

EXPERIMENTAL AND NUMERICAL STUDIES ON BUCKLING AND POST-BUCKLING BEHAVIOR OF CYLINDRICAL PANELS SUBJECTED TO COMPRESSIVE AXIAL LOAD

M. Shariati, J. Saemi, M. Sedighi,
and H. R. Eipakchi

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The effects of the length, sector angle, and different boundary conditions on the buckling load and post buckling behavior of cylindrical panels have been investigated using experimental and numerical methods. The experimental tests have been performed using a servo-hydraulic machine, Instron 8808, and for numerical analysis, Abaqus finite element package has been used. The numerical results are in good agreement with the experimental tests.

Keywords: mechanical testing, elastic and plastic behavior, buckling analysis.

Introduction. Shell structures are widely used in pipelines, aerospace and marine structures, large dams, shell roofs, liquid-retaining structures and cooling towers [1]. Buckling is one of the main failure considerations when designing these structures [2]. At first, researchers focused on the determination of the buckling load in the linear elastic zone, but experimental studies [3, 4] showed that the buckling capacity of thin cylindrical shells is much lower than that predicted by classic theories [5]. Thin cylindrical panels are used in different structures. When the stress distribution in this structure is compressive, the structure will collapse usually before yielding or the buckling phenomena determines its loading capacity due to large value of radius to thickness ratio. This subject is usually studied using the numerical methods based on the finite elements (FE) and analytical methods in elastic region. The exact solution for isotropic and anisotropic panels has been presented by Timoshenko [6] and Lekhnitskii [7]. El-Raheb [8] investigated the stability of simply supported panels subjected to uniform external pressure. Magnucki et al. [9] solved the Donnell equation for buckling of panels with three simply supported edges and one free edge subjected to axial load using the Galerkin method. Patel et al. [10] discussed static and dynamic stability of panels with edge harmonic loading. Buermann et al. [11] presented a semi-analytical model for the post-buckling analysis of stiffened cylindrical panels using trigonometric Fourier series as approximated solutions for displacements. Lanzi et al. [12] performed a multi-objective optimization procedure based on Genetic Algorithms for the design of composite stiffened panels capable to operate in post-buckling conditions. The results without considering any kind of imperfection, are closed and in good agreement with the tests in terms of buckling and post-buckling stiffness, as well as of collapse loads. Jiang et al. [13] studied the buckling of panels subjected to compressive stress using the differential quadrature element method. Keweon [14, 15] carried out numerical and experimental studies of the post-buckling behavior of axially loaded cylindrical panel with clamped curved edges and with simply supported straight edges. Bisagni et al. [16] presented an analytical formulation for the study of linearized local skin buckling load and nonlinear post-buckling behavior of isotropic and composite stiffened panels subjected to axial compression. The results are compared with the FE analysis.

In this paper, numerical and experimental studies have been performed on cylindrical panels for determining the buckling load and investigating the post-buckling behavior of panels. For numerical analysis Abaqus FE package has been used to study the effects of the length, sector angle, thickness and different boundary conditions and the

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TABLE 1. Mechanical and Geometrical Properties of Panels

Outer diameter D , mm	60
Thickness t , mm	0.9
Sector angle θ , deg	90, 120, 180, 355, and 360 (perfect)
Length L , mm	100, 150, and 250
Yield stress σ_Y , MPa	240
Young modulus E , GPa	150
Poisson's ratio	0.33

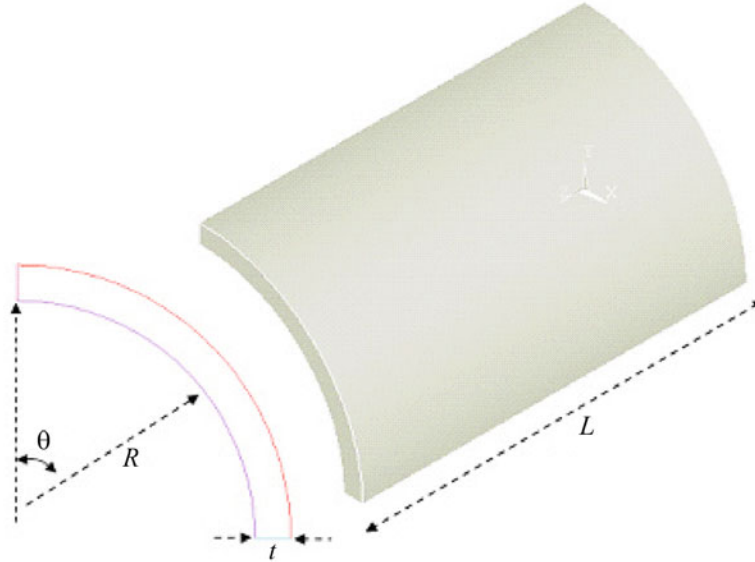


Fig. 1. Schematic of a cylindrical panel.

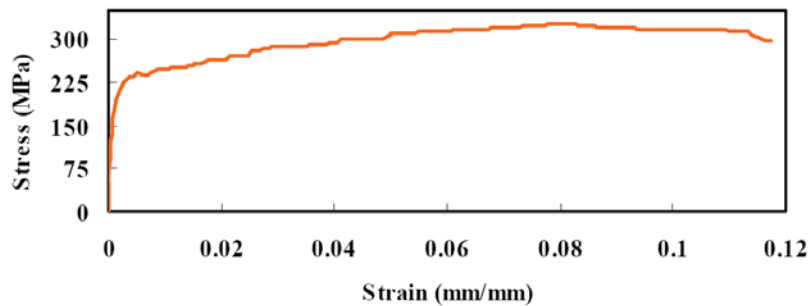


Fig. 2. Stress–strain diagram.

experimental tests have been applied to the panels using a servo-hydraulic machine. The experimental results are in good agreement with the experimental ones.

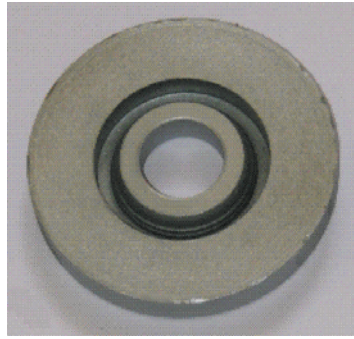
1. Panels Characteristics. Figure 1 shows the schematic of a panel. The mechanical properties of metal panels have been determined using tensile tests. For this purpose, some standard test specimens have been prepared from the original tubes according to ASTM E8 [17] standard and tensile tests were performed using an Instron 8802 tensile test machine.

Figure 2 shows the stress–strain diagram for a specimen. Poisson's ratio was assumed to be 0.33. The geometrical and mechanical properties of panels are listed in Table 1.

2. Boundary Conditions. For applying boundary conditions at the edges of the cylindrical panel, two rigid plates were used that were attached to the edges of the cylindrical panel. In order to analyze the buckling under axial loading similar to the experimental conditions, a 15-mm displacement was applied to the center of the upper plate,



a



b

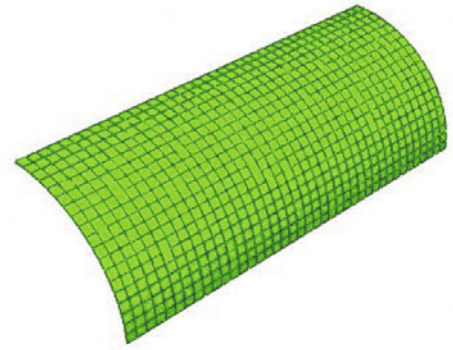
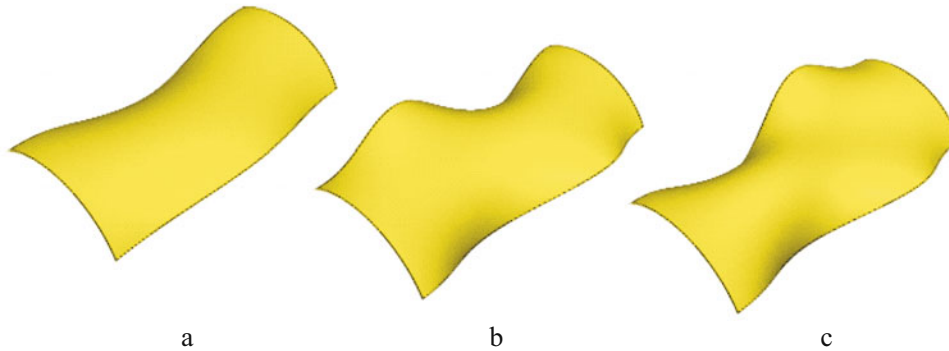


Fig. 4. Mesh pattern for a panel.

Fig. 3. Fixtures for experimental test: (a) simply supported; (b) clamped.



a

b

c

Fig. 5. Buckling mode shape for specimen with $L = 100$ mm, $\theta = 90^\circ$: (a) first mode, (b) second mode, and (c) third mode.

which resulted in a distributed compressive load on both edges of the cylindrical panel. Additionally, all degrees of freedom in the lower plate and upper plate, except in the direction of longitudinal axis, were constrained.

In the section of experimental results, it will be shown that the fulcrum used in these tests has an edge that is 18.1 mm high (Fig. 3). For this reason, in numerical simulations, the edges of the shell are constrained to this elevation, except in the direction of the cylinder axis.

3. Numerical Method. The numerical analysis has been performed with the Abaqus FE package. For this analysis, the nonlinear element S8R5 (which is an eight-node element with six degrees of freedom per node, suitable for analysis of thin shells) and the linear element S4R (which is a four-node element) were used [18]. Part of a meshed specimen is shown in Fig. 4. Both linear and nonlinear elements were used for the analysis of the shells and the results were compared with each other.

The boundary conditions under study were clamped or simple (at arc edges) and free (at straight edges). Eigenvalue analysis overestimates the value of buckling load, because in this analysis the plastic properties of material play no role in the analysis procedure. For buckling analysis, an eigenvalue analysis should be performed initially for all specimens to find the mode shapes and corresponding eigenvalues. Primary modes have smaller eigenvalues and buckling usually occurs in these mode shapes. For eigenvalues analysis the “Buckle step” was used in the software. Three initial mode shapes and corresponding displacements of all specimens were obtained. The effects of these mode shapes must be considered in nonlinear buckling analysis (“Static Riks” step). Otherwise, the software would choose the buckling mode in an arbitrary manner, resulting in unrealistic results of nonlinear analysis. For “Buckle step,” the subspace solver method of the software was used. It is noteworthy that, due to the presence of contact constraints between rigid plates and the shell, the Lanczos solver method cannot be used for these specimens [18]. In Fig. 5, two primary mode shapes are shown for the specimen with $L = 100$ mm, $\theta = 90^\circ$. After completion of the buckle analysis, a nonlinear analysis was performed to plot the load–displacement curve. The maximum value attained by this curve is the buckling load.

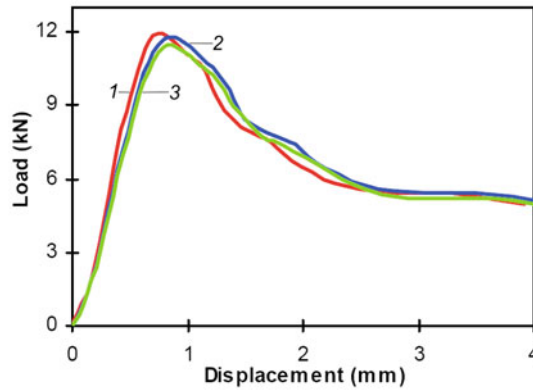


Fig. 6. Load–displacement diagrams for three similar panels with $L = 100$ mm, $\theta = 120^\circ$: (1) test 1, (2) test 2, and (3) test 3.

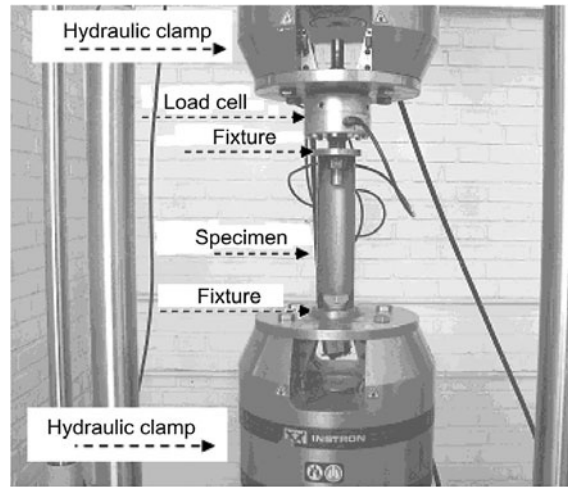


Fig. 7. Experimental test setup.

This step, called “Static Riks” involves the arc length method for post-buckling analysis. In this analysis, nonlinearity of both material properties and geometry is taken into consideration. This analysis has been performed for different panels (Table 1) for clamped and simple boundary conditions, and the load–displacement diagram has been derived for each case.

4. Experimental Method. Some specimens with characteristics listed in Table 1 were prepared and the compression test of panels was performed using a servo-hydraulic machine. At first, for investigating the system reliability for repeating the tests, three similar panels with $L = 100$ mm and $\theta = 120^\circ$ were tested. Figure 6 shows the load–displacement diagrams for these panels, which indicates repeatability of the panel tests.

For different boundary conditions, the axial load was applied to the panels and the load–axial displacement diagrams of panels have been drawn.

In all tests, the straight edges were free and the arc edges were clamped or simply supported. To produce clamped and simple boundary conditions, some appropriate fixtures were designed. Figure 7 shows the test setup.

5. Discussion of Results. Figure 8 shows the numerical and experimental load–displacement diagrams for panels of different lengths. The peak values in diagrams stand for the buckling load. It is seen that with increase in the length the buckling load decreases. These variations are more pronounced for smaller lengths. For higher lengths, the load–displacement diagram for the smallest sector angle, i.e., $\theta = 90^\circ$ (Fig. 9) tends to the Euler buckling mode.

Figures 9 and 10 show the load–displacement diagrams for $\theta = 90$ and 180° .

Figure 11 shows that with increase in the sector angle the buckling load increases. When there is a narrow cut ($\theta = 355^\circ$), the buckling load drops noticeably. The variations of the buckling load in terms of the sector angle (shown

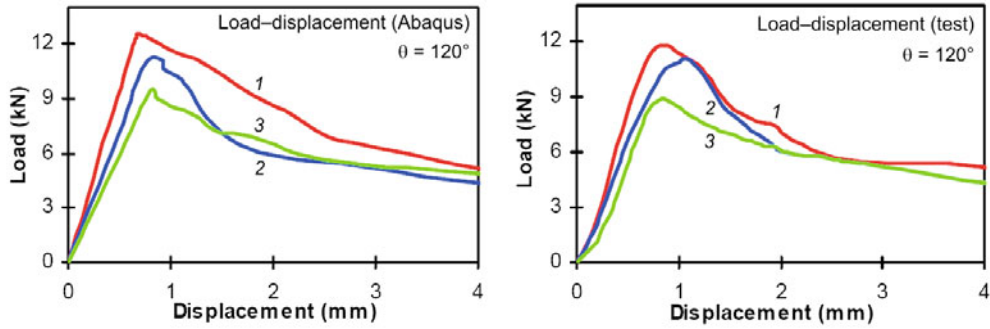


Fig. 8. Load–displacement diagrams for different lengths ($\theta = 120^\circ$, simply supported). [Here and in Figs. 9 and 10: (1) $L = 100$ mm; (2) $L = 150$ mm; (3) $L = 250$ mm.]

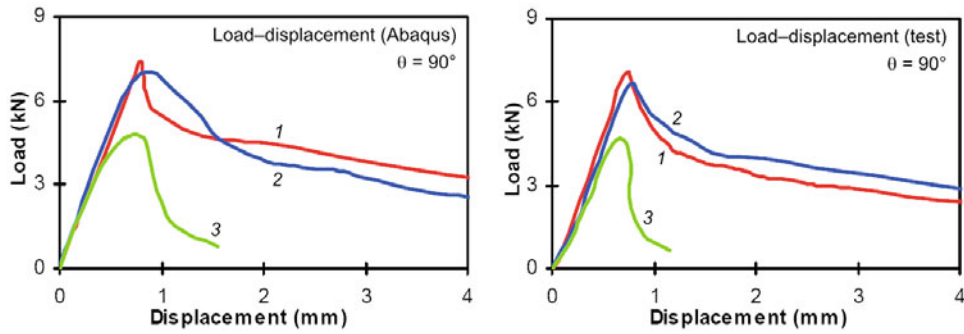


Fig. 9. Load–displacement diagrams for different lengths ($\theta = 90^\circ$, simply supported).

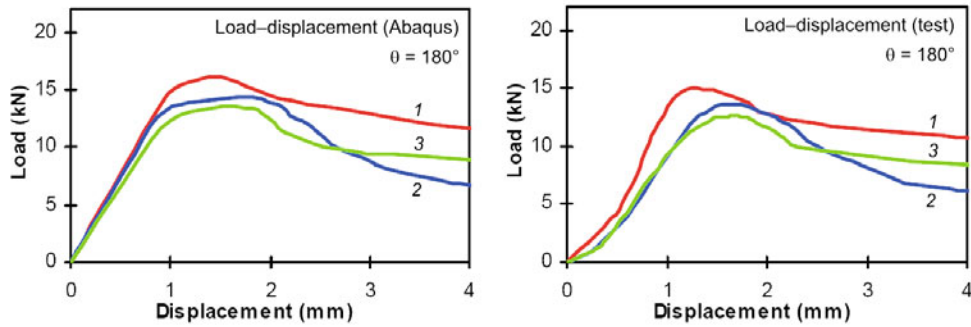


Fig. 10. Load–displacement diagram for different lengths ($\theta = 180^\circ$, simply supported).

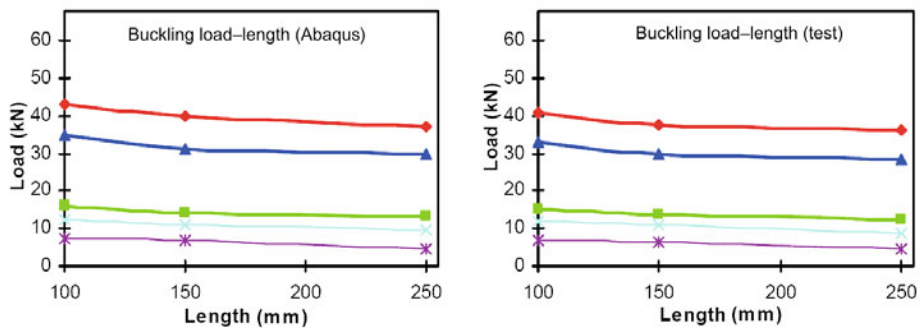


Fig. 11. Buckling load in terms of the length for different sector angles: (\blacklozenge) perfect; (\blacktriangle) $\theta = 355^\circ$; (\blacksquare) $\theta = 180^\circ$; (\times) $\theta = 120^\circ$; (\ast) $\theta = 90^\circ$.

in Fig. 12) are nearly linear and change considerably for a cylinder. Figure 13 shows the deformed shape of a panel with a narrow cut.

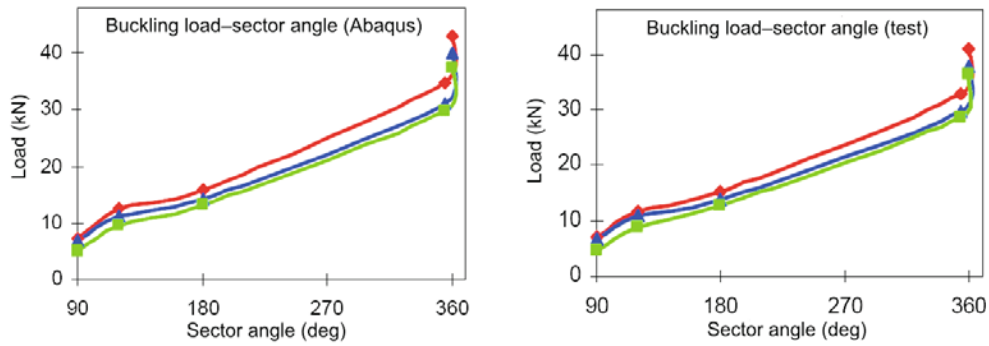


Fig. 12. Buckling load in terms of the sector angle for different sector angles (simply supported): (◆) $L=100$ mm; (▲) $L=150$ mm; (■) $L=250$ mm.

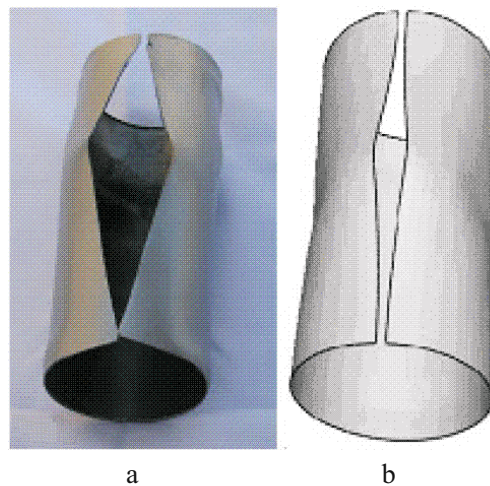


Fig 13. Deformed shaped of panel ($\theta=355^\circ$, $L=100$ mm, simply supported): (a) experimental; (b) numerical.

The load–displacement diagrams and the first buckling modes for different panels are shown in Table 2. The buckling modes are similar and there is a good agreement between the load–displacement diagrams in the most cases.



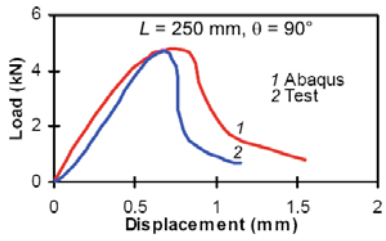


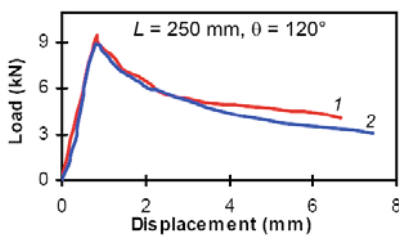


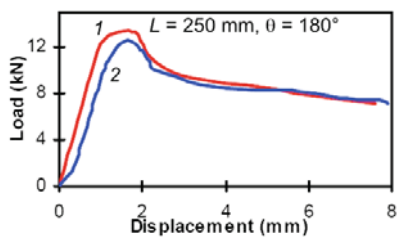
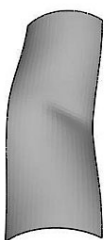

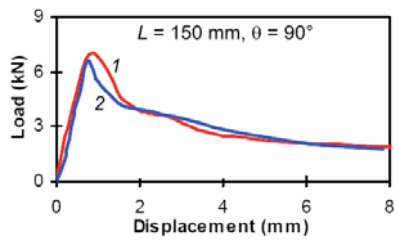


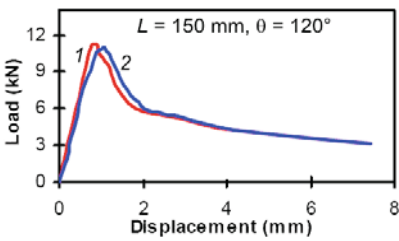


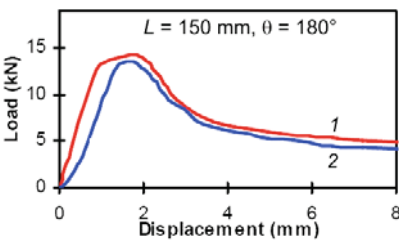
The largest differences between the diagrams correspond to the post-buckling region and the values for FE results are higher than the experimental values. It may be due to approximated definition of the plastic part of stress–strain diagram and no consideration taken of the specimens defects in FE model. The FE stress analysis shows that in some cases, the von Mises stresses in panels are higher than the yield stress or the panel is not elastic at buckling load. Figure 14 shows the von Mises stresses of a panel under buckling load.

5.1. Effect of Boundary Conditions. To investigate the effects of different boundary conditions, some tests were performed on panels with clamped and simple supports. Table 3 shows the load–displacement diagrams for clamped and simply supported boundary conditions. Results of all tests show that the clamped boundary conditions can increase the buckling load capacity of the panels. This is due to the fact that clamped boundaries can restrict the number of degrees of freedom. The Euler buckling mode has been observed for $L=250$ mm and $\theta=90^\circ$ in numerical and experimental results. The values of buckling loads for these boundary conditions are listed in Table 4.

5.2. Effect of Linear and Nonlinear Elements. After comparing the curves in Fig. 15, it can be noted that linear elements, in contrast to nonlinear elements, have a better prediction power for the post-buckling behavior of mild steel cylindrical shells with elliptical cutouts. In the prebuckling phase, both elements produce similar results.

It can be seen that the slope of load vs. displacement curves prior to the buckling is higher in numerical results than in the experimental ones. This discrepancy is due to the presence of internal defects in the material which reduces the stiffness of the specimens in the experimental method, while the materials are assumed to be ideal in the numerical analysis.

TABLE 2. Numerical and Experimental Load–Displacement Diagrams and Buckling Modes for Different Lengths and Sector Angles

Numerical mode	Experimental mode	Load–displacement diagram
1	2	3
		
		
		
		
		
		

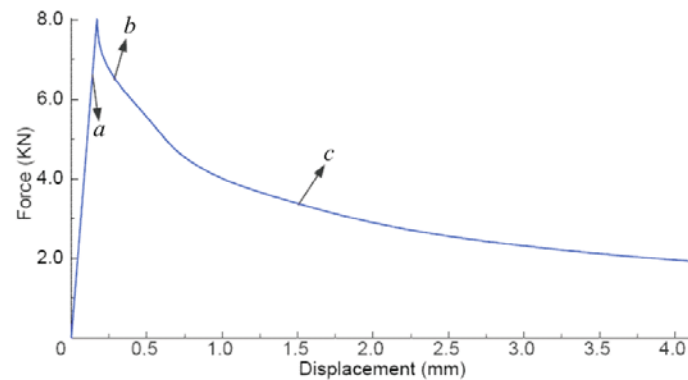
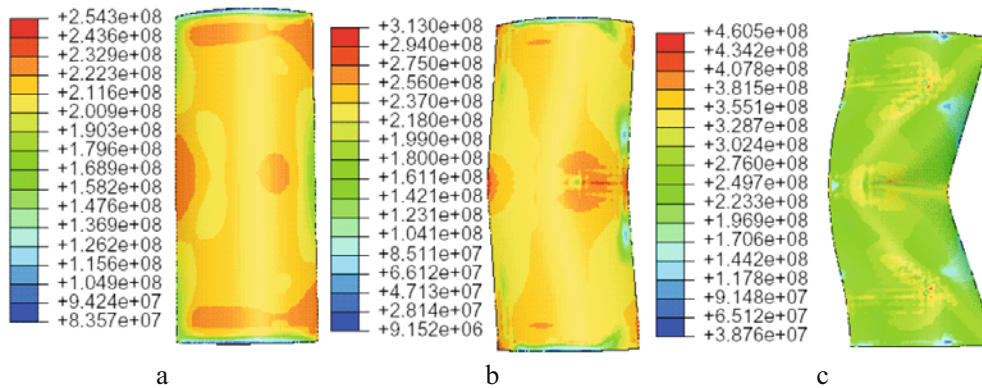
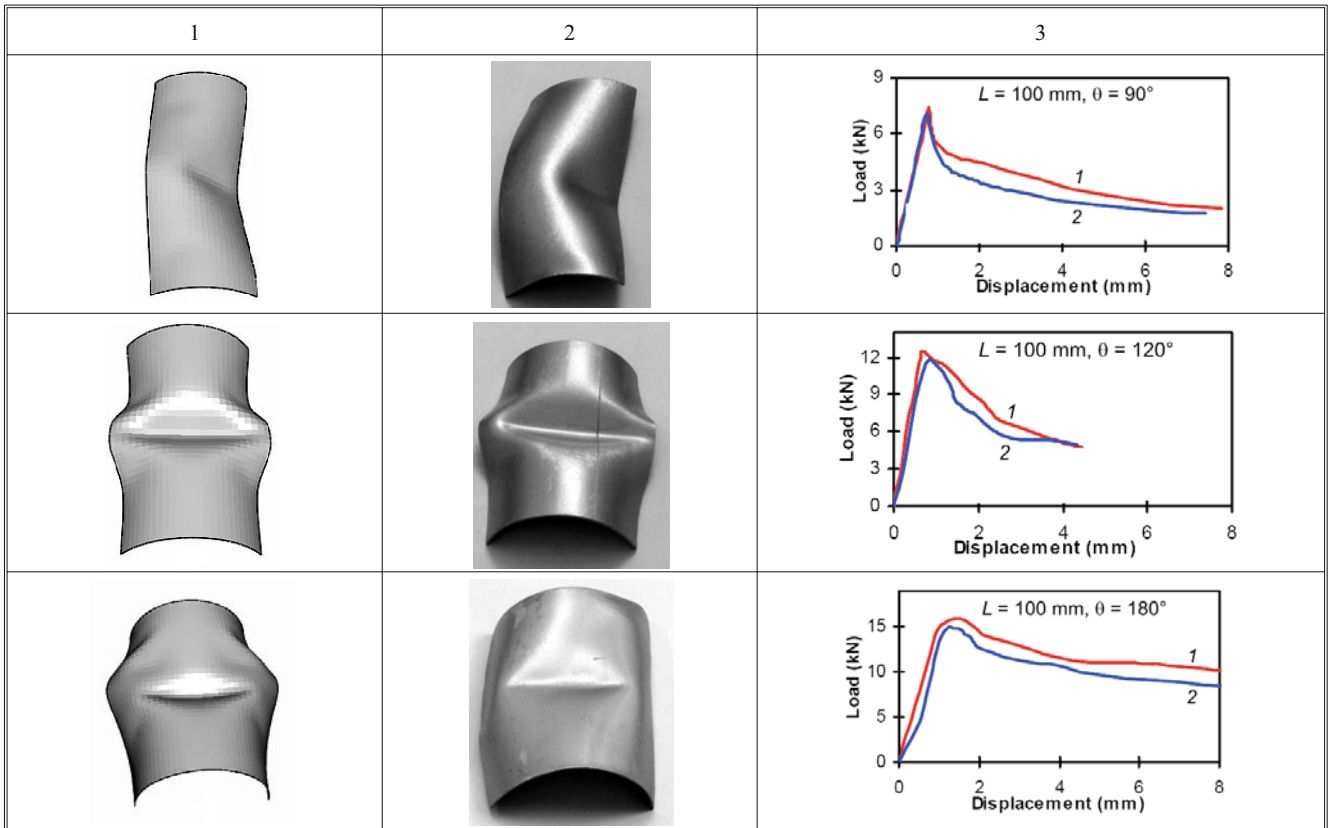


Fig. 14. Von Mises stress distribution in panels due to different loads (simply supported): (a) applied load is in the elastic region; (b, c) applied loads are in the post-buckling region.

TABLE 3. Load–Displacement Diagrams for Clamped and Simply Supported Boundary Conditions

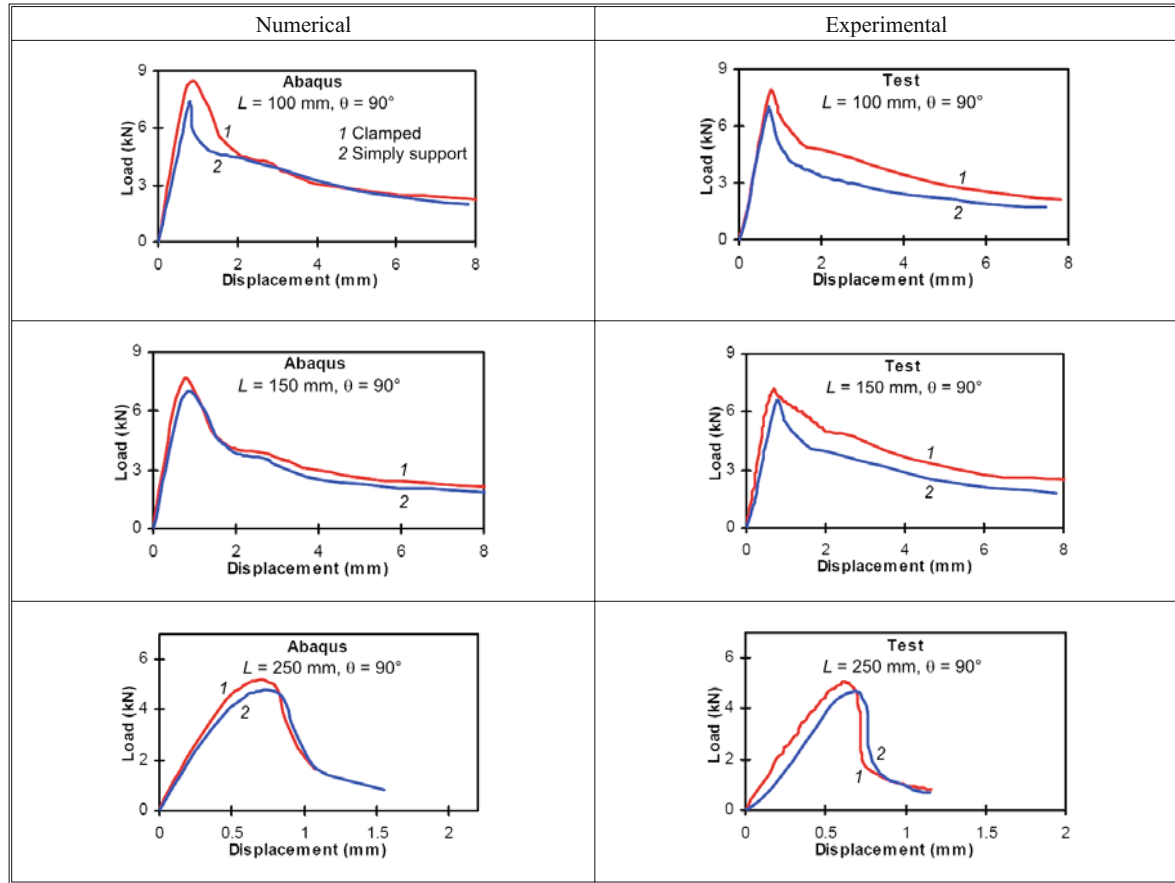


TABLE 4. Buckling Load (kN) for Different Boundary Conditions

$\theta = 90^\circ$	$L = 100 \text{ mm}$		$L = 150 \text{ mm}$		$L = 250 \text{ mm}$	
	Numerical	Experimental	Numerical	Experimental	Numerical	Experimental
Simply supported	8.40	7.06	7.04	6.61	4.80	4.66
clamped	8.45	7.92	7.67	6.99	5.19	5.05

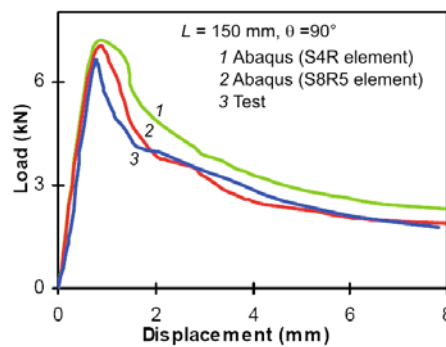


Fig. 15. Comparison of the experimental and numerical results.

The experimental results are compared with numerical findings in Table 5. It is evident that there is a close correlation between experimental and numerical results. For example, the highest discrepancy between the two sets of results is 6.7% for S8R5 nonlinear element and 8.8% for S4R linear element. It is also noteworthy that the greatest

TABLE 5. Comparison of the Experimental and Numerical Results for Cylindrical Panels

Model designation	Buckling load (kN)			Error (%)	
	S4R	S8R5	Experimental	S4R	S8R5
L100-090	7.541	7.410	7.060	6.8	4.8
L100-0120	12.745	12.492	11.807	7.9	5.8
L100-0180	16.124	16.027	15.021	7.3	6.7
L100-0355	35.214	34.821	32.983	6.8	5.6
L100-perfect	43.245	43.038	40.934	5.6	5.1
L150-090	7.202	7.039	6.611	8.8	6.5
L150-0120	11.459	11.265	11.048	3.7	2.0
L150-0180	14.601	14.303	13.634	7.1	4.9
L150-0355	32.249	31.029	29.652	8.7	4.6
L150-perfect	40.987	40.101	37.693	8.7	6.4
L250-090	4.912	4.802	4.659	5.4	3.1
L250-0120	9.580	9.492	8.941	7.1	6.2
L250-0180	13.375	13.345	12.596	6.2	5.9
L250-0355	30.015	29.867	28.589	5.0	4.5
L250-perfect	38.012	37.436	36.223	4.9	3.4

difference is observed for short specimens. This can be attributed to the fact that the bending theory of shells is more suitable for lower t/L ratios, while this theory is used by the software for calculations.

Conclusions. Increase in the panel length decreases the buckling load.

This effect is more critical for shorter panels.

The existence of a narrow slot decreases the buckling load noticeably.

The clamped boundary conditions increase the panel load-bearing capacity, i.e., increase the buckling load.

In the most cases, there is a good agreement between the numerical and experimental results. FE analysis results show that the curves constructed using linear elements predict the post-buckling region better than nonlinear elements, while the nonlinear elements are more suitable for calculation of the buckling load.

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