

FATIGUE AND DAMAGE TOLERANCE

An insight from the application standpoint Emphasis to some FEM assisted fatigue analysis aspects

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OUTLOOK

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 - Linear Elastic Fracture Mechanics
 - Stress Intensity Factors
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 - Inspection Intervals

Part 1

Part 2

Part 3

ABOUT THE LECTURER: DOMENICO QUARANTA

- 1998, MSc Aerospace Engineering at Politecnico di Torino
- Stress Engineer Partenership Alenia-NASA: ISS Node 2 MDPS
- *Stress Engineer* Aermacchi M346 FWD Fuselage
- Senior Stress Engineer Airbus A380 Trent 900 Nacelles
- Senior Stress Engineer Airbus A380 Main Deck Cargo Door
- Chief Stress Engineer Trainers/Coordinator Fatigue Specialists -Pilatus Aircraft (PC-9, PC-9(M), PC-7MkII, PC-21)
- Lecturer Fatigue-Damage Tolerance at Universities of Zürich, Brescia, Parma, Milano, Napoli





1953 – COMET ACCIDENTS



- 1952 Enter Service
- From 1953 Accidents
 - 1954: In flight Failure at 30'000 ft (after 1286 missions)
 - 1954 (after 16 days): In flight Failure at 35'000 ft (after 903 missions)

- ...

1953 – COMET ACCIDENTS



1953 – COMET ACCIDENTS







SAFE-LIFE DESIGN

- A safe-life design is such that the structure is able to withstand, without catastrophic failure, the repeated loads of variable magnitude expected in service throughout its operational life.
- The structure is retired or replaced at the safe-life to prevent the structure from developing fatigue cracks.
- For a safe-life structure, fatigue failure occurs when a crack is found, therefore the failure concept is related to the presence of a detectable crack.
- Since a safe-life evaluation usually does not include demonstration of crack growth rates or residual strength capability, we assume that the development of a detectable crack may result in catastrophic failure of the structure.
- <u>The calculation process is based on crack initiation stage of the</u> <u>fatigue process.</u>

SAFE-LIFE DESIGN

- By definition, with such concept, no inspections are defined for inadvertent cracks (originated during manufacturing, during installation, during service for accidental events, or pre-existing in the material).
- Should cracks, for any reason (also evaluation errors at design phase), be generated, these, which are 'unmonitored, will propagate during the Service Life and could lead to catastrophic failures.

FAIL-SAFE DESIGN

- A fail-safe design is a design that retains its required residual strength after the failure or partial failure of a principal structural element.
- A fail-safe design typically consists of the fail-safe component or primary structural element, and a <u>redundant</u> or backup structural element.
- A fail-safe design is, therefore, often said to be a redundant design or a <u>multi-load path</u> design.

1967 – F-111 ACCIDENTS



- 1964 First Flight
- From 1967 Accidents due to production defects

1967 - F-111 ACCIDENTS



DESIGN CRITERIA EVOLUTION



DAMAGE TOLERANT DESIGN

- Cracks are assumed by definition <u>always</u> existing in the structure: if an inspection doesn't reveal cracks, it is assumed that cracks are small as the inspection instrument resolution.
- A structure can retain its required <u>Residual Strength</u> for a period of use after the structure has sustained a given level of fatigue, corrosion, accidental or discrete source damage.
- The concept of <u>inspections</u> is introduced. A Damage Tolerant design is intrinsically safer than the Safe Life, as the structure is regularly inspected for cracks.

1988 – ALOHA FLIGHT 243 ACCIDENT



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1988 – ALOHA FLIGHT 243 ACCIDENT



1988 – ALOHA FLIGHT 243 ACCIDENT







WIDESPREAD FATIGUE DAMAGE (WFD)

- WFD in a structure is characterized by the simultaneous presence of cracks at multiple points, that are of sufficient size and density such that, the structure will no longer meet its damage tolerance requirement and could fail. For example, small fatigue cracks developed along a row of fastener holes coalesce, this moves to adjacent sites and propagates.
- The objective of a designer is to determine when large numbers of small cracks could degrade the joint strength to an unacceptable level.

FATIGUE IN METALLIC COMPONENTS

- Fatigue is the progressive and localized structural damage that occurs when a material is subjected to <u>cyclic loading</u>.
- If the cyclic stresses are above a certain threshold value (<u>endurance limit</u>) (for most materials used in lightweight structures the threshold is 0), microscopic cracks nucleate (generally at notches, where there are stress concentrations) after a certain number of cycles.
- Once nucleated, the crack grows up to the critical size, at which the structure suddenly collapses (the remaining section cannot withstand statically the applied cyclic load).
- <u>The fatigue failure occurs at cyclic stress levels which are below</u> <u>the allowable static stress</u>.

FATIGUE IN METALLIC COMPONENTS



FATIGUE IN METALLIC COMPONENTS



 There are many fatigue methods that can be used. They belong to two different classes:

- Stress based S-N

(usually for the High Cycle Fatigue - HCF)

- Strain based ε-N

(usually for the Low Cycle Fatigue - LCF)

(This is computationally more involving because elastic-plastic stress and strains have to be calculated)

• Stress based: S-N curves



- Stress based: S-N curves
 - S-N curves have to be 'adapted' to the real cases by including:
 - Mean Stress Effects (Goodman, Gerber, Soderberg, Morrow, SWT, Walker, ...)
 - Temperature effects
 - Surface conditions
 - Loading modes
 - Size effects
 - Reliability factor
 - ...



 Stress based: the 'Metallic Materials Properties Development and Standardization' (MMPDS) Handbook provides S-N curves for many tested metallic material alloys.



Figure 2.3.1.3.8(b). Best-fit S/N curves for notched, K, = 3.3, AISI 4340 alloy steel bar, $F_{_{\rm TW}}$ = 125 ksi, longitudinal direction.

Equivalent Stress Equation: Log $N_f = 9.75-3.08 \log (S_{eq}-20.0)$

• The used model is the following:

$$Log N_f = A - B \cdot Log(S_{eq} - C)$$
$$S_{eq} = S_{max}(1 - R)^p$$

• Charts provide, for a given material alloy and a given *Kt*, curves for specific stress ratios $R = \frac{S_{min}}{S_{max}}$

- Strain based: ε-N curves
 - Instead of S-N curves (Basquin equation) the basic model is the Coffin-Manson equation



$$\frac{\Delta\varepsilon}{2} = \frac{\sigma_f'}{E} (2N_f)^b + \varepsilon_f' (2N_f)^c$$

 σ_{f}' is the Fatigue Strength Coefficient b is the Fatigue Strength Exponent ε_{f}' is the Fatigue Ductility Coefficient c is the Fatigue Ductility Exponent

- Strain based: ε-N curves
 - Also Coffin-Manson curves have to be 'adapted' to the case under analysis by including:
 - Mean Stress Effects (SWT, Morrow, Manson-Halford, ...)
 - Temperature effects
 - Surface conditions
 - ...
 - As said above applying the strain base method implies the additional burden of calculating elastic-plastic stress/strain sequences out of FEM based elastic stress/strain sequences
 - Neuber or Equivalent Strain Energy Density (Glinka) in case of uniaxial fatigue, ...
 - ... way more complex approaches in case of multiaxial fatigue

Strain based: ε-N curves



 Whatever the method is (Stress based or Strain based), damage for each cycle is obtained by entering in the modified curve (Basquin or Coffin-Manson) with stress amplitude (for stress based method) or strain amplitude (for strain based method) and extracting a number of cycles which represents the Life related to that specific cycle, i.e. how many of those cycles (constant amplitude) the component survives before a crack is nucleated.



DAMAGE CUMULATION RULE

• Miner's Linear damage cumulation



DAMAGE CUMULATION RULE

• In case of variable amplitude sequences



(where *T* defines the sequence metric)

CYCLES DEFINITION - CYCLE COUNTING

- What is a cycle?
- How a stress cycle is defined?
- What is the physical meaning?





CYCLES DEFINITION - CYCLE COUNTING

- What is a cycle?
- How a stress cycle is defined?
- What is the physical meaning?





CYCLES DEFINITION - CYCLE COUNTING

• Rheological Model



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CYCLES DEFINITION - CYCLE COUNTING



CYCLES DEFINITION – CYCLE COUNTING

- In order to avoid attacking the problem with an 'incremental approach' (which is computationally time consuming in case of long time histories), a method/tool is needed to extract cycles (i.e. closed loops) out of a Variable Amplitude spectrum.
- The most popular tool is the <u>Rainflow Cycle Counting</u> (accepted world-wide as the most appropriate for extracting stress/load cycles for fatigue analyses, the algorithm was developed by Endo and Matsuishi in 1968)
- In order to reduce computational time, normally signals are filtered (e.g. Racetrack Filter) before being counted: removal of non-turning points and 'small' cycles (i.e. negligibly damaging)

CYCLES DEFINITION – CYCLE COUNTING

 Two consecutive reversal points, *i* and *i*-1, within a sequence represent a peak and valley of a cycle if the conditions applies

$$S_{i-1} < \min(S_{i-2}, S_i); S_i > \max(S_{i-1}, S_{i+1})$$

or

$$S_{i-1} > \max(S_{i-2}, S_i); S_i < \min(S_{i-1}, S_{i+1})$$



CYCLES DEFINITION - CYCLE COUNTING

• Sequence effects...reminding the Comet...



STRESS CONCENTRATION FACTORS

- Geometric discontinuities in a structure such as notches, holes, shoulders, grooves, ... are details where stress concentrations occur (stress raisers).
- The Stress Concentration Factor Kt is the ratio between the local stress (maximum), at the stress raiser, and the far field (undisturbed), nominal stress

$$K_t = \frac{\sigma_{max}}{\sigma_{nominal}}$$

- Because of higher localized stresses, fatigue failure develops from such details.
- A collection of calculated stress concentration factors is provided by Peterson.

STRESS CONCENTRATION FACTORS





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STRESS CONCENTRATION FACTORS

• Today, detailed Finite Element Models can be used to calculate numerically *Kt* for specific geometrical details





NOTCH FACTORS

- The use of theoretical *Kt*, coming from the assumption of ideal linear elastic materials, is not appropriate in case of applied alternating loads, i.e. fatigue.
- The use of Effective Stress Concentration Factors, or Notch Factors *Kf* is more appropriate in such cases.
- Defined as the Fatigue Strength ratio



• It is experimentally calculated (at long lives, i.e. $>10^6$ cycles).

NOTCH FACTORS

• K_f , differently from K_t , is not only geometry and load dependent, but also material dependent:

$$K_f = 1 + q(K_t - 1) = 1 + \frac{K_t - 1}{1 + a/r} < K_t$$

r = notch tip radius, a = material constant, q = notch sensitivity factor

- As a material length constant is involved, it implies that <u>two</u> scaled geometries have same K_t but different K_f
- For a given material, the smaller the notch is (small r), the smaller the notch sensitivity is

NOTCH FACTORS

• A way to interpret the notch factor (from Dowling).



















- Models and methods described in Part 1 relate to UNIAXIAL conditions
 - One stress or one strain (with its own time history),
 - The fatigue parameters is built with one stress or one strain
- Dealing with Multiaxial Stress Tensors, the Fatigue analysis problem gets significantly more complex.
- Depending on the nature of the applied loads, the Multiaxial problems are divided into two categories:
 - Multiaxial Proportional Loadings
 - Multiaxial Non-Proportional Loadings

• Multiaxial – Proportional Loadings.

 This situation typically occurs when the structure is subjected to a single load, whose magnitude changes over time, or when the structure is subjected to a set of loads which change all in phase over time



• Multiaxial Proportional Loading Conditions (software LIFING)



• Multiaxial Proportional Loading Conditions (software LIFING)



• Multiaxial Proportional Loading Conditions (software LIFING)



- Multiaxial Non-Proportional Loadings.
 - This situation is the general one, when the structure is subjected to multiple loads which vary in time not in phase.



- Multiaxial Non-Proportional Loadings.
 - If stress components are plotted in a chart, the points do not lay on a not straight line.
 - Similarly, stress principal directions and <u>bi-axiality ratios</u> change over time.



• Multiaxial Non-Proportional Loading Conditions (software LIFING)



• Multiaxial Non-Proportional Loading Conditions (software LIFING)



• Biaxiality Ratio is usually defined as the ratio between the Minimum and Maximum (in magnitude) Principal Stress.

$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \qquad \lambda = \frac{\sigma_2}{\sigma_1}$$

- By definition, the bi-axiality ratio λ spans between -1 and 1.
- In case of uniaxial stress tensor, the bi-axiality λ ratio is zero.
- What could be the implication of $\lambda \neq 0$ in a calculation which neglects the presence of a second stress? (*)

(*) This is the case, for example, when the analysis is carried out just looking at the Maximum Principal stress time history

 What would happen if we run a fatigue analysis at three different notches loaded with the same time history of loads (Multiaxial Proportional Loading), where the following three reference stress tensors are given?



• The fatigue analysis performed on the basis of the Max Principal Stress would deliver the same result for all the three cases. However if we calculate the Von Mises stresses we have:

• Case 1. VM =
$$\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2} = 200$$
MPa

• Case 2. VM =
$$\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2} = 173.2$$
MPa

• Case 3. VM =
$$\sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 - \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2} = 264.6$$
MPa



• Yield surfaces



Case 1: 200 MPa Case 2: 173.2 MPa Case 3: 264.6 MPa

• Can the three cases be equally damaging?

- The fatigue (crack initiation) analysis performed on the basis of the Max Principal Stress, inherits two fundamental errors:
 - (1) Assume the problem is Multiaxial Proportional Loading.
 - The impact of biaxiality ratio is ignored, meaning that: -CONSERVATIVE ERROR if $\lambda > 0$ -UNCONSERVATIVE ERROR if $\lambda < 0$
 - (2) Assume the problem is Multiaxial Non-Proportional Loading.
 - The Maximum Principal Plane ROTATES over the time (and biaxiality ratio changes as well), meaning that:

-At each instant in the time history the structure wants to crack at different planes, whereas the Maximum Principal is an 'invariant' (i.e. plane insensitive)



• The Non-Proportionality significantly increases the problem complexity, because of the following issues:



-Solving Cyclic Plasticity (in case of LCF) with multiple stress components is way more complex (many methods are available), therefore the calculation of elastic-plastic stress-strains out of elastic FEM calculated stress-strains is a very complex issue.

(Simple approaches are available in case of Proportional Loadings)



-If we were able to calculate elastic-plastic stress-strains, defining cycles within a Stress Tensor time history where components change over the time not in phase is complex (Wang-Brown method is proposed in literature, however some analysis methods do not require special sequence counting).

Fatigue Life Calculation -What is the best fatigue parameter, combination of stress components, if multiple stress components vary over the time? 70

- Cyclic Plasticity Calculation
 - Yield function

$$Y = \sigma_1^{\ 2} + \sigma_2^{\ 2} - \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 - Sy^2 = 0$$

- Plastic Flow ("normality") Rule

$$d\vec{\varepsilon}_{pl} = \frac{1}{C} (d\vec{\sigma}^T \cdot \vec{n}) \cdot \vec{n}$$

C = Plastic modulus

- Hardening Rule
 - Many models have been developed, for example the *Mróz-Garud* Multi-Surface (hardening) Model



• Instant 0 $(\vec{\sigma} = \vec{0})$


- Instant 0
- Instant 1



- Instant 0
- Instant 1
- Instant 2 (yielding)



- Instant 0
- Instant 1
- Instant 2
- Instant 3 (yielding surf. translation)



- Instant 0
- Instant 1
- Instant 2
- Instant 3
- Instant 4 (hardening surf. translation)

 σ_1

 σ_2

- Instant 0
- Instant 1
- Instant 2
- Instant 3
- Instant 4
- Instant 5



- Instant 0
- Instant 1
- Instant 2
- Instant 3
- Instant 4
- Instant 5
- Instant 6 (yielding surf. translation),

 σ_1

 σ_2

- Instant 0
- Instant 1
- Instant 2
- Instant 3
- Instant 4
- Instant 5
- Instant 6
- Instant 7
- ...

COMPUTATIONALLY DEMANDING (INCREMENTAL APPROACH)



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- Critical plane methods are very popular. They are based on analysis performed at many 'candidate' critical planes.
- Amongst all 'candidate' planes, the critical one is the plane which maximizes the defined fatigue parameter, e.g., in LCF:

- Smith-Watson-Topper:
$$\sigma_{N,max} \cdot \frac{\Delta \varepsilon_N}{2}$$

- Brown-Miller:
$$\frac{\Delta \gamma_{max}}{2} + S \Delta \varepsilon_N$$

- Fatemi-Socie:
$$\frac{\Delta \gamma_{max}}{2} \left(1 + S \frac{\sigma_{N,max}}{S_y}\right)$$



• Working on the surface of a mechanical component, two rotations define the critical plane.











• Why the need of removing conservativism? 'Fatigue analyses have always been done with conventional conservative approaches'...



• ...true, but the industry is going in the direction of `super-optimized' structures. Converntional techniques are INSUFFICIENT! State-of-the-art analysis methods and tools are required

Part 3



DAMAGE TOLERANCE ANALYSIS

- The Damage Tolerance design criteria assume that cracks are always present in the structure (see F-111 accidents).
- The analyst shall demonstrate that crack growth is stable and...
- ...that the structure has sufficient Residual Strength to survive missions up to the next maintenance.
- The calculation is also aimed to define inspection intervals.

DAMAGE TOLERANCE ANALYSIS



Crack Tip Stress



$$\sigma_{max} = K_t \cdot S$$
$$K_t = 1 + 2\sqrt{\frac{a}{\rho}}$$

- When ρ tends to 0 (the ellipse becomes a crack), the stress at the crack tip goes to infinity, which is a non-sense.
- In reality plasticity occurs; stress is finite.
- The linear elastic theories are no longer applicable at crack tips; the calculated stress is no longer a relevant quantity.

 Something else must be used to characterize the stress status at a crack tip: the <u>Stress Intensity Factors</u>.



• From Wastegaard and Irwin:

$$\begin{split} \sigma_{xx} &= \frac{S\sqrt{\pi a}Y}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \cos\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \left[1 - \sin\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{3\varphi}{2}\right)\right] + \psi_x(r,\varphi) \\ \sigma_{yy} &= \frac{S\sqrt{\pi a}Y}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \cos\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \left[1 + \sin\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{3\varphi}{2}\right)\right] + \psi_y(r,\varphi) \\ \tau_{xy} &= \frac{S\sqrt{\pi a}Y}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \cos\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\varphi}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{3\varphi}{2}\right) + \psi_{xy}(r,\varphi) \\ \sigma_{yy} &= \sigma_{xx} = \frac{S\sqrt{\pi a}Y}{\sqrt{2\pi x}} \longrightarrow \quad K_I = S \cdot \sqrt{\pi a} \cdot Y \\ \text{for } y = 0 \text{ and } r << a \qquad MPa\sqrt{mm} \\ ksi\sqrt{inch} \end{split}$$

• Y is a geometrical factor, a is the crack size, S the remote stress.

 Stress Intensity Factors (SIFs) are associated to three crack opening modes:





Mode II Mode I Mode III In-plane shear mode Out-of-plane shear mode Opening mode K_{II} K_{III} K $u = 2(1+\nu)\frac{K_{II}}{F}\sqrt{\frac{r}{2\pi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}\left(2-2\nu+\cos^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$ u = v = 0 $u = 2(1+\nu)\frac{K_I}{E}\sqrt{\frac{r}{2\pi}\cos\frac{\theta}{2}\left(1-2\nu+\sin^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}$ $w = 2(1+v)\frac{K_{III}}{E}\sqrt{\frac{2r}{\pi}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}}$ $v = 2(1+\nu)\frac{K_{II}}{F}\sqrt{\frac{r}{2\pi}\cos\frac{\theta}{2}}\left(-1+2\nu+\sin^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$ $v = 2(1+\nu)\frac{K_I}{F}\sqrt{\frac{r}{2\pi}}\sin\frac{\theta}{2}\left(2-2\nu+\cos^2\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$ w = 0w = 0 $\sigma_x = \frac{K_I}{\sqrt{2\pi i}} \cos\frac{\theta}{2} \left(1 - \sin\frac{\theta}{2} \sin\frac{3\theta}{2} \right) \qquad \qquad \sigma_x = \frac{-K_{II}}{\sqrt{2\pi i}} \sin\frac{\theta}{2} \left(2 + \cos\frac{\theta}{2} \cos\frac{3\theta}{2} \right)$ $\sigma_y = \frac{K_I}{\sqrt{2\pi i}} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left(1 + \sin \frac{\theta}{3} \sin \frac{3\theta}{2} \right)$

$$\sigma_{y} = \frac{K_{II}}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{3\theta}{2}$$
$$\sigma_{z} = \begin{cases} \nu(\sigma_{x} + \sigma_{y}) & \text{plane strain} \\ 0 & \text{plane stress} \end{cases}$$
$$\tau_{xy} = \frac{K_{II}}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left(1 - \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{3\theta}{2}\right)$$
$$\tau_{xz} = \tau_{yz} = 0$$

$$\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma_z = \tau_{xy} = 0$$

$$\tau_{xz} = \frac{-K_{III}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sin \frac{\theta}{2}$$

$$\tau_{yz} = \frac{K_{III}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \cos \frac{\theta}{2}$$

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 $\tau_{xz} = \tau_{vz} = 0$

 $\sigma_z = \begin{cases} v(\sigma_x + \sigma_y) & \text{plane strain} \\ 0 & \text{plane stress} \end{cases}$

 $\tau_{xy} = \frac{K_I}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{3\theta}{2}$

STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS

- Stress Intensity Factors must be calculated.
- In general the Opening Mode *KI* is the most relevant (KII and KIII are more involved in the crack kinking/twisting).
- There are multiple ways to obtain *KI*:
 - From Handbooks
 - From FEM (or BEM) calculations
 - From X-FEM calculations
 - With Weight Functions

• SIFs from Handbooks (TADA, Rooke-Cartright, ...)



- SIFs from FEM
 - From FEM there are many ways that can be used to calculate *KI*.
 - 1. From Energy Release rate
 - 2. With Displacement Correlation
 - 3. With Virtual Crack Extension Method
 - 4. With Crack Closure Integral Method
 - 5. With Modified Crack Closure Integral Method
 - 6. With J-Integral Method
 - 7. With M-Interaction Integral Method
 - 8. ...
 - -(1), (2) and (6) are briefly shown.

• SIFs from FEM - Energy Release rate

- The Stress Intensity Factors KI (and KII, KIII) in the three modes of fracture are uniquely related to the Energy Release Rate G.
- $-G = -\frac{d\Phi}{dA}$ being Φ the Total Strain Energy, A the crack opening surface.

- 3D Plane Strain:
$$G = G_I + G_{II} + G_{III} = \frac{1-v^2}{E} \left(K_I^2 + K_{II}^2 \right) + \frac{1+v}{E} K_{III}^2$$

- 2D Plane Strain: $G = G_I + G_{II} = \frac{1-v^2}{E} (K_I^2 + K_{II}^2)$
- Plane Stress: $G = G_I + G_{II} = \frac{1}{E} (K_I^2 + K_{II}^2)$

• SIFs from FEM - Energy Release rate

– From FEM the Total Strain Energy Φ is calculated at each crack propagation step.



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Plane strain

SIFs from FEM – Displacement Correlation

 The idea is simple: correlate computed (FEM/BEM) local displacements with their theoretical values, with SIF as scaling parameter.



24. April 2017 The same expressions can be used for plane stress assumptions if v is replaced with v = v / (1+v). 100

- SIFs from FEM
 - The stress field at the crack tip is singular.
 - The singularity makes the problem not compatible with standard FEM-BEM polynomial-based formulations.
 - If one wants to reproduce these fields with FEM-BEM, many small elements are needed, especially in the K-dominant region.
 - However, in the limit as one approaches the crack front, we can never reproduce the singular nature with polynomial based elements.
 - This makes calculating SIF's accurately using local field information difficult and inefficient with such elements, however...

- SIFs from FEM
 - <u>- Quarter point elements</u> reproduces the correct leading displacements and strain terms.



A quadratic element, (a) the parametric space of the element, (b) the Cartesian space of the element. The crack tip is at r=0.

$$\mathbf{u} = \sum_{i=1}^{3} N_i \mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{2} \xi(\xi - 1) \mathbf{u}_1 + (1 - \xi^2) \mathbf{u}_2 + \frac{1}{2} \xi(\xi + 1) \mathbf{u}_3 \longrightarrow \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}_2 + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{u}_3 - \mathbf{u}_1) \xi + (\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_3) - \mathbf{u}_2) \xi^2$$

$$r = \sum_{i=1}^{3} N_i r_i = \alpha l + \frac{1}{2} l\xi + l(\frac{1}{2} - \alpha)\xi^2$$

Its standard, polynomial geometry interpolation scheme.

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First, the usual case of mid-side geometry:

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \longrightarrow \xi = \frac{2r}{l} - 1$$
Then we get the expected, polynomial interpolation:

$$u = u_1 + (-3u_1 + 4u_2 - u_3)\frac{r}{l} + 2(u_1 - 2u_2 + u_3)\frac{r^2}{l^2}$$

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- SIFs from FEM
 - <u>- Quarter point elements</u> reproduces the correct leading displacements and strain terms.



A quadratic element, (a) the parametric space of the element, (b) the Cartesian space of the element. The crack tip is at r=0.

$$\mathbf{u} = \sum_{i=1}^{3} N_i \mathbf{u}_i = \frac{1}{2} \xi(\xi - 1) \mathbf{u}_1 + (1 - \xi^2) \mathbf{u}_2 + \frac{1}{2} \xi(\xi + 1) \mathbf{u}_3 \longrightarrow \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}_2 + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{u}_3 - \mathbf{u}_1) \xi + (\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_3) - \mathbf{u}_2) \xi^2$$

$$r = \sum_{i=1}^{3} N_i r_i = \alpha l + \frac{1}{2} l \xi + l(\frac{1}{2} - \alpha) \xi^2$$

Its standard, polynomial geometry interpolation scheme.

Next, the unusual case of ¹/₄-point geometry: $\alpha = \frac{1}{4} \longrightarrow \xi = \frac{2\sqrt{lr}}{l} - 1$ Then we get the *unexpected*, non-polynomial interpolation !!!: $u = u_1 + 2(u_1 - 2u_2 + u_3)\frac{r}{l} + (-3u_1 + 4u_2 + u_3)\frac{\sqrt{lr}}{l}$

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• SIFs from FEM





• SIFs from FEM – Displacement Correlation

- If ¹/₄-point elements are used:



Write the displacement function along r_{a-b-c} and along r_{a-d-e}

$$\mathbf{v}_{upper} = \mathbf{v}_a + (-3\mathbf{v}_a + 4\mathbf{v}_b - \mathbf{v}_c)\sqrt{\frac{r}{l}} + (2\mathbf{v}_a - 4\mathbf{v}_b + 2\mathbf{v}_c)\frac{r}{l}$$
$$\mathbf{v}_{lower} = \mathbf{v}_a + (-3\mathbf{v}_a + 4\mathbf{v}_d - \mathbf{v}_e)\sqrt{\frac{r}{l}} + (2\mathbf{v}_a - 4\mathbf{v}_d + 2\mathbf{v}_e)\frac{r}{l}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{upper} - \mathbf{v}_{lower} = [4(\mathbf{v}_{b} - \mathbf{v}_{d}) + \mathbf{v}_{e} - \mathbf{v}_{c}]\sqrt{\frac{r}{l}} + [4(\mathbf{v}_{b} - \mathbf{v}_{d}) + 2(\mathbf{v}_{c} - \mathbf{v}_{e})]\frac{r}{l}$$
$$K_{I} = \frac{\mu\sqrt{2\pi}}{\sqrt{r_{a-b-c}}(2-2\nu)} [4(\mathbf{v}_{b} - \mathbf{v}_{d}) + \mathbf{v}_{e} - \mathbf{v}_{c}]$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{upper} - \mathbf{u}_{lower} = \left[4(\mathbf{u}_{b} - \mathbf{u}_{d}) + \mathbf{u}_{e} - \mathbf{u}_{c}\right] \sqrt{\frac{r}{l}} + \left[4(\mathbf{u}_{b} - \mathbf{u}_{d}) + 2(\mathbf{u}_{c} - \mathbf{u}_{e})\right] \frac{r}{l}$$

$$K_{II} = \frac{\mu \sqrt{2\pi}}{\sqrt{r_{a-b-c}} (2-2\nu)} [4(u_b - u_d) + u_e - u_c]$$

• SIFs from FEM - J-Integral (Rice, 1968)



- Where $W = \frac{1}{2}\sigma_{ij}\varepsilon_{ij}$ is the strain energy density, *T* is the surface traction vector, *n* is the unit outward normal to the contour, *u* is the displacement vector.
- The J-Integral measures the energy flux into the crack-tip region.
- Rice demonstrated that; (1) under small scale yielding conditions, the J-Integral is equal to the Energy Release Rate, G....

• SIFs from FEM – J-Integral (Rice, 1968)

- -...(2) for a material which is characterized by linear or nonlinear elastic behavior, J is path-independent.
- The contour J-Integral can be recast as an equivalent area (volume in 3D) integral (invoking divergence theorem), which is more accurate and stable in a finite element context.



$$\overline{J} = \int_{A} \left[\sigma_{ij} \frac{\partial u_{i}}{\partial x_{1}} - W \delta_{1j} \right] \frac{\partial q_{1}}{\partial x_{j}} dA \qquad q = \sum_{i} N_{i} q_{i} \qquad \frac{\partial q}{\partial x_{j}} = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial N_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} q_{i}$$

Where:

- + δ is the Kroneker delta.
- N is the element shape function.
- q is a weighting function defined over the domain of integration (=1 at the crack tip, =0 on the boundary of the integration domain, =0.75 at the ¼ points).

• SIFs from FEM - J-Integral (Rice, 1968)



where i is the elements counter, j is the Gauss points counter
• SIFs from FEM - J-Integral (Rice, 1968)

$$dJ_{i,j} = \left(\sigma_{i,j}\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_1} - W\delta_{1j}\right)\frac{\partial q}{\partial x_j}dA_j = \left[\left(\sigma_{11}\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \sigma_{12}\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} - W\right)\frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + \left(\sigma_{12}\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \sigma_{22}\frac{\partial v}{\partial x}\right)\frac{\partial q}{\partial y}\right]dA_j$$

[N](s,t) = the element shape functions matrix; s and t the node k coordinates in the element mapped space.

- SIFs from FEM J-Integral (Rice, 1968)
 - 2D Plane Strain condition:

$$J = G = \frac{1 - v^2}{E} \left(K_I^2 + K_{II}^2 \right)$$

- 2D Plane Stress condition:

$$J = G = \frac{1}{E} \left(K_I^2 + K_{II}^2 \right)$$



 Separate the modes by decomposing the near cracktip displacement fields into one field that is symmetric with respect to the crack and another field that is antisymmetric with respect to the crack.

• SIFs from FEM - J-Integral (Rice, 1968)

• Example with the software Lifing



• Example with the software Lifing



• Example with the software Lifing



• Example with the software Franc3D



Business Case

- Running this kind of analysis IS NOT CHEAP but the cost besnefit can be HUGE
- Example:
 - Assume we have a fleet of **500** Aircraft
 - Assume that a structural detail (analysed with conventional Analysis Methods) has to be inspected **once every year after 10** years of Service
 - Assume that the fleet has to be in Service for **other 10 years**
 - Assume each inspection (NDI Inspection) has a cost of 500 Euro
 - The Inspection Programme costs 500x500x10 = 2'500'000 Euro
 - ...plus the cost of the grounded fleet!!!!

Business Case

- Assume that an analysis like the one in the previous slide takes
 300 hr
- Assume an hourly rate 100 Euro
- Analysis cost: 300x100 =

30'000 Euro

- Assume that with this analysis we are able to relax the Inspection Interval to 1 Inspection every 2 years (**halved interval**)
- The new Inspection Programme now costs 1'250'000 Euro
- **Savings**: 1'250'000 + 30'000 2'500'000 =

(-) 1'220'000 Euro

- Crack Growth Life analysis is the time (or number of cycles) to propagate a flaw of an assumed or measured initial size to a critical dimension.
- In most metallic materials, catastrophic failure is preceded by a substantial amount of stable crack propagation under cyclic loading conditions.
- The rate of growth of a fatigue crack subjected to a constant amplitude stress reversals is expressed in terms of the crack length increment per cycle, da/dN.

 For a cyclic variation of imposed stress field, the linear elastic fracture mechanics characterization of the rate of fatigue crack growth is based on the SIF range

$$\Delta K_I = K_{I,max} - K_{I,min}$$

- Being $K_{I,max}$ and $K_{I,min}$ are the maximum and minimum values, respectively, of SIFs during a fatigue stress cycle.
- Crack Growth Models are in the form $da/dN = f(\Delta KI, R)$



• Paris Model

$$\frac{da}{dN} = C(\Delta K)^n$$

- There is a linear relationship between da/dN and ∆K in a log-log space.
- C and n are material constant, dependant on environmental conditions and load ratio R



Walker Model

$$\frac{da}{dN} = C(\Delta K)^n$$

 For simplicity reasons the complete fatigue crack growth rate is usually approximated by three piece curve with the two vertical limiting asymptotes mentioned earlier.





- Fracture toughness K_C is a property which describes the ability of a <u>structure</u> containing a crack to resist fracture.
- K_C is a structural property as well, not only a material property: the dimensions (e.g. thickness) influence K_C .
- K_C is derived from the Plane Strain Fracture Toughness K_{IC} , where a thickness correction is applied.



CRACK GROWTH AND RESIDUAL STRENGTH ANALYSIS



- The analysis starts with a given initial crack a₀ The 'damage cumulation' concept looses the meaning described in the Fatigue chapter.
- the crack SIFs change at each cycle because the crack is growing. This is a significant difference wrt to the damage cumulation process employed in fatigue analyses.
- The same stress cycle occurring at different instants contributes differently because the SIF is changed (as the crack has grown). For this reason the time history is integrated multiple times.

CRACK GROWTH AND RESIDUAL STRENGTH ANALYSIS

• Variable amplitude sequence of loads induce 'load interaction' effects which are beneficial (crack retardation).



- Local high tension stresses generate compressive residual stresses which tend to close the crack (crack closure).
- the crack keeps propagating when another tension load cycle 'breaks through' the compressive region.
- Available retardation models (Willemborg, Wheeler, Fastran, ...) must be calibrated by tests.

- Once the CG curve is calculated (life to fracture from an initial crack size), this is the principal tool for the definition of Safety by Inspection Regime.
- Two kind of inspections are defined:
 - Threshold inspection: the first inspection to be performed in a given component or area
 - Recurrent inspections: the subsequent ones
- For the definition of these, dedicated Scatter Factors are used
 - Threshold inspection: SF = 2
 - Recurrent inspections: SF = 3 (and a detectable crack size, depending on the inspection technique, must be defined)









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THANK YOU

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