

# National institute of Technology (Hamirpur)



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**Subject:- Failure Analysis**

Course-code:- MSD-323

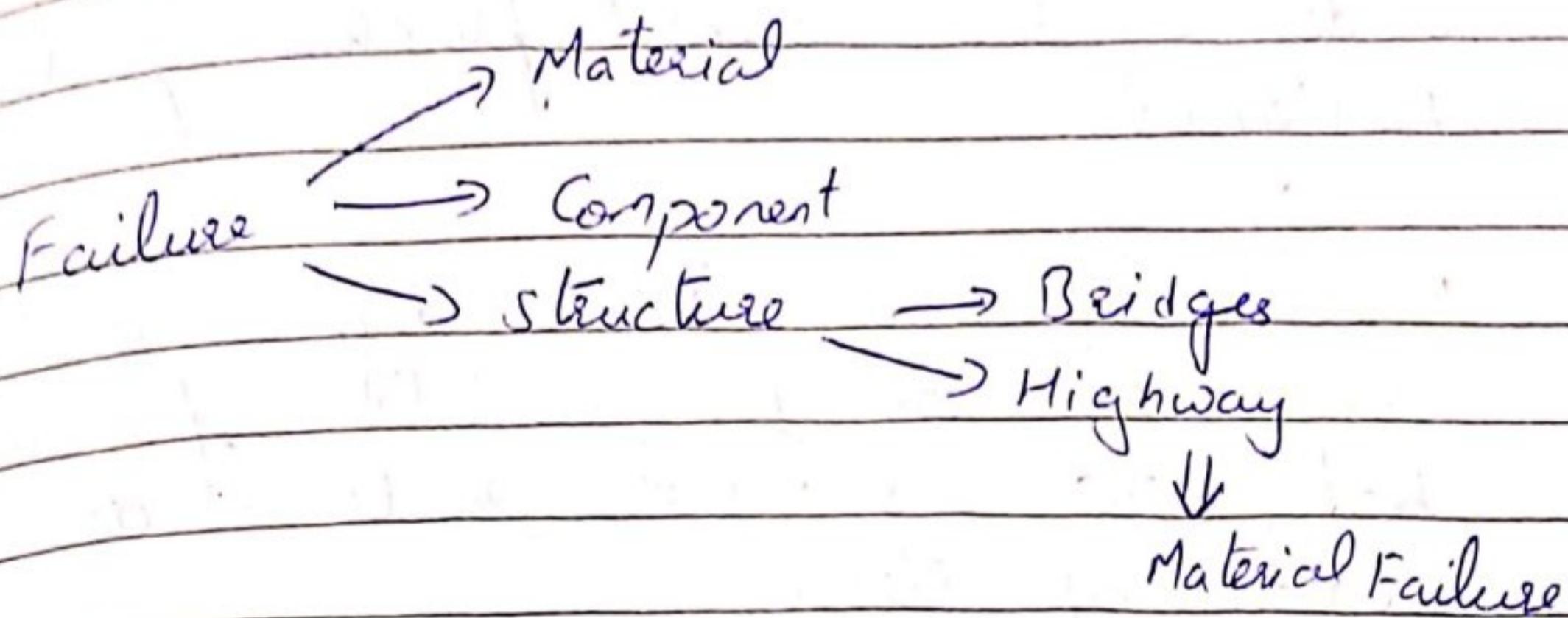
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# FAILURE ANALYSIS



~~Definition~~

Failure of a material component is the loss of ability to function normally or to perform the intended job.

There are 3 general ways for a material to fail.

① Excessive Elastic Deformation :- Eg Buckling.

Controlled by design and elastic modulus of material

② Excessive Plastic Deformation :- Controlled by yield strength of material. Eg loss of shape, creep or stress rupture at elevated temp.

③ Fracture :- It involves complete disruption of continuity of a component under static

load. There can be brittle or ductile fractures.

Under cyclic load / fluctuating load:  
Fatigue.

Fracture Definition: It is defined as the separation or fragmentation of solid body to 2 or more parts under the action of stress.

Fracture can be classified based on several characteristic features:-

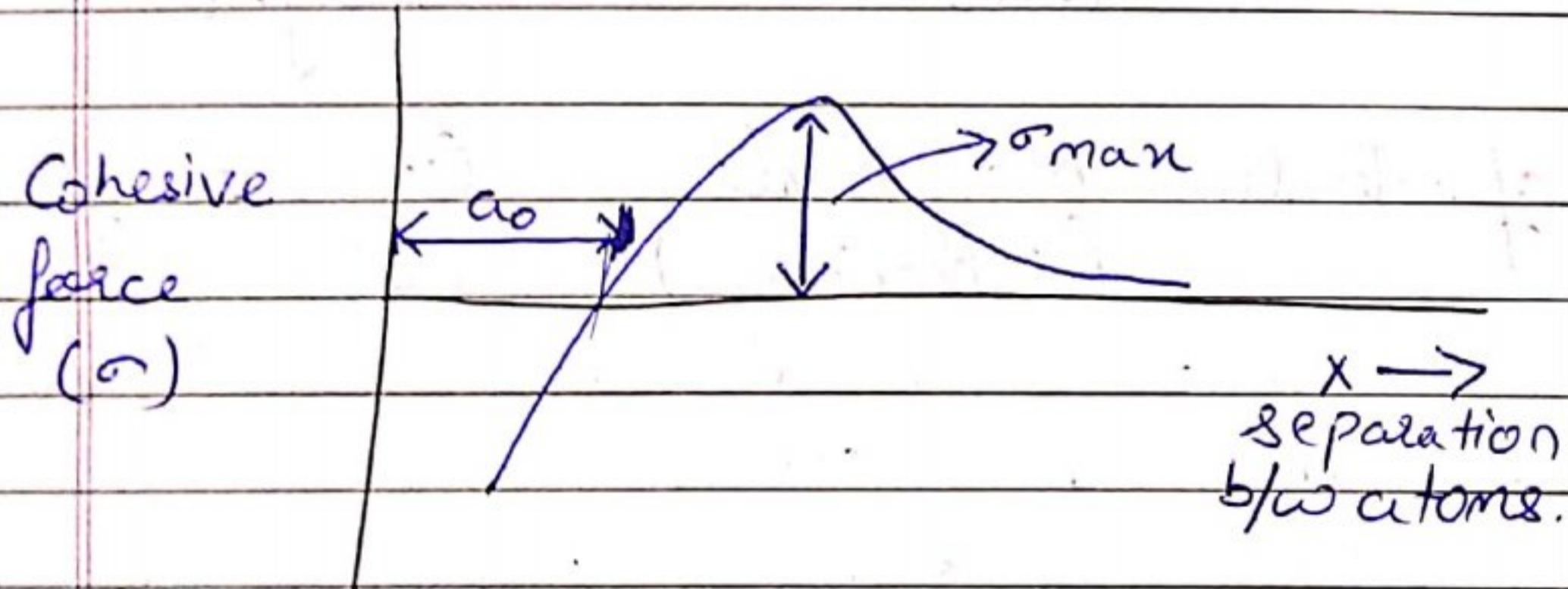
Characteristics	Terms Used	
Strain to fracture	Ductile	Brittle
Crystallographic mode	Shear	Cleavage
Appearance	Fibrous	Granular
Crack propagation	Along grain boundaries	Through grains

## Ductile V/s Brittle Fracture

Parameter	Ductile Fracture	Brittle Fracture
→ Strain Energy Required	Higher	Lower.
→ Stress during cracking (Time)	Increasing	Constant
→ Crack Propagation	Slow	Fast
→ Warning Sign	Plastic deformation.	None
→ Deformation	Extensive	Little
→ Necking	Yes	No
→ Fracture Surface	Rough and dull	Smooth and bright.
→ Type of materials	Most metals (At Room Temp.)	Ceramics, glasses, etc.

# THEORETICAL COHESIVE STRENGTH OF METALS

- Metals usually possess high strength combined with a certain measure of plasticity.
- The strength in metals is due to Cohesive force/forces b/w the atoms.
- High cohesive forces are related to large elastic constants; high M.P. and small coefficients of thermal expansion.
- The variation of cohesive force b/w 2 atoms is a function of separation b/w the two.



- This curve is the resultant of attractive and repulsive forces b/w the atoms.
- The interatomic spacing of the atoms is the

unstrained condition is indicated by  $a_0$ .

- If the crystal is subjected to a tensile load, the separation b/w atoms will be increased.
- The repulsive force decreases more rapidly with increased separation than the attractive force, so that a net force b/w atoms balances the tensile load.
- As the tensile load, is increased still further, the repulsive force continues to decrease and a point is reached where the repulsive force is negligible and the attractive force is decreasing because of the increased separation of the atoms.
- This point corresponds to maximum in the curve which is equal to theoretical cohesive strength of the material.
- A good approximation to the theoretical cohesive strength can be obtained if it is assumed that the cohesive force curve can be represented by a sine curve

$$\sigma = \sigma_{\max} \sin \frac{2\pi x}{\lambda} \rightarrow a - a_0$$

Theoretical cohesive strength      lattice wave length

→ For small displacements. ( $\sin n = n$ )

$$\therefore \sigma = \sigma_{\max} \frac{2\pi X}{d} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

→ If we restrict consideration to a brittle elastic solid, then ~~from~~<sup>to</sup> Hooke's law

$$\sigma = E e = E \frac{x}{a_0} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

From (1) & (2)

$$\boxed{\sigma_{\max} = \frac{dE}{2\pi a_0}}$$

→ Interatomic (equilibrium spacing)  $= a_0 \approx \frac{d}{2}$

$$\boxed{\sigma_{\max} = \frac{E}{\pi}}$$

→ When fracture occurs in a brittle solid, all of the work is expended in producing the fracture surface goes into creating the two new surfaces.

→ Each of these surfaces has a 'surface energy' of  $\gamma_s \text{ J/m}^2$

The work done per unit area of surface in creating the fracture is the area under the stress displacement curve.

$$V_0 = \int_{0}^{d/2} \sigma_{max} \sin \frac{2\pi x}{d} = \frac{d \sigma_{max}}{\pi}$$

This area energy is equal to the energy required to create new fracture surfaces.

$$\frac{d \sigma_{max}}{\pi} = 2 V_0$$

Substituting for  $d$ , we get

$$d = \frac{2\pi V_0}{\sigma_{max}}$$

$$\text{Or } \sigma_{max} = \left( \frac{E V_0}{d} \right)^{1/2}$$

$\downarrow$   
 Theoretical cohesive strength

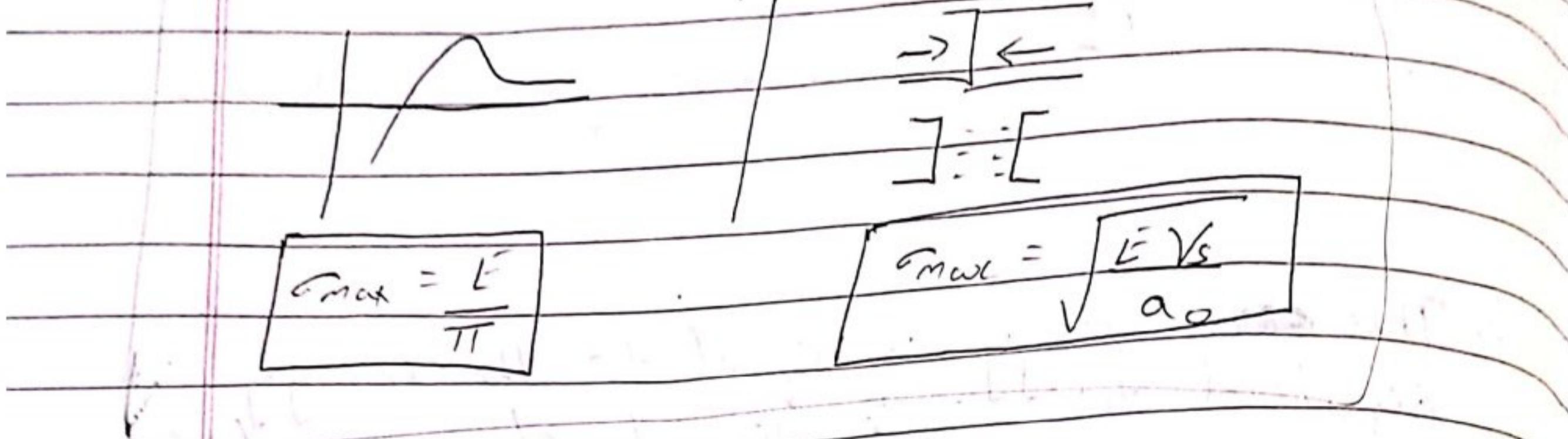
Stress required to create fracture

Maximum Theoretical Cohesive Strength

2 separate criteria for derivation:

Atomistic approach

... energy approach



From energy criteria

$$\sigma_{TFS} = \sigma_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{EV_s}{a_0}} \quad \text{---(1)}$$

Theoretical  
fracture strength

for most metals

$$V_s \approx \frac{Ea_0}{100}$$

Put in (1)

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{E \cdot E a_0}{a_0 100}}$$

~~$$\sigma_{\max} = \frac{E}{10}$$~~

\*  $\Rightarrow$  Theoretical fracture strength of a perfect (defect free) metal is in range of  $E/10$

Dislocation leads to plastic deformation  
Crack leads to fracture

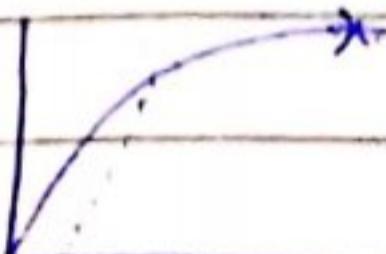
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real fracture strength  
↑

→ But, in reality, the strength of metals is of the order of  $E/100$  to  $E/1000$ .

→ This may be attributed to presence of defect of real material; one of which includes tiny cracks.

→ Cracks play the same role in fracture (of weakening) as dislocations play for plastic deformation.



## FRACTURE

→ Fracture is related to propagation of cracks leading to failure of material or component.

→ If there are no preexisting cracks, then a crack needs to nucleate before propagation to failure.

→ Crack nucleation typically requires higher stress levels than crack propagation.

→ A crack is typically a void in a material, which acts like a stress concentrator or stress amplifier.

- Crack is amplifier of a "far field mean stress".

- Cracks in general may have several geometries. Even a circular hole can be considered as a very "blunt crack".
- ⇒ A crack may lie fully enclosed by the material or may have crack faces connected to the surface.
- Fracture mechanics is the subject of study wherein the materials resistance to fracture is characterised.
- Crack propagation can be steady (i.e. slowly increasing crack length with time or load) or it can be catastrophic (unsteady crack propagation, leading to failure of the material).
- The subject of fracture mechanics has its origin in the failure of WWII liberty ships. In one of the cases, the ship virtually broke into 2 with a loud sound, not in fighting mode.
- This was caused by lack of fracture toughness at the weld joints, resulting in



propagation of brittle cracks.

- It was observed that welding was done for faster production, but this resulted in micro-cracks and residual stresses, which lead to "brittle crack propagation".
- Due to cold sea waters, the ships were harboured and the hull material underwent a "ductile to brittle transitions." (DBT).

## CHARACTERISTICS OF A CRACKS

⇒ Cracks can be characterised looking into the following aspects.

\* Its connection with the external free surface

→ Completely internal

→ Internal cracks with connection to the outer surfaces

→ Surface cracks.

⇒ Cracks with some contact with external surfaces ~~area~~ may be prone to oxidation and corrosion.

## → Crack length

It is the defect length in 1 dimension which extends through the material.

→ Crack Orientation :- w.r.t geometry and loading, there are 3 modes of crack opening.

→ Three ideal cases of loading of a cracked body can be considered, which are called the modes of deformation.

Mode I : opening mode

Mode II : Sliding Mode

Mode III : Tearing Mode.

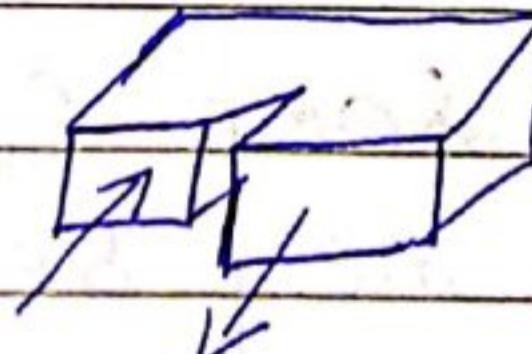
→ In the general case (for a crack in an arbitrarily shaped body, under a arbitrary loading), the mode is not pure (i.e. is mixed mode).

Mode of deformation / Fracture of a cracked body

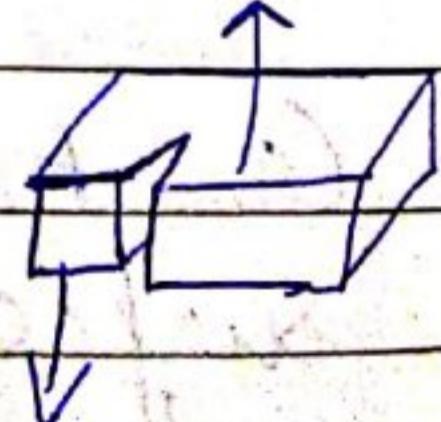
Mode I



Mode II



Mode III



## FRACTOGRAPHY

- Considerable amount of information can be gathered regarding the origin and nature of fracture by studying the fracture surface.
- The fracture surface has to be maintained in a pristine manner (i.e. oxidation, corrosion should be prevented) to get meaningful information from fractography.
- Fracture can be classified based on:-
  - a) Crystallographic mode
  - b) Appearance of fracture surface
  - c) Stain to fracture
  - d) Path of crack.

## FRACTURE MECHANICS

- One of the goals of fracture mechanics is to derive material property (fracture toughness), which can characterize the mechanical behaviour of a material with cracks in it.
- The field of fracture mechanics can be divided to 2 time periods:

- ① Primitive or Initial days of Fracture Mechanics  
② Modern Fracture mechanics

### Early Fracture Mechanics

→ C.F. Ingalls (1913)  $\Rightarrow$  stress based criteria for crack growth (Local)

→ Griffith Criteria (1920)  $\Rightarrow$  Energy based criteria for crack growth (global)

### Crack growth and failure for brittle Materials

→ For brittle materials, the cracks have sharp tip and there is very little plastic deformation

(Linear elastic fracture Mechanics) (LEFM)

# STRESS BASED CRITERIA FOR CRACK PROPAGATION

## (INGLIS CRITERIA)

→ In 1913, Inglis observed that the stress concentration around a hole (or a notch) depended on the radius of curvature of notch i.e. the field stress ( $\sigma_s$ ) is amplified near the hole.

$$\frac{\sigma_{\max}}{\sigma_0} \approx K_f \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{stress intensity} \\ \text{factor} \end{array}$$

$$\sigma_{\max} = \sigma_0 \left[ 1 + 2 \sqrt{\frac{C}{R}} \right]$$

round  
systems  
modelling

$\sigma_0$  = Applied field stress

$\sigma_{\max}$  = Stress at hole/crack tip

$R$  = hole/crack tip radius

$C \rightarrow$  length of hole/crack

∴ Sharper the crack (smaller the  $R$ ) ; more the stress amplification (high value of  $\sigma_{\max}$ )

E.g. circular hole has a stress conc. factor of 3

$$\sigma_{\max} = \sigma_0 \left[ 1 + 2 \sqrt{\frac{C}{R}} \right]$$

$$C = R = r$$

$$\frac{\sigma_{\max}}{\sigma_0} = 3$$

for sharper crack

$$\sigma_{max} \approx 2.5 \sqrt{\frac{E}{S}}$$

$C$  very large  
 $S$  very small

$$\sqrt{\frac{C}{S}} \gg 1$$

→ From Inglis's formula, it can be observed that the ratio of crack length to crack tip radius is important and not just the length of the crack.

→ For the crack to propagate the crack-tip stresses have to do work to break the bonds at crack tip.

→ This implies that the "theoretical cohesive force" of the material has to be overcome.

→ If the applied tensile stress/load is below cohesive force, still the crack can propagate if the local stress conc. become greater than cohesive strength.

→ The fracture stress (applied) is calculated by Inglis criterion

$$\sigma_f = \sqrt{\frac{E \nu S}{4 a_0 c}}$$

$E$  = elastic modulus

$V$  = surface energy

$R$  = rad of curvature of notch

$a_0$  = interatomic spacing

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{EV}{4a_0c}} = \sqrt{\frac{EV}{4c}} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{for sharp} \\ \text{cracks} \\ R = a_0 \end{matrix}$$

shortcomings

→ We can observe that the crack length does not independently appear in the Ingilis criteria.

→ Intutively we can feel that, longer cracks should be more damaging than smaller cracks.

→ One another assumption in Ingilis's approach is the implicit understanding that sufficient energy is available in body to propagate the crack. (Suppose, if there is no crack).

## Energy based Criteria for Crack Propagation

### GRIFFITH CRITERIA (1920)

Keeping some of these factors in view Griffith proposed conditions for crack propagation.

- (i) Bonds at the crack tip must be stressed to point of failure (as in Ingles criteria)
- (ii) The amount of strain energy released (by slight condition of unloading of the body due to crack extension) must be greater than or equal to surface energy of the crack faces created.

⇒ The second criteria can be written as:-

$$\frac{dU_s}{dc} \geq \frac{dU_r}{dc}$$

$U_s \rightarrow$  strain energy

$U_r \rightarrow$  surface energy

$dc \rightarrow$  infinitesimal inc in crack length (c)

where,  $a_0 \& c$  is given then Ingles criteria  
where only  $c$  is given then Griffith's criteria

Q Calculate the fracture stress of a brittle material with following prop:-

$$E = 100 \text{ GPa}$$

$$\gamma_s = 1 \text{ J/m}^2$$

$$a_0 = 2.5 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

$$c = 10^4 \cdot a_0$$

$$\sigma_f = \sqrt{\frac{E \gamma_s}{4 a_0 c}}$$

for sharp cracks.

$$\sigma_f = \sqrt{\frac{E V}{4 c}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{100 \times 10^9 \times 1}{4 \times 10^4 \times 2.5 \times 10^{-10}}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{10^{17}}{4 \times 2.5}} = \sqrt{\frac{10^{16} \times 10^2 \times 2}{8}}$$

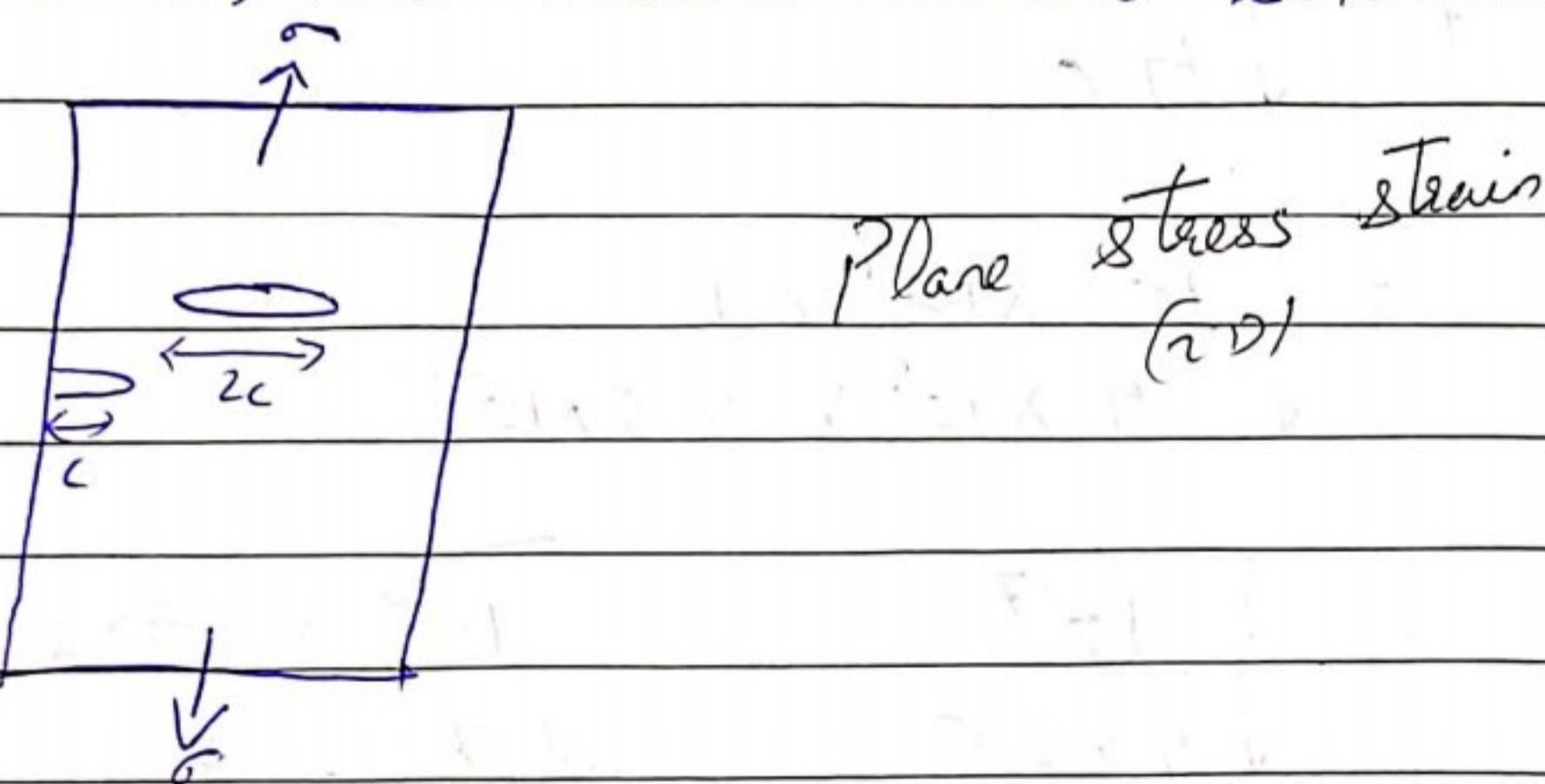
$$\sigma_f = 10^8$$

## GRIFFITH THEORY

### STATEMENT

- A crack will propagate when the decrease in elastic strain energy is at least equal to the energy required to create new crack surface.
- This criteria can be used to determine the magnitude of tensile stress which will just cause a crack of a certain size to propagate as brittle fracture.

Consider, the crack model shown below



→ The thickness of plate is negligible  
∴ the problem can be treated as is 1 plane stress.

→ The cracks are assumed to have an elliptical shape.

→ For a crack at the interior, the length is ' $2c$ ', while for an edge crack it is ' $c$ '

- The effect of both types of crack on fracture behaviour is the same.
- The stress distribution for an elliptical crack was determined by Ingles.
- A decrease in strain energy results from the formation of a ~~concave~~ crack.
- The elastic strain energy per unit of plate thickness can be written as:-

$$U_E = \frac{-\pi c^2 \sigma^2}{E}$$

→ Tensile stress acting normal to the crack length ( $2c$ ).

- The sign is used because growth of crack releases elastic strain energy.

- The surface energy due to presence of crack is

$$U_s = \gamma c V_s$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \overbrace{2c} \\ \hline \overbrace{2c} \\ \therefore 4c = 2c + 2c \\ \text{Total surface.} \end{array}$$

The total change in Pot. energy resulting from creation of crack is

$$\Delta U = U_s + U_E$$

→ Acc. to Griffith's criteria, the crack will propagate under a const. applied stress ' $\sigma$ ' if an incremental increase in crack length produces no change in the total energy of the system.

$$\frac{d\Delta U}{dc} = 0 = \frac{d}{dc} \left( \frac{4cVs - \pi c^2 \sigma^2}{E} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{4Vs}{E} - \frac{2\pi c \sigma^2}{E} = 0$$

$$\therefore \cancel{\sigma} = \left( \frac{2EVs}{\pi c} \right)^{1/2}$$

⇒ The equation, gives the stress required to propagate a crack in a brittle material as function of size of microcrack.

→ This eq. indicates that the fracture stress is inversely proportional to the sq. root of crack length.

→ For a plate with thickness comparable to length of the crack (plane strain), the Griffith theory can be written as:-

$$\sigma = \left[ \frac{2E\gamma_s}{(1-\nu^2)\pi c} \right]^{\nu_2}$$

$\nu$  = Poisson's Ratio.

- The Griffith's eq. show a strong dependence of fracture strength on crack length.
- It predicts satisfactorily, the fracture strength of a completely brittle material such as glass.
- Griffith's eq. for fracture does not apply for metals.
- One way of realising that the fracture stress of material which undergoes plastic deformation before fracture is greater than truly brittle material.
- One modification of Griffith's equation was made by "Orowan" in 1952 by including a term ' $\gamma_p$ ' expressing the plastic work required to extend the crack wall.

$$\sigma_f = \left[ \frac{2E(\gamma_s + \gamma_p)}{\pi c} \right]^{\nu_2}$$

$$\approx \left[ \frac{2E\gamma_p}{\pi c} \right]^{\nu_2}$$

~~Amp~~ Surface crack length =  $c$   
Internal crack length =  $2c$

Evergreen  
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Q8 The length of internal cracks in 2 samples of the same glass is measured to be  $c_1 = 0.5 \text{ mm}$  &  $c_2 = 2 \text{ mm}$ . The ratio  $(\sigma_1/\sigma_2)$  of fracture strength of 2 samples is

A

$$\sigma = \left( \frac{2E V_p}{\pi c} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\frac{\sigma_1}{\sigma_2} = \left( \frac{c_2}{c_1} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$= \left( \frac{2}{0.5} \right)^{1/2} = 2$$

Q8 A brittle material having (Young's modulus =  $60 \text{ GPa}$ ) & surface energy of  $0.5 \text{ J/m}^2$  has a surface crack of length  $2 \text{ mm}$ . The fracture strength in MPa of this material is

A  $c = 2 \text{ mm} = 2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$

$$E = 60 \times 10^9 \text{ Pa}$$

$$V_p = 0.5 \text{ J/m}^2$$

$$\sigma_f = \left[ \frac{2 \times 60 \times 10^9 \times 0.5}{\pi \times 2 \times 10^{-6}} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= 0 \left[ \frac{30 \times 10^{15}}{\pi} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$= 9.77 \times 10^8 \\ = 97.7 \text{ MPa}$$

Q. A glass plate has 2 cracks, one of them is an int. crack of length 5 mm and other is a surface crack of length 3 mm. A tensile stress is applied on surfaces (crack). The fracture stress in MPa is

$$E = 70 \text{ GPa}$$

$$V_s = 1 \text{ J/m}^2$$

(whichever is less is fracture stress.)

$$A \quad 2c = 5 \text{ mm} = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

$$c' = 3 \text{ mm} = 3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}$$

$$\sigma_{int} = \left( \frac{2EV_s}{\pi c} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\sigma_s = \left( \frac{2EV_s}{\pi c'} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{int} &= \left[ \frac{2EV_s}{\pi} \left( \frac{1}{c_1} + \frac{1}{c_2} \right) \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \left[ \frac{2 \times 70 \times 10^9 \times 1}{\pi \times 10^{-6}} \left( \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{3} \right) \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \left[ \frac{140 \times 10^9}{10^{-6} \times 22} \left( \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{3} \right) \right]^{1/2} \\ &= \left[ \frac{59 \times 10^9}{15 \times 10^{-6}} \right]^{1/2} \end{aligned}$$

~~approximate~~

$$= 57.015 \text{ MPa} \approx$$

$$\sigma_{int} = \left[ \frac{2 \times 70 \times 10^9 \times 1 \times 2}{\pi \times 5 \times 10^{-6}} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
$$= 133 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\sigma_s = \left( \frac{2 \times 70 \times 10^9 \times 1}{\pi \times 3 \times 10^{-6}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= 121.8 \text{ MPa}$$

∴ Fracture stress = 121.8 MPa ~

# FRACTURE IN SINGLE CRYSTAL

→ The brittle fracture of single crystal is considered to be related to resolved normal stress on the cleavage plane.

→ Söncke's law states that fracture occurs when the resolved normal stress reaches a critical value.

→ Considering the situation, the component of tensile force which acts normal to cleavage plane is  $P \cos \phi$ , where  $\phi$  is L b/w tensile axis and normal to the plane.

→ The critical normal stress for brittle fracture is

$$\sigma_c = \frac{P \cos \phi}{A / \cos \phi} = \frac{P \cos^2 \phi}{A}$$

→ The cleavage planes for certain metals and values of the critical normal stresses are given below.

Metal	Lattice	Cleavage Plane	Critical normal stress ( $\text{kg/mm}^2$ )
→ Iron	bcc	(100)	26
→ Zinc	hcp	(0001)	0.19
→ Bismuth	Rhombohedral	(111)	0.32
→ Antimony	"	(11T)	0.66

# MODERN FRACTURE MECHANICS

- Historically, in old times (1910-20), fracture was studied using the Ingalls' and Griffith criteria, wherein fracture stress ( $\sigma_f$ ) was calculated either using a global or local criteria.
- The birth of fracture mechanics (~1950) lead to the concept of stress intensity factor ( $K$ ) and energy released rate ( $G_r$ ).
- These concepts worked well in the domain of Linear elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM) for brittle materials.
- In the presence of crack tip plasticity some of the concepts were extended if the crack tip plasticity was small. (Small scale yielding)
- In ductile materials with large plastic deformation at the crack tip, concept of J-integral was evolved, wherein, stress fields ahead of crack tip are termed as 'HRR' fields and J-integral characterizes the field intensity of crack tip

→ The concept of crack tip opening displacement (CTOD) was also proposed to characterize the cracks in ductile material.

### Concept of Energy Release Rate ( $G$ )

→ ' $G$ ' is defined as total potential energy decrease during unit crack extension ( $dc$ ).

→ ' $G$ ' is also referred to as the crack extension force and is given by:-

$$G = - \frac{d\pi}{dc} ; \pi \text{ is P.E.} \quad \therefore \text{Pot. energy.}$$

→ The potential energy in the absence of external tractions can be visualised as being equal to strain energy released.

$$\cancel{\pi} = U_s$$

∴ we know

$$U_s = -\frac{\pi c^2 \sigma_0^2}{E}$$

$$\cancel{U_s} = \pi$$

$$G = -\frac{d\pi}{dc}$$

$$\therefore G = \frac{2\pi c \sigma_0^2}{E}$$

Ques

Crack growth occurs if ' $G$ ' exceeds or at least becomes equal to critical value  $G_c$ , which is fracture toughness of material

$$G = G_c$$

For perfectly brittle material

$$G_c = 2V_c$$

## RELATION B/w $K$ & $G$

In spite of fact, ' $G$ ' has more direct physical interpretation for crack growth process, usually we work with ' $K$ ' as it is more amenable to theoretical computations.

' $K$ ' can be related to ' $G$ ' using following equations.

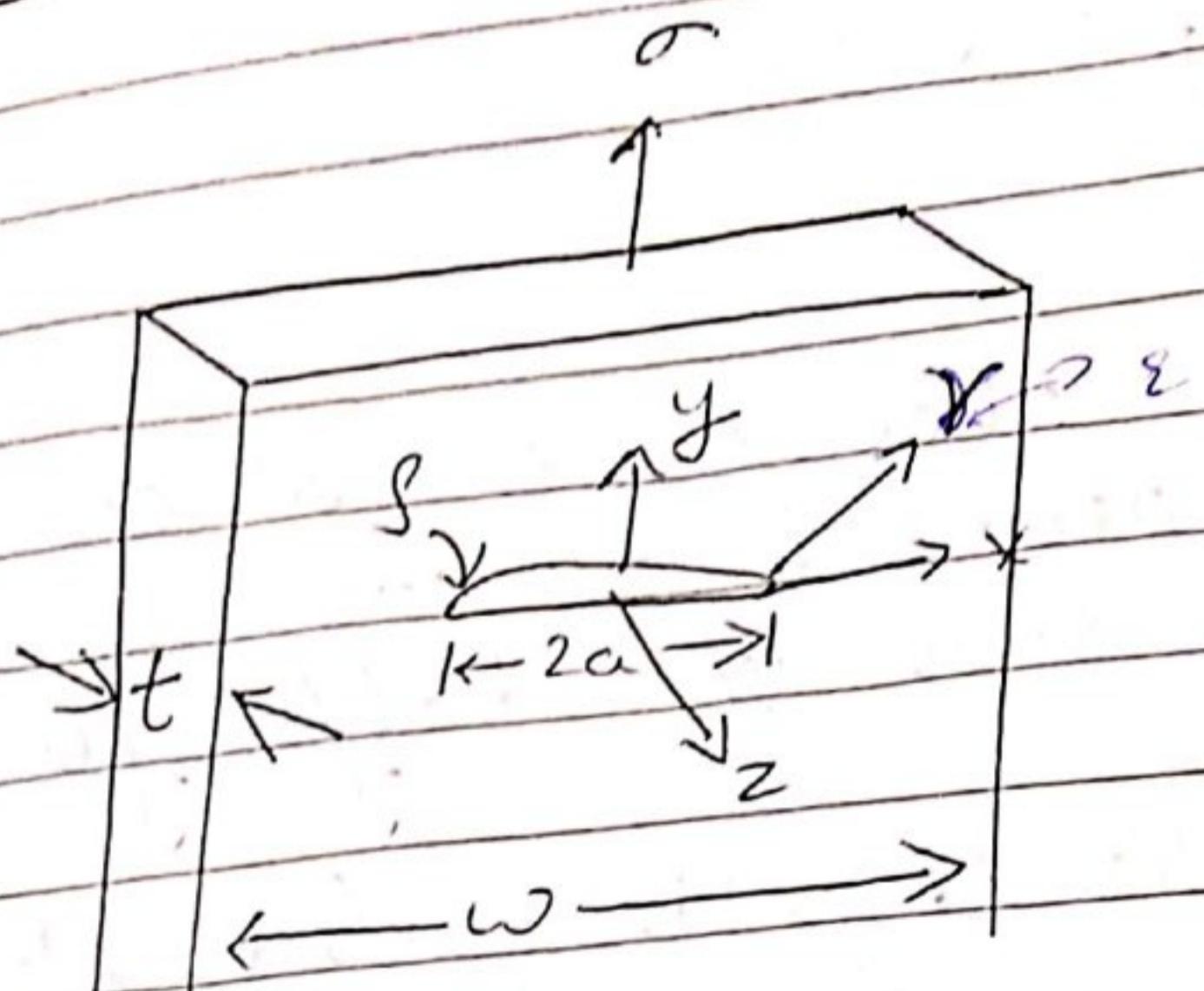
Plane stress  
condition.

$$K^2 = G E$$

Plane strain  
condition

$$K^2 = \frac{G E}{(1 - \nu^2)}$$

# STRESS STRAIN FACTOR



$$\sigma_x = \sigma \left( \frac{a}{2r} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left( 1 - \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{3\theta}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$\sigma_y = \sigma \left( \frac{a}{2r} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \left( 1 + \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \sin \frac{3\theta}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$\tau_{xy} = \sigma \left( \frac{a}{2r} \right)^{1/2} \left[ \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{3\theta}{2} \right]$$

$\sigma$  = Gross nominal stress       $a > r > s$

The stress distribution at the crack tip is in a thin plate for an elastic solid in terms of coordinates shown above is:-

for crack  $\theta \approx 0 \rightarrow$  sharp elastic

$$\sigma_n = \sigma_y = \sigma \left( \frac{a}{2r} \right)^{1/2} \text{ and } \tau_{xy} = 0.$$

$$\sigma_{xy} = \sigma_y = \sigma \left( \frac{a}{2r} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$[t_{xy} = 0]$$

- The local stresses near a crack depend on the product of nominal stress  $\sigma$ , and sq. root of half-flaw length.
- This relationship is called stress intensity factor 'K', where for a sharp elastic crack in an infinitely wide plate is defined as:-

$$K = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a}$$

$$\sigma_{xy} = \sigma \left( \frac{a}{2r} \right)^{1/2}$$

Using this 'K' value the stress intensity factor can be re written as

- Dealing with stress intensity factor, there are several modes of deformation that could be applied to the crack.

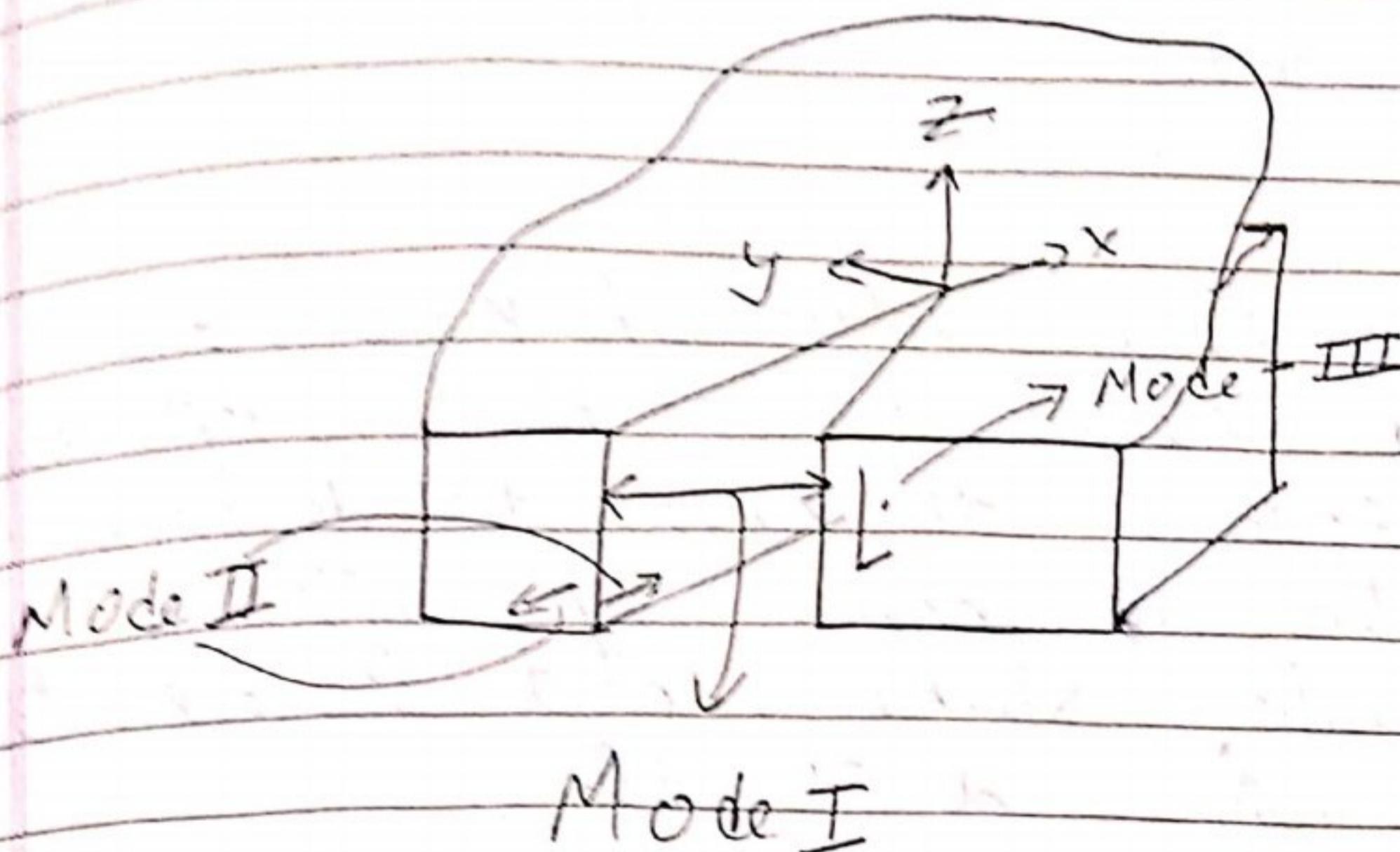
- They can be classified as

Mode I

Mode II

Mode III

Mode I, crack opening mode, refers to a tensile stress applied in  $y$  direction normal to faces of crack.



→ Mode I is the usual mode for fracture toughness tests and a critical value of stress intensity ( $K$ ) determined for this mode would be designated as  $K_{IC}$ .

→ There are 2 extreme cases for Mode I loading.

→ With thin-plate-type specimens, the stress state is plane stress while thick specimens there is plane strain.

## Condition.

- The plane-strain condition represents the more severe stress state and the values of  $K_c$  are lower than for plane-stress specimens.
- Plane-strain values of  $K_{IC}$  are valid material properties, independent of specimen thickness to describe fracture toughness of strong materials like, heat-treated steel, aluminium and Ti alloys.

- A properly determined value of  $K_{IC}$  represents the fracture toughness of material independent of crack length, geometry or loading system.
- It is a material property in some sense that yield strength is material prop.
- Basic eq. for fracture toughness illustrates the design trade off that is inherent in fracture mechanics design.

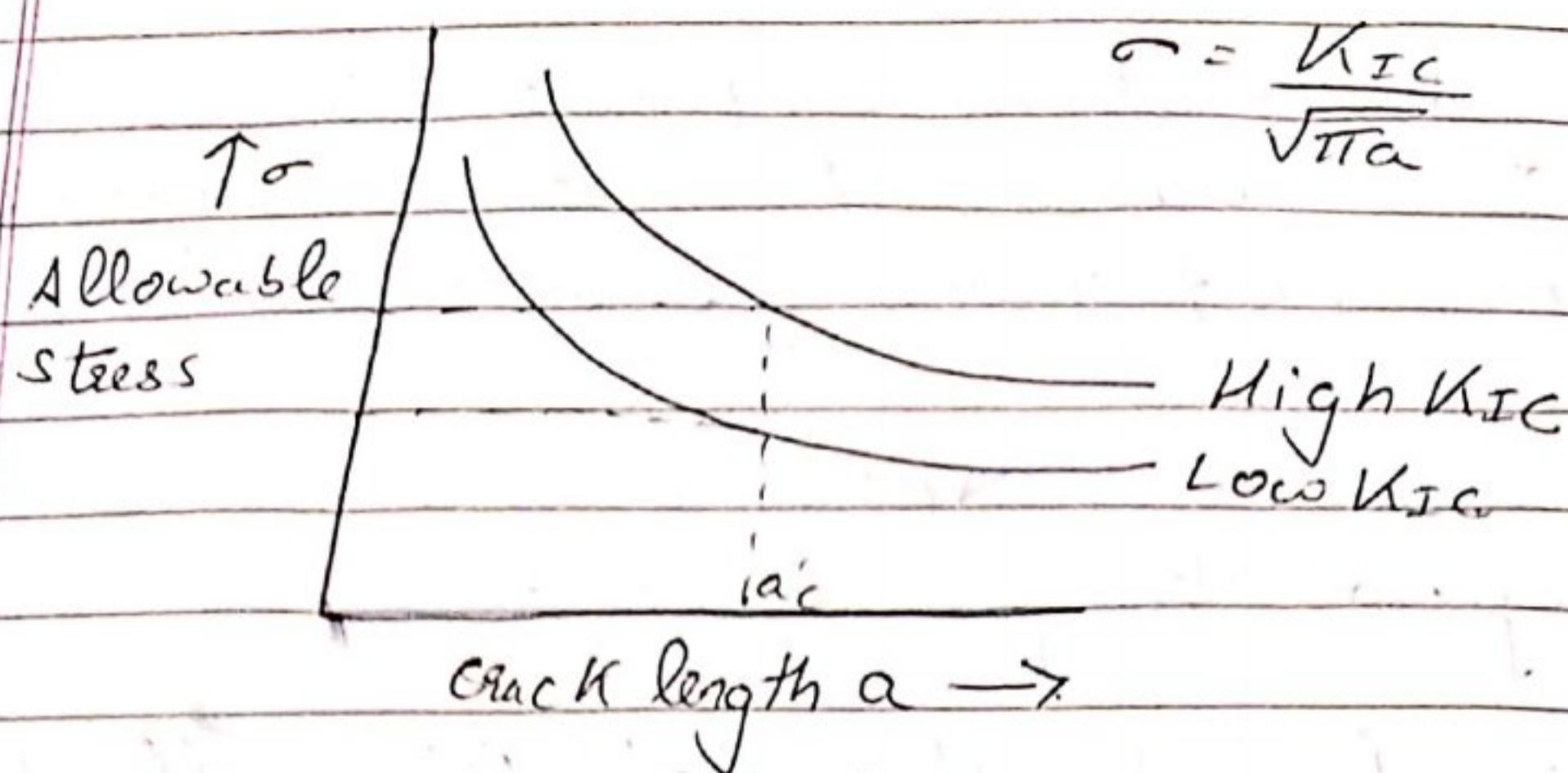
$$K_{IC} = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a}$$

→ If material is selected,  $K_{IC}$  is fixed

→ Further if we allow for the presence of a relatively large crack, then design stress is fixed and must be less than  $K_{IC}$

### Typical values of $K_{IC}$

Material	Yield Strength MPa	Fracture toughness $K_{IC}$ (MPa $\sqrt{m}$ )
4340 steel	1470	46
Manganese steel	1730	90
Ti-6Al-4V	900	57
2024-T <sub>3</sub> Al alloy	385	96
7075-T <sub>6</sub> Al alloy	500	24



Q The stress intensity for a partial through thickness is given by

$$K = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a} \sqrt{\sec \frac{\pi a}{2t}} \quad \text{where}$$

$a$  is depth of penetration of the flaw through wall thickness  $t$ . If the flaw is 5 mm deep in a wall 0.5 inches thick. Determine whether the wall will support a stress of 25000 <sup>PSI</sup> if it is made of 7075-T6 Al alloy.

$$K_{IC} (7075-T6 \text{ Al alloy}) = 24 \text{ MPa} \sqrt{m}$$

A

$$K = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a} \sqrt{\sec \frac{\pi a}{2t}} \rightarrow \text{rad.}$$

$$\sigma = 25000 \text{ psi} = 172.37 \text{ MPa}$$

$$a = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

$$t = 1.27 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}$$

$$K = \cancel{\sigma} \sqrt{\pi 5 \times 10^{-3}} \sqrt{\sec \pi (5 \times 10^{-3})} \overline{2 \times 1.27 \times 10^{-2}}$$

~~Ans~~

$$24 \times 10^6 = \sigma \cdot 0.125 \sqrt{\frac{3(5 \times 10^{-3})}{2 \times 1.27 \times 10^{-2}}} \\ = \sigma \cdot 0.125 \times 1.107$$

~~Oppose load~~

$$\sigma_c = 173.44 \text{ MPa}$$

.. nearly equal to applied  
∴ not support.

Q A thin wall pressure vessel is made from T<sub>1</sub> - 6 AL - 4 V with  $K_{IC} = 57 \text{ MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$  and  $\sigma_0 = 900 \text{ MPa}$ . The int. pressure produces a circumferential hoop stress of 360 MPa. The crack is semi-elliptical surface crack oriented with the major plane of the crack  $\perp$  to the uniform tensile stress. For this type of loading  $K_I$  is given by

$$K_I^2 = 1.91 \sigma^2 a \pi$$

Q

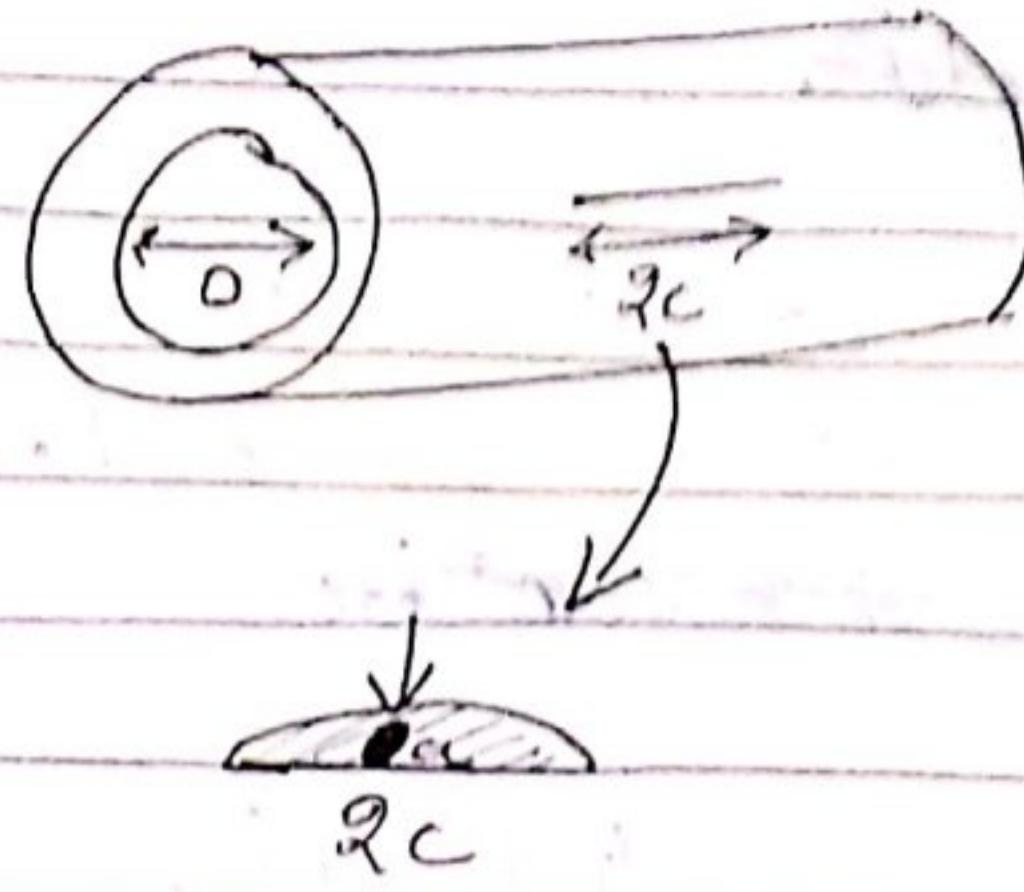
where  $a$  is surface crack depth

$\sigma$  = applied nominal stress

$$\sigma = \phi^2 - 0.212 \left(\frac{r}{r_0}\right)^2$$

Find out critical crack length for fracture.

$r_0 = ?$



Assume  $2a = 2c$ .

A

$$\sigma_0 = 900 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\sigma = 360 \text{ MPa}$$

$$K_{IC} = 57 \text{ MPa}$$

$$\alpha = \phi^2 - 0.212 \left( \frac{\sigma}{\sigma_0} \right)^2$$

$$\alpha = \phi^2 - 0.212 \left( \frac{36\phi}{90\phi} \right)^2$$

$$\alpha = \phi^2 - 0.03392$$

$$K_I = 1.21 \alpha^{1/2} a \pi$$

$$57 \times 10^9 = 1.21 \times (360 \times 10^6)^{1/2} \times a \times 3.14$$

$$\phi^2 - 0.03392$$

$$a = 6.598 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$\phi^2 - 0.03392$$

# PLASTICITY CORRECTIONS

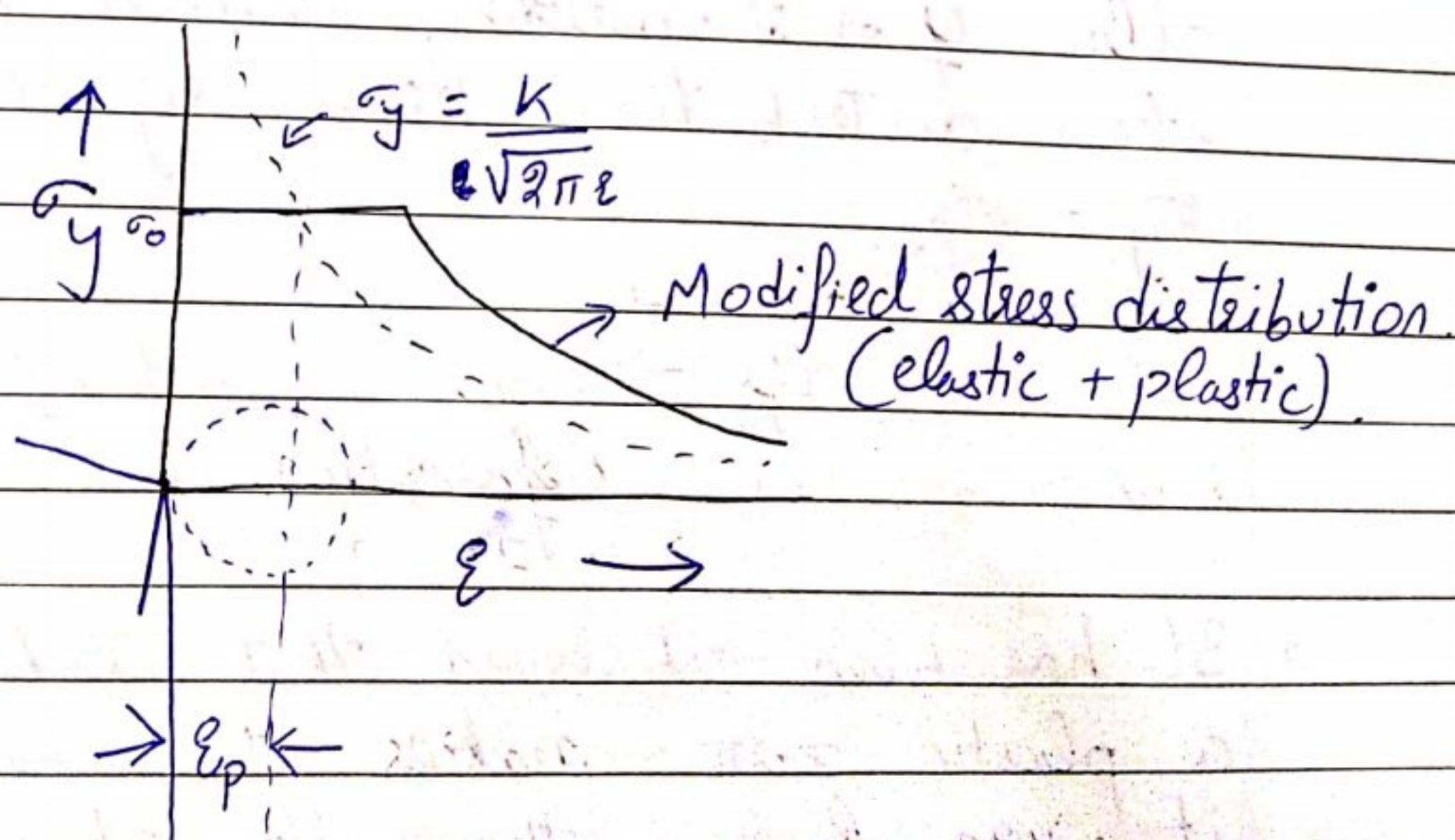
The expression for the elastic stress field at a crack is described by equation:-

$$\sigma_x = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \quad [..]$$

$$\sigma_y = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \quad [..]$$

$$\sigma_z = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi r}} \quad [..]$$

→ In reality, metals will yield when  $\sigma = \sigma_0$  and a plastic zone will exist at crack tip.



- In reality metals will yield when  $\sigma = \sigma_0$  and a plastic zone will exist at the crack tip.
- Out to distance  $\epsilon = \epsilon_p$ , the elastic stress  $\sigma_y$  is greater than the yield stress  $\sigma_0$ .
- Approximately, the dist.  $r_p$  is the size of the plastic zone.

For  $\theta = 0$ ,  $\epsilon_p$

$$\sigma_y = \frac{K}{\sqrt{2\pi \epsilon_p}} = \sigma_0$$

$$\therefore \epsilon_p = \frac{K^2}{2\pi \sigma_0^2} = \frac{\sigma_0^2 a}{2\sigma_0^2}$$

$a = \sigma_0 \sqrt{\pi \epsilon_p}$

→ It is evident that the plastic zone must be larger than  $\epsilon_p$ , as it don't allow for yielding caused by elastic stress distribution from  $\sigma_y = \sigma_0$  out to  $\sigma_y = \sigma_{max}$ .

$\epsilon_p \rightarrow$  Lower limit of plastic deformation.

→ It has been observed that existence of a plastic zone makes the crack act as if it were longer than its physical size.

→ As a result of crack tip plasticity, the displacements are larger and the stiffness is lower than for strictly elastic situation.

→ The usual correction is to assume that the effective crack length is the actual crack length plus radius of plastic zone.

$$a' = a_{\text{eff}} = a + r_p$$

~~Ishwin model for~~

$$\epsilon_p \approx \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{K^2}{\sigma_0^2} \quad (\text{for plane stress})$$

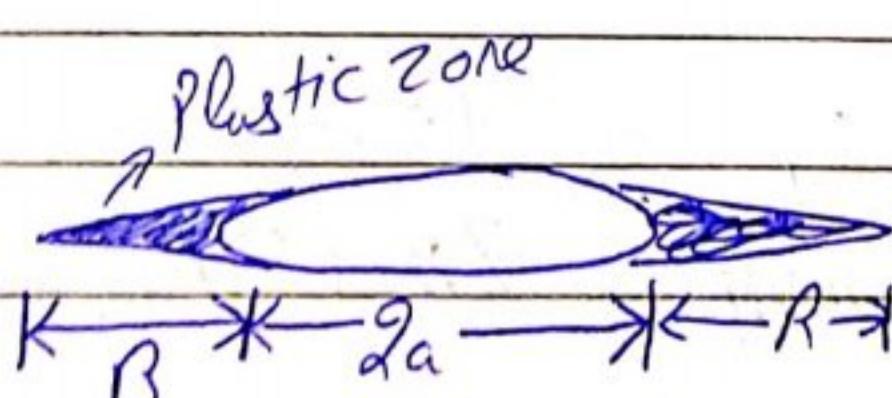
~~plasticity correction~~

$$\epsilon_p \approx \frac{1}{6\pi} \frac{K^2}{\sigma_0^2} \quad (\text{for plane strain})$$

### Dugdale Model

→ Another model for plastic zone at a crack tip was proposed by Dugdale, for case of plane stress.

→ He considered that plastic zone takes the form of narrow stripes extending a distance from each crack tip.



→ The analysis is conducted by assuming, there is an elastic crack of length  $2(a+R)$  and that the region of length ' $R$ ' is closed up by applying compressive stresses.

$$R = \frac{\pi^2 \sigma_0^2 a^2}{8 \sigma_0^2}$$

$$\therefore R = \frac{\pi K^2}{8 \sigma_0^2}$$

Q A steel plate with a through thickness crack of length  $2a = 20\text{ mm}$  is subjected to a stress of  $400\text{ MPa}$  normal to crack. If yield strength of steel is  $1500\text{ MPa}$ , what is plastic zone size and stress intensity factor for the crack. Assume that plate is wide.

A

$$K_{eff} = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a_{eff}}$$

$$a_{eff} = a + \epsilon_p$$

$$\epsilon_p = \frac{\sigma^2 a}{2 \pi \sigma_0^2} = \frac{1}{2 \pi} \frac{\sigma^2 a}{\sigma_0^2}$$

$$= \frac{(400 \times 10^6)^2 \times 10 \times 10^{-3}}{\pi \times 2 \times (1500 \times 10^6)^2}$$

$$= 1.13 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\epsilon_p = 0.113 \text{ mm}$$

$$a_{eff} = a + \epsilon_p = 10.113 \text{ mm}$$

$$K_{eff} = \sigma \sqrt{\pi a_{eff}} = 29.15 \text{ MPa}\sqrt{\text{m}}$$

$$K_{eff} = \sigma \sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{a + \frac{\sigma^2}{\rho}} = \sigma \sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{a + \frac{k^2}{2\pi \rho_0^2}}$$

$$= \sigma \sqrt{\pi} \sqrt{a + \frac{\sigma^2 \pi a}{2\pi \rho_0^2}}$$

$$= \sigma \sqrt{\pi} a \sqrt{1 + \frac{\sigma^2}{2\rho_0^2}}$$

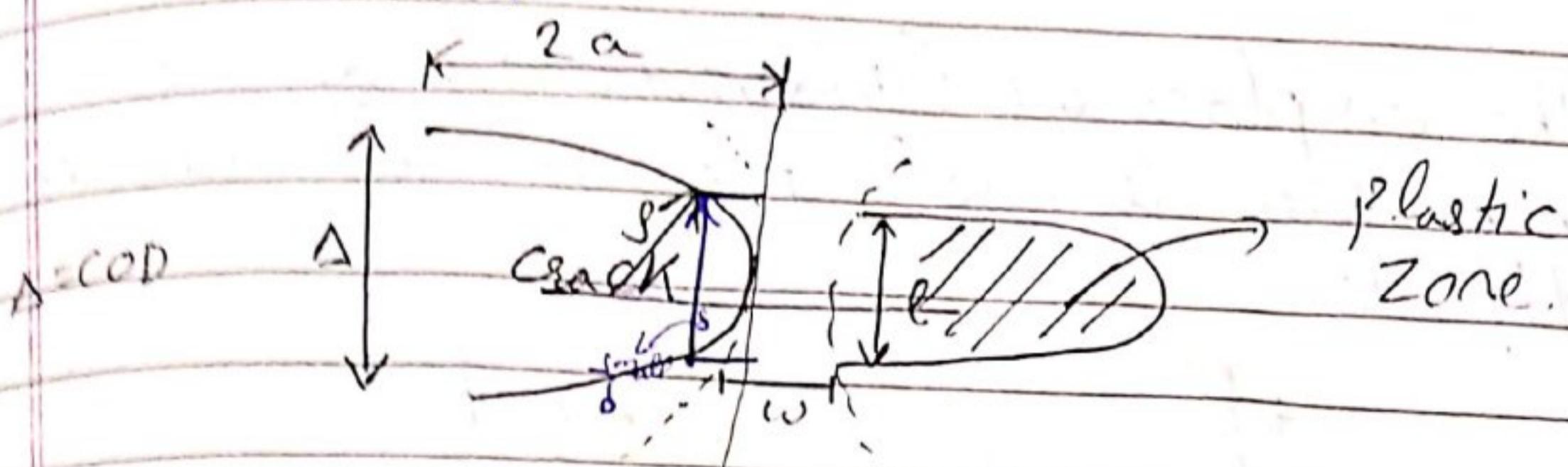
$$= 400 \sqrt{\pi} \times 10 \times 10^{-3} \times \sqrt{1 + \frac{160000}{2(2250000)}}$$

$$= 72.2 \text{ MPa} \sqrt{m}$$

# CRACK OPENING DISPLACEMENT (COD) or (CTOD)

- The linear elastic fracture mechanics (LEFM) works well for high strength materials ( $\sigma_0 > 200000 \text{ Psi}$ ) but it is less universally applicable for low strength structural material.
- There is a limit to extent to which 'K' can be adjusted for crack tip plasticity by the method of previous section (ep).
- When ep becomes appreciable fraction of 'a', other approaches become necessary.
- The CTOD concept considers that the material ahead of the crack contains a series of miniature tensile specimens having a gauge length l & width 'w'.
- The length of the sample is determined by the acute radius of the crack  $\delta$  and the width is limited by those microstructural factors which control

the ductility.



- In this model crack growth occurs when the specimen adjacent to the crack is fractured.
- When the failure of the 1<sup>st</sup> specimen adjacent to the crack tip, immediately causes the next specimen to fail and so on the overall fracture process is unstable and crack propagation occurs under decreasing stress.
- When each specimen does not fail immediately in turn, we have a situation of slow crack growth where the applied stress must be increased for stable crack growth to continue.
- If a thick plate is loaded in tension (Mode I) so that plane strain condition prevail, the plastic deformation at crack tip is confined to narrow band with a thickness of the order of diameter of

## Crack tip 'as'

→ The displacement (deformation) of the miniature tensile specimen at crack tip is

$$\delta = \epsilon l = \epsilon a s$$

→ Unstable fracture occurs when the strain in the specimen adjacent to the crack tip reaches the tensile ductility of the specimen  $\epsilon_f$ . Thus the fracture criteria is:

$$\delta_c = 2.8 \epsilon_f \quad \text{plain strain}$$

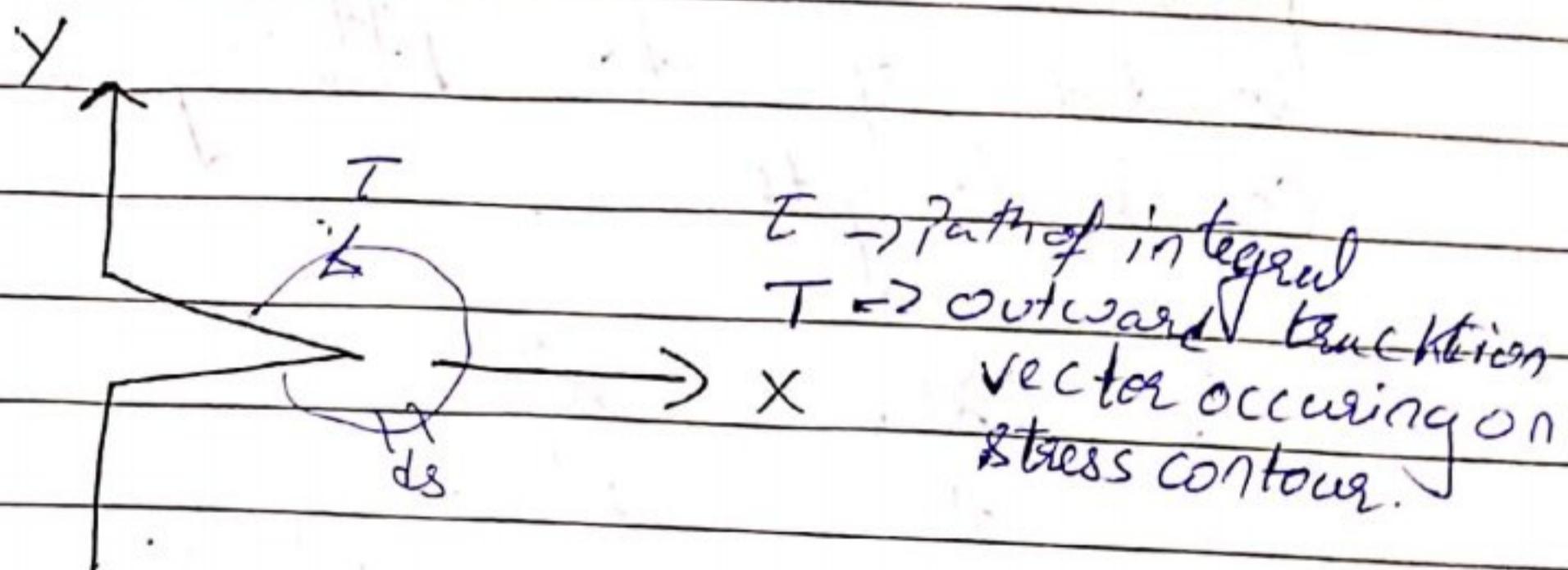
→ In plane-stress (thin plate) tensile loading the strains at the crack tip are distributed over a distance of the order of sheet thickness  $t$ .

$$\delta = \epsilon l = \epsilon t \quad \text{plane stress}$$

$$\delta_c = \epsilon_f t$$

## J-INTEGRAL

A more comprehensive approach to the fracture mechanics of lower - strength ductile materials is provided by J-integral.



→ The line integral related to energy in vicinity of a crack can be used to solve 2D crack problems in the presence of plastic deformation.

→ Fracture occurs when the J integral reaches a critical value. J has units  $\text{MN/m}$  or  $\text{in-lb/in}$

$$J = \frac{\int (W dy - T \frac{du}{dn} ds)}{I}$$

$$W = \int \sigma_{ij} d\varepsilon_{ij}$$

is the strain energy / unit vol.

$U$  = disp. vector

$ds$  → Increment of contour path.

$\frac{du}{dn} ds$  → Rate of work input from stress field into area enclosed by  $I$ .

→ The J integral is path-independent. Therefore, it can be determined from a stress analysis where  $\sigma$  &  $\epsilon$  are established by finite element analysis around contour of the crack.

→ The J integral can be interpreted as the potential energy difference b/w 2 identically loaded specimen having slightly diff. crack length.

$$\rightarrow J = \frac{\partial U_2}{\partial a} = \frac{K^2}{E'}$$

$$E' = E \quad \text{plane stress}$$

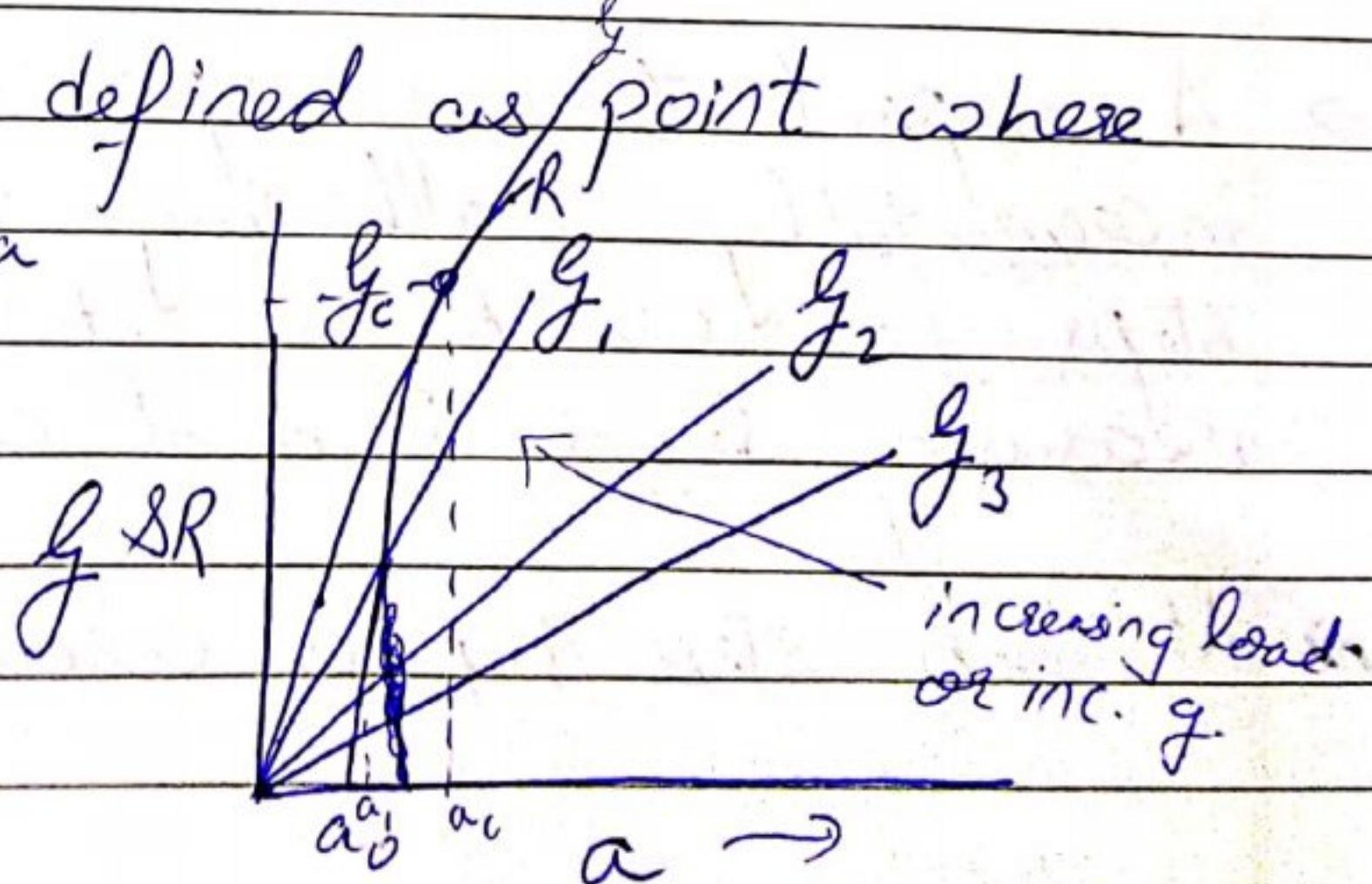
$$E' = E(1 - \nu^2) \quad \text{plane strain}$$

# R-CURVE

- The R-curve characterizes the resistance to fracture of a material during slow & stable crack propagation as the plastic zone grows as the crack extends from a sharp notch.
- It provides a record of toughness of a material as the crack extends under increasing crack extension forces.
- An 'R-curve' is a graphical representation of the resistance to crack propagation  $R$ , versus crack length ' $a$ '.
- It was observed that failure or crack instability will occur when rate of change of strain energy release rate  $\frac{\partial G}{\partial a}$  equals the rate of change in resistance to crack growth  $\frac{\partial R}{\partial a}$ .

→ Thus,  $g_c$  is defined as point where  $\frac{\partial G}{\partial a} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial a}$

Ductile material →



- The crack does not extend until the curve becomes tangent to the R curve whereupon unstable fracture occurs ( $g = R$ )
- For a more general case of a material with some ductility, crack extension occurs when  $g > R$ .
- Consider, the  $g$  curve labelled as  $g_1$ . At the load or stress corresponding to this value at  $g_1$ , the crack will propagate stably from an original length  $a_0$  to  $a_1$ , since  $g_1 > R$ .
- However, the crack will not extend beyond  $a_1$ , because  $g_1 < R$ . For additional crack extension to occur the value of  $g$  must increase until  $g = R$ , when unstable fracture occurs.
- ASTM has established a standard procedure for determining "R curve".
- A compact tension specimen is loaded incrementally, allowing time between steps for crack to stabilize before measuring load ' $P$ ' and crack length ' $a$ '.
- At each step  $K_R$  is calculated

$$K_R = \frac{P}{B\sqrt{w}} \times f(a/w)$$

where  $f(a/w) = \left[ 2 + \frac{a}{w} / \left(1 - \frac{a}{w}\right)^{3/2} \right] [0.866 + 4.64(a/w) - 13.32(a/w)^2 + 15.72(a/w)^3 - 5.6(a/w)^4]$

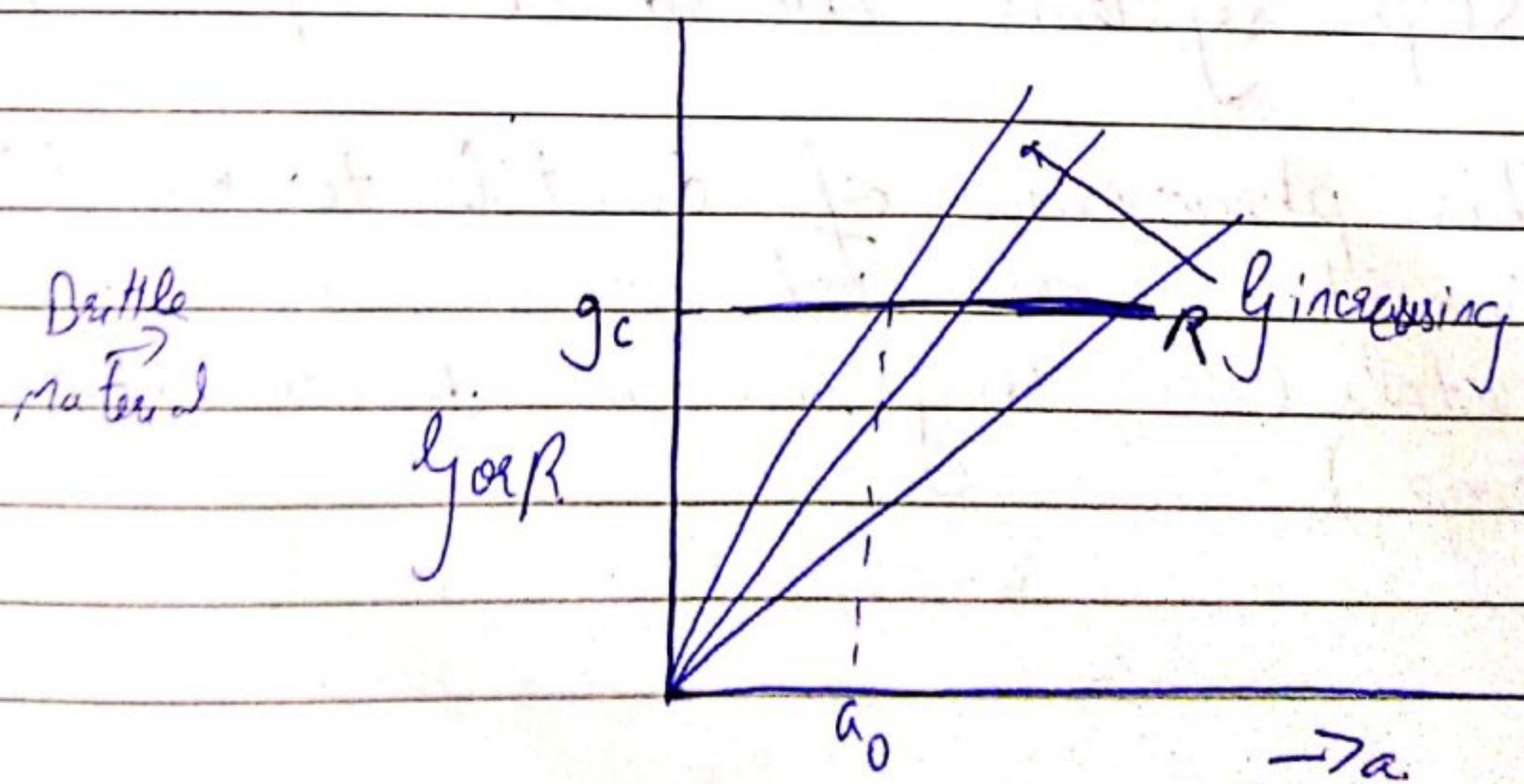
$B$  = Specimen thickness.

$w$  = Crack width.

→ The crack length 'a' used in eq. is the effective crack length where the physical crack growth is corrected for the plastic zone,  $\delta_p$ .

$$a_{eff} = a_0 + \Delta a + \delta_p$$

→ For low strength, high-toughness material, the correction for the plastic zone should be used.



## DUCTILE TO BRITTLE TRANSITION

- Certain material which are ductile at given temp. (e.g. R.T.) become brittle at lower temp.
- The temp. at which this happens is termed as ductile to brittle transition temp. (DBTT)
- DBT can cause problems in components which operate in ambient and low temp. condition
- Typically the phenomena is reported in polycrystalline material
- Deformation should be continuous across grain boundary in polycrystals for them to be ductile.
- This implies that five independent slip systems should be operative
- This phenomena of ductile to brittle transition is not observed in FCC metals (i.e. they remain ductile to low temp.).

→ Common BCC metals become brittle at low temp. ~~as compared~~

### Causes of Ductile to Brittle Transition

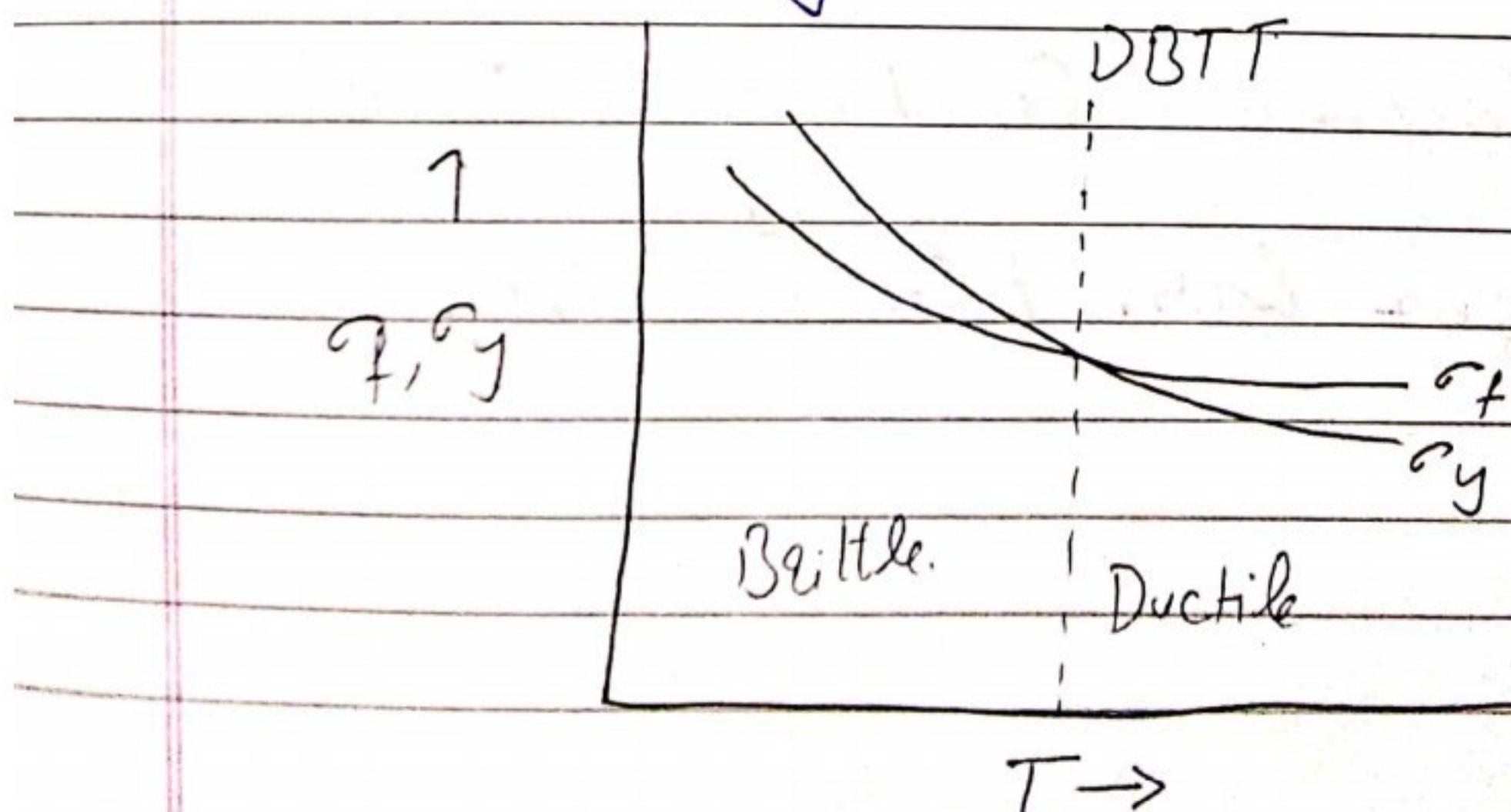
→ Both the fracture stress ( $\sigma_f$ ) and yield stress ( $\sigma_y$ ) are temp. dependent.

→ However, as slip is a thermally activated process, the yield stress is a stronger function of temp. as compared to fracture stress.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ductile } f_s &> y_s \\ \text{Brittle. } y_s &> f_s \end{aligned}$$

→ If one looks at the Griffith's criteria of fracture,  $\sigma_f$  has a slight dependence on temp. as  $E$  inc. with decreasing the temp

→  $\sigma_y$  on the other hand has a steeper inc. with decreasing temp.



## PROTECTION AGAINST BRITTLE FRACTURE

- Lower value of surface Energy ( $\gamma$ ) implies a lower fracture stress. Increase in fracture stress or surface energy can be done by chemical adsorption of molecule on crack surfaces.
- Removal of Surface crack  $\Rightarrow$  Etching of glass.
- Use fine grain Ceramic ( $< 0.1 \text{ mm}$ ): des. is grain size des. in size of crack.
- Introduce residual compressive stresses:  
Toughened glasses Eg Shot peening is done, surface of molten glass is left in atmosphere

## ROLE OF ENVIRONMENT IN FRACTURE

- ① Stress Corrosion Cracking (SCC)
- ② Hydrogen Embrittlement (HE)

## Stress Corrosion Cracking (SCC)

- In SCC, presence of a chemical species can enhance crack propagation & reduce fracture stress.
- This phenomena may lead to sudden failure of ductile material especially at high temp.
- The chemical agent causing stress corrosion cracking is one which is normally corrosive to the metal/alloy involved.
- Similar to a critical value of the stress intensity factor ( $K_{IC}$ ) in normal fracture mechanics, we can define a critical stress intensity factor in the presence of a corrosive environment. ( $K_{ISCC}$ )
- Several accidents like explosion of boilers, rupture of gas pipes have happened due to this process.

Till here in  
Mid Sep.

## Hydrogen Embrittlement (HE).

- Another related phenomena which can be classified under the broad ambit of SCC is hydrogen embrittlement.
- Hydrogen can be introduced into the material during processing (welding, pickling etc.) or in service (from nuclear reactor, corrosive environment).
- This [H] diffuses into interstitial site of metals and alloys and causes hindrance to dislocation motion of ductile materials.