a Young's modulus of 200 GPa, but SS-EN 1994-2 (2005)

states that the same Young's modulus as the structural steel may be used for the reinforcement in design. SS-EN 1992-2 (2005) recommends that carbon reinforcement of ductility class B or C should be used to assure sufficient ductility.

3.2.2.2 Shear connectors

According to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) structural capacities of shear connectors should be taken from SS-EN 1993-1-8 (2005) which is listed in Table 3.6. For design the partial factor γ_V should be used as 1.25 for shear connections according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005).

Table 3.6: *Nominal yield and ultimate tensile strength for bolts and shear connectors (SS-EN 1993-1-8, 2005)*

Bolt class	4.6	4.8	5.6	5.8	6.8	8.8	10.9
$f_{yb}[MPa]$	240	320	300	400	480	640	900
$f_{ub}[MPa]$	400	400	500	500	600	800	1000

3.2.3 Stainless steel

SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) gives the design condition and parameters that is needed for design when stainless steel is used. On the contrary to structural carbon steel TRVINFR-00227 (2022) gives a limitation in what structural stainless steel grades that are allowed to be used in different corrosion classes. Stainless steels of grades 1.4462, 1.4529, 1.4539, 1.4410 and 1.4547 are allowed to be in corrosion category C5 without any protection while 1.4162, 1.4362, 1.4401, 1.4404, and 1.4571 are allowed for C4 without any protection. Partial factors allowed to use for structural stainless steel given by TSFS 2018:57 (2018) can be seen in Table 3.7. Nominal yield and ultimate tensile strength for structural stainless steel according to SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1 (2015) are presented in Table 3.8 and additional material parameters according to SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) can be seen in Table 3.9.

Table 3.7: *Partial factors for structural stainless steel (TSFS 2018:57, 2018)*

Partial Factor	Description	Value
γ_{M0}	Resistance of cross-sections to excessive yielding including local buckling	1.0
γ_{M1}	Resistance of members to instability assessed by member checks	1.0
γ_{M2}	Resistance of cross-sections in tension to fracture	1.2

Table 3.8: *Nominal yield and ultimate tensile strength for structural stainless steel (SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1, 2015)*

Type of stainless steel	Grade	Product form							
		Cold rolled strip		Hot rolled strip		Hot rolled plate		Bars, rods and sections	
		Nominal thickness t							
		$t \leq 8$ mm		$t \leq 13.5$ mm		$t \leq 75$ mm		$t \leq 250$ mm	
		f_y	f_u	f_y	f_u	f_y	f_u	f_y	f_u
MPa	MPa	MPa	MPa	MPa	MPa	MPa	MPa		
Ferritic steel	1.4003	280	450	280	450	250	450	260	450
	1.4016	260	450	240	450	240	430	240	400
	1.4512	210	380	210	380	—	—	—	—
Austenitic steel	1.4306	220	520	200	520	200	500	180	460
	1.4307							175	500
	1.4541							190	500
	1.4301	230	540	210	520	210	520	200	500
	1.4401	240	530	220	530	220	520		
	1.4404							230	530
	1.4539							200	500
	1.4571	240	540	220	540	220	520	200	500
	1.4432								
	1.4435								
	1.4311	290	550	270	550	270	550	270	550
	1.4406	300	580	280	580	280	580	280	580
	1.4439	290		270		270			
	1.4529	—	—	—	—	300	650	300	650
	1.4547	320	650	300	650				
1.4318	350	650	330	650	330	630	—	—	
Duplex steel	1.4062	530	700	480	680	450	650	380	650
	1.4162	530	700	480	680	450	650	450	650
	1.4482	500	700	480	660	450	650	400	650
	1.4662	550	750	550	750	480	680	450	650
	1.4362	450	650	400	650	400	630	400	600
	1.4462	500	700	460	700	460	640	450	650

Table 3.9: *Additional material parameters for structural stainless steel (SS-EN 1993-1-4, 2006)*

Young's modulus, E	200 GPa for all austenitic and duplex grades excluding 1.4539, 1.4529 and 1.4547 195 GPa for austenitic grades 1.4539, 1.4529 and 1.4547 220 GPa for ferritic grades
Poisson's ratio, ν	0.3
Shear modulus, G	$\frac{E}{2(1 + \nu)}$

3.2.3.1 Shear connectors

When using stainless steel beams, it is important to make all details such as fasteners, studs, bolts and cross-beams made of stainless steel as well to prevent the risk of forming a galvanic cell (SCI, 2018). Stainless steel bolts and studs are grouped based on what type of stainless steel they have and the chemical composition of the specific chosen material. Each group have a specific property class and strength depending on the production method used for the connector (SS-EN ISO 3506-1, 2020). Nominal yield strength and nominal ultimate tensile strength and grouping of the connectors can be seen in Table 3.10 according to SS-EN ISO 3506-1 (2020).

Table 3.10: *Grading and nominal yield strength and nominal ultimate tensile strengths of stainless steel bolts, screws and studs (SS-EN ISO 3506-1, 2020)*

Stainless steel grade		Property class	Production method	Yield strength [MPa]	Ultimate tensile strength [MPa]	
Austenitic	A1	50	Soft hot-pressed	210	500	
	A2	70	Cold-formed high strength	450	700	
	A3					
	A4	A5	50	Soft hot-pressed	210	500
			70	Cold-formed	450	700
			80	Cold-formed high strength	600	800
			100	Cold-formed high strength	800	1000
	A8	A8	70	Cold-formed	450	700
			80	Cold-formed high strength	600	800

		100	Cold-formed high strength	800	1000
Duplex	D2	70	Cold-formed	450	700
	D4	80	Cold-formed	600	800
	D6	100	Cold-formed	800	1000
	D8		high strength		
Martensitic	C1	50	Soft hot- pressed	250	500
		70	Quenched	410	700
		110	Quenched	820	1100
	C3	80	Quenched	640	800
	C4	50	Soft hot- pressed	250	500
		70	Quenched	410	700
Ferritic	F1	45	Soft hot- pressed	250	450
		60	Cold-formed	410	600

3.3 Design procedure

This section presents sectional checks, parameters and theories that are used for design of steel-concrete composite bridges according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005). SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that effects of action may be calculated by elastic analysis even while resistances of the cross-section is done by plastic or non-linear analysis.

3.3.1 Effective width of the concrete flange

Due to the shear lag effect in the concrete flange introduced by in plane shear, SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that an effective flange width should be used for design of steel-concrete composite bridges. The effective width of the concrete flange that is allowed to be used varies along the beam and is narrower at the support regions due to higher shear forces, this is illustrated in Figure 3.1. For elastic analysis, SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) declares that a constant effective width of $b_{eff,1}$, illustrated in Figure 3.1, may be used over the entire span for members supported at both ends. The effective width can be calculated according to equation 3.5.

$$b_{eff} = b_0 + \sum b_{ei} \quad (3.5)$$

where,

3. Design procedure used today

- b_0 is the distance between the centres of the outstanding shear connectors;
 b_{ei} is the effective width of the concrete flange on each side of the web and is taken as $L_e/8$, but not greater than b_1 ;
 b_1 is the geometrical width of the concrete flange and should be taken as the distance between the outstanding shear connectors and the mid-point to adjacent girder or free edge;
 L_e is the approximate distance between zero bending moment sections, for typical continuous composite beams and cantilevers it may be taken according to Figure 3.1.

The effective width at end supports may be determined according to equation 3.6.

$$b_{eff} = b_0 + \sum \beta_i b_{ei} \quad (3.6)$$

with,

$$\beta_i = (0.55 + 0.025L_e/b_{ei}) \leq 1.0 \quad (3.7)$$

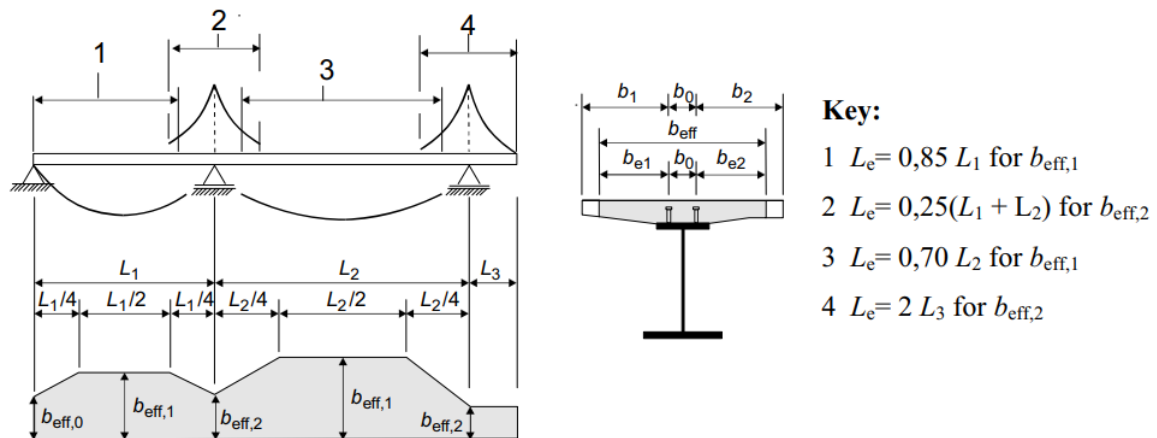


Figure 3.1: Illustration of equivalent spans and effective width of the concrete flange (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)

If the beam is in cross-section class 1 or 2 and have reinforcement bars in tension, the effective concrete flange should be provided with a minimum reinforcement area A_{re} (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005). The minimum area is calculated using equation 3.8.

$$A_{re} \geq \rho_s \cdot A_c \quad (3.8)$$

with,

$$\rho_s = \delta \frac{f_y}{235} \frac{f_{ctm}}{f_{sk}} \sqrt{k_c} \quad (3.9)$$

where,

A_c	is the area of the effective concrete flange;
f_y	is the nominal yield strength of the structural steel in MPa;
f_{sk}	is the characteristic yield strength of the reinforcement;
f_{ctm}	is the mean tensile strength of the concrete;
k_c	is a coefficient for the stress distribution prior to cracking, in this thesis conservatively set to 1;
ρ	is a coefficient equal to 1.0 for Class 2 and 1.1 for Class 1, in this thesis conservatively always used equal to 1.1.

3.3.2 Cross-section classification

Determining the cross-section class for a cross-section is vital for design of members that consist of steel elements that are subjected to compression, either pure compression or compression due to bending. The classes tell if the cross-section should be designed through plastic or elastic analysis and also check the risk for local buckling of the elements. Cross-sections in Class 1 and 2 develop full plastic bending resistance, in Class 3 develop elastic bending resistance and in Class 4 the cross-section are subjected to local buckling before full elastic capacity can be reached (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013). According to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) the cross-section classes for the steel parts in compression should be done according to SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) for carbon steel and SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) for stainless steel. The cross-section class of the beam is determined based on the steel element with the lowest cross-section class. The classification is based on the slenderness and material properties of the compressed part and therefore a reference factor, ε , that takes the material properties into account is used. The reference factor is different for carbon steel and stainless steel. Expressions for the two can be found in equation 3.10 for carbon steel and equation 3.11 for stainless steel.

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{\frac{235}{f_y}}, \quad \text{for carbon steel} \quad (3.10)$$

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{\frac{235}{f_y} \frac{E}{210000}}, \quad \text{for stainless steel} \quad (3.11)$$

where,

f_y	is the yield strength of the material in MPa;
E	is the Young's modulus of the material in MPa.

The checks and limitations for determining the cross-section class for internal and external compressed parts of carbon steel can be seen in Table A.1 and A.2 respectively and the same can be seen for stainless steel in Table A.3-A.6 in Appendix A.

For composite cross-sections, if the flange loaded in compression is connected to the concrete slab, it may be assumed to be in Class 1 if the shear connection is executed according to part 6.6.5.5 in SS-EN 1994-2 (2005). Beams with webs in cross-section

Class 3 may be considered as Class 2 if both the flanges are classified as either Class 1 or 2 according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005). Due to this, the most common cross-section classes for composite cross-section in sagging bending are Class 1 or Class 2. Since the compressed flange is connected to the concrete and only parts of the web will be loaded in compression (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013).

3.3.3 Cross-sectional constants

The composite cross-section is composed of a steel girder with either corrugated or flat web and the effective concrete slab, presented in section 3.3.1. The sectional constants are calculated by transforming the entire cross-section to an equivalent steel cross-section. This is performed by using the modular ratios n_L for long term loading and n_0 for short term loading for the concrete, see section 3.2.1.1. As stated before, according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) the contribution of the web should be neglected when designing a beam with a corrugated web in bending, hence the web is then not a part of the sectional constants. The cross-sectional area of a composite section is calculated according to equation 3.12 and the centre of gravity is calculated according to equation 3.15.

$$A_{tot} = A_s + \frac{A_c}{n_i} \quad (3.12)$$

with,

$$A_s = t_{fu} \cdot b_{fu} + t_{fl} \cdot b_{fl} + t_w \cdot h_w \quad (3.13)$$

$$A_c = b_{eff,1} \cdot t_c \quad (3.14)$$

where,

A_{tot}	is the total area of the composite cross-section;
A_s	is the area of the steel girder;
A_c	is the area of the effective concrete slab;
n_i	is the modular ratio for either long or short term;
t_{fu}	is the thickness of upper steel flange;
b_{fu}	is the width of the upper steel flange;
t_{fl}	is the thickness of the lower steel flange;
b_{fl}	is the width of the lower steel flange;
t_w	is the thickness of the steel web, $t_w=0$ for corrugated webs;
h_w	is the height of the steel web;
$b_{eff,1}$	is the effective width of the concrete flange;
t_c	is the thickness of the concrete slab.

$$z_{tp,tot} = \frac{A_s \cdot z_{tp,s} + \frac{A_c}{n_i} \cdot z_{tp,c}}{A_{tot}} \quad (3.15)$$

with,

$$z_{tp,s} = \frac{t_{fu} \cdot b_{fu} \cdot \left(\frac{t_{fu}}{2} + h_w + t_{fl}\right) + t_{fl} \cdot b_{fl} \cdot \frac{t_{fl}}{2} + h_w \cdot t_w \cdot \left(\frac{h_w}{2} + t_{fl}\right)}{A_s} \quad (3.16)$$

$$z_{tp,c} = \frac{t_c}{2} + t_{fu} + t_{fl} + h_w \quad (3.17)$$

where,

- $z_{tp,tot}$ is the centre of gravity for the total composite cross-section from the bottom flange of the steel girder;
- $z_{tp,s}$ is the centre of gravity of the steel girder from the bottom of the steel girder;
- $z_{tp,c}$ is the centre of gravity of the concrete flange from the bottom of the steel girder.

The static moment of the concrete slab is determined by using equation 3.18.

$$S_{1,i} = \frac{A_c}{n_i} \cdot (z_{tp,c} - z_{tp,tot}) \quad (3.18)$$

The moment of inertia of the composite cross-section around the strong axis (y-axis) is calculated according to equation 3.19.

$$I_{y,tot,i} = I_{y,s} + A_s \cdot (z_{tp,s} - z_{tp,tot})^2 + \frac{I_{y,c}}{n_i} + \frac{A_c}{n_i} \cdot (z_{tp,c} - z_{tp,tot})^2 \quad (3.19)$$

with,

$$I_{y,s} = \frac{b_{fu} \cdot t_{fu}^3}{12} + \frac{b_{fl} \cdot t_{fl}^3}{12} + \frac{t_w \cdot h_w^3}{12} + b_{fu} \cdot t_{fu} \cdot \left(\frac{t_{fu}}{2} + h_w + t_{fl} - z_{tp,s}\right)^2 + b_{fl} \cdot t_{fl} \cdot \left(\frac{t_{fl}}{2} - z_{tp,s}\right)^2 + t_w \cdot h_w \cdot \left(\frac{h_w}{2} + t_{fl} - z_{tp,s}\right)^2 \quad (3.20)$$

$$I_{y,c} = \frac{b_{eff,1} \cdot t_c^3}{12} \quad (3.21)$$

where,

- $I_{y,tot,i}$ is the moment of inertia of the composite cross-section;
- $I_{y,s}$ is the moment of inertia of the steel girder;
- $I_{y,c}$ is the moment of inertia of the concrete flange.

3.3.4 Effects of creep

For composite bridges the effect of creep is captured by the modular ratio described in section 3.2.1.1. The ratio varies over time to capture the stiffness reduction of the concrete. For statically determined systems, such as simply supported beams in

one span, the reduced concrete stiffness will lead to increased deflections and stress redistribution within the cross-section. As the steel will carry more load when the concrete loses stiffness (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013). This phenomenon is illustrated in Figure 3.2. As the concrete is loaded in compression and stay uncracked for these types of systems no change in internal forces will occur and hence secondary effect due to creep can be disregarded (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013).

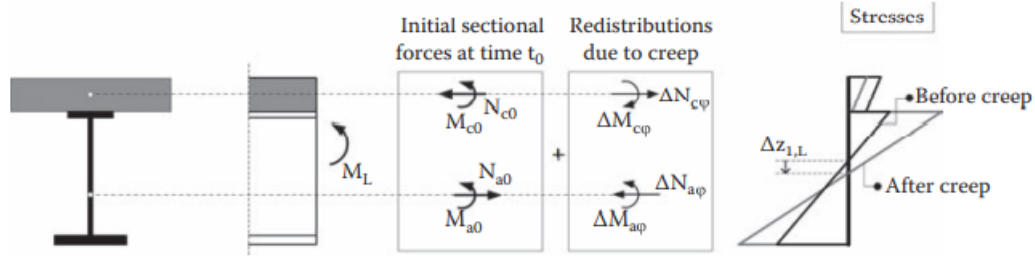


Figure 3.2: *Stress redistribution due to creep for composite bridges (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013)*

3.3.5 Effects of shrinkage

Shrinkage will result in a shortening of the concrete flange, see section 3.2.1.1. The shear connectors will prevent the shortening, hence, introduce a tension force in the gravity centre of the concrete. This results in a balancing compression force and moment in the composite section (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013). The introduced force and moment due to the concrete shrinkage are calculated according to equation 3.22 and 3.23, and illustrated in Figure 3.3.

$$N_{sh} = -\varepsilon_{cs} \cdot \frac{n_0}{n_s} \cdot E_{cm} \cdot A_c \quad (3.22)$$

$$M_{sh} = N_{sh} \cdot (z_{tp,tot} - z_{tp,c}) \quad (3.23)$$

where,

- N_{sh} is the shrinkage force;
- ε_{cs} is the shrinkage strain, see section 3.2.1.1;
- n_0 is the short term modular ratio, see section 3.2.1.1;
- n_s is the long term modular ratio for shrinkage, see section 3.2.1.1;
- E_{cm} is the mean elasticity of concrete;
- A_c is the effective cross-section area of the concrete, see equation 3.3.1;
- M_{sh} is the moment caused by the shrinkage force;
- $z_{tp,tot}$ is the centre of gravity of the composite section from the bottom of the steel girder, see equation 3.15;
- $z_{tp,c}$ is the centre of gravity of the concrete flange from the bottom of the steel girder, see equation 3.17.

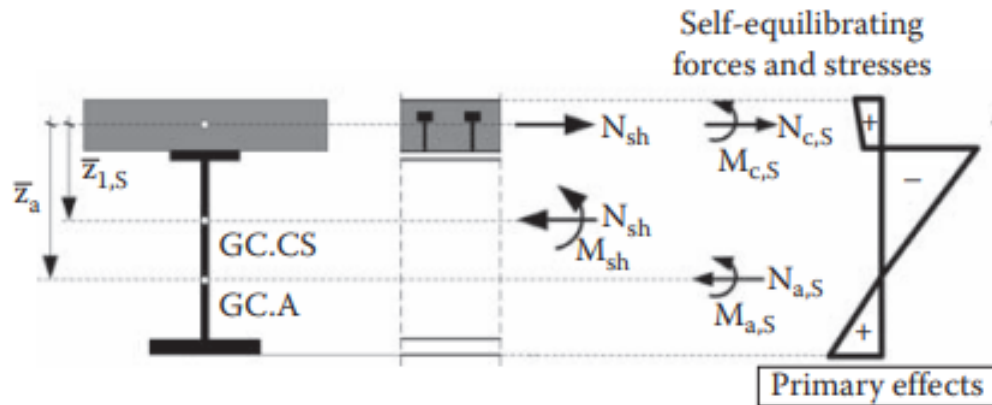


Figure 3.3: Primary effects due to shrinkage (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013)

The resulting force and moment are the primary effects of shrinkage, as for the effect of creep only the primary effects of shrinkage have to be considered for design of statically determined structures (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013).

3.3.6 Design of shear connectors

The shear connectors together with the transverse reinforcement are designed to transfer the longitudinal shear forces, without considering the natural bond between them (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005). The connection should also prevent separation of the concrete and steel while having a sufficient deformation capacity to justify any inelastic redistribution. SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that if the connector have a characteristic slip capacity δ_{uk} of at least 6 mm, the connector may be considered as ductile.

3.3.6.1 Dimension and spacing of headed studs

Headed studs can have multiple shapes, sizes and orientation in order to fulfil the requirement stated before. SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) gives a few limitations and recommendations on both dimension and spacing of the headed studs. A headed stud is illustrated in Figure 3.4 and limitations of the stud dimensions according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) are presented in Table 3.11.

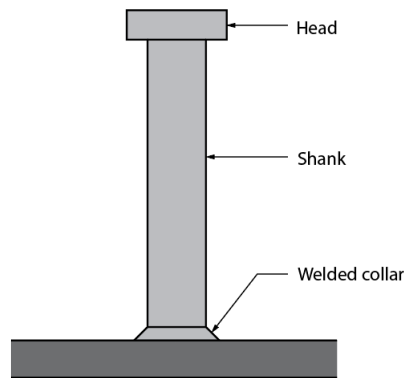


Figure 3.4: Illustration of a headed stud

Table 3.11: Dimensions of headed studs with limitations (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)

Index	Description	Limitation
d_{stud}	Diameter of the stud shank	$d_{stud} \leq 2.5t_{fu}$ if not placed directly over the web
h_{stud}	Total length of the stud	$h_{stud} \geq 3d_{stud}$
d_{head}	Diameter of the stud head	$d_{head} \geq 1.5d_{stud}$
t_{head}	Thickness of the stud head	$t_{head} \geq 0.4d_{stud}$

The spacing of the studs and detailing of the shear connections for solid concrete slabs are illustrated in Figure 3.5 and presented in Table 3.12 according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005)

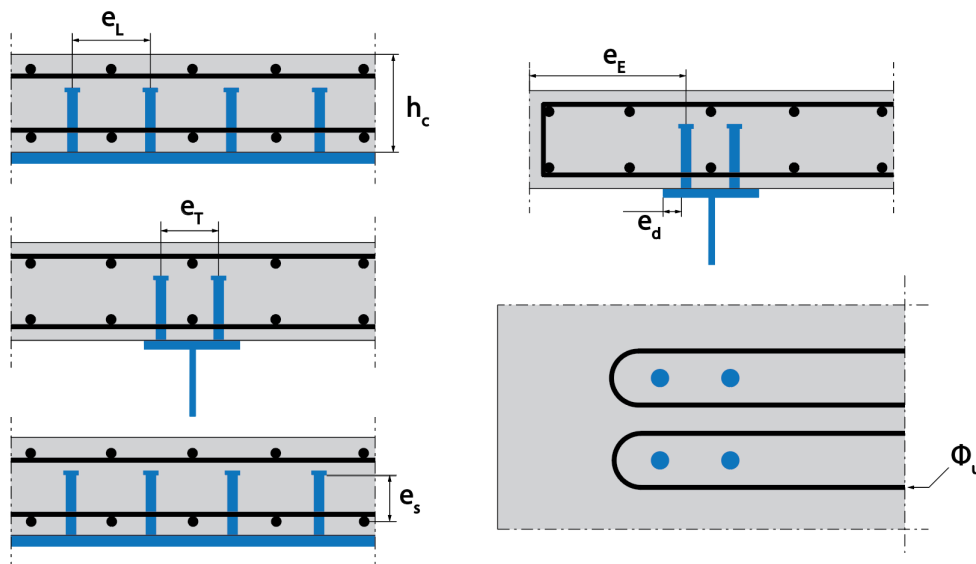


Figure 3.5: Spacing and detailing of headed stud shear connection, redrawn from (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013)

Table 3.12: *Spacing and detailing of headed stud shear connections (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)*

Index	Description	Limitation
e_L	Longitudinal spacing	$5d_{stud} \geq e_L \leq \min\{4h_c, 800mm\}$
e_T	Transverse spacing	$e_T \geq 2.5d_{stud}$
e_d	Distance from stud edge to edge of the steel flange	$e_d \geq 25mm$
e_s	Distance from bottom of stud head to lower layer of reinforcement	$e_s \geq 30mm$
e_E	Distance from centre of the stud to edge of the concrete slab	$e_E \geq 300mm$

If the upper steel flange is classified to Class 3 or 4 but taken as Class 1 or 2 due to the shear connection, e_L and e_d should be maximum $22 \cdot t_{fu} \sqrt{235/f_y}$ and $22 \cdot t_{fu} \sqrt{235/f_y}$ respectively (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005). Additionally, if the e_E is less than 300 mm additional u-bars have to be provided around the studs of a minimum $0.5d_{stud}$ in diameter. The shear studs should also be placed closer than $6d_{stud}$ from the concrete edge to prevent splitting.

3.3.6.2 Shear capacity of a headed stud

The shear capacity of a stud is designed according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) with the equations 3.24 and 3.25 where the capacity should be taken as the smallest of the two. Equation 3.24 refers to shear failure of the stud and equation 3.25 refers to crushing failure of the concrete around the stud shank.

$$P_{Rd} = \frac{0.8 \cdot f_u \cdot \pi \cdot d_{stud}^2}{4 \cdot \gamma_V} \quad (3.24)$$

$$P_{Rd} = \frac{0.29 \cdot \alpha \cdot d_{stud}^2 \sqrt{f_{ck} \cdot E_{cm}}}{\gamma_V} \quad (3.25)$$

with,

$$\alpha = \begin{cases} 0.2 \left(\frac{h_{stud}}{d_{stud}} + 1 \right) & \text{for } 3 \leq h_{stud}/d_{stud} \leq 4 \\ 1 & \text{for } h_{stud}/d_{stud} > 4 \end{cases} \quad (3.26)$$

where,

f_u	is the ultimate tensile strength of the stud material, but not greater than 500 MPa;
d_{stud}	is the shank diameter of the stud, $16 \text{ mm} \leq d_{stud} \leq 25 \text{ mm}$;
γ_V	is the partial factor for design of studs, recommended value is 1.25;
f_{ck}	is the characteristic cylinder compressive capacity of the concrete at considered age, with density greater than 1750 kg/m^3 ;
E_{cm}	is the Young's modulus of the concrete;
h_{stud}	is the height of the stud.

The total shear capacity against longitudinal shear is determined according to equation 3.27. The longitudinal shear is an effect of the transverse shear forces acting on the cross-section, and for an elastic analysis the relation between the two is presented in equation 3.28 (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013).

$$V_{L,Rd} = \frac{P_{Rd} \cdot n}{e_L} \quad (3.27)$$

where,

$V_{L,Rd}$	is the capacity of the headed stud connection for longitudinal shear;
P_{Rd}	is the shear capacity of an individual headed stud, see equation 3.21 and 3.22;
n	is the number of studs in one cross-section;
e_L	is the longitudinal spacing of the studs, see section 3.3.6.1.

$$V_{L,Ed} = \frac{V_{Ed} \cdot S}{I} \quad (3.28)$$

where,

$V_{L,Ed}$	is the resulting longitudinal shear force;
V_{Ed}	is the transverse shear force;
$S = S_{1,i}$	is the static moment of the concrete slab, see section 3.3.3;
$I = I_{y,tot,i}$	is the moment of inertia of the composite structure, see section 3.3.3.

3.3.6.3 Shear capacity of the concrete slab

In addition to design of the shear connectors, the concrete slab and transverse reinforcement should be designed to prevent failure and splitting of the concrete slab due to longitudinal shear according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005). The shear failure can occur in different places in the concrete slab and the different shear planes are illustrated in Figure 3.6.

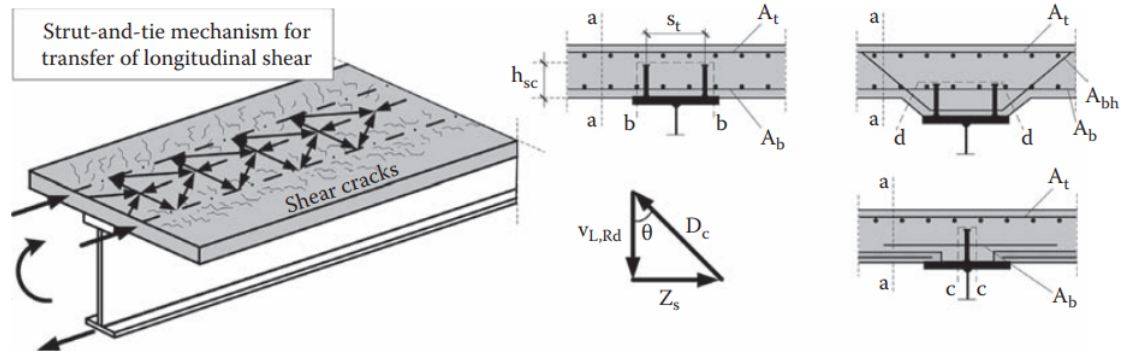


Figure 3.6: Failure modes due to longitudinal shear for the concrete slab (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013)

The shear flow acting in section a-a when the concrete flange is in compression may be taken according to equation 3.29, the rest of the sections should be design for the same shear flow as a the headed studs, $V_{L,Ed}$.

$$V_{Lc,Ed} = V_{L,Ed} \frac{A_{cp,eff}}{A_{c,tot,eff}} \quad (3.29)$$

where,

- $V_{Lc,Ed}$ is the longitudinal shear acting in section a-a;
- $V_{L,Ed}$ is the longitudinal shear acting in the shear connection, see equation 3.28;
- $A_{cp,eff}$ is the area of the concrete cut by section a-a;
- $A_{c,tot,eff}$ is the total effective area of the concrete slab, see section 3.3.1.

A strut and tie mechanism is formed in the concrete slab to carry the longitudinal shear, illustrated in Figure 3.6. The resistance of the compression strut in concrete is calculated with equation 3.30 and the capacity of the tensile ties of reinforcement is calculated with equation 3.32.

$$V_{c,Rd} = v \cdot f_{cd} \cdot L_v \cdot \frac{1}{\cot(\theta) + \cot(\theta)^{-1}} \quad (3.30)$$

with,

$$v = 0.6 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{f_{ck}}{250}\right) \quad (3.31)$$

where,

$V_{c,Rd}$	is the crushing capacity of the concrete strut;
v	is the reduction factor of concrete cracked in shear;
f_{cd}	is the design compression capacity of the concrete;
L_v	is the length of the shear failure section, presented in Table 3.13;
θ	is the angle of the compression strut, taken as $1.0 \leq \cot(\theta) \leq 2.5$ (TSFS 2018:57, 2018);
f_{ck}	is the characteristic compression capacity of the concrete.

$$V_{s,Rd} = \frac{A_{sf}}{s_f} \cdot f_{sd} \cdot \cot(\theta) \quad (3.32)$$

where,

$V_{s,Rd}$	is the capacity of the reinforcement ties;
A_{sf}/s_f	is the the effective transverse reinforcement per unit length, see Table 3.14;
f_{sd}	is the ultimate design capacity of the reinforcement.

Table 3.13: *Length of the longitudinal shear failure sections (Vayas & Iliopoulos, 2013)*

Section	L_v
a-a	t_c
b-b	$2 \cdot h_{stud} + e_T + d_{head}$
c-c	$2 \cdot h_{stud} + d_{head}$

Table 3.14: *Effective transverse reinforcement per unit length for different shear failure section (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)*

Section	A_{sf}/s_f
a-a	$A_b + A_t$
b-b	$2A_b$
c-c	$2A_b$

Additionally minimum transverse reinforcement ratio should be provided in accordance with TSFS 2018:57 (2018). The ratio is calculated using equation 3.33.

$$\rho_w = (0.10 + 0.05h/b_w) \quad (3.33)$$

3.3.7 Bending capacity

SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) presents three different methods for calculating the bending capacity of a steel-concrete composite bridge. The methods are based on rigid-plastic theory, elastic theory and non-linear theory, where the two later can be used

for all cross-sections while rigid-plastic theory only is allowed for cross-sections in Class 1 or 2. For all methods the tensile strength of the concrete is neglected and the cross-section is assumed to remain plane in bending, if the shear connection is well designed (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005).

3.3.7.1 Plastic bending capacity

When calculating the plastic bending capacity of a composite cross-section, full interaction between the steel girder, concrete flange and steel reinforcement is assumed. The steel girder and reinforcement are assumed to have their respective yield strengths, f_{yd} and f_{sd} in either tension or compression. For sagging bending the contribution of the reinforcement may be neglected when calculating the bending moment capacity. The compressed concrete is taken as a block with a stress of 0.85 times the design cylinder concrete compression strength, f_{cd} , from the top of the concrete to the neutral axis. An example of a plastic stress distribution in a composite cross-section in sagging bending can be seen in Figure 3.7.

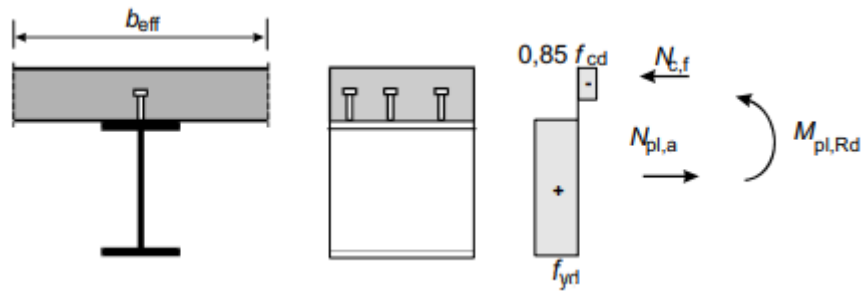


Figure 3.7: Example of a plastic stress distribution for a composite cross-section in sagging bending (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)

When steel girders of class S420 or S460 is used, the plastic bending capacity should be reduced with a factor β if the ratio of the distance between the top of the concrete slab and the neutral axis is greater than 0.15. If it the ratio exceeds 0.4, the bending moment capacity should be determined via either non-linear or elastic analysis (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005). An example of a plastic stress distribution and a graph for determining the reduction factor β can be seen in Figure 3.8.

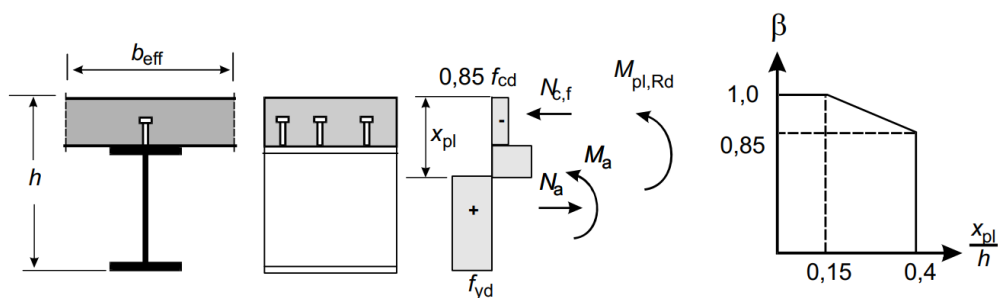


Figure 3.8: Example of a plastic stress distribution and reduction factor β for high strength steel and cross-section with deep neutral axis (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)

If the section is loaded in a combination of bending moments and vertical shear, the plastic bending capacity should be re-evaluated if the vertical shear V_{Ed} exceeds 50% of the shear resistance V_{Rd} . If the cross-section is in Class 1 or 2 the plastic bending capacity should be determined with a reduced yield strength of the steel in the areas loaded in shear, according to equation 3.34. An example of this can be seen in Figure 3.9. If the cross-section instead would be in Class 3 or 4 the plastic bending moment capacity should be determined with equation 3.36. The shear capacity should be taken as the smallest of the vertical shear capacity and the shear buckling resistance. These can be determined according to SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) and SS-EN 1993-1-5 (2006) respectively when carbon steel is used and SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) for the vertical shear capacity when stainless steel is used.

$$f_{yd,red} = (1 - \rho) f_{yd} \quad (3.34)$$

with,

$$\rho = (2 \cdot V_{Ed}/V_{Rd} - 1)^2 \quad (3.35)$$

where,

- $f_{yd,red}$ is the reduced design yield strength of the structural steel;
- f_{yd} is the design yield strength of the structural steel;
- V_{Ed} is the vertical shear acting in the cross-section;
- V_{Rd} is the vertical shear resistance of the cross-section.

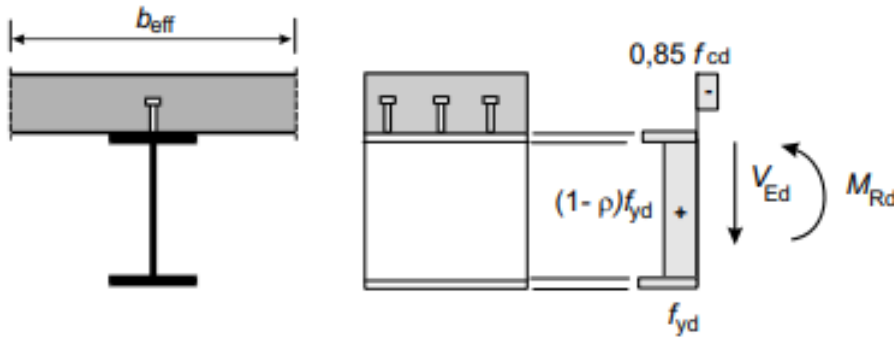


Figure 3.9: Example of a plastic bending distribution adjusted due the effect of vertical shear for a cross-section in Class 1 or 2 (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)

$$\bar{\eta}_1 + \left(1 - \frac{M_{f,Rd}}{M_{pl,Rd}}\right) \cdot (2\bar{\eta}_3 - 1)^2 \leq 1.0 \quad \text{for } \bar{\eta}_1 \geq \frac{M_{f,Rd}}{M_{pl,Rd}} \quad (3.36)$$

with,

$$\bar{\eta}_1 = \frac{M_{Ed}}{M_{pl,Rd}} \quad (3.37)$$

$$\bar{\eta}_3 = \frac{V_{Ed}}{V_{bw,Rd}} \quad (3.38)$$

where,

$M_{f,Rd}$	is the design plastic moment capacity of the effective flanges;
$M_{pl,Rd}$	is the design plastic moment capacity of the effective cross-section with the whole web regardless of its section class;
M_{Ed}	is the bending moment acting in the cross-section;
V_{Ed}	is the vertical shear acting in the cross-section;
$V_{bw,Rd}$	is the design vertical shear buckling resistance of the web.

3.3.7.2 Non-linear bending capacity

When determining the non-linear bending capacity of a composite cross-section SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that the stress-strain curves for each included material should be considered. The strain in the bonded reinforcement should also be taken as the mean strain in the surrounding concrete, both when in tension and compression. The stress-strain curve for the compressed concrete should be taken from section 3.1.7 in SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005) and the bi-linear stress-strain curve for the reinforcement steel should be taken according to section 3.2.7 in SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005). The bi-linear stress-strain for the structural steel should be taken according to section 7.3.3(4) in SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) considering the method of construction.

SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) give a simplified method that can be used for determining the non-linear bending capacity for a cross-section in Class 1 or 2 by considering the compressive force acting on the concrete N_c . The bending capacity is calculated according to equation 3.39 and 3.40 and illustrated in Figure 3.10 for propped and unpropped construction method.

$$M_{Rd} = M_{a,Ed} + (M_{el,Rd} - M_{a,Ed}) \frac{N_c}{N_{c,el}} \quad \text{for } N_c \leq N_{c,el} \quad (3.39)$$

$$M_{Rd} = M_{el,Ed} + (M_{pl,Rd} - M_{el,Ed}) \frac{N_c - N_{c,el}}{N_{c,f} N_{c,el}} \quad \text{for } N_{c,el} \leq N_c \leq N_{c,f} \quad (3.40)$$

with,

$$M_{el,Rc} = M_{a,Ed} + k \cdot M_{c,Ed} \quad (3.41)$$

where,

M_{Rd}	is the design non-linear moment capacity of the composite cross-section;
$M_{a,Ed}$	is the design bending moment applied to the structural steel before composite action is established;
$M_{el,Rd}$	is the design elastic moment capacity of the composite cross-section;
N_c	is the compressive force acting on the concrete;
$N_{c,el}$	is the compressive force acting on the concrete corresponding to the moment $M_{el,Rd}$;
$M_{pl,Rd}$	is the design plastic moment capacity of the composite cross-section;
$N_{c,f}$	is the compressive force acting on the concrete corresponding to the moment $M_{pl,Rd}$;
k	is a factor used to accommodate the maximum stresses in the composite cross-section for elastic bending capacity, see section 3.3.7.3.

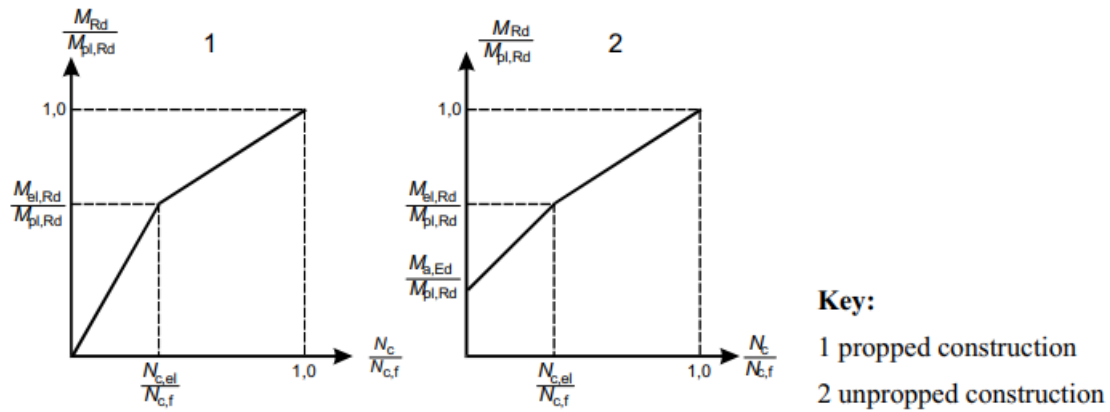


Figure 3.10: Simplified non-linear bending capacity relation for propped and unpropped construction (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)

3.3.7.3 Elastic bending capacity

When determining the elastic bending capacity of a composite cross-section according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005), the effective dimensions of the concrete slab and the steel parts in cross-section class 4 should be used. The effects of creep should be handled with modular ratios presented in section 3.2.1.1 and additionally steel flanges in compression should be checked against lateral-torsional buckling. Stresses in the loaded parts should be limited to the design yield capacity of the material of said part. That means f_{yd} for the structural steel, f_{cd} for the concrete in compression and f_{sd} for the reinforcement.

3.3.7.4 Lateral-torsional buckling

Lateral-torsional buckling may develop in steel-concrete composite beams and have to be handled in accordance with SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022). SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) states that the a steel flange connected to a laterally stiff concrete flange with shear connections may be considered laterally stable. For cross-sections in Class 1, 2 or 3 the resulting capacity against lateral-torsional buckling should be determined using equation 3.42.

$$M_{b,Rd} = \chi_{LT} \cdot M_{Rd} \quad (3.42)$$

where,

- $M_{b,Rd}$ is the design moment capacity against lateral-torsional buckling;
- χ_{LT} is the reduction factor for lateral-torsional buckling, determined according to SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022);
- M_{Rd} is the design moment capacity of the composite section.

For sections where the top steel flange is connected to the concrete flange, the lower steel flange is laterally restrained and the web stiffened at supports. The elastic critical moment may be determined based on the "continuous inverted-U frame"

model. The U-frame model is based on applying a rotational stiffness k_s per unit length at the level of the top steel flange of a lone beam, illustrated in Figure 3.11. The rotational stiffness k_s is calculated according to equation 3.43.

$$k_s = \frac{k_1 \cdot k_2}{k_1 + k_2} \tag{3.43}$$

with,

$$k_1 = \alpha E_a \cdot I_2 / a \tag{3.44}$$

$$k_2 = \frac{E_a t_w^3}{4(1 - \nu_a^3) h_s} \tag{3.45}$$

where,

- k_s is the rotational stiffness per unit length along the top steel flange;
- k_1 is the flexural stiffness of the cracked concrete slab in the direction transverse to the steel girder;
- k_2 is the flexural stiffness of the steel web;
- α is $\begin{cases} 2 & \text{for and edge beam} \\ 3 & \text{for and inner beam} \\ 4 & \text{for and inner beam with four or more similar beams} \end{cases}$
- $E_a \cdot I_2$ is the "cracked" flexural stiffness per unit length of the concrete, defined in section 1.5.2.12 in SS-EN 1994-2 (2005);
- a is the spacing between parallel beams;
- t_w is the thickness of the steel web;
- ν_a is the Poisson's ratio of the steel;
- h_s is the total height of the steel girder.

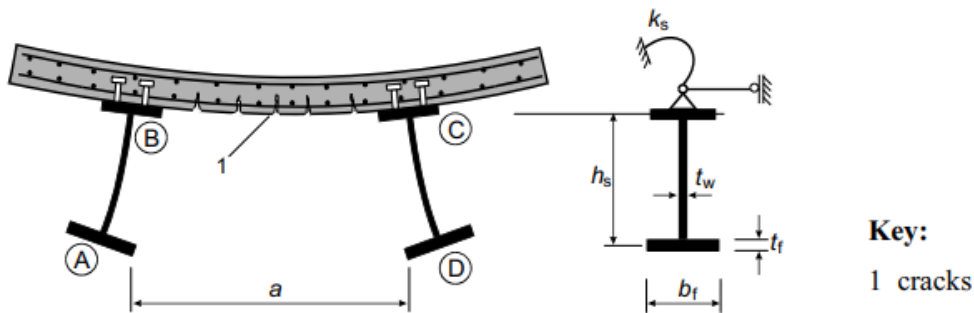


Figure 6.10: U-frame model

Figure 3.11: *Illustration of the U-frame model (SS-EN 1994-2, 2005)*

3.3.8 Shear buckling

In addition to the local and lateral torsional buckling the web have to be checked and designed for shear buckling according to SS-EN 1993-1-5 (2006). For stiffened flat webs the check for shear buckling is done by considering the web as an equivalent

3. Design procedure used today

orthotropic plate. If the equation 3.46 is fulfilled the stiffened flat web can be assumed to be prevented from shear buckling.

$$\frac{h_w}{t_w} \leq \frac{31}{\eta} \varepsilon \sqrt{k_\tau} \quad (3.46)$$

with,

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{\frac{235}{f_y} \frac{E}{210}} \quad (3.47)$$

$$\begin{aligned} k_\tau &= 5.34 + 4.0 \left(\frac{h_w}{a} \right)^2 + k_{\tau sl} \quad \text{when } a/h_w \geq 1 \\ k_\tau &= 4.0 + 5.34 \left(\frac{h_w}{a} \right)^2 + k_{\tau sl} \quad \text{when } a/h_w < 1 \end{aligned} \quad (3.48)$$

where,

- h_w is the height of the web;
- t_w is the thickness of the web;
- η is a coefficient, recommended to be taken as 1.2 for steel grades up to S460 and 1.0 for higher grades;
- a is the distance between the vertical stiffeners;
- $k_{\tau sl}$ is a coefficient set to 0 as simplification.

For corrugated webs the shear buckling is handled by the corrugated web itself instead of using stiffeners. SS-EN 1993-1-5 (2006) covers two different types of web shear buckling, local and global. Where the local buckling is buckling in a fold of the corrugated web and global buckling is buckling in the web as a whole. The shear buckling is handled by calculating a reduced shear capacity of the web using equation 3.49.

$$V_{Rd} = \chi_c \frac{f_{yw}}{\gamma_{M1} \sqrt{3}} h_w t_w \quad (3.49)$$

where,

- χ_c is the shear buckling reduction factor taken as the smallest of $\chi_{c,l}$ and $\chi_{c,g}$;
- f_{yw} is the nominal yield strength of the structural steel in the web;
- γ_{M1} is the partial factor for structural steel, see section 3.2.2 and 3.2.3.

The reduction factors for the local ($\chi_{c,l}$) and global ($\chi_{c,g}$) web shear buckling are determined by using equation 3.50 and 3.53 respectively.

$$\chi_{c,l} = \frac{1.15}{0.9 + \bar{\lambda}_{c,l}} \leq 1.0 \quad (3.50)$$

with,

$$\bar{\lambda}_{c,l} = \sqrt{\frac{f_y}{\tau_{cr,l} \sqrt{3}}} \quad (3.51)$$

$$\tau_{cr,l} = 4.83E \left(\frac{t_w}{a_{max}} \right)^2 \quad (3.52)$$

where,

a_{max} is the larger of the length of the flat (a_1) and inclined (a_2) folds in the corrugated web, see Figure 2.4.

$$\chi_{c,g} = \frac{1.5}{0.5 + \bar{\lambda}_{c,g}^2} \leq 1.0 \quad (3.53)$$

with,

$$\bar{\lambda}_{c,g} = \sqrt{\frac{f_y}{\tau_{cr,g} \sqrt{3}}} \quad (3.54)$$

$$\tau_{cr,g} = \frac{32.4}{t_w h_w^2} \sqrt[4]{D_x D_z^3} \quad (3.55)$$

$$D_x = \frac{Et_w^3}{12(1 - \nu_a^2)} \frac{w}{s} \quad (3.56)$$

$$D_z = \frac{EI_z}{w} \quad (3.57)$$

where,

- ν_a is the Poisson's ratio for the structural steel in the web;
- w is the longitudinal length of half a wavelength of the corrugation, see Figure 2.4;
- s is the actual length of half a wavelength of the corrugation, see Figure 2.4;
- I_z is the moment of inertia of half a wavelength of the corrugation like illustrated in Figure 4.1.

4

Recent research

Current standards suggest analytical solutions for stainless steel-concrete composite beams with corrugated webs that are highly conservative. Ongoing research are developing methods to utilize the significant plastic capacity of stainless steel and the bending capacity of the corrugated webs. This chapter presents these important material or geometrical properties and also the methods taking the effects into account.

4.1 Corrugated webs

With full-scale experiments together with an analytical study, Elamary et al. (2017) aimed to define the flexural capacity for conventional I-beams with both corrugated and flat webs. Four different test specimen was fabricated with corrugated and flat webs, different flange compactness and with similar geometrical parameters to get comparable results. The study concluded that a steel beam with a corrugated web has a flexural strength 10-20% lower than a beam with a flat web. A finite element model built up of shell elements was analysed to simulate and to verify the results from the four-point bending experiments. The material mechanical properties were taken directly from tension coupon tests from each experimental beam and then used for the finite element model. This verification comparison resulted in a similar and satisfactory result.

Elamary et al. (2017) continued by studying the behaviour for steel-concrete composite beams with corrugated webs. Experimental measures showed how the corrugated web affected the flexural capacity and behaviour of the beam.

An analytical limit state nominal moment capacity was calculated using current standard code practice for the tested beams to compare with the experimental results. The capacities were calculated on the basis of partial shear connection while considering the full thickness of the corrugated web. However, the moment capacity was reduced by multiplying the tensile force in the steel with 0.85. The calculation gave a nominal moment capacity of 84.3 kNm which was 95% of the experimental maximum moment. Elamary et al. (2017) then concluded that the flexural capacity reduction from a corrugated web compared to a flat web can be the same for both steel beams and steel-concrete composite beams.

4.1.1 Accordion effect

The lower flexural capacity from a corrugated web is directly connected to the accordion effect. The accordion effect is the high longitudinal flexibility that emerges depending on the corrugation geometry. Axial stresses will therefore easily contract or stretch the element, which is why previous studies and design codes suggest that the flexural capacity from the web is negligible and can be disregarded. In order to avoid such conservative assumptions, Inaam and Upadhyay (2022) studied the accordion effect for beams with trapezoidal corrugated webs and laterally restrained compact flanges. The numerically based study proposed a new approach that considers a reduced web thickness instead of completely neglecting it. This applied participation factor parameter can give material and economical savings as a result of a better bending capacity in design.

Inaam and Upadhyay (2022) introduced an initial theoretical test together with a numerical analysis in order to conclude how different corrugations profiles will provide different axial rigidity. The theoretical element can be seen in Figure 4.1 and correspond to half of a corrugation wavelength. The stretching or contracting deformation from an axial force can be derived from Castigliano's Second Theorem together for half a wavelength which leads to the equation 4.1.

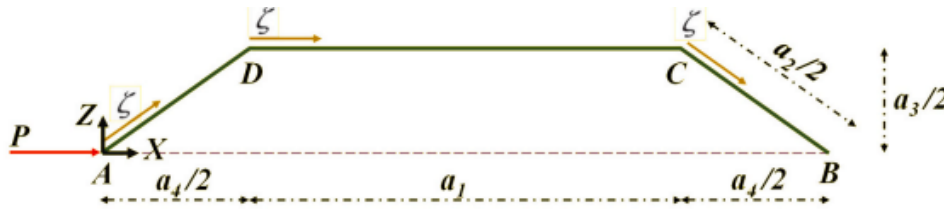


Figure 4.1: Corrugated steel web unit for analytical calculation (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022)

$$\delta = 2n \cdot \frac{P \cdot (a_1 + a_4)}{A \cdot E} \quad (4.1)$$

where,

- δ is the axial deformation of the corrugated web;
- a_1 is the length of the longitudinal corrugation fold;
- a_4 is the longitudinal length of the inclined corrugation fold;
- n is the number of corrugation wavelength halves;
- P is the applied axial force;
- A is the sectional area;
- E is the Young's modulus.

The numerical part of the corrugation profile investigation is shown in Figure 4.2 with geometry, applied load and the numerical results. The stress intensity from the axial load is noticeably lower for the inclined corrugation folds compared to the

longitudinal folds. As a result of the longitudinal folds' eccentricity from the middle axis, the inclined folds are also subjected to a rotational moment in addition to a minor axial stress. Three corrugation profiles with the same span length were studied and the resulting deformations can be seen in Table 4.1, with these results it was concluded that a coarse corrugation will have less longitudinal stiffness compared to a dense corrugation (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022).

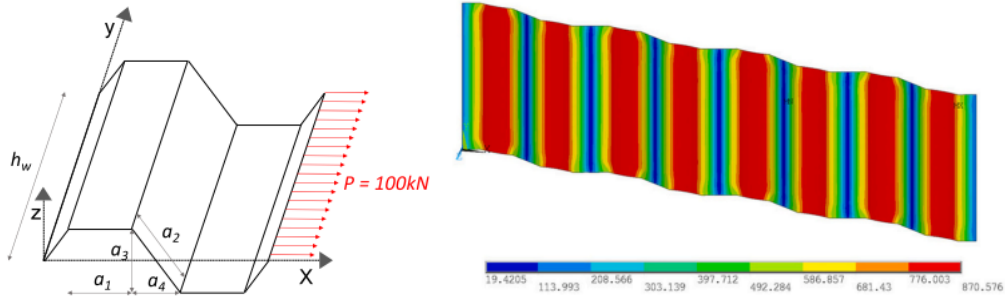


Figure 4.2: Applied axial load and the resulting stress intensity in the corrugated web (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022)

Table 4.1: Theoretical and numerical results for trapezoidal corrugated webs with axial loading (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022)

Type	Fold width (a_1)	Axial Extension [mm]			(b)/(a)
		Plane web Theoretical (a)	CSW Theoretical (b)	CSW Numerical	
CSW-1	75	0.24	20.06	18.36	84.67
CSW-2	150	0.24	79.59	72.60	335.87
CSW-3	300	0.24	317.68	290.89	1340.68

4.1.2 Web participation

With a geometrical investigation from a numerical study of the accordion effect, Inaam and Upadhyay (2022) introduced a web participation ratio expressed as $t_{w,eff}/t_w$ with the effective web thickness $t_{w,eff}$ that can contribute to the flexural resistance, in addition to the flanges. When the total moment capacity is known from a numerical analysis, the effective web thickness can be calculated via equations 4.2 and 4.3.

$$t_{w,eff} = \frac{4 \cdot (Z_{num} - b_f \cdot t_f \cdot (h_w + t_f))}{h_w^2} \quad (4.2)$$

with,

$$Z_{num} = \frac{M_{num}}{f_y} \quad (4.3)$$

where,

M_{num}	is the total moment resistance from a numerical analysis;
f_y	is the yield strength of the material;
b_f	is the flange width;
t_f	is the flange thickness;
h_w	is the web height.

From the tests included in the study by Inaam and Upadhyay (2022), it was concluded that some geometrical parameters had a higher impact on the effective web participation ratio than others. These parameters and their effects are as follows:

- The corrugation angle (α) highly influence the web profile and may also affect if the flanges classes as compact or not. With a lower angle, the beam will act more like a conventional flat web beam with no accordion effect. Thus, higher angles will lead to a worse flexural capacity.
- The flange width and thickness both have a significant affect on the moment capacity. However, a change of flange width will still result in roughly the same accordion behaviour and therefore, the same web participation ratio. A flange thickness increase on the other hand will significantly raise the web participation.
- The web height, thickness and corrugation geometry are shown to affect the accordion behaviour. With increased web height, the web participation for flexural resistance will decrease, and the opposite for the thickness. A thicker web will increase the web participation.
- The web slenderness ratio (h_w/t_w) is also relevant for the web participation. A more slender web will result in a higher accordion effect, thus, a decrease in web participation ratio.

The corrugation geometry is shown to have a vast influence on the accordion effect and thus, a dimensionless parameter is needed to quantify it. This is when the enclosing effect can be utilized, see equation 4.4. However, the enclosing effect cannot be used independently to determine the accordion effect. Both the flange width and the corrugation angle are needed in conjunction to the enclosing effect to not get multiple resulting values. Inaam and Upadhyay (2022) defines a supplementary parameter, the outstand ratio seen in equation 4.5, which considers both the flange width and the corrugation angle. With the experimental data, it was noticed that the outstand ratio had a substantial influence on the accordion effect, and therefore, also the web participation. The outstand ratio is simply the long flange outstand divided with the short flange outstand and is further simplified and derived to the equation 4.5.

$$R = \frac{(a_1 + a_4) \cdot a_3}{(a_1 + 2a_4) \cdot b_f} \quad (4.4)$$

$$O = \frac{b_f + a_3}{b_f - a_3} \quad (4.5)$$

where,

R	is the enclosing effect
O	is the outstand ratio
a_1	is the length of the longitudinal flat corrugation fold;
a_3	is the corrugation width;
a_4	is the longitudinal length of the inclined corrugation fold;
b_f	is the flange width.

It was observed from the numerical study that roughly 92% of the tests have a web participation factor above 0.1 where the total average was 0.184. It was therefore concluded that a web participation factor up to 30% can be utilized in design for moment resistance capacity calculation for trapezoidal corrugated beams. What factor that can be used for each specific case is determined based on the parameters outstand ration, enclosing effect and the slenderness. The limits for the different parameters and the applicable ratio of web participation can be seen in Table 4.2 (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022).

Table 4.2: *Geometrical conditions and limits for partial web participation (Inaam & Upadhyay, 2022)*

$t_{w,eff}/t_w$	h_w/t_w	R	O
0.1	≤ 150	< 0.18	≤ 1.6
0.2	≤ 125	< 0.13	≤ 1.2
0.3	≤ 90	< 0.09	≤ 1.1

4.2 Stainless steel

The use of stainless steel in construction have increased rapidly in the last few years due to an increased desire for sustainable structures. Stainless steel is used because of its great material properties and resistances against fire, corrosion and fatigue. As stainless steel does not need any protection against corrosion, it has been shown that the life cycle cost can be lower for stainless steel structures compared to similar structures with carbon steel. The increased use has also led to an increased interest in the usability and behaviour of stainless steel in the latter years (Shamass & Cashell, 2019).

4.2.1 Design of stainless steel members

The current procedure for design of stainless steel structures is based on the concept of cross-section classification presented in SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006). The current standards are derived on limited testing of stainless steel structures and based on the elastic-plastic behaviour of carbon steel (Afshan & Gardner, 2013). This is however not the behaviour that can be observed for stainless steel. Stainless steel shows a

highly non-linear behaviour early in the stress-strain relationship and also a substantial strain hardening prior to failure (Shamass & Cashell, 2019).

Afshan and Gardner (2013) evaluated the current design method given by SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) by comparing the ultimate bending capacities of 65 tested stainless steel beams. The test results were normalized with the plastic bending capacity of the beams and plotted against the slenderness of the cross-sections shown in Figure 4.3. The comparison shows that design codes given by SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) predicts conservative capacities all over the slenderness spectrum, specially for stocky cross-sections.

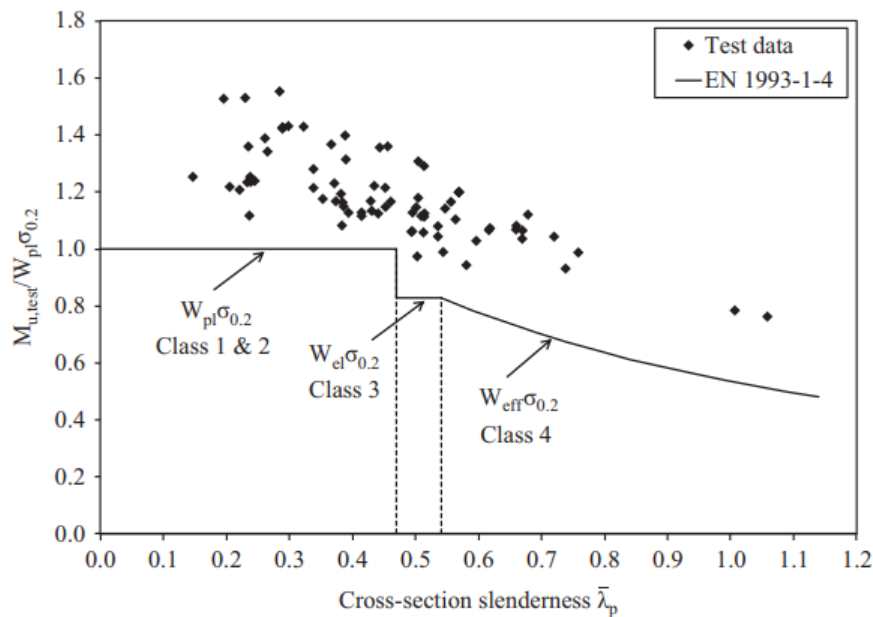


Figure 4.3: Comparison of bending capacity of 65 tested beams and design methods by SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) (Afshan & Gardner, 2013)

4.2.1.1 New design models for stainless steel

Afshan and Gardner (2013) proceeded to construct a new design method called the continuous strength method (CSM) to predict the effects and capacities due to strain hardening. The CSM considers the slenderness and deformation capacity of the cross-section as well as the non-linear behaviour of the stainless steel. It was compared to the test results and values determined by methods given by SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) as shown in Figure 4.4. The comparison showed that the CSM gives a more accurate mean resistance as well as less scattered results than SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) (Afshan & Gardner, 2013).

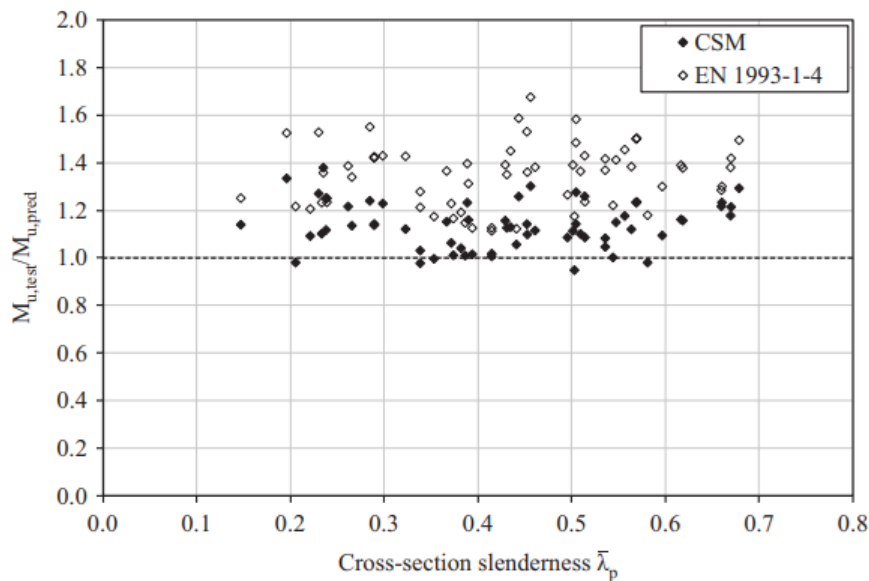


Figure 4.4: Comparison of bending capacity of 65 tested beams with SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) and CSM predictions (Afshan & Gardner, 2013)

For design of composite bridges of stainless steel and concrete SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) gives similar guidelines of using the cross-section classification and limiting the plastic capacities to a rigid-plastic analysis. This completely neglects the effect of strain hardening that may occur and hence, gives conservative results when using highly ductile materials such as stainless steel (Shamass & Cashell, 2019).

Shamass and Cashell (2019) developed the CSM and came up with a new analytical method that considers the effect of strain hardening for stainless steel-concrete composite bridges. The new method can be used for any type of steel material as long as an appropriate material model can be provided. The method provides two different models that can be used to predict the bending capacity of the composite bridge, one detailed and one simplified model.

The material model for the steel used by Shamass and Cashell (2019) is one derived in a previous study by Abdella (2006). The most common and previously used model for modelling the non-linear stress-strain relation of a steel is the Ramberg-Osgood model. The main disadvantage with the Ramberg-Osgood model is that it is an highly non-linear and implicit function that is hard and time consuming to use in practice (Abdella, 2006). Abdella (2006) derived a closed-form inversion of the Ramberg-Osgood model that could be used to relate the stress directly to the strain of the steel over the entire stress range of the steel. A two parted expression of the full-range stress-strain curve for steel was created based on the power law assumption. The expressions were validated against the fully iterated numerical solutions of the full-range stress-strain curves. The comparison was done for 15 different materials and showed that the inversion expressions came extraordinarily close to the numerical solutions with maximum divergence of 10% (Abdella, 2006).

The prediction method presented by Shamass and Cashell (2019) was developed with the assumption that the neutral axis is located in the concrete, that there is negligible slip between the concrete and steel girder due to the shear connectors and that the effect of the reinforcement is ignored. The strain distribution and resulting stress distribution in the cross-section for the detailed model can be seen in Figure 4.5.

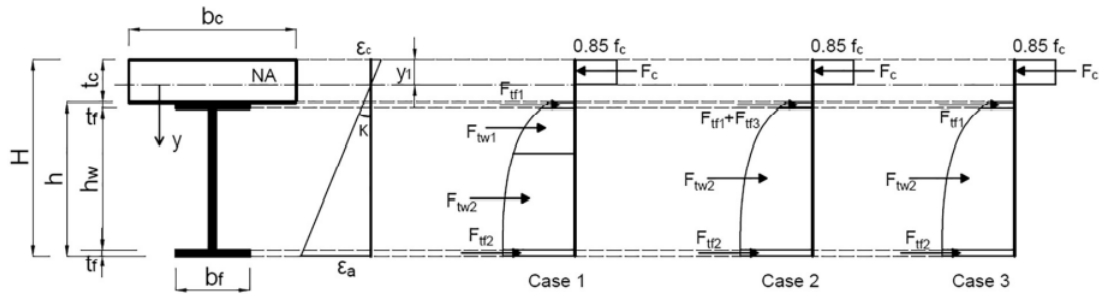


Figure 4.5: Strain and stress distribution for the detailed CSM model (Shamass & Cashell, 2019)

The model consists of three different cases depending on the location of $y_{0,2}$, where the steel strain equals the yield-strain of the steel. Case 1 is when $y_{0,2}$ is located in the steel web, case 2 is when $y_{0,2}$ is located in the upper steel flange and case 3 is when $y_{0,2}$ is located in the concrete slab. The internal forces and moments needed for calculating the bending moment capacity for the different cases and how they are calculated can be seen in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Internal forces and moments for the detailed CSM model (Shamass & Cashell, 2019)

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
F_C	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot y_1$	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot y_1$	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot y_1$
M_C	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot \frac{y_1^2}{2}$	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot \frac{y_1^2}{2}$	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot \frac{y_1^2}{2}$
F_{tf1}	$\int_{t_c - y_1}^{t_c - y_1 + t_f} b_f \sigma_1(\varepsilon) dy$	$\int_{t_c - y_1}^{y_{0,2}} b_f \sigma_1(\varepsilon) dy$	$\int_{t_c - y_1}^{t_c - y_1 + t_f} b_f \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$
M_{tf1}	$\int_{t_c - y_1}^{t_c - y_1 + t_f} b_f \sigma_1(\varepsilon) y dy$	$\int_{t_c - y_1}^{y_{0,2}} b_f \sigma_1(\varepsilon) y dy$	$\int_{t_c - y_1}^{t_c - y_1 + t_f} b_f \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$

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F_{tf2}	$\int_{H-t_f-y_1}^{H-y_1} b_f \sigma_1(\varepsilon) dy$	$\int_{H-t_f-y_1}^{H-y_1} b_f \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$	$\int_{H-t_f-y_1}^{H-y_1} b_f \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$
M_{tf2}	$\int_{H-t_f-y_1}^{H-y_1} b_f \sigma_1(\varepsilon) y dy$	$\int_{H-t_f-y_1}^{H-y_1} b_f \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$	$\int_{H-t_f-y_1}^{H-y_1} b_f \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$
F_{tf3}	-----	$\int_{y_{0.2}}^{t_c-y_1-t_f} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$	-----
M_{tf3}	-----	$\int_{y_{0.2}}^{t_c-y_1-t_f} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$	-----
F_{tw1}	$\int_{t_c-y_1-t_f}^{y_{0.2}} t_w \sigma_1(\varepsilon) dy$	-----	-----
M_{tw1}	$\int_{t_c-y_1-t_f}^{y_{0.2}} t_w \sigma_1(\varepsilon) y dy$	-----	-----
F_{tw2}	$\int_{y_{0.2}}^{H-t_f-y_1} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$	$\int_{t_c-y_1+t_f}^{H-t_f-y_1} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$	$\int_{t_c-y_1+t_f}^{H-t_f-y_1} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) dy$
M_{tw2}	$\int_{y_{0.2}}^{H-t_f-y_1} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$	$\int_{t_c-y_1+t_f}^{H-t_f-y_1} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$	$\int_{t_c-y_1+t_f}^{H-t_f-y_1} t_w \sigma_2(\varepsilon) y dy$

The main drawback with the detailed model is that it is time consuming as the capacity is determined by the influence of each element in the cross-section and requires integration to find the force in each element. Thus, Shamass and Cashell (2019) developed a simplified model. The main assumption of the simplified model is that the entire steel section is stressed to a constant level of σ_m that is defined by the stress at 60 % of the steel beam height (Shamass & Cashell, 2019). The stain and resulting stress distribution for the simplified model can be seen in Figure 4.6.

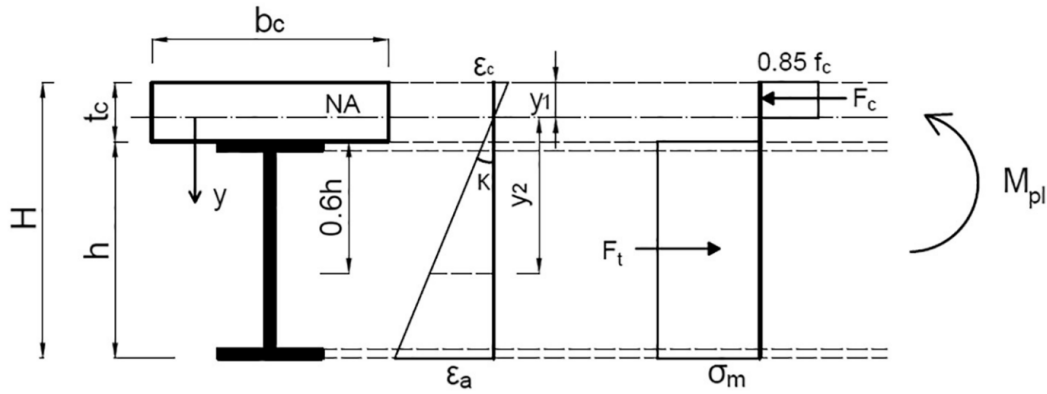


Figure 4.6: Strain and stress distribution for the simplified model (Shamass & Cashell, 2019)

The plastic bending capacity for a steel-concrete cross-section using the simplified method is calculated by finding the location of the distributed stress, σ_m , illustrated in Figure 4.6. The location is calculated according to equation 4.6.

$$y_2 = t_c + 0.6h - y_1 \quad (4.6)$$

where,

- y_2 is the distance between the neutral axis and σ_m ;
- t_c is the thickness of the concrete slab;
- h is the height of the steel girder;
- y_1 is the location of the neutral axis from the top of the composite cross-section.

Then location of the neutral axis is determined by setting up an equilibrium of the horizontal forces and solving for y_1 according to 4.7 and 4.8.

$$F_c = F_t \Rightarrow f_c \cdot y_1 \cdot b_c = A_s \sigma_m \quad (4.7)$$

$$y_1 = \frac{A_s}{0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c} \sigma_m \quad (4.8)$$

where,

- F_c is the balancing compressive force acting in the cross-section;
- F_t is the balancing tensile force acting in the cross-section;
- f_c is the compressive strength of the concrete;
- b_c is the width of the effective concrete slab;
- A_s is the cross-sectional area of the steel girder.

In order to calculate σ_m the strain ε_2 in position y_2 have to be determined first. ε_2 can be calculated using equation 4.9 and 4.10.

$$\varepsilon_2 = \kappa \cdot y_2 \quad (4.9)$$

$$\kappa = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \kappa_c = \frac{\varepsilon_{cu}}{y_1} \\ \kappa_a = \frac{\varepsilon_u}{H - y_1} \end{array} \right. \quad (4.10)$$

where,

- κ is the curvature due to bending in the cross-section;
- ε_{cu} is the ultimate strain for the concrete;
- H is the total height of the cross-section, including both the steel girder and concrete flange;
- ε_u is the ultimate strain for the steel.

When ε_2 is known σ_m can be determined using inversion model of the steel mentioned in this section according to equation 4.11 or 4.12 depending on if the steel has yielded or not.

$$\sigma_m = \sigma_{0.2} \frac{r \left(\frac{\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_{0.2}} \right)}{1 + (r - 1) \left(\frac{\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_{0.2}} \right)^p} \quad \text{for } \varepsilon_2 \leq \varepsilon_{0.2} \quad (4.11)$$

$$\sigma_m = \sigma_{0.2} \left(1 + \frac{r_2 \left(\frac{\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_{0.2}} - 1 \right)}{1 + (r^* - 1) \left(\frac{\frac{\varepsilon_2}{\varepsilon_{0.2}} - 1}{\frac{\varepsilon_{0.2}}{\varepsilon_u} - 1} \right)^{p^*}} \right) \quad \text{for } \varepsilon_2 \geq \varepsilon_{0.2} \quad (4.12)$$

where,

- $\sigma_{0.2}$ is the 0.2% proof strength of the steel;
- $\varepsilon_{0.2}$ is the actual strain at 0.2% proof strength of the steel.

The rest of the parameters for the material models can be calculated according to equations 4.13-4.25.

$$\varepsilon_{0.2} = \frac{\sigma_{0.2}}{E} + 0.002 \quad (4.13)$$

$$r = \frac{E \cdot \varepsilon_{0.2}}{\sigma_{0.2}} \quad (4.14)$$

$$p = r \frac{1 - r_2}{r - 1} \quad (4.15)$$

$$r_2 = \frac{E_2 \cdot \varepsilon_{0.2}}{\sigma_{0.2}} \quad (4.16)$$

$$E_2 = \frac{E}{1 + 0.002n/e} \quad (4.17)$$

$$e = \frac{\sigma_{0.2}}{E} \quad (4.18)$$

$$r^* = \frac{E_2(\varepsilon_u - \varepsilon_{0.2})}{\sigma_u - \sigma_{0.2}} \quad (4.19)$$

$$\varepsilon_u = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 - \frac{\sigma_{0.2}}{\sigma_u} \\ A \end{array} \right. \quad (4.20)$$

$$p^* = r^* \frac{1 - r_u}{r^* - 1} \quad (4.21)$$

$$r_u = \frac{E_u(\varepsilon_u - \varepsilon_{0.2})}{\sigma_u - \sigma_{0.2}} \quad (4.22)$$

$$E_u = \frac{E_2}{1 + (r^* - 1)m} \quad (4.23)$$

$$m = 1 + 3.5 \frac{\sigma_{0.2}}{\sigma_u} \quad (4.24)$$

$$\sigma_u = \sigma_{0.2} \frac{1 - 0.0375(n - 5)}{0.2 + 185e} \quad (4.25)$$

where,

- A is the elongation of the steel after fracture;
- n is the strain hardening exponent;
- E_2 is the inclination of the stress-strain curve at $\varepsilon_{0.2}$;
- E_u is the inclination of the stress-strain curve at ε_u .

The other parameters r , r_2 , r^* , r_u , p and p^* are ones that need to be calculated to derive the full-range stress-strain curve of the steel. The elongation of the steel after fracture A and the strain hardening exponent n are both material parameters that are listed in Eurocode. The elongation of the steel after fracture can be found for most grades in SS-EN 10088-2 (2019), values of the elongation for the grades covered by SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1 (2015) can be found in Table 4.6. According to SCI (2018), the values and equations presented in Eurocode are based on low number of tests and not completely accurate. SCI (2018) presents a new table and equation of the strain hardening exponent that is to be incorporated in a future edition of the Eurocode standard. The table and equation for the strain hardening exponent covered in SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) can be seen in Table 4.4 and equation 4.26. And

the new recommendations by SCI (2018) can be seen in Table 4.5 and equation 4.27.

$$n = \frac{\ln(20)}{\ln(f_y/R_{p0.01})} \quad (4.26)$$

$$n = \frac{\ln(4)}{\ln(f_y/R_{p0.05})} \quad (4.27)$$

where,

$R_{p0.01}$ is the 0.01 % proof stress.

$R_{p0.05}$ is the 0.05 % proof stress.

Table 4.4: Values of the strain hardening exponent, n (SS-EN 1993-1-4, 2006)

Steel grade	Coefficient n	
	Longitudinal direction	Transverse direction
1.4003	7	11
1.4016	6	14
1.4512	9	16
1.4301	6	8
1.4306		
1.4307		
1.4318		
1.4541		
1.4401	7	9
1.4404		
1.4432		
1.4435		
1.4539		
1.4571		
1.4462	5	5
1.4362		

Table 4.5: Values of the strain hardening exponent, n (SCI, 2018)

Steel type	Coefficient n
Ferritic	14
Austenitic	7
Duplex	8

Table 4.6: *Values of the elongation after fracture, A (SS-EN 10088-2, 2019)*

Steel grade	Product form	Coefficient A	
		Nominal thickness t	
		$t < 3$ mm	$t \geq 3$ mm
1.4003	C	20	20
	H		
	P	18	18
1.4016	C	20	20
	H	18	18
	P	20	20
1.4512	C	25	25
	H		
1.4306	C	45	45
	H		
	P		
1.4307	C	45	45
	H		
	P		
1.4541	C	40	40
	H		
	P		
1.4301	C	45	45
	H		
	P		
1.4401	C	40	40
	H	45	45
	P		
1.4404	C	40	40
	H	45	45
	P		
1.4539	C	35	35
	H		
	P		
1.4571	C	40	40
	H		
	P		
1.4432	C	40	40
	H	45	45
	P		
1.4435	C	40	40
	H	45	45
	P		
1.4311	C	40	40
	H		
	P		

1.4406	C	40	40
	H		
	P		
1.4439	C	35	35
	H		
	P	40	40
1.4529	P	40	40
1.4547	C	35	35
	H		
	P	40	40
1.4318	C	35	40
	H		
	P	45	45
1.4062	C	20	20
	H	30	30
	P		
1.4162	C	20	30
	H	30	
	P		
1.4482	C	20	30
	H	30	
	P		
1.4662	C	20	25
	H	–	
	P		
1.4362	C	20	20
	H	25	25
	P		
1.4462	C	20	20
	H	25	25
	P		

C = Cold rolled strip; H = Hot rolled strip;
P = Hot rolled plate

SCI (2018) also presents new equations for calculating the parameters m and ε_u that will be included in a upcoming edition of the Eurocode standard. The new equations for m and ε_u can be seen in equations 4.28 and 4.29.

$$m = 1 + 2.8 \frac{\sigma_{02}}{\sigma_u} \quad (4.28)$$

$$\varepsilon_u = \min \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1 - \frac{\sigma_{02}}{\sigma_u} \\ 0.6 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{\sigma_{02}}{\sigma_u} \right) \\ A \end{array} \right. \quad (4.29)$$

Once all the parameters, stresses and strains are determined the plastic moment capacity can then be calculated using the equation 4.30.

$$M_{pl} = \sigma_m \cdot A_s(H - h/2 - y_1/2) \quad (4.30)$$

Shamass and Cashell (2019) compared the results given by the derived method with results from non-linear finite element analysis for two different models for six different grades of stainless-steel. The comparison showed that the method performed well, always predicting the ultimate strength within 5% of the ones computed in the FE analysis. Both the detailed and simplified models were tested, and both showed similar results, the simplified model were within 2% of the detailed model for all cases. Hence, Shamass and Cashell (2019) concluded that the simplified model was accurate and can be used to predict the ultimate bending capacity of stainless steel-concrete composite bridges.

4.2.2 Experimental testing

Zhou et al. (2021) performed a study where the response in shear and bending of stainless steel-concrete composite beams was analysed by experimental, analytic and numerical testing. In the study, eighteen beams with various shear connections and loading setups were analysed, where eight of them were tested in bending. The variations of the eight beams tested in bending can be seen in Table 4.7 and the geometry and configuration of the tests can be seen in Figure 4.7.

Table 4.7: *Details for the beam specimen used in experimental testing (Zhou et al., 2021)*

Specimen	Steel material	L_e [m]	a [m]	Loading method	Connector type	Connection degree
CSSB1-BF	LD2101	5.8	2	FPL	Bolt	Full
CSSB2-SF	LD2101	5.8	2	FPL	Stud	Full
CSSB3-BP	LD2101	5.8	2	FPL	Bolt	Partial
CSSB4-SP	LD2101	5.8	2	FPL	Stud	Partial
CSSB5-BF	A304	5.8	2	FPL	Bolt	Full
CSSB6-BF	D2205	5.8	2	FPL	Bolt	Full
CSSB7-BF	LD2101	2	1	TPL	Bolt	Full
CSSB8-SF	LD2101	2	1	TPL	Stud	Full

FPL: Four-point loading; TPL: Three point loading

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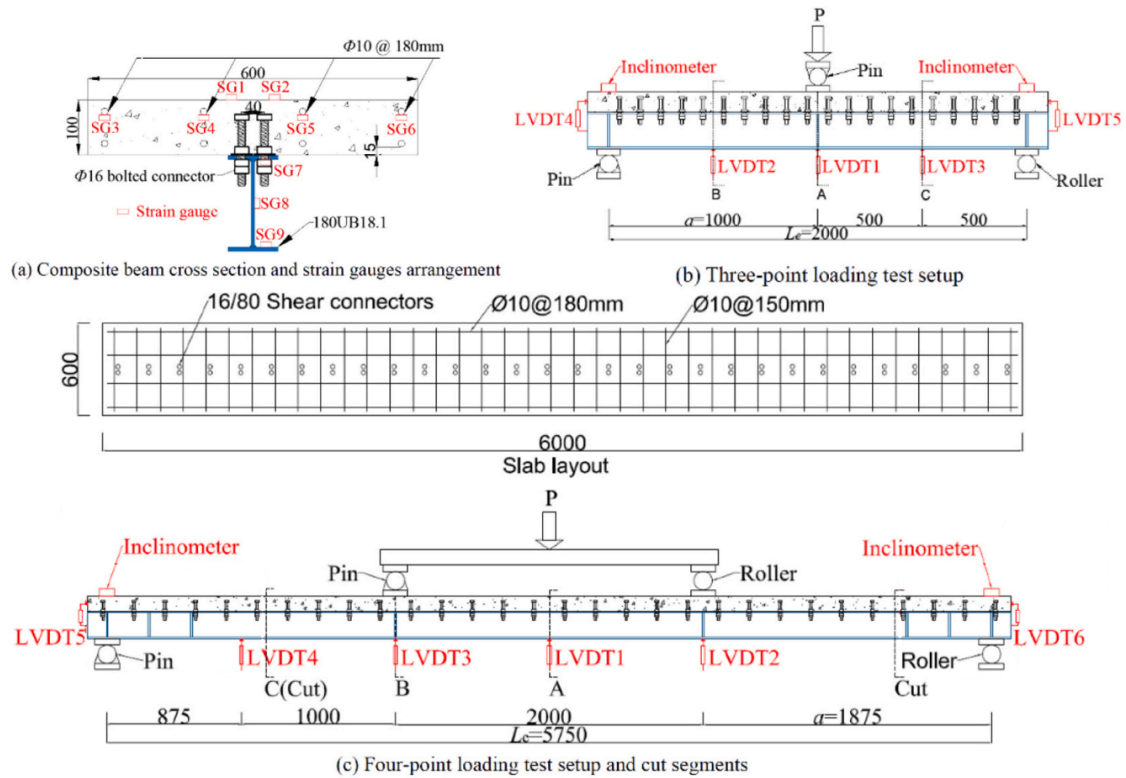


Figure 4.7: Configuration and geometry of the experimental bending tests (Zhou et al., 2021)

The resulting moment-displacement curves from the experimental test of the eight specimens can be seen in Figure 4.8. The moment capacities were then compared to values calculated with analytical methods. Three analytical models were used, the first was a rigid-plastic model given by SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) and the other two were the detailed and simplified model by Shamass and Cashell (2019) presented in section 4.2.1.1. The results from the test and the three methods can be seen in Table 4.8.

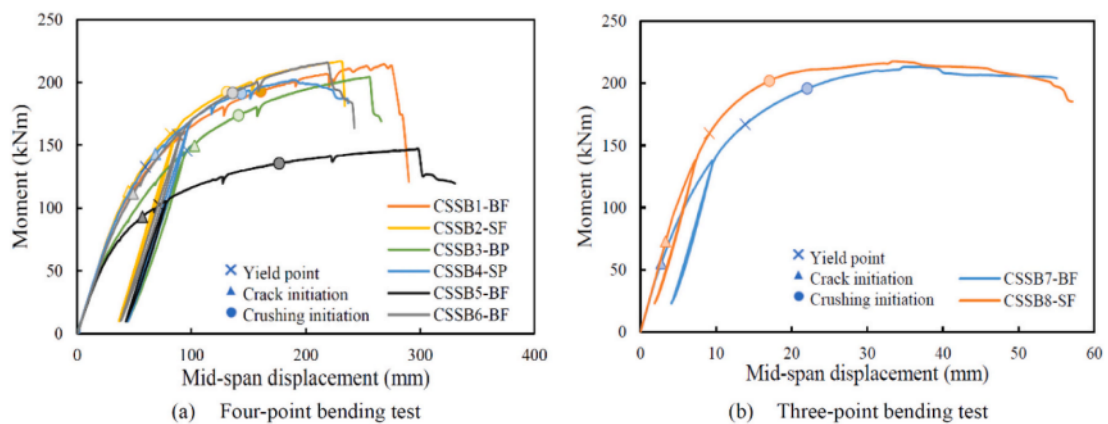


Figure 4.8: Moment-displacement curves for the tested specimens (Zhou et al., 2021)

Table 4.8: *Moment capacities from testing and analytical models (Zhou et al., 2021)*

Beam	M_u [kNm]	M_{EC} [kNm]	M_u/M_{EC}	$M_{SHA,D}$ [kNm]	$M_u/M_{SHA,D}$	$M_{SHA,S}$ [kNm]	$M_u/M_{SHA,S}$
CSSB1-BF	204	177	115%	190	107%	190	108%
CSSB2-SF	206	177	116%	190	109%	190	109%
CSSB3-BP	194	170	114%	175	111%	175	111%
CSSB4-SP	192	165	116%	170	113%	170	113%
CSSB5-BF	139	118	118%	126	110%	125	112%
CSSB6-BF	205	177	115%	190	108%	190	108%
CSSB7-BF	213	175	122%	190	112%	190	112%
CSSB8-SF	218	175	124%	190	115%	190	115%

As seen in Figure 4.8 the beams show remarkable strain hardening and high level of ductility beyond the yield-point. The strain hardening effect can also be seen in the results presented in Table 4.8 where the capacity given by SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) is between 14-24 % lower than the measured result. The improved models presented by Shamass and Cashell (2019) does however improve the estimation substantially as they take the underestimation to 7-15 % compared to the tests. It can also be observed that both the detailed and simplified models yield similar results and only using the simplified method is sufficient.

4.3 Finite element modelling of steel-concrete composite bridges

Ali and Abudaher (2022) performed a master's thesis where a method of how to model steel-concrete composite bridges was adopted and evaluated. The method was created for handling bridges with both flat and corrugated webs of carbon or stainless steel. It was validated against multiple experimental tests and the FE method perform and showed good agreement with the test results. From the results Ali and Abudaher (2022) observed that the level of strain hardening activation was larger for the beams with corrugated webs compared to the ones with flat webs. The reason for this was concluded to be the increased flexibility and ductility given by the corrugated webs.

5

Design tool development

This chapter will cover how the design tool should be used, what it covers and what different design choices can be made and what they entail. The tool is built up in multiple Python modules linked together, all Python modules can be found in Appendix E. The tool is made up of a set of equations and algorithms that computes the ultimate plastic moment capacity based on the geometry and materials of the beam.

5.1 Design tool structure

The design tool is built up in three parts, the first one being the main tool where all inputs and choices should be stated. The second part is a library of equations that is used in the main tool to perform all necessary calculations and the third is a library of material properties from Eurocode standards for the different materials. The structure of the tool is illustrated in Figure 5.1.

5.1.1 Inputs

The tool requires a number of user defined geometrical and material inputs in order to calculate the plastic moment capacity, these are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: *User defined inputs needed for the design tool*

Cross-section geometry	
$b_{fu}, t_{fu}, b_{fl}, t_{fl}, h_w, t_w$ & t_c	Presented in section 3.3.3
Corrugation geometry for corrugated web	
α, a_1 & a_3	Presented in section 2.2
Global geometry	
L, b_1 & b_2	Presented in section 3.3.1
Used materials	
Material types and grades eg. C35/45, S355, 1.4162	Presented in section 3.2

The defined cross-sectional inputs are used to calculate and derive the rest of the values and dimension of the cross-section, such as total height and areas. The corrugation values are used to derive the rest of the corrugation geometry and the global geometry values are used for calculating the effective width of the concrete

for the beam. The material inputs are used to gather material constants from the library implemented in the tool taken from Eurocode standards.

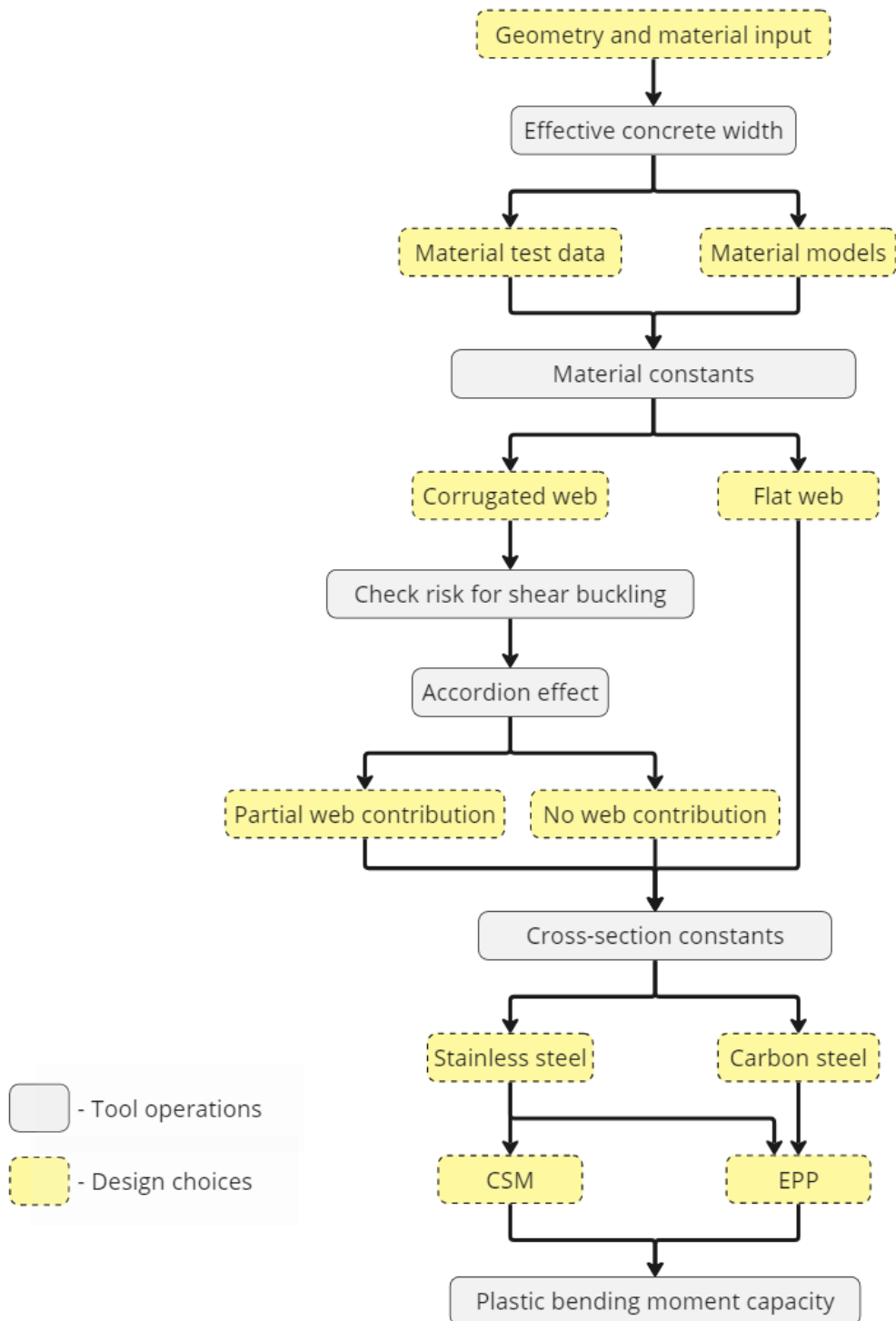


Figure 5.1: *Illustration of the general design tool structure*

5.1.2 Design choices and tool operations

The tool is versatile and can take multiple different design methods and considerations into account when calculating the plastic moment capacity of a steel-concrete composite beam.

Once the tool has been given proper and correct inputs it starts by defining the effective width of the concrete flange. It can be done, either by using the method given by SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) presented in section 3.3.1, based on the global geometry or by using a chosen effective width.

The next choice is how the material properties and behaviour should be gathered by the tool. The tool can do this in two ways, using material models or using data from material tests. If material models are chosen, the tool gathers material constants from the Eurocode library based on defined material classes and generates the material behaviour with analytical equations. If material test data is provided with material behaviour as a stress-strain curve, the tool gathers the material constants based on the provided data. The main advantage of providing test data is that steel grades that is not covered or given conservative values in Eurocode can be used for predicting the moment capacity. Apart from that, either choice should yield similar accuracy and results.

The next choice affecting the tools operations is what web type is used. The choice of web type will affect two different aspects, the first is the check of shear buckling risk and the second is what web thickness is considered for calculating the cross-sectional constants. The risk of shear buckling is checked for the corrugated web based on the corrugation and web geometry as presented in section 3.3.8. The risk of shear buckling is not checked for flat webs as they can be stabilized with vertical and horizontal stiffeners. When a flat web is used, the entire defined web thickness is considered, while for corrugated webs another design choice has to be made in order to decide what web thickness should to be considered. The choice refers to how the accordion effects of the corrugated web should be treated. One option is to treat it as suggested in SS-EN 1993-1-5 (2006), by neglecting the web and not consider any contribution. The other option is to analyse the corrugation and web geometry to find an effective width of the web that can be utilized in bending according to section 4.1.1. Once the shear buckling and web thickness is checked, the necessary cross-sectional constants are calculated by the tool.

After the cross-sectional constants are calculated, the tool can calculate the plastic bending moment capacity of the beam. Two different models for the calculations can be used, the first is the elastic perfectly plastic (EPP) model given in SS-EN 1994-2 (2005). The second model is a variation of the simplified model for the CSM created by Shamass and Cashell (2019) taking strain hardening of the steel into account. The models used in the tool are presented and discussed further in section 5.2. What model that is or can be used in the tool depends on what steel type was chosen in the material inputs. If stainless is used either model can be used, while carbon steel only can be used for the EPP model.

5.2 Calculation models

The two calculation models incorporated in the tool are both plastic models although they differ both in the models and the calculation methods. The models and their calculation methods are described in this section.

5.2.1 Calculation model EPP

The EPP model given by SS-EN 1994-2 (2005) is presented in section 3.3.7.1 and the calculation method and all its steps is presented in Figure 5.2.

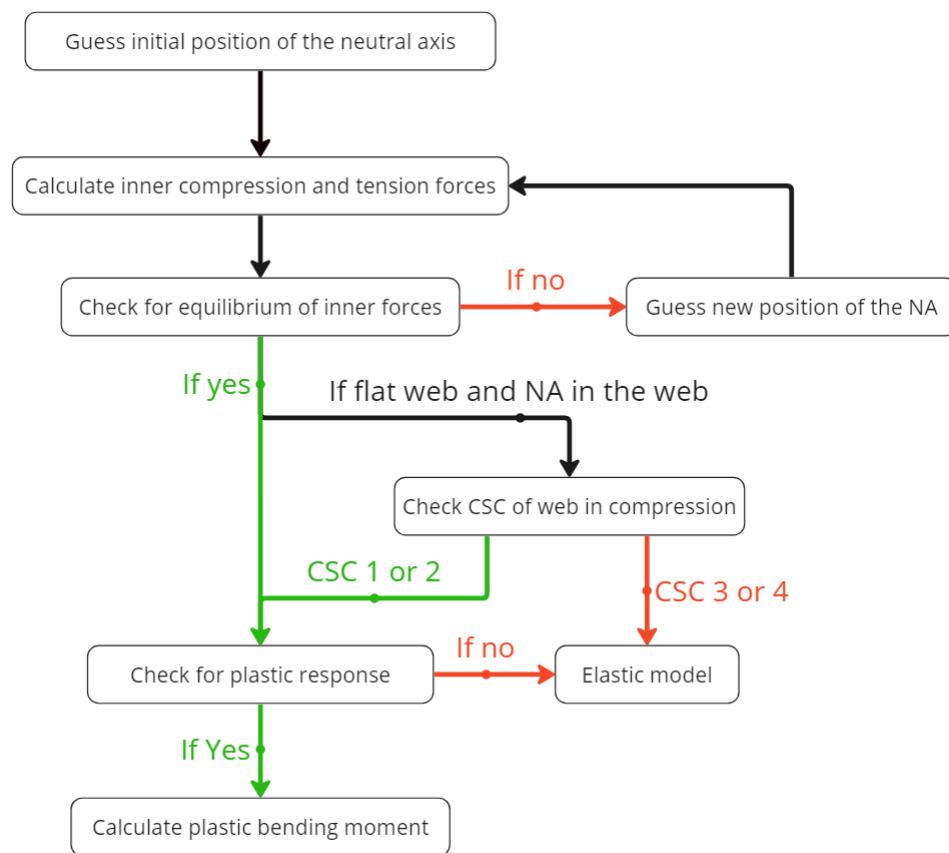


Figure 5.2: Representation of the calculation method for the EPP model

The first part of the calculation method is to find the location of the neutral axis (NA), this is done by iterating the location of the NA, y_1 . The iteration starts by setting the position of the NA at the top of the cross-section and calculating the inner compression and tension forces. If the compression and tension are within a prescribed difference of each other, y_1 is found. Otherwise, a new location is generated by moving down the NA a defined step. All steel parts are assumed to be stressed to its yield strength regardless if it is in tension or compression. The compressed concrete parts are assumed to be stressed up to 0.85 times its mean

compressive strength.

When y_1 is found, the cross-section is checked to see if it is within the plastic work range. This is done by first checking the cross-section class to see that plastic calculation are allowed according to SS-EN 1994-2 (2005), described in section 3.3.2. If it is acceptable the section is validated to have a plastic behaviour. This is done by calculating the ratio of y_1 and the total height of the cross-section to find a reduction factor β for the moment capacity, described in section 3.3.7.1.

If the checks for plastic response are satisfactory the plastic moment capacity M_{pl} can be calculated by adding all the inner forces times their lever arm to the NA and then multiply it by the reduction factor β . If the input beam does not have a plastic behaviour, an elastic calculation model is needed, which is not within the scope of this thesis.

5.2.2 Calculation model CSM

When calculating with regards to additional plastic strain hardening capacity, the CSM is utilized. Furthermore, Shamass and Cashell (2019) developed the simplified analytic calculation based on CSM which were shown to give reliable result and is therefore implemented in the design tool. Similarly to the EPP calculation model, the NA location is iterated by moving it down if the inner force balance is not satisfied. The CSM does also check for plastic response, however, in a slightly different way than the EPP method. The CSM utilizes the curvature in the cross-section, which allows for a specific steel stress to be determined. If the steel stress at 60% of the steel height in tension surpass the yield strength, plastic response is assumed. When the location of the NA is found, the cross section class is controlled if parts of the web are compressed. Lastly, the moment capacity is calculated with the inner forces and their level arms. This methodology is clearly illustrated in Figure 5.3.

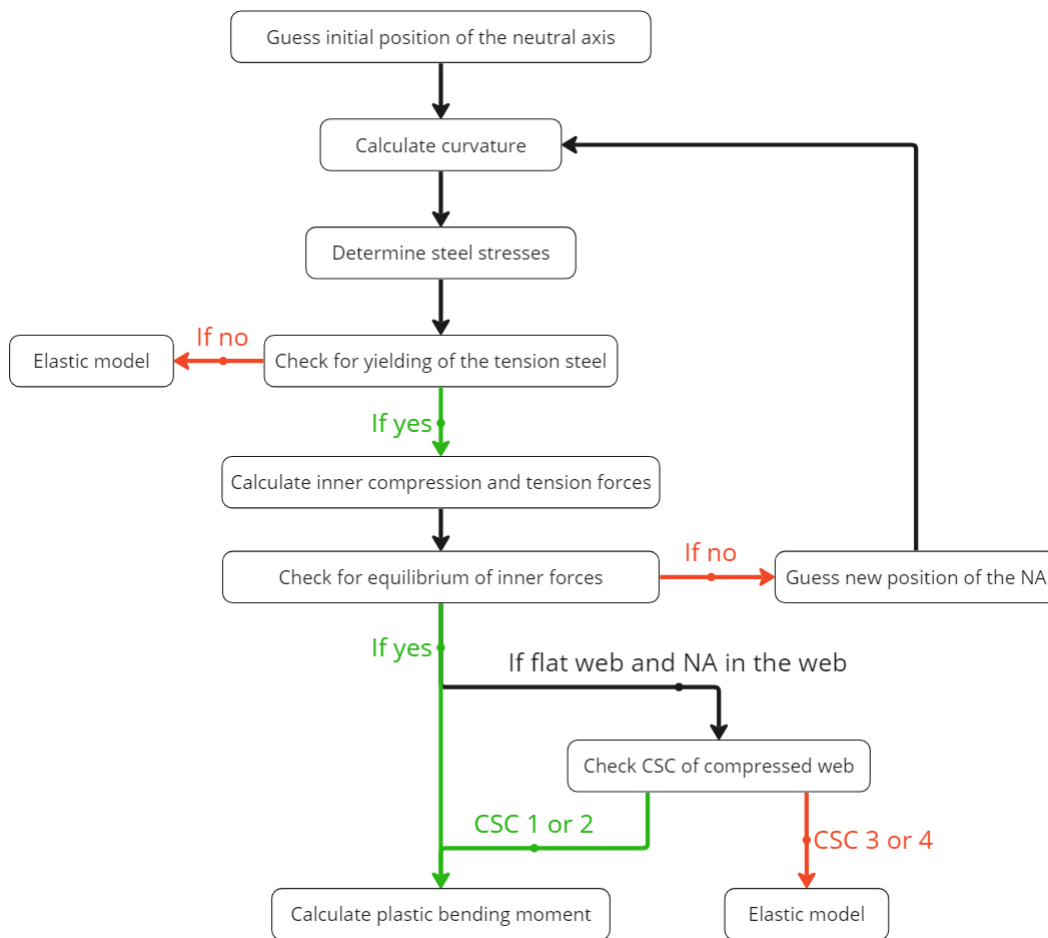


Figure 5.3: Representation of the calculation method for the CSM model

Depending on where the NA is located in the cross-section, slightly different calculation models are used. For the first case, with the NA in the concrete slab, the simplified CSM developed by Shamass and Cashell (2019) is used and can be seen in Figure 5.4. The entire steel girder is subjected to tension and in the calculations, the steel stress is set to be constant. The stress value is calculated from the curvature and the strain at 60% girder height, which is the same stress used to validate plastic response. The concrete compression block is, like in the EPP model, subjected to 0.85 time the compression strength only above the NA. The concrete in tension is assumed to be cracked and does not contribute to the bending moment capacity.

However, the case with the NA in the concrete is the only one that is covered by the research article and further development was needed for cases where the NA is in the steel flange or web. These models are inspired by the same ideas as the simplified model developed by Shamass and Cashell (2019). The new models can be seen in Figure 5.5 and 5.6. The applied stress for the steel parts is taken from 60% of the steel height in compression or tension. The internal cross-sectional forces for each block are listed in Table 5.2 for the three possible cases. With these, the ultimate plastic bending capacity can be calculated with the equations 5.1 to 5.3.

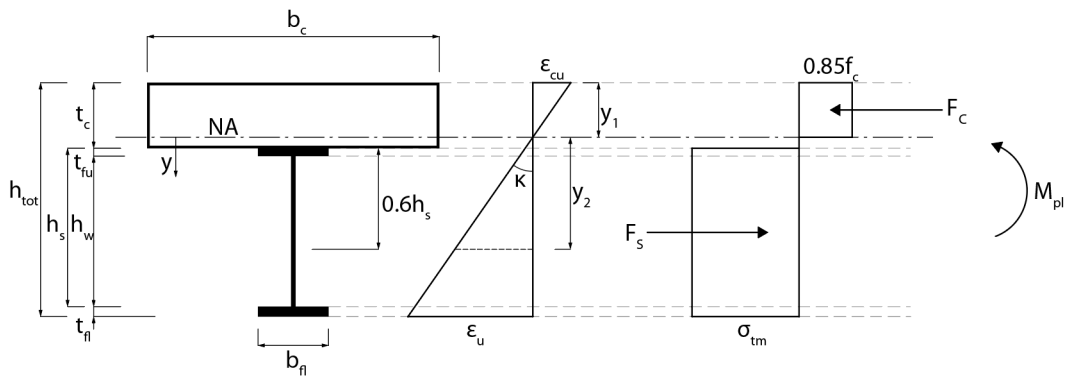


Figure 5.4: Plastic calculation model when the NA is in the concrete

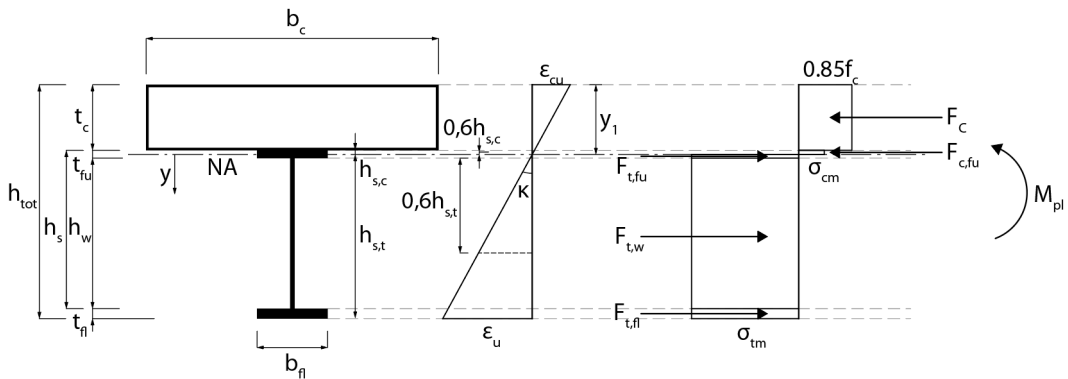


Figure 5.5: Plastic calculation model when the NA is in the upper steel flange

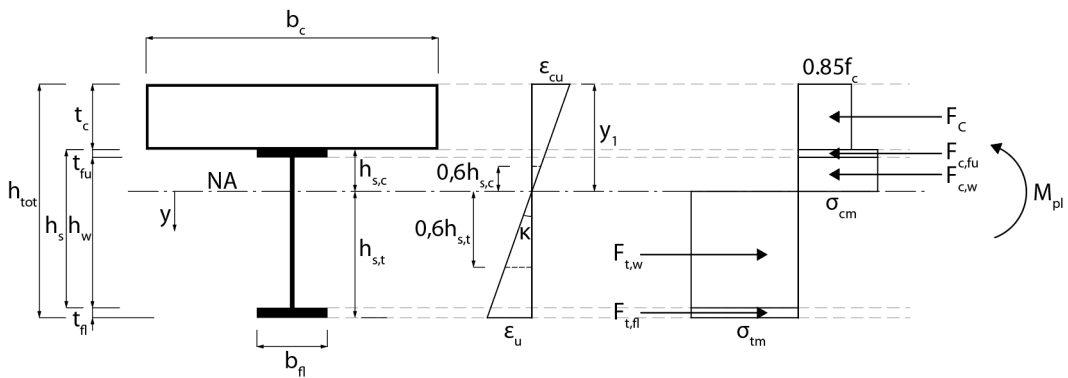


Figure 5.6: Plastic calculation model when the NA is in the steel web

Table 5.2: Internal forces for the CSM models used in the tool

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
F_C	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot y_1$	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot t_c$	$0.85 \cdot f_c \cdot b_c \cdot t_c$
F_S	$A_s \cdot \sigma_{tm}$	—	—
F_{c,f_u}	—	$b_{f_u} \cdot (y_1 - t_c) \cdot \sigma_{cm}$	$b_{f_u} \cdot t_{f_u} \cdot \sigma_{cm}$
F_{t,f_u}	—	$b_{f_u} \cdot (t_c + t_{f_u} - y_1) \cdot \sigma_{tm}$	—
$F_{c,w}$	—	—	$t_w \cdot (y_1 - t_c - t_{f_u}) \cdot \sigma_{cm}$
$F_{t,w}$	—	$t_w \cdot h_w \cdot \sigma_{tm}$	$t_w \cdot (h_{tot} - t_{fl} - y_1) \cdot \sigma_{tm}$
F_{t,f_l}	—	$b_{f_l} \cdot t_{f_l} \cdot \sigma_{tm}$	$b_{f_l} \cdot t_{f_l} \cdot \sigma_{tm}$

The location of the NA, y_1 , is solved by finding equilibrium between the compression and tension forces acting in the cross-section. The plastic bending capacity is then calculated as a sum of each force times its lever arm to the NA. The equations for the plastic moment capacities for the for case 1–3 can be seen in equations 5.1–5.3 where the forces are listed in table 5.2.

$$M_{pl} = F_C \cdot \frac{y_1}{2} + F_S \cdot \left(h_{tot} - y_1 - \frac{h_s}{2} \right) \quad (5.1)$$

$$M_{pl} = F_C \cdot \left(y_1 - \frac{t_c}{2} \right) + F_{c,f_u} \cdot \frac{y_1 - t_c}{2} + F_{t,f_u} \cdot \frac{t_c + t_{f_u} - y_1}{2} + F_{t,w} \cdot \left(h_{tot} - t_{fl} - \frac{h_w}{2} - y_1 \right) + F_{t,f_l} \cdot \left(h_{tot} - \frac{t_{fl}}{2} - y_1 \right) \quad (5.2)$$

$$M_{pl} = F_C \cdot \left(y_1 - \frac{t_c}{2} \right) + F_{c,f_u} \cdot \left(y_1 - t_c - \frac{t_{f_u}}{2} \right) + F_{c,w} \cdot \frac{y_1 - t_c - t_{f_u}}{2} + F_{t,w} \cdot \frac{h_{tot} - y_1 - t_{fl}}{2} + F_{t,f_l} \cdot \left(h_{tot} - \frac{t_{fl}}{2} - y_1 \right) \quad (5.3)$$

where,

- f_c is the compressive strength of the concrete;
- b_c is the width of the effective concrete flange, see section 3.3.1;
- y_1 is the location of the NA from the top of the concrete;
- t_c is the thickness of the effective concrete flange;
- A_s is the cross-sectional area of the steel girder;

b_{fu}	is the width of the upper steel flange;
σ_{cm}	is the distributed compressive stress in the steel;
t_{fu}	is the thickness of the upper steel flange;
σ_{tm}	is the distributed tensile stress in the steel;
t_w	is the thickness of the steel web;
h_w	is the height of the steel web;
h_{tot}	is the total height of the composite beam;
t_{fl}	is the thickness of the lower steel flange;
b_{fl}	is the width of the lower steel flange;
h_s	is the total height of the steel girder.

5.3 Evaluation of the tool and the new models

In order to evaluate the tool and the new calculation models, a small study was conducted to see how they performed for different case. This was done by comparing the results for multiple similar beam designs with the location of the neutral axis (NA) in different parts of the beams. Starting with a generated cross-section with the NA in the concrete. Then by increasing the size of the lower steel flange in increments, shifting the NA from the concrete into the steel. The study was done for beams with corrugated web without considering any partial participation of the web. The dimension of the start cross-section, apart for ones for the lower steel flange, and materials used can be seen in Table 5.4. The dimensions of the lower flange, location of the NA, moment capacity and more results gathered from the study can be seen in Table 5.5 and Table 5.6. Table 5.5 covers the beams when the location of the NA moves from the concrete to the upper flange and Table 5.6 when it moves from the upper flange to the web.

Table 5.4: *Dimensions and materials for initial generated cross-section for the evaluation of the tool*

Geometry	
b_{fu}	300 mm
t_{fu}	20 mm
t_w	8 mm
h_w	1000 mm
t_c	100 mm
b_c	1980 mm
Materials	
Steel	1.4162
Concrete	C40/50

Table 5.5: Results for when the NA goes from the concrete to the steel flange

Beam	1	2	3	4
NA location	Concrete		Upper flange	
y_1 [mm]	96.9	99.8	101.2	102.5
b_{fl} [mm]	320	340	360	380
t_{fl} [mm]	20	20	20	20
A_{fl} [mm ²]	6400	6800	7200	7600
A_{fl}/A_{fl1}	100.0%	106.3%	112.5%	118.8%
M_{pl} [kNm]	3839.9	4049.1	4261.1	4473.4
M_{pl}/M_{pl1}	100.0%	105.4%	111.0%	116.5%

Table 5.6: Results for when the NA goes from the steel flange to the steel web

Beam	5	6	7	8	9	10
NA location	Upper flange			Web		
y_1 [mm]	116.8	118.7	119.7	125.1	141	156
b_{fl} [mm]	400	420	430	435	440	445
t_{fl} [mm]	30	30	30	30	30	30
A_{fl} [mm ²]	12000	12600	12900	13050	13200	13350
A_{fl}/A_{fl1}	187.5%	196.9%	201.6%	203.9%	206.3%	208.6%
M_{pl} [kNm]	6805.4	7115.3	7269.8	7327.6	7348.7	7374.5
M_{pl}/M_{pl1}	177.2%	185.3%	189.3%	190.8%	191.4%	192.0%

To see the changes and to be able to compare the different cases both the area of the lower flange and the moment capacity was normalised against the values of the initial cross-section. The normalised values for the moment and the area can be seen in Figure 5.7 and 5.8 for when the NA moves into the flange and then into the web.

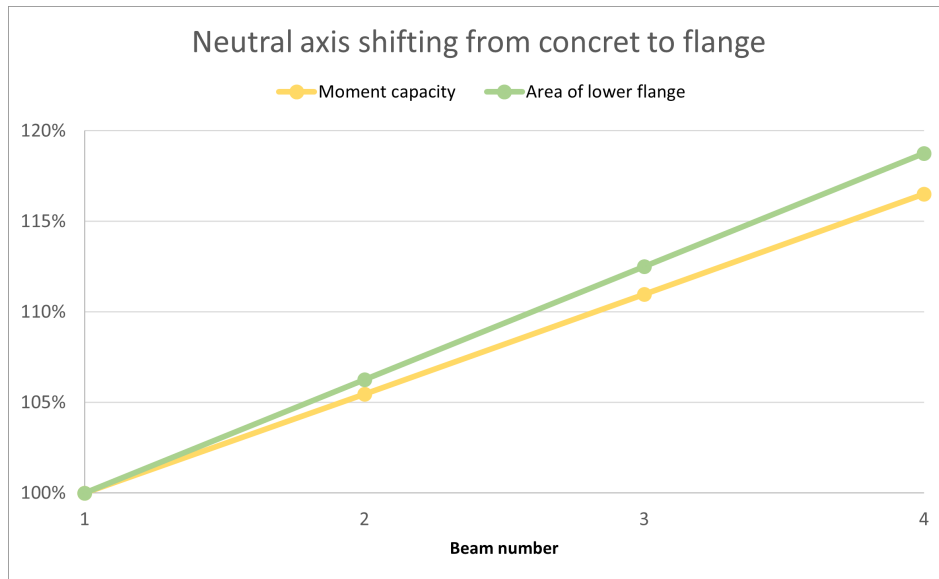


Figure 5.7: Comparison of the change in moment capacity and area of the lower flange for cases when the NA moves from the concrete to the flange

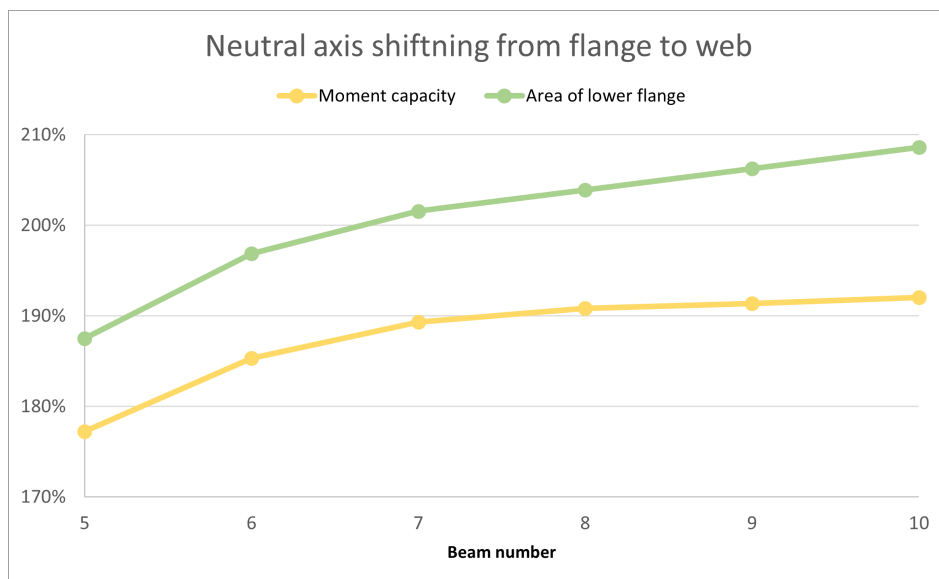


Figure 5.8: Comparison of the change in moment capacity and area of the lower flange for cases when the NA moves from the flange to the web

The results for all the cases shows that the lower flange area and moment capacity changes in similar way between the different beams. However, it can also be seen that when the area of the lower flange increases the difference in the normalised values for the area and moment capacity increases. This increased difference is expected and comes from the reduced amount of strain hardening as the NA goes deeper into the beam. The results of the study shows that the tool and the new models performs well and is able to work for the different beams with varying location of the NA.

6

Finite element analysis

This chapter presents how the finite element (FE) analysis was created, performed and what results were gathered from the analysis. The FE analysis was performed in the FE software Abaqus. The master's thesis by Ali and Abudaher (2022) investigated how to analyse and model a steel-concrete composite bridge in Abaqus. The same modelling methodology was used in this thesis, with a few slight differences.

6.1 Finite element model

This section covers how the model and analysis was built up in the software and how the different parts and materials were modelled.

6.1.1 Element types

The model of steel-concrete composite bridge was built as an assembly of the different parts with different properties and element types. The concrete slab was modelled with solid 3D elements (C3D8R) and the structural steel parts, such as the web, flanges, and vertical stiffeners, were modelled with shell elements with reduced integration points (S4R). Examples of the concrete and structural steel elements can be seen in Figure 6.1 and 6.2 respectively.

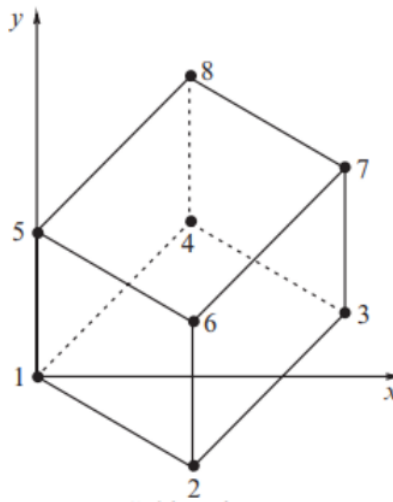


Figure 6.1: *Illustration of a solid 3D element (C3D8R)(Ellobody, 2014)*

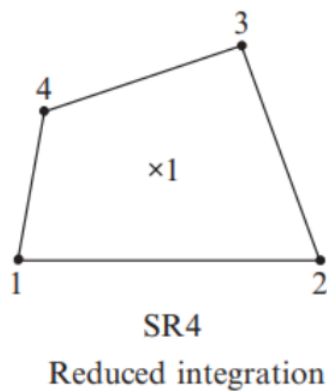


Figure 6.2: *Illustration of a shell element with reduced integration points(S4R) (Ellobody, 2014)*

The steel rebars were modelled with truss elements (T3D2) embedded in the concrete slab. An example of a truss element can be seen in in Figure 6.3.

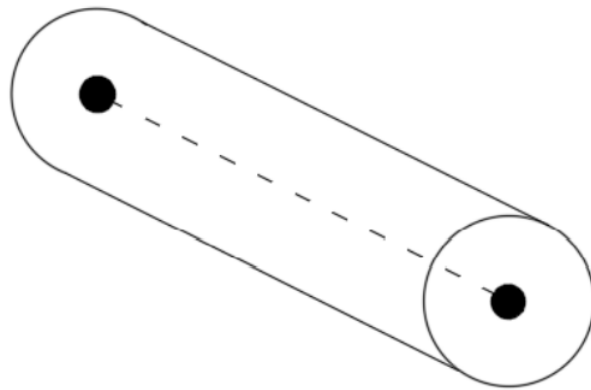


Figure 6.3: *Illustration of a truss element (T3D2) (Mendis et al., 2018)*

6.1.2 Shear connection in finite analysis

As mentioned in section 2.1.2, the shear connection is crucial for the composite action and the behaviour of the beam. Ali and Abudaher (2022) explains that the connection behaviour of the load-slip can be simulated in finite element by modelling with springs. Rigid springs for the vertical loads and non-linear springs for the longitudinal slip. In a recent study it was shown that the slip behaviour in the shear connection will affect the bending moment capacity and the ductility. However, an increasing degree of shear interaction will eventually lead to a converging moment capacity with a continuing decrease in deflection. Since the moment capacity is the main property studied in this thesis, the shear connection can therefore be modelled as a tie interaction instead of using springs. This will simulate a full interaction connection with no possible slip, resulting in less deflection compared to real test data, but with an unchanged and reliable bending moment capacity (Ali & Abudaher, 2022).

6.1.3 Material models

The material used in the FE analysis include concrete, carbon steel and stainless steel. The different materials all need their own material model or models in Abaqus. The material models used in the FE analysis are presented and described in this section.

6.1.3.1 Concrete

The material behaviour of the concrete was modelled using the concrete damage plasticity (CDP) model. The CDP model introduce the non-elastic behaviour of the concrete by combining the isotropic damaged elasticity and the isotropic tensile and compressive plasticity (Hafezolghorani et al., 2017). The uniaxial compressive and tensile response of the concrete introduced in the CDP model can be seen in Figure 6.4 and 6.5 respectively.

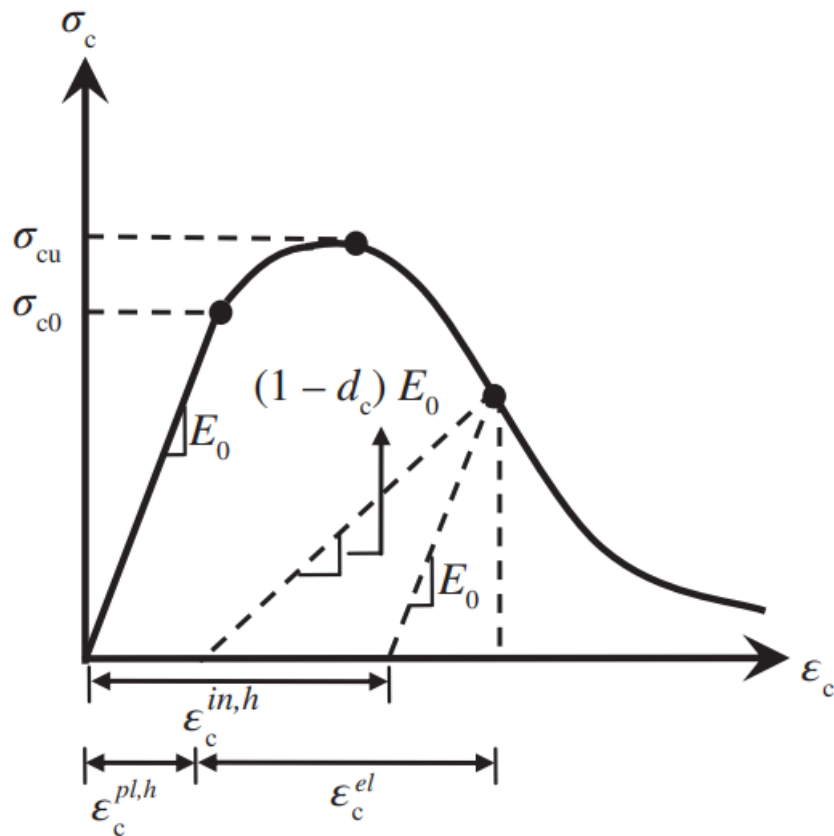


Figure 6.4: *Compressive response of the concrete under uniaxial loading for the CDP model (Hafezolghorani et al., 2017)*

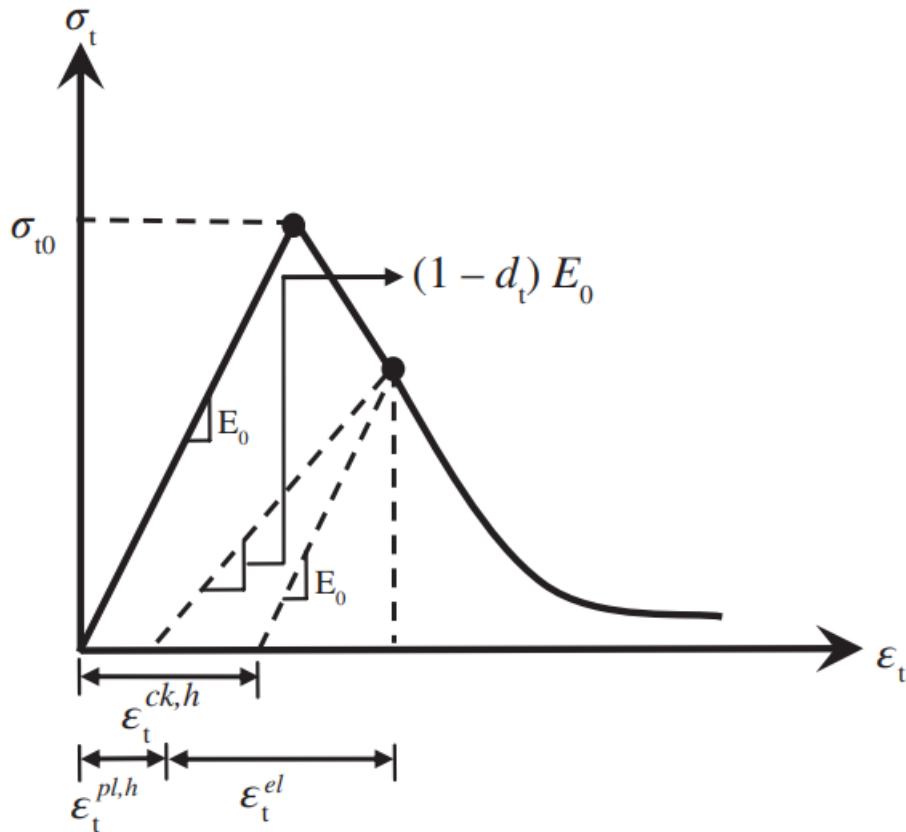


Figure 6.5: *Tensile response of the concrete under uniaxial loading for the CDP model (Hafezolghorani et al., 2017)*

The tensile and compressive behaviour is characterised by the reduction in elastic stiffness as the strains get larger. The reduction can be described with the two plasticity variables d_c and d_t for compressive and tensile damage. The two variables d_c and d_t is determined with equation 6.1 and 6.2.

$$d_c = 1 - \frac{\sigma_c}{\sigma_{cu}} \quad (6.1)$$

$$d_t = 1 - \frac{\sigma_t}{\sigma_{t0}} \quad (6.2)$$

where,

- σ_c is the active compressive stress on the concrete;
- σ_{cu} is the ultimate compressive capacity of the concrete;
- σ_t is the active tensile stress on the concrete;
- σ_{t0} is the ultimate tensile capacity of the concrete.

The compressive behaviour of the concrete is obtained using the relationship given in SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005) for non-linear structural analysis, using equation 6.3.

$$\sigma_c = f_{cm} \cdot \frac{k\eta - \eta^2}{1 + (k - 2)\eta} \quad (6.3)$$

with,

$$\eta = \frac{\varepsilon_c}{\varepsilon_{c1}} \quad (6.4)$$

$$k = 1.05 \cdot E_{cm} \cdot \frac{|\varepsilon_{c1}|}{f_{cm}} \quad (6.5)$$

where,

ε_{c1} is the strain at the peak stress according to Table 3.1 in SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005);

f_{cm} is the mean compressive strength of the concrete.

In this study only concrete grade C40/50 and a tested concrete type by Zhou et al. (2021) were studied in the case studies and validation. The stress-strain curve for the concrete in compression for the studied concrete grades can be seen in Figure 6.6. All material properties, stresses, strains and damage values are listed in Table C.1 and C.3 in Appendix C.

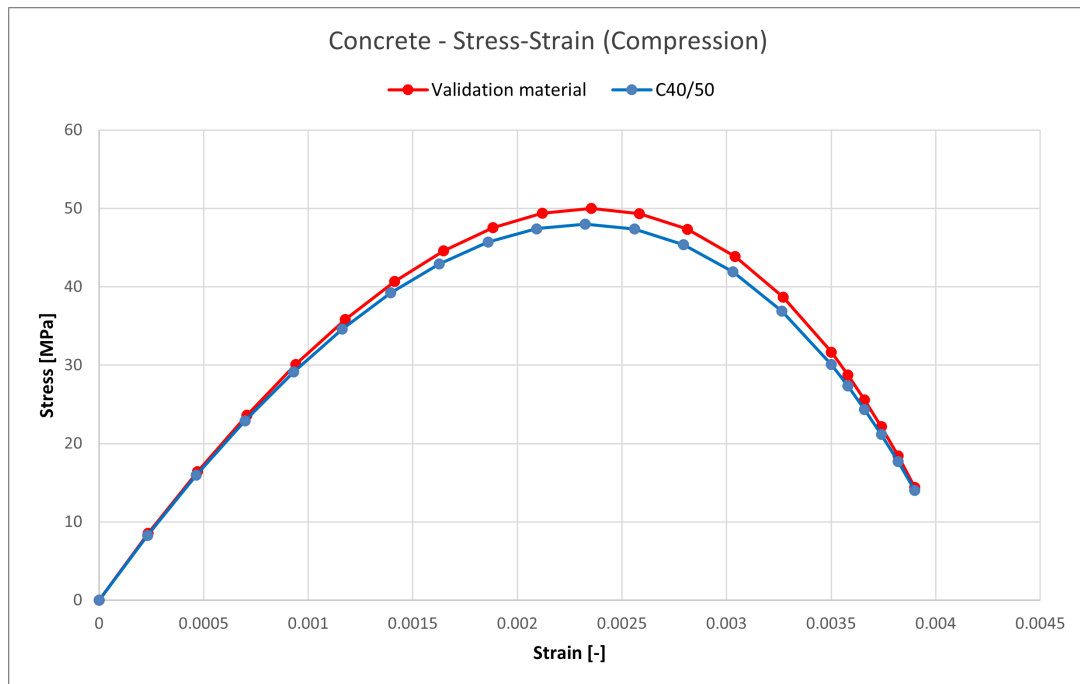


Figure 6.6: *Stress-strain curve for studied concrete grades in compression*

The tensile behaviour of the concrete is obtained by using the value of the fracture energy and ultimate tensile strength of the concrete. Using a linear relation the ultimate tensile cracking strain is calculated using equation 6.6.

$$\varepsilon_{su} = \frac{2 \cdot G_F}{f_{ctm}} \cdot \frac{1}{h} \quad (6.6)$$

where,

- ε_{su} is the ultimate tensile cracking strain of the concrete;
- G_F is the fracture energy of the concrete;
- f_{ctm} is the mean tensile strength of the concrete;
- h is the crack band width.

The stress-strain curve of the concrete in tension for the studied concrete grades can be seen in Figure 6.7. The material properties, stresses, strains and damage values is listed in Table C.2 and C.4 in Appendix C.

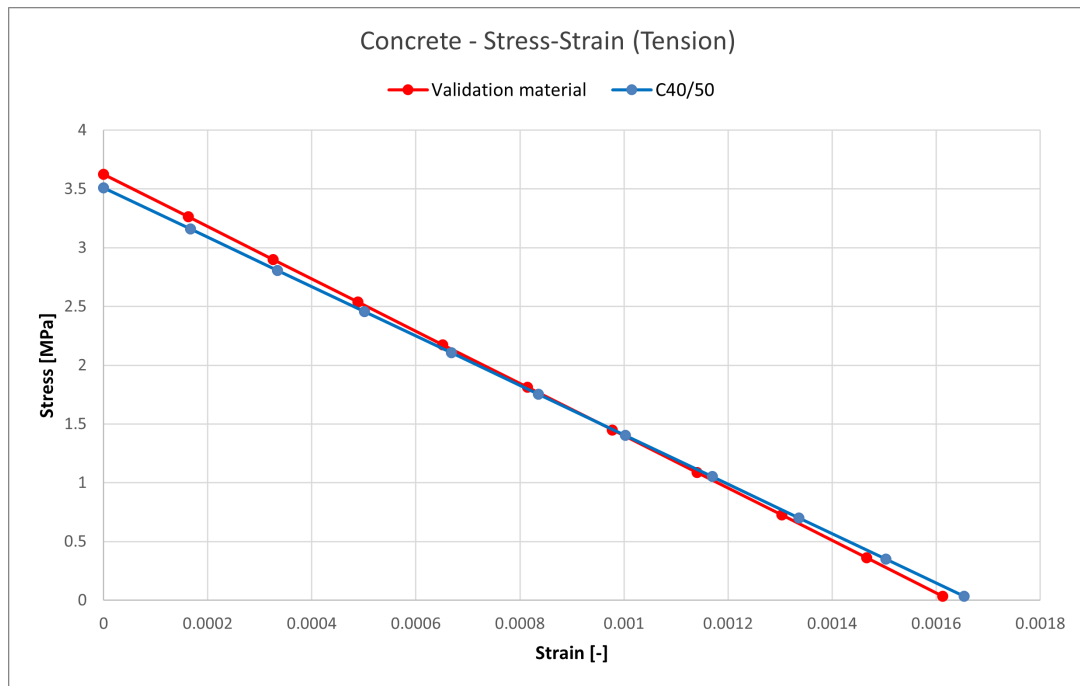


Figure 6.7: *Stress-strain curve for studied concrete grades in tension*

Additionally to the tensile and compressive behaviour, the CDP model requires more parameters in order to define the yield surface in the concrete. These parameters are presented in Table 6.1 together with the used values. The implemented values were taken from Jankowiak and Lodygowski (2005), as was done in last year's thesis by Ali and Abudaher (2022).

Table 6.1: *Additional parameters used in the CDP model (Jankowiak & Lodygowski, 2005)*

Dilation angle	Eccentricity	f_{b0}/f_{c0}	k	Viscosity
38	1	1.12	0.667	0.003

6.1.3.2 Carbon steel

The behaviour of the structural carbon steel and reinforcement was modelled using the bi-linear stress-strain curve given in SS-EN 1993-1-5 (2006). The engineering strains was obtained based on the ultimate and yield strength of the steel according to equation 6.7 and 6.8. Where equation 6.7 is used for stresses up to the yield strength and equation 6.8 is used for stresses between the yield and ultimate strength.

$$\varepsilon = \frac{f_y}{E} \quad (6.7)$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{f_y}{E} + \frac{f_u - f_y}{\frac{E}{100}} \quad (6.8)$$

where,

- ε is the engineering strain;
- f_y is the yield strength of the steel;
- f_u is the ultimate strength ;
- E is the Young's modulus of the concrete.

The engineering stress-strain curve was then converted to true stress-strain curves to be input to Abaqus. The true stresses and strains is calculated using equation 6.9 and 6.10 respectively.

$$\sigma_{true} = \sigma \cdot (1 + \varepsilon) \quad (6.9)$$

$$\varepsilon_{true} = \ln(1 + \varepsilon) \quad (6.10)$$

The plastic true strain is then calculated using equation 6.11.

$$\varepsilon_{true,pl} = \ln(1 + \varepsilon) - \frac{\sigma_{true}}{E} \quad (6.11)$$

In this study structural steel of grade S460 as well as reinforcement of grade B500B were used. The true stress-strain curves for these steels can be seen in Figure 6.8. The material properties and all stress and strain values are listed in Table C.5 - C.5 in Appendix C.

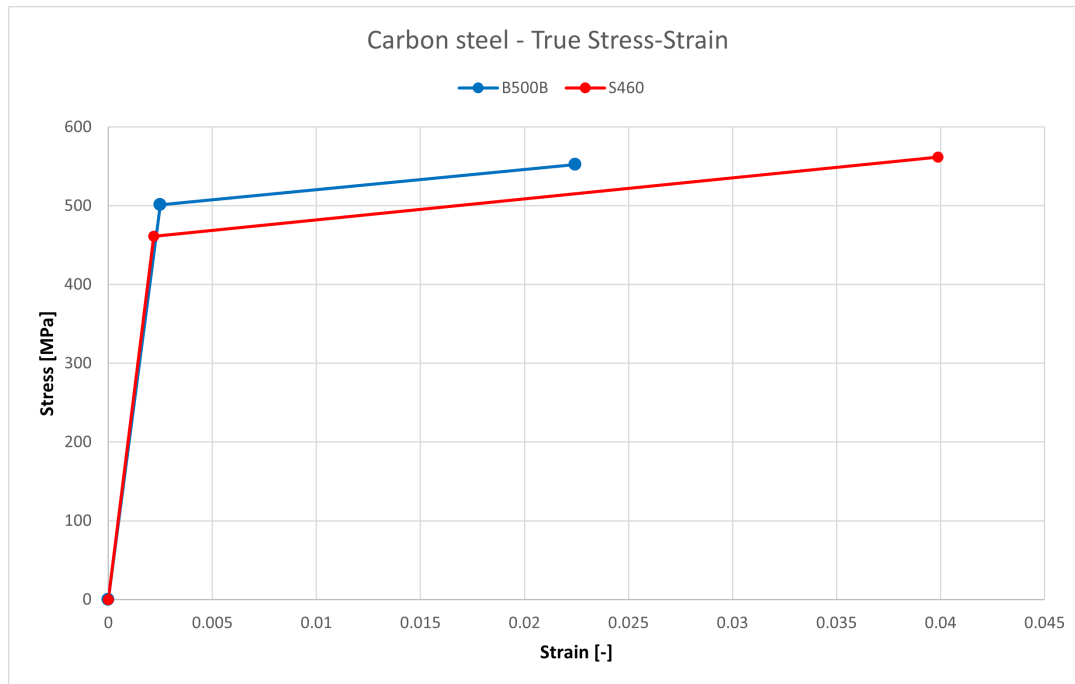


Figure 6.8: True stress-strain curve for studied carbon steels

6.1.3.3 Stainless steel

To capture and utilize the plastic capacity of stainless steel, the same material model as in the design tool was implemented when computing the engineering material curves for the FE analysis. This calculation method is previously described in section 4.2. Before inputting the material model into Abaqus, the engineering stresses and strains were recalculated to the true stress and strain values. The same equations used for carbon steel are used for the conversion for the stainless steel, see equation 6.9 and 6.10. The plastic strain was determined with equation 6.11 and used to describe the material behaviour in the FE analysis. This study include the stainless steel grade 1.4162 and three tested steels by Zhou et al. (2021), two structural and one reinforcement steel. The true stress-strain curves can be seen in Figure 6.9 and all the material properties, stress and strain values are listed in Table C.7 - C.10 in Appendix C.

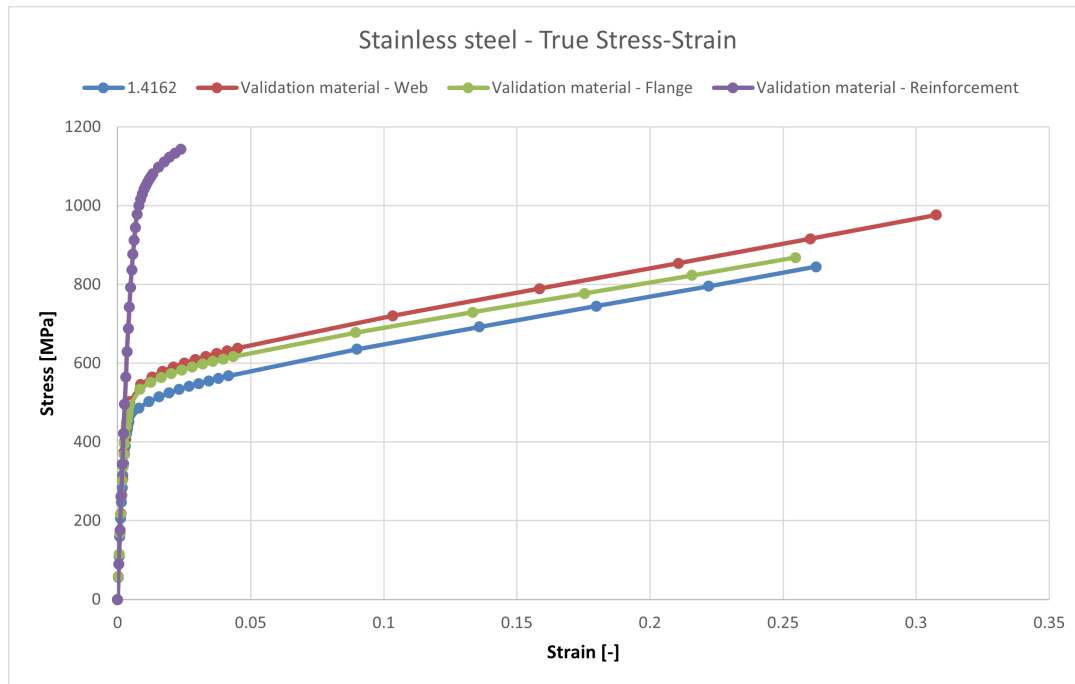


Figure 6.9: True stress-strain curves for studied stainless steels

6.1.4 Modelling in Abaqus

The modelling process in finite element was inspired from the master's thesis by Ali and Abudaher (2022) with some minor differences. The complete beam was parameterized in Grasshopper and the elements was imported as parts into Abaqus. This allowed for a quick and flexible process when running different geometries or implementing changes. The assembly of the elements can be seen in Figure 6.10 where all the thicknesses of the shells are shown. Stiffeners was added to prevent any undesirable buckling failure and to redistribute stresses from the locations with concentrated forces around the supports and the applied loads. For the beams with a flat web, stiffeners were distributed along the beam where shear forces are acting. The geometry of the stiffeners was adapted to be as deep as the upper flange and were extended over the entire web depth, to prevent a unsuitable mesh.

Similarly to Ali and Abudaher (2022), the analysis was performed with the Riks method that successively increase the arc length in increments and simultaneously calculates a solution for the deflection and the load proportionality factor (LPF).

The assembly with boundary conditions and loads can be seen in Figure 6.11 and 6.11. Partitions was used to apply constraints for the beam and also to get a more controlled mesh around locations with higher importance.

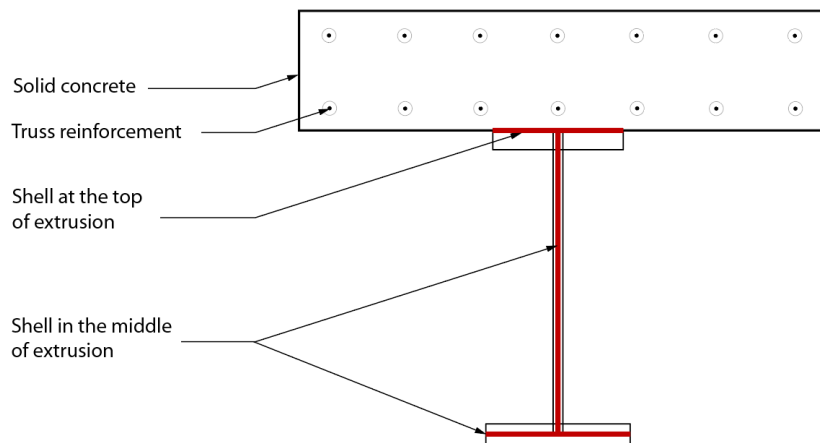


Figure 6.10: *Illustration of the assembly of the elements in Abaqus*

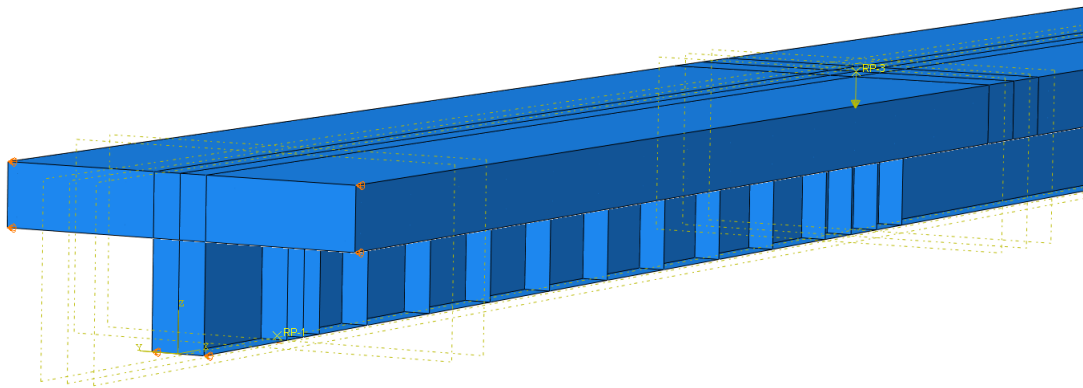


Figure 6.11: *Finite model with boundary conditions and loads from Abaqus*

6.2 Validation of methodology

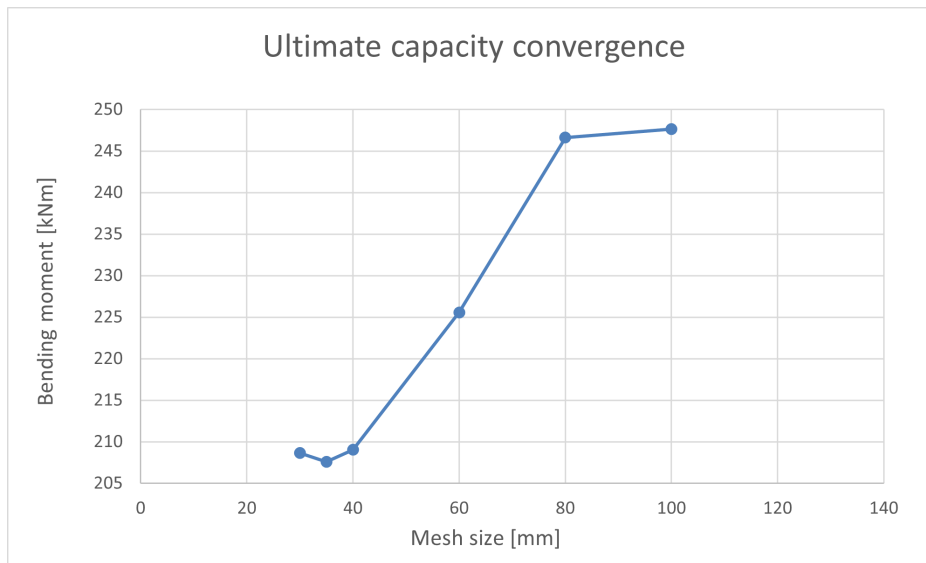
The applied FE modelling process was verified by simulating one of the experimental tests performed by Zhou et al. (2021). Compared to other available research, these beams that were tested are the closest to the beams studied in this thesis. The beam specimens, setup and results is previously presented in 4.2.2. The specimen chosen for the finite element verification was CSSB2-SF. It was loaded with a four-point bending setup with studs in the shear connection and the steel girder section was a 180UB18.1 girder with the stainless steel LD2101. Coupon specimen was extracted from the steel elements and tested which gave the following material data in Table 6.2. The concrete strength was assessed by compressing cylinders which resulted in an ultimate capacity of 42 MPa. This value was used as the characteristic compressive capacity and additional needed strength classes was calculated with the analytical relations given in SS-EN 1992-1-1 (2005). The calculated stress-strain curve for each material and the parameters is presented in Appendix C.

Table 6.2: *Experimental steel material data (Zhou et al., 2021)*

Element	E [GPa]	$f_{0.2}$ [MPa]	f_u [MPa]	ε_u [-]	n [%]	m [%]
Web	191	500	718	0.36	8.01	3.44
Flange	201	490	673	0.29	7.08	3.55
Reinforcement	201	938	1116	0.024	4.81	3.94

6.2.1 Convergence study

A convergence study was carried out in order to find a mesh that yields satisfactory results with a reasonable computational time. During the study, it was noted that the analysis was extremely sensitive to minor changes to the mesh or the concrete tension properties. The convergence was controlled for the ultimate moment capacity and for the bending moment when the mid deflection was 50mm and 100mm, these results can be seen in Figure 6.12, 6.13 and 6.14. Controlling the convergence in both the elastic and plastic moments confirm there is no numerical problems in the analysis for either case. The graphs show that the model converges at a mesh size of 40mm, coarser meshes than 60 do not result in a wanted behaviour with too large deflections and finer meshes can eventually end up with numerical problems and stop before reaching failure. A similar mesh ratio with regards to the geometry was used for the case study in section 7.1.1.2.

**Figure 6.12:** *Convergence study on ultimate capacity*

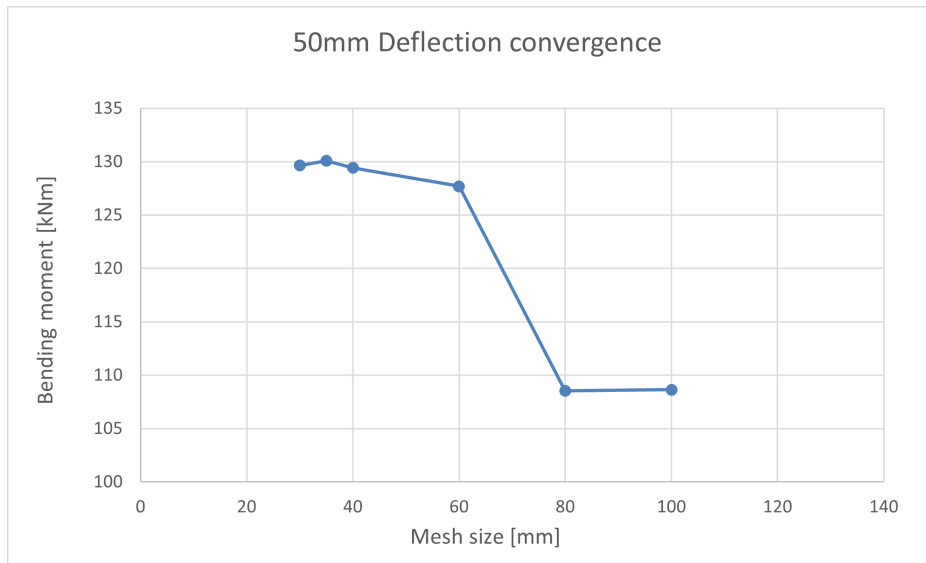


Figure 6.13: *Convergence study on moment at 50 mm deflection*

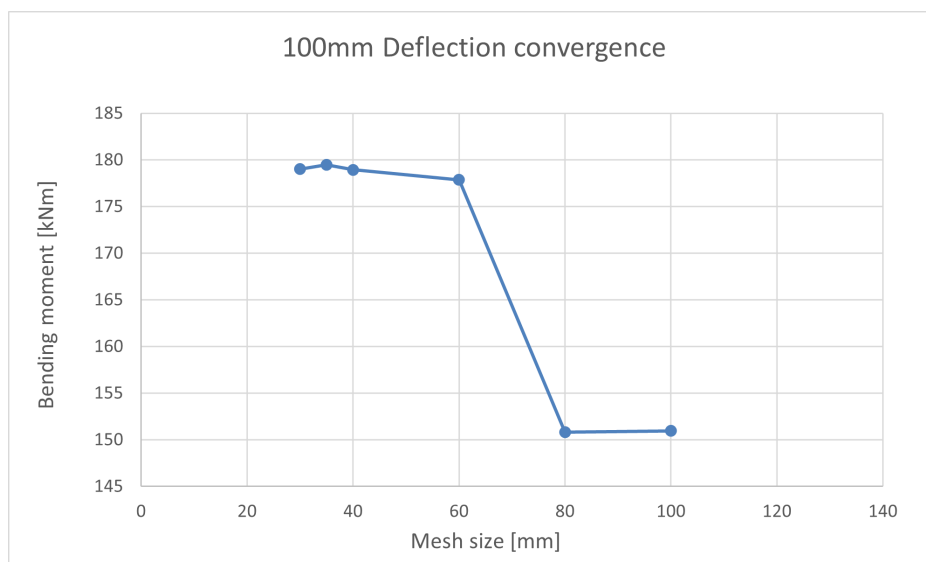


Figure 6.14: *Convergence study on moment at 100 mm deflection*

6.2.2 Validation results

The resulting behaviour from the FE-analysis with a mesh size of 30 mm can be seen in Figure 6.15. The bending moment capacity from the analysis is 208.6 kNm, a 1.28% difference compared to the experimental test beam produced by Zhou et al. (2021), this is more than acceptable. The deflection is shown to be 19.3% lower for the analysis, 187.2 mm compared to 231.9 mm. This is an expected results as the shear connection is modelled as a tie constraint, which will affect the flexural behaviour and reduce deflections. At the increment of failure, the steel stresses can be seen in Figure 6.16. The steel yielding is evaluated by limiting the stress values to the yield stress of the steel. The majority of the steel girder is yielding and the strain

hardening effect is therefore active. Also, the failure mode is crushing of the concrete, seen in Figure 6.17. The concrete crushing is illustrated by limiting the longitudinal strain to the strain value ultimate compression strength of the concrete. With both the bending moment capacity and the failure mode matching the experimental test, it was concluded that the applied finite modelling procedure was validated.

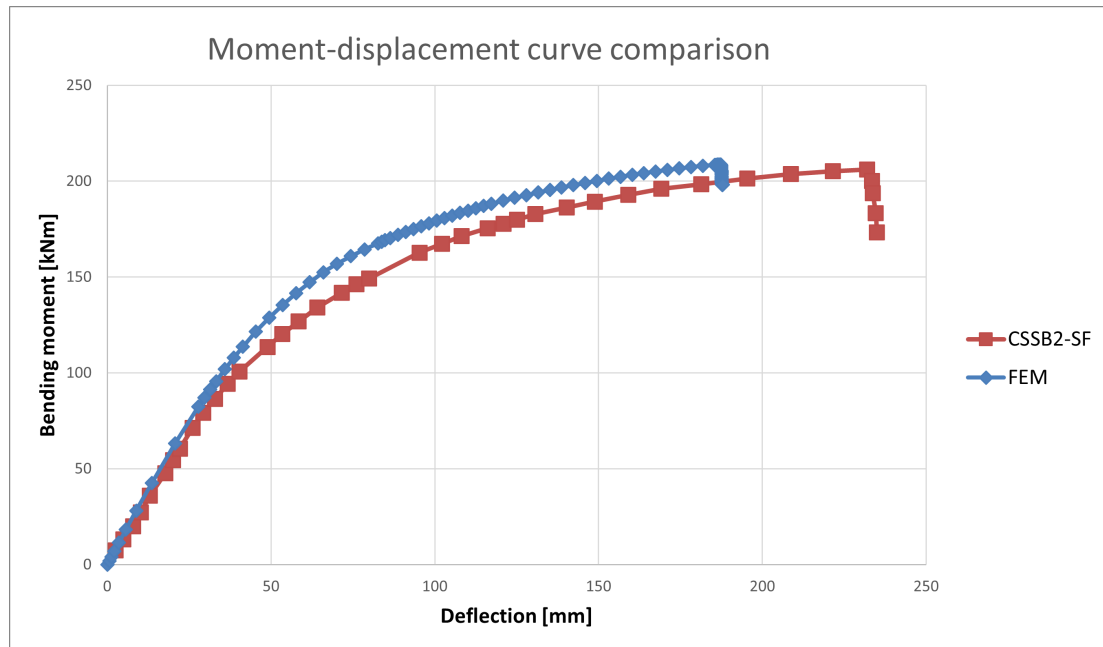


Figure 6.15: *Moment-displacement curves for FE simulation and test by Zhou et al. (2021)*

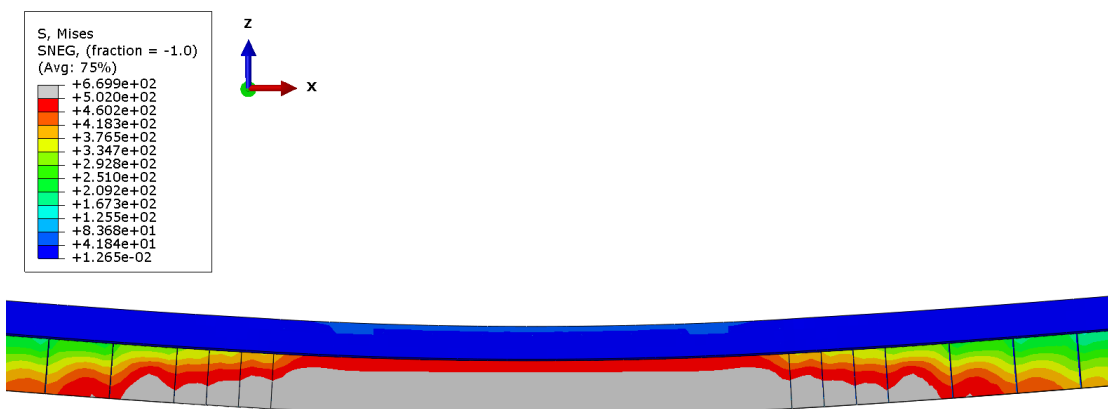


Figure 6.16: *Steel yielding during failure from the 30mm mesh size analysis*

6. Finite element analysis

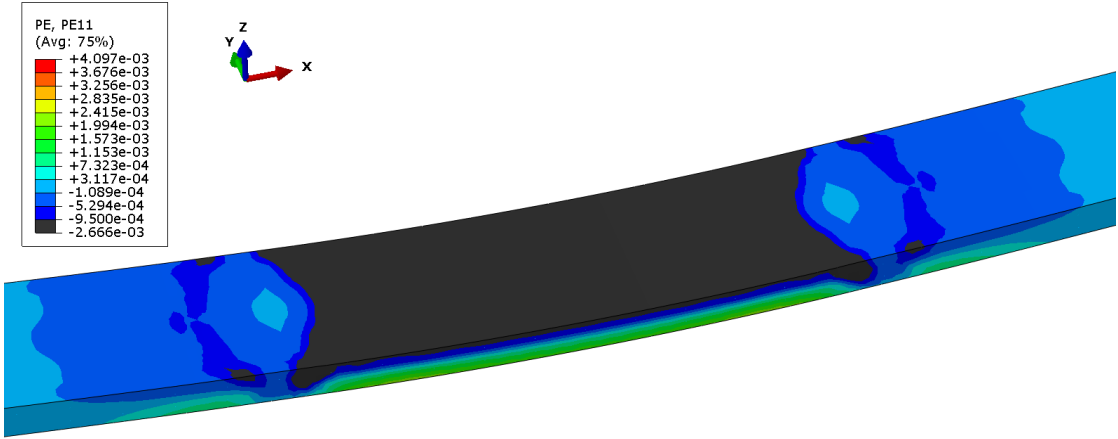


Figure 6.17: Concrete crushing during failure from the 30mm mesh size analysis

7

Results

This chapter presents the results of case study beams analysed with finite element and comparisons to the performance of the developed design tool. Also, FE-results from previous research and master's thesis were compared to the design tool results for further potential discussions. An additional study is presented comparing the implemented calculation models and how the capacity is affected when changing the web from flat to corrugated.

7.1 Ultimate bending moment capacity

As the FE-analysis methodology has been validated to yield satisfactory results, this section shows two studies comparing the design tool ultimate bending moment results to the numerical FE ultimate capacity.

7.1.1 Case study

A case study was carried out in order to validate the design tool and prove the effects of strain hardening. The beam designs were first created with the tool and later introduced into FE to validate the results given by the tool.

7.1.1.1 Beam design

The beams used in the study were chosen out of multiple designs generated by using the tool. The designs were all created to have the same bending moment capacity at $10 \text{ MNm} \pm 10 \text{ kNm}$ while trying to reduce the amount of steel in the cross-section. Some geometrical limitations were set to prevent unreasonable beam designs. The designs were also created and analysed using the different models and materials in the tool, spanning from cases with corrugated webs and stainless steel while considering strain hardening and partial web contribution to cases with flat webs and carbon steel while using the EPP calculation model. The materials used and dimensions of the effective concrete flange for the beams can be seen in Table 7.1 and all the designs for the different cases can be seen in Table D.1 - D.4 in Appendix D. The dimensions and types of the beams chosen for the case study in finite element are presented in Table 7.2. The two beams with flat webs share the same dimension and are only separated by the steel type. This was done in order to capture and see the differences between the carbon steel and stainless steel due to strain hardening.

Table 7.1: *Common material and geometry data for all case study beams*

Steel	
Stainless steel grade	1.4162
f_y	450 MPa
f_u	650 MPa
Carbon steel grade	S460
f_y	460 MPa
Concrete	
Grade	C40/50
t_c	300 mm
b_c	3500 mm

Table 7.2: *Chosen case study beams*

	Beam 1	Beam 2	Beam 3	Beam 4	Beam 5
Web design	Corrugated	Corrugated	Corrugated	Flat	Flat
Steel type	Stainless	Stainless	Stainless	Stainless	Carbon
b_{fu} [mm]	300	300	506	300	300
t_{fu} [mm]	12	12	20	12	12
b_{fl} [mm]	496	548	506	300	300
t_{fl} [mm]	20	20	20	12	12
t_w [mm]	7	8	8	12	12
h_w [mm]	1400	1200	1200	1194	1194
α [°]	36	36	36	-	-
a_1 [mm]	95	120	120	-	-
a_3 [mm]	55	50	50	-	-
A_{steel}	23320	24160	29840	29840	21528
A_{fl}/A_{steel}	42.5%	45.4%	33.9%	16.7%	16.7%
A_w/A_{steel}	42.0%	39.7%	32.2%	66.6%	66.6%

The chosen designs differentiates against each other in a couple of ways, firstly beam 1-3 have corrugated webs while beam 4 and 5 have flat webs. This resulted in a vast difference in how the steel is distributed in the cross-section. Looking at the beams with corrugated webs, the cross-sectional area of the steel web and lower flange make up very similar portions of the total steel area but for the beams with flat webs this is not the case. These beams have a much larger ratio of the steel area in the web and very small flanges.

The plastic bending moment capacity for the chosen beams for the calculation models they were created with can be seen in Table 7.3. As mentioned previously, all beams except beam 5 that is made of carbon steel have a similar moment capacity. All cases also have the neutral axis located in the concrete.

Table 7.3: Plastic bending moment capacity and calculation model used for the chosen beams from the tool

Beams	Caclulation model	M_{pl} [kNm]	$t_{w,eff}$ [mm]	y_1 [mm]
Beam 1	C-CSM	9991	0	63.9
Beam 2	C-CSM,PW	10006	0.8	72.1
Beam 3	C-CSM,PW	10001	0.8	96.4
Beam 4	F-CSM	10001	12	97.7
Beam 5	F-EPP	8590	12	83.2

7.1.1.2 Finite element results

The FE results for the case study are presented as the bending moment-displacement curves for all the beams in Figure 7.1 - 7.5, where the curves are compared against the results from the tool for each beam. All the values of bending moment and displacements from the FE analysis for all the runs can be seen in Table E.2 - E.6 in Appendix E.

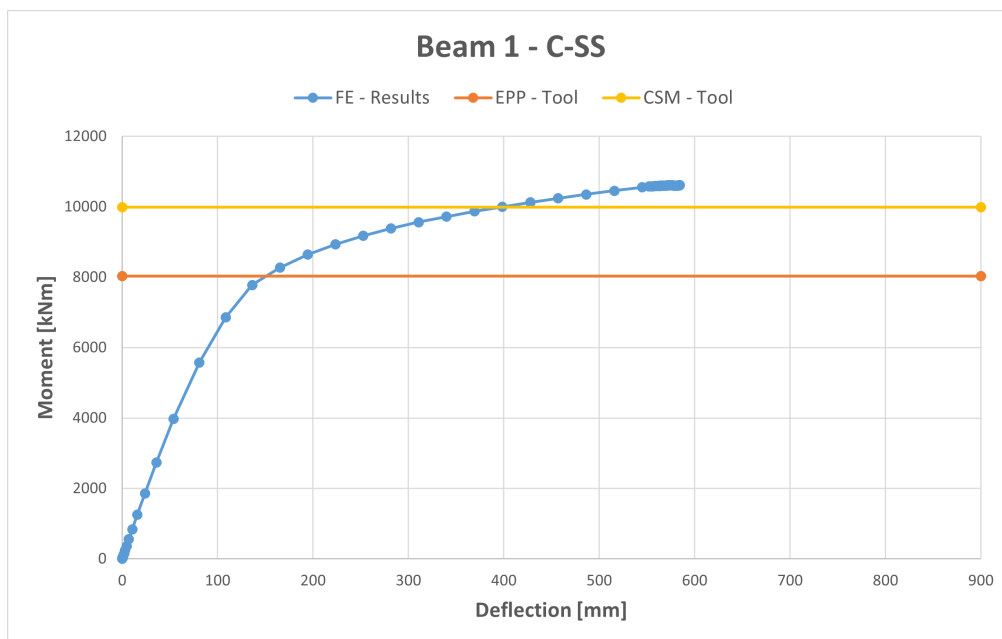


Figure 7.1: Moment-displacement curve from FE-analysis for Beam 1

7. Results

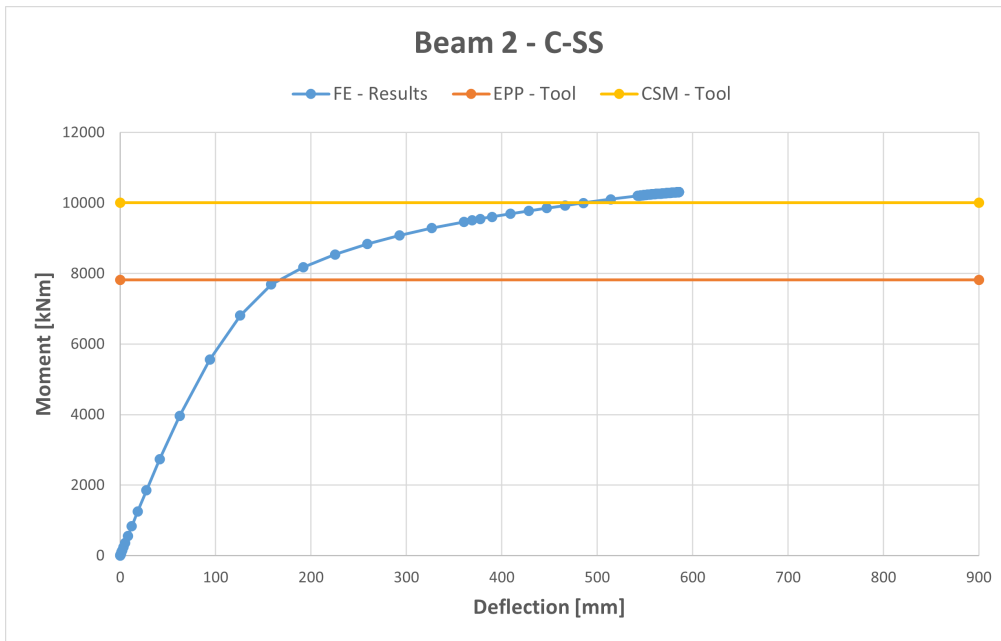


Figure 7.2: *Moment-displacement curve from FE-analysis for Beam 2*

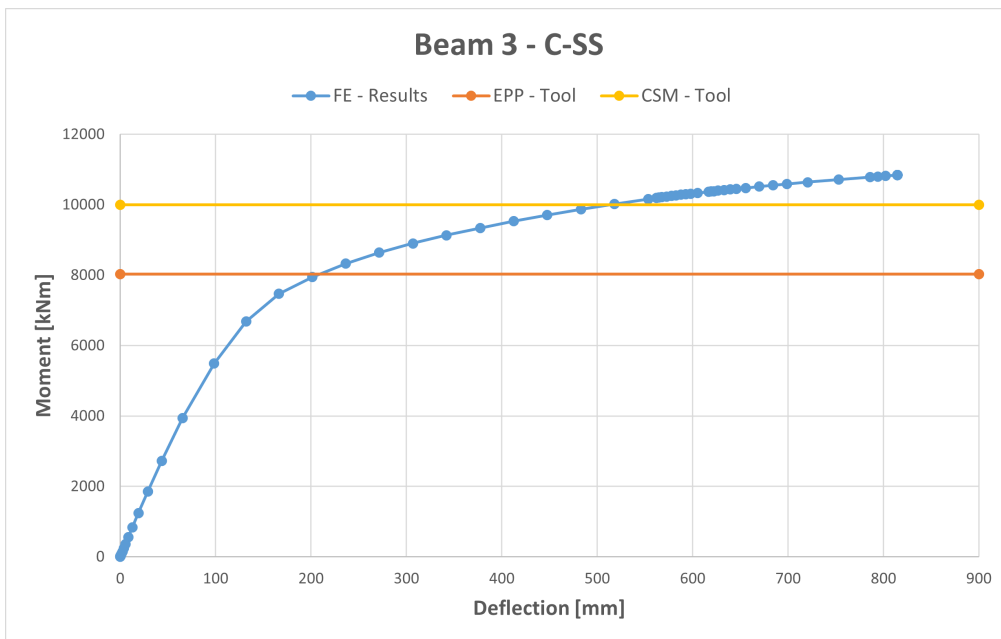


Figure 7.3: *Moment-displacement curve from FE-analysis for Beam 3*

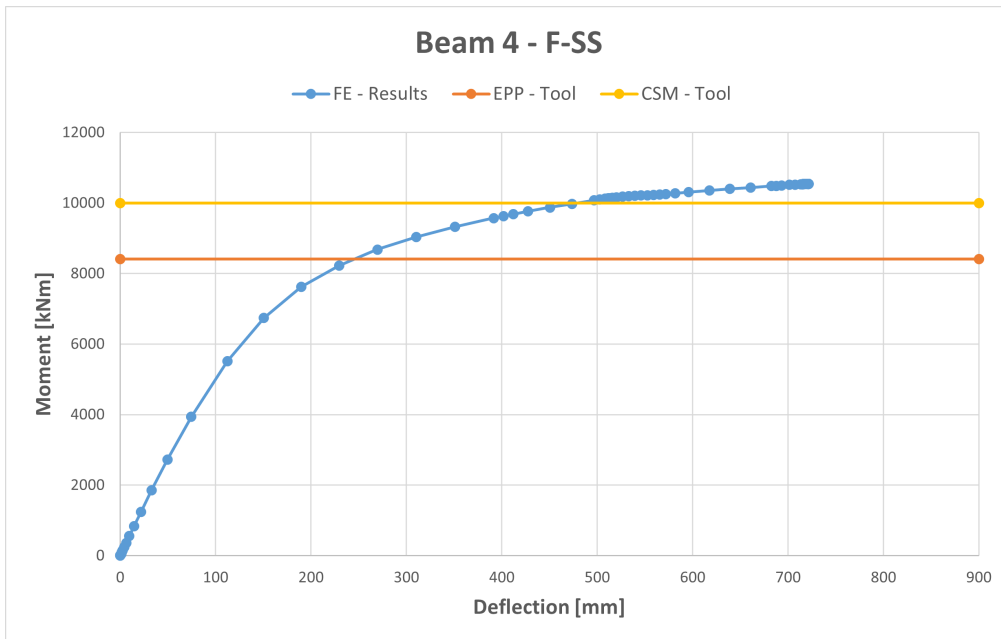


Figure 7.4: *Moment-displacement curve from FE-analysis for Beam 4*

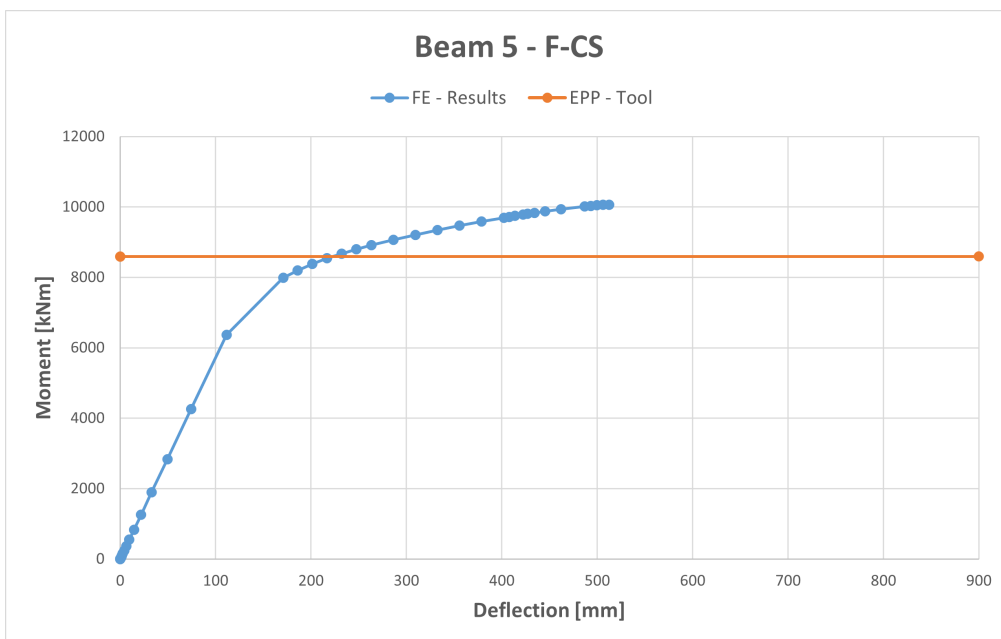


Figure 7.5: *Moment-displacement curve from FE-analysis for Beam 5*

The simulations for all the beams exceed the design tool results and with a satisfactory behaviour. The CSM calculation model predicts capacities close to the numerical analysis, but are still on the safe side, which are a great result. However, it should be noted that the moment-displacement curves show no drop at the end. During the case study, numerical problems occurred where the analyses did not run all the way to a capacity drop, it simply stopped. Therefore, it is not possible to conclude that the beam has failed. This could mean that the beams possess higher

capacities than shown from the FE results.

The outputs for beam 3 and beam 4 can be seen below, the deflection is plotted in Figure 7.6 and 7.7. It can be observed that the corrugated beam is more flexible with a higher deflection even though they were designed with the same moment capacity. The von Mises stresses can be seen in Figure 7.8 and 7.9. For beam 3, the stresses in the web are more concentrated in the middle where the beam is subjected to pure bending moment, compared to beam 4. A reason for this is the accordion effect of the corrugated web. The same stresses limited to the true yield stress can be seen in Figure 7.10 and 7.11. The accordion effect has a considerable influence on the yielding of the beams. Both beams are subjected to a similar maximum stress but show a large difference in what parts of the steel that has yielded, and how the strain hardening is activated. The corrugated web stretches with the accordion effect and develop more yielding in the flanges even though the flanges are wider and thicker. While the flat web yield over a larger area and carry a bigger portion of the load. The longitudinal strains in the concrete is shown in Figure 7.12 and 7.13. It can be observed that crushing of the concrete has been initiated at the edge where the load is applied. However, the concrete has significantly less crushing compared to the beam that was used to validated the FEM process in section 6.2.2. This is also a sign that the numerical analysis for the case study beams may not have fully reached its ultimate capacity.

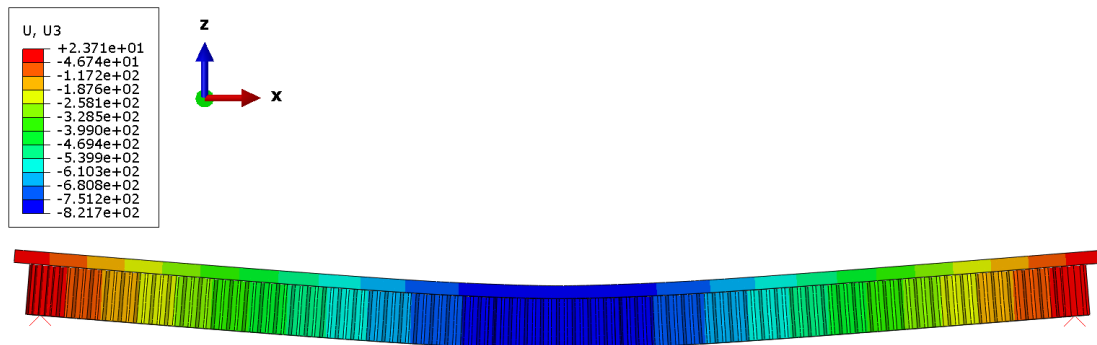


Figure 7.6: *Deflection for beam 3*

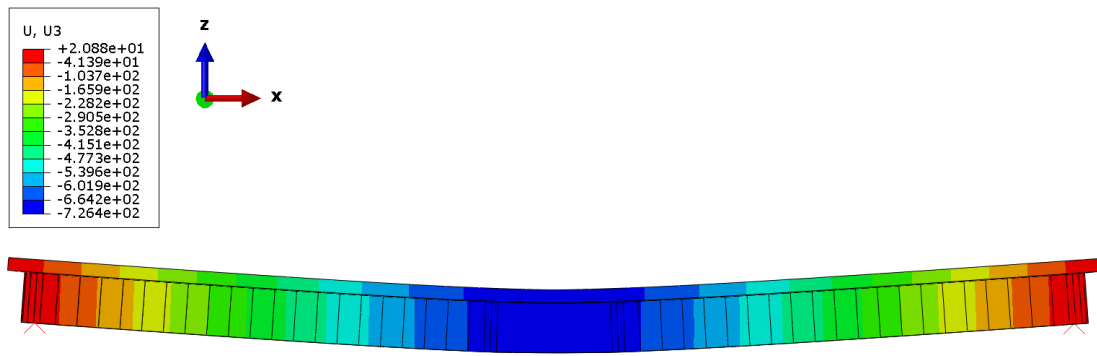


Figure 7.7: Deflection for beam 4

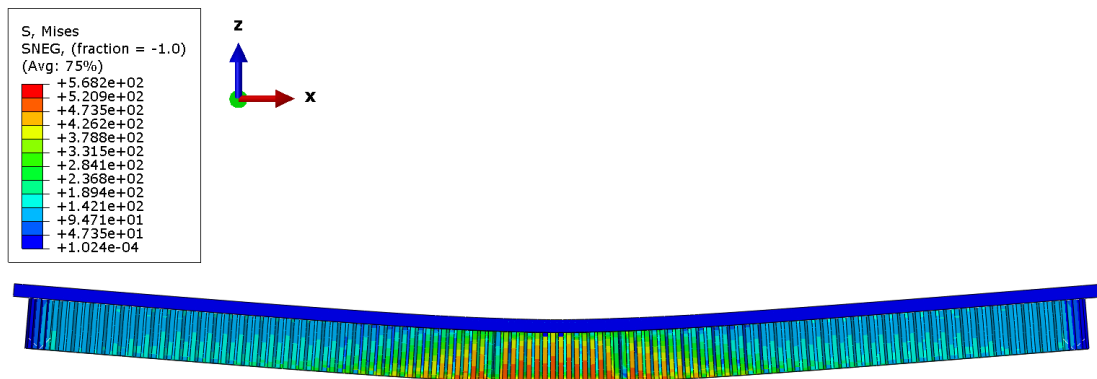


Figure 7.8: Global stress distribution for beam 3

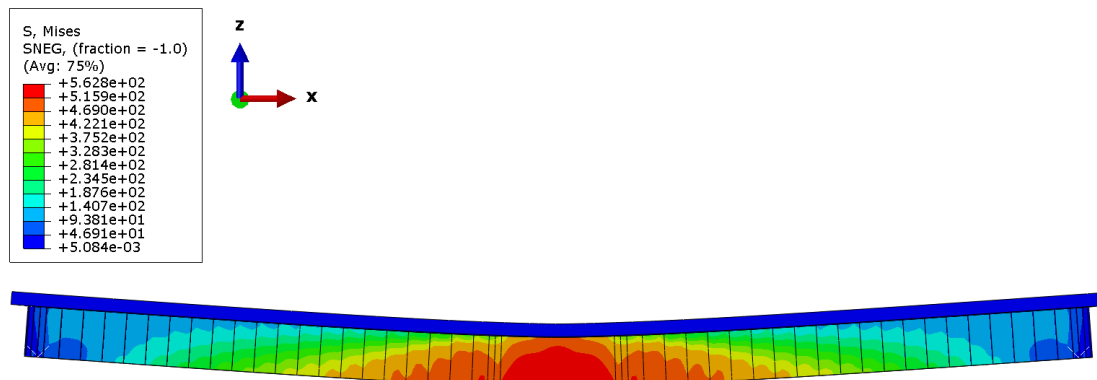


Figure 7.9: Global stress distribution for beam 4

7. Results

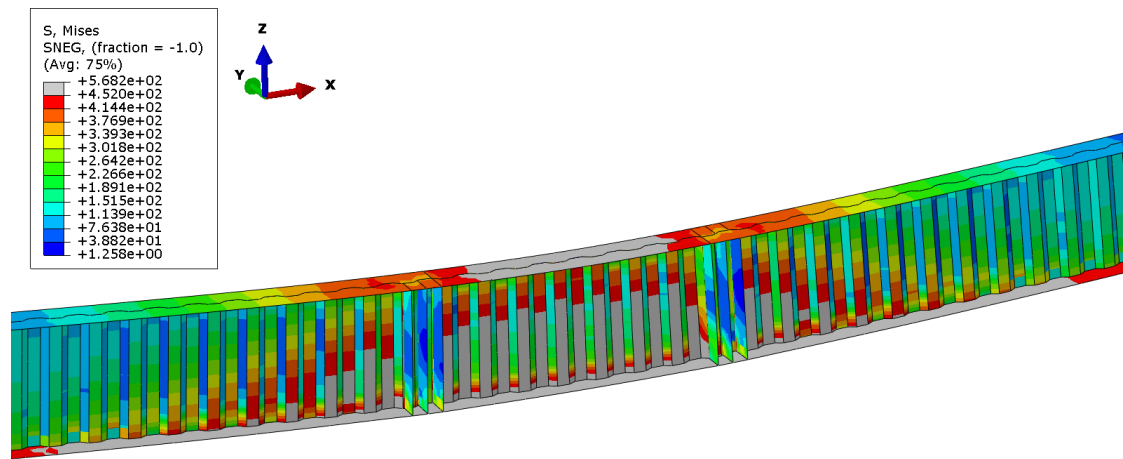


Figure 7.10: *Steel yielding for beam 3*

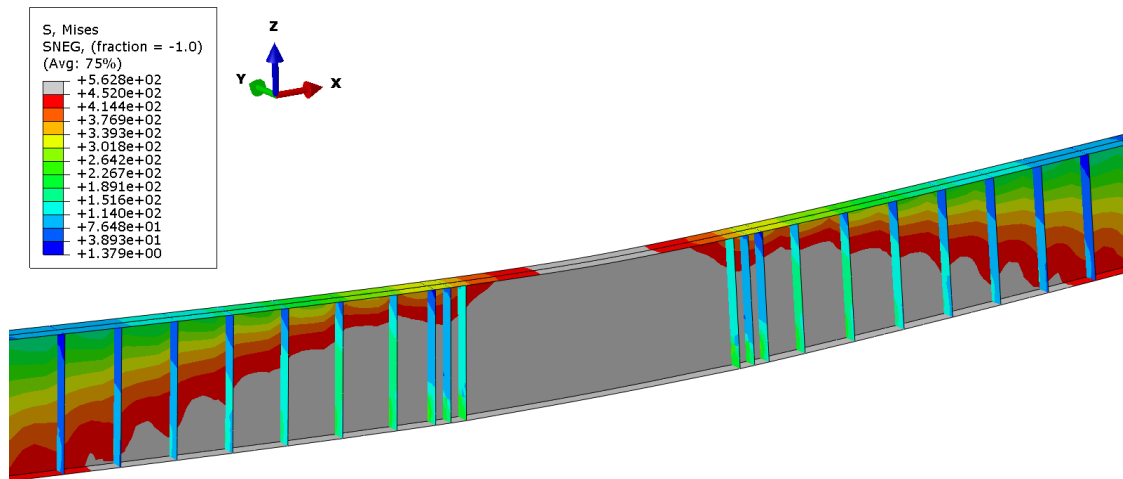


Figure 7.11: *Steel yielding for beam 4*

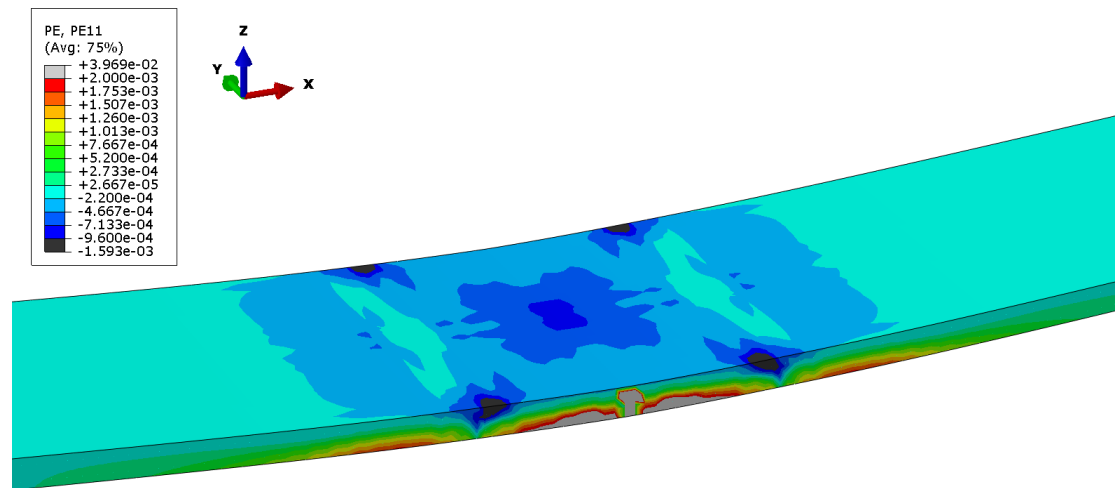


Figure 7.12: *Concrete crushing of beam 3*

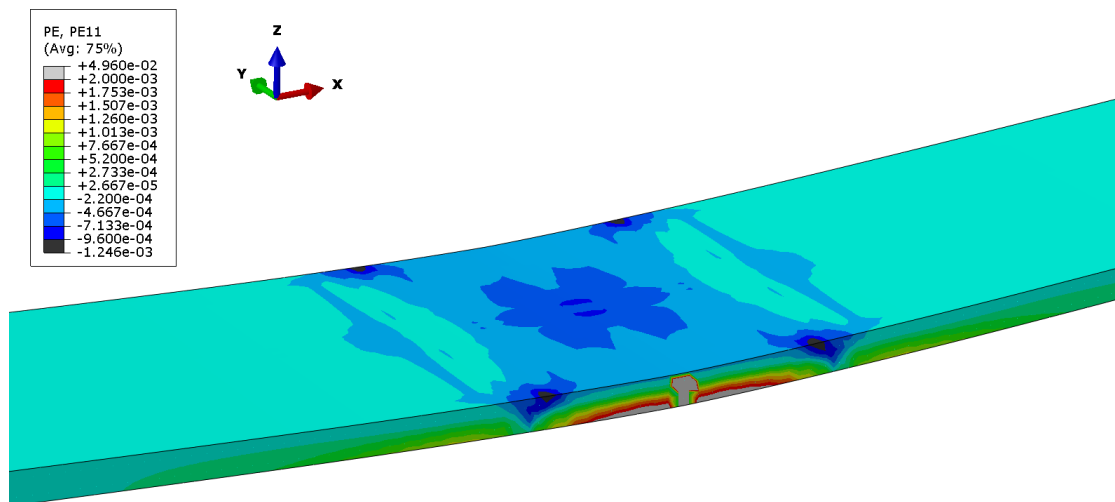
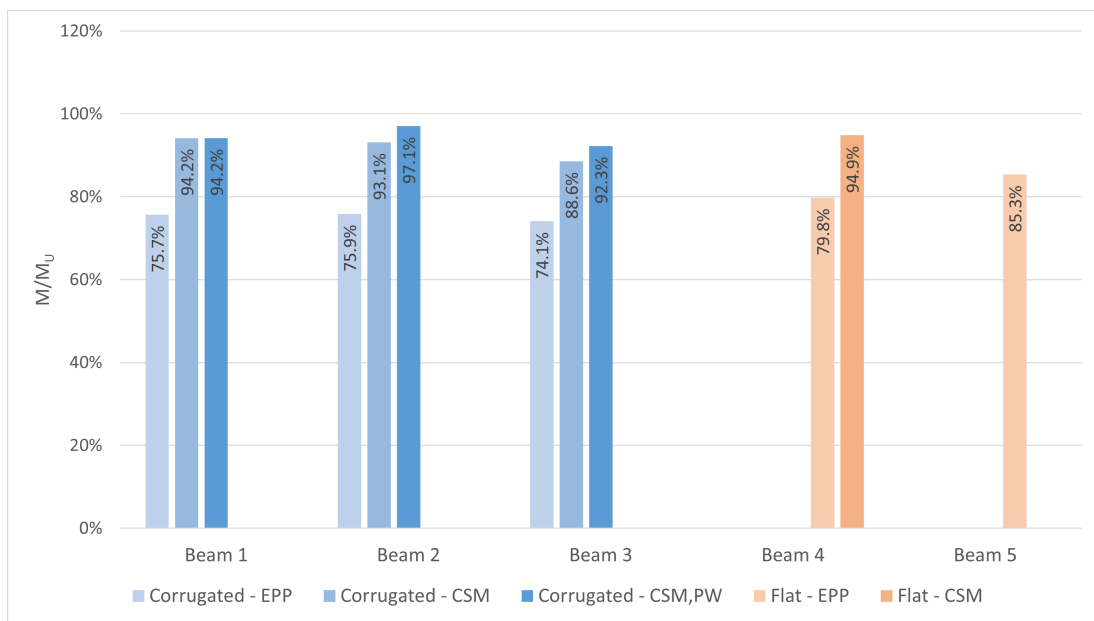


Figure 7.13: *Concrete crushing of beam 4*

The ultimate bending moments from the FE analyses are compared to the ones from the tool for the different beams and calculation models, this comparison can be seen in Table 7.4 and Figure 7.14. The results shows that the EPP calculation model gives moment capacities 24.1-25.9% lower than the FE results for the corrugated beams and 14.7-20.2% for the flat beams. The CSM model resulted in bending moments only 5.8-11.4% difference without and 2.9-7.7% with partial web contribution for the cases with corrugated webs. For beam 4, the CSM model is within 5.1% of the simulation results. It can also be observed that for beam 5 made of carbon steel, the results given by the EPP model is also still a bit conservative.

Table 7.4: Comparison of ultimate moment capacity from the tool and FE-analysis

	Beam 1	Beam 2	Beam 3	Beam 4	Beam 5
M_u [kNm]	10610	10310	10841	10544	10065
M_{EPP} [kNm]	8027	7822	8031	8412	8590
M_{EPP}/M_u	75.7%	75.9%	74.1%	79.8%	85.3%
M_{CSM} [kNm]	9991	9602	9601	10001	-
M_{CSM}/M_u	94.2%	93.1%	88.6%	94.9%	-
$M_{CSM,PW}$ [kNm]	9991	10006	10001	-	-
$M_{CSM,PW}/M_u$	94.2%	97.1%	92.3%	-	-

**Figure 7.14:** Comparison of the moment capacities from the tool and the simulations for the beams in the case study

7.1.2 Additional comparisons of the ultimate moment capacity

In addition to the validation against the FE simulations for the beams in the case study, the design tool results were compared against an experimental test and simulation results from previous research. The compared test result is from the same beam used in the FE method validation, beam specimen CSSB2-SF from Zhou et al. (2021). The other numerical simulation results are from the master's thesis by Ali and Abudaher (2022) that used a similar method of FE modelling as in this thesis. The geometries and materials for all the beams are presented in Table D.5 and D.6 in Appendix D. The ultimate moment capacities for these beams from the test and simulations can be seen in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5: *Ultimate bending moment capacity from experimental test by Zhou et al. (2021) and simulations by Ali and Abudaheer (2022)*

Beams	M_u [kNm]	Source
CSSB2-SF	206	(Zhou et al., 2021)
G1-F	4757.62	(Ali & Abudaheer, 2022)
G1-C	3881.87	(Ali & Abudaheer, 2022)
G2-F	4033.18	(Ali & Abudaheer, 2022)
G2-C	2852.43	(Ali & Abudaheer, 2022)
100-262-1-F	91273.38	(Ali & Abudaheer, 2022)
100-262-1-C	72263.22	(Ali & Abudaheer, 2022)

As for the case study beams, the different beams in this additional study were put into both calculation models in the design tool. The capacity for the beams with flat webs were calculated for both the EPP and CSM model, while the capacity for the corrugated beams also were calculated with and without partial web contribution for the CSM model. The results of the runs in the tool for and comparison against the test and simulation results for the beams with flat webs can be seen in Table 7.6 and in Table 7.7 for the ones with corrugated webs. The comparison of the moment capacities for all beams can also be seen in Figure 7.15.

Table 7.6: *Comparison of results from the tool with test and simulation results for the beams with flat webs*

	CSSB2-SF	G1	G2	100-262-1-F
M_u [kNm]	206	4757.62	4033.18	91273.38
EPP				
M_{EPP} [kNm]	173.94	4236.75	3428.38	82989.27
y_1 [mm]	50.67	185.18	67.4	337.87
M_{EPP}/M_u	84.4%	89.1%	85.0%	90.9%
CSM				
M_{CSM} [kNm]	191.77	4693.75	3998.54	89364.29
y_1 [mm]	55.6	196.97	79.5	521.58
M_{CSM}/M_u	93.1%	98.6%	99.1%	97.9%

7. Results

Table 7.7: Comparison of results from the tool with test and simulation results for the beams with corrugated webs

	G1	G2	100-262-1-C
M_u [kNm]	3881.87	2852.43	72263.22
EPP			
M_{EPP} [kNm]	3129.25	1815.07	63689.29
y_1 [mm]	124.14	34.59	305.53
M_{EPP}/M_u	80.4%	63.6%	88.1%
CSM			
M_{CSM} [kNm]	3482.33	2225.43	71034.42
y_1 [mm]	140.33	42.75	328.64
M_{CSM}/M_u	89.7%	78.0%	98.3%
CSM,PW			
$M_{CSM,PW}$ [kNm]	3482.33	2225.43	71034.42
y_1 [mm]	140.33	42.75	328.64
$M_{CSM,PW}/M_u$	89.7%	78.0%	98.3%

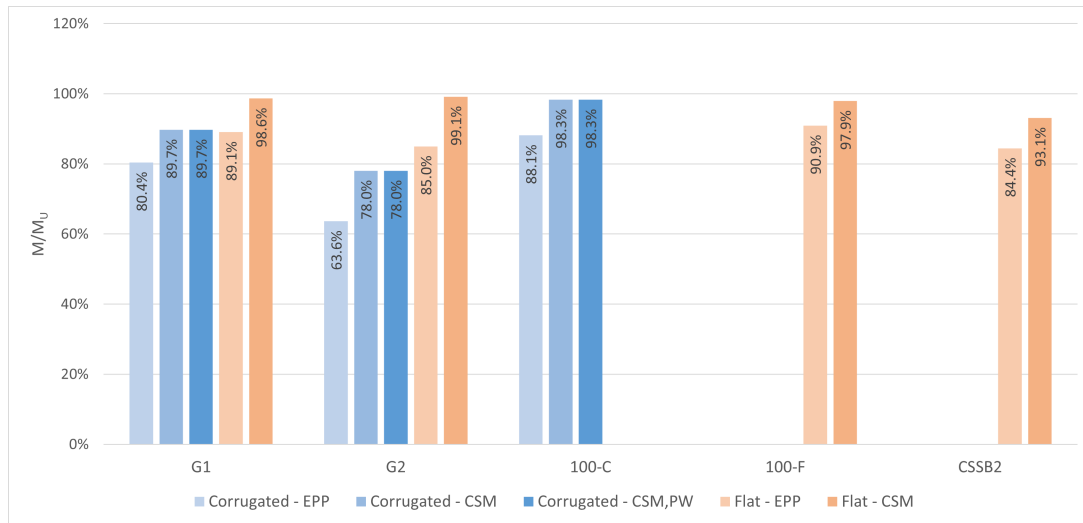


Figure 7.15: Comparison of the moment capacities from the tool and the simulations and test for the beams in the additional validation

The comparison shows a sublime agreement in the results given from the tool with the CSM model and the results from the tests and simulations for the beams with flat webs. With the biggest difference of 6.9% for beam CSSB2-SF while the others were within 2.1% of the simulation results. This good agreement is shown even as the location of the neutral axis shifts between the concrete and steel for the different beams. A substantial increase in plastic bending moment capacity can also be seen when comparing the results for M_{EPP} and M_{CSM} , proving the positive effects of strain hardening. The results for the beams with corrugated webs show a much larger spread in the results. The difference in capacity given by the tool with the CSM model and the simulations vary between 1.7 % and 22% for the different

beams. However, all cases do still show a considerable increase in capacity due to strain hardening.

7.2 Design tool studies

In addition to the study of the ultimate moment capacity, the tool was used to evaluate the effects of the different calculation models and the influence of the different web types. This was done by using the dimensions of beam 1-4 used in the case study, presented in Table 7.1 and 7.2. The geometries of the beams were analysed with both flat and corrugated webs to create more results for the comparison. The results given by the tool for the geometries for the different web types and calculation models are presented in 7.8.

Table 7.8: Results given by the design tool for different web types and calculation models

Flat web EPP					
Beams	$t_{w,eff}$ [mm]	y_1 [mm]	M_{pl} [kNm]	σ_m [MPa]	σ_{max} [MPa]
Beam 1	7	88.2	12183	450	450
Beam 2	8	91.3	11446	450	450
Beam 3	8	112.8	11596	450	450
Beam 4	12	81.4	8412	450	450
Flat web CSM					
Beam 1	7	106.1	14546	541	558
Beam 2	8	108.8	13525	536	552
Beam 3	8	132.5	13468	529	544
Beam 4	12	97.7	10001	540	556
Corrugated web EPP					
Beam 1	0	51.1	8027	450	450
Beam 2	0	55	7822	450	450
Beam 3	0	76.5	8031	450	450
Beam 4	0	27.2	2901	450	450
Corrugated web CSM					
Beam 1	0	63.9	9991	563	582
Beam 2	0	67.9	9602	555	573
Beam 3	0	92.3	9601	543	559
Beam 4	0	35.4	3744	585	606
Corrugated web CSM, Partial web contribution					
Beam 1	0	63.9	9991	563	582
Beam 2	0.8	72.1	10006	553	570
Beam 3	0.8	96.4	10001	541	557
Beam 4	1.2	41.8	4424	577	597

The results shows how the moment capacity changes between cases for the different beam geometries. The stresses σ_m are the stress in the steel that is used for calculat-

ing the moment capacity and σ_{max} are the stress at the bottom of the cross-section. The stress values indicates that even if the neutral axis in in the concrete the steel still have a lot of excess capacity, as the case with the highest stress only reaches 606 MPa and the ultimate capacity is 650 MPa. However, the stress values also indicates that all cases in the CSM models show a great level of strain hardening as all of them reaches stresses well over the yield stress of 450 MPa.

7.2.1 Calculation model comparison

From the results presented in Table 7.8, a comparison of plastic moment capacities calculated with the EPP and CSM models for flat and corrugated webs was performed. The comparison can be seen in Table 7.9 and Figure 7.16. The results shows that all beams have an increased moment capacity due to the strain hardening. It can also be observed that the capacity increase is larger for the beams when a corrugated web is used and even larger when partial web contribution is considered. Especially large is the increase for beam 4 when strain hardening and partial web contribution is considered.

Table 7.9: Comparison of moment capacity given by the EPP and CSM models for beams with corrugated and flat webs in the tool

	Flat web	Corrugated web	
	M_{CSM}/M_{EPP}	M_{CSM}/M_{EPP}	$M_{CSM,PW}/M_{EPP}$
Beam 1	119.40 %	124.47 %	124.47 %
Beam 2	118.16 %	122.76 %	127.92 %
Beam 3	116.14 %	119.55 %	124.53 %
Beam 4	118.89 %	129.06 %	152.50 %

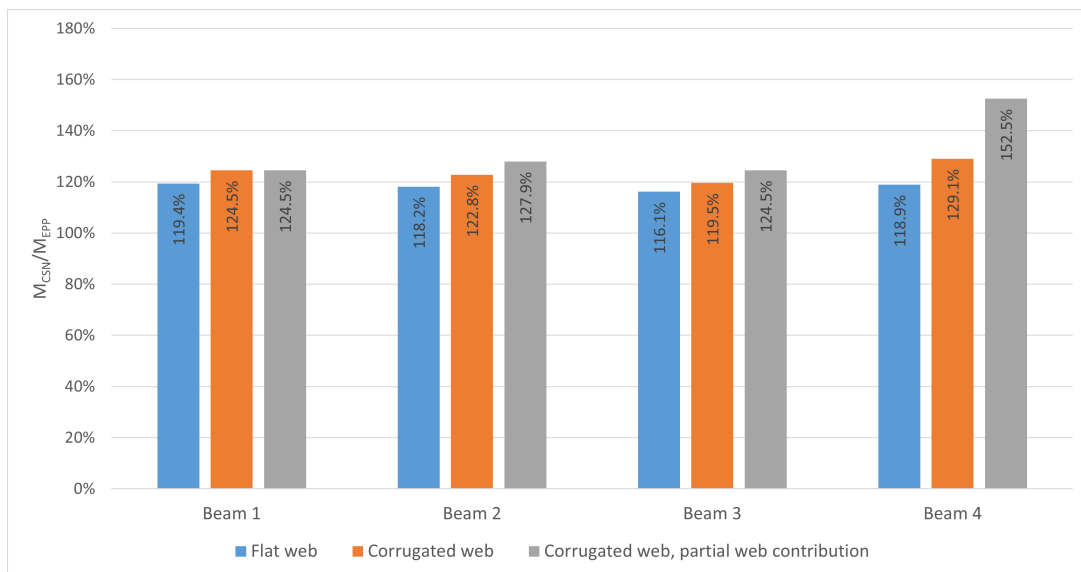


Figure 7.16: Comparison of the moment capacities given by the EPP and CSM calculation models in the tool

7.2.2 Web shape comparison

A comparison of how the moment capacity was affected by different web types was also conducted based on the same results, presented in 7.8. The comparison can be seen in Table 7.10 and Figure 7.17. This comparison shows how the capacity changes if the same dimensions are used for a beam with a corrugated web compared to one with a flat web. Beam 1, 2 and 3 shows a similar reduction of around 25-30% when going from a flat to corrugated web. But beam 4 shows a much greater loss of around 60%.

Table 7.10: Comparison of the results for the different web types

	Beam 1	Beam 2	Beam 3	Beam 4
$M_{F,CSM}$ [kNm]	14546	13525	13468	10001
$M_{C,CSM}$ [kNm]	9991	9602	9601	3744
$M_{C,CSM}/M_{F,CSM}$	68.7%	71.0%	71.3%	37.4%
$M_{C,CSM,PW}$ [kNm]	9991	10006	10001	4424
$M_{C,CSM,PW}/M_{F,CSM}$	68.7%	74.0%	74.3%	44.2%

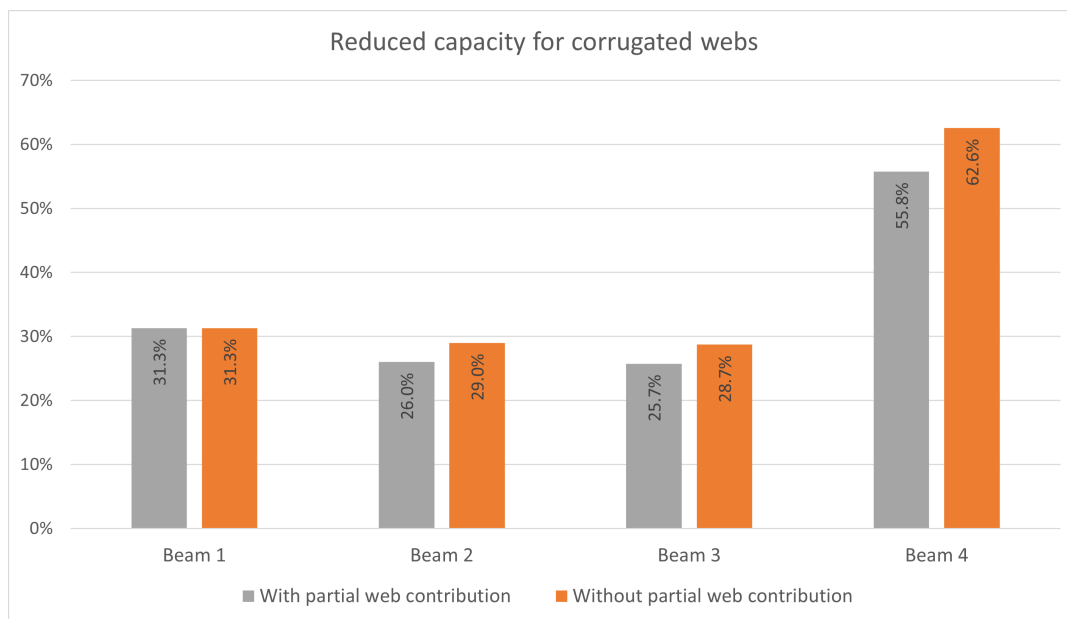


Figure 7.17: Comparison of the reduction in moment capacity when going from a flat to a corrugated web from the tool

8

Discussion

The discussions, observations and conclusions seen and drawn are all based on the results presented in chapter 5, 6 and 7.

8.1 Validation of the tool

Looking at all the results from the tool compared to simulations and tests, both from the case study and the additional validation against previous simulations and test, the tool shows good accuracy.

The comparison of the case study shows that the tool comes within 5.1% of the simulation result for the beam with a flat web for the CSM model. While the EPP model predicts values of 20.2% and 14.7% lower than the simulations for the beam with stainless and carbon steel, respectively. This shows how important the incorporation of strain hardening in the calculation models is, especially when stainless steel is used. For the beams with corrugated webs, the tool is within 11.4% without partial web contribution and 7.6% with partial web contribution for the CSM model. The EPP model is in this case predicting capacities around 25% lower than the simulation results, which is even more inaccurate than for the beams with flat webs. This shows the increased activation of strain hardening with corrugate webs and promising results for the theory of partial web contribution. Both of which are neglected in the EPP model from Eurocode.

Looking at the results of the additional validation, a similar behaviour can be observed. The results for the beams with flat webs are extremely accurate, within 7% for the CSM model while the EPP model gives results 9.1-15.6% lower than the experimental test and simulations. For the beams with corrugated webs, a big discrepancy can be observed for results of the different beams. The tool results are within 1.7% of the simulations for beam 100-262-1 and only 22% for beam G2. The difference might come from the vast variation in design of these two beams. The cross-sectional web area of beam G2 stand for almost 50% of the total steel area, while for beam 100-262-1 this ratio is only around 10%. This will lead to a substantial difference in capacity as the steel area in the web is completely neglected in the tool calculation, as none of the beams in the additional validation reaches the criteria for partial web contribution. The EPP model does in this case also predict conservative results ranging from 11.9% for beam 100-262-1 and 36.4% for beam G2.

Looking at the results for all the beams from both validations, the results are overall good. For the beams with flat webs the CSM is never further than 7% away from the values given by the experimental test and simulations. This lines up well with what previous studies of the model by Shamass and Cashell (2019) and Zhou et al. (2021). These studies have shown the CSM model gives moment capacities within 5% and 7-15% of simulations in the respective studies.

The case study results show an overall slightly better correlation compared to the additional validation, especially for the beams with corrugated webs. One reason for this comes down to the FE simulations and modelling method used in this study. The convergence study and validation of the CSSB2-SF beam shows that the methodology used can give results that agrees with the experimental result and behaviour. This was achieved by introducing the steel into Abaqus with a much lower yield-point than the normal 0.2% proof-strength in order to capture the highly non-linear material behaviour of the stainless-steel. For the case study, the simulations reached and exceeded the results given by the tool to later stop without showing a drop in load. This makes it difficult to tell if the final value given in the simulation is the ultimate moment capacity of the beam or not. But what it shows is that the beams can withstand at least these loads. Some potential reasons for the aborting analyses can be numerical problems in the FE simulations or that the mesh in the steel girder sometimes became distorted due to the corrugated web and vertical stiffeners. It was also observed that the simulation was extremely sensitive to how the concrete in tension was model both for the geometry and the material behaviour. One last thing could be that the beams failed due to a non-expected failure mode, even though the beams were designed, modelled and stiffened to prevent other failure modes than bending failure. While using the CSM in the design tool, the applied stress will be calculated from either a concrete crushing failure at the top or a steel tension failure in the bottom. It should be noted that no other failure mode is taken into account in the design tool. This is why it is important to prevent other possible failure modes in the FE-analysis.

The incorporated plastic calculations in the design tool uses the simplified CSM. This method multiplies the steel height with a factor of 0.6 and finds the stress at that location. This specific stress is applied over the entire steel girder for the bending moment capacity calculation. However, this factor has only previously been verified for beams with flat webs and with the NA in the concrete. As the tool was meant to manage more cases, such as when the NA is located in the steel and beams with corrugated webs. The factor 0.6 was also used for these cases and for the development of the additional calculation models. The tool results with this assumption were promising, however, further studies and validations are needed to confirm this assumption, specially for cases with a corrugated web.

8.2 Comparison of different calculation models

The results in Table 7.9 shows how the tool moment capacities change between the EPP model to the CSM model. For all beams, the increase in moment capacity when

considering strain hardening is larger for the cases with corrugated webs than with flat webs. This correlates with the observations found by Ali and Abudaher (2022), that the beams with corrugated webs show a more flexible and ductile behaviour and hence, a greater activation of strain hardening in the steel. It can also be noted that the choice of incorporating partial web contribution leads to an additional increase in moment capacity for the beams where it is applicable. The largest increase is for beam 4, this comes down to the fact that this beam has a thicker web compared to the others and therefore get a bigger increase of the effective web thickness. Beam 4 does also have a deep and slender steel girder, with a deep but thick web and small upper and lower flanges. This will lead to a bigger portion of total capacity coming from the web, so activating a partial thickness of the web will have a great impact on the capacity.

8.3 Comparison of results for flat and corrugated webs

The comparison of moment capacity from the tool when going from a flat to a corrugated web with the same dimension, presented in Table 7.10, shows some variation for the different beams. Beam 1, 2 and 3 shows similar reductions in moment capacity, while beam 4 shows much larger decrease. The larger decrease for beam 4 is probably due to the web dimension as discussed earlier. When its deep and thicker web is not, or only partially considered, the beam loses a vast part of its capacity. Regardless, all beams show a decrease around or larger than 25%, which is larger than what Elamary et al. (2017) concluded. This indicates that there might be some inaccuracies in the values predicted by the tool. The model used for the flat webs in the tool is as previously stated well studied and validated and is assumed to give accurate results, which also can be seen in the tool validation in this study. However, the model is not previously assessed for cases with corrugated webs which suggests that this might be where the main part of the difference comes from.

As both the model with and without partial web contribution show larger differences than 10-20% the inaccuracy can come down to two things. It can be either that the criteria for the partial web contribution or the CSM model for corrugated webs is too conservative.

8.4 Evaluation of the new calculation models

The evaluation of the new models when the NA is located in the steel presented in section 5.3 show a promising result and a stable behaviour. The cases 1-4 where the NA moves from the concrete to the steel show a good correlation between the increase in moment capacity and increase in area of the lower flange. For cases 5-10, where the NA shifts between the steel flange and web the difference between the increase in flange area and moment capacity is larger. For these beams the steel

area of the lower flange becomes a larger portion of the total steel area in the cross-section, around 50% compared to around 35% for cases 1-5. This leads to the flange becoming more impactful in the overall moment capacity. The NA moving down also limits the moment capacity from the lower flange in two ways, by reducing the distributed steel stress σ_m and shortening the lever arm for the lower steel flange. These two observations combined explain the larger difference in the flange area and moment capacity ratios.

8.5 Observations when generating the case study beams

During the development of the case study beams, multiple cross-sections were tested for the different calculation models of the tool. The goal was to find good designs reaching the target moment capacity while trying to keep the steel use in the cross-section as low as possible. This procedure resulted in a plethora of tested designs that are presented in Table D.1 - D.4 in Appendix D. During this procedure, a couple of interesting observations regarding how the different types of beams behaved were detected. The first observation was that, in general the beams with flat webs could be altered to use less steel in the cross-section than the beams with corrugated webs. This is however only when the ultimate bending capacity is considered and only based on the steel area in the cross-section. For real designed beams, which are designed for additional phenomenon, comparing to total steel volume might be more interesting. This would make it possible to include the steel in vertical and horizontal stiffeners and the actual length of the corrugated web to capture the true steel consumption.

Another observation was how the final designs of the beams with the different web types differed from each other. The beams with flat webs ended up with small steel flanges and a deep web, as this was the most material efficient design. Without any geometrical limitations, this would mean that the most "optimal" beam according to the design tool would have unrealistically deep web with tiny flanges. For the beams with corrugated webs, this was not the case. The most material efficient designs were found with an equally sized top flange as the ones with flat webs but with a limited web height and instead increasing size of the lower steel flange. This can be due to the fact that the steel in the web itself is not fully considered in the bending moment capacity. After a certain web height, increasing it even further would only lead to a decrease in capacity. The decrease comes from a reduced strain hardening in the bottom flange due to increased stiffness of the cross-section and the location of the neutral axis shifting downwards.

It was also observed that when trying to activate a partial contribution of the corrugated web, the steel area increased. This comes down to the fact that in order to reach the minimum web slenderness criteria, presented in Table 4.2, the web height had to be limited. This limitation in web height led to that the overall performance

and activation of strain hardening was lowered in such a way that the minor increase in web contribution was not beneficial.

The last observation that was found when trying to optimize the activation of strain hardening as much as possible, by making the cross-sections fail due to tensile rupture in the steel. This proved to be particularly difficult to attain due to the vast difference in ultimate strain of the concrete around 0.35% and the stainless steel around 18-45%. In order to attain this behaviour, both extremely small steel flanges and a very thin and deep web had to be used, sizes of which in combination are neither reasonable nor feasible in a real design case. Hence concluding that the highly ductile behaviour of the stainless steel will almost always lead to a failure govern by concrete crushing for steel-concrete composite beams in bending.

8.6 Further development and future studies

The results and observation from this thesis are overall satisfactory, but still further development and studies are needed of the models and methods presented and used. As the FE simulations proved to be more unstable and not always performing as wanted. Therefore, it could be good to evaluate the FE procedure further to gain a deeper understanding of the behaviour.

The tool and the incorporated models show a promising behaviour, especially for beams with flat webs. For beams with corrugated webs and for cases when the NA enters the steel girder, more testing is needed to validate or potentially alter the models. The results for the beams with corrugated webs altogether are slightly further away from the simulations results than beams with flat webs. One suggestion is making an alteration to the calculation models, by changing at what location the steel stress value is evaluated. Instead of using a constant of 0.6, the factor could instead be variable. For example, it could be dependent on the location of the NA or geometrical parameters of the corrugation design. One other option is looking over the limits or how the partial web contribution is applied. In this thesis, only three of the seven studied beams with corrugated webs could benefit of partial web contribution. Making the limits slightly less strict or depend on different factors are two suggestions that can be examined. As the results from this thesis show, once the partial web contribution is utilized the results from the tool gets closer to the simulation results.

The models for when the NA is located in the steel established in this thesis have also been put through limited testing. The results from this test were promising, but they do still need further validation and balancing.

In its current state, the tool and the calculation models used in it are intended to be used as a part of ongoing research. However, the long-term goal is to change the models and methods recommended in the Eurocode standards for design. Based on the results and experience gathered during the work with this thesis, some potential

ways on how this can be done are suggested. The positive effects of strain hardening of the stainless steel could be implemented by replacing the EPP model in Eurocode with the CSM models used in this thesis. But only once all the calculation models are fully validated and tested. One other way could be to create an additional factor used for the current EPP model if stainless steel is used. This factor could be dependent on how deep into the beam the NA is located and based on this, either increase or reduce the moment capacity in line with the predicted added capacity due to strain hardening. For corrugated webs, the theory of a partial web contribution thickness has shown promising results and if studied further, this could directly be implemented in the Eurocode standards.

Outside of the scope of this thesis are some topics that might be interesting to investigate further. One could be to implement strain hardening also for the carbon steel. As could be seen in the case study for beam 5, the EPP model was also quite conservative, even when carbon steel was used. It would also be interesting to do full scale experimental testing of stainless steel-concrete beams to see how they behave. As there is a lack of such test results right now.

9

Conclusion

The aim of this master's thesis was to develop a design tool that should be able to determine the ultimate bending capacity of steel-concrete composite bridge beams. It should be able to handle both carbon and stainless steel with flat or corrugated web plates, while considering strain hardening for stainless steel. From the studies and observation in this thesis, the tool is concluded to be able to perform with satisfactory accuracy. The tool and the calculation models do however need some additional testing, balancing and validation for specific designs and cases.

The method of modelling and the simulating in finite element proved to be more difficult and sensitive than expected and could use some further development. However, the results for both ultimate capacity and deflections were still satisfactory for the aim of this study.

The design tool results also show a large impact of including strain hardening for the stainless steel for the ultimate bending capacity. Especially for beams with corrugated webs, due to their increased flexibility with and without considering partial web contribution. Current standards given by Eurocode neglect both the effects of strain hardening and the contribution of the corrugated web plates in bending. By using the models for the continuous strength method and considering a partial web contribution, a more accurate capacity and higher material utilization can be achieved. Therefore, the design models for calculation of the plastic bending moment capacity given by Eurocode needs to be updated, for both stainless steel and beams with corrugated webs.

The designs and resistances studied in this thesis are limited to only the ultimate bending resistance of the beams. More developed designs with consideration of all potential failure modes during all phases from construction to demolition might behave differently. Leading to different observations and results than the ones achieved in this thesis.

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A

Eurocode cross-section classification

A.1 Carbon steel

Limits and checks for cross-section classification for carbon steel according to SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) can be seen in Figure A.1 and A.2.

Table A.1: Cross-section classification for internal compression component in carbon steel SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) Table 7.3

Internal compression parts			
Key			
1 Axis of bending			
	Part subject to bending	Part subject to compression	Part subject to bending and axial force
Stress distribution in parts (compression positive)			
Class 1	$c/t \leq 72 \varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 28 \varepsilon$	when $\alpha_c > 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{126 \varepsilon}{5,5 \alpha_c - 1}$ when $\alpha_c \leq 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{36 \varepsilon}{\alpha_c}$
Class 2	$c/t \leq 83 \varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 34 \varepsilon$	when $\alpha_c > 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{188 \varepsilon}{6,53 \alpha_c - 1}$ when $\alpha_c \leq 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{41,5 \varepsilon}{\alpha_c}$
Stress distribution in parts (compression positive)			

A. Eurocode cross-section classification

Class 3	$c/t \leq 121 \varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 38 \varepsilon$	$\text{when } \psi > -1 : c/t \leq \frac{38 \varepsilon}{0,608 + 0,343 \psi + 0,049 \psi^2}$ $\text{when } \psi \leq -1^a : \frac{c}{t} \leq 60,5 \varepsilon (1 - \psi)$
<p>For I or H sections with equal flanges, under axial force and bending moment about the main axis parallel to the flanges, the parameter α_c that defines the position of the plastic neutral axis may be calculated as follows:</p> <p>If $N_{Ed} \geq c t_w f_y$ $\alpha_c = 1,0$ If $N_{Ed} \leq -c t_w f_y$ $\alpha_c = 0$</p> <p>In other cases: $\alpha_c = 0,5 \left(1 + \frac{N_{Ed}}{c t_w f_y} \right)$</p> <p>where N_{Ed} is the design axial force taken as positive for compression and negative for tension.</p>			
^a $\psi \leq -1$ and a compression stress of $\sigma_{com,Ed} = f_y$ applies where the tensile strain $\varepsilon_t > f_y/E$			

Table A.2: Cross-section classification for external compression component in carbon steel SS-EN 1993-1-1 (2022) Table 7.4

Outstand flanges				
	Rolled sections		Welded sections	
	Part in pure compression	Part subject to bending and axial force		
Stress distribution in parts (compression positive)				
Class 1	$c/t \leq 9 \varepsilon$	$c/t \leq \frac{9 \varepsilon}{\alpha_c}$	$c/t \leq \frac{9 \varepsilon}{\alpha_c \sqrt{\alpha_c}}$	
Class 2	$c/t \leq 10 \varepsilon$	$c/t \leq \frac{10 \varepsilon}{\alpha_c}$	$c/t \leq \frac{10 \varepsilon}{\alpha_c \sqrt{\alpha_c}}$	
Stress distribution in parts (compression positive)				
Class 3	$c/t \leq 14 \varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 21 \varepsilon \sqrt{k_\sigma}$ For k_σ see EN 1993-1-5		

A.2 Stainless steel

Limits and checks for cross-section classification for stainless steel according to SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) can be seen in Figure A.3 and A.4 and updated limits according

to SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1 (2015) can be seen in Figure A.5 and A.5.

Table A.3: Cross-section classification for internal compression component in stainless steel SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) Table 5.2

Internal compression parts				
Class	Part subject to bending	Part subject to compression	Part subject to bending and compression	
Stress distribution in parts (compression positive)				
1	$c/t \leq 56,0\epsilon$	$c/t \leq 25,7\epsilon$	when $\alpha > 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{308\epsilon}{13\alpha - 1}$ when $\alpha \leq 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{28\epsilon}{\alpha}$	
2	$c/t \leq 58,2\epsilon$	$c/t \leq 26,7\epsilon$	when $\alpha > 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{320\epsilon}{13\alpha - 1}$ when $\alpha \leq 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{29,1\epsilon}{\alpha}$	
Stress distribution in parts (compression positive)				
3	$c/t \leq 74,8\epsilon$	$c/t \leq 30,7\epsilon$	$c/t \leq 15,3\epsilon\sqrt{k_\sigma}$ For k_σ see EN 1993-1-5	
$\epsilon = \left[\frac{235}{f_y} \frac{E}{210\,000} \right]^{0,5}$	Grade	1.4301	1.4401	1.4462
	f_y (N/mm ²)	210	220	460
	ϵ	1,03	1,01	0,698
Note: For hollow sections, c may conservatively be taken as $(h-2t)$ or $(b-2t)$.				

Table A.4: Cross-section classification for external compression component in stainless steel SS-EN 1993-1-4 (2006) Table 5.2

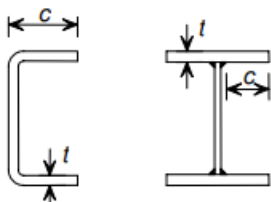
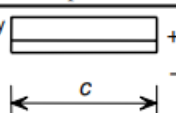
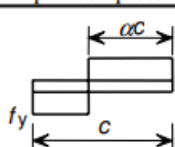
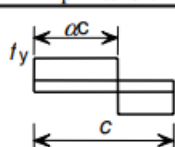
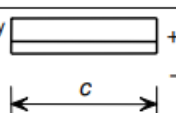
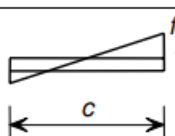
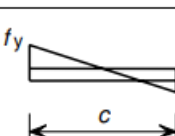
Outstand flanges					
					
Class	Section type	Part subject to compression	Part subject to bending and compression		
			Tip in compression	Tip in tension	
1	Cold formed				
	Welded	$c/t \leq 10\epsilon$	$c/t \leq \frac{10\epsilon}{\alpha}$	$c/t \leq \frac{10\epsilon}{\alpha\sqrt{\alpha}}$	
2	Cold formed	$c/t \leq 9\epsilon$	$c/t \leq \frac{9\epsilon}{\alpha}$	$c/t \leq \frac{9\epsilon}{\alpha\sqrt{\alpha}}$	
	Welded	$c/t \leq 10,4\epsilon$	$c/t \leq \frac{10,4\epsilon}{\alpha}$	$c/t \leq \frac{10,4\epsilon}{\alpha\sqrt{\alpha}}$	
3	Cold formed				
	Welded	$c/t \leq 11,9\epsilon$	$c/t \leq 18,1\epsilon\sqrt{k_\sigma}$ For k_σ see EN 1993-1-5	$c/t \leq 16,7\epsilon\sqrt{k_\sigma}$ For k_σ see EN 1993-1-5	
$\epsilon = \left[\frac{235}{f_y} \frac{E}{210\,000} \right]^{0,5}$		Grade	1.4301	1.4401	1.4462
		f_y (N/mm ²)	210	220	460
		ϵ	1,03	1,01	0,698

Table A.5: Cross-section classification for external compression component in stainless steel SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1 (2015) section 9

...			
Class	Part subject to bending	Part subject to compression	Part subject to bending and axial force
...			
1	$c/t \leq 72\varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 33\varepsilon$	when $\alpha > 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{396\varepsilon}{13\alpha - 1}$ when $\alpha \leq 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{36\varepsilon}{\alpha}$
2	$c/t \leq 76\varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 35\varepsilon$	when $\alpha > 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{420\varepsilon}{13\alpha - 1}$ when $\alpha \leq 0,5$: $c/t \leq \frac{38\varepsilon}{\alpha}$
...			
3	$c/t \leq 90\varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 37\varepsilon$	$c/t \leq 18,5\varepsilon\sqrt{k_\sigma}$ For k_σ see EN 1993-1-5
...			

A. Eurocode cross-section classification

Table A.6: Cross-section classification for external compression component in stainless steel SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1 (2015) section 9

...				
Class	Section type	Part subject to compression	Part subject to bending and axial force	
			Tip in compression	Tip in tension
...				
1	Cold formed and welded	$clt \leq 9\varepsilon$	$clt \leq \frac{9\varepsilon}{\alpha}$	$clt \leq \frac{9\varepsilon}{\alpha\sqrt{\alpha}}$
2	Cold formed and welded	$clt \leq 10\varepsilon$	$clt \leq \frac{10\varepsilon}{\alpha}$	$clt \leq \frac{10\varepsilon}{\alpha\sqrt{\alpha}}$
...				
3	Cold formed and welded	$clt \leq 14\varepsilon$	$clt \leq 21,0\varepsilon\sqrt{k_\sigma}$ For k_σ see EN 1993-1-5	
...				

B

Design tool python code

B.1 Material data module

```
# Master's Thesis
#
# Design Tool for Ultimate Bending Resistance of a Steel-Concrete Composite Beam
#
# Albin Karlsson & Gustav Friman
# June 2023
#
# -----
# MATERIAL CLASS MODULE
#
# Contents:
# 0. Import Modules
# 1. Concrete material properties
# 2. Carbon-Steel material properties
# 3. Stainless-Steel material propertie
# 4. Material properties from test data
# -----
# Eurocode strandards used in this module:
# SS-EN 1992-1-1:2005
# SS-EN 1993-1-1:2022
# SS-EN 1993-1-4:2006
# SS-EN 1993-1-4:2006/A1:2015
# SS-EN 10088-2:2014
# -----
# 0. Import Modules
# -----

#General modules
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd

# -----
# 1. Concrete material properties
#
# Input:
# ConcreteGrade Material grade: ['C20/25',
#                                 'C25/30',
#                                 'C30/35',
#                                 'C35/45',
#                                 'C40/50',
#                                 'C45/55',
#                                 'C50/60',
#                                 'C55/67',
#                                 'C60/75'] [string, - ]
#
# Output:
# MtrlPar_c Material properties [fck, fcm, fctm, fctk005, fctk095, Ecm,
#                                 eps_cu]
#
# Where:
# fck Characteristic compression strength [float, MPa]
# fcm Mean compressive strength [float, MPa]
# fctm Mean tensile strength [float, MPa]
```



```

        ['S500', 500, 580, 450, 550], # \
        ['S550', 550, 600, 500, 600], # |
        ['S600', 600, 650, 550, 650], # \ #See input
        ['S620', 620, 700, 560, 660], # /
        ['S650', 650, 700, '-', '-'], # |
        ['S690', 690, 770, 630, 710], # |
        ['S700', 700, 750, '-', '-']] # /

#Row location for the given steel grade
location_cs = np.argwhere(Mtrl_cs == SteelGrade)[: ,0]

#Strength dependant on thickness
if t <= 40:
    fy = Mtrl_cs[location_cs,1]
    fu = Mtrl_cs[location_cs,2]
elif 40 < t < 80:
    fy = Mtrl_cs[location_cs,3]
    fu = Mtrl_cs[location_cs,4]
else:
    print('OBS: Invalid plate thickness for Carbon-Steel,'
          'please lower the thickness below 80mm')

#Invalid steel and thickness
if fy == '-' or fu == '-':
    print('OBS: Invalid Carbon-Steel grade for the given plate thickness,'
          'please lower thickness below 40mm or change steel grade')

#Young's modulus and poisson's ratio - SS-EN 1993-1-1, Section 5.2.5
E = 210000

#Output
self.fy = float(fy)
self.fu = float(fu)
self.E = E

# -----
# 3. Stainless-Steel material properties
#
# Input:
# t Plate thickness [float, mm ]
# ProductForm ColdRolledStrip, HotRolledStrip,
# HotRolledPlate, Bars/Rods/Sections [string, - ]
# SteelGrade Ferritic: ['1.4003',
#                        '1.4016',
#                        '1.4512']
#                        Austenitic: ['1.4306',
#                                     '1.4307',
#                                     '1.4541',
#                                     '1.4301',
#                                     '1.4401',
#                                     '1.4404',
#                                     '1.4539',
#                                     '1.4571',
#                                     '1.4432',
#                                     '1.4435',
#                                     '1.4311',
#                                     '1.4406',
#                                     '1.4439',
#                                     '1.4529',
#                                     '1.4547',
#                                     '1.4318']
#                        Duplex: ['1.4062',
#                                 '1.4162',
#                                 '1.4482',
#                                 '1.4662',
#                                 '1.4362',
#                                 '1.4462'] [string, - ]
#
# Output:
# MtrlPar_ss Material properties [StainlessType,fy, fu, A, n, E]

```

B. Design tool python code

```

#         Where:
#         StainlessType      Austenitic, Ferritic, or Duplex      [string, - ]
#         fy                 Yield strength                    [float, MPa]
#         fu                 Ultimate strength                  [float, MPa]
#         A                 Elongation after fracture          [float, - ]
#         n                 Strain hardening exponent          [float, - ]
#         E                 Modulus of elasticity              [float, MPa]
# -----

# Material properties - SS-EN 1993-1-4, Table 2.1 with replacements according to
# SS-EN 1993 1-4 A and additions from SS-EN 10088-2, Table 7.
class StainlessSteel:
    def __init__(self, SteelGrade, t, ProductForm):
        #                                     [ColdRolledStip,           HotRolledStrip,
        #         HotRolledPlate,      Bars/Rods/Sections]
        #                                     [ t<=8           ] [ t<=13.5
        #         ] [ t<=75           ] [ t<=250           ]
        #         #         'Grade'      fy      fu      A      fy      fu      A
        #         fy      fu      A      fy      fu      n      StainlessType
        Mtrl_ss = np.array([[ '1.4003', 280, 450, 20, 280, 450, 20,
        250, 450, 18, 260, 450, 14, 'Ferritic',
        [ '1.4016', 260, 450, 20, 240, 450, 18,
        240, 430, 20, 240, 400, 14, 'Ferritic',
        [ '1.4512', 210, 380, 25, 210, 380, 25,
        '- ', '- ', '- ', '- ', '- ', 14, 'Ferritic',
        [ '1.4306', 220, 520, 45, 200, 520, 45,
        200, 500, 45, 180, 460, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4307', 220, 520, 45, 200, 520, 45,
        200, 500, 45, 175, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4541', 220, 520, 40, 200, 520, 40,
        200, 500, 40, 190, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4301', 230, 540, 45, 210, 520, 45,
        210, 520, 45, 190, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4401', 240, 530, 40, 220, 530, 40,
        220, 520, 45, 200, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4404', 240, 530, 40, 220, 530, 40,
        220, 520, 45, 200, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4539', 240, 530, 35, 220, 530, 35,
        220, 520, 35, 230, 530, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4571', 240, 540, 40, 220, 540, 40,
        220, 520, 40, 200, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4432', 240, 550, 40, 220, 550, 40,
        220, 520, 45, 200, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4435', 240, 550, 40, 220, 550, 40,
        220, 520, 45, 200, 500, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4311', 290, 550, 40, 270, 550, 40,
        270, 550, 40, 270, 550, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4406', 300, 580, 40, 280, 580, 40,
        280, 580, 40, 280, 580, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4439', 290, 580, 35, 270, 580, 35,
        270, 580, 40, 280, 580, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4529', '- ', '- ', '- ', '- ', '- ', '- ',
        , 300, 650, 40, 300, 650, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4547', 320, 650, 35, 300, 650, 35,
        300, 650, 40, 300, 650, 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4318', 350, 650, 35, 330, 650, 35,
        330, 630, 45, '- ', '- ', 7, 'Austenitic',
        [ '1.4062', 530, 700, 20, 480, 680, 30,
        450, 650, 30, 380, 650, 8, 'Duplex',
        [ '1.4162', 530, 700, 20, 480, 680, 30,
        450, 650, 30, 450, 650, 8, 'Duplex',
        [ '1.4482', 500, 700, 20, 480, 660, 30,
        450, 650, 30, 400, 650, 8, 'Duplex',
        [ '1.4662', 550, 750, 20, 550, 750, 25,
        480, 680, 25, 450, 650, 8, 'Duplex',
        [ '1.4362', 450, 650, 20, 400, 650, 20,
        400, 630, 25, 400, 600, 8, 'Duplex',
        [ '1.4462', 500, 700, 20, 460, 700, 25,
        460, 640, 25, 450, 650, 8, 'Duplex']])

```

```

#Row location the for given steel grade
location_ss = np.argwhere(Mtrl_ss == SteelGrade)[: ,0]

#Property dependant on thickness and manufacturing method
if ProductForm == 'ColdRolledStrip' and t<=8:
    fy = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,1]
    fu = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,2]
    A = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,3]
elif ProductForm == 'HotRolledStrip' and t<=13.5:
    fy = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,4]
    fu = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,5]
    A = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,6]
elif ProductForm == 'HotRolledPlate' and t<=75:
    fy = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,7]
    fu = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,8]
    A = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,9]
elif ProductForm == 'Bars/Rods/Sections' and t<=250:
    fy = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,10]
    fu = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,11]
else:
    print('OBS: Invalid Product form or thickness')

#Invalid steel grade and thickness
if fy == '-' or fu == '-' or A == '-':
    print('OBS: Invalid Stainless-Steel grade for the given thickness')

#Young's modulus - SS-EN 1993-1-4, Section 2.1.3
if Mtrl_ss[location_ss,13] == 'Ferritic':
    E = 220000
elif (Mtrl_ss[location_ss,0] == '1.4539' or
      Mtrl_ss[location_ss,0] == '1.4529' or
      Mtrl_ss[location_ss,0] == '1.4547'):
    E = 195000
else:
    E = 200000

#Output
self.fy = float(fy)
self.fu = float(fu)
self.A = float(A)/100
self.StainlessType = Mtrl_ss[location_ss,13]
self.E = E
self.n = float(Mtrl_ss[location_ss,12])/100

# -----
# 4. Material properties from test data
#
# Input:
#   Excel sheet      "MaterialData.xlsx": Make sure to use the correct path
#                                     in the "pd.read_excel" function
#   With:           Column 1: Strain      [float, % ]
#                   Column 2: Stress     [float, MPa]
#
# Output:
#   MtrlPar_ex      Material properties   [M_data, eps_02, eps_su, fy, fu, E]
#   Where:
#     M_data        Test data, strain-stress array  [[float, - ],[float, MPa]]
#     eps_02        Strain at 0,2% proof strength   [float, - ]
#     eps_su        Ultimate steel strain           [float, - ]
#     fu            Ultimate strength              [float, MPa]
#     fy            Yield strength                 [float, MPa]
#     E            Young's modulus                 [float, MPa]
# -----
# OBS:This section was written based on the layout and values in the Excel-file
# provided, thfore this section will need to be adapted before use
# -----

class SteelDataEx:
    def __init__(self):

```

B. Design tool python code

```
#Import excel data
Import = pd.read_excel(r'C:\Users\ALKAX\OneDrive - COWI\Exjobb\Design tool\Friman_Karlsson\MaterialData.xlsx')

#Convert data to numpy array
M_data = Import.to_numpy()
M_data[:,0] = M_data[:,0]/100 #Convert strain from [%] to [-]

#Young's modulus
E_v = M_data[:,1]/M_data[:,0]/1000
E = []
for i in range(len(M_data)):
    if 190 <= E_v[i] <=225:
        E.append(E_v[i])
E = np.average(E)

#Ultimate capacity
fu = max(M_data[:,1])
fu_pos = np.argwhere(M_data == fu)[0,0]
eps_su = M_data[fu_pos,0]

#yield capacity
for i in range(len(M_data)):
    eps = M_data[i,0]-M_data[i,1]/(E*1000)
    if eps >= 0.002:
        fy = M_data[i,1]
        eps_02 = M_data[i,0]
        break

#Output
self.M_data = M_data
self.eps_02 = eps_02
self.eps_su = eps_su
self.fu = fu
self.fy = fy
self.E = E*1000
```

B.2 Design function module

```
# Master's Thesis
#
# Design Tool for Ultimate Bending Resistance of a Steel-Concrete Composite Beam
#
# Albin Karlsson & Gustav Friman
# June 2023
#
# -----
# DESIGN FUNCTIONS MODULE
#
# Contents
# 0. Import Modules
# 1. Web corrugation geometry
# 2. Effective concrete width
# 3. Cross section geometry
# 4. Abdella calculations
# 5. Moment calculation with EuroCode
# 6. Moment calculation with strainhardening
#
# -----
# Eurocode strandards used in this module:
# SS-EN 1993-1-5:2006
# SS-EN 1994-2:2005
# SS-EN 1993-1-4:2006
# SS-EN 1993-1-4:2006/A1:2015
# SS-EN 1993-1-1:2022
# -----
```


B. Design tool python code

```
tau_cr_g = 32.4/(tw*hw**2)*(Dx*Dz**3)**(1/4)
lamb_g = np.sqrt(fy/(tau_cr_g*np.sqrt(3)))
Chi_g = 1.15/(0.5+lamb_g**2)

if Chi_g < 1 and Chi_l < 1:
    print('Shear buckling in the corruated web:')
    print('Global buckling may occur, lower hw or raise tw,a1,a3,')
    print('Chi_g',Chi_g)
    print('Local buckling may occur, raise tw or lower a1 and a3')
    print('Chi_l',Chi_l)
elif Chi_g < 1:
    print('Shear buckling in the corruated web:')
    print('Global buckling may occur, lower hw or raise tw,a1,a3,')
    print('Chi_g',Chi_g)
elif Chi_l < 1:
    print('Shear buckling in the corruated web:')
    print('Local buckling may occur, raise tw or lower a1 and a3')
    print('Chi_l',Chi_l)

if Accordion:

    # Parameters for effective web thickness
    bf = min(bf1, bfu)
    R = ((a1+a4)*a3)/((a1+2*a4)*bf)
    O = (bf+a3)/(bf-a3)
    slenderness = hw/tw

    # Conditions for web utilization
    #O: b/a=4.33 =>0.1*tw, b/a=6 =>0.2*tw, b/a=21 =>0.3*tw
    if slenderness <= 90 and R < 0.09 and O <= 1.1:
        t_weff = 0.3*tw
    elif slenderness <= 125 and R < 0.13 and O <= 1.2:
        t_weff = 0.2*tw
    elif slenderness <= 150 and R < 0.18 and O <= 1.6:
        t_weff = 0.1*tw
    else:
        t_weff = 0

    self.tw = round(t_weff,3)

else:
    # Corrugated web with no accordion effect
    self.tw = 0

# Flat web
else:
    self.tw = tw

# -----
# 2. Effective concrete width
#
# This module calculates the effective width of the concrete to be considered based
# on global dimensions for cases when the width is not prescribed.
#
# Input:
#     b0                Shear connector distance                [float, mm]
#     L                 Span length                            [float, mm]
#     girder_space      Girder to girder spacing                [float, mm]
#     girder_space_edge Girder to edge spacing                  [float, mm]
#
# Output:
#     EffConc           Effective concrete width                 [b_eff, b_eff_s]
#     Where:
#         b_eff         Effective concrete width, field          [float, mm]
#         b_eff_s       Effective concrete width, support        [float, mm]
# -----

# Calculation of effective width - SS-EN 1994-2, Section 5.4.1.2
class EffConcWidth:
```

```

def __init__(self, b0, L, girder_space, girder_space_edge, girder_edge):
    # Simply supported span
    Le = L

    # Girder placed adjacent to an edge
    if girder_edge:
        b1 = girder_space/2-b0/2
        b2 = girder_space_edge-b0/2

    # Girder placed in the middle with no adjacent edge
    else:
        b1 = girder_space/2-b0/2
        b2 = girder_space/2-b0/2

    # Effective width for field
    be1 = min(Le/8, b1)
    be2 = min(Le/8, b2)
    self.b_eff = b0+be1+be2

    # Effective width over support
    B1 = min((0.55+0.025*Le/be1), 1)
    B2 = min((0.55+0.025*Le/be2), 1)
    self.b_eff_s = b0 + B1*be1 + B2*be2

# -----
# 3. Cross section geometry
#
# This sections the geometrical cross-sectional constants for the given
# cross-section.
#
# Input:
#     bfu          Upper flange width          [float, mm]
#     tfu          Upper flange thickness     [float, mm]
#     bfl          Lower flange width         [float, mm]
#     tfl          Lower flange thickness     [float, mm]
#     tw           Web thickness              [float, mm]
#     hw           Web height                 [float, mm]
#     tc           Concrete height            [float, mm]
#     bc           Effective width of the concrete flange [float, mm]
#     Es           Young's modulus of the structural steel [float, MPa]
#     Ec           Young's modulus of the concrete [float, MPa]
#
# Output:
#     CrossSecGeo  Cross section geometry      [As, hs, htot, z_tp_s]
#     Where:
#         As       Steel area                  [float, mm^2]
#         hs       Total steel height          [float, mm]
#         htot     Total height                [float, mm]
#         z_tp_s   Steel center of gravity from below [float, mm]
#         Iy       Moment of inertia in the strong direction [float, mm^4]
# -----

class SectionGeometry:
    def __init__(self, bfu, tfu, bfl, tfl, tw, hw, tc, bc, Es, Ec):
        # Steel area
        As_fu = bfu*tfu
        As_fl = bfl*tfl
        As_w = tw*hw
        As = As_fu+As_fl+As_w
        self.As = As

        # Heights
        hs = tfl+tfu+hw
        self.hs = hs
        self.htot = tc+hs

        # Center of gravity calculated form below
        z_tp_s = (tfu*bfu*(tfu/2+hw+tfl)+tfl*bfl*tfl/2+hw*tw*(hw/2+tfl))/As
        self.z_tp_s = z_tp_s

```

B. Design tool python code

```
# Inertia
n = Es/Ec
Ac = bc*tc
Atot = As+Ac/n
z_tp_c = hs+tc/2
z_tp = (As*z_tp_s+Ac/n*z_tp_c)/Atot
Iys = bfu*tfu**3/12+bf1*tfl**3/12+tw*hw**3/12+As_fu*(tfu/2+hw+tfl-z_tp_s)\
      **2+As_fl*(tfl/2-z_tp_s)**2+As_w*(hw/2+tfl-z_tp_s)**2
Iyc = bc*tc**3/12
Iy = Iys+As*(z_tp_s-z_tp)**2+Iyc/n+Ac/n*(z_tp_c-z_tp)**2
self.Iy = Iy

# -----
# 4. Abdella calculations
#
# This module calculates the constatsns used in for the non-linear stress-strain
# relationship of the stainless-steel.
#
# Input:
#     fy          Yield strength          [float, MPa]
#     fu          Ultimate strength       [float, MPa]
#     E           Young's modulus         [float, MPa]
#     A           Elongation after fracture [float, - ]
#     n           Strain hardening exponent [float, - ]
#     StainlessType 'Austenitic', 'Ferritic', or 'Duplex' [string, - ]
#
# Output:
#     Abdella     Material behaviour      [eps_su, eps_02, r_2, r_s, p_s, r, p]
#     Where:
#     eps_su      Ultimate steel strain    [float, - ]
#     eps_02      Strain at 0,2% proof strength [float, - ]
#     r_2         Material behaviour parameter [float, - ]
#     r_s         Material behaviour parameter [float, - ]
#     p_s         Material behaviour parameter [float, - ]
#     r           Material behaviour parameter [float, - ]
#     p           Material behaviour parameter [float, - ]
# -----

class Abdella:
    def __init__(self, fy, fu, E, A, n, StainlessType):

        # Strain
        eps_02=fy/E+0.002
        if StainlessType == 'Ferritic':
            eps_su=min(0.6*(1-fy/fu), A)
        else:
            eps_su=min(1-fy/fu, A)

        # Material behaviour parameters
        r = E*eps_02/fy
        e = fy/E
        E_2 = E/(1+0.002*n/e)
        r_2 = E_2*eps_02/fy
        p = r*(1-r_2)/(r-1)
        r_s = E_2*(eps_su-eps_02)/(fu-fy)
        m = 1+2.8*fy/fu
        E_u = E_2/(1+(r_s-1)*m)
        r_u = E_u*(eps_su-eps_02)/(fu-fy)
        p_s = r_s*(1-r_u)/(r_s-1)

        # Output
        self.eps_su = eps_su
        self.eps_02 = eps_02
        self.r_2 = r_2
        self.r_s = r_s
        self.p_s = p_s
        self.r = r
        self.p = p

# -----
```

```

# 5. Moment calculation with EuroCode
#
# This module locates the location of the neutral axis and calculates the plastic
# bending moment capacity using the elastic, perfectly plastic model recommended by
# eurocode.
#
# Input:
#     er          Balance difference break value          [float, N ]
#     E           Young's modulus                       [float, MPa]
#     htot        Total height                          [float, mm]
#     tc          Concrete height                      [float, mm]
#     bc          Effective concrete width              [float, mm]
#     tfu         Upper flange thickness               [float, mm]
#     bfu         Upper flange width                   [float, mm]
#     tfl         Lower flange thickness               [float, mm]
#     bfl         Lower flange width                   [float, mm]
#     tw          Web thickness                        [float, mm]
#     hw          Web height                           [float, mm]
#     As          Steel area                           [float, mm^2]
#     fy          Yield strength                       [float, MPa]
#     fck         Characteristic compression strength  [float, MPa]
#     z_tp_s      Center of gravity for the steel      [float, mm]
#     SteelType   Stainless or carbon ('SS' or 'CS')  [string, -]
#     WebShape    Flat or Corrugated ('F' or 'C')     [string, -]
#
# Output:
#     MomentCalcEC  Moment calculation                  [beta, M_pl, y1_0]
#     Where:
#         beta      Reduction factor for reduced plastic response [float, - ]
#         M_pl      Plastic bending moment capacity              [float, kNm]
#         y1_0      Neutral axis from the top                    [float, mm]
# -----

# Calculation of plastic moment capacity using the recommended model in eurocode -
# SS-EN 1994-2, Section 6.2.1.2
class MomentCalcEC:
    def __init__(self, er, E, htot, tc, bc, tfu, bfu, tfl, bfl, tw, hw, As, fy, fck, z_tp_s,
                  SteelType, WebShape):

        # Starting values
        M_pl = 0
        y1_0 = 1

        # Loop to iterate the neutral axis
        for i in range(int(round(htot,0))*100):

            #----- Neutral axis in the concrete -----
            if y1_0 <= tc:

                sig_m = fy

                # Forces
                FC = y1_0*0.85*fck*bc
                FT = sig_m*As
                dF = np.abs(FC-FT)

                # Moment calculation if balance is found
                if dF < er:
                    M_pl = sig_m*As*((htot-z_tp_s-y1_0/2))
                    break

                # Continue iteration
                else:
                    y1_0 = y1_0+0.01
                    y1_0 = round(y1_0,2)

            #----- Neutral axis in the steel -----
            else:

```

B. Design tool python code

```
sig_tm = fy
sig_cm = fy

# Forces
if y1_0 >= (tc+tfu):
    FC = 0.85*fck*tc*bc+tfu*bfu*sig_cm+tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)*sig_cm
    FT = tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)*sig_tm+tfl*bfl*sig_tm
else:
    FC = 0.85*fck*tc*bc+(y1_0-tc)*bfu*sig_cm
    FT = bfu*(tc+tfu-y1_0)*sig_tm+tw*hw*sig_tm+tfl*bfl*sig_tm
dF = np.abs(FT-FC)

# Moment calculation if balance is found
if dF < er:

    # Neutral axis in the web
    if y1_0 > (tc+tfu):

        # Checks the cross-section class of web part in compression
        # Flat web with stainless steel
        if SteelType == 'SS' and WebShape == 'F':

            # Check cross section class for the web -
            # SS-EN 1993-1-4, Table 5.2 with replacements according
            # to SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1
            eps_CSC = (235/fy*E/210000)**0.5
            alpha = (y1_0-tc-tfu)/hw
            if hw/tw <= 38*eps_CSC/alpha:
                M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
                    +bfu*tfu*sig_cm*(y1_0-tc-tfu/2)\
                    +tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)**2*sig_cm/2\
                    +tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
                    +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)
            else:
                print('Web not in CSC 1 or 2, Elastic response')
                break

        # Flat web with carbon steel
        elif SteelType == 'CS' and WebShape == 'F':

            # Check cross section class for the web -
            # SS-EN 1993-1-1, Table 7.3
            eps_CSC = (235/fy)**0.5
            alpha = (y1_0-tc-tfu)/hw
            if hw/tw <= 41.5*eps_CSC/alpha:
                M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
                    +bfu*tfu*sig_cm*(y1_0-tc-tfu/2)\
                    +tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)**2*sig_cm/2\
                    +tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
                    +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)
            else:
                print('Web not in CSC 1 or 2, Elastic response')
                break

        # Corrugated web
        else:
            M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
                +bfu*tfu*sig_cm*(y1_0-tc-tfu/2)\
                +tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)**2*sig_cm/2\
                +tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
                +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)\

    # Neutral axis in in the flange
    else:
        M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
            +bfu*(y1_0-tc)**2*sig_cm/2\
            +bfu*(tc+tfu-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
            +tw*hw*sig_tm*(htot-tfl-hw/2-y1_0)\
            +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)
```

```

        break

        # Continue iteration
    else:
        y1_0 = y1_0+0.01
        y1_0 = round(y1_0,2)

# Plasticity check with beta factor - SS-EN 1994-2, Figure 6.3
if y1_0/htot <= 0.15:
    beta = 1
elif y1_0/htot <= 0.4:
    beta = 1-(y1_0/htot-0.15)/(0.4-0.15)*(0.15)
else:
    beta = 0
    print("Location of neutral axis too deep, Elastic response")

# Output
self.beta = beta
self.M_pl = (beta*M_pl)/1000000
self.y1_0 = y1_0

# -----
# 6. Moment calculation with strain hardening
#
# This module locates the position of the neutral axis and calculates the plastic
# bending moment capacity considering strain hardening for stainless steel.
#
# Input:
#     er                Balance difference break value                [float, N ]
#     E                 Young's modulus                            [float, MPa]
#     eps_cu            Ultimate concrete strain                    [float, - ]
#     eps_su            Ultimate steel strain                       [float, - ]
#     eps_y             Strain at yield strength                    [float, - ]
#     htot              Total height                                [float, mm]
#     hs                Total Steel height                          [float, mm]
#     tc                Concrete height                              [float, mm]
#     bc                Effective concrete width                    [float, mm]
#     tfu               Upper flange thickness                     [float, mm]
#     bfu               Upper flange width                          [float, mm]
#     tfl               Lower flange thickness                      [float, mm]
#     bfl               Lower flange width                          [float, mm]
#     tw                Web thickness                               [float, mm]
#     hw                Web height                                  [float, mm]
#     As                Steel area                                  [float, mm^2]
#     fy                Yield strength                              [float, MPa]
#     fck               Characteristic compression strength        [float, MPa]
#     r_2               Material behaviour parameter                [float, - ]
#     r_s               Material behaviour parameter                [float, - ]
#     p_s               Material behaviour parameter                [float, - ]
#     r                 Material behaviour parameter                [float, - ]
#     p                 Material behaviour parameter                [float, - ]
#     z_tp_s            Center of gravity for the steel             [float, mm]
#     SteelType         Stainless or carbon ('SS' or 'CS')         [string, -]
#     WebShape          Flat or Corrugated ('F' or 'C')            [string, -]
#     M_data            Test data, strain-stress array             [[float, -],[float, MPa]]
#
# Output:
#     MomentCalcSH      Moment calculation      [M_pl, y1_0]
#     Where:
#         M_pl           Plastic bending moment capacity            [float, kNm]
#         y1_0           Neutral axis from the top                  [float, mm]
# -----

class MomentCalcSH:
    def __init__(self, er, E, eps_cu, eps_su, eps_y, htot, hs, tc, bc, tfu, bfu, tfl, bfl, tw, hw,
                  As, fy, fck, r_2, r_s, p_s, r, p, z_tp_s, SteelCurve, WebShape, M_data):

        #Strating values
        M_pl = 0

```

B. Design tool python code

```
y1_0 = 1
sig_m = 0
sig_S = 0

#Loop to iterate the neutral axis
for i in range(int(round(htot,0))*100):

    #Curvature from cross sectional strain relation
    kc = eps_cu/y1_0
    ka = eps_su/(htot-y1_0)
    k = min(kc,ka)

    #----- Neutral axis in the concrete -----
    if y1_0 <= tc:

        #Strain at 60% from NA
        eps_2 = k*(tc+0.6*hs-y1_0)

        # Strain at the bottom
        eps_S = k*(htot-y1_0)

        # Check if the steel yields at eps_2
        if eps_2 > eps_y:

            # Stress calculated from Abdella material behaviour
            if SteelCurve == 'Py':
                sig_m = fy*(1+(r_2*((eps_2/eps_y)-1))/(1+(r_s-1)\
                *((eps_2/eps_y-1)/(eps_su/eps_y-1))*p_s))
                sig_S = fy*(1+(r_2*((eps_S/eps_y)-1))/(1+(r_s-1)\
                *((eps_S/eps_y-1)/(eps_su/eps_y-1))*p_s))

            # Stress interpolated from material test data, excel
            else:
                for j in range(M_data.shape[0]):
                    if M_data[j,0]>eps_2:
                        if M_data[j,0]>eps_2:
                            sig_m = (eps_2-M_data[j-1,0])/(M_data[j,0]-\
                            M_data[j-1,0])*(M_data[j,1]-M_data[j-1,1])\
                            +M_data[j-1,1]
                            break
                    else:
                        print("Too low steel strain, Elastic response")
                        break

            # Forces
            FC = y1_0*0.85*fck*bc
            FT = sig_m*As
            dF = np.abs(FC-FT)
            self.sig_m = sig_m
            self.sig_S = sig_S

            # Moment calculation
            if dF < er:
                M_pl = sig_m*As*((htot-z_tp_s-y1_0/2))
                break

            # Continue iteration
            else:
                y1_0 = y1_0+0.01
                y1_0 = round(y1_0,2)

    #-----Neutral axis in the steel -----
    else:

        # Strain at 60% from NA
        eps_c = k*(y1_0-tc)*0.6
        eps_t = k*(htot-y1_0)*0.6
        eps_S = k*(htot-y1_0)

        # Check if the steel yields at eps_t
        if eps_t > eps_y:
```

```

# Stress calculated from Abdella material behaviour
if SteelCurve == 'Py':
    sig_tm = fy*(1+(r_2*((eps_t/eps_y)-1))/(1+(r_s-1)\
    *((eps_t/eps_y-1)/(eps_su/eps_y-1))**p_s))
    sig_cm = fy*(r*(eps_c/eps_y)/(1+(r-1)*(eps_c/eps_y)**p))
    sig_S = fy*(1+(r_2*((eps_S/eps_y)-1))/(1+(r_s-1)\
    *((eps_S/eps_y-1)/(eps_su/eps_y-1))**p_s))

# Stress interpolated from material test data, excel
else:
    for j in range(M_data.shape[0]):
        if M_data[j,0]>eps_c:
            sig_cm = (eps_c-M_data[j-1,0])/(M_data[j,0]\
            -M_data[j-1,0])*(M_data[j,1]-M_data[j-1,1])\
            +M_data[j-1,1]
            break
        for j in range(M_data.shape[0]):
            if M_data[j,0]>eps_t:
                sig_tm = (eps_t-M_data[j-1,0])/(M_data[j,0]\
                -M_data[j-1,0])*(M_data[j,1]-M_data[j-1,1])\
                +M_data[j-1,1]
                break
    else:
        print("Too low steel strain, Elastic response")
        break

# Forces
if y1_0 >= (tc+tfu):
    FC = 0.85*fck*tc*bc+tfu*bfu*sig_cm+tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)*sig_cm
    FT = tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)*sig_tm+tfl*bfl*sig_tm

else:
    FC = 0.85*fck*tc*bc+(y1_0-tc)*bfu*sig_cm
    FT = bfu*(tc+tfu-y1_0)*sig_tm+tw*hw*sig_tm+tfl*bfl*sig_tm

dF = np.abs(FT-FC)
self.sig_m = sig_tm
self.sig_S = sig_S

# Moment calculation
if dF < er:

    #Neutral axis in the web
    if y1_0 > (tc+tfu):

        # Flat web
        if WebShape == 'F':
            # SS-EN 1993-1-4, Table 5.2 with replacements according
            # to SS-EN 1993-1-4 A1
            eps_CSC = (235/fy*E/210000)**0.5
            alpha = (y1_0-tc-tfu)/hw
            if hw/tw <= 38*eps_CSC/alpha:
                M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
                +bfu*tfu*sig_cm*(y1_0-tc-tfu/2)\
                +tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)**2*sig_cm/2\
                +tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
                +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)
            else:
                print('Web not in CSC 1 or 2, Elastic response')
                break

        # Corrugated web
        else:
            M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
            +bfu*tfu*sig_cm*(y1_0-tc-tfu/2)\
            +tw*(y1_0-tc-tfu)**2*sig_cm/2\
            +tw*(htot-tfl-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
            +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)

```

```

        # Neutral axis in the flange
        else:
            M_pl = 0.85*tc*bc*fck*(y1_0-tc/2)\
            +bfu*(y1_0-tc)**2*sig_cm/2\
            +bfu*(tc+tfu-y1_0)**2*sig_tm/2\
            +tw*hw*sig_tm*(htot-tfl-hw/2-y1_0)\
            +tfl*bfl*sig_tm*(htot-y1_0-tfl/2)
        break

    # Continue iteration
    else:
        y1_0 = y1_0+0.01
        y1_0 = round(y1_0,2)

# Output
self.M_pl = M_pl/1000000
self.y1_0 = y1_0

```

B.3 Design tool module

```

# Master's Thesis
#
# Design Tool for Ultimate Bending Resistance of a Steel-Concrete Composite Beam
#
# Albin Karlsson & Gustav Friman
# June 2023
#
# -----
# DESIGN TOOL MODULE
#
# Contents
# 0. Import Modules
# 1. Input data
#     1.1 Geometrical input data
#     1.2 Material input data
#     1.3 Calculation input data
# 2. Parameters
# 3. Moment capacity calculation
# 4. Printing results
#
# -----
#####
# 0. IMPORT MODULES
#####

# General modules
import numpy as np
import pandas as pd
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

# Modules developed for this thesis
import DesignFunctions as fun # Includes equations used for the calculations
import MaterialClass as mtrl # Includes material parameters for the different
                             # materials from Eurocode standards

#####
# 1. INPUT DATA
#####

# -----
# 1.1 Geometrical input data
#
# Corrugation figure:
#
#           /-----a1----- \
#

```

```

#
#          a2/          \          |a3
#  ----- / \ alpha  \ -----
#          |---|-----|
#          a4    a1
#          |-----|
#          w
# -----
# Cross-Section
bfu = 300          # Widths of upper flange          [float, mm]
tfu = 20          # Thickness of upper flange      [float, mm]
bfl = 320        # Widths of lower flange        [float, mm]
tfl = 20        # Thickness of lower flange      [float, mm]
tw = 8          # Thickness of web                [float, mm]
hw = 1000       # Height of web                  [float, mm]
tc = 100        # Thickness of concrete slab     [float, mm]
A_steel = bfu*tfu+bfl*tfl+tw*hw

# Corrugation
WebShape = 'F'          # 'C' for Corrugated or 'F' for Flat web [string, -]

Accordion = False      # True = Partial web contribution for corrugated webs,
                       # False = No web contribution for corrugated webs

alpha = 36            # Corrugation angle of inclined part [float, degree]
a1 = 120              # Flat fold length                [float, mm]
a3 = 50              # Corrugation depth                [float, mm]

#Effective concrete width
Pick_bc = True        # True = Prescribed effective concrete width,
                       # False = Calculating effective concrete width

bc_pick = 1980       # Prescribed concrete width          [float, mm]

# Dimension for calculation of effective concrete width (Pick_bc = False)
#Studs
b0 = (bfu-50)-20     # Transverse C-C distance of the shear studs

L = 7000            # Span                                [float, mm]
girder_edge = True  # True = girder is at the edge,
                       # False = girder is in the middle with no adjacent
                       # edge
girder_space = 4000 # Girder spacing
girder_space_edge = 1500 # Girder spacing to the edge

# -----
# 1.2 Material input data
# -----
# SteelGrade, Both Stainless and Carbon
SteelType = 'SS'    # 'SS' for Stainless or 'CS' for Carbon [string, -]
SteelCurve = 'Py'   # 'Py' for Python (material models) or 'Ex' for Excel
                       # (test data) [string, -]

SteelGrade = '1.4162' # Stainless or Carbon [string, -],
                       # [see available grades in "MaterialClass.py"]
ProductForm = 'HotRolledPlate' # Stainless manufacturing [string, -],
                       # [ColdRolledStrip, HotRolledStrip,
                       # HotRolledPlate, Bars/Rods/Sections]

# Concrete
ConcreteGrade = 'C40/50' # Concrete grade [string, -],
                       # [see available grades in "MaterialClass.py"]

# -----
# 1.3 Calculation input data
# -----
# Calculation model
CalcModel = 'SH'     # 'EC' for EuroCode(EPP) and 'SH' for Strain hardening
er = 1e4            # Allowed difference in the internal forces for
                       # capacity calculation [float, mm]

```

B. Design tool python code

```
#####
# 2. PARAMETERS
#####
# For the result printing layout
print('#####')

# Effective concrete
EffConc = fun.EffConcWidth(b0,L,girder_space ,girder_space_edge ,girder_edge)
bc = EffConc.b_eff
if Pick_bc:
    bc = bc_pick

# Import material parameters from "MaterialClass.py"
MtrlPar_c = mtrl.Concrete(ConcreteGrade)
if SteelType == 'CS' and SteelCurve == 'Py':
    MtrlPar_cs = mtrl.CarbonSteel(SteelGrade,tw)
elif SteelType == 'SS' and SteelCurve == 'Py':
    MtrlPar_ss = mtrl.StainlessSteel(SteelGrade,tw,ProductForm)
    StainlessType = MtrlPar_ss.StainlessType
elif SteelCurve == 'Ex':
    MtrlPar_ex = mtrl.SteelDataEx()
else:
    print('Choose a correct input for "SteelType", and "SteelCurve"')

# Concrete parameters
eps_cu = MtrlPar_c.eps_cu

fck = MtrlPar_c.fck
Ec = MtrlPar_c.Ecm

# Start value in case of unused parameters
M_data = 0
eps_su = 0
r_2 = 0
r_s = 0
p_s = 0
r = 0
p = 0

# Parameters for stainless steel and Abdella material behaviour
if SteelType == 'SS' and SteelCurve == 'Py':

    # Material parameters
    fy = MtrlPar_ss.fy
    fu = MtrlPar_ss.fu
    E = MtrlPar_ss.E
    A = MtrlPar_ss.A
    n = MtrlPar_ss.n

    # Abdella parameters
    Abdella = fun.Abdella(fy,fu,E,A,n,StainlessType)
    r_2 = Abdella.r_2
    r_s = Abdella.r_s
    p_s = Abdella.p_s
    r = Abdella.r
    p = Abdella.p
    eps_su = Abdella.eps_su
    eps_y = Abdella.eps_02

# Material behaviour parameters from test data, excel
elif SteelCurve == 'Ex':
    fy = MtrlPar_ex.fy
    fu = MtrlPar_ex.fu
    E = MtrlPar_ex.E

    eps_su = MtrlPar_ex.eps_su
    eps_y = MtrlPar_ex.eps_02
    M_data = MtrlPar_ex.M_data

# Parameters for carbon steel
```

```

else: # SteelType == 'CS' and SteelCurve == 'Py'
    fy = MtrlPar_cs.fy
    fu = MtrlPar_cs.fu
    E = MtrlPar_cs.E
    eps_y = fy/E
    eps_su = 1

# Web geometry
WebGeo = fun.WebGeometry(WebShape,Accordion,a1,a3,alpha,bfu,bfl,hw,tw,fy,E)
tw = WebGeo.tw

# Cross section geometry
CrossSecGeo = fun.SectionGeometry(bfu,tfu,bfl,tfl,tw,hw,tc,bc,E,Ec)
htot = CrossSecGeo.htot
hs = CrossSecGeo.hs
As = CrossSecGeo.As
z_tp_s = CrossSecGeo.z_tp_s
Iy = CrossSecGeo.Iy
#####
# 3. MOMENT CALCULATION
#####

# Moment capacity calculations
if SteelType == 'CS' or CalcModel == 'EC':
    MomCalc = fun.MomentCalcEC(er,E,htot,tc,bc,tfu,bfu,tfl,bfl,tw,hw,As,fy,fck,
                               z_tp_s,SteelType,WebShape)
else:
    MomCalc = fun.MomentCalcSH(er,E,eps_cu,eps_su,eps_y,htot,hs,tc,bc,tfu,bfu,tfl,
                               bfl,tw,hw,As,fy,fck,r_2,r_s,p_s,r,p,z_tp_s,
                               SteelCurve,WebShape,M_data)

#####
# 4. PRINTING RESULTS
#####

# Print results
if MomCalc.M_pl != 0:
    print('#####')
    print('TOOL OUTPUTS')
    print('#####')
    print('-----')
    print('Geometry')
    print('-----')

    print('A_steel = ',A_steel, 'mm^2')
    print('Iy = ',Iy/1000000000000, 'mm^4')
    print('tw_eff = ',tw, 'mm')
    print('bc_eff = ',bc, 'mm')

    print('-----')
    print('Results')
    print('-----')
    print('fy = ',fy, 'MPa')
    print('fu = ',fu, 'MPa')
    if SteelType == 'SS' and CalcModel == 'SH':
        print('Tensile stress at 0.6 = ',MomCalc.sig_m, 'MPa')
        print('Tensile stress at bottom = ',MomCalc.sig_S, 'MPa')
    else:
        print('Reduction factor for reduced plastic response = ', MomCalc.beta)
        print('NA = ',MomCalc.y1_0, 'mm')
        print('M_pl = ',MomCalc.M_pl, 'kNm')
    print('#####')
else:
    print('#####')

```

C

Material data

C.1 Concrete

Table C.1: *Material data for the concrete used by Zhou et al. (2021) in compression*

f_{cm}		50	MPa
E_{cm}		35654	MPa
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	$\varepsilon_{inelastic}$ [-]	d_t [-]
0	0	0	0.0000
8.514424514	0.000235385	-3.41903E-06	0.0000
16.40370113	0.00047077	1.06955E-05	0.0000
23.61985564	0.000706155	4.3689E-05	0.0000
30.1098762	0.00094154	9.70484E-05	0.0000
35.81503428	0.001176925	0.000172421	0.0000
40.67009276	0.00141231	0.000271636	0.0000
44.60237851	0.001647695	0.000396732	0.0000
47.53069191	0.00188308	0.000549987	0.0000
49.36401852	0.002118465	0.000733952	0.0000
50	0.00235385	0.0009515	0.0000
49.35858558	0.00258308	0.00119872	0.0128
47.35145739	0.00281231	0.001484244	0.0530
43.84183636	0.00304154	0.001811908	0.1232
38.67404766	0.00327077	0.002186079	0.2265
31.67014097	0.0035	0.002611748	0.3666
28.75682464	0.00358	0.002773458	0.4249
25.58572799	0.00366	0.002942397	0.4883
22.14682065	0.00374	0.003118848	0.5571
18.42954504	0.00382	0.003303107	0.6314
14.42278126	0.0039	0.003495484	0.7115

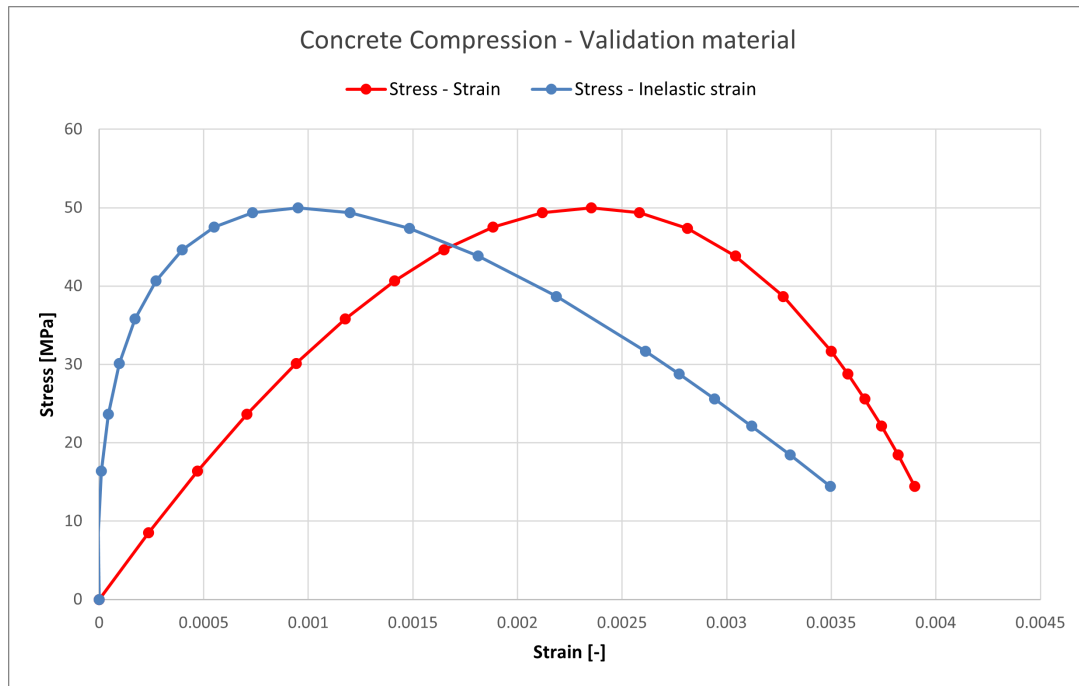


Figure C.1: *Stress-strain curves for the concrete used by Zhou et al. (2021) in compression*

Table C.2: *Material data for the concrete used by Zhou et al. (2021) in tension*

G_F	0.1476	N/mm
f_{ctm}	3.62	MPa
h	50	mm
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	d_t [-]
3.6248	0	0
3.2623	0.0001629	0.1
2.8999	0.0003258	0.2
2.5374	0.0004887	0.3
2.1749	0.0006516	0.4
1.8124	0.0008145	0.5
1.4499	0.0009774	0.6
1.0874	0.0011403	0.7
0.7250	0.0013032	0.8
0.3625	0.0014661	0.9
0.0362	0.0016127	0.99

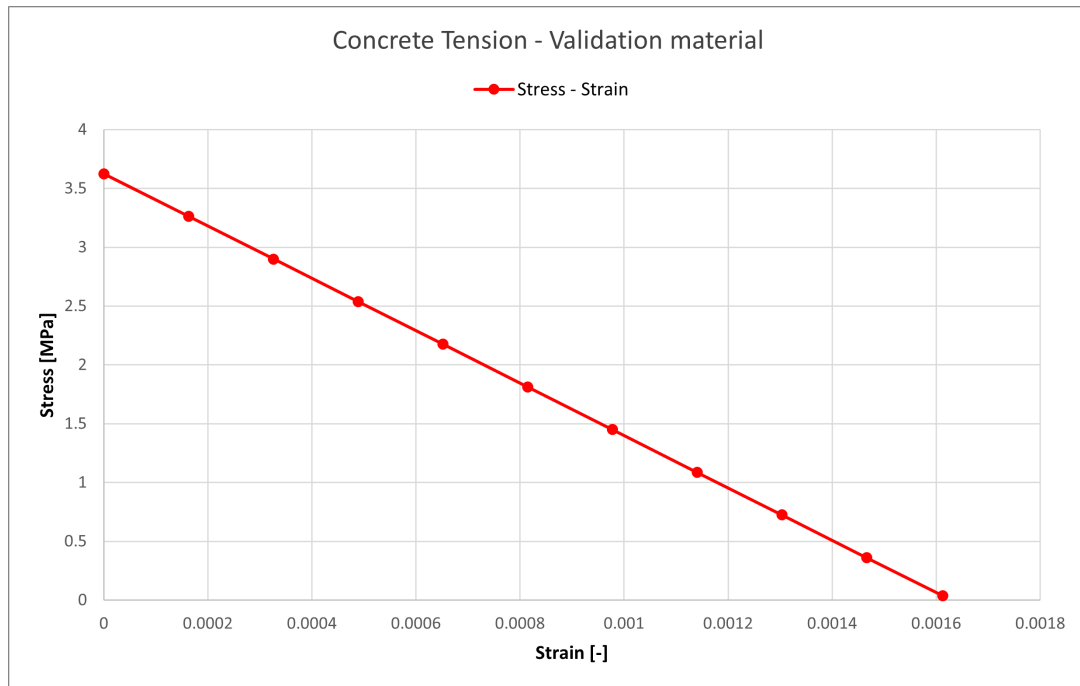


Figure C.2: *Stress-strain curves for the concrete used by Zhou et al. (2021) in tension*

Table C.3: *Material data for the concrete grade C40/50 in compression*

f_{cm}		48	MPa
E_{cm}		35220	MPa
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	$\varepsilon_{inelastic}$ [-]	d_t [-]
0	0	0	0
8.288897443	0.000232425	-2.91824E-06	0
15.93796529	0.00046485	1.23299E-05	0
22.90433985	0.000697275	4.69615E-05	0
29.14124126	0.0009297	0.000102305	0
34.59751579	0.001162125	0.000179812	0
39.21711242	0.00139455	0.000281075	0
42.9384824	0.001626975	0.00040784	0
45.69388826	0.0018594	0.000562032	0
47.40860591	0.002091825	0.000745772	0
48	0.00232425	0.000961406	0
47.36153785	0.0025594	0.001214683	0.013301295
45.37389328	0.00279455	0.001506268	0.054710557
41.91921111	0.0030297	0.001839505	0.126683102
36.86549786	0.00326485	0.002218143	0.231968795
30.064436	0.0035	0.002646393	0.373657583
27.32317691	0.00358	0.002804224	0.430767148
24.35336977	0.00366	0.002968545	0.49263813
21.14756752	0.00374	0.003139566	0.559425677
17.69799605	0.00382	0.003317508	0.631291749
13.99653598	0.0039	0.003502602	0.708405501

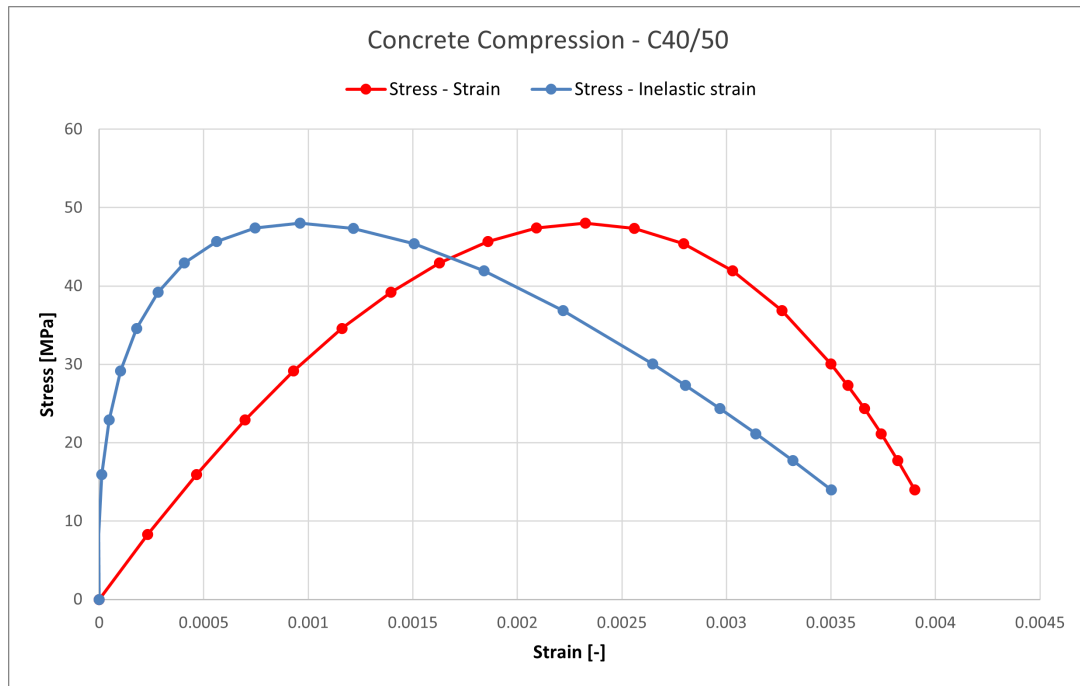


Figure C.3: Stress-strain curves for the concrete grade C40/50 in compression

Table C.4: Material data for the concrete grade C40/50 in tension

G_F	0.1465	N/mm
f_{ctm}	3.51	MPa
h	50	mm
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	d_t [-]
3.5088	0	0
3.1579	0.00017	0.1
2.8071	0.00033	0.2
2.4562	0.00050	0.3
2.1053	0.00067	0.4
1.7544	0.00084	0.5
1.4035	0.00100	0.6
1.0526	0.00117	0.7
0.7018	0.00134	0.8
0.3509	0.00150	0.9
0.0351	0.00165	0.99

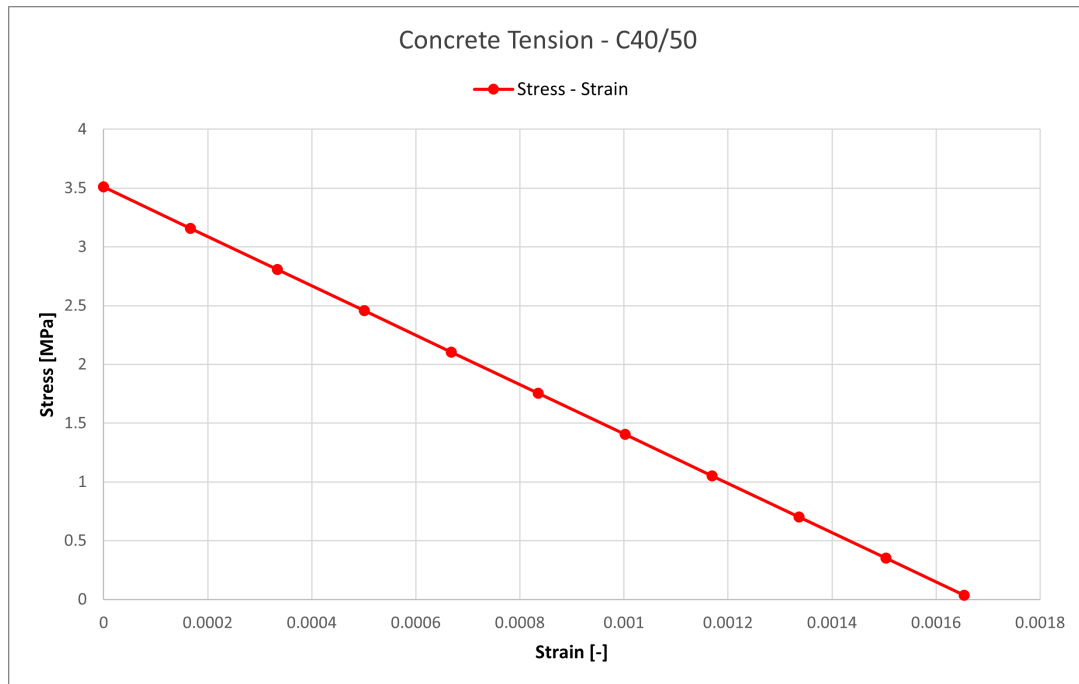


Figure C.4: Stress-strain curves for the concrete grade C40/50 in tension

C.2 Carbon steel

Table C.5: Material data for the reinforcement carbon steel B500B

f_y	500	MPa		
f_u	540	MPa		
E	200000	MPa		
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	σ_{true} [MPa]	ε_{true} [-]	$\varepsilon_{true,pl}$ [-]
0	0	0	0	0
500	0.0025	501.250	0.00249688	0
540	0.0227	552.258	0.022446189	0.01968490

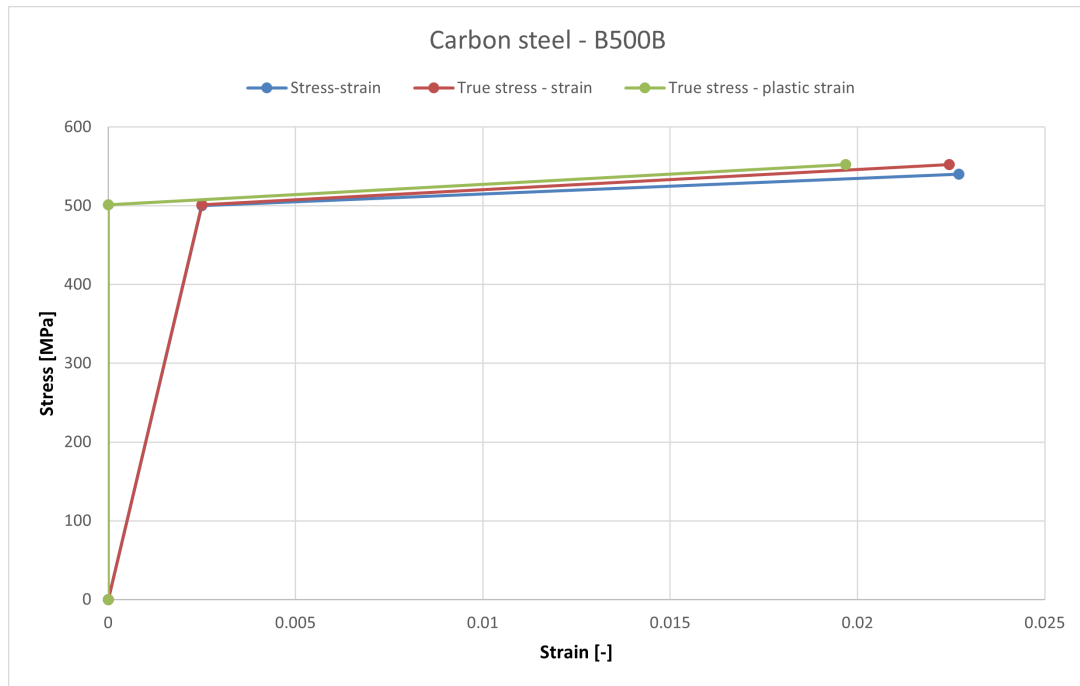


Figure C.5: Stress-strain curves for the reinforcement carbon steel B500B

Table C.6: Material data for the structural carbon steel S460

f_y		460	MPa	
f_u		540	MPa	
E		210000	MPa	
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	σ_{true} [MPa]	ε_{true} [-]	$\varepsilon_{true,pl}$ [-]
0	0	0.00	0	0
460	0.002190476	461.01	0.002188081	0
540	0.040666667	561.96	0.039861533	0.037185533

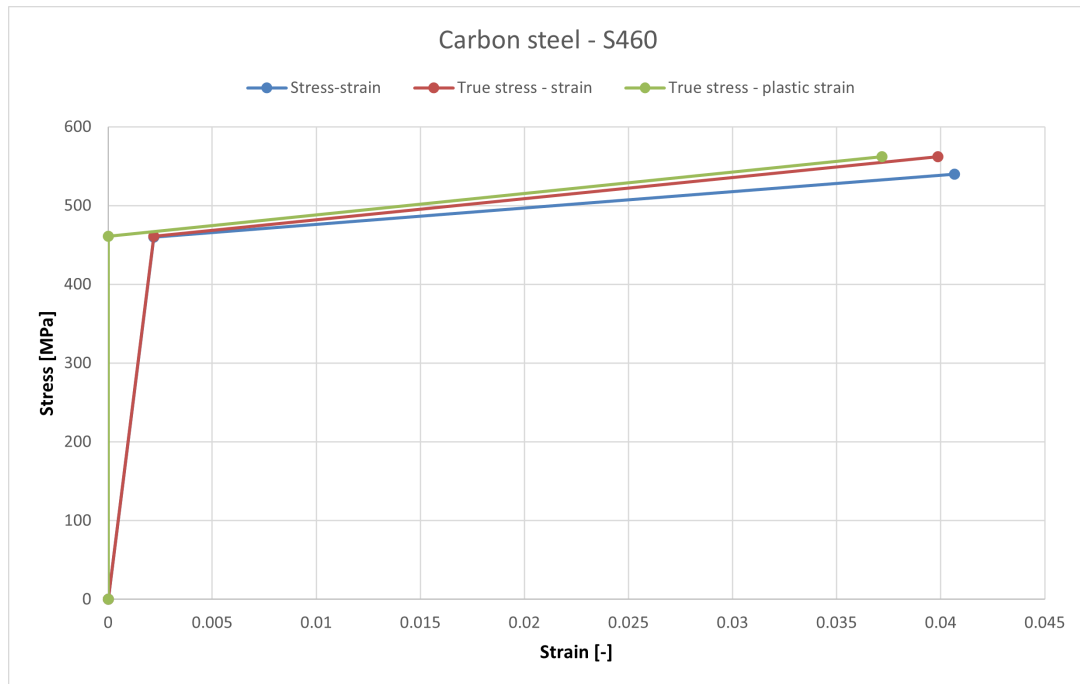


Figure C.6: Stress-strain curves for the structural carbon steel S460

C.3 Stainless steel

Table C.7: Material data for the structural stainless steel used by Zhou et al. (2021) in the web

f_y	500	MPa		
f_u	718	MPa		
E	191000	MPa		
A	36	%		
n	8.01	%		
m	3.44	%		
ε_{su}	0.36	[-]		
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	σ_{true} [MPa]	ε_{true} [-]	$\varepsilon_{true,pl}$ [-]
0	0	0	0	0
58.39561307	0.000307853	58.41	0.000307806	1.97571E-06
114.9469002	0.000615707	115.02	0.000615517	1.33306E-05
168.5334571	0.00092356	168.69	0.000923134	3.99449E-05
218.3985951	0.001231414	218.67	0.001230656	8.57998E-05
264.0684643	0.001539267	264.47	0.001538084	0.000153398
305.3028001	0.00184712	305.87	0.001845417	0.00024402
342.0493068	0.002154974	342.79	0.002152655	0.000357962
374.4000354	0.002462827	375.32	0.002459799	0.000494762
402.5514817	0.002770681	403.67	0.002766849	0.000653411
426.7700205	0.003078534	428.08	0.003073805	0.000832528
447.3634799	0.003386387	448.88	0.003380667	0.001030518
464.6588903	0.003694241	466.38	0.003687434	0.001245678
478.9858986	0.004002094	480.90	0.003994107	0.001476291
490.6650452	0.004309948	492.78	0.004300686	0.001720688
500	0.004617801	502.31	0.004607172	0.001977282
540.8556075	0.008773822	545.60	0.008735556	0.005879006
557.9203389	0.012929843	565.13	0.012846966	0.009888149
569.42896	0.017085864	579.16	0.016941542	0.0139093
578.2748816	0.021241885	590.56	0.021019421	0.017927491
585.5340026	0.025397906	600.41	0.025080738	0.021937255
591.7312407	0.029553927	609.22	0.029125628	0.025935998
597.164025	0.033709948	617.29	0.033154222	0.029922314
602.0179849	0.037865969	624.81	0.037166652	0.033895374
606.4171355	0.04202199	631.90	0.041163046	0.037854669
610.44864	0.04617801	638.64	0.045143533	0.041799879
649.9906563	0.108942408	720.80	0.103406776	0.099632942
673.7367725	0.171706806	789.42	0.158461495	0.154328395
691.4283247	0.234471204	853.55	0.210642704	0.206173864
705.7875042	0.297235602	915.57	0.26023554	0.255441966
718	0.36	976.48	0.3074847	0.302372239

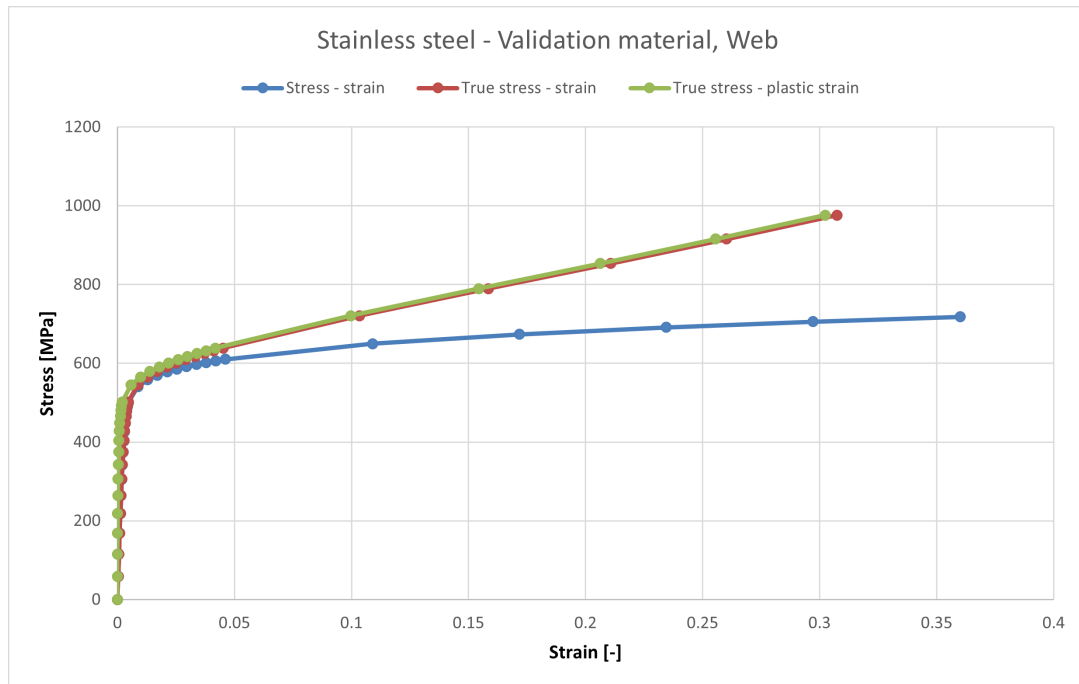


Figure C.7: *Stress-strain curves for the structural stainless steel used by Zhou et al. (2021) in the web*

Table C.8: *Material data for the structural stainless steel used by Zhou et al. (2021) in the flanges*

f_y	490	MPa		
f_u	673	MPa		
E	201000	MPa		
A	29	%		
n	7.08	%		
m	3.55	%		
ε_{su}	0.29	[-]		
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	σ_{true} [MPa]	ε_{true} [-]	$\varepsilon_{true,pl}$ [-]
0	0	0.00	0	0
58.87500649	0.000295854	58.89	0.00029581	2.81317E-06
115.3561168	0.000591708	115.42	0.000591533	1.72825E-05
168.3103838	0.000887562	168.46	0.000887169	4.90602E-05
217.0929786	0.001183416	217.35	0.001182717	0.000101374
261.3843084	0.00147927	261.77	0.001478177	0.000175834
301.1018908	0.001775124	301.64	0.001773551	0.000272872
336.3333883	0.002070978	337.03	0.002068837	0.000392071
367.2828078	0.002366833	368.15	0.002364036	0.000532433
394.2278292	0.002662687	395.28	0.002659148	0.000692593
417.4870258	0.002958541	418.72	0.002954173	0.000870978
437.3956384	0.003254395	438.82	0.003249111	0.001065931
454.2884369	0.003550249	455.90	0.003543961	0.001275796
468.4882148	0.003846103	470.29	0.003838725	0.001498974
480.2985925	0.004141957	482.29	0.004133403	0.00173396
490	0.004437811	492.17	0.004427993	0.001979363
529.317034	0.008431841	533.78	0.008396491	0.005740869
544.6533035	0.012425871	551.42	0.012349303	0.009605915
554.8321355	0.0164199	563.94	0.016286552	0.013480868
562.5942459	0.02041393	574.08	0.020208359	0.017352245
568.9333105	0.02440796	582.82	0.024114846	0.021215245
574.3272959	0.02840199	590.64	0.028006132	0.025067627
579.0445085	0.03239602	597.80	0.031882334	0.028908188
583.2512868	0.03639005	604.48	0.035743569	0.032736226
587.0582	0.04038408	610.77	0.039589952	0.036551315
590.5426553	0.044378109	616.75	0.043421598	0.040353191
619.784179	0.093502488	677.74	0.089385836	0.086014017
638.1519822	0.142626866	729.17	0.13332988	0.12970217
652.0186457	0.191751244	777.04	0.175423859	0.171557968
663.3404055	0.240875622	823.12	0.215817277	0.211722138
673	0.29	868.17	0.254642218	0.250322965

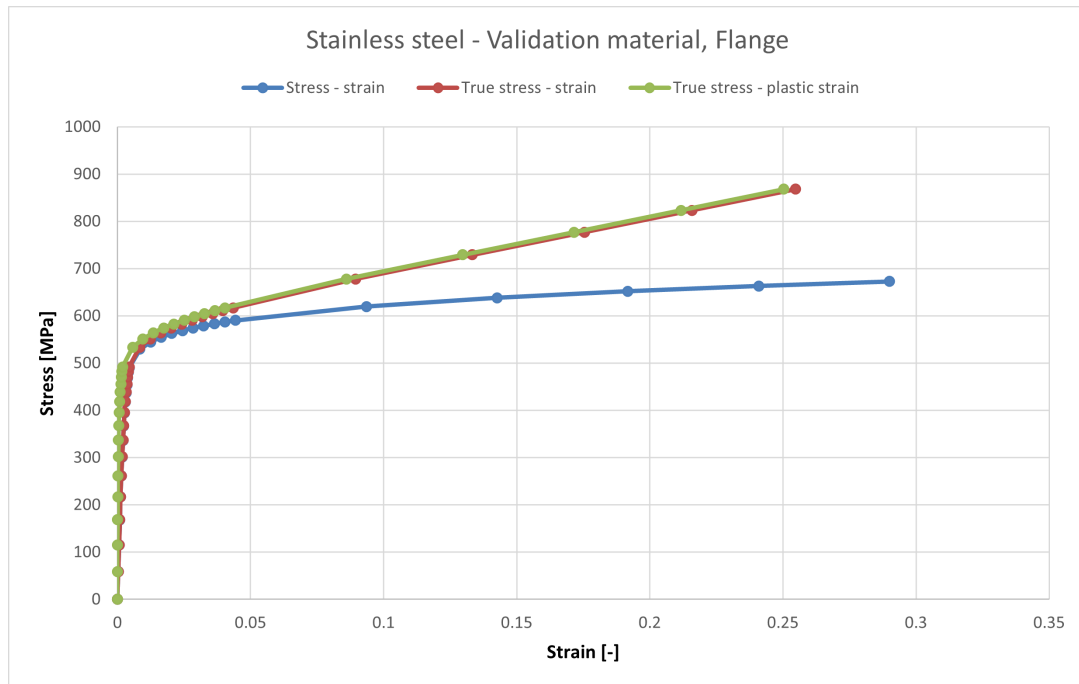


Figure C.8: *Stress-strain curves for the structural stainless steel used by Zhou et al. (2021) in the flanges*

Table C.9: *Material data for the reinforcement stainless steel used by Zhou et al. (2021)*

f_y	938	MPa		
f_u	1116	MPa		
E	201000	MPa		
A	2.4	%		
n	4.81	%		
m	3.94	%		
ε_{su}	0.024	[-]		
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	σ_{true} [MPa]	ε_{true} [-]	$\varepsilon_{true,pl}$ [-]
0	0	0	0	0
89.02389157	0.000444444	89.06	0.000444346	1.24393E-06
176.5620866	0.000888889	176.72	0.000888494	9.2949E-06
261.588552	0.001333333	261.94	0.001332445	2.92744E-05
343.3007258	0.001777778	343.91	0.001776199	6.51992E-05
421.0739411	0.002222222	422.01	0.002219757	0.000120206
494.4425507	0.002666667	495.76	0.002663117	0.000196644
563.0846473	0.003111111	564.84	0.003106282	0.00029615
626.8063617	0.003555556	629.04	0.00354925	0.000419722
685.5252297	0.004	688.27	0.003992021	0.000567806
739.2530841	0.004444444	742.54	0.004434597	0.000740375
788.0791581	0.004888889	791.93	0.004876977	0.000937017
832.154033	0.005333333	836.59	0.005319161	0.001157011
871.6749171	0.005777778	876.71	0.00576115	0.001399403
906.8725666	0.006222222	912.52	0.006202944	0.001663067
938	0.006666667	944.25	0.006644543	0.001946765
970.5682181	0.007333333	977.69	0.007306575	0.002442467
992.1125293	0.008	1000.05	0.00796817	0.002992799
1008.215597	0.008666667	1016.95	0.008629327	0.003569857
1020.997117	0.009333333	1030.53	0.009290047	0.00416305
1031.540391	0.01	1041.86	0.009950331	0.004766969
1040.477628	0.010666667	1051.58	0.010610179	0.005378457
1048.210034	0.011333333	1060.09	0.011269592	0.005995514
1055.007781	0.012	1067.67	0.011928571	0.00661679
1061.061136	0.012666667	1074.50	0.012587116	0.007241338
1066.508892	0.013333333	1080.73	0.013245227	0.007868466
1080.94145	0.015466667	1097.66	0.015348277	0.009887282
1092.232274	0.0176	1111.46	0.017446914	0.011917284
1101.468695	0.019733333	1123.20	0.019541155	0.013953074
1109.264994	0.021866667	1133.52	0.02163102	0.015991613
1116	0.024	1142.78	0.023716527	0.018031034

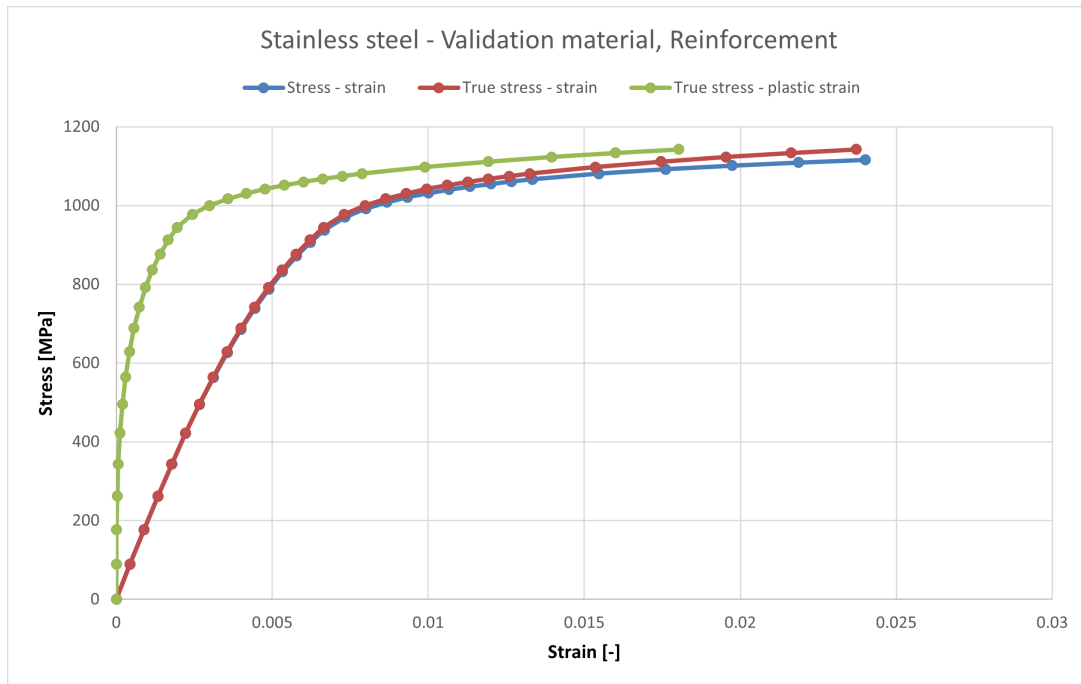


Figure C.9: *Stress-strain curves for the reinforcement stainless steel used by Zhou et al. (2021)*

Table C.10: *Material data for the structural steel 1.4162*

f_y	450	MPa		
f_u	650	MPa		
E	200000	MPa		
A	30	%		
n	8	%		
m	2.94	%		
ε_{su}	0.3	[-]		
σ [MPa]	ε [-]	σ_{true} [MPa]	ε_{true} [-]	$\varepsilon_{true,pl}$ [-]
0	0	0	0	0
56.06363672	0.000283333	56.07952141	0.000283293	2.89559E-06
109.6814985	0.000566667	109.7436514	0.000566506	1.77879E-05
159.7022653	0.00085	159.8380123	0.000849639	5.04489E-05
205.488631	0.001133333	205.7215181	0.001132692	0.000104084
246.7464521	0.001416667	247.0960096	0.001415664	0.000180184
283.4288719	0.0017	283.910701	0.001698557	0.000279003
315.6626748	0.001983333	316.2887391	0.001981369	0.000399925
343.6894885	0.002266667	344.468518	0.002264102	0.000541759
367.8198924	0.00255	368.7578332	0.002546754	0.000702965
388.3989645	0.002833333	389.4994282	0.002829327	0.00088183
405.7815502	0.003116667	407.0462361	0.00311182	0.001076589
420.3154045	0.0034	421.7444768	0.003394233	0.001285511
432.3304238	0.003683333	433.9228409	0.003676566	0.001506952
442.1324004	0.003966667	443.8861922	0.00395882	0.001739389
450	0.00425	451.9125	0.004240994	0.001981432
482.4057271	0.008075	486.3011534	0.008042572	0.005611066
496.6497769	0.0119	502.5599093	0.011829752	0.009316952
506.6282422	0.015725	514.5949713	0.015602643	0.013029668
514.5035559	0.01955	524.5621004	0.019361353	0.016738543
521.0965343	0.023375	533.2771658	0.023105989	0.020439603
526.815226	0.0272	541.1446002	0.026836654	0.024130931
531.8946305	0.031025	548.3966614	0.030553453	0.02781147
536.4835021	0.03485	555.1799522	0.034256489	0.031480589
540.6824627	0.038675	561.593357	0.037945862	0.035137896
544.5630168	0.0425	567.706945	0.041621675	0.03878314
580.8255714	0.094	635.4231751	0.089840704	0.086663588
604.2129462	0.1455	692.1259299	0.135841223	0.132380593
622.212189	0.197	744.7879902	0.179818427	0.176094487
637.1253092	0.2485	795.4509485	0.221942831	0.217965576
650	0.3	845	0.262364264	0.258139264

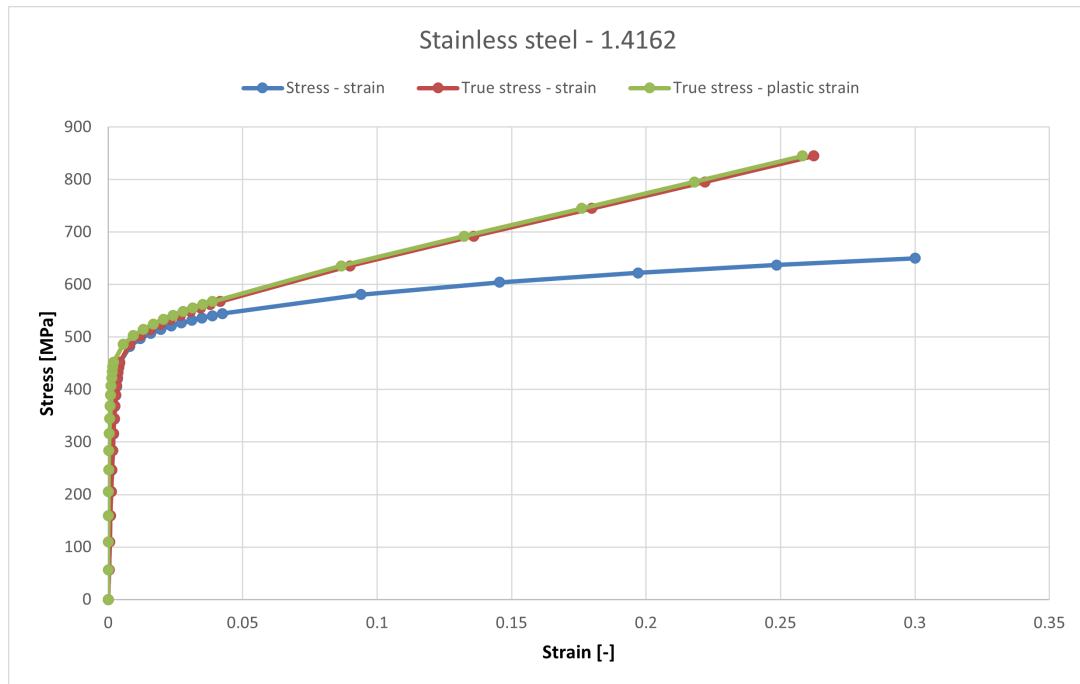


Figure C.10: *Stress-strain curves for the structural stainless steel 1.4162*

D

Beam designs and results from the tool

D.1 Beam design results

Table D.1: Geometries and results for beams with corrugated web, stainless steel and strain hardening

Beam type	C - SS - CSM			
	Geometry			
b_{fu} [mm]	300	465	300	578
t_{fu} [mm]	12	20	12	23
b_{fl} [mm]	496	465	647	578
t_{fl} [mm]	20	20	23	23
t_w [mm]	7	7	5	5
h_w [mm]	1400	1400	900	900
α [°]	36	36	36	36
a_1 [mm]	95	95	70	70
a_3 [mm]	55	55	30	30
	Results			
$t_{w,eff}$ [mm]	0	0	0	0
A_{steel} [mm ²]	23320	28400	22981	31088
NA [mm]	63.9	83.7	83.7	117.5
Mpl [kNm]	9991	9999	9992	9992
σ_m [MPa]	563	550	539	526
σ_{max} [MPa]	582	567	553	540

C = Corrugated web, SS = Stainless steel,
CSM = Continued strength method

Table D.2: Geometries and results for beams with corrugated web, stainless steel, strain hardening and partial web contribution

Beam type	C - CS - CSM - PW				
Geometry					
b_{fu} [mm]	300	506	300	623	300
t_{fu} [mm]	12	20	12	21	12
b_{fl} [mm]	548	506	634	623	575
t_{fl} [mm]	20	20	23	21	40
t_w [mm]	8	8	6	6	8
h_w [mm]	1200	1200	900	900	510
α [°]	36	36	36	36	36
a_1 [mm]	120	120	90	90	120
a_3 [mm]	50	50	50	50	10
Results					
$t_{w,eff}$ [mm]	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.6	2.8
A_{steel} [mm ²]	24160	29840	23582	31566	30680
NA [mm]	72.1	96.4	84.7	118	120
M_{pl} [kNm]	10006	10001	9997	9999	10008
σ_m [MPa]	553	541	539	526	513
σ_{max} [MPa]	569	557	553	540	525
C = Corrugated web, SS = Stainless steel, CSM = Continued strength method, PW = Partial web contribution					

Table D.3: Geometries and results for beams with corrugated web, stainless steel and elastic perfectly plastic material behaviour

Beam type	C - SS - EPP			
Geometry				
b_{fu} [mm]	300	508	300	541
t_{fu} [mm]	12	21	12	21
b_{fl} [mm]	585	508	627	541
t_{fl} [mm]	20	21	20	21
t_w [mm]	6	6	8	8
h_w [mm]	1520	1520	1400	1520
α [°]	36	36	36	36
a_1 [mm]	90	90	110	110
a_3 [mm]	50	50	50	50
Results				
$t_{w,eff}$ [mm]	0	0	0	0
A_{steel} [mm ²]	24420	30456	27340	33922
NA [mm]	57.8	80.6	61	85.9
M_{pl} [kNm]	9995	9992	9991	10000
σ_m [MPa]	450	450	450	450
σ_{max} [MPa]	450	450	450	450
C = Corrugated web, SS = Stainless steel, EPP = Elastic perfectly plastic				

Table D.4: Geometries and results for beams with flat webs

Beam type	F - SS - CSM		F - CS - EPP	
Geometry				
b_{fu} [mm]	300	300	300	300
t_{fu} [mm]	12	12	12	12
b_{fl} [mm]	300	300	300	300
t_{fl} [mm]	12	12	12	12
t_w [mm]	12	15	12	15
h_w [mm]	1194	1080	1300	1199
Results				
$t_{w,eff}$ [mm]	12	15	12	15
A_{steel} [mm ²]	21528	23400	23232	25185
NA [mm]	97.7	105.1	89.9	97.3
M_{pl} [kNm]	10001	9999	9993	9996
σ_m [MPa]	540	534	460	460
σ_{max} [MPa]	556	550	460	460
F = Flat web, SS = Stainless steel, CS = Carbon steel, CSM = Continued strength method, EPP = Elastic perfectly plastic				

D.2 Additional validation

Table D.5: Geometries and materials used in test by Zhou et al. (2021) for validation of the design tool

Beam	Zhou
t_c [mm]	100
b_c [mm]	600
b_{fu} [mm]	90
t_{fu} [mm]	8
b_{fl} [mm]	90
t_{fl} [mm]	8
h_w [mm]	159
t_w [mm]	5
A_{steel} [mm ²]	2235
A_w/A_{steel}	35.6%
A_{fl}/A_{steel}	32.2%
Steel	Experimental (Flange), see Table 6.2
Concrete	Experimental ($f_{ck} = 42$ MPa)

Table D.6: Geometries and materials used in simulations by Ali and Abudaheer (2022) for validation of the design tool

Beam	G1		G2		100-262-1	
	F	C	F	C	F	C
t_c [mm]	181		181		320	
b_c [mm]	1524		2184.4		4925	
b_{fu} [mm]	184.2		184.6		800	850
t_{fu} [mm]	19.6		19.6		42	45
b_{fl} [mm]	362		182.6		1200	1225
t_{fl} [mm]	19.7		19.6		55	50
h_w [mm]	758.8		760.4		1953	1955
t_w [mm]	8.5		8.9		17	6
a_1 [mm]	-	120	-	120	-	120
a_3 [mm]	-	70	-	70	-	70
α [°]	-	36	-	36	-	36
A_{steel} [mm ²]	17191.52		13925.48		132801	111230
A_w/A_{steel}	37.5%		48.6%		25.0%	10.5%
A_{fl}/A_{steel}	41.5%		25.7%		49.7%	55.1%
Steel	1.4162					
Concrete	C30/37		C50/60		C35/45	

E

Finite element simulation results

E.1 Validation

Table E.1: *FE results for the validation*

Validation beam		
Displacement (U_3) [mm]	Load [kN]	Moment [kNm]
0	0	0
0.623086	0.999926	1.999852
1.2462	1.99971	3.99942
2.18094	3.4991	6.9982
3.58319	5.74757	11.49514
5.68761	9.10826	18.21652
8.84753	14.0334	28.0668
13.5902	21.2731	42.5462
20.7125	31.6373	63.2746
27.8534	41.2264	82.4528
29.6439	43.4889	86.9778
31.437	45.6904	91.3808
33.2315	47.8319	95.6638
35.9266	50.95	101.9
38.6248	53.9424	107.8848
41.3286	56.7921	113.5842
45.3937	60.799	121.598
49.4827	64.3998	128.7996
53.5844	67.7246	135.4492
57.697	70.7968	141.5936
61.8204	73.6284	147.2568
65.9556	76.2227	152.4454
70.1179	78.5056	157.0112
74.3122	80.4276	160.8552
78.5152	82.1693	164.3386
82.7196	83.8023	167.6046
83.771	84.1962	168.3924
84.8226	84.5842	169.1684

86.4022	85.149	170.298
88.7717	85.9689	171.9378
91.1419	86.7614	173.5228
93.5137	87.5268	175.0536
95.8854	88.2718	176.5436
98.2557	89.0035	178.007
100.629	89.7037	179.4074
103.001	90.3849	180.7698
105.372	91.0542	182.1084
107.743	91.7092	183.4184
110.112	92.3459	184.6918
112.482	92.9642	185.9284
114.853	93.5656	187.1312
117.231	94.1339	188.2678
120.809	94.9169	189.8338
124.387	95.6619	191.3238
127.965	96.3814	192.7628
131.547	97.0593	194.1186
135.129	97.7089	195.4178
138.713	98.3402	196.6804
142.298	98.9544	197.9088
145.884	99.5483	199.0966
149.472	100.115	200.23
153.064	100.651	201.302
156.66	101.162	202.324
160.256	101.655	203.31
163.855	102.123	204.246
167.456	102.553	205.106
171.063	102.951	205.902
174.672	103.325	206.65
178.283	103.676	207.352
181.891	103.988	207.976
185.486	104.24	208.48
185.541	104.238	208.476
185.597	104.24	208.48
185.652	104.243	208.486
185.736	104.248	208.496
185.862	104.255	208.51
186.051	104.266	208.532
186.24	104.277	208.554
186.428	104.287	208.574
186.617	104.298	208.596
186.899	104.312	208.624
187.039	104.318	208.636

187.177	104.318	208.636
187.211	104.317	208.634
187.245	104.314	208.628
187.279	104.307	208.614
187.314	104.292	208.584
187.349	104.249	208.498
187.381	104.09	208.18
187.413	103.767	207.534
187.442	103.448	206.896
187.472	103.123	206.246
187.499	102.717	205.434
187.507	102.596	205.192
187.515	102.447	204.894
187.523	102.264	204.528
187.531	102.031	204.062
187.537	101.656	203.312
187.541	101.234	202.468
187.549	100.95	201.9
187.556	100.708	201.416
187.568	100.408	200.816
187.579	100.084	200.168
187.591	99.8021	199.6042
187.604	99.5943	199.1886
187.623	99.3956	198.7912
187.65	99.2329	198.4658
187.679	99.1384	198.2768
187.708	99.0863	198.1726
187.751	99.055	198.11
187.815	99.0512	198.1024
187.912	99.0746	198.1492

E.2 Case study

Table E.2: *FE results for the case study, Beam 1*

Case study, Beam 1 (C-SS)		
Displacement (U_3) [mm]	Load [kN]	Moment [kNm]
0	0	0
0.138123	0.999995	10.999945
0.276247	1.99998	21.99978
0.483433	3.49993	38.49923

0.794215	5.74982	63.24802
1.26039	9.12454	100.36994
1.95967	14.1864	156.0504
3.0086	21.7787	239.5657
4.58206	33.1658	364.8238
6.94237	50.244	552.684
10.4831	75.8552	834.4072
15.8027	113.578	1249.358
23.7808	168.8	1856.8
35.7593	248.858	2737.438
53.777	360.931	3970.241
80.9492	507.14	5578.54
108.409	623.304	6856.344
136.363	707.016	7777.176
165.318	752.108	8273.188
194.279	785.588	8641.468
223.31	812.105	8933.155
252.39	834.232	9176.552
281.501	853.224	9385.464
310.7	869.375	9563.125
339.952	883.718	9720.898
369.226	896.887	9865.757
398.509	909.055	9999.605
427.797	920.363	10123.993
457.08	930.976	10240.736
486.364	940.964	10350.604
515.654	950.448	10454.928
545.015	959.178	10550.958
552.395	961.151	10572.661
554.261	961.565	10577.215
556.137	961.943	10581.373
558.018	962.298	10585.278
559.91	962.611	10588.721
561.815	962.873	10591.603
563.729	963.095	10594.045
564.209	963.146	10594.606
564.689	963.194	10595.134
565.17	963.241	10595.651
565.651	963.285	10596.135
566.129	963.343	10596.773
566.605	963.409	10597.499
567.082	963.472	10598.192
567.558	963.539	10598.929
568.033	963.61	10599.71

E. Finite element simulation results

568.509	963.679	10600.469
568.984	963.749	10601.239
569.457	963.829	10602.119
569.93	963.908	10602.988
570.403	963.987	10603.857
570.876	964.064	10604.704
571.35	964.141	10605.551
571.821	964.227	10606.497
572.297	964.299	10607.289
572.774	964.365	10608.015
573.251	964.429	10608.719
573.734	964.477	10609.247
574.214	964.534	10609.874
574.696	964.582	10610.402
575.197	964.524	10609.764
575.699	964.461	10609.071
576.203	964.368	10608.048
576.712	964.231	10606.541
577.217	964.115	10605.265
577.724	963.968	10603.648
578.231	963.819	10602.009
578.738	963.662	10600.282
579.246	963.506	10598.566
579.749	963.432	10597.752
580.247	963.478	10598.258
580.742	963.574	10599.314
581.237	963.666	10600.326
581.731	963.769	10601.459
582.224	963.875	10602.625
582.717	963.982	10603.802
583.21	964.085	10604.935
583.703	964.184	10606.024
583.827	964.208	10606.288
583.951	964.233	10606.563
584.074	964.256	10606.816
584.076	964.268	10606.948
584.078	964.279	10607.069
584.078	964.281	10607.091
584.078	964.284	10607.124
584.079	964.287	10607.157
584.079	964.288	10607.168
584.079	964.288	10607.168

Table E.3: *FE results for the case study, Beam 2*

Case study, Beam 2 (C-SS)		
Displacement (U_3) [mm]	Load [kN]	Moment [kNm]
0	0	0
0.160022	0.999994	10.999934
0.320044	1.99998	21.99978
0.560078	3.49993	38.49923
0.920132	5.74981	63.24791
1.46022	9.12453	100.36983
2.27036	14.1864	156.0504
3.4856	21.7785	239.5635
5.30852	33.1656	364.8216
8.04305	50.2434	552.6774
12.1451	75.8539	834.3929
18.3089	113.509	1248.599
27.5526	168.682	1855.502
41.434	248.559	2734.149
62.317	360.19	3962.09
93.826	505.154	5556.694
125.726	618.863	6807.493
158.227	699.388	7693.268
191.807	743.169	8174.859
225.336	776.744	8544.184
258.96	803.479	8838.269
292.675	825.618	9081.798
326.47	844.34	9287.74
360.329	860.639	9467.029
368.798	864.445	9508.895
377.269	868.166	9549.826
389.982	873.598	9609.578
409.054	881.417	9695.587
428.128	888.866	9777.526
447.198	895.963	9855.593
466.269	902.784	9930.624
485.342	909.344	10002.784
513.945	918.764	10106.404
542.563	927.64	10204.04
543.459	927.906	10206.966
544.355	928.171	10209.881
545.251	928.435	10212.785
546.147	928.698	10215.678
547.043	928.961	10218.571
547.94	929.223	10221.453
548.837	929.484	10224.324

E. Finite element simulation results

549.733	929.744	10227.184
550.63	930.003	10230.033
551.53	930.252	10232.772
552.431	930.5	10235.5
553.331	930.745	10238.195
554.233	930.989	10240.879
555.134	931.23	10243.53
556.037	931.47	10246.17
556.939	931.707	10248.777
557.847	931.925	10251.175
558.76	932.127	10253.397
559.675	932.32	10255.52
560.593	932.502	10257.522
561.515	932.67	10259.37
562.468	932.717	10259.887
563.395	932.87	10261.57
564.314	933.048	10263.528
565.229	933.244	10265.684
566.143	933.442	10267.862
567.062	933.622	10269.842
567.98	933.808	10271.888
568.895	934	10274
569.812	934.189	10276.079
570.73	934.373	10278.103
571.643	934.574	10280.314
572.557	934.771	10282.481
573.477	934.95	10284.45
574.398	935.123	10286.353
575.315	935.312	10288.432
576.233	935.497	10290.467
577.153	935.676	10292.436
578.075	935.848	10294.328
578.998	936.017	10296.187
579.918	936.197	10298.167
580.835	936.383	10300.213
581.755	936.563	10302.193
582.677	936.736	10304.096
583.601	936.903	10305.933
583.833	936.944	10306.384
584.064	936.985	10306.835
584.296	937.026	10307.286
584.528	937.066	10307.726
584.76	937.105	10308.155
584.992	937.144	10308.584

585.222	937.19	10309.09
585.452	937.235	10309.585
585.683	937.28	10310.08
585.686	937.299	10310.289
585.687	937.304	10310.344
585.688	937.311	10310.421
585.688	937.313	10310.443
585.689	937.314	10310.454
585.689	937.316	10310.476
585.689	937.316	10310.476

Table E.4: *FE results for the case study, Beam 3*

Case study, Beam 3 (C-SS)		
Displacement (U_3) [mm]	Load [kN]	Moment [kNm]
0	0	0
0.167882	0.999994	10.999934
0.335766	1.99998	21.99978
0.587592	3.49993	38.49923
0.965333	5.7498	63.2478
1.53195	9.12449	100.36939
2.38189	14.1863	156.0493
3.65684	21.7784	239.5624
5.56932	33.1652	364.8172
8.4382	50.2425	552.6675
12.7419	75.8518	834.3698
19.2099	113.32	1246.52
28.9088	168.297	1851.267
43.4766	247.626	2723.886
65.393	357.913	3937.043
98.4865	499.189	5491.079
132.04	607.44	6681.84
166.388	679.334	7472.674
201.455	722.791	7950.701
236.447	757.562	8333.182
271.564	785.749	8643.239
306.767	809.385	8903.235
341.979	830.364	9134.004
377.2	849.222	9341.442
412.427	866.377	9530.147
447.649	882.212	9704.332
482.875	896.925	9866.175

518.118	910.656	10017.216
553.368	923.503	10158.533
562.185	926.594	10192.534
564.39	927.357	10200.927
567.698	928.495	10213.445
572.665	930.177	10231.947
577.638	931.825	10250.075
582.628	933.402	10267.422
587.672	934.777	10282.547
592.731	936.089	10296.979
597.757	937.513	10312.643
605.302	939.611	10335.721
616.648	942.644	10369.084
619.49	943.38	10377.18
622.331	944.118	10385.298
626.588	945.233	10397.563
632.999	946.821	10415.031
639.403	948.419	10432.609
645.804	950.024	10450.264
655.404	952.418	10476.598
669.819	955.933	10515.263
684.246	959.361	10552.971
698.73	962.591	10588.501
720.49	967.252	10639.772
753.128	973.968	10713.648
785.791	980.297	10783.267
793.962	981.82	10800.02
802.136	983.317	10816.487
814.418	985.426	10839.686
814.611	985.458	10840.038
814.613	985.473	10840.203
814.617	985.495	10840.445
814.618	985.496	10840.456
814.618	985.498	10840.478
814.619	985.501	10840.511
814.619	985.505	10840.555
814.619	985.506	10840.566
814.619	985.506	10840.566

Table E.5: *FE results for the case study, Beam 4*

Case study, Beam 4 (F-SS)

Displacement (U_3) [mm]	Load [kN]	Moment [kNm]
0	0	0
0.190943	0.999993	10.999923
0.381886	1.99997	21.99967
0.668303	3.49991	38.49901
1.09793	5.74976	63.24736
1.74238	9.12439	100.36829
2.70908	14.186	156.046
4.15917	21.7778	239.5558
6.33439	33.1638	364.8018
9.59743	50.2394	552.6334
14.4939	75.7886	833.6746
21.8499	113.291	1246.201
32.8894	168.276	1851.036
49.4755	247.636	2723.996
74.4475	358.07	3938.77
112.19	500.915	5510.065
150.488	612.966	6742.626
189.59	692.984	7622.824
229.404	747.997	8227.967
269.609	789.372	8683.092
310.159	821.174	9032.914
350.848	847.812	9325.932
391.657	870.38	9574.18
401.869	875.558	9631.138
412.087	880.548	9686.028
427.421	887.72	9764.92
450.449	897.832	9876.152
473.51	907.198	9979.178
496.61	915.885	10074.735
502.392	917.975	10097.725
508.174	920.036	10120.396
511.428	921.176	10132.936
513.259	921.809	10139.899
516.008	922.745	10150.195
520.141	924.1	10165.1
526.5	925.391	10179.301
532.866	926.662	10193.282
539.277	927.768	10205.448
545.773	928.555	10214.105
552.451	928.792	10216.712
559.008	929.628	10225.908
565.489	930.743	10238.173
571.915	932.024	10252.264

581.553	933.918	10273.098
595.957	936.845	10305.295
617.517	941.182	10353.002
639.099	945.275	10398.025
660.71	949.116	10440.276
682.348	952.723	10479.953
687.758	953.603	10489.633
693.171	954.465	10499.115
701.26	955.77	10513.47
707.34	956.696	10523.656
713.443	957.547	10533.017
714.974	957.747	10535.217
715.357	957.797	10535.767
715.931	957.869	10536.559
716.794	957.975	10537.725
717.66	958.073	10538.803
718.528	958.162	10539.782
719.393	958.261	10540.871
720.256	958.367	10542.037
721.122	958.464	10543.104
721.339	958.488	10543.368
721.342	958.503	10543.533
721.345	958.517	10543.687
721.35	958.538	10543.918
721.35	958.538	10543.918

Table E.6: *FE results for the case study, Beam 5*

Case study, Beam 5 (F-CS)		
Displacement (U_3) [mm]	Load [kN]	Moment [kNm]
0	0	0
0.190943	0.999993	10.999923
0.381886	1.99997	21.99967
0.668303	3.49991	38.49901
1.09793	5.74976	63.24736
1.74238	9.12439	100.36829
2.70908	14.186	156.046
4.15917	21.7778	239.5558
6.33439	33.1638	364.8018
9.59743	50.2394	552.6334
14.4925	75.8447	834.2917
21.8361	114.235	1256.585

32.8538	171.779	1889.569
49.3857	258.006	2838.066
74.1951	387.144	4258.584
111.498	578.299	6361.289
170.875	725.705	7982.755
186.108	745.417	8199.587
201.406	762.079	8382.869
216.762	776.48	8541.28
232.207	788.69	8675.59
247.656	799.712	8796.832
263.096	810.129	8911.419
286.302	824.014	9064.154
309.469	836.995	9206.945
332.599	849.202	9341.222
355.71	860.61	9466.71
378.846	871.091	9582.001
401.962	880.992	9690.912
407.736	883.379	9717.169
413.51	885.737	9743.107
422.175	889.17	9780.87
427.058	891.031	9801.341
434.405	893.695	9830.645
445.446	897.459	9872.049
462.037	902.761	9930.371
486.948	910.193	10012.123
493.208	911.876	10030.636
499.521	913.318	10046.498
505.941	914.275	10057.025
512.417	915.01	10065.11

DEPARTMENT OF ARCHITECTURE AND CIVIL ENGINEERING
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