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TWO FINITE ELEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR COMPUTING MODE I

STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS IN TWO- OR

THREE-DIMENSIONAL PROBLEMS

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FOREWORD

The work reported here was performed at Oak Ridge National Laboratory (ORNL) under sponsorship of the U.S. Nuclear Regulatory Commission's (NRC's) Heavy-Se don Steel Technology Program, which is directed by ORNL. The program is conducted as part of the GPNL Pressure Vessel Technology Program, of which G. D. Whitman is manager. The manager for the 'RC is Milton Vagins.

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NOMENCLATURE

Latin Characters	
a	Crack length or crack radius
A	Crack area
В	Strain-displacement transformation matrix
^d ii	A term on the diagonal of the stress-strain trans- formation matrix
D	Diagonal matrix or stress-strain transformation matrix
Е	Young's modulus of elasticity
f'i	Modified right-hand side of the upper triangularized matrix
F	Total force
FB	Body force per unit volume
Fe	Nodal forces statically equivalent to the body forces plus the surface tractions
F ₀	Nodal forces statically equivalent to the thermal plus initial strains
G	Potential energy released per unit extension or crack area (the so-called energy release "rate")
G	Modulus of rigidity
K _I , K _{I2D} , K _{I3D}	Stress intensity factor, in 2-D and 3-D, respectively
l	Length parameter
L	Lower triangular matrix
Ν	Field to nodal values transformation matrix (interpolating functions)
Р	Potential energy of the structure
Q	Thermal strain energy of the structure
r	Distance to crack root in polar coordinate system

NOMENCLATURE (Contd.)

Latin Characters (Contd.)	
т	Surface traction per unit area
u	Generalized nodal displacements
^u n, ^u z	Noaal displacements in the n- and z-directions, respectively
u'	Generalized displacement field
U	Upper triangular matrix
v	Volume
w	Width parameter
W	Strain energy density function
Greek Characters	
α	Coefficient of linear expansion
ε	Generalized strain matrix
ε ₀	Initial or thermal strain matrix

V Poisson's ratio

φ

σ Generalized stress matrix

onz Stresses in the n- and z-directions, respectively

T_{nz} Shear stress in the n-z direction

θ Polar angle between n- and r-directions

Angular location of a point on the crack front

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NOMENCLATURE (Contd.)

Abbreviations and Acronyms	
2-D, 3-D	Two- and three-dimensional
ADINA	An FE computer code for Automatic Dynamic Incremental Nonlinear Analysis
ASTM	American Society for Testing and Materials
СРИ	Central Processor Unit
DOF	Degrees of freedom
FE	Finite element(s)
FMECH	A 2-D FE based computer code to calculate ${\rm K}_{\rm I}$ using energy release methods
GEN8	An FE mesh generation computer code
HEATING5	A finite difference based heat conduction computer code
HSST	Heavy-Section Steel Technology
10	Input or output computer operation
LEFM	Linear elastic fracture mechanics
MERGE	An FE mesh generation computer code
NRC	Nuclear Regulatory Commission
ORNL	Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee
PE	Potential energy
QMESH	An FE mesh generation
REDUCE	An FE mesh node-numbering optimizer
STRIP	An FE mesh generation computer code
TSE-4	The fourth thermal shock experiment
V8	An FE mesh generation computer code
V-8	One of the experimental test cylinders of the HSST program

TWO FINITE ELEMENT TECHNIQUES FOR COMPUTING MODE I

STRESS INTENSITY FACTORS IN TWO- OR

THREE-DIMENSIONAL PROBLEMS

S. K. Iskander

ABSTRACT

Two finite element (FE) approaches were used to calculate opening mode I stress intensity factors (K_I) in two- and threedimensional (2-D and 3-D) problems for the Heavy-Section Steel Technology (HSST) program. For problems that can be modeled in two dimensions, two techniques were used. One of these may be termed an "energy release rate" technique, and the other is based on the classical near-tip displacement and stress field equations. For three-dimensional problems, only the latter technique was used.

In the energy release technique, $\rm K_I$ is calculated as the change in potential energy of the structure due to a small change in crack length. The potential energy is calculated by the FE method but without completely solving the system of linear equations for the displacements. Furthermore, the system of linear equations is only slightly perturbed by the change in crack length and, therefore, many computations need not be repeated for the second structure with the slight change in crack length. Implementation of these last two items has resulted in considerable savings in the calculation of K_I as compared to two complete FE analyses. These ideas are incorporated in the FMECH code.

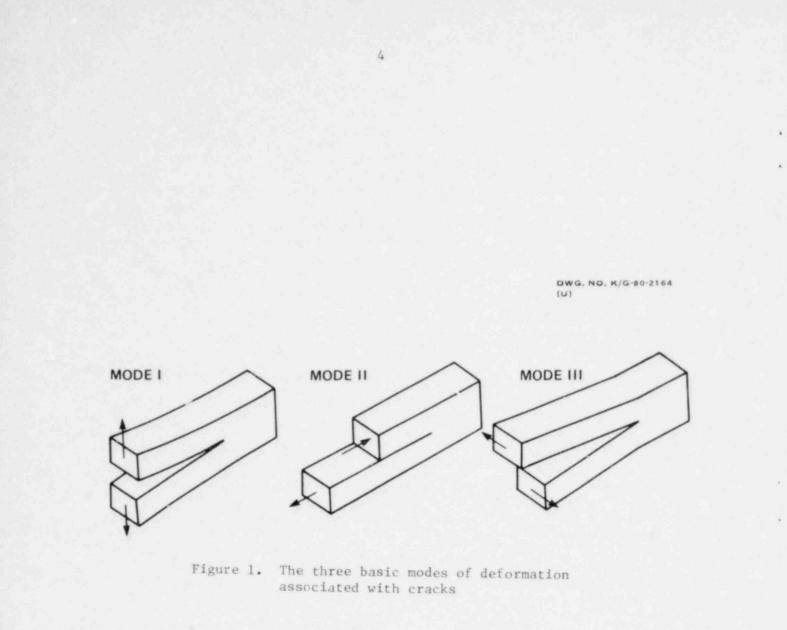
The accuracy of the methods has been checked by comparing the results of the two approaches with each other and with closed form solutions. It is estimated that the accuracy of the results is about $\pm 5\%$.

1. INTRODUCTION

Flaws in structural components may occur during the fabrication processes or after the component has been put into service. Such flaws may escape detection in inspection. An important consideration in the design and analysis of such structural components is the stability of such flaws not only under normal operating conditions, but under hypochetical accident conditions.

Among the significant parameters in judging the propensity of flaws to propagate is the stress intensity factor, which depends upon the geometry and loading of the structure. These factors may be classified into three basic types, each associated with a local mode of deformation near the crack tip as shown in Figure 1 [1]. Conceptually, the methods described in this report can be used for the determination of the stress intensity factor associated with any of the three modes. This report, however, deals with the opening mode I type of deformation, which implies a loading symmetric with respect to the plane of the crack. All the methods described are based upon the basic assumptions of linear-elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM), viz., that all nonlinear effects are confined to a "small" region surrounding the crack tip and, consequently, may be neglected. A linear elastic analysis then approximates the essential features of such cases.

The number of "closed" form solutions in LEFM are limited. For the case of an arbitrarily shaped structure subjected to a general system of loads, numerical methods are used. There are many such methods, among which the influence function [2], the boundary integral [3], and the FE [4] approaches are noteworthy. Of these approaches, the ones based



upon FE have been particularly popular due to the widespread availability of general-purpose computer codes, and this report discusses the implementation of two FE procedures used to calculate K_I . One of these is based upon the so-called energy release concept of LEFM and the other on the classical relationship between the near-tip stress (or displacement) fields and the stress intensity factor K_I .¹ The energy release rate concept has been used with our 2-D models only, whereas the stress/displacement method has been used with both our 2-D and 3-D models. Verification of the methods has been carried out by comparison with closed form solutions and by comparing the results of the two different FE approaches for the 2-D problems.

The objective of this report is to document the energy release and stress/displacement methods as they have been implemented for the HSST program. Thus, in Chapter 2 two approaches based upon the energy release method are presented. The first approach is labeled the potential energy method, whereas the second one is termed the strain energy method. It is shown that, for special cases of either external loads only or thermal gradients only, both methods give the correct stress intensity factor. In cases where both types of loads are present, the strain energy approach will lead to erroneous results. Also presented is the complete derivation of a simple procedure to extract the potential energy from the upper triangularized system of equations arising in FE methods without solving explicitly for the displacements. The stress/displacement method is also documented.

¹This method will be referred to as the stress/displacement method for brevity.

In Chapter 3, results from several 2- and 3-D examples are presented. First, as partial verification of the methods given in Chapter 2, a problem for which a closed form solution exists was solved in both 2-D and 3-D cases. Second, in 2-D cases, both the potential energy and stress/displacement methods were used to solve the same problem. In all cases, the results were within a few percentage points of the closed form solution or each other. Also presented are the results of two 3-D analyses performed for the HSST program. The first analysis explores, for several different cylinder lengths, the variation of K_I along the length of a uniform depth axial crack in a cylinder subjected to a thermal shock. The second deals with the variation of K_I along the crack front for several different load cases of the V-8 cylinder.

One important task in the FE modeling--that of mesh generation--is also one of the most time-consuming. Many codes have been developed by the author to facilitate this task and they will be mentioned briefly. The method used in optimizing the profile of the system of linear equations occurring in our 3-D FE analysis is also mentioned. Optimization is critical since, in many cases, analysis would not be possible due to limitations imposed by the computer environment.

2. METHODS OF ANALYSIS

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, both the energy release rate and the stress/displacement methods will be discussed.

2.2. Energy Release Rate Methods

This section presents the basis of the energy release rate method for calculation ${\rm K}^{}_{\rm T}$ as it is implemented in the FMECH code. This method relies upon the calculation of the PE of the structure, and this is accomplished by means of the FE method. A brief derivation of the governing equations of the FE method based upon PE considerations is first given. These equations will be referred to in a discussion of the errors that arise if the strain energy is used in place of the potential energy in situations where both thermal and mechanical loads act on the structure (since some authors have used the strain energy release rate to calculate K_{T}). The governing equations of the FE method are also referred to in reviewing an economical computational method for calculating the PE. It is shown that the PE of the structure is available at the end of the forward elimination process and, hence, if the displacements or stresses are not required, the FE solution can be terminated at this point, thereby saving the cost of back substitution and the cost of computing the displacements and stresses.

One of the earliest papers in fracture mechanics was that of Griffith [5]. It introduced the concept of energy release due the propagation of cracks in brittle materials. Later, Irwin [6] and Orowan [7] extended Griffith's work to account for the "small" plastic zone ahead of the crack tip; so this concept may also be termed the Griffith-Irwin-Orowan theory.

Let P be the total potential energy (PE) of deformation of a structure, and G dA be the total elastic energy made available when the crack extends by an amount dA, where A is the crack surface area (one side of the crack); then

$$G = -\frac{\mathrm{dP}}{\mathrm{dA}} \tag{1}$$

Furthermore, Irwin [8] showed that

a

$$G = \frac{1}{E} K_{I}^{2} \qquad \text{for plane stress}$$

nd $G = \frac{1 - v^{2}}{E} K_{I}^{2} \qquad \text{for plane strain} \qquad (2)$

where

 K_{T} = opening mode stress intensity factor,

E = modulus of elasticity,

V = Poisson's ratio.

Thus, it is possible to estimate K_{I} by evaluating the change in the PE of a structure (ΔP) due to a small extension of the crack surface (ΔA).

There are various approaches to implementing energy methods using FE analysis. One approach would be to perform an FE analysis on the cracked structure, then extend the crack by a small amount and perform a second FE analysis, thus determining the PE corresponding to each crack length [9]. The disadvantage of this method is the necessity of having to perform two complete FE analyses. Rather than perform two complete and separate FE analyses to obtain K_I, it is possible to optimize the process in a manner that reduces the costs to an amount equal to or less than that for a single complete FE analysis. In describing this optimization, many of the basic equations of the FE method will be referred to and, therefore, they will now be reviewed from a PE viewpoint although such a derivation is common in the FE literature.

The total PE of a structure is given by [11, p. 384]

$$P = \int_{VOI} W \, dV - \int_{VOI} u' F_B \, dV - \int_{area} u' T \, dA , \qquad (3)$$

where

u' = displacement field,

 F_{p} = body forces per unit volume,

T = surface tractions per unit area.

The first term is the internal strain energy and the remaining two terms are the work done by the external forces.

Equation (3) will be rewritten in a form suitable for FE analysis.

The strain energy density can be expressed as²

$$W = \frac{1}{2} (\varepsilon - \varepsilon_0)^T D(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_0) ,$$

²Vectors and matrices will not be given any special symbol (e.g., $\{\epsilon_0\}$ or [D]) since their definition and context of their use make their meaning unambiguous.

where

 ε = total strain vector,

- ε_0 = thermal and/or initial strain vector, and superscript T denotes transpose,
- D = matrix of the stress-strain transformation matrix, i.e., $\sigma = D(\varepsilon \varepsilon_0)$, $\sigma = stress vector$.

Let $\varepsilon = B u$, where

u = nodal displacement vector,

B = strain-displacement transformation matrix.

Then for the structure

$$\int W \, dV = \frac{1}{2} u^T \int_{vol} B^T D B \, dV \, u = u^T \int_{vol} B D \varepsilon_0 \, dV$$
$$+ \frac{1}{2} \int_{vol} \varepsilon_0^T D \varepsilon_0 \, dV$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} u^T K u - u^T F_0 + Q ,$$

where

K = stiffness matrix for the structure

$$= \int_{vol} B^{T} D B dV$$

 $F_0 = nodal loads statically equivalent to the thermal or initial strains$

$$= \int_{VO1} B^{T} D \varepsilon_{0} dV$$

= thermal energy = $\frac{1}{2} \int \varepsilon_{0}^{T} D \varepsilon_{0} dV$.

Thus, the PE can be written as

Q

$$\mathbf{P} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{F}_{0} - \mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{F}_{e} + \mathbf{Q} \quad ,$$

where F_{e} are the nodal forces statically equivalent to the body forces and the surface tractions, i.e.,

$$F_e = \int_{area} N^T T dA + \int_{vol} N^T F_B dV$$

where N = the interpolating functions relating the displacement field within an element to its nodal displacements, viz., u' = N u.

Thus, the PE can be written in the form

$$P = \frac{1}{2} u^{T} K u - u^{T} F + Q$$
(4)

where $F = F_e + F_0$ (the sum of the external loads F_e and the initial or thermal loads F_0).

The use of the theorem of minimum potential energy, viz., the first variation on P with respect to the displacement &u [11, p. 382]

viz.,
$$\delta P = 0$$
 leads to
K u = F (5)

Equation (5) forms the basis for the FE method. Substituting for F from Eq. (5) into Eq. (4)

 $P = \frac{1}{2} u^{T} K u - u^{T} K u + Q$

or

$$P = -\frac{1}{2} u^{T} K u + Q$$
(6)

Recall that the term Q depends upon the thermal strains ε_0 and the material properties D. The ε_0 are functions of temperature and the coefficient of thermal expansion (which is not contained in D) only. The term Q is therefore independent of the boundary conditions. Thus, the

change in PE with respect to a change in crack area can be written as

$$G = -\frac{dP}{dA} = \frac{d}{dA} \left(\frac{1}{2} u^{T} K u\right)$$
(7)

In the absence of external mechanical loads, the PE of a structure, Eq. (3), is given by $\int W \, dV$, the internal strain energy of the structure. On the other hand, if there are no thermal stresses, the strain is equal to the work done by the external forces³ (Clapeyron's Theorem [11, p. 86]). In both these cases, the use of the strain energy in place of the PE in Eq. (1) is valid, except for the sign. This has lead many authors [1,12] to use the term "strain energy release rate" in place of the "potential energy release rate." Where both external and thermal loads act on a structure, the use of strain energy can lead to errors, since this does not account for the work done by thermal expansion on the external loads.

For example, consider a bar supported at one end in such a manner that a uniform temperature change only causes a stress-free thermal expansion. If the bar is subjected to external mechanical loads, a uniform temperature change will cause no change in the strain energy, but will alter the PE of the structure.

As mentioned above, one obvious and straightforward method of calculating K_I by the energy release rate method would be to perform two complete and separate FE analyses. However, two simplifications are possible. First, the element stiffnesses calculated for the first FE analysis are saved and, since they are a function of the dimensions and material properties only, they may be utilized in the second FE analysis

³Mathematically expressed as
$$\int_{VO1} u' F_B dV + \int_{area} u' T dA = 2 \int W dV$$
.

and only the boundary conditions are modified to account for the new crack root. Since the cost of the calculation of the element stiffness comprises a major portion of the cost of an FE analysis, the savings are significant.

The second simplification concerns the solution of Eq. (5) and the computation of the displacements and stresses. About half the cost associated with these operations can be saved by means of a scheme due to hellen [10]. It is shown that the PE of the structure is available at the end of the forward elimination process and thus, if the displacements or the stresses are not required, their costs can be eliminated by terminating the FE computation at this point. Basically, this scheme enables the computation of the term ($u^T K u$) or, equivalently, the work done by the total forces acting through their corresponding displacements ($F^T u$). The method relies upon the symmetry of the stiffness matrix K and upon the ability to decompose the matrix into the following form [13]

$$K = L D U , \qquad (8)$$

where L and U are lower and upper triangular matrices with units along their principal diagonals, and D is a diagonal matrix whose elements are the "pivots" of Gaussian elimination. Moreover, since K is symmetric, $U = L^{T}$. Then

$$K = L D L^{T}$$
(9)

The solution of Eq. (5) then proceeds as follows:

$$K u = F$$

or

 $L D L^T u = F$

Forward elimination is symbolically represented as:

$$D L^{T} u = L^{-1} F$$
(10a)

or, if the pivots are reduced to unity, then

$$L^{T} u = D^{-1} L^{-1} F$$
 (10b)

For brevity, let

and

and

 $F' = D^{-1} L^{-1} F$

 $F'' = L^{-1} F$

then

In other words, F' (or F") is the state of the total force vector at the end of the forward elimination process. The remaining back substitution process is symbolized as

$$u = L^{T^{-1}} F'$$
(11)

then

$$u^{T} K u = (F^{T} L^{-1}) (L D L^{T}) (L^{T} F^{T})$$

= $F^{T} D F^{T}$ (12a)

or

T
 K u = F"^T D⁻¹ F" (12b)

$$L^T u = F'$$

Here the form (12b) would be used if, at the end of the forward elimination, the pivots had been normalized; otherwise, (12a) would be used.

Thus,

$$\mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{K} \mathbf{u} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(\mathbf{f}_{i}^{\prime}\right)^{2} \mathbf{d}_{ii}$$
(13)

In other words, the above sum can be accumulated during the forward elimination process and there is no need to carry out the back substitution stage or its attendant cost in CPU⁴ and IO,⁵ nor is there a need to calculate either the displacements or the stresses.

There are many advantages to the energy method and these have been documented in detail in [9]. For a given mesh, energy methods give better accuracy than stress/displacement methods and they are insensitive to a large extent to the details of the mesh layout. This may be due to errors that cancel out since the meshes used in both analyses (the first with a crack length A and the second with a crack length of $(A + \Delta A)$ are identical except for the boundary conditions on the crack front. A significant advantage is also the high degree of automation which energy methods lend themselves to, as contrasted with the stress or displacement methods mentioned later.

 ^{5}CPU = Central Processor Unit--used synonomously for computations. ^{5}IO = Input or Output operations to disks or tapes.

2.3. Stress and Displacement Methods

These methods rely upon the classical relationships between the near field solution and the stress intensity factor K_{I} [14] (see Figure 2 for coordinate system notation). The stresses are given by

$$\sigma_{n} = \frac{K_{I}}{(2\pi r)^{1/2}} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left[1 - \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{3\theta}{2} \right] + \dots$$

$$\sigma_{z} = \frac{K_{I}}{(2\pi r)^{1/2}} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left[1 + \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{3\theta}{2} \right] + \dots$$

$$\tau_{nz} = \frac{K_{I}}{(2\pi r)^{1/2}} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{3\theta}{2} + \dots$$
(14a)

The displacements are (assuming plane strain conditions)

$$u_{n} = \frac{K_{I}}{G} \left(\frac{\mathbf{r}}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left(1 - 2\nu + \sin^{2} \frac{\theta}{2}\right) + \dots$$
$$u_{z} = \frac{K_{I}}{G} \left(\frac{\mathbf{r}}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \left(2 - 2\nu - \cos^{2} \frac{\theta}{2}\right) + \dots$$
(14b)

where ... represent terms of order r and $r^{(2n+1)/2}$ (n = 0,1,..., α) that are small with respect to the first term when r becomes small,

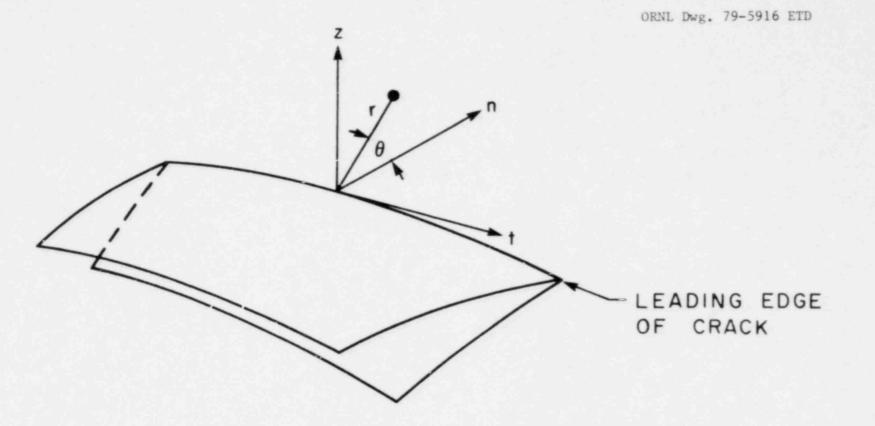
G = modulus of rigidity = E/2(1 + v) for isotropic materials,

v = Poisson's ratio,

E = Young's modulus of elasticity.

In the region close enough to the crack, K_{I} is calculated from Eq. (14a) or (14b). If the displacements are used, by taking $\theta = \pi$, we get

$$K_{I} = \frac{E\sqrt{2\pi}}{4(1-v^{2})} \left(\frac{u_{z}}{\sqrt{r}}\right)$$
(15)



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Figure 2. The two coordinate systems of axes used. The orientation of the axes is determined by the tangent (t) to the crack root edge and the normal (n) to the crack edge, with both (t) and (n) in the plane of the crack. The z-axis is then normal to both t- and n-axes. The polar system $(r-\theta)$ is in the n-z plane. Similarly, if the stresses are used, by taking $\theta = 0$, we get

$$K_{I} = (2\pi)^{1/2} (\sigma_{z} \sqrt{r})$$
(16)

The displacements are the primary solution in most FE computer codes. The stresses are obtained by numerical differentiation with some loss in accuracy. In the interests of accuracy, the stresses are computed at the so-called gaussian integration points, which are interior to the element and not exactly at $\theta = 0$. Thus, it may be preferable to use the displacements whenever possible. However, the stresses would be used to calculate K_I where the displacements are not available, for example, in 3-D problems in which the crack front does not intersect the free surface at a right angle.

The procedure used to calculate K_I is to plot either the term $ur^{-1/2}$ or $\sigma r^{1/2}$ as a function of r. The stresses or displacements are taken from the FE solution along a ray normal to the crack front. By extrapolating the curve back to r = 0, an estimate of K_I may be obtained. It has been found by solving problems with closed form solutions that a straight line extrapolation gives reasonably good results [31]. (Also see Sections 3.2.1. and 3.3.1. of this report.)

The total number of degrees of freedom (DOF) and, hence, the computational effort can be decreased considerably by the use of so-called "singularity elements" around the crack tip. These elements reproduce the $\frac{1}{\sqrt{r}}$ singularity in the stresses, thereby allowing the use of relatively few elements in the crack tip region; otherwise, the high stress gradients in that region necessitate a highly refined mesh so that these gradients can be modeled with reasonable accuracy by either constant or linear

stress elements. One type of singularity element can be produced from any element with mid-side nodes by locating the mid-side nodes adjacent to the crack front at the $\frac{1}{4}$ point (Figure 3).⁶ The stresses in the element will possess the correct singularity in the stresses as well as the correct stiffness, but the displacements at the $\frac{1}{4}$ nodes will be inaccurate [16]. Such an element is often referred to as the $\frac{1}{4}$ point element.

One advantage of the energy methods mentioned is the immediate computation of K_{I} as compared to stress or displacement methods which require a certain amount of manual plotting and computation, thereby lending themselves to a high degree of automation.

The energy methods described above have been implemented in the finite element code FMECH (Fracture Mechanics). This code is designed to compute K_I for problems with any form of loading, mechanical or thermal. However, it is particularly useful and relatively efficient in LEFM problems with transient thermal loadings. In such cases, the aim is to calculate K_I for a large number of different temperature distributions as well as different values of the crack depth.

⁶Such elements were introduced almost simultaneously by Barsoum [15] and Henshell [16].

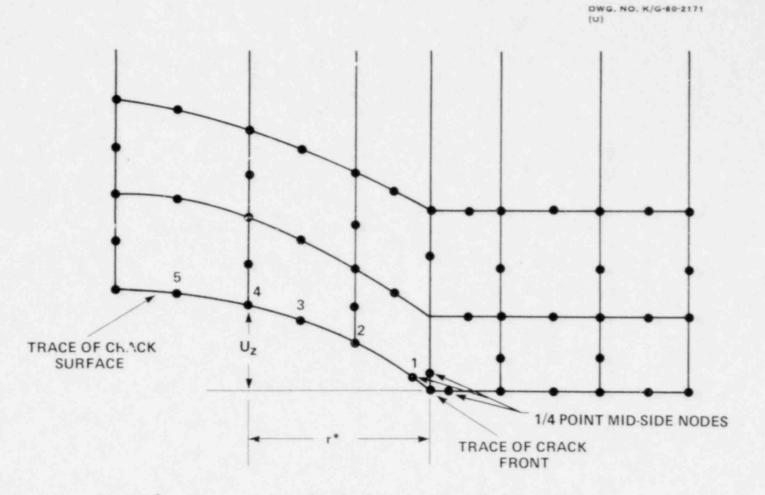


Figure 3. Quarter point singularity element. Number adjacent to the nodes refer to the FE displacements at these nodes in Table 7

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3. EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents some problems that have been solved using the techniques previously described in this report. The object of this is twofold. First, by solving problems that have either well-established or "closed form" solutions, a partial validation of the method and some assessment of the accuracy of the solution can be made. Second, it presents examples of the type of problems arising in the HSST program that have been solved with these techniques.

The first section deals with 2-D problems, the second one with 3-D problems. Both sections start with a problem for which a closed form solution exists then deal with the problems arising in the HSST program.

3.2. Two-Dimensional Examples

Two problems will be discussed in this section. The first has a closed form solution and thus gives a rough assessment of the accuracy of the stress/displacement method. The second problem, one that arises in the HSST program, was solved using all the different approaches described in this report and the results have been compared.

3.2.1. Finite Length Strip With a Central Crack

The closed form solution of the centrally cracked strip has been given by Isida [17] and has been used extensively to verify numerical solutions. Such a strip with a crack-to-width ratio (a/w) of 0.10 and a length-to-width (ℓ/w) of 3 has been modeled with 14 elements and is shown in Figure 4. The

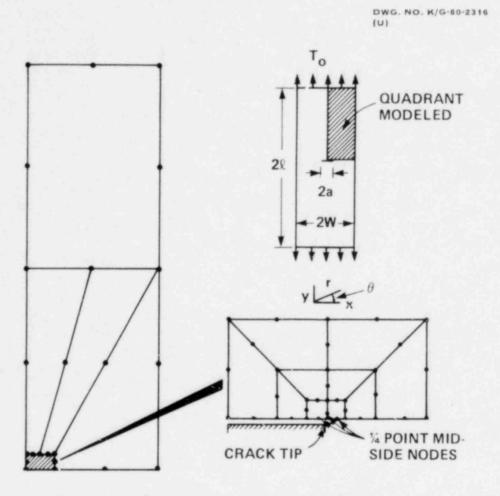


Figure 4. Finite element idealization for a centrally cracked strip

displacement method was used. The stress intensity factor K_I was normalized by dividing it by $T\sqrt{\pi a}$, ⁷ where T is the externally applied traction and 2a is the crack length (Figure 4). The theoretical value given by Isida is 1.006. The normalized stress intensity factor calculated from the displacements⁸ is plotted against r, the distance from the crack tip, and is shown in Figure 5. The two straight-line fits give the values obtained when using either two or three integration points⁹ in the FE code. The results for the two integration points are better (2% higher than theoretical) than three integration points (7% lower). Hellen [29,30] has reported results showing similar trends. Two integration points were used in all subsequent work of this type.

3.2.2. Long Axial Flaw in a Cylinder Under Thermal Shock

The cylinder analyzed is the one used in the TSE-4 experiment [19]. In this experiment, the test specimen was a cylinder of 0.533 m (21 in.) outside diameter, 0.241 m (9.5 in.) inside diameter, and 0.914 m (36 in.) long. The material was A508, class 2 with a quench only heat treatment (from 871°C). The long axial flaw was 11 mm (0.42 in.) deep. Initially, the whole cylinder was heated to 291°C (555°F) then the inside surface was suddenly cooled by a methyl alcohol/water mixture.

⁷The stress intensity factor for an infinite plate.

⁸All the FE analyses with the stress and displacement method were performed using the ADINA Code [18].

⁹Implying a 2 x 2 or 3 x 3 integration order in 2-D and 2 x 2 x 2 or 3 x 3 x 3 in 3-D integration order in 3-D.

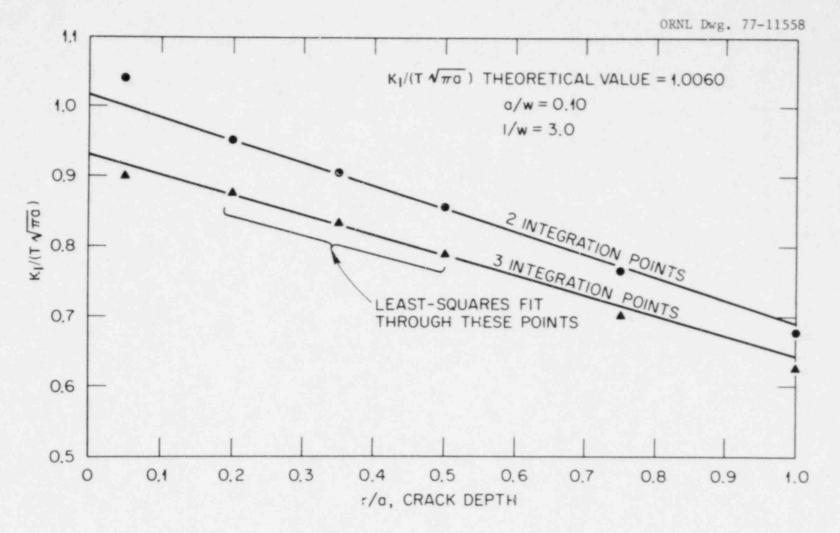


Figure 5. Estimates of K_{T} as calculated from nodal displacements

The coolant temperature was initially $-25^{\circ}C$ ($-13^{\circ}F$). The actual experimental temperatures obtained by the thermocouples on the cylinder during the transient were used in the calculation of K_I. The analysis was performed using two different codes, each with different techniques. The FMECH code utilizes energy-based techniques, but two slightly differing approaches were used.

The first approach with this code, which is documented in Reference [9], may be termed the "strain" energy approach and is based upon the fact that, in the absence of external forces, the PE and the internal strain energy are identical (see Eq. (3)). The displacements and stresses are first computed by the FMECH code and then the internal strain energy term is calculated from a quadratic expression in the stresses [9]. The other approach uses a more economical method described in Section 2.2. of this report and has been termed the "potential energy" approach. A typical mesh for both approaches is shown in Figure 6.

The mesh for the displacement method using the ADINA code is shown in Figure 7. The results of the analysis using all of these different approaches are given in Table 1. The maximum difference between the K_I values for any particular time interval is 7%. The results calculated by the potential energy approach are more accurate than those obtained by the strain energy method since fewer computations are performed and, therefore, round-off errors are less.

Considering the accuracy demonstrated by the stress/displacement method in Section 3.2., the close agreement between the

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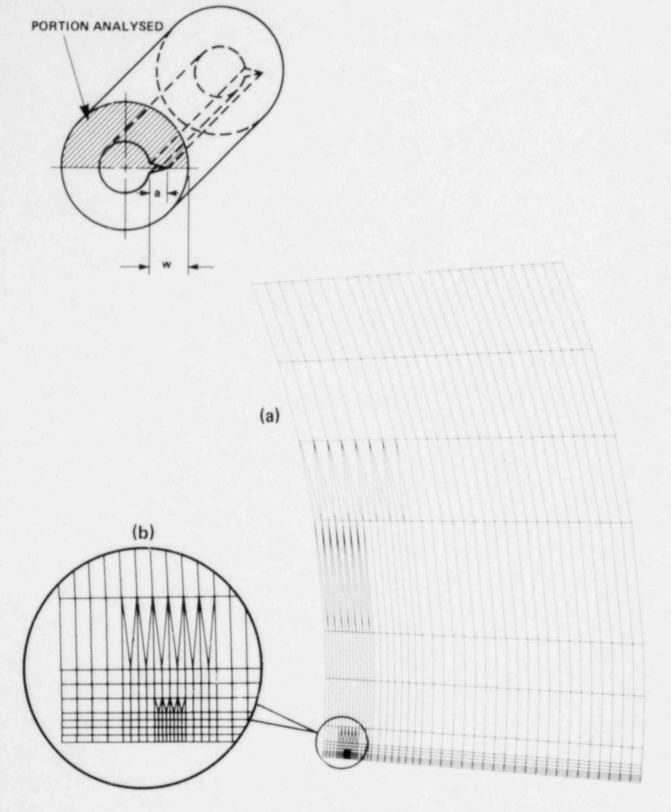


Figure 6. A typical FE mesh used with energy release methods

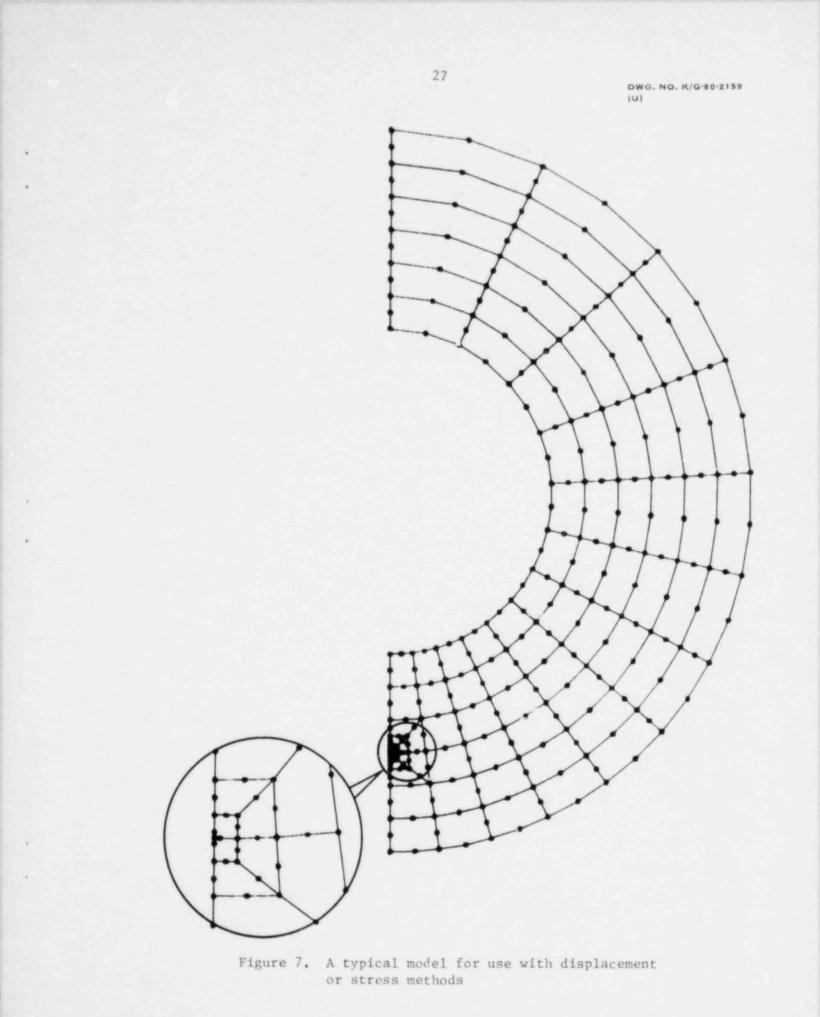


Table 1

Comparison of $K_{\rm I}$ obtained by energy release rate methods to those obtained by the displacement method

	$K_{I} M Pa \cdot m^{1/2} \left(ksi \cdot m^{1/2} \right)$			
Time in Transient (Minutes)	0.4	5.03	15.03	
Energy Release Rate Methods (FMECH Code)				
Strain Energy	26.9	94.3	69.0	
	(24.5)	(85.8)	(62.8)	
Potential Energy	27.8	97.1	71.1	
	(25.3)	(88.4)	(64.7)	
Displacement Method (ADINA Code)				
251 Nodes	25.1	90.7	66.5	
	(22.8)	(82.5)	(60.5)	
625 Nodes	25.5	91.2	66.9	
	(23.2)	(83.0)	(60.9)	

stress/displacement and the energy methods also indicates that the energy method gives good accuracy.

The main advantage of the energy method over the stress/displacement method is the high degree of automation that the former one lends itself to. Stress/displacement methods as described in this report require some manual effort: extracting the stresses or displacements at the proper locations, calculating the K_I values, plotting and extrapolating the values to r = 0. Some of this effort may be eliminated by automating some of it. However, an element of judgment will always still be required in fitting the straight line through the data points. The energy method on the other hand yields K_I values immediately.

3.3. Three-Dimensional Examples

In this section, analyses of some 3-D problems will be presented. Although the stress/displacement method is easily applied to 3-D problems, the usual difficulties of generating 3-D FE meshes become more acute in 3-D crack problems in which it is difficult to obtain the number of nodes necessary for a reasonable degree of accuracy and still remain within the available computer capacity. Some of the problems described here were close to the maximum size problems that could be handled with the software and hardware existing at the time.

A brief description of the mesh generation process is given in Appendix A, and the details of the FE modeling and analysis are given in Appendix B.

The questions of validating the model and the mesh for 3-D problems are the same as for 2-D problems. Partial verification of the overall method was obtained by solving the 3-D problem of an imbedded plane circular crack located centrally in a cylinder which has a closed form solution. The other examples presented are problems arising in the HSST program.

One of these problems, that of the variation of K_I axially along a longitudinal crack of uniform depth in cylinders of differing lengths, implicitly provides some verification of the results since, as the length increases, the stress intensity factors at mid-length should approach those of the corresponding 2-D plane strain problem.

Another problem presented arose during the pretest analysis of the V-8 cylinder. A part-through crack was to be produced on the outside surface of a cylinder in an HSST program test whose purpose was the determination of the influence of a residual stress field on the behavior of a flaw in a pressurized vessel.

3.3.1. Plane Circular Crack Located Centrally in a Cylinder

The closed form solution for the case of a long cylinder subjected to a uniform axial tensile load applied at the ends and stress-free cylindrical sides and a centrally located plane circular crack was obtained by Sneddon and Welch [20]. Values of K_I from that solution for Poisson's ratio of 0.25 have been reproduced in a graphical form by Rooke [21]. A particular case of such a cylinder was modeled and analyzed. Table 2 gives the dimensions, material properties, and loading used in the analysis. The axisymmetry of the problem allows a sector of any angular

Table 2

Dimensions and material properties used in the analysis of centrally cracked cylinder

Dimensions

Radius of cylinder	254 mm (10 in.)
Cracked radius	127 mm (5 in.)
Distance from crack plane to ends	812.8 mm (32 in.)

Macerial Properties

Young's modulus E 200 GPa (29 x 10^6 psi) Poisson's ray 0.25

Loading

End traction

68.9 MPa (10 ksi)

dimension to be analyzed, but the restrictions imposed by the code¹⁰ lead to the choice of a quarter of the cylinder to be modeled. Figure 8 shows the 2-D mesh used to generate the 3-D model shown in Figure 9. Details of the FE modeling and analysis are given in Appendix B.

The nodal displacements from the FE analysis are given in Table 3. As an illustration of the process of estimating K_I from these displacements, the term $u_z r^{-1/2}$ has been plotted in Figure 10. A best fit straight line extrapolated to r = 0 gives a value of

$$u_z r^{-1/2} \Big|_{r=0, \ \theta=\pi} = 7.14 \ x \ 10^{-3} \ mm^{1/2} \ 1.42 \ x \ 10^{-3} \ in^{1/2}$$

and the use of expression (15) yields a value of

$$K_{I} = 30.2 \text{ MPa} \cdot m^{1/2} (27.5 \text{ ksi} \cdot \text{in}^{1/2})$$

When this value is normalized by dividing by $2T\sqrt{a/\pi}$, the stress intensity factor for a plane circular crack of radius a in an infinite medium subjected to a uniform stress of T gives a value of 1.088. Rooke [19] gives a corresponding value of 1.074. Thus, the method gives values within 1.5% of the closed form solution. No convergence studies with differing mesh sizes were performed to insure that this result is not fortuitous. However, in the V-8 analysis described later in this report, convergence studies with a mesh similar to this one and a mesh with 50% more nodes

¹⁰ In the ADINA code, boundary conditions at the planes of symmetry can only be applied in directions parallel to the x-y-z coordinate axes.

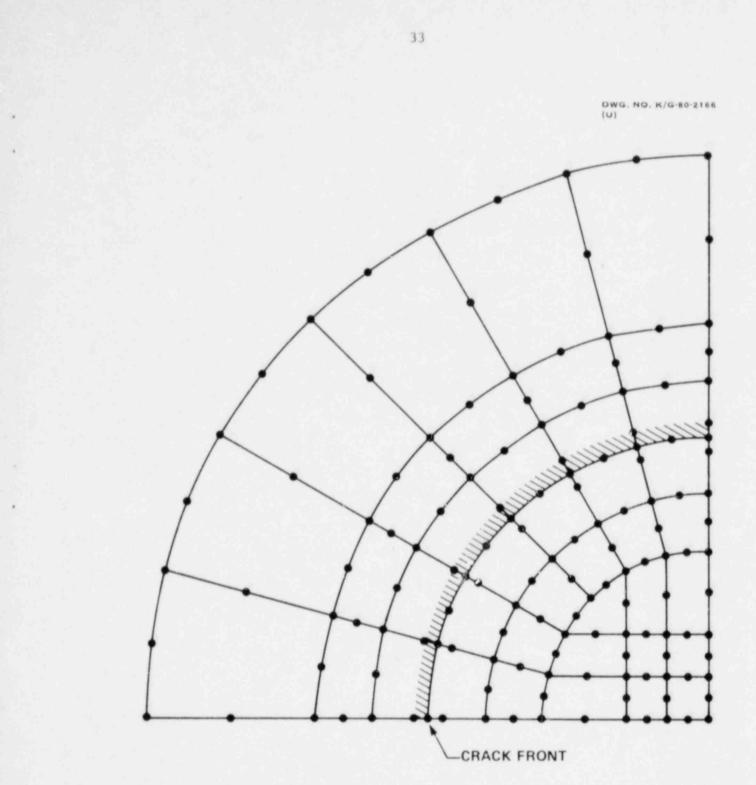


Figure 8. Two-dimensional mesh used to generate the 3-D FE mesh by propagating it normal to the plane of the paper. The resulting 3-D mesh, shown in Figure 9, was used for the analysis of the circular central crack

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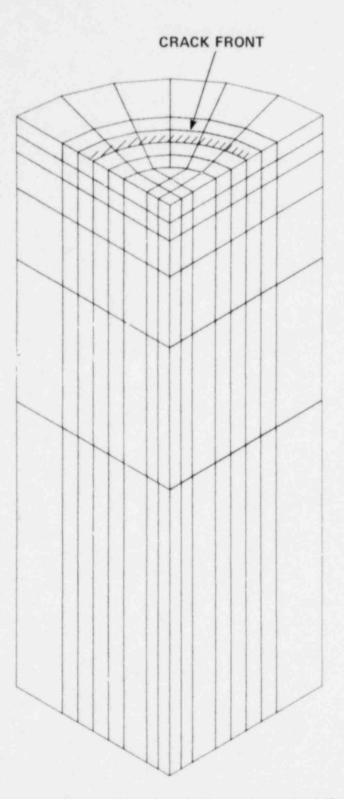


Figure 9. Three-dimensional FE mesh used with the circular crack problem

Table 3

	placements			Distance Crack
	in.	μm	in.	mm
x 10	.724	18.4	0.25	6.35
	1.310	33.3	1	25.4
	1.583	40.1	1.5	38.1
	1.773	45.0	2	50.8
	1.977	50.2	2.75	69.9
	2.112	53.6	3.5	88.9
	2.15-	54.8	3.875	98.4
	2.189	55.6	4.25	108
	2.208	56.1	4.625	117.5
	2.214	56.2	5	127

Nodal displacements from FE analysis for a central circular crack in the cylindrical bar with v = 0.25 (Ratio of crack-to-cylinder radii = 0.5)

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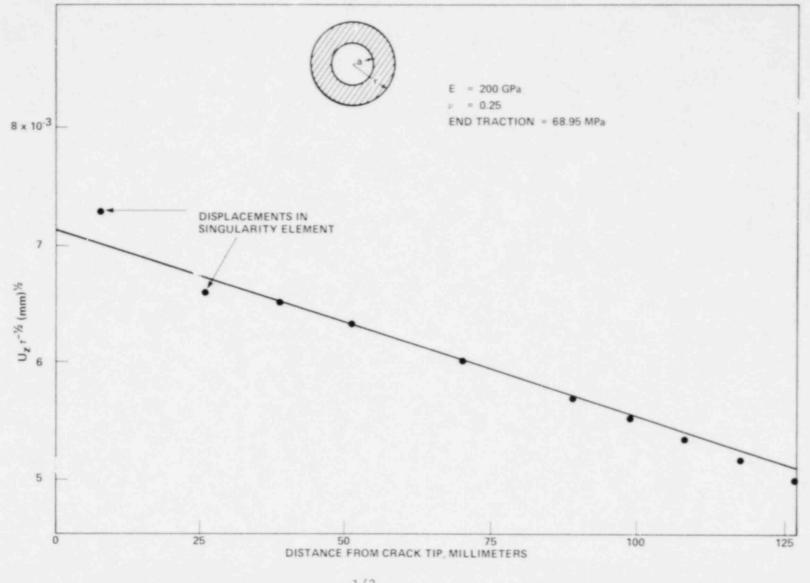


Figure 10. Plot of the $\rm u_{\rm z}~r^{-1/2}$ results from the circular crack problem

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were performed. The results of the finer mesh were almost identical to those from the coarser one.

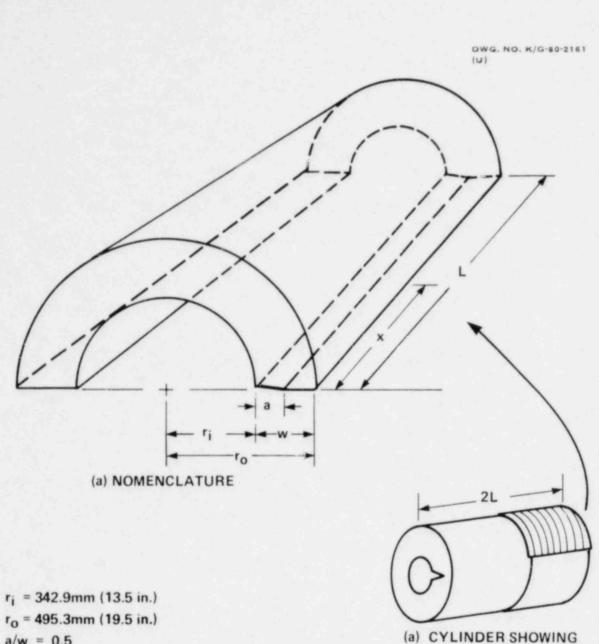
3.3.2. Variation of K_I in an Axially Cracked Cylinder Subjected to Thermal Shock (the End Effect Problem)¹¹

The object of this series of analyses was the determination of the effect of the free ends on the values of K_I for a specific thermal shock problem. The problem is that of a thick cylinder with an axial crack extending along the whole length, Figure 11(a). As the length of the cylinder increases, the K_I values along a central portion of the crack will approach the 2-D plane strain value. The problem of concern is to determine the minimum lengths that will satisfy a required relationship between the 2-D and 3-D K_T values over a specified central portion of the cylinder.

The cylinder analyzed has an inner radius of 343 mm and a wall thickness of 152 mm. It is initially at a uniform temperature of 129°C. The inside surface is quenched with coolant at -196°C. The thermal analysis was performed on a one-dimensional axisymmetric model using the HEATING5 [23] code with the data shown in Table 4 and some of the resulting temperature distributions through the wall thickness is given in Figure 12. The radial temperature distributions were used in the FE analysis of the cracked cylinder. Figure 11(b) shows the models¹² analyzed while Table 5 gives the cylinder lengths, times in the transient,

¹¹ If the ratio cylinder-length-to-outside-radius is of the same order of magnitude as unity, neither the plane strain nor the plane stress assumptions are useful and complete 3-D theory must be employed [22, p. 289].

¹²Details of the method of mesh generation and profile reduction are given in Appendix A. The 2-D mesh used to generate the 3-D meshes is similar to that shown in Figure 7.



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a/w = 0.5 FOR VALUES OF L SEE TABLE 6

(a) CYLINDER SHOWING CRACK GEOMETRY AND PORTION ANALYZED

Figure 11. Notation used in the end effects study: (a) geometry of the problem, (b) nomenclature

Table 4

Input data for HEATING5 analysis, case designation 13C (One-dimensional axisymmetric solution)

Cylinder Radii

Inside Outside	343 mm (13.5 in.) 495 mm (19.5 in.)
Initial Temperature	129 °C (264 °F)
Coolant Temperature	-196 °C (-320 °F)
Density	7.83 g.cm (489 1b. ft. ⁻³)
Conductivity	43.3 W·m ⁻¹ ·K ⁻¹ (25 Btu·hr ⁻¹ ·ft ⁻¹ .°F ⁻¹)

Specific Heat^a

	SI		US Units
°C	J•Kg ⁻¹ K ⁻¹	°F	Btu·1b ⁻¹ °F ⁻¹
-184	184	-300	0.044
-157	251	-250	0.060
-129	312	-200	0.0745
-101	356	-150	0.085
- 73	385	-100	0.092
- 46	406	- 50	0.097
- 18	423	0	0.101
38	452	100	0.108
93	479	200	0.1145
149	503	300	0.1202
204	528	400	0.1260
260	551	500	0.1315
316	574	600	0.1370

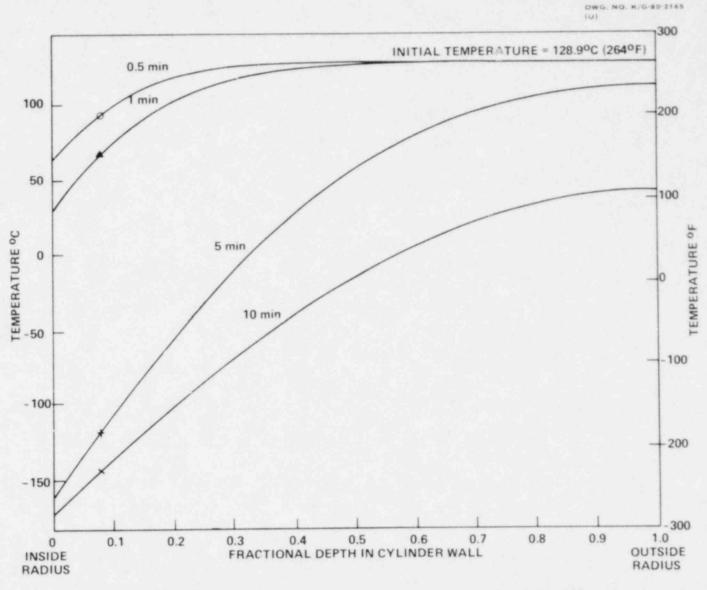
Table 4 (Contd.)

°cb	<u>kW·m⁻² K⁻¹</u>	°F ^b Btu	•hr ⁻¹ ft ⁻² °F ⁻¹
-176	5.31	~285	936
-162	4.05	-260	714
-148	3.01	-235	530
-134	2.22	-210	391.2
-121	1.64	-185	288
-107	1.21	-160	213.6
- 92.8	0.886	-135	156
- 78.9	0.668	-110	117.6
- 71.9	0.586	- 97.5	103.2
- 65	0.531	- 85	93.6
- 58.1	0.511	- 72.5	90

Surface Heat Transfer Coefficient^a

 ${}^{\mathrm{a}}\mathrm{For}$ temperatures outside this range, the values at the end of the table are used.

^bThese are the film temperatures used by the HEATING5 code, and are the average of the surface temperature and the coolant temperature.



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Figure 12. Temperature distributions calculated by HEATING5 and used in the end effects study

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Data used in the free-end-effects study on cylinders

Temperature distribution designation

Nominal Ax	ial Lengths 2L				Time in T	ransient
mm	(in.)				minu	
406	(16)				5	
686	(27)				5	
914	(36)				1, 5	, 10
1219	(48)				5 5 1, 5 5	
Radii						
Inside					343 mm (1	
Outside					495 mm (19	9.5 in.)
Vatorial P						
naterial r	roperties					
		Е	193 GPa	(28 x 1	0 ⁶ psi)	
Young's mo	dulus		0.0	(28 x 1		
Young's mo	dulus		0.0			0 ⁻⁶ °F ⁻¹
Young's mo Poisson's Coefficien	dulus ratio t of linear expa		0.3 11.7 x			0 ⁻⁶ °F ⁻¹
Young's mo Poisson's Coefficien	dulus ratio t of linear expa	v ansion α	0.3 11.7 x 0.5	10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻		
Young's mo Poisson's Coefficien Fractional	dulus ratio t of linear expa	ν nnsion α a/w	0.3 11.7 x 0.5	10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻ Values M	¹ (6.5 x 10	
Young's mo Poisson's Coefficien Fractional	dulus ratio t of linear expa crack depth ansient (Minutes	ν nnsion α a/w	0.3 11.7 x 0.5 <u>2-D K_I</u> 0.5 21.6	10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻ Values M 1 37.4	$1 (6.5 \times 10^{10})$ Pa·m ^{1/2} (ksi) 5 180.2	•in. ¹ /2) 10 149.4
Young's mo Poisson's Coefficien Fractional Time in Tr	dulus ratio t of linear expa crack depth ansient (Minutes	ν nnsion α a/w	0.3 11.7 x 0.5 <u>2-D K_I</u> 0.5 21.6	10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻ Values M 1 37.4	$\frac{1}{\text{Pa}\cdot\text{m}^{\prime\prime}}\left(\text{ksi}\right)$	•in. ¹ /2) 10 149.4
Young's mo Poisson's Coefficien Fractional Fime in Tr	dulus ratio t of linear expa crack depth ansient (Minutes nt Method	ν nnsion α a/w	0.3 11.7 x 0.5 <u>2-D K₁</u> 0.5 21.6 (19.7) 19.56	10 ⁻⁶ °C ⁻¹ Values M 1 37.4 (34.0) 38.3	$1 (6.5 \times 10^{10})$ Pa·m ^{1/2} (ksi) 5 180.2	•in. ^{1/2}) 10 149.4 (136) 150.4

13C

the material properties, and the 2-D plane strain K_{I} values. These K_{I} values were calculated using both the energy and the displacement methods. The results are very close to each other, an indication of the accuracy of either method.

The results of calculations for 914 mm (36 in.) length and three different times in the transient (1, 5, and 10 minutes) are shown in Figure 13. The 3-D K_I values (K_{I3D}) were normalized by dividing them by the 2-D K_I value (K_{I2D}).

It appears that for this particular problem the end effects are largely independent of the time in the transient. Thus, calculations for other cylinder lengths were made for a single time in the transient.

The results of analyzing different cylinder lengths are shown in Figure 14. The K_I values near the mid-length are all greater than the corresponding 2-D value, except for the very short cylinder. In the shortest cylinders, the K_{I3D} values never attained the K_{I2D} values. For the longer cylinders, the K_{I3D} values exceeded K_{I2D} for some portion of the cylinder length and then dropped rapidly to zero. The percentage of the cylinder length with K_{I3D} values within \pm 15% of K_{I2D} was 23%, 47%, 67%, and 73% for the 406, 686, 914, and 1219 mm cylinders.

It may be worth noting that the free ends rotate inwards so that the ends appear to be concave, with the deepest point towards the inside radius (Figure 15). This is, of course, due to the inside being cooler than the outside, which tends to result in closing of the crack near the ends. In the 3-D

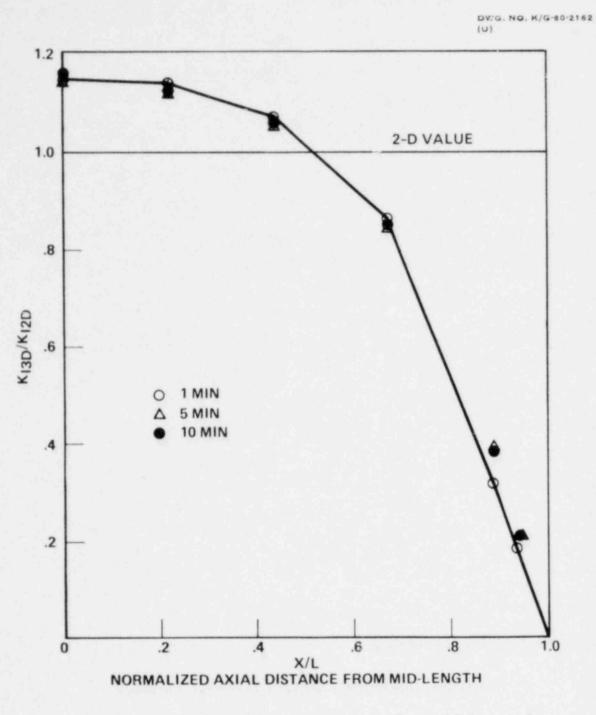


Figure 13. Variation of K_I with distance from mid-length for different times in the transient for the 914 mm (36 in.) cylinder

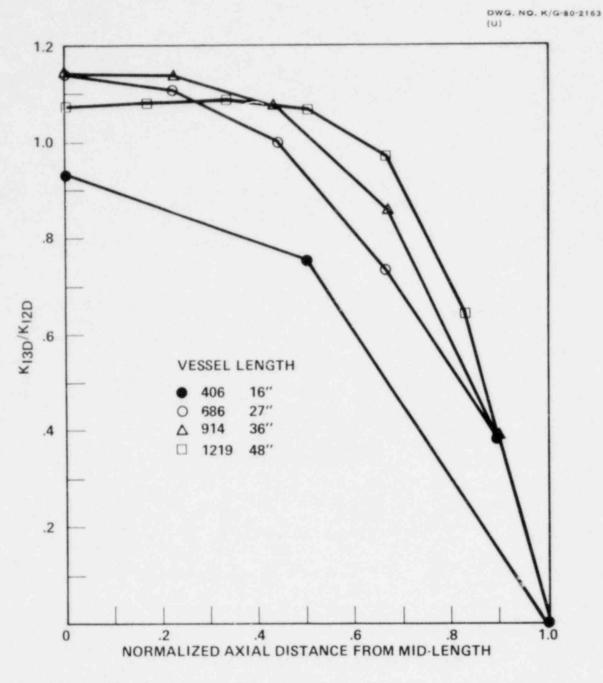
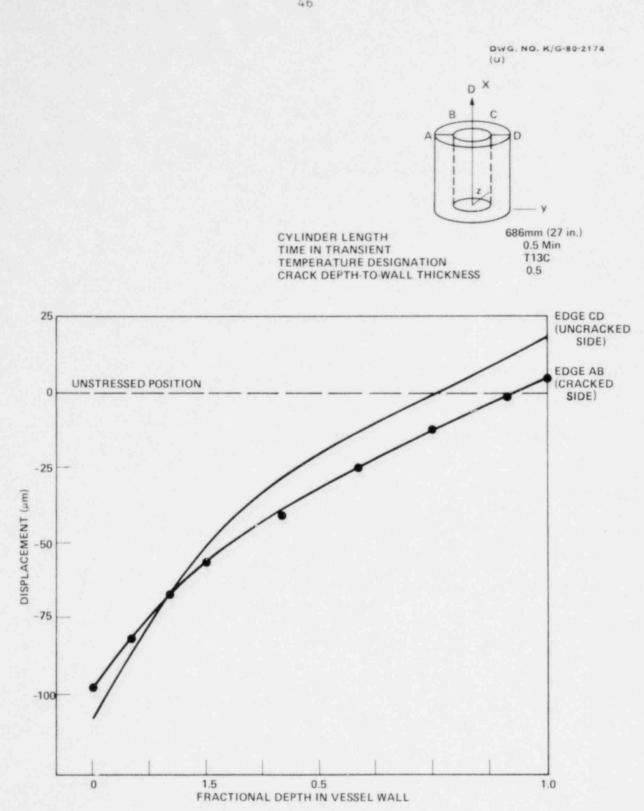


Figure 14. Variation of $K_{\rm I}$ with axial distance from mid-length for different cylinder lengths



Axial displacements at the free end of radial lines Figure 15. on the plane of symmetry

analysis, the nodes on the crack front were free to move and the two nodes at the end of the cylinder and closest to the crack root moved in such a way as to have "crossed" over the line of symmetry (see Figure 16). Such an anomalous behavior, of course, has no physical reality since the other face of the crack will prevent such an occurrence. This effect can be prevented by the use of crack elements, gap elements, etc. However, a simple stratagem was to fix *a priori* the nodes that had exhibited such a behavior in a previous analysis. This was tried out and had a negligible effect on the K_{I3D} values. The tendency of the nodes at the free ends and closest to the crack tip to close took place in all the cylinder lengths analyzed and, hence, the K_{I3D} values at the free ends were assigned zero values.

3.3.3. Analysis of the V-8 Cylinder

Another example of the 3-D fracture mechanics analysis is that performed on a cylindrical vessel designated as V-8. This vessel was tested in 1979 as a part of the ongoing HSST program, and full details may be found in Reference [24] with a summary in Reference [25]. It consists of an internally pressurized cylinder, closed at the ends, and with an external flaw.

Figure 17 gives the dimensions of the V-8 cylinder and the associated crack as modeled. Symmetry allowed the modeling of only one quarter of the cylinder. As explained in Appendix A, a 2-D mesh is produced from which the 3-D one is generated. Furthermore, the 2-D mesh itself is composed of two separate portions (coarse and fine) that are later merged together, as illustrated in Figure 18.

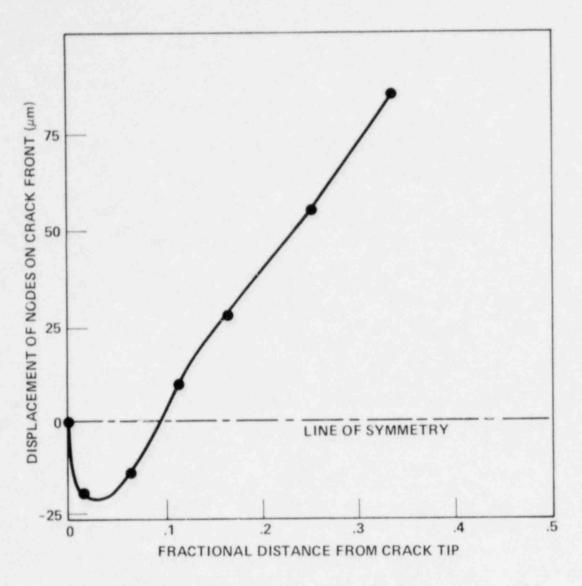
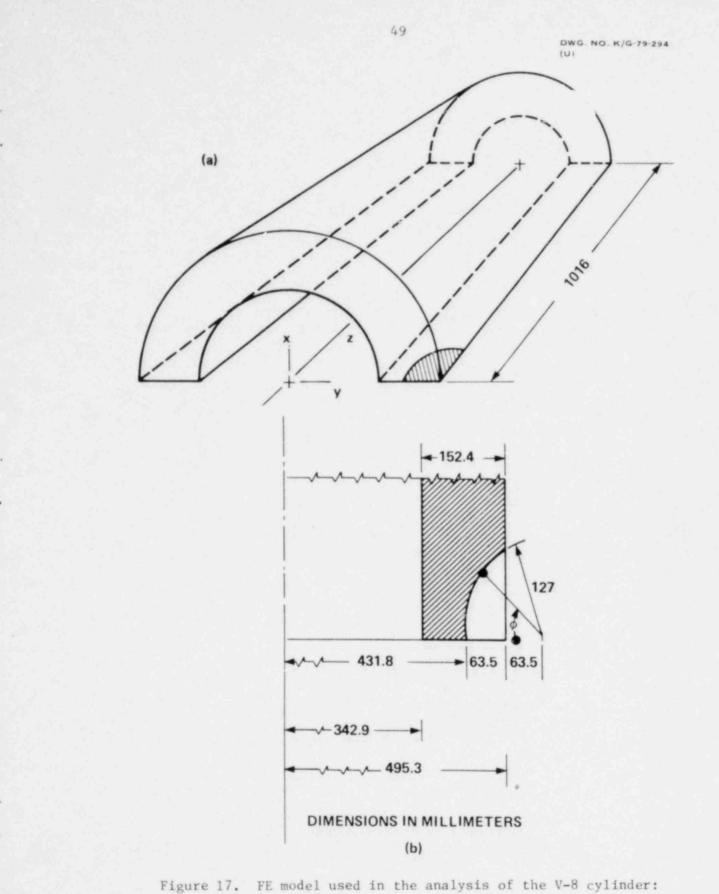


Figure 16. Anomaly in crack opening displacements near the free end

DWG. NO. K/G-80-2172

(u)



⁽a) quarter cylinder analyzed, (b) crack geometry

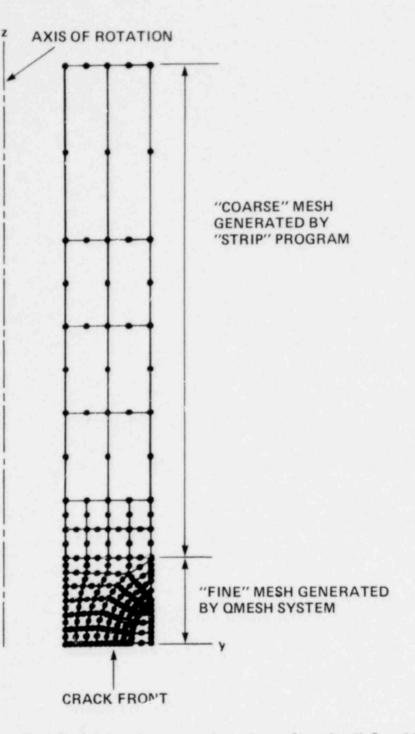


Figure 18. Two-dimensional __nerating plane for the V-8 cylinder analysis showing the "fine" and "coarse" mesh regions

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DWG. NO. K/G-80-2175

(1)

For the purpose of a convergence study, two FE models were analyzed in which the basic 2-D meshes of the cylinder wall differed in the "fine mesh" region (Figure 18) close to the flaw. The "coarse mesh" portion was the same for both meshes. The 2-D models of the fine mesh region are shown in Figures 19 and 20, and these are designated Mesh 1 and Mesh 2, respectively. Mesh 2 produced about 50% more degrees of freedom (DOF) in the 3-D mesh. The 3-D meshes were generated from these 2-D meshes as described in the Appendix A. Figure 21 illustrates such a 3-D mesh generated from Mesh 1. The angles subtended by the elements in the circumferential direction and u ed to generate the 3-D meshes, the number of nodes, elements, DOF, etc., together with the computer resources required in the analyses are given in Appendix B.

Under an internal pressure of 69 MPa (10 ksi) the nodal displacement at the outside surface of the cylinder at the center of the crack for Mesh 1 and Mesh 2 were 99.5 μ m (3.92 x 10⁻³ in.) and 99.8 μ m (3.93 x 10⁻³ in.), respectively, a change of about 0.25%. It was concluded that no significant benefit would be realized in analyzing the finer mesh.

The four analyses performed are summarized in Table 6; the resulting displacements normal to both the crack face and the crack front at various angles θ (Figure 17(b)) are given in Table 7. These displacements were used to calculate the K_I values given in Table 8 by means of the displacement method described in Chapter 2. These K_I values were compared to those calculated by other methods [24, Table 4.6]. It appears that the K_I values calculated by the method described above are accurate.

DWG. NO. K/G-80-2167

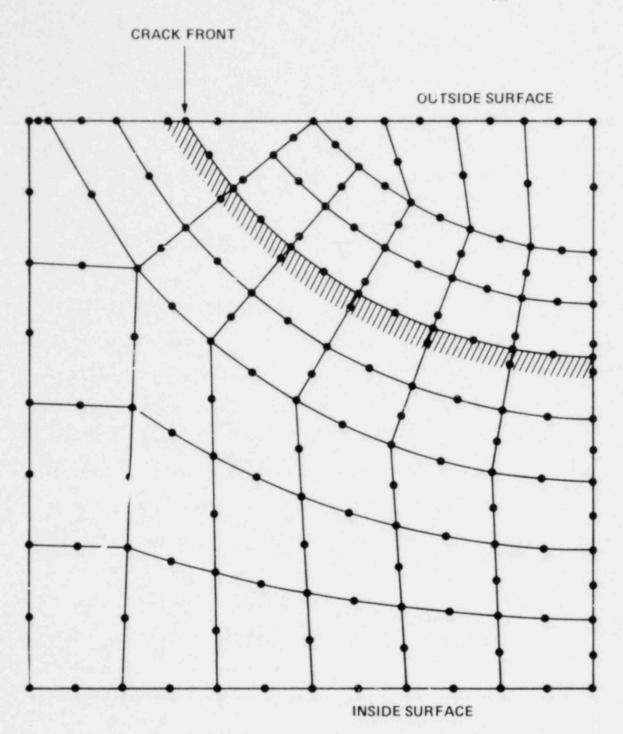


Figure 19. Two-dimensional "fine" mesh portion of the generating plane (Mesh 1) for the V-8 cylinder

DWG. NO. K/G-80-2169

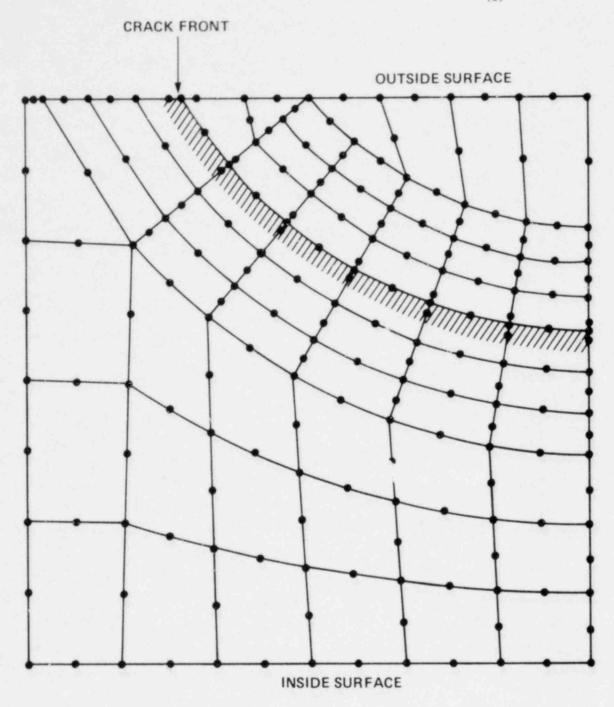


Figure 20. Two-dimensional "fine" mesh portion of the generating plane (Mesh 2) for the V-8 cylinder with more nodes than Mesh 1

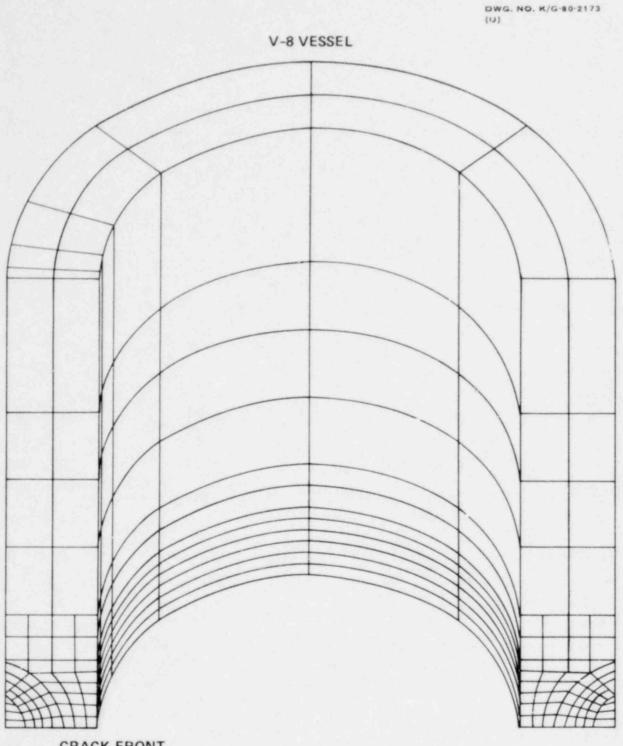




Figure 21. Three-dimensional mesh generated from that shown in Figure 18 for the V-8 cylinder analysis

Table 6

Cases analyzed for V-8 test^a

Young's ModulusE = 200 GPaPoisson's Ratiov = 0.29

ase Number	Loading
1	Internal pressure 68.95 MPa
2	Ditto, using finer Mesh No. 2
3	Uniform Pressure on Crack Surface 58.95 MPa
4	Pressure on Crack surface varying linearly from 127.6 MPa at the deepest point in the flaw corresponding to a radius of 431.8 mm to 255 MPa at the outside radius of 495.3

 a Except for Case 2, these were all performed using Mesh No. 1.

T			

Nodal d	lispla	acements (obtai	ned	from	FE	analysis	of
the	e V-8	cylinder	for	the	four	loa	d cases	

Internal	Load Case Pressure 68.95 M	e 1 4Pa with Mesh No. 1	
Node Designation ^a	2	3	4
r mm	14.10	21.15	28.19
Angle ¢	No	dal Displacements)	im
0	47.22	57.58	65.58
10	47.09	57.45	65.46
20	46.74	57.05	65.13
30	46.08	56.34	64.59
40	45.01	55.22	63.86
50	42.47	52.93	62.89

Load Case 2 Internal Pressure 68.95 MPa and "Finer" Mesh (Mesh No. 2)

Node Designation ^a	2	3	4	5	6
r mm	9.53	14.10	18.80	23.50	28.19
Angle ϕ		Nodal D	isplaceme	ents µm	
0	38.40	47.63	54.58	60.50	65.80
10	38.30	47.47	54.43	60.38	65.74
20	37.95	47.09	54.03	59.99	65.41
30	37.31	46.38	53.31	59.33	64.90
40	36.32	45.24	52.22	58.42	64.24
50	33.99	43.13	50.67	57.48	64.29

Table 7 (Contd.)

Crack Surface Pressu	Load Case with a Uni		8.95 MPa		
Node Designation ^a	2	3	4		
r mm	14.10	21.15	28.19		
Angle ¢	Nodal Displacements µm				
0	23.61	28.96	33.20		
10	23.59	28.93	33.17		
20	23.54	28.88	33.15		
30	23.40	28.73	33.07		
40	23.11	28.42	32.94		
50	21.98	27.38	32.54		

Load Case 4 Crack Surface Pressurized with a Linearly Varying Pressure, 127.6 MPa at Crack Root and 255.1 MPa at Outer Surface

Node Designation ^a	2	3	4		
r mm	14.10	21.15	28.19		
Angle ¢	Nodal Displacements µm				
0	65.13	82.19	97.08		
10	65.66	82.78	97.71		
20	67.23	84.51	99.52		
30	69.55	87.02	102.21		
40	72.06	89.79	105.38		
50	71.96	90.09	107.49		

^aThese node designations are indicated in Figure 3. Displacements at node 1 are inaccurate as mentioned in text.

-			-		-	
T	-	Ŀ.,	т.	275	<u>sa</u> .	
	a	C.X.	a.	62	 0	
			-	-	-	

 $K^{}_{\rm I}$ in MNm^-3/2 as a function of φ^a

Case Load	Angle φ					
	_0°	10°	20°	<u>30°</u>	40°	50°
1	55.2	55.5	54.9	53.5	52.0	46.4
2	55.7	55.9	55.7	53.7	52.2	47.4
3	48.3	48.3	47.9	47.7	47.5	43.2
4	71.4	71.9	73.8	76.7	80.1	78.2

 $^{\rm a}60^{\, o}$ is the point at the free surface.

4. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The energy and stress/displacement methods used to calculate K_I in 2- and 3-D problems have been documented in this report. These methods have been used for solving problems of interest to the HSST program. The stress/displacement methods are based upon the near field equations relating the stresses and displacements to the stress intensity factors. Some approximation is involved in the use of these equations, namely, the higher order terms are neglected since these terms are, in general, unknown. The term used is valid only in the "vicinity" of the crack. It was therefore important to validate the method through the solution of test problems with closed form solutions. The resulting methodology was used successfully for the solution of both 2- and 3-D problems, some of which have been presented in this report.

Energy methods described in this report do not involve such an approximation at the theoretical level. The approximations made are those associated with the numerical methods used and the resulting errors apply to both energy and stress/displacement methods. As such, energy methods are more reliable and accurate than stress/displacement methods. Their main limitation is the practicability of their application to 3-D problems.

This report also discussed the errors that may arise if the strain energy is used in place of the potential energy in problems where both mechanical and thermal loads occur.

Examples of 2- and 3-D problems solved have been presented. For 2-D problems, these have been solved by both energy and displacement methods, and the results of either method compare well with each other.

This indicates that the methods as applied to the type of problems described in this report are accurate and reliable.

One of the errors that may arise in the FE method is that associated with a sufficiently fine mesh, especially in the vicinity of steep stress gradients such as those associated with cracks. Some assurance that an adequately fine mesh was used has been obtained by means of limited convergence studies in which the same problem was solved with two meshes, one of which had more degrees of freedom than the other. No significant change in the results was observed.

The energy methods as implemented in the FMECH code use a fournoded quadrilateral, and the mesh in the crack region is fine enough to allow the depth of the crack to be changed by the small amount ΔA by means of releasing the node at the crack root. This method was preferred to altering the coordinates of crack root node by a small amount to achieve the same purpose because altering the coordinates will distort the two elements sharing that node with a possible loss in accuracy in that region. The stress/displacement method uses an eight-noded 1/4-point element. In terms of computer resources, the eight-noded element is more efficient than a four-noded element. However, the total effort required to compute K_{I} using the stress/displacement method is more than that required for the energy method since the former requires some manual effort. However, for the 3-D problems the stress/displacement method has proven useful since it is easily implemented if a suitable FE code is available and once the required input data is prepared.

In conclusion, each of the methods discussed in this report have their advantages and limitations, but within these limitations both methods are capable of yielding K_T values within about $\pm 5\%$ accuracy.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

FINITE ELEMENT MESH GENERATION AND PROFILE REDUCTION

1. Mesh Generation

One important task (in fact, one of the most time-consuming ones in FE modeling) is that of mesh generation. A large number of codes were written, others acquired and implemented, to facilitate this task.

For the cases described in this report, the geometry of the problem allows 3-D meshes to be generated from 2-D ones. By rotating the 2-D mesh, such as that shown in Figure 18 about an axis lying in its plane, a 3-D one may be obtained (Figure 21). Similarly, by propagating a 2-D one, such as that shown in Figure 8, in a direction normal to its plane, the 3-D mesh shown in Figure 9 is produced.

The mesh generating effort may be conveniently divided into two tasks. The first will be termed the "2-D level" and consists of generating the 2-D mesh. The second task, the "3-D level" one, comprises taking the 2-D mesh and producing from it the 3-D mesh.

At the 2-D level, the most important task was the coding of a mesh plotting program and implementing it on the time-sharing PDP-10 system [26]. All the 2-D plots shown in this report were produced by this package. It is capable of plotting the whole structure or, by means of user-defined coordinate limits, it can plot certain areas of the mean thereby "zooming" on detailed areas. The node and element numbers may be displayed or suppressed.

This 'lows the analyst to generate and view the mesh. If it is deemed unsatisfactory, the whole process may be repeated. A satisfactory

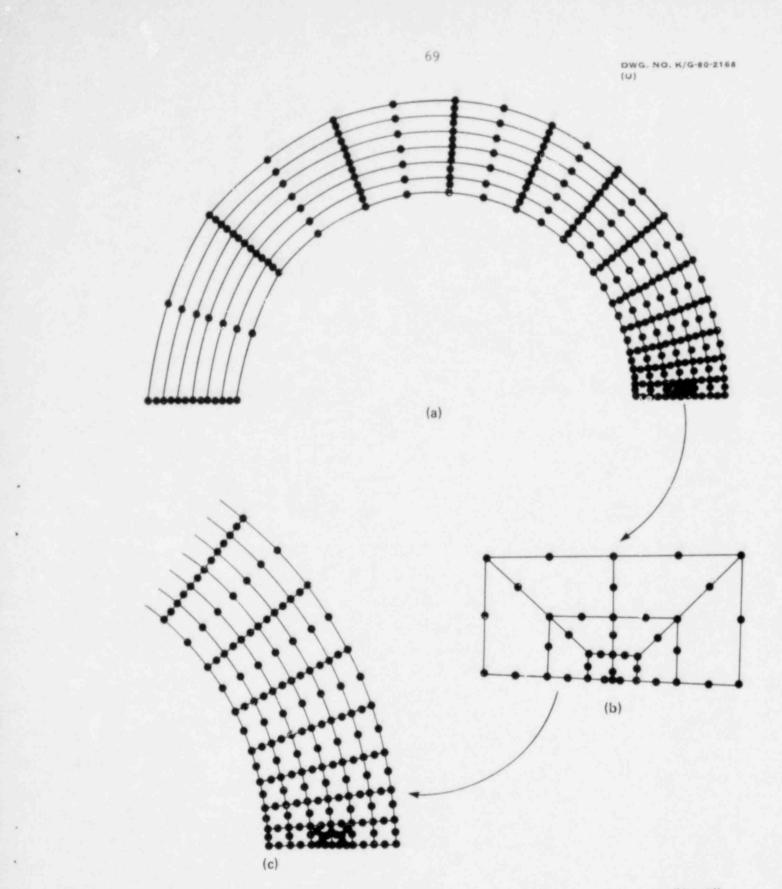
mesh may be produced in less than an hour. A similar process, when attempted in a batch mode, would take several days to complete.

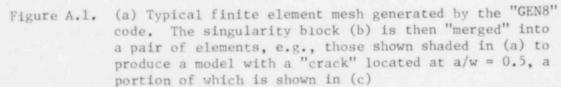
Generation of the 2-D models of cylinders is accomplished by means of the GEN8 code [26], producing semicircular annuli similar to that shown in Figure A.1(a). The number of elements in the radial and circumferential directions, geometric progression factors for both these directions, and the inside and outside radii are the input parameters.

Strips such as that shown in Figure A.2 have been useful in the modeling process. The centrally cracked strip and the coarse mesh portion of the V-8 cylinder model (both mentioned earlier in this report) as well as many others have been generated by the "STRIP" code [26]. This allows the user to define the number of elements horizontally and vertically as well as their dimensions. The number of horizontal elements may be doubled in number as the mesh is generated vertically down, with a onetime transition from four to five elements possible. This allows a mesh to be produced that can be made finer in regions of high stress gradients.

A third code "MERGE" [26] swaps any two elements designated by the user with a so-called singularity block (Figure A.1(b) and A.2(b)) to produce automatically the 1/4-point singularity elements surrounding the crack tip (Figures A.1(c) and A.2(c)).

The "QMESH" system [27], a very useful tool that generates more complex 2-D meshes, was implemented and used to generate the meshes used, for example, in the centrally cracked circular bar and the V-8 cylinder. Being a general-purpose package, it is, however, too unwieldy to use for simple meshes such as those mentioned above and local mesh refinements are difficult to accomplish.





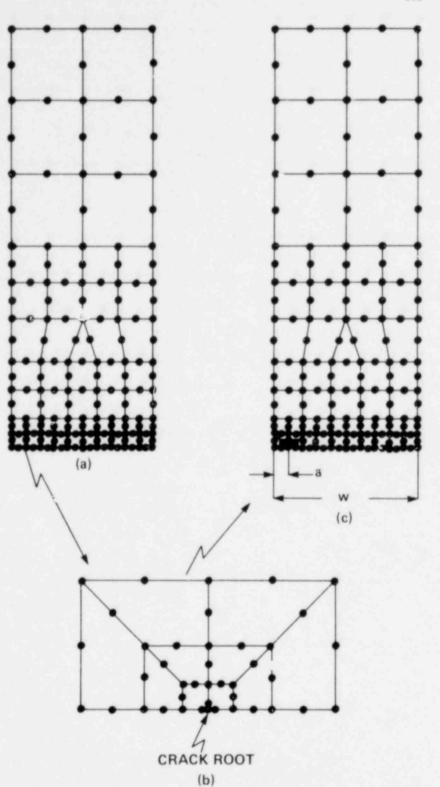


Figure A.2. (a) Example of type of mesh produced by STRIP code, and the incorporation of the singularity block (b) by the MERGE code to produce the mesh (c) used in numerical experiments on the center cracked or edge notched bars. Note that the singularity block can be relocated at different positions giving in this case nine "specimens" with a/w = 0.1 through a/w = 0.9

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The generation of 3-D meshes from any of the above 2-D meshes is accomplished by means of the 3-D and V-8 codes [26]. These codes also produce output that allows the user to relate the 3-D models to the 2-D ones. It also produces output identifying element faces in a particular area, if desired. Such output would be useful in the FE analysis of pressure loaded structures, e.g., the V-8 cylinder analysis mentioned in Chapter 3.

The concept of the subdivision of a major task into smaller ones has allowed a considerable amount of modularity in coding the various programs. Furthermore, it permits the user to monitor the satisfactory completion of one task before proceeding to the next one. A major drawback of the 3-D mesh generation codes described above is that *the whole mesh is penalized* by the presence, at the 2-D level, of the fine mesh in the crack region which is then propagated into the third dimension. It is more efficient to implement a merging scheme at the 3-D level similar to that shown in Figures A.1 and A.2 for 2-D meshes. For 3-D meshes, the process is accomplished in three steps. The first consists of generating a relatively coarse mesh for the 3-D structure to be analyzed. Then, a "block" containing the finer mesh required to adequately model the crack region is generated. The final stage would be to merge this block into the mesh for the 3-D structure.

2. Profile Reduction

The bandwidth of automatically generated meshes is, generally speaking, larger than necessary. This condition not only leads to uneconomical FE analyses but, in some instances, to cases impossible

to run on the computer. This is caused primarily by the very high number of input/output (I/O) operations necessary to store and solve out-of-core the large system of linear equations occurring in the FE method of analysis. This, in turn, causes large wall clock times (WCT) during which large segments of memory (1750K) are tied up for say, 10 hours, and unacceptable amounts of scratch disk space are required. Thus, it is imperative to optimize the node numbering scheme. This is accomplished by means of the computer code "REDUCE" [28].

As an illustration of some of the computer resources saved by optimizing the node numbering scheme of the FE models, some pertinent numbers from two separate analyses are given in Tables A.1 and A.2. The problem analyzed is the circular crack described earlier in this report. The "before" refers to values associated with the meshes as generated (i.e., with unoptimized meshes) while the "after" are values associated with the optimized meshes. The figures were compiled from the data generated by the ADINA and the REDUCE codes. These figures show a reduction of 20% to 47% in the computer resources required. The example problem selected was a small one. In cases like that of Mesh 2 of the V-8 analysis, the savings were significant enough to have made the difference between the feasibility or nonfeasibility of the FE analysis.

Table A.1

Effect of node renumbering on the IBM 360/195 computer resources required by the ADINA computer code (Approx. 1700K memory used)^a

Number of Nodes 1286 Number of Elements 234

Before	After	% Reduction
1.897x10 ⁰	1.498x10 ⁶	21
1415	962	32
552	436	21
29	23	21
14	9	36
39	28	28
70	37	47
\$87	\$58	33
	1.897×10 ⁶ 1415 552 29 14 39 70	552 436 29 23 14 9 39 28 70 37

^aPlane Circular Crack problem.

^bOn the IBM 360/195 MVT environment, this can vary widely.

^CPrinted output to tape.

Table A.2

REDUCE code data

	Half-i	Half-Bandwidth		Profile	Profile (approx.) ^a			CPU Cost ^b	
	Before	After	%	Before	After	%			
Circular Cra	ck 506	331	35	256,000	193,000	25	6	28	
Mesh No. 1 ^C	1270	626	51	653,000	392,000	40	6	44	
Mesh No. 2	1656	593	64	1,278,000	777,000	39	24	115	

^aProfile is the sum of the number of terms in the so-called "sky-line", based on the element connectivity, not upon the actual number of DOF.

^bIncludes print cost.

CIBM FORTRAN EXTENDED PLUS compiler generated object code.

APPENDIX B

DETAILS OF THE FE MCDELING AND ANALYSIS

In this appendix, details of the FE modeling and analysis are given. Apart from documenting the data used in the 3-D analyses described in Chapter 3, this information has proven useful as a basis for estimating the computer resources required for other similar 3-D computations. This information is important since an upper-limit estimate of the computer resources required in a particular run must be declared before the run is made.

Table B.1

Data used to propagate meshes from 2-D into 3-D

Analysis		Propagation	No. of Elements in 3rd Dimension	Element Thickness or Angular Dimension	Total
Circular Crack		Axial	6	25.4, 25.4, 50.8, 101.6, 203, 406 mm	813 mm.
				(1, 1, 2, 4, 8, 16 in.)	(32 in.)
End Effects Cylinder	s	Axial			
Nominal Lengths 2L m	um (in.)				
406	(16)		2	2 x 101.6 mm (2 x 4 in.)	203 mm (8 in.)
686	(27)		6	3 x 76.2 mm + 3 x 38.1 mm (3 x 3 in. + 3 x 1.5 in.)	343 mm (13.5 in.
914	(36)		6	4 x 101.6 mm x 2 x 25.4 mm (4 x 4 in. + 2 x 1 in.)	457 mm (18 in.)
1219	(48)		6	6 x 101.6 mm (6 x 4 in.)	610 mm (24 in.)
V-8 Cylinder		Circumfer- ential			
Mesh No. 1			7	3°, 6°, 12°, 24°, 3 x 45°	180°
Mesh No. 2			9	1°, 2°, 4°, 6°, 10°, 22°, 3 x 45°	180°

Table B.2

Miscellaneous data of interest related to the 3-D FE analysis using the ADINA code^a (Fast Memory Used 1700K Bytes)

	Circular Crack Problem	End Effects Study Cylinder Lengths, mm			V-8 Cylinder	
		406 ^b	686 ^c	914 ^d	Mesh No. 1	Mesh No. 2
Nodes	1286	1045	2573	2573	2328	3456
Elements	234	160	480	480	434	666
Equations (Degrees of Freedom)	3439	2726	7179	7179	6389	9603
Matrix Elements in millions (approx.)	1.5	0.64	3.2	3.2	3.1	6.2
Max. Half Bandwidth	962	509	900	900	1789	1543
Mean Half Bandwidth	436	231	943	943	485	645
Max. Block Size	67565	60127	39386	39386	44354	29226
Number of Blocks	29	11	82	82	71	216
CPU Time (Minutes) IBM 360/195	9	3.1	27	28	22	63
I/C (Thousands) ^e	28	46	50	175	105	492
Wall Clock Time (Minutes) ^f	37	90	175	250	125	585
Approximate Cost (\$)	58	57	178	235 ^g	165 ^g	6008

 $^{\rm a}{\rm Object}$ code obtained with the IBM FORTRAN H compiler. This version still had the sequential I/O routines.

^b1500K region and 3K blocking factor for scratch units, unoptimized profile.

^COne time step of the transient (also applies to 1219 mm cylinder).

d_{Three time steps of the transient.}

eDepends upon blocking factor of the scratch units.

^fIn an "Multiprogramming with a Variable Number of Tasks" (MVT) environment, this can vary considerably for identical runs.

^gPrinted output to tape.

Conversion Factors for Units Used in This Report (Reference: Metric Practice ASTM E380-76)

To Conv	ert From	То	Multiply By	
Stress/Pressure	lbf·in ⁻² (psi)	kPa(kN·m ⁻²)	6.894 757	
Stress Intensity Factor	ksi.in ^{-1/2}	$MPa \cdot m^{1/2} (MN \cdot m^{-3/2})$	1.098 843	
Coefficient of Heat Transfer	$Btu \cdot h^{-1} \cdot ft^{-2} \cdot \circ F^{-1}$	W·m ⁻² ·K ⁻¹	5.678 263	
Heat Capacity	Btu·lb ⁻¹ ·°F ⁻¹	kJ·kg ⁻¹ ·K ⁻¹	4.186 800	
Thermal Conductivity	Btu.h ⁻¹ .ft ⁻² .°F ⁻¹	w·m ⁻¹ ·K ⁻¹	1.730 735	
Density	lb.ft ⁻³	kg·m ⁻³	16.01846	

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