

IMPROVING ROCK BOLT DESIGN IN TUNNELS USING TOPOLOGY OPTIMISATION

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ABSTRACT

Finding an optimum reinforcement layout for underground excavation can result in a safer and more economical design, and therefore is highly desirable. Some works in the literature have applied topology optimisation in tunnel reinforcement design in which reinforced rock is modelled as homogenised isotropic material. Optimisation results, therefore, do not clearly show reinforcement distributions, leading to difficulties in explaining the final outcomes. In order to overcome this deficiency, a more sophisticated modelling technique in which reinforcements are explicitly modelled as truss elements embedded in rock mass media is employed. An optimisation algorithm extending the Solid Isotropic Material with Penalisation (SIMP) method is introduced to seek for an optimal bolt layout. To obtain the stiffest structure with a given amount of reinforced material, external work along the opening is selected as the objective function with a constraint on volume of reinforcement. The presented technique does not depend on material models used for rock and reinforcements and can be applied to any material model. Nonlinear material behaviour of rock and reinforcement is taken into account in this work. Through solving some typical examples, the proposed approach is proved to improve the conventional reinforcement design and provide clear and practical reinforcement layouts.

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22 INTRODUCTION

23 In tunnel reinforcement design with a wide range of rock mass types and complicated
24 corresponding behaviour, selecting a design tool capable of considering complex rock mass
25 conditions is important. With analytical approach, explicit calculations can be provided,
26 however, its applicability is restricted to only simplified cases such as circular tunnels. Em-
27 pirical methods which have been broadly used in the state-of-the-art reinforcement design,
28 on the other hand, generally determine the support design based on classification systems.
29 In heterogeneous and poor ground conditions these approaches can provide improper designs
30 (Palmstrom and Stille 2007). Additionally, as constructed from long-term accumulated expe-
31 riences in older projects, it is not guaranteed that the suggested design is the most reasonable
32 one in both economical and technical terms for a particular situation. It is also worth noting
33 that both empirical methods and analytical calculations are limited to free-field (Chen et al.
34 1999) and incapable of coping with the designs covering interaction between a new tun-
35 nel and adjacent structures. Owing to the ability in modelling complex ground conditions
36 with consideration of discontinuities or adjacent structures, usage of numerical simulation
37 has recently become common in tunnel excavation design (Gioda and Swoboda 1999; Jing
38 2003; Bobet et al. 2009). An appropriate combination of a numerical analysis method and
39 an optimisation technique would provide a promising tool for obtaining an optimal tunnel
40 reinforcement design.

41 Topology optimisation has been continuously developed and extended to a wide range of
42 engineering applications in the past two decades. However, there have been limited works
43 on utilising these optimisation methods in geotechnical, and particularly in tunnelling engi-
44 neering (Ghabraie 2009). Yin et al. (2000) initiated by applying the homogenisation method
45 in tunnel reinforcement design in which every element in the design domain is assumed as
46 a square cell made of original rock surrounded by reinforced rock. The external work along
47 the tunnel wall has been minimised under a prescribed reinforcement volume. Yin and Yang

48 (2000a) conducted further research on optimising tunnel support in various layered geological
49 structure conditions. The solid isotropic material with penalization (SIMP) method was em-
50 ployed to determine the optimum distribution of reinforcement density in the design domain.
51 In addition, tunnel and side wall heaves caused by swelling or squeezing rock, were addressed
52 by Yin and Yang (2000b). This issue was also tackled by Liu et al. (2008b) using a fixed-
53 grid bidirectional evolutionary structural optimisation (FG BESO) method. With regards
54 to the shape optimisation of underground excavations, Ren et al. (2005) and Ghabraie et al.
55 (2008) demonstrated the ability of evolutionary structural optimisation (ESO) method in
56 searching for the optimal shape based on stress distribution. A simultaneous optimisation of
57 shape and reinforcement distribution of an underground excavation for elastic material was
58 explored by Ghabraie et al. (2010) using bi-directional evolutionary structural optimisation
59 (BESO) method. It should be emphasized that all the earlier works on reinforcement opti-
60 misation have been restricted to linear elastic analysis, which is mostly not an appropriate
61 assumption for geomechanical materials. This limitation has been removed by Nguyen et al.
62 (2014) where nonlinear material models were considered in optimising tunnel reinforcement
63 distribution.

64 In the above-mentioned works, to model the areas of the rock mass reinforced by rock
65 bolts, a homogenised isotropic material which is stronger and stiffer than the unreinforced
66 rock mass material is used . This modelling technique may result in a considerable reduction
67 in computational time compared to explicit modelling of rock bolts. However, a perfect
68 bonding between the reinforced material and the surrounding rock needs to be assumed for
69 such modelling (Bernaud et al. 2009). More importantly, such a model can not consider
70 the anisotropic nature of the reinforced rock which is significantly stronger in bolt direction
71 and weaker in normal directions. Additionally, results obtained by such an approach need
72 to be further processed to yield a clear bolt distribution design (see for example section 7.4
73 in Nguyen et al. 2014). To handle these shortcomings, one should model the reinforcements
74 explicitly using linear inclusions embedded in the rock mass. This approach may take more

75 time and efforts especially in topology optimisation, but a higher level of accuracy could be
76 achieved.

77 The scope of this work is to combine an extended optimisation technique and numerical
78 analysis to seek for an optimal rock bolt configuration. Rock bolts are explicitly modelled and
79 nonlinear behaviour of rock and bolts are considered in order to achieve a more practical and
80 effective bolt design. The remaining parts of this paper are organised as follows. The next
81 section presents the modelling of underground excavation and reinforcement installation,
82 followed by a sensitivity analysis of reinforcement elements. A typical example is presented to
83 show the application and efficacy of the proposed approach. A systematic study of various *in*
84 *situ* stress states, optimisation parameters and ground conditions is performed to investigate
85 their effects on optimised bolt layouts and also to illustrate the usefulness of the proposed
86 method.

87 **MODELLING OF TUNNEL EXCAVATION AND REINFORCEMENT SYSTEM**

88 For simplicity, the considered tunnel is assumed to be long and straight enough to satisfy
89 plane strain assumption. The support system employed to reinforce the tunnel excavation is
90 a combination of a 100 mm-thick shotcrete lining and rock bolts. The shotcrete elements are
91 attached to deform together with the rock elements around the excavation boundary. Rock
92 bolts can be generally classified into two categories, namely anchored bolts and fully grouted
93 bolts. This study focuses on pre-tensioned anchored bolts. Due to their small cross-section
94 area, the bending stiffness of rock bolts can be neglected and hence truss elements are used
95 here to model pre-tensioned bolts (Coda 2001; Leite et al. 2003). Rock bolts are embedded
96 in the rock mass by connecting two ends of the bolts to nodes of the rock elements.

97 Some studies have attempted to simulate rock bolt designs in three dimensions (3D)
98 (Grasselli 2005; Liu et al. 2008a). The main advantage of a 3D model over a 2D one is
99 that the former is capable of exactly simulating actual fracture geometry, locations of bolted
100 system and sequences of tunnel advancement and reinforcement installation. However, a
101 3D modelling also requires expensive computational cost and time. When performing an

102 optimisation in particular, the excessive computational time required for a 3D analysis is a
103 major drawback as several analyses are required in solving an optimisation problem.

104 As tunnel construction is practically conducted in three-dimensions, a volume of ground
105 material is squeezed into the opening, creating deformation around the opening. A straight-
106 forward modelling of support system in two-dimensional numerical tool is incapable of taking
107 into account this 3D effect. To realistically simulate tunnel support in a plane strain condi-
108 tion, one needs to adopt assumptions accounting for the volume loss and deformations of the
109 excavation boundary occurred before any support is installed. The convergence-confinement
110 method (Panet and Guenot 1982) is adopted by applying a fictitious pressure inside the tun-
111 nel area to represent the effects of gradual decrease of the radial resistance. In the examples
112 presented here, a fictitious pressure of 70% of the initial stress is applied to simulate this
113 effect.

114 Sequences of excavation process and reinforcement installation are modelled with three
115 separate steps with the aid of ABAQUS6.11. The *in situ* stress is imposed in the first step.
116 The weight of ground material is neglected while the *in situ* stress is imposed to the model by
117 creating an initial stress field with the considered horizontal to vertical stress ratio. Along the
118 outer boundaries, the tangential tractions and normal displacements are confined while the
119 nodal displacements of the elements on the excavation boundary are restrained to simulate
120 the pre-excavation situation. The bolts and the shotcrete lining elements are absent in this
121 step. In the second step, 70% of the calculated nodal forces around the opening are reversely
122 applied to the excavation boundary. Deformation due to squeezing of ground material into
123 the tunnel before rock bolt installation is simulated in this step. The final step includes
124 removing the nodal forces and simultaneously activating the shotcrete lining elements and
125 the bolts which are pre-tensioned to 60% of their yield stress capacity. It should be noted that
126 these modelling assumptions explained above are by no means imposed by the optimisation
127 approach. The proposed optimisation approach can be used with any other model including
128 even 3D models without any modification.

129 **PROBLEM STATEMENT AND OPTIMISATION METHOD**

130 The aim of the tunnel reinforcement design is to employ a minimum amount of reinforce-
 131 ments while tunnel deformation after activating the reinforcements needs to be limited. This
 132 objective can be reformulated as finding the minimum tunnel deformation under a prescribed
 133 reinforcement volume. In the proposed method below, the optimisation process minimises
 134 the external work along the tunnel wall which is a functional of the tunnel deformation un-
 135 der a constrained reinforcement volume. The final solution is thus an optimised rock bolt
 136 distribution for a certain amount of bolt volume resulting in a minimum external work. It
 137 can be shown that any solution to this problem is also a solution to finding a minimum
 138 reinforcement volume subject to a constrained external work. The optimisation problem can
 139 be stated as

$$\min W = \int \mathbf{f} \cdot d\mathbf{u} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{u}_{i-1}) \cdot (\mathbf{f}_i + \mathbf{f}_{i-1}) \right] \quad (1)$$

subject to: $V_R = \sum_{m=1}^t A_m L_m$

140 where W is the total external work, \mathbf{f} the external force vector, \mathbf{u} the displacement vector,
 141 n the number of iterations in solving the non-linear equilibrium equations, V_R the given
 142 volume of rock bolt, A_m the cross section of rock bolt m , L_m the length of rock bolt m , and
 143 t number of rock bolts.

144 The *ground structure* concept (Bendsøe and Sigmund 2003) is used here. A ground
 145 structure is generated with all the possibilities of rock bolts one wishes to consider in the
 146 assigned design domain. Within a given ground structure, the proposed approach seeks for
 147 an optimal layout of rock bolts. In tunnel reinforcement design, these rock bolts have one of
 148 their ends on the tunnel opening and another in the rock mass. Using the ground structure,
 149 length of each rock bolt is fixed while its cross section area is selected as a function of a design
 150 variable. A power-law interpolation scheme, which is commonly used to define intermediate
 151 material properties in the SIMP method (Bendsøe 1989) is expressed below and employed

152 to define the cross section area of each rock bolt.

$$A_m = A_{min} + x_m^p (A_{max} - A_{min}) \quad (2)$$

153 Here A_{min} and A_{max} are the lower and upper bound values of cross section area, respectively.
154 p is the penalty factor, and $0 \leq x_m \leq 1$ the design variable of rock bolt m . Selection of
155 A_{min} and A_{max} restricts the desired range of cross section areas in the optimisation outcomes.
156 Choosing $A_{min} = 0$, one enables the optimisation engine to completely eliminate unnecessary
157 bolts if required.

158 The penalty factor is used to penalise the intermediate values and consequently push the
159 cross section areas of bolts to the two extremes of A_{min} and A_{max} . Without penalisation
160 ($p = 1$), the cross section area varies continuously from the lower to the upper bound values.
161 On the other hand, a penalty factor $p > 1$ tries to push the intermediate values to the lower
162 and upper bounds. The effect of penalisation then reduces to limiting the variety of bolt
163 areas per unit length, ultimately leading to a reduction in the number of bolt types and/or in
164 the number of drillings. It should be noted that using a very large value of the penalty factor
165 results in local minima or convergence problem (Stolpe and Svanberg 2001). Selection of
166 the penalty factor can have a considerable effect on optimisation results. Therefore, it needs
167 to be carefully considered to meet technical aspects as well as economical terms. Effects of
168 penalty factor are studied in Section 7 via a simple example.

169 It should be noted that as a two dimensional model is considered here, the obtained
170 optimisation outcomes are bolt cross section areas per unit length of the tunnel. When
171 translating the designs back to three dimensions, based on available bolt diameters and the
172 limitations of the drilling machine, one can work out the spacing between bolts in the third
173 dimension to satisfy the required area per unit length.

174 The sensitivity analysis presented in the next section is employed to update the cross
175 section area of each bolt in each iteration. Further details on updating schemes for these

176 design variables can be found in Sigmund (2001). The process of finite element analysis and
 177 updating design variable continues until no design variable experiences a change of more
 178 than 10^{-4} in two consecutive iterations. The flowchart of the proposed approach is depicted
 179 in Fig. 1.

180 SENSITIVITY ANALYSIS

181 The sensitivity of the objective function due to an infinitesimal change in variable x is

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial x} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{u}_{i-1}) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_i}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{i-1}}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_i}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}_{i-1}}{\partial x} \right) \cdot (\mathbf{f}_i + \mathbf{f}_{i-1}) \right] \quad (3)$$

182 As the considered problem is a displacement-controlled analysis, in Eq. (3) the second sum
 183 vanishes. Equilibrium requires the residual force vector to be eliminated and is stated as

$$\mathbf{R} = \mathbf{f} - \mathbf{p} = 0 \quad (4)$$

184 where \mathbf{p} is the internal force vector. Combining Eq. (3) and Eq. (4) results in

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial x} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{u}_{i-1}) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}_{i-1}}{\partial x} \right) \quad (5)$$

185 The internal force vector is carried by both the rock material and the bolts and can be
 186 expressed as

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_m^S + \mathbf{p}^R \quad (6)$$

187 where \mathbf{p}_m^S and \mathbf{p}^R are the internal force vectors of the rock bolt m and the rock, respectively.

188 The internal force vector carried by the rock is expressed as

$$\mathbf{p}^R = \sum_{e=1}^M \int_e \mathbf{C}_e \mathbf{B} \sigma d\nu = \sum_{e=1}^M \int_e \mathbf{C}_e \mathbf{B} \mathbf{D}_e^R \varepsilon d\nu \quad (7)$$

189 where M is the total number of rock elements, \mathbf{C}_e the matrix which transforms the local
 190 force vector of element e to the global force vector, \mathbf{B} the strain-displacement matrix and

191 \mathbf{D}_e^R the matrix defining the stress-strain relationship of the rock. As \mathbf{C}_e , \mathbf{B} and \mathbf{D}_e^R are
 192 independent of variable x , differentiating Eq. (6) leads to

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{p}}{\partial x_m} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}_m^S}{\partial x_m} \quad (8)$$

193 Substituting Eq. (8) into Eq. (5) results in

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial x_m} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{u}_{i-1}) \cdot \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{p}_{m_i}^S}{\partial x_m} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}_{m_{i-1}}^S}{\partial x_m} \right) \quad (9)$$

194 The internal force vector in a rock bolt can generally be calculated from

$$\mathbf{p}_m^S(x_m, \delta_m) = A_m(x_m) \sigma(\delta_m) \quad (10)$$

195 where δ_m is the elongation of the rock bolt m and $\sigma(\delta_m)$ is the stress in the rock bolt which
 196 is a function of this elongation only. From Eq. (10) and Eq. (2), differentiation of internal
 197 force vector yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathbf{p}_m^S}{\partial x_m} &= px_m^{p-1} (A_{max} - A_{min}) g(\delta_m) \\ &= px_m^{p-1} (\mathbf{p}_m^{S_{max}} - \mathbf{p}_m^{S_{min}}) \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

198 Substituting Eq. (11) and Eq. (8) into Eq. (5) results in the following

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial W}{\partial x_m} &= px_m^{p-1} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\mathbf{u}_i - \mathbf{u}_{i-1}) \cdot \left(\mathbf{p}_{m_i}^{S_{max}} - \mathbf{p}_{m_i}^{S_{min}} + \mathbf{p}_{m_{i-1}}^{S_{max}} - \mathbf{p}_{m_{i-1}}^{S_{min}} \right) \\ &= px_m^{p-1} (\Pi_m^{S_{max}} - \Pi_m^{S_{min}}) \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

199 where $\Pi_m^{S_{max}}$ and $\Pi_m^{S_{min}}$ are the total strain energies of the bolt m when its cross section areas
 200 are A_{max} and A_{min} , respectively. Setting $A_{min} = 0$ the above equation simplifies further to

$$\frac{\partial W}{\partial x_m} = px_m^{p-1} \Pi_m^{S_{max}} \quad (13)$$

201 From Eq. (11), it can be seen that the sensitivity of a truss element is a direct measure
202 of its total strain energy and only depends on the considered element.

203 It is important to note that the sensitivity analysis outcomes can be applied to any
204 material models of the rock mass and bolts as no assumptions on material behaviour have
205 been made in the above derivation.

206 **IMPROVING THE UNIFORM ROCK BOLT DISTRIBUTION**

207 A simple rock bolt design example is considered to illustrate the applicability and ef-
208 fectiveness of the proposed approach. The geometry of the tunnel is a rectangle of size
209 $w \times h = 10 \text{ m} \times 5 \text{ m}$ augmented at the top with a semi-circle of radius 5 m. In order to
210 ensure that the boundary effect is negligible, the modelled domain is chosen as a square of
211 side length $20w$ (i.e. 200 m). Owing to symmetry, only half of this domain is modelled in the
212 finite element analysis as displayed in Fig. 2. For a better view of the reinforcement layout,
213 only an area around the opening with the size of $15 \text{ m} \times 30 \text{ m}$ will be illustrated in other
214 figures.

215 A typical rock bolt design practice commonly involves determining three parameters,
216 namely, length, spacing and cross section area of bolts. The bolts are empirically distributed
217 uniformly around the areas of the opening which need to be reinforced and normal to the
218 opening. Generally, the selection of bolt length is based on the thickness of unstable strata
219 to ensure that the bolts are long enough to be firmly anchored in a competent rock mass. In
220 homogeneous rock media, however, bolt length is selected to generate a radial compression
221 to the rock arch increasing load carrying capacity of the rock arch. For the investigation of
222 bolts in a weak homogeneous rock, following the suggestion of Dejean and Raffoux (1976),
223 length of rock bolts should be in the range of $\frac{w}{3}$ to $\frac{w}{2}$, where w is the width of the opening.
224 A fixed length of approximately 5 m is chosen herein.

225 Fixing the rock bolt length and its orientation, a ground structure can be generated by
226 assuming a value for rock bolt spacing. In this example, a ground structure is created with
227 a bolt spacing of 1 m and is codenamed GS10 as displayed in Fig. 3. It is worth noting that

228 the considered ground structure reflects the empirical suggestions with even distribution of
 229 bolts (Bieniawski 1979; Grimstad and Barton 1993). Effects of ground structure densities
 230 on optimisation outcomes will be discussed in Section 8.

231 Nonlinear material models are used to predict responses of the rock mass, shotcrete and
 232 rock bolts. The rock mass is modelled by an elasto plastic Mohr-Coulomb model with a
 233 non-associated flow rule, having a yield function and flow potential expressed as (Men etrey
 234 and Willam 1995)

$$F = R_{mc}q - p \tan \phi - c = 0 \quad (14)$$

$$G = \sqrt{(\epsilon C|_0 \tan \psi)^2 + (R_{m\omega}q)^2} - p \tan \psi \quad (15)$$

235 where

$$R_{mc}(\Theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3} \cos \phi} \sin \left(\Theta + \frac{\pi}{3} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \cos \left(\Theta + \frac{\pi}{3} \right) \tan \phi, \quad (16)$$

$$R_{m\omega}(\Theta, e) = \frac{4(1 - e^2) \cos^2 \Theta + (2e - 1)^2}{2(1 - e^2) \cos \Theta + (2e - 1) \sqrt{4(1 - e^2) \cos^2 \Theta + 5e^2 - 4e}} R_{mc} \left(\frac{\pi}{3}, \phi \right), \quad (17)$$

$$R_{mc} \left(\frac{\pi}{3}, \phi \right) = \frac{3 - \sin \phi}{6 \cos \phi}, \quad (18)$$

236 ϕ , c and ψ are the friction angle, cohesion and dilation angle of the rock, respectively. Θ the
 237 deviatoric polar angle, p is the mean stress, q the Mises stress, ϵ the meridional eccentricity,
 238 e the deviatoric eccentricity, and $C|_0$ the initial cohesion yield stress. The shotcrete and
 239 rock bolts are assumed to be elastic perfectly-plastic. A non-associated flow rule Drucker-
 240 Prager model is used to govern the shotcrete behaviour with the yield function and the flow
 241 potential being defined as

$$F = t - p \tan \beta - d = 0 \quad (19)$$

$$G = t - p \tan \psi \quad (20)$$

242 where

$$t = \frac{1}{2}q \left[1 + \frac{1}{K} - \left(1 - \frac{1}{K} \right) \left(\frac{r}{q} \right)^3 \right] \quad (21)$$

$$p = -\frac{1}{3}\text{trace}(\sigma) \quad (22)$$

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}\mathbf{S} : \mathbf{S}} \quad (23)$$

243 K is the ratio of yield stress in triaxial tension to yield stress in triaxial compression, \mathbf{S} is
 244 the deviatoric stress. β , ψ and d are the friction angle, dilation angle and cohesion of rock
 245 material, respectively (ABAQUS 2013). The material properties of the rock mass, shotcrete
 246 lining and the rock bolts are summarised in Table 1. Typical properties of a very poor
 247 quality rock mass are used here (Hoek and Brown 1997).

248 The lower bound value of cross section areas A_{min} is assigned to be zeros to allow complete
 249 elimination of unnecessary bolts and the upper bound value is $649 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2$ (corresponding
 250 to the bolt diameter of 29 mm). No penalisation ($p = 1$) is applied in this example. The bolt
 251 volume constraint is selected as $34381 \text{ mm}^2/\text{m}$ (see Fig. 3). In this example, an *in situ* stress
 252 condition with vertical component of $\sigma_1 = 5 \text{ MPa}$ and horizontal stress ratio of $k = 0.4$ is
 253 considered. The optimised results are depicted in Fig. 4.

254 Fig. 4a displays the optimised bolt layouts with numbers at the end of bolts representing
 255 their cross section areas per unit length of the tunnel (mm^2/m). Since the tunnel is considered
 256 in plane strain condition, the obtained cross section areas per unit length can be converted to
 257 practical and appropriate spacings and sizes of bolts in three dimensions as noted before. It
 258 is noted that the plotted line width for each bolt is proportional to its cross section area. In
 259 order to demonstrate plastic behaviour around the opening, plastic strain magnitudes defined
 260 as $\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\varepsilon^{pl} : \varepsilon^{pl}}$ (where ε^{pl} is the plastic strain tensor) are shown by colour-filled contour lines
 261 with a colour-bar on its right to define particular magnitudes. The elastic areas are coloured
 262 grey. It can be seen in Fig. 4a that more bolts are placed at the tunnel ribs where the largest
 263 plastic strains are observed.

264 The initial external work of the model is 1.37 MJ. A decrease in the objective function is
265 obtained before reaching the convergence at the external work of 1.28 MJ (Fig. 4b). Hence,
266 6% improvement of the objective function is achieved which demonstrates the advantage of
267 the obtained result compared with the empirical design.

268 To illustrate and compare tunnel convergence under the initial uniform and the optimised
269 bolt layouts, displacements around the opening are displayed in Fig. 5. It can be seen that
270 the proposed bolt layout provides smaller displacements nearly everywhere around the cavity,
271 particularly at the tunnel ribs where a considerable displacement reduction is obtained. In
272 other words, the presented algorithm has redistributed the initially uniform bolt layout to a
273 more effective one.

274 Further advantages of this approach will be pointed out via further examples by examin-
275 ing various *in situ* stress and ground conditions. These examples will also demonstrate how
276 this approach can be used to provide us with a better understanding of rock bolt design.

277 **EFFECTS OF IN SITU STRESS CONDITIONS ON ROCK BOLT DESIGN**

278 An investigation on effects of various *in situ* stress conditions on optimisation outcomes
279 is conducted by varying magnitudes of vertical stress ($\sigma_1 = 3, 4, 5$ MPa) and horizontal
280 stress ratio ($k = 0.4, 1, 2$). A circular tunnel with a radius of 5 m is considered. The initial
281 guess design is shown in Fig. 6. Other modelling and optimisation parameters are similar
282 to the example described in Section 5. Fig. 7 displays all the obtained bolt layouts and the
283 corresponding objective function variations.

284 For the case of hydrostatic stress state ($k = 1$), as expected, bolts are mostly distributed
285 evenly around the opening (Figs. 7b, 7e and 7h). For the case of $k = 0.4$, more bolts are
286 observed in the horizontal direction. Finally, for the case of $k = 2$, bolts are distributed
287 mostly in vertical direction (Figs. 7c, 7f and 7i). It can be clearly seen that bolts tend to be
288 distributed more densely at regions with large plastic strains.

289 With regards to the objective function variations, a stable convergence is observed in all
290 cases (Fig. 7j). As expected, for the hydrostatic stress conditions, the optimised layouts are

291 just slightly different from the initial design and small improvements of approximately 0.3%
292 are obtained for the objective function. For the other stress states, higher improvements
293 are achieved with the largest value of 4.8% observable for $\sigma_1 = 4$ MPa and $k = 0.4$. The
294 magnitudes of initial and optimised objective function and their relevant improvements are
295 tabulated in Table 2 for all cases of stress states depicted in Fig. 7

296 **EFFECTS OF PENALISATION ON OPTIMISATION OUTCOMES**

297 In order to clearly show the role of the penalty factor (p) on optimisation outcomes,
298 the example presented in Section 6 with the stress condition of $\sigma_1 = 4$ MPa and $k = 0.4$
299 is reconsidered with different values of penalty factor. The obtained optimised bolt layouts
300 and variations of objective function are presented in Fig. 8.

301 By increasing the value of p from 1 to 3, the ineffective bolts are gradually eliminated,
302 leading to a decline in the number of bolts (number of drillings) (Figs. 8a and 8b). However,
303 as the value of p continues to increase to 7, the bolt layouts remain unchanged (Figs. 8b,
304 8c and 8d). It is worth noting that with those p values, the objective function converges at
305 almost the same magnitudes (converged values are shown below each figure in Fig. 8). As
306 p reaches 8, a convergence problem occurs with fluctuation of objective function about the
307 optimised value obtained with smaller penalty factors (Fig. 8f). As expected, this example
308 shows that using penalisation might result in a reduction of bolt numbers. However, it is
309 observed that convergence problems might occur with large values of p .

310 **EFFECTS OF GROUND STRUCTURE DENSITY ON OPTIMISATION** 311 **OUTCOMES**

312 Along with the ground structure GS10 introduced in Section 5, two other ground struc-
313 tures with different densities are generated to investigate their effects on the optimisation
314 outcomes. One is with the bolt spacing of 0.5 m (codenamed GS05) as shown in Fig. 9a and
315 the other one with the spacing of 1.5 m (codenamed GS15) as shown in Fig. 9b.

316 The *in situ* stress condition of $\sigma_1 = 3$ MPa and $k = 0.4$ is investigated and the obtained
317 outcomes are detailed in Fig. 10 and Table 3.

318 It can be seen that the optimised bolt layouts are almost qualitatively similar for different
319 ground structure densities (Fig.10a, 10b and 10c) with more bolts observed at the tunnel
320 floor and tunnel ribs. However, various bolt densities result in various levels of improvements
321 in the objective function. As tabulated in Table 3, there is not much difference in the
322 initial values of external work for the three ground structures. Nevertheless, the objective
323 function improvements are considerably different. While 8.4% and 4.8% improvements in the
324 objective function are achieved for the ground structures GS05 and GS10, respectively, only
325 2% improvement is obtained for GS15. This is expected as denser ground structures provide
326 more freedom and more choices to the optimisation algorithm to chose from. Therefore, to
327 obtain higher improvements, it is beneficial to use a denser ground structure. However, in
328 practice choosing a very small bolt spacing might result in damage around bearing plates
329 due to stress concentration and also introduce more drilling work.

330 **EFFECTS OF ROCK MATERIAL ON OPTIMISED BOLT LAYOUT DESIGN**

331 Rock mass is naturally discontinuous with fractures, cracks, bedding planes, etc. A thor-
332 ough consideration of fractures is necessary to obtain a more accurate model and hence a
333 more reliable tunnel reinforcement design. To demonstrate the efficacy of the proposed ap-
334 proach for different material models, here a heavily jointed rock mass with highly densed
335 parallel joint surfaces in different orientations is considered. A jointed material model sup-
336 ported in Abaqus 6.11 library is employed to describe the jointed rock mass behaviour. The
337 jointed material model involves two governing behaviours for the bulk material and the joint
338 systems (ABAQUS 2013). Bulk material is governed by the Drucker-Prager model. Addi-
339 tionally, the jointed material model includes a failure surface due to sliding in joint system
340 a , which is expressed as

$$f_a = \tau_a - p_a \tan \beta_a - d_a = 0 \quad (24)$$

341 where τ_a and p_a are respectively the shear and normal stress along the joint surface. β_a and
342 d_a are the friction angle and cohesion for system a , respectively.

343 Replacing the homogeneous model by the above jointed material model, the tunnel ge-
344 ometry investigated in Section 5 is reconsidered here. Two models, one with a horizontal set
345 of joints and one with a vertical set of joints, are explored. Properties of the bulk material
346 and the joint systems are identified in Table 4.

347 Fig. 11 displays the optimised bolt layouts for the cases of horizontal joints and vertical
348 joints. It can be seen that the introduction of joint systems has altered the plastic strain
349 and optimised bolt distributions around the opening. For the horizontal joints (Fig. 11a),
350 the bolts are only present at the tunnel crown and tunnel floor. On the other hand, for
351 the case of vertical joints (Fig. 11b), the bolts are concentrated at the corner of the tunnel
352 crown and the tunnel ribs, and at the tunnel floor. Objective function values and obtained
353 improvements are demonstrated in Fig. 11c and Table 5.

354 **EFFECTS OF BEDDING PLANE ON OPTIMISED BOLT LAYOUT**

355 This section aims to explore the effects of a bedding plane presence on optimised bolt
356 layouts. The tunnel investigated in Section 5 is considered with the existence of a bedding
357 plane at 1.5 m above the tunnel crown. A surface-based contact supported by ABAQUS6.11
358 is employed to model the interactions of surfaces. The mechanical behaviour of the surface
359 interaction is governed by the Coulomb friction model in which the coefficient of friction (μ)
360 is defined as the ratio between a shear stress and a contact pressure. A hydrostatic stress
361 condition with a vertical stress of 5 MPa and two friction angles (ϕ) of the bedding plane,
362 5° and 15° , are investigated. Fig. 12 displays the achieved optimised bolt layouts and Table
363 6 tabulates the related objective functions.

364 It can be generally seen that with both values of friction angle, more bolts are distributed
365 at the top of the tunnel where the bedding planes are located than the other positions around
366 the opening (Figs. 12b and 12d). Also, the bolt volume at the tunnel crown of the case of
367 friction angle of $\phi = 5^\circ$ is more than that of the friction angle of $\phi = 15^\circ$. In order to display
368 slippage along the bedding planes, relative tangential displacement (RTD) is illustrated for
369 the initial and the optimised bolt layouts. Clearly, the concentration of more bolts at the

370 tunnel top areas has partly reduced slippage along the bedding planes; especially for the case
371 of friction angle of $\phi = 5^\circ$. Additionally, further improvements of the objective functions
372 are obtained as displayed in Fig. 12e and summarised in Table 6. Consequently, it can be
373 concluded that the effects of the bedding planes can be effectively captured by the proposed
374 method.

375 **DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS**

376 A new approach incorporating an optimisation technique with numerical analysis has
377 been introduced to search for improved rock bolt designs and proved to be a potentially useful
378 tool in tunnel reinforcement design. By explicitly modelling the rock bolts, the proposed
379 approach is capable of providing clearer, more accurate, more effective and more practical
380 reinforcement layouts compared to earlier works in this area.

381 The proposed optimisation algorithm is independent of material models and thus the
382 complexity of the models adopted in this approach is only limited to the capabilities of
383 the method used for analysis. Furthermore, as the sensitivities are directly calculable from
384 displacements, any analysis method which can provide the values of displacements under
385 different loadings can be easily adopted in this approach. Nonlinear behaviour of both
386 reinforcement material and rock in homogeneous media and fractured rock mass have been
387 considered in this paper and finite element method is used as the method of analysis.

388 It has been shown that this approach can be effectively used to study and improve our
389 understanding of effects of different parameters on optimised bolt layouts. The examples
390 demonstrated that the commonly-employed empirical method where a uniform distribution
391 of bolts is used is not necessarily optimal and can be further improved by the proposed
392 approach. In the considered examples, reductions of up to 8% have been reported in the
393 value of external work which was selected as the objective function.

394 In this study, the effects of ground structure and penalisation factor are demonstrated
395 through some examples. Also, the impacts of *in situ* stresses, rock material properties and
396 geological features such as bedding planes on optimised solutions are studied via several

397 examples.

398 Finding an optimal rock bolt design is a complicated problem which obviously needs to
399 be studied in a case-by-case basis. The incorporation of advanced numerical modelling in
400 the optimisation algorithm enables the proposed method to consider many significant factors
401 in tunnelling design. Various ground conditions including *in situ* stress conditions, complex
402 geomaterial properties, different geological features, or effects of adjacent constructions, etc.
403 can be taken into consideration. Using this approach, it is also possible to study the effects of
404 other important tunnelling features on optimal reinforcement layouts such as tunnel shapes
405 or construction sequences. Consequently, the proposed method is expected to be a powerful
406 tool in reinforcement design.

407 The proposed optimisation algorithm determines various bolt sizes around the opening to
408 satisfy the given objective function while the bolt pattern has not been taken into account.
409 In order to obtain a more effective bolt design, all bolt parameters including size and pattern
410 should be accounted for in the optimisation algorithm. The authors are currently working
411 on this matter to propose a more rational and powerful bolt design approach.

412 To the extent of this study, only minimisation of external work (equivalent to maximi-
413 sation of structural stiffness of the design) has been considered. Other objective functions
414 such as floor or side wall heave are also widely employed in tunnel design. The proposed
415 approach can be easily extended to incorporate these objective functions as well.

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TABLE 1

Material properties	Rock	Rockbolt	Shotcrete
Young modulus (GPa)	1.4	200	25
Poisson's ratio	0.3	0.3	0.2
Friction angle ($^{\circ}$)	24	-	30
Dilation angle ($^{\circ}$)	0	-	12
Cohesion (MPa)	0.3	-	3
Yield stress (MPa)	-	400	20

TABLE 2

<i>In situ stress</i>	Objective function		Improvement (%)
	Initial (J)	Optimised (J)	
$\sigma_1 = 3 \text{ MPa}, k = 0.4$	135171	132563	1.9
$\sigma_1 = 3 \text{ MPa}, k = 1$	191557	191302	0.1
$\sigma_1 = 3 \text{ MPa}, k = 2$	907087	885019	2.4
$\sigma_1 = 4 \text{ MPa}, k = 0.4$	297788	283463	4.8
$\sigma_1 = 4 \text{ MPa}, k = 1$	422782	421350	0.3
$\sigma_1 = 4 \text{ MPa}, k = 2$	2149557	2102266	2.2
$\sigma_1 = 5 \text{ MPa}, k = 0.4$	467175	449962	3.6
$\sigma_1 = 5 \text{ MPa}, k = 1$	830538	827360	0.4
$\sigma_1 = 5 \text{ MPa}, k = 2$	4210250	4088152	2.9

TABLE 3

Ground structure	Objective function		Improvement (%)
	Initial (J)	Optimised (J)	
GS05	344021	314947	8.4
GS10	344098	327392	4.8
GS15	343410	336584	2

TABLE 4

Material properties	Bulk material	Joint surface
Young modulus (GPa)	5	-
Poisson's ratio	0.3	-
Friction angle ($^{\circ}$)	35	26
Dilation angle ($^{\circ}$)	5	12
Cohesion (kPa)	6×10^3	70

TABLE 5

Ground condition	Objective function		Improvement (%)
	Initial (J)	Optimised (J)	
Rock mass with horizontal joints	218925	216038	1.3
Rock mass with vertical joints	258340	255437	1.1

TABLE 6

Friction angle	Objective function		Improvement (%)
	Initial (J)	Optimised (J)	
$\phi = 5^\circ$	1400179	1355220	3.2
$\phi = 15^\circ$	1176049	1167870	0.6

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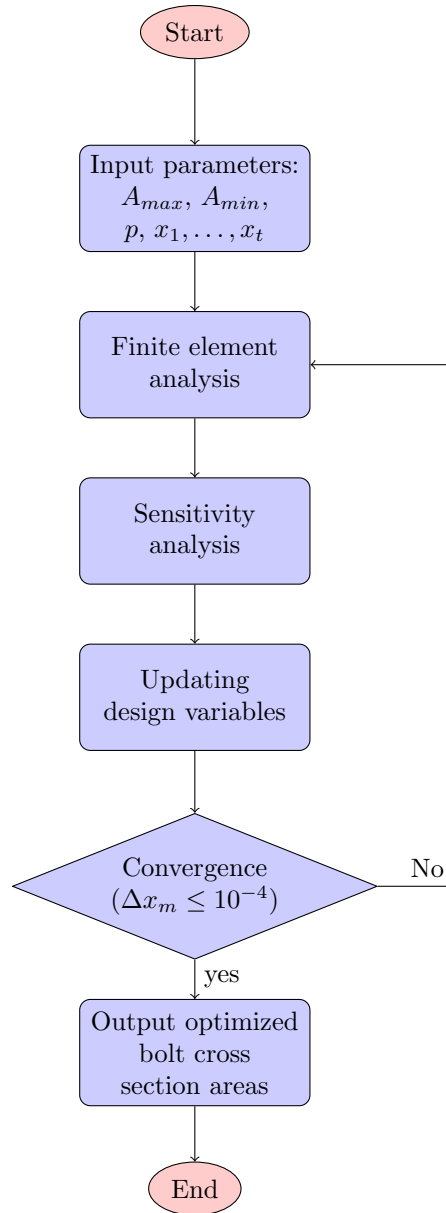


FIG. 1

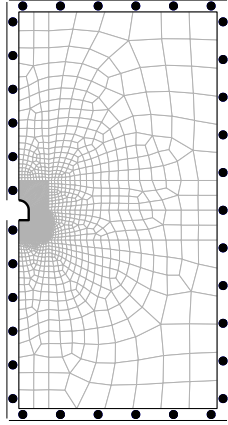


FIG. 2

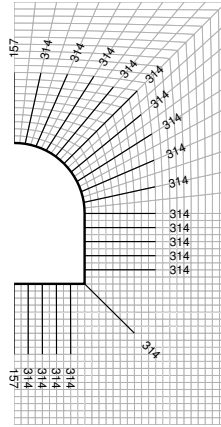
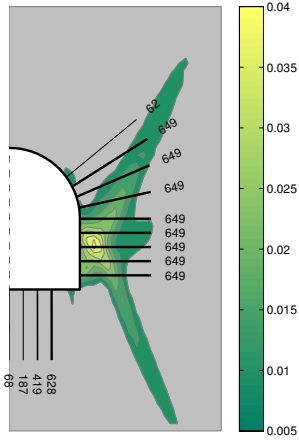
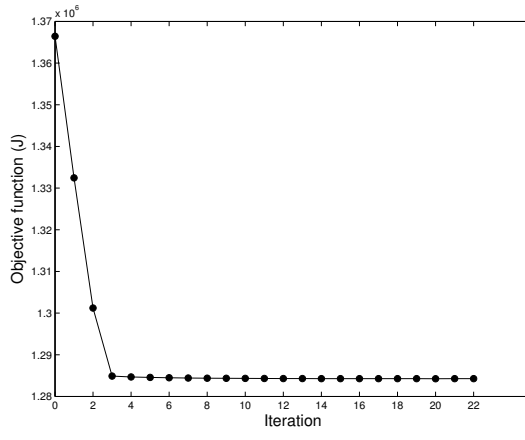


FIG. 3



(a)

(a)



(b)

(b)

FIG. 4

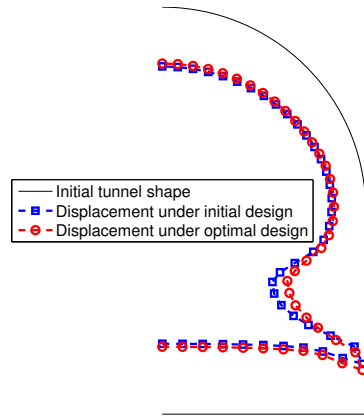


FIG. 5

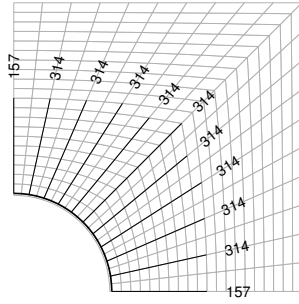
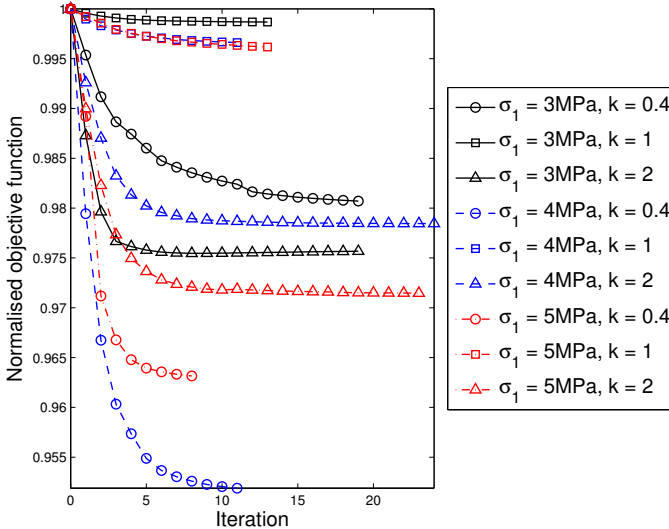
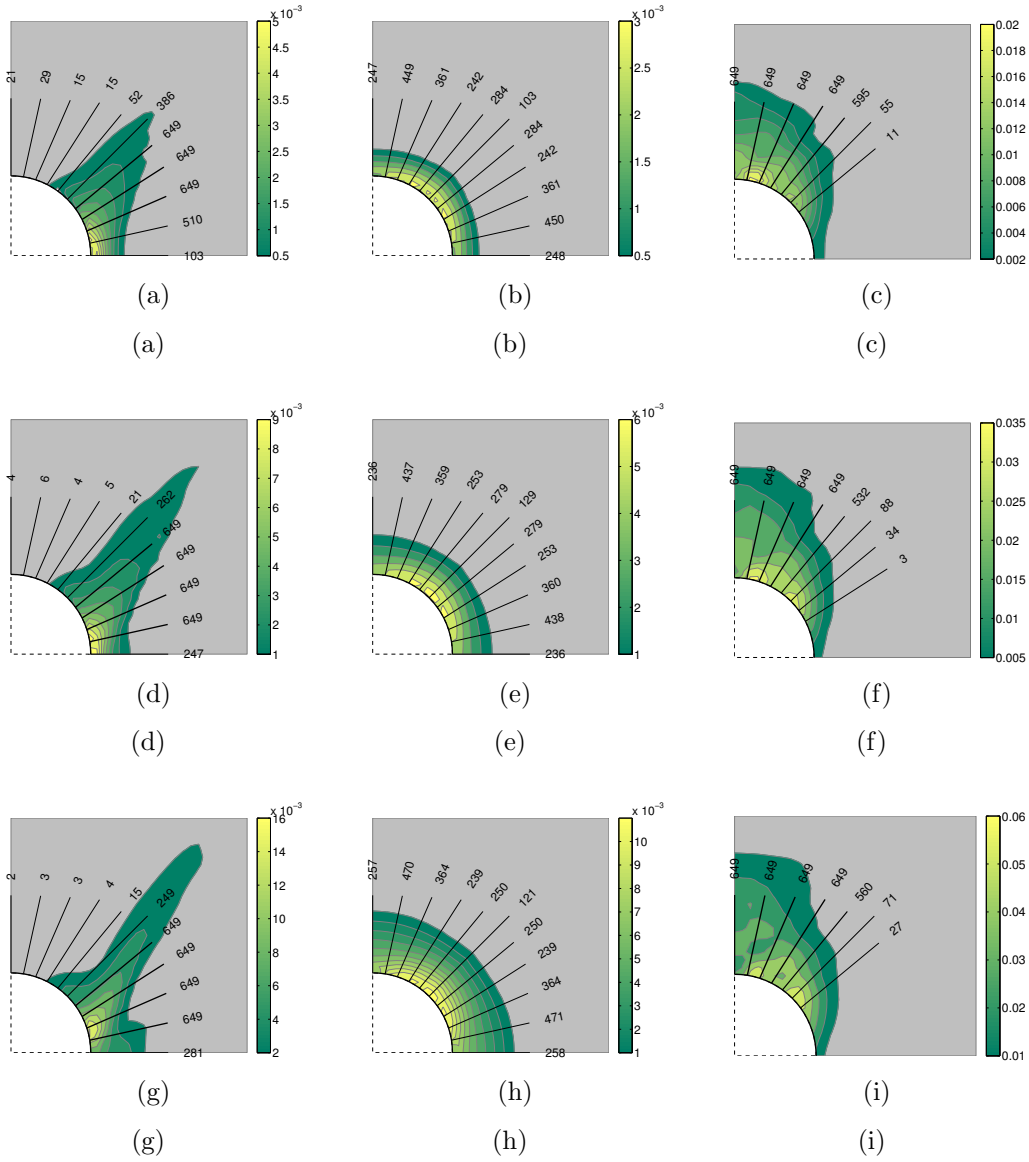
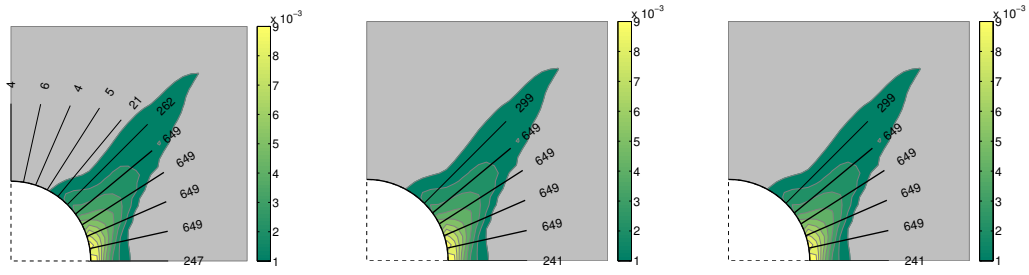


FIG. 6



(j)

FIG. 7



(a)

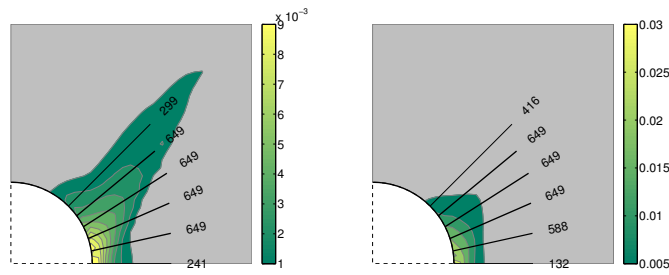
(b)

(c)

(a)

(b)

(c)

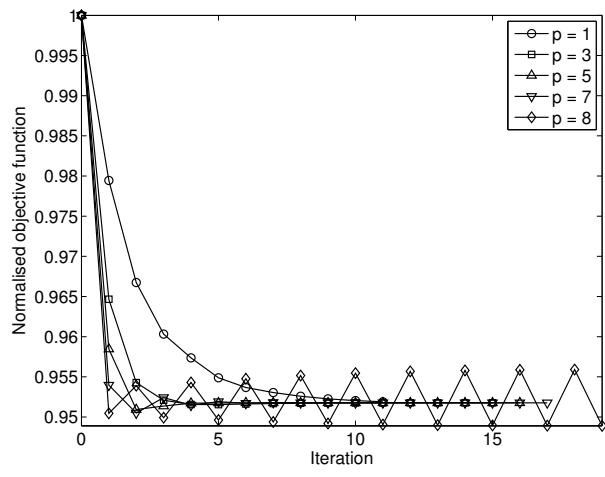


(d)

(e)

(d)

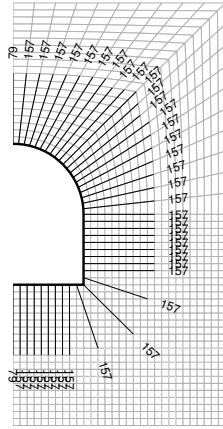
(e)



(f)

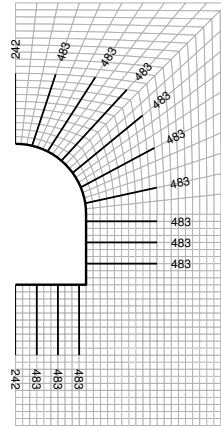
(f)

FIG. 8



(a)

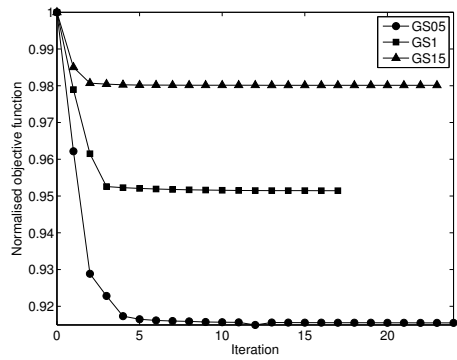
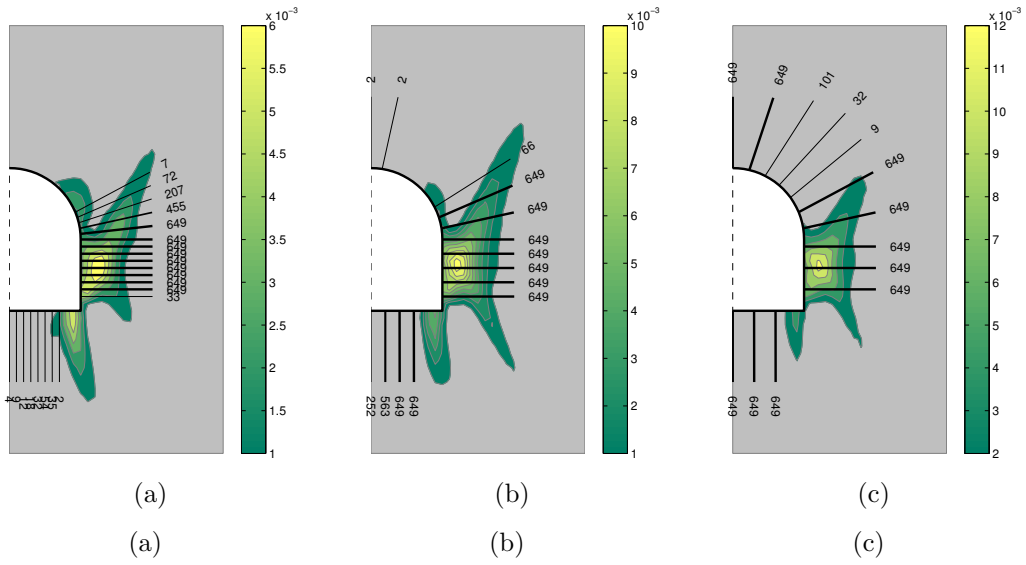
(a)



(b)

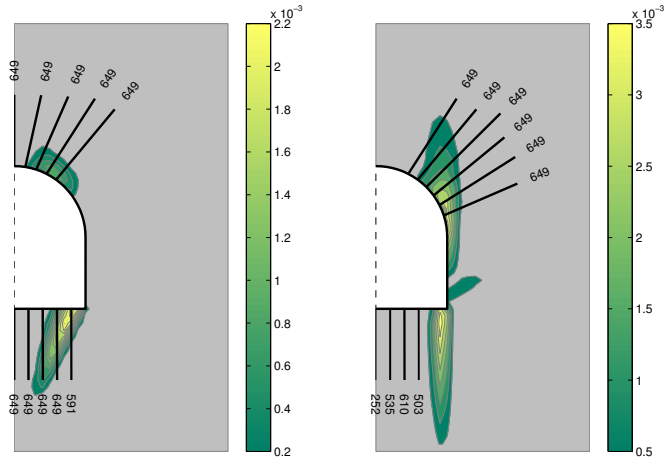
(b)

FIG. 9

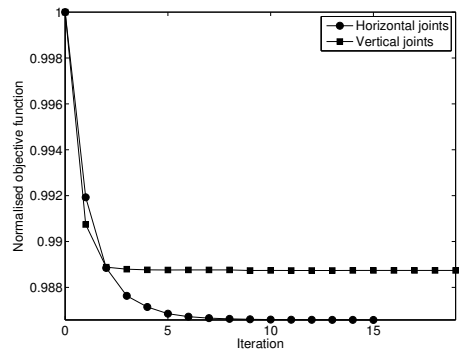


(d)
(d)

FIG. 10

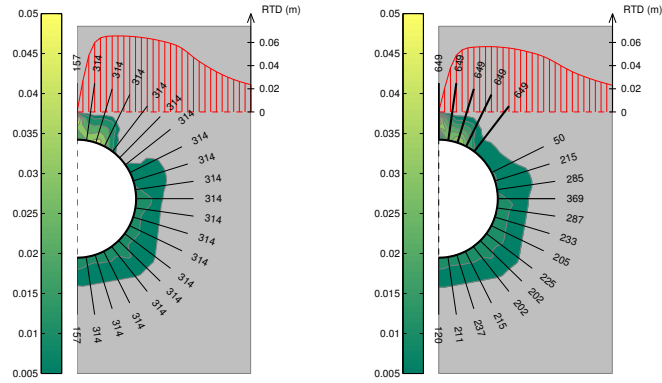


(a) (b)
(a) (b)

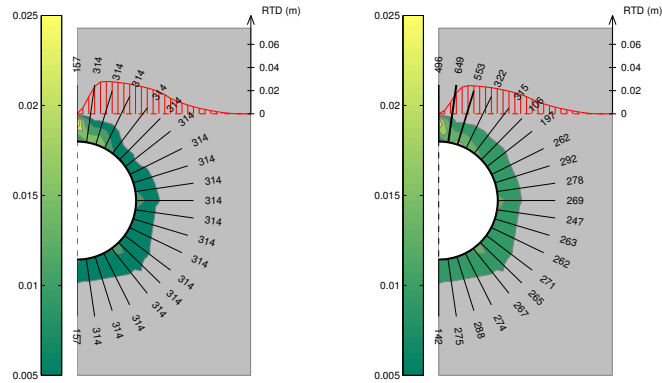


(c)
(c)

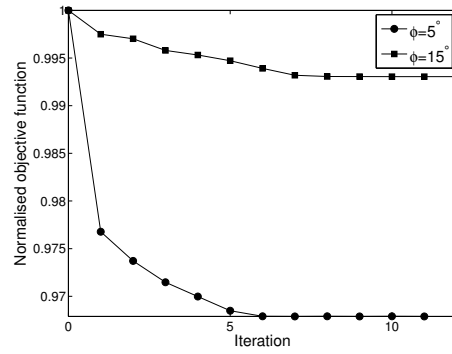
FIG. 11



(a) (b)



(c) (d)



(e)

FIG. 12