

Recent research advances of high strength steel welded hollow section joints

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Abstract: High strength steel (HSS) with acceptable toughness and ductility has been produced due to advances in steel manufacturing technologies. The application of HSS in tubular structures could significantly reduce construction costs and lower carbon footprints. Welded hollow section joints are critical components in tubular structures. This paper aims to provide a review of recent research advances of HSS welded hollow sections joints. Current design rules and their research background for welded hollow section joints under static and fatigue loadings are firstly described. Recent investigations on the static design and fatigue performance of HSS welded hollow section joints are summarised, and further research work is discussed. The preliminary results indicate that suitability of current design rules for the HSS welded joints under static loading depends on the loading type, failure mode, steel yield stress, geometric parameters, chord preload ratio and welding. High-cycle fatigue performance of the HSS welded joints is comparable or even higher when compared with normal strength steel counterparts. More research is highly desirable for comprehensive assessment of current design provisions and proposing appropriate design rules for the HSS welded joints.

Keywords: Rectangular hollow section; Circular hollow section; Welded joints; High strength steel; Static design; High-cycle fatigue; Low-cycle fatigue

1. Introduction

High strength steel (HSS) with yield stresses higher than 450 MPa becomes readily available because of rapid development of steel production technologies such as quenching and tempering (QT) and thermo-mechanical controlled processing (TMCP). The QT technique was firstly developed in the 1960s to manufacture HSS of steel grade S690 [1]. The steel is rapidly cooled down after austenizing at about 900°C in a metallurgical process of quenching, in order to introduce a hard form of crystalline structure of martensite. Targeted high steel yield strengths can be obtained in the quenching treatment. Tempering is, thereafter, performed to reheat the steel at around 600°C in order to improve toughness and ductility of HSS. Thermo-mechanical controlled processing (TMCP) is another main means to produce HSS with finer grain microstructures. The TMCP technique applies a controlled rolling at a lower temperature about 700°C and a subsequent accelerated cooling process. The use of alloying elements is also minimised involving optimized microalloying in each manufacturing stage. Thus, the energy consumption and carbon equivalent value (CEV) of TMCP steel are lower, and the weldability is improved when compared with traditional QT steel [2]. It is also worth noting that high-purity steelmaking technologies developed in recent years such as hot metal dephosphorization processes could significantly improve steel purity [3]. Contents of impurity elements e.g. phosphorus and sulphur which adversely affect steel toughness are reduced, and therefore the steel toughness and ductility are improved. This technique in conjunction with the QT or TMCP technologies can produce HSS with acceptable toughness and ductility nowadays.

Fig. 1 shows typical buildings and bridges in which HSS has been successfully used [4, 5]. The

45 application of HSS with high strength-to-weight ratio can reduce member sizes and structural self-weight,
46 resulting in material savings, reduced costs of transportation, coatings and foundations, and thus lower
47 construction costs. Carbon footprints are also reduced because of less resource consumption and
48 transportation time. Recognising the benefits of HSS as an economical and sustainable construction
49 material, it is increasingly popular in construction industry. Tubular structures are widely used in onshore
50 and offshore structures e.g. buildings, large-span roofs, bridges and offshore platforms. HSS welded
51 hollow section joints composed of built-up, hot-finished or cold-formed steel tubes are critical components
52 in tubular structures. Built-up hollow sections welded from HSS steel plates are preferred in the case of
53 heavy loadings while hot-finished and cold-formed steel hollow sections are usually adopted in light
54 tubular structures. It should be noted that material properties of HSS differ from those of normal strength
55 steel. There are usually no sharply defined yield points in stress-strain responses of cold-formed HSS, and
56 thus the 0.2% proof stresses are then taken as the yield stresses. Deformation capacity and ductility of HSS
57 are generally lower for the trade-off of higher material strengths, and the yield ratio of yield to ultimate
58 stresses is closer to unity when compared with normal strength steel. Extensive investigations have been
59 conducted on material properties of HSS [5-8]. Structural performance of HSS welded hollow section
60 joints could differ from that of normal strength steel counterparts. Comprehensive research on the HSS
61 welded joints is therefore highly desirable in order to propose suitable design rules for the joints and to
62 facilitate the application of HSS tubular structures.

63 Structural behaviours of welded hollow section joints using normal strength steel have been extensively
64 investigated. In contrast, research on the HSS welded joints remains limited. Design rules for welded
65 hollow section joints using steel grades up to S700 are available in international design guides and codes.
66 This paper firstly describes the current design rules and their research background for normal and high
67 strength steel welded hollow section joints under static and fatigue loadings. Recent research advances of
68 static design and fatigue performance of the HSS welded joints are summarised. Suitability of the current
69 design rules and research needs for the HSS welded joints are discussed.

70

71 **2. Current design rules for welded hollow sections joints**

72

73 *2.1. Static design*

74

75 The International Institute of Welding (IIW) Subcommittee XV-E proposed the 1st edition of design
76 recommendations [9] in 1981, and later developed the 2nd edition in 1989 [10] and the 3rd edition in 2009
77 [11] for welded hollow section joints under predominantly static loading. The Eurocode EN 1993-1-8 [12]
78 and ANSI/AISC 360-10 [13] generally follow the 2nd edition of IIW recommendations [10]. The 3rd
79 edition of IIW recommendations was adopted by the current CIDECT design guides No. 1 and 3 [14, 15]
80 and ISO 14346 [16]. Design equations for welded CHS joints mainly used in offshore structures are also
81 available in API RP 2A WSD [17]. Strength equations, which are user-friendly, reasonably accurate and
82 consistent among various types of hot-finished and cold-formed steel hollow section joints (see Fig. 2), are
83 specified in these design codes and guides [9-17]. For example, the strength equation for axially loaded
84 uniplanar welded hollow section joints which fail by chord plastification is as follows:

$$N_1^* = \frac{f_y t^2}{\sin \theta} Q_u Q_f \quad (1)$$

85 The moment resistance of circular hollow section (CHS) joints subjected to in-plane and out-of-plane
86 bending in the brace is as follows:

$$M_1^* = \frac{f_y t^2}{\sin \theta} Q_u Q_f d_1 \quad (2)$$

87 The moment capacity of rectangular hollow section (RHS) joints under in-plane bending ($M_{ip,1}^*$) and
 88 out-of-plane bending ($M_{op,1}^*$) in the brace is as follows:

$$M_{ip,1}^* = \frac{f_y t^2}{\sin \theta} Q_u Q_f h_1 \quad (3)$$

$$M_{op,1}^* = \frac{f_y t^2}{\sin \theta} Q_u Q_f b_1 \quad (4)$$

89 where f_y is the yield stress of the chord member, t is the chord wall thickness, θ is the angle between the
 90 brace and chord, d_1 is the brace diameter, h_1 is brace height, b_1 is the brace width, Q_u is the reference
 91 strength equation expressed as a function of non-dimensional joint geometric parameters, and the chord
 92 stress equation (Q_f) accounts for the effect of chord longitudinal stresses on the joint strength. The
 93 reference strength equations (Q_u) adopted for CHS X-joints are based on the ring model, and the yield line
 94 model is employed to derive the reference strength equations for RHS T-, Y- and X-joints [10-16]. These
 95 analytical models for welded hollow section joints are elaborated in Wardenier [18].

96 Different definitions of the static strength of welded hollow section joints were adopted in the
 97 development of design rules. In the early research on welded hollow section joints, the ultimate load was
 98 taken as the joint strength. This definition was employed in the 2nd edition of IIW recommendations [10],
 99 EN 1993-1-8 [12] and ANSI/AISC 360-10 [13]. However, some hollow section joints do not exhibit peak
 100 loads in load-deformation curves due to the membrane effect and strain hardening of steel materials. Lu et
 101 al. [19] proposed an ultimate deformation limit i.e. 3% of chord diameter ($0.03d$) for CHS joints and 3% of
 102 chord width ($0.03b$) for RHS joints. Such limit is based on the observation that the deformation at the peak
 103 loads of welded hollow section joints ranges from 2.5% to 4% of chord diameter or chord width. It is
 104 suggested that the joint strength is determined by the lower of the ultimate load of the hollow section joints
 105 and the load at the ultimate deformation limit. This proposal was later adopted by the 3rd edition of IIW
 106 recommendations [11], CIDECT design guides No. 1 and 3 [14, 15] and ISO 14346 [16]. The deformation
 107 limit serves to control joint deformations at ultimate and serviceability limit states because of high
 108 flexibility of some hollow section joints [14, 15]. API RP 2A WSD [17] adopts the Yura deformation limit
 109 of $\delta=60d_1 f_y/E$ and rotation limit of $\varphi=80f_y/E$ for CHS joints under axial loading and bending, respectively
 110 [20]. The δ and φ are the limiting brace end displacement and rotation, respectively, d_1 is the brace
 111 diameter, and f_y and E are the steel yield stress and elastic modulus of the chord, respectively.

112 The strength equations (Eqs. (1) to (4)) adopted in 2nd edition of IIW recommendations [10], EN
 113 1993-1-8 [12] and ANSI/AISC 360-10 [13] for welded hollow section joints were obtained primarily based
 114 on test results. In contrast, the 3rd edition of IIW recommendations [11], CIDECT design guides No. 1 and
 115 3 [14, 15] and ISO 14346 [16] are mainly based on FE database because test data inevitably include a
 116 certain amount of scatter while FE results could avoid such scatter [21]. The strength equations in API RP
 117 2A WSD [17] are developed from regression analysis using the MSL screened test database, the
 118 unscreened test database compiled by Kumamoto University and the API/EWI validated FE database [20].
 119 Comparison among the 2nd and 3rd editions of the IIW recommendations [10, 11] and API RP 2A WSD
 120 [17] is made in the appendix of the CIDECT design guides No. 1 and 3 [14, 15]. The major changes in the
 121 3rd edition of the IIW recommendations [11] compared with the 2nd edition [10] and corresponding
 122 research background are introduced in Zhao et al. [22].

123 The IIW recommendations [10, 11], EN 1993-1-8 [12], the CIDECT design guides [14, 15] and ISO
 124 14346 [16] give design strengths for welded hollow section joints. In contrast, the strength equations

125 specified in ANSI/AISC 360-10 [13] and API RP 2A WSD [17] produce characteristic strengths for the
126 joints. The regression analysis of test or numerical data for the reference strength equation (Q_u) and the
127 chord stress equation (Q_f) leads to the mean strength equation. The mean strength equation can be
128 converted to the characteristic strength equation by considering fabrication tolerances, mean values and
129 scatter of test or numerical data and a correction of steel yield stress [21]. When adopted theoretical models
130 e.g. the yield line model for RHS T-, Y- and X-joints produce lower-bound strength predictions for test
131 strengths, the analytical equations derived from the theoretical models could be taken as the characteristic
132 strength equations [23]. The design strength equation can be derived from the characteristic strength
133 equation divided by a partial factor. The partial factors adopted by the design codes and guides [10-12,
134 14-16] are detailed in Wardenier [23] and Table C.1 of ISO 14346 [16]. The procedures of converting mean
135 strengths to characteristic strengths and then to design strengths adopted by the IIW recommendations [10,
136 11] are described in van der Vegte et al. [21] and Wardenier [23]. It should be noted that the uniplanar
137 welded hollow section joints which fail by other failure modes e.g. chord punching shear, chord side wall
138 failure, chord shear and local failure of the brace member, welded plate to CHS or RHS chord joints and
139 multiplanar welded hollow section joints are also covered in the design codes and guides [9-17].

140 Limitations on materials and validity ranges of joint parameters are specified in the design codes and
141 guides [9-17] which are mainly for welded hollow section joints using steel grades up to S355. EN
142 1993-1-8 [12] and the CIDECT design guides [14, 15] allow for use of steel grades beyond S355, but
143 stipulate restrictive design rules. Additional reduction factors of joint strength are specified to be applied to
144 the design strength equations of welded hollow section joints using normal strength steel. EN 1993-1-8 [12]
145 prescribes a reduction factor of 0.9 for the welded joints using steel grades greater than S355 and up to
146 S460. EN 1993-1-12 [24] further extends the limit of steel grades beyond S460 and up to S700, and
147 imposes a reduction factor of 0.8. Similarly, the CIDECT design guides [14, 15] stipulate a reduction factor
148 of 0.9 and specify the limitation on the yield stress (f_y) to 0.8 of the ultimate stress (f_u) for the welded joints
149 using steel grades greater than S355 and up to S460. These restrictions are imposed for the welded joints in
150 steel grades greater than S355 due to relatively larger deformation for chord face plastification, possibly
151 lower deformation and rotation capacity, and required sufficient connection ductility for chord punching
152 shear and local yielding of braces [14, 15].

153 The restrictive design rules aforementioned for the welded joints using steel grades beyond S355 are
154 mainly based on limited investigations on gap K-joints. Liu and Wardenier [25] numerically analysed the
155 static strength of RHS gap K-joints using S460 steel and found that the joint strength is 10 to 16% lower
156 than that of corresponding S235 joints in relative terms. Kurobane [26] conducted experimental tests on
157 CHS gap K-joints in S460 steel and found that the joint strength is 18% lower when compared with the
158 same joints using S235 steel. Noordhoek et al. [27] also reported similar findings that the joint efficiency
159 of CHS gap K-joints in S460 steel is lower than that of corresponding S235 joints. In recent years, some
160 investigations re-evaluated the design rules for HSS welded hollow section joints under static loading,
161 which will be discussed in Section 3.

162

163 2.2. Fatigue design

164

165 Numerous tubular structures are under fatigue loading e.g. offshore platforms subjected to time-variant
166 impact from ocean waves. Fatigue loading could lead to initiation of cracks, subsequent crack growth and
167 progressive strength degradation. Fracture of members or welded hollow section joints could eventually
168 occur, which may result in the collapse of tubular structures. Phases of crack initiation and crack

169 propagation are two major parts of the fatigue life. The joint type, applied loading and structural detailing
 170 are three controlling factors of fatigue resistance for welded hollow section joints i.e. the number of cycles
 171 to fatigue failure (N_f).

172 The IIW Subcommittee XV-E proposed design recommendations for welded hollow section joints
 173 subjected to high-cycle fatigue ($N_f \geq 10^4$) [28] which form the basis of the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29].
 174 The hot spot stress method is the most commonly used approach for estimating high-cycle fatigue
 175 resistance of welded hollow section joints which is adopted by the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29]. The
 176 non-uniform stiffness in the brace-chord intersection region results in uneven geometric stress distribution.
 177 The cracks usually initiate at the hot spot locations where the maximum geometric stress called hot spot
 178 stress occurs. For welded hollow section joints, cracking usually takes place at the weld toe. The hot spot
 179 stress method which is also named geometric stress method relates the fatigue resistance of welded hollow
 180 section joints to the hot spot stress at the weld toe. This method considers the non-uniform stress
 181 distribution at the brace-chord intersection directly and effects of the geometry and loading type, but
 182 excludes influences related to the fabrication and local condition at the weld toe.

183 The fatigue resistance of welded hollow section joints can be determined by fatigue strength curves i.e.
 184 S_{rhs} - N_f curves, where S_{rhs} is the hot spot stress range and N_f is the number of cycles to fatigue failure. The
 185 hot spot stress range can be determined by experimental tests or numerical simulations, which are, however,
 186 not readily feasible for designers. In order to facilitate the calculation of the hot spot stress range, the stress
 187 concentration factor (SCF) is used as the multiplication factor on the nominal stress range in the member
 188 resulted from the applied basic member loading which causes the hot spot stress [29]. The SCF defined as
 189 the ratio of hot spot stress to the nominal stress varies around the perimeter at the brace-chord intersection.
 190 Several hot spot locations are therefore chosen for a joint, along which the SCF is determined. For example,
 191 the hot spot locations for RHS X- and T-joints are shown in Fig. 3.

192 The SCF can be determined using specially designed strip strain gauges or finite element analysis. Strain
 193 perpendicular to the weld toe recommended by the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29] can be firstly
 194 obtained from strain gauges in the so-called extrapolation region where effects of the local weld toe
 195 geometry is negligible. The maximum strain at the weld toe (ε_{Max}) is then calculated using linear
 196 extrapolation method for CHS joints and the quadratic extrapolation method for RHS joints [29]. The
 197 extrapolation method and region are illustrated in Fig. 4. It should be noted that t is the smaller tube wall
 198 thickness between the brace and chord. The strain concentration factors for RHS joints ($SNCF_{RHS}$) and
 199 CHS joints ($SNCF_{CHS}$) are as follows [29]:

$$SNCF_{RHS} = \varepsilon_{Max} / (\varepsilon_{AX} + \varepsilon_{IPB} + \varepsilon_{OPB}) \quad (5)$$

$$SNCF_{CHS} = \varepsilon_{Max} / (\varepsilon_{AX} + \sqrt{\varepsilon_{IPB}^2 + \varepsilon_{OPB}^2}) \quad (6)$$

200 where ε_{Max} is the extrapolated maximum strain, ε_{AX} , ε_{IPB} and ε_{OPB} are the nominal strain caused by the axial
 201 force, in-plane bending and out-of-plane bending, respectively. The SCF values of RHS joints (SCF_{RHS})
 202 and CHS joints (SCF_{CHS}) can be obtained by [29]:

$$SCF_{RHS} = 1.1SNCF_{RHS} \quad (7)$$

$$SCF_{CHS} = 1.2SNCF_{CHS} \quad (8)$$

203 SCF formulae for the hot spot locations of T-, Y-, X-, K-, XX- and KK-joints composed of RHS and CHS
 204 steel tubes obtained from regression analysis of test and numerical results are available in the CIDECT

205 design guide No. 8 [29].

206 It should be noted that the fatigue strength curves specified in the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29] are
207 only applicable for welded CHS and RHS joints with tube wall thickness (t) of 4 mm and larger. The test
208 data used for the development of the fatigue design rules for welded hollow section joints are mostly from
209 the welded joints composed of hot-rolled thick-walled tubes using normal strength steel [30]. Extrapolating
210 the existing fatigue strength ($S_{rhs}-N_f$) curves for thin-walled welded joints ($t < 4\text{mm}$) could produce
211 unconservative prediction of fatigue resistance, possibly because of the effect of weld defects [31].
212 Additionally, applicability of such design rules for high strength steel counterparts in built-up, cold-formed
213 and hot-finished steel sections needs to be examined. Related recent research advances will be summarised
214 in Section 4.

215

216 **3. Research advances of HSS welded hollow section joints under static loading**

217

218 *3.1. General*

219

220 The restrictive provisions for HSS welded hollow section joints described in Section 2.1 partially
221 eliminate the benefits of using HSS. The reduction factors of joint strength are imposed for all types of
222 HSS welded hollow section joints regardless of failure modes. Suitability of such design rules remains
223 controversial. In recent years, experimental and numerical studies on HSS welded hollow section joints
224 have been carried out to re-evaluate these design rules. The following subsections summarise recent
225 research advances of HSS welded rectangular hollow section (RHS) and circular hollow section (CHS)
226 joints under static loading and discuss research needs.

227

228 *3.2. Welded RHS joints*

229

230 The structural behaviour and static strength of axially loaded welded RHS joints in C450 steel with a
231 nominal yield stress of 450 MPa have been investigated. Becque and Wilkinson [32] reported an
232 experimental program consisting of 4 T-joints and 11 X-joints fabricated from cold-formed C450 steel
233 RHS tubes. Axial compression or tension was applied in the braces. Chord face plastification, chord side
234 wall failure, chord punching shear and local failure of braces were observed in tests. Test strengths of the
235 joints were compared with nominal strengths of the CIDECT design guide [15]. The nominal strengths
236 were converted from the CIDECT design strengths by multiplying the implicit safety factors incorporated
237 in the CIDECT design equations and without applying the specified reduction factor and limitation on the
238 yield stress. It is found that the test strengths exceed the CIDECT nominal strengths for the joints which
239 failed by ductile modes of chord face plastification and chord side wall failure, provided that the joint
240 parameters are within the validity ranges of the CIDECT design equations. The nominal strength prediction
241 becomes increasingly conservative with increasing chord side wall slenderness for the joints which failed
242 by chord side wall failure. The test program, however, provides test evidence justifying the application of
243 the reduction factor and limitation on yield stress for the joints which failed by less ductile modes of chord
244 punching shear and effective width failure of braces. It is also suggested that the current CIDECT design
245 rules should not be applied to the joints with geometric parameters falling outside the CIDECT validity
246 ranges. Cheng and Becque [33] proposed a design methodology for chord side wall failure in axially
247 compressed equal-width RHS X-joints using C450 steel which can consider the effect of compressive
248 chord preload. Mohan et al. [34, 35] numerically analysed the static strength of RHS T-, X-, K- and

249 N-joints in C450 steel and found that the numerical strengths are generally higher than the CIDECT design
250 strengths without applying the reduction factor and limitation on yield stress.

251 For higher steel grades not greater than S700, Kim [36] conducted tests on RHS X-joints with a nominal
252 yield stress of 650 MPa and found that the joint strength obtained from tests exceeds the design strength
253 calculated from EN 1993-1-8 [12] without applying reduction factors. Strength equations for chord side
254 wall failure in equal-width RHS X-joints were proposed. Havula et al. [37] carried out tests on S420, S500
255 and S700 steel square hollow section (SHS) T-joints subjected to in-plane bending to investigate the
256 moment resistance, rotation stiffness and ductility of the T-joints. Chord face plastification governed the
257 deformation of specimens and punching shear eventually occurred in the heat affected zone (HAZ). It is
258 found that the test strengths of butt-welded T-joints and the S700 steel T-joints with small fillet welds are
259 lower than the design strengths predicted by EN 1993-1-8 [12] without using the reduction factors.
260 However, the test strengths of the T-joints using large fillet welds and the S420 and S500 steel T-joints
261 using small fillet welds are higher than the Eurocode design strengths without using the reduction factors.
262 The moment resistance and rotation stiffness of fillet-welded T-joints increase with increasing weld size
263 and are generally higher than those of butt-welded joints. Ductility of the T-joint specimens is found to be
264 sufficient.

265 Welded RHS joints in ultra-high steel grade of S960 were also investigated in some experimental
266 programs. Feldmann et al. [38] carried out experimental tests on totally 106 RHS X- and K-joints using
267 S500, S700 and S960 steel to evaluate suitability of the reduction factors and throat thickness of fillet
268 welds stipulated in EN 1993-1-8 [12] and 1993-1-12 [24]. Chord plastification, chord side wall failure,
269 chord punching shear, chord shear and weld failure were reported in tests. The maximum loads obtained
270 from tests without considering deformation limits were compared with the Eurocode design strengths
271 without and with applying the reduction factors. It is found that the ultimate loads generally exceed the
272 design strengths using the reduction factors, and the throat thickness calculated from EN 1993-1-8 [12] is
273 conservative. It is suggested that the reduction factors can be relaxed i.e. 1.0, 0.9 and 0.8 for steel grades
274 S500, S700 and S960, respectively. When the weld design is based on the joint strength, the recommended
275 throat thickness is $1.0t$, $1.2t$ and $1.4t$ for steel grades S500, S700 and S960, respectively, where t is the
276 smaller tube wall thickness between the brace and chord. It is noted that the test data are relatively
277 scattered, and such suggestions are based on the lower bound of test strengths. Pandey and Young [39]
278 conducted experimental tests on RHS X-joints composed of cold-formed S960 steel tubes under axial
279 compression in the braces. The tested specimens failed by chord face plastification, chord side wall failure
280 and a combination of the two failure modes. The test strengths were compared with design strengths
281 calculated from EN 1993-1-8 [12] and the CIDECT design guide [15] without using the stipulated
282 reduction factors. It is found that the design equations are unconservative for RHS X-joints with small
283 brace to chord width ratio and become increasingly conservative with increasing chord side wall
284 slenderness for equal-width RHS X-joints.

285

286 3.3. *Welded CHS joints*

287

288 Structural performance of HSS welded CHS X-joints has been extensively investigated. Puthli et al. [40]
289 conducted numerical simulations on S460 and S690 steel CHS X-joints and experimental tests on CHS
290 X-joints in steel grades S460, S690 and S770. Axial compression, tension or in-plane bending was applied
291 in the brace. The numerical analysis shows that the reduction factors of joint strength obtained from
292 numerical simulations are higher than 0.9 for the S460 joints and larger than 0.8 for the S690 joints which

293 failed by chord face plastification. Failure modes in tests are chord face plastification and chord punching
294 shear. The test results show that the static strength of the joints under axial tension is considerably higher
295 than that of the joints subjected to axial compression. The test strengths are generally higher than the
296 design strengths calculated from EN 1993-1-8 [12] without applying the reduction factors. Lee et al. [41]
297 carried out test and numerical investigations on CHS X-joints with a nominal yield stress of 650 MPa,
298 which failed by chord plastification. It is also found that test and numerical joint strengths exceed design
299 strengths of EN 1993-1-8 [12] without applying the reduction factors, and the joints appear to have
300 acceptable ductility and deformation capacity. Lan et al. [42] conducted numerical analysis on the static
301 strength of axially compressed CHS X-joints in S700, S900 and S1100 steel which failed by chord
302 plastification. Test data of CHS X-joints with nominal yield stresses of 650, 690 and 770 MPa in the
303 literature were also compiled. The obtained numerical and test strengths were compared with those
304 calculated from mean strength equations on which design equations in EN 1993-1-8 [12] and the CIDECT
305 design guide [14] are based. It is found that suitability of the mean strength equations for HSS CHS
306 X-joints depends on steel yield stress, brace to chord diameter ratio, chord diameter to wall thickness ratio
307 and compressive chord preload ratio. Later, Lan et al. [43] carried out comprehensive analysis on the
308 structural behaviour and static strength of CHS X-joints using steel grades ranging from S460 to S1100
309 which failed by chord plastification. It is found that effects of heat affected zones (HAZ) on the initial
310 stiffness and static strength of the CHS X-joints could be minor, and the improved yield stresses of HSS
311 generally could not be fully utilised mainly due to the adopted CIDECT deformation limit described in
312 Section 2.1. It is suggested that the chord diameter to wall thickness ratio should be within 40 for steel
313 grades up to S700 and 30 for higher steel grades up to S1100 to allow for more effective use of HSS. Mean
314 and design strength equations were proposed for the CHS X-joints.

315 HSS welded plate to CHS chord joints have also been investigated. Lee et al. [44] and Kim et al. [45]
316 carried out experimental and numerical studies on welded plate to CHS chord X-joints with a nominal
317 yield stress of 485 MPa and under in-plane bending in the brace. It is shown that the plate width to chord
318 diameter ratio, chord diameter to wall thickness ratio and chord preload ratio affect applicability of design
319 equations in the CIDECT design guide [14], and modified strength equations were proposed for the
320 X-joints. Qu et al. [46, 47] conducted tests and finite element analysis on unstiffened and stiffened
321 tube-gusset plate to CHS chord K-joints with a nominal yield stress of 690 MPa. Strength equations were
322 proposed for the K-joints.

323

324 *3.4. Remarks and research needs*

325

326 The definition of joint strength is crucial for direct and objective comparison with the design codes and
327 guides [9-17], which adopt different deformation limits as described in Section 2.1. It is noted that the joint
328 strength in Cheng and Becque [33] was defined as the chord side wall buckling load, and the maximum
329 load was taken as the joint strength in Feldmann et al. [38]. Havula et al. [37] determined the joint moment
330 resistance as the intersection of the two tangent lines corresponding to initial and hardening stiffness in the
331 moment-rotation curves. The definition of joint strength adopted by the CIDECT design guides [14, 15] i.e.
332 lower of the maximum load and the load at the ultimate deformation limit was employed in other
333 investigations [32, 34-36, 39-47]. In addition, the strength equations in the design codes and guides [9-17],
334 in general, already include material and joint partial factors or joint resistance factors. It is therefore
335 important to compare the joint strength obtained from tests and numerical simulations with the nominal
336 strength calculated from the nominal strength equations on which the design codes and guides [9-17] are

337 based, in order to allow for objective comparison.

338 The aforementioned investigations [32-47] indicate that applicability of design rules in EN 1993-1-8 [12]
339 and the CIDECT design guides [14, 15] for different HSS welded hollow section joints depends on the
340 loading type, failure mode, steel yield stress, geometric parameters, chord preload ratio, weld type and
341 weld size. However, the current research on the HSS welded joints is mostly focused on axially loaded
342 welded uniplanar RHS T-, X-, K- and N-joints, and welded CHS X-joints as well as welded plate to CHS
343 chord X- and K-joint. Experimental, numerical and theoretical investigations on other joint types e.g.
344 welded uniplanar CHS T-, Y-, K- and N-joints, welded plate to RHS or CHS chord joints, multiplanar
345 welded joints and reinforced welded joints are therefore needed. It is noted that failure modes of welded
346 hollow section joints depend on the joint parameters and loading type e.g. axial compression, tension and
347 bending in the braces. Therefore, structural behaviours and static strengths of the HSS welded joints with
348 parameter ranges common in practice and subjected to different loading needs to be further examined for
349 comprehensive evaluation of current design provisions and proposing appropriate design rules for the HSS
350 welded joints.

351 The welding of HSS is vital. Brace members are directly welded to the chord in welded hollow section
352 joints. The heat input of welding into base metals could lead to a phase transition in heat affected zones
353 (HAZ) and thus result in changes in microstructures and corresponding material properties. Material
354 properties of HAZ in HSS mainly depend on the steel material (e.g. quenching and tempering, or
355 thermo-mechanical controlled processing steel), heat input, welding type (e.g. gas metal arc welding or
356 laser welding) and cooling time from 800 to 500 °C ($t_{8/5}$), and strength reduction of HAZ in HSS could be
357 significant if welding is not properly controlled [43]. It is thus highly desirable to investigate material
358 properties of HAZ in HSS welded hollow section joints and to examine effects of HAZ on the static
359 strength and stiffness of the joints. Furthermore, Feldmann et al. [38] found that the current Eurocode EN
360 1993-1-8 [12] gives unduly conservative throat thickness for HSS fillet welds which could significantly
361 increase corresponding welding costs of the HSS welded joints, and the throat thickness could be further
362 reduced. Welding guidance which aims to avoid excessive material softening in HAZ and allow optimised
363 design for HSS fillet welds is therefore highly desirable, and related research is needed.

364

365 **4. Research advances of HSS welded hollow section joints under fatigue loading**

366

367 *4.1. General*

368

369 The hot spot stress method adopted by the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29] described in Section 2.2 is
370 for the high-cycle fatigue design of welded hollow section joints ($N_f \geq 10^4$). The corresponding design
371 provisions were developed using test data mostly from the welded joints using normal strength steel.
372 Applicability of such design rules for high strength steel counterparts therefore needs to be examined.
373 Research on low-cycle fatigue performance of the HSS welded joints ($N_f < 10^4$) is also desirable for the
374 application of HSS tubular structures in seismic regions due to lower ductility of HSS when compared with
375 normal strength steel. Some recent investigations on the HSS welded joints under fatigue loading and
376 research needs are discussed in the following subsections.

377

378 *4.2. High-cycle fatigue*

379

380 Research on high-cycle fatigue performance of HSS welded hollow section joints remains limited. Jiang

381 et al. [48] conducted experimental tests on two built-up box T-joints using RQT-S690 steel with a nominal
382 yield stress of 690 MPa. Residual stresses and SCF distributions at brace-chord intersection of the T-joints
383 subjected to axial loading, in-plane bending and out-of-plane bending were investigated. It is found that the
384 residual stress and SCF at the corner of brace-chord intersection are highest, and the SCF values obtained
385 from tests are generally lower than those predicted by the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29]. Chiew et al.
386 [49] carried out tests on fatigue performance of built-up box T-joints in RQT-S690 steel. It is found that
387 crack propagation behaviours of the HSS T-joints are similar to those of hot-finished normal strength steel
388 counterparts, and the fatigue resistance of the HSS T-joints is higher than that predicted by the CIDECT
389 design guide No. 8 [29]. Additionally, the influence of residual stress on the crack depth development and
390 crack penetration rate is found to be minor. Karcher and Puthli [50] performed fatigue tests on unstiffened
391 and stiffened RHS and CHS L-joints with yield stresses up to 800 MPa, and found that the fatigue
392 resistance of the L-joints using higher steel grades is higher at lower nominal stress ranges. These research
393 findings indicate that the high-cycle fatigue resistance of the HSS welded joints could be comparable or
394 even higher when compared with normal strength steel counterparts.

395

396 *4.3. Low-cycle fatigue*

397

398 Investigations on low-cycle fatigue performance of HSS welded hollow section joints have also been
399 carried out. Varelis et al. [51] conducted experimental tests and numerical analysis on CHS X-joints with a
400 nominal yield stress of 590 MPa and subjected to out-of-plane cyclic loading. It is found that the X-joints
401 failed by through-thickness cracking at the chord saddle, and the fatigue resistance of the X-joints is
402 affected by weld type. Kim et al. [52] carried out experimental and finite element investigations on CHS
403 T-joints with yield stresses of 464 and 584 MPa under in-plane cyclic loading. The failure mode is
404 cracking at the chord crown. It is found that the maximum moment in the hysteresis curves is close to the
405 static moment resistance predicted by the ANSI/AISC 360-10 [13]. Qian et al. [53] conducted tests and
406 numerical studies on pre-notched CHS X-joints in S690 steel. Cyclic loading followed by a monotonic
407 in-plane bending was applied. Through-thickness cracking at the pre-cracked chord crown occurred in tests.
408 It is found that the level 2A assessment curve in BS7910 [54] produces unconservative prediction of the
409 failure load resulting in the brittle fracture in tests while the level 3C curve can provide more accurate
410 estimation of the failure load.

411

412 *4.4. Remarks and research needs*

413

414 Investigations on high-cycle fatigue performance of HSS welded hollow section joints are mainly
415 focused on built-up box T-joints and welded RHS and CHS L-joints. Research on low-cycle fatigue
416 performance of the HSS welded joints is limited to CHS X- and T-joints. Experimental and numerical
417 studies on fatigue performance of other HSS welded hollow section joints e.g. welded uniplanar CHS and
418 RHS X-, K- and N-joints, welded plate to RHS and CHS chord joints and multiplanar welded joints are
419 needed. On the one hand, it is necessary to examine suitability of the SCF formula and fatigue strength
420 curves in design codes and guides e.g. the CIDECT design guide No. 8 [29] for the HSS welded joints.
421 This is because the design rules are essentially empirical which are developed mainly based on test data of
422 normal strength steel welded hollow section joints. Studies on the hysteretic behaviour, strength, ductility
423 and energy dissipation of the HSS welded joints, on the other hand, are also needed in order to facilitate
424 the application of HSS tubular structures in seismic regions.

425 Welded hollow section joints subjected to fatigue loading usually fail by fracture at the brace-chord
426 intersection region. Fracture of the welded joints under high-cycle fatigue loading is generally
427 stress-driven because applied cyclic stresses are low and strain within the welded joints is mostly smaller
428 than the yield strain. Therefore, the corresponding fatigue resistance could be determined by the $S_{rhs}-N_f$
429 curves. The yield stress of HSS is higher, and thus the fatigue resistance of the HSS welded joints could be
430 comparable or higher than that of normal strength steel counterparts under the same low cyclic stress,
431 which is in line with the research findings reported by Chiew et al. [49] and Karcher and Puthli [50].
432 However, fracture of welded hollow section joints under low-cycle fatigue loading is governed by the
433 plastic damage due to the applied periodic plastic loading and large plastic strain occurring at the
434 brace-chord intersection. It is noted that steel fracture under low-cycle fatigue loading could be
435 characterised by micro-structure deterioration e.g. micro-void nucleation, growth and coalescence and
436 micro-crack initiation and propagation [55]. The elongation is usually lower and the yield ratio of yield to
437 ultimate stresses is closer to unity for HSS when compared with normal strength steel. The lower material
438 ductility of HSS may lead to premature fracture failure and thus reduced ductility and energy dissipation
439 capacity in the HSS welded joints under low-cycle fatigue loading. It is desirable to examine fracture
440 mechanisms of HSS and to propose fracture models for HSS, which could pave way for research on
441 fracture of HSS members, connections and structures. Experimental tests and numerical analysis on the
442 fracture behaviour and fatigue resistance of the HSS welded joints under low-cycle fatigue loading remain
443 limited, and related research is needed.

444

445 **5. Conclusions**

446

447 This paper provides a review of recent research advances of HSS welded hollow section joints under
448 static and fatigue loadings. The current design codes and guides for the static design of welded hollow
449 section joints, including EN 1993-1-8, the CIDECT design guides No. 1 and 3, ANSI/AISC 360-10, ISO
450 14346, and API RP 2A WSD, and corresponding research background are described. The hot spot stress
451 method adopted by the CIDECT design guide No. 8 for the fatigue design of welded hollow section joints
452 is elaborated. Recent research advances of HSS welded hollow section joints under static and fatigue
453 loadings are summarised, and further research work is discussed. The preliminary research results indicate
454 that suitability of current static design rules for the HSS welded joints depends on the loading type, failure
455 mode, steel yield stress, geometric parameters, chord preload ratio, and welding. High-cycle fatigue
456 performance of the HSS welded joints is comparable or even higher when compared with the normal
457 strength steel counterparts. More research is needed for comprehensive assessment of current design
458 provisions and proposing appropriate design rules for HSS welded hollow section joints.

459

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461

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467

468

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470

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(a) Landmark Tower, Yokohama (600 MPa) [4]



(b) Lotte World Tower, Seoul (800 MPa) [4]

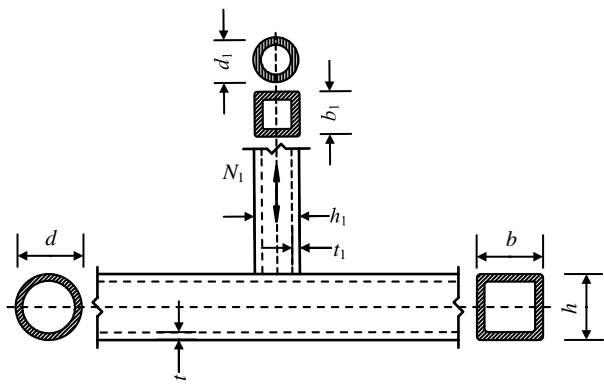


(c) Millau Bridge, Millau–Creissels (460 MPa) [4]

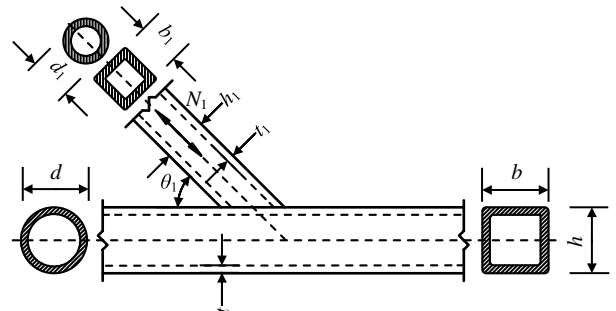


(d) Tokyo Gate Bridge, Tokyo (500, 700 MPa) [5]

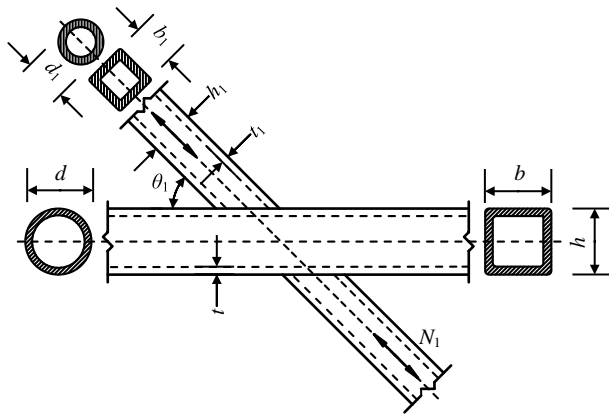
Fig. 1. Engineering applications of high strength steel in buildings and bridges.



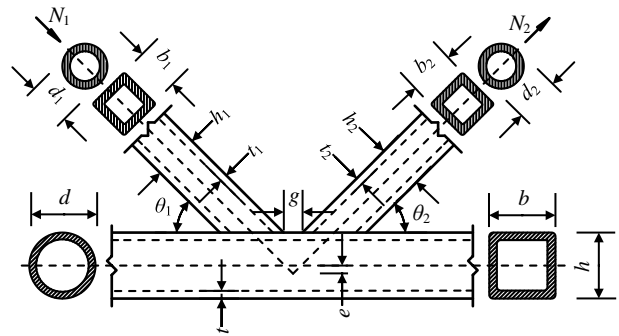
(a) T-joints



(b) Y-joints



(c) X-joints



(d) Gap K-joints

Fig. 2. Examples of welded hollow section joints.

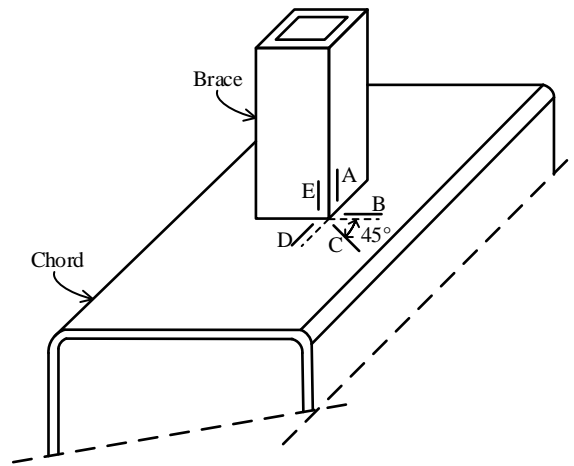


Fig. 3. Hot spot locations for RHS X- and T-joints.

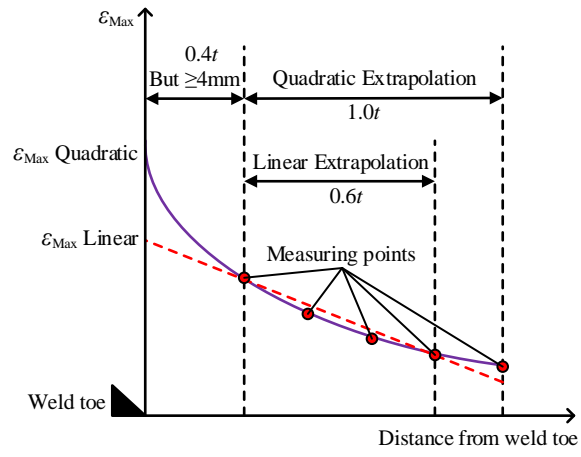


Fig. 4. Extrapolation region and method for hot spot stress method.